

Original Article

Recovery and detection of fungal contaminants in some ointments and tablets after opening of the packages in hospitalsSeyed Reza Aghili^{1,2*} Akbar Hossein nejad³ Mohammad Reza Jabbari Amiri³ Mahdi Abastabar^{1,2}

1. Invasive Fungi Research Center, Mazandaran University of Medical Sciences, Sari, Iran
2. Department of Medical Mycology and Parasitology, Faculty of Medicine, Mazandaran University of Medical Sciences Sari, Iran.
3. Student Research Committee, Faculty of Medicine, Mazandaran University of Medical Sciences, Sari, Iran

*Correspondence to: Seyed Reza Aghili
aghili70@yahoo.com

Abstract

Background and purpose: Tablets and ointments are used to prevent, treat, and diagnose diseases in hospitals. Although it seems that these medications are sterile in the path of the building and packaging, their mishandling or wrong application method can cause them to be contaminated. Hence, the preservation of pharmaceutical forms from contamination before and after opening the cover in hospitals is an essential measure to be taken in health care. The objective of the present study was to investigate the challenges in fungal contaminants detection and recovery in some pharmaceuticals that were high intake for patients.

Materials and Methods: This study was conducted in 4 teaching hospitals on 4 types of tablets and 3 types of ointments that were high intake for patients in hospitals before and after opening and usage in Sari, Iran. Fungi were identified by using standard mycology procedures.

Results: The results showed that among the samples of tablets after opening the cover in the delivery room and carrying them in container by trolley, and the samples of ointments after opening and usage, the contamination rates were 70.3% and 94.4-100%, respectively. *Aspergillus* species such as *A. flavus* and *A. fumigatus* were the most mold species and *Rhodotorula spp.* was the most yeast species isolated. However, it was documented that 16.7% of certain pharmaceuticals had fungal contamination ahead of opening.

Conclusion: The results showed the contamination of ointments and tablets used in hospitals after opening the cover. Although the source of contamination was not investigated in the present study, the findings revealed that most of the contaminations could be due to the storage period and mishandling in pharmacies and wrong application methods after opening. Some isolated fungi can also be harmful to patients who have a weakened immune system.

Key words: Pharmaceuticals; Ointment; Tablet; Fungal contamination; Health care; Drug contamination hazard

Citation: Aghili S R, Hossein nejad A, Jabbari Amiri M R, Abastabar M. Risk of Fungal Contamination of Ointments and Tablets after Opening of the Package for Use in Hospitals. *Iran J Health Sci.* 2016; 4 (4):1-13

1. Introduction

Pharmaceutical products such as oral dosage or ointments are used in a variety of ways for prevention, treatment, and diagnosis of diseases in hospitals (1). The manufacturers have improved the quality of these products by sterilizing procedures (2, 3). Although these medications are supposed to be sterile in the process of development and packaging, their mishandling or wrong method of use can cause them to become contaminated (4). It is necessary to know the common sources of microbial contaminants in manufacturing or storing environment and the typical organisms that might arise from each source (5). The environment influences the microbial quality of pharmaceuticals and quality of the raw materials used during formulation (6). All natural organic compounds are at the risk of degradation, and even synthetic compounds could be attacked, though in a less amount (7, 8). It is also useful to know about the rate of contamination and frequency of those organisms in pharmaceutical materials. Some infectious occurrences have been associated with the use of contaminated raw materials of natural origin (9). There are a large number of studies proving the incidence of mycotic contamination of pharmaceutical products, and referring to the fact that contaminants vary in their form of true pathogens and opportunistic pathogens. Despite this research background, few accounts of fungal degradation of pharmaceuticals and cosmetics have been published (10, 11, 12). Several studies have been published describing clinical hazards due to microbiologically contaminated pharmaceuticals (13-17). Contamination of

pharmaceuticals with fungi can change physicochemical characteristics of the medicines and may be harmful or pathogenic (18). Spores of fungi can be found in dust particles in the atmosphere or on floors, work surfaces or equipment. Modern pharmaceutical factories or pharmacies are supplied with filtered air, so the level of particulate contamination in the atmosphere in a room is usually very low (19). Several species of fungi specially *Aspergillus flavus* produce toxic molecules and may render a product dangerous if they grow in it under conditions supporting toxin production (20). Aflatoxins are heat-stable compounds which exhibit potent toxic and carcinogenic properties in human and animals, which could also be produced by some fungi particularly *Aspergillus* species (21). The growth of these fungi occurs under poor storage conditions, and it is observed that toxic doses of aflatoxin accumulate in the contaminated materials (22). In tropical areas, pharmaceutical preparations may be kept under uncontrolled conditions and be dispensed in non-protective packaging or even with no packaging at all, where the average temperature is 31°C and the average relative humidity is 75% (23). In hospital pharmacies, clinics and nursing homes, tablets and capsules are usually stored in large packs. Hence, if pharmaceutical products are contaminated with potential pathogens, they are not obviously fit for use (24). However, in the present study, the main focus was on the type of contamination caused by fungi and the fungal degradation of pharmaceuticals or cosmetics. This emphasis was mainly because the preservation of pharmaceutical forms from contamination before and after opening the

cover in hospital is a necessity in health care about which relatively few accounts have so far been published.

Microbial contamination of medicines arises from three principal sources: 1) raw materials including water, from which the product is manufactured; 2) environment including the atmosphere, equipment and work surfaces; 3) manufacturing, pharmacy, and healthcare personnel or patients.

Raw materials may vary in their extent of microbial contamination if their origins are different (25, 26). Materials with natural origin such as gelatin, starch, talc, kaolin, and bentonite may show a little higher contamination than those for synthesized chemicals. Despite the application of cleaning and purification procedures such as heat, extremes of pH or organic solvents, pharmaceuticals may be contaminated by high levels of microorganisms to be found in the atmosphere, equipment and work surfaces, spores of fungi attached to dust particles, suspended in the atmosphere, or settled onto floors, work surfaces or equipment. Modern pharmaceutical factories or pharmacies are supplied with filtered air, so the level of particulate contamination in the atmosphere in a room is usually very low (27). Operators' skin scales are constantly shedding particles with attached skin fungi; these are typically about 20 μm in size and so cannot be seen with naked eyes. Many factors such as the design and coverage of protective clothing, personal hygiene and, in particular, levels of activity or motion can influence the extent to which skin scales are shed (5, 28). Washing with disinfection solution reduces the number of

microorganisms on the skin, but is by no means totally effective (29). If fungal spores influence the pharmaceutical products, factors such as nutrient availability, temperature, pH, redox potential and the presence and concentration of antimicrobial chemicals can affect the growth and development of fungi.

2. Material and Methods

The study was carried out at four teaching hospitals in Sari, Iran. This research was conducted on four types of tablets and three types of ointments that were high intake for patients in hospitals. For indicating different manufacturers, each sample was given a code. Four high intake tablets included Acetaminophen (N=27), Ranitidine (N=36), Acetylsalicylic acid (ASA) 80 (N=18), and vitamin C (N=12). Three high intake ointments were Zinc oxide (N=18), Tetracycline (N=18), and Betamethasone (N=6). In the present research, for comparing the fungal contamination of tablets and ointments, before and after opening the coverage and transporting from delivery rooms to patients' rooms in unsterile container or procedure, the data were collected from different pharmacies in the city. Identifying the isolated fungi on mycological culture media was also done by using standard mycological procedures.

3. Results

165 samples (60 ointments and 105 tablets) produced by three different manufacturers were purchased from three teaching hospitals and pharmacies of Sari. Table 1 shows the percentage of fungal contamination of different pharmaceuticals products before and after opening the coverage. Among tablets, ASA and

among ointments, Betamethasone had the most fungal contamination before opening the coverage. However, among tablets, Acetaminophen and among ointments, Betamethasone and Tetracycline showed the most fungal contamination after opening the coverage.

Table 1. percentage of fungal contamination of different pharmaceuticals products before and after opening coverage

Type of Pharmaceuticals products		Fungal contamination before opening of coverage	Fungal contamination after opening of coverage
tablet	Acetaminophen	0%	92.6%
	Ranitidine	0%	66.7%
	ASA	16.7%	50.0%
	Vitamin C	8.3%	66.7%
ointment	Zinc oxide	0%	94.4%
	Tetracycline	0%	100%
	Betamethasone	16.7%	100%

In ointments group opened and used to patients in hospitals, among mold fungi, *Aspergillus flavus* (88.1%), *Aspergillus fumigatus* (52.4%) and among yeast, *Rhodotrola spp.* (52.4%) were the most common contaminants. *Candida*, that has ability to cause pathogenic yeast infection, was isolated from 23.8% of ointment

samples used in hospital after opening (Chart 1). 16.7% of Betamethasone ointment (code B) obtained from different pharmacies have shown fungal contamination with *Aspergillus fumigatus* before opening coverage prior to expiration date.

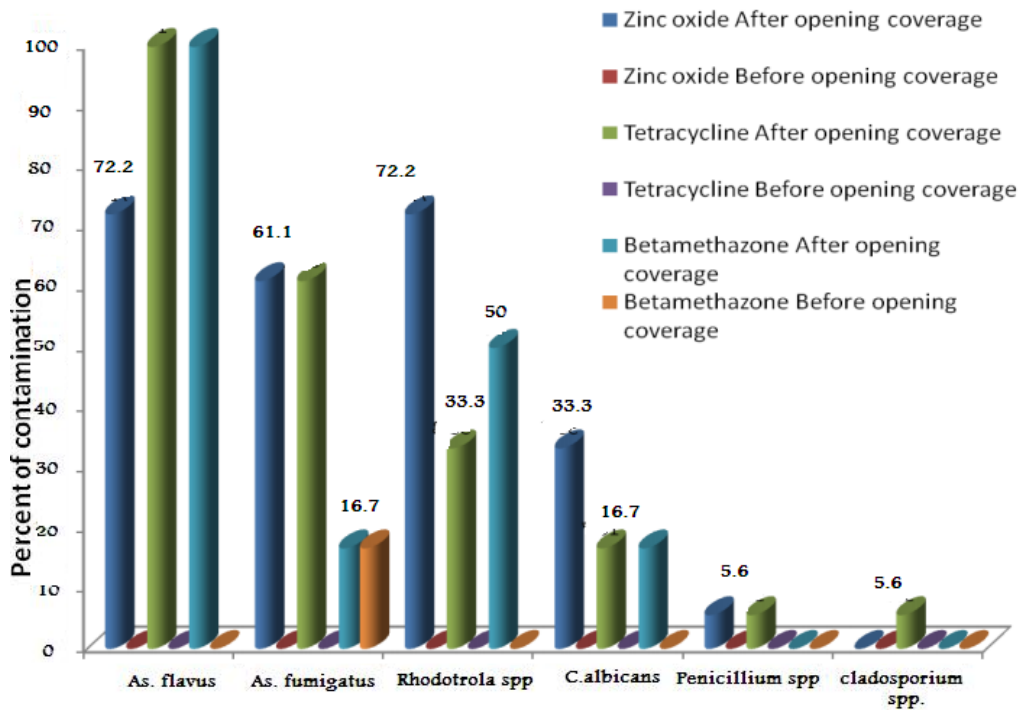


Figure 1. Percentage of contamination to a variety of fungal species in three ointments (before and after opening the coverage)

In tablets group, after opening the coverage and transporting from delivery rooms to patients rooms in unsterile container or procedure in hospitals, among mold fungi, *Aspergillus flavus* (34.4%), *Aspergillus niger* (24.7%) and among yeast, *Rhodotrola spp.* (8.3%) were the most

common contaminants. *Candida albicans* was not isolated from tablet samples that were used in the hospital after opening. *Penicillium spp.* and *Cladosporium spp.* were also isolated from some samples (both ointments and tablets) in less degrees (Table 2).

Table 2. Percentage of contamination to a variety of fungal species in 4 tablets (before and after opening coverage)

Type of tablets	After / Before opening coverage	A. flavus	A. fumigatus	A. niger	Rhodotrola spp.	Candida albicans	Penicillium spp.	Cladosporium spp.
Acetaminophen	after	72.2%	61.1%	7.4%	72.2%	33.3%	5.6%	0%
	before	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Ranitidine	after	100%	61.1%	27.7%	33.3%	16.7%	5.6%	5.6%
	before	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
ASA	after	100%	16.7%	22.2%	50%	16.7%	0	0
	before	0	16.7%	0	0	0	0	0
Vitamin C	after	29.6%	18.5%	41.7%	0	0	25.9%	7.4%
	before	8.3%	8.3%	0	0	0	0	0

4. Discussion

Pharmaceutical contamination is a health hazard to a patient, although the extent of the hazard depends on the types and numbers of organisms present, the route of administration, and the resistance of the patient to infection (25). Invasive fungal infections with high mortality rates can be found in hospital settings, especially in intensive care units where patients may be immune-compromised, due to invasive procedures and treated by antibiotics. Usually the fungi are passed on ointments or tablets from the hands of medical personnel, patients or the general hospital environment, and occasionally pharmaceutical drug products.

The number of fungal species isolated in the study was higher than that reported earlier by other authors (7, 30, 31). This may be due to the application of standard mycological procedure to isolate and distinguish fungal species in the current study. The most common nosocomial fungal infections are due to the

genera *Candida* and *Aspergillus* and other less frequently isolated moulds (32). It was also observed that some of the ointments and tablets were contaminated by *Aspergillus fumigatus* and *Aspergillus flavus* before and after opening the coverage. The presence of some fungi in pharmaceutical products before opening the coverage reflects the equipment and raw material quality, poor hygiene of the personnel during production, and the storage quality of the preparations. Degradation of pharmaceutical products could affect therapeutic properties of the product and may discourage the patient from taking the medication (33, 34). Some fungi can also be harmful by producing metabolites that may be toxic to consumers (21), and some mycotoxines produced by *Aspergillus flavus* and some *Penicillium spp.* cause rapid deterioration of the product (11, 35). An opportunist fungus such as *Aspergillus species* causes a wide range of human diseases depending on the immune

status of the host (36). Among the pathogenic species of *Aspergillus*, *A. fumigatus* is the primary causative agent of human infections, followed by *A. flavus* and *A. niger* (37). Profoundly immunocompromised patients, particularly those with hematological malignancies or who have undergone transplantation, are at the risk of most severe cases of *Aspergillus*-caused infections (38, 39). In the present study, it was also documented that other molds such as *Penicillium spp.* and *Cladosporium spp.* were drug contaminant after opening the coverage of some pharmaceuticals. In Iran, several studies have investigated the presence of fungi in the air and equipment of hospitals (40-45). In these studies, *Cladosporium spp.*, *Aspergillus spp.* and *Penicillium spp.* were identified as the most frequent fungi in the air and equipment of hospital operating rooms and different wards. In the world, *Penicillium spp.* has been isolated from patients with keratitis (46-49), ear infections (50-53), pneumonia (54-56), endocarditis (57, 58), peritonitis (59, 60) and urinary tract infections (61, 62). *Penicillium* infections are most commonly exhibited in immunosuppressed individuals (63, 64), while *Cladosporium spp.* are the causative agents of skin lesions (65, 66), keratitis (67), nail fungus (68), sinusitis (69), asthma (70) and pulmonary infections (71,72) in human. The most common symptoms of exposure to *Cladosporium* are edema and bronchio-spasms, which may lead to pulmonary emphysema (73). *Candida albicans* that can be human borne and *Rhodotorula spp.*, were the frequent yeast contaminants of pharmaceuticals. During the study, these yeasts were isolated from some pharmaceuticals after

opening the coverage, too. Oxidative yeasts in acidic product can also cause a rise in pH level by utilizing organic acids causing bacterial growth. A typical of spoilage by yeast is an alcoholic odor produced from fermentable substrates (7). Some researchers found that *Candida albicans* as the most important nosocomial fungal pathogen can survive up to 4 months on surfaces (74). *Candida albicans* is an opportunistic fungal pathogen found as part of the normal microflora on the human skin and digestive tract. However, if the host defense system is weakened, or host ecological environment is changed, it can cause the transformation of *C. albicans* into a pathogen capable of causing infections that may be fatal (75). Although recent studies revealed that some nosocomial *Candida* infections may act like minor epidemics through the selection of more virulent species (76), it is often the endogenous organisms that are the main sources of infection. However, it should be noted that *C. albicans* is able live in harmony with the host within the resident complex microflora on body surfaces (77).

Rhodotorula spp. is as emerging yeast pathogens in humans in recent years that can be recovered from some environmental sources and may be found in pharmaceutical products (78, 79). Most infection due to *Rhodotorula* in humans is found to be fungemia associated with central venous catheter (CVC) use (80, 81). In addition, *Rhodotorula spp.* have the ability to cause diseases such as meningeal, skin, ocular, peritoneal, and prosthetic joint infections and they are not necessarily linked to the use of CVCs or immunosuppression (82). So, the application of drug contaminated by

Rhodotorula in patients admitted to hospital due to debilitating diseases may result in the emergence of infection. In the current research, it was also found that the rate of fungal contamination in ointments was bigger than tablets after opening the coverage. This may be due to the fact that ointments are fatty base or emulsions of water-in-oil and fungal elements have better growth in these pharmaceutical products (7). On the other hand, fungi require water activity levels at around 0.7 for the growth to occur (83). Dry tablets often have lower water activities which leads to the prevention of proliferation of fungi. However, unlike a preservative, it does not kill the microorganisms which could be found in the tablet. Typically, fungi and fungal spores can survive at extremely low water activity levels (84). Hence, any pharmaceutical ointment, even manufactured in the industrial environment has the potential to be contaminated by fungi. Furthermore, microbial contamination in sterile products before opening will be an unacceptable risk the application of which can cause a harm to a patient. Most reports related to the contamination of pharmaceutical products are concerned with bacterial contamination rather than fungi. This may be due to the fact that there are few trained mycologists in microbiology laboratories in pharmaceutical organizations. In a related work, Adenike Okunlola et al. in 2007 investigated the microbial characteristics of twenty different pharmaceutical products which were produced in southwestern Nigeria (85).

5. Conclusion

The findings of the present study revealed that the contamination risk posed by fungi to pharmaceuticals is greater than when they are opened and transported from delivery rooms to patients' rooms in unsterile container or procedure. In addition to this investigation, further microbial examination of the other creams and ointments will definitely increase the actual setting of microbial safety. Microbiological safety is one of the most vital of pharmaceutical products quality parameters. The results of the current research also showed that microorganisms such as *Aspergillus fumigatus*, *A. flavus*, *A. niger*, *Penicillium spp.*, *Cladosporium spp.*, *Rhodotrola spp.* and *Candida albicans* were contaminant of ointment and tablet products. As these pharmaceutical products should be produced under sterile conditions, appropriate control of many factors involved in the microbiology of the products is necessary. These factors include the quality of raw materials, training of manufacturing personnel, application of standard cleaning and sanitization processes, application of general chemical /physical factors including heat, time temperature, pH, and the use of appropriate barrier packaging. Thus, the current study was highly suggestive of randomized microbiological testing of topical or oral dosage products sold in the delivery rooms of pharmacies and hospitals in order to ensure consumer safety.

Acknowledgments

This research was supported by a grant from the Invasive Fungi Research Center of the Research Council of Mazandaran University of Medical Sciences, Iran, under the registration number 2174. Also, the researchers are indebted to the nurses and patients of the target hospitals for their friendly cooperation.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Authors' contributions

SRA designed, developed the original idea and the protocol, designed training program, re-analyzed statistical data in collaboration, drafted and approved the manuscript. AHN and MRJA participated in the search of databases, sampling, examination and data extract. MA collaborated in re-evaluated the data, read and approving of the final manuscript.

References

- McElhiney LF. Equipment, Supplies, and Facilities Required for Hospital Compounding. *International journal of pharmaceutical compounding*. 2006 Nov 1;10(6):436.
- Adeshina GO, Ajayi S, Onalapo JA. Microbial quality of some commercially available paediatric anti-malarial and cough preparations in Ilorin Nigeria. *Nig. J. Pharm. Sci.* 2009; 8 (1): 109-117.
- Nwakile CD., Osonwa UE., Okechi OC, Oporum CC. Microbial and Physicochemical qualities of selected cotrimoxazole and metronidazole formulations in South Eastern Nigerian. *Journal of Advanced Pharmacy Education and Research*. 2011; 2, 81-89.
- Moldenhauer J, Sutton S. Towards an improved sterility test. *PDA J Pharm Sci Technol*. 2004; 58:284–286.
- Aulton EM. *Pharmaceutics-The design and manufacture of medicines*, 3rd Edition Churchill Livingstone. United Kingdom, 2007; 216-217.
- Akerele JO, Ukoh GC. Aspects of microbial contamination of tablets dispensed in hospitals and community pharmacies in Benin City, Nigeria. *Trop J Pharm Res*, 2002; 1: 23–28. doi: 10.4314/tjpr.v1i1.14595
- Cruz-Morató C, Rodríguez-Rodríguez CE, Marco-Urrea E, Sarrà M, Caminal G, Vicent T, et al. Biodegradation of pharmaceuticals by fungi and metabolites identification. *InEmerging Organic Contaminants in Sludges 2012* (165-213). Springer Berlin Heidelberg.
- Cundell AM. Managing the microbiological quality of pharmaceutical excipients. *PDA J Pharma Sci Technol*. 2005; 59:381-395.
- Noor R, Huda N, Rahman F, Bashar T, Munshi SK. Microbial contamination in herbal medicines available in Bangladesh. *Bang Med Res Coun Bull*. 2013; 39(3):124–129.
- Rodarte-Morales A, Feijoo G, Moreira M, Lema J. Degradation of selected pharmaceutical and personal care products (PPCPs) by white-rot fungi. *World Journal of Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 2011; 27:1839-1846.
- Obuekwe IF, Ogbimi AO, Obuekwe CO. Microbial Contamination of Pharmaceutical Products in a Tropical Environment, *Pakistan Journal of Scientific and Industrial Research*, 2002; 45(5):341–344.
- Vijayakumar R, Sandle T, Manoharan C. A review of fungal contamination in pharmaceutical products and phenotypic identification of contaminants by conventional methods. *European Journal of Parenteral and Pharmaceutical Sciences*. 2012; 17: 4-19.
- Obuekwe CO, Obuekwe IF, Rafiq M. Surface contamination in some common available dosage forms. *Med Princ Pract*. 2000; 9(4):290–299.
- Feldmesser M. Fungal Disease Following Contaminated Steroid Injections: Exserohilum Is Ready for Its Close-Up. *The American Journal of Pathology*. 2013; 183(3):661-664. doi:10.1016/j.ajpath.2013.06.010.
- Smith RM, Tipple M, Chaudry MN, Schaefer MK, Park BJ. Relapse of fungal meningitis associated with contaminated

- methylprednisolone. *N Engl J Med.* 2013; 368: 2535–2536.
16. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, “Multistate Outbreak of Fungal Meningitis and Other Infections.” Available from: <http://www.cdc.gov/HAI/outbreaks/meningitis.html>. Accessed Aug. 18, 2015.
 17. Mikosz CA, Smith RM, Kim M, Tyson C, Lee EH, Adams E, et al. “Fungal Endophthalmitis Associated with Compounded Products. *Emerging Infectious Diseases.* February 2014. 20(2), 248–256.
 18. Harms H, Schlosser D, Wick LY. Untapped potential: exploiting fungi in bioremediation of hazardous chemicals. *Nature Reviews Microbiology.* 2011 Mar 1; 9(3):177-92.
 19. William Whyte. *cleanroom Technology – Fundamentals of Design, Testing and Operation*, John Wiley and Sons . 2001, ISBN 0-471-86842.
 20. Sewram V, Shephard GS, van der Merwe L, Jacobs TV. Mycotoxin contamination of dietary and medicinal wild plants in the Eastern Cape Province of South Africa. *Journal of agricultural and food chemistry.* 2006 Jul 26;54(15):5688-93.
 21. Bugno A, Almodovar AAB, Pereira TC. Occurrence of toxigenic fungi in herbal drugs. *Brazilian Journal of Microbiology.* 2006; 37 (1): 1-7.
 22. European Food Safety Authority (EFSA). Scientific opinion on the risks for public health related to the presence of zearalenone in food. *EFSA J.* 2011a; 9, 2197.
 23. Muteru SM. Microbial Quality Of Non-Sterile Pharmaceutical Products Dispensed In Selected Health Centres And Community Pharmacies In Kibera, Nairobi (Doctoral dissertation, University of Nairobi).
 24. Denyer SP, Baird RM, editors. *Guide to microbiological control in pharmaceuticals and medical devices.* CRC Press; 2006 Dec 26.
 25. Denyer SP, Hodges NA, Gorman SP. *Hugo & Russell's Pharmaceutical Microbiology.* 5th Ed. Blackwell Publishing. Bacterial resistance to antibiotics and Clinical uses of antimicrobial drugs. 2004; Chapt. 13–14; 220–250.
 26. Bhatia A. A Basic Design Guide for Clean Room Applications. 2012, 1-58. Available from: <http://www.pdionline.com/courses/m143/m143.htm>
 27. Boyce JM, Pittet D. Guideline for Hand Hygiene in Health-Care Settings, Recommendations of the Healthcare Infection Control Practices Advisory Committee and the HICPAC/SHEA/APIC/IDSA/ Hand Hygiene Task Force, *CDC MMWR,* 2002; 25(51): 1-45.
 28. Kampf G, Kramer A. Epidemiologic background of hand hygiene and evaluation of the most important agents for scrubs and rubs. *Clin Microbiol Rev.* 2004; 17(4):863-93.
 29. Gad GFM, Aly RAI, Ashour MSE. Microbial evaluation of some non-sterile pharmaceutical preparations commonly used in the Egyptian market. *Trop. J. Pharm. Res.* 2011; 10 (4): 437-445.
 30. Hossain M, Ara S, Rahman MZ. Quantitative examination of aerobic bacteria and fungi in locally available antacid suspension and possible contamination by specified bacteria. *Pak. J. Bio.Sci.* 2004; 7(11):2014-2017.
 31. Cundell T. Mould contamination in pharmaceutical drug products and medical devices. *European Pharmaceutical Review.* 2013; 6(18):67-75.
 32. Sandle T. Fungal contamination of pharmaceutical products: the growing menace, *European Pharmaceutical Review.* 2014; 19 (1): 68-71.
 33. Mugoyela V., Mwambete KD. Microbial contamination of nonsterile pharmaceuticals in public hospital settings. *Ther. Clin. Risk Manage.* 2010; 6:443–448.
 34. Tamalli M, Gamal MAB, Sangar B, Alghazal MA. Microbial evaluation of some non-sterile pharmaceutical preparations commonly used at Alkhoms Market, Libya. *African J. Microbiol.* 2013; 1 (4): 051-056.
 35. Dagenais TRT, Keller NP. Pathogenesis of *Aspergillus fumigatus* in invasive aspergillosis *Clin. Microbiol. Rev.* 2009; 22:447–465.
 36. Hedayati MT, Pasqualotto C, Warn P, Bowyer P, Denning DW. *Aspergillus flavus*: human pathogen, allergen and mycotoxin producer *Microbiology,* 2007; 153:1677–16924.

37. Nabili M, Shokohi T, Janbabaie G, Hashemi-Soteh MB, Ali-Moghaddam K, Aghili SR. Detection of invasive aspergillosis in bone marrow transplant recipients using real-time PCR. *J. Glob. Infect. Dis.* 2013; 5:68–75.
38. Hossein Nejad A, Abastabar M, Hedayati MT, Aghili SR, Taghizadeh Armaki M, Jabbari Amiri MR. History of treated pulmonary tuberculosis will also be an underlying symptom of opportunistic aspergillosis by *Aspergillus flavus*: A case report, *Int J Mycobacteriol.* 2015; 4(1):163.
39. Sepahvand A, Shams-Ghahfarokhi M, Allameh A, Razzaghi-Abyaneh M. Diversity and Distribution Patterns of Airborne Microfungi in Indoor and Outdoor Hospital Environments in Khorramabad, Southwest Iran. *Jundishapur J Microbiol.* 2013; 6(2):186-192. DOI: 10.5812/jjm.5074.
40. Hedayati M, Mayahi S, Movahedi M, Shokohi T. Study on fungal flora of tap water as a potential reservoir of fungi in hospitals in Sari city, Iran. *J Med Mycol.* 2011; 21(1):10-4.
41. Pakshir K, Shekarkhar G, Mostagnie S, Sabayan B, Vaghefikia A. Monitoring of airborne fungi in two general hospitals in Shiraz, Southern Iran. *Iran J Med Sci.* 2007; 32(4):240-4.
42. Godini H, Azimi F, Kamarehie B, Mohammadin P, Mansoury N, Norozian H, Ghobadian H. Bio-aerosols concentrations in different wards of Khorramabad Hospital, Iran, 2013. *Int J Env Health Eng* 2015;4: 23.
43. Mahdavi Omran S, Sheidfar M. A survey of the mycological flour contamination in Babol hospitals. *Med J Tabriz Univ Med Sci* 2000; 48:45-52.
44. Hoseinzadeh E, Samarghandie MR, Ghiasian SA, Alikhani MY, Roshanaie G. Evaluation of bioaerosols in five educational hospitals wards air in hamedan, during 2011-2012. *Jundishapur Journal of Microbiology.* 2013 August; 6(6): e10704, DOI: 10.5812/jjm.10704
45. Fata S, Derakhshan A, Bolourian AA, Sedaghat MR, Khakhshour H, Afzalaghee M, Meshkat M, Najafzadeh M, Fata A. Mycotic Keratitis, A Study on Etiologic Agents, Predisposing Factors and the Result of Treatment among 44 Patients. *Medical Journal of Mashad University of Medical Sciences.* Spring 2010; 53 (1):16-18.
46. Arora R, Gupta S, Raina UK, Mehta DK, Taneja M. *Penicillium Keratitis* in Vernal Keratoconjunctivitis. *Indian J Ophthalmol.* 2002; 50:215–6.
47. Nath R, Baruah S, Saikia L, Devi B, Borthakur AK, Mahanta J. Mycotic corneal ulcer in upper Assam. *Indian J Ophthalmol.* 2011; 59:367–71.
48. Sanjeev H, Karnaker Vimal K, Pai V, Pai Asha KB, Rai R, Krishnaprasad MS. Fungal Profile of infectious keratitis in a tertiary care hospital - our experience. *The Nitte University Journal of Health Science (NUJHS).* 2012; 2(2):10-14
49. Kiakojuri K, Rajabnia R, Jalili B, Khafri S, Omran SM. Otomycosis in Adolescent Patients Referred to the Therapeutic Centers in Babol City, Iran. *Jundishapur Journal of Microbiology.* 2015; 8(5):e17138. doi:10.5812/jjm.8(5)2015.17138.
50. Degerli K, Ecemis T, Gunhan K, Baskesen T, Kal E. Agents of otomycosis in Manisa region, Turkey, 1995-2011. *Mikrobiyol Bul.* 2012; 46(1):79–84.
51. Saki N, Rafiei A, Nikakhlagh S, Amirrajab N, Saki S. Prevalence of otomycosis in Khouzestan Province, south-west Iran. *J Laryngol Otol.* 2013;127(1):25–7. doi: 10.1017/S0022215112002277.
52. Nemati S, Hassanzadeh R, Jahromi SK, Abadi ADN. Otomycosis in the north of Iran: common pathogens and resistance to antifungal agents. *Eur Arch Otorhinolaryngol Suppl.* 2014; 271(5):953–7.
53. Aneja KR, Sharma C, Joshi R. Fungal infection of the ear: a common problem in the north eastern part of Haryana. *International journal of pediatric otorhinolaryngology.* 2010 Jun 30;74(6):604-7.
54. Oshikata C, Tsurikisawa N, Saito A, Watanabe M, Kamata Y, Tanaka M, Tsuburai T, Mitomi H, Takatori K, Yasueda H, Akiyama K. Fatal pneumonia caused by *Penicillium digitatum*: a case report. *BMC pulmonary medicine.* 2013 Mar 23; 13(1):1.
55. Wong SY, Wong KF. “*Penicillium marneffe*i Infection in AIDS,” *Pathology Research*

- International. 2011, Article ID 764293. doi:10.4061/2011/764293.
56. Millar B, Moore J, Mallon P, Xu J, Crowe M, McClurg R, Raoult D, Earle J, Hone R, Murphy P. Molecular Diagnosis of Infective Endocarditis? A New Duke's Criterion. *Scandinavian journal of infectious diseases*. 2001 Jan 1;33(9):673-80.
 57. Schinabeck MK, Ghannoum MA. Human hyalohyphomycoses: a review of human infections due to *Acremonium* spp., *Paecilomyces* spp., *Penicillium* spp., and *Scopulariopsis* spp. *Journal of chemotherapy*. 2013 Dec 13.
 58. Chang HR, Shu KH, Cheng CH, Wu MJ, Chen CH, Lian JD. Peritoneal-dialysis-associated penicillium peritonitis. *Am. J. Nephrol*. 2000; 20:250-252.
 59. Keceli S, Yegenaga I, Dagdelen N, Mutlu B, Uckardes H, Willke A. Case report: peritonitis by *Penicillium* spp. in a patient undergoing continuous ambulatory peritoneal dialysis. *Int. Urol. Nephrol*. 2005; 37:129-131.
 60. Mahmoudabadi AZ, Shahbazyan H, Zahiry M. Isolation of fungi from urine and dialysis filter in patients on hemodialysis in dialysis centers of Ahvaz, Iran. *IJKD*. 2009 Jul 1; 3:174-9.
 61. Desakorn V, Simpson AJ, Wuthiekanun V, Sahassananda D, Rajanuwong A, Pitisuttithum P, Howe PA, Smith MD, White NJ. Development and evaluation of rapid urinary antigen detection tests for diagnosis of penicilliosis marneffeii. *Journal of clinical microbiology*. 2002 Sep 1;40(9):3179-83.
 62. Chaiwun B, Khunamornpong S, Sirivanichai C, Rangdaeng S, Supparatpinyo K, Settakorn J, Ya-in C, Thorner P. Lymphadenopathy due to *Penicillium marneffeii* infection: diagnosis by fine needle aspiration cytology. *Mod Pathol*; 2002; Sep;15(9):939-43.
 63. Hirsch HH, Kaufmann G, Sendi P, Battegay M: Immune reconstitution in HIV-infected patients. *Clin Infect Dis* 2004, 38:1159-1166.
 64. Gugnani HC, Ramesh V, Sood N, et al. Cutaneous phaeohyphomycosis caused by *Cladosporium oxysporum* and its treatment with potassium iodide. *Medical Mycology*, 2006; 44:285–288.
 65. Yano S, Koyabashi., Kato K. Intrabronchial lesion due to *Cladosporium sphaerospermum* in a healthy, non-asthmatic woman *Mycoses*, 2003; 46:348–350.
 66. Cheng SCH, Lin YY, Kuo CN, Lai L J. *Cladosporium* keratitis – a case report and literature review. *BMC Ophthalmology*. 2015; 15:106. Doi : 10.1186/s12886-015-0092-1.
 67. Ranawaka RR, Silva N, Ragunathan RW. Non-dermatophyte mold onychomycosis in Sri Lanka. *Dermatol Online J*, 2012; 18(1):710–712.
 68. Oxford LE, McClay J. Complications of acute sinusitis in children. *Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg*. 2005; 133(1):32-37.
 69. Chou H, Tam MF, Lee LH, Chiang CH, Tai HY, Panzani RC, Shen HD. Vacuolar serine protease is a major allergen of *Cladosporium cladosporioides*. *International archives of allergy and immunology*. 2008 Mar 21; 146(4):277-86.
 70. Friedlander S L, Jackson DJ, Gangnon RE, Evans MD, Li Z, Roberg KA, Lemanske Jr R F. Viral infections, cytokine dysregulation and the origins of childhood asthma and allergic diseases. *The Pediatric infectious disease journal*, 2005; 24(11):170-176.
 71. Stark PC, Burge HA, Ryan LM, Milton DK, Gold DR. Fungal levels in the home and lower respiratory tract illnesses in the first year of life. *American journal of respiratory and critical care medicine*. 2003 Jul 15;168(2):232-7.
 72. Sood N, Makkar R. Case report. Subcutaneous phaeohyphomycosis due to *Cladosporium cladosporioides*. *Mycoses*. 2000 Mar 1;43(1-2):85-7.
 73. Sandoval-Denis M, Sutton D A, Martin-Vicente A, Cano-Lira JF, Wiederhold N, Guarro J, Gené J. *Cladosporium* species recovered from clinical samples in the United States. *Journal of clinical microbiology*, 2015; 53(9):2990-3000.
 74. Kramer A, Schwebke I, Kampf G. How long do nosocomial pathogens persist on inanimate surfaces? A systematic review. *BMC Infectious Diseases*. 2006; 6:130. Doi: 10.1186/1471-2334-6-130.
 75. Ohta H, Tanimoto T, Taniai M, Taniguchi M, Ariyasu T, Arai S, Ohta T, Fukuda S..

- Regulation of *Candida albicans* morphogenesis by tumor necrosis factor-alpha and potential for treatment of oral candidiasis. *In Vivo*. 2007; 21:25-32.
76. Jenkinson HF, Douglas LJ. Interactions between *Candida* Species and Bacteria in Mixed Infections. In: Brogden KA, Guthmiller JM, editors. *Polymicrobial Diseases*. Washington (DC): ASM Press; 2002. Chapter 18.
 77. Gupta G, Srivastava AK, Gupta N, Gupta G, Mishra S. Anti-candidal activity of homoeopathic drugs: An in-vitro evaluation. *Indian J Res Homoeopathy*. 2015; Nov 16(9): 79-85. Available from: <http://www.ijrh.org/text.asp?2015/9/2/79/159522>.
 78. Wirth F, Goldani LZ. Epidemiology of *Rhodotorula*: an emerging pathogen. *Interdiscip Perspect Infect Dis*. 2012; article no.465717.
 79. Zaas AK, Boyce M, Schell W, Lodge BA, Miller JL, Perfect JR. Risk of Fungemia Due to *Rhodotorula* and Antifungal Susceptibility Testing of *Rhodotorula* Isolates. *Journal of Clinical Microbiology*, 2014; 41:5233-5235.
 80. De Almeida GM, Costa SF, Melhem M, Motta AL, Szesz MW, Miyashita F, Pierrotti LC, Rossi F, Burattini MN. *Rhodotorula* spp. isolated from blood cultures: clinical and microbiological aspects. *Med Mycol*. 2008; 46:547-56
 81. Lunardi LW, Aquino VR, Zimmerman RA, Goldani LZ. Epidemiology and outcome of *Rhodotorula* fungemia in a tertiary care hospital. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2006; 43:e60-3.
 82. Miceli MH, Díaz JA, Lee SA. Emerging opportunistic yeast infections. *The Lancet infectious diseases*, 2011; 11(2):142-151.
 83. Delgado JM, de Lima AB, editors. *Transport Phenomena and Drying of Solids and Particulate Materials*. Springer; 2014 Jun 20.
 84. Kamil OH, Lupuliasa DU. Modern aspects regarding the microbial spoilage of pharmaceutical products. *Farmacia*. 2011 Mar 1;59(2):133-46.
 85. Okunlola A, Adewoyin BA, Odeku OA. Evaluation of pharmaceutical and microbial qualities of some herbal medicinal products in south western Nigeria. *Tropical Journal of Pharmaceutical Research*. 2007 Mar 1;6(1):661-70.