

Candida dubliniensis: An Appraisal of Its Clinical Significance as a Bloodstream Pathogen

Ziauddin Khan*, Suhail Ahmad, Leena Joseph, Rachel Chandy

Department of Microbiology, Faculty of Medicine, Kuwait University, Safat, Kuwait

Abstract

A nine-year prospective study (2002–2010) on the prevalence of *Candida dubliniensis* among *Candida* bloodstream isolates is presented. The germ tube positive isolates were provisionally identified as *C. dubliniensis* by presence of fringed and rough colonies on sunflower seed agar. Subsequently, their identity was confirmed by Vitek2 Yeast identification system and/or by amplification and sequencing of the ITS region of rDNA. In all, 368 isolates were identified as *C. dubliniensis*; 67.1% came from respiratory specimens, 11.7% from oral swabs, 9.2% from urine, 3.8% from blood, 2.7% from vaginal swabs and 5.4% from other sources. All *C. dubliniensis* isolates tested by Etest were susceptible to voriconazole and amphotericin B. Resistance to fluconazole (\geq 8 µg/ml) was observed in 2.5% of *C. dubliniensis* isolates, 7 of which occurred between 2008–2010. Of note was the diagnosis of *C. dubliniensis* candidemia in 14 patients, 11 of them occurring between 2008–2010. None of the bloodstream isolate was resistant to fluconazole, while a solitary isolate showed increased MIC to 5-flucytosine (\geq 32 µg/ml) and belonged to genotype 4. A review of literature since 1999 revealed 28 additional cases of *C. dubliniensis* candidemia, and 167 isolates identified from blood cultures since 1982. In conclusion, this study highlights a greater role of *C. dubliniensis* in bloodstream infections than hitherto recognized.

Citation: Khan Z, Ahmad S, Joseph L, Chandy R (2012) Candida dubliniensis: An Appraisal of Its Clinical Significance as a Bloodstream Pathogen. PLoS ONE 7(3): e32952. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0032952

Editor: Scott G. Filler, David Geffen School of Medicine at University of California Los Angeles, United States of America

Received January 3, 2012; Accepted February 6, 2012; Published March 2, 2012

Copyright: © 2012 Khan et al. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

Funding: Financial support received from KURA (Kuwait University Research Administration), grant no. Ml01/08, is gratefully acknowledged. The funder had no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

1

Competing Interests: The authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

* E-mail: zkhan@hsc.edu.kw

Introduction

Candida dubliniensis was first described in 1995 from oral cavities of human immunodeficiency virus (HIV)-infected individuals [1]. The species forms only a minor component of normal microbiota but has a worldwide distribution [2]. Despite its close relationship with C. albicans, which is the predominant pathogenic species, the etiopathologic role of C. dubliniensis has mostly been restricted to oral candidiasis. In recent years, however, C. dubliniensis has increasingly been reported from patients with candidemia [3–11]. Although the species is significantly less virulent and genetically more clonal than C. albicans [12–14], the reasons for its expanding role in invasive disease remain largely unknown. Here, we report the prevalence of C. dubliniensis in various clinical specimens over a nine-year period and discuss its role in nosocomial candidemia.

Materials and Methods

C. dubliniensis isolates and their identification

The study was carried out at Mycology Reference Laboratory (MRL) (Department of Microbiology, Faculty of Medicine, Kuwait University) and included all *Candida* spp. isolates obtained between 2002–2010. *Candida* spp. isolates either received from 15 different hospitals within Kuwait for identification and antifungal susceptibility testing or recovered from various clinical specimens at MRL were prospectively tested for germ tube formation. All germ tube positive isolates were streaked on sunflower seed agar [15] and incubated for 48 h at 30°C for formation of fringed and

rough colonies and chlamydospore production. Subsequently, their identity was also confirmed by Vitek2 Yeast identification system and/or by amplification and sequencing of the ITS region of rDNA [16,17]. The study was approved by the Ethical Committee of Health Sciences Center and Ministry of Health.

Molecular identification, genotype determination and detection of 5-flucytosine resistance

The genotypes of C. dubliniensis isolates based on internal transcribed spacer (ITS) region of rDNA were determined by PCR amplification with genotype-specific primers and DNA sequencing as described previously [18,19]. PCR products (10 µl) were resolved by electrophoresis in 2% (wt/vol) agarose gels and presence of a single amplicon of expected size indicated the specific genotype. The results were extended by direct DNA sequencing of the ITS region (containing ITS-1, 5.8S rRNA and ITS-2) of rDNA. The amplicons obtained with ITS1 and ITS4 panfungal primers were purified and both strands were sequenced using BigDye terminator v3.1 cycle sequencing kit and ABI 3130xl GeneticAnalyzer (Applied Biosystems Inc.). The ITS1FS, ITS2, ITS3 and ITS4RS were used as sequencing primers [19,20]. Specific genotypes were assigned based on maximum identity in BLAST searches [21]. The detection of 5-flucytosine resistanceconferring mutations in CdFCA1 gene codon 29 was carried out by PCR amplification using FCA1F and FCA1R primers, the amplicons were purified and subjected to restriction digestion with Mbo I to generate RFLP patterns or sequenced as described previously [18,22]. Pair-wise comparisons with sequences of 5-FC-

susceptible and 5-FC-resistant C. dubliniensis isolates were performed using ClustalW.

Susceptibility testing by E-test

Antifungal susceptibility by E-test was performed on RPMI 1640 agar medium supplemented with 2% glucose with pH adjusted to 7.0 with 0.165 M MOPS buffer as described previously [17]. Etest strips for fluconazole, amphotericin B, and 5- fluorocytosine were obtained from AB BIODISK (Solna, Sweden). The test was performed according to manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, 140 mm diameter petri plates were poured with 60 ml RPMI medium containing 1.5% agar and allowed to solidify. The agar surface was uniformly inoculated by nontoxic cotton swab dipped in yeast cell suspension of the test isolates after adjusting their turbidity to 0.5 McFarland standard. The plates for minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) were read after 24 h of incubation at 35°C. The MICs were determined at the lowest drug concentrations at which the border of the elliptical inhibition zone intersected the strip scale. Reference strains of C. krusei (ATCC 6258), C. parapsilosis (ATCC22019) and C. albicans (ATCC90028) were used for quality control. The resistance to fluconazole (≥8 µg/ml) was determined by applying revised CLSI/EUCAST breakpoints [21].

Statistical analysis

Mann-Whitney test was applied to determine significance of differences observed in mean MIC values of fluconazole during the three sub-periods of the study (2002 to 2004, 2005 to 2007, and 2008 to 2010). SPSS version 17.0 was used for statistical analysis and a P value of < 0.05 was considered as significant.

Results

During the 9-year study period (2002–2010), 368 isolates of C. dubliniensis were prospectively identified. These included 54 (14.7%) isolates during 2002-2004, 150 (40.7) isolates during 2005–2007, and 164 (44.6%) isolates during 2008–2010. Of these, 247 (67.1%) came from respiratory (sputum and endotracheal secretions) specimens, 43 (11.7%) from oral swabs, 34 (9.2%) from urine, 14 (3.8%) from blood, 10 (2.7%) from vaginal swabs and 20 (5.4%) from other specimens. Of the 121 isolates (including all bloodstream isolates) genotyped, 82 belonged to genotype 1 and 38 isolates belonged to genotype 4. The remaining isolates belonged to genotypes 5-9 [18]. All 38 isolates belonging to genotype 4 were resistant to 5-flucytosine and contained S29L mutation at codon 29 of CdFCA1 gene [18,22]. Of note was the enhanced frequency of isolation of C. dubliniensis from 14 blood specimens obtained from 14 patients. Of the total of 1154 Candida spp. blood culture isolates received, the distribution of C. dubliniensis during the three sub-periods of the study was as follows: one of 244 (0.4%) between 2002–2004, two of 356 (0.6%) between 2005-2007, and 11 of 554 (2%) between 2008-2010 (Table 1). All C. dubliniensis candidemia patients were diagnosed at different time points during the indicated periods.

The particulars of 11 patients yielding C. dubliniensis in blood cultures whose records were available for review are presented in Table 2. All patients were immunocompromised and had one or more risk factors. Three of them occurred in males. Their age ranged from 4-85 years. Four of the patients were treated with fluconazole, two each with voriconazole and amphotericin B (lipid formulation) and one with caspofungin. All blood culture isolates were susceptible to fluconazole, amphotericin B and caspofungin. A solitary blood culture isolate was resistant to 5-flucytosine and belonged to genotype 4. Four of the patients (Cases 1, 7, 10 and

Table 1. Occurrence of C. dubliniensis among bloodstream isolates of Candida spp.

Year	Total bloodstream Candida spp. isolates	No. (%) of C. dubliniensis isolates
2002–2004	244	1 (0.4)
2005–2007	356	2 (0.6)
2008–2010	554	11 (2.0)
Total	1154	14 (1.2)

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0032952.t001

11) died, two of them before the blood cultures became positive, hence no antifungal therapy was administered. C. dubliniensis was the only pathogen isolated from blood culture of two of these four patients.

The data on MIC50, MIC90, MIC range and geometric mean of MICs of C. dubliniensis isolates are presented in Table 3. All C. dubliniensis isolates that were available for testing were susceptible to amphotericin B and voriconazole. Eight (2.5%) isolates were resistant to fluconazole with MICs ranging between ≥8 µg/ml to 32 µg/ml [23]. There was marginal increase in geometric mean of MIC values of fluconazole during the three sub-periods of the study: 2002-2004 (n = 54), $0.224 \mu g/ml$; 2005-2007 (n = 131), $0.307 \mu g/ml$; and 2008-2010 (n = 135), $0.338 \mu g/ml$. These differences in mean MICs were not significant (p = 0.219). As many as 60 isolates (10 of 54 during 2002-2004, 29 out of 109 in 2005-2007 and 21 out of 86 in 2008-2010) were resistant to 5flucytosine and all 38 that were sequenced belonged to genotype 4

Discussion

The true prevalence of C. dubliniensis fungemia largely remains unknown because of the difficulty in readily distinguishing this species from the morphologically similar species, C. albicans. This study is noteworthy as it prospectively identified all germ tube positive Candida bloodstream isolates for the presence of C. dubliniensis. We observed that prevalence of C. dubliniensis among bloodstream isolates increased from 0.4% between 2002-2004 to 2% between 2008-2010 (Table 1). The reasons for increased occurrence of candidemia cases due to C. dubliniensis are unclear. Bloodstream C. dubliniensis isolates formed 3.8% (14 of 368) of the total isolates of this species recovered from all clinical specimens. In a previous study from Saudi Arabia, the overall prevalence of C. dubliniensis was 3.3% among 823 yeast isolates recovered from different clinical specimens [24]. Two (16.7%) of their bloodstream isolates were re-identified as C. dubliniensis. Several retrospective and prospective studies published during 2002-2011 have reported on the prevalence of C. dubliniensis among bloodstream Candida spp. isolates (Table S1) [6,10,24-42]. Generally, the prevalence of C. dubliniensis varied between 0.5% to 7.0% with the exception of two studies involving small number of isolates [24,31], where it was 16.7% and 10.0%, respectively. In these two studies, only germ tube positive bloodstream isolates were included. In a recent fungemia surveillance study from Denmark, Arendrup et al. [41] reported a prevalence of 1.2% to 3.1% over a six-year period and 74 (2.6%) of C. dubliniensis isolates came from blood cultures.

Since the first description of C. dubliniensis from oral cavities of HIV-positive patients from Ireland [1,43], subsequent epidemiological studies have revealed that this species is prevalent globally

Table 2. Salient findings of the cases of candidemia caused by Candida dubliniensis and antifungal susceptibility profile of the isolate.

Case N	Age, Case No. Sex	Underlying condition	Risk factor	Antifungal Therapy	Outcome	Antifun AP FL F	Antifungal susceptibility AP FL FC VO POS CS	ptibility 5 CS			
-	80, M	Rectal cancer	Diabetes mellitus, Renal insufficiency, CVC, Broad spectrum antibiotics, Ventilated	Voriconazole, 200 mg I/V, 4 days	Died	0.125	0.25 0.	0.023 (0.19	0.016	0.003
7	78, F	Acute pancreatitis, Diabetes mellitus, Pleural effusion	CVC, TPN	Fluconazole, 400 mg I/V, 7days	Cured	0.023	0.38 0.	0.006	0.012	0.012	0.023
m	4, F	Mucopolysacharidosis Type1	CVC, Broad-spectrum antibiotics	AmBisome, 11days	Improved, Discharged on oral fluconazole	0.032	0.19 0.	0.023 (0.023	0.008	0.047
4	6, F	Acute lymphoblastic leukemia	Mouth ulcers, Orthosis	Voriconazole, 50 mg, 64 days	Cured	0.002	0.38 0.	0.008	0.016	0.012	0.047
2	49, F	Acute pancreatitis, Partial portal Broad spectrum antibiotics, vein thrombosis Complicated appendictis	Broad spectrum antibiotics, Complicated appendicitis	Fluconazole, 200 mg/d, 14 days	Cured	0.032	0.19 0.	0.023	0.023	0.016	0.064
9	85, M	Diabetic ketoacidosis, Dysuria	Femoral dialysis, Broad spectrum antibiotics, Recurrent UTI, Klebsiella pneumonia in blood culture	Fluconazole, 400 mg/d, 14 days	Cured	0.004	0.125	>32 (0.004	0.008	0.003
7	64, F	Asthma, Impaired kidney functionHydrocortisone, broad-spectrum antibiotics, Acinetobacterbauman septicemia, Femoral dialysis	nHydrocortisone, broad-spectrum antibiotics, Acinetobacterbaumannii septicemia, Femoral dialysis	No antifungal	Died before blood culture became positive	0.032	0.5 0.	0.25 0	0.047	0.008	0.008
∞	13, F	Nemaline rod myopathy	Recurrent chest infection (Hemophilusinfluenzae), progressive bilateral bronchiectasis, Chronic sinusitis, Ventilated	Fluconazole, 400 mg/d, 14 days	Cured	0.016	0.25 0.	0.016	0.016	0.012 (0.047
6	41, M	Intestinal obstruction, Resection Ilial perforation, Peritonitis of ileal loop, caecum, jejunostomy	Ilial perforation, Peritonitis /	Caspofungin, 10days	Cured	0.012	0.19 0.	0.004	0.094	0.008	0.003
10	62,F	Lung cancer with metastasis, Pleural effusion	Diabetes mellitus, Broad-spectrum antibiotics, Bacteremia due to Staphylococcus haemolyticus	Lipid formulation of amphotericin (ABELCET) 350 mg/d	Died	0.016	0.125 0.	0.047	0.064	0.008	0.047
11	58,F	Myocardial infarction	Diabetes mellitus, CVC	No antifungal therapy.Culture became Died positive after death	Died	0.004	0.25 1.	1.5 (0.094 (0.012	0.047

Note: Particulars of three blood culture positive patients were not complete, hence not included in the Table. Abbreviations: CVC, central venous catheter, TPN, total parenteral nutrition; UTI, urinary tract infection. I doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0032952.t002

Table 3. Antifungal susceptibility profile of *Candida* dubliniensis isolates.

Duration/Antifungals	(n ^a)	MIC 50	MIC 90	Range	GM
2002–2004					
Amphotericin B	54	0.023	0.094	0.002-0.5	0.023
Fluconazole	54	0.25	0.75	0.047-1	0.244
Flucytosine*	54	0.012	≥32	0.003- ≥32	0.045
Voriconazole	54	0.006	0.016	0.002-0.023	0.007
2005-2007					
Amphotericin B	126	0.012	0.064	0.002-0.75	0.013
Fluconazole	131	0.25	1	0.047-8 (1)	0.307
Flucytosine*	109	0.023	≥32	0.004- ≥32	0.134
Voriconazole	108	0.012	0.047	0.004- 0.25	0.014
2008–2010					
Amphotericin B	138	0.012	0.064	0.002-0.75	0.014
Fluconazole	135	0.25	4	0.125-32 (7)	0.338
Flucytosine*	86	0.032	≥32	0.004- ≥32	0.146
Voriconazole	133	0.016	0.125	0.004-0.25	0.020

*Geometric mean for flucytosine resistant isolates was calculated at 32 μg/ml. The numbers of the resistant isolates for the three periods were 10, 29, and 21. respectively. Numbers in parentheses indicate isolates with MIC \geq 8 μ g/ml [23]. aNumber of isolates tested.

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0032952.t003

in association with human [2] and non-human habitats with a possibility of inter-host transmission [44,45]. The species has now been reported from other body sites/specimens, such as vagina, urine, skin, and feces/gastrointestinal tract of both HIV-positive and HIV-negative patients [2,16,17,46,47]. There are now increasing reports that C. dubliniensis has the potential to cause invasive disease in different groups of immunocompromised patients [2], possibly originating from host's own flora. Although C. dubliniensis is closely related to C. albicans, it is responsible for far fewer infections in humans. It is rare that patients colonized with this species develop candidemia [2]. The reasons for this limited ability of C. dubliniensis to cause invasive disease has been the focus of recent studies [48-50]. It has been shown that C. dubliniensis genome lacks important hypha-related virulence genes (e.g., ALS3 and HYR1) and it also has limited ability to undergo yeast-tohyphal transformation [49,50], which in turn may affect its potential to invade deeper tissue.

A review of literature since 1999 revealed 32 cases of bloodstream infection due to C. dubliniensis [3,4,6-9,25,42,51-59]. They originated from different geographic regions (Europe-8, North America-17, Argentina-4, Australia-2, Singapore-1). All of them had underlying conditions or risk factors including six with HIV infection. Their ages ranged between 1–68 years. Of 28 patients for whom detailed particulars were available (Table S2), 15 were males. Six of these cases occurred in pediatric age group and 14 of 28 (50%) patients died. In three of them, no antifungal agent was administered. One patient died due to rhabdomyosarcoma despite receiving treatment with fluconazole. It is noteworthy that first of the three cases of C. dubliniensis fungemia were reported from Europe in non-HIV-infected patients with bone marrow transplantation and chemotherapy-induced neutropenia [8]. This was followed by a report of four additional cases from the United States including one who was infected with HIV [3]. This was believed to be the first case of C. dubliniensis candidemia in HIV-infected patient. Subsequently, 21 additional cases of C. dubliniensis fungemia were reported from many other countries (Table S2). However, the isolation of nearly 200 strains of C. dubliniensis from blood indicates that 28 described cases of candidemia represent only a fraction of total candidemia cases caused by this species. Furthermore, since blood culture positivity from candidemia patients seldom exceeds 50%, C. dubliniensis may be responsible for far greater number of candidemia cases than hitherto recognized.

All our C. dubliniensis isolates were susceptible to voriconazole and amphotericin B. However, 2.5% (8 out of 320) of the isolates were considered resistant (MICs≥8 µg/ml) according to harmonized CLSI and EUCAST susceptibility breakpoints for Candida spp., which do not include C. dubliniensis [23]. It is noteworthy that none of the 11 C. dubliniensis bloodstream isolates was resistant to fluconazole. Generally, C. dubliniensis isolates are known to be susceptible to a wide range of antifungal agents [36]. Recently, Arendrup et al. [41] reported occurrence of fluconazole resistance in 3.1% (2 of 65) of C. dubliniensis bloodstream isolates using EUCAST breakpoint (MIC>4 μg/ml). It is unclear if marginal increase in fluconazole MICs (as indicated by geometric mean, Table 3) in the present study have in any manner contributed to increased occurrence of C. dubliniensis candidemia during 2008-2010. In this context, a reference may be made to a recent publication by Oxman et al. [60], who found that a significant number of candidemia episodes were caused by isolates that showed reduced susceptibility to fluconazole while still considered to be fully susceptible. Although none of our candidemia patient was on fluconazole prophylaxis, it has been shown that exposure to fluconazole may enhance adherence of C. dubliniensis to oral epithelium [61] and may also facilitate replacement of C. albicans with C. dubliniensis [62]. The impact of fluconazole therapy/ prophylaxis on the epidemiology C. dubliniensis candidemia is not known. Some investigators believe that widespread exposure to azoles may have contributed to increasing incidence of less susceptible non-albicans Candida spp. as bloodstream pathogens [63], a view that has not been shared by others [64].

In conclusion, a 9-year prospective study on the prevalence of *C*. dubliniensis among bloodstream Candida spp. isolates with an overall prevalence of 1.2%, is presented. Of 14 cases of C. dubliniensis candidemia, 11 were diagnosed between 2008-2010, thus highlighting an increasing role of C. dubliniensis in bloodstream infections in Kuwait in recent years. These observations are consistent with the global trend pointing towards changing epidemiology of candidemia in favor of non-albicans Candida spp.

Supporting Information

Table S1 Prevalence of C. dubliniensis among bloodstream isolates of Candida spp. (DOC)

Table S2 Summary of published case reports of *C. dubliniensis* candidemia. (DOC)

Acknowledgments

Technical assistance of Ajmal Theyyathel is acknowledged.

Author Contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: ZK. Performed the experiments: LJ RC. Analyzed the data: ZK SA. Contributed reagents/materials/ analysis tools: ZK SA. Wrote the paper: ZK SA.

References

- Sullivan DJ, Westerneng TJ, Haynes KA, Bennett DE, Coleman DC (1995)
 Candida dubliniensis sp. nov.: phenotypic and molecular characterization of a novel species associated with oral candidosis in HIV-infected individuals. Microbiology 141: 1507–1521.
- Loreto ES, Scheid LA, Nogueira CW, Zeni G, Santurio JM, et al. (2010) Candida dubliniensis: epidemiology and phenotypic methods for identification. Mycopathologia 169: 431–443.
- Brandt ME, Harrison LH, Pass M, Sofair AN, Huie S, et al. (2000) Candida dubliniensis fungemia: the first four cases in North America. Emerg Infect Dis 6: 46–49
- Fanci R (2009) Breakthrough Candida dubliniensis fungemia in an acute myeloid leukemia patient during voriconazole therapy successfully treated with caspofungin. J Chemother 21: 105–107.
- Horn DL, Neofytos D, Anaissie EJ, Fishman JA, Steinbach WJ, et al. (2009) Epidemiology and outcomes of candidemia in 2019 patients: data from the prospective antifungal therapy alliance registry. Clin Infect Dis 48: 1695–1703.
- Jabra-Rizk MA, Johnson JK, Forrest G, Mankes K, Meiller TF, et al. (2005) Prevalence of *Candida dubliniensis* fungemia at a large teaching hospital. Clin Infect Dis 41: 1064–1067.
- Marriott D, Laxton M, Harkness J (2001) Candida dubliniensis candidemia in Australia. Emerg Infect Dis 7: 479 p.
- Meis JF, Ruhnke M, De Pauw BE, Odds FC, Siegert W, et al. (1999) Candida dubliniensis candidemia in patients with chemotherapy-induced neutropenia and bone marrow transplantation. Emerg Infect Dis 5: 150–153.
- Mubareka S, Vinh DC, Sanche SE (2005) Candida dublimiensis bloodstream infection: a fatal case in a lung transplant recipient. Transpl Infect Dis 7: 146–149.
- Silva V, Cabrera M, Díaz MC, Abarca C, Hermosilla G (2003) [Prevalence of Candida albicans serotypes in blood isolates in Chile, and first report of Candida dubliniensis candidemia]. Rev Iberoam Micol 20: 46–51.
- van Hal SJ, Stark D, Harkness J, Marriott D (2008) Candida dubliniensis meningitis as delayed sequela of treated C. dubliniensis fungemia. Emerg Infect Dis 14: 327–329.
- Coleman DC, Moran GP, McManus BA, Sullivan DJ (2010) Mechanisms of antifungal drug resistance in Candida dubliniensis. Future Microbiol 5: 935–949.
- McManus BA, Coleman DC, Moran G, Pinjon E, Diogo D, et al. (2008) Multilocus sequence typing reveals that the population structure of Candida dubliniensis is significantly less divergent than that of Candida albicans. J Clin Microbiol 46: 652–664.
- Sullivan DJ, Moran GP (2011) Differential virulence of Candida albicans and C. dubliniensis: a role for Tor1 kinase? Virulence 2: 77–81.
- Khan ZU, Ahmad S, Mokaddas E, Chandy R (2004) Simplified sunflower (Helianthus annuus) seed agar for differentiation of Candida dubliniensis from Candida albicans. Clin Microbiol Infect 10: 590–592.
- Ahmad S, Khan Z, Mokaddas E, Khan ZU (2004) Isolation and molecular identification of *Candida dubliniensis* from non-human immunodeficiency virusinfected patients in Kuwait. J Med Microbiol 53: 633–637.
- Al-Sweih N, Ahmad S, Khan ZU, Khan S, Chandy R (2005) Prevalence of Candida dubliniensis among germ tube-positive Candida isolates in a maternity hospital in Kuwait. Mycoses 48: 347–351.
- Ahmad S, Khan ZU, Joseph L, Asadzadeh M, Theyyathel T (2011) Genotypic heterogeneity and molecular basis of 5-flucytosine resistance among *Candida dubliniensis* isolates recovered from clinical specimens in Kuwait. Med Mycol Sep 6DOI: 10.3109/13693786.2011.597446 [Epub ahead of print].
- Khan ZU, Ahmad S, Hagen F, Fell JW, Kowshik T, et al. (2010) Cryptococcus randhawai sp. nov., a novel anamorphic basidiomycetous yeast isolated from tree trunk hollow of Ficus religiosa (peepal tree) from New Delhi, India. Antonie Van Leeuwenhoek 97: 253–259.
- Khan ZU, Ahmad S, Mokaddas E, Chandy R, Cano J, et al. (2008) Actinomucor elegans var. kuvaitiensis isolated from the wound of a diabetic patient. Antonic Van Leeuwenhoek 94: 343–352.
- Gee SF, Joly S, Soll DR, Meis JF, Verweij PE, et al. (2002) Identification of four distinct genotypes of *Candida dubliniensis* and detection of microevolution in vitro and in vivo. J Clin Microbiol 40: 556–574.
- McManus BA, Moran GP, Higgins JA, Sullivan DJ, Coleman DC (2009) A Ser29Leu substitution in the cytosine deaminase Fca1p is responsible for cladespecific flucytosine resistance in *Candida dubliniensis*. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 53: 4678–4685.
- 23. Pfaller MA, Andes D, Diekema DJ, Espinel-Ingroff A, Sheehan D, CLSI Subcommittee for Antifungal Susceptibility Testing (2010) Wild-type MIC distributions, epidemiological cutoff values and species-specific clinical breakpoints for fluconazole and Candida: time for harmonization of CLSI and EUCAST broth microdilution methods. Drug Resist Update 13: 180–195.
- Fotedar R, Al-Hedaithy SS (2003) Candida dublimensis at a university hospital in Saudi Arabia. J Clin Microbiol 41: 1907–1911.
- 25. Cimolai N, Davis J, Trombley C (2002) Candida dubliniensis fungemia and vascular access infection. J Pediatr Hematol Oncol 24: 237–239.
- Kibbler CC, Seaton S, Barnes RA, Gransden WR, Holliman RE, et al. (2003) Management and outcome of bloodstream infections due to *Candida* species in England and Wales. J Hosp Infect 54: 18–24.

- Al-Hedaithy SS (2003) The yeast species causing fungemia at a university hospital in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, during a 10-year period. Mycoses 46: 293–298
- Sancak B, Rex JH, Paetznick V, Chen E, Rodriguez J (2003) Evaluation of a method for identification of *Candida dublimensis* bloodstream isolates. J Clin Microbiol 41: 489–491.
- Tortorano AM, Caspani L, Rigoni AL, Biraghi E, Sicignano A, et al. (2004)
 Candidosis in the intensive care unit: a 20-year survey. J Hosp Infect 57: 8–13.
- Hajjeh RA, Sofair AN, Harrison LH, Lyon GM, Arthington-Skaggs BA, et al. (2004) Incidence of bloodstream infections due to *Candida* species and in vitro susceptibilities of isolates collected from 1998 to 2000 in a population-based active surveillance program. J Clin Microbiol 42: 1519–1527.
- Tay ST, Chai HC, Na SL, Ng KP (2005) Molecular subtyping of clinical isolates of *Candida albicans* and identification of *Candida dubliniensis* Malaysia. Mycopathologia 159: 325–329.
- Tekeli A, Akan OA, Koyuncu E, Dolapci I, Uysal S (2006) Initial Candida dubliniensis isolate in Candida spp. positive haemocultures in Turkey between 2001 and 2004. Mycoses 49: 60–64.
- Metwally L, Walker MJ, Coyle PV, Hay RJ, Hedderwick S, et al. (2007) Trends in candidemia and antifungal susceptibility in a university hospital in Northern Ireland 2001–2006. J Infect 55: 174–178.
- Odds FC, Hanson MF, Davidson AD, Jacobsen MD, Wright P, et al. (2007) One year prospective survey of *Candida* bloodstream infections in Scotland. J Med Microbiol 56: 1066–1075.
- Asmundsdóttir LR, Erlendsdóttir H, Haraldsson G, Guo H, Xu J, et al. (2008)
 Molecular epidemiology of candidemia: evidence of clusters of smoldering nosocomial infections. Clin Infect Dis 47: e17–e24.
- Chen SC, Marriott D, Playford EG, Nguyen Q, Ellis D, et al. (2009) Candidaemia with uncommon *Candida* species: predisposing factors, outcome, antifungal susceptibility, and implications for management. Clin Microbiol Infect 15: 669–669.
- 37. Chen S, Slavin M, Nguyen Q, Marriott D, Playford EG, et al. (2006) Active surveillance for candidemia, Australia. Emerg Infect Dis 12: 1508–1516.
- van Hal SJ, Marriott DJ, Chen SC, Nguyen Q, Sorrell TC, et al. (2009)
 Candidemia following solid organ transplantation in the era of antifungal prophylaxis: the Australian experience. Trans Infect Dis 11: 122–127.
- Slavin MA, Sorrell TC, Marriott D, Thursky KA, Nguyen Q, et al. (2010) Candidaemia in adult cancer patients: risks for fluconazole-resistant isolates and death. J Antimicrob Chemother 65: 1042–1051.
- Dimopoulos G, Ntziora F, Rachiotis G, Armaganidis A, Falagas ME (2008) Candida albicans versus non-albicans intensive care unit-acquired bloodstream infections: differences in risk factors and outcome. Anesth Analg 106: 523–529.
- Arendrup MC, Bruun B, Christensen JJ, Fuursted K, Johansen HK, et al. (2011) National surveillance of fungemia in Denmark (2004 to 2009). J Clin Microbiol 49: 325–334.
- Bosco-Borgeat ME, Taverna CG, Cordoba S, Isla MG, Murisengo OA, et al. (2011) Prevalence of *Candida dubliniensis* fungemia in Argentina: identification by a novel multiplex PCR and comparison of different phenotypic methods. Mycopathologia 172: 407–414.
- Sullivan D, Coleman D (1997) Candida dubliniensis: an emerging opportunistic pathogen. Curr Top Med Mycol 8: 15–25.
- McManus BA, Sullivan DJ, Moran GP, d'Enfert C, Bougnoux ME, et al. (2009) Genetic differences between avian and human isolates of *Candida dubliniensis*. Emerg Infect Dis 15: 1467–1470.
- Nunn MA, Schäefer SM, Petrou MA, Brown JR (2007) Environmental source of Candida dubliniensis. Emerg Infect Dis 13: 747–750.
- 46. Gutiérrez J, Morales P, González MA, Quindós G (2002) Candida dubliniensis, a new fungal pathogen. J Basic Microbiol 42: 207–227.
- Mokaddas E, Khan ZU, Ahmad S (2011) Prevalence of Candida dubliniensis among cancer patients in Kuwait: a 5-year retrospective study. Mycoses 54: e29–e34.
- Jackson AP, Gamble JA, Yeomans T, Moran GP, Saunders D, et al. (2009) Comparative genomics of the fungal pathogens Candida dubliniensis and Candida albicans. Genome Res 19: 2231–2244.
- Moran GP, Coleman DC, Sullivan DJ (2011) Candida albicans versus Candida dubliniensis: why is C. albicans more pathogenic? Int J MicrobiolDoi:10.115/2012/ :205921. Epub 2011 Sep 4.
- Stokes C, Moran GP, Spiering MJ, Cole GT, Coleman DC, et al. (2007) Lower filamentation rates of *Candida dubliniensis* contribute to its lower virulence in comparison with *Candida albicans*. Fungal Genet Biol 44: 920–931.
- Sebti A, Kiehn TE, Perlin D, Chaturvedi V, Wong M, et al. (2001) Candida dubliniensis at a cancer center. Clin Infect Dis 32: 1034–1038.
- Gottlieb GS, Limaye AP, Chen YC, Van Voorhis WC (2001) Candida dubliniensis fungemia in a solid organ transplant patient: case report and review of the literature. Med Mycol 39: 483–485.
- McMullan R, Xu J, Moore JE, Millar BC, Walker MJ, et al. (2002) Candida dubliniensis bloodstream infection in patients with gynaecological malignancy. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis 21: 635–636.
- Tan AL, Wang GC, Chiu YW (2002) Candida dubliniensis infection, Singapore. Emerg Infect Dis 8: 445

 –446.



- Boyle BM, Sullivan DJ, Forkin C, Mulcahy F, Keane CT, et al. (2002) Candida dubliniensis candidaemia in an HIV-positive patient in Ireland. Int J STD AIDS 13: 55–57
- Kim JO, Garofalo L, Blecker-Shelly D, McGowan KL (2003) Candida dubliniensis infections in a pediatric population: retrospective identification from clinical laboratory isolates of Candida albicans. J Clin Microbiol 41: 3354–3357.
- Carr MJ, Clarke S, O'Connell F, Sullivan DJ, Coleman DC, et al. (2005) First reported case of endocarditis caused by *Candida dubliniensis*. J Clin Microbiol 43: 3023–3026
- 58. Chan-Tack KM (2005) Fatal Candida dubliniensis septicemia in a patient with AIDS. Clin Infect Dis 40: 1209–1210.
- Baradkar VP, Mathur M, Kumar S (2008) Neonatal septicaemia in a premature infant due to Candida dubliniensis. Indian J Med Microbiol 26: 382–385.
- Oxman DA, Chow JK, Frendl G, Hadley S, Hershkovitz S, et al. (2010)
 Candidaemia associated with decreased in vitro fluconazole susceptibility: is

- $\it Candida$ speciation predictive of the susceptibility pattern? J Antimicrob Chemother 65: 1460–1465.
- Zepelin MB, Niederhaus T, Gross U, Seibold M, Monod M, et al. (2002) Adherence of different *Candida dublimensis* isolates in the presence of fluconazole. AIDS 16: 1237–1244.
- 62. Martinez M, Lopez-Ribot JL, Kirkpatrick WR, Coco BJ, Bachmann SP, et al. (2002) Replacement of *Candida albicans* with *C. dubliniensis* in Human Immunodeficiency Virus infected patients with oropharyngeal candidiasis treated with fluconazole. J Clin Microbiol 40: 3135–3139.
- Abi-Said D, Anaissie E, Uzun O, Raad I, Pinzcowski H, et al. (1997) The epidemiology of hematogenous candidiasis caused by different Candida species. Clin Infect Dis 24: 1122–1128.
- Pfaller MA, Diekema DJ (2007) Epidemiology of invasive candidiasis: a persistent public health problem. Clin Microbiol Rev 20: 133–163.