

Osteoarticular Infections Caused by Non-*Aspergillus* Filamentous Fungi in Adult and Pediatric Patients

A Systematic Review

Saad J. Taj-Aldeen, PhD, DABMM, Blandine Rammaert, MD, PhD, Maria Gamaletsou, MD, PhD, MPH, Nikolaos V. Sipsas, MD, PhD, Valerie Zeller, MD, Emmanuel Roilides, MD, PhD, Dimitrios P. Kontoyiannis, MD, ScD, Andy O. Miller, MD, Vidmantas Petraitis, MD, Thomas J. Walsh, MD, PhD, and Olivier Lortholary, MD, PhD, for the International Osteoarticular Mycoses Consortium

Abstract: Osteoarticular mycoses due to non-*Aspergillus* moulds are uncommon and challenging infections.

A systematic literature review of non-*Aspergillus* osteoarticular mycoses was performed using PUBMED and EMBASE databases from 1970 to 2013.

Among 145 patients were 111 adults (median age 48.5 [16–92 y]) and 34 pediatric patients (median age 7.5 [3–15 y]); 114 (79.7%) were male and 88 (61.9%) were immunocompromised. Osteomyelitis was due to direct inoculation in 54.5%. Trauma and puncture wounds were more frequent in children (73.5% vs 43.5%; $P=0.001$). Prior surgery was more frequent in adults (27.7% vs 5.9%; $P=0.025$). Vertebral (23.2%) and craniofacial osteomyelitis (13.1%) with neurological deficits predominated in adults. Lower limb osteomyelitis (47.7%) and knee arthritis (67.8%) were predominantly seen in children. Hyalohyphomycosis represented 64.8% of documented infections with *Scedosporium apiospermum* (33.1%) and *Lomentospora prolificans* (15.8%) as the most common causes. Combined antifungal therapy and surgery was used in 69% of cases with overall response in 85.8%. Median duration of therapy was 115 days (range 5–730). When voriconazole was used as single agent for treatment of hyalohyphomycosis and phaeohyphomycosis, an overall response rate was achieved in 94.1% of cases.

Non-*Aspergillus* osteoarticular mycoses occur most frequently in children after injury and in adults after surgery. Accurate early diagnosis

and long-course therapy (median 6 mo) with a combined medical-surgical approach may result in favorable outcome.

(*Medicine* 94(50):e2078)

Abbreviations: AmB = amphotericin B, ANOVA = analysis of variance, CGD = chronic granulomatous disease, CRP = C-reactive protein, HIV = human immunodeficiency virus, IT = itraconazole, MRI = magnetic resonance imaging, POS = posaconazole, VRC = voriconazole, WBC = white blood cell.

INTRODUCTION

Fungal osteomyelitis and arthritis are uncommon diseases that generally present in an indolent manner. Being one of the most challenging complications in orthopedic and trauma surgery, fungal osteoarticular infections often require complex treatments in specialized centers. The majority of these infections are caused by *Aspergillus*^{1–3} and *Candida* species.^{4,5} Other osteoarticular infections are reported with dimorphic fungi and *Cryptococcus neoformans*, which demonstrate distinctive clinical presentations, occur predominantly in immunocompetent patients, and develop from hematogenous dissemination.⁶

Editor: Duane Hospenthal.

Received: May 14, 2015; revised: September 10, 2015; accepted: October 24, 2015.

From the Mycology Unit, Microbiology Division, Department of Laboratory Medicine and Pathology, Hamad Medical Corporation, Doha, Qatar (SJT-A); Center for Osteoarticular Mycoses, Hospital for Special Surgery (SJT-A, BR, MG, NVS, ER, AOM, VP, TJW, OL); International Osteoarticular Mycoses Study Consortium, NY (SJT-A, BR, MG, NVS, ER, AOM, VP, TJW, OL); Weill Cornell Medical College, Doha, Qatar (SJT-A); Université Paris-Descartes, Sorbonne Paris Cité, APHP, Service des Maladies Infectieuses et Tropicales, Hôpital Necker-Enfants Malades, Centre d'Infectiologie Necker-Pasteur, Institut Imagine (BR, OL); Institut Pasteur, Mycology Molecular Unit, Paris, France (BR, OL); Transplantation-Oncology Infectious Diseases Program, Department of Medicine, Weill Cornell Medical Center of Cornell University (MG, AOM, VP, TJW); Pediatrics, and Microbiology & Immunology, Weill Cornell Medical Center of Cornell University, New York, NY (MG, NVS, TJW); National and Kapodistrian University of Athens, Athens, Greece (MG, NVS); Osteoarticular Reference Center, Groupe Hospitalier Diaconesses-Croix Saint-Simon, Paris, France (VZ); Infectious Diseases Unit,^{3rd} Department of Pediatrics, Faculty of Medicine, Aristotle University, School of Health Sciences, and Hippokraton Hospital, Thessaloniki, Greece (ER); and MD Anderson Cancer Center, Houston, TX (DPK).

Correspondence: Saad J. Taj-Aldeen, Mycology Unit Microbiology Division, Department of Laboratory Medicine and Pathology, Hamad Medical Corporation, P.O. Box 3050, Doha, Qatar (e-mail: saadtaj51@gmail.com).

Funding: Supported by Grant NPRP 5-298-3-086 from the Qatar National Research Fund (a member of Qatar Foundation) to Saad J. Taj-Aldeen.

Disclosures: Walsh receives support from the Henry Schueler Foundation (Scholar in Mucormycosis), Sharpe Family Foundation (Scholar in Pediatric Infectious Diseases), and from the Save Our Sick Kids Foundation.

DPK is a consultant and board member and received payment for lectures from Schering-Plough, Pfizer, and Astellas Pharma US, and has received grant support from Astellas Pharma US and Merck; and has received honorarium from Enzon Pharmaceuticals. Walsh has received research grants for experimental and clinical antimicrobial pharmacotherapeutics from Astellas, Cubist, Novartis, Pfizer, and Theravance. He has served as consultant to Astellas, ContraFect, Cubist, Drais, iCo, Novartis, Pfizer, Methylgene, SigmaTau, and Trius. OL is a Consultant for Gilead Sciences; boards or speaker's bureau Pfizer, Astellas, Merck. Other authors have no declarations.

Copyright © 2015 Wolters Kluwer Health, Inc. All rights reserved.

This is an open access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License 4.0, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

ISSN: 0025-7974

DOI: 10.1097/MD.0000000000002078

Opportunistic infections due to other groups of fungi are increasingly reported as potential emerging pathogens, but with limited description and relatively few reports of osteoarticular mycoses. Although a management algorithm was proposed recently for such fungal bone and joint infections,⁷ no comprehensive literature analysis addresses the demographic, clinical aspects, microbiology, therapy, and outcome of osteoarticular infections caused by non-*Aspergillus* moulds. The possible mechanisms of infection that cause osteomyelitis or arthritis are also not well documented. The portal of entry and the ability to disseminate may differ for each group of fungi. Furthermore, many clinical, diagnostic, and therapeutic questions remain uncertain.

We therefore conducted an extensive literature review to study bone and joint infections by hyaline hyphomycetes, Mucorales, and dematiaceous moulds. Using highly detailed case criteria of host factors, symptoms, physical findings, disease features, diagnostic imaging, management, and outcome, we compiled the characteristic clinical manifestations and treatment modalities of these serious invasive fungal diseases.

METHODS

Search Criteria

To identify fungal osteomyelitis and arthritis caused by hyaline hyphomycetes, Mucorales, and dematiaceous fungi, we used the OvidSP search platform in the MEDLINE and EMBASE databases using the following keywords: fungi, Ascomycota, Pseudallescheria, Chaetomium, Schizophyllum, Mucorales, mitosporic fungi, Acremonium, Alternaria, Beauveria, Chrysosporium, Cladosporium, Exophiala, Fusarium, Helminthosporium, Madurella, Phialophora, Scedosporium, Scopulariopsis, Trichoderma, Ascomycetes, Basidiomycetes, blastocladiomycota, Deuteromycetes, zygomycetes, zygomycosis, systemic mycosis, entomophthoromycosis, mucormycosis, bone diseases, bone infection, osteitis, osteomyelitis, periostitis, spondylitis, discitis, osteochondritis, osteomyelitis, periostitis, infectious arthritis, bone and joint infections, and reactive arthritis. Qatar Foundation proposal number NPRP 5-298-3-086 approved the study; the ethical approval was not necessary for the retrospective literature review nature of the research.

We retrieved a total of 2421 references published from January 1970 to September 2013. Figure 1 shows the selection process applied to identify the osteoarticular infections.

We included cases in the final analysis with data on osteomyelitis and or arthritis, site of infection, underlying disease, and medical and surgical therapy. Other parameters also considered in case analysis were radiological images, inflammatory markers, and disease manifestations. We excluded cases with bone extension from rhinosinusitis, outbreak of *Exserohilum rostratum* infections after injection of contaminated glucocorticosteroids in USA,⁸ as well as cases with missing full texts, and cases of non-English literature.

Data Extraction

The following parameters were extracted from each study when present: age, sex, risk factors, prior surgery, treatment, antifungal agent, duration of treatment, time to diagnosis, fever, inflammatory markers, neutropenia, radiological features, type of bone infection, surgical intervention, histopathology, microscopy, culture, fungal species, and outcome.

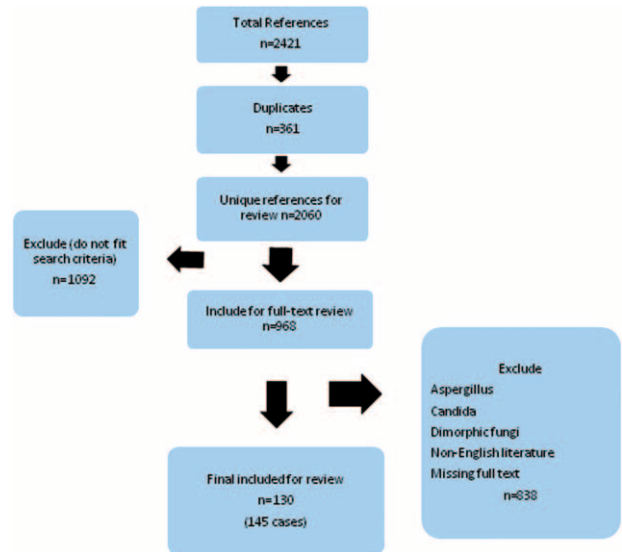


FIGURE 1. Flow diagram of search and included studies.

Synonyms of Fungi

Due to taxonomic changes since the year 1970,^{9–12} fungi in this study are referred with their current name: *Scedosporium boydii* (formerly *Pseudallescheria boydii*, or *Petriellidium boydii*, or *Allescheria boydii*), *Scedosporium apiospermum* (formerly *Monosporium apiospermum*, or *Pseudoallescheria apiosperma*), *Lomentospora prolificans* (formerly *Scedosporium prolificans*, or *Scedosporium inflatum*), *Lichtheimia corymbifera* (formerly *Absidia corymbifera* and *Mycocladius corymbifera*), and *Fusarium falciforme* (formerly *Acremonium falciforme*).

Definitions

All definitions used throughout this study were referred to the previously published definitions.^{1–5} The following definitions were related to the mechanism of bone infection, criteria for diagnostic probability, onset of infection, and therapeutic response.

- (1) Direct inoculation: Local bone or joint infection after a skin breakdown.
- (2) Hematogenous: Seeding to bone or joint by dissemination from a distant site of inoculation/infection.
- (3) Contiguous: Seeding to bone or joint from an adjacent infection site.
- (4) Proven fungal osteomyelitis: Evidence of a positive culture, and/or histology from bone tissue, joint fluid, or metal hardware.
- (5) Probable fungal osteomyelitis: Compatible clinical and radiological features of osteomyelitis with evidence of positive histology and/or fungal culture from an extraosteoarticular site.
- (6) De novo fungal osteomyelitis: Clinically apparent onset of fungal osteomyelitis in a patient not concomitantly receiving antifungal agents for an invasive fungal disease.
- (7) Overall response: Complete or partial resolution of clinical and radiological findings of osteomyelitis.
- (8) Children definition: Patients ≤ 15 years.
- (9) C-reactive protein (CRP) was elevated when >1 mg/dL; white blood cell (WBC) count was elevated when $>10,000/\text{mm}^3$.

Data Analysis and Statistical Methods

Descriptive statistics were used to summarize all demographic and clinical characteristics of the patients. Quality of data (review of completeness, data verification, and validation and accuracy of data) was assessed by the lead investigators. Quantitative variables are presented as mean ± standard deviation (SD) or as medians (with range). Differences between continuous variables of at least 2 independent groups were analyzed using unpaired *t* test and 1-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). When an overall group difference was found to be statistically significant, pairwise comparisons were made using the appropriate post-hoc test. Differences between categorical variables were analysed using chi-square test and Fisher exact test, as appropriate. Relationships between 2 continuous variables were further examined using Pearson correlation coefficients. Pictorial presentations of the key results were made using appropriate statistical graphs. All *P* values presented were 2-tailed, and *P* values <0.05 were considered as statistically significant. All statistical analyses were done using statistical packages SPSS 19.0 (SPSS Inc. Chicago, IL).

RESULTS

Population, Demographic Characteristics, and Comorbidities

A total of 145 individual cases from 130 publications^{13–142} of osteoarticular infections fulfilled the definition criteria. Cases were classified as proven in 51% (n = 74) and probable in 49% (n = 71). The number of reports increased over time particularly in the adult population (Fig. 2). The demographic characteristics of the 145 cases are described in Table 1. Among the 111 adults and 34 children, male patients predominated (79.7%). The underlying conditions identified for the majority of patients included trauma or puncture wound (51.4%), prior surgery (22.5%), and diabetes (15.5%). Corticosteroid use was reported in 16.2% of the cases. Severe immunocompromised patients including solid cancer, hematological malignancy,

transplantation, chronic granulomatous disease (CGD), human immunodeficiency virus (HIV/AIDS), and autoimmune disorder accounted for 61.9% (n = 88).

Etiologies and Mechanism of Infection

Overall, the most common groups of fungi involved in non-*Aspergillus* filamentous fungal osteoarticular infections were hyalohyphomycetes (n = 97), dematiaceous moulds (n = 25), and Mucorales (n = 23). The most common species involved in osteoarticular infections were *S. apiospermum*, *L. prolificans*, and *S. boydii*, followed by *Fusarium solani*. Most patients were infected with 1 fungal species. The fungal species was not specified in 30 cases (Table 2). The distribution of non-hyalohyphomycete species depended on the patient’s age. Mucormycosis and the majority of phaeohyphomycosis cases were responsible for osteomyelitis in adults. *Chrysosporium zonatum* (hyalohyphomycosis) and *Myceliophthora thermophila* (phaeohyphomycosis) were isolated only in children. Hyalohyphomycoses were more frequently localized in lower limbs and axial skeleton compared with other groups of fungi.

The main mechanism of infection was direct inoculation 79 (54.5%), especially in children (n = 27/34, 79.4%), followed by hematogenous dissemination (24.8%), and contiguous spread (20.7%). Infection by direct inoculation in children was significantly higher than that observed in adults (79.4% vs 46.8%; *P* = 0.0007). Contiguous types of infections were significantly higher in adult patients (*P* = 0.0007). No significant difference was found in hematogenous dissemination between adults and children (*P* > 0.5).

Among the underlying conditions in immunocompetent patients were road accidents with fracture and puncture of the knee or penetrating wounds. Figure 3 shows a significant association between injury and types of apparent infections (*P* < 0.001). The highest risk surgical procedure was orthopedic followed by transplantation (Table 1). Prior surgery was significantly more frequent in adults (27.7% vs 5.9%; *P* = 0.025).

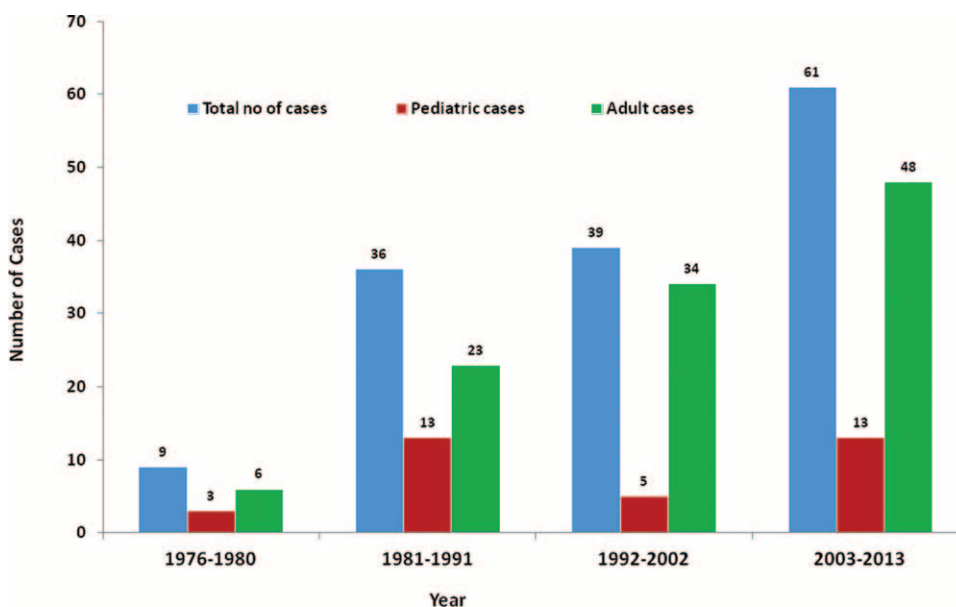


FIGURE 2. Number of osteoarticular infections caused by non-*Aspergillus* fungal species reported in the literature from 1970 to 2013.

TABLE 1. Demographic Characteristic of Non-*Aspergillus* Filamentous Fungi Osteoarticular Infections Reported in Adults and Children Between 1970 and 2003

Characteristics	Total (n = 145)	Children ≤15 y (n = 34)	Adults >15 y (n = 111)	P Value [†]
Age (median [min–max])	(35.0 [3–92])	(7.5 [3–15])	(48.5 [16–92])	0.001
Male sex	114/143 (79.7)	31/34 (91.2)	83/109 (76.1)	0.054
Underlying conditions				
Diabetes	22/142 (15.5)	2	20/108 (18.5)	0.076
Trauma/puncture wound	73/142 (51.4)	25/34 (73.5)	47/108 (43.5)	0.001
Prior surgery	32/142 (22.5)	2 (5.9%)	30/108 (27.7)	0.025
Orthopedic	16/142 (11.0)	1	15/108 (13.5)	
Transplantation	7	1	6	
Other*	9	0	9	
Prosthesis	3	0	3	0.534
Immunocompromised	88/142 (61.9)	16/34 (47)	72/108 (66.7)	
Solid cancer	3	0	3	0.532
Hematological malignancy	10/142 (7.0)	4	6	0.229
Neutropenia <500 mm ³	9	2	7	0.881
Allo-HSCT	1	1	0	0.493
Renal transplantation	9	0	9	0.153
HIV/AIDS (CD4 <200/mm ³)	5	0	5	0.474
Autoimmune disorder	4	1	3	0.999
Chronic granulomatous disease	5	2	3	0.734
Chemotherapy	10/142 (7.0)	3	7	0.921
Corticosteroids	23/142 (16.2)	2	21/108 (19.4)	0.054
Intravenous drug user	6	0	6	0.368
Tuberculosis	3	1	2	0.998

All data are expressed in absolute number (%), otherwise indicated. Percentages were presented if the number of cases considered was ≥10. HSCT = hematopoietic stem cell transplantation.

* Including thoracic (n = 5) and head surgery (n = 4).

[†] Yates corrected chi-square and Pearson chi-square test used for qualitative data.

Diagnostic Procedures and Cocultured Bacteria

Median time to diagnosis from onset of symptoms was 90 (7–1825) days. Among 139 diagnostic procedures, diagnosis of fungal osteomyelitis was performed by open biopsy in 96 (69%), percutaneous biopsy in 31 (22.3%), arthroscopy in 7 (5%), and other surgical procedures in 5 (3.6%). From these specimens, fungi were detected by culture, direct microscopy, and histology. Bacteria were cocultured from the same specimen in 22 cases; documented bacteria included *Staphylococcus aureus* followed by Gram-negative organisms, including *Escherichia coli* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (data not shown).

Clinical and Laboratory Features

The most frequently reported clinical manifestations were local pain and tenderness (69.0%), local inflammatory signs (44.1%), and restricted movements (53.5%). Children presented with significantly more local inflammatory signs than adults, 76.4% vs 34.2% ($P = 0.0001$). Fever was reported in only 31.5% of patients, significantly more frequently in the pediatric patients than in adults (61.2% vs 22.2%; $P = 0.001$). Dissemination of the infection was documented in 21/145 (14.4%) patients, including 12 (57.1%) immunocompromised patients. De novo fungal osteoarticular infections occurred in 93.1% (n = 135) of the patients (Table 3).

Among 99 cases of osteomyelitis caused by non-*Aspergillus* moulds, the most commonly involved sites were the lower limbs, particularly the foot (25.3%), vertebrae (23.2%), and the

skull (13.1%). The lower limbs were more frequently involved in children than in adults (78.9% vs. 40.0%; $P = 0.001$). Vertebral osteomyelitis arose from hematogenous spread from pulmonary infections or occasionally by direct inoculation. Vertebral destruction/compression or cranial osteomyelitis led to neurological deficits in 8 and 9 cases, respectively. All such cases occurred in adult patients (n = 15, 10.3%). Among 56 cases of septic arthritis caused by non-*Aspergillus* filamentous fungi, the most common joint infected was the knee (67.8%) in both adults and children.

Elevated biomarkers of inflammation were detected in most tested patients. The median CRP value was 45 mg/dL (1.1–362), which was elevated to >5 mg/dL in 87.8% (n = 33) and to >1.0 mg/dL in 100% of tested patients. Significantly higher mean values of CRP were reported for pediatric patients than adult patients (110.2 ± 130.1 vs 46.7 ± 39.0; $P = 0.034$). An elevated WBC count was observed in 47.5% of the patients (n = 40), although the median value was 9850 cells/mm³ (1900–33,500).

Diagnostic Imaging

The radiological abnormalities seen by different radiological techniques included osteolytic lesions, lucencies, vertebral compressions, abscesses, and increase of radionuclide uptake. Epidural, paraspinal, and psoas abscesses were detected only in adult patients. Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) showed decreased signal intensity on T1-weighted images, as well as increased signal intensity on T2-weighted images. Vertebral compression or

TABLE 2. Distribution of Filamentous Fungi Causing Osteoarticular Infections in Adult and Pediatric Patients

Fungi	Number of Cases	Adults	Pediatrics	Total (%) [*]
Hyaline hyphomycetes				
<i>Fusarium solani</i>	6	4	2	14 (9.6)
<i>Fusarium falciforme</i>	2	2	0.00	
<i>Fusarium moniliforme</i>	1	1	0.00	
<i>Fusarium</i> species	5	3	2	
<i>Acremonium strictum</i>	2	1	1	5
<i>Acremonium kiliense</i>	1	1	0.00	
<i>Acremonium</i> species	2	1	1	
<i>Scedosporium apiospermum</i>	27	20	7	48 (33.1)
<i>Scedosporium aurantiacum</i>	1	1	0.00	
<i>Scedosporium boydii</i>	20	15	5	
<i>Lomentospora prolificans</i>	23	11	12	23 (15.8)
<i>Pseudallescheria fusioidea</i>	1	1	0.00	1
<i>Chrysosporium zonatum</i>	1	0.00	1	2
<i>Chrysosporium</i> species	1	1	0.00	
<i>Phialemonium curvatum</i>	1	1	0.00	2
<i>Phialemonium obovatum</i>	1	1	0.00	
<i>Phomopsis</i> species	1	1	0.00	1
<i>Paecilomyces varioti</i>	1	1	0.00	1
Mucormycetes				
<i>Rhizopus rhizopodoformis</i>	3	3	0.00	23 (15.8)
<i>Rhizopus</i> species	6	6	0.00	
<i>Apophysomyces elegans</i>	4	4	0.00	
<i>Saksenaea vasiformis</i>	1	1	0.00	
<i>Lichtheimia corymbifera</i>	1	1	0.00	
<i>Cunninghamella bertholletiae</i>	1	1	0.00	
<i>Mucor</i> species	3	3	0.00	
Mucormycosis unidentified	4	4	0.00	
Dematiaceous fungi/black yeasts				
<i>Alternaria alternata</i>	1	1	0.00	5
<i>Alternaria</i> species	4	4	0.00	
<i>Myceliophthora thermophila</i>	1	0.00	1	1
<i>Mycoleptodiscus indicus</i>	1	1	0.00	1
<i>Cladophialophora bantiana</i>	1	1	0.00	2
<i>Cladophialophora arxii</i>	1	1	0.00	
<i>Fonsecaea pedrosoi</i>	1	1	0.00	1
<i>Phialophora richardsiae</i>	2	2	0.00	3
<i>Phialophora parasitica</i>	1	1	0.00	
<i>Madurella grisea</i>	2	2	0.00	4
<i>Madurella mycetomatis</i>	2	2	0.00	
<i>Drechslera longirostrata</i>	1	1	0.00	1
<i>Exophiala jeanselmei</i>	3	1	2	5 (3.4)
<i>Exophiala xenobiotica</i>	1	1	0.00	
<i>Exophiala dermatitidis</i>	1	1	0.00	
<i>Aureobasidium</i> species	1	1	0.00	1
Unidentified fungus	1	1	0.00	1
Total	145	111	34	100 (100)

* All data are expressed in absolute number (%), otherwise indicated. Percentages were presented if the number of cases considered was ≥ 10 .

decreased intervertebral space detected by plain radiographs was most commonly encountered in adult patients (Table 3).

Treatment and Outcome

Surgical intervention and/or medical therapy was reported in 137 (94.5%) patients (Table 4). The majority of patients (69.3%) were treated with antifungal agents and surgery, 25.5%

with antifungal agents only, and 5% (n=7) with surgical treatment only. Amphotericin B (AmB) and voriconazole (VRC) were the 2 most commonly used antifungal agents in both children and adults. Combinations of antifungal therapy were reported in 25.4% of patients.

Hyalohyphomycosis was treated with AmB and VRC in 36 and 30 cases, respectively; overall responses included 3 deaths.

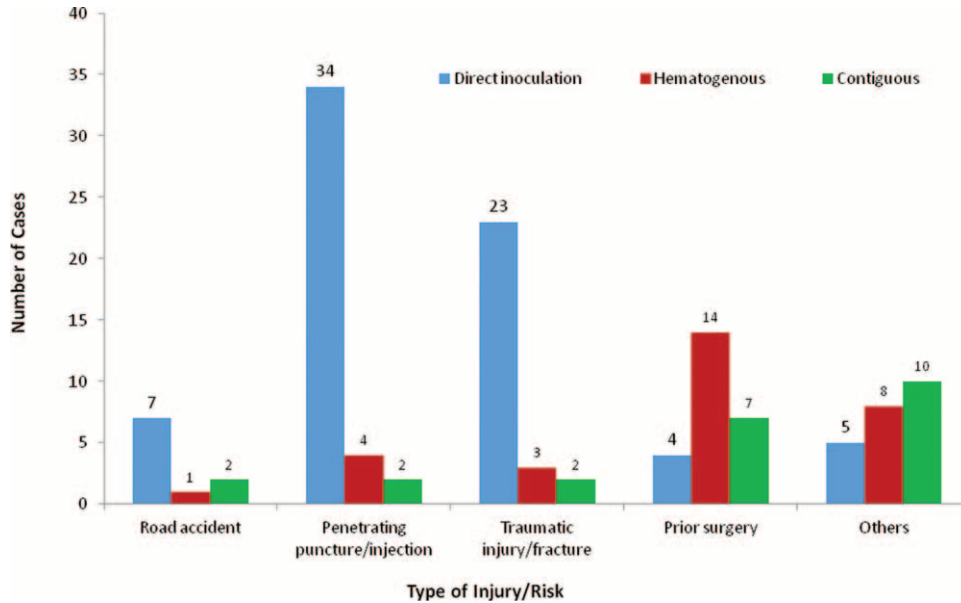


FIGURE 3. Significant association between injury and types of osteoarticular infections due to non-*Aspergillus* filamentous fungi (Overall $P < 0.001$).

All cases of mucormycosis were treated with AmB; treatment failure leading to death was noticed in 3 cases. Patients with phaeohyphomycosis were treated with AmB ($n = 8$), itraconazole (IT) ($n = 9$), and VRC ($n = 3$); 1 attributable death due to *Exophiala jeanselmei* was reported with AmB. A switch therapy was observed in 31 (23.5%) patients mainly due to treatment failure (15.9%). Switch therapy includes VRC, IT, posaconazole (POS) + terbinafine, or VRC + terbinafine.

Excision was the most common surgical intervention (52.6%), followed by articular surgical procedures (14%), amputation (13.1), and bone grafting. Regional infusion of antifungal agents was performed in 9 patients.

Median duration of medical treatment was 115 (5–730) days (Table 4). An overall response rate of 85.8% was achieved in the treatment of 141 non-*Aspergillus* mould osteomyelitis. complete response was reported in 108 (76%) patients, partial response in 13 (9.2%), and loss of follow-up in 7. Survival was 90.8% and overall mortality rate was 9.2% ($n = 13/141$). Irrespective of antifungal treatments, death was attributed to fungal osteoarticular infections in 7 adult patients.

DISCUSSION

Reviewing 145 cases of fungal osteomyelitis and arthritis caused by non-*Aspergillus* filamentous fungi over 43 years, we found 43 fungal species belonging to 25 fungal genera of opportunistic and uncommon pathogens in immunocompetent and immunocompromised patients. This study displayed that 38.1% of osteoarticular infections due to these fungi occurred in apparently immunocompetent patients. Among the non-*Aspergillus* moulds, hyalohyphomycetes are the major group reported to cause osteoarticular infections. Two main pathogenic mechanisms of infection were observed: the first one was a community-acquired infection by direct inoculation during trauma, and the second one was a healthcare-associated infection after surgical procedures. Osteoarticular infections due to non-*Aspergillus* filamentous fungi were most of the times de novo

infections and the rate of secondary dissemination was low. Fever was not a good clinical sign of osteoarticular infection, but local pain and inflammatory signs should alert the clinicians. Despite a low mortality rate, these osteoarticular infections were difficult to treat, and led to sequelae, especially when axial skeleton was involved.

As with *Aspergillus* and *Candida* osteoarticular infections,^{1–5} there is a high male predominance with >3.9:1 male-to-female ratio, and there were significant differences between the pediatric (≤ 15 y) and adult (> 15 y) populations. In particular, trauma and puncture wounds, as well as lower limbs infections, were significantly more frequent in pediatric patients. Although there was no significant difference in the number of immunocompromised patients, adults had less clinical signs such as fever, movement limitation, or local inflammatory signs than children. Corticosteroids, which were mostly used in adults, could have masked the clinical signs in part of the adult population due to their anti-inflammatory effects. Another explanation could be driven by the differences in fungal species between children and adults. Hyalohyphomycosis predominated in children, whereas phaeohyphomycosis and mucormycosis were uncommon or absent in pediatric patients. Vertebral osteomyelitis occurred mainly in adults and was associated with neurological deficits as in *Aspergillus* osteomyelitis.¹

Biological markers may be useful in diagnosis and follow-up of some osteoarticular mycoses. Our findings revealed that an elevated level of CRP may support the clinical findings for early diagnosis of non-*Aspergillus* mould osteoarticular infections, whereas WBC count was minimally elevated. Unlike *Candida* osteomyelitis,⁵ CRP also may be useful for therapeutic monitoring of osteoarticular infections caused by non-*Aspergillus* spp.¹

Surgical debridement, irrigation, and drainage of joints, combined with antifungal therapy, is widely considered the standard treatment option of fungal osteomyelitis and joint

TABLE 3. Clinical Characteristics and Anatomical Distribution of Osteoarticular Infections due to Non-Aspergillus Filamentous Fungi Reported in the Literature From 1970 to 2013

Diagnostic Approach	Total (n = 145)	Children (n = 34)	Adults (n = 111)
Clinical manifestations			
Local symptoms*			
Pain/tenderness	100 (69.0)	30 (88.2)	70 (63.0)
Inflammatory signs†	64 (44.1)	26 (76.4)	38 (34.2)
Movement limitation/discomfort	76/142 (53.5)	23/34 (67.6)	53/108 (49.1)
Skin involvement‡	52 (35.9)	8	44 (39.6)
Other symptoms			
Neurological deficit	17 (11.7)	0	17 (15.3)
Dysphagia	1	0	1
Fatigue/weight loss	5	1	4
Fever	41/130 (31.5)	19/31 (61.2)	22/99 (22.2)
Types of infection§			
Direct inoculation	79 (54.5)	27 (79.4)	52 (46.8)
Hematogenous	36 (24.8)	7 (20.6)	29 (26.1)
Contiguous	30 (20.7)	0.00	30 (27)
Initial presentation of osteoarticular infections			
One bone infected	89/113 (78.8)	21/26 (80.8)	68/87 (79)
Two bones infected	20/113 (17.7)	4	16/87 (18.6)
≥3 bones infected	4	1	3
Bone involvement			
Axial skeleton:			
Vertebra, including intervertebral discs	23/99 (23.2)	2	21/80 (26.2)
Pelvis	2	2	0
Skull and facial bones	13/99 (13.1)	0	13/80 (16.3)
Lower limbs			
Foot	25/99 (25.3)	8	17/80 (21.2), 15/80 (18.8)
Other¶	22/99 (22.2)	7	
Upper limbs			
Hand	5	0	5
Other	3	0	3
Rib cage	3	0	3
Multiple sites	3	0	3
Joint involvement#			
Lower limb joints	56/145 (38.6)	18/34 (52.9)	38/111 (34.2)
Knee **	38/56 (67.8)	14/18 (77.8)	24/38 (63.2)
Other	15/56 (26.8)	4	11/38 (28.9)
Upper limb joints††	3	0	3
Dissemination	21/141 (14.9)	3	18/107 (16.8)
Time for diagnosis, d (median [range])	90 [7–1825]	43 [7–1825]	90 [9–1085]
Radiological features‡‡			
MRI			
(n = 145) (n = 34) (n = 111)			
Osteolytic lesion/destruction/erosion	27 (18.6)	4(11.8)	23(20.7)
Compression	3	0.00	3
T1 low intensity	11(7.6)	3	8
T2 enhancement	16 (11)	7	9
Effusion/fluid collection	5	3	2
Epidural abscess	3	0.00	3
Paraspinal abscess	2	0.00	2
Psoas abscess	1	0.00	1
Paravertebral abscess	1	0.00	1
Discitis	2	0.00	2
Malformation	1	1	0.00
Oedema/ abscess	2	1	1
Increase of nuclear scan uptake (TC ^{99m} /Ga ⁶⁷)	20 (13.8)	7	13 (11.7)
X-ray			
Osteolytic lesion/destruction/erosion	48 (33.1)	14 (41.2)	34 (30.6)
Lucency	5	1	4
Soft-tissue swelling	5	5	0.00
Honey comb appearance	4	1	3
Necrosis	2	0.00	2
Fracture	1	0.00	1
Decreased space	2	0.00	2
Effusion	2	1	1

All data are expressed in absolute number (%), otherwise indicated. Percentages were presented if the number of cases considered was ≥10.

*Majority of cases have multiple symptoms.

† Including swelling, erythema, and warmth (*P* value = 0.0001).

‡ Including drainage, sinus, abscess, cellulitis, and ulcer.

§ *P* value = 0.0007.

¶ Including scapula (n = 1), humerus (n = 1), and ulna (n = 1).

|| Including femur (n = 9), tibia (n = 12), and fibula (n = 1).

Some case reports have both joint and bone infection.

** Including hip (n = 6), ankle (n = 8), and cuneiform (n = 1).

†† Including sternoclavicular (n = 1), elbow (n = 1), and wrist (n = 1).

‡‡ Some cases reported more than one radiological abnormalities.

TABLE 4. Treatment Strategy and Outcome of Non-*Aspergillus* Fungal Osteoarticular Infections in Pediatric and Adult Patients Reported in the Literature From 1970 to 2013

Treatment*	Total (n = 145 [%])	Children (n = 34 [%])	Adults (n = 111 [%])
Antifungal agent and surgery	95/137 (69.3)	21 (61.7)	74 (66.7)
Antifungal agents alone	35/137 (25.5)	10 (29.4)	25 (22.5)
Surgery alone	7	3	4
Type of surgical intervention†	112	27 (79.4)	85 (76.5)
Laminectomy (decompression)	4	0	4
Excision	60/112 (53.8)	14/31 (45.1)	46/85 (54.1)
Amputation	15/112 (13.4)	3	12/85 (14.1)
Bone grafting/autotransplantation/fixation	5	1	4
Articular surgical 2procedures	16/112 (14.2)	5	11/85 (12.9)
Insertion of prosthesis	1	0	1
Multiple procedures ≥2 (others)	11/112 (9.8)	4	7
Antifungal agents	n = 130	n = 31	n = 101
Amphotericin B	64/130 (49.2)	16 (51.6)	48 (47.5)
Voriconazole	34/130 (26.1)	9	25 (24.7)
Itraconazole	16/130 (12.3)	0	16/101 (15.8)
Other antifungal drugs‡	14/132 (10.6)	6	10/101 (9.9)
Combination antifungal treatment	33/130 (25.4)	9	24/101 (23.7)
Switch therapy	31/130 (23.8)	12/31 (38.7)	19/101 (18.8)
Reason for switch/stop			
Failure	21/130 (16.1)	6	15/102 (14.7)
Side effect	2	0	2
Switch from IV to oral	8	5	3
No switch	101 (76.5)	19/30 (63.3)	82/102 (80.4)
Duration of medical treatment, d (median [range])	115 [5–730]	96 [15–600]	115 [5–730]
Outcome			
Complete response	108/141 (76.6)	29/34 (85.3)	79/107 (73.8)
Partial response	13/141 (9.2)	4	9
Loss of follow-up	7	0	7
Death	13/141 (9.2)	1	12/107 (11.2)
Attributable death	7	0	7

All data are expressed in absolute number (%), otherwise indicated. Percentages were presented if the number of cases considered was ≥10.

* Data not available for some cases.

† Some patients underwent more than one surgical intervention.

‡ Ketoconazole, miconazole, fluconazole, 5-fluorocytosine, caspofungin.

infections.¹⁴³ It is worthwhile mentioning that the majority of patients with *Aspergillus* (67%) and *Candida* (48%) osteoarticular infections received combined antifungal therapy and surgery.^{1,5}

The treatment strategy for bone and joint infections due to non-*Aspergillus* filamentous fungi in the present study combined surgical and antifungal therapy in most cases. Therapeutic success, however, also depended upon the etiologic agent, the severity of the disease, type and location of infected bone, and the choice of antifungal agent. For example, *S. apiospermum* is more susceptible to antifungal agents than is *L. prolificans*. *S. apiospermum*, the related species *L. prolificans*, and other hyalohyphomycetes constituted 48.9% of osteoarticular infections. Treatment of osteomyelitis due to *S. apiospermum* often relies on a combination of antifungal therapy, surgical procedures, and occasionally amputation, when a poor prognosis is expected.^{41,59} The most potent in vitro activity has been observed with VRC.^{144,145} VRC, which was initially introduced in year 2001, has been used with good clinical results against *S. apiospermum* infections in immunocompromised patients, mostly for pulmonary and soft-tissue infections,^{146,147} and was recommended in the therapeutic

standard in the European guidelines.¹⁴⁸ Moreover, this agent has proved to be effective in treating *Acremonium* osteomyelitis,²² and it has been shown to be effective in the treatment of other cases of *S. apiospermum* osteomyelitis where surgical amputation was avoided.³²

As the antifungal susceptibility profile for *L. prolificans* showed higher resistance than *S. apiospermum*,^{144,145} identification of the fungus (from bone specimen) to the species level is important for the management of osteoarticular infections. The emergence of *Scedosporium aurantiacum*⁸⁴ and another related fungus, *Pseudallescheria fusioidea*,³⁷ as new etiological agents of osteomyelitis, indicates that this group is an emerging cause of serious invasive diseases of bone in both immunocompetent and immunocompromised patients, and should be considered in the differential diagnosis of fungal osteomyelitis. In such cases, negative culture of synovial biopsy should be treated with a great deal of care, and a proper specimen based on bone biopsy is highly recommended. In addition, *Scedosporium* and *Fusarium* spp. are morphologically similar in histopathology sections.¹⁴⁹ However, identification to species level is important to plan treatment strategy, as susceptibility to antifungal drugs is not similar.^{144,145,150}

Osteoarticular mucormycosis constitutes a serious diagnostic and therapeutic challenge. Among 23 cases of osteomyelitis due to mucormycosis, all were treated with AmB and 3 had an unfavorable outcome. Osteoarticular mucormycosis is a highly destructive infection with poor prognosis, if not diagnosed early.¹⁵¹

Fusarium is highly refractory to treatment by antifungal agents with partial response and treated with either AmB¹⁷ or VRC.¹⁴ Susceptibility to antifungal agents is species specific.¹⁵² Koehler et al,⁷ based on combined treatment with VRC and AmB, suggested a management algorithm for treatment of *Fusarium* osteomyelitis.

The treatment option of these groups of fungi is based on combination of surgery and antifungal therapy in adults and pediatrics. It is interesting to note a considerably higher proportion of patients receiving the combination of surgery and antifungal therapy with a good survival rate (90.8%). Our findings also are consistent with case series by Koehler et al,⁷ who reported 61 cases of non-*Aspergillus* bone and joint infections, with a survival rate of 88%.

Unlike *Candida* and *Aspergillus* osteoarticular infections, which were reported as a result of hematogenous spread,^{1,5} direct inoculation is the cause of infection for the majority of non-*Aspergillus* filamentous fungal species reported herein. Patients with trauma, wounds, and punctures in this study comprised 51.4% of all cases of fungal osteoarticular infections. It constitutes the key risk factor of underlying conditions for development of knee arthritis and lower-limb osteomyelitis. Fungi rarely cause disease in healthy immunocompetent hosts. Disease results when fungi accidentally penetrate host barriers or when immunologic defects or other debilitating conditions exist, which favor fungal entry and infection. The etiologic agents gain entrance through transcutaneous puncture wounds, usually by a thorn or a splinter, or other kinds of trauma, such as road accident fractures, can be identified as the portal of entry of the fungus.¹⁵³ Fungal spores may gain entrance to the host's soft tissue via plant fragments, or by injection with foreign body; the topography of the lesions on lower limbs, that is, feet and legs is typical presentation of direct inoculation particularly in pediatric patients of this study. A primary lesion can evolve to polymorphic skin lesions, including tenderness, swollen, erythema, or drainage sinus/abscess, which slowly enlarges and progress to osteomyelitis or arthritis.

This study identified previously unreported distinctions in the clinical manifestations, etiology, pathogenesis, and laboratory features between pediatric and adult patients with non-*Aspergillus* mould osteoarticular infections. Children presented with significantly more local signs than adults. Fever was present in twice the number of children than in adults. Epidural, paraspinal, and psoas abscesses were detected only in adult cases. As a preceding event, trauma and puncture wounds were nearly twice more frequent in children, whereas prior surgery was found more than 4 times more often in adults. Whereas lower-limb osteomyelitis and knee arthritis predominantly occurred in children, vertebral and craniofacial osteomyelitis with neurological deficits were common in adults. Infection by direct inoculation was a more frequent mechanism of infection in children than in adults. Finally, osteoarticular mucormycosis and phaeohiphomyces predominated in adults, possibly as a reflection of a greater frequency of diabetes mellitus and immune impairment.

This study has several limitations. It is retrospective and thus will not capture all cases. There is the potential for publication bias, suggesting that cases that may have more

favorable outcome are more likely to be published than those with poor outcome. Cognizant of these limitations, we believe that this study is the largest compilation and most detailed analysis of osteoarticular infections caused by medically important non-*Aspergillus* filamentous fungi. Moreover, due to the scarcity of data on these uncommon filamentous fungi causing osteoarticular infections, we believe that the case reports included in this study are likely representative enough of other cases. The data analysis of this study was based on detailed parameters of each single case to permit a high degree of analysis of several variables. Whereas an early study of literature reviewing 61 case series was highly informative in respect to detailed etiology and treatment, it lacked the numerical data for analysis of detailed clinical parameters, laboratory markers, as well as reporting only ten pediatric (≤ 15 y) patients.⁷

Non-*Aspergillus* osteoarticular mycoses occur most frequently in children after injury and in adults after surgery. These fungi can cause a serious illness and more virulent in individuals with impaired immune systems. Accurate early diagnosis and long-course therapy (median 6 mo) with a combined medical-surgical approach may result in favorable outcome.

REFERENCES

- Gamaletsou MN, Rammaert B, Bueno MA, et al. *Aspergillus* osteomyelitis: epidemiology, clinical manifestations, management, and outcome. *J Infect*. 2014;68:478–493.
- Gabrielli E, Fothergill AW, Brescini L, et al. Osteomyelitis caused by *Aspergillus* species: a review of 310 reported cases. *Clin Microbiol Infect*. 2014;20:559–565.
- Koehler P, Tacke D, Cornely OA. Aspergillosis of bones and joints: a review from 2002 until today. *Mycoses*. 2014;57:323–335.
- Slenker AK, Keith SW, Horn DL. Two hundred and eleven cases of *Candida* osteomyelitis: 17 case reports and a review of the literature. *Diag Microbiol Infect Dis*. 2012;73:89–93.
- Gamaletsou MN, Kontoyiannis DP, Sipsas NV, et al. *Candida* osteomyelitis: analysis of 207 pediatric and adult cases (1970–2011). *Clin Infect Dis*. 2012;55:1338–1351.
- Rammaert B, Gamaletsou MN, Zeller V, et al. Dimorphic fungal osteoarticular infections. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis*. 2014;33:2131–2140.
- Koehler P, Tacke D, Cornely OA. Bone and joint infections by Mucorales, Scedosporium, *Fusarium* and even rarer fungi. *Crit Rev Microbiol*. 2014;9:1–14.
- Malani AN, Vandenberg DM, Singal B, et al. Magnetic resonance imaging screening to identify spinal and paraspinal infections associated with injections of contaminated methylprednisolone acetate. *JAMA*. 2013;309:2465–2472.
- Lackner M, Hagen F, Meis JF, et al. Susceptibility and diversity in the therapy-refractory genus *Scedosporium*. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 2014;58:5877–5885.
- Garcia-Hermoso D, Hoinard D, Gantier JC, et al. Molecular and phenotypic evaluation of *Lichtheimia corymbifera* (formerly *Absidia corymbifera*) complex isolates associated with human mucormycosis: rehabilitation of *L. ramosa*. *J Clin Microbiol*. 2009;47:3862–3870.
- Summerbell RC, Schroers HJ. Analysis of phylogenetic relationship of *Cylindrocarpon lichenicola* and *Acremonium falciforme* to the *Fusarium solani* species complex and a review of similarities in the spectrum of opportunistic infections caused by these fungi. *J Clin Microbiol*. 2002;40:2866–2875.

12. de Hoog GS, Haase G, Chaturvedi V, et al. Taxonomy of medically important fungi in the molecular era. *Lancet Infect Dis*. 2013;13:385–386.
13. Edupuganti S, Roupael N, Mehta A, et al. *Fusarium* falciforme vertebral abscess and osteomyelitis: case report and molecular classification. *J Clin Microbiol*. 2011;49:2350–2353.
14. Sierra-Hoffman M, Paltiyevich-Gibson S, Carpenter JL, et al. *Fusarium* osteomyelitis: case report and review of the literature. *Scand J Infect Dis*. 2005;37:237–240.
15. Bourguignon RL, Walsh AF, Flynn JC, et al. *Fusarium* species osteomyelitis. Case report. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 1976;58:722–723.
16. Page JC, Friedlander G, Dockery GL. Postoperative *Fusarium* osteomyelitis. *J Foot Surg*. 1982;21:174–176.
17. Nuovo MA, Simmonds JE, Chacho MS, et al. *Fusarium solani* osteomyelitis with probable nosocomial spread. *Am J Clin Pathol*. 1988;90:738–741.
18. Brint JM, Flynn PM, Pearson TA, et al. Disseminated fusariosis involving bone in an adolescent with leukemia. *Pediatr Infect Dis J*. 1992;11:965–968.
19. Bader M, Jafri AK, Krueger T, et al. *Fusarium* osteomyelitis of the foot in a patient with diabetes mellitus. *Scand J Infect Dis*. 2003;35:895–896.
20. Wu CY, Chen GS, Lan CC. Onychomycosis caused by *Fusarium solani* in a woman with diabetes. *Clin Exp Dermatol*. 2009;34:e772–e774.
21. Gradon JD, Lerman A, Lutwick LI. Septic arthritis due to *Fusarium moniliforme*. *Rev Infect Dis*. 1990;12:716–717.
22. Moschovi M, Trimis G, Anastasopoulos J, et al. Subacute vertebral osteomyelitis in a child with diabetes mellitus associated with *Fusarium*. *Pediatr Int*. 2004;46:740–742.
23. Keynan Y, Sprecher H, Weber G. *Acremonium* vertebral osteomyelitis: molecular diagnosis and response to voriconazole. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2007;45:e5–e6.
24. Beaudreuil S, Buchler M, Al Najjar A, et al. Acute septic arthritis after kidney transplantation due to *Acremonium*. *Nephrol Dial Transplant*. 2003;18:850–851.
25. Noble RC, Salgado J, Newell SW, et al. Endophthalmitis and lumbar diskitis due to *Acremonium falciforme* in a splenectomized patient. *Clin Infect Dis*. 1997;24:277–278.
26. Bassiri-Jahromi S, Doostkam A. Fungal infection and increased mortality in patients with chronic granulomatous disease. *J Mycol Med*. 2012;22:52–57.
27. Charles JF, Eberle C, Daikh DI, et al. Resolution of recurrent *Fusarium* arthritis after prolonged antifungal therapy. *J Clin Rheumatol*. 2011;17:44–45.
28. Miyakis S, Velegaki A, Delikou S, et al. Invasive *Acremonium strictum* infection in a bone marrow transplant recipient. *Pediatr Infect Dis J*. 2006;25:273–275.
29. Szombathy SP, Chez MG, Laxer RM. Acute septic arthritis due to *Acremonium*. *J Rheumatol*. 1988;15:714–715.
30. Brabender W, Ketcherside J, Hodges GR, et al. *Acremonium kiliense* osteomyelitis of the calvarium. *Neurosurgery*. 1985;16:554–556.
31. Hell M, Neureiter J, Wojna A, et al. Post-traumatic *Pseudallescheria apiosperma* osteomyelitis: positive outcome of a young immunocompetent male patient due to surgical intervention and voriconazole therapy. *Mycoses*. 2011;54(Suppl 3):43–47.
32. Gompels MM, Bethune CA, Jackson G, et al. *Scedosporium apiospermum* in chronic granulomatous disease treated with an HLA matched bone marrow transplant. *J Clin Pathol*. 2002;55:784–786.
33. Porte L, Khatibi S, Hajj LE, et al. *Scedosporium apiospermum* mycetoma with bone involvement successfully treated with voriconazole. *Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg*. 2006;100:891–894.
34. Stripeli F, Pasparakis D, Velegraki A, et al. *Scedosporium apiospermum* skeletal infection in an immunocompetent child. *Med Mycol*. 2009;47:441–444.
35. Gottesman-Yekutieli T, Shwartz O, Edelman A, et al. *Pseudallescheria boydii* infection of a prosthetic hip joint—an uncommon infection in a rare location. *Am J Med Sci*. 2011;342:250–253.
36. Cetrulo CL Jr, Leto Barone AA, Jordan K, et al. A multidisciplinary approach to the management of fungal osteomyelitis: current concepts in post-traumatic lower extremity reconstruction: a case report. *Microsurgery*. 2012;32:144–147.
37. Lindsley MD, Guarro J, Khairy RN, et al. *Pseudallescheria fusioidea*, a new cause of osteomyelitis. *J Clin Microbiol*. 2008;46:2141–2143.
38. Kanafani ZA, Comair Y, Kanj SS. *Pseudallescheria boydii* cranial osteomyelitis and subdural empyema successfully treated with voriconazole: a case report and literature review. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis*. 2004;23:836–840.
39. Sydnor MK, Kaushik S, Knight TE Jr et al. Mycotic osteomyelitis due to *Scedosporium apiospermum*: MR imaging-pathologic correlation. *Skeletal Radiol*. 2003;32:656–660.
40. Studahl M, Backteman T, Stalhammar F, et al. Bone and joint infection after traumatic implantation of *Scedosporium prolificans* treated with voriconazole and surgery. *Acta Paediatr*. 2003;92:980–982.
41. Steinbach WJ, Schell WA, Miller JL, et al. *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.
42. Piper JP, Golden J, Brown D, et al. Successful treatment of *Scedosporium apiospermum* suppurative arthritis with itraconazole. *Pediatr Infect Dis J*. 1990;9:674–675.
43. Levine NB, Kurokawa R, Fichtenbaum CJ, et al. An immunocompetent patient with primary *Scedosporium apiospermum* vertebral osteomyelitis. *J Spinal Disord Tech*. 2002;15:425–430.
44. Dellestable F, Kures L, Mainard D, et al. Fungal arthritis due to *Pseudallescheria boydii* (*Scedosporium apiospermum*). *J Rheumatol*. 1994;21:766–768.
45. Malekzadeh M, Overturf GD, Auerbach SB, et al. Chronic, recurrent osteomyelitis caused by *Scedosporium inflatum*. *Pediatr Infect Dis J*. 1990;9:357–359.
46. Mesfin FB, Tobin E, Adamo MA, et al. Fungal vertebral osteomyelitis due to *Scedosporium apiospermum* after near-drowning. *J Neurosurg Spine*. 2008;9:58–61.
47. German JW, Kellie SM, Pai MP, et al. Treatment of a chronic *Scedosporium apiospermum* vertebral osteomyelitis. Case report. *Neurosurg*. 2004;17:E9.
48. Taj-Aldeen SJ, Taj-Aldeen WS, Guarro J, et al. Osteomyelitis caused by *Scedosporium apiospermum* in immunocompetent patient. *J Invasive Fungal Infect*. 2008;2:96–99.
49. Kesson AM, Bellemore MC, O'Mara TJ, et al. *Scedosporium prolificans* osteomyelitis in an immunocompetent child treated with a novel agent, hexadecylphosphocholine (miltefosine), in combination with terbinafine and voriconazole: a case report. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2009;48:1257–1261.
50. Howden BP, Slavin MA, Schwarer AP, et al. Successful control of disseminated *Scedosporium prolificans* infection with a combination of voriconazole and terbinafine. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis*. 2003;22:111–113.
51. Ginter G, de Hoog GS, Pschaid A, et al. Arthritis without grains caused by *Pseudallescheria boydii*. *Mycoses*. 1995;38:369–371.

52. Ong A, Blyth CC, Bency R, et al. Fatal mycotic aneurysms due to *Scedosporium* and *Pseudallescheria* infection. *J Clin Microbiol*. 2011;49:2067–2071.
53. Guignard S, Hubert D, Dupont B, et al. Multifocal *Scedosporium apiospermum* spondylitis in a cystic fibrosis patient. *J Cyst Fibros*. 2008;7:89–91.
54. Garcia-Vidal C, Cabellos C, Ayats J, et al. Fungal postoperative spondylodiscitis due to *Scedosporium prolificans*. *Spine J*. 2009;9:e1–e7.
55. Lonser RR, Brodke DS, Dailey AT. Vertebral osteomyelitis secondary to *Pseudallescheria boydii*. *J Spinal Disord*. 2001;14:361–364.
56. 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.
57. Li JY, Yong TY, Grove DI, et al. Successful control of *Scedosporium prolificans* septic arthritis and probable osteomyelitis without radical surgery in a long-term renal transplant recipient. *Transpl Infect Dis*. 2008;10:63–65.
58. Matlani M, Kaur R, Shweta. A case of *Scedosporium prolificans* osteomyelitis in an immunocompetent child, misdiagnosed as tubercular osteomyelitis. *Indian J Dermatol*. 2013;58:80–81.
59. Hung LH, Norwood LA. Osteomyelitis due to *Pseudallescheria boydii*. *South Med J*. 1993;86:231–234.
60. Tirado-Miranda R, Solera-Santos J, Brasero JC, et al. Septic arthritis due to *Scedosporium apiospermum*: case report and review. *J Infect*. 2001;43:210–212.
61. Dalton PA, Munckhof WJ, Walters DW. *Scedosporium prolificans*: an uncommon cause of septic arthritis. *ANZ J Surg*. 2006;76:661–663.
62. Pickles RW, Pacey DE, Muir DB, et al. Experience with infection by *Scedosporium prolificans* including apparent cure with Fluconazole therapy. *J Infect*. 1996;33:193–197.
63. Vasoo S, Yeo SB, Lim PL, et al. Efficacy of voriconazole for *Scedosporium apiospermum* skull base osteomyelitis: case report and literature review. *Int J Antimicrob Agents*. 2008;31:184–185.
64. Busaba NY, Poulin M. Invasive *Pseudallescheria boydii* fungal infection of the temporal bone. *Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg*. 1997;117:S91–94.
65. Gatto J, Paterson D, Davis L, et al. Vertebral osteomyelitis due to *Pseudallescheria boydii*. *Pathology*. 1997;29:238–240.
66. Holmes NE, Trevillyan JM, Kidd SE, et al. Locally extensive angio-invasive *Scedosporium prolificans* infection following resection for squamous cell lung carcinoma. *Med Mycol Case Rep*. 2013;2:98–102.
67. Vanhooteghem O, Gillard P, Dezfoulian B, et al. *Scedosporium apiospermum* septicemia following a wedge excision of an ingrown toenail. *Int J Dermatol*. 2009;48:1137–1139.
68. Gosbell IB, Toumasatos V, Yong J, et al. Cure of orthopaedic infection with *Scedosporium prolificans*, using voriconazole plus terbinafine, without the need for radical surgery. *Mycoses*. 2003;46:233–236.
69. Angelini A, Drago G, Ruggieri P. Post-tsunami primary *Scedosporium apiospermum* osteomyelitis of the knee in an immunocompetent patient. *Int J Infect Dis*. 2013;17:e646–e649.
70. Frazier DD, Campbell DR, Garvey TA, et al. Fungal infections of the spine. Report of eleven patients with long-term follow-up. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 2001;560–565:83-A.
71. Wilson CM, O'Rourke EJ, McGinnis MR, et al. *Scedosporium inflatum*: clinical spectrum of a newly recognized pathogen. *J Infect Dis*. 1990;161:102–107.
72. Wood GM, McCormack JG, Muir DB, et al. Clinical features of human infection with *Scedosporium inflatum*. *Clin Infect Dis*. 1992;14:1027–1033.
73. Menon S, Edwards JC. Mycotic arthritis of the knee due to *Madurella grisea*. *Br J Rheumatol*. 1994;33:292–295.
74. Lutwick LI, Galgiani JN, Johnson RH, et al. Visceral fungal infections due to *Petriellidium boydii* (*Allescheria boydii*). In vitro drug sensitivity studies. *Am J Med*. 1976;61:632–640.
75. Hayden G, Lapp C, Loda F. Arthritis caused by *Monosporium apiospermum* treated with intraarticular amphotericin B. *Am J Dis Child*. 1977;131:927.
76. Fernandez-Guerrero ML, Ruiz Barnes P, Ales JM. Postcraniotomy mycetoma of the scalp and osteomyelitis due to *Pseudallescheria boydii*. *J Infect Dis*. 1987;156:855.
77. Hung CC, Chang SC, Yang PC, et al. Invasive pulmonary Pseudoallescheriasis with direct invasion of the thoracic spine in an immunocompetent patient. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis*. 1994;13:749–751.
78. Haapasari J, Essen RV, Kahanpaa A, et al. Fungal arthritis simulating juvenile rheumatoid arthritis. *Br Med J*. 1982;285:923–924.
79. Kemp HB, Bedford AF, Fincham WJ. *Petriellidium boydii* infection of the knee: a case report. *Skeletal Radiol*. 1982;9:114–117.
80. Ansari RA, Hindson DA, Stevens DL, et al. *Pseudallescheria boydii* arthritis and osteomyelitis in a patient with Cushing's disease. 1987;80:90–92.
81. Dirschl DR, Henderson RC. Patellar overgrowth after infection of the knee. A case report. *J Bone Joint Surg A*. 1991;73:940–941.
82. Halpern AA, Nagel DA, Schurman DJ. *Allescheria boydii* osteomyelitis following multiple steroid injections and surgery. *Clin Orthop Rel Res*. 1977;126:232–234.
83. Lang AG, Peterson HA. Osteomyelitis following puncture wounds of the foot in children. *J Trauma*. 1976;16:993–999.
84. Kooijman CM, Kampinga GA, de Hoog GS, et al. Successful treatment of *Scedosporium aurantiacum* osteomyelitis in an immunocompetent patient. *Surg Infect (Larchmt)*. 2007;8:605–610.
85. Toy EC, Rinaldi MG, Savitch CB, et al. Endocarditis and hip arthritis associated with *Scedosporium inflatum*. *South Med J*. 1990;83:957–960.
86. McCall RE. Maduromycosis *Allescheria boydii* septic arthritis of the knee: a case report. *Orthopedics*. 1981;4:1144–1146.
87. Drouhet E, Dupont B. Laboratory and clinical assessment of ketoconazole in deep-seated mycoses. *Am J Med*. 1983;74:30–47.
88. Tadros TS, Workowski KA, Siegel RJ, et al. Pathology of hyalohyphomycosis caused by *Scedosporium apiospermum* (*Pseudallescheria boydii*): an emerging mycosis. *Hum Pathol*. 1998;29:1266–1272.
89. Talbot TR, Hatcher J, Davis SF, et al. *Scedosporium apiospermum* pneumonia and sternal wound infection in a heart transplant recipient. *Transplantation*. 2002;74:1645–1647.
90. Galgiani JN, Stevens DA, Graybill JR. *Pseudallescheria boydii* infections treated with ketoconazole. Clinical evaluations of seven patients and in vitro susceptibility results. *Chest*. 1984;86:219–224.
91. Lichtman DM, Johnson DC, Mack GR, et al. Maduromycosis (*Allescheria boydii*) infection of the hand. A case report. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 1978;60:546–548.
92. Capoor MR, Khanna G, Nair D, et al. Eumycetoma pedis due to *Exophiala jeanselmei*. *Indian J*. 2007;25:155–157.
93. Dan M, Yossepowitch O, Hendel D, et al. *Phialemonium curvatum* arthritis of the knee following intra-articular injection of a corticosteroid. *Med Mycol*. 2006;44:571–574.

94. Roncoroni AJ, Smayevsky J. Arthritis and endocarditis from *Exophiala jeanselmei* infection. *Ann Intern Med.* 1988;108:773.
95. Lim A, Speers D, Inderjeeth C. *Cladophialophora* (*Xylohypha*) *bantiana*: an unusual cause of septic arthritis. *Rheumatology (Oxford).* 2013;52:958–959.
96. Karuppal R, Kumaran CM, Marthya A, et al. Tibial osteomyelitis due to *Fonsecaea pedrosoi* in an immunocompetent patient: case report. *J Foot Ankle Surg.* 2009;48:569–572.
97. Sridhar S, Cheong D, Fontaine JP, et al. *Alternaria*-infected sternoclavicular. *Infect Dis Clin Pract.* 2013;21:e21–e23.
98. Destino L, Sutton DA, Helon AL, et al. Severe osteomyelitis caused by *Myceliophthora thermophila* after a pitchfork injury. *Ann Clin Microbiol Antimicrob.* 2006;5:21.
99. Dewar CL, Sigler L. Fungal arthritis of the knee caused by *Mycoleptodiscus indicus*. *Clin Rheumatol.* 2010;29:1061–1065.
100. Shigemura T, Agematsu K, Yamazaki T, et al. Femoral osteomyelitis due to *Cladophialophora arxii* in a patient with chronic granulomatous disease. *Infection.* 2009;37:469–473.
101. Woollons A, Darley CR, Pandian S, et al. Phaeohiphomycosis caused by *Exophiala dermatitidis* following intra-articular steroid injection. *Br J Dermatol.* 1996;135:475–477.
102. Sutton DA, Timm WD, Morgan-Jones G, et al. Human phaeohiphomytic osteomyelitis caused by the coelomycete *Phomopsis saccardo* 1905: criteria for identification, case history, and therapy. *J Clin Microbiol.* 1999;37:807–811.
103. Khan SA, Hasan AS, Capoor MR, et al. Calcaneal osteomyelitis caused by *Exophiala jeanselmei* in an immunocompetent child. A case report. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2007;89:859–862.
104. O’Riordan E, Denton J, Taylor PM, et al. Madura foot in the U.K.: fungal osteomyelitis after renal transplantation. *Transplantation.* 2002;73:151–153.
105. Morio F, Berre JY, Garcia-Hermoso D, et al. Phaeohiphomycosis due to *Exophiala xenobiotica* as a cause of fungal arthritis in an HIV-infected patient. *Med Mycol.* 2012;50:513–517.
106. Magnon KC, Jalbert M, Padhye AA. Osteolytic phaeohiphomycosis caused by *Phialemonium obovatum*. *Arch Pathol Lab Med.* 1993;117:841–843.
107. Katsolis JG, Sudduth EJ, Chen N, et al. *Alternaria osteomyelitis* in an immunocompetent host treated with voriconazole. *Infect Dis Clin Pract.* 2012;20:164–166.
108. Lee DK, Schwartz AK. Primary mycetoma osteomyelitis of the calcaneus with active subcutaneous nodules. *J Foot Ankle Surg.* 2007;46:302–306.
109. Lespessailles E, Kerdraon R, Michenet P, et al. *Alternaria* infection of the skin and joints. A report of two cases involving the hand. *Rev Rhum Engl (Ed).* 1999;66:509–511.
110. Murtagh J, Smith JW, Mackowiak PA. Case report: *Alternaria osteomyelitis*: eight years of recurring disease requiring cyclic courses of amphotericin B for cure. *Am J Med Sci.* 1987;293:399–402.
111. Yangco BG, TeStrake D, Okafor J. *Phialophora richardsiae* isolated from infected human bone: morphological, physiological and antifungal susceptibility studies. *Mycopathologia.* 1984;86:103–111.
112. Kael AT, Weitzman I. Acute monoarticular arthritis due to *Phialophora parasitica*. *Am J Med.* 1983;74:519–522.
113. Koppang HS, Olsen I, Stuge U, et al. Aureobasidium infection of the jaw. *J Oral Pathol Med.* 1991;20:191–195.
114. Uberti-Foppa C, Fumagalli L, Gianotti N, et al. First case of osteomyelitis due to *Phialophora richardsiae* in a patient with HIV infection. *AIDS.* 1995;9:975–976.
115. Beeram V, Challa S, Vannemreddy P. Cerebral mycetoma with cranial osteomyelitis. *J Neurosurg Pediatrics.* 2008;1:493–495.
116. Roilides E, Sigler L, Bibashi E, et al. Disseminated infection due to *Chrysosporium zonatum* in a patient with chronic granulomatous disease and review of non-*Aspergillus* fungal infections in patients with this disease. *J Clin Microbiol.* 1999;37:18–25.
117. Stillwell WT, Rubin BD, Axelrod JL. *Chrysosporium*, a new causative agent in osteomyelitis. A case report. *Clin Orthop.* 1984:190–192.
118. Cohen-Abbo A, Edwards KM. Multifocal osteomyelitis caused by *Paecilomyces varioti* in a patient with chronic granulomatous disease. *Infection.* 1995;23:55–57.
119. Pierce PF, Wood MB, Roberts GD, et al. *Saksenaia vasiformis* osteomyelitis. *J Clin Microbiol.* 1987;25:933–935.
120. Chen F, Lu G, Kang Y, et al. Mucormycosis spondylodiscitis after lumbar disc puncture. *Eur Spine J.* 2006;15:370–376.
121. Meis JF, Kullberg BJ, Pruszczyński M, et al. Severe osteomyelitis due to the zygomycete *Apophysomyces elegans*. *J Clin Microbiol.* 1994;32:3078–3081.
122. Echols RM, Selinger DS, Hallowell C, et al. *Rhizopus osteomyelitis*. A case report and review. *Am J Med.* 1979;66:141–145.
123. Eaton ME, Padhye AA, Schwartz DA, et al. Osteomyelitis of the sternum caused by *Apophysomyces elegans*. *J Clin Microbiol.* 1994;32:2827–2828.
124. Chaudhuri R, McKeown B, Harrington D, et al. Mucormycosis osteomyelitis causing avascular necrosis of the cuboid bone: MR imaging findings. *AJR Am J Roentgenol.* 1992;159:1035–1037.
125. Weinberg WG, Wade BH, Cierny G, et al. Invasive infection due to *Apophysomyces elegans* in immunocompetent hosts. *Clin Infect Dis.* 1993;17:881–8843rd.
126. Dinasarapu CR, Auerbach J, Levi MH, et al. Mucormycosis as a pathogen in polymicrobial necrotizing fasciitis. *Infect Dis Clin-Pract.* 2010;18:417–418.
127. Oo MM, Kutteh LA, Koc ON, et al. Mucormycosis of petrous bone in an allogeneic stem cell transplant recipient. *Clin Infect Dis.* 1998;27:1546–1547.
128. Adler N, Seitz IA, Gottlieb LJ. Acute wound closure and reconstruction following head zygomycosis: presentation of two cases and review of literature. *J Reconstr Microsurg.* 2008;24:507–513.
129. Parra-Ruiz J, Pena-Monje A, Tomas-Jimenez C, et al. Septic arthritis due to *Absidia corymbifera* in a patient with HIV-1 infection. *Infection.* 2008;36:279–281.
130. Buhl MR, Joseph TP, Snelling BE, et al. Temporofacial zygomycosis in a pregnant woman. *Infection.* 1992;20:230–232.
131. Vashi N, Avedian R, Brown J, et al. Successful surgical and medical treatment of *Rhizopus osteomyelitis* following hematopoietic cell transplantation. *Orthopedics.* 2012;35:e1556–e1561.
132. Fortun J, Cobo J, Canal J, et al. Post-traumatic cranial mucormycosis in an immunocompetent patient. *J Oral Maxillofac Surg.* 1995;53:1099–1102.
133. Huffnagle KE, Southern PM Jr, Byrd LT, et al. *Apophysomyces elegans* as an agent of zygomycosis in a patient following trauma. *J Med Vet Mycol.* 1992;30:83–86.
134. Holtom PD, Obuch AB, Ahlmann ER, et al. Mucormycosis of the tibia: a case report and review of the literature. *Clin Orthop.* 2000:222–228.
135. Shaw CJ, Thomason AJ, Spencer JD. Fungal osteomyelitis of the foot. A report of an unusual case. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 1994;76:137–139.

136. Buruma OJ, Craane H, Kunst MW. Vertebral osteomyelitis and epidural abscess due to mucormycosis, a case report. *Clin Neurol Neurosurg.* 1979;81:39–44.
137. Maliwan N, Reyes CV, Rippon JW. Osteomyelitis secondary to cutaneous mucormycosis. Report of a case and a review of the literature. *Am J Dermatopathol.* 1984;6:479–481.
138. Moore PH Jr, McKinney RG, Mettler FA Jr. Radiographic and radionuclide findings in *Rhizopus osteomyelitis*. *Radiology.* 1978;127:665–666.
139. Ratnayake G, Judson IR, Scurr M, et al. Fungal spinal cord compression in metastatic synovial sarcoma. *Acta Oncol.* 2011;50:158–159.
140. Mostaza JM, Barbado FJ, Fernandez-Martin J, et al. Cutaneous osteoarticular mucormycosis due to *Cunninghamella bertholletiae* in a patient with AIDS. *Rev Infect Dis.* 1989;11:316–318.
141. Stevanovic MV, Mirzayan R, Holtom PD, et al. *Mucormycosis osteomyelitis* in the hand. *Orthopedics.* 1999;22:449–450.
142. Jakle C, Leek JC, Olson DA, et al. Septic arthritis due to *Fusarium solani*. *J Rheumatol.* 1983;10:151–153.
143. Katragkou A, Walsh TJ, Roilides E. Why is mucormycosis more difficult to cure than more common mycoses? *Clin Microbiol Infect.* 2014;20(Suppl 6):74–81.
144. Guarro J, Kantarcioglu AS, Horre R, et al. *Scedosporium apiospermum*: changing clinical spectrum of a therapy-refractory opportunist. *Med Mycol.* 2006;44:295–327.
145. Cortez KJ, Roilides E, Quiroz-Telles F, et al. Infections caused by *Scedosporium* spp. *Clin Microbiol Rev.* 2008;21:157–197.
146. Schaeferman 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.
147. 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.
148. Tortorano AM, Richardson M, Roilides E, et al. ESCMID and ECMM joint guidelines on diagnosis and management of hyalohyphomycosis: *Fusarium* spp., *Scedosporium* spp. and others. *Clin Microbiol Infect.* 2014;20(Suppl 3):27–46.
149. Schell WA. Histopathology of fungal rhinosinusitis. *Otolaryngol Clin North Am.* 2000;33:251–276.
150. Al-Hatmi AM, van Diepeningen AD, Curfs-Breuker I, et al. Specific antifungal susceptibility profiles of opportunists in the *Fusarium fujikuroi* complex. *J Antimicrob Chemother.* 2015;70:1068–1071.
151. Harrasser N, Banke IJ, Hauschild M, et al. Clinical challenge: fatal mucormycotic osteomyelitis caused by *Rhizopus microsporus* despite aggressive multimodal treatment. *BMC Infect Dis.* 2014;14:488.
152. Nucci M, Marr KA, Vehreschild MJ, et al. Improvement in the outcome of invasive fusariosis in the last decade. *Clin Microbiol Infect.* 2014;20:580–585.
153. Esterre P, Queiroz-Telles F. Management of chromoblastomycosis: novel perspectives. *Curr Opin Infect Dis.* 2006;19:148–152.