

# An Overview Of Systemic Candida Infections In Peri-operative Period And Intensive Care

N Nader-Djalal, G Zadeii

## Citation

N Nader-Djalal, G Zadeii. *An Overview Of Systemic Candida Infections In Peri-operative Period And Intensive Care*. The Internet Journal of Advanced Nursing Practice. 1997 Volume 2 Number 1.

## Abstract

### OVERVIEW

As the anesthesiologists are about to involve with management of critically ill patients in intensive care settings as part of peri-operative medicine, the number of patients with systemic candidiasis in their practice will increase. Management of these patients has been a challenge to all intensive care specialists. Basic understanding of the pathophysiology and biology of these pathogens will increase the found of knowledge necessary to treat these patients and prevent the transmission of infectious agent to uninfected individuals.

### INTRODUCTION

Fungal infections have dramatically increased in medical and surgical intensive care units with associated mortality and morbidity.<sup>(1)</sup>,<sup>(2)</sup> Intensive care patients are by far susceptible to fungal infections during their stay in the hospital. *Candida albicans* has become a major nosocomial pathogen in the hospitals. It is the fourth leading cause for isolated positive blood cultures in U.S. hospitals.<sup>(3)</sup> With increasing number of patients admitted to ICU, *Candida* infection will be a major challenge to the intensive care physician. The growing list of resistant pathogens, nosocomial transmission and lack of an effective antifungal drug with a lower toxicity, are the potential problems associated with systemic fungal diseases. Epidemiological studies have shown that *Candida* infections may be transmitted from patient to patient and from health care provider to patients.<sup>(4)</sup>

### CANDIDA INFECTIONS

Fungi are eukaryotic organisms that reproduce both in sexual and asexual fusion. They have also been called molds, yeast and mushrooms. More than 80 species of *Candida* have been identified, but only eight are considered pathogenic: (i.e., *C.*

*albicans*, *C. stellatoidea*, *C. tropicalis*, *C. Keifyr*, *C. quilliermondi*, *C. krusei*, *C. parapsilosis*, *C. glabrata* (torulopsis) and *C. lusitaniae*. *Candidas* are part of the normal flora of gastrointestinal tract, vagina and oral cavity of human.<sup>(5)</sup> Phagocytosis by neutrophils and macrophages is the main host defense mechanism against tissue invasion and dissemination of fungi. Fungi have hydrolytic enzymes that damage membrane structure and results in tissue invasion. Major risk factors for *Candida* infections are listed in Table 1.

Table 1- Risk factors of Candidiasis

- A. Immune suppression
- B. Mechanical
- C. Absence of normal flora
- D. Nutritional

In addition to systemic involvement, *Candida* may result in superficial and locally invasive infections. The superficial infections are associated with alterations in hydration and acidity of skin, oropharynx, respiratory tract, gastrointestinal mucosa and other superficial tissues. Locally invasive forms of *Candidiasis* include esophagitis, pneumonitis, cystitis and pyelonephritis. Systemic *Candidiasis* whether in acute or chronic form refers to generalized dissemination of the pathogen. It involves major organs including heart, kidneys, liver, spleen, lungs, brain, peritoneum, joints and skeletal muscles. There is a period of systemic candidemia. Most of systemic infections are endogenous and originate from the gastrointestinal tract. However, indwelling catheters may serve as external sources of *Candidiasis*.

Eyes are often involved as a part of systemic dissemination, and therefore, ophthalmoscopic examination is an important

diagnostic tool in detecting systemic Candida infections. Endophthalmitis manifests with orbital pain, blurred vision and scotoma. It results from retinal abscesses that gradually extend into vitreous humor. If untreated, it can lead complete blindness.

### **CANDIDA ENDOCARDITIS**

The incidence of nosocomial endocarditis is rising. Candida infects native cardiac valves in IV drug users and patients receiving parenteral nutrition. It may also occur following open heart surgeries. *C. parapsilosis* is the most common cause of endocarditis.<sup>(6)</sup> *C. albicans* and *C. tropicalis* can also cause fungal endocarditis, as well as pericarditis. Development of microabscesses invading the cardiac conduction system results in a complete heart block.<sup>(7)</sup> It is important to note that negative blood cultures do not rule out the possibility of Candida endocarditis.

### **URINARY TRACT INFECTIONS**

*C. albicans* has been reported to cause 11% of all nosocomial urinary tract infection (UTI).<sup>(8)</sup> Renal candidiasis is hematogenous and originate from gastrointestinal tract. Major risk factors for fungal UTI include the presence of foreign material in the urinary tract such as stents or stomal tubes, mechanical obstruction to the urine flow and renal transplantation. Candida can cause perinephric abscesses that may erode into the renal tubules, damage the renal cortex and cause tubular obstruction. The extension of fungi can turn into a fungus ball within the renal pelvis or ureters and lead to an obstruction and hydronephrosis. This may result in pyelonephritis with secondary fungemia and sepsis. Dissemination of fungi usually occurs with instrumentation of an immune suppressed or diabetic patient. Retrograde invasion of the kidneys may lead to papillary necrosis. Usual candiduria often resolves with changing the indwelling catheter.

### **CENTRAL NERVOUS SYSTEM (CNS) INFECTIONS**

CNS involvement is generally seen following insertion of intra-ventricular shunting devices, however, it may also occur after skull fractures, chronic otitis media. Candida infection is associated with abscess formation, granulocytic vasculitis and meningitis. Direct staining of cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) reveals a positive result in less than 50% of the documented infections. Analysis of CSF usually demonstrates moderate increase in neutrophils and mononuclear cells. Intrathecal administration of amphotericin B has been used with some success.<sup>(9)</sup>

### **RESPIRATORY SYSTEM**

Candida is often a contaminant of respiratory tract and definite diagnosis can only be made by culturing the bronchial lavage fluid and/or bronchoscopic biopsy. Pulmonary involvement is usually blood borne.

### **GASTROINTESTINAL SYSTEM**

Esophageal infection occurs primarily in patients with acquired immune deficiency (AIDS), post radiation and chemotherapy. Candida cholecystitis has a high mortality rate, and may extend into hepatosplenic infection in neutropenic patients secondary to aplastic anemia and acute leukemia.<sup>(10)</sup> Splenectomy has been recommended as a curative treatment for isolated splenic infections if there is no response to medical therapy.<sup>(11)</sup> Candida peritonitis has been reported in patients who have indwelling peritoneal catheter for dialysis (CAPD) or following an abdominal surgery.<sup>(12)</sup> Dissemination is frequent among children <sup>(13)</sup>. Antifungal treatment is the first line of treatment followed by removal of the catheter.

### **DIAGNOSIS**

Candida is a part of normal flora and is often isolated from the urine, sputum and stool as a contaminant. The diagnosis of disseminated Candidiasis is often elusive since over 50% of blood cultures are negative. Serologic tests such as determination of complement-fixing antibody titer are useful in diagnosis of the candidiasis. Immune precipitation and latex agglutinin test are neither sensitive nor specific, therefore they are not considered a reliable tool of diagnosis of infection. Biochemical tests like determination of serum enolase has a similar results.

Pseudohyphae morphology on wet smear which is associated with positive culture results generally identifies superficial Candidiasis. Blood cultures have a low sensitivity but they have a very high specificity, therefore positive blood culture should be taken very seriously because of the rarity of false positive results. Staining with potassium hydroxide preparation and cultures can be done on biopsied tissue, as well as blood.

### **PROPHYLACTICS AND TREATMENT**

Since there is no clear cut diagnostic criteria for systemic candidiasis, in the presence of persistent, unexplained fever in patients with some combination of neutropenia, prolonged ICU stay (>7 days), multiantibacterial therapy, indwelling central venous catheters, and colonization at one or more body sites with candida, empirical treatment is commonly

suggested<sup>(14)</sup>. Fungal prophylaxis has been successful in high risk patients. Use of nystatin in mucocutaneous candidiasis and local infections has been shown to decrease the incidence of systemic disease.<sup>(15)</sup> In bone marrow transplant recipients, administration of fluconazole has decreased the incidence of Candida infections.<sup>(16)</sup> In the presence of clinical signs of systemic candidiasis such as endophthalmitis and heavy colonization of the urine in high risk patients, empirical treatment may be indicated.

Amphotericin B, a polyene antibiotic, is the cornerstone of chemotherapy for disseminated fungal infections. Because of its very low solubility, this drug can only be administered via the intravenous route.<sup>(17)</sup> Renal toxicity remains the most serious problem and decreases the therapeutic index of this agent.<sup>(18)</sup> The recommended daily dose of amphotericin B is 0.4- 0.5 mg/kg, that can be doubled on alternate day for several weeks until the cumulative dose reaches a specified level which varies between 500 mg to 4 grams. Fever, chills, nausea, vomiting and rigors are also associated with amphotericin. Premedicating the patients with acetaminophen and diphenhydramine 30 min before amphotericin B usually controls fever and chills. Rigors are generally treated with meperidine. Phlebitis is another complication associated with this agent which may be prevented with simultaneous infusion of heparin.

Nephrotoxicity is a major complication. Amphotericin B can cause renal vasoconstriction, renal tubular acidosis and increased urinary loss of potassium and magnesium. Serum electrolytes, blood urea nitrogen (BUN) and creatinine have to be followed, and the urine should routinely be monitored for cylindruria. If BUN rises greater than 50 mg/dl and/or serum creatinine increases more than 3.0 mg/dl, the drug should be temporarily discontinued or switched to a newer lipid-based generation if the candidemia persists<sup>(19)</sup>. Preexisting prerenal azotemia increases the toxic effects of this agent. Prehydration with normal saline decreases the nephrotoxicity associated with amphotericin B. Potassium and magnesium replacement is usually required.

Because of the high toxicity of amphotericin B, new lipid-based delivery systems have been recently developed in order to diminish the systemic toxicity of the parent medication. Three common formulations in the market include ABLC (amphotericin B lipid complex), AmBiosome, and ABCD (amphotericin B cholloidal dispersion). They are available in three different shapes; sheet, disc and small unilamellar vesicles. These products

contain between 10-50% mole amphotericin B and have half-life ranging between 26-150 minutes<sup>(20,21)</sup>

Oral fluconazole 400mg, can be used as an alternate to amphotericin B in immune competent patients. In the presence of immune deficiency, a combination therapy with fluconazole and flucytosine has been previously used<sup>(22)</sup>. Combination therapy using amphotericin B and fluconazole is still controversial and is generally not recommended<sup>(23,24)</sup>. Advantages of fluconazole include a broad spectrum of activity, high therapeutic index and fewer side effects compared to amphotericin B<sup>(25)</sup>. In high doses azole group of antifungal agents may produce liver dysfunction ranging from asymptomatic rises of liver enzymes to overwhelming hepatic dysfunction<sup>(26)</sup>. Common side effects include headache, nausea, vomiting and rarely alopecia and impotence. Emergence of resistant species such as *C. krusei* has been reported with use of fluconazole<sup>(27)</sup>. Furthermore, administration of oral medication may add an advantage of providing higher concentrations of antifungal medication to superficial candidiasis such as esophagitis. Oral suspensions of itraconazole have been successfully used to treat candida esophagitis. The tissue concentration of this compound is several times higher than systemic levels because of a difference in tissue acidity.

Introccular injections of amphotericin B and S-flucytosine are used for treatment of candida endophthalmitis. If medical therapy fails, vitrectomy is recommended. Candiduria generally does not require a treatment unless it occurs in patients with kidney transplant and immune deficiency<sup>(28)</sup>. Sources of candida should be identified and eliminated whenever possible. Treating the predisposing conditions such as low neutrophil count will increase the success rate of therapeutic intervention.

### **References**

1. Jarvis WR, Epidemiology of nosocomial fungal infections, with emphasis on Candida species, Clin Infect Dis., 1995;20:1526-30
2. Beck-Saque CM, Jarvis WR, National nosocomial infections surveillance system, Secular Trends in the Epidemiology of Nosocomial Fungal Infections in the United States, 1980-1990, J Infect. Dis., 1993;167:1247-51
3. Benerjee SN, Emori TG, Culver DH, et al., Secular Trends in Nosocomial Primary Blood Stream in the United States, 1980-1990, Am J Med. 1991;3B(Suppl):86S-89S
4. Bauer TM, Ofner E, Just HM, Faschner FD, An epidemiological study assessing the relative importance of airborne and direct contact transmission of microorganisms in a medical intensive care unit, J Hosp. Infect., 1990;15:301-9
5. Odds FC, Candida and Candidiasis, in A Review and Bibliography, 2nd Edition, 1988, London, Ballieve Tindall

6. Rubinstein E, Lang R, Fungal endocarditis, *Eur Heart J*, 1995;16(Suppl):84-9
7. Moyers DV, Edwards JE Jr., Fungal endocarditis, In Kaye D (ed.): *Infective Endocarditis*, 2nd Edition, New York, Raven Press, 1992; page 299
8. Schaber DR, Culver DH, Gaynes RP, Major trends in the microbial etiology of nosocomial infections, *Am J Med*. 1991;3B(Suppl):72S-75S
9. Lipton SA, Hickey WF, Morris JH, Loscalzo J, Candida infection in the central nervous system, *Am. J Med.*, 1984;76:101-8
10. Thaler M, Pastakia B, Shawker TH, O'Leary T, Pizzo PA, Hepatic candidiasis in cancer patients: The evolving picture of the syndrome, *Ann Intern Med.*, 1988;108:88-100
11. Lewis JH, Patel HR, Zimmerman HJ, The spectrum of hepatic candidiasis, *Hepatology*, 1982;2:479-87
12. Alden SM, Frank E, Flancbaum L, Abdominal candidiasis in surgical patients, *Am Surg*, 1989;55:45-49
13. Cheng IKP, Fang GY, Chan TM, et al. Fungal peritonitis complicating peritoneal dialysis: report of 27 cases and review of treatment, *Quart. J Med.*, 1989;71:407-416
14. Rodriguez LJ, Rex JH, Anaissie EJ, Update on invasive Candidiasis, *Advances in Pharmacology*, 1997;37: 349-400
15. Meunier F, Prevention of mycosis in immune-compromised patients, *Rev Infect Dis*, 1987;9:408-416
16. Goodman JL, Winston DJ, Greenfield RA, et al., A controlled trial of fluconazole to prevent fungal infections in patients undergoing bone marrow transplantation, *NEJM*, 1992;326:845-851
17. Gallis HA, Drew RH, Pickard WW, Amphotericin B: 30 years of clinical experience, *Rev Infect Dis*, 1990, 12:308-29
18. Branch RA, Prevention of amphotericin B-induced renal impairment, *Arch Intern Med.*, 1988;148:2389-94
19. Carlson MA, Condon RE, Nephrotoxicity of amphotericin B, *J Am Coll. Surg*, 1994;179:361-381
20. De Marie S, Janknegt R, Bakker-woudenberg IAJM, Clinical use of liposomal and lipid-complexed amphotericin B, *Br J Antimicrob. Chemother*;1994;33:907-916
21. Heinemann V, Kahny B, Debus K, Wacholz K, Jehn V, Pharmacokinetics of liposomal amphotericin B (AmBiosome) versus other lipid-based formulations., *Bone Marrow Transplant*, 1994;14:S8-S9
22. Bennet JE, Dismukes WE, Duma RJ, et al., A comparison of amphotericin B alone and combined with flucytosine in the treatment of cryptococcal meningitis, *NEJM*, 1979;301:126-131
23. Sugar AS, Hitchcock CA, Troke PF, et al. Combination therapy of murine invasive candidiasis with fluconazole and amphotericin B, *Antimicrobial Agents Chemother* 1995;39:598-601
24. Anaissie E, Bodey GP, Kantarjian H, et al., Fluconazole therapy for chronic disseminated Candidiasis in patients with leukemia and prior amphotericin therapy, *Am J Med.*, 1991;91:142-150
25. Anaissie EJ, Darouiche RO, Abi-Said D, et al., Management of invasive candidal infections: results of a prospective, randomized, multicenter study of fluconazole versus amphotericin B and review of literature, *Clin Infect Dis*, 1996;23:964-72
26. Horsburgh CR, Kirkpatrick CH, Teutsch CB, Ketoconazole and the liver, *Lancet*, 1982;1:860-4
27. Rex JH, Bennett JE, Sugar AM, A randomized trial comparing fluconazole with amphotericin B for the treatment of candidemia in patients without neutropenia, *NEJM*, 1994;331:1325-1330
28. Gubbins PO, Piscitelli SC, Danziger LH, Candidal urinary tract infections: A comprehensive review of their diagnosis and management, *Pharmacotherapy*, 1993;13:110-127

**Author Information**

**Nader Nader-Djalal, M.D., M.A.**

Assistant Professor, Dept. of Anesthesiology, SUNY

**Gino R. Zadeii, M.D., Ph.D.**

Fellow, Dept. of Anesthesiology and Critical Care, SUNY