

UNIVERSITY OF BABYLON

COLLEGE OF MEDICINE

A STUDY OF THE OCCURRENCE OF ORAL
CANDIDIASIS IN DIABETIC PATIENTS IN NAJAF
PROVINCE

A Thesis

Submitted to the council of College of Medicine ,University of
Babylon, in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree
of Master in Medical Microbiology

By

Uday Hussein Kadhim

B.V.M. &S.

February ٢٠٠٦

Muharram ١٤٢٧

We certify that this thesis was prepared under our supervision at the College of Medicine, University of Babylon as a partial Requirement for degree of M.Sc.in Medical Microbiology

Signature :
Qaraguli

Dr.Hussein S. Al - Janabi

Assis.Prof . ,College of Medicine,
University of Babylon

Supervisor

Date: ٢٣ / ١ / ٢٠٠٦

Signature :

Dr.Mohammed A. Al-

Professor ,College of Medicine,
University of Kufa

Supervisor

Date: ٢٣ / ١ / ٢٠٠٦

Recommendation of Head of Microbiology Department:

According to the available recommendations, I forward this thesis for discussion

Signature

Dr. Mohammed Sabry

Assis.Prof .

Head of Microbiology Department

College of Medicine

University of Babylon

Date : ٢٠٠٦

We, the examining committee, certify that we have read this thesis and have examined the student in its contents and that in our opinion it is adequate as a thesis for the degree of Master of Science in Medical Microbiology.

Signature :

Dr.Munim Maki AL-Shok

Professor ,College of Medicine,

University of Babylon

[Chairman]

Signature :

Dr.Jaffer K. Al-Mussawi

Assist.Prof . ,College of Medicine

University of Kufa

[Member]

Signature :

Qaraguli

Dr.Hussein S. Al - Janabi

Assist.Prof . ,College of Medicine,

University of Babylon

Member and Supervisor

Signature :

Dr.Ali K. AL-Zubiadi

Assist.Prof .

Dean

University of Babylon- College of Medicine

Date : ٢٠٠٦

Signature :

Dr.Mohammed A. K. Al-Sa'adi

Assist.Prof . ,College of Medicine

University of Babylon

[Member]

Signature :

Dr.Mohammed A. Al-

Professor ,College of Medicine,

University of Kufa

Member and Supervisor

بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ

((وَعِنْدَهُ مَفَاتِحُ الْغَيْبِ لَا يَعْلَمُهَا إِلَّا هُوَ وَيَعْلَمُ مَا فِي الْبَرِّ وَالْبَحْرِ
وَمَا تَسْقُطُ مِنْ وَرَقَةٍ إِلَّا يَعْلَمُهَا وَلَا حَبَّةٌ فِي ظُلُمَاتِ الْأَرْضِ وَلَا
رَطْبٌ وَلَا يَابِسٌ إِلَّا فِي كِتَابٍ مُبِينٍ))

صدق الله العلي العظيم

سورة الأنعام

(٥٩) الآية

Dedication

To:

Our Martyrs, the Memory of my friend: Martyr Hussein, and all those who have provided the facilities to complete this research.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

It is a pleasure to express my deep indebtedness to my supervisors Dr.Mohammed Aboud AL-Qaraguli and Dr.Hussein Sarhan AL-Janabi for their valuable guidance during the course of the present work. I am greatly indebted to the staff of Najaf hospitals (AL-Sadder Hospital and AL-Forat Hospital) for the technical support. I would like to thank the staff of the Microbiology Laboratory of the Microbiology Department, college of Medicine, University of Babylon for their kind help in laboratory work.

جامعة بابل
كلية الطب

دراسة حدوث المبيضات الفموية عند مرضى
السكري في محافظة الأنجف

رسالة مقدمة إلى مجلس كلية الطب - جامعة بابل كجزء
من متطلبات نيل درجة الماجستير في الأحياء المجهرية

من قبل الطالب

عدي حسين كاظم

٢٠٠٦

الخلاصة

تعد المبيضات البيضاء السبب الرئيس للإصابة بالفطريات الفموية على مستوى لعالم. يهدف هذا البحث إلى دراسة المبيضات البيضاء عند مرضى السكري في المنطقة. لقد أجريت الدراسة على مرضى السكري الذين يتلقون العلاج في أكبر اثنين من المستشفيات في مدينة النجف حيث تمت دراسة سلوك المبيضات الفموية وانتشارها بين مرضى السكري وتحديد تأثير عوامل العمر، الجنس، داء السكر من حيث النوع ومدة الإصابة إضافة إلى بيئة المريض واستخدام المضادات الحيوية.

لقد تمت دراسة مدى الإصابة بالمبيضات الفموية في عينة مكونة من مئة مريض مصاب بداء السكري وقورنت النتائج مع مجموعة سيطرة مكونة من مئة شخص معافى خلال فترة الدراسة الممتدة بين تشرين الأول ٢٠٠٤ إلى كانون الثاني ٢٠٠٥ وان الأشخاص الذين شملتهم الدراسة كانوا جميعا معافين باستثناء داء السكري ومن غير المتعاطين للكورتيزونات أو الأدوية السمية ومن لم يحملوا اسنانا" أصطناعية ومن غير المدخنين.

أظهرت الدراسة نسبة عالية" للحمل الفموي للمبيضات البيضاء بين مرضى داء السكري (٣٩%) بالمقارنة مع مجموعة السيطرة (١٨%) وكذلك كثافة نمو الفطر. نسبة الحمل الفموي للمبيضات البيضاء أعلى عند مرضى السكري- النوع الأول (٤٦%) مقارنة" بالنوع الثاني (٣٢%) وبفارق ذي دلالة معنوية ولكن لم يكن هنالك تأثير واضح لمدة الإصابة بداء السكري أو عمر المريض. فيما يتعلق بالجنس أظهرت الدراسة وجود فرق معنوي في نسبة الحمل الفموي بين الإناث (٥٤%) مقارنة" بالذكور (٢٤%).

كما لوحظ وجود فرق ليس معنوياً بين سكان المدينة (٣٦%) مقارنة بسكان القرى والأرياف (٤٢%). مجموعة مرضى السكري الذين يتعاطون المضادات الحيوية لأسباب مرضية أخرى أظهرت نسبة حمل فموي أكبر (٥١%) مقارنة بمجموعة مرضى السكري الذين لم يتعاطون المضادات الحيوية ولكن الفرق لم يكن معنوياً.

List of contents

Contents	Page. No.
List of contents	I-III
List of Table	IV
List of Figures	V
Abbreviations	VI
(Abstract)	VII-VIII
Chapter one	
Introduction	1-3
Chapter Two, Literatures Review	
<i>Candida albicans</i>	4-5
Candidiasis or monliasis	5
Predisposing factors for oral candidiasis	5
Pathogen	5-6
Host factors	6
Diabetes Mellitus	6-9
Type -1- diabetes mellitus	9
Type -2- diabetes mellitus	9

Antibiotics	9-10
Immunosuppression	10-11
Extremes of age	11

Contents	Page No.
Smoking, Malignancies	11-12
Nutritional deficiencies	12
Cushing's syndrome	12-13
Saliva	13
Inhaled steroids	13-14
Dentures	14
Etiology	14-16
Clinical Manifestations of Oral Candidiasis	17-19
General Symptoms of <i>Candida albicans</i>	19-20
Epidemiology of <i>Candida</i>	21-24
<i>Candida</i> Pathogenesis	24-25
Adherence and local invasion	25-26
Secreted Proteins	26-27
Systemic Invasion of <i>C. albicans</i>	28-31

Diagnosis of <i>Candida albicans</i>	۳۱-۳۳
Treatment	۳۳-۳۵
Chapter Three ,Materials and Methods	
Materials, Culture Media and Sabouraud's Dextrose Agar	۳۶
Corn meal Agar, Solutions, Normal Saline, KOH , Stain ,Human Serum and The Samples	۳۷
Clinical evaluation for the patients	۳۸-۳۹
Diagnosis of diabetes mellitus, Methods and The Inoculation on Sabouraud's Dextrose Agar	
Stain, Statistical analysis and KOH	۴۰

Contents	Page.No.
Chapter four, The Results	
Detection of <i>C. albicans</i>	۴۱
Cultivation on sabouraud's agar	۴۱
Gram stain methods	۴۲

Germ tube detection	٤٣-٤٤
Chapter Five, The Discussion	
The rate of oral candidiasis	٥٢-٥٣
The influence of antibiotic therapy on the oral carriage rate of <i>C. albicans</i> .	٥٣-٥٤
The occurrence of oral candidiasis according to the sex	٥٤
The occurrence of oral candidiasis according to age	٥٤-٥٥
The occurrence of oral candidiasis according to the duration of diabetes mellitus	٥٥
The occurrence of oral candidiasis according to type of diabetes mellitus (type ١ & ٢)	٥٥-٥٦
The occurrence of oral candidiasis according to the residence	٥٧
Conclusions and Recommendations	
Conclusions	٥٨
Recommendations	٥٩
References	٦٠-٨١
الخلاصة العربية	

TABLES	Page No.
Table (३-१) showed the instruments which were used in this study and their company	३६
TABLE(४-१) Occurrence of Oral Candidiasis in control group and diabetic group	४०
TABLE(४-२) Occurrence of Oral Candidiasis in control group and diabetic group	४६
TABLE(४-३) Occurrence of Oral Candidiasis according to sex	४७
TABLE(४-४) Occurrence of Oral Candidiasis according to age	६१
TABLE(४-०) Occurrence of Oral Candidiasis according to the duration of diabetes mellitus	४८
TABLE(४-६) Occurrence of Oral Candidiasis according to type of diabetes mellitus (१ and २)	४९
TABLE(४-७) Occurrence of Oral Candidiasis according to the	००

residence	
-----------	--

Figures	Page No.
Figure (ξ-1) <i>C. albicans</i> . grown on sabouraud's dextrose agar.	ξ1
Figure (ξ-2) Blastospores of <i>C. albicans</i> . Gram stain x ξ00.	ξ2
Figure (ξ-3) Germ tube production by <i>C. albicans</i> (xξ0, wet film)	ξ3
Figure (ξ-4) Chlamydia formation by <i>C. albicans</i> on corn meal agar x1000.	ξ4

Abbreviations

(+):	Carry <i>C. albicans</i> in mouth.
(-):	Do not carry <i>C. albicans</i> in mouth.
A.G.	Antibiotic Treated Diabetic Patients Group
C.G.	Control Group Involved Healthy Subjects.
D.G.	Diabetic Patients Group not treated with antibiotic.
IDDM	Insulin Dependent Diabetes Mellitus
mg	milligram
mmol	millimole
NIDDM	Non Insulin Dependent Diabetes Mellitus
No.	Number
O.C.	Oral Candidiasis
Spp.	Species

Abstract

Candida is considered as the major cause of oral candidiasis (O.C.) in people worldwide. This work has been designed to study oral candidiasis in diabetic patients in Najaf. Where patients attended the two main hospitals in this city. The occurrence of oral candidiasis has been studied according to age, sex, type of D.M., disease duration, residence of patients, and antibiotics usage. One hundred diabetic patients group (D.G.), One hundred antibiotics treated patients group (A.G.) and One hundred healthy subjects as control group (C.G) have been studied. All subjects included in this study were free from systemic disease apart from diabetes, not on corticosteroids or cytotoxic drugs, not wearing artificial denture and non smokers. The study started in November 2004 till January 2006. The frequency of oral candidiasis was significantly higher among (D.G.) (31%) than among (C.G.) (11%).

The use of antibiotics increased the intensity and occurrence of infection (31% versus 11%) in diabetic patients taking antibiotic. Type 1 diabetes mellitus has been associated with higher oral carriage rate of *C. albicans* (47%) than type 2 (32%). The patients were categorized into four age groups at 20 years intervals, the highest percentage of oral carriage (43.7%) was among age group who were (41-60 years), the next were those over 60 years of age (40%), (38.3%) was in those less than 20 years and the least (36.3%) was among those (21-40 years) but the differences were not significant ($P > 0.05$). In addition, the duration of D.M. was categorized into four groups: the result of each group was 30% in less than 1 year, 40.62% in (1-4) years, 39.13% in (5-10) years and 40% in 10 years and more. The effect of the

duration of D.M. on the oral carriage rate was not significant. There were significant differences ($P < .05$) in oral carriage rate of *C.*

albicans between female (04%) and male (24%). There was a difference in carriage rate but not significant ($P > .05$) between the rural (42%) and the urban (37%) diabetic patients with regard to oral candidiasis.

Introduction

Candidiasis, also known as candidosis or moniliasis refers to the presence of the yeast like fungi (*Candida*) at the site in or on the body such as mouth or vagina (Yas, 1989). In normal healthy individuals, there is a balance between the presence of *Candida* species as normal flora and the normal defense mechanism of the body and in the presence of any predisposing factor like: diabetes mellitus, mal-nutrition, humidity, burn, HIV infection, renal failure, endocrine disturbance, pregnancy, oral

contraception, cancer, indiscriminate usage of antibiotics, glucocorticoids and cytotoxic drugs will cause opportunistic infection (Holmes *et al.*, 2002; Alkhaffaji *et al.*, 2002). Other predisposing factors suggested by Akpan and Morgan (2002) include Cushing's syndrome, impaired salivary gland function, dentures, high carbohydrate diet, extremes of life, smoking and malignancies. Darouche *et al.* (1996) and Loeb *et al.* (1999) mentioned that *Candida albicans* was the most prevalent fungal pathogen of human, this yeast would

cause superficial and systemic infection in immunocompromized individuals in addition to that oral thrush was an acute form of oral candidiasis and was one of the most common infections in diabetic patients (Dedic and Masic, 1999).

Thrush appears as a whitish, creamy plaque in the mouth and on the tongue. Underneath the whitish material there is redness that may bleed and the lesions can slowly increase in number and size (Akpan and Morgan, 2002). Manfredil *et al.* (2002) have suggested that candidal density has also been reported higher in diabetes mellitus than in non-diabetic subjects.

Although angular stomatitis due to *Candida* is a classic complication in diabetic children and an occasional complication in diabetic adults, increased concentrations of salivary glucose reportedly account for its occurrence (Huntely, 2000). Cases of clinical candidiasis are common in diabetic patients and involvement of the glans penis and the vulva appears common in type-2 diabetes (Manfredil *et al.*, 2002) vaginal candidiasis is almost universal among women with long-term diabetes, and yeast infections may even be the presenting manifestation of diabetes (Huntely, 2000).

Aims of the study

1- Determining the occurrence of oral candidiasis in diabetic patients attending local hospitals in Najaf.

2- Knowing the effect of the duration and type of diabetes mellitus on the occurrence of oral candidiasis in diabetic patients.

3- Knowing the effect of age on the occurrence of oral candidiasis in diabetic patients.

4- Estimating the occurrence of oral candidiasis in diabetic patients with regard to sex and residence of patients as well as socioeconomic status.

5- Assessment of the use of antibiotics that inhibit microflora and flourish the oral candidiasis in diabetic patients.

6- Up to date reports on occurrence of oral candidiasis in diabetic patients attending diabetic clinic in our local hospitals are very few

.This study has been planned to assess the rate in diabetic patients followed up in two major hospitals in the region (Najaf).

٢-١ *Candida albicans*

Candida albicans is a dimorphic fungus, i.e. it can take two forms and most of the time it exists as oval, single yeast cell, produced by budding as well as most yeasts do not produce mycelia (a mass of branching, threadlike hyphal filaments), but *Candida* has a trick up its sleeve (Hull *et al.*, ٢٠٠٠). Normal room temperatures favour the yeast form of the organism, but under physiological conditions: the body temperature, the pH (the pH of blood and saliva is ٧.٤ in healthy individuals) and the presence of serum it may develop into a hyphal

form and pseudohyphae, composed of chains of cells, are also common, each cell of *C. albicans* can produce (100) cells in one hour when its requirements are available in the host. The term "yeast" and "yeastlike" were vernacular terms for unicellular fungal organisms that would reproduce by budding. (Akpan and Morgan, 2002; Mandell *et al.*, 1994). This is an inadequate definition mainly because:

A-Some yeasts reproduce by fission.

B-Many yeasts can produce mycelium or pseudohyphae under some nutritional and environmental conditions.

C-Many filamentous fungi may exist in a unicellular yeast-like form that reproduces by budding. (Akpan and Morgan, 2002; Mandell *et al.*, 1994).

The term "yeast" is of no taxonomic significance, it is useful only to describe a morphological form of a fungus. Most yeast have affinities to Ascomycota, but a small percentage have affinities to Basidiomycota and in the strictest sense of the word, there are no inherently pathogenic yeasts (Akpan and Morgan, 2002; Mandell *et al.*, 1994).

2-2 Candidiasis or moniliasis:

It is called thrush when it grows in the mouth, especially in infants and it shows up on skin as a red, inflamed, and sometimes scaly rash, such as [diaper rash](#), causes vaginal moniliasis, commonly known as a yeast infection, in the vagina and does candidal onychomycosis in the nails or parenchyma next to the nails as well as it can also affect the esophagus and the digestive tract in addition to that candidal infection of the penis is more common among uncircumcised than circumcised men and may result from sexual intercourse with an infected partner (Koop, 2001).

2-3 Predisposing Factors for Oral Candidiasis

It has been suggested by Mandell *et al.* (1994) that risk factors for oropharyngeal candidiasis are related to:

2-3-1 Pathogen

Candida as a pathogen has peculiar properties that increase its infectivity rate in the right environment. *Candida* is a fungus, first isolated in 1845 from the sputum of a tuberculous patient (Mandell, 1994). Like other fungi, they are non-photosynthetic, eukaryotic organisms with cell walls that lie external to the plasma membrane (Magee, 2000). There is a nuclear pore complex within the nuclear membrane and the plasma membrane contains large quantities of sterols, usually ergosterol; apart from a few exceptions, the macroscopic and microscopic cultural characteristics of the different *Candida* species are similar (Reasner *et al.*, 2003). They can metabolize glucose under both aerobic and anaerobic conditions, temperature influences their growth with higher temperatures such as 37°C that are present in their potential host, promoting the growth of pseudohyphae (Akpan and Morgan, 2002; Manfredil *et al.*, 2002).

2-3-2 Host factors

Akpan and Morgan (2002) have mentioned that predisposing factors for oral candidiasis may have local effect like smoking and dentures or systemic effect such as diabetes mellitus or antibiotics usage .

2-3-2-1 Diabetes mellitus

Yeast infections play an important role in diabetics and therefore, poorly controlled diabetics and diabetics who have high levels of serum glucose carry a high risk, where in poorly controlled diabetics, the rate of *Candida* growth is found high and *Candida* growth rate increases as well as serum glucose level (Reasner *et al.*, 2003). Inherited or acquired immune system deficiency, which may be due to a nutritional deficiency, increases demands on the immune system to combat environmental pollution, or damage to

the immune system (e.g., metabolic causes such as diabetes mellitus due to an increase in blood sugar)(Goins *et al.*, 2000). Diabetes mellitus is a group of metabolic disorders with one common manifestation: Hyperglycemia, in addition to that chronic hyperglycemia causes damage to the eyes, kidneys, nerves, heart and blood vessels, the etiology and pathophysiology leading to the hyperglycemia, however, are markedly different among patients with diabetes mellitus, dictating different prevention strategies, diagnostic screening methods and treatments (Ozturkcan *et al.*, 1993; Mandell *et al.*, 1994).

Glucose is a simple sugar found in food. It is an essential nutrient that provides energy for the proper functioning of the body cells, where after meals, food is digested in the stomach and the intestine into glucose and other nutrients and the glucose in digested food is absorbed by the intestinal cells into the bloodstream and is carried by blood to all the cells in the body however, glucose cannot enter the cells alone but it needs assistance from insulin in order to penetrate the cell membrane; therefore, insulin acts as a regulator of glucose metabolism in

the Body and it is called the "hunger hormone" and as the blood sugar level increases following a carbohydrate rich meal, the corresponding insulin level rises with the eventual lowering of the blood sugar level and glucose is transported from the blood into the cell for energy (Wang *et al.*, 1998). When the blood glucose levels are lowered, the insulin release from the pancreas is turned off and when the blood sugar level drops below a certain level, hunger is felt and this often occurs a few hours after the meal (Alae *et al.*, 1993). In normal individuals, such a regulatory system helps to keep blood glucose levels in a tightly controlled range (William *et al.*, 2001). Cravings for sweets frequently form part of this cycle, which can lead to snacking, often for more carbohydrates and if the cravings are not fulfilled, sensations such as hunger, dizziness, moodiness, and a state of "collapse" can result (Ozturkcan *et al.*, 1993; Manfredil *et al.*, 2002).

This system of auto-regulation and homeostasis is the function of the pancreas and it works around the clock and dysfunction of this auto-regulation system due to either to the inability of the pancreas to secrete any or insufficient insulin, or the pancreas overload from too much sugar ingested over a long period of time, or over compensatory mechanism, or a combination of these, results in the lack of insulin, and hence high blood sugar, and this is the hallmark of diabetes mellitus commonly called diabetes (Fisher *et al.*, 1987). According to Ozturkcan *et al.* (1993), there are two main types of diabetes mellitus (and third type called Gestational Diabetes occur during pregnancy):

A-Type-1 - diabetes mellitus

Is also called insulin dependent diabetes mellitus (IDDM), or juvenile onset diabetes mellitus.

B- Type-2 - diabetes mellitus

It is also referred to as non-insulin dependent diabetes mellitus (NIDDM), or adult onset diabetes mellitus (AODM).

2-3-2-2 Antibiotics

Repeated courses on antibiotics given therapeutically, for instance for acne, cystitis or upper respiratory tract infections, disrupt the normal competition between separate members of the resident flora of the gut; in other words, the normal balance of organisms in the bowel is upset (Wang *et al.*, 1998). *Candida* is thus allowed to proliferate (Dodds *et al.*, 2000). Drugs which exert an immuno-suppressive affect such as steroids (including hormone residues in meat), oral contraceptives (the Pill), and immuno-suppressive drugs (such as those used to treat cancer) can also contribute to *Candida* (Reasner *et al.*, 2003). The progesterone component of the Pill appears to encourage *Candida* growth, which is particularly noticeable in the second half of the menstrual cycle (Kelm and Schauer, 1997). Candidiasis can also follow the onset of allergies and will resolve after the allergy has been treated (Ninane, 1994 ;Akpan

and Morgan, 2002). They reduce the number of "friendly bacteria" (flora) in the intestinal tract and in mouth which normally keeps the *Candida albicans* under control (Wang *et al.*, 1998). Potential causes of *Candida albicans* overgrowth and *Candida* yeast infections, some antibiotics have local irritable effect as well as systemic effect by decreasing the activity of cellular immunity (decreasing the activity of macrophages and leukocytes)(Ninane, 1994; Akpan and Morgan, 2002; Jose *et al.*, 1998).

2-3-2-3 Immunosuppression

As an opportunist, *Candida* is dependent on conditions which favour its steady growth. An immune system already undermined by other factors such as poor nutrition or exposure to environmental pollutants will be unable effectively to deter this relentless growth (Magee, 2000). Thus *Candida* will in turn effectively weaken and disturb the immune system so that further damage may occur due to the invasion of viral agents such as Epstein-Barr virus, cytomegalovirus, herpes simplex virus, HIV and so on (Wang *et al.*, 1998). Disturbance of the ongoing process of 'self recognition' by the immune system is likely to lead further to the possibility of a range of auto-immune diseases (Ninane, 1994; Akpan and Morgan, 2002).

2-3-2-4 Extremes of age:

It has been reported by Chung and Bennett (1992) that the incidence of oral candidiasis occurs at early age and extreme of life, most probably due to immature immune system in infants and decreased defense system with old people.

2-3-2-5 Smoking

Smoking has been associated with an increased prevalence of the yeast in diabetes mellitus and it interacts with diabetes mellitus in promoting candidal colonization of the mouth and it has irritable

local effect and attention to these predisposing factors could reduce the incidence of thrush in diabetics (Tapper-Jones, 1981).

2-3-2-6 Malignancies.

An aggressive treatment for malignant disease may produce unavoidable toxicities to normal cells and the mucosal lining of the gastrointestinal tract, including the oral mucosa, is a prime target for treatment-related toxicity by virtue of its rapid cell turnover rate and the oral cavity is highly susceptible to direct and indirect toxic effects of cancer chemotherapy and ionizing radiation ;this risk is due to multiple factors including high cellular turnover rates for the lining mucosa, a diverse and complex microflora ([Cohen et al.](#), 1998).

2-3-2-7 Nutritional deficiencies

Dietary foliate or iron deficiencies predispose to Candidiasis development, reports indicate that iron-deficient subjects with candidal infections have a decreasing in the number of lymphocytes([Cohen et al.](#), 1998). Other studies show that the immune response can be restored when iron levels are normalized and most of these predisposing conditions cause decreased salivary flow and/or decreased excretion of immunoglobulins in the saliva(S-IgA) in addition to that the latter decrease lowers the efficiency of the B-lymphocyte immunologic defense mechanism that should help control *Candida* infections; in addition, *Candida* growth in saliva is enhanced and the adhesive property of the yeast to oral tissue is increased by a high carbohydrate diet (Akpan & Morgan, 2002; Ueta et al., 2000).

2-3-2-8 Cushing's syndrome

It is a hormonal disorder caused by a prolonged exposure of the body's tissues to high levels of the hormone cortisol and sometimes called "hypercortisolism", or prolonged exposure to exogenous glucocorticoids in addition to that cortisol performs vital tasks in the body and it helps maintain blood pressure and cardiovascular

function, reduces the immune system's inflammatory response, balances the effects of insulin in breaking down sugar for energy, and regulates the metabolism of proteins, carbohydrates, and fats (Akpan and Morgan, 2002).

2-3-2-9 Saliva

Impaired salivary gland function can predispose to oral candidiasis (Epstein, 1990; Peterson, 1990). Secretion of saliva causes a dilutional effect and removes organisms from the mucosa and antimicrobial proteins in the saliva such as lactoferrin, sialoperoxidase, lysozyme, histidine-rich polypeptides, and specific anti-*Candida* antibodies, interact with the oral mucosa and prevent overgrowth of *Candida*, therefore conditions such as Sjögren's syndrome, radiotherapy of the head and neck, or drugs that reduce salivary secretions can lead to an increased risk of oral candidiasis (Akpan and Morgan, 2002). Ueta *et al.* (2000) indicate that the decreases in secretion of antimicrobial proteins in saliva and salivary PMN (Polymorphonuclear cells) activity are risk factors for oral candidiasis associated with aging and systemic diseases.

2-3-2-10 Inhaled Steroids:

They have been shown to increase the risk of oral candidiasis by possibly suppressing cellular immunity and phagocytosis, the local mucosal immunity reverts to normal on discontinuation of the inhaled steroids (Akpan and Morgan, 2002; Epstein, 1990).

2-3-2-11 Dentures

Predispose to infection with *Candida* in as many as 70% of elderly people wearing full upper dentures and wearing of dentures produces a microenvironment conducive to the growth of *Candida* with low oxygen, low pH, and an anaerobic environment, this may be due to enhanced adherence of *Candida* spp. to acrylic, reduced saliva

flow under the surfaces of the denture fittings, improperly fitted dentures, or poor oral hygiene (Epstein, 1990; Ueta *et al.*, 2000).

2-ξ Etiology

Oral candidiasis is a common opportunistic infection of the oral cavity caused by an overgrowth of *Candida* species, the commonest being *Candida albicans* (Akpan and Morgan, 2002). *Candida* organisms are fungi that normally inhabit the oral cavity, gastrointestinal tract, other mucous membranes, and skin (Epstein, 1990; Ueta *et al.*, 2000). In most humans, this is a commensal relationship; and only a few *Candida* carriers actually go on to develop clinical signs of candidiasis because yeast growth and colonization are impaired by the resistance of the host (Cannon *et al.*, 1990). When changes occur in the host environment causing imbalance of the flora or a decrease in resistance, *Candida* becomes an opportunistic pathogen, clinical problems range from relatively mild candidiasis to chronic recurrent candidiasis and life-threatening disseminated infections, these problems are growing, and *Candida* has been called the most important fungal pathogen in humans (Odds, 1988).

Candida has been listed as the fourth most common isolate recovered from blood cultures in the United States (Jarvis and Marton, 1992). Among patients with severe infection acquired while in the hospital, the clinical characteristics of oral infection, local and systemic factors that predispose to infection and treatment in addition to that though dentists commonly treat the oropharyngeal signs of *Candida* infection and colonization such as denture stomatitis, angular cheilitis, and thrush, they must realize that when dissemination and invasion of internal organs occur, *Candida* becomes life-threatening (Odds, 1988). This has become exceedingly important in recent years as the dental patient pool has expanded to include more of the elderly, with an additional increase in organ transplant, immunocompromized, AIDS, chemotherapeutic, and antibiotic- or steroid-laden patients. *Candida* is a human fungal

pathogen that grows as a round yeast and replicates by budding of the 100 fungal species of *Candida*, about seven are known to be medically important pathogens: *C. albicans*, *C. tropicalis*, *C. parapsilosis*, *C. krusei*, *C. kefyr*, *C. glabrata*, and *C. guilliermondii* (Cannon *et al.*, 1990).

Other species have been isolated from humans but are considered opportunistic in immunocompromized patients, *C. albicans* is by far the most prevalent pathogenic fungal species found in the human body, yet *C. dubliniensis* has been found primarily in the oral cavities of immune-suppressed individuals (Sullivan and Westerneng, 1990; Sullivan and Coleman, 1998). Although it is a low-level constituent of the human oral flora, it has the potential to cause oral candidiasis (Coleman *et al.*, 1997; Kurazi *et al.*, 1999). *C. albicans* and *C. dubliniensis* as well as other *Candida* species can be differentiated from one another by polymerase chain reaction techniques (PCR) that are being developed to aid in diagnosis (Kurazi *et al.*, 1999). Though *C. albicans* can exist in several forms, from the yeast to the hyphal, the yeast form is commensal and relatively harmless, where as the hyphal form is invasive, pathogenic, and the cause of clinical candidiasis. Hyphae are not always seen in lesions, but this could reflect a sampling error (Kerridge, 1993; Odds, 1993; Cannon *et al.*, 1990). Studies indicate that when the yeast forms grow hyphae, they then act like adherent filaments to spread across, attach, and burrow between and into epithelial cells, this is commonly seen in the more serious tissue invasion and especially in immunocompromized hosts (Stabb *et al.*, 1999).

2-0 Clinical Manifestations of Oral Candidiasis

Five specific clinical oral manifestations of candidiasis have been described: pseudomembranous, acute atrophic/erythematous, chronic atrophic, angular cheilitis and chronic hypertrophic/hyperplastic and the clinical presentation may include more than one of these manifestations but usually one is predominant (Wenzel, 1990).

Acute pseudomembranous candidiasis is the one in which the lesions are superficial curd-like white patches that wipe off, leaving an erythematous base and they are located on any or all mucosal surfaces, particularly the buccal mucosa, mucobuccal folds, oropharynx, and dorsal tongue, infants and the elderly are predilected (Pittel *et al.*, 1993). Predisposing factors include a history of broad-spectrum antibiotics, steroids, nutritional deficiency, diabetes, malignancy, chemotherapy, radiation therapy, and cell-mediated immunity dysfunction including HIV infection (Kobayshi *et al.*, 1994).

Acute atrophic candidiasis: Loss of the *Candida* organism pseudomembrane causes small to generalized large red lesions with inflammation of surrounding tissues and the tongue typically shows depapillation and dekeratinization in addition to that atrophic lesions are most often seen on the tongue and palate (Pittel *et al.*, 1993). Predisposing factors include broad-spectrum antibiotics and corticosteroid aerosols as may be used by asthmatics (Shibata *et al.*, 1996). Chronic atrophic candidiasis : The lesions are chronic showing erythema and edema with a slight velvety/pebbly surface and small erosion may also be seen as well as the lesions are located on the palate and upper and lower edentulous ridges and are frequently encountered under dentures and predisposing factors include ill-fitting or poorly cleaned dentures, as well as those enumerated for the other forms of candidiasis (Kapteyn *et al.*, 2000; Uchiyama *et al.* 2000).

Angular cheilitis (perleche): Angular cheilitis is the same as intraoral chronic atrophic candidiasis, just in a different location; clinically, there are fissures at the commissural angles that allow pooling of saliva and incubation of yeast forms, crusting with underlying erythema and the lesions are localized to the corners of mouth and predisposing factors include ill-fitting dentures with over closure, drooling at corners of mouth, lip-licking habits, and thumb/digit-sucking habits (Regezi and Sciubba, 1989).

Chronic Hypertrophic/hyperplastic candidiasis (*Candida* leukoplakia) Chronic nodular hard lesions appear white, cream-coloured, or red (Shibata *et al.*, 1996). These hypertrophic lesions are located on the surface of tongue, buccal mucosa, palate, denture-bearing areas, central dorsum of tongue (median rhomboid glossitis), as papillary nodules on palate usually under dentures (papillary hyperplasia), and in areas of epithelial hyperplasia (pre-existing leukoplakias and keratotic papillomas) (Jones *et al.*, 1990). Predisposing factors include cellular hyperplasia, oral precancerous lesions, smoking, and denture wearing (Soares *et al.*, 2000). There is a generalized mucocutaneous form of candidiasis that presents as chronic infection of the oral mucosa, nails, skin, and vaginal mucosa. Resistance to therapy is common which is usually initiated by pseudomembranous candidiasis and then proceeds to a chronic form (Jones *et al.*, 1990). A familial form, possibly autosomal recessive, also exists, with about half of the patients presenting with associated endocrinopathy (hypoparathyroidism, Addison's disease, hypothyroidism, or diabetes mellitus) (Wadsworth *et al.*, 1993). Other familial forms are associated with abnormalities of iron metabolism or cell-mediated immunity (Regezi and Sciubba, 1989).

2-6 General Symptoms of *Candida albicans* infection

Thrush appears as creamy-white or bluish-white patches on the tongue which is inflamed and sometimes beefy red and on the lining of the mouth, or in the throat (Jones *et al.*, 1990). Diaper caused by *Candida* is an inflammation of the skin, usually red and sometimes scaly as well as [vaginitis](#) is characterized by a white or yellow discharge. Inflammation of the walls of the vagina and of the vulva (external genital area) causes burning and itching. Infections of the fingernails and toenails appear as red, painful swelling around the nail. Later, pus may develop and infection of the penis often results in [balanitis](#) (inflammation of the head of the penis (Wadsworth *et al.*, 1993).

An infection in the bloodstream can affect the kidneys, heart, lungs, eyes, or other organs causing high fever, chills, [anemia](#), and sometimes a rash or shock however *Candida* can cause the following problems depending upon the organ infected:

A-In the kidneys: it can cause blood in the urine.

B-In the heart: it can cause murmurs and valve damage.

C-In the lungs: it can cause bloody sputum (mucus discharge) .

D-In the eyes: it can cause pain and blurred vision.

E-In the brain: it can cause seizures and acute changes in mental function or behaviour (Koop, ۲۰۰۱).

Both men and women can have candidiasis. However, it does occur more frequently in women (especially young women) with more severe effects (Wadsworth *et al.*, ۱۹۹۳).

۲-۷ Epidemiology of *Candida*

Candida organisms live on the skin and mucous membranes of up to ۷۰ % of the population, they can live commensally without causing harm or can change to an aggressive form and invade tissue, causing both acute and chronic disease in the host (Dixon, ۱۹۹۶).

Oropharyngeal candidiasis manifests clinically as acute pseudomembranous, acute atrophic, chronic atrophic, chronic hypertrophic/hyperplastic, and angular cheilitis. Systemic infection leading to candidemia can be devastating and cause up to a ۶۰ % mortality rate in medical or post-surgical intensive care wards (Cannon *et al.*, ۱۹۹۹). Infections by pathogenic fungi, particularly *Candida* species, are both widespread and increasing in frequency (Dixon, ۱۹۹۶). Oral colonization by *Candida albicans* has been reported at ۱۷.۷% in the healthy population (Cannon *et al.*, ۱۹۹۹).

Among hospitalized patients, oral carriage of *Candida albicans* rises to 40.6%, healthy, asymptomatic women demonstrate an incidence of vaginal colonization by *Candida* of 10% to 20%, this percentage rises to 20 - 40% in healthy pregnant women and to 40% to 60% in human immunodeficiency virus-infected pregnant women (Sobel, 1980; Odds, 1988; Burnus *et al.*, 1997; Schuman *et al.*, 1998). Hospitals in the United States participating in the National Nosocomial Infection Survey System reported a nosocomial fungal infection frequency of 3.8 per 1,000 discharges in 1990, indicating an increase from 2.0 per 1,000 discharges in 1980 (Beck-Sauge and Jarvis, 1993). *Candida* species accounted for 78.3% of all such nosocomial fungal infections, followed by *Torulopsis* (now *Candida*) *glabrata* and *Aspergillus* species, *C. albicans* were the most frequently isolated of all the *Candida* species (Beck-sauge *et al.*, 1993; Pfaller and Diekema, 2002). Furthermore, a European study reported that fungal species in general accounted for 17.1% of intensive care unit-acquired infections (Vincent *et al.*, 1990). Using the National Nosocomial Infection Survey (1980 to 1990) data, Jarvis and Marton (1992) reported that *Candida* species accounted for 9.4% of nosocomial urinary tract infections, 10.1% of nosocomial infections in adults and pediatric intensive care units, and 4.8% of nosocomial bloodstream infections (Vincent *et al.*, 1990). In 1990, fungi as a whole accounted for 10% of all nosocomial bloodstream infections (Beck-sauge and Jarvis, 1993).

Ten years later, the rates of bloodstream infections due to *Candida* are still rising, with half of these candidemias due to *C. albicans* (Rangel *et al.*, 1999). More recently, other *Candida* species such as *C. glabrata*, *C. tropicalis*, and *C. dubliniensis* have been isolated with increasing frequency (Pfaller *et al.*, 1998). A study carried out by five university hospitals in the Netherlands also reported increased fungemia rates and Between 1987 and 1990, episodes of fungal bloodstream infections rose from 0.37 to 0.76 per 10,000 patients of these infections, 93% were due to *Candida* species whereas 7% were due to *Cryptococcus* species (Voss *et al.*, 1996). In addition to the observed increases in incidence, fungal infections continue to be

a serious clinical problem with respect to increased morbidity and mortality (Miller *et al.*, 1994; Wenzel, 1990). An analysis of records from the National Center of Health Statistics indicated that mycoses ranked 10th among the underlying causes of death in the United States in 1980, but that by 1997 this rank had risen to 7th (Wang *et al.*, 1998). Increased morbidity due to nosocomial fungal infections also has taken a heavy toll, resulting in longer hospital stays (Wenzel, 1990; Chapuis *et al.*, 2001; Leleu *et al.*, 2002) and higher patient care costs (Goff *et al.*, 1996; Tambyah, 2002). The increasing incidence of fungal infections has, to a certain degree, coincided with the incredible medical advances of the last few years in addition to that life-prolonging technologies, although welcomed by medicine and those it cares for, have unfortunately created numerous opportunities for emerging fungal infections (Vincent *et al.*, 1990). The rising number of immunocompromised patients, whether through immunosuppressive therapy, AIDS, or other ailments, the prophylactic use of antimicrobics, and the increasing number of indwelling catheters and prosthetic devices seen among patients all unwittingly subject patients to the threat of invasive disease (Dixon *et al.*, 1996; Xing and Ning, 2003).

Patients with central intravenous (IV) catheters were over three times more likely to have bloodstream infections than patients without such catheters (Beck-sague and Jarvis, 1993). Patients undergoing orthotopic liver transplantation demonstrated an incidence of invasive fungal infection of 0% to 42%, with *Candida* species being the most commonly isolated organism, followed by *Aspergillus* species (Collins *et al.*, 1994). A study of heart transplant patients reported that fungal infections accounted for only 7% of all infections, they were associated with the highest (36%) mortality (Miller *et al.*, 1994). Taken together, these clinical observations strongly reinforced the necessity for understanding the relationship between fungus and host and the interaction between fungus and patient occurs first at the level of the cell wall (Calderon, 1993). The cell wall of most fungi is composed of glycoproteins embedded within a polysaccharide matrix or scaffolding. (Vincent *et*

al., 1990). Additionally, some fungal species produce a polysaccharide capsule that surrounds the cell wall (e.g. the glucuronoxylomannan) (Beck-sague and Jarvis, 1993).

2-9 *Candida* Pathogenesis

C. albicans can exist in several forms, from the yeast to the hyphal and the yeast form is commensal and relatively harmless, where as the hyphal form is invasive, pathogenic, and the cause of clinical candidiasis and hyphae are not always seen in lesions, but this could reflect a sampling error (Kerridge, 1993; Odds, 1994; Cannon *et al.*, 1999).

Studies indicate that when the yeast forms grow hyphae, they act like adherent filaments to spread across, attach, and burrow between and into epithelial cells and this is commonly seen in the more serious tissue invasion and especially in immunocompromized hosts (Staab *et al.*, 1999).

2-9-1 Adherence and local invasion

Colonization of the oral cavity appears to be facilitated by several specific adherence interactions between *C. albicans* and oral surfaces which enable the yeast to resist host clearance mechanisms (Cannon *et al.*, 1999). Thus, *Candida* has been shown to adhere to complement receptors, various extracellular matrix proteins, and specific sugar residues displayed on host or bacterial surfaces in the oral cavity and oral candidiasis results from yeast overgrowth and penetration of the oral tissues when the host's physical and immunological defenses have been undermined (Cannon *et al.*, 1999). Adherence by the hyphae to oral keratinocytes may be partially due to a protein called Hwp1, which is present in *Candida* filaments but not in the yeast form and this protein forms a covalent and permanent bond to epithelial cells with the help of the enzyme transglutaminase and without Hwp1, the adherence to human oral mucosal cells is reduced 80%; mice infected with *Candida* strains

containing Hwp¹ develop more severe disease than those infected with Hwp¹-free *Candida* (Staab *et al.*, 1999).

2-9-2 Secreted Proteins

A complex assortment of hydrolytic enzymes such as proteinases (secreted aspartyl proteinase), phospholipases, acid phosphatase, chitinases, esterase and glucoamylase can be found in culture filtrates of *C. albicans* cells (Chaffin *et al.*, 1998). Tavares *et al.* (1993) have purified from the supernatants of *C. albicans* cultures an immunosuppressive B-cell mitogenic (ISM) protein that plays an important role in the survival of the microorganism in the host and glycolytic enzymes are abundant immunodominant antigens during *C. albicans* infections and *C. albicans* enolase (α -phospho-D-glycerate hydrolase; EC 4.2.1.11) phosphoglycerate kinase (PGK; EC 2.7.2.3), alcohol dehydrogenase (ADH; EC 1.1.1.1), pyruvate kinase (PYK; EC 2.7.1.40), aldolase (EC 4.1.2.13) and glyceraldehyde- β -phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH; EC 1.2.1.12) have been described as major allergens or immunogens during candidiasis (Gil *et al.*, 1997). All of these enzymes appear to be highly conserved and glycolytic enzymes of *C. albicans* are immunogens during candidiasis (Cannon *et al.*, 1999).

Enolase seems to be the most immunodominant antigen in humans and enolase stimulates both humoral and cellular immune responses in mice and these responses are indicative of *C. albicans* proliferation in the host (Chaffin *et al.*, 1998; Zahing *et al.*, 1998).

C. albicans also has the ability to produce secreted aspartyl proteinase that degrade many human proteins found at lesion sites and the proteins affected include albumin, hemoglobin, keratin, collagen, mucin, and secretory immunoglobulin A (SIg-A) in addition to that the hyphal forms with increased adherence have been found to express secreted aspartyl proteinase (Naglik *et al.*, 1999). Louis *et al.*, (2000) suggest that *C. albicans* may both adhere to and enzymatically degrade, mucins by the action of secretory aspartyle

proteinase and that both properties may act to modulate *Candida* populations in the oral cavity and gastrointestinal tract and the surface-attached human C ϵ binding proteins(C ϵ BP) serves multiple functions relevant for immune evasion and likely pathogenicity.It inhibits complement activation at the yeast surface and, in addition ,mediates adhesion of *C. albicans* to host endothelial cells (Meri *et al.*, 2004; Yuan *et al.*, 1998).

2-9-4 Systemic Invasion of *C. albicans*

Candida is present in the mouths of 20 % to 70 % of the population, depending on the study and sampling techniques and current large-scale sampling methods such as saliva sampling or oral rinse procedures may identify the presence of yeast but do not diagnose clinical candidiasis or colonization. Patients who have intra-oral candidiasis have been found to have greater than 400 colony-forming units per ml of saliva while carriers of *C. albicans* have less than this amount(Epstein , 1990). High levels may thus suggest the possibility of systemic candidiasis, particularly in the immunocompromized patient, but do not prove deep-seated infection (Reasner *et al.*, 2003). This is particularly true in the hospital setting in that the problem of candidiasis is clear, but there are difficulties in establishing an early or even specific diagnosis. In hospital-acquired infections, *Candida* isolates from blood have become a common finding in the United States; similarly, instances of candidemia have increased in Europe, usually one-half of these occur in surgical intensive care units, while the other half occur in medical units (Wang *et al.*, 1998).In these settings, the mortality rates are attributable to candidemia range from 40 % to 60 % (Pittel *et al.*, 1993; Wenzel, 1990).Antibodies against *C. albicans* or *Candida*-derived molecules in the sera of a patient may point to deep-seated infection and investigations to detect *C. albicans* proteins (Walsh *et*

al., 1991). Metabolites DNA and polysaccharides are being done (Flahaut *et al.*, 1998; Switchenko *et al.*, 1994). For example, studies looking at mannans, which are a major component of *C. albicans* cell wall structure, may help determine the presence of *C. albicans* systemically by evaluating the antibody reaction to the organism, thus, enzyme immunoassays for sensitive detection of circulating *C. albicans* mannan and anti-mannan antibodies look promising in the diagnosis of systemic candidiasis (Sendid *et al.*, 1999).

This single cell fungi multiplies and develops toxins which circulate in the bloodstream which cause an array of maladies, *Candida* produces ethanol producing an intoxicating effect in the blood if the count level is too high and *Candida* grows rapidly when yeast has a food source like white sugar or white flour products and in severe cases, it produces much more than the liver can oxidize and eliminate (Hill *et al.*, 1987). It can produce a false estrogen and make the body think it has enough, which signals the body to cease production or send messages to the thyroid, making it think it has enough, stopping the production of thyroxin and the cause of this is menstrual problems and hypothyroid problems (Kelm and Schauer, 1997). Another by-product is acetaldehyde and it is related to formaldehyde; this disrupts collagen production, fatty acid oxidation and blocks normal nerve functions and basically, it interferes with the normal functions of the entire body and is a severe problem (Sendid *et al.*, 1999).

One way to get an overdose of *Candida* in the system is by taking antibiotics and birth control pills, and consuming sugar products (Kelm and Schauer, 1997). *Candida* feeds on antibiotics; it is their food source (Sendid *et al.*, 1999). Yeast cell produces around (70) known toxic substances that poison our body and these toxins contaminate the tissues where it weakens the immune system, the glands, the kidneys, bladder, lungs, liver and especially the brain and nervous system (Walsh *et al.*, 1991). *Candida* yeast can become so strong that it transforms into fungal form where it starts to

penetrate the mucous lining of the gastrointestinal wall (Reasner *et al.*, 2003). This penetration breaks down the protective barrier between the intestinal tract and bloodstream, allowing many unhealthy and toxic substances to poison the blood systemically (Shibata *et al.*, 1990).

Proteins and other food wastes that are not completely digested or eliminated from the body can assault the immune system and cause strong allergic reactions, fatigue and other health problems and it also allows that *Candida* itself enters our bloodstream, from which it may find its way to other tissues, resulting in far-ranging effects such as soreness of the joints, chest pain, sinus and skin problems, etc as well as it can cause a heart failure because the heart can become encased with *Candida albicans* (Shibata *et al.*, 1990). Vaginal yeast infections are more prevalent today than ever, and they will never completely go away until the yeast has been cleared from the intestinal area. *Candida* can be sexually transmitted from one person to another (Reasner *et al.*, 2003). other causes: cortisone, progesterone suppositories, diet, too much meat, weakened immune systems, and high-mercury levels from mercury fillings (William *et al.*, 2001).

2-1 • Diagnosis of *Candida albicans*

The diagnosis of mucocutaneous candidiasis is often made clinically and confirmation can be sought by scraping the lesions and doing either a KOH preparation or a Gram stain to look for budding yeast and pseudohyphae (Hull *et al.*, 2000). Pseudohyphae are not always noted and are never seen in infection due to *C. glabrata* and in circumstances in which disease is recurrent or unresponsive to standard therapy, culture should be done to establish whether a more resistant species, such as *C. glabrata* or *C. krusei*, is the causative agent (Goff *et al.*, 1996). In the case of suspected esophagitis, endoscopy should be performed; biopsy of the plaque like lesions or ulcerations will show mucosal invasion with budding yeasts and pseudohyphae (Hill *et al.*, 1987). The diagnosis of invasive or disseminated candidiasis is more difficult as well as evidence for

dissemination is usually sought by culturing blood or other sterile body sites (Varki *et al.*, 1999).

Automated blood culture systems (Bac T/A Iert, BACTEC, and ESP) are as sensitive as the lysis-centrifugation system for growing *Candida* from blood; however, no system is sensitive enough for clinicians to rely on blood cultures to always establish the diagnosis of invasive candidiasis or to rule out candidiasis as a diagnostic possibility (Varki *et al.*, 1999).

In addition, 1 to 4 days are required for growth to occur; in a desperately ill patient, this is problematic; the tip of intravenous catheters that have been removed should be sent for culture (Reasner *et al.*, 2003). No studies have evaluated the numbers of yeast that are indicative of infection and many physicians accept the growth of any yeast as affirming infection that requires treatment and because osteomyelitis and other focal forms of candidiasis are generally indistinguishable from bacterial infection, biopsy should be done for histopathology and culture studies (Carol *et al.*, 2004).

For the seriously ill patient suspected of having candidiasis, the development of pustular skin lesions or typical retinal lesions can be helpful (Hill *et al.*, 1987). Budding yeasts typical for *Candida* species should be sought by smearing material from a pustule on a slide and staining with Gram stain or by performing a biopsy of a lesion and staining the tissue section with a silver stain in addition to that all patients who are candidemic or suspected of having disseminated *Candida* infection should have an ophthalmologic examination to look for typical retinal lesions. (Lain *et al.*, 2000; Varki *et al.*, 1999).

Candida antibody tests have proved to be neither sensitive nor specific and are of no benefit in the diagnosis of *Candida* infections and cell wall or cytoplasmic antigen tests and metabolite detection systems also have not been proved useful in the clinical setting and although it is hoped that a polymerase chain reaction-based assay for *Candida* species will prove to be both sensitive and specific, this has not yet occurred; for current assays, the sensitivity is similar to that of standard blood culture methods (Carol *et al.*, 2004). Oral candidiasis

should be differentiated from other diseases or conditions such as Herpes simplex virus, the human periodontal diseases, drug induced oral lesions and others(Lain *et al.*, 2000).

2-1) Treatment

The first line of treatment in most cases of *Candida* infection is the use of frequent normal saline rinses, which can be found in all hospitals for bedside use or can be mixed at home using 1/2 teaspoon of salt in 1 quart of water (Wang *et al.*, 1998). This helps to decrease the fungal counts and is soothing to the mucous membranes and the temperature of the rinse should be adjusted for comfort, if the epithelium is intact and not sloughing, the patient should gently swab or brush the mouth and use a tongue scraper (Varki and Diaz 1984). Medication therapy falls into three basic categories; however, fungal resistance is a growing problem, and a new generation of drugs is needed, the polyenes, which include amphotericin -B and nystatin, help destroy the protein gradient in the cell due to leakage of cellular components(Goff *et al.*, 1996). Resistance to amphotericin-B is rare except for *C. lusitaniae*, *C. guilliermondii* and *Trichosporon beigelli* (White and Marr, 1998).

It is highly effective when given intravenously but toxicities and renal dysfunction are problematic. Nystatin is easy to use but some dislike the taste and the azoles which include ketoconazole, clotrimazole, fluconazole and itraconazole inhibit ergosterol biosynthesis in addition to that fluconazole has been the drug of choice for AIDS-associated fungal infections, but resistance is rapidly becoming a problem, particularly among the non-*albicans* species (e.g.: *C. krusei*, *C. glabrata*, *C. lusitaniae* and *C. dubliniensis*) (Wingard *et al.*, 1991; Sullivan and Haynes, 1997; Sullivan and Coleman, 1998; Kirkpatrick *et al.*, 1998). The third category, 5-Flucytosine, disrupts the DNA and protein synthesis of the cell. It is used in connection with amphotericin -B, fluconazole, and itraconazole (Dodds *et al.*, 2000). For most cases seen in the general

dental arena, various forms of nystatin or clotrimazole are sufficient (Wingard *et al.*, 1991). The recommended treatments also vary widely and include the elimination of specific foods, detoxification, herbal cleansing, multiple vitamins, special diets, colonics, and high enemas (Rees and Scott, 1971). Keeping skin clean, dry, and free from abbreviations or cuts can help prevent skin *Candida* infections (Koop, 2001). The prognosis is good for oral candidiasis with appropriate and effective treatment. Relapse when it occurs is more often than not due to poor compliance with therapy, failure to remove and clean dentures appropriately, or inability to resolve the underlying/predisposing factors to the infection (Akpan and Morgan, 2002; Wingard *et al.*, 1991).

3-1 Materials

Table (3-1) showed the instruments and Cultures Media which were used in this study and their company:

Cultures Media	Company
Sabouraud's Dextrose Agar	Oxoid

Corn Meal Agar	Mast laboratories
Instrument	Company
Light Microscope	Olympus-Japan
Inoculating Loop	Oxford-Japan
Benson burner	Germany
pH Meter	Germany

3-1-1 Cultures Media

The following types of culture media were used for the isolation and identification of *Candida albicans*. They were prepared and sterilized according to the instructions by the manufactures.

A-Sabouraud's Dextrose Agar Medium

Sixty five grams of this media was dissolved in one liter of distilled water and mixed well by exposing it to heat, it was sterilized by autoclave ,the pH of this medium is (6.6).To this medium, the following antibiotics: Penicillin, Streptomycin and

Chloramphenicol were added after sterilization and cooling to 60 °c (Collee *et al.* , 1996; Hill *et al.*, 1987).

B-Corn Meal Agar Medium

Sixty five grams of this medium was dissolved in one liter of distilled water and mixed well by exposing it to heat, it was sterilized by autoclave ,the pH of this medium is (6.0) .To this medium, the same antibiotics were added after sterilization and cooling to 60 °c (Chaffin *et al.*, 1998).

3-1-2 Solutions

A- Normal Saline (0.85% Nacl)

This was used for direct microscopical examination.

D- KOH (Merk-Darmstadt)(۲,۰٪)

It was also used for direct microscopical examination.

E- Stain

Gram stain was used for staining of the prepared smears.

۳-۱-۳ Human Serum

It was used to identify the organism through its ability to form germ tubes when it was inoculated in the serum. It was prepared by centrifugation of clotted human blood at ۳۰۰۰ rpm/۱۰min and aspirated by pipette (Chaffin *et al.*, ۱۹۹۸).

۳-۱-۴ The Samples

Three hundred saliva samples were collected from the study subjects who were divided into three groups:(۱۰۰) subjects healthy control group , (۱۰۰) subjects diabetic patients group who were not on antibiotics treatment and (۱۰۰) subjects antibiotic received diabetic patients group, attending to the main two hospitals in Najaf city named: AL Forat Hospital and AL Sadder Hospital).During the period of the study which started in November ۲۰۰۴ till January ۲۰۰۵.

۳-۲ Clinical Evaluation For The Patients.

Clinical evaluation for the patients were performed according to the following formula and all results were reported:

-No:

-Name:

-Age:

-Sex:

- Residence:

- Occupation:
- Type of diabetes mellitus:
- Type 1 :
- Type 2 :
- Duration of the disease:
- Health status:
- Debilitating illnesses:
- Diarrhea more than 6 weeks, cancer or leukemia and other diseases:
- Any antibiotic or chemotherapy for other disease was used:
- Signs of oro-esophageal candidiasis (sore mouth or dysphagia, etc):
- Results of examination:*C. albicans*+or *C. albicans* -

3-3 Diagnosis of Diabetes Mellitus

Diabetic patients included in this study were diagnosed in hospitals based on World Health Organization (WHO) criteria.

Diagnosis of type of D.M. :to avoid overlap between the two types of D.M. the following criteria were adopted:

Type 1- D.M. :any patient who was under the age of 40 year and who required insulin since the diagnosis for metabolic control. Type 2- D.M. : any patient who was above 40 year and did not require insulin therapy since the diagnosis for metabolic control. Patients who required a change of treatment to insulin were excluded from the study.

3-4 Methods

For control group of healthy individuals oral swabs were taken

during attendance to the lab in the hospitals for checking ,using sterile swabs. Then oral swabs were obtained from diabetic patients also during attendance to the hospital. Saliva samples were taken from different sites of mouth and especially the dorsum of the tongue.

A-The Inoculation on Sabouraud's Dextrose Agar

All swabs were inoculated on sabouraud's dextrose agar plates to which Pencillin,chloramphenicol and streptomycin were added to prevent bacterial growth and the inoculated sabouraud's agar plates were then incubated at 37°C for 24-72 hour(Hill *et al.*, 1987).

B- Stain :

According to Collee *et al.* (1996) Gram-staining is a four part procedure which uses certain dyes to make a fungal cell stand out against its background. The specimen should be mounted and fixed on a slide stained it. The reagents we will need to successfully perform this operation are:

1-Crystal Violet (The Primary Stain) .

2-Iodine Solution (The Mordant).

3-Decolorizer (Ethanol 90%) Fluka Chemika-Switzerland

4-Safranin (The Counter Stain) .

5-Distilled Water .

C-KOH

It was added one or two drops to the oral sample which contained oral epithelial cells, where KOH dissolved these cells making *C. albicans* clear.

3-0 Statistical Analysis:

The data were recorded and statistical analysis was performed using Chi square (X^2) and standard normal distribution (Z) test (Daniel, 1999).

Results

ξ-1 Detection of *C. albicans*

Several methods, which were previously mentioned, were used for the detection of *C. albicans*.

A-Cultivation on sabouraud's agar:

Were shown in Figure (ξ-1). The colonies were oval and smooth in shape and had white creamy colour.

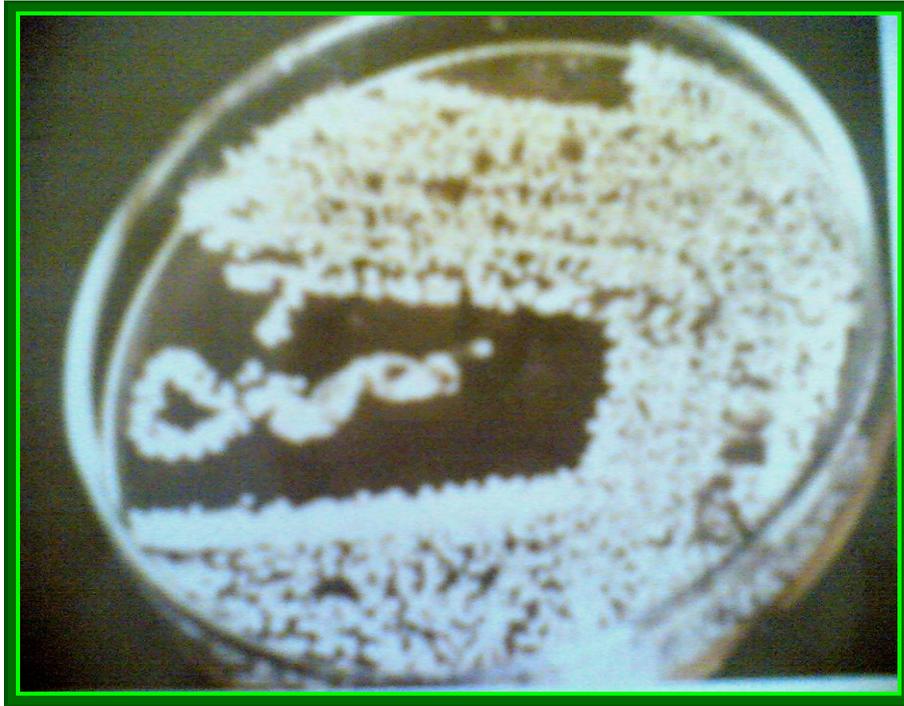


Figure (٤-١)

C. albicans grown on sabouraud's dextrose agar.

B-Gram stain methods:

The cell of *C. albicans* stained with gram stain was shown in Figure (٤-٢).

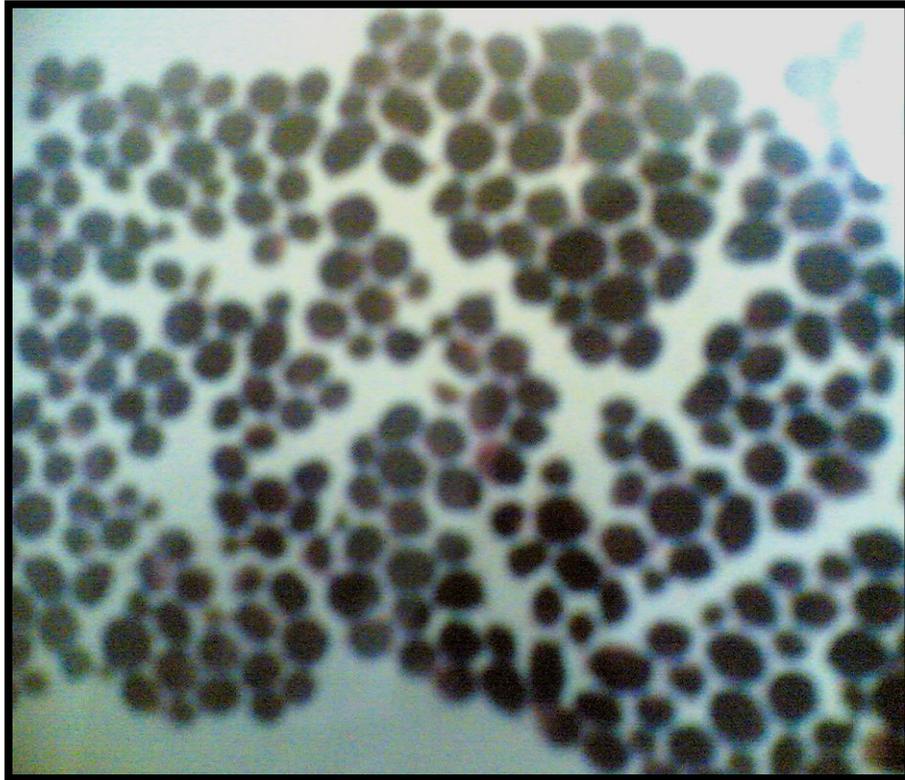


Figure (٤-٢)

Blastospores of *C. albicans* Gram stain on the slide(x ٤٠٠).

C-Germ tube detection:

Figure (٤-٣) showed germ tube production by *C. albicans* on corn meal agar.



Figure (٤-٣)

Germ tube production by *C.albicans* on corn meal agar



Figure (٤-٤)

Chlamydia formation by *C. albicans* on the slide (X ١٠٠٠).

During the period of this study ٣٠٠ saliva samples were collected from the oral cavity of ٣٠٠ individuals, divided into three groups: ١٠٠ oral samples from healthy subjects as control group C.G , ١٠٠ oral samples from diabetic patients D.G and ١٠٠ oral samples from antibiotics treated diabetic patients A.G. .The number of individuals and the percentage of oral candidiasis (carried *C. albicans* in their mouth) were showed in Table (٤-١) ,Table (٤-٢)

Table (٤-١) Distribution of Oral Candidiasis in Control Group and Diabetic Group.

Group of subjects	No. of cases	(+)	%	P value	(-)	%
C.G	100	18	18%	P<.005 significance	82	82%
D. G	100	39	39%		61	61%

C.G. Control Group Involved Healthy Subjects.

D.G. Diabetic Patients Group not treated with other antibiotic.

(+): Carry *C. albicans* in mouth

(-): Do not carry *C. albicans* in mouth

Table (4-2) Distribution of Oral Candidiasis in Diabetic Group and Antibiotics Group

Group of patients	No. of cases	(+)	%	P value	(-)	%
D. G	100	39	39%	P>0.05 Not significance	61	61%
A.G.	100	51	51%		49	49%

A.G. Antibiotic Treated Diabetic Patients
Group)

Sex of patients of D.G.	Total No.	(+) No.	%	(-) No.	%	P value

Male	0.	12	24%	38	76%	P < 0.05 significance	Table (4-3) Distribution
Female	0.	27	54%	23	46%		

of Oral Candidiasis according to sex

Patients of	Age(Year)	P value
--------------------	------------------	----------------

Table (4-3) illustrates the difference between male and female in oral carriage rate.

	< ٢٠	٢٠-٤٠	٤١-٦٠	> ٦٠	
(+) No.	١٤	١٢	٧	٦	P>٠.٠٥ Not significance
%	٣٨.٨٨%	٣٦.٣٧%	٤٣.٧٥%	٤٠.٠%	
(-) No.	٢٢	٢١	٩	٩	
%	٦١.١١%	٦٣.٦٣%	٥٦.٢٥%	٦٠.٠%	
Total No.	٣٦	٣٣	١٦	١٥	

The groups of age showed different values of oral carriage rate as in Table (٤-٤).

Table (٤-٤) Distribution of oral candidiasis according to the age

The duration had no recognizable effect on the oral carriage rate but the categories showed different rates, the highest rate of occurrence was in patients with ١-٤ years of Duration of his disease (١-٤) years of D.M.as in Table (٤-٥).

Table (٤-٥) Distribution of oral candidiasis according to the Duration of Diabetes Mellitus

Patients	Duration(Years)
----------	------------------

of D.G.	<1	1-4	5-9	>10	P value
(+) No.	7	13	9	10	P>0.05 Not significance
%	30%	40.62%	39.13%	40%	
(-) No.	13	19	14	10	
%	60%	59.38%	60.87%	60%	
Total No.	20	32	23	20	

Table (4-6) Distribution of oral candidiasis in type (1 & 2) diabetes mellitus

Patients of D.G.	Total No.	(+)	%	(-)	%	P value
Type-1-	50	23	46%	27	54%	P>0.05 Non significance
Type-2-	50	16	32%	34	68%	

Table (٤-٦) showed the difference in oral carriage rate of *C. albicans* between type-١- and type-٢- diabetes mellitus which was higher in type -١- than type-٢- but with non Significance difference $P > ٠.٠٥$

Table (٤-٧) illustrated the oral carriage rate in rural and urban patients as follows:

Table (٤-٧) Distribution of Oral Candidiasis according to the residence

Patients of D.G.	Residence		P value
	Rural	Urban	
(+) No.	٢١	١٨	$P > ٠.٠٥$ Not Significance
%	٤٢%	٣٦%	
(-) No.	٢٩	٣٢	
%	٥٨%	٦٤%	
Total No.	٥٠	٥٠	

o-1 The rate of oral candidiasis

The percentage of oral carriage rate of *Candida albicans* in this study was (39%) in (D.G.) compared to (18%) in (C.G.) and the difference was significant (Table 4-1). These findings were in agreement with other studies. In Spain, Negroni *et al.* (2002) found in a study of individuals all in healthy oral conditions that 21.42% were positive with *Candida* in their oral cavity. Kumar *et al.* (2001) found in a study of healthy population that 27% of them were positive with *Candida* species oral carriage.

AL-khaffaji (2000) found in a study of healthy population in Iraq that the rate of oral carriage with *C. albicans* was 04.8%. Whereas Mohammed (2002) found that 37% of diabetic patients carried *Candida* spp. in their oral cavity and 26% were positive with *C. albicans*.

Up to 60% of the population carry *Candida albicans* as part of the oral flora without having evidence of candidiasis. (Ramanathan *et al.*, 1980). Fongsmut *et al.* (1998) studied the oral candidal prevalence and identified that the most frequent candidal species in diabetics patients was *C. albicans* (81.3%). Kumar *et al.* (2001) suggested that the disparity in results might be due to a difference in sampling

techniques. Hill *et al.* (1989) mentioned that the prevalence of oral yeast infection in diabetics was (49)%. It had been suggested by Cannon *et al.*

(1990) that (77%) of diabetic patients carried *Candida* species in their oral cavity, with *C. albicans* being the species most frequently isolated. It had been suggested by Gloria *et al.* (2000) that when the blood sugar increases, two things happen. One, all the body secretions will have an increased amount of glucose. Two, all of the tissues of the body stop functioning normally, and therefore the normal defenses that the body has against intrusion by outside substances such as yeast will be abnormal.

0-2 The influence of antibiotic therapy on the oral carriage rate of *C. albicans*

Treatment with antibiotic was known to predispose to infection of gastrointestinal tract with *C. albicans* an important opportunistic pathogen (Gloria *et al.*, 2000). The antibiotic therapy in diabetic patient seemed to have an additive influence in predisposing to oral carriage of *C. albicans* as shown in this study in Table(4-2) where detected in (01%) of A.G. compared to (39%) of diabetic patients who were not taking antibiotic during sampling and the differences were not significant. Ninane (1994) ; Akpan and Morgan (2002) mentioned that the antibiotics reduce the number of "friendly bacteria" (flora) in the intestinal tract and in mouth which normally keeps the *Candida albicans* under control. *Candida* feeds on antibiotics ;it is their food source. Potential causes of *Candida albicans* overgrowth and *Candida* yeast infections, some antibiotics have local irritable effect as well as systemic effect by decreasing the activity of cellular immune (decreasing the activity of macrophages and leukocytes) (Gloria *et al.*, 2000).

0-3 The occurrence of oral candidiasis according to the sex

In this study we noticed that the rate of O.C. in females (64%) was higher than it was in males (24%) and the difference was significant (Table 4-3) in addition to that the result was in agreement a previous study by Mohammed (2002) who found 46% in female and 21% in male. This difference might be correlated with physiological factors affecting the rate of the infection. Increased level of progesterone in the last half of menstruation period could be a factor. However, some investigation failed to find gender differences.

4-4 The occurrence of oral candidiasis according to the age of the patients

The highest percentage of oral carriage (43.70%) was among age group (41-60 year), the next were those over 60 year of age (40%), (38.38%) was in those less than 20 year and the least (36.37%) was among those who were (21-40 year) (Table 4-4). The statistical analysis indicated that the differences were not significant among all age groups ($P > 0.05$). This result also detected by Tapper-Jones *et al.* (1981) where they found that no differences in candidal status could be detected according to the patient's age. Lamey *et al.* (1988) did not observe significant differences in relation to the age of the patient. Willis *et al.* (1999) found that candidal load was not associated with age. Mohammed (2002) also mentioned that the differences were not significant ($P > 0.05$).

4-5 The occurrence of oral candidiasis according to the duration of diabetes mellitus

The occurrence of oral candidiasis and the frequency of isolation of *Candida albicans* and its density and distribution were studied (Table 4-5) and the differences statistically were not significant. There are no significant differences in candidal status detected according to the duration of diabetes (Tapper-Jones *et al.*, 1981). Lamey *et al.* (1988) did not observe significant differences in relation to the number of microorganisms with the duration of the disease. The exact cause for lack of effect of the duration on the rate of oral carriage rate of

O.C. was unknown. However, the type of treatment and degree of control of diabetes that affect salivary glucose concentration might be related factors.

o-6 The occurrence of oral candidiasis according to type of diabetes mellitus

It was found that (46%) in type-1- carried *C. albicans* in their mouth (Table 4-6) and the rate was higher but there were not significant differences than type-2-(32%). Other previous studies by Ozturkcan *et al.* (1993) observed that the rate of oral *Candida albicans* carriage was higher in type-1- than type-2-. Kumar *et al.* (2001) found in that (83.67%) were in type-1- and is higher than type-2- (68.02%). While Mohammed (2002) found that 24% in type-1- D.M. and 27% in type-2-. Richard *et al.* (2003) found that the high level of *Candida* carriage was seen in 44% of the type-1- diabetic subjects. Bartholomew *et al.* (1999) found that (70%) of patients with insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus (IDDM) showed high frequency and severity of oral *Candida* colonization. Bai *et al.* (1990) found in a study of oral candidal carriage state that 92% of patients with insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus showed *Candida* carrier state. In this study type-2- showed (32%) oral carriage rate. Mohammad (2002) found that 27% of Type-2- D.M. showed oral carriage of *Candida albicans*. Dodds *et al.* (2000) found that 30% of type-2 diabetes mellitus subjects had high oral yeast counts. Kumar *et al.* (2001) found that (68.02%) of type-2- diabetes mellitus subjects carried *Candida* in their oral cavity. The exact cause of the difference between type-1- and type-2- was not exactly known. However, type-1- D.M. was severer than type-2- and type-1- being insulin requiring and of a younger ages were at greater risk of poorer glycaemic control and microbial including *Candida albicans*.

o-7 The occurrence of oral candidiasis according to the residence

Rate of carriage of O.C. was higher (42%) in rural patients but the difference was not significant compared to (32%) in urban (Table 4-7). This mild difference might be related to low socioeconomic status

in rural areas. Shibata *et al.* (1992) revealed that *Candida* species were most predominantly found in persons with poor oral cleanliness. Moreover, low educational standard was associated with lower glycemic control and higher rate of occurrence of O.C. in diabetics patients.

Conclusions

1-The fungus was detected in 39% of 100 patients with D.M., 51% of 100 patients with antibiotics treatment and in 18% of 100 healthy individuals C.G.

2-There were significant differences in the oral candidal carriage rate by *C. albicans* between female (54%) and male (24%).

Ƴ-There is no significant effect of age and duration of D.M. on the percentage of occurrence of O.C.

Recommendations

١- Diabetic patients need to be routinely screened for oral carriage of *C. albicans* regardless of symptoms.

٢-Antimicrobial therapy should not be freely offered to diabetic patients in the absence of clear indication.

٣-Oral candidiasis in diabetic patients especially those receiving antibiotics probably requires prompt eradication by antifungal therapy if risk of invasive candidiasis is to be prevented.

A

Akpan A . and R. Morgan. ٢٠٠٢. Oral candidiasis . Postgrad. Med.J.٧٨:٤٥٥-٤٩٩.

Alae S., C .Larcher, C. Ebenbichler, W.M. Prodingler, J. Janatova, and M.P.Dierich. ١٩٩٣.Isolation and biochemical characterization of the Ic^٣b receptor of *C. albicans* infect. Immun. ٦١:١٣٩٥-١٣٩٩.

AL-Khaffaji K.A.H.٢٠٠٢.Isolation of Candida species from normal individuals in Hilla-Iraq.Medical Journal of Babylon. ٢(٢):٢٥٩-٢٦٢.

B

,C.D. Reddy and S.H.Abu-Talib . 1990. Oral candidal carriage in young insulin dependent diabetics. J Indian Soc Pedod Prev .Dent.ug; 13(1):20-3.

Bartholomew G.A., B. Rodu and D.S. Bell .1999. Oral candidiasis in patients with diabetes mellitus: a thorough analysis.Oral Pathology J. 4:106-109.

Beck-Sague,S.M. and W.R.Jarvis.1993.National Nosocomial Infections Surveillance System.Secular trends in the epidemiology of nosocomial fungal infections in the

Unated States,1980-1990. J.Infect. Dis.167:1247-1251.

Burns D. N., R. Tuomala, B.-H. Chang, R. Hershow, H. Minkoff, E Rodriguez, C. Zorrilla, H. Hammill, J. Regan, and Women and Infants Transmission Study Group. 1997. Vaginal colonization or infection with *Candida albicans* in human immunodeficiency virus-infected women during pregnancy and during the postpartum period. Clin. Infect. Dis. 24:201-210.

C

Calderone R. A. 1993. Recognition between *Candida albicans* and host cells. Trends Microbiol. 1:50-58.

Cannon R. D., C. Zorrilla and W. L. Chaffin. 1999. Oral colonization by *Candida albicans*. Crit. Rev. Oral Biol. Med. 10:309-383.

Cannon R.D., C. Nicolle and A.R. Holmes.1990. Oral *Candida*: Clearance,colonization,or candidiasis. J Dent Res 69.

Carol A.,G. Kauffman. and E. Mattia. 2004. Candidiasis Diagnosis Text Book of Medicine Part XXIII Infectious Diseases.380-393.

Chaffin W. L., J. L. Lopez-Ribot, M. Casanova, D. Gozalbo, and J. P. Martinez. 1998. Cell wall and associated proteins of *Candida albicans*: identification, function, and expression. *Microbiol. Mol. Biol. Rev.* 63(1):50-61.

Chung K.J. and J. E. Bennett. 1992. Candidiasis. *Medical Mycology J.* 30(1):34-41.

Chapuis F., A. Thiebaut, A. Bataillard, M. A. Piens, A. Lafuma, M. C. Nicolle, and J. P. Auray. 2001. Economic consequences of invasive aspergillosis due to *Aspergillus* or to other filamentous fungal infection in patients treated for acute myeloid leukemia and preventative treatments modeling. *J. Mycol. Med.* 11:67-72.

1998. Endocrine late effects in Cohen A., R. Rovelli and S. Zecca children who underwent bone marrow transplantation: review. *Bone Marrow Transplant* 21: 64-7.

Collee J.G., A.G. Fraser, B.P. Marmion and A. Simmons. 1996. *Journal of Biomedical Science*. Gram's stain or positive, Gram-negative. 40:120-26

Coleman D.C. D.J. Sullivan and S. Zecca. 1997. Candidiasis: the emergence of a novel species, *Candida dubliniensis*. *Community Dent Oral Epidemiol. J.* 11:507-517.

Collins L.A., M.H. Samore, M.S. Robert and R. Luzzati. 1994. Risk factors for invasive fungal infections complicating orthotopic liver transplantation. *J. Inf. Dis.* 170:644-652.

D

Daniel W.W. 1999. *Biostatistics* 7th ed. John Wiley & Sons Inc. New York foundation for Analysis in the Health Sciences

Darouiche D. M., M. M. Neil, M. L. Cohen, B. G. Gellin, and J.

R. L. Montagne. 1996. Fungal infections. Public Health
Rep. 111:226-230

Dedic A. and I. Masic. 1999. Diabetes Mellitus and *Candida albicans*. Med Arh. 53(1):43-5.

Dixon D.M. Mcneil, M.M. Cohen and B.G Gellin. 1996.
glycoconjugated in the fungus *Ascovalux Abietina*, the
scleroderris canker agent of conifers, using lectin-gold
complexes. J. Histochem. 34:800-860.

Dodds M.W., C.K. Yeh and DA. Johnson 2000. Salivary
alterations in type-2-(non-insulin-dependent) diabetes
mellitus and hypertension. Community Dent Oral
Epidemiol. J. 28(5):373-81

E

Epstein J.B. 1990. Antifungal therapy in oropharyngeal mycotic
infections. Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol. 69:32-41.

F

., P.J. Lamey, L.P. Samaranayake, T.W. Farlane Fisher B.M
and B.M. Frier. 1987. Carriage of *Candida* species in the
oral cavity in diabetic patients: relationship to glycaemic
control. Medical Microbiology J. 3(7):144-149.

Flahaut M and D. Sanglard J. Lamey. 1998. Rapid detection of
Candida albicans in clinical samples by
DNA amplification of common regions from *C. albicans*-
secreted aspartic proteinase genes. J Clin Microbiol.
36:390-401.

., C. Deerochanawong and W. Prachyabrued. Fongsmut T
Thai diabetes patients. Med in 1998. Intraoral *candida*
Assoc J. 81(7):449-453.

G

Gil I., M.L Gil, A.M. Cervera, M. Casanova, J.P. Martínez and D. Gozalbo. 1997. Abstracts of the General Meeting of Medical the American Society for Microbiology. Microbiology J. 9(1): 123-179.

A. Joseph, E. Swanson and B. Gerald. 2000. Yeast *Glycocladium* Infections and Diabetes mellitus in long-term survivors. Oral Pathology J. 3: 80-87.

Goins T. L., and J. E. Cutler. 2000. Relative abundance of oligosaccharides in *Candida* species as determined by fluorophore-assisted carbohydrate electrophoresis. J. Clin. Microbiol. 38: 2862-2869.

Goff D. A., S. J. Sierawski, and R. J. Fass. 1996. Cost analysis of *Candida* infection among surgical intensive care unit patients. J. Clin. Drug Investig. 12: 176-180.

H

Hill L.V., M.H. Tan, L.H. Pereira and J.A. Embil. 1989. Association of oral candidiasis with diabetic control. 1989. Journal of Clinical Pathology. 42: 502-505.

Holmes A.R., Bandara and R.D Cannon. 2002. Saliva promotes *Candida albicans* adherence to human epithelial cells. J. Dent Res. 81(1): 28-32.

Hull C. M., R. M. Raisner, and A. D. Johnson. 2000. Evidence for mating of the "asexual" yeast *Candida albicans* in mammals. Science. Mycol. Res. J. 289: 307-310.

Huntely A.H. 2000. Diabetes mellitus. Dermatology online J. 1(2): 67-72.

J

Jarvis W. R. and W. J. Marton. 1992. Predominant pathogens in hospital infections. *Antimicrob. Chemother. J.* 29:19-24.

Jones L., C. Hobden and P. Oshea. 1990. Use of a real-time fluorescent probe to study the electrostatic properties of the cell surface of *Candida albicans*. *Mycol. Res.J.* 99:969-976.

Jose P., M. Martinez, Luisa Gil, Jose L. Lopez-Ribot, and W. Chaffin. 1998. Serologic Response to Cell Wall Mannoproteins and Proteins of *Candida albicans*. 11(1): 121-141.

K

Kapteyn J. C., L. L. Hoyer, J. E. Hecht, W. H. Müller, A. Andel, A. J. Verkleij, M. Makarow, H. Van, and F. M. Klis. 2000. The cell wall architecture of *Candida albicans* wild-type cells and cell wall-defective mutants. *Mol. Microbiol.J.* 30:601-611.

Kapteyn J. C., R. C. Montijn, E. Vink, J. Cruz, A. Llobell, J. E. Douwes, H. Shimoj, P. N. Lipke, and F. M. Klis. 1996. Sialic acids in molecular and cellular interactions. *Mol. Microbiol.J.* 27:42-9

Kelm S., and R. Schauer. 1997. Sialic acids in molecular and cellular interactions. *Int. Rev. Cytol.* 170:137-240.

Kerridge D. 1993. Oral Candidiasis. *Dimorphic Fungi in Biology and Medicine J.* 7:3-10.

Kirkpatrick W.R Nickerson W.J. and S.G. Revankar. 1998. Detection of *Candida dubliniensis*. in oropharyngeal samples from human immunodeficiency virus-infected patients in North America by Primary

CHROMagar *Candida* screening and susceptibility testing of isolates. J Clin Microbiol. 36:3007-12.

Kobayashi H., K. Matsuda, T. Ikeda, M. Suzuki, S. Takahashi, A. Suzuki, N. Shibata, and S. Suzuki. 1994. Structures of cell wall mannans of pathogenic *Candida tropicalis* IFO 199 and IFO 1647 yeast strains. Infect. Immun. 62:610-622.

Koop M.D. 2001. *Candida albicans*. Former Surgeon General of the United States. J. Bacteriol. 160:30-37.

Kumar B.V., N.S. Padshetty, K.Y. Bai and M.S. Rao. 2001. Prevalence of *Candida* in the oral cavity of diabetic subjects. Oral Pathology J. 53(8):599-602.

Kurzai O., M.S. Rao. and J.H. Werner. 1999. Rapid PCR test for discriminating between *Candida albicans* and *Candida dubliniensis* isolates using primers derived from the pH-regulated PHR¹ and PHR² genes of *C. albicans*. J Clin Microbiol, May ;37(5):1087-90.

L

Lain L., C. Chapple and John Hamburger. 2000. The significance of oral health in HIV disease, Sexually Transmitted Infections. 76:236-243.

., A. Darwaza, B.M. Fisher, L.P. Samaranayake, T.W. Lamey P.J Macfarlane and B.M. Frier. 1988. Secretor status, candidal carriage and candidal infection in patients with diabetes mellitus. J. Oral. Pathol. 17(7):304-7.

Leleu G., P. Aegerter, and B. Guidet. 2002. Systemic candidiasis in intensive care units: a multicenter, matched-cohort study. J. Crit. Care. 17:168-170.

Lockhart S. R., C. Pujol, K. Daniels, M. G. Miller, A. D. Johnson, M. A. Pfaller and D. R. Soll. 2003. . In *Candida albicans*, white-opaque switchers are homozygous for and microbiology Oral Genetics. type mating immunology.J. 162:737-740.

Loeb J.D.J., M. Sepulveda-Becerra, I. Hazan and H. Liu. 1999. AG1 cyclin Is Necessary for Maintenance of filamentous microbiology and *Candida albicans*. Oral growth in immunology.J. 9(7):33-38.

Louis R., A. Francine, B. Karine and B. Pierre. 2000. Characterization of binding of *C. albicans* to mucosal epithelial cells. Infection and Immunity.J. 68(6):3172-3179.

M

Magee B. B. 2000. Induction of mating in *Candida albicans* by construction of MTL and MTL alpha strains Science. Oral microbiology and immunology.J. 289:310-313.

Mandell G.L., J.E. Bennett and R. Dolin. 1995. Anti-fungal agents. Principles and practice of infectious diseases. 4th Ed. New York: Churchill Livingstone. 401-40.

Manfredil M., M.J. Mcculough, Z.M. AL-karaawi, S.J. Hurel, S.J. and S.R. Porter. 2002. The isolation Identification and molecular analysis of *Candida* ssp. Isolated from the oral cavities of patients with Diabetes Mellitus. Oral microbiology and immunology.J. 9170 (3):181-186.

Martin J. and A. Tabin. 1998. Epithelial tube on the control of germ cell development in *Caenorhabditis elegans*, Devel. Biol. 81: 208- 219.

Meri T., A.M. Blom, A. Hartmann, D. Lenk, S. Meri and P.F. Zipefel.

2004. The Hyphal and Yeast Forms of *C. albicans* bind the Complement Regulator C ϵ b-Binding Protein. *Infection and Immunity*. 72(11): 6633-6641.

Miller M. G., and A. D. Johnson. 2002. White-opaque switching in *Candida albicans* is controlled by the mating type Cell-Cell mating efficiency allows and (MTL) locus microbiology and immunology. *J. Clin. Microbiol.* 40: 293-302.

Miller L. W., D. C. Naftel, R. C. Bourge, J. K. Kirklin, S. C. Brozena, J. Jarcho, R. E. Hobbs and R. M. Mills. 1994. Cardiac Transplant Research Database Group. Infection after heart transplantation: a multi-institutional study. *J. Heart Lung Transplant.* 13: 381-393.

Mohammed H. 2002. The Effect of Diabetes Mellitus on The Oral Carriage Rate of *Candida* Species. M. Sc. Thesis. Kufa University.

N

Naglik J.R. B. Levin and G. Newport. 1999. In vivo analysis of secreted aspartyl proteinase expression in human oral candidiasis. *Infect Immun* May. 67(5): 2482-90.

., M.I. Gonzalez, B. Levin, A. Cuesta and C. Negroni M. Iovanniti. 2002. *Candida* carriage in the oral mucosa of a student population: adhesiveness of the strains and predisposing factors. *J. Clin. Microbiol.* 40: 22-8.

oral versus fluconazole of study Ninane J.A. 1994. Multicentre polyenes in the prevention of fungal infection in children malignancies. oncological haematological or with Multicentre study group. *Eur J. Clin Microbiol Infect Dis.* 13: 330-7.

O

Odds F. C. 1993. *Candida* species and virulence. Oral Pathology
J. 60:313-8.

Odds F. C. 1988. *Candida* and candidosis. A review and
bibliography, 2nd ed. 106-161.

., S. Topcu, S. Akinci ,M.Z. Bakici and N. Yalcin. Ozturkcan S
patients. diabetic candidiasis in of oral 1993. Incidence
27(4):302-6. Medical Microbiology J.

P

Peterson, D.E. 1990. Oral candidiasis. Clin Geriatr Med .8:513-
27.

and D. J. Diekema. 2002. Role of sentinel Pfaller, M. A
surveillance of candidemia: trends in species
distribution and antifungal susceptibility. J. Clin.
Microbiol. 40:3001-3007.

Pfaller, M. A., R. N. Jones, S. A. Messer, M. B. Edmond, R. P.
Wenzel, and SCOPE Participant Group. 1998. National
surveillance of nosocomial blood stream infection due to
species of *Candida* other than *Candida albicans*:
frequency of occurrence and antifungal susceptibility in
the SCOPE program. Diagn. Microbiol. Infect. Dis,
30:121-129.

Pittel D, R.P.Wenzel and C.Wilkins. 1993. Prevention and Control
of Nosocomial Bloodstream Infections. 2nd ed. 512-500.

R

., N.K.Han and P.I. Chelvanayagam . 1980. Oral Ramanathan K
candidiasis--its pleomorphic clinical manifestations,

diagnosis and treatment. Dent. J. Malays. 1(1): 39-40.
Reasner C., E. Scott. and R.A. Defronzo. 2003. Classification
Oral mellitus. and diagnosis of diabetes
immunology. J. 3(7): 1-3. and microbiology

Rees D. A., and W. E. Scott. 1971. Polysaccharide conformation.
VI. Computer model-building for linear and branched
pyranoglycans. Correlations with biological
function. Preliminary assessment of inter-residue forces in
aqueous solution. Further interpretation of optical
rotation in terms of chain conformation. J. Chem. Soc.
Ser. B. 1971: 469-479.

Regezi J. A. and J. J. Sciubba. 1989. Diabetes mellitus. Macphail
LA, Hilton JF, Heinic GS, Greenspan D. Direct
immunofluorescence vs. culture for detecting HSV .
oral Pathology. J. 16: 329-334

S

Schuman P., J. D. Sobel, S. E. Ohmit, K. H. Mayer, C. C. J.
Carpenter, A. Rompalo, A. Duerr, D. K. Smith, D. Warren,
and R. S. Klein. 1998. Mucosal candidal colonization and
candidiasis in women with or at risk for human
immunodeficiency virus infection. Clin. Infect. Dis.
27: 1161-1167.

Sendid B. Z. Rui and M. Tabouret. 1999. New enzyme
immunoassays for sensitive detection of circulating
Candida albicans mannan and antimannan antibodies:
Useful combined test for diagnosis of systemic candidiasis.
J Clin Microbiol 37(5): 1010-7.

Shibata, N., M. Onozawa, N. Tadano, Y. Hinosawa, A. Suzuki, K.
Ikuta, H. Kobayashi, S. Suzuki, and Y. Okawa. 1996.
Structure and antigenicity of the mannans of *Candida*
famata and *Candida saitoana*: comparative study with the

mannan of *Candida guilliermondii*. Arch. Biochem. Biophys. 336:49-58.

Shibata N., K. Ikuta, T. Imai, Y. Satoh, R. Satoh, A. Suzuki, C. Kojima, Kobayashi, K. Hisamichi, and S. Suzuki. 1990. Existence of branched side chains in the cell wall mannan of pathogenic yeast, *Candida albicans*. J. Biol. Chem. 270:1113-1122.

Shibata N., R. Akagi, T. Hosoya, K. Kawahara, A. Suzuki, K. Ikuta, H. Kobayashi, K. Hisamichi, Y. Okawa, and S. Suzuki. 1996. Existence of novel branched side chains containing β -1,2 and -1,6 linkages corresponding to antigenic factor 9 in the mannan of *Candida guilliermondii*. J. Biol. Chem. 271:9209-9216.

Shibata N., M. Arai, E. Haga, T. Kikuchi, M. Najima, T. Satoh, H. Kobayashi, and S. Suzuki. 1992. Structural identification of an epitope of antigenic factor 9 in mannans of *Candida albicans* NIH B-792 (serotype B) and J-1012 (serotype A) as -1,2-linked oligomannosyl residues. Infect. Immun. J. 60:4100-4110.

Soares R. M. A., R. M. A. Soares, D. S. Alviano, J. Angluster, C. S. Alviano, and L. R. Travassos. 2000. Identification of sialic acids on the cell surface of *Candida albicans*. Biochim. Biophys. Acta J. 1474:262-268.

Sobel J. D. 1980. Epidemiology and pathogenesis of recurrent vulvovaginal candidiasis. Am. J. Obstet. Gynecol. 102:924-930.

Staab J.F., D. G. Maki and S.D. Bradway. 1999. Adhesive and mammalian transglutaminase substrate properties of *Candida albicans* Hwp1. Science. 283:1030-3.

Sullivan D. and D. Coleman. 1998. *Candida dubliniensis*: characteristics and identification. J Clin Microbiol 36:329-34.

Sullivan D.J. and T.J. Westerneng. 1990. *Candida dubliniensis* sp. Nov. phenotypic and molecular characterization of a novel species associated with oral candidosis in HIV-infected individuals. Microbiology 141:1007-1021.

Sullivan D. and K. Haynes. 1997. Widespread geographic distribution of oral *Candida dubliniensis* strains in human immunodeficiency virus-infected individuals. J Clin Microbiol 35:960-964.

Switchenko A.C. K. Haynes and C.G. Myada. 1994. An automated enzymatic method for measurement of D-arabinitol, a metabolite of pathogenic *Candida* species. J Clin Microbiol. 32:92-97.

T

Tambyah P. A., V. Knasinski, and D. G. Maki. 2002. The direct costs of nosocomial catheter-associated urinary tract infection in the era of managed care. Infect. Control Hosp. Epidemiol. 23:27-31.

Tapper-Jones L., M. Aldred and D.M. Walker. 1981. Prevalence and intraoral distribution of *Candida albicans* in Sjögren's syndrome. J Clin Pathol. 33:282-7.

Tavares D, A. Salvador, P. Ferreira, and M.P. Arala-Chaves. 1993. Immunological activities of a *Candida albicans* protein which plays an important role in the survival of the microorganism in the host. Infect Immun. 61:123-129.

U

Uchiyama M., N. Ohno, N. N. Miura, Y. Adachi, H. Tamura, S. Tanaka, and T. Yadomae. 2000. Solubilized cell wall β -glucan, CSBG, is an epitope of *Candida* immune mice. Biol. Pharm. Bull. 23:672-676.

Ueta E., T. Tanida, S. Doi and T. Osaki. 2000. Regulation of *Candida albicans* growth and adhesion by saliva. Lab. Clin. Med. J. 136(1):66-73.

V

Varki A., R. Cummings, J. Esko, H. Freeze, G. Hart, and J. Marth. 1999. Essentials of glycobiology. Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Press, Cold Spring Harbor and N.Y.J. 190-209.

Varki A., and S. Diaz. 1984. The release and purification of sialic acids from glycoconjugates: methods to minimize the loss and migration of O-acetyl groups. Anal. Biochem. 137:236-247.

Vincent J.-L., E. Anaissie, H. Bruining, W. Demajo, M. El-Ebiary, J. Haber, Y. Hiramatsu, G. Nitenberg, P.-O. Nyström, D. Pittet, T. Rogers, P. Sandven, G. Sganga, M.-D. Schaller, and J. Solomkin. 1998. Epidemiology, diagnosis and treatment of systemic *Candida* infection in surgical patients under intensive care. Intens. Care Med. J. 24:206-216

Vincent J.-L., D. J. Bihari, P. M. Suter, H. A. Bruining, J. White, M.-H. Nicolas-Chanoin, M. Wolff, R. C. Spencer, and M. Hemmer. 1990. The prevalence of nosocomial infection in intensive care units in Europe. N. Engl. J. Med. 323:370-376.

Voss A., J. A. J. W. Kluytmans, J. G. M. Koeleman, L. Spanjaard, C. M. J. E. Vandenbroucke-Grauls, H. A. Verbrugh, M. C.

Vos, A. Y. L. Weersink, J. A. A. Hoogkamp-Korstanje, and J. F. G. M. Meis. 1996. Occurrence of yeast bloodstream infections between 1987 and 1990 in five Dutch university hospitals. *Eur.J. Clin. Microbiol. Infect. Dis.* 10:909-912.

W

Wadsworth E., S. C. Prasad and R. Calderone. 1993. Analysis of mannoproteins from blastoconidia and hyphae of *Candida albicans* with a common epitope recognized by anti-complement receptor type 2 antibodies. *Infect. Immun.J.* 61:4670-4681

Walsh T.J., J.W. Hathorn . 1991. Detection of circulating *candida* enolase by immunoassay in patients with cancer and invasive candidiasis. *N .E. ngl .J .Med.* 324:1026-31.

Wang Y., S. P. Lius, S. A. Moser, K. L. Bost, and J. E. Domer. 1998. Cytokine involvement in immunomodulatory activity affected by *Candida albicans* mannan. *Infect. Immun.J.* 66:1384-1391.

Wenzel R. P. 1990. Nosocomial candidemia: Risk factors and attributable mortality. *Clin. Infect. Dis. J.* 20:1031-1034.

White T.C. and K.A Marr. 1998. Clinical, cellular, and molecular factors that contribute to antifungal drug resistance. *Clin Microbiol Rev* 11:382-402.

William A., H .Strohl., B. Rouse, L. Fisher, A. Richard and P. Havvey .2001. *Medical Microbiology.* 4(7):130-138.

Willis .A.M.,W.A. Coulter and C . R. R. Hayes . 1999. Oral candidal carriage and infection in insulin-treated diabetic patients. *Bell and P. Lamey .J.* 16(8):670-679.

Wingard J.R., R. Fulton and W.G. Merz. 1991. Increase in *Candida krusei* infection among patients with bone marrow transplantation and neutropenia treated prophylactically with fluconazole. N. Engl J. Med. 18:1274-1277.

World Health Organization Group. 1994. Report of World Health Organization Group. Diabetes. 10:1.

X

Xing Y., and J. Ning. 2003. First syntheses of D-mannose penta- and decasaccharides, the repeating unit and its dimer of the cell-wall mannan of *Candida kefyr*. Tetrahedron Asymm. J. 14:1270-1283.

Y

Yas N.S. 1989. Prevalence of *Candida albicans* in the oral cavity of newborn Infants. M.Sc. thesis. College of dent. Baghdad University. 1-3.

Yuan R. R., G. Spira, J. O. M. Paizi, A. Casadevall and M. D. Scharff. 1998. Isotype switching increases efficacy of antibody protection against *Cryptococcus neoformans* infection in mice Infect. Immun. J. 66:1007-1062.

Z

Zahing M. X., J. E. Cutler, Y. Han, and T. R. Kozel. 1998. Contrasting roles of mannan-specific monoclonal

immunoglobulin-M antibodies in the activation of classical and alternative pathways by *Candida albicans*. Infect. Immun. J. 66:6,27-6,29.