



Current burden of serious fungal infections in Republic of Congo

Fructueux M. Amona^{1,2,3} | David W. Denning^{4,5} |
Donatien Moukassa^{1,3} | Christophe Hennequin⁶

¹Faculty of Health Sciences, Marien Ngouabi University, Brazzaville, Congo

²Laboratory of Parasitology-Mycology, Edith Lucie Bongo Ondimba General Hospital, Oyo, Congo

³Research Center and Study of Infectious and Tropical Pathologies, Oyo, Congo

⁴National Aspergillosis Centre, Wythenshawe Hospital, The University of Manchester, Manchester, UK

⁵Leading International Fungal Education (LIFE), Cheshire, UK

⁶Inserm, Centre de Recherche Saint-Antoine, CRSA, AP-HP, Hôpital Saint-Antoine, Service de Parasitologie-Mycologie, Sorbonne Université, Paris, France

Correspondence

Fructueux M. Amona, Laboratory of Parasitology-Mycology, Edith Lucie Bongo Ondimba General Hospital, Oyo, Congo, and Research Center and Study of Infectious and Tropical Pathologies, Oyo, Congo.
Email: amonamodeste@gmail.com

Abstract

Background: The Republic of Congo (RoC) is characterised by a high prevalence of tuberculosis and HIV/AIDS, which largely drive the epidemiology of serious fungal infections.

Objective: We aimed to estimate the current burden of serious fungal infections in RoC.

Material and Methods: Using local, regional or global data and estimates of population and at-risk population groups, deterministic modelling was employed to estimate national incidence or prevalence of the most serious fungal infections.

Results: Our study revealed that about 5.4% of the Congolese population (283 450) suffer from serious fungal infections yearly. The incidence of cryptococcal meningitis, *Pneumocystis jirovecii* pneumonia and disseminated histoplasmosis in AIDS patients was estimated at 560, 830 and 120 cases per year. Oral and oesophageal candidiasis collectively affects 12 320 HIV-infected patients. Chronic pulmonary aspergillosis, 67% post-tuberculosis, probably has a prevalence of 3420. Fungal asthma (allergic bronchopulmonary aspergillosis and severe asthma with fungal sensitisation) probably has a prevalence of 3640 and 4800, although some overlap due to disease definition is likely. The estimated prevalence of recurrent vulvovaginal candidiasis and tinea capitis is 85 440 and 178 400 respectively. Mostly related to agricultural activity, fungal keratitis affects an estimated 700 Congolese yearly.

Conclusion: These data underline the urgent need for an intensified awareness towards Congolese physicians to fungal infections and for increased efforts to improve diagnosis and management of fungal infections in the RoC.

KEYWORDS

chronic pulmonary aspergillosis, cryptococcosis, fungal infection, fungal sensitisation, HIV/AIDS, Republic of Congo, TB

1 | INTRODUCTION

The Republic of Congo (RoC), mostly known as Congo-Brazzaville, is located in the Gulf of Guinea in the central-western part of sub-Saharan Africa. It lays along the equator between latitudes 4°N and 5°S,

and longitude 11° W and 19°E, with a total surface of 342 000 km² (Figure 1).¹ The RoC has a significant hydrographic network, organised around Congo and Kouilou-Niari rivers. The country is subdivided into 3 climatic areas which are as follows: equatorial in the North, subequatorial in the central part of the country and tropical

As in other low and middle-income countries, absence of diagnostic tools and antifungal drugs coupled with insufficient training of healthcare professionals (regarding fungal diseases) ensures that the mortality and morbidity of fungal infection remain unacceptably high. Furthermore, public health and research institutions in RoC have showed insufficient interest in the topic, probably due to ignorance or lack of awareness. There are no surveillance programmes on fungal diseases in RoC. Fungal infections currently represent a secondary priority for RoC's government.

Including fungal disease as a differential diagnosis followed by a precise diagnosis on confirmatory testing is crucial to initiate appropriate therapy for fungal infection. Indeed, across the world deaths due to fungal infections are similar to the number of people dying from TB (www.LIFE-worldwide.org). Access to data on the medical burden of diseases is critical for public health actions. Therefore, in the recent years, many countries have estimated the burden of fungal diseases.^{8,9}

Knowledge of the local epidemiology of invasive and serious fungal infections, as well as risk factors for infection, is essential for effective infection control programmes and treatment approaches. The epidemiology of fungal infections in RoC is largely unknown. Hence, the present study aimed to estimate the current burden of serious fungal infections in RoC in order to guide local medical institutions and authorities towards economic investment in diagnosis and therapeutic management of fungal infections. Our estimates should also stimulate collaborative studies to better depict the landscape of fungal infections in the Republic of Congo.

2 | MATERIAL AND METHODS

Published epidemiology papers reporting fungal infection rates in RoC were identified using Medline, PubMed, Google Scholar. The following terms were used to identify specific disease conditions, included "Fungal infections" and "Congo," "Candidosis" and "Congo," "Tinea" and "Congo," "Aspergillosis" and "Congo," "Cryptococcosis" and "Congo," "Histoplasmosis" and "Congo," and "Fungal keratitis" and "Congo". We have also added the following terms, "Africa" or "sub-Saharan Africa" to expand research. When data were lacking, we used epidemiological data reported from nearby countries from the Central Africa region, notably Cameroon, and even from other African countries that have already estimated the burden of serious fungal infections in their respective country.^{8,9}

We used population at-risk groups for particular infections and deterministic modelling to derive national incidence and prevalence estimates for the most serious fungal diseases. We contrasted these with diseases entities for which data are available. The demographic dynamics of RoC population were obtained from the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (2017),¹⁰ based on the National Statistical Institute 2016 reports.¹⁰ HIV/AIDS and tuberculosis prevalence were sourced, respectively, from UNAIDS country fact-sheets⁶ and the World Health Organization (WHO, 2017) (<https://www.who.int/tb/country/data/profiles/en/>). The assumptions made

in estimating burden are shown in Table 1, with the pertinent references. All estimates are rounded to the nearest 10 cases.

The authors confirm that the ethical policies of the journal, as noted on the journal's author guidelines page, have been adhered to. No ethical approval was required.

3 | RESULTS

3.1 | Country's profile

The RoC population was estimated to be 5 244 000 inhabitants in 2018 (the basis of our estimates).¹¹ Predominantly, the population is urban (62.2%), and 56.5% of the total population live in Brazzaville, the capital and largest city. Pointe-Noire, the second city of the country, is an important economic centre. 38.4% of the Congo population is under 15 years, and only 2.9% are over 65 years old. The life expectancy at birth has increased from 54.6 years in 2005 to 64.1 years in 2015.¹⁰

3.2 | Serious fungal infections

Our online search for epidemiological reports focused on fungal infections in the RoC only retrieved a few studies conducted in AIDS patients in the 90 seconds.¹²⁻¹⁴ So, most of the estimates were inferred from Congolese population data and estimates from other countries. Sensitivity analyses were thus not added, and more precise local estimates are desirable before more sophisticated modelling can be done.

Table 2 shows the estimates of the total burden of serious fungal infections and the number of infections classified according to the major at-risk groups as well as the rate per 100 000 inhabitants. In total, we estimated the occurrence of 293 918 new cases of serious fungal infections in RoC each year (Table 2). This amounts to 5.6% of the population affected by a serious fungal infection.

3.2.1 | Respiratory diseases conditions

It is considered that 77% of the 10 706 new cases or relapses of TB present with pulmonary infection (WHO) (<https://www.who.int/tb/country/data/profiles/en/>). Considering the mortality rate of TB at 63/100 000, it is estimated that 720 patients develop chronic pulmonary aspergillosis (CPA) each year due to past TB, leading to a cumulative of a 5-year period prevalence of 2290. Assuming that pulmonary tuberculosis is the underlying condition of 67% of CPA Congolese patients, a total prevalence of 3420 CPA cases is likely (43.5/100 000 inhabitants).

There is currently no reliable diagnostic tool for invasive aspergillosis (IA) in the RoC. Based on previous estimations,¹⁵ we assumed that patients with one of following conditions may develop IA: HIV/AIDS (4% of deaths [n = 4000]), 2.6% of lung cancer patients

TABLE 1 Assumptions made in assessing burden

Disease	Underlying Disease(s)	Incidence/Prevalence Used to Estimate Burden	Comments	Reference
Cryptococcal meningitis	HIV/AIDS	6.7% in patients with CD4 counts <200 × 10 ⁶ /mL	Country dependant	Rajasingham et al ²⁵ Dzoyem et al ⁷⁴
Pneumocystis pneumonia	HIV/AIDS	10% in patients with CD4 counts <200 × 10 ⁶ /mL	Relatively rare in HIV/AIDS patients	Carme et al ¹⁴
Disseminated histoplasmosis	HIV/AIDS	1.5% in patients with CD4 counts <200 × 10 ⁶ /mL	Probably an underestimate	Oladele et al ³³
Invasive aspergillosis	HIV/AIDS, leukaemia, lung cancer, COPD admissions to hospital	4% of deaths from HIV/AIDS 10% rate in AML, Number in non-AML same as AML patients. 2.6% of lung cancer patients 1.3% of the 10.5% of COPD patients admitted to hospital		Lortholary et al ⁷⁵
Chronic pulmonary aspergillosis (CPA) post-TB	Tuberculosis (TB), COPD, prior pneumothorax, lung cancer	Number of annual PTB survivors with cavities (22%) × incidence of CPA in cavities (22%) + 2% of the 78% without cavities,		Perkhofer et al ⁷⁶
Chronic pulmonary aspergillosis post-TB		Conversion from annual incidence to 5 y period prevalence	From Denning et al, Bull WHO 2011	Denning et al ⁷⁷
Chronic pulmonary aspergillosis—all		TB is the underlying diseases in 67%	Assumes TB prevalence of the underlying cause which may need correction	
Allergic bronchopulmonary aspergillosis (ABPA) ^a	Asthma and CF	2.5% of adult asthmatics		Keen et al ¹⁸
Severe asthma with fungal sensitisation (SAFS) ^a	Asthma	33% of worst 10% of adult asthmatics		Kwizera et al ²⁰
Candidaemia	Hospitalised patients	5/100 000 (mean of 2-11/100 000)		Arendrup et al ³⁸
Candida peritonitis	Postsurgical, pancreatitis	50% annual incidence of candidaemia in ICU, itself assumed to be 33% of all candidaemia		
Oral candidiasis	HIV/AIDS	90% of untreated HIV patients, with CD4 <200 × 10 ⁶ /mL		Matee et al ⁷⁸
Oesophageal candidiasis	HIV/AIDS	20% of patients not on ARVs and CD4 <200 × 10 ⁶ /mL, and 0.5% of those on ARVs		Smith et al ⁷⁹ Buchacz et al ⁸⁰
Recurrent Candida vaginitis (≥4x/year)	Pre-menopausal women	6% of adult women. Literature estimate is 5%-8%		Sobel et al ³⁴
Mucormycosis	Diabetes, leukaemia	2 per million population		Petrikkos et al ¹⁶
Fungal keratitis	Injury	13.3/100000		Lottie et al ⁴⁵
Tinea capitis	None	8.1% of children <15 y of age		Kechia et al ⁴⁶

Abbreviations: AML, acute myeloid leukaemia; CF, cystic fibrosis; COPD, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, ARVs, anti-retroviral therapy; ICU, intensive care unit; PTB, post-tuberculosis.

^aCollectively called 'fungal asthma'.

(n = 66), 1.3% of the 10.5% of COPD patients admitted to hospital (n = 13 215) and 10% of acute myeloid leukaemia (AML) (n = 131) as well as other haematological conditions and lymphomas. The total annual caseload of IA was therefore estimated at 360 cases, not including those treated with corticosteroids or in critical care. We also estimated at 10 the number of cases of mucormycosis annually at a rate of 0.2/100 000.¹⁶

Asthma prevalence in the RoC has been previously estimated.¹⁷ So, it is anticipated that 145 690 (4.79%) adults suffer with clinical asthma in the RoC. We assumed that 2.5% of these people developed allergic bronchopulmonary aspergillosis (ABPA), based on a study from South Africa,¹⁸ corresponding to about 3642 Congolese people. ABPA is rare in children notably because cystic fibrosis (CF) has not been reported in RoC. We also estimated

TABLE 2 Estimate of serious fungal infections in Republic of Congo

Serious Fungal Infection	Estimate	No underlying disease	HIV/AIDS	Respiratory disease	Cancer + immunocompromised	Critical care + surgery	Rate/100 000	Total Burden
Cryptococcal meningitis	I	-	560	-	-	-	10.7	560
Pneumocystis pneumonia	I	-	830	-	-	-	15.8	830
Disseminated histoplasmosis	I	-	120	-	-	-	2.3	120
Invasive aspergillosis	I	-	160	-	30	170	6.9	360
CPA—post-TB	I	-	-	724	-	-	13.8	724
CPA—post-TB	P	-	-	2282	-	-	43.5	2282
CPA—all	P	-	-	3422	-	-	65.3	3422
ABPA in adults asthmatics	P	-	-	3642	-	-	69.4	3642
SAFS in adults	P	-	-	4808	-	-	91.7	4808
Candidaemia	I	-	-	-	180	80	5.00	260
Candida peritonitis	I	-	-	-	-	40	0.76	40
Oral candidiasis	I	-	7460	-	-	-	142	7460
Oesophageal candidiasis	I	-	4860	-	-	-	93	4860
Recurrent Candida vaginitis (≥4x/year)	P	85 440	-	-	-	-	1629	85 440 ^a
Mucormycosis	I	-	-	-	10	-	0.2	10
Fungal keratitis	I	700	-	-	-	-	13.3	700
Tinea capitis	P	178 400	-	-	-	-	3402	178 400
Total serious fungal infection burden		264 540	13 990	14 878	220	290	-	293 918

Abbreviations: ABPA, allergic bronchopulmonary aspergillosis; CPA, chronic pulmonary aspergillosis; I, incidence; P, prevalence; SAFS, severe asthma with fungal sensitisation.
^aFemales only.

that severe asthma with fungal sensitisation (SAFS) is present in 3.3% of asthmatic adults, affecting thus 4810 people in the RoC. Recently, the hospital prevalence of asthma has been estimated at 3.5% in children.¹⁹ This is in accordance with a recent survey of fungal asthma from Africa,²⁰ which shows an increase in morbidity and mortality due to asthma in African adults with a prevalence of 4%. There is probably some overlap between ABPA and SAFS.

3.2.2 | HIV/AIDS-defining opportunistic fungal infections

Considering the AIDS epidemics in the RoC and the still high prevalence of untreated patients, opportunistic fungal infections have a huge morbidity and mortality impact on the population. Oral candidiasis and/or oesophageal candidiasis are among the most frequent opportunistic infections in this condition.^{21,22} Indeed in 1986 and 1987, 36% of oral pharyngeal candidiasis cases have been reported in HIV/AIDS patients.²³ Also, from 1995 to 2001, 14.6% of pharyngeal candidiasis have been reported in HIV patients.²⁴ It is expected that 7460 cases of oral candidiasis occur annually in the RoC, while oesophageal candidiasis cases should be 4860.

Cryptococcal meningitis (CM) caused by *Cryptococcus neoformans* is also a common fungal infection in AIDS and among other severely immunocompromised patients.^{25,26} It has the highest incidence and mortality rates among subjects with advanced HIV disease with CD4 counts < 100 × 10⁶/mL, and its global burden has recently been re-estimated in AIDS.²⁵ Considering that only 34.8% of HIV-infected patients benefit from anti-retroviral therapy, it is expected that 8286 patients may have a CD4 cells count below 200 × 10⁶/mL. A recently published study of the global burden of disease of HIV-associated cryptococcal meningitis²⁵ utilised a 6.7% incidence of CM in RoC. We thus estimated the number of cases at 560 per year in the RoC.

PjP is also a life-threatening fungal infection complicating HIV/AIDS infection. It is well known as an initial presentation of AIDS. There are some reports on PjP in RoC(15,40,41)²³ but overall the disease is poorly described in the country. We considered that PjP occurred exclusively in HIV-positive patients with an annual rate of 10% in HIV-positive patients with CD4 counts < 200 × 10⁶/mL.¹⁴ So it is expected that 830 cases of PjP occur each year. We have not estimated cases of PjP in non-HIV patients.

Several cases of histoplasmosis both attributable to the *capsulatum* variety and the *duboisii* variety of *Histoplasma capsulatum* have been reported in Congolese patients.^{12-13,27-32} Nevertheless, no precise incidence could be calculated. Based on African data,³³ we used an annual rate 1.5% in patients with HIV/AIDS and CD4 counts < 200 × 10⁶/mL to calculate an estimated incidence at 120 cases annually.

3.2.3 | Other fungal infections

Recurrent vulvovaginal candidiasis (rVVC) is defined by the occurrence of four or more episodes of vulvovaginal candidiasis per

year.³⁴⁻³⁶ Across the world, approximately 5-9% of women report such infections per year, although there are few data from Africa.³⁴ Assuming an incidence of 6%,³⁷ this equals circa 85 440 women aged 15-50 affected annually with rVVC in the RoC.

Data were not found on candidaemia, *Candida* peritonitis, or other forms of invasive candidiasis, and so we have estimated the annual incidence of the first two entities at 5/100 000 and 0.75/100 000, based on data from other countries.^{38,39}

Fungal keratitis is a challenging ophthalmological problem often leading to corneal blindness.⁴⁰⁻⁴⁴ Unfortunately, as in many tropical African countries, fungal keratitis has not been recorded in RoC. We used the recent estimate from South Africa as the basis of a 13.3/100 000 rate in Congo.⁴⁵ So, 700 cases of fungal keratitis are estimated yearly.

Tinea capitis is a frequent superficial infection of the scalp hair caused by dermatophyte fungi, occurring predominantly in children.⁴⁶⁻⁴⁸ We estimated that 178 401 schoolchildren suffer from tinea capitis, prevalence of 3402 per 100 000 children.

Onychomycosis has not yet been reported in RoC but is likely very frequent. To the best of our knowledge, there are no reliable epidemiological data for the fungal neglected tropical diseases (NTDs) such as mycetoma, chromoblastomycosis or sporotrichosis in RoC, although they are expected to occur among Congolese people. They are probably uncommon or rare.

4 | DISCUSSION

Despite continuous reinforcement in the supply of healthcare workers and improvement of the quality of care, reliable diagnostic tools are still lacking for the detection of fungal infections. This current study serves to provide an estimate of the current fungal disease burden in RoC, and the figures show a worrisome situation. The HIV/AIDS pandemic, TB, COPD, asthma and the increasing incidence of cancers are the major drivers of fungal infections notably in resource-limited countries.⁴⁹⁻⁵³ Our burden estimate of 293 918 (5.6% of the population) serious fungal disease cases indicates significant morbidity and certainly mortality among the people of the RoC. Despite this huge number of cases, there are no studies or reports of on any form of aspergillosis (ABPA, CPA, invasive aspergillosis) or invasive candidiasis/candidaemia in the RoC, as clear-cut examples of missing information. Medical ignorance, lack of physician awareness and limited access to diagnostics tools are the major issues. Indeed, microscopy plus culture on non-selective media is the main diagnostic approach for fungal diagnosis in the RoC (Table 3). However, it is well known that the sensitivity of those techniques is limited and non-based culture methods have supplanted them for many fungal infections.

One 'good' example of limitations in fungal diagnosis is the probable misdiagnosis of CPA as TB given the similarities of clinical symptoms and on thoracic imaging, probably leading to unnecessary presumptive antituberculosis treatment. Indeed, TB is highly endemic in the RoC and is considered as the main underlying condition

TABLE 3 Essential diagnostics and antifungal agents in Republic of Congo

WHO recommended Essential in vitro Diagnostics	WHO recommended Essential antifungal Medicines
Available	Available
Direct microscopy	Fluconazole
Blood culture ^a	Griseofulvin
Histopathology	Miconazole
Fungal culture ^{a,b}	Nystatin
Cryptococcal antigen (CrAg) ^a	Ketoconazole
Unavailable	Unavailable
<i>Histoplasma</i> antigen	Amphotericin B
<i>Aspergillus</i> antigen ^c	Itraconazole
<i>Aspergillus</i> antibody ^c	Voriconazole
Pneumocystis PCR ^c	Flucytosine
	Natamycin eye drops

^aOnly in some centres.

^bNo species identification is done.

^cProposed to the WHO with a decision due in 2020.

of CPA in such countries. The confusion is due both to the lack of efficient laboratory methods for diagnosis of aspergillosis including microscopy or culture on bronchoscopy or sputum samples and the detection of anti-*Aspergillus* antibodies. But there are a limited number of microbiologists with skills in medical mycology, because teaching this speciality is still considered as secondary in the RoC.

The RoC, as in many other African countries, has a high prevalence of HIV/AIDS patients—with an estimated 89 000 cases in RoC and 24.7 million cases in sub-Saharan Africa.^{54,55} Opportunistic fungal infections are common in HIV-infected people, and nearly half of AIDS deaths are reportedly caused by opportunistic fungal infections.⁵⁶ The prevalence of oropharyngeal candidiasis (OPC) was up to 82% of HIV-infected patients in a review of the opportunistic infections related to HIV in sub-Saharan Africa.⁵⁴ So 7460 cases are expected yearly but no epidemiological studies have been conducted in the RoC and substantiation of our estimates is needed.

Cryptococcal meningitis (CM) is also reported with a high frequency in African HIV-infected patients.⁵⁷⁻⁵⁹ We estimated 560 new cases of CM among adult HIV/AIDS patients yearly in the RoC. A published paper previously reported 39 cases of CM diagnosed from 1981 to 1988,¹³ including 12 cases of CM out of 139 patients (8.6% of confirmed cases) reported by the same author in RoC.²³ This corresponds to a surprisingly low prevalence of rate of 4% over 2 years in patients with CD4 counts $<200 \times 10^6/\text{mL}$. However, this cannot be generalised to the population because of the selection bias in this study such that many patients with cryptococcal infection probably died before either being tested for HIV or attending the clinic. Our estimate is approximately similar to the estimate of Rajasingham et al from 2017 of 636 cases and 540 deaths.²⁵ Definitive diagnosis requires either positive culture from the cerebrospinal fluid or the detection of the specific capsular antigen (CrAg). The latter can

be easily achieved using lateral flow devices, with excellent sensitivity and specificity when applied either to the CSF or the serum. Indeed, cryptococcal antigenemia was shown to be 100% sensitive for predicting the development of CM in the first year of ART.⁶⁰ Unfortunately, the CrAg test is not yet routinely available for almost all patients admitted to hospital or attending HIV clinics in RoC. CM is reportedly responsible for ~15% of AIDS-related deaths.²⁵ So, there is a real need for screening subclinical or asymptomatic infection with a serum CrAg assay in patients with advanced HIV infection, and this is cost-effective.^{61,62}

Pneumocystis pneumonia occurs worldwide and is especially common in children and severely immunocompromised patients such as those with AIDS. Again, a precise incidence is not available in the RoC because this requires the common practice of bronchoalveolar lavage, which is not widely available in this country, but is described.^{14,63,64} A recent study in Cameroon reported a high prevalence (82%) of anti-*P jirovecii* major surface glycoprotein (Msg) antibodies detection among healthy HIV patients,⁶⁵ while another reported that PjP was responsible for 31% of all deaths and for 48% of deaths in infants <1 year, with HIV infection in Botswana.⁶⁶

In Africa, both forms of histoplasmosis, due to *H capsulatum* var. *duboisii* (Hcd) and *H capsulatum* var. *capsulatum* (Hcc), respectively, co-exist.³³ This is the case in the RoC where cases of Hcd have been reported, principally in non-HIV patients.^{12-13,27-32} Alternatives of PCR on sputum or nasopharyngeal aspirates are feasible, but not currently done.^{67,68} A recent study by Oladele et al reports 35 cases of Hcd and 1 case of Hcc in the last six decades in RoC (1952-2017).³³ In total, 45 cases of histoplasmosis have been reported, making the RoC the country with the higher number of reported cases. Hcd infection may be easier to diagnose, as cutaneous lesions are more frequent and accessible for diagnosis. It mainly relies on the demonstration of large yeasts in the pus aspirated from chronic skin abscesses or fistulae from underlying osteomyelitis or lymph node. In contrast, Hcc infection most often mimics pulmonary TB and requires microscopy of bone marrow biopsy, antigen detection or PCR testing of blood or long-term fungal culture. So, most diagnoses of Hcc histoplasmosis are made postmortem, as premortem confirmatory tests are unavailable in low-income countries. The underdiagnosis of histoplasmosis has been stressed by colleagues from Cameroon, who showed that histoplasmosis is frequently ignored in HIV-positive patients with pulmonary symptoms as they were considered as TB infected.⁶⁹

Mucocutaneous fungal infections are also very common in patients most often without specific underlying medical conditions, although they may be the harbinger of advanced HIV disease. They are not life-threatening, but they can greatly affect the quality of life of affected individuals. Serious mucocutaneous infections include rVVC, fungal keratitis, tinea capitis, especially with kerion, and neglected tropical diseases such as mycetoma, chromoblastomycosis and sporotrichosis. Epidemiological data on chronic and recurrent forms of vulvovaginal candidiasis that do cause significant morbidity and discomfort are nonexistent in RoC. However, a study in 2012 reported the prevalence of vulvovaginal candidiasis among Ghanaian women at 21% in a gynaecology clinic⁷⁰

and it is likely that a similar pattern of frequency would be seen in RoC. Considering the local healthcare facilities, it is unlikely that infected women have access to dedicated medical advice for such kinds of infection. Finally, tinea capitis is very common in children from sub-Saharan countries. In a large study conducted in Ivory Coast, 13.9% of 17 745 children were found to be positive, mainly with anthropophilic dermatophytes, such as *Trichophyton soudanense* and *Microsporum langeroni*.⁷¹

Finally, it is well known that fungi can act as allergens and as such can induce allergic disease.²⁰ Many fungal species may colonise the tracheobronchial airways and induce fungal sensitisation. The immune response towards those fungal antigens can trigger or worsen asthma. Given the prevalence of asthma throughout the world, the number of cases of severe asthma with fungal sensitisation can be huge, estimated at 3.3% of adults affecting 4810 patients in the RoC. Currently, none of the diagnostic tests that should be used to diagnose allergic diseases are available in most low-income countries.

We hope this study sheds light on the almost totally ignored problem of medical mycology in the Roc. The size of the problem demands that the essential systemic antifungal drugs namely itraconazole, voriconazole, flucytosine and amphotericin B become available, which is not currently the case.⁷² Currently, only fluconazole, ketoconazole (withdrawn across most of the world because of toxicity), topical miconazole, griseofulvin and nystatin are available (Table 3).⁷² As in many African countries, flucytosine is also not available,⁷³ increasing the mortality of cryptococcal meningitis in RoC. Topical natamycin eye drops for fungal keratitis are not available. With the one exception of PjP, it can be assumed that most patients suffering invasive fungal infection will die early.

5 | CONCLUSION

Our study confirms previous reports from other countries from Central Africa showing that about 5.6% of the Congolese population suffers from fungal infections. Many of these infections are life-threatening as a result of the HIV/AIDS epidemic in this country. This worrisome data should promote public awareness of the seriousness of these infections. A national reporting system on fungal infections and a fungal surveillance system should be implemented to better depict the dynamic landscape of these infections and ascertain the impact of serious fungal infections and promote public awareness of the seriousness of these infections. Advanced laboratory diagnostic techniques are urgently needed for this and to adapt treatment based on reliable diagnosis. Indeed, the availability of more antifungal drugs will be the next challenge. Optimisation in the distribution of drugs should include central purchasing and a distribution system for the whole country as several of these infections can be managed out of the hospital.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

No funds have been received by authors to support and covering the publication of this article.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Fructueux Modeste Amona and David W. Denning conceived the paper and wrote the manuscript. Donatien Moukassa and Christophe Hennequin wrote and revised all the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

ORCID

Fructueux M. Amona  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3436-4553>

David W. Denning  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5626-2251>

Christophe Hennequin  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4528-927X>

REFERENCES

1. Ministère de la Santé et de la Population. Programme Biennal de Développement Sanitaire 2015–2016. 2014. 10 p. http://www.nationalplanningcycles.org/sites/default/files/planning_cycle_repository/congo/programme_biennal_2015_2016_final_03_sept14_pro.pdf Accessed October 3, 2019.
2. National Malaria Control Programme (NMCP), PNLP. Plan stratégique national de lutte contre le paludisme 2014–2018. Brazzaville. 2014 Accessed October 5, 2019.
3. Laure A, Ghoma S, Luc L, Gwom C, Zumla A, Ntoumi F. Health systems in the Republic of Congo: Challenges and Opportunities for Implementing TB and HIV collaborative service, research and training activities. *Int J Infect Dis*. 2016;56:62–67.
4. World Health Organization. 2015. https://www.who.int/tb/publications/global_report/gtbr15_main_text.pdf%0D%0D. Accessed October 10, 2019.
5. Tuberculosis Profile, Congo. 2017. <https://www.who.int/tb/country/data/profiles/en/>. Accessed October 20, 2019.
6. UNAIDS Country factsheets CONGO | 2018 HIV and AIDS Estimates. 2018. <https://www.unaids.org/en/regionscountries/countries/congo> Accessed October 10, 2019.
7. Govender NP, Chiller TM. Neglected fungal diseases in Sub-Saharan Africa: a call to action. *Curr Fungal Infect Rep*. 2011;5:224–232.
8. Mandengue CE, Denning DW. The burden of serious fungal infections in cameroon. *J Fungi*. 2018;4:44.
9. Ocansey BK, Pesewu GA, Codjoe FS, Osei-djarbeng S, Feglo PK, Denning DW. Estimated burden of serious fungal infections in Ghana. *J Fungi*. 2019;5:38.
10. Congo Population. 2016. https://www.uneca.org/sites/default/files/uploaded-documents/CountryProfiles/2018/congo_cp_fre_2017.pdf. Accessed October 20, 2019.
11. United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs PD. Total population - both sexes. World Population Prospects 2019, Online Edition Rev 1. 2019; [https://population.un.org/wpp/Download/Files/1_Indicators\(Standard\)/EXCEL_FILES/1_Population/WPP2019_POP_F01_1_TOTAL_POPULATION_BOTH_SEXES.xlsx](https://population.un.org/wpp/Download/Files/1_Indicators(Standard)/EXCEL_FILES/1_Population/WPP2019_POP_F01_1_TOTAL_POPULATION_BOTH_SEXES.xlsx). Accessed December 18, 2019.
12. Renoirte R, Michaux J, Gatti F, et al. New cases of African histoplasmosis and cryptococcosis observed in the Republic of the Congo. *Bull Acad R Med Belg*. 1967;7(5):465–527.
13. Carne B, Ngolet A, Ebikili B, Itoua A. Is African histoplasmosis an opportunistic fungal infection in AIDS? *Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg*. 1990;84:293.
14. Carne B, Mboussa J, Andzin M, Mbouni E, Mpele P, Datry A. *Pneumocystis carinii* is rare in AIDS in Central Africa. *Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg*. 1991;85:80.

15. Bongomin F, Gago S, Oladele RO, Denning DW. Global and multi-national prevalence of fungal diseases – estimate precision. *J Fungi*. 2017;3(4):57.
16. Petrikkos G, Skiada A, Lortholary O, Roilides E, Walsh TJ, Kontoyiannis DP. Epidemiology and clinical manifestations of mucormycosis. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2012;54(Suppl 1):23-34.
17. To T, Stanojevic S, Moores G, et al. Global asthma prevalence in adults : findings from the cross-sectional world health survey. *BMC Public Health*. 2012;12(1):204.
18. Benatar SR, Keen GA, Naude WDT. *Aspergillus* hypersensitivity in asthmatics in Cape Town. *Clin Allergy*. 1980;10(3):285-291.
19. Moyen E, Bemba ELP, Kambourou J, et al. Asthma in children at the pediatric intensive care unit of University Hospital of Brazzaville (Congo). *Open J Pediatr*. 2017;7:140-148.
20. Kwizera R, Musaazi J, Meya DB, et al. Burden of fungal asthma in Africa: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *PLoS ONE*. 2019;14(5):e0216568.
21. Denning D. How Common are Fungal Diseases? 2016. <http://www.fungalinfectiontrust.org/HowCommonareFungalDiseases5.pdf>. Accessed December 20, 2019.
22. De RL, Goupil M, Jolicoeur P. Oropharyngeal Candidiasis in HIV infection: analysis of impaired mucosal immune response to *Candida albicans* in mice expressing the HIV-1 transgene. *Pathogens*. 2015;4:406-421.
23. Carme B, M'Pele P, Mbisi A, et al. Opportunistic parasitic diseases and mycoses in AIDS. Their frequencies in Brazzaville (Congo). *Bull Soc Pathol Exot Fil*. 1988;81(3):311-316.
24. Ondzotto G, Ibara J, Mowondabeka P, Galiba J. Cervico-facial and ENT symptoms due to HIV infection in tropical area. About 253 Congolese cases. *Bull Soc Pathol Exot*. 2004;95(1):59-63.
25. Rajasingham R, Smith RM, Park BJ, et al. Global burden of disease of HIV-associated cryptococcal meningitis: an updated analysis. *Lancet Infect Dis*. 2017;17(8):873-881.
26. Bicanic T, Harrison TS. Cryptococcal meningitis. *Br Med Bull*. 2005;72:99-118.
27. Gouoni N, Moukassa D, Golet AN, Ge B, Nkoua-mbon JB. Maxillary African histoplasmosis: unusual diagnostic problems of an unusual presentation. *Pathol - Res Pract*. 2005;200:841-844.
28. Evrard RN, Ibara BO, Lamah L, Ikobo LCO, Mouko A, Peko JF. African histoplasmosis. A report of three pediatric cases. *J Mycol Med*. 2017;27(2):133-138.
29. Okoko A, Ekouya-Bowassa G, Oko A. Histoplasmosis généralisée chez un enfant immunocompétent au VIH. *Med Afr Noire*. 2010;57:590-592.
30. Eboulabeka E, Gandziami GK, Ngolet A. Tuméfaction fronto-orbito-palpébrale révélatrice d'une histoplasmosis africaine à *Histoplasma capsulatum* var *duboisii* chez un nourrisson de 13 mois. À propos d'une observation clinique et revue de la littérature. *Med Afr Noire*. 2011;58:144-148.
31. Carme B, Hayette M, Ngaporo AI, et al. Histoplasmosis africaine à *histoplasma duboisii* (*Histoplasma capsulatum* var. *duboisii*): quatorze cas congolais observés en 10 ans (1981-1990). *J Mycol Med*. 1993;1991(40):67-73.
32. Therby A, Polotzanu O, Khau D, Monnier S, Belan AG, Eloy O. Intérêt du dosage de l'antigène galactomannane dans le diagnostic et le suivi de l'histoplasmosis disséminée à *Histoplasma capsulatum* var *duboisii* au cours du VIH : enseignement à partir d'un cas clinique. *J Mycol Med*. 2014;24(2):166-170.
33. Oladele RO, Ayanlowo OO, Richardson MD, Denning DW. Histoplasmosis in Africa: an emerging or a neglected disease? *PLoS Negl Trop Dis*. 2018;12(1):e0006046.
34. Sobel JD. Vulvovaginal candidosis. *Lancet*. 2007;369(9577):1961-1971.
35. Blostein F, Mph EL, Wagner J, Foxman B. Recurrent vulvovaginal candidiasis. *Ann Epidemiol*. 2017;27(9):575-582.e3.
36. Belayneh M, Sehn E, Korownyk C. Recurrent vulvovaginal candidiasis. *Can Fam Physician*. 2017;63(6):455.
37. Denning DW, Kneale M, Sobel JD, Rautemaa-richardson R. Global burden of recurrent vulvovaginal candidiasis: a systematic review. *Lancet Infect*. 2018;18(11):e339-e347.
38. Arendrup MC. Epidemiology of invasive candidiasis. *Curr Opin Crit Care*. 2010;16(5):445-452.
39. Montravers P, Mira J, Gangneux J, Leroy O, Lortholary O. A multicentre study of antifungal strategies and outcome of *Candida* spp. peritonitis in intensive-care units. *Clin Microbiol Infect*. 2010;17(7):1061-1067.
40. Kibret T, Bitew A. Fungal keratitis in patients with corneal ulcer attending Minilik II Memorial Hospital, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. *BMC Ophthalmol*. 2016;16:148.
41. Gharamah AA, Moharram AM, Ismail MA, Al-hussaini AK. Bacterial and fungal keratitis in Upper Egypt: In vitro screening of enzymes, toxins and antifungal activity. *Indian J Ophthalmol*. 2014;62(2):196-203.
42. Zbiba W, Baba A, Bouayed E, Abdessalem N, Daldoul A. A 5-year retrospective review of fungal keratitis in the region of Cap Bon. *J Fr Ophthalmol*. 2016;39(10):843-848.
43. Cheikhrouhou F, Makni F, Neji S, et al. Epidemiological profile of fungal keratitis in Sfax (Tunisia). *J Mycol Med*. 2014;24(4):308-312.
44. Leck AK, Thomas PA, Hagan M, et al. Aetiology of suppurative corneal ulcers in Ghana and south India, and epidemiology of fungal keratitis. *Br J Ophthalmol*. 2002;86:1211-1216.
45. Brown L, Burton MJ, Gichangi M, Denning DW. The Global Incidence of Fungal Keratitis (August 10, 2019). <https://ssrn.com/abstract=3466994>. Accessed December 23, 2019.
46. Kechia FA, Kouoto EA, Nkoa T, et al. Epidemiology of tinea capitis among school-age children in Meiganga, Cameroon. *J Mycol Med*. 2014;24(2):129-134.
47. Nweze EI, Eke IE. Dermatophytes and dermatophytosis in the eastern and southern parts of Africa. *Med Mycol*. 2017;56(1):13-28.
48. Hay RJ. Tinea Capitis: current status. *Mycopathologia*. 2016;182(1-2):87-93.
49. Brown GD, Denning DW, Gow NAR, Levitz SM, Netea MG, White TC. Hidden killers: human fungal infections. *Sci Transl Med*. 2012;4(165):1-10.
50. Denning DW. Minimizing fungal disease deaths will allow the UNAIDS target of reducing annual AIDS deaths below 500 000 by 2020 to be realized. *Philos Trans R Soc*. 2016;371:20150468.
51. Guinea J, Torres-Narbona M, Gijon P, et al. Pulmonary aspergillosis in patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease: incidence, risk factors, and outcome. *Clin Microbiol Infect*. 2010;16:870-877.
52. Marr KA, Carter RA, Boeckh M, Martin P, Corey L. Invasive aspergillosis in allogeneic stem cell transplant recipients: changes in epidemiology and risk factors. *Blood*. 2002;100(13):4358-4366.
53. Limper AH, Adenis A, Le T, Harrison TS. Fungal infections in HIV/AIDS. *Lancet Infect Dis*. 2017;3099(17):1-10.
54. Mushi MF, Bader O, Mshana SE. Oral candidiasis among African human immunodeficiency virus-infected individuals: 10 years of systematic review and meta-analysis from sub-Saharan Africa. *J Oral Microbiol*. 2017;9(1):1317579.
55. Barchiesi F, Maracci M, Radi B, et al. Point prevalence, microbiology and fluconazole susceptibility patterns of yeast isolates colonizing the oral cavities of HIV-infected patients in the era of highly active antiretroviral therapy. *J Antimicrob Chemother*. 2002;50:999-1002.
56. Denning DW. The ambitious '95-95 by 2025' roadmap for the diagnosis and management of fungal diseases. *Thorax*. 2015;2015(70):613-615.
57. Luma HN, Tchaleu BC, Temfack E, et al. HIV-associated central nervous system disease in patients admitted at the Douala general hospital between 2004 and 2009: a retrospective study. *AIDS Res Treat*. 2013;2013(Article ID 709810):6.

58. Ngouana TK, Dongtsa J, Kouanfack C, et al. Cryptococcal meningitis in Yaoundé (Cameroon) HIV infected patients: Diagnosis, frequency and *Cryptococcus neoformans* isolates susceptibility study to fluconazole. *J Mycol Med.* 2015;25(1):11-16.
59. Molloy F, Chiller T, Greene GS, et al. Cryptococcal meningitis: a neglected NTD? *PLoS Negl Trop Dis.* 2017;11(6):e0005575.
60. Jarvis JN, Lawn SD, Vogt M, Bangani N, Harrison TS. Cryptococcal antigenaemia in patients accessing an antiretroviral treatment program in South Africa. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2010;48(7):856-862.
61. Tenforde MW, Muthoga C, Callaghan A, et al. Cost-effectiveness of reflex laboratory-based cryptococcal antigen screening for the prevention and treatment of cryptococcal meningitis in Botswana [version 1; peer review : 2 approved]. *Wellcome Open Res.* 2019;4:144.
62. Ramachandran A, Manabe Y, Rajasingham R, Shah M. Cost-effectiveness of CRAG-LFA screening for cryptococcal meningitis among people living with HIV in Uganda. *BMC Infect Dis.* 2017;17(1):225.
63. M'Boussa J, Kaoudi E, Kokolo J, et al. Pneumonie à *Pneumocystis carinii* chez des patients atteints du SIDA au Congo. *Rev Pneumol Clin.* 1991;47(1):39-42.
64. Cheval P, Kinzonzi P, Allaert-Cheval C. [Principales manifestations cliniques au cours de la maladie provoquée par le virus de l'immunodéficience humaine (VIH) à Pointe-Noire (République du Congo). (307 cas hospitalisés pendant 2 ans au service médical de l'hôpital régional de l'armée)]. *Med Trop.* 1993;53(2):225-239.
65. Nkinin SW, Daly KR, Walzer PD, et al. Evidence for high prevalence of *Pneumocystis jirovecii* exposure among Cameroonians. *Acta Trop.* 2009;112:219-224.
66. Ansari NA, Kombe AH, Kenyon TA, et al. Pathology and causes of death in a series of human immunodeficiency virus-positive and -negative pediatric referral hospital admissions in Botswana. *Pediatr Infect Dis J.* 2003;22(1):43-47.
67. Nowaseb V, Gaeb E, Fraczek MG, Richardson MD, Denning DW. Frequency of *Pneumocystis jirovecii* in sputum from HIV and TB patients in Namibia. *J Infect Dev Ctries.* 2014;8(3):349-357.
68. Morrow BM, Samuel CM, Zampoli M, Whitelaw A, Zar HJ. *Pneumocystis pneumonia* in South African children diagnosed by molecular methods. *BMC Res Notes.* 2014;7:26.
69. Mandengue CE, Ngandjio A, Atangana PJA. Histoplasmosis in HIV-Infected Persons, Yaoundé. *Cameroon. Emerg Infect Dis.* 2015;21(11):2094-2120.
70. Abruquah HH. Prevalence and antifungal susceptibility of candida species isolated from women attending a gynaecological clinic in Kumasi. *Ghana. J Sci Technol.* 2012;32(2):39-45.
71. Fulgence KK, Abibatou K, Vincent D, et al. Tinea capitis in schoolchildren in southern Ivory Coast. *Int J Dermatol.* 2013;52(4):456-460.
72. Ministère de la Santé et de la Population. Liste nationales des médicaments essentiels du Congo. Organisation mondiale de la santé (OMS). 2013;22p. <http://apps.who.int/medicinedocs/documents/s22493fr/s22493fr.pdf>. Accessed December 20, 2019.
73. Shiri T, Loyse A, Mwenge L, et al. Addition of flucytosine to fluconazole for the treatment of cryptococcal meningitis in Africa: a multicountry cost-effectiveness analysis. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2020;70(1):26-29.
74. Dzoyem J, Kechia F, Ngaba G, Lungu P, Lohoue P. Prevalence of cryptococcosis among HIV-infected patients in Yaounde, Cameroon. *Afr Health Sci.* 2012;12(2):129-133.
75. Lortholary O, Gangneux J-P, Sitbon K, et al. Epidemiological trends in invasive aspergillosis in France: the SAIF network (2005-2007). *Clin Microbiol Infect.* 2011;17(12):1882-1889.
76. Perkhofers S, Lass-flörl C, Hell M, et al. The Nationwide Austrian Aspergillus Registry: a prospective data collection on epidemiology, therapy and outcome of invasive mould infections in immunocompromised and / or immunosuppressed patients. *Int J Antimicrob Agents.* 2010;36(6):531-536.
77. Denning D, Pleuvry A, Cole D. Global burden of chronic pulmonary aspergillosis as a sequel to pulmonary tuberculosis. *Bull World Health Organ.* 2011;89:864-872.
78. Matee MI, Scheutz F, Moshy J. Occurrence of oral lesions in relation to clinical and immunological status among HIV-infected adult. *Disq buccal.* 2000;6(2):106-111.
79. Smith E, Orholm M. Trends and patterns of opportunistic diseases in danish AIDS patients 1980-1990 AIDS patients 1980-1990. *Scand J Infect Dis.* 1990;22(6):665-672.
80. Buchacz K, Baker RK, Palella FJ, et al. AIDS-defining opportunistic illnesses in US patients, 1994-2007: a cohort study. *SIDA.* 2010;24(10):1549-1559.
81. Koussounda FK, Ntoui F. Malaria epidemiological research in the Republic of Congo. *Malar J.* 2016;15:598.

How to cite this article: Amona FM, Denning DW, Moukassa D, Hennequin C. Current burden of serious fungal infections in Republic of Congo. *Mycoses.* 2020;00:1-10. <https://doi.org/10.1111/myc.13075>