580

PRACTITIONERS' SECTION

MELIOIDOSIS: A REVIEW OF ORTHOPEDIC MANIFESTATIONS, CLINICAL FEATURES, DIAGNOSIS AND MANAGEMENT

VIJAY KUMAR JAIN, DEEPALI JAIN*, HIMANSHU KATARIA, AJAY SHUKLA, RAJENDRA KUMAR ARYA, DEEPAK MITTAL

ABSTRACT

Melioidosis is an infectious disease caused by gram-negative soil-dwelling bacillus Burkholderia pseudomallei. Musculoskeletal melioidosis mimics other infections both clinically and radiologically. An extensive literature review has been performed over musculoskeletal melioidosis through various search engines such as Pubmed, Embase, Medscape, Altavista and Google. Diagnosis requires a high index of clinical suspicion and is dependent on microbiological confirmation. Prompt treatment with long-term combination antibiotics in high dosages and surgical drainage of abscesses improves survival

Key words: Burkholderia pseudomallei, melioidosis, musculoskeletal, orthopedics

Melioidosis is a saprophytic infectious disease caused by gram-negative soil-dwelling bacillus *Burkholderia pseudomallei*. Synonyms include Pseudoglanders, Vietnamese time bomb, Whitmore's disease and Rangoon beggar's disease.^[1,2] Alfred Whitmore and C. S. Krishnaswami first described melioidosis as a 'glanders-like' disease in morphia addicts.^[3,4] An extensive literature review has been performed over melioidosis through various search engines such as Pubmed, Embase, Medscape, Altavista and Google. This disease, now termed melioidosis, was named from the Greek *melis*

Department of Orthopedics, Dr. RML Hospital, New Delhi; *Department of Pathology, Maulana Azad Medical College, New Delhi, India

Correspondence:

Dr. Vijay Kumar Jain, Department of Orthopedics, Dr. RML Hospital, New Delhi, India. E mail: drvijay_ortho@yahoo.com (distemper of asses) and *eidos* (resemblance) by Stanton and Fletcher.^[5] A wide variety of animal species have been shown to be susceptible to melioidosis.^[6] Human melioidosis does not appear to be a zoonosis.^[7] Any delay in diagnosis and treatment of this infection may be harmful, because the disease possesses the potential for recurrence and may become an acute, fulminant and fatal infection.^[8,9] In melioidosis, recurrent infections can occur in about 2-9% of cases, due to either relapse (same strain, unknown mechanism) in twothirds of cases, especially in the first year; and the rest due to re-infection with new strain.[10] The first case of human melioidosis in Australia was described in a young diabetic adult from Townsville in 1950, who died of septicemic melioidosis.^[11] Recent study, using molecular technique called multilocus sequencing typing

581

582

(MLST), shows that both environmental and clinical strains of *B. pseudomallei* from Australia are much different from those from Thailand.^[12] Melioidosis is increasingly recognized around the world. It has been noted that published case reports and series are likely to represent only the 'tip of the iceberg' - i.e., melioidosis is far more common than previously recognized, as culture facilities for bacterial isolation are not available in most of the rural tropics, where the infection is likely to be prevalent.^[13] There have been concerns of *B. pseudomallei* being thought of as a potential biological warfare agent.^[14]

CAUSATIVE ORGANISM

Burkholderia pseudomallei, also termed previously as Bacillus pseudomallei, Bacillus whitmorii (or Bacille de Whitmore), Malleomyces pseudomallei and Pseudomonas pseudomallei,^[15] closely resembles common contaminant Pseudomonas species and is easily misidentified in microbiology laboratories.^[7] B. pseudomallei is visualized as a small gram-negative aerobic, motile, non-sporeforming bacillus with bipolar staining and is vacuolated and slender and has rounded ends: it is often described as having a 'safety pin' appearance.^[16,17] The organisms are commonly found in water and soil; B. pseudomallei is a resilient bacterium that can survive in a variety of hostile conditions, including nutrient deficiency, acid and alkali pH, disinfectant and antiseptic solutions (including detergents and chlorine), exposure to many antibiotics and extremes of temperature.^[6,18] B. pseudomallei produces a glycocalyx polysaccharide capsule, which is probably an important virulence determinant.[19]

GEOGRAPHIC DISTRIBUTION

Melioidosis is regarded as endemic to Southeast Asia and northern Australia, corresponding approximately to the tropical latitudes between 20°N and 20°S.^[20] The highest rates of disease are currently noted in Thailand and Australia, and sporadic cases are reported in India,^[21-24] Indonesia, Bangladesh, Japan, Philippines, Pakistan, Sri Lanka^[6] and Malaysia.^[25]

Multiple cases have been reported from disparate regions of India but have been largely restricted to a few large medical centers, presumably where identification is possible.^[6] Cases in travelers returning to Europe from the Indian subcontinent have been reported, suggesting poor ascertainment of cases locally.^[26] In addition, one sero survey revealed a seroprevalence of 7% in a rural rice-growing area near Vellore.^[27]

Further, John *et al.* reported Tripura, Kerala Orissa, Tamil Nadu and Maharashtra as potentially endemic areas for melioidosis.^[27] Moreover, involvement in the tsunami of December 2004 is a risk factor for melioidosis, and the risk may extend to individuals who were uninjured bystanders.^[28,29]

PREDISPOSING FACTORS

- 1. Surface water: There is a strong relationship between surface water and melioidosis.^[30,31]
- Moist clay: Moist clay soils seem to be favored by the organism. Melioidosis is seasonal in the tropics, where most cases occur during the rainy season. This can be explained by increased contact with

the organism. Although the main mode of acquisition of disease is through inoculation, the association of prior heavy rainfall with both pneumonia and more severe disease may well reflect a shift towards inhalation as the mode of acquiring *B. pseudomallei*. The periods of intense monsoon rainfall are usually also associated with heavy winds; therefore, aerosolization of bacteria from surface soil and water under such conditions is probable.^[32] Moreover, both increased environmental bacterial load and increased virulence of environmental *B. pseudomallei* may possibly result from periods of heavy rainfall.^[31,33,34]

- 3. Physical factors that may influence the distribution of *B. pseudomallei* in the environment include rainfall, humidity, UV radiation and temperature.^[6]
- Chemical factors such as soil composition, other vegetation, the use of fertilizers, soil digging and plowing also flourish the growth of organism.^[35]

RISK FACTORS

Melioidosis is often associated with other underlying diseases such as diabetes,^[30,36,37] thalassemia,^[7,38] chronic renal failure and high alcohol consumption.^[6]

Kosuwon *et al.* found diabetes and thalassemia were the two most common concurrent diseases in the melioidotic patients.^[7,39] The presence of specific risk factors for infection, such as diabetes, suggests that functional neutrophil defects are important in the pathogenesis of melioidosis.^[40,41] Other risk factors are chronic granulomatous disease, splenectomy, aplastic anemia, febrile neutropenia, mycobacterial disease, dengue hemorrhagic fever, AIDS, porphyria cutanea tarda, cystic fibrosis, hemosiderosis, glucose-6-phosphatase deficiency, systemic lupus erythematosus, steroid use and renal transplantation.^[6] A population-based study in Australia defined adjusted relative risks of melioidosis as 4.0 for those aged \geq 45 years, 2.4 for males, 3.0 for Aboriginal race.^[35]

MODE OF TRANSMISSION

Infection is acquired through three modes of acquisition, viz., inhalation, ingestion and cutaneous inoculation.^[6,30] The skin is the usual portal of entry, and organisms enter through preexisting lesions, including penetrating wounds. Kosuwon *et al.* reported that two patients who had wound of the knee and heel cord while working in wet rice field subsequently became infected with *Burkholderia pseudomallei.*^[7]

Human-to-human sexual transmission of melioidosis has been rarely seen.^[42] Infection in the neonates has been postulated to arise from the birth canal infection or amniotic fluid contamination.^[43] In addition, laboratory-acquired infection through contaminated equipments and inhalation has been reported in the literature.^[44-45]

INCUBATION PERIOD

In natural infection, the incubation period varies from 2 days to months or years, with the longest incubation period documented being 62 years. Infection may remain latent for years.^[46-47]

CLINICAL FEATURES

In terms of clinical classification, six types of melioidosis were introduced by Punyagupta:^[48]

- 1. Disseminated septic melioidosis
- 2. Non-disseminated septic melioidosis
- 3. Localized melioidosis
- 4. Transient bacteremic melioidosis
- 5. Probable melioidosis
- 6. Subclinical melioidosis

The clinical spectrum of melioidosis is variable and includes latent infection, local cutaneous lesions, subacute pneumonia, focal organ abscesses, musculoskeletal infection and lethal fulminant septicemia.^[6,49-52] Melioidosis affects all ages but peak incidence is mainly between 40 and 60 years of age, with male-to-female ratio of 1.4:1.^[53] The higher incidence rate among men is related to higher occupational exposure to organism in the soil and water through farming, stock keeping and field work.^[54]

The clinical course may be acute, subacute or chronic. The acute illness presents as a pulmonary infection, which varies from mild tracheobronchitis to overwhelming cavitary pneumonia. Some patients may come with septic shock without any focal lesion. Fulminant septicemia, shock, coma and death may be the culminating events. Subacute melioidosis mimics tuberculosis and also occurs as a selflimited febrile disease. Chronic infection is a localized suppurative infection involving lungs, skin or bones.^[55] It may resemble TB clinically and radiologically. Therefore, B. pseudomallei has been called the 'great mimicker' of other infectious diseases such as TB, syphilis and typhoid fever.^[7,55-57] There are no reliable pathognomonic features of acute or subacute

melioidosis. Chronic melioidosis may follow a mild acute illness or it may lie dormant for months or years, only to appear suddenly hence the term 'Vietnamese time bomb'.^[58]

Musculoskeletal infection

Melioidosis can involve bone and joint. There are case reports of orthopedic infection published in English literature, and most of the cases of musculoskeletal melioidosis are in localized form without other organ involvement.^[7,39]

Clinical manifestations of articular melioidosis are not diagnostic. It can mimic acute or chronic arthritis from other infectious or rheumatic disorders. Articular melioidosis is relatively uncommon and predominantly mono- or polyarticular. Melioidosis involves the large weightbearing joints, especially knees. Often soft tissue abscess with osteomyelitis is associated with septic arthritis in many patients. Pui et al. retrospectively analyzed imaging studies in 26 patients of musculoskeletal melioidosis. They found that septic arthritis is more common than soft tissue abscess and osteomyelitis in melioidotic patients.^[59] Saengnipanthkul et al. reported only 9 cases of articular melioidosis in 44 years in endemic zone of melioidosis.[55] The clinical presentation of musculoskeletal melioidosis has been reported in most of the bones of the body. According to Pui et al., knee is the most commonly affected, followed by ankle, foot, shoulder, thoracic or lumbar spine and the pelvis.^[59] Other reported sites are femur, humerus, hip, elbow, sacroiliac joint, tibia, sternomanubrial joint, rib and mandible.[60-^{62]} Nandurkar and Lau described a case of multifocal melioidotic osteomyelitis.[63] First case of B. pseudomallei involving the posterior 584

583

elements of the spine and causing extensive osteomyelitis of three vertebrae (T9-T11) was described by Nather *et al.*^[64]

Osteoarticular melioidosis is characterized by localized pain over underlying bone or joint, associated swelling, painful movements with fever; and if the spine is involved, truncal rigidity and muscle spasm, with or without neurological signs. Bartley et al.[65] reported a case of acute melioidosis which predominantly affected the spinal cord to produce paraplegia-mimicking acute epidural abscess. Bone and joint infections may be difficult to differentiate from infections caused by other causes, except that the systemic features of the illness may be more prominent in melioidosis. Currie et al., in their 10year prospective study on endemic melioidosis in northern Australia, reported 252 cases, of which only 4% had osteomyelitis or septic arthritis.[35] Further, according to reviews by Sookpranee et al. and Cowsuwon and Shaikitpinyo, bone and joint involvement was rare and accounted for 8% of the case series.[66,67] Subhadrabandhu et al. reviewed 10 patients of localized melioidotic osteomyelitis and found it as an uncommon infection.[68] Sirikulchayanonta et al. considered melioidosis as a differential diagnosis of granulomatous osteomyelitis, since the lesions are indistinguishable from tuberculosis and treatment is guite different from the same.[56] Subsequently, Wilairatana & Wilairatana reported melioidotic spondylitis which mimicked tuberculous spondylitis.^[57] Recently, Kosuwon et al. compared melioidotic septic arthritis with nonmelioidotic septic arthritis and concluded that a diagnosis of melioidotic septic arthritis should be considered when septic arthritis is seen in an individual who is indigenous to, or has recently visited, Southeast Asia. The infection is more

likely to be melioidotic septic arthritis if it involves an upper-extremity joint and if the patient has diabetes mellitus.^[39] A case of chest wall melioidotic osteomyelitis resulting from localized extension of a splenic abscess has also been described.^[62]

INVESTIGATION

Plain radiograph

There are no specific radiographic features described that are pathognomonic of melioidosis of bones or joints. However, common imaging findings that should arouse suspicion of joint involvement or septic arthritis include soft tissue swelling, joint effusion and periarticular osteoporosis on plain radiograph.^[59]

Osseous lesions usually involve the red marrow of long bones and the vertebral bodies, in which radiographic appearance cannot be differentiated from that of tuberculous lesion.^[56]

Long bone: The imaging features of osteomyelitis in long bone are soft tissue swelling, increased marrow density, osteoporosis or osteosclerosis and bone destruction; osteolytic or cystic lesions or circumscribed, saucer-shaped erosion of cortical bone with scalloped border may be evident. This mimics conditions like neoplasm, sarcoidosis and other granulomatous infections. Any part of bone may be involved, like epiphysis, metaphysis or diaphysis; but metaphyseal region is most commonly involved. Sequestrum, periosteal new bone formation and periostitis are rarely seen.^[7,39,55,59,69,63,68]

Vertebral lesions: Shows destruction of vertebral bodies with varying degree of collapse with scalloping of anterior vertebral margin, paravertebral abscess and decreased vertebral disc spaces on plain radiography. Often, multiple bones are involved in the spine.^[7,68,55,59,63]

Subhadrabandhu *et al.* also reported pathological fracture in one case. It is noteworthy that isolated bone lesions caused by melioidosis may closely mimic neoplasm or cysts radiologically.^[68]

White cell scanning

White cell scanning is a quick and effective way of assessing the extent of musculoskeletal, visceral and soft tissue disease in melioidosis.^[69] Septic arthritis and osteomyelitis showed hyperemia and increased bone uptake on bone scintigraphy.^[59]

Computerized tomography (CT) scan

Soft tissue abscess appeared as mass with central attenuation and peripheral contrast enhancement on CT scan.^[59] 'CT'-guided needle biopsy is recommended to investigate causative microorganisms.^[64]

Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI)

Septic arthritis showed hyperintensity relative to muscle on T2-weighted MR images and hypointensity on T1-weighted MR images with contrast enhancement; and findings of osteomyelitis include hyperintensity of bone marrow on T2-weighted MR images and hypointensity on T1-weighted MR images with contrast enhancement.^[59]

DIAGNOSIS

General

General tests of inflammation are neither specific nor completely reliable. However,

Erythrocyte Sedimentation Rate, Total Leukocyte Count and C-reactive protein levels are elevated.

Microbiology

Confirmation of a diagnosis of melioidosis depends heavily on the clinical microbiology laboratory and specifically on recovering B. pseudomallei isolate by culture from blood, sputum, cerebrospinal fluid or other bacteriology specimen. Isolation of B. pseudomallei from body fluids of patients remains the 'gold standard' in diagnosis. Use of selective media for nonsterile specimens is helpful. Actually, the isolation of this organism can only use routine media in microbiology laboratory. With inexperienced eyes, the organism may be missed easily by the overgrowth of other rapid-growing normal flora; so the use of selective media may facilitate the growth of B. pseudomallei and inhibit growth of other gram-negative normal flora, since the media contain gentamicin. A modified Ashdown medium, with colistin, is now commonly used.[6,70,71] Gram stain and other histopathological stains are not specific for the organism. Bacilli showing bipolar (safety pin) staining with methylene blue or Wayson's or Wright's stain may be found in exudates.^[20,72] Pseudomonas stains so poorly that its presence can be easily missed. There is difficulty in identifying the organism, which mimics any other nonfermenting gram-negative bacilli (NFGNB) on cursory examination.[72]

Histopathology

Microscopic examination of tissue specimen shows granuloma of closely aggregated epithelioid cells with multinucleated giant cells with some focal necrosis.^[73]

585

MUSCULOSKELETAL MELIOIDOSIS

Serology

Indirect hemagglutination (IHA), latex agglutination and immunofluorescence are currently used clinically. IHA single titer of 1:80 to 1:320 is suggestive of active melioidosis, and a single titer of more than 1:640 is diagnostic of highly active melioidosis.^[68,74]

Enzyme linked immunosorbent assay [ELISA] test detects specific IgG and IgM antibodies of *B. pseudomallei* in serum specimens. ELISA is more sensitive and specific as it points to an active disease process and is recommended as a diagnostic serological test when melioidosis is in the differential diagnosis of 'pyrexia of unknown origin' cases.^[49,75]

Molecular

Polymerase chain reaction has been developed for bacterial identification. Other molecular biology techniques such as dot immunoassay are also used for rapid diagnosis.^[49,76]

TREATMENT

The main objective of treatment is to reduce mortality and morbidity and to prevent recurrent infection in melioidosis. Outcome following melioidosis remains poor despite 20 years of clinical research and the introduction of ceftazidime- and carbapenem-based intravenous treatments; melioidosis is still associated with significant mortality attributable to severe sepsis and its complications. A long course of oral eradication therapy is required to prevent relapse. Treatment is continued over 12-20 weeks or longer if clinically indicated. This is divided into intravenous and oral phases. Ceftazidime or a carbapenem antibiotic for initial parenteral therapy should be administered for at least 10-14 days followed by a prolonged course of oral antimicrobial therapy with trimethoprimsulfamethoxazole (TMP-SMX) with or without doxycycline. Amoxicillin-clavulanate is an alternative for children, pregnant women and for patients with intolerance to first-line therapy. Resistance of *B. pseudomallei* to these drugs is rare.^[1,6,77-79]

The organism is also susceptible to chloramphenicol, doxycycline, ureidopenicillins and is intrinsically resistant to many antibiotics (including penicillin, first- and second-generation cephalosporins, macrolides, rifamycins, colistin and aminoglycosides).

Operative intervention for musculoskeletal melioidosis includes aspiration drainage of pus, curettage debridement, together with combination of antimicrobials. Spinal melioidosis needs debridement with bone grafting for inter-body fusion. Other joints would require debridement with synovectomy and removal of infected and necrotic bone material. Ng et al. successfully treated osteomyelitis after debridement and filling the bone gap with calcium hydroxyapatite blocks filled with ceftazidime powder. They concluded that calcium hydroxyapatite appears to be superior to polymethyl methacrylate (PMMA) as a drug delivery system as there is no thermal damage to the drug during the process of preparation.^[80] However, Subhadrabandhu et al. had reported that the use of gentamicin-impregnated PMMA beads reduces the risk of relapse by achieving a local concentration of gentamicin exceeding the minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC) for Burkholderia.^[68] However, this study was based on retrospective reports on few patients, and

there was no comparison-controlled trial; so the evidence for this is weak.

Vaccine development

There is no effective vaccine available that protects against *B. pseudomallei* infection. Current approaches under evaluation include conjugate DNA, attenuated and heterologous vaccines, attenuated mutants that are invasive but have a reduced ability to produce an acute, fulminating and often fatal infection.^[81]

Follow-up

Accurate diagnosis of this infection is important because a high mortality rate is usually associated with the septicemic form of disease. The infection also has the potential of a prolonged latent period, with reactivation despite adequate treatment. Hence follow-up should probably be lifelong.

CONCLUSION

Diagnosis of melioidosis requires a high index of clinical suspicion and is dependent on microbiological confirmation; the important clue is travel to, or residence in, an endemic area. Infection often, but not always, occurs in well-recognized risk groups, especially diabetics and alcoholics. Melioidosis can involve bone and joint. Clinical manifestations of bone melioidosis are not diagnostic. Musculoskeletal melioidosis mimics other infections both clinically and radiologically. Clinical awareness is therefore crucial, as diagnosis can only be established by bacteriological and immunological studies. Prompt treatment with long-term combination antibiotics in high dosages and surgical drainage of abscesses improves survival.

REFERENCES

- Wuthiekanun V, Peacock SJ. Management of melioidosis. Expert Rev Anti Infect Ther 2006;4:445-55.
- Howe C, Sampath A, Spotnitz M. The pseudomallei group: A review. J Infect Dis 1971;124:598-606.
- 3. Whitmore A. An account of a glanders-like disease occurring in Rangoon. J Hyg 1913;13:1-34.
- Whitmore A, Krishnaswami CS. An account of the discovery of a hitherto underscribed infective disease occurring among the population of Rangoon. Indian Med Gazette 1912;47:262-7.
- Stanton AT, Fletcher W. Melioidosis, a new disease of the tropics. Trans Fourth Congr Far East Assoc Trop Med 1921;2:196-8.
- Cheng AC, Currie BJ. Melioidosis: Epidemiology, pathophysiology and management. Clin Microbiol Rev 2005;18:383-416.
- Kosuwon W, Saengnipanthkul S, Mahaisavariya B, Laupattarakasem W, Kaen K. Musculoskeletal melioidosis. J Bone Joint Surg Am 1993;75:1811-5.
- Koponen MA, Zlock D, Palmer DL, Merlin TL. Melioidosis. Forgotten, but not gone! Arch Intern Med 1991;151:605-8.
- Piggott JA, Hochholzer L. Human melioidosis. A histopathologic study of acute and chronic melioidosis. Arch Pathol 1970;90:101-11.
- 10. Dance DA. Melioidosis as an emerging global problem. Acta Trop 2000;74:115-9.
- Rimington RA. Melioidosis in Northern Queensland. Med J Aust 1962;1:50-3.
- 12. Peacock SJ. Melioidosis. Curr Opin Infect Dis 2006;19:421-8.
- Dance DA. Melioidosis: The tip of the iceberg? Clin Microbiol Rev 1991;4:52-60.
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). Laboratory exposure to *Burkholderia pseudomallei* -Los Angeles, California. MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep 2004;53:988-90.
- 15. Yabuuchi E, Kosako Y, Oyaizu H, Yano I, Hotta H, Hashimoto Y, *et al.* Proposal of Burkholderia

gen. nov. and transfer of seven species of the genus *Pseudomonas* homology group II to the new genus, with the type species Burkholderia cepacia (Palleroni and Holmes 1981) comb. nov. Microbiol Immunol 1992,36:1251-75.

- Lertpatanasuwan N, Sermsri K, Petkaseam A, Trakulsomboon S, Thamlikitkul V, Suputtamongkol Y. Arabinose-positive *Burkholderia pseudomallei* infection in humans: Case report. Clin Infect Dis 1999;28:927-8.
- 17. Wuthiekanun V, Smith MD, White NJ. Survival of *Burkholderia pseudomallei* in the absence of nutrients. Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg 1995;89:491.
- 18. White NJ. Melioidosis. Lancet 2003;361:1715-22.
- Steinmetz I, Rohde M, Brenneke B. Purification and characterization of an exopolysaccharide of *Burkholderia* (*Pseudomonas*) *pseudomallei*. Infect Immun 1995;63:3959-65.
- 20. Leelarasamee A, Bovornkitti S. Melioidosis: Review and update. Rev Infect Dis 1989;11:413-25.
- 21. Jesudason MV, Anbarasu A, John TJ. Septicaemic melioidosis in a tertiary care hospital in south India. Indian J Med Res 2003;117:119-21.
- Mathew S, Perakath B, Mathew G, Sitaram V, Nair A, Lalitha MK, *et al.* Surgical presentation of melioidosis in India. Natl Med J India 1999;12:59-61.
- 23. Raghavan KR, Shenoi RP, Zaer F, Aiyer R, Ramamoorthy P, Mehta MN. Melioidosis in India. Indian Pediatr 1991;28:184-8.
- Thurnheer U, Novak A, Michel M, Ruchti C, Jutzi H, Weiss M. Septic melioidosis following a visit to India. Schweiz Med Wochenschr 1988;118:558-64.
- 25. Puthucheary SD, Parasakthi N, Lee MK. Septicaemic melioidosis: A review of 50 cases from Malaysia. Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg 1992;86:683-5.
- 26. Kang G, Rajan DP, Ramakrishna BS, Aucken HM, Dance DA. Melioidosis in India. Lancet

1996;347:1565-6.

- 27. John TJ, Jesudason MV, Lalitha MK, Ganesh A, Mohandas V, Cherian T, *et al.* Melioidosis In India: The tip of the iceberg? Indian J Med Res 1996;103:62-5.
- 28. Wuthiekanun V, Chierakul W, Rattanalertnavee J, Langa S, Sirodom D, Wattanawaitunechai C, *et al.* Serological evidence for increased human exposure to *Burkholderia pseudomallei* following the tsunami in southern Thailand. J Clin Microbiol 2006;44:239-40.
- 29. Athan E, Allworth AM, Engler C, Bastian I, Cheng AC. Melioidosis in tsunami survivors. Emerg Infect Dis 2005;11:1638-9.
- Suputtamongkol Y, Hall AJ, Dance DA, Chaowagul W, Rajchanuvong A, Smith MD, *et al.* The epidemiology of melioidosis in Ubon Ratchatani, northeast Thailand. Int J Epidemiol 1994;23:1082-90.
- 31. Thomas AD, Forbes-Faulkner J, Parker M. Isolation of *Pseudomonas pseudomallei* from clay layers at defined depths. Am J Epidemiol 1979;110:515-21.
- Inglis TJ, Mee B, Chang B. The environmental microbiology of melioidosis. Rev Med Microbiol 2001;12:13-20.
- Strauss JM, Groves MG, Mariappan M, Ellison DW. Melioidosis in Malaysia. II. Distribution of *Pseudomonas pseudomallei* in soil and surface water. Am J Trop Med Hyg 1969;18:698-702.
- Currie BJ, Jacups SP. Intensity of rainfall and severity of melioidosis, Australia. Emerg Infect Dis 2003;9:1538-42.
- 35. Currie BJ, Fisher DA, Howard DM, Burrow JN, Lo D, Selva-Nayagam S, *et al.* Endemic melioidosis in tropical northern Australia: A 10-year prospective study and review of the literature. Clin Infect Dis 2000;31:981-6.
- 36. Wooten MD, Panwalker AP. Septic arthritis caused by *Burkholderia pseudomallei*: Case report and review of the literature. J Clin Rheumatol 2001;7:242-7.
- 37. Chen WT, Chen YS, Chye SM, Wu TR, Hong WG,

588

Lin YN, *et al.* Seroprevalence of melioidosis in diabetic patients in Taiwan. J Microbiol Immunol Infect 2005;38:267-70.

- 38. Wiener E. Impaired phagocyte antibacterial effector functions in beta-thalassemia: A likely factor in the increased susceptibility to bacterial infections. Hematology 2000;8:35-40.
- 39. Kosuwon W, Taimglang T, Sirichativapee W, Jeeravipoolvarn P. Melioidotic septic arthritis and its risk factors. J Bone Joint Surg Am 2003;85:1058-61.
- 40. Bagdade JD, Root RK, Bulger RJ. Impaired leukocyte function in patients with poorly controlled diabetes. Diabetes 1974;23:9-15.
- Geerlings SE, Hoepelman AI. Immune dysfunction in patients with diabetes mellitus (DM). FEMS Immunol Med Microbiol 1999;26:259-65.
- McCormick JB, Sexton DJ, McMurray JG, Carey E, Hayes P, Feldman RA. Human-to-human transmission of *Pseudomonas pseudomallei*. Ann Intern Med 1975;83:512-3.
- Abbink FC, Orendi JM, de Beaufort AJ. Mother to child transmission of *Burkholderia pseudomallei*. N Eng J Med 2001;344:1171-2.
- 44. Schlech WF 3rd, Turchik JB, Westlake RE Jr, Klein GC, Band JD, Weaver RE. Laboratory-acquired infection with *Pseudomonas pseudomallei* (melioidosis). N Engl J Med 1981;305:1133-5.
- 45. Green RN, Tuffnell PG. Laboratory acquired melioidosis. Am J Med 1968;44:599-605.
- 46. Short BH. Melioidosis: An important emerging infectious disease: A military problem? ADF Health 2002;3:13-21.
- 47. Ngauy V, Lemeshev Y, Sadkowski L, Crawford G. Cutaneaous melioidosis in a man who was taken as a prisoner of war by the Japanese during World War II. J Clin Microbiol 2005;43:970-2.
- Punyagupta S. Melioidosis: Review of 686 cases an presentation of new clinical classification. *In*: Punyagupta S, Sirisanthana T, Stapatayavong B, editors. Melioidosis. Proceeding of national workshop on melioidosis. Bankok Medical Publisher: Bankok; 1989. p. 317-29.

- 49. Raja NS. Localized melioidosis. J Pak Med Assoc 2003;53:373-4.
- 50. Koszyca B, Currie BJ, Blumbergs PC. The neuropathology of melioidosis: Two cases and a review of the literature. Clin Neuropathol 2004;23:195-203.
- Schwarzmaier A, Riezinger-Geppert F, Schober G, Karnik R, Valentin A. Fulminant septic melioidosis after a vacation in Thailand. Wien Klin Wochenschr 2000;112:892-5.
- 52. Wiersinga WJ, van der Poll T, White NJ, Day NP, Peacock SJ. Melioidosis: Insights into the pathogenicity of *Burkholderia pseudomallei*. Nat Rev Microbiol 2006;4:272-82.
- 53. Dance DA. Melioidosis: Distribution and epidemiology. First international symposium on Melioidosis in Kuala Lumpur Malaysia 1994;7-8.
- 54. Guard RW, Khafagi FA, Brigden MC, Ashdown LR. Melioidosis in far north Queensland. A clinical and epidemiological review of twenty cases. Am J Trop Med Hyg 1984;33:467-73.
- 55. Saengnipanthkul S, Laupattarakasem W, Kowsuwon W, Mahaisavariya B. Isolated articular melioidosis. Clin Orthop Relat Res 1991;267:182-5.
- 56. Sirikulchayanonta V, Subhadrabandhu T. Melioidosis. Another etiology of granulomatous osteomyelitis. Report of 2 cases. Clin Orthop Relat Res 1994;308:183-6.
- Wilairatana P, Wilairatana V. Melioidotic spondylitis mimicking tuberculous spondylitis. Southeast Asian J Trop Med Public Health 1994;25:603-4.
- Goshorn RK. Recrudescent pulmonary melioidosis. A case report involving the so-called 'Vietnamese time bomb'. Indiana Med 1987;80:247-9.
- 59. Pui MH, Tan AP. Musculoskeletal melioidosis: Clinical and imaging features. Skeletal Radiol 1995;24:499-503.
- Borgmeier PJ, Kalovidouris AE. Septic arthritis of the sternomanubrial joint due to Pseudomonas pseudomallei. Arthritis Rheum 1980;23:1057-9.
- 61. Yazdanpanah Y, Lemaire X, Senneville E, Delcey V, Viget N, Mouton Y, *et al.* Melioidotic

osteomyelitis of the femur occurring in a traveler. J Travel Med 2002;9:53-4.

- 62. Tan YY, Agasthian T, Low CH, Ang BS. Melioidosis splenic abscess-an unusual presentation as osteomyelitis of rib. Ann Acad Med Singapore 2001;30:48-50.
- 63. Nandurkar D, Lau K. Melioidosis as a cause of multifocal osteomyelitis. Clin Nucl Med 2006;31:25-7.
- Nather A, David V, Hee HT, Thambiah J. Pyogenic vertebral osteomyelitis: A review of 14 cases. J Orthop Surg (Hong Kong) 2005;13:240-4.
- 65. Bartley PP, Pender MP, Woods ML 2nd, Walker D, Douglas JA, Allworth AM, *et al.* Spinal cord disease due to melioidosis. Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg 1999;93:175-6.
- 66. Sookpranee M, Boonma P, Bhuripanyo K. Melioidosis at Srinaganrind Hospital. *In*: Punyagupta S, Sirisanthana T, Stapatayavong B, editors. Melioidosis. Bangkok Medical Publisher: Bangkok; 1989. p. 34-47.
- Cowsuwon W, Shaikitpinyo S. Melioidosis of the joint. J Thai Orthop Assoc 1984;9:131.
- Subhadrabandhu T, Prichasuk S, Sathapatayavongs
 B. Localized melioidotic osteomyelitis. J Bone Joint Surg Br 1995;77:445-9.
- 69. Ramsay SC, Labrooy J, Norton R, Webb B. Demonstration of different patterns of musculoskeletal, soft tissue and visceral involvement in melioidosis using 99m Tc stannous colloid white cell scanning. Nucl Med Commun 2001;22:1193-9.
- 70. Francis A, Aiyar S, Yean CY, Naing L, Ravichandran M. An improved selective and differential medium for the isolation of *Burkholderia pseudomallei* from clinical specimens. Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis 2006;55:95-9.
- Howard K, Inglis TJ. Novel selective medium for isolation of *Burkholderia pseudomallei*. J Clin Microbiol 2003;41:3312-6.
- 72. Kanungo R, Padhan P, Bhattacharya S,

Srimannarayana J, Jayanthi S, Swaminathan RP. Melioidosis--a report from Pondicherry, South India. J Assoc Physicians India 2002;50:1438-9.

- 73. Wong KT, Puthucheary SD, Vadivelu J. The histopathology of human melioidosis. Histopathology 1995;26:51-5.
- 74. Appassakij H, Silpapojakul KR, Wansit R, Pornpatkul M. Diagnostic value of the indirect haemagglutination test for melioidosis. Am J Trop Med Hyg 1990;42:248-53.
- Ashdown LR, Johnson RW, Koehler JM, Cooney CA. Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay for the diagnosis of clinical and subclinical melioidosis. J Infect Dis 1989;160:253-60.
- 76. Rattanathongkom A, Sermswan RW, Wongratanacheewin S. Detection of *Burkholderia pseudomallei* in blood samples using polymerase chain reaction. Mol Cell Probes 1997;11:25-31.
- 77. Rajchanuvong A, Chaowagul W, Suputtamongkol Y, Smith MD, Dance DA, White NJ. Aprospective comparison of co-amoxiclav and the combination of chloramphenicol, doxycycline and cotimoxazole for the oral treatment of melioidosis. Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg 1995;89:546-9.
- 78. Chetchotisakd P, Chaowagul W, Mootsikapun P, Budhsarawong D, Thinkamrop B. Maintenance therapy of melioidosis with ciprofloxacin plus azithromycin compared with cotrimoxazole plus doxycycline. Am J Trop Med Hyg 2001;64:24-7.
- 79. Samuel M, Ti TY. Interventions for treating melioidosis (Cochrane Review) the Cochrane Library, Issue 3, 2006.
- 80. Ng WM, Kwan MK, Merican AM. Melioidotic osteomyelitis treated with antibiotic-calcium hydroxyapatite composite: Case report with fouryear follow-up. Singapore Med J 2006;47:71-4.
- 81. Warawa J, Woods DE. Melioidosis vaccines. Expert Rev Vaccines 2002;1:477-82.

Source of Support: Nil, Conflict of Interest: None declared.

590