

## Clinical manifestations, diagnosis, and treatment of Melioidosis

Murtaza Mustafa<sup>1</sup> Joseph, Balingi<sup>2</sup>, Jayaram Menon<sup>3</sup>,  
Fredie Robinson<sup>4</sup>, MS.Rahman<sup>5</sup>

<sup>1,2,4,5</sup> Faculty of Medicine, and Health Sciences, University Sabah Malaysia, Kota Kinabalu,  
Sabah, Malaysia.

<sup>3</sup> Department of Gastroenterology, Hospital Queen Elizabeth, Kota Kinabalu, Sabah, Malaysia.

---

**ABSTRACT:** *Melioidosis is endemic in Southeast Asia, northern Australia, and Brazil. Northeast Thailand has the highest incidence of melioidosis. Septicemic melioidosis has high mortality, 87% in Thailand, 75% in East Malaysia, 39% in Singapore and 19% in Australia. Localised melioidosis has lower mortality. Burkholderia pseudomallei is found in soil and water, a history to contact with soil or surface water almost invariable with melioidosis. Diabetes mellitus, renal failure, thalassemia, haematological conditions, malignancy, steroids therapy, alcoholism and penetrating injury are the main risk factors. Clinical spectrum of melioidosis, being the fulminant end of clinical manifestation, with abscesses throughout both lungs and in many organs. Ashdown's medium containing gentamicin, is a selective medium for growth of B.pseudomallei. Antibiotics of choice include, ceftazidime, imipenem for initial intensive intravenous therapy for 10 to 14 days, sulfamethoxazole-trimethoprim and doxycycline for eradication therapy for minimum 3 months. Septicemic melioidosis has high mortality, high clinical suspicion is required, and appropriate empirical antibiotic therapy should be instituted for a better outcome.*

**KEYWORDS:** *Melioidosis, Burkholderia pseudomallei, Diagnosis, and Treatment*

---

### I. INTRODUCTION

Melioidosis is endemic in parts of southeast Asia, including Thailand, northern Australia, and is an emerging infectious disease in Brazil, sporadic cases has been reported from other parts of the world [1,2,3]. Northeast Thailand has the highest incidence of melioidosis in the world (21.3 cases of melioidosis per 100,000 people per year) [4]. Melioidosis is a recognized disease in animals, including cats, goats, sheep, horses [5]. *Burkholderia pseudomallei* is normally found in soil and water, a history to contact with soil or surface water is, therefore, almost invariable in patients with melioidosis [6]. Also implicated are severe weather events such as flooding, tsunamis, and typhoons [7,8,9]. The disease is associated with rainy season, with the number (and severity) of cases. In one series of 220 cases in Sabah, Malaysia, found no seasonal variation in the occurrence of cases [10,11]. The single most important risk factor for developing severe melioidosis is diabetes mellitus. Other factors include thalassaemia, haematological conditions, HBE trait, malignancy, steroids therapy, immune deficiency disease, alcoholism, drug abuse, renal disease/failure, COAD, penetrating injury, and near drowning. The mode of infection is by respiratory or cutaneous route [12,13]. Clinical presentations of melioidosis, being the fulminant end of clinical spectrum, with abscesses throughout both lungs and in many organs [14]. It has also been classified as acute, sub-acute or chronic [15]. The diagnosis of the disease depends on culture of pathogen from blood, urine, sputum, pus, bronchial, bone joint aspirate. The rate of successful culture is increased if sputum, throat swabs, ulcer or skin lesions swabs, and rectal swabs are placed into Ashdown's medium, a gentamicin-containing liquid transport broth that results in the selective growth of *B.pseudomallei* [16]. *B.pseudomallei* can be identified by combining the commercial API 20NE or 20NE biochemical kit with simple screening system involving the Gram stain, oxidase reaction, typical growth characteristics, and resistance to certain antibiotics [17]. Antibiotics of choice being the  $\beta$ -lactam, especially ceftazidime, imipenem, meropenam, piperacillin, amoxicillin-clavulanate, ceftriaxone, and cefotaxime, with various degrees of bactericidal activity. Initial intensive intravenous therapy of 10 to 14 days, and eradication therapy minimum of three months or more is required [18]. The paper reviews the current literature, clinical presentations, and treatment of melioidosis.

### II. HISTORY

The name melioidosis is derived from Greek "melis" meaning "a distemper of asses" with suffixes -oid meaning "similar to" and -osis meaning "a condition" that is, a condition similar to glanders [1]. Melioidosis was first discovered in Burma (now Myanmar) by Whitmore and Krishnaswami in 1912. After its discovery in Burma, melioidosis was documented in humans and animals in Malaysia and Singapore from 1913 and then Vietnam from 1923 and Indonesia from 1929 [19-21]. Thailand had reported the highest number of cases [22-24], with an estimated 2000 to 3000 cases of melioidosis each year [25]. Melioidosis is also common in Malaysia and

Singapore [26-28]. Other countries in the region where melioidosis is recognized in human and animals include China (especially Hong Kong), Taiwan, Brunei, Vietnam, and Laos [29-33]. Melioidosis is also likely to occur in Cambodia and Philippines [21,25,34]. Melioidosis has been increasingly recognized in India, although reports that some of the "Plague" scares of 1994 may have been cases of melioidosis have been disapproved [35-36]. Cases have been reported from Sri Lanka, Bangladesh, and Pakistan [21]. Despite the early documentation of melioidosis in Burma and Indonesia, recent cases had not been reported from Indonesia until after Asian tsunami [37]. Cases of melioidosis have also been documented from Papua New Guinea, Fiji, and New Caledonia, but the extent of the endemicity in the Pacific islands remains to be defined [38]. Melioidosis cases are increasingly being documented from outside the classic endemic region of Southeast Asia, Australasia, the Indian subcontinent, and China. These include sporadic human or animal cases or environmental isolates of *B.pseudomallei* from Middle East, Africa, the Caribbean, and Central and South America. Although some of these reports are from incorrect species diagnosis, other are confirmed making the endemic limitations of melioidosis very unclear [21]. Sporadic cases and occasional case clusters have recently occurred in Brazil and elsewhere in America [39]. Despite recent cases from Madagascar, the true extent and magnitude of the presence of *B.pseudomallei* in Africa remains entirely unknown [40]. Global warming may well result in expansion of endemic boundaries of melioidosis [41].

The two locations where melioidosis is arguably the most important single bacterial pathogen for humans are northeast Thailand and the Top End of the Northern Territory of Australia. In northeast Thailand, 20% of community-acquired septicemic cases are caused by melioidosis, which accounts for 39% of fatal septicemias and 36% of fatal community-acquired pneumonias [23,31]. In the Top End of Northern Territory, melioidosis has been the most common cause of fatal community-acquired bacteremic pneumonia [42].

In addition to endemic melioidosis, there are several documented situations where melioidosis became established in nontropical locations. In France, in the 1970s animals in a Paris Zoo, with spread to other Zoos and equestrian clubs [19]. In addition to fatal animal and human cases, there was extensive soil contamination persisting for some years. *B.pseudomallei* was considered likely to have been introduced by importation of infected animals. A cluster of cases occurred over 25-year period in southwestern Western Australia (31°S), involving animal cases and one human infection in a farmer. Ribotyping of farm animal and human isolates and one isolate from the soil showed identical patterns [43]. This supports the suggestion of clonal introduction of *B.pseudomallei* into this temperate region, probably via infected animal, with environmental contamination, local dissemination and persistence over 25 years [41].

### III. PATHOGENESIS

Worldwide studies have shown that most infection with *B.pseudomallei* is asymptomatic [44]. In northeast Thailand, most of the rural population is seropositive by indirect hemagglutination (IHA), with most seroconversion occurring between 6 months and 4 years of age [45]. Although the melioidosis occurring in all age groups, severe clinical disease such as septicemic pneumonia is seen mostly in those with risk factors such as diabetes, renal disease, and alcoholism [44]. In addition to infection by inhalation, bacterial load on exposure (inoculating dose) and virulence of the infecting strain of *B.pseudomallei* are also likely to influence the severity of disease. However, it has been noted that despite the large bacterial load in severely ill patients with septicemic pulmonary melioidosis, person-to-person transmission is extremely unusual. This together with rarity of fulminant melioidosis in healthy people supports the primary importance of host risk factors for development of melioidosis. Furthermore, although it is clear from laboratory studies of isolates of *B.pseudomallei* from animals, humans, and the environment that virulence differs among *B.pseudomallei* isolates [46], the importance of this variation in virulence in determining clinical aspects of melioidosis remain unclear. Molecular typing that shows clonality of isolates in animal and human clusters has revealed that same outbreak strain can cause different clinical presentations, with host factors being most important in determining the severity of disease [47]. Whole genome sequencing and subsequent molecular studies have shown that *B.pseudomallei* has two chromosomes, multiple genomic islands that are variably present in different strains and have a great propensity for horizontal gene transfer [48]. Further studies are required to unravel the global phylogeny and evolutionary history of *B.pseudomallei* and related species and to determine which genes or gene clusters may be critical for pathogenesis and disease presentation and outcome [49]. *B.pseudomallei* is a facultative intracellular pathogen that can invade and replicate inside various cells, including polymorphonuclear leukocytes and macrophages and some epithelial cells [50]. Animal models have been unable to confirm a clinically relevant exotoxin for *B.pseudomallei* [51]. However resistance to human serum (conferred by lipopolysaccharide [LPS]) [52], and the ability of *B.pseudomallei* to survive intracellularly (conferred in part by capsular polysaccharide) appear to be critical in the pathogenesis of melioidosis [53-55]. Type III secretion system in *B.pseudomallei* have also been found to be important in cell invasion and intracellular survival [56-57].

Quorum sensing may play an important role in many aspects of virulence of *B.pseudomallei* including cell invasion, cytotoxicity and antimicrobial resistance[41,58-59]. Other putative virulence factor candidates include flagella, type IV pili and other adhesion, a siderophore, and secreted proteins such as hemolysin lipases, and proteases[58]. Intracellular survival in human *B.pseudomallei* in human and animal hosts is likely to explain the ability for latency. After internalization, *B.pseudomallei* escapes from endocytic vacuoles into cell cytoplasm, and induction of actin polymerization at one bacterial pole leads to membrane protrusions, with cell-to-cell spread involving these actin tails [57-59]. Additional survival factors are the ability of *B.pseudomallei* to form antibiotic-resistant small colony variants and the ability of mucoid variants with large extracellular polysaccharide glycocalyx structures to form biofilm-encased micro colonies that are also relatively antibiotic-resistant [60]. There have been a number of studies showing elevated levels of various endogenous inflammatory mediators and cytokines to be associated with severity and outcomes of melioidosis. Nevertheless, whether these elevated cytokines are a cause or result of severe disease is not established. In Thailand, there was an association of severe melioidosis with tumor necrosis factor (TNF)- $\alpha$  gene allele 2, which is linked to high constitutive and inducible production of TNF- $\alpha$ [61]. However, in a mouse model of melioidosis, neutralization of TNF- $\alpha$  or interleukin(IL)-12 increased susceptibility to infection in vivo, and interferon- $\gamma$  (IFN- $\gamma$ ) was found to be important for survival, with mice treated with monoclonal anti-IFN- $\gamma$  dying more quickly[62]. A role for Toll-like receptors in the innate immune response in melioidosis has been proposed[63]. There are therefore, important host protective mechanisms against *B.pseudomallei* in cytokine responses as well as potentially detrimental ones, with timing of cytokine release and the balance, between pro- and anti-inflammatory responses likely to determine the severity of disease and outcome of infection[58,64]. The extent to which host polymorphism in immune response contribute in comparison to differences in organism virulence, infecting dose of *B.pseudomallei* and defined host risk factors such as diabetes remains to be clarified. Nevertheless, the predominant association with fatal melioidosis is the presence of defined patient risk factors[41].

The most important risk factors are diabetes, alcohol excess and renal disease [65-67]. In Thailand, the adjusted odds ratio for diabetes and renal disease (chronic renal impairment or renal or ureteric calculi) in cases of melioidosis versus controls 12.9(95% confidence interval(CI),5.1 to 37.2) and 2.9(95% CI,1.7 to 5.0), respectively[67]. Other risk factors for melioidosis include chronic lung disease(including cystic fibrosis),thalassemia(odd ratio in Thailand,10.2;95% CI,3.5 to 30.8),malignancies, steroids therapy, iron overload, and tuberculosis[41,67]. Severe disease and fatalities are uncommon in those without risk factors, who are diagnosed and treated early, with only one death in 51 patients without risk factors in one study[41,66]. Risk factors are less common in children than in adults[41,68,69]. Evidence suggests that there may be a predisposition to melioidosis in those with diabetes, alcohol excess, or chronic renal disease, which may reflect impairment of their neutrophil and other phagocytic cell functions, such as mobilization, delivery, adherence, and ingestion[66,70]. Melioidosis has also been described in chronic granulomatous disease[71].

#### IV. CLINICAL MANIFESTATIONS

Clinical presentations of melioidosis has been described as the fulminant end of the clinical spectrum, with abscesses throughout both lungs, and in many organs [14]. At the other end of the spectrum are asymptomatic infections and localized skin ulcers or abscesses without systemic illness. Howe and colleagues have classified melioidosis as acute, subacute, and chronic[15]. The Infectious Disease Association of Thailand has summarized 345 cases in these categories[41,65,22]. include:(a) Multifocal infection with septicemia (45% of cases, 87% mortality)(b) Localized infection with septicemia (12% of cases, 17% mortality)(c) Localized infection (42% of cases, 9% mortality)(d) Transient bacteremia (0.3%) Most recent bacteremia and overall, mortality have been respectively, 60% and 49%, 46% and 19% in Australia. And 43% and 39% in Singapore [41, 45, 66, 21]. Researchers in Sabah, Malaysia, reported 75% mortality in septicemic melioidosis[11].

In Australia pneumonia is the commonest clinical presentation of patients with melioidosis in all studies, accounting for around half of cases. Secondary pneumonia after another primary presentation occurs in around 10% of cases. Acute melioidosis pneumonia has a spectrum from fulminant septic shock( mortality up to 90%), to mild undifferentiated pneumonia, which can be acute or sub-acute in nature, with little mortality[41]. Septicemic patients present acutely unwell with high fevers and prostration and often little initial cough or pleuritic pain. On chest radiographs, diffuse nodular infiltrates often develop throughout both lungs and they coalesce, cavitate, and progress rapidly, consistent with caseous necrosis and multiple metastatic abscess formation seen at autopsy [41]. Nonsepticemic patients with pneumonia and some with septicemic pneumonia have a more predominant cough, with productive sputum and dyspnea, and their chest radiographs show discrete but progressive consolidation in one or both lobes. In endemic regions, acute pneumonia with upper lobe consolidation warrants consideration of melioidosis, although lower lobe infiltrates are also common[41].

In 12% of cases in northern Australia, patients present with chronic melioidosis defined as illness with symptoms for longer than 2 months duration on presentation. Many of these patients have features mimicking

tuberculosis, with fevers, weight loss, productive cough (sometimes with hemoptysis), and classic upper lobe infiltrates, with or without cavitation on chest radiographs. In these patients, disease can be remitting and relapsing over many years, sometimes with a misdiagnosis of tuberculosis. Although acute deterioration with septicemia may occur, mortality in this group is low [41].

Until recently it was thought that a colonization state did not exist for *B.pseudomallei*, with presence in sputum or throat always reflecting disease. However, it has recently become evident that *B.pseudomallei* can both colonize always and cause disease in patients with cystic fibrosis (CF) and bronchiectasis. The similarity to infection with *B.cepecia* complex in CF is of concern, given the association of *B.cepecia* complex with more rapid deterioration in lung function. Furthermore, likely transmission of *B.pseudomallei* between two siblings with CF has been reported [41,72]. Patients with CF traveling to melioidosis-endemic locations should be warned of the risk of melioidosis, which could be considered if they become sick after returning [41].

It is common for patients to present with skin ulcers or abscesses [73]. Occasionally they present with septic arthritis or osteomyelitis, or one of these can develop after the patient has presented with another primary diagnosis, usually pneumonia. Also well recognized, whatever the clinical presentation, are diseases in internal organs, especially in spleen, kidney, prostate and liver. Where available, abdominopelvic computed tomography (CT) scanning is useful in all melioidosis patients to detect internal abscesses [41].

These have been noted between Thailand and tropical Australia. First, suppurative parotitis accounts for up to 40% of melioidosis in children in Thailand [68, 74], but is very rare in Australia. Second, prostrate melioidosis is well recognized but uncommon, except in Australia, where routine abdominopelvic CT scanning of all melioidosis cases has shown prostrate abscesses present in 18% of all male patients with melioidosis [66]. Some were incidental in patients presenting with pneumonia or septicemia, but a primary genitourinary presentation was common with fever, abdominal discomfort, dysuria, and sometimes diarrhea and urinary retention. Third neurological melioidosis accounts for 4% of cases in northern Australia, with distinctive clinical features being brain stem encephalitis, often with cranial nerve palsies (especially the seventh nerve), together with peripheral motor nerve, together with peripheral motor weakness, or occasionally just flaccid paraparesis alone. The CT scan is often normal, but dramatic changes are seen on magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), most notably a diffusely increased T2-weighted signal in midbrain, brain stem, and spinal cord [41,75]. Direct bacterial invasion of the brain and spinal cord occurs with melioidosis encephalomyelitis [41,76].

Neurological melioidosis is occasionally seen outside Australia, although mostly macroscopic brain abscesses [41, 22, 77]. Unusual foci of melioidosis infection described in case reports or case series include mycotic aneurysms, lymphadenitis resembling tuberculosis, mediastinal masses, pericardial collections, and abnormal abscesses.

It has long been recognized that *B.pseudomallei*, like tuberculosis, has the potential for reactivation from a latent focus, usually in the lung—hence the concern of the “Vietnamese time bomb” in returned soldiers. Latent periods from exposure to *B.pseudomallei* in an endemic region to onset of melioidosis in a nonendemic region have been documented as long as 62 years [78]. However, cases of reactivation *B.pseudomallei* appear to be very uncommon, accounting for only 3% of cases in northern Australia. The vast majority of cases of melioidosis occur in the monsoonal wet seasons of various endemic regions, supporting the concept that endemic areas most patients with melioidosis have recent infections that appear with acute illness. Reactivation of melioidosis has been associated with influenza, other bacterial sepsis, and development of known melioidosis risk factors such as diabetes. It remains unknown what proportion of asymptomatic seropositive people actually have latent infection with potential for reactivation [41].

## V. DIAGNOSIS

There are no reliable pathognomonic features of acute or sub-acute melioidosis. Other infections including tuberculosis and typhoid fever are commonly confused with melioidosis. The commonest clinical presentation of the disease in northern Australia and Southeast Asia where the infection appears to be commonest is septicemia with or without pneumonia [75]. The majority of severe infections occur in patients with contributory co-morbidity such as uncontrolled diabetes mellitus, chronic renal failure, alcoholic liver disease or chronic lung disease [42]. A history of contact with soil, water and percutaneous inoculation is also a risk factor of melioidosis [7].

A definitive diagnosis of melioidosis requires a positive culture of *B.pseudomallei*. Melioidosis must be considered in a febrile patient in or returning from endemic regions to enable appropriate samples to be tested. *B.pseudomallei* readily grows in commercially available blood culture media, but it is not unusual for laboratories in nonendemic locations to misidentify the bacteria as *Pseudomonas* species, especially because some commercial identification systems are poor at identifying *B.pseudomallei* [79]. Culture from nonsterile sites increases the likelihood of diagnosis but can be problematic. The rate of successful culture is increased if sputum, throat swabs, ulcer or skin lesion swabs, and rectal swabs are placed into Ashdown's medium, a gentamicin-containing liquid transport broth that results in the selective growth of *B.pseudomallei* [15].

*B.pseudomallei* can be identified by combining the commercial API 20NE or 20E biochemical kit with a simple screening system involving the Gram stain, oxidase reaction, typical growth characteristics, and resistance to certain antibiotics[16]. There are a variety of locally developed antigen and DNA detection techniques used in endemic regions for early identification of *B.pseudomallei* in culture media and patient blood or urine but these are not yet widely available[16]. An indirect hemagglutination test(IHA). Various enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays(ELISAs), and other serological assays are available[41,80]. In endemic areas, their usefulness is limited by high rates of background antibody positivity. In acute septicemic melioidosis, IHA, and ELISA are often initially negative, but repeat testing may show seroconversion. A positive IHA, or ELISA in a tourist returning from a melioidosis –endemic region is useful in supporting the possibility of melioidosis, but definitive diagnosis still requires a positive culture[80].

## VI. TREATMENT

*B.pseudomallei* is characteristically resistant to penicillin, ampicillin, first- and second generation cephalosporins, gentamicin, tobramycin, and streptomycin. Before 1989, “conventional therapy” for melioidosis consisted of a combination of chloramphenicol, sulfamethoxazole-trimethoprim, doxycycline, and sometimes kanamycin, given for 6 weeks to 6 months[65]. However, there were reports of the successful use of sulfamethoxazole-trimethoprim alone and tetracycline or doxycycline alone. These conventional antibiotics are bacteriostatic rather than bacteriocidal, and in studies have shown various combinations to be antagonistic [41]. Subsequent studies have shown *B.pseudomallei* to be susceptible to various Beta-lactam antibiotics, especially, ceftazidime, imipenem, meropenem, piperacillin, amoxicillin-clavulanate, ceftriaxone, and cefotaxime, with various degrees of bactericidal activity.

**Initial intensive therapy** minimum of 10 to 14 days include ceftazidime, (50mg/kg, up to 2 g, every 6 hourly or meropenem (25mg/kg up to 1 g) every 8 hour, or imipenem (25 mg/kg up to 1 g) every 6 hour. Any one of the three may be combined with sulfamethoxazole-trimethoprim (40/8 mg/kg up to 1600/320 mg) every 12 hour (recommended for neurological, cutaneous, bone and prostatic melioidosis).

**Eradication therapy** minimum of 3 months Sulfamethoxazole (40/8mg/kg up to 1600/320) every 12 hour with or without Doxycycline (2.5mg/kg up to 100 mg) every 12 hour[41].

## VII. CONCLUSION

Septicemic melioidosis has high mortality, high clinical suspicion is required and appropriate empirical therapy should be instituted.

## REFERENCES

- [1]. Stanton AT, Fletcher W (1921). “Melioidosis a new disease of the tropics: Far East Assoc of Trop Med: transactions of the fourth Congress. Batavia, Dutch East Indies
- [2]. Simpson AJ, Suputtamongkol Y, Smith Mad, et al., *Clin Infect Dis*. 1999; **29**(2):381-87.
- [3]. Stumoller P, Kraneveld FC, Van Der Schaaf A. Melioidosis (*Pseudomonas*) in sheep, goats, and pigs on Aruba (Netherlands Antilles). *J Amer vet Med Ass*. 1957; **130**:415-17.
- [4]. Limmathurotsakul D, Wongratanaheewin S, Teerawattanasook N. Increasing incidence of Human Melioidosis in Northeast Thailand. *Am J Trop Med Hyg*. 2010; **82**(2):1113-7. doi:10.4269/ajtmh.2010.10-0038.
- [5]. Parkes Helen M, Shilton CM, Jerrett IV, et al., Primary ocular melioidosis due to a single genotype of *Burkholderia pseudomallei* in two cats from Arnhem Land in the Northern Territory of Australia. *J Feline Med Surg*. 2009; **11**(10):856-63. Doi: 10.1016/j.fms.2009.02.009.
- [6]. White NJ. Melioidosis. *Lancet*. 2003; **361**(9370):1715-22. Doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(03)13374-0.
- [7]. Apisarnthanaarak A, Khawcharoenpom T, Mundy LM. Flood-associated melioidosis in a non-endemic region of Thailand. *Int J Infect Dis*. 2012; **16**(5):e1409-10. doi: 10.1016/j.ijid.2012.01.013.
- [8]. Chierul W, Winothai W, Wattanawaitunechai C, et al., Melioidosis in 6 tsunami survivors in southern Thailand. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2005; **41**(7):982-90. doi:10.1086/432942.
- [9]. Ko WC, Cheung BM, Tang HJ, et al., Melioidosis outbreak after typhoon, southern Taiwan. *Emerg Infect Dis*. 2007; **13**(6):896-8. doi:10.3201/eid1306.o60646.
- [10]. Lo TJ, Ang IW, James I, et al., Melioidosis in a Tropical City State, Singapore. 2009; *Emerg Infect Dis*. **15**(10):1645-7. doi:10.3201.eid1510.090246.
- [11]. Mustafa M, Jayaram Menon. Epidemiology of *Burkholderia Pseudomallei* infections in a Malaysian hospital. 2002; *Sci Int (Lahore)* **14**(3):247-50.
- [12]. Suputtamongkol Y, Chaowagul W, Chetchotisakd P, et al., Risk factors for melioidosis and bacteremic melioidosis. *Clin Infect Dis*. 1999; **29**(2):408-13. doi:10.1086/520223.
- [13]. Mustafa M, Jayaram Menon. Melioidosis: Clinical presentation in Sabah, Malaysia. *Sci Int (Lahore)*. 2004; **16**(1):39-41.
- [14]. Whitmore A, Krishnaswami CS. An account of the discovery of a hitherto undescribed infective disease occurring among population of Rangoon. *Indian Med Gaz*. 1912; **47**: 262-67.
- [15]. Howe C, Sampath A, Spotnitz M. The *pseudomallei* group: A review. *J Infect Dis*. 1971; **124**:598-606.
- [16]. Ashdown IR. An improved screening technique for isolation of *Pseudomonas pseudomallei* from clinical specimens. *Pathology*. 1979; **11**:293-97.

- [17]. Dance DA, Wuthiekanun V, Naigwit R, et al. Identification of *Pseudomonas pseudomallei* in clinical practice: Use of simple screening test and API 20NE. *J Clin Pathol*. 1989; **42**:645-48.
- [18]. Phetsouvanh R, Phongmany S, Soukloun D, et al. Causes of community-acquired bacteremia and pattern of antimicrobial resistance in Vientiane, Laos. *Am J Trop Med Hyg*. 2006; **75**:978-85
- [19]. Dance DA. Melioidosis: The tip of the iceberg? *Clin Microbiol Rev*. 1991; **4**:52-60.
- [20]. White NJ. Melioidosis. *Lancet*. 2003; **361**:1715-1722.
- [21]. Cheng AC, Currie BJ. Melioidosis: epidemiology, pathophysiology, and management. *Clin Microbiol Rev*. 2005; **18**:383-416.
- [22]. Punyagupta S. Melioidosis: Review of 686 cases and presentation of a new clinical classification. In: Punyagupta Sirisanthana T, Stapatayavong B, eds. *Melioidosis*. Bangkok: Bangkok Medical; 1989:217-229.
- [23]. Chaowagul W, White NJ, Dance DA, et al. Melioidosis: A major cause of community-acquired septicemia in northeastern Thailand. *J Infect Dis*. 1989; **159**:890-899.
- [24]. Vuddhakul V, Tharavichitkul P, Na-Engam N, et al. Epidemiology of *Burkholderia pseudomallei* in Thailand. *Am J Trop Med Hyg*. 1999; **60**:458-461.
- [25]. Leelarasamee A. Melioidosis in Southeast Asia. *Acta Trop*. 2000; **74**:129-132.
- [26]. Puthuchery SD, Parasakthi N, Lee MK. Septicaemic melioidosis: A review of 50 cases from Malaysia. *Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg*. 1992; **86**:683-685.
- [27]. Yap EH, Chan YC, Goh KT, et al. Sudden unexplained death syndrome—a new manifestation in melioidosis? *Epidemiol Infect*. 1991; **107**:577-584.
- [28]. Liu Y, Loh JP, Aw LT, et al. Rapid molecular typing of *Burkholderia pseudomallei*, isolated in an outbreak of melioidosis in Singapore in 2004, based on variable-number tandem repeats. *Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg*. 2006; **100**:687-692.
- [29]. Dance DA. Melioidosis as an emerging global problem. *Acta Trop*. 2000; **74**:115-119.
- [30]. Lee N, Wu JL, Lee CH, et al. *Pseudomonas pseudomallei* infection from drowning: The first reported case in Taiwan. *J Clin Microbiol*. 1985; **22**:352-354.
- [31]. Hsueh PR, Teng LJ, Lee LN, et al. Melioidosis: An emerging infection in Taiwan? *Emerg Infect Dis*. 2001; **7**:428-433.
- [32]. Parry CM, Wuthiekanun V, Hoa NT, et al. Melioidosis in Southern Vietnam: Clinical surveillance and environmental sampling. *Clin Infect Dis*. 1999; **29**:1323-1326.
- [33]. Phetsouvanh R, Phongmany S, Soukaloun D, et al. Causes of community-acquired bacteremia and patterns of antimicrobial resistance in Vientiane, Laos. *Am J Trop Med Hyg*. 2006; **75**:978-985.
- [34]. Wuthiekanun V, Pheaktra N, Putschhat H, et al. *Burkholderia pseudomallei* antibodies in children, Cambodia. *Emerg Infect Dis*. 2008; **14**:301-303.
- [35]. Cherian T, Raghupathy P, John TJ. Plague in India. *Lancet*. 1995; **345**:258-259.
- [36]. Dance DA, Sanders D, Pitt TL, et al. *Burkholderia pseudomallei* and Indian plague-like illness. *Lancet*. 1995; **346**:904-905.
- [37]. Athan E, Allworth AM, Engler C, et al. Melioidosis in tsunami survivors. *Emerg Infect Dis*. 2005; **11**:1638-1639.
- [38]. Le Hello S, Currie BJ, Godoy D, et al. Melioidosis in New Caledonia. *Emerg Infect Dis*. 2005; **11**:1607-1609.
- [39]. Inglis TJ, Rolim DB, Sousa Ade Q. Melioidosis in the Americas. *Am J Trop Med Hyg*. 2006; **75**:947-954.
- [40]. Borgherini GP, Poubeau F, Paganin S, et al. Melioidosis: an imported case from Madagascar. *J Travel Med*. 2006; **13**:318-320.
- [41]. Curries BJ. *Burkholderia pseudomallei* and *Burkholderia mallei*: Melioidosis and Glanders. In: Mandel Douglas and Burnett's Principles and Practice of Infectious Diseases, 7<sup>th</sup> Ed. Mandell GL, Bennett JE, Dolin R (editors). Churchill Livingstone Elsevier, 2010.
- [42]. Currie BJ, Fisher DA, Howard DM, et al. The epidemiology of melioidosis in Australia and Papua New Guinea. *Acta Trop*. 2000; **74**:121-127.
- [43]. Currie B, Smith Vaughan H, Golledge C, et al. *Pseudomonas pseudomallei* isolates collected over 25 years from a non-tropical endemic focus show clonality on the basis of ribotyping. *Epidemiol Infect*. 1994; **113**:307-312.
- [44]. Wuthiekanun V, Chierakul W, Langa S, et al. Development of antibodies to *Burkholderia pseudomallei* during childhood in melioidosis-endemic northeast Thailand. *Am J Trop Med Hyg*. 2006; **74**:1074-1075.
- [45]. Suputtamongkol Y, Hall AJ, Dance DA, et al. The epidemiology of melioidosis in Ubon Ratchatani, northeast Thailand. *Int J Epidemiol*. 1994; **23**:1082-1090.
- [46]. Ulett GC, Currie BJ, Clair TW, et al. *Burkholderia pseudomallei* virulence: Definition, stability and association with clonality. *Microbes Infect*. 2001; **3**:621-631.
- [47]. Currie BJ, Mayo M, Anstey NM, et al. A cluster of melioidosis cases from an endemic region is clonal and is linked to the water supply using molecular typing of *Burkholderia pseudomallei* isolates. *Am J Trop Med Hyg*. 2001; **65**:177-179.
- [48]. Holden MT, Titball RW, Peacock SJ, et al. Genomic plasticity of the causative agent of melioidosis, *Burkholderia pseudomallei*. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2004; **101**:14240-45.
- [49]. Tuanyok A, Auerbach RK, Brettin TS, et al. A horizontal gene transfer event defines two distinct groups within *Burkholderia pseudomallei* that have dissimilar geographic distributions. *J Bacteriol*. 2007; **189**:9044-9049.
- [50]. Egan AM, Gordon DL. *Burkholderia pseudomallei* activates complement and is ingested but not killed by polymorphonuclear leukocytes. *Infect Immun*. 1996; **64**:4952-59.
- [51]. Brett PJ, Woods DE. Pathogenesis of and immunity to melioidosis. *Acta Trop*. 2000; **74**:201-210.
- [52]. DeShazer D, Brett PJ, Woods DE. The type II O-antigenic polysaccharide moiety of *Burkholderia pseudomallei* lipopolysaccharide is required for serum resistance and virulence. *Mol Microbiol*. 1998; **30**:1081-1100.
- [53]. Reckseidler SL, DeShazer D, Sokol PA, et al. Detection of bacterial virulence genes by subtractive hybridization: identification of capsular polysaccharide of *Burkholderia pseudomallei* as a major virulence determinant. *Infect Immun*. 2001; **69**:34-44.
- [54]. Woods DE. The use of animal infection models to study the pathogenesis of melioidosis and glanders. *Trends Microbiol*. 2002; **11**:483-484.
- [55]. DeShazer D, Waag DM, Fritz DL, et al. Identification of a *Burkholderia mallei* polysaccharide gene cluster by subtractive hybridization and demonstration that the encoded capsule is an essential virulence determinant. *Microb Pathog*. 2001; **30**:253-269.
- [56]. Winstanley C, Hart CA. Presence of type III secretion genes in *Burkholderia pseudomallei* correlates with Ara<sup>-</sup> phenotypes. *J Clin Microbiol*. 2000; **38**:883-885.
- [57]. Stevens MP, Wood MW, Taylor LA, et al. An Inv/Mxi-Spa-like type III protein secretion system in *Burkholderia pseudomallei* modulates intracellular behaviour of the pathogen. *Mol Microbiol*. 2002; **46**:649-659.
- [58]. Wiersinga WJ, van der Poll T, White NJ, et al. Melioidosis: Insights into the pathogenicity of *Burkholderia pseudomallei*. *Nat Rev Microbiol*. 2006; **4**:272-282.

- [59]. Stevens MP, Stevens JM, Jeng RL, *et al.* Identification of a bacterial factor required for actin-based motility of *Burkholderia pseudomallei*. *Mol Microbiol.* 2005;**56**:40-53.
- [60]. Haussler S, Rohde M, Steinmetz I. Highly resistant *Burkholderia pseudomallei* small colony variants isolated in vitro and in experimental melioidosis. *Med Microbiol Immunol (Berl)*. 1999;**188**:91-97.
- [61]. Nuntayanuwat S, Dharakul T, Chaowagul W, *et al.* Polymorphism in the promoter region of tumor necrosis factor- $\alpha$  gene is associated with severe melioidosis. *Hum Immunol.* 1999;**60**:979-983.
- [62]. Santanirand P, Harley VS, Dance DA, *et al.* Obligatory role of gamma interferon for host survival in a murine model of infection with *Burkholderia pseudomallei*. *Infect Immun.* 1999;**67**:3593-3600.
- [63]. Wiersinga WJ, Wieland CW, Dessing MC, *et al.* Toll-like receptor 2 impairs host defense in gram-negative sepsis caused by *Burkholderia pseudomallei* (melioidosis). *PLoS Med.* 2007;**4**:e248.
- [64]. Wiersinga WJ, Dessing MC, Kager PA, *et al.* High-throughput mRNA profiling characterizes the expression of inflammatory molecules in sepsis caused by *Burkholderia pseudomallei*. *Infect Immun.* 2007;**75**:3074-3079.
- [65]. Leelarasamee A, Bovornkitti S. Melioidosis: Review and update. *Rev Infect Dis.* 1989;**11**:413-425.
- [66]. Currie BJ, Fisher DA, Howard DM, *et al.* Endemic melioidosis in tropical northern Australia: A 10-year prospective study and review of the literature. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2000;**31**:981-986.
- [67]. Suputtamongkol Y, Chaowagul W, Chetchotisakd P, *et al.* Risk factors for melioidosis and bacteremic melioidosis. *Clin Infect Dis.* 1999;**29**:408-413.
- [68]. Lumbiganon P, Viengnondha S. Clinical manifestations of melioidosis in children. *Pediatr Infect Dis J.* 1995;**14**:136-140.
- [69]. Edmond K, Bauert P, Currie B. Paediatric melioidosis in the Northern Territory of Australia: An expanding clinical spectrum. *J Paediatr Child Health.* 2001;**37**:337-341.
- [70]. Easton A, Haque A, Chu K, *et al.* A critical role for neutrophils in resistance to experimental infection with *Burkholderia pseudomallei*. *J Infect Dis.* 2007;**195**:99-107.
- [71]. Tarlow MJ, Lloyd J. Melioidosis and chronic granulomatous disease. *Proc R Soc Med.* 1971;**64**:19-20.
- [72]. Holland DJ, Wesley A, Drinkovic D, *et al.* Cystic fibrosis and *Burkholderia pseudomallei*: An emerging problem? *Clin Infect Dis.* 2002;**35**:e138-140.
- [73]. Gibney KB, Cheng AC, Currie BJ. Cutaneous melioidosis in the tropical top end of Australia: a prospective study and review of the literature. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2008;**47**:603-609.
- [74]. Dance DA, Davis TM, Wattanagoon Y, *et al.* Acute suppurative parotitis caused by *Pseudomonas pseudomallei* in children. *J Infect Dis.* 1989;**159**:654-660.
- [75]. Currie BJ, Fisher DA, Howard DM, *et al.* Neurological melioidosis. *Acta Trop.* 2000;**74**:145-151.
- [76]. Koszyca B, Currie BJ, Blumbergs PC. The neuropathology of melioidosis: two cases and a review of the literature. *Clin Neuropathol.* 2004;**23**:195-203.
- [77]. Chadwick DR, Ang B, Sitoh YY, *et al.* Cerebral melioidosis in Singapore: A review of five cases. *Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg.* 2002;**96**:72-76.
- [78]. Ngaay V, Lmeshev Y, Sadllowski I, *et al.* Cutaneous melioidosis in a man who was taken as prisoner of war by the Japanese during World War II. *Clin Microbiol.* 2005;**43**:970-72.
- [79]. Lowe P, Engler C, Norton R. Comparison of automated and nonautomated systems for identification of *Burkholderia pseudomallei*. *J Clin Microbiol.* 2002;**40**:4625-4627.
- [80]. Sirisinha S, Anuntagool N, Dharakul T, *et al.* Recent developments in laboratory diagnosis of melioidosis. *Acta Trop.* 2000;**74**:235-245.