

12. Whatmore, A.M. (2009) Current understanding of the genetic diversity of *Brucella*, an expanding genus of zoonotic pathogens. *Infect. Genet. Evol.* **9**, 1168–1184. doi:10.1016/j.meegid.2009.07.001
13. Whatmore, A.M. *et al.* (2007) Characterisation of the genetic diversity of *Brucella* by multilocus sequencing. *BMC Microbiol.* **7**, 34. doi:10.1186/1471-2180-7-34
14. Gardner, S.N. *et al.* (2015) kSNP3.0: SNP detection and phylogenetic analysis of genomes without genome alignment or reference genome. *Bioinformatics* **31**, 2877–2878. doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btv271
15. Al Dahouk, S. *et al.* (2017) *Brucella* spp. of amphibians comprise genomically diverse motile strains competent for replication in macrophages and survival in mammalian hosts. *Sci. Rep.* **7**, 44420. doi:10.1038/srep44420
16. Tiller, R.V. *et al.* (2010) Identification of an unusual *Brucella* strain (BO2) from a lung biopsy in a 52 year-old patient with chronic destructive pneumonia. *BMC Microbiol.* **10**, 23. doi:10.1186/1471-2180-10-23
17. Eisenberg, T. *et al.* (2017) Isolation of a novel 'atypical' *Brucella* strain from a bluespotted ribbontail ray (*Taeniura lymma*). *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* **110**, 221–234. doi:10.1007/s10482-016-0792-4
18. Tiller, R.V. *et al.* (2010) Characterization of novel *Brucella* strains originating from wild native rodent species in North Queensland, Australia. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **76**, 5837–5845. doi:10.1128/AEM.00620-10
19. Eisenberg, T. *et al.* (2012) Isolation of potentially novel *Brucella* spp. from frogs. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **78**, 3753–3755. doi:10.1128/AEM.07509-11
20. Fischer, D. *et al.* (2012) Abscesses associated with a *Brucella inopinata*-like bacterium in a big-eyed tree frog (*Leptopelis vermiculatus*). *J. Zoo Wildl. Med.* **43**, 625–628. doi:10.1638/2011-0005R2.1
21. Kimura, M. *et al.* (2017) Isolation of *Brucella inopinata*-like bacteria from White's and Denny's tree frogs. *Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis.* **17**, 297–302. doi:10.1089/vbz.2016.2027
22. Soler-Lloréns, P.F. *et al.* (2016) A *Brucella* spp. isolate from a pac-man frog (*Ceratophrys ornata*) reveals characteristics departing from classical *Brucellae*. *Front. Cell. Infect. Microbiol.* **6**, 116. doi:10.3389/fcimb.2016.00116
23. Jaý, M. *et al.* (2018) Phenotypic and molecular characterization of *Brucella microti*-like bacteria from a domestic marsh frog (*Pelophylax ridibundus*). *Front. Vet. Sci.* **5**, 283. doi:10.3389/fvets.2018.00283
24. (2018) Brucellosis (*Brucella abortus*, *B. melitensis* and *B. suis*) (infection with *B. abortus*, *B. melitensis* and *B. suis*), in OIE.
25. Alton, G.G. and Jones, L.M. (1967) Laboratory techniques in brucellosis. *Monogr. Ser. World Health Organ.* **55**, 1–92.
26. Mesureur, J. *et al.* (2018) A MALDI-TOF MS database with broad genus coverage for species-level identification of *Brucella*. *PLoS Negl. Trop. Dis.* **12**, e0006874. doi:10.1371/journal.pntd.0006874
27. Velasco, J. *et al.* (1998) Evaluation of the relatedness of *Brucella* spp. and *Ocbrobacterium anthropi* and description of *Ocbrobacterium intermedium* sp. nov., a new species with a closer relationship to *Brucella* spp. *Int. J. Syst. Bacteriol.* **48**, 759–768. doi:10.1099/00207713-48-3-759
28. Zygmunt, M.S. *et al.* (2012) Lipopolysaccharide heterogeneity in the atypical group of novel emerging *Brucella* species. *Clin. Vaccine Immunol.* **19**, 1370–1373. doi:10.1128/CVI.00300-12
29. Scholz, H.C. *et al.* (2016) The change of a medically important genus: worldwide occurrence of genetically diverse novel *Brucella* species in exotic frogs. *PLoS One* **11**, e0168872. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0168872

Biographies

Dr Anthony Keyburn is Senior Scientist at the AAHL. His research interests are on brucellosis and veterinary tuberculosis pathogenesis and diagnostic and vaccine development.

Dr Nicky Buller is a Senior Microbiologist at DPIRD. Her interests include identification of aquatic and terrestrial animal bacteria, and is the author of *Bacteria and Fungi from Fish and other Aquatic Animals: a Practical Identification Manual*. CABI, UK, 2014.

Glanders: re-emergence of an ancient zoonosis



Patricia Ellis

Equine Health Advisor
Asian Racing Federation
Tel: 0419 371 123
Email: pmevet@bigpond.net.au

Glanders, although known to be endemic in certain regions/ countries of the Old and New Worlds for centuries, had been largely overlooked as a threat to equine and human health until the disease re-emerged in the Middle East in 2004. The exponential growth in international horse movements,

both legal and illegal, mainly for performance purposes, has enhanced the risk of global spread of glanders in the Middle East and elsewhere. Ever since the First World War, the glanders bacillus has been recognised as a potential biological warfare agent.

The organism

Glanders is an OIE (World Organisation for Animal Health) listed notifiable disease caused by *Burkholderia mallei*, a Gram-negative, non-motile and non-spore-forming bacterium. Previously known as *Pseudomonas mallei*, it is genetically closely related to the agent of melioidosis, *Burkholderia pseudomallei*. It is an obligate pathogen of domestic equids. Glanders is one of the oldest recorded diseases of horses dating back to Aristotle (350 BC), and long recognised as a very important zoonotic disease of humans.

The incubation period of glanders varies from a few days to many months according to the route and level of exposure and

intrinsic host factors¹. For the purposes of the OIE Terrestrial Animal Health Code, the infective period of *B. mallei* in equids is lifelong and incubation period for glanders is up to 6 months².

The disease

The signs of glanders are relatively non-specific. Three clinical forms are described (nasal, pulmonary and cutaneous forms) but more than one form of the disease may occur in the same animal concurrently. Fever, mucopurulent nasal discharge, coughing, difficulty breathing, and enlarged sub-mandibular lymph nodes are characteristic of the nasal and pulmonary forms of the disease (hence glanders). The cutaneous form of glanders or farcy is also associated with the development of subcutaneous nodules along the course of the lymphatics of the face, eyes, costal region, legs or ventral abdomen. Diseases that can be confused with glanders include strangles (*Streptococcus equi equi*), a common disease of horses, melioidosis (*B. pseudomallei*), epizootic lymphangitis (*Histoplasma capsulatum* var *farciminosum*), ulcerative lymphangitis (*Corynebacterium pseudotuberculosis*) and sporotrichosis (*Sporotrichum schenckii*)^{1,3,4}.

Acute disease occurs mainly in donkeys; glanders in horses can be acute, but more often chronic or latent^{1,3}. Humans are susceptible and if untreated, infection in man is frequently fatal⁵. Small ruminants and dromedary camels kept in close contact with infected horses can contract the disease⁶, as can carnivores by eating infected or contaminated meat^{1,3}.

Diagnosis

Glanders presents diagnostic challenges and diagnosis cannot be based on clinical signs alone. Isolation of *B. mallei* from lesions and exudates is the 'gold' standard; difficulties arise however when infections are sub-clinical or latent. Other tests resorted to can include the Mallein test (preferably the intradermo-palpebral test). This is a hypersensitivity skin test which does not distinguish infection with *B. mallei* from *B. pseudomallei*^{3,7,8}.

The complement fixation test (CFT), the OIE recommended serological test for international trade⁹, is complex to perform, difficult to standardise and can result in anti-complementary reactions with some sera. Its sensitivity and specificity can vary depending on the antigen and methodology used^{7,8}. Newer more sensitive and specific diagnostic tests e.g. the polymerase chain reaction test, competitive enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (C-ELISA) and the Western immunoblot test have been developed to overcome the limitations of traditional diagnostic tests. However, none of these tests have yet been validated by the OIE for use in international trade^{7,10}.

Transmission

Glanders is usually introduced to a free area by an asymptomatic carrier animal^{7,8}. Spread can occur by direct or indirect contact with an infected animal. The disease is frequently contracted by the ingestion of food or water from communal troughs contaminated by nasal discharges or pus from skin lesions. Spread by inhalation can also occur. The cutaneous form of glanders is spread by contaminated saddlery, harness or grooming equipment. Latent infection can be reactivated by stress, for example, travel, poor husbandry or over-crowding^{1,3,4}.

Disease in humans

Naturally occurring disease occurs infrequently in humans and usually results from occupational exposure involving close and prolonged contact with an infected equid(s). People most at risk include veterinarians, grooms and abattoir workers⁵. It is now generally accepted that glanders caused the death in 1793 of Charles Vial de St Bel, inaugural Professor of the recently established London Veterinary College, although the zoonotic potential of glanders was not actually recognised until the beginning of the 19th century¹¹. Deaths in laboratory workers have also been reported, including European scientists studying glanders after the initial isolation of the aetiologic agent in 1882¹¹, and military research microbiologists in the USA^{11,12}.

B. mallei was used as a biological warfare agent against animals in Europe, Russia and the USA during the First World War. In the USA, cultures were grown by a German agent in a basement laboratory in Washington, DC. The microbes were suspended in liquid in test tubes, and dockworkers recruited by the Germans went among mules and horses assembled for shipment to the Allied forces in Europe and jabbed animals with needles that had been dipped into the microbial cultures¹³.

Glanders is classified as a Category B biothreat agent by the Centres for Disease Control and Prevention in the USA¹⁴ and all potentially infected or contaminated material must be handled in a laboratory with appropriate biosafety and biosecurity controls⁹.

Geographic distribution and re-emergence

Glanders was once widespread globally primarily due to the movement of horses for war, transportation and agriculture. Throughout history, when horse-mounted troops invaded new territories, glanders almost invariably accompanied them^{8,11}. Mandatory national test and slaughter control programs in the early to mid-20th century eradicated the disease from many countries, including the USA, Canada and Western Europe. Since then, these countries have

maintained their glanders-free status by strict import policies and border controls^{1,7,8}.

Glanders still persists in parts of Eastern Europe, the Middle East, Asia, Africa, the Indian subcontinent, and Brazil in South America^{1,3}. Over the past 15 years glanders has been reported with increasing frequency from the Middle East (United Arab Emirates, 2004; Iran, 2007; Kuwait, 2009 and 2019; Bahrain, 2010; Lebanon, 2011) and is considered a re-emerging disease in that region^{1,15,16}. Cases have been reported from Kuwait as recently as July 2019¹⁷ and most recently in Turkey in late 2019. Movement of horses from Syria appears to have played a prominent role in the disease's re-emergence^{16,18,19}.

Glanders has also made an unwelcome reappearance in Western Europe. A 2009 report described a horse imported into Germany from Brazil in 2006 with certification of no known exposure to the disease and of negative CFT status. It became ill after arrival and the animal was subsequently diagnosed as having glanders^{15,20}. In 2015, another case, and this time of latent or occult glanders, was reported in a German horse where the source of infection was not identified²¹.

Confirmation of a case of glanders has a substantial economic impact in non-endemic areas. There is no effective long-term treatment or any vaccine against the disease. Horses eventually die. A test and slaughter program must be introduced if a country wishes to regain its free status². Diseased animals and animals that test positive must be killed, severe restrictions on horse movement imposed within the country and the international trade in equids and their products suspended for an extended period.

What factors are contributing to the renaissance of this ancient disease?

- Foremost is the exponential growth in international movement of horses for equestrian sports or racing purposes, particularly legal and illegal movements between Middle Eastern countries^{8,15,16}.
- Inadequate regulation, biosecurity and supervision of international horse movements including failure of countries to harmonise their national regulations for importation with OIE disease specific recommendations¹⁵.
- Regional conflicts can disrupt national government control programs⁷.
- *B. mallei* can evade the host's immune response and result in latent infections and the potential for the introduction of infection into glanders-free countries⁸.
- Absence of an OIE validated diagnostic serological test for glanders. The current OIE approved CF test for international trade can give rise to false positive and false negative results. Unreliable diagnostic tests compromise the efficacy of disease control programs¹.
- Lack of awareness of the clinical signs of glanders may result in an incorrect or delayed diagnosis and failure to detect or report an outbreak. Reduced commercial use of horses has led to

diminished veterinary awareness of glanders, its clinical signs, epidemiology and diagnostic methods^{7,8}.

- Disease investigations carried out by private veterinarians have hampered government authorities and prevented timely and appropriate action¹⁶.
- Failure to report the disease – economic and cultural circumstances may hinder the culling of asymptomatically infected animals; fear of restrictions and the absence of adequate compensation may also deter official reporting^{1,4,7,19}.

An Australian perspective

Glanders has never gained a foothold in Australia. Australia was remote from Europe (and its major wars and disturbances) and had no land borders. It was not an attractive target for European invaders until the British came by sea to establish the first penal colony in 1788 accompanied by a few horses sourced from South Africa²². Luckily these and other horses imported in the early wild colonial days did not introduce glanders. Freedom from significant equine diseases such as glanders provided an important trade advantage for the export of Australian horses to the Indian market as army remounts²³.

Nevertheless, in November 1891, swift and efficient action by New South Wales (NSW) quarantine authorities prevented disaster. Glanders was detected by a government veterinarian in circus horses imported from the USA. Fortunately, they were still held in quarantine. Their only Australian contacts were horses recently recruited to the circus. The two imported clinical cases and their Australian contacts were destroyed. The imported horses were then transferred to Shark Island in Port Jackson where four more animals developed the disease. The remaining circus horses were shipped back to San Francisco in February 1892. Their export occurred despite considerable opposition from certain NSW veterinary practitioners who thought the rest of the American circus horses could be safely admitted to Australia because the diseased animals had been killed. Unlike the recent experience in the Middle East¹⁶, the strong stand taken by the government authorities prevailed²⁴.

Subsequently, Australia has maintained strict border controls and maintained its glanders free status. An import risk analysis covering *inter alia* the biosecurity risk posed by glanders in imported horses was conducted in 2010 and reviewed in 2013^{25,26}. Australia only imports horses directly from countries in which glanders does not occur. To be eligible for import, horses must have been resident for at least 6 months prior to shipment or since birth in an approved country free of glanders.

In the unlikely event that glanders did ever manage to penetrate our borders again, Australia is well prepared for its eradication with a response plan and a government/industry disease control cost sharing formula agreed in advance of any outbreak²⁷.

Future research

To improve global control of glanders while facilitating future international horse movements, the International Horse Sports Confederation and the OIE have supported projects to identify and validate improved diagnostic tests^{7,10}.

More sensitive tests will allow more accurate certification of the disease freedom of individual animals and reduce the risk of introduction of glanders to new areas by the international movement of infected carriers. More specific tests will also reduce false positive results that lead to unnecessary and expensive obstacles to trade^{7,10}.

Conflicts of interest

The author declares no conflicts of interest.

Acknowledgements

This research did not receive any specific funding.

References

- Khan, I. *et al.* (2013) Glanders in animals: a review on epidemiology, clinical presentation, diagnosis and countermeasures. *Transbound. Emerg. Dis.* **60**, 204–221. doi:10.1111/j.1865-1682.2012.01342.x
- OIE (2019) Chapter 12.10 Infection with *Burkholderia* (Glanders). In: *OIE Terrestrial Animal Health Code* 28th edn. https://www.oie.int/index.php?id=169&L=0&htmfile=chapitre_glanders.htm (accessed 3 December 2019).
- Spickler, A.R. (2018) Glanders. <http://www.cfsph.iastate.edu/Factsheets/pdfs/glanders.pdf> (accessed 30 November 2019).
- Wernery, U. (2009) Glanders. In *Infectious Diseases of the Horse* (Mair, T.S. and Hutchinson, R.E., eds). pp 253–260. Equine Veterinary Journal Ltd.
- Van Zandt, K.E. *et al.* (2013) Glanders: an overview of infections in humans. *Orphanet J. Rare Dis.* **8**, 131. doi:10.1186/1750-1172-8-131
- Wernery, U. *et al.* (2011) Natural *Burkholderia mallei* infection in dromedary, Bahrain. *Emerg. Infect. Dis.* **17**, 1277–1279. doi:10.3201/eid1707.110222
- Elschner, M.C. *et al.* (2017) The resurrection of glanders in a new epidemiological scenario: a beneficiary of 'global change'. *Curr. Clin. Micro. Rpt* **4**, 54–60. doi:10.1007/s40588-017-0058-6
- Kettle, A.N. and Wernery, U. (2016) Glanders and the risk of its introduction through the international movement of horses *Equine Vet. J.* **48**, 654–658. doi:10.1111/evj.12599
- OIE (2018) Glanders and melioidosis. Chapter 3.5.11 In: *OIE Manual of Diagnostic Tests and Vaccines for Terrestrial Animals*, 8th edn. https://www.oie.int/fileadmin/Home/eng/Health_standards/tahm/3.05.11_GLANDERS.pdf (accessed 3 December 2019).
- Elschner, M.C. *et al.* (2019) Evaluation of the comparative accuracy of the complement fixation test, Western blot and five enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays for serodiagnosis of glanders. *PLoS One* **14**, e0214963. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0214963
- Wilkinson, L. (1981) Glanders: Medicine and veterinary medicine in common pursuit of a contagious disease. *Med. Hist.* **25**, 363–384. doi:10.1017/S0025727300034876
- Srinivasan, A. *et al.* (2001) Glanders in a military research microbiologist. *N. Engl. J. Med.* **345**, 256–258. doi:10.1056/NEJM200107263450404
- Wheelis, M. (1998) First shots fired in biological warfare. *Nature* **395**, 213. doi:10.1038/26089
- Rotz, L.D. *et al.* (2002) Public health assessment of potential biological terrorism agents. *Emerg. Infect. Dis.* **8**, 225–230. doi:10.3201/eid0802.010164
- Dominguez, M. *et al.* (2016) Equine disease events resulting from international horse movements: Systematic review and lessons learned. *Equine Vet. J.* **48**, 641–653. doi:10.1111/evj.12523
- OIE (2010) Press release: Glanders poses a serious health risk to both animals and humans in the Middle-East. <https://www.oie.int/en/for-the-media/press-releases/detail/article/glanders-poses-a-serious-health-risk-to-both-animals-and-humans-in-the-middle-east/> (accessed 30 November 2019).
- OIE (2019) Glanders in Kuwait. Immediate notification report. Report 31260. https://www.oie.int/wahis_2/public/wahid.php/Reviewreport/Review?reportid=31260 (accessed 2 December 2019).
- Wernery, U. (2011) Glanders. *Equine Disease Quarterly* **20**, 3.
- Scholz, H.C. *et al.* (2014) Genotyping of *Burkholderia mallei* from an outbreak of glanders in Bahrain suggests multiple introduction events. *PLoS Negl. Trop. Dis.* **8**, e3195. doi:10.1371/journal.pntd.0003195
- Elschner, M.C. *et al.* (2009) *Burkholderia mallei* infection in a horse imported from Brazil *Equine Vet. Educ.* **21**, 147–150. doi:10.2746/095777309X401071
- Elschner, M.C. *et al.* (2016) Re-appearance of glanders in Western Europe: clinical, laboratory and pathological findings in a German horse. *OIE Bulletin.* **2016**, 76–79. doi:10.20506/bull.2016.1.2502
- Ellis, P.M. (1998) Pegasus joins the jet age *Aust. Vet. J.* **76**, 476–477. doi:10.1111/j.1751-0813.1998.tb10186.x
- Yarwood, A.T. (1989) *Walers: Australian Horses Abroad*. p. 43. Melbourne University Press.
- Seddon, H.D. (1953) Glanders. In *Diseases of Domestic Animals in Australia. Part 5. Volume 1. Bacterial Diseases*. Department of Health, Commonwealth of Australia.
- Biosecurity Australia (2010) Import risk analysis report for horses from approved countries. Biosecurity Australia, Canberra.
- Department of Agriculture, Fisheries and Forestry (2013) Import risk analysis report for horses from approved countries: final policy review. Department of Agriculture, Fisheries and Forestry, Canberra.
- Animal Health Australia (2018) Glanders: In *Response Policy Briefs (Version 3.6) Australian Veterinary Emergency Plan (AUSVETPLAN), Edition 3*. pp. 36–37. National Biosecurity Committee, Canberra, ACT.

Biography

Dr Patricia Ellis is a veterinarian with global horse industry regulatory and clinical experience. Her interests include safe international movement of horses, import risk analysis, biosecurity and emergency animal disease management.

Access to Microbiology Australia

Online early articles: Articles appear on the *Microbiology Australia* website (<http://microbiology.publish.csiro.au/>) when authors have approved the pdf of their article.

Completed issues: Register at <http://microbiology.publish.csiro.au/> to receive notification that an issue is complete. You will get an email showing the titles and abstracts of the completed issue. You will have one click access to any article or the whole issue.

Print issue: ASM members are welcome to receive the print version of *Microbiology Australia* without charge. To receive the print version you need to notify the ASM National Office (<http://www.theasm.org.au/>).