

## Osteoarticular Tuberculosis-Brief Review of Clinical Morphological and Therapeutic Profiles

I. PROCOPIE<sup>1</sup>, ELENA LEOCADIA POPESCU<sup>1</sup>, VERONICA HUPLEA<sup>2</sup>,  
R.M. PLEȘEA<sup>3</sup>, Ș.M. GHELASE<sup>4</sup>, G.A. STOICA<sup>5</sup>, R.F. MUREȘAN<sup>6</sup>,  
V. ONȚIĂ<sup>6</sup>, I.E. PLEȘEA<sup>7</sup>, D.N. ANUȘCA<sup>8</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Doctoral School, University of Medicine and Pharmacy of Craiova, Romania

<sup>2</sup>Faculty of Medicine, University of Oradea, Romania

<sup>3</sup>Department of Cellular and Molecular Biology,  
University of Medicine and Pharmacy of Craiova, Romania

<sup>4</sup>Department of Public Health and Health Management,  
University of Medicine and Pharmacy of Craiova, Romania

<sup>5</sup>Department of Pediatric Surgery, University of Medicine and Pharmacy of Craiova, Romania

<sup>6</sup>Department of Orthopaedics and Traumatology, Emergency County Hospital of Craiova, Romania

<sup>7</sup>Department of Pathology, "Carol Davila" University of Medicine and Pharmacy of Bucharest, Romania  
"Victor Babeș" National Institute of Research and Development in Pathology and Biomedical Sciences

<sup>8</sup>Department of Orthopaedics and Traumatology, Emergency County Hospital of Craiova, Romania  
University of Medicine and Pharmacy of Craiova, Romania

**ABSTRACT:** Osteoarticular tuberculosis (OATB) is a rare form of tuberculosis (TB) whose incidence rose significantly nowadays especially in the underdeveloped countries. The main risk factors predisposing to this new challenge for the medical system are the Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) epidemic, the migration from TB endemic areas and the development of drug and multidrug-resistant strains of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (Mt). The disease affects both genders and any age group although the distribution depending on gender is controversial and that depending on age has a bimodal pattern. In most cases the initial focus is elsewhere in the organism and the most frequent pathway of dissemination is lympho-haematogenous. The clinical picture includes local symptoms as pain, tenderness and limitation of motion, with some particularities depending on the segment of the osteoarticular system involved, sometimes accompanying systemic symptoms specific for TB and other specific clinical signs as cold abscesses and sinuses. The radiographic features are not specific, CT demonstrates abnormalities earlier than plain radiography and MRI is superior to plain radiographs in showing the extent of extraskeletal involvement. Both CT and MRI can be used in patient follow-up to evaluate responses to therapy. TB has been reported in all bones of the body, the various sites including the spine (most often involved) and extraspinal sites (arthritis, osteomyelitis and tenosynovitis and bursitis). Two basic types of disease patterns could be present: the granular type (most often in adults) and the caseous exudative type (most often in children) one of which being predominant. The algorithm of diagnosis includes several steps of which detection of Mt is the gold standard. The actual treatment is primarily medical, consisting of antituberculosis chemotherapy (ATT), surgical interventions being warranted only for selected cases. It is essential that clinicians know and refresh their knowledge about manifestations of OATB.

**KEYWORDS:** *extrapulmonary tuberculosis, osteoarticular system, bones, joints*

### Introduction

Osteoarticular tuberculosis (OATB) defines any inflammatory process determined by *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (Mt) localized in bones, joints or both structures. Tuberculosis (TB) still represents one of the major causes of skeletal infection in many parts of the world [1,2].

TB, and its bone and joint involvement too, is produced by members of a group of closely related bacterial species named the *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* complex (MTBC) all of them being obligate pathogens. Moreover, due to new molecular diagnostic markers

identified using the complete genome sequencing of MTBC by polymerase chain reaction (PCR)-based typing methods, the Mt spinal involvement, better known also as Pott's spine, is one of the oldest diseases known to mankind [3-5].

There are several terms used in the literature to name the disease: TB of the osteoarticular system; bone and joints TB; skeletal TB; musculoskeletal TB. The last two terms are used by some authors [6] to name only the extra spinal TB lesions.

Most authors consider that bone and joint tuberculous disease is always secondary to a primary or reactivated focus of infection [7].

However, there are authors [8] that are reporting isolated patients with osteoarticular involvement, apparently healthy, without personal or family history of TB, cases that could be considered as primary skeletal involvement.

OATB is also a part who does not represent a large proportion of extra pulmonary involvement (EPTB) of Mt [9,10]. Many studies placed the bone and joint TB lesions on the third position in the frequency hierarchy of extra pulmonary sites of TB [11,12]. However, there are studies on restricted geographic areas [13] in which skeletal TB lesions were found as the most common site of extra pulmonary involvement.

The incidence of OATB among the extra pulmonary sites varied both in time and depending on the socioeconomic status of different geographic areas. Thus, whereas in the past skeletal involvement accounted for only 10-18% of all extra pulmonary cases, incidence that remained almost the same (10-15%) in the last years in developed countries, nowadays

OATB incidence raised up to 20% and even to 35% of all extra pulmonary cases mainly in underdeveloped countries [9,11,13-26].

### Incidence. Predisposing factors

OATB is a rare form of TB. The limits of the incidence variation range among all TB cases are 1-6% [9,11,14,19-23,25-32].

This variation is observed both in time and in different geographical and social economic areas and is the consequence of a wide range of factors that predispose to or raise the risk of TB appearance in general and of osteoarticular involvement in particular.

These factors can be grouped depending on their area of intervention in three categories: general factors, factors encountered mostly in developed countries/areas and factors encountered mostly in underdeveloped countries/areas. They are summarized in Table 1 [1,2,8,18,24,33-38].

**Table 1. The predisposing/risk factors of TB and OATB**

Predisposing/Risk Factor	Type of Risk Factor	Prevalence*		
		A	B	C
<b>Growing number of people with suppression of the immune system</b>	- <i>Immunosuppressive diseases</i>	Yes		
	- <i>Immunosuppressive therapies</i>	Yes		
	- <i>HIV positive patients/AIDS</i>	Yes		
<b>Development of drug and multidrug-resistant strains of Mt</b>		Yes		
<b>Increasing exposure of healthcare workers</b>		Yes		
<b>Individual factors</b>	- <i>Women</i>	Yes		
	- <i>Repeated pregnancies and Lactation</i>	Yes		
	- <i>Blacks</i>	Yes		
	- <i>Alcohol abuse</i>	Yes		
<b>Individual Diseases</b>	- <i>Drug abuse</i>	Yes		
	- <i>Diabetes mellitus</i>	Yes		
	- <i>Chronic renal failure</i>	Yes		
	- <i>Chronic obstructive disease</i>	Yes		
	- <i>Liver cirrhosis</i>	Yes		
<b>Aging population</b>	- <i>Lymphoproliferative disorders</i>	Yes		
	- <i>Debilitated with other diseases</i>	Yes		
<b>Declining public health interest in TB control</b>			Yes	
<b>Immigration from countries/areas with high TB prevalence/TB endemic</b>			Yes	
<b>Socioeconomic factors</b>	- <i>Poverty</i>			Yes
	- <i>Homelessness</i>			Yes
	- <i>Malnutrition mainly of protein</i>			Yes
	- <i>Poor sanitation</i>			Yes
	- <i>Overcrowded housing</i>			Yes

HIV = human immunodeficiency virus; AIDS = acquired immunodeficiency syndrome;  
 \* A = General factor; B = Specific mostly for Developed countries/areas; C = Specific mostly for Underdeveloped countries/areas

The appearance and permanent increase of HIV epidemic influenced significantly the incidence and the prevalence of all forms of TB irrespective of geographical area or

socioeconomic status. Moreover, this influence was reciprocal. Thus, on one hand, in the USA for instance, 10% of EPTB cases occur in HIV-infected patients and in some regions of

Africa, up to one-third of adults with osteoarticular infections are HIV positive. On the other hand, TB is often the first manifestation of HIV infection [2,24,33,36,37,39,40].

The development of drug and multidrug-resistant strains of Mt is another major factor that influenced the alarming resurgence of TB in general and OATB in particular in both developed and developing countries.

Apart from the two above mentioned factors, the distinctive risk factors for developed countries are the growing number of elderly segment of population and the migration from TB endemic areas whereas for the developing countries the socioeconomic factors are on the first place. However, an interesting aspect should be pointed out for the developed countries from Europe especially, namely a surprising declining public health interest in TB control [2].

### Gender and Age

Data in the literature concerning the relationship of TB osteoarticular involvement and the patients' gender are controversial: whereas some authors are reporting a predominance of bone and joint lesions in women [10,11,19,41] others found the balance tilted in favor of men [6,12,42,43]. However, the spinal involvement, which is by far the most commonly affected site of the musculoskeletal system is encountered with equal frequency in both genders [34].

Bone and joint TB is encountered in any age group [1,35]. However, the dispersion in relation

to age groups of OATB has a bimodal pattern: whereas in developed countries/areas the bone and joint lesions are encountered in the elderly (people older than 55 years), in the under developed countries/areas the lesions are more common in children and younger adults (around 30 years of age) [5,19,40,44-48]. Though, it should be stressed that skeletal TB in children started to be significant in the developed world [6].

### Pathogenesis

The initial TB lesion is either primary or reactivated dormant visceral focus of infection. This could be a pulmonary lesion or an infection of the genitourinary (kidney) digestive (liver) or lymph nodes (mediastinal, mesenteric or cervical groups) systems [7,34,48,49-57].

The pathways through which TB spreads from the initial outbreak to osteoarticular structures are, in order of frequency, the following [7,15,43,45,54,58-63]:

- Blood vessels pathway-the most frequently encountered. It is paucibacillary.
- Lymphatic pathway-less commonly encountered.
- Direct spread from a contiguous lesion.
- Rare paths:
  - Direct inoculation of the Mt into the site
  - Bone and joints accidental or operative trauma

The routes and the frequency they are used in the dissemination of the TB infection to the musculoskeletal system structures is summarized in Table 2.

**Table 2. Pathways of Osteoarticular involvement by Mt**

Site	Pathway			
	Hematogenous	Lymphatic	Local spread	Direct inoculation
Spinal	Yes	Less commonly	Rare	
Joints (Arthritis)	Yes		Yes	
Bone (Osteomyelitis)	Yes	Less commonly	Yes	
Tenosynovitis/Bursitis	Yes		Yes	
Myositis		Extremely rare	Yes	Yes

In the spine involvement, spread occurs either via the arterial or the venous route as a result of back flow. The most common route of spread to the vertebral body is the Batson's prevertebral venous plexus (a valve-less system that allows free flow of blood in both directions depending upon the pressure generated by the intraabdominal and intrathoracic cavities. The hematogenous route is represented by a rich vascular plexus consisting of an arterial arcade

placed in the subchondral region of each vertebra that derives from anterior and posterior spinal arteries which facilitates Mt spread in the dense vasculature of cancellous bone of the vertebral bodies paradiskal regions [5,34].

The vascular pathway for the joints is represented by the subsynovial vessels [32].

Apart from the hematogenous pathway, the bones and joints could contaminate each other through bidirectional local spread. Usually the

process starts in the growth plates of bones which have a better blood supply, and then spreads transphyseally into the joint spaces either from epiphyseal (more common in adults) or metaphyseal (more common in children) lesions [32,64,65].

The synovial and muscular involvement is most often the result of local spread from adjacent lymph nodes, bone, or articular TB lesions, the hematogenous or lymphatic spread without a previous bone involvement being extremely rare [32]. However, myositis could be caused by the use of a contaminated syringe or medical device [61]. Primary bursitis due to hematogenous spread is rare [66].

**Clinical picture**

TB infection of the bones and joints has some general features: it is chronic, slowly progressive and destructive, often resulting in walking difficulties and disability [10]. In joint involvement, the clinical picture is more flagrant and obvious in adults than in children [18].

The clinical manifestations are divided in two main groups: constitutional symptoms (accompanying systemic symptoms) and local symptoms.

**Accompanying systemic symptoms**

Accompanying systemic symptoms are present in approximately 20-30% of cases of OATB. The classical constitutional features indicating the presence of an active TB process are: malaise, low-grade fevers, evening rise in temperature, night sweats, weight loss, anorexia, generalized body aches, and fatigue [5,59,67,68].

**Local symptoms**

The most common local symptoms of OATB regardless the involved tissue/tissues are: pain, tenderness and limitation of motion [67]. However, there are some particularities of the local clinical manifestations depending on the segment of the osteoarticular system involved. These individual features are summarized in Table 3 [52,68].

**Table 3. The Side specific clinical complains**

Clinical Manifestation	Osteoarticular System Segment					Muscles
	Bones	Joints-Synovial and Articular Involvement (Stages*)				
		I	II	III	IV	
<b>Insidious Onset</b>	Yes	Yes				Yes
<b>Local Tenderness/Pain</b>	Yes	Yes				Yes**
<b>Local Warmth</b>	Yes	Yes				
<b>Swelling/Effusion</b>	Yes	Yes	Yes			Yes
<b>Stiffness</b>						Yes
<b>Limitation of motion</b>		25%	25-50%	75%	75% Subluxation/Dislocation	
<b>Lesion associated (bones/joints)</b>	Yes	No	Erosion/Lysis (one/more) Diminution of Joint space	Subpericondral cyst Loss of Joint space	Joint Distruction	Ankylosis Yes

Legend: \*= Tuli Classification [52] Stage I-Synovitis; Stage II-Early arthritis; Stages III and IV-Advanced Arthritis; Stage V-Ankylosis; \*\*="Night cries" that wake the patient from sleep

**Other specific clinical signs**

Other specific clinical signs include: **lymphadenopathy**, commonly encountered, formation of **cold abscesses** and **sinus drainage**, the latter being present in one third of cases [5,67,68].

Cold abscesses are characterized by lack of pain and other signs of inflammation and sinuses could be sometimes the only presentation, being often misdiagnosed as pyogenic infection or diabetic foot [5,69].

Clinical expression of a tuberculous sinus include: soft tissue fluctuation, bluish

discoloration at the periphery, undermined edges, sero-sanguinous discharge, matted draining lymph nodes, and fixation to bone [67].

Sinuses are common and abscess formation may occur in osteomyelitis. On the other hand, sinus formation is rare in tenosynovitis [32,68]. Particular features of spine TB

Pain is the most frequent symptom, its intensity varying from constant mild dull aching to severe disabling. Spasm of the surrounding muscles could be severe.

Progression of kyphosis is most common in children with multiple levels of involvement in the thoracic spine and the deformity of the spine

is more severe with how the diagnosis is delayed in the younger age group [5,18,34,53,54,68,70,71].

Findings in patients with tuberculous spinal disease are summarized in Table 4.

**Table 4. The clinical complains in Spine TB**

Clinical Manifestation	Spine Involvement				
	General	Cervical	Thoracic	Lumbar	Sacral
			Thoracolumbar		
Involvement	50% of all OATB	Uncommon	Most frequently	Less frequently	Uncommon
<b>Pain typically localized to the site of involvement</b>	<i>Yes</i>	Yes	Most frequently		back pain
<b>Local tenderness</b>	<i>Yes</i>	Yes	back pain	back pain	back pain
<b>Weakness</b>	<i>Yes</i>	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
<b>Truncal rigidity/stiffness due to spasm of the surrounding muscles</b>	<i>Yes</i>	Yes Torticollis	Yes	Yes	Yes
<b>Painful restricted joint movements in all directions</b>	<i>Yes</i>	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
<b>Kyphotic deformity</b>	<i>Gibbus</i>	Gibbus	Gibbus	Sometimes	
<b>Neurologic signs/deficit</b>	<i>Common</i>	Numbness of the upper and lower extremities Progresses to Tetraplegia	Lower-extremity symptoms Progress to paraplegia	Uncommon Numbness	Numbness
<b>Cold abscess</b>	<i>Yes</i>	Hoarseness, Stridor, Dysphagia	Yes	Yes	
<b>Lymphadenopathy</b>					<i>Common</i>
<b>Sinuses</b>					<i>Common</i>

Neurologic deterioration may occur in both the active and healed stages of the disease, the reported incidence of neurological deficits varying from 23 to 76%. The neurological symptoms are the consequence of the compression of the spinal cord or its roots, the level of spinal cord involvement determining the extent of neurological manifestations. For instance, patients with cauda equina compression due to lumbar and sacral vertebral damage could present cauda-equina syndrome, characterized by decreased or absent reflexes among the affected muscle groups (in contrast to the hyperreflexia seen with spinal cord compression) along with bladder involvement [5,54,72].

The causes of neurologic compromise during the active phase are inflammatory edema, extradural compression from posterior extension of an abscess (pus, caseous material, granulation tissue, sequestrae), or an internal gibbus following collapse or malalignment of the involved vertebrae [73]. Rarely, the neurologic compromise could be expressed as a “spinal tumor syndrome” without bony changes as a result of tubercular granulomas presence in extradural, intradural, or intramedullary locations [67].

Neurologic compromise in “healed disease” (meaning more than 2 years after disease onset) could be determined by: spinal stenosis, direct compression from an internal gibbus deformity, and constriction by peridural fibrosis [73].

Abscess formation is common. Abscesses may migrate posteriorly into the spinal canal, anterior underneath the anterior longitudinal ligament, as well as into neighboring visceral structures. In cervical region, large abscesses can determine hoarseness, stridor, and dysphagia. Abscesses appearing below the diaphragm, typically migrate along the psoas sheath and exit via sinuses in the groin or buttock region [53,54,68].

In most cases the spinal TB lesion is insidious in onset and slow in progression and only rarely there is an acute manifestation [5,53]

Clinical and radiographic presentation of skeletal TB in patients from endemic areas differs from that of individuals from non-endemic areas. Thus, in endemic areas patients present a higher incidence of multifocal skeletal involvement, periosteal reaction, bone sclerosis, and severe bone destruction. In turn, in non-endemic areas patients are older, with a debilitating underlying disease and usually present solitary, osteolytic lesions that involve

the axial skeleton, thoracolumbar vertebral bodies, and hips [74].

**Imaging investigation**

**Plain Radiographs**

There are no specific radiographic features that are pathognomonic of TB of bones or joints and, in the advanced stages, mimics other osteoarticular lesions.

The most common radiographic figures are summarized in Table 5 [18,32,52,54,75-77].

Tuberculous osteomyelitis may mimic a variety of conditions on plain radiographs. The most common presentation of osseous involvement is a solitary lytic lesion, usually with a sclerotic rim. Sometimes, lesions may cross the physis and new bone formation may be observed subperiosteally [52,54,68,78,79,80].

**Table 5. Main radiographic findings in OATB**

Radiological Fetures	Osteoarticular System Segment					
	Bones	Joints-Synovial and Articular Involvement (Stages*)				
		I	II	III	IV	V
Soft tissue Swelling	Yes	Yes	Yes			
Osteopenia/Osteoporosis	Yes	Yes	Yes			
Periosteal reaction	Minimal					
Osteolysis	Yes					
Subchondral erosions			Yes			
Diminution in joint space			Yes	Yes		
Cysts				Yes		
Significant loss of joint space				Yes		
Joint destruction					Yes	
Sclerosis	Less					
Sequestration	Uncommon					
New bone formation	Yes					
Calcifications		In the distended bursae				
Ankylosis					Yes	

Legend: \*= Tuli Classification [52] Stage I-Synovitis; Stage II-Early arthritis; Stages III and IV-Advanced Arthritis; Stage V-Ankylosis

The classical triad of radiologic characteristics of TB tenosynovitis and arthritis, also known as the "Phemister triad", is: juxta-articular osteoporosis, peripheral osseous erosion and gradual narrowing of the intra-articular space though this can be mimicked in rheumatoid arthritis and fungal disease [81,82,83].

Radiographic changes in the joint are absent or non-specific in the early stages of disease.

Subchondral erosions involve both sides of the joint and cross the epiphysis in more than one-third of affected children. Cysts in bones appear adjacent to a joint (Fig. 1a) [18,84,85].

Depending on the site of the vertebral lesion and the frequency of appearance, the spine lesions were systematized by Garg et al [5] as shown in Table 6.

**Table 6. Main radiographic findings in Spine TB (modified after Garg et al [5])**

Type of involvement	Radiological appearances	
	Vertebra	Intervertebral disk/space
Typical	<b>Paradiskal</b>	Adjacent margins of two consecutive vertebrae involved.
	<b>Central</b>	Central portion of a single vertebra involved
	<b>Anterior marginal</b>	Destructive lesion in one of the anterior margins of the body of a vertebra
Atypical	<b>Skipped lesions</b>	Circumferentially involvement of two noncontiguous vertebral levels without destruction of the adjacent vertebral bodies
	<b>Posterior</b>	Posterior arch involved without involvement of vertebral body
	<b>Synovial</b>	Synovial membrane of atlanto-axial and atlanto-occipital joints

For the spine, radiographic features suggestive of TB are [18,54,68,86]:

- Multiple levels of involvement (more than two levels)
- Multicentric involvement
- Involvement of the vertebral body with rarefaction of the vertebral end plates

- Relative preservation of the intervertebral disc/disc space but with increasing loss of disc height
- Variable degrees of osseous destruction with late fusion or bone collapse
- New-bone formation
- Subligamentous spread

- Larger sized paravertebral soft-tissue abscesses, often with calcifications and rim enhancement around

Chest radiographs may show evidence of pulmonary disease in half of patients with OATB, but active pulmonary disease is present in less than 20% of patients (6.9-29% of cases) [19,40,87,88].

### Computed tomography (CT)

CT demonstrates abnormalities earlier than plain radiography and is best because allows the evaluation of the osseous or joint involvement degree [5,54].

Thus, CT is useful for the detection, visualization and evaluation of:

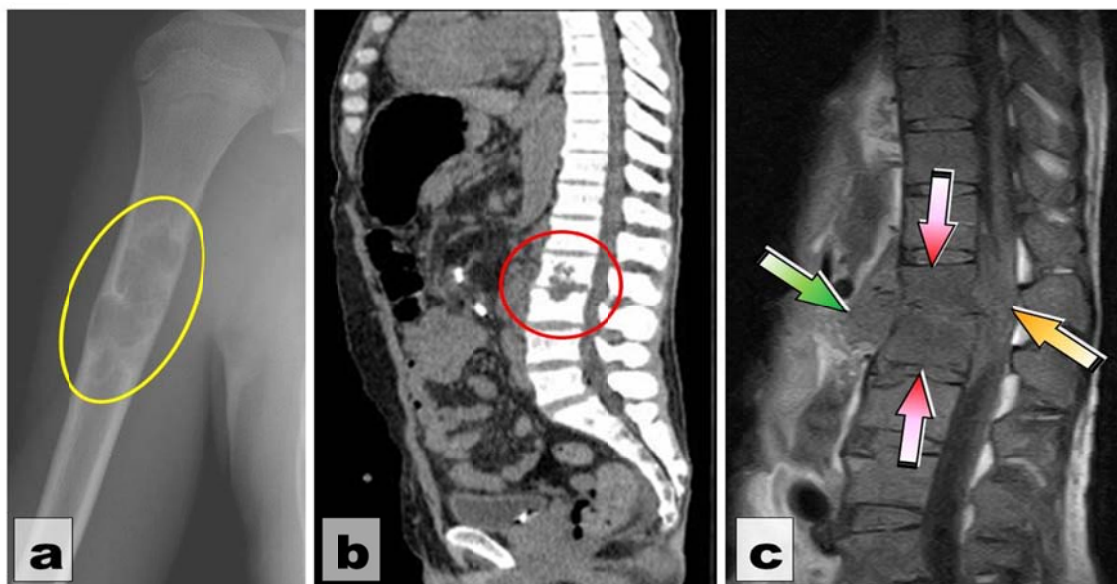
- The degree of bone destruction
- Sequestrum formation (although rare)
- The presence or absence of periosteal reaction

- Epidural lesions containing bone fragments
- Extension in the surrounding soft tissue, calcifications, sclerosis
- Soft tissue abscesses
- Calcifications within the cold abscess [5,32,85, 89-92].

For the spine, CT is particularly of the greatest value because visualizes:

- The disko-vertebral lesions and paravertebral abscesses (Fig. 1b)
- The delineation of encroachment of the spinal canal by posterior extension of inflammatory tissue, bone or disk material [93,94].

Finally, CT is particularly useful for guiding fine needle aspiration or biopsy to provide material for histopathological examination, PCR-based assay for mycobacterial DNA, and culture [32].



**Fig. 1 Imaging investigations.**

- (a) Arm radiography: Solitary multilocular lytic lesion with a sclerotic rim (yellow oval);  
 (b) Profile Spine CT-STIR1: L2-L3 "mirror" caries with intervertebral disk evanescence (red circle);  
 (c) MRI of the lumbar spine T1-w sagittal plane: Erosive changes involving the inferior aspect of L1 and superior part of L2 with collapse of the intervertebral space (red arrows) and paravertebral abscess involving the spinal canal (yellow arrow) and the prevertebral soft tissues (green arrow)

### Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI)

Magnetic resonance imaging (with gadolinium enhancement) is the modality of choice for early detection of joint TB even its early findings are nonspecific and may demonstrate intraosseous involvement earlier than the other imaging modalities in osteomyelitis. MRI is also more sensitive than x-ray and more specific than CT in the diagnosis of spinal TB because it can differentiate between granulation tissue and abscess, identify soft-

tissue masses and assess the degree of bone destruction. However, bone anatomy and abnormalities, including calcifications and sequestra, are better seen on CT scanning. [5,32,54,95,96]. For joint lesions, MRI can detect: joint effusion, marrow edema, and sometimes abnormalities within the articular cartilage and subchondral bone during the stage of arthritis [97,98].

In tenosynovitis, the investigation helps to delineate the precise extent of soft tissue



involvement and the associated lesions of neighboring bones and joints [32].

In bursitis, the examination reveals: bursal uniform distension, multiple small abscesses in the bursa or the presence of caseous necrosis and fibrotic material within the fluid-filled bursa (the latter on T2W images) [99,100].

For spinal TB, MRI offers more comprehensive information about:

- The extent of involvement/degree of destruction of the vertebral bodies and intervertebral disk (vertebral collapse, and spinal deformities)
- The location and size of paravertebral and/or epidural cold abscesses (Fig. 1c)
- Rapid determination of the mechanism for neurologic involvement
- The presence of spinal cord pathology (impingement or compression, intradural /intramedullary disease, myelomalacia) [5,54,85,89-92].

**Ultrasound examination (USG)**

USG is the primary investigation to confirm the diagnosis of tenosynovitis and to reveal the degree and extent of tendon and tendon sheath involvement. It is also helpful, as we already mentioned above, for guiding fine needle aspiration or biopsy to provide material for other types of biological examination, especially in myositis and bursitis [32,101].

**Morphology**

**Location**

Tuberculosis has been reported in all bones of the body [102,103].

The various sites of Osteoarticular system include [16,18,48,66,68,78,83,94,104]:

- **Spine**-most often involved-50%
- **Extraspinal sites**-represent together the rest of 50%, being individually less common:
  - **Joints** (TB arthropathy)-60% of all extraspinal sites
  - **Bones** (TB osteomyelitis including the unusual TB dactylitis-metacarpal or phalanx)-38% of all extraspinal sites
  - **Tendon sheath and Bursae** (TB tenosynovitis and bursitis)-2% or less of all extraspinal sites

**In the spine**, the most affected segment is the thoracic region with less than 50%, followed by the lumbar region and cervical region, gathering together these three regions 80% of all cases. In the rest, the lesions involve more than one region, the combinations being (in the decreasing order of frequency) the

thoraco-lumbar region, the cervico-dorsal region and the lumbo-sacral region (Fig. 2) [34].

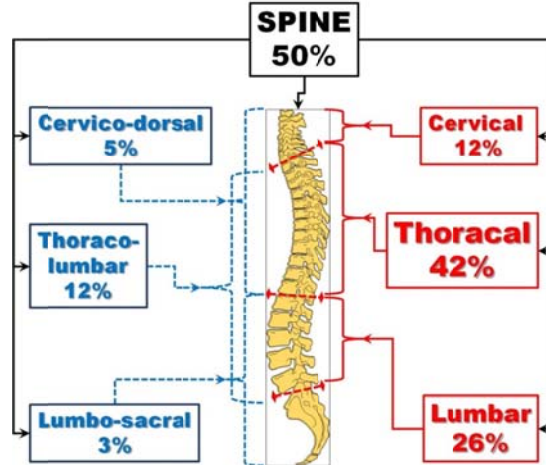


Fig. 2. Spine Involvement

**Arthritis.** TB arthritis occurs most frequently at weight bearing joints such as the hip (1 red) and knee (2 red) which account for 15% to 30% and 10% to 20% of non-spinal cases of skeletal TB, respectively. They are followed by, in order of frequency, the sacroiliac (3 red), shoulder (4 red), elbow (5 red), and ankle joints (6 red) (Fig. 3 red marks) [16,18,20,32,48,105,106].

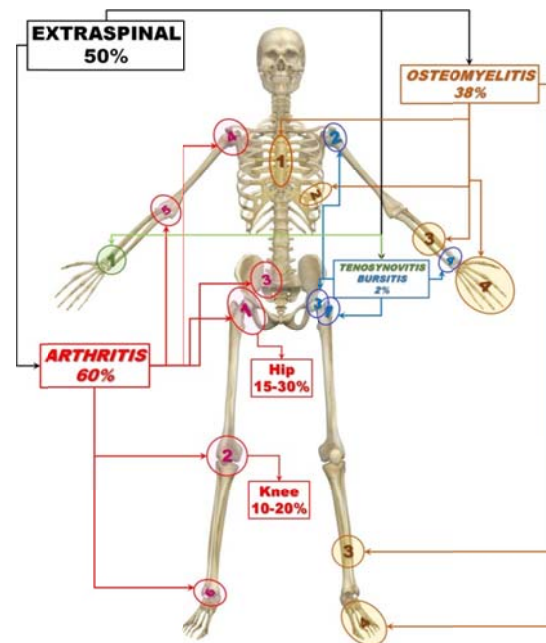


Fig. 3. Extraspinal sites

**Osteomyelitis.** Extraspinal bone lesions caused by TB represent according to some authors less than 5% of cases of OATB [54,68].

TB lesions could be found in manubrium sterni, sternum isolated (1 brown), spinous processes, odontoid process, spine of the



scapula, skull, pelvis, long bones of the extremities (3 brown) and the small bones of the hands and feet (metacarpus, metatarsus, and phalanges-4 brown)). The bones of the hands are more affected than the bones of the feet. The ribs are also frequently involved (2 brown) (Fig. 3 brown marks) [32,34,107,108].

**Tenosynovitis and Bursitis.** The most frequently involved tendon sheaths are the flexor tendon sheaths of the dominant hand and the most affected bursae are the trochanteric, subacromial, subgluteal, and radioulnar wrist bursae (Fig. 3 green marks) [24,54,66,109]

**Myositis.** The cases of TB pyomyositis are rare. Any muscle may be involved but the reported cases were mentioning the muscles of the upper and lower extremities as well as of the chest and abdominal wall [110-113].

TB arthropathy is characteristically monoarticular. However, oligoarticular or polyarticular joint disease could be encountered in around 10% of patients (5-15%) only occasionally with small joint involvement, and more often in those who are immunosuppressed [7,8,20,65,114].

The bone lesions are also usually solitary but multifocal bone involvement may be rarely seen (accounting for 10% of patients with skeletal TB and 1%-3% of all TB cases), with the lesions at different stages of development due either to hematogenous spread, with bacilli being seeded at different times or to a patient with suppressed immune response [30,32,57,115]

During the time, unusual forms of skeletal TB were reported such as:

- Multiple cystic TB (one or more large, oval areas of rarefaction, children) [116,117,118].
- Disseminated skeletal TB (multiple osseous and/or articular sites, in compromised host) [100,119,120,121].
- Closed multiple diaphysitis (swelling in forearms and legs in compromised children) [100].
- Spina ventosa, a spindle shaped expansion with multiple layers of subperiosteal new bone, occurring in the short tubular bones of the hands and feet [68].

### Morphological changes

The conflict between Mt and the hosting tissue (bone, synovial structures, cartilage, muscle, soft tissue) is evolving in several steps:

- Ingestion of Mt by mononuclear cells at the site of deposition
- Transformation of mononuclear cells into epithelioid cells and their coalescence into giant Langhans cells

- Tubercle formation by ring-shaped arrangement of lymphocytes around a group of epithelioid cells

- Caseation development within the center of the tubercle.

- Cold abscess formation by intensification of the host inflammatory response, resulting in exudation and liquefaction. The cold abscess is composed of serum, leukocytes, caseation, bone debris, and bacilli [68].

There could be several end results if this conflict such as:

- Resolution with minimal or no morbidity
- Healed disease with residual deformity
- Walled off lesions with calcification of caseous tissue
- A low-grade chronic granular lesion
- Local or miliary spread of the disease that may result in death [52].

Two basic types of disease patterns could be present:

- The **granular type** (Fig. 4 a and b)-occurs most often in adults. Is characterized by:
  - More insidious and less destructive than the caseous exudative type
  - Abscess formation less common.
- The **caseous exudative type** (Fig. 4 c and d)-occurs most often in children. Is characterized by:
  - Bone destruction
  - Local swelling
  - Abscess formation
  - Sinus formation
  - Constitutional symptoms.

Because host-parasite interactions in TB are dynamic, with mixed patterns and transitions, one of the two patterns may predominate either in osseous or synovial involvement [62,122,123].

**Arthritis.** Articular disease often starts as a synovitis, with joint effusion, followed by formation of granulation tissue that typically accompanies synovial proliferation (pannus). Then the pannus begins to erode and destroy the cartilage, determines further demineralization and marginal erosions of the periarticular bones and eventually results in destruction of the articular surfaces of the joint [105,124-127]. If the disease has been inactive for a long time, new bone formation could be expected [128].

**Osteomyelitis.** Extraspinal TB osteomyelitis presents as a solitary cold abscess (lytic lesion with a sclerotic rim), with swelling and only mild erythema and pain, and may be misdiagnosed as a tumor [24,68].

In the long bones, the lesions begin and develop most often in the epiphysis, more precisely in the metaphysis and causes tubercle formation in the marrow, with secondary infection of the trabeculae. In rare cases, the diaphysis may also be affected. The lesion may

also penetrate the physis or extend into an adjacent joint [32,59,68].

The active phase of tuberculous osteomyelitis is characterized by bone destruction without sequestra and with minimal new bone formation [129].

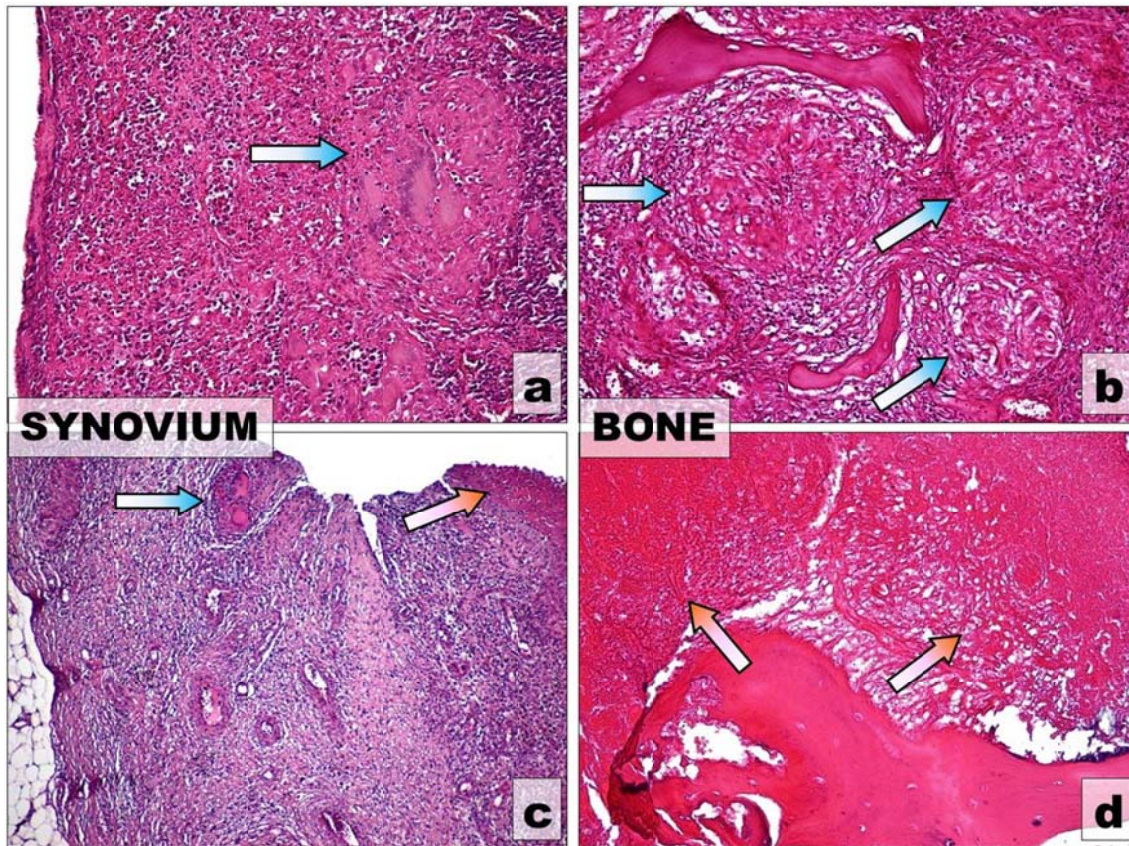


Fig. 4. Main histological patterns of OATB. UP: Granular type-Giant Langhans cell granulomas (blue arrows) placed (a) in the synovium (b) in the cancellous bone, H-E stain, x10; DOWN Caseous necrosis (red arrows) (a) in the synovium x4 (b) in the compact bone, x10, H-E stain

**Tenosynovitis.** In general, the morphologic changes are nonspecific tendon and synovial thickening predominate, with relatively little synovial sheath effusion [32]. Jaovisidha et al [66] described three stages of TB tenosynovitis:

- The *hygromatous* stage-characterized by the presence of fluid inside the tendon sheath without associated sheath thickening.

- The *serofibrinous* stage-characterized by thickening of the flexor tendons and synovium, with multiple tiny nodules within the synovial fluid, corresponding to the rice bodies previously reported in the literature.

- The *fungoid* stage-characterized by a soft tissue mass involving the tendon and tendon sheath.

**Bursitis.** The bursa inflammation is expressing like a cold abscess or draining fistula

that does not respond to conventional antibiotic therapy [24].

Bursa could be uniformly distended by caseous necrosis and fibrotic material, with calcifications in the wall or multiple small abscesses in the bursa could be seen [99,100].

**Myositis.** Abscess formation is the rule in all cases of pyomyositis. Associated cellulitis and osteoarticular involvement may also be present [110, 130].

**Spine.** Typical bone lesion for spine TB is destruction of the anterior region of vertebral bodies with subsequent collapse of the spine [105,126].

Two distinct patterns of vertebral TB are described [57]:

- The first is *Spondylitis without disc involvement*, which is exceedingly more

common. Multilevel vertebral body involvement could occur in this form as skip lesions.

- The second pattern is *Destruction of two or more contiguous vertebrae associated with late-onset disc infection*, which results in intervertebral space narrowing due to disc herniation into the collapsed vertebral body; this is regarded as an atypical radiologic feature of vertebral TB.

In children, TB of the spine generally involves the osseous tissue of the vertebrae and not the cartilaginous growth plate [18].

## Diagnosis

The algorithm of diagnosis in OATB includes several steps [8,26,53,131-133].

1. **Epidemiological background**-Pay attention to the patient's country of origin and his history of prior known or possible TB contact.

2. **Clinical examination**-a high index of clinical suspicion given the indolent nature of tuberculous bone and joint disease and especially:

- In patients with no evidence of active chest disease (more than half of cases)

- In patients with HIV infection and relatively high CD4 counts and no other signs or symptoms of TB

3. **Paraclinical examination**

- Tuberculin Skin Test (TST)

- Enzyme-Linked Immunosorbent Assays (ELISA)

- Interferon Gamma Release Assays (IGRAs)

4. **Imagistic examination**

- Radiology

- Computed Tomography (CT) which can be helpful for:

- The detection of osseous or joint involvement/destruction, the presence or absence of periosteal reaction and soft tissue masses or calcifications, sclerosis, and soft tissue abscesses.

- Guidance of percutaneous biopsy or abscess drainage [32, 134].

- Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI)

- Useful in showing the extent of the disease, particularly in spinal lesions [135].

- The preferred technique to demonstrate early bone marrow changes in tuberculous osteomyelitis and arthritis, joint effusion, and cartilage destruction [32].

- Superior to plain radiographs in showing the extent of extraskelatal involvement, particularly in the case of compromise of the vertebral canal and the epidural space [74].

- Both CT and MRI can be used in patient follow-up to evaluate responses to therapy [135].

- USG-particularly useful for guiding fine needle aspiration or biopsy [32].

5. **Detection of Mt** by:

- Ziehl-Neelsen and immunohistochemistry stains on smears and histological slides

- Culture of Mt from bone/synovial/soft tissue/draining sinuses, synovial fluid although, in some cases, cultures may reveal colonizing bacteria or fungi that are erroneously assumed to be the causative pathogen.

- Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR)

The material used for detection could be [132,133]:

- Synovial fluid or purulent infected material obtained by aspiration or fine needle aspiration biopsy

- Bone/synovial/soft tissue obtained by biopsy

The traditional criteria for diagnosing TB are:

- Chest radiology

- Detection of acid-fast bacilli by Ziehl-Neelsen stain on microscopy and culture [4,136-138].

Microscopy is the most rapid diagnostic tool but it is very insensitive, yielding only 10-30% of culture-positive samples [4].

Biopsy may be required to clear up diagnostic confusion, being the most definitive test for tuberculous arthritis. It must be performed in cases in which microbiologic tests give negative results, the demonstration of caseating granulomas on histological examination being of significant value [49,53,139].

Culture is the gold standard for the diagnosis of osseous TB is culture of mycobacteria from bone tissue or synovial fluid but may take four weeks to obtain conclusive results even with enhanced culture systems [4,53].

Newer methods of diagnosis, especially polymerase chain reaction (PCR) on obtained joint tissue biopsies, appears promising in the early diagnosis of tuberculous arthritis [140].

Drug susceptibility testing of isolates is essential. In this respect, the Xpert MTB/RIF assay is an automated nucleic acid amplification test that can simultaneously identify Mt and rifampin resistance; it has been shown to be fast and accurate in diagnosing musculoskeletal TB in children and adults [132,133,141].

## Tuberculosis of spine in childhood

A special mention about spine TB in children should be made because in this group of age the deformity is "dynamic in continuum" and could

lead either to correction or deterioration therefore needing active surveillance till the entire growth potential is completed [142].

The progression of the spine deformities implies three overlapping phases:

- **Phase I**-Active phase
- **Phase II**-Growth phase
- **Phase III**-Late phase

There is an increased collapse for each vertebral loss and may increase or decrease during the growth phase in children as opposed to the adults where the collapse is proportionate

to the extent of destruction and stops with consolidation of the lesion [142].

Rajasekaran (1999) [143] defined a "Spine at risk" concept, described by four radiological signs which offer reliable prediction of progression of the deformity and are of inestimable assistance for identifying "children at risk" for severe deformity. These are:

- Facet joint dislocation which triggers disaster in childhood lesion
- Retropulsion sign
- Lateral translation
- Toppling Over sign.

**Table 7. Main types of Spine TB progression through Phase II (modified after Rajasekaran-2013)**

Type	Subtype	Description
Type I	Type Ia	Progression of the deformity throughout the growth phase continuously after Phase I
	Type Ib	A spurt of progression after a delay period of 3–6 years Progression showed the highest increase in deformity although the increase of deformity occurs
Type II	Type IIa	Progression shows beneficial effects during growth phase with a decrease in the deformity after the healed stage.
	Type IIb	Immediately after Phase I Maximum decrease of the deformity After a delay period of 3–6 years
Type III		Progression with minimal destruction (No any major changes in the deformity during the active or the healed phases)

He identified also the risk factors for severe increase of deformity, namely:

- Patients less than 10 years of age at the onset of the disease
- An initial kyphosis angle of more than 30 degrees;
- Vertebral body loss of greater than 1.5
- Involvement of more than 3 vertebral bodies;
- Presence of "spine at risk" signs in radiographs;
- Global involvement of the vertebrae and
- Children who have partial or no fusion during adolescent growth spurt.

Based on these observations, five main types of progression were finally defined during the Growth phase (Table 7) [144].

### Differential diagnosis

The differential diagnosis of skeletal TB includes:

- Subacute or chronic infections due to pathogens or diseases such as (depending upon epidemiologic factors):
- Staphylococcus aureus osteomyelitis
- Brucellosis
- Melioidosis
- Actinomycosis
- Candidiasis
- Histoplasmosis
- Metastatic malignancy (especially multifocal bone involvement)

For spine TB, the following differential diagnosis should be considered:

- Degenerative disc and facet joint disease
- Vertebral body collapse due to osteopenia (due to a variety of causes such as osteoporosis and chronic corticosteroid therapy)
- Spondyloarthropathy, spondylitis
- Pyogenic spinal infection
- Brucellar spondylitis
- Sarcoidosis
- Malignancy-(metastases, multiple myeloma, lymphoma)

### Treatment

Before the advent of chemotherapy in 1940s, the only treatments available for TB were surgical interventions as well as a general improvement in an individual's immunity through empirical methods as rest, good nutrition, sunlight, fresh air and hygiene [106,128,142,145].

Nowadays, the treatment of OATB is primarily medical, consisting of antituberculosis chemotherapy (ATT). Surgical interventions are only an adjunct to appropriate ATT, being warranted only for selected cases [18]. Adequate nutritional support is however essential, as in all forms of TB [53].

The goals of treatment are:

- Infection containment and eradication
- Pain relief

- Preservation and Restoration of bone and joint function [146].

**Antimicrobial therapy**

The treatment is based on antituberculous therapy (ATT). The selection of drugs is generally the same as that for pulmonary TB (isoniazid, rifampin, pyrazinamide, and streptomycin or ethambutol). The drug regimen depends on whether or not the patient has HIV infection or drug-resistant TB [7,62,147].

Successful medical treatment of TB requires a minimum of three drugs to which the Mt is susceptible, and at least one of these drugs must be bactericidal [18]. The optimal duration of therapy for OATB treatment is uncertain however many authors recommend at least 9 to 12 months for bone and joint involvement, especially for patients on regimens that do not include rifampin and/or for patients with extensive or advanced disease, particularly if it is difficult to assess the response to therapy [147-151].

The duration of therapy has wide variations depending on the site of the oosteoarticular system involved, such as:

- 6 months in sacral TB,
- 12-18 months in various spinal sites,
- 12-18 months in TB of craniovertebral junction
- 14-18 months in sternoclavicular joint involvement
- 12-20 months in TB affecting the talus
- 12 months in TB of metacarpals and phalanges [71, 152-156].

Multi-drug-resistant TB should be suspected if osteoarticular disease activity shows no signs of improvement after 4-6 months of uninterrupted therapy [53].

ATT gives good results with low morbidity and mortality, approximately 90% to 95% of patients healing without sequelae if treated at an early stage [7,157]. However, even chemotherapy can effectively treat the disease at any stage, the ultimate functional result depends upon the degree of tissue damage at the start of the treatment [54].

**Auxiliary methods**

In arthritis, Splints may be used for a short time to relieve acute symptoms and for a long time in specific cases of TB of the joints to prevent deformities of the infected extremities [158, 159]. In spine TB, various types of spinal support in the form of collars, braces and corsets, may need to be used [53].

**Surgery**

**Extraspinal TB**

The role of surgery in treatment of extraspinal TB is still somewhat controversial, varying throughout different regions of the world both in terms of indications for surgery and the specific procedures recommended.

As a general rule, surgery is reserved for specific indications, most often to establish the diagnosis or to treat complications of the disease process. Thus, surgery is recommended for approximately 5% of uncomplicated cases, and 60% of those with neurologic deficits [68,160].

Tuli [52] proposed a pattern of the natural history of TB arthritis progresses through five consecutive steps defining for each stage the therapeutic strategy too. This treatment algorithm is summarized in Table 8. ATT is mandatory for any of the five stages, surgery being reserved only for the advanced stages.

**Table 8. The therapeutic algorithm for TB joint involvement proposed by Tuli [52]**

Arthritis Stage	ATT	Auxiliary Treatment	Surgical Treatment
Stage I (Synovitis)	YES	1) Rest	
		2) ROM	
		3) Splinting	
Stage II (early arthritis)	YES	1) Rest	1) Synovectomy
		2) ROM	
		3) Splinting	
Stage III (advanced arthritis)	YES		2) Osteotomy
			3) Arthrodesis
			4) Arthroplasty
Stage IV (advanced arthritis)	YES		2) Osteotomy
			3) Arthrodesis
			4) Arthroplasty
Stage V (Ankylosis)	YES		2) Osteotomy
			3) Arthrodesis
			4) Arthroplasty

Legend: ATT= Antituberculous treatment; ROM= Range of Motion exercises

The main indications for surgery are:

- Biopsy
- Patient unresponsive after 4 to 5 months of ATT
- Severe joint cartilage destruction
- Joint deformity
- Large abscesses
- Patients with neurological manifestations
- Patients where healing gave a painful joint ankylosis
- Multiple drug resistance [26,47].

The range of surgical procedures that could be carried out includes:

- Incision and drainage of abscesses
- Synovectomy
- Excisional arthroplasty for the hip or the elbow
- Arthrodesis for the ankle, the wrist, or the knee

- Joint replacement if the disease has remained inactive for more than 10 years [7,24,147,158,161].

**Spine TB**

In spinal TB too, the treatment is primarily medical, with anti TB drug regimens. The surgical treatment is reserved for only two main situations:

- patients with neurological complication not responding to medical treatment
- some children with TB of the spine [34,142].

The major aim of treatment is to prevent paraplegia. Besides this, decompression, stabilization, and deformity correction are the main specific goals of the surgical interventions [34, 54].

Indications for surgery have to be individualized and are synthesized in Table 9.

**Table 9. Indications of surgery in spinal tuberculosis**

Type of Patient	Indication	Type of Indication	
Without neurological complications	For biopsy, to establish a diagnosis in case of uncertainty (inability to obtain adequate material for culture by other means)	R "Middle path"	
	Failure to respond to ATT	Evidence of ongoing infection Progressive bone destruction	
	Failure to respond to conservative therapy		
	Prevention of severe kyphosis in young children with extensive dorsal lesions		
	Mechanical reasons	Destruction of two or more vertebrae	A "Middle path"
		Involvement of the Posterior elements/Circumferential disease	
		Spinal instability caused by destruction or collapse	
		Progression of spinal instability despite ATT	
		Deformity is likely	
		Kyphosis/deformity > 40° at presentation	
Large Abscess	Increasing in size despite medical treatment	A	
	Paraspinal/Paravertebral		
	Chest wall cold abscess		
With neurological complications	New, Worsening/Progressive and Severe/Advanced Neural complications/deficit	"Middle path"	
	Lack of improvement/recovery of Neural complications despite ATT		
	Persistent Pain/Spasm	A demonstrable mechanical block	R
	Nerve root compression	Instability because the lack of fusion	"Middle path"
	Neurological deficits in patients for whom prolonged bed rest may lead to other problems		R
	Paraplegia of rapid onset/severe paraplegia		
	Late-onset paraplegia		
	Painful paraplegia in elderly patients		
	Neural arch disease		
	Spinal tumor syndrome (epidural spinal tuberculoma without osseous involvement)		
<b>Recurrence</b>			
Legend: ATT = Antituberculous treatment; A=Absolute indication; R=Relative indication			

For acute situations, some authors defined absolute and relative indications that are mentioned in the table [5,18,54,162-171]. The specific indications of the "middle path", popularized by Tuli in India in the 70s are also

highlighted [148].The main strategies of approach in the surgical treatment of spinal TB are the following [54]:

- Chemotherapy alone (no capability for spinal surgery)



- “Middle path” (surgery for specific indications) [148]

- Routine decompression/debridement and bone grafting

Recommendations for surgical treatment are based upon:

- The location of involvement (anterior, posterior, circumferential)

- The risk or presence of kyphotic deformity

- The neurologic status

- The status of the disease (active or healed)

- The experience of the surgeon

- The resources available locally [54].

The operative approach of the spine could be anterior or posterior. The **anterior approach** is usually recommended and used and can allow:

- Abscesses evacuation

- Excision of all avascular material

- Safe anterior decompression of the spinal cord

The **posterior approach** is rarely indicated, ie in two circumstances:

- When posterior spinal elements are more involved than the anterior ones

- When both the anterior and the posterior elements are involved and posterior stabilization is needed before anterior decompression and arthrodesis is performed [172].

## Outcome

The results of prolonged ATT treatment completed when necessary with surgery gives, in most patients, encouraging results. The few cases of osteoarticular multidrug-resistant TB have a good outcome too with second-line anti-TB drugs combined with surgery [24,172].

## Conclusions

It is essential that clinicians know and update their knowledge on the manifestations of OATB so they can recognize and diagnose this curable disease before definitive surgery is practiced. The surgery should be limited to the diagnosis or treatment of life threatening complications.

## Acknowledgements

Illustrations of histological and imaging aspects belong to OATB cases hospitalized in Pediatric Surgery and Orthopaedics and Traumatology departments of the Emergency County Hospital of Craiova, Romania.

## References

1. Vallejo JG, Ong LT, Starke JR. Tuberculous osteomyelitis of the long bones in children. *Pediatr Infect Dis*; 1995; 14(6):542-546.

2. Raviglione M C, Snider D E, Kochi A. Global epidemiology of tuberculosis. Morbidity and mortality of a worldwide epidemic. *JAMA*; 1995; 273(3):220-226.
3. Taylor GM, Murphy E, Hopkins R, Rutland P, Chistov Y. First report of *Mycobacterium bovis* DNA in human remains from the Iron Age. *Microbiology*; 2007; 153(4):1243-1249.
4. Donoghue HD. Human tuberculosis e an ancient disease, as elucidated by ancient microbial biomolecules. *Microbes and Infection*; 2009; 11(14-15):1156-1162.
5. Garg RK and Somvanshi DS. Spinal tuberculosis: A review. *J Spinal Cord Med*; 2011; 34(5):440-454.
6. Hosalkar HS, Agrawal N, Reddy S, Sehgal K, Fox EJ, Hill RA. Skeletal tuberculosis in children in the Western world: 18 new cases with a review of the literature. *J Child Orthop*; 2009; 3(4):319-324.
7. Tuli SM. General principles of osteoarticular tuberculosis. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*; 2002; 398:11-19.
8. Vergara-Amador E, Galván-Villamarin F y Piña-Quintero M. Primary osteoarticular tuberculosis: the reappearance of a forgotten pathology. *Rev. salud pública*; 2007; 9(3):465-470.
9. Malaviya AN, Kotwal PP. Arthritis associated with tuberculosis. *Best Pract Res Clin Rheumatol*; 2003; 17(2):319-343.
10. Lesić AR, Pešut DP, Marković-Denić L, Maksimović J, Cobeljić G, Milošević I, Atkinson HD, Bumbaširević M. The challenge of osteoarticular tuberculosis in the twenty-first century: a 15-year population-based study. *Int J Tuberc Lung Dis*; 2010; 14(9):1181-1186.
11. Yoon HJ, Song YG, Park WI, Chol JP, Chanh KH, Kim JM. Clinical manifestations and diagnosis of extrapulmonary tuberculosis. *Yonsei Med J*; 2004; 45:453-461.
12. Wares F, R Balasubramanian, A Mohan, Sharma SK. Extrapulmonary Tuberculosis: Management & Control. In: Agarwal SP and Chauhan LS (Editors), *Tuberculosis Control in India*, Directorate General of Health Services/Ministry of Health and Family Welfare. Elsevier: India; 2005; 95-114.
13. Lin YS, Huang YC, Chang LY, Lin TY, Wong KS. Clinical characteristics of tuberculosis in children in the north of Taiwan. *J Microbiol Immunol Infect*; 2005; 38(1):41-46.
14. Petersdorf RG, Adams RD, Braunwald E, Isselbacher KJ, Martin JB, Wilson JD (eds) *Harrison's principles of internal medicine*, McGraw Hill, New York; 1983.
15. Muradali D, Gold WL, Vellend H, Becker E. Multifocal osteoarticular tuberculosis: report of four cases and review of its management. *Clin Infect Dis*; 1993; 17(2):204-209.
16. Grosskopf I, Ben David A, Charach G, Hochman I, Pitlik S. Bone and joint tuberculosis—a 10-year review. *Isr J Med Sci*; 1994; 30(4):278-283.
17. Mandell GL, Bennett JE, Dolin R. *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*. In: Mandell GL, Bennett JE, Dolin R, eds. *Principles and Practice of Infectious Diseases*, Philadelphia, Pa: Churchill Livingstone; 1995; 2231-2243.
18. Watts HG, Lifeso RM. Tuberculosis of bones and joints. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*; 1996; 78(2):288-298.

19. Jutte PC, Louenhout-Royackers JH, Borgdorf MW, Horn JR. Increase of bone and joint tuberculosis in the Netherlands. *J Bone Joint Surg*; 2004; 86(6):901–904.
20. Shah BA, Splain S. Multifocal osteoarticular tuberculosis. *Orthopedics*; 2005; 28(3): 329-332.
21. Sandher DS, Al-Jibury M, Paton RW and Ormerod LP: Bone and joint tuberculosis: Cases in Blackburn between 1988 and 2005. *J Bone Joint Surg Br*; 2007; 89(10):1379–1381.
22. Hong L, Wu JG, Ding JG, Wang XY, Zheng MH, Fu RQ, Li WB, Peng WX, He WF, Sun QF. Multifocal skeletal tuberculosis: Experience in diagnosis and treatment. *Med Mal Infect*; 2010; 40(1):6–11.
23. Ali R, Jalil A, Qureshi A. Extra spinal osteoarticular tuberculosis: a case series of 66 patients from a tertiary care hospital in Karachi. *J Pak Med Assoc*; 2012; 62(12):1344-1348
24. Pigrau-Serrallach C, and Rodríguez-Pardo D. Bone and joint tuberculosis. *Eur Spine J*; 2013; 22(Suppl 4):556–566.
25. Houston A and Macallan DC. Extrapulmonary tuberculosis. *Medicine*; 2014; 42(1):18–22.
26. Chen SC and Chen KT. Updated Diagnosis and Management of Osteoarticular Tuberculosis. *J Emerg Med Trauma Surg Care*; 2014; 1:002.
27. Garrido G, Gomez-Reino JJ, Fernandez-Dapica P, Palenque E, Prieto S. A Review of Peripheral Tuberculous Arthritis. *Sem Arthritis Reum*; 1988; 18(2): 142–149.
28. Al-Saleh S, Al-Arfaj A, Naddaf H, Haddad Q, Memish Z. Tuberculous arthritis: a review of 27 cases. *Ann Saudi Med*; 1998; 18:368–369
29. González-Gay MA, García-Porrúa C, Cereijo MJ, Rivas MJ, Ibanez D, Mayo J. The clinical spectrum of osteoarticular tuberculosis in non-human immunodeficiency virus patients in a defined area of northwestern Spain (1988–97). *Clin Exp Rheumatol*; 1999; 17(6):663–669.
30. Morris BS, Varma R, Garg A, Awasthi M, Maheshwari M. Multifocal musculoskeletal tuberculosis in children: appearances on computed tomography. *Skeletal Radiol*; 2002; 31(1):1–8.
31. Ruiz G, Rodrigues JG, Gierri ML, Gonzalez A. Osteoarticular tuberculosis in a general hospital during the last decade. *Clin Microbiol Infect*; 2003; 9(9):919-923.
32. Vanhoenacker FM, Sanghvi DA, and De Backer AI. Imaging features of extraaxial musculoskeletal tuberculosis. *Indian J Radiol Imaging*; 2009; 19(3):176–186
33. Lupatkin H, Brau N, Flomenbergh P, Simberkoff MS. Tuberculous abscesses in patients with AIDS. *Clin Infect Dis*; 1992; 14(5):1040-1044.
34. Sankaran B. Tuberculosis of Bones & Joints. *Ind J Tub*; 1993; 40:109-118.
35. Wilcox WD, Laufer S. Tuberculosis in adolescents. A case commentary. *Clin Pediat*; 1994; 33(5):258-262.
36. Jaber B, Gleckman R. Tuberculous pancreatic abscess as an initial AIDS-defining disorder in a patient infected with the human immunodeficiency virus: Case report and review. *Clin Infect Dis*; 1995; 20(4):890-894.
37. Moore SL, Rafii M. Imaging of musculoskeletal and spinal tuberculosis. *Radiol Clin North Am*; 2001; 39(2):329-342.
38. Yang Z, Kong Y, Wilson F, Foxman B, Fowler AH, Marrs CF, Cave MD, Bates JH. Identification of risk factors for extrapulmonary tuberculosis. *Clinic Infect Dis*; 2004; 38(2):199-205
39. Biviji A, Paiement G, Steinbach L. Musculoskeletal manifestations of human immunodeficiency virus infection. *J Am Acad Orthop Surg*; 2002; 10(5):312–320
40. Peto HM, Pratt RH, Harrington TA, Lobue PA, Armstrong LR. Epidemiology of extrapulmonary tuberculosis in the United States, 1993-2006. *Clin Infect Dis*; 2009; 49(9):1350–1357
41. Muangchan C, Nilganuwong S. The study of clinical manifestation of osteoarticular tuberculosis in Siriraj Hospital, Thailand. *J Med Assoc Thai*; 2009; 92 Suppl 2 :S101-S109.
42. Enache SD, Pleasea IE, Anusca D, Zaharia B, Pop OT. Osteoarticular tuberculosis-a ten years case review. *Rom J Morphol Embryol*; 2005; 46(1):67–72
43. Talbot JC, Bismil Q, Saralaya D, Newton DAG, Frizzel RM, and Shaw DL. Musculoskeletal tuberculosis in Bradford-a 6-year review. *Ann R Coll Surg Engl*; 2007; 89(4):405–409
44. Davies P, Humpries MJ, Byfield SP, Nunn AJ, Darbyshire JH, Citron KM, Fox W. Bone and Joint tuberculosis. A survey of notifications in England and Wales. *J Bone Joint Surg B*; 1984; 66(3):326–330
45. Kritski A, de Melo FAF. Tuberculosis in adults. In: Palomino JC, Leao SC, Ritacco V, (eds.), *Tuberculosis 2007. From basic science to patient care*, First Edition. [www.TuberculosisTextbook.com](http://www.TuberculosisTextbook.com); 2007
46. Gunal S, Yang Z, Agarwal M, Koroglu M, Arici ZK, Durmaz R. Demographic and microbial characteristics of extrapulmonary tuberculosis cases diagnosed in Malatya, Turkey, 2001–2007. *BMC Public Health*; 2011; 11:154–161
47. Alaya Z, Osman W, Naouar N, Ben Ayèche ML, Bouajina E. Osteoarticular Tuberculosis: Clinical and Therapeutic Feature. *MOJ Orthop Rheumatol*; 2016; 4(5):00149
48. Gogia KK, Gupta S. Osteoarticular Tuberculosis-A Study Associated with Socio Demographic Factors. *Ann Int Med Den Res*; 2016; 2(6):12-17
49. Rotrosen D. Infectious arthritis. In: Wilson JD, Braunwald E, Isselbacher KJ, et al, eds. *Harrison's Principles of Internal Medicine*, 12th ed. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill; 1991; 544-548.
50. Peh WC, Cheung KM. Progressive shoulder arthropathy. *Ann Rheum Dis*; 1995;54(3):168-173.
51. Boachie-Adjei O, Squillante RG. Tuberculosis of the spine. *Orthop Clin North Am*; 1996; 27(1):95–103
52. Tuli SM (ed.). Tuberculous osteomyelitis. In: *Tuberculosis of the Skeletal System*, 3rd edition. JayPee Brothers Medical Publishers Ltd, New Delhi, 2004; 174–183
53. Mousa HA-L, Bones and Joints Tuberculosis. *Bahrain Medical Bulletin*; 2007; 29(1):1-9
54. Shrestha OP, Sitoula P, Hosalkar HS, Banskota, AK, Spiegel DA. Bone and Joint Tuberculosis. *University of Pennsylvania Orthopaedic Journal*; 2010; 20:23-28
55. Schirmer P, Renault CA, Holodniy M. Is spinal tuberculosis contagious? *Int J Infect Dis*; 2010; 14(8):e659–666

56. Arathi N, Ahmad F, and Huda N. Osteoarticular Tuberculosis-A Three Years' Retrospective Study. *J Clin Diagn Res*; 2013; 7(10):2189–2192
57. Haghghatkhah H, Jafroodi Y, Taheri M S, Pourghorban R, and Dehkordy AS. Multifocal Skeletal Tuberculosis Mimicking Langerhans Cell Histiocytosis in a Child: a Case Report With a Long-Term Follow-Up. *Iran Red Crescent Med J*; 2015; 17(12):e19942
58. Heycock JB, Noble TC. Four cases of syringe transmitted tuberculosis. *Tubercle*; 1961; 42(1):25-27.
59. Wright T, Sundaram M, McDonald D. Radiologic case study: tuberculous osteomyelitis and arthritis. *Orthopedics*; 1996; 19(8):699-702
60. Abdelwahab IF, Kenan S, Hermann G, Klein MJ. Tuberculous gluteal abscess without bone involvement. *Skeletal Radiol*; 1998; 27(1):36-39.
61. Dhillon MS, Tuli SM. Osteoarticular tuberculosis of the foot and ankle. *Foot Ankle Int*; 2001; 22(8):679-686.
62. Sharma SK, Mohan A, Extrapulmonary tuberculosis. *Indian J Med Res*; 2004; 120(4):316-353
63. Pleşea E and Enache D. Morfopatologia Tuberculozei Extrapulmonare. Editura Medicală Universitară Craiova; 2008; 139
64. Iseman MD. A clinician's guide to tuberculosis. Philadelphia: Lippincott, Williams &Wilkins; 2000; 162-170
65. De Vuyst D, Vanhoenacker F, Gielen J, Bernaerts A, De Schepper AM. Imaging features of musculoskeletal tuberculosis. *Eur Radiol*; 2003; 13(8):1809-1819
66. Jaovisidha S1, Chen C, Ryu KN, Siriwongpairat P, Pekan P, Sartoris DJ, Resnick D. Tuberculous tenosynovitis and bursitis: Imaging findings in 21 cases. *Radiology*; 1996; 201(2):507-513
67. Fanning A. Tuberculosis: 6. Extrapulmonary disease, *CMAJ*; 1999; 160(11):1597-1603
68. Spiegel DA, Singh GK, Banskota A. Tuberculosis of the Musculoskeletal System. *Techniques in Orthopaedics*; 2005; 20(2):167-178
69. Mousa HA. Tuberculosis of bones and joints: diagnostic approaches. *Int Orthop*; 1998; 22(4):245-246.
70. Pun WK, Chow SP, Luk KD, Cheng CL, Hsu LC, Leong JC. Tuberculosis of the lumbosacral junction. Long-term follow-up of 26 cases. *J Bone Joint Surg Br*; 1990; 72(4):675-678
71. Moon MS, Moon YW, Moon JL, Kim SS, Sun DH. Conservative treatment of tuberculosis of the lumbar and lumbosacral spine. *Clin Orthop Rel Res*; 2002; 398:40–49
72. Kotil K, Alan MS, Bilge T. Medical management of Pott disease in the thoracic and lumbar spine: a prospective clinical study. *J Neurosurg Spine*; 2007; 6(3):222–228
73. Hodgson AR, Skinsnes OK, Leong CY. The pathogenesis of Pott's paraplegia. *J Bone Joint Surg*; 1967; 49(6):1147–1156
74. Alvarez S, McCabe WR. Extrapulmonary tuberculosis revisited: a review of experience at Boston City and other hospitals. *Medicine*; 1984; 63(1):25-55
75. Peh WC, Cheung KM. Progressive shoulder arthropathy. *Ann Rheum Dis*; 1995; 54(3):168-173.
76. Teo HE, Peh WC. Skeletal tuberculosis in children. *Pediatr; Radiol* 2004; 34(11):853-860.
77. Thimmaiah VT, and Deepashree. Unusual Presentation of Tuberculosis of Elbow Joint: A Case Report. *RRJMHS*; 2013; 2(4):17-20
78. Martini M, Adjrada A, Bouddjemaa A. Tuberculous osteomyelitis. A review of 125 cases. *Int Orthop*; 1986; 10(2):201-207.
79. Wang MN, Chen WM, Lee KS, Chin LS, Lo WH. Tuberculous osteomyelitis in young children. *J Pediatr Orthop*; 1999; 19(2):151-155.
80. Huang CH. Extra-articular tuberculous osteomyelitis. A report of 11 cases. *Int Orthop*; 1996; 20(3):169-171.
81. Yao DC, Sartoris DJ. Musculoskeletal tuberculosis. *Radiol Clin North Am*; 1995; 33(4):679–705
82. WHO. Treatment of Tuberculosis: Guidelines-4th edition, World Health Organization, Geneva, Switzerland; 2010
83. Narang S. Tuberculosis of the entheses. *Int Orthop*; 2012; 36: 2373-2378
84. Hoffman EB, Crosier JH and Cremin BJ. Imaging in children with spinal tuberculosis. A comparison of radiography, computed tomography and magnetic resonance imaging. *J Bone and Joint Surg*; 1993; 75(2):233-239.
85. Upadhyay SS, Saji MJ, Sell P and Yau ACM. The effect of age on the change in deformity after radical resection and anterior arthrodesis for tuberculosis of the spine. *J Bone and Joint Surg*; 1994; 76(5):701-708.
86. Griffith JF, Kumta SM, Leung PC, Cheng JC, Chow LT, Metreweli C. Imaging of musculoskeletal tuberculosis: a new look at an old disease. *Clin Orthop Rel Res*; 2002; 398:32–39
87. Reider HL, Snider DE Jr, Cauthen GM. Extrapulmonary tuberculosis in the United States. *Am Rev Respir Dis*; 1990; 141(2):347-351
88. Kramer N, Rosenstein ED. Rheumatologic manifestations of tuberculosis. *Bull Rheum Dis*; 1997; 46(3):5-8
89. Buchelt M, Lack W, Kutschera HP, Katterschafka T, Kiss H, Schneider B, Kotz R. Comparison of tuberculous and pyogenic spondylitis. An analysis of 122 cases. *Clin Orthop Rel Res*; 1993; 296:192-199
90. Moorthy S, Prabhu NK. Spectrum of MR imaging findings in spinal tuberculosis. *AJR*; 2002; 179(4):979-983
91. Joseffer SS, Cooper PR. Modern imaging of spinal tuberculosis. *Journal of Neurosurgery*; 2005; 2(2):145-150
92. Chang MC, Wu HT, Lee CH, Liu CL, Chen TH. Tuberculous spondylitis and pyogenic spondylitis: comparative magnetic resonance imaging features. *Spine*; 2006; 31(7):782-788
93. Jain R, Sawhney S, Berry M. Computed tomography of tuberculosis: patterns of bone destruction. *Clin Radiol*; 1993; 47(3):196–199
94. Ridley N, Shaikh MI, Remedios D, Mitchell R. Radiology of skeletal tuberculosis. *Orthopedics*; 1998; 21(11):1213–1220
95. Bell GR1, Stearns KL, Bonutti PM, Boumpfrey FR. MRI diagnosis of tuberculous vertebral osteomyelitis. *Spine*; 1990; 15(6):462-465
96. Kim NH, Lee HM, Suh JH. Magnetic resonance imaging for the diagnosis of tuberculous spondylitis. *Spine*; 1994; 19:2451-2455

97. Suh JS, Lee JD, Cho JH, Kim MJ, Han DY, Cho NH. MR imaging of tuberculous arthritis: clinical and experimental studies. *J Magn Reson Imaging*; 1996; 6(1):185-189
98. Leigh Moore S, Rafii M. Advanced imaging of tuberculosis arthritis. *Semin Musculoskelet Radiol*; 2003; 7(2):143-153
99. Soler R, Rodriguez E, Ruminan C, Santos M. MRI of musculoskeletal extraspinal tuberculosis. *J Comput Assist Tomogr*; 2001; 25(2):177-183
100. Babhulkar S, Pande S. Tuberculosis of the hip. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*; 2002; 398:93-99
101. Verettas D, Kazakos C, Tilkeridis C, Dermon A, Petrou H, Galanis V. Polymerase chain reaction for the detection of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* in synovial fluid, tissue samples, bone marrow aspirate and peripheral blood. *Acta Orthop Belg*; 2003; 69(5):396-399
102. Bloch AB, Rieder HL, Kelly GD, Cauthen GM, Hayden CH and Snider DE. The epidemiology of tuberculosis in the United States. *Sem Respir Infect*; 1989; 4(3):157-170
103. Hsu SH, Sun JS, Chen IH, and Liu TK. Reappraisal of skeletal tuberculosis: role of radiological imaging. *Formosan Med Assn*; 1993; 92(1): 34-41
104. Hugosson C, Nyman RS, Brismar J, Larsson SG, Lindahl S, Lundstedt C. Imaging of tuberculosis: V, Peripheral osteoarticular and soft-tissue tuberculosis. *Acta Radiol*; 1996; 37(4):512-516
105. Steinbock RT. Paleopathological diagnosis and interpretation: Bone diseases in ancient human populations. Springfield, Illinois, USA: Charles C Thomas; 1976
106. Roberts CA, Buikstra J. The Bioarchaeology of Tuberculosis: A Global View on a Reemerging Disease. Florida: University Press of Florida; 2003
107. Workeabeba A, Betel A, Kebede M, Tinsae A. Tuberculous Dactylitis: An Uncommon Presentation of Skeletal Tuberculosis. *Ethiop J Health Sci*; 2016; 26(3):301-303
108. Zahraa J, Johnson D, Lim-Dunham JE, Herold BC. Unusual features of osteoarticular tuberculosis in children. *J Pediatr*; 1996; 129(4):597-602
109. Chafetz N, Genant HK, Hoaglund FT. Ischiogluteal tuberculous bursitis with progressive bony destruction. *J Can Assoc Radiol*; 1982; 33:119-120
110. Trikha V, Gupta V. Isolated tuberculous abscess in biceps brachii muscle of a young male. *J Infect*; 2002; 44(4):265-266.
111. Morris BS, Maheshwari M, Chalwa A. Chest wall tuberculosis: A review of CT appearances. *Br J Radiol*; 2004; 77(917):449-457.
112. Trikha V, Varshney MK, Rastogi S. Isolated tuberculosis of the vastus lateralis muscle: A case report. *Scand J Infect Dis*; 2006; 38(4):304-306.
113. Batra S, Ab Naell M, Barwick C, Kanvinde R. Tuberculous pyomyositis of the thigh masquerading as malignancy with concomitant tuberculous flexor tenosynovitis and dactylitis of the hand. *Singapore Med J*; 2007; 48(11):1042-1046.
114. Abdulaziz S, Almoallim H, Ibrahim A, Samannodi M, Shabrawishi M, Meeralam Y, Abdulmajeed G, Banjar G, Qutub W, Dowaiikh H. Poncet's disease (reactive arthritis associated with tuberculosis): retrospective case series and review of literature. *Clin Rheumatol*. 2012; 31(10):1521-1528
115. Teo HE, Peh WC. Skeletal tuberculosis in children. *Pediatr Radiol*; 2004; 34(11):853-860
116. Hsieh CK, Miltner LJ, Chang CP. Tuberculosis of the shaft of the large long bones of the extremities. *J Bone Joint Surg*; 1934; 16(3):545-563
117. Komins C. Multiple cystic tuberculosis: a review and revised nomenclature. *Br J Rad*; 1952; 25(289):1-8
118. Shannon FB, Moore M, Houkom JA, Waecker NJ Jr. Multifocal cystic tuberculosis of bone. *J Bone Joint Surg*; 1990; 72(7):1089-1092
119. Aggarwal AN, Dhammi IK, Jain AK. Multifocal skeletal tuberculosis. *Trop Doct*; 2001; 31(4):219-220
120. Kumar K, Saxena MBL. Multifocal osteoarticular tuberculosis. *Int Orthop*; 1988; 12(2):135-138
121. O'Connor BT, Steel WM, Sanders R. Disseminated bone tuberculosis. *J Bone Joint Surg* 1970; 52:537-542
122. Lenaerts A, Barry CE 3rd, Dartois V. Heterogeneity in tuberculosis pathology, microenvironments and therapeutic responses. *Immunol Rev*; 2015; 264(1):288-307
123. Tuli SM. Tuberculosis of the Skeletal System. Jaypee Brothers Medical Publishers, New Delhi; 2016
124. Davidson PT, Horowitz I. Skeletal tuberculosis: a review with patient presentations and discussion. *Am J Med*; 1970; 48(1):77-84
125. Furia JP, Box GG, Lintner DM. Tuberculous arthritis of the knee presenting as a meniscal tear. *Am J Orthop (Belle Mead NJ)*; 1996; 25(2):138-142
126. Ortner DJ. Identification of pathological conditions in human skeletal remains, USA: Elsevier; 2003
127. Ponce de León D1, Acevedo-Vásquez E, Sánchez-Torres A, Cucho M, Alfaro J, Perich R, Pastor C, Harrison J, Sánchez-Schwartz C. Attenuated response to purified protein derivative in patients with rheumatoid arthritis: study in a population with a high prevalence of tuberculosis. *Ann Rheum Dis*; 2005; 64(9):1360-1361
128. Kaplan CJ. Conservative Therapy in Skeletal Tuberculosis: An Appraisal Based on Experience in South Africa. *Tubercle*; 1959; 40(5):355-368
129. Kahn DS, Pritzker KPH. The pathophysiology of bone infection. *Clin Orthop*; 1973; 96:12-19
130. Kim JY, Park YH, Choi KH, Park SH, Lee HY. MRI of tuberculous pyomyositis. *J Comput Assist Tomogr*; 1999; 23(3):454-457
131. López M, Barros E, Uribe A, Toro A, López J. Perfiles epidemiológico y clínico de la tuberculosis osteoarticular, estudio observacional en el Hospital Universitario San Vicente de Paul de Medellín 1994-2004. *Iatreia*; 2003; 18(3):279-288
132. Versfeld GA, Solomon A. A diagnostic approach to tuberculosis of bones and joints. *J Bone Joint Surg Br*; 1982; 64(4):446-449.
133. Mondal A. Cytological diagnosis of vertebral tuberculosis with fine-needle aspiration biopsy. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*; 1994; 76(2):181-184.
134. Yilmaz MH, Kantarci F, Mihmanli I, Kanberoglu K. Multifocal Skeletal Tuberculosis. *South Med J*; 2004, 97(8):785-787
135. Thrush A, Enzmann D. MR imaging of infectious spondylitis. *Am J Neuroradiol*; 1990; 11(6):1171-1180

136. Diagnostic Standards and Classification of Tuberculosis in Adults and Children. This official statement of the American Thoracic Society and the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention was adopted by the ATS Board of Directors, July 1999. This statement was endorsed by the Council of the Infectious Disease Society of America, September 1999. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*; 2000; 161(4 Pt 1):1376-1395.
137. Merino P, Candel FJ, Gestoso I, Baos E, Picazo J. Microbiological diagnosis of spinal tuberculosis. *Int Orthop*; 2012; 36(2):233-238.
138. Colmenero JD1, Ruiz-Mesa JD, Sanjuan-Jimenez R, Sobrino B, Morata P. Establishing the diagnosis of tuberculous vertebral osteomyelitis. *Eur Spine J*; 2013; 22 Suppl 4:579-586.
139. Dass B, Puet TA, Watanakunakorn C. Tuberculosis of the spine (Pott's disease) presenting as 'compression fractures. *Spinal Cord*; 2002; 40(11):604-608
140. Titov AG, Vyshnevskaya EB, Mazurenko SI, Santavirta S, Kontinen YT. Use of polymerase chain reaction to diagnose tuberculous arthritis from joint tissues and synovial fluid. *Arch Pathol Lab Med*; 2004; 128(2):205-209
141. Held M, Laubscher M, Mears S, Dix-Peek S, Workman L, Zar H, Dunn R. Diagnostic Accuracy of the Xpert MTB/RIF Assay for Extrapulmonary Tuberculosis in Children With Musculoskeletal Infections. *Pediatr Infect Dis J*; 2016; 35(11):1165-1168
142. Shanmugasundaram TK. Bone and joint tuberculosis-Guidelines for management. *Indian J Orthop*; 2005; 39(3):195-198
143. Rajasekaran S. A longitudinal study on the progress of deformity in children with spinal tuberculosis. PhD Thesis, Dr. MGR Medical University, Chennai; 1999
144. Rajasekaran S. Natural history of Pott's kyphosis. *Eur Spine J*; 2013; 22 Suppl 4:634-640
145. Herzog H. History of tuberculosis. *Respiration*; 1998; 65(1):5-15
146. Tay BK, Deckey J, Hu SS. Spinal infections. *J Am Acad Orthop Surg*; 2002; 10(3):188-197
147. Sequeira W, Co H, Block JA. Osteoarticular tuberculosis: current diagnosis and treatment. *Am J Ther*; 2000; 7(6):393-398
148. Tuli SM. Result of treatment of spinal tuberculosis by the "middle path" regime. *J Bone Joint Surg*; 1975; 57(1):13-23
149. Jain AK. Treatment of tuberculosis of the spine with neurologic complications. *Clin Orthop Rel Res*; 2002; 398:75-84
150. Chandir S, Hussain H, Salahuddin N, Amir M, Ali F, Lotia I, Khan AJ. Extrapulmonary Tuberculosis: A retrospective review of 194 cases at a tertiary care hospital in Karachi, Pakistan. *J Pak Med Assoc*; 2010; 60(2):105-108
151. Agarwal A, Qureshi NA, Khan SA, Kumar P, Samaiya S. Tuberculosis of the foot and ankle in children. *J Orthopedic Sur*; 2011; 19(2):213-217
152. Dhillon MS, Gupta RK, Bahadur R, Nagi ON. Tuberculosis of the sternoclavicular joints. *Acta Orthop Scand*; 2001; 72(5):514-517
153. Anand A, Sood LK. Isolated tuberculosis of talus without ankle and subtalar joint Involvement. *Med J Malaysia*; 2002; 57(3):371-373
154. Behari S, Nayak SR, Bhargava V, Banerji D, Chhabra DK, Jain VK. Craniocervical tuberculosis: Protocol of surgical management. *Neurosurgery*; 2003; 52(1):72-81
155. Wellons JC, Zomorodi AR, Villavicencio AT, Woods CW, Lawson WT, Eastwood JD. Sacral tuberculosis: A case report and review of the literature. *Surg Neurol*; 2004; 61(2):136-141
156. Subasi M, Bukte Y, Kapukaya A, Gurkan F. Tuberculosis of the metacarpals and phalanges of the hand. *Ann Plast Surg*; 2004; 53(5):469-472
157. Hodgson SP, Ormerod LP. Ten-year experience of bone and joint tuberculosis in Blackburn 1978-1987. *J R Coll Surg Edinb*; 1990; 35(4): 259-262
158. Al-Qattan MM, Al-Namla A, Al-Thunayan A, Al-Omawi M. Tuberculosis of the hand. *J Hand Surg Am*; 2011; 36(8):1413-1421
159. Chen SH, Lee CH, Wong T, Feng HS. Long-term retrospective analysis of surgical treatment for irretrievable tuberculosis of the ankle. *Foot Ankle Int*; 2013; 34(3):372-37
160. Jutte PC, Van Loenhout-Rooyackers JH. Routine surgery in addition to chemotherapy for treating spinal tuberculosis. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*; 2006; 25(1):CD004532
161. Lawn SD, Zumla AI. Tuberculosis. *Lancet*; 2011; 378(9785):57-72
162. A controlled trial of anterior spinal fusion and debridement in the surgical management of tuberculosis of the spine in patients on standard chemotherapy. A study in Hong Kong. Fourth Report of the Medical Research Council Working Party on Tuberculosis of the Spine. *British J Surg*; 1974; 61(11):853-866
163. Five-year assessments of controlled trials of ambulatory treatment, debridement and anterior spinal fusion in the management of tuberculosis of the spine. Studies in Bulawayo (Rhodesia) and in Hong Kong. Sixth Report of the Medical Research Council Working Party on Tuberculosis of the Spine. *J Bone and Joint Surg*; 1978; 60-B(2):163-177
164. Upadhyay SS, Sell P, Saji MJ, Sell B, Yau AC, and Leong JC. 17-year prospective study of surgical management of spinal tuberculosis in children. Hong Kong operation compared with debridement surgery for short- and long-term outcome of deformity. *Spine*; 1993; 18(2):1704-1711
165. Upadhyay SS, Sell P, Saji MJ, Sell B, Hsu LC. Surgical management of spinal tuberculosis in adults. Hong Kong operation compared with debridement surgery for short and long term outcome of deformity. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*; 1994; (302):173-182
166. Upadhyay SS, Saji MJ, Sell P, Sell B, and Hsu LCS. Spinal deformity after childhood surgery for tuberculosis of the spine. A comparison of radical surgery and debridement. *J. Bone and Joint Surg*; 1994; 76(1):91-98
167. Upadhyay SS, Saji MJ, Sell P, Sell B and Yau AC. Longitudinal changes in spinal deformity after anterior spinal surgery for tuberculosis of the spine in adults. A comparative analysis between radical and debridement surgery. *Spine*; 1994; 19(5):542-549

- 168.Ho EK and Leong JC. Tuberculosis of the spine. In: The Pediatric Spine. Principles and Practice. Edited by SL Weinstein. New York, Raven Press; 1994; 837-849
- 169.Khoo LT, Mikawa K, Fessler RG. A surgical revisit of Pott distemper of the spine. Spine J; 2003; 3(2):130-145
- 170.Nene A, Bhojraj S. Results of nonsurgical treatment of thoracic spinal tuberculosis in adults. Spine J; 2005; 5(1):79-84
- 171.Kim YT, Han KN, Kang CH, Sung SW, Kim JH. Complete resection is mandatory for tubercular cold abscess of the chest wall. Ann Thorac Surg 2008; 85(1):273-277
- 172.Suárez-García I, Noguerado A. Drug treatment of multidrug-resistant osteoarticular tuberculosis: a systematic literature review. Int J Infect Dis IJID Off Publ Int Soc Infect Dis; 2012; 16(11):e774- e778

---

*Corresponding Author: I.E. Pleșea, Professor, Departments of Pathology, University of Medicine and Pharmacy "Carol Davila" and National Institute of Research-Development in the Pathology Domain and Biomedical Sciences "Victor Babes", Splaiul Independentei, 99-101, Bucharest, 050096, Romania, Doctoral School, University of Medicine and Pharmacy of Craiova, Str. Petru Rares, Nr.2, 200349, Romania, e-mail: pie1956@yahoo.com*