

Molecular typing methods to characterize *Brucella* spp. from animals: A review

Aida Daugaliyeva¹, Saule Daugaliyeva², Nazerke Kydyr¹, and Simone Peletto³

1. LLP "Kazakh Research Institute for Livestock and Fodder Production," St. Zhandosova 51, Almaty 050035, Kazakhstan;
2. LLP "Scientific Production Center of Microbiology and Virology," Bogenbay Batyr Str. 105, Almaty 050010, Kazakhstan;
3. Experimental Zooprofilactic Institute of Piedmont, Liguria and Aosta Valley, Via Bologna 148, 10154 Turin, Italy.

Corresponding author: Saule Daugaliyeva, e-mail: saule.daugaliyeva@mail.ru

Co-authors: AD: aida1979@bk.ru, NK: nazerke.kydyr10@mail.ru, SP: simone.peletto@izsto.it

Received: 02-06-2024, **Accepted:** 18-07-2024, **Published online:** 13-08-2024

doi: www.doi.org/10.14202/vetworld.2024.1778-1788 **How to cite this article:** Daugaliyeva A, Daugaliyeva S, Kydyr N, and Peletto S (2024) Molecular typing methods to isolate *Brucella* spp. from animals: A review, *Veterinary World*, 17(8): 1778–1788.

Abstract

Brucellosis is an infectious disease of animals that can infect humans. The disease causes significant economic losses and threatens human health. A timely and accurate disease diagnosis plays a vital role in the identification of brucellosis. In addition to traditional diagnostic methods, molecular methods allow diagnosis and typing of the causative agent of brucellosis. This review will discuss various methods, such as Bruce-ladder, Suliladder, high-resolution melt analysis, restriction fragment length polymorphism, multilocus sequence typing, multilocus variable-number tandem repeat analysis, and whole-genome sequencing single-nucleotide polymorphism, for the molecular typing of *Brucella* and discuss their advantages and disadvantages.

Keywords: *Brucella*, molecular typing, multilocus sequence typing, multilocus variable-number tandem-repeat analysis, single-nucleotide polymorphisms, whole-genome sequencing.

Introduction

Brucellosis is an infectious zoonotic disease of livestock and wild animals. At present, it is widespread mainly in developing countries of Central Asia and in countries of the European Mediterranean Basin, with some populations in North Africa and the Middle East where the incidence rates are highest [1, 2], over 250/100,000 [3]. This disease significantly impacts national economies by reducing livestock productivity [4–11]. Approximately 500,000 annual human infections worldwide make brucellosis the most common zoonotic disease. The true human incidence of tuberculosis, according to the World Health Organization (WHO), is 25 times greater than the reported cases [12, 13]. Brucellosis is reported to affect over 10 in 100,000 people in endemic areas [14]. Brucellosis is contracted from aborted fetuses and placentas, unpasteurized milk and dairy, aerosols, and injuries to the skin and mucous membranes [5, 15].

Acute form is the most common manifestation of the infection [16]. It is characterized by undulating fever (Maltese fever) [5], sweating, weakness, fatigue, anorexia, weight loss, headache, and general aching pain [17]. This condition can progress to a chronic disease in rare cases with severe cardiac (endocarditis), neurological (personality changes, meningitis,

encephalitis, peripheral neuropathy), or visceral complications (hepatosplenomegaly) [18–20]. The disease's clinical signs vary depending on the genomic makeup of the pathogen [21]. Pregnant women and animals experience miscarriages and premature births. These conditions in males can cause orchitis and epididymitis can lead to infertility [22]. *Brucella* exhibits varying degrees of virulence. *Brucella melitensis* causes the most severe human disease, while *Brucella suis* follows in the second place. The less virulent for humans of the five biovars in the *B. suis* species is biovar 2. People with weakened immune systems are susceptible to brucellosis caused by *B. suis* biovar 2.

Antibiotics are used to treat acute Brucellosis infections in humans. In the chronic phase, the bacteria evade immune response and antibiotic treatment due to their intracellular location. Livestock with brucellosis cannot be treated.

Brucellosis is caused by a potential biological warfare agent classified under category B [1]. Due to its transmission through air and food [23], it can infect both humans and animals. Brucellosis's early symptoms resemble those of flu. To rule out biological terrorism, it is necessary to determine the origin of infectious agents through genotyping.

The control of brucellosis requires careful surveillance and highly discriminatory methods of strain characterization, investigation of the elements of the epizootic chain, identification of the source of the pathogen, and monitoring of the transmission mechanism [24]. Epidemiologic studies use bio- and genotyping approaches to identify circulating *Brucella* species, genotypes, and biovar-causing outbreaks. Identifying *Brucella* species, biovars, and genotypes

Copyright: Daugaliyeva, et al. Open Access. This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons license, and indicate if changes were made. The Creative Commons Public Domain Dedication waiver (<http://creativecommons.org/publicdomain/zero/1.0/>) applies to the data made available in this article, unless otherwise stated.

in specific infection areas is crucial for classifying foci, evaluating epidemiological intensity, clarifying the reservoir and source, tracing transmission, and determining effective treatment strategies. Various factors, including unsanitary conditions on farms, economic circumstances in the country, consumption of raw animal products, human awareness levels, climatic conditions, and environmental hygiene influence the emergence and circulation of pathogens.

The World Organization for Animal Health (WOAH) advises using biochemical and serological tests, phenotyping, and host specificity for culture growth when investigating brucellosis pathogens [25, 26]. These approaches, which involve handling live pathogens and tracing outbreak sources, are dangerous and labor-intensive [27–30]. To conduct bacteriological tests, you need a BSL-3 laboratory and qualified personnel who can handle live pathogens [31, 32]. Isolating a pure culture is definitive proof for diagnosing brucellosis. Advanced scientific techniques, such as serological reactions, bacteriological studies, and molecular analysis, are necessary to fully understand the agents responsible for brucellosis.

This review assesses *Brucella's* molecular typing techniques, detailing their respective benefits and drawbacks. This review explores some molecular techniques. *Brucella* species and vaccine strains are identified using multiplex polymerase chain reaction (PCR) through Bruce-ladder. DNA fragments are analyzed by gel electrophoresis after being cut using restriction endonucleases in the restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP) method. High-resolution melting analysis (HRM) identifies mutations and polymorphisms within DNA sequences. Multilocus sequence typing (MLST) identifies microbial strains by sequencing selected gene segments. Multiple locus variable-number tandem repeat analysis (MLVA) involves analyzing the polymorphisms in tandemly repeated DNA sequences of pathogenic bacteria. Polymorphism identifies a one-nucleotide difference in the size of a DNA sequence. Whole-genome sequencing (WGS) reveals the complete DNA sequence of an organism's genome.

Phenotype and Genotype Characteristics of the Causative Agent of Brucellosis

Brucella, a Gram-negative proteobacterium and facultative intracellular, non-spore-forming bacterium of the genus *Brucella*, is the causative agent of brucellosis [9, 22, 33]. The *Brucella* genus harbors relatively stable bacteria with minor genetic disparities [9]. *Brucella* displays unique traits specific to its species and biovar. The phenotype is identified through phenotypic methods. A phenotype represents an individual's unique combination of observable traits, formed through the interaction of genes and environmental influences during development. 14 species were

identified based on shared biochemical traits and host preferences (Table-1) [17, 31, 34–41].

It has been proposed that closely related species of *Ochrobactrum* should be categorized as *Brucella* [42, 43]. Atypical species of *Brucellae* have diversified the genus of pathogens [35, 44, 45]. Motile *Brucella* spp. was isolated from amphibians, although the genus historically consisted of sessile species [45–47].

Most human infections are caused by species, such as *B. melitensis*, *Brucella abortus*, *B. suis*, and sometimes, *Brucella canis* [5, 9, 48, 49]. *B. melitensis* is a common and virulent *Brucella* species [50, 51], and it is sometimes fatal [5, 50, 52, 53]. Severe diseases in humans are also caused by *B. suis* (except biovar two) [15, 54]. Humans are also at high risk of contracting brucellosis from consuming raw milk from cows contaminated with *B. melitensis*.

In addition to infection of primary hosts, cross-infection of secondary animal hosts with *Brucella* is also possible [29, 30, 55]. *B. melitensis* also infects dogs, pigs, camels, and wild animals [26, 56, 57]. Cross-infection between animals has been observed on farms where cattle, sheep, and goats reside [56, 58–60].

To identify and differentiate species and biovar of the genus *Brucella* in 1972, the FAO/WHO Expert Committee established special tests: Increased content: CO₂, phage lysis: Tb, H₂S release, growth pattern on nutrient media with aniline dyes: thionin (1:25,000–1:100,000) and (1:50,000–1:100,000) fuchsin, then agglutination with monospecific sera “A” and “M” and antisera: S- and R-, in addition, growth on nutritional environments with substrates that include individual carbohydrates, urea, and amino acids.

Brucella biovar was isolated by studying the DNA nucleotide sequence of outer membrane proteins (OMPs). The OMP *Brucella* spp. were identified in the early 1980s and characterized as potential immunogenic and protective antigens. A previous study has identified omp31 and BP26 as candidate antigens with high potential for clinical diagnosis of brucellosis [61]. The antigens Omp22, Omp25, and Omp31 are essential proteins of *B. melitensis*, the absence of which in mutant species reduces their pathogenicity; therefore, these proteins are critical factors in bacterial pathogenicity [62]. The species *B. melitensis* is represented by three biovar: Sheep, goats, and camels.

Five *B. suis* biovars, which are the primary carriers among pigs, represent the species. *B. suis* biovar 2 infections differ from those caused by biovar 1 and 3 in terms of host preference, location, and virulence. Few cases of human brucellosis have previously involved biovar 2. Hunters with reduced immunity and dogs in Australia, the USA, and France have been identified as sources of *B. suis* biovar 2 infection. Dogs can become infected during hunting by contacting wild pigs or their meat [63]. Occasionally, asymptomatic *B. suis* biovar 2 infections have been reported in sheep and goats that came into contact with infected wild boar.

Table-1: Classification of *Brucella* species.

<i>Brucella</i> species	Primary host	Biovar	Secondary hosts	References
<i>Brucella melitensis</i>	Sheep and goats	1–3	Humans, camels, dogs, pigs, and cattle	[37–39]
<i>Brucella abortus</i>	Cattle (buffalo, elk, bison)	1–6, 9	Humans, sheep, goats, wild animals, dogs, cats, camels	
<i>Brucella suis</i>	Pigs	1–3	Humans	
	Wild boars and hares	2	Humans, sheep, goats, dogs	
	Reindeer, caribou	4	Humans	
	Rodent	5	Humans	
<i>Brucella ovis</i>	Sheep			
<i>Brucella neotomae</i>	Desert wood rats		Humans	
<i>Brucella canis</i>	Dog		Humans	
<i>Brucella ceti</i>	Cetaceans		Humans	
<i>Brucella pinnipedialis</i>	Seal		Humans	
<i>Brucella microti</i>	Field voles, foxes, and soil			
<i>Brucella inopinata</i>	Human			
<i>Brucella papionis</i>	Baboons			
<i>Brucella vulpis</i>	Red fox			
<i>Brucella amazoniensis</i>	Human			[40]
<i>Brucella nosferati</i>	Bats			[41]

B. canis results in reproductive issues and non-specific lameness in dogs. The risk of *B. canis* infection in humans is minimal, mostly affecting veterinary personnel and dog owners with compromised immune systems. The strain's lack of surface O-polysaccharide causes this phenomenon [64]. The complex epidemiological scenario can make brucellosis monitoring and management challenging [65]. The advantage of phenotypic methods is that they allow for an accurate understanding of the interspecific relationships of the genus *Brucella*, which is necessary for understanding the epidemiology of the disease [66]. Working with a live pathogen poses a disadvantage.

The *Brucella* genome comprises two circular chromosomes, one measuring 1.2 Mb and the other 2.1 Mb [67, 68]. *B. suis* biovar 3 possesses a 3.1 Mb chromosome. Bacterial chromosomes are characterized by the replication of large chromosomes (Chp I), while plasmids exhibit the replication of smaller chromosomes (Chp II). Chr I harbored the most significant genes. This is consistent with other authors who noted that *B. abortus* and *B. melitensis* are more closely related, in contrast to *B. abortus* and *B. suis* [67]. *B. suis* is more similar to *B. abortus* than *B. melitensis*.

Methods for Genotyping *Brucella*

Molecular typing methods include Bruce-ladder, Suis-ladder, HRM, RFLP, MLST, MLVA, and WGS single-nucleotide polymorphism (WGS-SNP).

Bruce-ladder and Suis-ladder methods

The WOAHP recommends using a Bruce-ladder based on classical PCR to diagnose brucellosis and identify and type *Brucella* species. The method involves using eight primer pairs in one reaction.

The proposed method has the following advantages: it is cheap and fast. The advantage of this method is its ability to distinguish infected animals

from those vaccinated with strains S19, RB51, and Rev. 1. PCR with *B. abortus* S19 DNA does not produce a 587-bp fragment common to all *Brucella* strains tested, and the absence of a 1682-bp fragment distinguishes *B. abortus* RB51 and 1320 bp, as well as a specific additional fragment of 2524 bp. The *B. melitensis* Rev. 1 vaccine strain was readily distinguished from other *B. melitensis* strains by a specific additional 218-bp fragment. In 2011, Lopez-Goñi *et al.* [69] published an advancement of the original Bruce-ladder PCR protocol, which allows the correct discrimination of *Brucella* species, including *Brucella microti*, *Brucella inopinata*, *Brucella ceti*, *Brucella pinnipedialis*, *B. suis*, and *B. canis*. The Suis-ladder method was developed to improve the Bruce-ladder, which genotypes field strains of *B. suis* to biovar. The method also discriminates against closely related species such as *B. suis*, *B. canis*, and *B. microti* [69].

The disadvantages of PCR-based methods include cross-contamination and time-consuming electrophoresis. A more advanced method is real-time PCR, which avoids contamination because the tubes do not need to be opened to obtain results.

HRM

A practical method for differentiating *Brucella* species is HRM, which is performed after real-time PCR. In this method, the melting curves of the amplicons are compared to detect differences in nucleotides. This analysis allowed us to immediately distinguish five species of *Brucella* in one test tube: *B. abortus*, *B. melitensis*, *B. ovis*, *B. suis*, and *B. canis* using SNP markers.

The method's advantages include the ability to distinguish, in addition to the five species of *Brucella*, *B. microti*, *B. ceti*, *B. pinnipedialis*, and vaccine strains of *B. abortus*. Other researchers have increased the power of HRM by differentiating *B. suis* into biovar

1, 2, and 3 and identifying the vaccine strain *B. melitensis* Rev.1 [70]. The disadvantage of this method is that it can only detect SNPs that change the guanine and cytosine (GC)% fragment [71].

RFLP

This method for genotyping *Brucella* species and biovar is based on PCR, which involves processing amplicons with restriction enzymes. Specific bands can be visualized by gel electrophoresis.

It is inexpensive and allows the identification or differentiation of strains. The disadvantages of the PCR-RFLP method include its slowness, labor intensity (it can take a month), and lack of discriminatory power. The RFLP method demonstrates different results in different laboratories and even in the same laboratory performed by other specialists.

MLST and a core genome MLST (cgMLST) analysis

MLST typing based on multilocus sequences is a method of genetic typing of organisms based on determining the nucleotide sequence of a particular set of genes (loci). This method was first proposed in 1998 for rapid and reliable typing of pathogenic bacteria.

The progress of molecular genetic techniques has helped scientists understand the structure and differences of brucellosis pathogens in different countries. In particular, MLST and MLVA are used to investigate the geographical origins of strains and their genetic relationships. Gene comparison using cgMLST and SNP analysis has partially replaced existing biotyping methods [23, 50, 53].

MLST

Surveillance tools such as MLST have been used to type *Brucella* to investigate the causes of disease emergence. Previously, MLST included the investigation of 9 loci, and then, 12 loci were added [72] and it was found that the *B. abortus* species consists of 3 clades (A, B, C), where clades A and B belong to African strains. In contrast, clade C (C1 and C2) is distributed worldwide [73, 74]. Clade A included strains from Mozambique and Kenya [72]. The A and B clades within *B. abortus* suggest that *B. abortus* may have spread to/from South Africa because of socioeconomic, migratory relations between countries [74].

Examples of MLST typing showed that the Egyptian isolates of *B. abortus* and *B. melitensis* were genetically unique compared with publicly available global strain sequences: *B. melitensis* was identified as sequence type (ST) 11 and *B. abortus* as ST1 [9]. *B. melitensis* isolates from India and China were identified as ST8 and were highly similar to isolates circulating on the Asian continent [25]. The most common sequence types in Iran were *B. abortus* ST1 and ST2 [9, 75, 76] and *B. melitensis* ST8, in addition to ST7 and ST10 [77]. The predominant *Brucella* species is *B. melitensis* biovar 1 [78].

Advantages of the MLST method

- Helps determine the geographic origin and distribution of strains [79, 80]
- Helps determine the genetic relationships among strains
- Helps predict which genotypes will prevail in the future [9]
- Helps conduct evolutionary research.

Disadvantages of the MLST method

- MLST cannot wholly distinguish isolates because it does not examine the entire genome of the pathogen [81]
- Does not determine the exact origin of the strains at the outbreak site or the transmission route
- Is a technically problematic method [23, 53, 75].

cgMLST analysis

cgMLST was performed by assigning specific alleles to core genes. In 2018, researchers developed the cgMLST core genome typing scheme to distinguish and differentiate *Brucella* species into biovars using 407 genome sequences [75]. In the same year, other scientists developed a cgMLST scheme for *B. melitensis*, which included 2656 genes [53]. In 2022, researchers published the results of creating a cgMLST scheme applicable to all *Brucella* species, which included 1325 *Brucella* genomes [82].

cgMLST is the most advanced method, in contrast to MLST, as it no longer analyzes 21 gene loci but analyzes hundreds to thousands of significant genes [83]. Thus, cgMLST is superior to MLST in discriminative power. The method is expensive.

MLVA

Epidemiologic monitoring using molecular genetic methods provides evidence of the geographic origin of pathogens.

To distinguish between species, biovar, and even isolates of highly conserved *Brucellae*, scientists have used MLVA since 2003. The publicly available MLVA database allows information about the causative agent of brucellosis to be entered and compared with the existing database [25]. MLVA is considered a tool similar to fingerprinting [84]. The MLVA method is regarded as the gold standard for *Brucella* typing, and it is based on the PCR method for differentiating strains of *Brucella* spp. and elucidates the causes of its occurrence and spread [29, 30, 73, 85]. Researchers have proposed MLVA15 methods: a gel-based MLVA technique, MLVA-15I Institute of Molecular Genetics (IGM), and an automated capillary electrophoresis-based method, MLVA-15 Northeast Agricultural University (NAU). The MLVA-15NAU assay detected more alleles and a higher diversity index than the markers examined in the MLVA-15IGM assay. Comparing the two methods, the MLVA-15NAU method is more expensive but more reproducible.

The 16 MLVA loci included moderately variable minisatellites (panel 1) and highly discriminatory microsatellites (panels 2A and 2B). More recently, in Kazakhstan, the genotypes of *Brucella* spp. were monitored using MLVA and compared with global isolates. In our previous study, we performed genotyping of circulating *Brucella* spp. in Kazakhstan, revealing that isolates from cattle, small ruminants, and humans belonged to the most common pathogens, *B. melitensis* biovar 1–3 (mainly biovar 1 and II genotypes). In addition, we found genetically unique isolates from cattle, small ruminants, and camels that belonged to *B. abortus* biovar 1, 2, 3, 5, and 6 (mainly biovar 3) [86].

The widespread dissemination of next-generation sequencing methods has made it possible to move from classical MLVA to MLVA based on WGS [17]. Chinese scientists studied *B. melitensis* strains using two methods: MLVA and WGS-SNP. Because of MLVA, all strains belonged to the Eastern Mediterranean lineage. WGS-SNP identified genotype II, which was divided into six subclades, four of which formed independent lineages, suggesting that local circulating lineages may increase the incidence of human brucellosis. Thus, the resolution of WGS-SNP exceeded that of MLVA [87].

Advantages of the MLVA method

- Typing data are available online, it is easy to compare laboratories and countries, and it has good discriminatory power.

The disadvantages of the MLVA method

- Convergent evolution, which makes it challenging to analyze phylogenetic relationships [9]
- MLVA examines only specific target regions of the genome, and tandem repeat markers are not informative enough
- In addition, SNPs (cgSNPs) have higher resolution than MLVA because SNPs across the entire bacterial genome are examined, unlike MLVA, in which only tandem repeat loci are analyzed [50, 53, 88]
- This method is expensive and requires a qualified researcher.

Analysis of cgSNP based on WGS

WGS

Researchers have found that several types have genetic differences, even in a single species of bacteria. DNA-DNA hybridization and comparative genomics have shown that *Brucella* species share >80% homology and >98% sequence similarity, which is one of the challenges in molecular epidemiology in species identification [36], primarily using molecular typing tests [89]. The 16S ribosomal RNA sequence was 100% identical between all *Brucella* spp.

To understand where the strains originated from and whether they are related, it is necessary to use various genetic tools, such as WGS [32, 50, 90–92]. WGS is a widely used tool for molecular typing and

evolutionary studies [9, 53] and for studying geographic distribution and emerging pathogens [93]. WGS replaces the traditional molecular typing approach of pulsed-field gel electrophoresis (PFGE) and complements MLST [79, 80]. PFGE has high discriminatory power and typability, but the test requires 3–5 days to complete. The cost is relatively high compared with other methods, and the availability of this method is limited. The PFGE and amplified fragment length polymorphism methods provide different laboratory results.

Five different *Brucella* genotypes, as well as several sub-genotypes, have been identified using WGS technology [23]: The most basic lineage is the Western Mediterranean clade (genotype I); Eastern Mediterranean includes the Middle East (genotype II), African (genotype III), European (genotype IV), and American (genotype V) [22, 32]. It was previously reported that most Asian strains of *B. melitensis* belong to genotype II [86, 94]; thus, all Indian and Chinese strains of *B. melitensis* belong to the Eastern Mediterranean clade [25], whereas genotypes III, IV, and V have limited geographical distribution [24, 95]. The phylogenetic tree shows that isolates of *B. melitensis* species originated from the Mediterranean region [23, 42]. Thus, *B. melitensis* isolates spread across the Mediterranean Sea through livestock and animal products destined for trade [23].

WGS data represent a complete collection of genes and can differentiate the genetic features of closely related strains, even when conventional methods cannot identify differences between strains from the same outbreak or strains circulating in a specific geographic area [91] due to extremely high similarity between isolates [79, 92]. Recently, WGS has become simple, cost-effective, and accessible [23]. With the development of the WGS method, bioinformatics packages that can differentiate related pathogens are also evolving [23, 50, 53, 96, 97]. The availability of complete genome sequences in databases, e.g., microbial taxonomy data, allows for whole-genome comparative studies of different bacterial species to explore the presence of possible lineages in a region [92]. The National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) database contains 355 strains of *B. melitensis* [98] and 175 strains of *B. abortus* [89]. Biovar, especially *B. melitensis*, is poorly correlated with certain genetic entities [23], and as such, there is a need to utilize molecular genetic testing methods. MLVA and MLST are currently used to classify the *Brucella* species into genus [99], and the availability of WGS in public databases allows comparisons of the genomes of different pathogens. At the same time, it remains difficult to determine the pathogen's origin and possible migration route [50, 76].

Genotype classifications have been confirmed in WGS studies, for example, by comparing the complete genomes of 11 *B. melitensis* isolates from Russia with 87 *B. melitensis* isolates from the NCBI Genbank

and a survey of 57 imported cases in Germany [22]. The Indian strain ADMAS-G1, *B. melitensis* Rev. 1 (ST7), and the reference strain *B. melitensis* 16M were assigned to the American lineage. The similarity of isolates from India and China is related to trade between Asian countries [23]. Egyptian *B. melitensis* strains have been assigned to the Mediterranean lineage, indicating their phylogenetic relationship with strains from the Mediterranean region [9]; a comparison of 13 NCBI *B. melitensis* genomes with the genomes of 25 *B. melitensis* isolates from patients in Norway [22] showed that most of them belong to the Eastern Mediterranean lineage and the remainder to the African lineage. Brucellosis is often detected in migrants and travelers returning from endemic countries [32]. The 27 Israeli *B. melitensis* strains were genotype II [22].

Advantages of the WGS method

- Fast and reliable [79, 92]
- Provides a pan-genomic assessment of *Brucella* genome variation, including virulence genes, and allows comparisons with databases of virulence factors and examination of how these genes differ between strains [22].

Disadvantages of the WGS method

- Expensive, requires special equipment, and qualified specialists.

Analysis of cgSNP based on WGS

After WGS, it is necessary to identify SNPs among strains [100]. Initially, SNP analysis was based on real-time PCR. This method is a simple and rapid approach to identifying *Brucella* isolates at the species level. The recent introduction of SNP-based typing, which is associated with reduced costs, has significantly improved molecular subtyping and phylogenetic analysis in microbiology [17]. The cgSNP tracks brucellosis and facilitates accurate intraspecies differentiation and comparative analysis of *Brucella* isolates and biovar [50, 101, 102], providing sufficient data for comparison [3]. Although fewer genomes are available for comparative SNP studies than for MLVA allelic profiles, WGS-SNP analysis provides better resolution because polymorphism can be inferred based on coding and non-coding regions [50], including intergenic regions and covering more regions of the genome compared with MLST or core genome phylogeny [103]. In addition, an SNP microarray was previously used to infer the evolutionary lineage of *Brucella* spp. [104]. Core-genome SNP analysis is a reliable method for molecular genotyping [105].

The SNP method is suitable for genotyping all *Brucella* species. However, most authors describe SNP results for the *B. melitensis* species because this species is the most common and dangerous *Brucella* species for humans. Scientists have described the use of SNPs to effectively differentiate *B. melitensis* isolates and determine their geographic and worldwide

distribution [50, 106]. The authors described that using the WGS-SNP method, related *B. melitensis* strains can be identified and better differentiated when isolates are formed into genotypes, depending on the circulation in a particular territory. Changes in *B. melitensis* genes allow them to adapt to new geographical areas and hosts [23, 107]. In this context, SNPs helped to provide insights into the evolution of *B. melitensis* strains. In addition, the cgSNP method can be used to detect *B. melitensis* isolates occurring in a specific geographical area.

Bioinformatics analysis has been used to process raw molecular typing data to elucidate biological processes [108]. For meaningful WGS-SNP analysis, errors encountered during data preparation, amplification, software, sequencing, and sequence mapping/alignment must be considered [109]. In addition, when performing WGS-SNP, using a reference strain is essential because it determines the reliability of the results in establishing relationships between isolates. At present, researchers use the reference strains *B. abortus* 2308 and *B. melitensis* 16 M [48, 53]. SNP calling requires well-processed data and a user-friendly and reliable calling tool [89].

WGS-SNP analysis is a rapid tool for epidemiological studies because it can effectively distinguish 33 *Brucella* isolates by determining their geographic origin [110]. This method is more efficient than MLVA and cgMLST, but less variation was observed [89]. The WGS-SNP method revealed that *B. melitensis* isolates from India were similar to the vaccine strain *B. melitensis* M5 from China and had no similarity to the vaccine strain *B. melitensis* Rev.1 [97]. cgSNP analysis in Iran revealed similarities between *B. abortus* isolates and strains from neighboring and Middle Eastern countries. In Ethiopia, phylogenetic analysis based on the wgSNP revealed that *B. abortus* belongs to lineage A [88]. The isolates from Iran *B. melitensis* investigated using the cgSNP method were classified as American and Eastern Mediterranean clades [95].

Advantages of the cgSNP method

- Fast, reliable, and reproducible [53]
- High resolution [103].

The disadvantages of the cgSNP method

- Expensive, requires special equipment, and qualified specialists.

Discussion

Brucellosis, a zoonotic disease, harms livestock productivity and endangers human health. Brucellosis spreads due to the international exchange and transportation of infectious livestock without control. Thus, *B. melitensis* isolates have spread across the Mediterranean Sea with livestock and animal products destined for trade [23], whereas *B. abortus* isolates have spread from South Africa due to socioeconomic, migration, and colonial relations among countries [74].

Sharing pastures with neighboring livestock increases the risk of brucellosis infection. Across the country, open and mixed animal markets contribute to the dissemination of brucellosis. Most farmers disregard the rules against brucellosis, making their herds vulnerable by acquiring replacement stock without verifying their disease status.

Activities that can help eliminate brucellosis include detailed epidemiological studies and genotyping of circulating strains to identify and determine the sources and routes of infection. To prevent brucellosis, it is necessary to import animals only from countries known to be free of the disease. It is crucial to consistently educate about the harmful effects of vaccine misuse and the illicit transfer of livestock among herds. Coordinated efforts among the ministries of health, agriculture, the environment, and natural resources are essential for enhancing brucellosis surveillance and control and for ensuring optimal health for humans, animals, and the ecosystem. Enhancing collaboration between farmers and the government is essential for fostering robust veterinary services.

Social factors, such as trade, migration, and travel, impact the transmission of brucellosis across international borders. The country's economic potential is substantial due to the requirement of substantial resources to eradicate the disease, including expensive equipment and reagents, trained personnel, and reasonable compensation for animals. Farmers, veterinarians, and scientists receive full support from state policy. The ecological condition of a country can influence the spread of pathogens among wild animals. Implementing organizational, economical, unique, and sanitary measures along with allocating necessary resources is crucial in preventing brucellosis in animals and eradicating its sources.

A definitive diagnosis of brucellosis in animals requires a combination of serological reactions, culture isolation, and biochemical tests. Based on the current epidemiological context, rose Bengal test (RBT) and complement fixation test (CFT) are used for animal diagnosis. In cases of doubtful results, the standard tube-agglutination test served to clarify the animals' status. Animals are sent for slaughter if they test positive for disease in PCR results or culture isolates. Eradicating brucellosis using these methods is challenging due to the inability to trace the source and transmission pathway of the infectious agent. These methods should provide reliable, reproducible, and discriminatory results. Scientists are refining new molecular genetic techniques. The WGS method enables accurate identification of strains' geographical origin and distribution. Identifying the infection source can contain the causative agent and halt the epidemiological process early on.

The genus *Brucella* includes 14 species that differ in biochemical characteristics, host preference, and degree of pathogenicity. The control of brucellosis mainly depends on the efficiency of detecting

and analyzing the predominant *Brucella* species in a particular area. Using WGS and MLVA, it is possible to determine the geographic origins of strains and therefore the source of pathogens. However, MLVA has limitations because only tandem repeat loci are examined. The WGS method has more advantages than MLVA because it can better discriminate pathogen genotypes [32, 53, 111]. Because some strains circulate only in certain areas, it is possible to trace pathogen introduction through genetic changes in isolates [50]. WGS was used to identify patterns of brucellosis emergence in individual countries and the spread of the disease within a country [94]. WGS provides an opportunity to clarify the geographic origin of an isolate or outbreak when information about the likely country of infection is missing or unclear [32].

The WGS method boasts superior resolution compared to other molecular typing methods. The development of WGS technology allows for the comprehensive analysis of *Brucella* genome variations, thereby aiding in the elimination and prevention of brucellosis. Despite its speed and reproducibility, the WGS method is not accessible to all researchers due to financial constraints.

Incorporating advanced molecular techniques into conventional methods for pathogen identification and elimination is necessary due to limitations in WGS.

Conclusion

Based on the literature, we present a brief overview of methods for investigating *Brucella*. We emphasized molecular genetic methods for *Brucella* research. Molecular genetic typing techniques for pathogens have advanced over the last few decades. The use of each molecular genotyping method depends on an institution's resources, personnel training, and purpose.

Brucella typing is particularly difficult due to the extreme likeness among isolates. Based on our molecular genetic analysis, we recommend WGS for characterizing *Brucella* strains. The WGS method has surpassed the MLVA method as the gold standard for *Brucella* genotyping due to its greater power. The WGS method identifies the precise geographical origin and distribution routes of strains. WGS offers superior genotype distinction compared to other methods due to its comprehensive genome coverage. WGS has recently been simplified, cost-effective, and made more accessible.

Authors' Contributions

AD: Conceptualization and writing-original draft. SD and SP: Reviewed and edited the manuscript. NK: Designed the study. All authors have read, reviewed, and approved the final manuscript.

Acknowledgments

This research was funded by the Science Committee of the Ministry of Science and Higher

Education of the Republic of Kazakhstan (Grant No. AP19676357 “Unveiling virulence factors of *Brucella* isolates from livestock in Kazakhstan by WGS”).

Competing Interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Publisher's Note

Veterinary World remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published institutional affiliation.

References

- Doganay, G.D. and Doganay, M. (2013) *Brucella* as a potential agent of bioterrorism. *Recent Pat. Antiinfect. Drug Discov.*, 8(1): 27–33.
- Liu, Z., Gao, L., Wang, M., Yuan, M. and Li, Z. (2024) Long ignored but making a comeback: A worldwide epidemiological evolution of human brucellosis. *Emerg. Microbes Infect.*, 13(1): 2290839.
- Dean, A.S., Crump, L., Greter, H., Schelling, E. and Zinsstag, J. (2012) Global burden of human brucellosis: A systematic review of disease frequency. *PLoS Negl. Trop. Dis.*, 6(10): e1865.
- McDermott J., Grace, D. and Zinsstag, J. (2013) Economics of brucellosis impact and control in low-income countries. *Rev. Sci. Tech.*, 32(1): 249–261.
- Mirnejad, R., Jazi, F.M., Mostafaei, S. and Sedighi, M. (2017) Molecular investigation of virulence factors of *Brucella melitensis* and *Brucella abortus* strains isolated from clinical and non-clinical samples. *Microb. Pathog.*, 109: 8–14.
- Wareth, G., Abdeen, A., Ali, H., Bardenstein, J.M. and Dadar, B.R. (2019) Brucellosis in the Mediterranean Countries: History, Prevalence, Distribution, Current Situation and Attempts at Surveillance and Control. Available from: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/332057520_brucellosis_in_the_mediterranean_countries_history_prevalence_distribution_current_situation_and_attempts_at_surveillance_and_control. Retrieved on 29-07-2024.
- Dadar, M., Shahali, Y. and Whatmore, A.M. (2018) Human brucellosis caused by raw dairy products: A review on the occurrence, major risk factors and prevention. *Int. J. Food Microbiol.*, 292: 39–47.
- Corbel, M.J. (2020) Microbiology of the Genus *Brucella*, Brucellosis: Clinical and Laboratory Aspects. CRC Press, United States, p53–72.
- Khan, A.U., Melzer, F., Sayour, A.E., Shell, W.S., Linde, J., Abdel-Ghli, M., El-Soally, S.A.G.E., Elschner, M.C., Sayour, H.E.M., Ramadan, E.S., Mohamed, S.A., Hendam, A., Ismail, R.I., Farahat, L.F., Roesler, U., Neubauer, H. and El-Adawy, H. (2021) Whole-genome sequencing for tracing the genetic diversity of *Brucella abortus* and *Brucella melitensis* isolated from livestock in Egypt. *Pathogens*, 10(6): 759.
- Shirzadi, M.R., Mohammadi, P., Moradi, G., Goodarzi, E., Khazaei, S. and Moayed, Z. (2021) The incidence and geographical distribution of brucellosis in Iran using geographic information system and prediction of its incidence in 2021. *J. Prev. Med. Hyg.*, 62(3): E635–E643.
- Wareth, G., Dadar, M., Ali, H., Hamdy, M.E.R., Al-Talhy, A.M. and Elkharsawi, A.R. (2022) The perspective of antibiotic therapeutic challenges of brucellosis in the Middle East and North African countries: Current situation and therapeutic management. *Transbound. Emerg. Dis.*, 69(5): 11253–1268.
- Roushan, M.R.H. and Ebrahimpour, S. (2015) Human brucellosis: An overview. *Caspian J. Intern. Med.*, 6(1): 46–47.
- Moreno, E., Blasco, J.M. and Moriyón, I. (2022) Facing the human and animal brucellosis conundrums: The forgotten lessons. *Microorganisms*, 10(5): 942.
- Bukhari, E.E. (2018) Pediatric brucellosis. An update review for the new millennium. *Saudi Med J.*, 39(4): 336–341.
- Dadar, M., Yazdani, Y. and Wareth, G. (2019) Molecular diagnosis of acute and chronic brucellosis of human. In: *Microbial Technology for the Welfare of Society*. Springer, Berlin, p223–245.
- Liu, B., Liu, G., Ma, X., Wang, F., Zhang, R., Zhou, P., Liu, Z., Li, Z. and Jiang, X. (2023) Epidemiology, clinical manifestations, and laboratory findings of 1,590 human brucellosis cases in Ningxia, China. *Front. Microbiol.*, 14: 1259479.
- Pelerito, A., Nunes, A., Grilo, T., Isidro, J., Silva, C. and Ferreira, A.C. (2021) Genetic characterization of *Brucella* spp.: Whole genome sequencing-based approach for the determination of multiple locus variable number tandem repeat profiles. *Front. Microbiol.*, 12: 740068.
- Hashemifar, I., Yadegar, A., Jazi, F.M. and Amirmozafari, N. (2017) Molecular prevalence of putative virulence-associated genes in *Brucella melitensis* and *Brucella abortus* isolates from human and livestock specimens in Iran. *Microb. Pathog.*, 105: 334–339.
- WHO. (2021) Neglected Tropical Diseases. Available from: https://www.who.int/health-topics/neglected-tropical-diseases#tab=tab_1. Retrieved on 29-07-2024.
- Olsen, S.C. and Palmer, M.V. (2014) Advancement of knowledge of *Brucella* over the past 50 years. *Vet. Pathol.*, 51(6): 1076–1089.
- Mancilla, M. (2015) Smooth to rough dissociation in *Brucella*: The missing link to virulence. *Front. Cell Infect. Microbiol.*, 5: 98.
- Rabinowitz, P., Zilberman, B., Motro, Y., Roberts, M.C., Greninger, A. and Neshet, L. (2021) Whole genome sequence analysis of *Brucella melitensis* phylogeny and virulence factors. *Microbiol. Res.*, 12(3): 698–710.
- Tan, K.K., Tan, Y.C., Chang, L.Y., Lee, K.W., Nore, S.S. and Yee, W.Y. (2015) Full genome SNP-based phylogenetic analysis reveals the origin and global spread of *Brucella melitensis*. *BMC Genomics*, 16(1): 93.
- Pisarenko, S.V., Kovalev, D.A., Volynkina, A.S., Ponomarenko, D.G., Rusanova, D.V. and Zharinova, N.V. (2018) Global evolution and phylogeography of *Brucella melitensis* strains. *BMC Genomics*, 19(1): 353.
- Sun, M., Jing, Z., Di, D., Yan, H., Zhang, Z. and Xu, Q. (2017) Multiple locus variable - number tandem - repeat and single-nucleotide polymorphism - based *Brucella* typing reveals multiple lineages in *Brucella melitensis* currently endemic in China. *Front. Vet. Sci.*, 4: 215.
- WOAH. (2018) Brucellosis (infection with *B. abortus*, *B. melitensis* and *B. suis*). In: *Manual of Diagnostic Tests and Vaccines for Terrestrial Animals*. 7th ed., Vol. 1. World Health Organization for Animal Health, Paris, France, p355–398.
- Wattam, A.R., Foster, J.T., Mane, S.P., Beckstrom-Sternberg, S.M., Beckstrom-Sternberg, J.M. and Dickerman, A.W. (2014) Comparative phylogenomics and evolution of the *Brucellae* reveal a path to virulence. *J. Bacteriol.*, 196(5): 920–930.
- Khan, A.U., Shell, W.S., Melzer, F., Sayour, A.E., Ramadan, E.S. and Elschner, M.C. (2019) Identification, genotyping and antimicrobial susceptibility testing of *Brucella* spp. isolated from livestock in Egypt. *Microorganisms*, 7(12): 603.
- Sayour, A.E., Elbauomy, E., Abdel-Hamid, N.H., Mahrous, A., Carychao, D. and Cooley, M.B. (2020) MLVA fingerprinting of *Brucella melitensis* circulating among livestock and cases of sporadic human illness in Egypt. *Transbound. Emerg. Dis.*, 67(6): 2435–2445.
- Wareth, G., El-Diasty, M., Melzer, F., Schmoock, G., Moustafa, S.A. and El-Beskawy, M. (2020) MLVA-16 genotyping of *Brucella abortus* and *Brucella melitensis* isolates from different animal species in Egypt: Geographical

- relatedness and the mediterranean lineage. *Pathogens*, 9(6): 498.
31. Ronai, Z., Kreizinger, Z., Dan, A., Drees, K., Foster, J.T. and Bányai, K. (2015) First isolation and characterization of *Brucella microti* from wild boar. *BMC Vet. Res.*, 11: 147.
 32. Johansen, T.B., Schefer, L., Jensen, V.K., Bohlin, J. and Feruglio, S.L. (2018) Whole-genome sequencing and antimicrobial resistance in *Brucella melitensis* from a Norwegian perspective. *Sci. Rep.*, 8(1): 8538.
 33. Ducrotot, M., Bertu, W.J., Matope, G., Cadmus, S., Conde-Álvarez, R. and Gusi, A.M. (2017) *Brucellosis* in sub-Saharan Africa: Current challenges for management, diagnosis and control. *Acta Trop.*, 165: 179–193.
 34. Whatmore, A.M., Davison, N., Cloeckaert, A., Al Dahouk, S., Zygmunt, M.S. and Brew, S.D. (2014) *Brucella papionis* sp. nov., isolated from baboons (*Papio* spp.). *Int. J. Syst. Evol. Microbiol.*, 64(Pt 12): 4120–4128.
 35. Scholz, H.C., Revilla-Fernandez, S., Al Dahouk, S., Hammerl, J.A., Zygmunt, M.S. and Cloeckaert, A. (2016) *Brucella vulpis* sp. nov., isolated from mandibular lymph nodes of red foxes (*Vulpes vulpes*). *Int. J. Syst. Evol. Microbiol.*, 66(5): 2090–2098.
 36. Leclercq, S.O., Cloeckaert, A. and Zygmunt, M.S. (2020) Taxonomic organization of the family *Brucellaceae* based on a phylogenomic approach. *Front. Microbiol.*, 10: 3083.
 37. List of Prokaryotic Names with Standing in Nomenclature (LPSN). (2018) Species. Available from: https://www.microbiologyresearch.org/docserver/fulltext/ijsem/68/6/1825_ijsem002786.pdf?expires=1722245646&id=id&acname=guest&checksum=4DFE0F463E49869C478BFC2FEC0D2A8E. Retrieved on 29-07-2024.
 38. Spickler, A.R. (2019) *Brucellosis: Brucella abortus*. Available from: https://www.cfsph.iastate.edu/Factsheets/pdfs/brucellosis_abortus.pdf. Retrieved on 29-07-2024.
 39. Muñoz, P.M., Mick, V., Sacchini, L., Janowicz, A., de Miguel, M.J., Cherfa, M.A., Nevado, C.R., Girault, G., Andrés-Barranco, S., Jay, M., Di Giannatale, E., Zilli, K., Ancora, M., Dondo, A., Zoppi, S., Arnal, M.C., Tittarelli, M., DeMassis, F., Garin-Bastuji, B., Blasco, J.M. and Garofolo, G. (2019) Phylogeography and epidemiology of *Brucella suis* biovar 2 in wildlife and domestic swine. *Vet. Microbiol.*, 233: 68–77.
 40. About, F., Pastre, T., Boutrou, M., Martinez, A.Y., Melzani, A. and Peugny, S. (2023) Novel species of *Brucella* causing human brucellosis, French Guiana. *Emerg. Infect. Dis.*, 29(2): 333–340.
 41. Hernández-Mora, G., Chacón-Díaz, C., Moreira-Soto, A., Barrantes-Granados, O., Suárez-Esquivel, M. and Viquez-Ruiz, E. (2023) Virulent *Brucella nosferati* infecting *Desmodus rotundus* has emerging potential due to the broad foraging range of its bat host for humans and wild and domestic animals. *mSphere.*, 8(4): e0006123.
 42. Hordt, A., Lopez, M.G., Meier-Kolthoff, J.P., Schleuning, M., Weinhold, L.M. and Tindall, B.J. (2020) Analysis of 1,000 +type-strain genomes substantially improves taxonomic classification of *Alphaproteobacteria*. *Front. Microbiol.*, 11: 468.
 43. Moreno, E., Middlebrook, E.A., Altamirano-Silva, P., Al Dahouk, S., Araj, G.F., Arce-Gorvel, V., Arenas-Gamboa, A., Ariza, J., Barquero-Calvo, E., Battelli, G., Bertu, W.J.,... & Moriyón, I. (2023) If you're not confused, you're not paying attention: *Ochrobactrum* is not *Brucella*. *J. Clin. Microbiol.*, 61(8): 0043823.
 44. Soler-Lloréns, P.F., Quance, C.R., Lawhon, S.D., Stuber, T.P., Edwards, J.F., Ficht, T.A., Robbe-Austerman, S., O'Callaghan, D. and Keriel, A. (2016) *Brucella* spp. isolate from a Pac-Man frog (*Ceratophrys ornata*) reveals characteristics departing from classical *Brucellae*. *Front. Cell. Infect. Microbiol.*, 6: 116.
 45. Al Dahouk, S., Köhler, S., Occhialini, A., Jiménez de Bagüés, M.P., Hammerl, J.A., Eisenberg, T., Vergnaud, G., Cloeckaert, A., Zygmunt, M.S., Whatmore, A.M., Melzer, F., Drees, K.P., Foster, J.T., Wattam, A.R. and Scholz, H.C. (2017) *Brucella* spp. of amphibians comprises genomically diverse motile strains competent for replication in macrophages and survival in mammalian hosts. *Sci. Rep.*, 7: 44420.
 46. Mühlendorfer, K., Wibbelt, G., Szentiks, C.A., Fischer, D., Scholz, H.C. and Zschöck, M. (2016) The role of 'atypical' *Brucella* in amphibians: Are we facing novel emerging pathogens? *J. Appl. Microbiol.*, 122(1): 40–53.
 47. Eisenberg, T., Riße, K., Schauerte, N., Geiger, C., Blom, J. and Scholz, H.C. (2017) Isolation of a novel "atypical" *Brucella* strain from a bluespotted ribbontail ray (*Taeniura lymma*). *Antonie Van Leeuwenhoek*, 110: 221–234.
 48. Yang, X., Piao, D., Mao, L., Pang, B., Zhao, H. and Tian, G. (2020) Whole-genome sequencing of rough *Brucella melitensis* in China provides insights into its genetic features. *Emerg. Microbes. Infect.*, 9(1): 2147–2156.
 49. Akoko, J.M., Pelle, R., Lukambagire, A.S., Machuka, E.M., Nthiwa, D. and Mathew, C. (2021) Molecular epidemiology of *Brucella* species in mixed livestock-human ecosystems in Kenya. *Sci. Rep.*, 11: 8881.
 50. Georgi, E., Walter, M.C., Pfalzgraf, M.T., Northoff, B.H., Holdt, L.M. and Scholz, H.C. (2017) Whole genome sequencing of *Brucella melitensis* isolated from 57 patients in Germany reveals high diversity in strains from Middle East. *PLoS One*, 12: 175425.
 51. Dadar, M., Alamian, S., Behrozikhah, A.M., Yazdani, F., Kalantari, A. and Etemadi, A. (2019) Molecular identification of *Brucella* species and biovars associated with animal and human infection in Iran. *Vet. Res. Forum*, 10(4): 315–321.
 52. Galinska, E.M. and Zagorski, J. (2013) *Brucellosis* in humans-etiology, diagnostics, clinical forms. *Ann. Agric. Environ. Med.*, 20(2): 233–238.
 53. Janowicz, A., De Massis, F., Ancora, M., Camma, C., Patavino, C. and Battisti, A. (2018) Core genome multilocus sequence typing and single nucleotide polymorphism analysis in the epidemiology of *Brucella melitensis* infections. *J. Clin. Microbiol.*, 56(9): 517–518.
 54. O'Callaghan, D. (2020) Human *Brucellosis*: Resent advances and future challenges. *Infect. Dis. Poverty*, 9(1): 101.
 55. Saeed, U., Ali, S., Khan, T.M., El-Adawy, H., Melzer, F. and Khan, A.U. (2019) Seroepidemiology and the molecular detection of animal brucellosis in Punjab, Pakistan. *Microorganisms*, 7(10): 449.
 56. Hegazy, Y.M., Abdel-Hamid, N.H., Eldehieh, M., Oreiby, A.F., Algabbary, M.H. and Hamdy, M.E. (2021) Trans-species transmission of *Brucellae* among ruminants hampering brucellosis control efforts in Egypt. *J. Appl. Microbiol.*, 132(1): 90–100.
 57. Simpson, G., Thompson, P.N., Saegerman, C., Marcotty, T., Letesson, J.J. and de Bolle, X. (2021) *Brucellosis* in wildlife in Africa: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Sci. Rep.*, 11: 5960.
 58. Blasco, J.M. and Molina-Flores, B. (2011) Control and eradication of *Brucella melitensis* infection in sheep and goats. *Vet. Clin. North Am. Food Anim. Pract.*, 27(1): 95–104.
 59. Alvarez, J., Suez, J.L., Garcia, N., Serrat, C., Perez-Sancho, M. and Gonzalez, S. (2011) Management of an outbreak of brucellosis due to *B. melitensis* in dairy cattle in Spain. *Res. Vet. Sci.*, 90(2): 208–211.
 60. Ledwaba, B., Mafofo, J. and van Heerden, H. (2014) Genome sequences of *Brucella abortus* and *Brucella suis* strains isolated from bovine in Zimbabwe. *Genome Announc.*, 2(5): e01063-14.
 61. Bai, Q., Li, H., Wu, X., Shao, J., Sun, M. and Yin, D. (2021) Comparative analysis of the main outer membrane proteins of *Brucella* in the diagnosis of brucellosis. *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.*, 560: 126–131.
 62. Dehghani, S., Sabzehei, F., Taromchi, A.H., Mobaien, A.R. and Arsang-Jang, S. (2021) Hybrid recombinant Omp 22, 25, and 31 immunodominant epitopes can be used

- for serodiagnosis of brucellosis. *J. Immunol. Methods*, 497: 113–123.
63. Girault, G., Djokic, F., Petot-Bottin, F., Perrot, L., Sebastien, H. and Vicente, A.F. (2023) Molecular investigations of two first *Brucella suis* biovar 2 infections cases in French dogs. *Pathogens*, 12: 336.
 64. Djokic V., Freddi, L., de Massis, F., Lahti, E., van den Esker, M.H., Whatmore, A., Haughey, A., Ferreira, A.C., Garofolo, G., Melzer, F., Sacchini, F., Koets, A., Wyllie, S., Fontbonne, A., Girault, G., Vicente, A.F., McGiven, J. and Ponsart, C. (2023) The emergence of *Brucella canis* as a public health threat in Europe: What we know and what we need to learn. *Emerg. Microbes. Infect.*, 12(2): 2249126.
 65. Wareth, G., Melzer, F. and Neubauer, H. (2017) In *Brucella*: Selective pressure may turn some genes on instead of default off position. *Med. Hypotheses*, 103: 29–31.
 66. Godfroid, J., Al Dahouk, S., Pappas, G., Roth, F., Matope, G. and Muma, J.A. (2013) “One Health” surveillance and control of brucellosis in developing countries: Moving away from improvisation. *Comp. Immunol. Microbiol. Infect. Dis.* 36: 241–248.
 67. O’Callaghan, D. and Whatmore, A.M. (2011) *Brucella* genomics as we enter the multi-genome era. *Brief Funct. Genomics*, 10(6): 334–341.
 68. Pelerito, A., Nunes, A., Nuncio, M.S. and Gomes, J.P. (2020) Genome-scale approach to study the genetic relatedness among *Brucella melitensis* strains. *PLoS One*, 15(3): 0229863.
 69. Lopez-Goñi, I., Garcia-Yoldi, D., Marín, C.M., De Miguel, M.J. and Muñoz, P.M. (2011) New Bruce-ladder multiplex PCR assay for the biovar typing of *Brucella suis* and the discrimination of *Brucella suis* and *Brucella canis*. *Vet. Microbiol.*, 154(1–2): 152–155.
 70. Girault, G., Perrot, L., Mick, V. and Ponsart, C. (2022) High-resolution melting PCR as rapid genotyping tool for *Brucella* species. *Microorganisms*, 10(2): 336.
 71. Gopaul, K.K., Sells, J., Lee, R., Beckstrom-Sternberg, S.M., Foster, J.T. and Whatmore, A.M. (2014) Development and assessment of multiplex high resolution melting assay as a tool for rapid single-tube identification of five *Brucella* species. *BMC Res. Notes*, 7: 903.
 72. Whatmore, A.M., Koylass, M.S., Muchowski, J., Edwards-Smallbone, J., Gopaul, K.K. and Perrett, L.L. (2016) Extended multilocus sequence analysis to describe the global population structure of the genus *Brucella*: Phylogeography and relationship to biovars. *Front. Microbiol.*, 7: 2049.
 73. Vergnaud, G., Hauck, Y., Christiany, D., Daoud, B., Pourcel, C. and Jacques, I. (2018) Genotypic expansion within the population structure of classical *Brucella* species revealed by MLVA16 typing of 1404 *Brucella* isolates from different animal and geographic origins, 1974–2006. *Front. Microbiol.*, 9: 1545.
 74. Edao, B.M., Ameni, G., Berg, S., Tekle, M., Whatmore, A.M. and Wood, J.L.N. (2023) Whole genome sequencing of Ethiopian *Brucella abortus* isolates expands the known diversity of an early branching sub-Saharan African lineage. *Front. Microbiol.*, 14: 1128966.
 75. Sankarasubramanian, J., Vishnu, U.S., Gunasekaran, P. and Rajendhran, J. (2019) Development and evaluation of a core genome multilocus sequence typing (cgMLST) scheme for *Brucella* spp. *Infect. Genet. Evol.*, 67: 38–43.
 76. Ma, J.Y., Wang, H., Zhang, X.F., Xu, L.Q., Hu, G.Y. and Jiang, H. (2016) MLVA and MLST typing of *Brucella* from Qinghai, China. *Infect. Dis. Poverty*, 5: 26.
 77. Dadar, M., Alamian, S., Tadayon, K., Ashford, R.T. and Whatmore, A.M. (2022) Molecular characterization of zoonotic *Brucella* species isolated from animal and human samples in Iran. *Acta Trop.*, 229: 106363.
 78. Dadar, M., Brangsch, H., Alamian, S., Neubauer, H. and Wareth, G. (2023) Whole-genome sequencing for genetic diversity analysis of Iranian *Brucella* spp. isolated from humans and livestock. *One Health*, 16: 100483.
 79. Whatmore, A.M. and Foster, J.T. (2021) Emerging diversity and ongoing expansion of the genus *Brucella*. *Infect. Genet. Evol.*, 92: 104865.
 80. Ashford, R.T. and Whatmore, A.M. (2022) “*Brucella*.” In: *Molecular Typing in Bacterial Infections. II. Filippis I.* de Springer International Publishing, Cham, 2: 217–245.
 81. Tsang, A.K.L., Lee, H.H., Yiu, S.M., Lau, S.K.P. and Woo, P.C.Y. (2017) Failure of phylogeny inferred from multilocus sequence typing to represent bacterial phylogeny. *Sci. Rep.*, 7: 4536.
 82. Abdel-Ghil, M.Y., Thomas, P., Brandt, C., Melzer, F., Subbaiyan, A. and Chaudhuri, P. (2022) Core genome multilocus sequence typing scheme for improved characterization and epidemiological surveillance of pathogenic *Brucella*. *J. Clin. Microbiol.*, 60(8): 0031122.
 83. Revez, J., Espinosa, L., Albiger, B., Leitmeyer, K.C., Struelens, M.J. and ECDC National Microbiology Focal Points and Experts Group. (2017) Survey of the use of whole-genome sequencing for infectious diseases surveillance: Rapid expansion of European national capacities, 2015–2016. *Front. Public Health*, 5: 347.
 84. Garofolo, G., Fasanello, A., Di Giannatale, E., Platone, I., Sacchini, L. and Persiani, T. (2016) Cases of human brucellosis in Sweden linked to Middle East and Africa. *BMC Res. Notes*, 9: 277.
 85. Xiao, P., Yang, H., Di, D., Piao, D., Zhang, Q. and Hao, R. (2015) Genotyping of human *Brucella melitensis* biovar 3 isolated from Shanxi Province in China by MLVA16 and HOOF. *PLoS One*, 10: 0115932.
 86. Daugaliyeva, A., Sultanov, A., Usserbayev, B., Baramova, S., Modesto, P. and Adambayeva, A. (2018) Genotyping of *Brucella melitensis* and *Brucella abortus* strains in Kazakhstan using MLVA-15. *Infect. Genet. Evol.*, 58: 135–144.
 87. Xue, H., Zhao, Z., Wang, J., Ma, L., Li, J., Yang, X., Ren, L., Xu, L., Liu, Z. and Li, Z. (2023) Native circulating *Brucella melitensis* lineages causing a brucellosis epidemic in Qinghai, China. *Front. Microbiol.*, 14: 1233686.
 88. Sacchini, L., Wahab, T., Di Giannatale, E., Zilli, K., Abass, A. and Garofolo, G. (2019) Whole genome sequencing for tracing geographical origin of imported cases of human brucellosis in Sweden. *Microorganisms*, 7(10): 398.
 89. Ledwaba, M.B., Glover, B.A., Matle, I., Profitti, G., Martelli, P.L. and Casadio, R. (2021) Whole genome sequence analysis of *Brucella abortus* isolates from various regions of South Africa. *Microorganisms*, 9(3): 570.
 90. Liu, Z.G., Cao, X.A., Wang, M., Piao, D.R., Zhao, H.Y. and Cui, B.Y. (2019) Whole-genome sequencing of a *Brucella melitensis* strain (BMWS93) isolated from a bank clerk and exhibiting complete resistance to rifampin. *Microbiol. Resour. Announc.*, 8(33): e01645-18.
 91. Schaeffer, J., Revilla-Fernandez, S., Hofer, E., Posch, R. and Stoeger, A. (2021) Tracking the origin of Austrian human brucellosis cases using whole genome sequencing. *Front. Med.*, 8: 635547.
 92. Holzer, K., El-Diasty, M., Wareth, G., Abdel-Hamid, N.H., Hamdy, M.E.R. and Moustafa, S.A. (2021) Tracking the distribution of *Brucella abortus* in Egypt based on Core genome SNP analysis and *in silico* MLVA-16. *Microorganisms*, 9(9): 1942.
 93. Roetzer, A., Diel, R., Kohl, T., Rückert, C., Nübel, U. and Blom, J. (2013) Whole genome sequencing versus traditional genotyping for investigation of a *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* outbreak: A longitudinal molecular epidemiological study. *PLoS Med.*, 10(2): 1001387.
 94. Zhu, X., Zhao, Z., Ma, S., Guo, Z., Wang, M. and Li, Z. (2020) *Brucella melitensis*, a latent “travel bacterium,” continual spread and expansion from Northern to Southern China and its relationship to worldwide lineages. *Emerg. Microbes Infect.*, 9(1): 1618–1627.
 95. Dadar, M., Alamian, S., Brangsch, H., Elbadawy, M., Elkharsawi, A.R. and Neubauer, H. (2023) Determination of virulence associated genes and antimicrobial resistance

- profiles in *Brucella* isolates recovered from humans and animals in Iran using NGS technology. *Pathogens*, 12(1): 82.
96. Ng, P.C. and Kirkness, E.F. (2010) Whole genome sequencing. In: Genetic Variation. Springer, Berlin/Heidelberg, Germany, p215–226.
97. Kirk, M.D., Pires, S.M., Black, R.E., Caipo, M., Crump, J.A. and Devleesschauwer, B. (2015) World Health Organization estimates of the global and regional disease burden of 22 foodborne bacterial, protozoal, and viral diseases, 2010: A data synthesis. *PLoS Med.*, 12(12): 1001921.
98. Karthik, K., Anbazhagan, S., Thomas, P., Chitra, M.A., Alagesan Senthilkumar, T.M. and Sridhar, R. (2021) Genome sequencing and comparative genomics of Indian isolates of *Brucella melitensis*. *Front. Microbiol.*, 12: 698069.
99. Khames, M., Mick, V., de Miguel, M.J., Girault, G., Conde-Álvarez, R. and Khelef, D. (2017) The characterization of *Brucella* strains isolated from cattle in Algeria reveals the existence of a *B. abortus* lineage distinct from European and Sub-Saharan African strains. *Vet. Microbiol.*, 211: 124–128.
100. Yoshimura, D., Kajitani, R., Gotoh, Y., Katahira, K., Okuno, M. and Ogura, Y. (2019) Evaluation of SNP calling methods for closely related bacterial isolates and a novel high-accuracy pipeline: BactSNP. *Microb. Genom.*, 5(5): e000261.
101. South African Veterinary Council. (2018) Annual Report Financial Statements April 2015–231 March 2016. Available from: https://static.pmg.org.za/SAVC_Annual_Report_2018-2019_single_pages.pdf. Retrieved on 29-07-2024.
102. Garofolo, G., Di Giannatale, E., Platone, I., Zilli, K., Sacchini, L. and Abass, A. (2017) Origins and global context of *Brucella abortus* in Italy. *BMC Microbiol.*, 17: 28.
103. Rajendhran, J. (2021) Genomic insights into *Brucella*. *Infect. Genet. Evol.*, 87: 104635.
104. Foster, J.T., Price, L.B., Beckstrom-Sternberg, S.M., Pearson, T., Brown, W.D. and Kiesling, D.M. (2012) Genotyping of *Brucella* species using clade specific SNPs. *BMC Microbiol.*, 12: 110.
105. Tabynov, K., Raskolnikov, S., Kydyrbayev, Z. and Sansyrbay, A. (2016) Safety of the novel influenza viral vector *Brucella abortus* vaccine in pregnant heifers. *Ciênc. Rural*, 46: 114–118.
106. Pightling, A.W., Petronella, N. and Pagotto, F. (2014) Choice of reference sequence and assembler for alignment of *Listeria monocytogenes* short-read sequence data greatly influences rates of error in SNP Analyses. *PLoS One*, 9(8): e104579.
107. Suárez-Esquivel, M., Chaves-Olarte, E., Moreno, E. and Guzmán-Verri, C. (2020) *Brucella* Genomics: Macro and Micro Evolution. *Int. J. Mol. Sci.*, 21(20): 7749.
108. Mariano, D.C.B., Leite, C., Santos, L.H.S., Rocha, R.E.O. and de Melo-Minardi, R.C. (2019) A Guide to Performing Systematic Literature Reviews in Bioinformatics. arXiv. Available from: <https://arxiv.org/pdf/1707.05813>. Retrieved on 29-07-2024.
109. Van der Auwera, G.A., Carneiro, M.O., Hartl, C., Poplin, R., Angel, G.D. and Levy-Moonshine, A. (2013) From FastQ data to high-confidence variant calls: The genome analysis toolkit best practices pipeline. *Curr. Protoc. Bioinform.*, 43(1110): 11.10.1–11.10.33.
110. Zaki, N.A., Salloum, T., Osman, M., Rafei, R., Hamze, M. and Tokajian, S. (2017) Typing and comparative genome analysis of *Brucella melitensis* isolated from Lebanon. *FEMS Microbiol. Lett.*, 364:(19):1–9.
111. Allen, A.R., Milne, G., Drees, K., Presho, E., Graham, J. and McAdam, P. (2020) Genomic epizootiology of a *Brucella abortus* outbreak in Northern Ireland (1997–2012). *Infect. Genet. Evol.*, 81: 104235.
