## **METHODOLOGY**

## Open Access

# Development of a Large-Scale Pathogen Screening Test for the Biosafety Evaluation of Canine Mesenchymal Stem Cells



Emese Pekker<sup>1,2,3</sup>, Katalin Priskin<sup>3</sup>, Éva Szabó-Kriston<sup>4</sup>, Bernadett Csányi<sup>4</sup>, Orsolya Buzás-Bereczki<sup>4</sup>, Lili Adorján<sup>3</sup>, Valéria Szukacsov<sup>5</sup>, Lajos Pintér<sup>3</sup>, Miklós Rusvai<sup>6</sup>, Paul Cooper<sup>7</sup>, Endre Kiss-Tóth<sup>8</sup> and Lajos Haracska<sup>1,3,9\*</sup>

## Abstract

**Background** The action of mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs) is the subject of intense research in the field of regenerative medicine, including their potential use in companion animals, such as dogs. To ensure the safety of canine MSC batches for their application in regenerative medicine, a quality control test must be conducted in accordance with Good Manufacturing Practices (GMP). Based on guidance provided by the European Medicines Agency, this study aimed to develop and validate a highly sensitive and robust, nucleic acid-based test panel for the detection of various canine pathogens. Analytical sensitivity, specificity, amplification efficiency, and linearity were evaluated to ensure robust assessment. Additionally, viable spike-in controls were used to control for optimal nucleic acid extraction. The conventional PCR-based and real-time PCR-based pathogen assays were evaluated in a real-life setting, by direct testing MSC batches.

**Results** The established nucleic acid-based assays displayed remarkable sensitivity, detecting 100–1 copies/reaction of template DNA. They also exhibited high specificity and efficiency. Moreover, highly effective nucleic acid isolation was confirmed by the sensitive detection of spike-in controls. The detection capacity of our optimized and validated methods was determined by direct pathogen testing of nine MSC batches that displayed unusual phenotypes, such as reduced cell division or other deviating characteristics. Among these MCS batches of uncertain purity, only one tested negative for all pathogens. The direct testing of these samples yielded positive results for important canine pathogens, including tick-borne disease-associated species and viral members of the canine infectious respiratory disease complex (CIRDC). Notably, samples positive for the etiological agents responsible for enteritis (CPV), leptospirorsis (*Leptospira interrogans*), and neosporosis (*Neospora caninum*) were also identified. Furthermore, we conducted biosafety evaluation of 12 MSC batches intended for therapeutic application. Eleven MSC batches were found to be free of extraneous agents, and only one tested positive for a specific pathogen, namely, canine parvovirus.

**Conclusion** In this study, we established and validated reliable, highly sensitive, and accurate nucleic acid-based testing methods for a broad spectrum of canine pathogens.

Keywords Canine, Mesenchymal stem cells, Cell therapy, Pathogen testing, EMA guidelines, Validation

\*Correspondence: Lajos Haracska haracska.lajos@brc.hu Full list of author information is available at the end of the article



© The Author(s) 2023. **Open Access** This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit http://creativecommons.gr/licenses/by/4.0/. The Creative Commons Public Domain Dedication waiver (http://creativecommons.gr/licenses/by/4.0/. The Creative Commons Public Domain Dedicated in a credit line to the data.

## Background

Increasing evidence suggests that mesenchymal stem cells (MSC) offer a promising option for tissue regeneration and cell therapy [1]. MSCs have attracted extensive research attention in recent years due to their paracrine [2] and immunosuppressive [3, 4] properties as well as their multi-lineage differentiation potential [5]. MSC-based therapy in veterinary medicine targets a wide spectrum of diseases, with the majority focusing on musculoskeletal conditions. Their effectiveness in reducing pain and inflammation makes them an excellent candidate for cell-based therapies for veterinary regenerative medicine [6].

To comply with Good Manufacturing Practices (GMP) and ensure patient safety, clinical batches of MSC undergo mandatory quality control tests to ensure their purity and sterility [7]. To prevent potential introduction of infective agents into the manufacturing process and downstream application in regenerative medicine, it is necessary to subject all clinical batches of MSC donations to screening procedures for extraneous agents. Guidelines provided by the European Medicines Agency's (EMA) Committee for Medicinal Products for Veterinary Use (CMPV) facilitate quality and security improvement of cell preparations [8, 9]. These guidance documents are indispensable resources, covering critical biosafety aspects that must be taken into consideration in the case of allogeneic stem cell-based therapies. In addition to the starting material, extraneous agents introduced unintentionally during the manufacturing process should also be considered. During the production process, it is crucial to distinguish between exogenous agents (viruses, bacteria, and protozoa) that originate from the raw material and microbiological contamination, which is unrelated to donor tissue [10].

Diagnostic methods traditionally used for canine pathogens, such as viral cultures, microscopic examinations, and serologic tests, as well as traditional microbiological methods, may not be sufficiently sensitive, are often laborious, and time-consuming [11, 12]. Nucleic acid amplification tests (NAATs) provide more accurate and specific approaches, offering faster, more accurate and more cost-effective detection methods than traditional techniques [13].

To date, there are a limited number of optimized and validated in-house-developed nucleic acid-based diagnostic methods for the biosafety evaluation of canine MSCs. Moreover, currently, there are no available nucleic acid-based testing methods for the safety evaluation of a wide range of canine pathogens. Therefore, we proposed the development and validation of different NAATs for the rapid and reliable identification of a broad spectrum of potential extraneous agents in canine MSC batches, obtained from donated tissue, prior to their use in subsequent veterinary therapeutic applications. Our study aimed to establish a reliable, highly sensitive and efficient nucleic acid-based testing panel for convenient, rapid, and cost-effective detection of extraneous agents in MSC batches intended for veterinary use.

Based on the epidemiological considerations for the Carpathian Basin region, a risk assessment was conducted, taking into account the published guidelines for the detection of potential extraneous agents in veterinary medical products. The pathogens to be investigated were selected following the guidelines published by the Committee for Medicinal Products for Veterinary Use (CVMP) [8]. These include bacterial species such as Leptospira interrogans, Brucella canis, Neorickettsia spp., Rickettsia spp., Borrelia spp., Ehrlichia spp., Bartonella spp., Anaplasma spp.; viruses such as canine adenovirus 1 (CAV-1), canine herpesvirus 1 (CaHV-1), canine parvovirus (CPV), suid herpesvirus 1 (SuHV-1), canine influenza virus (CIV), canine parainfluenza virus (CPIV), canine distemper virus (CDV), canine coronavirus (CCoV), rabies virus, and parasitic species, e.g., Leishmania spp., Neospora caninum, and Babesia spp. To assess the potential presence of microbiological contamination during culturing of the cells, Mycoplasma spp. were also incorporated in the investigation [14].

#### Results

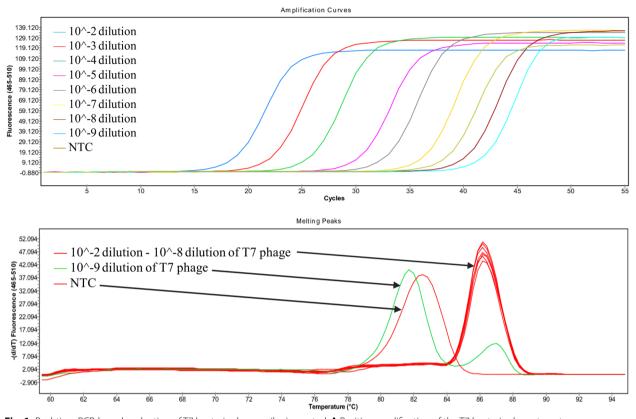
### Spike-in Controls

Optimal nucleic acid extraction was evaluated using exogenous internal controls (IC). The implemented spike-in controls provided evidence of both the amplifiability of DNA and the lack of inhibitors in the samples. Real-time PCR-based assays were used to detect spike-in controls in MSC samples. The real-time PCR assays were able to detect 15 PFU/ml at 10<sup>-8</sup> dilution of T7 bacteriophage (Fig. 1), the most diluted sample of Escherichia coli DH5-alpha (1CFU/ml; Supplemental Figs. 1 and 2) and MS2 bacteriophage (180 PFU/ml at 10<sup>-8</sup> dilution; Supplemental Figs. 3 and 4), confirming sensitive detection and ideal nucleic acid extraction. The specific PCR products could be differentiated easily from other products exhibiting distinct melting temperatures. No cross-reactivity, which might hinder interpretation, was observed using the specific primer pairs for the spike-in controls.

The specific PCR products could be differentiated easily from other products exhibiting distinct melting temperatures. No cross-reactivity, which might hinder interpretation, was observed using the specific primer pairs for the spike-in controls.

#### **Analytical Sensitivity**

The limit of detection (LOD) — the lowest copy number of the target at which at least 95% of the samples were considered positive — was assessed using a series of 10-fold dilutions of plasmid DNA containing the target sequence for each pathogen. PCR assays were carried out



**Fig. 1** Real-time PCR-based evaluation of T7 bacteriophage spike-in control. **A** Positive amplification of the T7 bacteriophage target sequence using dilution series, **B** HRM results showing specific melting peaks for the target sequences, which are easily distinguishable from the no template control (NTC) and the dilution that does not show a specific signal  $(10^{-9} \text{ dilution of T7 phage})$ 

using a total of 20 replicates of each template DNA concentration. The presence of additional canine DNA had no effect on any of the PCR assays. The LOD for both the conventional PCR-based and the real-time PCR-based assays revealed high analytical sensitivity. The detection limit for DNA and RNA viruses was 10 copies/reaction, except for SuHV-1 and CDV, where the detection limit was 100 copies/reaction, which indicates a sensitive detection of these pathogens using conventional PCR. Protozoa can be also detected with high sensitivity utilizing conventional PCR methods. For Babesia spp., the LOD was determined as 100 copies/reaction, whereas the Neospora spp. assay showed a detection limit of 10 copies/reaction. Real-time PCR-based assays also displayed high sensitivity. The real-time PCR-based methods employed in this study demonstrated their ability to detect 10 copies/reaction of the selected pathogen, except for Borrelia spp., which exhibited a detection limit of 100 copies/reaction. The single-tube real-time TaqMan probe-based Mycoplasma assay showed even higher sensitivity, detecting even 1 copy of the *Mycoplasma* sp. DNA target sequence; see details in Table 1.

#### Specificity

To determine the specificity of each assay, additional canine DNA from three different MSC batches was used in all PCR reactions. For each assay, a serial dilution  $(10^4-10^0 \text{ copies}/\mu)$  of the pathogen's positive control plasmid was used as standard along with the additional canine DNA. As shown in Fig. 2, there was no evidence of a false-positive reaction or off-target PCR product with the same melting temperature or size as the expected PCR product. In the Rickettsia assay, canine DNA samples showed no amplification.

#### **Amplification Efficiency and Linearity**

To determine the amplification efficiency of our realtime PCR-based assays, a serial dilution of the positive control of the relevant pathogen  $(10^4-10^0 \text{ copies}/\mu)$  was prepared, and each concentration was analyzed in triplicates. In the linear regression analysis, the average Ct values were plotted against the log10 DNA copy number. As shown in Fig. 3, the standard curves of the *Anaplasma* spp., *Borrelia* spp., *Bartonella* spp., *Ehrlichia* 

#### Table 1 Analytical sensitivity of the assays

Infectious ag	gent	Limit of detection LOD (% (copies/reaction)		
Bacteria	Mycoplasma spp.	1	(20/20) 100%	
	Leptospira interrogans	100	(20/20) 100%	
	Brucella canis	100	(20/20) 100%	
	Neorickettsia spp.	10	(20/20) 100%	
	Rickettsia spp.	10	(20/20) 100%	
	Borrelia spp.	100	(20/20) 100%	
	Ehrlichia spp.	10	(20/20) 100%	
	Bartonella spp.	10	(20/20) 100%	
	Anaplasma spp.	10	(20/20) 100%	
Protozoa	Leishmania spp.	10	(20/20) 100%	
	Neospora spp.	10	(20/20) 100%	
	Babesia spp.	100	(20/20) 100%	
DNA viruses	CAV-1	10	(19/20) 95%	
	CaHV-1	10	(20/20) 100%	
	CPV	10	(20/20) 100%	
	SuHV-1	100	(20/20) 100%	
RNA viruses	CIV	10	(20/20) 100%	
	CPIV	10	(20/20) 100%	
	CDV	100	(20/20) 100%	
	CCoV	10	(19/20) 95%	
	Rabies virus	10	(20/20) 100%	

spp., *Rickettsia* spp., *Neorickettsia* spp., *Mycoplasma* arginini and Leishmania spp. assays revealed that the mean standard curve slopes range from -3.7 to -2.9, corresponding to efficiencies between 86.32 and 121.22% (Table 2). Linearity was evaluated for each real-time PCR assay using linear regression analysis by calculating the coefficient of determination ( $\mathbb{R}^2$ ). The linear regression analysis for the real-time PCR-based assays revealed that  $\mathbb{R}^2$  varied between 0.98 and 1 (Fig. 3).

#### **Direct Pathogen Testing of the MSC Batches**

The diagnostic efficiency of our nucleic acid-based testing panel for extraneous agents was evaluated by testing different MSC batches. Before nucleic acid extraction, all samples were spiked with our natural spike-in controls: *E. coli* DH5-alpha, MS2 phage, and T7 phage for the extraction of bacterial/protozoan DNA, viral RNA, and viral DNA, respectively. For each sample,  $10^4$  copies/µl of spike-in control was used. The concentrations of isolated bacterial/protozoan DNA were between 3.36 ng/µl and 9.63 ng/µl, while the isolated viral RNA and viral DNA concentrations ranged from 4.29 ng/µl to 12.5 ng/µl and 5.53 ng/µl to 21.9 ng/µl, respectively. All spike-in controls were detected at a Ct value<35 in all MSC samples.

The effectiveness of our nucleic acid-based pathogen testing methods in detecting a broad range of pathogens

was confirmed by direct testing of the nine previously selected samples that were of uncertain purity. Among these MSC samples, only one sample was negative for all the extraneous agents. According to the test results, *Borrelia* spp., *Neospora* spp., and CaHV-1 were the most frequently identified pathogens, which were detected in five positive samples. Four samples were positive for CIV, three for *L. interrogans*, two cases were identified positive for *Anaplasma* spp. and CPV, while only one sample was identified positive for *Rickettsia* spp., *Ehrlichia* spp., *Babesia* spp., and CPIV (Fig. 4). The test results for each extraneous agent are displayed in Table 3.

Among the positive MSC batches, all presented coinfections, testing positive for more than one extraneous agent. We identified a co-infection involving the protozoan parasites *Neospora* spp. and *Babesia* spp. The other dual infection was represented by *Anaplasma* spp. and *Borrelia* spp. We also identified co-infections with multiple extraneous agents. The most common pathogen among the co-infections was CaHV-1, which accounted for 62.5% of the cases (5/8). It was identified in all coinfections involving four or more pathogens (details are shown in Fig. 5).

There were no positive results for *Mycoplasma* spp., *Bartonella* spp., *Neorickettsia* spp., *B. canis*, *Leishmania* spp., CAV-1, SuHV-1, CDV, CCoV or Rabies virus in any of the nine MSC samples (Table 3).

Finally, using the above developed and validated pathogen testing system, we carried out a biosafety evaluation of 12 MSC batches that showed expected proliferative potential and morphology, intended for therapeutic purposes. The analysis of these indicated that only a single sample tested positive for a pathogen, namely, CPV.

#### Discussion

Due to their multi-lineage differentiation and immunomodulatory potential, MSCs are outstanding candidates for cell-based therapies in regenerative medicine [15–17]. Recent studies also demonstrated the efficacy of MSC-based therapy in veterinary applications for dogs [18, 19]. The purity and sterility of clinical MSC batches are ensured through quality control testing following Good Manufacturing Practices (GMP) guidelines.

In the present study, epidemiological perspective was employed to select several potential extraneous agents for biosafety evaluation of the MSC batches. A substantial number of potential pathogens were chosen, following the guidelines provided by the European Medicines Agency's (EMA) Committee for Medicinal Products for Veterinary Use (CMPV). Following a comprehensive literature review, target sequences, primers, and probes for each pathogen were adapted from previously described methods to develop in-house nucleic acid-based testing

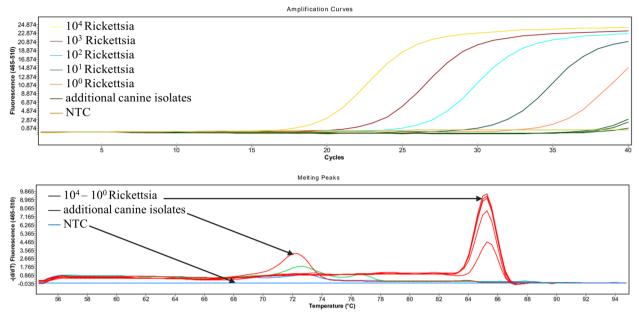


Fig. 2 Evaluation of the specificity of the Rickettsia assay. A Positive amplification of the target sequence and the three different unamplified canine isolates, **B** HRM results showing specific melting peaks for target sequences are easily distinguishable from the canine isolates containing non-target sequences and the no template control (NTC)

assays. Optimization of the reaction conditions was performed to achieve a less laborious, highly sensitive, and specific detection approach. To this end, certain pathogen groups were compiled for the implementation of the same run protocol. PCR was performed parallelly with the same protocol for *L. interrogans* and *B. canis;* for *Neorickettsia* spp., *Rickettsia* spp., *Borrelia* spp., *Ehrlichia* spp.; for DNA viruses (CAV-1, CaHV-1, CPV and SuHV-1); and for several RNA viruses (CIV, CPIV and CDV). This approach allowed for a less laborious and standardized detection of these pathogens.

The real-time PCR-based detection of the three different natural exogenous spike-in controls was highly consistent between the previously spiked MSC samples. The sensitive detection of the spike-in controls revealed highly efficient nucleic acid isolation. Moreover, the obtained results confirmed the presence of amplifiable DNA at low concentrations and the absence of any PCR inhibitors, emphasizing the significance of these assays in detecting low-copy-number pathogens in MSC batches.

Our recently designed assays showed high efficiency and sensitivity; the LOD for each pathogen ranged from 100 copies/reaction to 1 copy/reaction. Since canine MSC batches may contain low concentrations of extraneous agents, the ability to detect low copy numbers is particularly important. We were able to detect even lower concentrations of the selected pathogens — 10 and 1 copies — though with a significantly lower positive reaction rate, ranging from 25 to 85%, while the 10-fold dilutions above the defined detection limit yielded 100% positive detection in all cases (Table 4).

Furthermore, utilizing the internal primers for *L. interrogans, B. canis, N. caninum,* and canine coronavirus (CCoV) in a single PCR reaction also resulted in high sensitivity. Accordingly, our results are consistent with the previously described detection limit of 100 copies for *L. interrogans* and *B. canis* [20]. In addition, due to the potential cross-reaction of primers with the canine DNA in the same reaction, which could result in false-positive reactions or off-target PCR products, specificity assessments were included. No false-positive results or off-target products that could have influenced the interpretation of the results were detected in any of the specificity assays performed on the three different canine isolates.

In this study, different MSC batches were submitted for pathogen testing. While other testing methods may require a high concentration of starting material for extraneous agent testing, our results showed that the use of  $5 \times 10^5$  cells and a minimal amount of the corresponding supernatant enabled sensitive and specific detection of the target pathogen. This aspect is significant when applying MSC cells in regenerative medicine, where a considerable number of cells is often required.

Our validated nucleic acid-based assays successfully identified multiple pathogens, including various tickborne ones, in the nine MSC batches of uncertain purity.

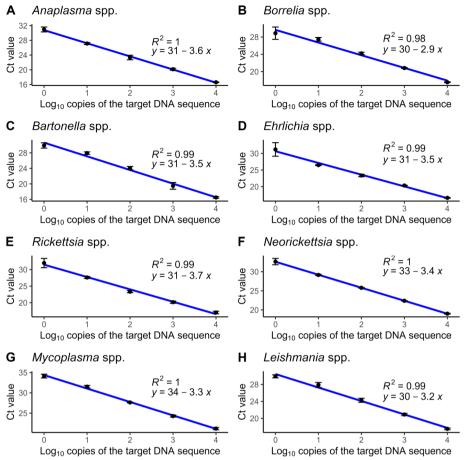


Fig. 3 Standard curves showing Ct values plotted against the log10 of the target DNA copy number for A. Anaplasma spp.; B. Borrelia spp.; C. Bartonella spp; D. Ehrlichia spp.; E. Rickettsia spp.; F. Neorickettsia spp.; Mycoplasma spp.; Leishmania spp

Table 2	Efficiency	of the real-	time PCR-	based assay	S
---------	------------	--------------	-----------	-------------	---

Pathogen	Bartonella spp.	Borrelia spp.	Rickettsia spp.	<i>Neorickettsia</i> spp.	Anaplasma spp.	Ehrlichia spp.	<i>Leishmania</i> spp.	<i>Mycoplasma</i> spp.
Efficiency	93.06%	121.22%	86.32%	96.84%	89.57%	93.06%	105.35%	100.92%

Canine tick-borne disease-associated species belong to the genera *Anaplasma*, *Babesia*, *Bartonella*, *Ehrlichia*, and *Rickettsia*, which show an increasing prevalence in different regions of Europe [21–25]. Results of the detection revealed five samples to be positive for *Borrelia* spp., two for *Anaplasma* spp., while only a single sample was detected positive for *Rickettsia* spp., *Ehrlichia* spp. and *Babesia* spp. In contrast, no additional *Bartonella* spp. or hemotropic *Mycoplasma haemocanis* were detected in the specimens. Interestingly, all the positive samples presented at least one pathogen associated with tickborne diseases. In addition, we identified important viral members of the canine infectious respiratory disease complex (CIRDC). This endemic syndrome involves various viral and bacterial pathogens, which significantly contribute to respiratory illnesses and morbidity in dogs [26, 27]. Among the identified viral members, 5 positive cases were attributed to CaHV-1, 4 positive cases to CIV, and only one sample to CPIV. Furthermore, the present study identified positive samples of etiological agents responsible for enteritis (CPV) in 2 cases, leptospirosis (*L. interrogans*) in 3 cases, and neosporosis (*N. caninum*) in 5 cases. These results are consistent with previous studies on the distribution of these pathogens in Europe; however,

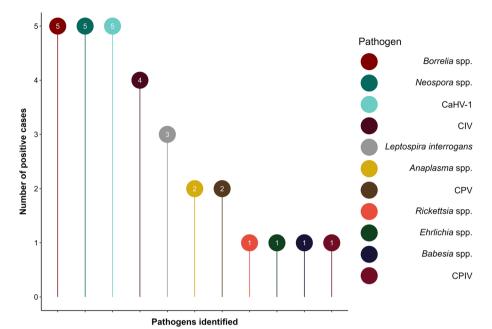


Fig. 4 The number of MSC batches that tested positive for *Borrelia* spp., *Neospora* spp., CaHV-1, CIV, *Leptospira interrogans*, *Anaplasma* spp., CPV, *Rickettsia* spp., *Ehrlichia* spp., *Babesia* spp., and CPIV

they highlight the variability of the epidemiological patterns of these agents across this region [28-30]. All the positive samples showed co-infections. Among the multiple pathogens, CaHV-1 was found to be the predominant agent. None of the nine samples tested positive for Mycoplasma spp., Bartonella spp., Neorickettsia spp., B. canis, Leishmania spp., CAV-1, SuHV-1, CDV, CCoV, or Rabies virus. In addition, our results obtained from direct pathogen testing of the 12 pre-selected MSC batches for treatment showed that there was only one sample with a positive test result — for Canine Parvovirus (CPV). MSC batches that test positive for any of the pathogens are to be destroyed. One potential limitation of this approach is the inability to distinguish between viable and non-viable pathogens. However, our validated large-scale pathogen testing assays have proved to provide reliable, sensitive, and effective diagnostic performance.

## Conclusions

Compared to traditional microbiological and serological assays, our validated nucleic acid-based detection methods provide a less laborious and reliable diagnosis of a broad spectrum of canine pathogens, exhibiting high sensitivity, specificity, and efficiency. These assays were able to quantify several important canine extraneous agents that were present in MSC batches of uncertain purity, highlighting the great importance of testing. Ultimately, these nucleic acid-based assays — by providing accurate detection of a broad spectrum of canine pathogens — can serve as useful tools for a more comprehensive biosafety evaluation of the MSC batches intended for veterinary use.

## **Materials and Methods**

#### **Positive Control Preparation**

Positive controls — represented by target-sequencecontaining plasmids — were used to optimize and validate each pathogen testing assay. All plasmids contained the target sequence for the pathogen of interest with the primer and probe-binding sites. These plasmids containing the artificial DNA fragments for each pathogen were synthesized by Twist Bioscience (San Francisco, CA), except for the *Mycoplasma* species, which were all cloned in the pBluescript plasmid. All the synthesized plasmids were sequence. DNA concentration was quantified using Qubit<sup>®</sup> 3.0 Fluorometer (Invitrogen) and the Qubit<sup>®</sup> dsDNA HS Assay Kit (Life Technologies), and the DNA copy number was calculated using the following formula:

Number of copies =  $\frac{\text{amount of dsDNA in nanograms} \times 6.022 \times 10^{23}}{\text{length of dsDNA (bp)} \times 1 \times 10^9 \times 660}$ 

**Table 3** Detection of infectious agents in the nine selected samples of substandard MSC quality

Infectious agent	No. of positive samples/No. of total samples		
Bacteria			
<i>Mycoplasma</i> spp.	0/9		
Leptospira interrogans	3/9		
Brucella canis	0/9		
Neorickettsia spp.	0/9		
Rickettsia spp.	1/9		
Borrelia spp.	5/9		
Ehrlichia spp.	1/9		
Bartonella spp.	0/9		
Anaplasma spp.	2/9		
Protozoa			
Leishmania spp.	0/9		
<i>Neospora</i> spp.	5/9		
Babesia spp.	1/9		
DNA viruses			
CAV-1	0/9		
CaHV-1	5/9		
CPV	2/9		
SuHV-1	0/9		
RNA viruses			
CIV	4/9		
CPIV	1/9		
CDV	0/9		
CCoV	0/9		
Rabies virus	0/9		

#### Sample Collection and Direct Pathogen Testing of the MSC Batches

MSCs were extracted from visceral adipose tissue acquired as surgical waste, donated by the dogs' owner via informed consent, following standard ovariectomy of clinically healthy female mixed-breed dogs. The isolated cells were cultured and harvested according to the methodology previously described by Kriston-Pál et al. [31]. To assess the efficacy of our nucleic acid-based pathogen testing methods in detecting the specified pathogens, we separately obtained samples from dog owners and rescue centres that may contain extraneous agents. For this purpose, we processed tissues that did not necessarily meet the originally established isolation criteria, and - monitoring the isolated cells in culture - searched for MSC batches that displayed any abnormal phenotypes such as reduced cell division or altered cell morphology and viability. We collected both supernatants and cell pellets from these samples for further examination. A total of nine MSC batches of uncertain purity were chosen. Furthermore, biosafety investigation was carried out on MSC batches intended for therapeutic utilization. Our biosafety study enrolled 12 batches of MSC batches previously selected for pilot production with the view to use in subsequent treatment.

Exogenous, natural spike-in controls were used as indicators of optimal nucleic acid extraction. In this context, cells from each sample were previously spiked with viable T7 (single-stranded DNA control) and MS2 (RNA control) bacteriophage and E. coli DH5-alpha (doublestranded DNA control). Following spike-in experiments, nucleic acid extraction was carried out for protozoan and bacterial DNA and, separately, total nucleic acid extraction was performed for viruses. Conventional and realtime PCR assays were conducted using the isolated DNA samples, whereas viral RNA was subjected to reverse transcription to produce complementary DNA prior to its inclusion in the PCR reactions. The PCR reactions were performed first to verify the presence and yield from the spike-in controls and then to test for the specific pathogens. The generalized workflow of the pathogen testing procedure is illustrated schematically in Fig. 6.

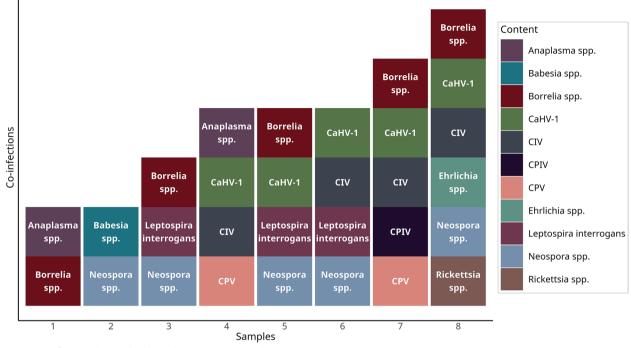
#### Spike-in Controls

As indicators of optimal nucleic acid extraction, exogenous IC were used. These IC provide confirmation of the presence of amplifiable DNA and the absence of inhibitors in the sample. Exogenous heterologous IC were utilized with primers and target sequences that were different from those used for pathogens (Supplemental Tables 1, 2 and 3), ensuring non-competitiveness and ease of implementation. We used natural DNA and RNA as external spike-in controls to control nucleic acid extraction: viable E. coli DH5-alpha, MS2 phage, and T7 phage were used as spike-in controls for bacterial/protozoan DNA, viral RNA, and viral DNA extraction, respectively. MS2 bacteriophage (15597-B1TM), T7 bacteriophage (BAA-1025-B2), the appropriate hosts, and E. coli DH5-alpha were obtained from the American Type Culture Collection (ATCC). The standardized amount of  $5 \times 10^{5}$  MSC samples were spiked with serial dilutions of each spike-in control. These spike-in controls were diluted in parallel to quantify colony forming units (CFUs) for bacteria and plaque forming units (PFUs) for viruses using traditional plating and double-agar overlay methods, respectively. Following nucleic acid extraction from the spiked samples, real-time PCR assays were performed to validate the presence and efficacy of spike-in controls.

## Viral Nucleic Acid Extraction, Quantification, and cDNA Synthesis

Total viral nucleic acid from stem cell samples was extracted using  $5 \times 10^5$  cells/MSC batch and additionally





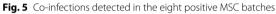


 Table 4
 Detection rates for the three concentrations of the target pathogens

Infectious agent		Target copies/ reaction	Detection rate (%)	Target copies/ reaction	Detection rate (%)	Target copies/ reaction	Detection rate (%)
Bacteria	Mycoplasma spp.	100	(20/20) 100%	10	(20/20) 100%	1	(20/20) 100%
	Leptospira interrogans	100	(20/20) 100%	10	(16/20) 80%	1	(5/20) 25%
	Brucella canis	1000	(20/20) 100%	100	(20/20) 100%	10	(11/20) 55%
	Neorickettsia spp.	100	(20/20) 100%	10	(20/20) 100%	1	(5/20) 25%
	Rickettsia spp.	100	(20/20) 100%	10	(20/20) 100%	1	(16/20) 80%
	Borrelia spp.	1000	(20/20) 100%	100	(20/20) 100%	10	(15/20) 75%
	Ehrlichia spp.	100	(20/20) 100%	10	(20/20) 100%	10	(14/20) 70%
	Bartonella spp.	100	(20/20) 100%	10	(20/20) 100%	1	(7/20) 35%
	Anaplasma spp.	100	(20/20) 100%	10	(20/20) 100%	1	(14/20) 70%
Protozoan	Leishmania spp.	100	(20/20) 100%	10	(20/20) 100%	1	(9/20) 45%
	Neospora spp.	100	(20/20) 100%	10	(20/20) 100%	1	(11/20) 55%
	Babesia spp.	1000	(20/20) 100%	100	(20/20) 100%	10	(15/20) 75%
DNA viruses	CAV-1	100	(20/20) 100%	10	(19/20) 95%	1	(5/20) 25%
	CaHV-1	100	(20/20) 100%	10	(20/20) 100%	1	(14/20) 70%
	CPV	100	(20/20) 100%	10	(20/20) 100%	1	(7/20) 35%
	SuHV-1	1000	(20/20) 100%	100	(20/20) 100%	10	(13/20) 65%
RNA viruses	CIV	100	(20/20) 100%	10	(20/20) 100%	1	(10/20) 50%
	CPIV	1000	(20/20) 100%	100	(20/20) 100%	10	(20/20) 100%
	CDV	1000	(20/20) 100%	100	(20/20) 100%	10	(17/20) 85%
	CCoV	100	(20/20) 100%	10	(19/20) 95%	1	(7/20) 35%
	Rabies virus	100	(20/20) 100%	10	(20/20) 100%	1	(10/20) 50%

The LOD determined for each pathogen is highlighted in bold

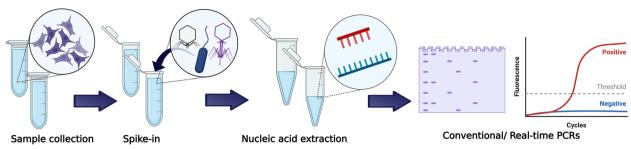


Fig. 6 Schematic representation of the pathogen testing workflow. Image created with BioRender.com

100µl of the corresponding cell supernatant in the case of the nine batches of uncertain purity. Isolation was performed using the MagCore<sup>®</sup> Viral Nucleic Acid Extraction Kit (RBC Bioscience, Taiwan) following the manufacturer's recommendation. The final sample was eluted in 100µl elution buffer. RNA concentration was measured using the Qubit<sup>™</sup> RNA High Sensitivity Assay Kit (Invitrogen by Thermo Fisher Scientific), while the concentration of the DNA was measured using the Qubit<sup>™</sup> dsDNA High Sensitivity Assay Kit (Invitrogen by Thermo Fisher Scientific) with a Qubit<sup>™</sup> 3.0 fluorometer. Following total nucleic acid extraction, High-Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription Kit (Applied Biosystems) was utilized to generate cDNA for the detection of RNA viruses. Eluted nucleic acids and synthesized cDNA were stored at -20°C.

#### **Bacterial and Protozoan DNA Extraction and Quantification**

For bacterial and protozoan DNA extraction, we used the QIAamp<sup>®</sup> PowerFecal<sup>®</sup> Pro DNA Kit (QIAGEN<sup>®</sup>) according to the manufacturer's protocol. DNA was isolated using  $5 \times 10^5$  cells/MSC batch and additionally  $100 \,\mu$ l of the corresponding cell supernatant in the case of the nine batches of uncertain purity and for *Mycoplasma* detection in all cases. The final sample was eluted in  $100 \,\mu$ l elution buffer. Following DNA extraction, a Qubit<sup>TM</sup> 3.0 fluorometer was used to measure DNA concentration utilizing the associated Qubit<sup>TM</sup> dsDNA High Sensitivity assay kit (Invitrogen by Thermo Fisher Scientific). Eluted DNA was stored at  $-20 \,^\circ$ C.

#### **Primers, Probes and Target Sequences**

All primers, probes, and target sequences used in this study were retrieved from previous studies (Table 5). NCBI-BLAST (www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov) was used to compare and retrieve the nucleotide sequences of each target pathogen. Primer sequences and specific PCR product sizes are described in Table 5. All primer sequences for real-time PCR-based assays were utilized in our study as previously described [36–40], with slight modifications in the application of the primers. Primer sequences for

conventional PCRs were used as described previously [32–35, 41], except for CCoV, where the forward primer was combined with the nested reverse primer in a single PCR reaction [32]. A single PCR reaction was also performed for *L. interrogans* [20], *B. canis*, and *N. caninum* [42], employing the previously described internal primers that were initially utilized in the nested PCR, resulting in high specificity, while minimizing the laboriousness of the second round PCR.

### **Real-Time PCR-Based Assays**

Real-time PCR-based assays were carried out using the Roche LightCycler<sup>®</sup> 480 system. The primer concentration was optimized for each real-time PCR-based assay (Supplemental Table 4). Single-tube real-time quantitative PCR (qPCR) was used for Mycoplasma assays. An artificial oligonucleotide was employed as IC, which was simultaneously amplified in a single tube and detected by a specific VIC-labelled TaqMan probe. Eight different forward primers, a single FAM-labelled TaqMan probe, and a single reverse primer were used to detect the strains of interest. A primer mixture of the eight forward primers (4pmol/µl each) and the FAM-labelled TagMan probe (1.6 pmol/µl) was used. Real-time PCR reaction was performed in 20µl reaction volume, containing 10µl Brilliant III Ultra-Fast qPCR Master Mix (Agilent Technologies), the forward primer mixture, 3.5 pmol/µl reverse primer, and 8 pmol/µl VIC-labelled TagMan probe. For optimization and validation, 1µl of the M. arginini positive control serial dilution was used as template DNA. In the case of pathogen testing, 1 µl of the DNA template was used for the PCR detection, which was run together with the positive control serial dilution. Nuclease-free water was used as negative control for each PCR run.

Real-time quantitative PCR (qPCR) followed by High Resolution Melting Analysis (HRM) was used for *Bartonella* spp., *Neorickettsia* spp., *Rickettsia* spp., *Anaplasma* spp., *Ehrlichia* spp., *Borrelia* spp., and *Leishmania* spp. assays. Real-time qPCR amplification reactions were

 Table 5
 Primers and probes used for extraneous agent detection

	Infectious agent	Detection method	Primer name	Primer sequence (5'-3')	Product size (bp)	Reference
RNA viruses	CDV	Conventional PCR	CDV_N_F768	AACAGRRATTGCTGAGGACYTAT	290	[32]
			CDV_N_R1057	TCCARRRATAACCATGTAYGGTGC		
	CPIV	Conventional PCR	CPIV_N_F428	GCCGTGGAGAGATCAATGCCTAT	186	[32]
			CPIV_N_R614	GCGCAGTCATGCACTTGCAAGT		
	CIV	Conventional PCR	CIV_M_F151	CATGGARTGGCTAAAGACAAGACC	126	[32]
			CIV_M_R276	AGGGCATTTTGGACAAAKCGTCTA		
	Rabies virus	Conventional PCR	JW12-F	ATGTAACACCYCTACAATG	606/582	[33]
			JW6 UNI-R	ARTTVGCRCACATYTTRTG		
			JW 10 UNI-R	GTCATYARWGTRTGRTGYTC		
	CCoV	Conventional PCR	CoV_16053_F	GGTTGGGAYTAYCCTAARTGTGA	452	[32]
			CoV_Pan_16510_R	TTATARCAVACAACNCCATCATCA		
NA viruses	CAV-1	Conventional PCR	CadV_E3_F25073	TATTCCAGACTCTTACCAAGAGG	545	[32]
			CadV_E3_R25623	ATAGACAAGGTAGTARTGYTCAG		
	CPV	Conventional PCR	CPV-F	AAGACGTGCAAGCGAGTCC	337	[34]
			CPV-R	GAGCGAAGATAAGCAGCGTAA		
	CaHV-1	Conventional PCR	CaHV_GBF439	ACAGAGTTGATTGATAGAAGAGGTATG	136	[32]
			CaHV_GBR574	CTGGTGTATTAAACTTTGAAGGCTTTA		
	SuHV1	Conventional PCR	gB-Taq-F	CTCCTGCCGCACCTGAAG	92	[35]
			gB-Taq-R	GTCTGGAAGCGGTAGAAGCC		
Bacteria	Leptospira interrogans	Conventional PCR	LepN-1	CTGGCCTAAAACTGACGCTGA	171	[20]
			LepN-2	CTTTCACTCTTGCGAGCATAG		
	Borrelia	Real-time PCR	BorP66F	GCAATTTTAGCATCTTTTGGAG	106	[36]
			BorP66R	GATCTATTCCAAAATCRGTWCC		
	Brucella canis	Conventional PCR	B2N-1	GTCGCGGATTCTACCTCACCT	281	[20]
			B2N-2	TAAGCAGGTAAGAGGCAATTT		
	Ehrlichia spp.	Real-time PCR	Ehr16SF	GGCACGTAGGTGGACTA	101	[36]
			Ehr16SR	TTCCGCTATCCTCTTTCGAC		
	Anaplasma	Real-time PCR	Ana/Ehr16SF	ACACATGCAAGTCGAACG	145	[36]
			Ana/Ehr16SR	CCCCCGCAGGGATTATACA		
	Neorickettsia	Real-time PCR	groel-1500F	ATAGATCCAGCKAAGGTAGTGCGTGT	148	[37]
			groel-1620R	TTCCACCCATGCCACCACCAGGCA TCATTG		
	Rickettsia	Real-time PCR	Ric16SF	TCCTAGTGTAGAGGTGAAATTCTTA	178	[36]
			Ric16SR	GAAACCGAAAGAGAATCTTCCGAT		
	Bartonella	Real-time PCR	ssrA-F	GCTATGGTAATAAATGGACAATGA AATAA	298	[38]
			ssrA-R	GCTTCTGTTGCCAGGTG		
	Mycoplasma	Real-time PCR	Myco16sQF1	GCAAAGCTATAGAGATATAGTAGAGGT	106/107	[39]
			Myco16sQF2	GCRAAGCTATAGARATATAGTGGAGGT	and 100 bp for internal control	
			Myco16sQF3	GCAATGCTATAGAGATATAGCGGAGGT	for internal control	
			Myco16sQF4	GCAAAGCTATGGAGACATAGTGGAGGT		
			Myco16sQF5	GCAAAGTTATGGAAACATAATGGAGGT		
			Myco16sQF6	GCGACGCTATAGAAATATAGTTGAGGT		

GCAAAGGCTTAGAAATAAGTTCGG

GTTGCGYTCGTTGCRGGAC

FAM-TGGTGCATGGTTGTC-MGB

GCAAAGCTATAGAAATATAGTAGAGGT

AGGC

Myco16sQICProbe VIC-CACGCCGTAAACGA-MGB

Myco16sQF7

Myco16sQF8

Myco16sQR

Myco16sQProbe

	Infectious agent	Detection method	Primer name	Primer sequence (5'-3')	Product size (bp)	Reference
Protozoa	Leishmania	Real-time PCR	LEISH-2	ACCCCCAGTTTCCCGCC	119	[40]
			LEISH-1	AACTTTTCTGGTCCTCCGGGTAG		
	Babesia	Conventional PCR	B-BM	GAATCTAAACCCTTCCCAGAGTATC	381/408	[41]
			B-BDV	TGACCTAAACCCTCACCAGAGTAAC		
			B-BDV2	TGACCCAAACCCTCACCAGAGTARC		
			B-rev	GCTTTCGCAGTAGTTCGTCTTTA		
	Neospora caninum	Conventional PCR	NS2	CATGTGGATATTTTGCA	146	[42]
			NR1	AAACTCCTGGAAGTTAAAG		

performed in  $20\,\mu$ l reaction volumes containing  $10\,\mu$ l 2x Luna<sup>®</sup> Universal qPCR Master Mix (NEB),  $0.8\,\mu$ l MgCl<sub>2</sub> (25 mM, Promega), and  $0.4-2.5\,\mu$ l primers (Supplemental Table 4). For optimization and validation,  $1\,\mu$ l of the positive control serial dilution was used as template DNA. In the case of pathogen testing,  $1\,\mu$ l of the DNA template for the PCR detection, which was run together with the positive control serial dilution. Nuclease-free water was used as negative control for each PCR run. Primers and target sequences for real-time PCR-based assays are available in supplemental Tables 5 and 6.

#### **Conventional PCR-Based Assays**

Conventional PCR-based assays were carried out using a Biometra TAdvanced thermocycler (Analytic Jena). Conventional PCR amplification reactions were performed in 25µl reaction volumes containing 5µl 5x colourless GoTaq<sup>®</sup> Flexi buffer (Promega), 2–3µl MgCl<sub>2</sub> (25mM, Promega), 2µl of 2.5mM dNTPs (100mM, Thermo Fisher Scientific), and 0.125 µl of GoTaq<sup>®</sup> G2 Hot Start Polymerase (Promega, 5 U/µl). The primer concentration was optimized for each assay (Supplemental Table 7). For optimization and validation,  $1 \mu l$  of the positive control serial dilution was used as template DNA. In the case of direct pathogen testing, 1µl of the DNA or 1µl synthesized cDNA was used as template for the PCR detection, which was run together with the positive control serial dilution. Nuclease-free water was used as negative control for each PCR run. Primers and target sequences for conventional PCR-based assays are described separately in Supplemental Tables 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13 and 14.

#### **Analytical Sensitivity**

The analytical sensitivity of each assay was evaluated through experimental determination of the LOD, representing the lowest copy number of the target at which at least 95% of the samples give positive signal. LOD was determined by performing a dilution series of the positive control within the anticipated range of detection limits, which was determined during the optimization phase. Three concentrations  $(1\,\mu$ l/reaction) of the positive controls were used as follows: expected LOD, 10-fold dilution above the expected LOD, and 10-fold dilution below the expected LOD. Ten replicates were subjected to PCR analysis in two test runs for the three concentrations of the positive control for each pathogen of interest, resulting in 20 independent replicates. A known and standardized concentration of canine DNA  $(1\,ng/\mu l)$  isolated from three independent MSC batches, which may potentially influence the detection limit of the assays, was added to each PCR reaction during the sensitivity assessments.

## Specificity

Specificity was evaluated for each pathogen assay by analyzing three different and independent canine DNA isolates within a range of  $1-30 \text{ ng/}\mu\text{l}$  concentrations. Nuclease-free water was included as negative control in all specificity assays.

#### **Amplification Efficiency and Linearity**

To assess the efficiency of the real-time PCR assays, serial dilutions of the positive control DNA of the relevant pathogen  $(10^4 - 10^0 \text{ copies/}\mu\text{l})$  were prepared. Each concentration was analysed in triplicate. A linear regression analysis was performed by plotting the average of cycle threshold (Ct) values against the average of the log10 of the corresponding DNA copy number. For each real-time PCR assay, the slope of the regression curve indicates PCR efficiency, which should be between -3.9 and -2.9, corresponding to PCR efficiencies ranging from 80% up to 120%. The amplification efficiency was calculated using the following formula:  $E = [10^{(-1/slope)} - 1] \times 100\%$ . Linear regression analysis also allows for the determination of the linearity of our real-time PCR-based assays by the calculation of the coefficient of determination  $(\mathbb{R}^2)$ .

MSC	Mesenchymal Stem Cell
GMP	Good Manufacturing Practices
EMA	European Medicines Agency
CMPV	Committee for Medicinal Products for Veterinary Use
NAAT	Nucleic Acid Amplification Test
IC	Internal Control
LOD	Limit of Detection
CT	Cycle Threshold
HRM	High Resolution Melting Analysis
CIRDC	Canine Infectious Respiratory Disease Complex

## **Supplementary Information**

The online version contains supplementary material available at https://doi. org/10.1186/s12575-023-00226-x.

Additional file 1: Supplemental Table 1. Primers and target sequence for the E. coli DH5-alpha real-time PCR. Supplemental Fig. 1. Real-time PCR results of E. coli DH5-alpha serial dilution – stem cell spike-in. Supplemental Fig. 2. Real-time PCR results of E. coli DH5-alpha dilutions - HRM. Supplemental Table 2. Primers and target sequence for the T7 bacteriophage real-time PCR. Supplemental Table 3. Primers and target sequence - MS2 phage. Supplemental Fig. 3. qPCR results of MS2 phage. Supplemental Fig. 4. qPCR results of MS2 phage – HRM. Supplemental Table 4. Primer concentrations used in the real-time quantitative PCR-based assays. Supplemental Table 5. Primers and target sequences – Mycoplasma assay. Supplemental Table 6. Primers and target sequences - real-time PCR-based assays. Supplemental Table 7. Primer concentrations used in the conventional PCR-based assays. Supplemental Table 8. Primers and target sequences – Leptospira interrogans and Brucella canis. Supplemental Table 9. Primers and target sequences – DNA viruses. Supplemental Table 10. Primers and target sequence - Rabies virus. Supplemental Table 11. Primers and target sequence - Canine coronavirus. Supplemental Table 12. Primers and target sequences - Canine infectious respiratory disease complex (CIRDC) viruses. Supplemental Table 13. Primers and target sequence - N. caninum. Supplemental Table 14. Primers and target sequence – Babesia. Informed consent from dog owners.

#### Acknowledgements

We would like to thank Erda Qorri and Bertalan Takács for their expert advice regarding data visualization and sincerely thank Gabriella Tick for proofreading the manuscript.

#### Authors' Contributions

E.P. Methodology, Formal Analysis, Writing – Original Draft, Writing – Review & Editing, Visualization. K.P. Conceptualization, Methodology, Formal Analysis, Writing – Review & Editing, Investigation. É. S-K. Conceptualization, Methodology, Formal Analysis, B. C. Methodology, Formal Analysis, Writing – Review & Editing, Investigation. D. B-B. Methodology, Formal Analysis, Writing – Original Draft, Writing – Review & Editing, Investigation. L. A. Methodology, Formal Analysis, Writing – Original Draft, Writing – Review & Editing, Investigation. L. A. Methodology, Formal Analysis, Writing – Original Draft. L. P. Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing – Review & Editing, Investigation. M. R. Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation. P. C. Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation. Project Administration, L. H. Conceptualization, Writing – Review & Editing, Project Administration, Funding Acquisition. All authors reviewed the manuscript.

#### Funding

This project received funding from the European Union's Horizon 2020 research and innovation program under grant agreement No. 739593. This work was also supported by the National Research, Development, and Innovation Office (PharmaLab, RRF-2.3.1-21-2022-00015 and TKP-31-8/PALY-2021).

#### Availability of Data and Materials

All data and materials presented in this study are available upon request (haracska.lajos@brc.hu).

#### Declarations

#### **Ethics Approval and Consent to Participate**

The owners of the dogs who participated in this study provided written informed consent.

#### **Consent for Publication**

Not applicable.

#### **Competing Interests**

E.P., K.P., L.A., L.P., and L.H. are employees of Delta Bio 2000 Ltd. É.S-K., B.C., and O.B-B. are employees of Visal Plus Ltd. M.R. is an employee of Vet-Diagnostics Ltd. P.C is a director of Assentra Ltd.

#### Author details

<sup>1</sup> HCEMM-HUN-REN BRC Mutagenesis and Carcinogenesis Research Group, Institute of Genetics, HUN-REN Biological Research Centre, Szeged H-6726, Hungary. <sup>2</sup> Doctoral School of Interdisciplinary Medicine, University of Szeged, Korányi fasor 10, Szeged H-6720, Hungary. <sup>3</sup> Delta Bio 2000 Ltd., Szeged H-6726, Hungary. <sup>4</sup> Visal Plus Ltd., Szeged H-6726, Hungary. <sup>5</sup> HUN-REN BRC Mutagenesis and Carcinogenesis Research Group, Institute of Genetics, HUN-REN Biological Research Centre, Szeged H-6726, Hungary. <sup>6</sup> Vet-Diagnostics Ltd., Szolnok 5000, Hungary. <sup>7</sup> Assentra Limited, Essex, UK. <sup>8</sup> Division of Clinical Medicine, School of Medicine and Population Health, University of Sheffield, S10 2RX, Sheffield, UK. <sup>9</sup> National Laboratory for Drug Research and Development, Magyar tudósok krt. 2. H-1117, Budapest, Hungary.

#### Received: 18 September 2023 Accepted: 30 November 2023 Published online: 14 December 2023

#### References

- Margiana R, et al. Clinical application of mesenchymal stem cell in regenerative medicine: a narrative review. Stem Cell Res Ther. 2022;13(1) BioMed Central Ltd https://doi.org/10.1186/s13287-022-03054-0.
- Baez-Jurado E, et al. Secretome of Mesenchymal Stem Cells and Its Potential Protective Effects on Brain Pathologies. Mol Neurobiol. 2019;56(10):6902–27. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12035-019-1570-x.
- Kim HO, Choi SM, Kim HS. Mesenchymal stem cell-derived secretome and microvesicles as a cell-free therapeutics for neurodegenerative disorders. Tissue Eng Regen Med. 2013;10(3):93–101. https://doi.org/10.1007/ s13770-013-0010-7.
- Wu C, et al. Human umbilical cord mesenchymal stem cell-derived TGFBI attenuates streptozotocin-induced type 1 diabetes mellitus by inhibiting T-cell proliferation. Hum Cell. 2023; https://doi.org/10.1007/ s13577-023-00868-9.
- Dominici M, et al. Minimal criteria for defining multipotent mesenchymal stromal cells. The International Society for Cellular Therapy position statement. Cytotherapy. 2006;8(4):315–7. https://doi.org/10.1080/1465324060 0855905.
- Harman R, et al. A prospective, randomized, masked, and placebocontrolled efficacy study of intraarticular allogeneic adipose stem cells for the treatment of osteoarthritis in dogs. Front Vet Sci. 2016;3 https://doi. org/10.3389/fvets.2016.00081.
- Nicotra T, et al. Mesenchymal stem/stromal cell quality control: validation of mixed lymphocyte reaction assay using flow cytometry according to ICH Q2(R1). Stem Cell Res Ther. 2020;11(1) https://doi.org/10.1186/ s13287-020-01947-6.
- E. Medicines Agency, 'Committee for Medicinal Products for Veterinary Use (CVMP) Questions and Answers on allogeneic stem cell-based products for veterinary use: Specific questions on extraneous agents Problem statement adopted by CVMP for preparation of a Questions and', 2019. [Online]. Available: www.ema.europa.eu/contact.
- VICH Topic GL2 (Validation: Methodology) GUIDELINE ON VALIDATION OF ANALYTICAL PROCEDURES, 1997. [Online]. Available: http://www. eudra.org/emea.htmlEMEA1998. Accessed 10 Apr 2023.
- E. Medicines Agency, 'Stem cells -based products extraneous agents - problem statement', 2016. [Online]. Available: www.ema.europa.eu/ contact.

- Zhang N, et al. Recent advances in the detection of respiratory virus infection in humans. J Med Virol. 2020;92(4):408–17. https://doi.org/10. 1002/jmv.25674. John Wiley and Sons Inc.
- Kamani J, et al. Molecular detection and characterization of tick-borne pathogens in dogs and ticks from Nigeria. PLoS Negl Trop Dis. 2013;7(3) https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0002108.
- Mothershed EA, Whitney AM. Nucleic acid-based methods for the detection of bacterial pathogens: present and future considerations for the clinical laboratory. Clin Chim Acta. 2006;363(1–2):206–20. https://doi.org/ 10.1016/j.cccn.2005.05.050.
- E. Medicines Agency, 'Committee for Medicinal Products for Veterinary Use (CVMP) Questions and Answers on allogenic stem cell-based products for veterinary use: specific questions on sterility', 2017. [Online]. Available: www.ema.europa.eu/contact.
- Hsuan YCY, Lin CH, Chang CP, Lin MT. Mesenchymal stem cell-based treatments for stroke, neural trauma, and heat stroke. Brain Behav. 2016, John Wiley and Sons Ltd;6(10) https://doi.org/10.1002/brb3.526.
- Chan YH, et al. Melatonin enhances osteogenic differentiation of dental pulp mesenchymal stem cells by regulating MAPK pathways and promotes the efficiency of bone regeneration in calvarial bone defects. Stem Cell Res Ther. 2022;13(1) https://doi.org/10.1186/s13287-022-02744-z.
- Ercelen N, et al. Clinical experience: outcomes of mesenchymal stem cell transplantation in five stroke patients. Front Med (Lausanne). 2023;10 https://doi.org/10.3389/fmed.2023.1051831.
- Armitage AJ, Miller JM, Sparks TH, Georgiou AE, Reid J. Efficacy of autologous mesenchymal stromal cell treatment for chronic degenerative musculoskeletal conditions in dogs: A retrospective study. Front Vet Sci. 2023;9:1014687. https://doi.org/10.3389/fvets.2022.1014687.
- Wei LN, Wu CH, Lin CT, Liu IH. Topical applications of allogeneic adipose-derived mesenchymal stem cells ameliorate the canine keratoconjunctivitis sicca. BMC Vet Res. 2022;18(1) https://doi.org/10.1186/ s12917-022-03303-7.
- Kim S, Lee DS, Suzuki H, Watarai M. Detection of Brucella canis and Leptospira interrogans in canine semen by multiplex nested PCR. J Vet Med Sci. 2006;68(6):615–8. https://doi.org/10.1292/jvms.68.615.
- Mascarelli PE, Tartara GP, Pereyra NB, Maggi RG. Detection of Mycoplasma haemocanis, Mycoplasma haematoparvum, Mycoplasma suis and other vector-borne pathogens in dogs from Córdoba and Santa Fé, Argentina. Parasit Vectors. 2016;9(1):1–5. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13071-016-1920-8.
- 22. Bajer A, et al. Tick-borne pathogens, Babesia spp. and Borrelia burgdorferi s.l., in sled and companion dogs from central and North-Eastern Europe. Pathogens. 2022;11(5) https://doi.org/10.3390/pathogens11050499.
- Portillo A, Santibáñez S, García-Álvarez L, Palomar AM, Oteo JA. Rickettsioses in Europe. Microbes Infect. 2015;17(11–12):834–8. https://doi.org/10. 1016/j.micinf.2015.09.009.
- Laušević D, Ilić T, Nenadović K, Bacić D, Obrenović S. Seroprevalences of Rickettsia conorii, Ehrlichia canis and Coxiella burnetii in dogs from Montenegro. Acta Parasitol. 2019;64(4):769–78. https://doi.org/10.2478/ s11686-019-00098-w.
- Huber D, et al. Molecular detection of Anaplasma platys, Anaplasma phagocytophilum and Wolbachia sp. but not Ehrlichia canis in Croatian dogs. Parasitol Res. 2017;116(11):3019–26. https://doi.org/10.1007/ s00436-017-5611-y.
- Vieson MD, LeRoith T. A review of the pathology and treatment of canine respiratory infections. Vet Med: Res Rep. 2012;25 https://doi.org/10.2147/ vmrr.s25021.
- Piewbang C, Rungsipipat A, Poovorawan Y, Techangamsuwan S. Crosssectional investigation and risk factor analysis of community-acquired and hospital-associated canine viral infectious respiratory disease complex. Heliyon. 2019;5(11) https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2019.e02726.
- Decaro N, et al. Molecular epidemiology of canine parvovirus, Europe. 2007. [Online]. Available: www.cdc.gov/eid.
- Ellis WA. Control of canine leptospirosis in Europe: time for a change? Vet Rec. 2010;167(16):602–5. https://doi.org/10.1136/vr.c4965.
- Hemphill A, Gottstein B. A European perspective on Neospora caninum. Int J. Parasitol. 2000;30(8):877–924. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0020-7519(00)00072-2.
- Kriston-Pál É, et al. Characterization and therapeutic application of canine adipose mesenchymal stem cells to treat elbow osteoarthritis. Can J Vet Res. 2017;81(1).

- Piewbang C, Rungsipipat A, Poovorawan Y, Techangamsuwan S. FULL PAPER virology development and application of multiplex PCR assays for detection of virus-induced respiratory disease complex in dogs. J Vet Med Sci. 2016;78(12):1847–54. https://doi.org/10.1292/jvms.16-0342.
- Rupprecht CE, Fooks AR, Abela-Ridder B. World Health Organization. Laboratory techniques in rabies. 2018; Volume 1.
- Hao X, et al. Multiplex PCR methods for detection of several viruses associated with canine respiratory and enteric diseases. 2019. https://doi. org/10.1371/journal.pone.0213295.
- Nonaka CKV, et al. Different methods of real-time PCR for detection of pseudorabies virus. Ciência Rural. 2017;47(3) https://doi.org/10.1590/ 0103-8478cr20160342.
- Shen Z, Zhang MZ, Stich RW, Mitchell WJ, Zhang S. Development of a tick-borne pathogen QPCR panel for detection of Anaplasma, Ehrlichia, Rickettsia, and Lyme disease Borrelia in animals. J Microbiol Methods. 2018;151:83–9. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mimet.2018.05.019.
- Greiman SE, Tkach W, Pulis E, Fayton TJ, Curran SS. Large scale screening of Digeneans for Neorickettsia endosymbionts using real-time PCR reveals new Neorickettsia genotypes. Host Associations and Geographic Records. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0098453.
- Diaz MH, Bai Y, Malania L, Winchell JM, Kosoy MY. Development of a novel genus-specific real-time PCR assay for detection and differentiation of Bartonella species and genotypes. 2012. https://doi.org/10.1128/JCM. 06621-11.
- Janetzko K, Rink G, Hecker A, Bieback K, Klüter H, Bugert P. Original article a single-tube real-time PCR assay for Mycoplasma detection as a routine quality control of cell therapeutics. Transfus Med Hemother. 2014;41:83– 9. https://doi.org/10.1159/000357096.
- Francino O, et al. Advantages of real-time PCR assay for diagnosis and monitoring of canine leishmaniosis. Vet Parasitol. 2006;137(3–4):214–21. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vetpar.2006.01.011.
- Rozej-Bielicka W, Masny A, Golab E. High-resolution melting PCR assay, applicable for diagnostics and screening studies, allowing detection and differentiation of several Babesia spp. Infecting Hum Anim. 2017; https:// doi.org/10.1007/s00436-017-5576-x.
- Ellis JT, McMillan D, Ryce C, Payne S, Atkinson R, Harper PAW. Development of a single tube nested polymerase chain reaction assay for the detection of Neospora caninum DNA. Int J Parasitol. 1999;29(10):1589–96. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0020-7519(99)00144-7.

#### **Publisher's Note**

Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

#### Ready to submit your research? Choose BMC and benefit from:

- fast, convenient online submission
- thorough peer review by experienced researchers in your field
- rapid publication on acceptance
- support for research data, including large and complex data types
- gold Open Access which fosters wider collaboration and increased citations
- maximum visibility for your research: over 100M website views per year

#### At BMC, research is always in progress.

Learn more biomedcentral.com/submissions

