- 1 Comparison of three blood transfusion guidelines applied to 31 feline donors to
- 2 minimise the risk of transfusion transmissible infections.

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- 4 Marenzoni M. L.¹*¶, Lauzi S.^{2,3}¶, Miglio A.⁴, Coletti M.¹, Arbia A.³, Paltrinieri S.^{2,3},
- 5 Antognoni M.T.⁴

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- 7 ¶ These authors contributed equally to this work
- ¹Department of Veterinary Medicine, University of Perugia, via S. Costanzo 4, 06126
- 9 Perugia, Italy
- ²Department of Veterinary Medicine, Via Celoria 10, 20133 University of Milan, Milan,
- 11 Italy
- ³Veterinary teaching hospital, University of Milan, Lodi, Italy
- ⁴Veterinary Transfusion Unit (EMOVET-UNIPG), Department of Veterinary Medicine,
- 14 University of Perugia, Perugia, Italy

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- 16 *Corresponding author Maria Luisa Marenzoni, PhD, MS, E-mail address:
- 17 marialuisa.marenzoni@unipg.it . Tel.: +39 075 5857720; fax: +39 075 5857662.

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- 20 Retroviridae infections.

Abstract

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Objectives The increased demand for animal blood transfusions creates the need for an 23 24 adequate number of donors. At the same time, a high level of blood safety must be guaranteed and different guidelines (GLs) deal with this topic. The aim of this study 25 was to evaluate the appropriateness of different GLs in preventing transfusion-26 27 transmissible infections (TTI) in Italian feline blood donors. Methods Blood samples were collected from 31 cats enrolled as blood donors by the 28 owners' voluntary choice over a period of approximately 1 year. Possible risk factors 29 30 for TTI were recorded. Based on Italian, European and American GLs, specific TTI, including haemoplasmas, feline leukemia virus (FeLV), feline immunodeficiency virus 31 (FIV), Anaplasma phagocytophilum, Ehrlichia spp., Bartonella spp., Babesia spp., 32 Theileria spp., Cytauxzoon spp., Leishmania donovani sensu lato and feline coronavirus 33 (FCoV) were screened. Rapid antigen and serological tests and biomolecular 34 35 investigations (PCR) were used. Several PCR protocols for haemoplasma and FeLV 36 DNA were compared to each other. Results The presence of at least one recognized risk factor for TTI was reported in all 37 38 cats. Results for FIV and FeLV infections were negative using rapid tests, whereas 5 (16.1%) cats were positive for FCoV antibodies. Four (12.9%) cats were PCR positive 39 for haemoplasma DNA and 1 (3.2%) for FeLV provirus, the latter being positive only 40 41 using the most sensitive PCR protocol applied. Other TTI were not detected using PCR.

Conclusion and relevance Blood safety increases by combining the recommendations of different GLs. To reduce the risk of TTI, sensitive tests are needed and the choice of the best protocol is a critical step in improving blood safety. The cost and time of the screening procedures may be reduced if appropriate tests are selected. To this end, the GLs should include appropriate recruitment protocols and questionnaire-based risk profiles to identify suitable donors.

Introduction

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Recently, the increase of the indications for the veterinary blood transfusion and its 50 routine use in the veterinary practice caused a rise in the demand for animal donors, At 51 the same time, a high level of blood safety must be guaranteed to perform this 52 procedure. 53 Transfusion-transmitted infections (TTI) from apparently healthy and asymptomatic 54 blood donors represent a well-known threat in blood transfusion, in addition to other 55 adverse events. 1-4 Therefore, the identification of risk factors and characteristics of "low 56 risk" blood donors are very important for increasing blood safety. Appropriate 57 recruitment strategies could also reduce infection risks. In human medicine, the World 58 Health Organization (WHO) identified regular voluntary non-remunerated donors as 59 those with the lowest risk for TTI.⁵ However, this model cannot be used because 60 different situations and settings exist in veterinary medicine. In cats, different 61 62 prevalences of microorganisms were found based on the source of the feline donors: a previous study found that laboratory-reared cats and cats housed indoor with no history 63 of flea or tick infestation were ideal blood donors.⁶ 64 Moreover, strategies and procedures ensuring blood safety for TTI change in different 65 settings. For humans, it is well known that each country has to address specific issues 66 or constraints that influence the safety of its blood supply, including the incidence and 67

69	and the economic resources available. ⁵
70	There are several guidelines (GLs) for testing protocols in veterinary medicine. GLs are
71	generally developed according to the circumstances and needs of each country. No
72	single GL can ensure absolute blood safety. ⁵ Both American and European GLs aim to
73	standardize veterinary blood transfusion procedures and to guarantee blood safety. ⁸⁻¹⁰
74	Additional GLs have been published in Italy to regulate veterinary blood transfusions in
75	dogs, cats and horses in this country. 11-12 However, all these GLs differ in some aspects,
76	such as the microorganism to be screened or the screening methods. ⁸⁻¹⁰
77	The aims of this research were i) to evaluate the differences among existing GLs, and ii)
78	to perform a preliminary investigation on a selected population of feline blood donors
79	from an Italian blood bank, evaluating how blood safety can be improved using tests
80	recommended by the different GLs.
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82	Materials and methods
83	Comparison of International and National GLs
84	The main existing GLs for veterinary blood transfusions were compared. ⁸⁻¹² The
85	European and American GLs were written by a panel of experts, according to evidence-

based medicine, even if the level of evidence for each topic was not always explicitly

prevalence of TTI, the structure and level of development of blood transfusion services,

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declared.⁸⁻¹⁰ The Italian GL for animal transfusion was written by a panel of experts commissioned by the Italian Ministry of Health.^{11,12}

Feline blood donor selection

During the January 2014-January 2015 period, blood samples were collected from cats enrolled as blood donors at the Blood Bank of the Veterinary Teaching Hospital of the University of Perugia. Cats were enrolled using the criteria of suitability indicated in the Italian GL:^{11,12} body weight ≥5 kg, age 2-8 years, docile character, regularly vaccinated with core vaccines (feline calicivirus, feline herpesvirus, feline parvovirus) and two non-core vaccines (*Chlamydia felis*, formerly *Chlamydophila felis*, and feline leukemia virus, FeLV). Blood donors enrolled in cases of life-threatening emergencies, for which the national GL recommends fast and restricted screening limited to feline immunodeficiency virus (FIV), FeLV and *Mycoplasma haemofelis*, were excluded from the study.

The owners of cat blood donors were asked for the following information: complete history, blood collection date, type of owner (staff or client), identification of the animal, age, gender, weight, breed, origin (adoption from breed or stray cat or purchase at a pet shop), type of housing (indoor *vs* outdoor or mixed), cohabitation with other cats, ectoparasite treatment and frequency, coat (long or short hair), and laboratory test

106 results. Travel history was not systematically investigated because initially not included 107 in the information required. 108 For each potential donor, before the collection of blood, a careful physical examination, was performed, with particular emphasis on the presence of fleas or ticks, and biological 109 110 samples were collected by a single operator for clinicopathologic screening, consisting of a complete blood count, typing of blood group, serum chemistry, urinalysis, and 111 112 faecal examination. Blood donation was a voluntary choice by the owners, who signed a written consent 113 form to authorize blood collection and storage and the use of samples and data for 114 scientific purposes. Therefore, based on the current regulations of our institutions, the 115 116 formal approval of the ethical committee was not needed for this study.

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Sample collection

One ml of blood from each donor was placed into 2 anticoagulated tubes containing sodium-citrate or EDTA (Ethylene-diamine-tetra-acetic acid) to obtain buffy coat and plasma, respectively. Three ml of blood were placed in a plain Vacutainer tube (Becton Dickinson, Milan, Italy) to obtain serum by centrifugation (1000 xg for 10 min). An aliquot of each sample was stored at -80 °C for further investigations.

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TTI screening

Serum samples were screened by rapid test using an ELISA for FeLV antigen and FIV 126 (SNAP FIV/FeLV Combo 127 antibodies test, **IDEXX** Laboratories) and immunochromatographic method for feline coronavirus (FCoV) antibodies (FASTest 128 129 FIP, MegaCor Diagnostik). 130 For each cat a Romanowsky-stained blood smear was microscopically examined to assess the presence of morphologically detectable microorganisms, with attention given 131 in particular to haemoplasmas. 132 DNA and RNA were extracted from 200 µL of both buffy coat and whole blood 133 samples according to validated protocols (Supplementary Table), 13-25 using a 134 commercial kit for viral RNA and DNA and bacterial DNA (QIAamp cador Pathogen 135 136 Mini Kit, Qiagen, Milan, Italy), in accordance with the manufacturer's instructions. The concentration and purity of the extracted nucleic acids were quantified using a 137 138 NanoDrop® spectrophotometer (NanoDrop 2000, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Milan, 139 Italy). Previously published PCR assays, used for the diagnostic activities in the laboratory that 140 141 performed the tests, were applied to detect the infectious agents (Supplementary Table). 13-25 Several published PCR protocols were performed in the case of 142 haemoplasmas 13-15 and FeLV 18-20 to compare the sensitivity of the assays. In this case, 143 10-fold dilutions of positive samples were used. 144

A PCR targeting the 18S ribosomal RNA gene was used as internal control to rule out possible PCR inhibitors in the samples. With regards to FeLV, the PCR product of the expected size was purified with an extraction kit (Qiaquick PCR purification kit, Qiagen) and directly sequenced on both strands with the specific primers previously described, 20 using a DNA analyzer (ABI 3730, Applied Biosystems) capillary sequencer (Bio-Fab Research srl). The sequences were assembled and aligned using BioEdit software²⁶ and sequence similarities were assessed by comparison with the sequences deposited in GenBank using the BLAST

Statistical analysis

software.²⁷

Chi-square, with Yates's correction, and Fisher's exact test were used to compare the proportions of positive and negative samples, stratified for the data of the animals at the time of the visit (staff- or client-owner, age, gender, breed, origin, type of housing, cohabitation with other cats, ectoparasite treatment and frequency, kind of coat), as most appropriate. Age was analysed by grouping the animals into age categories testing a cut-off ≤ 3 years. A P value < 0.05 was considered statistically significant. EpiInfo²⁸ and OpenEpi²⁹ were used for analysis.

Results

Comparison of International and National GLs

Different aspects concerning criteria of suitability, selection and TTI screening for blood donors are reported in the GLs. 8-12 However, all GLs consider FIV, FeLV, and *Mycoplasma haemofelis* as the minimum essential level of screening (Tables 1 and 2). Based on the epidemiological situation of the individual country 14,30-37 and as suggested by all GLs, Italian GLs were partially integrated with European and American GLs for increasing blood safety. Accordingly, further TTI were investigated: *Candidatus* Mycoplasma haemominutum, *Candidatus* Mycoplasma turicensis, *Anaplasmataceae* family (*Anaplasma phagocytophilum* and *Ehrlichia* spp.), *Bartonella* spp., *Babesia* spp., *Theileria* spp., *Cytauxzoon* spp., *Leishmania donovani* sensu lato, and FCoV. In addition, biomolecular methods were added to the procedures recommended by the Italian GL. 12

Feline blood donor profiles

Thirty-one cats from 18 different owners were included in the study. Six (19.4%) were female (3 neutered) and 25 (80.6%) male (15 neutered). The mean age was 4 years (median 5, range 2-8) and the mean weight 6.23 kg (median 6, range 5-9). Twenty-three (74.2%) were domestic shorthair, whereas 8 (25.8%) were Maine Coon. Twenty cats (64.5%) were client-owned and 11 (35.5%) staff-owned, including students of the veterinary medicine course. Based on the answers received, 22 (71%) cats were adopted

stray kittens, whereas 9 (29%) were purebred cats. Thirteen (44.8%) cats lived indoors, 185 186 whereas 16 (55.2%) had access to the outdoors. Twenty-six (83.8%) lived with other cats. Only 2 owners performed regular ectoparasite treatments, whereas 25 others 187 (89.3%) administered the treatments mainly in warm periods, and 1 never administered 188 189 ectoparasite treatments. Thirteen cats (46.4%) were long-haired, and 15 (53.6%) shorthaired. In three cases the recording of the answers missed to collect information on the 190 191 kind of coat and treatment, and in two cases the type of housing. At least 5 owners travelled with their cats in different areas of southern-central Italy. 192 No cats had recent illnesses. Physical examination and clinicopathologic screenings 193 were unremarkable, with all the parameters within the standard reference intervals, and 194

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TTI screening

- 198 All cats were negative using FIV and FeLV rapid tests, whereas 5 (16.1%) were
- positive for FCoV antibodies.
- 200 Blood smears did not reveal morphologically detectable microorganisms.

cats were considered eligible for blood donation.

- 201 Cats were negative using PCR for Anaplasmataceae (Anaplasma spp. and Ehrlichia
- spp.), Bartonella spp., Babesia spp., Theileria spp., Cytauxzoon spp., Leishmania
- 203 donovani sensu lato and FCoV, whereas haemoplasma DNA was detected in 4 cats
- 204 (12.9%) using all the PCR protocols targeting the 16S rRNA gene. 13-15 However, the

nested PCR¹⁴ was found to be 10-fold more sensitive than the other PCR protocol used.^{13,15} Further specific tests^{16,17} identified three cats as infected with *Candidatus* Mycoplasma haemominutum and one with *Mycoplasma haemofelis*. The latter cat was also PCR positive for FeLV provirus using the specific nested PCR protocol,¹⁹ but not with the others protocols used to detect FeLV DNA.^{18,20} The specific nested protocol¹⁹ was at least 10-fold more sensitive than the others.^{18,20} Sequencing of the positive FeLV PCR product shared 98%-100% identity with the homologous FeLV region LTR sequences reported in GenBank (accession nos. AY374218, L25630, M18248, KP728112).

Statistical analysis

No statistical association with positivity to the screened microorganisms and the characteristics of the cats was found.

Discussion

In this study, Italian GLs were applied to 31 feline candidate blood donors enrolled over a 1-year period. According to these GLs, these cats were fully eligible as blood donors. However, based on donor selection criteria or recommendations of other GLs, blood safety could not be completely guaranteed. Indeed, the enrolled cats, although clinically

healthy, had risk factors for harbouring TTI and resulted also positive for some 224 225 microorganisms included in the other GLs. All 31 cats were negative using rapid tests for FIV and FeLV. One cat was positive for 226 FeLV provirus, but only when using the most sensitive PCR protocol. This cat should 227 228 be excluded from the donation program, considering that FeLV provirus carriers testing negative for the p27 antigen may transmit FeLV infection to a naïve recipient via blood 229 transfusion.³⁸ These results show that the Italian GL would have missed this infected cat 230 because, as opposed to the other GLs, 9,10,39 PCR is not even recommended for detecting 231 proviral FeLV. Furthermore, the results also raised the issue that the same animal may 232 be classified eligible or ineligible as a blood donor based on the different PCR assay 233 234 that is applied. Blood smears negative for haemoplasmas cannot exclude infection. The sensitivity of 235 microscopic analysis is too low to detect haemoplasmas in chronically asymptomatic 236 cats and does not differentiate the Mycoplasma species. 40,41 Using sensitive PCR 237 protocols, as suggested by European and American GLs and previous studies, 2,3,8,10 238 12.9% of cats were positive, with a prevalence comparable with that of previous studies 239 on blood donors.^{37,40,42} This confirms the endemicity of haemoplasma in clinically 240 healthy cats and the high probability of finding a positive cat even in a limited number 241 of samples.^{6,40} All the PCR protocols¹³⁻¹⁵ identified the positive cats, but the nested 242 PCR¹⁴ was 10-fold more sensitive than the other protocols. This protocol should be 243

preferred for its higher sensitivity, since fluctuations in the number of circulating haemoplasmas may lead to false negative results using less sensitive protocols. 41 For the same reason, TTI screening should always be performed on the same blood collected for donation: negative results for blood samples collected even few days before the donation cannot rule out the presence of hemoplasmas in subsequent blood samples used for transfusion because of the fluctuation in bacteremia. Moreover, considering that the highest risk of haemoplasma transmission by blood was found within one week from its collection² and that the risk in feline blood donation was recently defined nonnegligible, ³⁷ sensitive PCR tests should be recommended. Mycoplasma haemofelis, the only species included in the Italian and updated American GLs, was detected in only one cat, whereas three cats were positive for Candidatus Mycoplasma haemominutum. The Italian GL recommends temporarily excluding cats infected by Mycoplasma haemofelis from the donation program until PCR results are negative, whereas American GLs exclude them permanently, assuming that these cats may be chronic carriers of Mycoplasma. 41,43 The identification of haemoplasma species is considered optional by the American GL.9 However, four haemoplasma species are recognized in cats, and their pathogenic significance is debated: 40,41,44 hence, the identification of Mycoplasma species, although time-consuming, may be recommended. Although not currently recommended by all GLs, the screening of FCoV antibodies using rapid tests, as is required by the Italian GL, showed a low prevalence of infection

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(16.1%) compared to previous studies in Italian populations. ^{35,45} Furthermore, a specific nested PCR assay demonstrated that blood samples were negative for FCoV. However, the European GL¹⁰ and a recent study⁴⁶ advise that seropositive cats should be excluded from the donor program because it is possible that passively transferred anti-FCoV antibodies could endanger the recipient, if infected, even if no evident risk of transmission of FCoV via blood has been demonstrated: 46,47,48,49 and no reports of transmission following blood transfusion have been described until now. On the other hand, there is no evidence that seropositive cats will develop FIP. 9,10 With the shortage of donor cats already available, the exclusion of FCoV seropositive cats is likely unnecessary and could cause a relevant reduction in the number of blood donor cats. Moreover, considering that transitory viremia is possible even in seronegative cats, 45,50 FCoV RNA screening of blood collected for donation could be appropriate. The comparison of analytical sensitivities of the different protocols was limited to haemoplasmas and FeLV PCR assays. However, this approach would have been appropriate also for the other tests. Therefore validated and common protocols could be described and advised by GLs in order to guarantee the same level of accuracy in detecting TTI blood donors everywhere, as is done for notifiable diseases.⁵¹ As in people, however, test accuracy may be time-consuming and expensive. Otherwise, a lower level of risk assessment should be accepted by the owner of the recipient by

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written consent, such as in the case of emergency transfusions, as is currently indicated 283 by all GLs. 9,10,12 284 Accordingly, additional appropriate strategies for selecting "low risk donors" should be 285 applied to reduce the cost and time of screenings and to guarantee a high level of blood 286 287 safety. For example, the use of a questionnaire to identify suitable donors could be an inexpensive and useful tool. As is already the practice in human medicine, recently both 288 American and European GLs provided different questionnaires to determine the risk 289 profile. 9,10 However, even if the questionnaire was not available at the time of enrolment 290 291 in the study, the owners in the current study were asked specific questions and the profiles of the donor candidates showed that they had risk factors for harbouring TTI. 292 293 All 31 Italian donor cats had at least one TTI-risk characteristic or behavior, such as access to the outdoors, for which American GL specifically recommends repeated 294 testing,⁹ or the irregular ectoparasite treatment performed by 89.3% of the owners. All 295 GLs advise regular ectoparasite treatments, but the frequency of treatments is not 296 specified. Monthly ectoparasite prophylaxis was suggested by other studies.^{3,7} The 297 298 owners should be encouraged to carry out ectoparasite prophylaxis correctly, 299 considering the relevance of this practice in the control of a wide range of vector-borne 300 diseases. Although travel history was not systematically investigated, at least five 301 owners travelled with their cats in different areas of southern-central Italy, that are at risk of some infectious diseases and therefore should be considered at high risk for 302

harbouring TTI.^{33,34} Unfortunately, the small number of cats in this study limited the 303 statistical power of this study. A higher number of animals could improve the 304 identification of specific risk factors for TTI in Italy. 305 The possible exclusion of cats with a TTI risk profile from donor programmes contrasts 306 307 with the difficulty of finding a sufficient number of adequate donors, as is confirmed by the enrolment of only 31 cats in more than 1 year. This makes the rejection of candidate 308 donors very difficult, even if they have a TTI risk profile. Thus the application of a wide 309 range of sensitive diagnostic tests should be proposed to verify the actual infectious 310 status and to guarantee a sufficient number of adequate donors. American and European 311 GLs recommend that donors with a high risk profile should undergo frequent or 312 extensive TTI screening. 9,10 313 Another possible action for increasing blood safety that is currently not recommended 314 by GLs is a recruitment strategy that can identify populations of low TTI-risk donors. 315 No general recruitment criteria are reported in veterinary medicine, and appropriate 316 surveys should be taken to identify the best strategy. Laboratory-reared cats could be 317 considered the ideal donors, being negative for all the microorganisms, but enrolment 318 of these animals is open to possible ethical issues. 10 A recent survey on hospitals with 319 blood bank or transfusion services found that staff-owned cats are the donors enrolled 320 most frequently, followed by colonies of feline donors and client-owned cats.⁷ These 321 sources of donors probably reflect different infection risks. Considering the central role 322

of the owner in managing health prophylaxis, determining the lifestyle of cats and choosing to donate blood, it is possible that informed and motivated owners could be a key point for safer blood donors that reduces the possible exposure to TTI risk factors.

Conclusions

Since the GLs recommend different protocols and can classify cats differently as eligible or ineligible for blood donation, the harmonization of recommendations would be advisable. This is especially important for the main TTI and for the choice of the most sensitive screening tests, with possible variations according to local epidemiological situations. These additional recommendations would improve the general level of transfusion blood safety. Screening costs and time may be reduced if appropriate tests are selected. Attention should be put to identify donors that were stray cats, with irregular or no ectoparasite treatments, travelling, or with outdoor access. The use of biomolecular method should be recommended, at least in the case of storage in blood banks, to identify proviral FeLV DNA, considering that rapid test is not definitively discriminatory, and haemoplasma DNA in blood collected for donation. Moreover, issues raised by FCoV seropositivity and possible presence of FCoV RNA in seronegative cats should be further considered.

Finally, appropriate recruitment protocols currently not considered in GLs, educational courses for owners, the possibility of establishing permanent groups of safe blood

donors and questionnaire-based risk profiles could improve the identification of suitable 343 donors with low risk of harbouring TTI, reducing the necessity to perform extensive 344 345 screening. 346 Acknowledgements 347 The authors thank Mr. Carlo Sanesi for his skillful technical assistance. 348 349 350 **Conflict of interest** The authors do not have any potential conflicts of interest to declare. 351 352 **Funding** 353 The authors received no specific grants from any public, commercial or non-profit 354 funding agencies for the preparation of this article. 355

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