Original article Comparison of autologous bone marrow and adipose tissue derived mesenchymal stem cells, and platelet rich plasma, for treating surgically induced lesions of the equine superficial digital flexor tendon A. Romero a, b, L. Barrachina a, b, B. Ranera A. R. Remacha a, c, B. Moreno c, d, I. de Blas ^{c, d}, A. Sanz ^{a, c}, F.J. Vázquez ^{a, b}, A. Vitoria ^{a, b}, C. Junquera ^a, P. Zaragoza ^{a, c}, C. Rodellar a, c, * ^a Laboratorio de Genética Bioquímica LAGENBIO, Instituto de Investigación Sanitaria de Aragón (IIS), Universidad de Zaragoza. Zaragoza, Spain. ^b Servicio de Cirugía y Medicina Equina, Hospital Veterinario, Universidad de Zaragoza, 50013 Zaragoza, Spain ^c Instituto Agroalimentario de Aragón (IA2), Universidad de Zaragoza-Centro de Investigación y Tecnología de Aragón (CITA). Zaragoza, Spain ^d Departamento de Patología Animal, Facultad de Veterinaria, Universidad de Zaragoza, 50013 Zaragoza, Spain * Corresponding author. Tel.: +34 976 761620. E-mail address: rodellar@unizar.es (C. Rodellar).

Abstract

26

27	Several therapies have been investigated for equine tendinopathies, but
28	satisfactory long term results have not been consistently achieved and a better
29	understanding of the healing mechanism elicited by regenerative therapies is needed.
30	The aim of this study was to assess the separate effects of autologous bone marrow
31	(BM) and adipose tissue (AT) derived mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs), and platelet
32	rich plasma (PRP), for treating induced lesions in the superficial digital flexor tendon
33	(SDFT) of horses. Lesions were created surgically in both SDFTs of the front limbs of
34	12 horses and were treated with BM-MSCs (six tendons), AT-MSCs (six tendons) or
35	PRP (six tendons). The remaining six tendons received lactated Ringer's solution as
36	control. Serial ultrasound assessment was performed prior to treatment and at 2, 6, 10,
37	20 and 45 weeks post-treatment. At 45 weeks, histopathology and gene expression
38	analyses were performed. At week 6, tendon echogenicity score in tendons treated with
39	BM-MSCs suggested earlier ultrasonographic improvement, while at week 10 all
40	treatment groups reached the same level, which was superior to the control group. In
41	treated tendons, collagen orientation score suggested better histopathology outcome.
42	Gene expression was indicative of better tissue regeneration after all treatments,
43	especially for BM-MSCs, as suggested by upregulated collagen type I, decorin, tenascin
44	and matrix metalloproteinase III. Considering all findings, a clear beneficial effect was
45	elicited by all treatments compared with the control group. Despite the absence of great
46	differences between treatments tested, BM-MSCs resulted in a better outcome than PRP
47	and AT-MSCs.

- 49 Keywords: Equine; Mesenchymal stem cells; Platelet rich plasma; Regenerative medicine;
- 50 Tendon repair

Introduction

The superficial digital flexor tendon (SDFT) is subjected to large forces during athletic activity in horses (Dowling et al., 2000). Its limited regeneration potential makes tendon repair a slow process, resulting in the formation of scar tissue, which has inferior biomechanical properties and is prone to re-injury (Dahlgren, 2009; Dakin et al., 2014; Gulati et al., 2015). Several treatments for equine tendonitis have been investigated, but injured animals are rarely able to return to the same level of performance (Genovese et al., 1990; Nixon, 1990; Dehghan et al., 2007).

Regenerative medicine, including the intralesional use of mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs) and platelet rich plasma (PRP) is a promising approach for treating tendon injuries in horses (Bosch et al., 2010). Numerous studies have suggested potential therapeutic benefits of MSCs for the functional regeneration of tendons and ligaments (Godwin et al., 2012; Carvalho et al., 2013; Smith et al., 2013; Conze et al., 2014; Gulati et al., 2015). MSCs from different sources, such as bone marrow (BM) (Smith et al., 2013), adipose tissue (AT) (Conze et al., 2014) or umbilical cord blood (Van Loon et al., 2014), have to a certain extent shown efficacy in terms of reduction of the re-injury rate and improving outcome in both naturally occurring and experimentally induced lesions (Godwin et al., 2012; Martinello et al., 2013; Conze et al., 2014).

However, several questions about the effectiveness of MSCs and PRP remain unanswered. Previous reports on the use of regenerative products showing superior healing of equine tendinopathies have combined different products (Pacini et al., 2007; Del Bue et al., 2008; Carvalho et al., 2013; Smith et al., 2013), making it difficult to elucidate if MSCs are more or less effective than PRP or if their effects are additive

(Koch et al., 2009; Schnabel et al., 2013). The aim of this study was to separately assess the effectiveness of autologous BM-MSCs, AT-MSCs and PRP for treating induced injuries of the equine SDFT.

Material and methods

Animals

Twelve cross-breed geldings (H1-H12) aged 5-8 years were determined to be healthy and free of tendon injury, as shown by their history, clinical assessment and ultrasonographic exam. The project was approved by the Ethical Committee for Animal Experiments from the University of Zaragoza (project license PI36/07; date of approval 15 February 2008. The care and use of animals were performed in accordance with the Spanish Policy RD53/2013, which meets the European Union Directive 2010/63 on the protection of animals used for scientific purposes.

Study design

In 24 tendons (both forelimbs of 12 horses), lesions were induced as described below and randomly divided into four batches. Each batch of six tendons was assigned to one treatment (BM-MSCS, AT-MSCs or PRP) or control (lactated Ringer's solution, LRS). H1-H6 received BM-MSCs in one tendon and H7-H12 received AT-MSCs in one tendon. In the other tendon, H1-H3 and H7-H9 received PRP, whereas H4-H6 and H10-H12 received LRS as a control treatment. The different treatments were administered 1 week after the lesion induction. Clinical and ultrasonographic parameters were recorded throughout the study in weeks 1 (pre-treatment), 2, 6, 10, 20 and 45, after which animals were euthanased. Subsequently, histological and gene expression analyses of tendons were performed (See Appendix: Supplementary Material 1).

Autologous BM-MSCs, AT-MSCs and PRP

Procedures for preparation of MSCs were carried out as described by Ranera et al. (2011). BM was aseptically aspirated from the sternum of horses H1-H6, layered over Lymphoprep (Atom) and centrifuged at 300 g for 20 min. Nucleated cells were harvested and suspended in basal medium, consisting of low glucose Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% foetal bovine serum, 1% glutamine and 1% streptomycin/penicillin (Sigma-Aldrich). Adipose tissue was aseptically collected from the supra-gluteal subcutaneous area of horses H7-H12. The stromal vascular fraction was isolated by digestion with 0.01% collagenase type I (Sigma-Aldrich) for 30 min at 37 °C with continuous shaking. Cells were suspended in the basal medium described above. BM and AT derived cells were expanded at 37 °C in 5% CO₂ until the third passage and then characterised as MSCs by their immunophenotype and their tri-lineage differentiation potential using methodology and markers described previously (Ranera et al., 2011). Subsequently, cells were cryopreserved and thawed for expansion 7 days before their in vivo use.

Autologous PRP was obtained by using the double centrifugation tube method (Arguelles et al., 2006). Peripheral blood was collected in citrated tubes from horses H1-H3 and H7-H9, centrifuged at 120 g for 5 min and the 50% fraction closest to the buffy coat was collected and centrifuged again at 240 g for 5 min. Subsequently, the lower 25% fraction was collected and used for treatment. Platelet and white blood cell (WBC) counts were determined using a flow cytometry haematology system (LaserCyte Dx, IDEXX Laboratories).

Surgically induced injury

Horses were sedated with 0.04 mg/kg IV romifidine (Sedivet, Boehringer-Ingelheim) and 0.02 mg/kg IV butorphanol (Torbugesic, Pfizer). Anaesthesia was induced with 2.2 mg/kg IV ketamine (Imalgene, Merial) and 0.05 mg/kg IV diazepam (Valium, Roche), and maintained using a triple-drip, consisting of 15 mg romifidine, 500 mg ketamine and 25 g guaifenesin (Glicefar, DragPharma) mixed in 500 mL of 5% glucose solution at 2 mL/kg/h. Lesions of approximately 5 cm length were mechanically induced in the SDFT of both forelimbs of each animal, approximately at 18 cm distal to the accessory bone, using a controlled motor rotor and a 4 mm drill through a small longitudinal incision into the core of the SDFT (Cadby et al., 2013). The lesion was created in the central tendon area (maximal injury zone, MIZ) (Fig. 1). The incisions in the paratenon and the skin were closed in a routine fashion. Twice daily, 22 mg/kg IM procaine benzylpenicillin (Depocillin, Merck-Sharp) and once daily 6.6 mg/kg IV gentamicin (Gentavex, SP Veterinaria) were administered for 3 days. A two-layer bandage was applied and changed daily for 7 days. Pre-operative and post-operative analgesia were provided with oral phenylbutazone (EqZona, Calier) at 2.2 mg/kg twice daily for 3 days. Animals still presenting signs of pain received butorphanol at 0.05 mg/kg IV every 4 h. After surgery, horses were box-rested for 2 weeks and then daily hand-walked for 10 min until week 6. Subsequently, they were placed in small paddocks for restricted exercise and 10 weeks after lesion induction were allowed unrestricted exercise in bigger paddocks until the end of the study.

144

145

146

147

148

149

125

126

127

128

129

130

131

132

133

134

135

136

137

138

139

140

141

142

143

Treatment

Horses received 20 x 10⁶ BM-MSCs (BM treatment) or AT-MSCs (AT treatment) suspended in 7 mL LRS, 7 mL PRP (PRP treatment) or 7 mL LRS (control) in assigned tendons 1 week after the injury induction, according to the distribution described above. Horses were sedated as described above and a high palmar nerve block was performed. The

designated treatment or LRS was administered intralesionally using an 18 G 40 mm needle. The volume was equally distributed into the core of the lesion and perilesionally 1-2 cm proximally and distally to the core lesion (Watts et al., 2014). Administration was carried out by single injection and needle redirection through the site of injury under ultrasonographic guidance.

Clinical assessment

Daily recordings were made of duration of recumbency, body temperature, heart and respiratory rates, and intestinal motility during the first week after lesion induction. Surgical wounds were examined daily for any sign of infection. Tendon palpation was carried out to detect oedema, inflammation and pain. Lameness was assessed visually whilst horses were hand walked and trotted along a straight line on a hard surface on week 1 (walked only), 2, 6, 10, 20 and 45.

Ultrasonographic evaluation

Ultrasonography was performed using a 7.5 MHz linear transductor (HDI-3000, ATL). Five transverse and five longitudinal images were obtained along the MIZ region (at approximately 2 cm intervals) at each time point. The ultrasonographic parameters fibre pattern score (FPS, scores 0-3), tendon echogenicity score (TES: score 0-3) and cross sectional area (CSA, %) were assessed by a clinician blinded for the treatments (Genovese et al., 1986; Rantanen et al., 2003). Values for each parameter were assigned as the sum of the scores obtained from 10 images.

Real time quantitative PCR

At week 45, horses were sedated as described above and euthanased with sodium pentobarbital (Euthasol, Esteve) at 200 mg/kg IV. Samples from the zones Z1 (off-lesion control) from one tendon of each horse (n = 12) and MIZ (Fig. 1) from each SDFT (n = 24) were collected and RNA was isolated using Trizol (Qiagen), chloroform and isopropanol (Chou et al., 2013). Genomic DNA was extracted using the DNAse Turbo kit (Ambion) and cDNA was synthesised using the SuperScript II System (Life Technologies). The expression of genes encoding molecules related to extracellular matrix (ECM) production, tissue healing and remodelling were analysed (Table 1). Reactions were performed with the Fast SYBR Green Master Mix and the StepOne Real Time PCR System device (Applied Biosystems). The normalisation factor was calculated from two housekeeping genes (GAPDH and B2M) (Kolm et al., 2006). Gene expression levels were determined by the comparative Ct method.

Histopathology

Eighteen histological preparations were evaluated from the MIZ of each tendon; six from the proximal region, six from the distal region and six from the central area (Fig. 1). Each sample was longitudinally embedded in a paraffin block. Histological sections were prepared, stained with haematoxylin-eosin and examined under a light microscope. The histological parameters tenocyte morphology (TM), vascularity (V), ground substance (GS), collagen orientation (CO) and cell number (CN) were assessed by a single blinded operator and scores obtained from each preparation were summed using a semi-quantitative assessment (Maffulli et al., 2008).

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using SPSS 19.0 (IBM). Evolution of ultrasonographic parameters was studied using two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA)

repeated measures and Bonferroni post-hoc testing. Differences between groups for histological parameters were analysed using one-way ANOVA and Duncan post-hoc testing. Cronbach's α coefficient was calculated to assess the intra-observer agreement in ultrasonographic and histopathological evaluations (see Appendix: Supplementary Material 2). Differences between treatments and off-lesion control samples (Z1) for gene expression were analysed with the Mann-Whitney test. Since each animal received two different substances, not all observations were independent. Therefore, both tendons of each animal were compared using a paired Student's *t* test for the following BM versus PRP (animals H1-H3), BM versus LRS (animals H4-H6), AT versus PRP (animals H7-H9) and AT versus LRS (animals H10-H12). Significances obtained from paired tests coincided with those obtained from ANOVA analyses. Significant results shown in figures correspond to ANOVA analyses comparing all groups. The level of significance was set at *P* < 0.05.

Results

Characterisation of BM-MSCs, AT-MSCs and PRP

Cells obtained from BM and AT from all donors were successfully characterised as MSCs by surface marker pattern and tri-lineage differentiation (data not shown). The mean \pm standard deviation (SD) platelet and WBC counts in PRP were 263.3 x $10^3 \pm 99.9$ x 10^3 and $8.9 \times 10^3 \pm 2.5 \times 10^3$ cells/ μ L, respectively.

Clinical assessment

Health status was satisfactory in all animals at the daily checks. At the time of treatment, lesion areas were similar amongst horses and the peritendinous reaction was mild, with a slight fibrous reaction, in all animals. Five weeks post-surgery, no lameness was observed and skin wounds had healed completely. Irregular skin thickening was detected at

the site of injury, and the tendons appeared to be sensitive and thickened. No systemic adverse effects were noticed in any horse.

Ultrasonography

All ultrasonographic scores progressively decreased throughout the study, including those in the control group. At week 6, only the BM-treatment led to a significant reduction in TES score with respect to baseline. At week 10, significant reductions in FPS and TES were seen with BM-treatment, AT-treatment and PRP-treatment, and in CSA with AT-treatment and PRP-treatment. Twenty weeks after induction of lesions, significant reductions of all scores of all three parameters compared with baseline data were observed in all treatment groups. Moreover, TES was also significantly reduced in the control tendons. By week 45, all scores were significantly reduced in all groups, except for CSA in the control group (Figs. 2 and 3).

Histopathology

The treatment groups had lower score results than the control group, which had the highest values for all parameters. CO score was significantly lower for tendons in the BM-treatment and PRP-treatment groups compared with the control group. Tendons in the PRP-treatment also had significantly lower GS scores than the control group (Figs. 4 and 5).

Gene expression

Significant upregulation of collagen type I (COL1A1), decorin (DCN), tenascin (TNC) and matrix metalloproteinase III (MMP-3) over Z1 was found in tendons in the BM-treatment group. COL1A1, TNC, MMP-3 plus collagen type III (COL3A1), aggrecan (ACAN) and tenomodulin (TNMD) were significantly overexpressed in

tendons in the PRP-treatment group. BM-treatment resulted in the highest expression of COL1A1, DCN and MMP-3. Tendons in the PRP-treatment group expressed the highest values of TNC and TNMD, whilst there was no significant difference in expression of scleraxis (SCX). Control tendons had the highest expression of COL3A1, ACAN and COMP. AT-treatment did not elicit significant differences compared to Z1 or control tendons (Fig. 6).

Discussion

The aim of this study was to evaluate the effect of intralesional injections with autologous BM-MSC, AT-MSCs or PRP on surgically induced SDFT lesions, through ultrasonographic monitoring, histopathology and assessment of gene expression after 45 weeks. Mechanically induced lesions more closely resemble naturally occurring injuries in terms of histological findings (Cadby et al., 2013) and provide a more standardised and limited lesion than those induced enzymatically (Birch et al., 1998; Watts et al., 2012). Despite the usefulness of experimental models of tendinopathy, some differences to naturally occurring injuries, related to the aetiology and pathophysiology of the lesions, must be considered (Cadby et al., 2013). Therapy with BM-MSCs is associated with better histological results in naturally occurring equine tendinopathies (Smith et al., 2013) than in induced injuries (Caniglia et al., 2012), which might be due to differences in pathogenesis.

In similar studies, therapies have been administered 2-4 weeks after induction of lesions (Caniglia et al., 2012; Carvalho et al., 2013; Conze et al., 2014). In the current study, treatment was performed 1 week after injury because the optimal time of administration of MSCs appears to be during the subacute phase of repair, when

inflammation has decreased and there is limited formation of scar tissue (Koch et al., 2009). In tendon lesions, the subacute stage starts a few days after injury, reaching its maximum level at approximately 3 weeks, with fibroblast infiltration and high production of collagen type III, making the tissue prone to re-injury (Fackelman, 1973). In the present study, treatments were performed at the beginning of the subacute phase, with aim to influence this early stage of scar formation.

A limitation of this study was that both forelimbs of each horse received different treatments and, therefore, not all observations were independent. The study was designed to minimise the number of experimental animals. Furthermore, to reduce possible interference, MSCs from different sources were not administered to the same animal.

The methodology for obtaining PRP was chosen based on its simplicity and safety (Arguelles et al., 2008). The platelet and WBC counts in PRP were in agreement with those previously described with this technique (Arguelles et al., 2006).

The clinical assessment did not reveal differences between treatments, in agreement with the study by Watts et al. (2011). No adverse reactions were noted after the intra-lesional administration of different products.

Ultrasonographic monitoring revealed faster lesion improvement in treatment groups versus the control group. Reduction in CSA, which is the parameter most closely related to the quality of the healing process (Rantanen et al., 2003), was significant only in treated groups at the end of the experiment. BM-treatment produced the most rapid

ultrasonographic improvement (significant difference at 6 weeks), followed by PRP-treatment (significant difference at 10 weeks). These findings suggest that MSCs and PRP provided a quicker repair, enhancing the reparative process and reducing the degeneration of the tendon fibres. This effect was seen after all treatments, but was most marked for BM-treatment, and is broadly in line with different studies on biological regenerative products (Pacini et al., 2007; Del Bue et al., 2008; Carvalho et al., 2011; Caniglia et al., 2012; Godwin et al., 2012; Marfe et al., 2012).

Whereas histopathology did not show great variation, there were a few distinct differences between the treated groups and the control group, with the latter showing poorer regeneration. Furthermore, BM-treatment and PRP-treatment were associated with a better histopathological outcome than AT-treatment. Our findings are in agreement with those from a previous study reporting significant decreases in vascularity and CO (Smith et al., 2013). It is hypothesised that larger differences in histopathology results could have been identified at earlier stages, as shown by ultrasonography. However, since the mean time needed for complete lesion recovery is 36-48 weeks (Fortier and Smith, 2008; Dakin et al., 2014) and since most studies have been conducted over shorter periods, the study duration of 45 weeks was considered appropriate to provide long term results.

COL1A1 and COMP are indicators of tendon matrix synthesis (Smith et al., 1997, 2002a, b; Oshiro et al., 2003; Ritty and Herzog, 2003; Sodersten et al., 2005) and upregulation of COL1A1 after BM-treatment and PRP-treatment might indicate a reparative process. In contrast, there was no significant upregulation of COMP after PRP-treatment and in control tendons; similar or higher COMP expression in control

tendons compared with MSC-treatment or PRP-treatment has been reported previously (Schnabel et al., 2009; Carvalho et al., 2013). DCN appears to be important for tendon ECM production (Dowling et al., 2000; Thomopoulos et al., 2003) and collagen fibrillogenesis (Scott, 1996; Sodersten et al., 2005), so its upregulation after all treatments, especially in tendons receiving BM-treatment, is consistent with its biological function.

Tissue produced after tendon injury is rich in COL3A1 and has a disorganised fibre pattern, which can persist for up to 14 months after lesion formation (Goodship et al., 1994; Dowling et al., 2000). In our study, COL3A1 expression was upregulated in all injured tendons, but the highest expression was found in control tendons. ACAN and COL3A1 overexpression are associated with chronic tendinopathy (Corps et al., 2006) and are considered to be adaptive responses of the tendon to changes in biomechanical loads (Thomopoulos et al., 2003). Therefore, the high ACAN upregulation found in control tendons might be related with the chondroid metaplastic degeneration with disorganised fibre pattern seen in this group. The upregulation of ACAN and COL3A1 was also significant in tendons receiving PRP-treatment, but not in those receiving BM-treatment or AT-treatment.

The significant upregulation of MMP-3 and TNC in the BM-treatment and PRP-treatment groups may indicate enhanced remodelling, since MMP-3 is related to changes in collagen fibre alignment during the remodelling phase and TNC modulates the binding of cells to ECM components (Chiquet-Ehrismann and Chiquet, 2003; Jones et al., 2006). BM-treatment and PRP-treatment led to significant upregulation of ECM synthesis and markers indicative of remodelling, whilst AT-treatment did not elicit

significant changes in gene expression. However, PRP-treatment also resulted in a significant increase in ACAN and COL3A1, suggesting poorer healing than in BM-treated tendons.

Conclusions

BM-treatment and PRP-treatment produced similar results, with enhanced tendon gene expression, echogenicity and histopathological parameters compared to AT-treatment. However, PRP-treatment resulted in higher COL3A1 and ACAN expression, suggesting less regeneration, which might be reflected in lower tendon functionality. Although all the treatments showed a similar beneficial effect compared to the control group, our data suggest that BM-MSCs might provide better tendon healing.

Conflict of interest statement

None of the authors has any financial or personal relationships that could inappropriately influence or bias the content of paper.

Acknowledgements

This study was supported by the Ministerio de Economía y Competitividad, España (AGL2008-02428/GAN) and PAMER Pipamer 09/019 projects and was partially supported by the Gobierno de Aragón (Grupo de Excelencia LAGENBIO) and Instituto Aragonés de Ciencias de la Salud (ICS). We acknowledge the Veterinary Hospital of the University of Zaragoza for the use of its facilities.

Appendix: Supplementary material

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online 374 375 version, at doi: ...' 376 References 377 378 Arguelles, D., Carmona, J.U., Pastor, J., Iborra, A., Vinals, L., Martinez, P., Bach, E., 379 Prades, M., 2006. Evaluation of single and double centrifugation tube methods for concentrating equine platelets. Research in Veterinary Science 81, 237-245. 380 381 382 Arguelles, D., Carmona, J.U., Climent, F., Munoz, E., Prades, M., 2008. Autologous platelet concentrates as a treatment for musculoskeletal lesions in five horses. 383 The Veterinary Record 162, 208-211. 384 385 Birch, H.L., Bailey, A.J., Goodship, A.E., 1998. Macroscopic 'degeneration' of equine 386 superficial digital flexor tendon is accompanied by a change in extracellular 387 388 matrix composition. Equine Veterinary Journal 30, 534-539. 389 Bosch, G., van Schie, H.T., de Groot, M.W., Cadby, J.A., van de Lest, C.H., Barneveld, 390 391 A., van Weeren, P.R., 2010. Effects of platelet-rich plasma on the quality of repair of mechanically induced core lesions in equine superficial digital flexor 392 tendons: A placebo-controlled experimental study. Journal of Orthopaedic 393 394 Research 28, 211-217. 395 396 Cadby, J.A., David, F., van de Lest, C., Bosch, G., van Weeren, P.R., Snedeker, J.G., 397 van Schie, H.T.M., 2013. Further characterisation of an experimental model of tendinopathy in the horse. Equine Veterinary Journal 45, 642-648. 398 399 400 Caniglia, C.J., Schramme, M.C., Smith, R.K., 2012. The effect of intralesional injection of bone marrow derived mesenchymal stem cells and bone marrow supernatant 401 on collagen fibril size in a surgical model of equine superficial digital flexor 402 403 tendonitis. Equine Veterinary Journal 44, 587-593. 404 405 Carvalho, M.M., Teixeira, F.G., Reis, R.L., Sousa, N., Salgado, A.J., 2011. 406 Mesenchymal stem cells in the umbilical cord: Phenotypic characterization, 407 secretome and applications in central nervous system regenerative medicine. 408 Current Stem Cell Research and Therapy 6, 221-228. 409 410 Carvalho, M., Badial, P.R., Alvarez, L.E., Yamada, A.L., Borges, A.S., Deffune, E., Hussni, C.A., Garcia Alves, A.L., 2013. Equine tendonitis therapy using 411 mesenchymal stem cells and platelet concentrates: A randomized controlled 412 413 trial. Stem Cell Research and Therapy 4, 85. 414 415 Conze, P., van Schie, H.T., van Weeren, R., Staszyk, C., Conrad, S., Skutella, T., Hopster, K., Rohn, K., Stadler, P., Geburek, F., 2014. Effect of autologous 416 417 adipose tissue-derived mesenchymal stem cells on neovascularization of artificial equine tendon lesions. Regenerative Medicine 9, 743-757. 418

Corps, A.N., Robinson, A.H., Movin, T., Costa, M.L., Hazleman, B.L., Riley, G.P.,
 2006. Increased expression of aggrecan and biglycan mRNA in Achilles
 tendinopathy. Rheumatology 45, 291-294.

423

Chiquet-Ehrismann, R., Chiquet, M., 2003. Tenascins: Regulation and putative
 functions during pathological stress. Journal of Pathology 200, 488-499.

426

Chou, C.H., Lee, C.H., Lu, L.S., Song, I.W., Chuang, H.P., Kuo, S.Y., Wu, J.Y., Chen, Y.T., Kraus, V.B., Wu, C.C., et al., 2013. Direct assessment of articular cartilage and underlying subchondral bone reveals a progressive gene expression change in human osteoarthritic knees. Osteoarthritis and Cartilage 21, 450-461.

432

Dahlgren, L., 2009. Management of tendon injuries. In: Robinson, N.E. (Ed.). Current Therapy in Equine Medicine, 4th Edn. Saunders-Elsevier, St Louis, MO, USA, pp. 518-523.

436

Dakin, S.G., Dudhia, J., Smith, R.K., 2014. Resolving an inflammatory concept: The importance of inflammation and resolution in tendinopathy. Veterinary Immunology and Immunopathology 158, 121-127.

440

Dehghan, M.M., Mehrjerdi, H.K., Masoudifard, M., Eslaminejad M.R.B., Sharifi, D., Vajhi, A.R., 2007. Clinical and ultrasonographic findings of collagenase induced tendinitis in the horse. Iranian Journal of Veterinary Surgery 2, 47-58.

444 445

446

447

Del Bue, M., Ricco, S., Ramoni, R., Conti, V., Gnudi, G., Grolli, S., 2008. Equine adipose-tissue derived mesenchymal stem cells and platelet concentrates: Their association in vitro and in vivo. Veterinary Research Communications 32 (Suppl. 1), S51-S55.

448 449

Dowling, B.A., Dart, A.J., Hodgson, D.R., Smith, R.K., 2000. Superficial digital flexor tendonitis in the horse. Equine Veterinary Journal 32, 369-378.

452

Fackelman, G.E., 1973. The nature of tendon damage and its repair. Equine Veterinary Journal 5, 141-149.

455

Fortier, L.A., Smith, R.K., 2008. Regenerative medicine for tendinous and ligamentous injuries of sport horses. Veterinary Clinics of North America: Equine Practice 24, 191-201.

459

Genovese, R.L., Rantanen, N.W., Hauser, M.L., Simpson, B.S., 1986. Diagnostic
 ultrasonography of equine limbs. Veterinary Clinics of North America: Equine
 Practice 2, 145-226.

463

Genovese, R.L., Rantanen, N.W., Simpson, B.S., Simpson, D.M., 1990. Clinical
 experience with quantitative analysis of superficial digital flexor tendon
 injuries in Thoroughbred and Standardbred racehorses. Veterinary Clinics of
 North America: Equine Practice 6, 129-145.

- Godwin, E.E., Young, N.J., Dudhia, J., Beamish, I.C., Smith, R.K., 2012. Implantation
 of bone marrow-derived mesenchymal stem cells demonstrates improved
 outcome in horses with overstrain injury of the superficial digital flexor tendon.
 Equine Veterinary Journal 44, 25-32.
- Goodship, A.E., Birch, H.L., Wilson, A.M., 1994. The pathobiology and repair of tendon and ligament injury. Veterinary Clinics of North America: Equine Practice 10, 323-349.

473

477

481

486

494

498

503

509

512

- Gulati, V., Jaggard, M., Al-Nammari, S.S., Uzoigwe, C., Gulati, P., Ismail, N., Gibbons,
 C., Gupte, C., 2015. Management of Achilles tendon injury: A current concepts
 systematic review. World Journal of Orthopedics 6, 380-386.
- Jones, G.C., Corps, A.N., Pennington, C.J., Clark, I.M., Edwards, D.R., Bradley, M.M., Hazleman, B.L., Riley, G.P., 2006. Expression profiling of metalloproteinases and tissue inhibitors of metalloproteinases in normal and degenerate human Achilles tendon. Arthritis and Rheumatism 54, 832-842.
- Koch, T.G., Berg, L.C., Betts, D.H., 2009. Current and future regenerative medicine Principles, concepts, and therapeutic use of stem cell therapy and tissue engineering in equine medicine. Canadian Veterinary Journal 50, 155-165.
- Kolm, G., Klein, D., Knapp, E., Watanabe, K., Walter, I., 2006. Lactoferrin expression in the horse endometrium: Relevance in persisting mating-induced endometritis. Veterinary Immunology and Immunopathology 114, 159-167.
- Maffulli, N., Longo, U.G., Franceschi, F., Rabitti, C., Denaro, V., 2008. Movin and
 Bonar scores assess the same characteristics of tendon histology. Clinical
 Orthopaedics and Related Research 466, 1605-1611.
- Marfe, G., Rotta, G., De Martino, L., Tafani, M., Fiorito, F., Di Stefano, C., Polettini,
 M., Ranalli, M., Russo, M.A., Gambacurta, A., 2012. A new clinical approach:
 Use of blood-derived stem cells (BDSCs) for superficial digital flexor tendon
 injuries in horses. Life Sciences 90, 825-830.
- Martinello, T., Bronzini, I., Perazzi, A., Testoni, S., De Benedictis, G.M., Negro, A.,
 Caporale, G., Mascarello, F., Iacopetti, I., Patruno, M., 2013. Effects of in vivo
 applications of peripheral blood-derived mesenchymal stromal cells (PBMSCs) and platelet-rich plasma (PRP) on experimentally injured deep digital
 flexor tendons of sheep. Journal of Orthopedic Research 31, 306-314.
- Nixon, A.J., 1990. Endoscopy of the digital flexor tendon sheath in horses. Veterinary Surgery 19, 266-271.
- Oshiro, W., Lou, J., Xing, X., Tu, Y., Manske, P.R., 2003. Flexor tendon healing in the rat: A histologic and gene expression study. Journal of Hand Surgery 28, 814-823.
- Pacini, S., Spinabella, S., Trombi, L., Fazzi, R., Galimberti, S., Dini, F., Carlucci, F., Petrini, M., 2007. Suspension of bone marrow-derived undifferentiated

519	mesenchymal stromal cells for repair of superficial digital flexor tendon in race
520	horses. Tissue Engineering 13, 2949-2955.
521	
522 523	Ranera, B., Lyahyai, J., Romero, A., Vazquez, F.J., Remacha, A.R., Bernal, M.L., Zaragoza, P., Rodellar, C., Martin-Burriel, I., 2011. Immunophenotype and
524 525	gene expression profiles of cell surface markers of mesenchymal stem cells derived from equine bone marrow and adipose tissue. Veterinary Immunology
	and Immunopathology 144, 147-154.
526	and minunopaniology 144, 147-134.
527	Dontonen N. Januaryan I. Canaviasa D.I. 2002 Illitrasana anaria avaluation of the
528 529	Rantanen, N., Jorgensen, J., Genovese, R.L., 2003. Ultrasonographic evaluation of the equine limb: Technique. In: Ross, M. and Dyson, S. (Eds.). Diagnosis and
530	Management of Lameness in the Horse, 1st Edn. Saunders-Elsevier,
531	Philadelphia, PA, USA, pp. 166-188.
532	
533	Ritty, T.M., Herzog, J., 2003. Tendon cells produce gelatinases in response to type I
534	collagen attachment. Journal of Orthopedic Research 21, 442-450.
535	
536	Scott, J.E., 1996. Proteodermatan and proteokeratan sulfate (decorin,
537	lumican/fibromodulin) proteins are horseshoe shaped. Implications for their
538	interactions with collagen. Biochemistry 35, 8795-8799.
539	
540	Schnabel, L.V., Lynch, M.E., van der Meulen, M.C., Yeager, A.E., Kornatowski, M.A.,
541	Nixon, A.J., 2009. Mesenchymal stem cells and insulin-like growth factor-I
542	gene-enhanced mesenchymal stem cells improve structural aspects of healing
543	in equine flexor digitorum superficialis tendons. Journal of Orthopedic
544	Research 27, 1392-1398.
545	
546	Schnabel, L.V., Fortier, L.A., McIlwraith, C.W., Nobert, K.M., 2013. Therapeutic use
547	of stem cells in horses: Which type, how, and when? The Veterinary Journal
548	197, 570-577.
549	
550	Smith, R.K., Zunino, L., Webbon, P.M., Heinegard, D., 1997. The distribution of
551 552	cartilage oligomeric matrix protein (COMP) in tendon and its variation with tendon site, age and load. Matrix Biology 16, 255-271.
553	
554	Smith, R.K., Birch, H.L., Goodman, S., Heinegard, D., Goodship, A.E., 2002a. The
555	influence of ageing and exercise on tendon growth and degeneration-
556	Hypotheses for the initiation and prevention of strain-induced tendinopathies.
557	Comparative Biochemistry and Physiology - Part A: Molecular and Integrative
558	Physiology 133, 1039-1050.
559	
560	Smith, R.K., Gerard, M., Dowling, B., Dart, A.J., Birch, H.L., Goodship, A.E., 2002b.
561	Correlation of cartilage oligomeric matrix protein (COMP) levels in equine
562	tendon with mechanical properties: A proposed role for COMP in determining
563	function-specific mechanical characteristics of locomotor tendons. Equine
564	Veterinary Journal, 241-244.
565	
566	Smith, R.K., Werling, N.J., Dakin, S.G., Alam, R., Goodship, A.E., Dudhia, J., 2013.
567	Beneficial effects of autologous bone marrow-derived mesenchymal stem cells
568	in naturally occurring tendinopathy. PloS One 8, e75697.

569	
570	Sodersten, F., Ekman, S., Eloranta, M.L., Heinegard, D., Dudhia, J., Hultenby, K.,
571	2005. Ultrastructural immunolocalization of cartilage oligomeric matrix protein
572	(COMP) in relation to collagen fibrils in the equine tendon. Matrix Biology 24,
573	376-385.
574	
575	Thomopoulos, S., Williams, G.R., Gimbel, J.A., Favata, M., Soslowsky, L.J., 2003.
576	Variation of biomechanical, structural, and compositional properties along the
577	tendon to bone insertion site. Journal of Orthopedic Research 21, 413-419.
578	
579	Van Loon, V.J., Scheffer, C.J., Genn, H.J., Hoogendoorn, A.C., Greve, J.W., 2014.
580	Clinical follow-up of horses treated with allogeneic equine mesenchymal stem
581	cells derived from umbilical cord blood for different tendon and ligament
582	disorders. Veterinary Quarterly 34, 92-97.
583	
584	Watts, A.E., Yeager, A.E., Kopyov, O.V., Nixon, A.J., 2011. Fetal derived embryonic-
585	like stem cells improve healing in a large animal flexor tendonitis model. Stem
586	Cell Research and Therapy 2, 4.
587	
588	Watts, A.E., Nixon, A.J., Yeager, A.E., Mohammed, H.O., 2012. A collagenase
589	gel/physical defect model for controlled induction of superficial digital flexor
590	tendonitis. Equine Veterinary Journal 44, 576-586.
591	
592	Watts, A.E., 2014. How to understand regenerative therapies - What is it? Proceedings
593	of the Annual Convention of the American Association of Equine Practitioners
594	(AAEP), Salt Lake City, Utah, USA, 6-10 December 2014, pp. 494-498.

Table 1
Primers used for gene expression by RT-qPCR.

Gene	Accession number ^a	Primer sequence (5'-3')	Amplicon size (bp)
GAPDH	NM_001163856	F: GGCAAGTTCCATGGCACAGT	128
		R: CACAACATATTCAGCACCAGCAT	
B2M	NM_001082502.2	F: TCGTCCTGCTCGGGCTACT	102
		R: ATTCTCTGCTGGGTGACGTGA	
COL1A1	AF034691	F: ACACAGAGGTTTCAGTGGTTTGG	89
		R: CACCATGGCTACCAGGTTCAC	
COL3A1	XM_001917620	F: GGAGGATGGTTGCACTAAACA	139
		R: GTCCACACCGAATTCTTGATC	
COMP	AF325902	F: GGCGACGCGCAAATAGA	111
		R: GCCATTGAAGGCCGTGTAA	
ACAN	AF019756	F: CTACGACGCCATCTGCTACA	96
		R: ACCGTCTGGATGGTGATGTC	
SCX	AB254030.1	F: AACCAGAGAAAGTTGAGCAAGGA	111
		R: TGTGCCCGAGTCAGGTCC	
TNC	XM_001916622	F: TGTGTTCCTGAGACGCAAAA	75
		R: TCCCAAACCCAGTAGCAT	
MMP3	NM_001082495	F: TGATGTGACTGGCATTCAATCC	112
		R: ATCGCACATGGCTAGTGTTCCA	
TNMD	Watts et al. 2012	F: AAGACTTTGAGGAGGATGGTGAAG	60
		R: CCACCCACTGCTCGTTTTG	
DCN	AF038127	F: AAGTACATCCAGGTTGTCTACCTTCATAA	73
		R: CAGGTGGGCAGAAGTCATTAGATC	

598 599

F, forward; R, reverse; bp, length of the amplicon in base pairs; GAPDH, glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate
 dehydrogenase; B2M, β-2 microglobulin; COL1A1, collagen type I; COL3A1, collagen type III; COMP,
 cartilage oligomeric protein; ACAN, aggrecan; SCX, scleraxis; TNC, tenascin; MMP3, matrix
 metalloproteinase 3; TNMD, tenomodulin; DCN, decorin.

^a GenBank accession numbers of sequences used for primers design.

Figure legends

605

606

607

608

609

610

611

612

613

614

615

616

617

618

619

620

621

622

604

Fig. 1. Assignment of zones in the superficial digital flexor tendon (SDFT) in this study. Zone 1 was used as an off-lesion control for gene expression analysis. Zone 3 is the maximal injury zone (MIZ) and corresponds to the area of the lesion. The MIZ is subdivided into proximal, central and distal areas. Samples were collected from these areas for histopathology and gene expression analysis. Zones 2 and 4 are transition zones, while zone 5 is an off-lesion area; these zones were not used in the study. Fig. 2. Results of serial ultrasonographic assessment using the scales of Genovese et al. (1986) and Rantanen et al. (2003). Mean \pm standard deviation (SD; n = 6) of each parameter assessed at each time-point (weeks) for each treatment. BM-MSCs, bone marrow derived mesenchymal stem cells; AT-MSCs, adipose tissue derived mesenchymal stem cells; PRP, platelet rich plasma; CTRL, control (administration of lactated Ringer's solution). (A) Mean \pm SD of tendon echogenicity score (TES); (B) Mean \pm SD of fibre pattern score (FPS); (C) Mean \pm SD of cross sectional area percentage (CSA%). Significant differences between each time point and the pretreatment value are presented for each parameter (* = P < 0.05; ** = P < 0.01; *** = P< 0.001). Fig. 3. Ultrasonographic evolution over the 45 week study period. Typical examples of transverse and longitudinal ultrasonographic images obtained from a tendon treated

623

624

625

626

Fig. 3. Ultrasonographic evolution over the 45 week study period. Typical examples of transverse and longitudinal ultrasonographic images obtained from a tendon treated with bone marrow derived mesenchymal stem cells (BM-MSCs) (animal H3) at different times throughout the study.

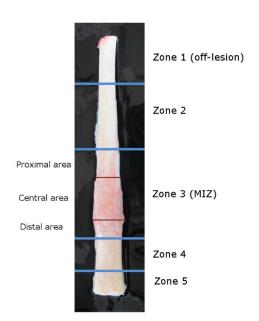
628

Fig. 4. Results of semi-quantitative histopathological assessment based on the classifications of Movin and Bonar (Maffulli et al., 2008). Mean \pm standard deviation (SD; n=6) score of each parameter for each treatment. BM-MSCs, bone marrow derived mesenchymal stem cells; AT-MSCs, adipose tissue derived mesenchymal stem cells; PRP, platelet rich plasma; CTRL, control (administered lactated Ringer's solution). An asterisk (*) indicates a significant difference between different treatments and control (P < 0.05).

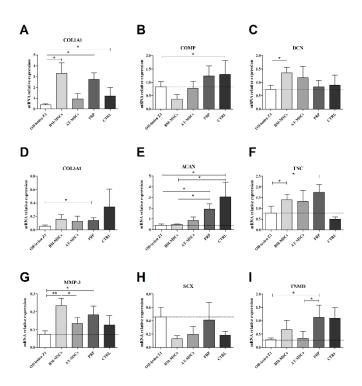
Fig. 5. Histological sections showing different qualities of the tendon healing process. (A, D) Good quality of the repaired tendon, with well-oriented collagen fibres parallel to each other, normal morphology of tenocytes, avascularity and low cellularity (A, scale bar = $100 \, \mu m$; D, scale bar = $400 \, \mu m$). (B, E) Tendon scar of medium quality, with disoriented collagen fibre bundles, high cellularity, moderate vascularisation and heterogeneous fibroblastic morphology (scale bar = $100 \, \mu m$). (C, F) Tendon scar of poor quality, with disorientated non-parallel collagen fibres, high cellularity, chondroid cell morphology, high vascularity and a considerable amount of ground substance filling the spaces between fibres can be observed (C, scale bar = $100 \, \mu m$; F, scale bar = $200 \, \mu m$).

Fig. 6. Results of gene expression analysis. Mean \pm standard error (SE) of mRNA relative expression from the zone off-lesion Z1 (n=12) and MIZ from groups treated with bone marrow derived mesenchymal stem cells (BM-MSCs; n=6), Adipose tissue derived mesenchymal stem cells (AT-MSCs; n=6) and platelet rich protein (PRP; n=6), and the control group (CTRL; n=6) for genes encoding different markers related to the tendon healing process. Significant differences between treatments with respect to

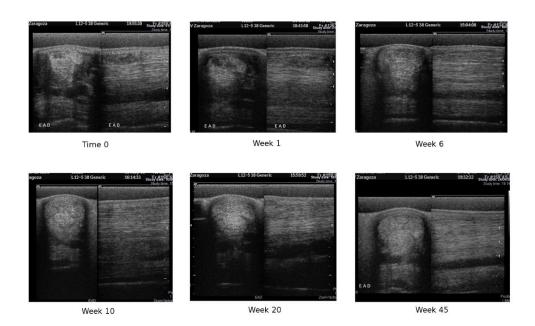
expression in the controls and the off-lesion Z1 are presented for each gene. COL1A1, collagen type I; COMP, cartilage oligomeric protein; DCN, decorin; COL3A1, collagen type III; ACAN, aggrecan; TNC, tenascin; MMP3, matrix metalloproteinase 3; SCX, scleraxis; TNMD, tenomodulin; MIZ, maximal injury zone; Z1, zone 1 off-lesion. * P < 0.05; ** P < 0.01.



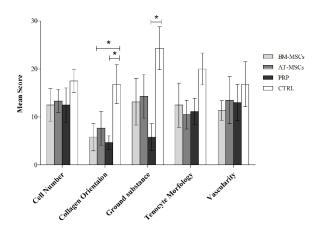
661 Figure 1.



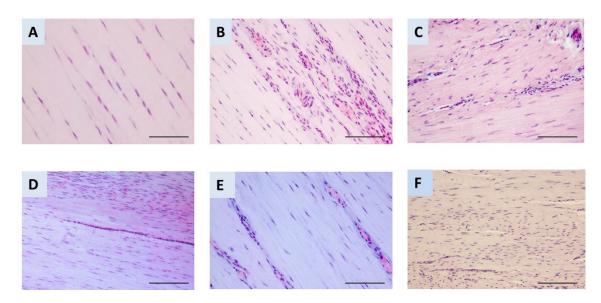
664 Figure 2.



666 Figure 3.



669 Figure 4.



671 Figure 5