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1 ORIGINAL ARTICLE

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4 **Therapeutic efficacy of microtube-embedded chondroitinase ABC in a canine**  
5 **clinical model of spinal cord injury**

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25 Running title: Chondroitinase ABC in dogs

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30

31 **Abstract**

32

33 Many hundreds of thousands of people around the world are living with the long-term  
34 consequences of spinal cord injury and they need effective new therapies. Laboratory research in  
35 experimental animals has identified a large number of potentially translatable interventions but  
36 transition to the clinic is not straightforward. Further evidence of efficacy in more clinically-  
37 relevant lesions is required to gain sufficient confidence to commence human clinical trials. Of the  
38 many therapeutic candidates currently available, intraspinally applied chondroitinase ABC has  
39 particularly well-documented efficacy in experimental animals. In this study we measured the  
40 effects of this intervention in a double-blinded randomized controlled trial in a cohort of dogs with  
41 naturally-occurring severe chronic spinal cord injuries that model the condition in humans. First,  
42 we collected baseline data on a series of outcomes: forelimb-hindlimb coordination (the pre-  
43 specified primary outcome measure), skin sensitivity along the back, somatosensory evoked and  
44 transcranial magnetic motor evoked potentials and cystometry in 60 dogs with thoracolumbar  
45 lesions. Dogs were then randomized 1:1 to receive intraspinal injections of heat-stabilized, lipid  
46 microtube-embedded chondroitinase ABC or sham injections consisting of needle puncture of the  
47 skin. Outcome data were measured at 1, 3 and 6 months after intervention; skin sensitivity was  
48 also measured 24 hours after injection (or sham). Fore-hind coordination was affected by neither  
49 time nor chondroitinase treatment alone but there was a significant interaction between these  
50 variables such that coordination between forelimb and hindlimb stepping improved during the 6-  
51 month follow-up period in the chondroitinase-treated animals by a mean of 23%, but did not  
52 change in controls. Three dogs (10%) in the chondroitinase group also recovered the ability to  
53 ambulate without assistance. Sensitivity of the dorsal skin increased at 24 hours after intervention  
54 in both groups but subsequently decreased to normal levels. Cystometry identified a non-  
55 significant improvement of bladder compliance at 1 month in the chondroitinase-injected dogs but  
56 this did not persist. There were no overall differences between groups in detection of sensory  
57 evoked potentials. Our results strongly support a beneficial effect of intraspinal injection of  
58 chondroitinase ABC on spinal cord function in this highly clinically-relevant model of chronic  
59 severe spinal cord injury. There was no evidence of long-term adverse effects associated with this  
60 intervention. We therefore conclude that this study provides strong evidence in support of initiation  
61 of clinical trials of chondroitinase ABC in people with chronic spinal cord injury.

62

63 **Keywords:** glial scar, chondroitin sulfate proteoglycan, translation

64

65

## 66 **Introduction**

67 During the past two decades many interventions have successfully improved functional and  
68 histological outcome measures in animals with experimental spinal cord injury (Kwon *et al.*, 2011;  
69 Tetzlaff *et al.*, 2011). In contrast, this research has not yet delivered an indisputably effective  
70 treatment for human patients. Achievement of this underlying objective is impeded, in part at least,  
71 because the many differences between clinical spinal cord injury in humans and traditional  
72 experimental animal models mean that statistical improvement in a laboratory model does not  
73 imply that there will also be similarly meaningful benefit in clinical injuries (Kwon *et al.*, 2015).

74

75 Most critically, laboratory rats commonly used in spinal cord injury studies are young, genetically  
76 near-identical and their experimental injuries are homogenous in character and severity. Such  
77 homogeneity is desirable in the laboratory because it enables the signal of the investigated  
78 intervention to be discerned amongst the noise of other variables that might influence outcome. In  
79 contrast, human spinal cord injury patients and their injuries are highly heterogeneous - even  
80 within clinical sub-categories there is a great deal of variation in demographic features, co-  
81 morbidities and outcome (Fawcett *et al.*, 2007) - which means that the functional benefit that might  
82 be associated with a therapeutic intervention is less easily recognized. On the other hand, unless  
83 an intervention is sufficiently effective to make a substantial change in the lives of individual  
84 patients, for instance by altering their dependency on others for care, then it will not become  
85 adopted as a worthwhile clinical intervention.

86

87 Pet dogs frequently suffer acute spinal cord injury (Moore *et al.*, 2017) and these dogs undergo  
88 similar diagnostic, surgical and rehabilitation procedures to their human counterparts. Also similar  
89 to human patients, some will fail to recover with conventional therapy alone. This leaves a large  
90 population of chronically-injured dogs for which there is no available effective therapy and that  
91 can serve as a spontaneous model for testing therapies thought to have promise for translation from  
92 laboratory to clinic. Lesions in these dogs (Griffiths, 1972; Smith & Jeffery, 2006; Levine *et al.*,

93 2011) closely model many features of chronic spinal cord injury in humans. Such a translational  
94 model is difficult to replicate in laboratory animals.

95

96 There are many interventions that could be suitable for testing in this canine model of chronic  
97 spinal cord injury – specifically, those that have undergone repeated successful testing in  
98 experimental animals in multiple laboratories throughout the world. In this study we selected  
99 chondroitinase ABC, which has been demonstrated to improve outcome in numerous experiments  
100 on spinal cord-injured rodents (Bradbury *et al.*, 2002; Bartus *et al.*, 2014), cats (Jefferson *et al.*,  
101 2011) and non-human primates (Bowes *et al.*, 2012). Chondroitinase ABC is a bacterial enzyme  
102 that can digest the chondroitin sulfate proteoglycans that constitute a major part of the scar that  
103 forms in spinal cord lesions and blocks axonal regeneration (Bradbury and Carter, 2011). Current  
104 obstacles to translation of this agent into human spinal cord injury patients are: i) the need for a  
105 formulation with stability at mammalian body temperature so as to provide persistent activity  
106 without the need for repeated administration (see Bradbury and Carter, 2011); and, ii) the need to  
107 demonstrate efficacy and safety in realistic translational models. The first obstacle can be  
108 overcome by buffering in trehalose and embedding in lipid microtubes which, together, render  
109 chondroitinase ABC heat-stable and long-acting (Lee *et al.*, 2010). Here we addressed the second  
110 obstacle by conducting a randomized controlled clinical trial to measure the effects of lipid  
111 microtube-embedded chondroitinase ABC in dogs with severe chronic clinical spinal cord injury;  
112 this could be considered a final prelude to commencement of formal regulatory approval processes  
113 for translation into similarly-injured humans.

114

115

## 116 **Materials and methods**

### 117 **Methods**

118 The study design, primary and secondary outcomes measures and analytical methods were all pre-  
119 specified and carried out in accordance with the submitted funding proposal (held by the sponsor,  
120 the International Spinal Research Trust). The pre-specified primary outcome measure was a  
121 measure of temporal coordination between forelimb and hindlimb motion that we have previously  
122 described (Hamilton *et al.*, 2007); further details of the methods are available below and in

123 Supplementary Material. All procedures and the trial design were approved by the Institutional  
124 Animal Care and Use Committee at Iowa State University (Log number: 3-13-7526-K).

125

## 126 ***Animals***

127 We aimed to recruit a sample size of 60 (see sample size calculations below) dogs weighing less  
128 than 20 kg and with chronic severe spinal cord injury confined between T3 and L3 vertebrae; dogs  
129 have 13 thoracic and 7 lumbar vertebrae. For inclusion, dogs had to have persistent loss of urinary  
130 continence and voluntary motor function in the hindlimbs following an acute spinal cord injury  
131 occurring at least 3 months before recruitment. Most of these dogs had suffered acute intervertebral  
132 disc herniation, which is common in small dogs (Moore *et al.*, 2017). Typical cases had no  
133 voluntary motor function in the hindlimbs, no discernible sensory function to any part of the  
134 hindquarters (including the tail) and were both urinary and fecally incontinent. Dogs were  
135 excluded from the study if they had lesions affecting the lumbosacral intumescence (L4 to S3  
136 spinal cord segments), had concurrent orthopedic disorders that would preclude recovery of  
137 walking, or had any condition from which they were expected to die within 1 year. Dogs that were  
138 too aggressive or anxious to be controlled when they walked on a treadmill were excluded.

139

## 140 ***Materials***

### 141 *Preparation of chondroitinase ABC*

142 Chondroitinase ABC was obtained from a commercial supplier (AMSBIO) as a lyophilized  
143 powder in a sterile ampoule (see Supplementary Material). The powder was reconstituted in filter-  
144 sterilized 38% trehalose solution (10 Units per 1600  $\mu$ L trehalose solution), which was divided  
145 into 400  $\mu$ L aliquots that were kept frozen at -80  $^{\circ}$ C until mixed with the lipid microtubes. The  
146 lipid microtubes were prepared according to the previously published protocol (Lee *et al.*, 2010;  
147 see Supplementary Material). On the day before intraspinal injection, a stock 400  $\mu$ L aliquot of  
148 reconstituted chondroitinase ABC in 38% trehalose was thawed and mixed with one batch of  
149 microtubes until it formed a homogenous milky suspension; this was then stored overnight at 4  $^{\circ}$ C  
150 to allow adsorption of the chondroitinase ABC solution onto the microtubes. Each dog received  
151 200  $\mu$ L of the trehalose/microtube suspension re-diluted in a further 200  $\mu$ L of 38% trehalose  
152 solution immediately before it was injected into the spinal cord. The total 400  $\mu$ L suspension  
153 (containing 1.25 Units of chondroitinase) was divided into an injection of 200  $\mu$ L (625 mU) at

154 each injected site; each of these injections was administered in two aliquots, with the needle bevel  
155 facing caudally and cranially respectively (see below). The dose was selected based on ‘scaling  
156 up’ calculations from rodent experiments as described in Supplementary Material.

157

## 158 ***Procedures***

### 159 *Pre-study*

160 Each dog underwent neurological examination to confirm the site and severity of the lesion. This  
161 included routine examination of the level of the injury through assessment of the *cutaneous trunci*  
162 muscle reflex (Gutierrez-Quintana *et al.*, 2012). After the neurologic examination and obtaining  
163 written informed consent from the owners, dogs were formally admitted to the trial.

164

165 Each dog then underwent a series of baseline functional tests, including analysis of coordination  
166 of gait during treadmill walking, von Frey filament testing of skin sensitivity, cystometry and  
167 electrophysiological recordings. On the fourth day of hospitalization each dog was randomized to  
168 receive either a percutaneous intraspinal injection of chondroitinase ABC or to undergo needle  
169 puncture of the dorsal skin (so as to blind the observer and owner regarding treatment allocation).  
170 Allocation was equal between groups and determined by opening the next in a numbered series of  
171 sealed opaque envelopes each containing a slip of paper labeled ‘ChAse’ or ‘Control’. These were  
172 prepared in batches of 20; the batching method was not known to the observer who recorded the  
173 functional outcomes.

174

### 175 *Study procedures*

176 Treadmill gait recordings were made similarly to previous reports (Hamilton *et al.*, 2007;  
177 Granger *et al.*, 2012). Briefly, each dog was walked at constant speed on a treadmill while held on  
178 a leash. The hindquarters were supported by a sling placed under the abdomen to maintain the  
179 vertebral column in a normal walking position parallel to the treadmill belt. Reflective markers  
180 were placed on the lateral aspect of each paw and both elbows and their motion was recorded by  
181 the Vicon infra-red motion analysis system. The primary outcome measure was temporal  
182 coordination between each fore paw and the contralateral hind paw strike (*i.e.* diagonal coupling).  
183 The mean value for coupling of both right and left forelimbs with their diagonal pairs was used for  
184 the final statistical analysis. More details are provided in Supplementary Material.

185

186 Von Frey filaments assessed skin sensitivity before and after chondroitinase ABC injection or  
187 sham treatment. At each time point the von Frey filaments were applied to the skin on both sides  
188 of the dorsal aspect of each dog starting at the level of L6 vertebra and progressing cranially in  
189 steps corresponding to the length of one vertebra up to the scapulae (the region of T6 vertebra). A  
190 positive response was defined as a behavioral response suggestive of cranial perception of the  
191 stimulus (whether noxious or non-noxious). The sum total number of positive responses at each  
192 time point was used for analysis.

193

194 Cystometry was used similarly to a previous report (Granger *et al.*, 2012) to determine the  
195 compliance of the bladder during filling with room-temperature sterile 0.9% saline solution as is  
196 routine in human patients (Biering- Sørensen *et al.*, 2008). Briefly, the bladder was catheterized  
197 and then filled at a rate of 10 mL/minute for dogs <10 kg and 20 mL/min for dogs >10 kg, while  
198 measuring the bladder pressure. The end-point was detrusor contraction and (partial) bladder  
199 voiding or an intravesicular pressure of 40 cmH<sub>2</sub>O (because pressures higher than this can risk  
200 damage to the ureters and kidneys).

201

202 Transcranial magnetic evoked motor potentials were obtained with dogs under sedation with  
203 butorphanol (0.2 mg/kg) and dexmedetomidine (5 µg/kg), as described previously (Sylvestre *et*  
204 *al.*, 1993; da Costa *et al.*, 2006; Granger *et al.*, 2012). Briefly, a 90 mm single coil powered by a  
205 current generator (Magstim 200, Wales, UK) was positioned tangentially over the skull (lateral  
206 and rostral to the vertex and 2 cm from midline) and discharged at 80% maximum power (~2 T on  
207 the skull surface, see Nollet *et al.*, 2003) while recording the latencies of the evoked compound  
208 muscle action potentials in the *cranial tibialis* and *extensor carpi radialis* muscles using concentric  
209 recording needles. [The *extensor carpi radialis* was used as a control for the sedation level because  
210 excessive sedation can eliminate this motor potential in normal limbs.] The test was repeated three  
211 times for each hindlimb (*i.e.* stimulation was directed at each side of the brain in turn) after we had  
212 obtained a positive response from the forelimb. We recorded the latency and amplitude of the last  
213 wave of the series; only waves of amplitude greater than 0.15 mV were considered a positive  
214 response.

215



216 Sensory evoked potentials were recorded using a monopolar needle electrode placed  
217 percutaneously to lie on the laminae of the thoracolumbar vertebrae or the interarcuate ligament,  
218 during stimulation of the tibial nerve just proximal to the hock (ankle) joint, with the subcutaneous  
219 reference electrode placed ~2 cm laterally, as previously described (Poncelet *et al.*, 1993). The  
220 stimulus intensity was set to be just sufficient to evoke an observable response in the distal  
221 musculature. We recorded the latency and amplitude of this wave at each vertebral level from L5  
222 moving cranially until a response could not be detected. Sensory evoked potentials were  
223 designated as ‘intact’ if the same waveform, with a peak-to-peak amplitude of  $>0.15 \mu\text{V}$  could be  
224 repeated at least once during signal averaging of at least 200 sweeps. Each tibial nerve were  
225 stimulated and recorded individually and the site of the most cranial intact response was used for  
226 subsequent analysis.

227

### 228 *Intraspinal injection*

229 Under general anesthesia each dog was positioned for fluoroscopy in right lateral recumbency so  
230 that one 22 Gauge, 1.5 or 2.5 inch, spinal needle could be placed into the lesion epicenter and  
231 another spinal needle placed into the spinal cord at the L3/4 vertebral interspace (the cranial margin  
232 of the spinal cord segments containing the lower motor neurons of the central pattern generator for  
233 the hindlimbs). If the primary lesion was at L3/4 then the L4/5 site was also injected. Each needle  
234 was initially placed midline into the subarachnoid space so that cerebrospinal fluid flowed from  
235 the hub and then repositioned so that the bevel would lie within the spinal cord parenchyma.  
236 Injections were made using a 1 mL Luer lock syringe with the needle bevel in the center of the  
237 spinal cord parenchyma - a depth of approximately 3 mm from the dorsal dura. A total of 200  $\mu\text{L}$   
238 chondroitinase preparation, divided into two aliquots, was injected at each site; one aliquot was  
239 injected with the bevel facing cranially and one with it facing caudally. Each 100  $\mu\text{L}$  aliquot  
240 injection was timed to be completed within at least 120 seconds. **The volume of injection is**  
241 **discussed in Supplementary Material.**

242

### 243 *Follow-up protocol*

244 The functional tests were repeated by an observer blinded to treatment allocation at 1, 3 and 6  
245 months after injection of chondroitinase (or skin puncture control); von Frey filament testing was  
246 also repeated at 24 hours after intervention. At each re-visit, each owner was interviewed with a

247 specific set of questions about changes in their dog's general health, behavior, locomotor and  
248 bladder function and then each dog stayed in the clinic for 5 days. During this period each dog  
249 underwent the functional tests described above and also received 30-60 minutes daily physical  
250 therapy tailored to their individual needs by a certified canine rehabilitation technician who was  
251 blinded to their treatment category. Briefly, exercises consisted of swimming, underwater  
252 treadmill walking, sit-to-stand repetition, weight shifting, balancing exercises and encouragement  
253 to walk with hindquarter support using slings and carts. Owners were instructed to continue  
254 appropriate physical therapy at home and encourage dogs to ambulate in their home environment.  
255 Urination in these incontinent dogs was managed at home and in the clinic by manual compression  
256 of the caudal abdomen to trigger reflex urination. Owners were instructed to express urine as fully  
257 as possible at least three times daily.

258

259 Owners remained blinded to treatment allocation group of their dogs until after collection of all  
260 follow-up outcome measurements and completion of their final interview.

261

## 262 ***Statistics***

### 263 *Sample size calculation*

264 We estimated the need for 24 dogs in each group to detect a 25% difference in the primary outcome  
265 measure at 6 months after intervention with power of 80% and  $\alpha$  of 0.05. Because dropout was  
266 expected in this type of trial (death from complications of paraplegia, owners unable to travel, *etc*)  
267 we aimed to recruit 30 dogs in each group.

268

269 Codes were broken after completion of all data collection, including owner interviews, and  
270 checking to ensure data completeness (bearing in mind missed data points through bad weather,  
271 owner withdrawal *etc*) and after processing to provide data on primary outcome temporal  
272 relationships. Raw primary outcome data was analyzed by an investigator who had no knowledge  
273 of treatment group and supplied processed data that summarized diagonal coupling relationships  
274 to another investigator who carried out the statistical analysis.

275

276 *Data analysis:* For all outcomes, data were assessed for Gaussian distribution and then  
277 transformed, if necessary, using Box-Cox analysis and the 'gladder' command to determine

278 suitable transformation using Stata 11 for Windows (StataCorp, College Station, TX, USA). The  
279 primary outcome data were analyzed with a multilevel linear regression model ('xtmixed') using  
280 Stata 11, using random effects for subjects and fixed effects for the intervention and including a  
281 term for interaction between chondroitinase and time, whilst adjusting for baseline measurements  
282 by their inclusion as a covariate. Standard *post hoc* commands ('contrast') in Stata were used to  
283 determine main effects and to further explore interactions. Similar analyses were applied to the  
284 bladder compliance data. The remaining outcomes data were plotted to check distributions and  
285 pre- and post-intervention values compared using paired Student's t tests or equivalent non-  
286 parametric analyses.  $P < 0.05$  was taken to indicate a significant relationship between dependent  
287 and independent variables or differences between the control and active intervention  
288 (chondroitinase ABC) groups.

289

290 Sensitivity of the primary outcome analysis to data lost to follow-up was assessed through two  
291 secondary analyses: i) inclusion of only those animals for which there was a complete dataset; and,  
292 ii) derivation of a more complete dataset by multiple imputation in Stata (see Supplementary  
293 Material).

294

295

## 296 **Results**

297 A total of 60 dogs was recruited and randomly allocated between the intervention and control  
298 groups in a 1:1 ratio as planned (Fig.1; Table 1; Table 2). As explained in Supplementary Material,  
299 dogs with severe chronic spinal cord injury sometimes develop a pattern of so-called 'spinal  
300 walking' (Gallucci *et al.*, 2017) and this was noted at enrolment in 5/30 dogs allocated to the  
301 chondroitinase group and 4/30 dogs in the control group.

302

### 303 ***Primary outcome measure***

#### 304 *Treadmill locomotion*

305 Plots summarizing the 'before' and 'after' values for the control and intervention groups suggested  
306 improvement associated with intraspinal chondroitinase injection (Fig. 2). Corresponding  
307 summary statistics reveal a 23% improvement (*i.e.* a reduction in numerical score) in mean  
308 coordination score from baseline to the 6-month follow-up in the chondroitinase group (from 2.16

309 to 1.67; paired Student's t test  $P = 0.008$ ) whereas in the control group there was a 2% deterioration  
310 in mean score (1.99 to 2.03; paired Student's t test  $P = 0.677$ ). Graphs of coordination against time  
311 at a group level revealed this change to be a gradual restoration, in the chondroitinase-injected  
312 group only, of a more normal temporal association of forelimb and hindlimb stepping as time  
313 elapsed (Fig. 2). At the start of the trial, control and chondroitinase groups exhibited similar  
314 dysfunction but, with increasing length of follow-up, the chondroitinase group regained  
315 progressively better function, whereas the control group did not, commensurate with significant  
316 interaction between chondroitinase and time. Multilevel modeling and *post hoc* analysis revealed  
317 that there was no overall effect of either time ( $\chi^2 = 4.91$ ;  $P = 0.178$ ) or chondroitinase injection ( $\chi^2$   
318  $= 1.69$ ;  $P = 0.194$ ) alone following the intervention but a significant interaction between these two  
319 variables ( $\chi^2 = 9.17$ ;  $P = 0.027$ ). Specifically, coordination in chondroitinase-injected dogs at 6  
320 months was significantly improved compared to their baseline ( $\beta = -0.555$ ; 95%CI: -0.956/-0.155;  
321  $P = 0.007$ ) and compared to coordination in control animals at 6 months ( $\beta = -0.484$ ; 95%CI: -  
322 0.790/-0.178;  $P = 0.002$ ) (Supplementary Material, Tables 1 and 2 show complete model results).

323  
324 Together with the effect of chondroitinase to improve coordination in the recipient group overall,  
325 three dogs (of 27 available for follow-up at 6 months) in the chondroitinase group regained the  
326 ability to walk unaided, but this occurred in none (of 25 available at 6 months) of the controls  
327 (Fisher's exact test  $P = 0.236$ ). All three of these individuals recovered the ability to walk by 1  
328 month and this persisted throughout the remainder of the study; between baseline and 6 months  
329 one showed better coordination and two worse coordination (pre-post scores were: 2.10-1.06,  
330 2.64-2.85, 1.96-2.59 respectively). In Figure 2b two dogs show 6-month post-chondroitinase  
331 coordination scores approaching zero (*i.e.* near-normal). One of these dogs was able to weakly  
332 ambulate at the commencement of the study (one of the five in the group showing 'spinal walking',  
333 with a coordination score of 2.08) but improved following the intervention; the other dog (with an  
334 entry score of 2.39) did not recover the ability to ambulate independently during the 6-month study  
335 period but limb movements were described as 'stronger' by the owner.

336  
337 All dogs included in this study received the treatment to which they were randomly allocated  
338 meaning that intention-to-treat and *per protocol* analyses would not differ. However, we wished  
339 to determine whether the results may have been influenced by missing data points and so we

340 carried out two further analyses: first, including only dogs for which we had complete datasets and  
341 the second on data for which missing values had been imputed (see Material and Methods and  
342 Supplementary Material). The results of both these analyses were similar to those of the original  
343 analysis (see above), confirming the combinatorial effect of chondroitinase injection and time in  
344 improving coordination at 6 months (with respect to baseline) in the chondroitinase group  
345 (complete datasets:  $\beta = -0.594$ ; 95%CI:  $-0.104/-0.151$ ;  $P = 0.009$ ; multiple imputation dataset:  $\beta =$   
346  $-0.518$ ; 95%CI:  $-0.917/-0.118$ ;  $P = 0.011$ ) and also providing confidence that this outcome was not  
347 biased by missing data.

348

### 349 *Secondary outcome measures*

#### 350 *Von Frey filament testing of skin sensitivity*

351 Responses were highly variable between individuals but the median score was zero responses in  
352 both groups at all time points. At 24 hours after intervention, both control and chondroitinase-  
353 injected dogs showed similar increase in responses but this rapidly regressed and remained  
354 comparable between groups at both 3 and 6 months after intervention (Fig. 3). Statistical analysis  
355 revealed no evidence for a differentially detrimental effect of injection of the chondroitinase ABC  
356 preparation compared with the sham-treated animals (Mann-Whitney test pre-post scores:  $P =$   
357  $0.671$ ) and no owners in either group reported evidence for pain behavior at any follow-up  
358 interview. More detailed assessment of individual animal data is provided in Supplementary  
359 Material.

360

#### 361 *Bladder compliance*

362 At baseline, compliance was highly variable in both groups, ranging from 0.7-180 mL/cmH<sub>2</sub>O in  
363 the chondroitinase group and 0.96-150 mL/cmH<sub>2</sub>O in the control group, with medians of 4.8 and  
364 4.6 respectively (the reference interval is not well-established in dogs but thought likely to be  
365 similar to that in humans, *i.e.* ~12-40mL/cmH<sub>2</sub>O [Toppercer and Tetreault, 1979; Combrisson &  
366 Cotard, 1989; Harris *et al.*, 1996]). Overall, there appeared to be a differing pattern of change after  
367 the interventions, with a tendency for compliance to increase in the chondroitinase group and  
368 decrease in the control group at the 1 month re-examination (Fig. 4). Examination of individual  
369 animal responses suggested that compliance increased in more dogs in the chondroitinase group  
370 than in the control group, with substantial increases occurring in a small minority of dogs in both

371 groups (Fig. 4). In dogs with abnormally low compliance (<12.5 mL/cmH<sub>2</sub>O) there was an increase  
372 to within reference interval in 1/28 of control cases at the 1-month follow-up; a similar change  
373 occurred in 2/27 chondroitinase-injected dogs. The apparent difference between groups at 1 month  
374 did not persist and by 6 months after injection compliance in both groups had returned to values  
375 that were similar to those at baseline. Statistical analysis indicated that, even when controlled for  
376 the possible confounding effect of the duration of paralysis in each dog, neither the overall effect  
377 of injection of the chondroitinase ABC preparation ( $\beta = 0.028$ ; 95%CI: -0.643/0.691;  $P = 0.933$ ),  
378 nor its specific effect at 1 month follow-up ( $\beta = 0.600$ ; 95%CI: -0.120/1.32;  $P = 0.103$ ) had a  
379 significant association with compliance.

380

### 381 *Transcranial magnetic motor evoked potentials*

382 At entry to the trial, 3/30 control dogs and 3/30 dogs allocated to receive chondroitinase exhibited  
383 recordable transcranial magnetic motor evoked potentials in at least one *cranialis tibialis* muscle.  
384 One of the control dogs also exhibited so-called spinal walking but the other five (two controls  
385 and three chondroitinase-treated dogs) did not. During follow-up, transcranial magnetic motor  
386 evoked potentials continued to be recorded from similar numbers of dogs in both control and  
387 chondroitinase groups concluding with positive responses elicited from 3/25 controls and 4/27  
388 chondroitinase dogs at 6 months.

389

390 transcranial magnetic motor evoked potentials were recorded *de novo* during the trial in two dogs  
391 in the chondroitinase group that also recovered independent ambulation (see above) and were also  
392 recorded during the trial in a third chondroitinase-injected dog, in which the fore-hind coordination  
393 score returned almost to normal values at 6 months. Positive transcranial magnetic motor evoked  
394 potential recordings at some, but not all, follow-up examinations were also noted in three dogs in  
395 the control group, two of which showed spinal walking at entry to the trial.

396

### 397 *Sensory evoked potentials*

398 In the control group there were 21 animals with pre- and post-intervention percutaneous sensory  
399 evoked potential recordings and 22 in the chondroitinase group but there appeared to be no  
400 difference between groups in change in cranial-caudal level of response (Fig. 5; Mann Whitney  
401 test:  $P = 0.926$ ).

402

### 403 *Assessment of adverse events*

404 Over the entire follow-up period owners reported a total of 19 adverse events that they associated  
405 with the periods when dogs stayed in the hospital during which interventions, tests of outcome and  
406 physical therapy were given: 11 occurred in the chondroitinase group and 8 in the controls. These  
407 reported adverse events were all transient, lasting for up to 3 days; the majority were periods of  
408 diarrhea, evidence of urinary tract inflammation or infection or, on three occasions, reduced  
409 activity for 1-3 days.

410

411 Adverse events noted by the owners after the first visit - during which baseline functional data  
412 were collected and the intervention applied - included eight events in chondroitinase dogs and one  
413 in a control animal. Three dogs that had received chondroitinase showed reduction in mobility that  
414 lasted for up to 3 days (two of these dogs subsequently recovered independent ambulation) and  
415 one additional dog appeared painful for the first 12 hours after injection. Two chondroitinase-  
416 injected dogs showed evidence of urinary tract infections and one had a generalized seizure  
417 immediately upon recovery from anesthesia. One chondroitinase-injected and one control dog  
418 developed diarrhea during hospitalization.

419

420 At the 1-month re-examination, five adverse events were noted: two episodes of diarrhea (one in  
421 each group), two dogs had skin lesions overlying bony prominences of the pelvis (one in each  
422 group) and one dog (chondroitinase-injected) showed periods of spasmodic limb muscle activity  
423 for a week following this visit. Five further adverse events (four of lower urinary signs and one of  
424 diarrhea) in control animals were recorded during the following two re-visits. None of the owners  
425 reported evidence of abnormal sensitivity on their dogs (*e.g.* flinching, crying, whining or biting  
426 when being touched) at any stage throughout the study.

427

428

### 429 **Discussion**

430 The results of this study confirm that intraspinal injection of heat-stabilized chondroitinase  
431 improves locomotor function in this chronic, severe, naturally-occurring model that mimics  
432 clinical spinal cord injury in humans. Importantly, the effect became increasingly prominent with

433 increasing time after injection, during which dogs received tailored physical therapy, supporting a  
434 previous intimation that chondroitinase and directed physical activity are synergistic in restoration  
435 of spinal cord function (Garcia-Alias et al., 2009). In addition, while at home the dogs were  
436 encouraged to move around their home environment, which may have played a role similar to that  
437 of an enriched environment for spinal cord-injured rats (Lankhorst *et al.*, 2001). Such formal and  
438 voluntary physical therapy might contribute to the strong response in this outcome in the  
439 chondroitinase-injected dogs.

440

441 Interestingly, it appears that we detected two types of recovery of locomotor activity associated  
442 with intraspinal chondroitinase injection. First, there was widespread improvement in fore-hind  
443 coordination throughout the group as a whole, with two dogs recovering near-normal values (see  
444 Fig. 2). In addition three dogs developed independent locomotion that was not associated with  
445 improved fore-hind coordination. We consider that each type of response could be associated with  
446 activity of the chondroitinase at either one or both injection sites. First, improvement of  
447 coordination implies transmission of impulses across the lesion site (so that fore and hind limbs  
448 become temporally coordinated) and can be explained either by regeneration of axons across the  
449 lesion site (Bradbury *et al.*, 2002; Yick *et al.*, 2003; Barritt *et al.*, 2006) or restoration of  
450 functionality to pre-existing fibers through chondroitinase-mediated effects on the damaged tissue  
451 (for instance *via* release of matrix-bound factors [Crespo *et al.*, 2007]). Such effects may or may  
452 not also require reorganization of targets in the destination tissue that may have been facilitated by  
453 the more caudal chondroitinase injection. We propose that this mechanism of action explains the  
454 increased coordination noted within the group as a whole, and especially in the two dogs whose  
455 coordination scores improved to near-normal values (and one of which also showed recovery of  
456 recordable transcranial magnetic motor evoked potentials). In contrast, in some animals - perhaps  
457 those in which axon regeneration or restoration of functionality across the lesion site was not  
458 feasible because of its character or severity - chondroitinase effects at the more caudal injection  
459 site may have been sufficient to allow reorganization of synaptic contacts, *via* disruption of  
460 perineuronal nets (Massey *et al.*, 2006; Cafferty *et al.*, 2008; Garcia-Alias *et al.*, 2009), thus  
461 facilitating development of ‘spinal walking’. We propose that this mechanism may underlie the  
462 recovery of independent locomotion in the three dogs that did not exhibit improved coordination;  
463 however, there is a need for further examination of this possible effect since few chondroitinase-



464 injected dogs recovered in this way and there was not a significant difference in its incidence  
465 between control and chondroitinase groups.

466  
467 The absence of evidence to suggest that intraspinal chondroitinase injections caused problematic  
468 adverse effects is of critical importance. A particularly worrisome aspect of any intervention that  
469 involves intraspinal administration of an agent that might induce plastic change in the nervous  
470 system is that it might also engender abnormal pain sensation, especially in the dermatomes of the  
471 injected region. The data we collected here on responses to von Frey filament stimulation over the  
472 dorsum are consistent with development of hypersensitivity in the immediate post-intervention  
473 period. However, there was a similar incidence of increased sensitivity in both chondroitinase and  
474 control dogs, providing strong evidence that the chondroitinase injection was not the cause.  
475 Instead, heightened sensitivity is better attributed to the combination of hair clipping and needle  
476 damage to the skin, which were factors common to both groups. During the remainder of the  
477 follow-up period skin sensitivity gradually decreased in both groups to that observed at enrolment.

478  
479 Owners were encouraged, through specific interview questions, to report any adverse events  
480 following recruitment into the trial. Although many events were reported, these occurred at similar  
481 frequency in both control and chondroitinase groups. Furthermore, most of the adverse events were  
482 suggestive of non-specific effects of staying in our hospital or undergoing the investigative  
483 procedures. For instance, diarrhea is very common in dogs after periods of stress, and urinary tract  
484 irritation or infection can be associated with cystometry. One dog that had been injected with  
485 chondroitinase exhibited seizures upon recovery from anesthesia. Although this might appear  
486 rather alarming, it is unlikely that this was a consequence of the intraspinal injections. First, the  
487 volume of the injections was very small, meaning that it would be highly improbable for the  
488 injected material to reach the brain *via* the cerebrospinal fluid. Second, this dog may have been at  
489 inherent increased risk of seizures because the spinal cord injury was the result of a fracture-  
490 luxation at L1/2 vertebrae and head injury is common correlate of spinal fractures in dogs. This  
491 dog recovered uneventfully and showed no persistent abnormalities of brain function or repeat  
492 seizures during the follow-up period.

493

494 The compliance results recorded at the 1-month follow-up provide a slight suggestion that  
495 chondroitinase injection might open an opportunity for improving bladder function. The group of  
496 chondroitinase-injected dogs as a whole demonstrated much higher compliance (*i.e.* ability to  
497 retain more urine) at the first follow-up assessment. However, this effect was not statistically  
498 significant and faded by the time of later re-assessments. It is possible that the initial change in  
499 function could have been an effect of chondroitinase that did not persist and it might be that more  
500 effective or prolonged training of bladder function might make this improvement more permanent.  
501 However, while the group effects look promising, analysis at an individual level (Fig. 4) suggests  
502 that normal bladder compliance (estimated as 12-40 mL/cmH<sub>2</sub>O) was restored in few dogs in either  
503 group at this time point. Whilst it remains possible that chondroitinase may have a beneficial effect  
504 on bladder function there was such a large degree of variability in compliance at enrolment that  
505 detecting such an effect may be difficult unless trial participants are stratified for this variable.

506

507 At a group level, there were no readily attributable effects of chondroitinase ABC on the secondary  
508 electrophysiological outcome measurements, which were designed to provide possible  
509 explanations for any changes in overall function that we detected in the primary analysis. This lack  
510 of change parallels the findings of our previous study on olfactory ensheathing cell transplantation  
511 (Granger *et al.*, 2012). There are two main possible explanations. First, the changes that occur in  
512 the spinal cord to mediate improvement in limb girdle coordination do not necessarily rely on  
513 changes in spinal cord long tract function. For instance, changes in propriospinal connections may  
514 improve fore-hind coordination but will not be detected by the evoked potential recordings that  
515 are dependent upon long tract integrity. The second possible explanation is that these measures of  
516 long tract function are not sufficiently sensitive to detect changes that were elicited by the  
517 chondroitinase injection. Evidence in support of this proposition is that chronic, histologically sub-  
518 complete spinal cord injury in rats can abolish motor evoked potentials (Metz *et al.*, 2000) and it  
519 is known that, after acute spinal cord injury, transcranial magnetic motor evoked potentials can  
520 even be abolished in dogs with purposeful movement (Sylvestre *et al.*, 1993). Moreover, although  
521 there is a general (inverse) correlation between latency of evoked potentials and white matter  
522 preservation (Nashmi *et al.*, 1997), the precise relationship between intact detected conduction and  
523 the number of intact axons is unknown. Despite these limitations, in the five dogs that showed  
524 recovery of independent ambulation (n = 3) or recovery of normal fore-hind coordination (n = 2),

525 transcranial magnetic motor evoked potentials could be recorded at some stage throughout the  
526 follow-up period.

527  
528 There has long been vigorous debate about how much pre-clinical evidence is required before it is  
529 reasonable to translate a successful intervention from the laboratory to humans with spinal cord  
530 injury (Kwon *et al.*, 2013; Kwon *et al.*, 2015). The evidence we present here suggests that  
531 chondroitinase ABC is at this threshold: not only has its beneficial effect been demonstrated  
532 repeatedly in laboratory animals but, as we show here, it is sufficiently potent to ameliorate lost  
533 function following severe clinical injury in a large mammalian species and it is not associated with  
534 detectable detrimental effects, which should all augur well for clinical benefit in humans with  
535 spinal cord injury. The question then remains as to whether the effect size is of sufficient  
536 magnitude to be of benefit were the therapy to be translated into humans. The change we detected  
537 in the primary outcome measure was ~23%, which can be regarded as a large treatment effect,  
538 corresponding to our ability to detect this difference in a reasonably-powered (80%) study, even  
539 in such a relatively small sample population. It is also of similar magnitude to that reported in a  
540 meta-analysis of olfactory ensheathing cell transplantation in experimental animals that was  
541 recommended as supportive evidence to pursue human clinical trials (Watzlawick *et al.*, 2016).  
542 However, whether an intervention will translate from one species to another with the same  
543 magnitude of effect is almost impossible to predict, because the mechanisms of recovery may or  
544 may not translate between species. For instance, it is difficult to know whether the mechanisms  
545 underlying recovery of coordination in our dogs (or, similarly, recovery of open-field ambulation  
546 or forelimb reaching tasks in rats) will also lead to, for example, improved hand function in  
547 humans. The most plausible means to test the translatability is to trial the intervention in humans.  
548 Therefore the key value of our data is the detection of benefit in the face of real-life lesion  
549 heterogeneity and the absence of detectable adverse effects, because this combination provides a  
550 clear green light for the trials in humans that are necessary to categorically define the magnitude  
551 of effect in that species.

552  
553 A further question might be whether the drug preparation and delivery system we used here is the  
554 most clinically appropriate. Although there is evidence of persistence of effect of native  
555 chondroitinase ABC for at least 10 days after injection into the brain (Lin *et al.*, 2008), the

556 consensus of opinion, summarized by Bradbury and Carter (2008), is that a translatable long-acting  
557 form of the enzyme is likely to be required for therapy of spinal cord injury. The composite product  
558 used in this study stabilizes the chondroitinase ABC active ingredient, facilitates sustained delivery  
559 and is easily delivered, therefore fulfilling this requirement. For the next step of introduction into  
560 humans and getting approval for clinical trial from regulatory agencies, the preparation will need  
561 to be made under appropriately controlled aseptic conditions. There do not appear to be any  
562 obstacles to this process: the lipid backbone used in the manufacture of the microtubes can be  
563 made under Good Laboratory Practice conditions and has already been used in a human clinical  
564 trial (Wicki *et al.*, 2015). Percutaneous injection of chondroitinase was selected in this study  
565 because it readily permits blinding of study observers and owners of the participating dogs, but it  
566 may not be the optimal method of ensuring that the drug reaches its target. Open surgery would  
567 ensure delivery into precise locations within spinal cord parenchyma and could easily be applied  
568 in phase I trials in humans, but similar delivery in a phase II trial would necessitate sham surgery  
569 for controls, which can be ethically controversial (Albin, 2002; Frank *et al.*, 2008). However,  
570 because participants in such a clinical trial would have chronic lesions with static neurologic  
571 function, a crossover design, similar to that proposed for cell transplantation for multiple sclerosis  
572 (Freedman *et al.*, 2010), would be feasible. Although this would not avoid the need for sham  
573 surgery it would reduce the number of participants required and assure those recruited that, unless  
574 unforeseen safety issues arose, they would each receive the active intervention (chondroitinase).

575

576

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580 time, effort and goodwill of owners of the dogs that took part in this study.

581

582

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586

587

## 588 **Figure legends**

589

590 **Figure 1:** Flowchart showing how dogs were recruited to this trial. 60 dogs were randomized to  
591 chondroitinase ABC injection or control groups from a total pool of 196 possible candidate cases.

592

593 **Figure 2:** Trial primary outcome measure: coordination between fore and hind limb stepping in  
594 treadmill walking dogs before and after intervention. The score (on the y-axis) is a summary of  
595 accumulated time delays between forelimb and hindlimb steps, with lower scores indicating better  
596 coordination. **a:** individual records for control animals; **b:** individual records for chondroitinase-  
597 injected animals; **c:** group summary over time (symbols represent mean and bars are standard error  
598 of the mean). Controls are illustrated in red and chondroitinase animals in blue. In control animals,  
599 although there is some (expected) intra-animal variability there is no systematic change over the  
600 6-month follow-up period (paired Student's t test,  $P = 0.677$ ). In contrast, both individual records  
601 (**b**) and group summary (**c**) of chondroitinase-injected animals show systematic and progressive  
602 reduction in score corresponding to improved coordination. At 6 months chondroitinase-injected  
603 animals improved by a mean of 23% from baseline (paired Student's t test,  $P = 0.008$ ) and was the  
604 result of a significant interaction between chondroitinase injection and time (see text); there was a  
605 significant difference between groups at 6 months (contrast = -0.484; 95%CI: -0.790 / -0.178;  $P =$   
606 0.002).

607

608 **Figure 3:** Summary of responses to von Frey filament stimulation, in which a higher score  
609 indicates greater sensitivity (symbols represent mean and bars are standard error of the mean).  
610 From a low baseline there is an increase in sensitivity on the day immediately after the intervention  
611 in both groups (chondroitinase injection or sham) that decreases over time. The lack of difference  
612 in scores between groups (Mann-Whitney test at 6 months  $P=0.107$ ) and lower scores in the active  
613 treatment group indicate that there is no evidence for induction of neuropathic pain following  
614 chondroitinase injection.

615

616 **Figure 4:** Change in bladder compliance after intervention. **a:** changes in group means (bars  
617 indicate standard error of the mean) over the 6-month follow-up period. In chondroitinase-injected

618 dogs there is an apparent increase in compliance (improved ability to retain urine) at 1 month but  
619 this does not persist; statistical comparisons detect no difference between groups at any point.

620 **b** and **c** are spaghetti plots illustrating change in compliance over the first month after intervention  
621 in **(b)** control and **(c)** chondroitinase-injected dogs. Although there was a tendency for a greater  
622 proportion of dogs in the control group to show decreased compliance and a greater proportion of  
623 dogs in the chondroitinase group to show increased compliance in the first month, accounting for  
624 the changes observed in **a**, few animals in either group improved from abnormally low values to  
625 achieve values within the reference interval (indicated by dashed lines) at 1 month.

626  
627 **Figure 5:** Changes in cranial-most level of recording of spinal sensory-evoked potentials (SEP) in  
628 control and chondroitinase-injected dogs during the 6-month follow-up period. Although there was  
629 some individual variation in level at which the SEP could be recorded as the study progressed there  
630 was no indication of a systematic difference in this variable between treatment groups.

631  
632

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