

1 Review

2 Etiopathogenesis of canine cruciate ligament disease: a scoping 3 review

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Simple Summary: Spontaneous rupture of the cranial cruciate ligament in stifle joints of dogs is one of the most common veterinary orthopaedic problems. Largely unknown mechanisms progressively weaken intra-articular structures which eventually fail; joint instability, osteoarthritic changes, pain, and dysfunction are the sequels. In general, surgical treatment is recommended aiming at stabilizing the hypermobile joint by a variety of surgical methods. Despite much progress in rendering surgical treatment more efficient, osteoarthritic changes, although effectively mitigated by surgery, continue, and persist. Improved knowledge on causes of joint and ligament degradation would aid prevention and treatment. This review focuses on papers contributing to knowledge of causes; that is, on local and systemic features, on articular inflammatory and degenerative changes. Based on recent work, a systemic, metabolic multifactorial disease background emerged, and a new, generally accepted term has been coined: “canine cruciate ligament disease”. Primary osteoarthritis and collagen degradation seem to be the underlying key features of cruciate ligament disease. Besides re-defining the pathogenesis in the dog, these findings render the canine joint disease a potentially useful clinical animal model for human osteoarthritic diseases. Thus, trying to unravel the enigma of spontaneous cruciate ligament disease, may benefit the treatment of both canine and human degenerative joint disease, in general.

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Abstract: Spontaneous rupture of the cranial cruciate ligament in dogs remains a pathoetiologic puzzle. Despite much progress in research over the past years, the systemic and local mechanisms leading to ligament degeneration and structural failure, remain largely obscure. This scoping review focuses on pathogenesis and aims at summarizing and interpreting today’s knowledge on causes of canine cruciate ligament rupture; that is, on the multifactorial mechanisms leading to degenerative stifle joint disease with collagen matrix degeneration and structural failures. Thus, the initial view of traumatic ligament rupture, fostered by “wear and tear”, has clearly been replaced by a new concept of systemic processes linked to progressive degenerative joint disease and ligament failure; thus, the term “Cranial Cruciate Ligament Disease” has been coined and is generally accepted. Also, cruciate ligament rupture in people shares some similarities with the lesion in dogs; therefore, the review includes also comparative studies. The methods used were based on the PRISMA-ScR model (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses Extension for Scoping Reviews).

Keywords: cruciate ligament rupture; cruciate ligament disease; dog; pathogenesis; scoping review

1. Introduction

Spontaneous cranial cruciate ligament rupture (CCLR) in dogs is one of the most frequently seen conditions in veterinary orthopaedics and carries the highest economic impact in orthopaedic patient care (in the US)[1]. This painful and debilitating joint lesion is commonly treated by surgically treating hypermobility, which ensues after ligament failure. Despite the high overall incidence (~2,55%) with a tendency to increase [2],

44 pathoetiology remains obscure and treatments are largely symptomatic and address
45 biomechanics. There is now consensus that CCLR has a multifactorial background in-
46 volving local and systemic mechanisms with osteoarthritis (OA) being a key feature.
47 Unravelling the pathomechanisms of this inflammatory and degenerative joint illness is
48 challenging; this also, because of its biphasic evolution: during a clinically nearly silent
49 initial phase, progressive collagen matrix degradation of the cruciate ligament develops
50 and persists[3][4]; this leads eventually to structural failure, most often in the mid-section
51 and without excessive load[5][6]. Ensuing joint instability exacerbates inflammatory and
52 degenerative changes in a second phase (secondary OA)[7]. Progression of secondary OA
53 can be slowed by joint stabilizing surgery; however, the primary, underlying osteoar-
54 thritic disease process continues and prevents in most cases full return to integri-
55 ty[8][9–12]. Thus, the initial pathogenic concept of “wear and tear” followed by ligament
56 rupture [13], has clearly changed to a new understanding of the joint as an organ affected
57 by complex and largely idiopathic disease mechanisms leading (among other changes) to
58 cruciate ligament failure[14]; time-delayed, in more than 50% of cases the contralateral
59 stifle joint is similarly affected[15,16][17]. Based on these newer insights, the term “Cra-
60 nial Cruciate Ligament Disease” (CCLD) has been coined[7], and similarities between
61 anterior cruciate ligament rupture (ACL) in people became increasingly apparent: that
62 is, in humans as in dogs, spontaneous (non-traumatic) cruciate ligament tears are now
63 defined as “non-contact” injuries with unclear etiology[18]. Thus, in both species, and
64 despite different conformational biomechanics, idiopathic degenerative mechanisms
65 weaken ligaments and cause failure, clearly unrelated to a single traumatic event[19].
66 This scoping review aims at identifying and interpreting studies that contribute to
67 pathogenesis and to disease mechanisms in canine CCLD; also included were papers
68 addressing comparative pathoetiology of cruciate ligament rupture. Although several
69 review articles focussing on possible causes of CCLR were published previous-
70 ly[20][21–24][14,25], an update in form of a scoping review centred on etiopathogenesis
71 may be warranted. New directions for future studies may become identifiable, with the
72 aim to improve treatment of spontaneous CCLR through a better understanding of dis-
73 ease mechanisms.

74 2. Materials and Methods

75 The scoping review was based on the PRISMA-ScR (Preferred Reporting Items for
76 Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses Extension for Scoping Reviews) model. Publica-
77 tions to be evaluated were extracted by the following search criteria in PubMed, Web of
78 Science and in the author’s personal database: “canine cruciate ligament rupture OR
79 cruciate ligament disease AND pathogenesis OR (a)etiology”. In PubMed and Web of
80 Science, on 17/07/22, this search yielded 271 hits, of which 141 were eliminated by the
81 following exclusion criteria: studies on experimental models (Pond-Nuki), on surgical
82 treatment and complications thereof, and on diagnostic imaging, when unrelated to
83 pathogenesis. To the remaining 130 papers, several older texts were added, which were
84 retrieved by the above search criteria in the author’s reference collection. Some of these
85 add-ons are in other than English language and not listed in electronic databases because
86 of the early year of publication. For enhanced comprehension, a short introductory sec-
87 tion reviews anatomical, physiological, and biomechanical features of the stifle joint, fo-
88 cusing on descriptions with links to pathophysiology. Then, and based on their focus on
89 pathoetiology, papers were grouped as follows (with occasional overlap):

- 90 Cruciate ligament anatomy, physiology, biomechanical features (3.1)
- 91 Risk factors: breed, sex, neuter status, weight, age, activity (3.2)
- 92 Genetics (3.3)
- 93 Biomechanics/joint functional anatomy/orthopedic conformation (3.4)
- 94 Osteoarthritic changes (3.5)
 - 95 Inflammation, cytokines, immune mediation, apoptosis (3.5.1)
 - 96 Synovial membrane, matrix collagen, ligaments, menisci (3.5.2)

97 Systemic factors (hormones, metabolites, diseases, infections, immune system)
98 (3.5.3)
99 Late-stage osteoarthritis (3.5.4)

100 3. Results

101 3.1. Cruciate ligament anatomy, physiology, biomechanical features

102 The functional anatomy of the ligaments and menisci of the stifle joint aiming at ex-
103 plaining failure and evaluating joint stabilization techniques was extensively studied by
104 Arnoczky et al., and more recently by de Rooster et al.[26–30][31]. The cranial cruciate
105 ligament (CCL) was found to have a multifascicular structure consisting of multiple col-
106 lagen bundles, which spatial orientation is directly related to its function as a constraint
107 of joint motion. This arrangement results in a different portion of the ligament being taut
108 and therefore functional, throughout the range of motion. The metabolism of the CCL is
109 provided through its intrinsic blood supply and by diffusion through an enveloping
110 synovial sheet[32]. The synovial envelope, when intact, shields the CCL from direct
111 synovial fluid contact, so that the CCL, at least functionally, can be considered an “ex-
112 tra-articular” structure. Periligamentous vessels from this synovial envelope penetrate
113 the ligament transversely and anastomose with a longitudinal network of
114 endoligamentous vessels which originate from the proximal and distal osteochondral
115 insertions. However, those femoro-tibial attachments do not contribute significantly to
116 the vascularity of the CCL[33]. Especially the central aspect is poorly vascularized and
117 features endarterial loops[34]; this is also the zone of initial ligament degeneration and
118 rupture[35,36][37,38].

119 For recent reviews on biomechanics of the stifle joint as related to CCLD
120 etiopathogenesis see Cook and Spinella et al.[14][23]. Among the many forces acting
121 during locomotion on the cruciate ligament, cranial tibial trust seems to exhibit the
122 strongest load which is counteracted by the CCL[22]. This cranially directed shear force is
123 suggested to increase during weight bearing dynamically with increasing caudo-distal
124 inclination of the tibial plateau[39]. Neutralizing tibial trust has become the gold stand-
125 ard of surgical therapy; this is achieved by either lowering the inclination angle of the
126 tibia plateau through specific rotational osteotomies (TPLO)[40] [41], CORA-based level-
127 ling osteotomy (CBLO)[42], cranial closing wedge osteotomy (CCWO)[43], or by
128 osteomyzing and advancing the tibial tuberosity to achieve a dynamically neutralizing
129 angle of $\sim 90^\circ$ between patellar ligament and tibial plateau (TTA)[44][45].

130 3.2. Risk factors: breed, sex, neuter status, weight, age, activity

131 Steep tibial plateau angle ($>30^\circ$, depending on dog size and breed)[22][46] and nar-
132 row relative width of the tibial tuberosity [47] are conformational risk factors which are
133 aggravated by higher-than-normal body weight[48]. Early neutering (less than 12 months
134 of age) is a risk factor for developing an increased tibial plateau angle and is, in general,
135 increasing by 5% in males and by 8% in females the risk for CCLR [46,49]. Bilateral CCLR
136 may occur time-delayed between 1 and 2 years in ~ 40 -50% of cases.[50]; large breed dogs
137 and severity of osteoarthritic changes are factors of increased risk also for bilateral
138 CCLD[16,51][17]; athletic body conformation in agility dogs, on the contrary, decreases
139 the risk of CCLR[52]. Breed-related risk is generally linked to heavy body conformation
140 and large breed dogs; for a listing of breeds see[2]; some breeds, however, have a notably
141 low prevalence or quasi absence of CCLD: e.g., Dachshund, Greyhound, Afghan, Shi-tzu,
142 Pekingese. Although speculative as for a causal link, it may be of interest that in dachs-
143 hunds the CCL seems to have a denser vascular network throughout the ligament as
144 compared to other breeds[53]. Intact female dogs, overall, are twice as likely to develop
145 CCLD as compared to males[54]; neutering in both sexes increases the risk of CCLR[55],
146 although obesity, linked to neutering might be a confounding factor. Obesity per se
147 quadruples the risk of CCLR[54]. Heavy body weight, whether as normal feature of large

148 breed dogs or linked to obesity, increases the risk of ligament failure[48,56,57]. Age, as in
149 most degenerative joint diseases, is a risk factor: regardless of breed, this risk peaks
150 around 8 years of age, however, breeds with a high prevalence for CCLD (e.g., Boxer,
151 Labrador Retriever, Rottweiler), tend to develop the disease earlier in life[48,58]. Physical
152 exercise and athletic constitution, on the other hand, are negative risk factors[52]. For
153 epidemiological studies on larger cohorts see also [56,59]

154 3.3. Genetics

155 There is a strong breed related predisposition for CCLD[48,60][61][62][63][64]; re-
156 cently, several genes (single nucleotide polymorphisms), common to dogs with high risk
157 for CCLR were identified through genotyping[65][66]. The set of key genes identified in
158 susceptible dog breeds is coding for collagen strength and stability and are involved in
159 extracellular matrix formation[67][68]. Thus, on the morphologic level, a genetic back-
160 ground has been identified concerning ligament formation and strength[69][70][71]. On
161 the other hand, in another study, no difference in gene expression has been found[72].
162 However, candidate genes were identified to be involved in tibial plateau slope for-
163 mation and in developing a compressed infrapatellar fat pad, a surrogate for stifle osteo-
164 arthrosis and CCLR[73].

165 3.4. Biomechanics / joint functional anatomy / orthopedic conformation

166 The healthy CCL is among the strongest ligaments[74], with an average tensile
167 strength of 92 N/mm² or 18,2 Megapascals[75]. External breaking force causes rather an
168 avulsion fracture, especially in younger dogs, than a failure of the ligament itself. On the
169 other hand, and in the majority of spontaneously ruptured CCL's, tearing occurs in the
170 central part of the ligament and is preceded by degenerative processes and collagen
171 degradation[13][7]. This central section of the CCL is poorly vascularized[32,34,76][53],
172 giving raise to the concept that the vascular microenvironment of this core region is un-
173 derlying condition for ligament failure[37]. Degenerative changes, immune complex
174 deposition, lack of scar formation and insufficiency of healing all may be linked to the
175 peculiar microvascular anatomy of the CCL[36,77][78,79]. The following studies are fo-
176 cusing on biomechanics of the stifle with CCLR and are based on the concept of the joint
177 being an organ[80], which includes intercondylar notch[81], cartilage[82–84], joint cap-
178 sule[85][86], synovial fluid, menisci, collateral ligaments
179 [27,28,31,87][14,23,30,88][27,82,83,89–96], the patella[97,98], and articulating bones[99].

180 3.5. Osteoarthritic changes

181 Osteoarthritis (OA) is a key feature of CCLD[100][21]. Early osteoarthritic changes
182 are already identifiable in stifle joints with little or without instability such as in cases
183 of partial rupture[3,101–105]. The use of advanced imaging techniques and arthroscopy
184 clearly demonstrate the presence of inflammatory and degenerative changes prior to
185 ligament failure and joint instability[94,106–108]. This largely idiopathic phase of pri-
186 mary OA is subject of most studies in search for etiopathology; in contrast to primary
187 OA, secondary OA can be studied in animal models (Pond-Nuki model) such as by ex-
188 perimental transection of the cranial cruciate ligament[109,110]. In spontaneous CCLR,
189 joint degrading processes precede instability, are only enhanced after rupture, and are
190 ongoing[111]. Thus, and despite surgical joint stabilization, OA progresses, although
191 mitigated in relation to the efficacy of the stabilization method[112][113–115][8,116]
192 [116][117][118][119]. Lesions of menisci and other intra-articular structures often accom-
193 pany ligament failure or are the sequel of instability; they may contribute to and enhance
194 OA[9,120][82,83,89–94,96,106,120–124]. Non-surgical treatment strategies aim therefore at
195 identifying early-stage OA; to that end, the search for biomarkers of OA and for metabo-
196 lites of structural changes is ongoing in both human and veterinary medi-
197 cine[111][125][126][127].

3.5.1. Inflammation, cytokines, immune mediation, apoptosis

Collagen degradation is a key feature of OA, mediated at large by matrix metalloproteinases (MMP's), mainly MMP-1,2 and 13[128][129] as well as MMP-3[130][131]. Matrix collagenase activity in ruptured canine cruciate ligaments samples has been described early on [132][133] and has been linked with collagen type I fiber creep and ligament failure [134]. On the other hand, collagenase generated collagen type II metabolites, deriving from joint cartilage, have not been found elevated in CCLR[135]. In synovial fluid samples of dogs with CCLR and OA, upregulation of degradative enzymes, metabolites and inflammatory cytokines has been demonstrated in several studies: iL-1 β , iL-6, iL8, TnF- α expression correlates with inflammatory cycles of OA[136][137] and decrease after successful surgical treatment[138]; however, the search for cartilage derived OA-biomarkers such as fibronectin[139] and keratan- and chondroitin-sulfate epitopes has not yield clinical usefulness so far[130]. While cartilage derived nitric oxide metabolites were found increased in canine OA, no significant correlation with CCLR was found [140]. However, nitric oxide seems to mediate cell death and apoptosis of ligamentocytes in CCLD, expressing stronger effects in cranial cruciate ligaments as compared to the caudal CL[141], the collateral ligaments of the stifle and the round ligament of the femoral head[142]. That programmed cell death may play a role in CCL degeneration finds confirmation in a later study by the same group[143]; yet it remains open, whether apoptosis is an epiphenomenon or an etiologic factor. The fact that apoptosis has equally be found in partially ruptured CCL demonstrates that apoptosis is already present in early stages of CCLD[104] However, other trigger mechanisms besides nitric oxide seem involved in programmed ligamentocytes death, as selective blocking of nitric oxide does not influence apoptosis[144]; yet mediators of apoptosis cause more fibrocyte death in cells derived from cranial cruciate ligaments as compared to those of the caudal ligament[145]. Among inhibitors of nitric oxide, doxycycline has been investigated as potential medical treatment for OA and CCLR[146]; it's efficacy to reduce nitric oxide via reduced stromelysin production has been shown in OA cartilage samples but not in ruptured cruciate ligaments[147]. Similarly, doxycycline, a presumptive down-regulator of intra-articular MMP activity, has been shown relatively ineffective to reduce inflammatory changes in CCLD postoperatively [129]. A recent systematic review evaluating the efficacy of doxycycline to treat CCLR-related OA confirms these mixed results, but also states that clinically some positive results in terms of decreased inflammation and pain were seen. [148]

3.5.2. Synovial membrane, matrix collagen, ligaments, menisci

Inflammatory changes, typically seen in CCLD, affect the entire joint, especially the synovial membrane. Synovitis is already present prior to ligament failure, demonstrating an early and ongoing inflammatory collagen degrading process[149]. In later stages and in unstable joints, the inspissated and often villous synovial membrane contains largely mononuclear cells. Abundant B- and T-cell lymphocytes, plasma cells, tartrate-resistant acid phosphatase (TRAP) activated macrophages, and dendritic cell infiltrates are present [150][151][152,153]; the degree of these inflammatory changes is linked to the degree of degenerative changes within the CCL[63]. Although bacterial DNA has been occasionally detected by PCR in cases of CCLR[154], an infectious etiologic component of CCLD is unlikely. Nevertheless, type and quantity of synovial cellular infiltrates are signs of an immune response; immune-mediation as one possible pathogenic factor was first demonstrated by finding C1q-binding immune complexes within ruptured CCL's and joint capsules[78][155]; a link between intra-ligamentous immune complex deposition and collagen type I fiber degradation could then be demonstrated[134]. It has been suggested that trapping and deposition of immune complexes may be enhanced by the particular and scarce blood supply of the central part of the CCL, containing endarterial vessels[32][31][156]. The ensuing hypothesis that the IgG of the immune

250 complexes might have epitopes against ligament-derived collagen type I was later-on
251 confirmed[157][158,159]. These antibodies were found in synovial fluids of affected sti-
252 fles and to a lesser degree in the contralateral stifles, and in circulation, indicating sys-
253 temic immune reactions[160]. Simultaneous bilateral CCLR is relatively rare but
254 time-delayed it is relative common; one study describes contralateral CCLR to occur in
255 one third of the dogs within a year after the first rupture[58], others report a somewhat
256 higher incidence of ~50% with mean intervals of ~2,5 years[161]. Osteoarthritic changes
257 (osteophytes), when identified bilaterally in dogs with unilateral CCLR, are considered
258 risk factors for insipient contralateral ligament failure[162,163].

259 A fair number of studies focusses on degenerative changes within the ligaments. The
260 following morphologic/anatomical factors have been identified as risk factors for me-
261 chanic and/or metabolic damage to the CCL[87]; tibial plateau angle and tibial trust[164],
262 the above stated poor intrinsic blood supply[53][33,165](Figure 1) and narrow femoral
263 intercondylar notches, among others, have been cited[81][166][167].
264

265
266 **Figure 1.** Schematic drawing of the blood supply to the canine cranial cruciate ligament; IFP
267 infrapatellar fat pad, SE synovial envelope (epiligament): arrows indicate afferent supply, broken
268 arrows show endosteal vessels, only marginally (from proximal) or not entering ligament matrix
269 (from Niebauer GW, Pathomechanisms in canine cruciate ligament rupture <in German>. PhD
270 Thesis 1982, Vet. Med Univ. Vienna, Austria).

271 Micromorphologic studies of completely or partially ruptured ligaments show the
272 following: ligamentocyte (fibroblast) transformation into spheroid cells, fibroblast ne-
273 crosis and fibrocartilaginous metaplasia are the principal cellular changes[36][77]; most
274 authors attribute these cellular transformations to hypoxic metabolism in the poorly
275 vascularized core of the CCL; apoptosis seems not to play a role as promotor of fibroblast
276 decay[104,168] [145]. Macrophages are the predominant extrinsic cells and are scav-
277 engers of C1q-binding immune complexes[155][169]; as antigen presenting cells, they play a
278 key role in immune responses and in cytokine-induced up-regulation of proteolytic en-
279 zymes (collagenases)[170]. Thus, lymphocytes[171] and TRAP+ macrophage-like cells
280 migrating from the epiligament have been implicated as promoters of progressive CCL
281 degradation [172][173]. Also, increased expression of immune-response genes for
282 cathepsin K, MMP-9, TRAP was found in synovial fluid of dogs with CCLD[159,172].

283 3.5.3. Systemic factors

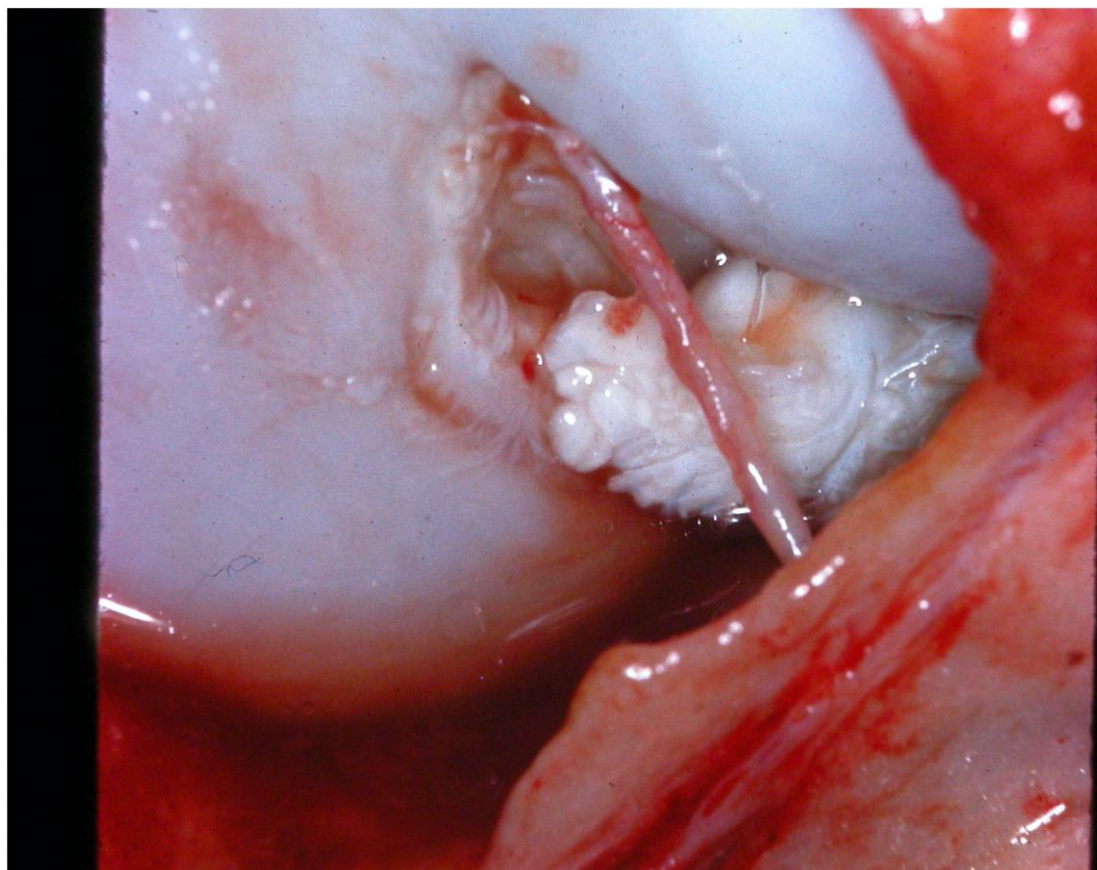
284 Based on results of these studies, a multilevel hypothesis of immune-mediated
285 pathomechanisms has emerged; Doom et al. have published a well-illustrated compre-
286 hensive overview of all possible implications of humoral and cell-mediated immune re-
287 sponses and their interactions in CCLD[174]. In short: the intact CCL is shielded from the
288 joint space by a thin synovial membrane envelope (epiligament); when this membrane
289 ruptures early on in the joint disease, degenerated collagen type I fibrils become exposed
290 to synovial fluid and may evoke an (auto-) immune response; circulating anti-collagen
291 antibodies may contribute to contralateral CCLD and local cellular responses are trig-
292 gering cytokine cascades and proteolytic collagen matrix degeneration; the destructive
293 processes seem to progress in form of a vicious cycle whereby enhanced exposure to
294 collagen metabolites enhances immune-mediated inflammatory reactions which in turn
295 upregulate proteolysis, augmenting exposure to collagen-derived epitopes. [175]These
296 pathomechanisms might be enhanced or accompanied by immune-complexes trapped in
297 the end-arterial loops-containing microvasculature of the central part of the CCL[155];
298 macrophage and dendritic cell-derived antigen presentation might therefore not only
299 originate from scavenging cells migrating from the epiligament, but also from in-
300 tra-ligamentous macrophages.

301 Interestingly, in rheumatoid arthritis of dogs, bilateral cruciate disease often devel-
302 ops with similar pathologic features[175].

303 There is agreement on collagen lysis as being a key factor in cruciate ligament de-
304 generation, yet the initiating mechanisms triggering ligament fiber decay remain un-
305 clear[176]. It has long been suspected that gender and hormones of reproduction may
306 be linked to CCLR; [177]; in fact, intact female dogs (independent of other risk factors) are
307 twice as likely to develop CCLR as compared to intact male dogs[54]; in a large cohort of
308 over 3000 dogs, overall prevalence of CCLR was 3,48%; gonadectomy increases preva-
309 lence in both sexes and was found as 2,09% in intact males and 5,15 % in neutered fe-
310 males [178]. These epidemiologic features, linked to the previously stated molecular bi-
311 ologic data, are in support of hormone-related pathomechanisms: for instance, female sex
312 hormones have been found to upregulate MMP-mediated collagen degradation[179]. As
313 described in human medicine, women in general, and female athletes in specific[180],
314 inherit an increased risk for ACL[181][182]. In women, knee joint laxity and ACL has
315 been found linked to the reproductive cycle, hand-in-hand with surges of estrogen and
316 relaxin[183,184]. Relaxin modifies and weakens the molecular structure of collagen,
317 causing fiber sliding, creep, and joint laxity[185]. Relaxin involvement in cruciate liga-
318 ment rupture has been demonstrated in women[186] and in dogs of both sexes[187].
319 These latter insights are in support of the general concept of a stifle joint disease with
320 involvement of systemic/humoral factors.

321 3.5.4. Late-stage osteoarthritis

322 In researching pathogenic mechanisms, most of the reviewed studies focus on the
323 early stages of the joint disease (primary OA). Nevertheless, late and end-stages of CCLR
324 should also be reviewed: secondary OA invariably progresses, especially in untreated
325 cases, accompanied by typical chronic inflammatory changes (osteophytes, cartilage
326 damage)[107,188]; severity of degradation largely depends on the cited risk factors:
327 heavy body weight, breed, age, sex, and neuter status. However, independent of these
328 factors, in all dogs with CCLR, the fate of the ruptured ligament is the same: healing and
329 neo-vascularization do not take place and within 2 to 4 months after ligament rupture,
330 collagen fibrils will have been lysed and absorbed, or reduced to stump-like remnants,
331 lined with a thin inflammatory membrane[189][190], such as exemplified in Figure 2.



332
333 **Figure 2.** Intraoperative image of a cranial cruciate ligament ruptured 4 weeks previously; note
334 distal ligament stump with rounded fibrillar edges due to ongoing collagenolysis; surface is partly
335 covered by an inflammatory tissue membrane (reddish patches). The structure visible in front of
336 the ligament is the remnant of the epiligamentous synovial shield which covered the intact cruciate
337 ligament (image by the author).

338
339 Osteophytes formation (Fig. 3) is another feature of severe chronic OA together with
340 joint capsule fibrosis[118,119]. These changes enhance pain and disuse on one hand, but
341 on the other, proliferative remodeling contributes to joint stabilization. In fact, in such
342 advanced stages of OA with surgically untreated CCLR, on clinical examination, the
343 typical drawer sign (cranio-caudal sliding of articulating bones) tends to disappear and
344 becomes very subtle . In end-stage ankylosing OA, although debilitating, the decreased
345 range of motion may result in decreased ambulatory pain. Thus, when seen from a
346 pathophysiologic standpoint, it may even be argued that end-stage OA is the result of a
347 (failed) attempt to “heal” an internally deranged joint through lysis of debris, by osteo-
348 phyte formation, and joint capsule fibrosis, resulting in a functionally impaired but in-
creasingly stable joint.

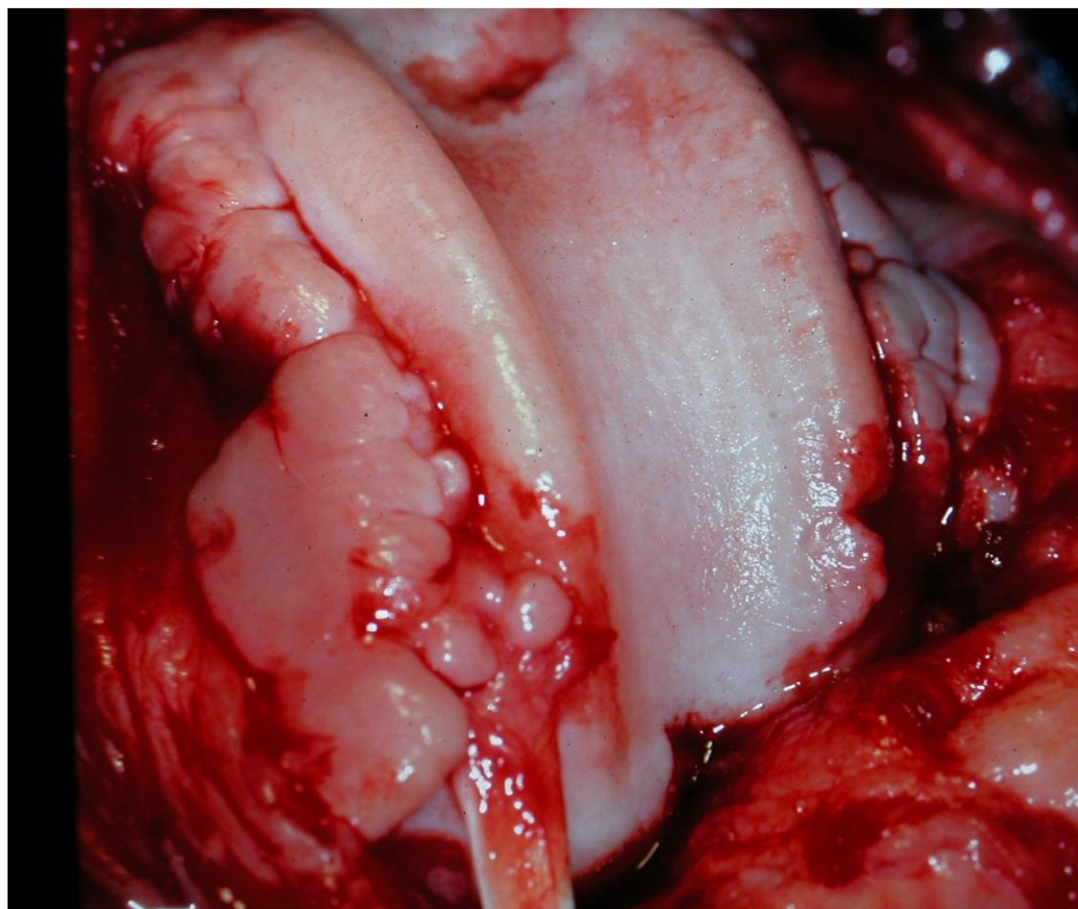


Figure 3. Late-stage OA in a dog 4 months after untreated CCLR; note bilateral intra-capsular osteophytes and cartilage erosion on femoral trochlear ridges; the tendinous structure is the insertion of the extensor digitorum pedis longus muscle (image by the author).

4. Discussion

Although a clear understanding of the etiopathogenesis of CCLD is still lacking, several noteworthy contributions, helpful in unravelling the multifactorial causes, have been made over the last decade. There is now strong evidence that ligament failure is preceded by a clinically relative silent and progressive phase of collagen matrix degeneration which structurally weakens intra-articular structures, and above all, the CCL. Inflammatory changes, characterized by largely mononuclear chronic synovitis, progressively affect the entire joint[63]. Pathogenetic studies on a larger scale have been hampered in the past by the spontaneous nature of the disease, which cannot entirely be replicated by experimental transection of the CCL (Pond-Nuki Model)[191]. Therefore, samples for tissue-based research in client-owned dogs during the early disease stages through surgical biopsy could only occasionally be obtained. Today, however, the wide use of mini-invasive arthroscopy and late generation diagnostic images do provide new information on subtle changes; thus, villous synovitis, partial ligament tears, collagen fibrillation, cartilage, and occasionally meniscal damage became detectable in the earlier phases of the disease, when joints are biomechanically still intact[192]. Through direct endoscopic visualization, it has also become evident that the caudal cruciate ligaments undergo similar degenerative changes, although rarely rupture[107]. These and the finding that the contralateral stifle joints are commonly affected by the same disease process, either simultaneously or time-delayed, are additional support for the general accepted concept of seeing the synovial joint as an organ and consequently CCLR as being an organ disease with systemic features.

376 On the clinical level, progressive ligament weakening (partial ligament tear), to-
377 gether with increasing inflammatory changes, causes joint laxity and pain. Eventually,
378 CCL failure ensues, resulting in sudden joint instability, in intra-articular debris and ex-
379 acerbated inflammatory reactions (secondary OA). Collagenolytic mechanisms pursue
380 and CCL remnants, when not surgically removed, are slowly metabolized by proteolysis
381 and phagocytosis; metabolites enhance inflammatory/degenerative changes which in
382 untreated cases may result in sustained, severe OA[119]. Factors such as heavy body
383 weight and breed disposition negatively affect outcome. However, dogs with less than 15
384 kg body weight, treated non-surgically, have an about 75% chance of return to full joint
385 function, albeit with progressing OA[193][24]. These data have not been updated since on
386 a larger cohort; a re-evaluation seems useful in the light of today's general trend to sur-
387 gically treat CCLD, even in small, leigh-weight dogs[41]. In untreated cases, it is however
388 noteworthy, that chronic inflammatory changes may, in the end, reduce instability
389 through joint capsule fibrosis and osteophytosis. This stabilizing effect, however, is in
390 general not outweighing the negative effects of the degrading inflammatory mechanisms,
391 especially in heavy-weight subjects[109].

392 The key questions of 1) which mechanisms initially trigger ligament collagen de-
393 generation ? and 2) why progression to structural failure occurs ?, remain still incom-
394 pletely answered. Based on the here reviewed findings and in synthesis, the following
395 chain of biomechanical and biomolecular events may underly CCLD:

396 The intact CCL prevents caudo-cranial translation of the tibia; therefore, a steep
397 caudo-distal slope of the tibial plateau, enhanced by a narrow femoral notch, is seen as
398 the main biomechanical stressor for the cranial CL[166]. In addition, musculoskeletal
399 factors such as the integrity of the quadriceps mechanism as agonist of the CCL, play a
400 role in translational forces. Quadriceps amyotonia may thus have a negative effect in
401 CCL-deficient joints. Heavy body weight and/or obesity add to the strain and to laxity, if
402 present. Although the CCL, by definition, is an intra-articular structure, the intact
403 epiligamentous envelope effectively shields the CCL from the synovial joint space.
404 Whether or not mechanically induced, laceration of this well vascularized synovial sheet
405 (epiligament), is one of the first observable intra-articular lesions. Disintegration of or
406 damage to the envelope, results in reduced blood supply, "unmasks" the ligament, its
407 debris, and metabolites, rendering the CCL a true, poorly vascularized "intra-articular
408 structure"[37,156]. Damaged, fibrillating collagen type I matrix gets thereby exposed to
409 immune-competent cells of the synovial joint capsule via direct contact with synovial
410 fluid. Mononuclear, largely plasmacellular synovitis and the appearance of local and
411 circulating collagen type I antibodies strongly suggest an autoimmune reaction[174].
412 Whether immune mediation is an etiological component or the inflammatory sequel of
413 intra-articular exposure of collagen debris, remains unanswered at present. Nevertheless,
414 enhancement of joint inflammation trough a vicious circle of antigen (collagen type I)
415 presentation, macrophage/dendritic cell activation and MMP upregulation, resulting in
416 further collagen degeneration, has been well documented[194].

417 Another contributing factor may be the relatively scarce internal blood supply of the
418 CCL as compared to the caudal CLR. This especially in the mid-section, the very area
419 where histologically the first degenerative changes, are verifiable. This may lead to hy-
420 poxic matrix degradation, which per se is unlikely to be causative: it would be highly
421 improbable that during evolution such imperfectness had withstood Darwinian selec-
422 tion. Yet, the demonstrated absence of healing of ruptured CCL's may well be connected
423 to the relative avascularity[34]. On the other hand, the ligamentous micro-vasculature,
424 containing end-arterial loops, favors immune-complex (IC) deposition. Trapped IC's,
425 linked to anti-collagen antibody aggregation, have been found in ruptured CCL[78].
426 Immune complexes, triggering cytokine-mediated inflammatory pathways, in turn, may
427 upregulate MMP's, causing further collagen decay; thus, a cycle of sustained im-
428 mune-mediated collagenous matrix degeneration may result, enhanced, and perpetuated
429 by intra-articular debris and ligament remnants. Several months after CCLR, when col-

430 lagenous debris has been lysed and absorbed, painful inflammatory reactions diminish
431 or subside in many patients, especially in small dogs which may regain satisfactory limb
432 function several months after untreated CCLR, despite progressing OA [193]. This may
433 also lead to the assumption that after CCLR joint instability is the major factor of sus-
434 tained OA in heavier dogs. Similar conclusions can be drawn from post-operative
435 long-term observations: slow progression of OA cannot be entirely avoided by any dy-
436 namic or static joint stabilizing technique, as none can render a cruciate deficient joint
437 completely stable[195].

438 In searching for mechanisms other than immune-mediated inflammatory pathways
439 up-regulating MMP's, the peptide hormone relaxin has recently been implicated. Relaxin
440 may play a role in early phases of CCLD. By binding to its cognitive cellular receptors,
441 relaxin is a potent activator of matrix collagenases in target tissues. Such receptor binding
442 has been found in fibroblasts (ligamentocytes) of ruptured CCL. Collagen fiber sliding
443 and crimping, joint laxity and partial CCLR thus, may be linked to relaxin-induced lysis
444 of collagen type I cross-links. If confirmed in additional studies, relaxin could be in-
445 volved in the early phases of cruciate ligament weakening and decay. However, such
446 assumption must be taken with caution as relaxin is well known for its connective tissue
447 re-modelling properties[196]; therefore, also relaxin, not unlike anti-collagen antibody
448 formation, might only be an epiphenomenon of the initial collagen matrix degeneration,
449 which nonetheless remains still idiopathic.

450 Besides of scientific insight, the primary goal of pathoetiologic studies is prevention
451 and therapy. Surgery still is the gold standard of therapy with generally excellent results;
452 it has been shown that long-term outcomes are significantly better when dynamic joint
453 stabilization is effectuated in early stages of CCLD, that is, in cases of still incomplete
454 ligament rupture, as compared to complete ligament tear[197]. This clinical observation
455 might well be linked to a relatively small load of intra-articular collagen debris at the time
456 of surgery, and a consequently lower degree of immune-mediated joint inflammation
457 which progression might be reduced by joint stabilization. The general principle of early
458 disease recognition and early treatment is thus an important consideration also in CCLD.
459 Recognizing these early disease stages can be challenging. Despite long-term efforts in
460 human as well as veterinary medicine, the search for early OA markers in general and in
461 CCLD has not yielded clinically applicable results[198]; nevertheless, orthopaedic ex-
462 amination, arthroscopy and newer medical imaging techniques are helpful identifying
463 primary OA stages without yet fully developed joint instability. Responses, if any, to
464 medical treatment target the two main known factors of CCLD: inflammation and
465 MMP's derived collagen decay. Thus, NSAID's and MMP-inhibitors are used with var-
466 ying results, showing clinically better results in early disease stages[146].

467 To render non-surgical treatment more acceptable and to develop preventive
468 measures, it seems paramount to gain insight into the initial pathomechanisms of CCLD;
469 that is, the cellular and molecular mechanisms which likely stand at the very beginning
470 of the chain of events and develop before the majority of the here reviewed
471 pathomechanisms become apparent: immune-mediated inflammation and MMP
472 dysregulation. Future research strategies shall shine light into these still obscure trig-
473 gering mechanisms, pivotal for a better understanding of the causes of CCLD.

474 5. Conclusions

475 According to the reviewed literature, the present state of knowledge on the
476 pathoetiology of CCLD may be summarized as follows: spontaneous structural failure of
477 the CCL is preceded by a clinically silent phase of primary OA, during which progressive
478 weakening of the cruciate ligament occurs. Matrix metalloproteinases progressively de-
479 compose and lyse the CCL, enhanced by tissue hypoxemia and immune-mediated in-
480 flammatory changes. Protracted exposure to collagenous debris, acting as antigen, stim-
481 ulates formation of synovia-bound and circulating anti-collagen autoantibodies as well as
482 local immune complex deposition, which, in return, mediate collagen proteolysis.

483 Weakened sufficiently by matrix decay and partial tears, the cranial CL eventually fails,
484 while the caudal CL, affected to a lesser degree, remains functionally intact. Final struc-
485 tural failure of the cranial CL by non-contact injury is linked to its biomechanics, to joint
486 conformation, to blood supply and joint metabolism, as well as to body weight and
487 muscular envelope. Other risk factors such as genetics (breed), sex, neuter status and
488 obesity are involved as well. Yet, scarce information is available on etiologic mechanisms
489 acting on the local cellular and molecular level and likely initiating collagen decay. One
490 candidate for an early MMP-upregulating mechanism may be relaxin-related collagen
491 fiber degeneration, substantiated by the finding of relaxin/receptor binding on
492 ligamentocytes. Whether this and/or the vicious cycle-like collagen degeneration by
493 immune-mediated processes are only epiphenomena or are disease-initiating
494 pathomechanisms, remains still unanswered.

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