

Review

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Genicular Artery Embolization: A Technical Review of Anatomy, Pathophysiology, Current Experiences and Future Directions

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Genicular Artery Embolization: A Technical Review of Anatomy, Pathophysiology, Current Experiences and Future Directions

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Abstract: Genicular artery embolization (GAE) is an emerging minimally invasive procedure for managing knee osteoarthritis (OA), a condition affecting 365 million individuals globally. Initially developed to treat hemarthrosis, GAE selectively embolizes abnormal genicular vasculature, targeting synovial inflammation and reducing neoangiogenesis. This process alleviates pain and improves joint function, providing an alternative for patients with mild to moderate OA who are not candidates for surgical interventions due to comorbidities or other factors. Current evidence supports the use of GAE for patients with mild-to-moderate OA who experience persistent symptoms despite conservative treatments such as physical therapy, weight management, or intra-articular injections The procedure effectively reduces pain, improves functionality, and provides sustained benefits. This review highlights the anatomical principles, procedural techniques, and patient selection criteria for GAE, as well as the clinical evidence supporting its safety and efficacy. It also explores potential future directions for research, including optimizing patient selection, evaluating long-term outcomes, and integrating GAE into routine OA management pathways.

Keywords: Genicular artery embolization; knee osteoarthritis; total knee arthroplasty

1. Introduction

Degenerative joint disease is a common and disabling condition that most individuals will experience in their lifetime, with osteoarthritis (OA) being its most prevalent form. In 2019, an estimated 528 million people worldwide were living with OA, marking a 113% increase since 1990 [1]. This rise is partly attributed to the obesity epidemic, particularly in the United States, where obesity prevalence increased from 6.8% in 1980 to 22.4% in 2019, the highest rate globally [2]. The growing prevalence of obesity parallels a similar trend in OA worldwide. In the U.S. alone, OA imposes an annual economic burden exceeding \$27 billion, with knee OA expected to contribute significantly as the population continues to age and obesity rates rise [3].

Data indicate that 88% of individuals with OA are aged 45 or older, and more than half of those with knee OA will undergo total knee arthroplasty (TKA) in their lifetime [4,5]. As obesity and OA rates continue to rise, the number of TKA procedures is also expected to rise. However, many patients experience persistent pain and functional limitations if they are not suitable candidates for surgery due to comorbidities, preference to avoid surgery, or cannot afford TKA. Genicular artery embolization (GAE) is emerging as a potential alternative treatment modality. Recently, this technique has gained recognition as a safe and effective option for managing OA [6].

This narrative review aims to provide a comprehensive overview of the procedural technique, anatomical considerations, indications, patient selection criteria, and post-procedural assessment strategies for GAE.

2. History of Genicular Artery Embolization

GAE was first documented to treat spontaneous recurrent hemarthrosis following TKA [7,8]. Its utility in managing mild to moderate OA was first reported by Okuno et al. in 2015 [9]. In this initial pilot study, 11 patients were included, of whom 8 underwent GAE using temporary embolization with imipenem/cilastatin (IPM-CS) particles, and 3 received embolization using 75-µm permanent embolic particles (Embozene; Varian Medical) [9].

Several small pilot studies conducted across Europe and North America subsequently yielded similar patient outcomes, sparking further investigation and interest [10–14]. A prospective study by Okuno et al. in 2017 demonstrated significant improvements in both pain and function post-procedurally, lasting up to two years from the initial treatment. These findings suggest a greater therapeutic longevity compared to intra-articular injections [10]. A few subsequent trials demonstrated similar results [11–13,15,16].

The GENESIS Trial, a prospective, single-center pilot study conducted in the United Kingdom (U.K.) released interim results in 2021 demonstrating the procedure's safety, with only mild transient complications reported, as well as effective clinical responses at one year [17]. Shortly thereafter, results from the first randomized control trial, performed in the United States, were published by Bagla et al. in 2022 [18]. This study compared symptom reduction in participants with mild to moderate OA following GAE versus a sham control procedure, demonstrating clinically significant reductions in pain and disability after GAE [18]. Recently, the highly anticipated long-term follow-up data from the GENESIS Trial became available in 2024, reporting sustained therapeutic effects at 2 years without any additional long-term complications [19]. Furthermore, no additional operational complexities were observed in patients who proceeded to knee arthroplasty after GAE [19].

Currently, several registered clinical trials and prospective studies are assessing the role of GAE in OA, including those investigating novel embolic agents [20–30]. A summary of these studies is provided in Table 1. Notably, the phase 2 single-arm GAE-OA Trial, conducted in the U.S., recently published results demonstrating that GAE provides sustained pain relief at the two-year follow up in patients with moderate to severe knee OA, without significant adverse effects [31]. The GRAVITY Trial is an open-label, randomized control trial designed to compare the clinical outcomes of GAE versus conservative management for moderate to severe knee OA [26]. Additionally, it aims to identify changes in biomarkers and radiological findings in response to the procedure. The trial is expected to conclude in 2027 [26]. The GENESIS II Trial, a single-center, randomized control trial in the U.K., is comparing the clinical outcomes of GAE versus a sham control procedure, and the MOTION Trial, an international multicenter study, aims to evaluate clinical outcomes of GAE versus intra-articular corticosteroid injection in patients with mild to severe knee OA [23,24]. Both of these trials are in their recruitment phase.

Table 1. A Summary of Registered Clinical Trials Investigating GAE for OA [9,10,15,20,21,23–29,31–38].

Timeline	Trial Name (Brief Title)	Princip al Investi gator, Affiliat ion	Status	Sponsor	Locati on	Trial Type	Inclusion Criteria	Enrollmen t (Actual or Anticipate d)
Jun 2012 – Dec 2013	Transcatheter Arterial Embolization as a Treatment for Medial Knee Pain in Patients with	Yuji Okuno, Edoga wa Hospita I	Comple ted	None	Tokyo , Japan	Single-center, single-arm, prospective pilot study.	-Moderate to severe medial knee pain VAS] >50 mm resistant to at least 3 months	14

	Mild to					of conservative	
	Moderate					therapies	
	Osteoarthritis					-KL grade 1-2	
Jun 2012 – Sep 2014	Midterm Clinical Outcomes and MR Imaging Changes after Transcatheter Arterial Embolization as a Treatment for Mild to Moderate Radiographic Knee Osteoarthritis Resistant to Conservative Treatment	Yuji Okuno, Edoga Compl wa ted Hospita 1	^e None	Tokyo , Japan	Prospective, single-center, single-arm pilot study.	80 years -3 months or more of conservative therapies and persistent moderate to severe knee pain (VAS	72
May 2018 – Apr 2020	Geniculate Artery Embolization for Knee Pain Secondary to Osteoarthritis (OA)	Ari Isaacso n MD, Univers ity of Comple North ted Carolin a, Chapel Hill	Medtronic & University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill	NC,	Single-blinded, multicenter, randomized- controlled study of GAE versus placebo sham procedure.	score > 50 mm) -Moderate to severe knee pain (visual analog scale (VAS) > 50 mm) -Pain refractory to at least 3 months of conservative therapies -KL grade 1- 3	21
Feb 2019 – Oct 2021	Genicular Artery Embolization for the Treatment of Knee Osteoarthritis (GAE-OA)	Siddhar th Padia MD, UniversComple ity of ted Califor nia, Los Angele s	Boston e Scientific Corporatio n	a, CA,	Prospective, single-center, single-arm, phase 2 investigational study.	-Age ≥ 40 years and ≤ 80 years -Life expectancy greater than 12 months -Ineligibility for or refusal of surgical management -Moderate- severe knee pain as determined by	40

						visual analog scale > 4 -Osteoarthritis based on x-ray -Local knee tenderness - Resistant/faile d conservative treatment	
Feb 2020 – May 2024	Genicular Artery embolisation in Patients with Osteoarthritis of the Knee (GENESIS)	Mark W. Little MD, Royal Comple Berkshi ted re NHS Founda tion Trust	Merit Medical Systems Inc (USA)	Readi ng, UK	Single-center, single-arm prospective pilot study.	-Patients 45 years or older with mild- moderate knee osteoarthritis defined as Kellgren- Lawrence (KL) grade 1–3 on plain X-ray Knee pain for over 6 months despite conservative management.	38
Sep 2022 - Dec 2023	Genicular Artery Embolization as Pain Treatment of Knee Osteoarthritis (GETKO)	Profess or Lars Lönn, Univers ity Comple Hospita ted l of Copenh agen, Denma rk	Rigshospit alet, Denmark	11,	Single-center, singlearm, prospective pilot study.	-Body Mass Index < 35 kg/m²X-ray verified mild to moderate knee OA (KL grade 1-3), obtained maximum 6 months prior to inclusionModerate to severe knee pain during walking (VAS > 50 mm) resistant to minimum 3 months physiotherapy.	17
Dec 2022 - Dec 2025	Effectiveness and Safety of Embosphere Microspheres for Embolization of the Geniculate Artery for the	•	None.	Miam i, FL, USA	Single-center, single-arm, prospective interventional study to assess effectiveness and safety of embosphere	-Subject is age 40-80 -Subject is able to have an MRI	16

	Treatment of Pain With Known Moderate to Severe Knee Osteoarthritis			microspheres in GAE for OA.	conservative therapy for knee osteoarthritis -Localized tenderness in anterior knee area -KL grade 1-3 -Synovitis present as assessed by WORMS -VAS >50 mm -WOMAC score >30	
Jan 2023 - Jun 2024	Geniculate Artery Embolization for the Treatment of Knee Osteoarthritis	Jason Wong MD, Recruiti University Univers ng of Calgary ity of Calgary	Calga ry, AB, Cana da	Single-center, single-arm, prospective interventional study.	-VAS score of at least 50 mm for knee pain -Pain resistant to at least 3 months of conservative therapy -Age > 40 years -Radiographs demonstrating knee osteoarthritis on same side as pain -Patient not a surgical candidate or declines surgical management	50
Dec 2023 – Aug 2024	First in Human Study of SakuraBead for Genicular Artery Embolization to Treat Pain Secondary to Knee Osteoarthritis	Not Comple Crannmed	kistan	of the safety and	-Clinical diagnosis of knee OA -Moderate to severe knee pain (VAS ≥ 5) -Pain refractory to at	15

Confirmed evidence of knee OA, defined as an angiographic blush pattern in one or more of the target genicular artery(ies).
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angiographic blush' pattern in one or more of the target genicular artery(ies). For 2021 Artery Dec 2021 - Jun 2026 Osteoarthritis of Osteoarthritis of Solution target are provided in the second of the target and provided in the second of the target genicular artery(ies). Bedros Taslaki Active, an MD, New York, NYU Now Single-center, windle and obtained within 6 months of months of months of prospective treatment for at least 3 months -Moderate to severe knee pain VAS ≥ 40 mm Participants aged 45 years or aboveGrade 1-3 knee OA on X- - Greiculate Artery Health Vork and Dr. Participants aged 45 years or aboveGrade 1-3 knee OA on X- - Greiculate Artery Health Vork and Dr. Participants aged 45 years or aboveGrade 1-3 knee OA on X- - Greiculate Artery Health Vork and Dr. Participants aged 45 years or aboveGrade 1-3 knee OA on X- - Greiculate Artery Health Vork Single-center, within 6 months of months of screening visit treatment for at least 3 months -Moderate to severe knee pain VAS ≥ 40 mm - Participants aged 45 years or above Grade 1-3 knee OA on X-
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6 hours-this
will be
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asking how
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						oloop or J	
						sleep and assessing what prevents them from lying flat overnight. -Minimum score of 50 on	
						baseline 0 - 100 VAS.	
Dec 2023 – Dec 2026	Genicular Artery Embolization vs Nerve Ablation Intervention (GENI) for Knee Osteoarthritis	David Clinkar d MD, Alexan dre Menard MD, Recruit Steve ng Mann MD, Queen' s Univers ity	i Queen's University	Kings ton, ON, Cana da	Single-centered, randomised control trial comparing GAE, genicular nerve phenol ablation and sham procedure.	-Age > 40 years -Knee pain due to osteoarthritis for at least 6 months	150
Aug 2023 – Oct 2027	Genicular Artery Embolization Vs Observatior for Symptomatic Knee Osteoarthritis (GRAVITY)	Siddhar th Padia MD, UniversRecruit ity of ng Califor nia, Los Angele s	Varian i Medical Systems	Santa Monic a, CA, USA	randomized	-Age ≥ 40 years and less than 80 yearsIneligibility for or refusal of surgical managementModerate-severe knee pain as determined by VAS > 5 out of 10Osteoarthritis based on X-ray. KL score > 2 based on radiograph completed within 3 months of procedure date Resistant/faile d conservative treatment for at least 3 months.	100

Oct 2023 - Oct 2028	Creation of a Prospective Data Collecting Registry for Genicular Artery Embolization for Arthritis (GAE)	Anmea	Recruiti Universit	go, IL,	Prospective observational patient registry.	-Aged >=18 -Bilateral or unilateral knee pain attributed to knee osteoarthritis (KOA). For bilateral KOA patients, the more severe knee will be permitted inclusion to the registry -Grade 1-3 Osteoarthritis as diagnosed on KL Grading scale -Knee pain >6 months refractory to conservative medical management -Not eligible for surgical knee replacement or patient's personal preference to undergo GAE	100
Sep 2024 – Apr 2025	Sequential Genicular Nerve Ablation Prior to Geniculate Artery Embolization in Knee Pain	PhD, Zagazi g	Recruiti Zagazig ng Universit	ig,	Single-center, randomized control trial evaluating effectiveness of sequential genicular nerve ablation followed by GAE versus GAE alone.	-Adults aged 18 to 80 years. -Diagnosed with chronic knee pain refractory to conservative treatment.	60
Nov 2024 – Apr 2027	SakuraBead Used As Resorbable Embolic for Genicular Artery Embolization (SURE)	Not listed.	Recruiti CrannMe ng	Raleig h, NC, USA d & Tashk ent, Uzbe kistan	Open label, prospective, two-arm, multicenter randomized control trial comparing SakuraBead GAE with	-Clinical diagnosis of knee OA -Moderate to severe knee pain (WOMAC Pain ≥ 10) -Pain refractory to at	89

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	Artery Embolization	Vascula r Solutio ns of North Carolin a	of North Carolina	& Winc hester , TN, USA	observational patient registry.	embolization interventions for the treatment of chronic pain due to osteoarthritis or other diagnoses that cause localized pain.	
Jan 2025 – Nov 2026	Genicular Artery Embolization (GAE) for Osteoarthritic Knee Pain	Andre w C. Picel MD, Recruiti Stanfor ng d Univers ity	N/A	Palo Alto, CA, USA	Single-arm, prospective pilot study.	-Age ≥ 40 years -Moderate to severe knee pain (VAS >40 mm) -Pain refractory to 3 months of conservative treatments -KL radiographic grade 1-3 disease -MRI features of active synovitis -Ineligibility or refusal of surgical managementLocal knee tenderness	30
Jan 2025 – Feb 2027		MD, Centre Not Yet HospitaRecruiti lier ng Univers itaire de Nice		ons	comparing (AA)	-Aged between 40 and 80 years with a TKR for more than one yearTKR pain with a VAS ≥ 40 mm having progressed for at least 3 months despite the initiation of a well- conducted medical treatmentInvestigations within 6	112

months to rule
out
malposition,
loosening and
sepsis
-No revision
surgery
envisaged.
-Echodoppler
hyperemia
over the
painful area of
the knee.

3. Indications and Patient Selection

Since the introduction of GAE for treatment of knee OA, the procedure has been recommended for patients with symptoms refractory to conservative approaches such as exercise, weight loss, physical therapy, and pharmacological management, but who are either ineligible or unwilling to undergo surgical intervention [6,9]. Current guidelines recommend a gradual escalation in the intensity of conservative management strategies according to disease severity, disability and pain, before progressing to minimally invasive procedures such as intra-articular injections for short term pain control [6,39].

Presently, there is limited literature to suggest an association between baseline patient demographic or characteristics and the expected clinical response or duration of therapeutic effects of GAE. Early trials either did not include a subgroup analysis due to highly selected patient populations, lacked sufficient cohort sizes to perform meaningful subgroup analyses, or reported no statistically significant differences between clinical improvements and baseline patient characteristics [9,10,17,19,31,40,41]. However, promising clinical success rates for GAE have been documented in patients with OA disease burdens ranging from mild to severe, as defined both radiologically or clinically [11–13,40,42]. Clinically, studies have shown that patient-reported pain improves significantly more at 12-month follow-up in those with mild-moderate stages of the disease compared to those with severe OA [12,43]. Some studies suggest that patients with greater baseline pain severity and higher body mass index (BMI) tend to experience a greater reduction in symptoms post-procedurally and may be more responsive to the therapeutic benefits of GAE [44]. It has been suggested that patients exhibiting higher levels of pain catastrophizing- a psychosocial phenomenon in which an exaggerated negative appraisal of pain heightens pain perception and distress- at baseline perceived a greater reduction in pain after undergoing the GAE procedure [19].

The specific criteria for optimal candidates for GAE are still evolving. In general, inclusion criteria in clinical trials consist of patients >40 years of age with mild to severe knee osteoarthritis as defined by a Kellgren-Lawrence (KL) score of 1-4 on knee radiograph, persistent pain scored at ≥40 mm on the Visual Analogue Scale (VAS) despite conservative therapy for at least 3-6 months, and either ineligibility for or refusal of surgical intervention [9,10,12,17,19,31,40]. Despite small differences across studies, the overarching principle at this time suggests that patients with mild to severe disease and symptoms refractory to conservative management efforts for at least three months may derive clinical benefit from GAE, potentially delaying or avoiding surgical intervention. As with all clinical decisions, a multidisciplinary approach should be taken when considering candidacy for GAE, prioritizing treatments that best serve the patients autonomy and quality of life.

Suggested contraindications of GAE include severe peripheral arterial disease (PAD) due to risk compromising potentially collateral circulation of the lowers extremity via the genicular arteries, active or suspected knee infection, renal dysfunction due to the risk of contrast-induced renal failure,

a radiographically normal knee joint, and a history of fibromyalgia, autoimmune or inflammatory disorders as these patients may carry an alternative etiology of their knee pain [14].

4. Pre-Treatment Evaluation

Once a patient meets the inclusion criteria and is deemed a candidate for GAE, referral to the interventional radiology service can be placed along with the relevant clinical information, summarized in Table 2. A baseline assessment of both subjective and objective measures of disease burden should be obtained before the procedure.

The Western Ontario and McMaster University (WOMAC) Osteoarthritis Index and the VAS are useful validated tools to quantify pain levels before and after the procedure. The Knee Injury and Osteoarthritis Outcome Score (KOOS), developed from the WOMAC index, has been used in several studies to evaluate clinical response, as it specifically assesses changes in knee pain following intervention [6,10,17]. Assessing quality of life is another important aspect of the pre-treatment evaluation that can also be used for treatment effectiveness evaluation post-procedurally. OA-specific quality of life questionnaires such as The Osteoarthritis Knee and Hip Quality of Life questionnaire (OAKHQOL) [45] and OA quality of life (OA-QoL) [46] questionnaires have been developed and validated. A summary of these scores can be found in Table 3, and the KOOS and WOMAC assessment questionnaires are presented in Table A.1 and Table A.2, respectively. Clinically, the four quadrants of the knee should be palpated, and the level of pain documented to establish a baseline for post-procedural comparison. The four-quadrant knee pain assessment can even be performed before the embolization procedure and the painful areas can be marked with radiopaque beads (BB markers) on the skin for better targeting of the arterial territories contributing to the pain during angiography. A complete standard knee examination should be performed to assess the mobility and functionality of the knee joint and patella [47]. Additionally, patients' use of pain medication should be recorded to monitor changes in usage after the procedure [19,47].

A recent weight-bearing knee radiograph is necessary to establish the baseline severity of the radiographic osteoarthritic changes, commonly assessed using the KL score based on joint space narrowing, sclerosis and osteophyte formation graded from 0 to 4 with 0 being normal and 4 being severe OA [6,17,48]. Additionally, a recent knee MRI is required for several reasons [49]. First, it helps exclude other possible causes of pain that may require alternative treatment approaches. Second, it provides a baseline assessment of synovitis, synovial hypervascularity, and joint effusion using the Whole-Organ Magnetic Resonance Imaging Score (WORMS), which is used to monitor radiological treatment effectiveness post-procedure. WORMS is a comprehensive scoring system for evaluation of knee joint degeneration based on MRI features. In this scoring system, 14 different articular features including cartilage, bone and bone marrow, osteophytes, menisci, ligaments and synovitis are assessed and scored in 15 different anatomical compartments of the knee. The total scores were summarized for 4 joint species (lateral and medial femorotibial joints, the patellofemoral joint and the subspinous (S) region). Each region is assigned a total score with a higher score showing more severe degeneration. The maximum total score for the entire knee joint is 332 [50]. Preoperative CT or MR angiography is not recommended, and anatomical mapping is typically performed during the initial diagnostic angiography at the start of the embolization procedure [6,17,47,49,51].

Relevant demographic data that should be documented include BMI, peripheral arterial disease (PAD) status, and the risk factors for PAD. There is mixed evidence regarding the association between body mass index and treatment response with some studies suggesting an increased risk of knee OA progression and a higher likelihood of treatment failure with higher BMI values [17,52]. This may necessitate alternative discussions or treatment approaches with the patient and orthopedic surgery service, as the effects of GAE may not be as long-lasting in this population. However, a discussion regarding the potential role of GAE in managing these patients should still be initiated [10]. The presence and severity of PAD are important considerations, as the genicular arteries often serve as the dominant collateral vessels in advanced PAD. This may impact the extent of vessel pruning that can be safely targeted during the procedure [17,53].

When obtaining consent for GAE, the discussion should include the reason for treatment, procedural details, risks, and benefits, as is standard for any minimally invasive procedure. Specifically, it is important to address the patient's expectations regarding pain improvement. Symptomatic relief may be perceived within hours to weeks following the procedure. The specific risks of GAE should also be discussed. A more detailed discussion of procedural complications is provided in a subsequent section in this paper. Generally, major complications have been extremely rare, and mild to moderate complications include access site bleeding, hematoma, pseudoaneurysm, as well as the potential for non-target embolization, particularly affecting the overlying cutaneous tissue. This complication can range from mild erythema to skin necrosis, with cutaneous erythema or discoloration being the most commonly documented complication in the current literature, as described later in this manuscript [6,12,13]. Patients should also understand that undergoing GAE does not eliminate the possibility of requiring future surgical intervention, and risk factors such as PAD, obesity, and sedentary lifestyle may increase this likelihood.

Table 2. Pre-treatment Evaluation Tools Prior to Genicular Artery Embolization (GAE) for Knee Osteoarthritis (OA).

Clinical Information	Reasoning				
Pain and	Baseline pain score and quality of life to assess suitability for procedure and allow for				
quality of life	evaluation of clinical outcomes postoperatively.				
Body Mass	Risk assessment and pre-procedural planning.				
Index (BMI)	Risk assessment and pre-procedural planning.				
PAD¹/Risk					
factors for	Risk assessment and pre-procedure planning.				
PAD					
Knee	Baseline level of degeneration and as an initial comparison for radiographic follow up				
Radiograph	after procedure. Also allows for some anatomical considerations in pre-procedure				
Radiograph	planning.				
Knee MRI	Pre-procedure technical planning, allowing for assessment of relevant vascular				
Knee MKI	anatomy, potential embolization targets and the presence of anatomical variations.				

Table 3. Clinical Knee Osteoarthritis Scoring Systems [45,46,48,50,54–57].

Nam e	Type	Use	Scoring
WO MAC	Question naire	 Knee OA specific Measures pain, stiffness, physical function Most commonly used instrument in knee OA 	 Total score: 0-20 for Pain, 0-8 for Stiffness, 0-68 for Physical Function The higher the score, the worse the OA Three domains each scored separately, 24 questions total Scores not aggregated, encouraged to interpret separately

KOO S²	Question naire	 Knee OA specific Similar measurements to WOMAC but has additional domains relating to sport and recreation, knee-related quality of life Developed for younger/more active patients with knee injury More sensitive to change over time than	 Total score: 0-100 for each domain 0 = extreme problems, 100 = no problems Five domains each scored separately, 42 questions in total Sum of the Likert scale scores for each domain, then converted to 0-100 scale. Scores not aggregated, encouraged to interpret separately 				
VAS ³	Continuo us horizonta 1/ vertical 10 cm visual scale	 For measuring pain intensity at a specific moment in time Patient picks the intensity that most closely matches their level of pain 	 Scale commonly between 0 (no pain) - 10 (worst pain imaginable) with anchors (numbers/descriptors/ facial expressions) spread evenly. Numbers/descriptors at intermediate points not encouraged One question test 				
K-L ⁴	Radiogra phic Classifica tion Scheme	 Specifically for standardized grading of knee OA on plain films 	 Grades 0-4, with 0 being no OA and 4 being severe radiographic OA based on joint space narrowing, sclerosis and osteophyte formation 				
WOR MS ⁵	MRI Classifica tion Scheme	 Specifically for grading osteoarthritis on knee MRIs Semi-quantitative, multi-feature assessment "Whole organ", meaning it includes evaluation of articular tissue and its role in OA cartilage, menisci and ligaments, not just ossified structures 	 Scores assess 14 different articular features e.g. cartilage signal, osteophytes meniscus integrity, synovitis etc. Each feature has its own scale, increments, score totals to reflect specific clinically relevant changes. E.g. osteophytes are assessed on an 8 point scale, ACL scored as 0 (intact) or 1 (torn), menisci were divided into parts and each part scored from 0-4 etc 				
OAK HQO L ⁶	Question naire	 Evaluating knee and hip osteoarthritis-specific quality of life 	• 43-item questionnaire assessing 5 dimensions of quality of life including physical activities, mental health, pain, social support, and social functioning.				
OA- QoL ⁷	Question naire	 Evaluating quality of life in patients with osteoarthritis 	22-item unidimensional true/false questionnaire for patient-based quality of life report with good demonstrated psychometric properties				
1 Western	Western Ontario and McMaster universities Arthritis Index (Appendix Table A.2). ² Knee injury and						

¹ Western Ontario and McMaster universities Arthritis Index (Appendix Table A.2). ² Knee injury and Osteoarthritis Outcome Score (Appendix Table A.1). ³ Visual Analog Scale. ⁴ Kellgren-Lawrence Score. ⁵ Whole-Organ Magnetic Resonance Imaging Score. ⁶ Osteoarthritis Knee and Hip Quality of Life 2.2. ⁷ Osteoarthritis Quality of Life.

5. Pathophysiology

To appreciate the therapeutic principles of GAE, it is essential to understand the biochemical mechanisms and inflammatory cascade of OA [6]. Traditionally, the prevailing hypothesis has been that chronic mechanical "wear and tear" is the primary underlying pathophysiology of OA. However, advancements in technology have provided more recent evidence at the epigenetic, molecular and cellular levels, suggesting that chronic, low-grade inflammation plays a significant role in disease progression and symptomatology [42,58]. This refined understanding of OA pathophysiology has contributed to the development of potential treatment options and preventive measures.

At a macroscopic level, stress on the articular surfaces from repetitive activity or bearing excessive body weight leads to chronic inflammation and the degradation of protective joint cartilage. This process inevitably triggers a cascade of inflammatory mediators production, compensatory synovial hypertrophy, angiogenesis, and further osteoarticular destruction [59]. A simplified schematic demonstration of the proposed pathophysiology is presented in Figure 1 [6]. This inflammatory cascade and biochemical mechanism result in synovial neoangiogenesis, accompanied by the release of vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) and Angiopoietin-1 (Ang-1) [59]. These pro-angiogenic factors drive neovascularization and innervation of an otherwise aneural articular surface [59,60]. As inflammatory mediators and biochemical cytokines infiltrate target tissues, they initiate and exacerbate hyperplasia, inflammation, and cartilage destruction, promoting the progression of disease burden [59,60].

At the cellular level, macroscopic inflammatory changes trigger alterations in epigenetic regulation through deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) methylation, histone modifications and microribonucleic acid (miRNA) activity. These modifications promote hypertrophic, proinflammatory, and even self-destructive cellular mediators and behaviors [58]. This vicious cycle of ongoing inflammation and cellular destruction is believed to be responsible for the progressive pain associated with OA. The perception of pain arises through mechanical and biochemical stimulation of nociceptors within the synovium, subchondral bone, menisci, ligaments, tendons, and periarticular fat pads [58]. Multiple proinflammatory chemokines and immune mediators interact with these nociceptors at biochemical level to mediate pain transmission through peripheral nerve fibres via the nerve growth factor (NGF), calcitonin gene-related peptide (CGRP), chemokine C-C motif ligand 2 and receptor 2 (CL2/CCR2), and tumor necrosis factor (TNF)-a signalling pathways [58]. Additionally, the chronic inflammatory environment surrounding the osteoarthritic joint has been shown to sensitize nerves and neural pathways, both peripherally and centrally [58,61,62]. This sensitization can lead to an enhanced perception of noxious stimuli and the perception of pain in response to an otherwise non-painful stimuli, known as hyperalgesia and allodynia, respectively, resulting in debilitating symptoms for affected patients [58,61,62].

GAE aims to disrupt this cascade through selective embolization of abnormal microcirculatory genicular arterial branches. By reducing the vascular supply that delivers proinflammatory mediators, GAE interrupts the destructive cascade at the molecular and cellular levels [42].

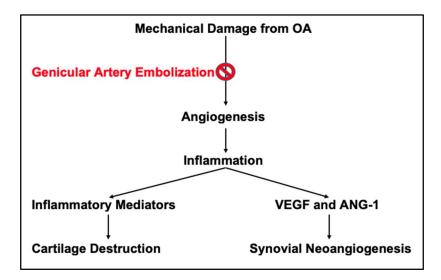


Figure 1. Pathogenic Cascade of OA with Inflammatory Mediators and Synovial Neoangiogensis. GAE targets the areas of hyperemia, impeding the arrival of destructive inflammatory and neurovascular mediators, thereby inhibiting further cartilage destruction and synovial neoangiogensis [6].

6. Anatomical Considerations

6.1. Anatomy of the Genicular Anastomosis

The knee joint receives its vascular supply from the genicular arteries, a complex and often variable arcade of vessels originating from the distal femoral, popliteal and anterior tibial arteries. These genicular arteries form a collateral network commonly known as the genicular anastomosis [63]. In the classic anatomical configuration of the genicular anastomosis, five primary vessels consistently arise from the popliteal artery, providing the majority of the arterial supply. These include the superior lateral genicular artery (SLGA), superior medial genicular artery (SMGA), middle genicular artery (MGA), inferior lateral genicular artery (ILGA) and inferior medial genicular artery (IMGA) [63]. Additionally, arterial contributions from branches of the distal superficial femoral, popliteal and anterior tibial arteries are frequently encountered [63]. A thorough understanding and intraoperative appreciation of the vascular anatomy and potential anatomical variants is essential for procedural efficiency and to minimize complications [6,64]. The classical configuration of the genicular anastomosis is illustrated in Figure 2.

The SLGA originates from the anterolateral aspect of the popliteal artery, cranial to the meniscus, and travels laterally between the lateral femoral epicondyle and the iliotibial tract [64]. Along its course, it gives off several muscular and osseous branches before extending anteriorly around the femur, where it bifurcates into the patellar and deep articular branches, which are major arterial suppliers of the lateral femoral condyle [64,65]. In addition to vascularizing the lateral compartments of the patellofemoral and the knee joints, the SLGA supplies the skin of the lateral knee, the lateral collateral ligament, the lateral head of the gastrocnemius muscle, and the distal regions of the vastus lateralis and iliotibial tract [64,65].

The SMGA originates from the anteromedial aspect of the popliteal artery, cranial to the level of the meniscus. It initially arches superomedially between the medial femoral epicondyle and the tendons of the adductor magnus and vastus medialis muscles before coursing anteriorly and bifurcating into superior and inferior branches [64]. Ultimately, the SMGA supplies the medial compartments of the patellofemoral and the knee joints, as well as the medial collateral ligament and the distal regions of the vastus medialis, semimembranosus and semitendinosus muscles [66]. Although the SMGA is thought to contribute to cutaneous supply, studies suggest it has minimal clinical significance in many individuals [67].

The MGA originates from the anterior surface of the popliteal artery, often immediately caudal to the origin of the SLGA [64,68]. It penetrates the posterior knee joint capsule between the femoral

condyles and serves as the dominant supplier of internal joint structures, including the cruciate ligaments, synovium, menisci and femoral and tibial epiphyses [68].

The ILGA typically originates from the anterolateral aspect of the popliteal artery, near the level of the meniscus. It courses laterally between the lateral tibial plateau and the posterolateral ligamentous complex, supplying the fibular head and surrounding soft tissues [64,67]. As it travels anteriorly around the tibia, the ILGA supplies the lateral compartments of the patellofemoral and the knee joints, as well as the skin of the lateral knee, the infrapatellar fat pad, and the anterior cruciate ligament [64,69].

The IMGA arises from the anteromedial aspect of the popliteal artery near the level of the meniscus and courses inferomedially adjacent to the popliteus muscle [64,70]. It then travels around the medial tibial condyle and beneath the medial head of the gastrocnemius muscle before passing anteriorly beneath the medial collateral ligament (MCL), ascending towards the tibial tuberosity [64]. The IMGA supplies the medial compartment of the patellofemoral and the knee joints, as well as the skin of the medial knee, the infrapatellar fat pad, the popliteus muscle and the anterior cruciate ligament [70].

In addition to the five primary genicular arteries, tributaries of the distal superficial femoral (SFA) and anterior tibial arteries (ATA) can contribute to the genicular anastomosis and should be considered when performing GAE [63,64]. The descending genicular artery (DGA) originates from the medial surface of the distal superficial femoral artery, adjacent to the adductor hiatus [64]. It descends the medial thigh and classically divides into three terminal branches: the saphenous branch, the muscular branch and the osteoarticular branch [64,66,71]. The saphenous branch travels superficially alongside the saphenous nerve, supplying the skin of the distal medial thigh and the superomedial knee, as well as the saphenous nerve, sartorius muscle and regions of the proximal tibia [64,67]. The muscular branch originates perpendicularly from the common DGA origin and supplies in the muscles in the distal medial compartment of the thigh, including the rectus femoris, vastus medialis, vastus intermedius, adductor magnus, sartorius, and gracilis muscles [64,66,67]. The osteoarticular branch descends through the deep distal medial thigh, supplying the distal vastus medialis muscle before coursing anteriorly toward the adductor tubercle. It serves as a dominant vascular supply to the medial femoral condyle, making it a common embolization target in GAE for medial compartment OA [69]. Finally, the anterior tibial recurrent artery (ATRA) originates at an acute angle from the proximal segment of the anterior tibial artery (ATA), just caudal to the knee joint [64,72]. It ascends through the lower leg within the tibialis anterior muscle, providing collateral supply to the lateral knee joint, the proximal tibia and fibula, and the patellar tendon [72].

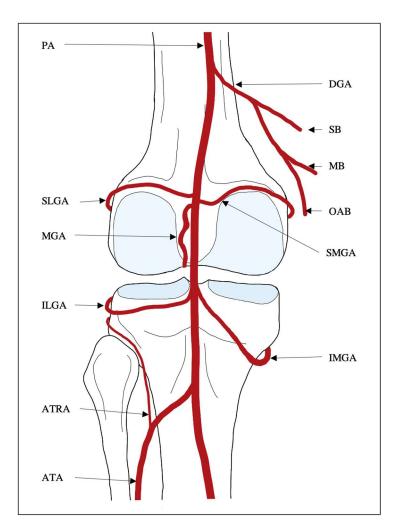


Figure 2. Schematic Demonstration of the Classic Configuration of the Genicular Anastomosis. From the posterior view of the left knee, the collateral vascular supply of the genicular anastomosis including the popliteal artery (PA), descending genicular artery (DGA), saphenous branch of the descending genicular artery (SB), muscular branch of the descending genicular artery (MB), osteoarticular branch of the descending genicular artery (OAB), superior medial genicular artery (SMGA), superior lateral genicular artery (SLGA), middle genicular artery (MGA), inferior medial genicular artery (IMGA), inferior lateral genicular artery (ILGA), anterior tibial recurrent artery (ATRA) and anterior tibial artery (ATA) [64].

6.2. Anatomical Variations

The branching pattern of the genicular anastomosis exhibits highly variable anatomical configurations, which are crucial to recognize intraoperatively to avoid non-target embolization and enhance procedural efficiency [6,64]. The medial compartment of the knee has been shown to bear a higher burden of disease; therefore, the medial vascular supply may be more frequently targeted during GAE, warranting close attention to anatomical variants of the contributing arteries [6,73–76]. Several cadaveric and radiological studies have investigated the anatomical branching patterns of the genicular anastomosis, proposing different classification systems [66,73,77–80]. Among the most robust studies are a 2022 cadaveric study by Sighary et al. and a 2023 study by Callese et al., which utilized intraoperative GAE cone-beam computed tomography scans. These classification systems are outlined in Table 4 and illustrated in Figures 3 and 4 [64,77,78].

In the study by Sighary et al., the popliteal arteries of 204 cadavers were dissected, with 196 (96%) fitting into six specific classifications of genicular artery branching patterns [78]. This classification scheme designates Type 1 as the configuration with independent branches of the SLGA, SMGA, MGA, ILGA, and IMGA- consistent with the traditionally described anatomical pattern- and was found in 28% of specimens [78]. The remaining categories describe variable common origins of

the superior and middle genicular arteries, with independent popliteal origins of the two inferior genicular arteries [78]. Additionally, this study proposed a classification system for the DGA, based on the craniocaudal location of its initial bifurcation, where the saphenous branch divides from the musculocutaneous and osteoarticular branches (Figure 4) [78]. The most common configuration, Type B, features a bifurcation distal to the midpoint between the DGA origin and the superior aspect of the medial epicondyle of the femur, accounting for 72% of the specimens [78].

The study by Callese et al. provided a retrospective intraoperative cone-beam computed tomography analysis of 205 patients undergoing GAE [77]. Four categories of the DGA anatomy were proposed, with 77% of cases exhibiting the standard bifurcation into the saphenous and musculocutaneous/osteoarticular branches [77]. Regarding the superior genicular arteries, four branching patterns were identified, the most common being a shared origin of the SLGA and MGA, observed in 56% of the cases [77]. The classic configuration, in which all superior genicular arteries have independent origins, was encountered in 22% of cases in this study [77]. In addition, two branching patterns of the inferior genicular arteries were described, though 99.5% exhibited independent origins. Notably, the study also identified a superior patellar artery in 85% of the cases, which contributed vascular supply to the joint space in all instances where it was observed [77].

Table 4. Proposed Genicular Anastomosis Anatomical Variant Classification Systems and Frequency of Observation [77.78].

servation	[77,78].				
	Sighary et al Classification System		<u>Calle</u>	se et al Classification Syst	em
Sighary		Freq	Callese		Freq
Classifi	Description	uenc	Classifi	Description	uenc
cation		y	cation		y
	Descending Genic	ular 1	Artery (I	OGA)	
Type A	Bifurcation of the saphenous and osteoarticular/muscular branches		Type A	Two branches of the DGA	77%
Туре В	Bifurcation of the saphenous and osteoarticular/muscular branches occurs below the midpoint between the origin of the DGA and the superior aspect of the medial femoral condyle.	72%	Type B	Single vessel with no branching.	17%
	Separate origins of the saphenous		Type C	Diminutive vessel.	5%
Type C	and osteoarticular/muscular branches.	4%	Type D	Absent vessel.	1%
	Genicula	r Arte	eries		
Type I	Independent branching of the SMGA, SLGA, MGA, IMGA and ILGA.	28%	Type 1	MGA and SLGA share common origin, with independent branching of the remaining arteries (Sighary Type III).	56.1 %
Type II	MGA and SMGA share common origin, with independent branching of the remaining arteries.	22%	Type 2	Independent branching of the SMGA, SLGA, MGA, IMGA and ILGA (Sighary Type I).	21.9

Type III

MGA and SLGA share common origin, with independent branching of the remaining arteries.

SLGA, SMGA and MGA share common origin, with independent Type 3 branching of the inferior genicular arteries (Sighary

15.6 % Type V).

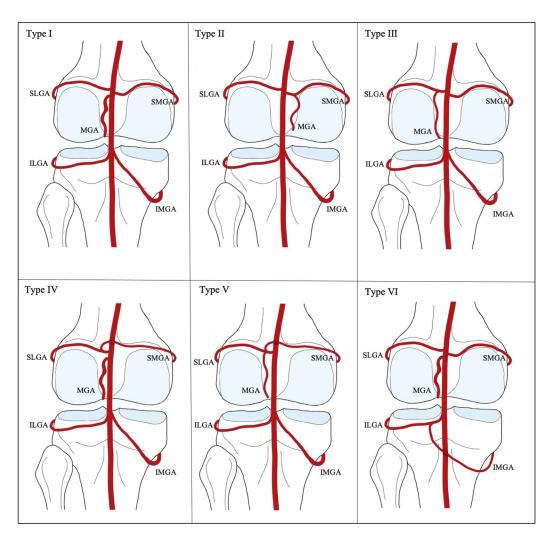


Figure 3. Sighary et al Classifications of Genicular Anastomosis Anatomical Variations. Type I) The classically described configuration, where all five genicular arteries have an individual origin from the popliteal artery (Callese Type 2). Type II) Common origin of the MGA and SMGA (Callese Type 4). Type III) Common origin of the MGA and SMGA (Callese Type 1). Type IV) Common origin of the SLGA and MLGA. Type V) Common origin of the SLGA, SMGA and MGA (Callese Type 3). Type VI) Common origin of the IMGA and ILGA [77,78].

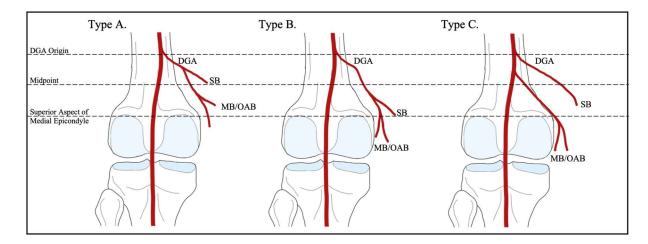


Figure 4. Sighary et al Classifications of Descending Genicular Artery Anatomical Variations. A.) Type A- Initial bifurcation of the saphenous branch (SB) and the muscular/osteoarticular branch (MB/OAB) occurs above the midpoint between the DGA origin and the superior aspect of the medial femoral epicondyle. B.) Type B- Initial bifurcation of the SB and MB/OAB occurs below the level of the midpoint. C.) Type C- Separate origins of the SB and MB/OAB [78].

7. Procedural Technique

GAE is typically an elective, outpatient procedure. All preprocedural steps for routine angiography should be followed, including basic laboratory studies, preprocedural fasting according to conscious sedation guidelines, appropriate management of oral anticoagulation medications according to arterial puncture criteria, and obtaining informed consent before the procedure [81]. Anticoagulation management is particularly pertinent, as most of these medications will need to be temporarily discontinued at variable intervals before the procedure.

Vitamin K antagonists, such as warfarin, are commonly used for oral anticoagulation, but several newer direct oral anticoagulants (DOACs) are now frequently prescribed. These include direct factor Xa inhibitors- betrixaban, apixaban, rivaroxaban, and edoxaban- as well as direct thrombin inhibitors, such as dabigatran and argatroban [82],[83]. While these newer targeted anticoagulants offer advantages, their use and discontinuation before procedures require careful consideration. In emergent cases, reversal agents may be necessary [84]. For low-risk procedures in patients considered to have a low risk of bleeding, anticoagulation does not need to be interrupted [84]. However, for moderate- to high-risk procedures, withholding practices and anticoagulation interruption timing vary by medication [84]. Edoxaban and rivaroxaban should be withheld for at least 24 hours before a moderate- or high-risk procedure, whereas apixaban and dabigatran should be held 24 hours before moderate-risk interventions and 48 hours before high-risk bleeding procedures [85,86]. The society of Interventional radiology has provided additional guidance on anticoagulant management timelines, as summarized in Table 5 [87].

Table 5. Recommendations for Pre-Procedural Management of Anticoagulation and Antiplatelet Medications in Low and High Bleeding Risk Procedures [87–92].

Medication	Low Risk of Bleeding	High Risk of Bleeding
Aspirin	Do not hold	Withhold 3-5 days before procedure. Resume Post-op day (POD) 1.
Aspirin/Dipyridamole(Aggrenox	Do not hold	Withhold 3-5 days before procedure Resume POD1.

Short-acting NSAIDs (half-life 2– 6h):,diclofenac, ketoprofen, indomethacin, ketorolac, ibuprofen	Do not hold	No recommendation.
Intermediate-acting NSAID (half-life 7–15 h): naproxen, sulindac, diflunisal, celecoxib	Do not hold	No recommendation.
Long-acting NSAIDs (half-life > 20 h): meloxicam, nabumetone, piroxicam	Do not hold	No recommendation .
Unfractionated Heparin	Do not hold	Withhold IV heparin for 4–6 h before procedure; check aPTT or anti-Xa level; for BID or TID dosing of SC heparin, procedure may be performed 6h after the last dose. Resume: 6–8 h.
Low Molecular Weight Heparin (LMWH); enoxaparin (Lovenox), dalteparin (Fragmin)	Do not hold	Enoxaparin: withhold 1 dose if prophylactic dose is used; withhold 2 doses or 24 h before procedure if therapeutic dose is used; check anti-Xa level if renal function impaired; Dalteparin, withhold 1 dose before procedure Resume: 12 h.
Fondaparinux (Arixtra)	Do not hold	Withhold 2/3d (CrCl ≥50 mL/min) or 3–5 d (CrCl ≤50 mL/min). Resume: 24h.
Argatroban (Acova)	Do not hold	Withhold 2–4h before the procedure; check aPTT. Resume: 4–6h.
Bivalirudin (Angiomax)	Do not hold	Withhold 2–4h before the procedure; check aPTT. Resume: 4–6h.
Warfarin (Coumadin)	Target INR 3.0; consider bridging for high thrombosis risk cases Restart: same day for bridging patients	Withhold 5d until target INR 1.8; consider bridging for high thrombosis risk cases. If STAT or emergent, use a reversal agent. Resume: POD1, or multidisciplinary, shared decision making recommended if vItamin K, reversal agent, or bridging with LMWH.

Apixaban (Eliquis)	Do not hold	Withhold 4 doses (CrCl ≥ 50 mL/min) or 6 doses (CrCl < 30–50 mL/min). If the procedure is STAT, use a reversal agent (andexanet alfa); consider checking anti-Xa activity or apixaban level if impaired renal function. Resume: 24h.
Betrixaban (Bevyxxa)	Do not hold	Withhold for 3 doses. If the procedure is STAT, use a reversal agent (andexanet alfa); consider checking anti-Xa activity with impaired renal function. Resume: 24h.
Dabigatran (Pradaxa)	Do not hold	Withhold 4 doses (CrCl >50 mL/min) or 6–8 doses (CrCl < 30–50 mL/min); if procedure is STAT, use reversal agent (idarucizumab); consider checking thrombin time or dabigatran level with impaired renal function. Resume: 24h.
Edoxaban (Savaysa)	Do not hold	Withhold for 2 doses; if procedure is STAT or emergent, use reversal agent (andexanet alfa); consider checking anti-Xa activity with impaired renal function Resume: 24h.
Rivaroxaban (Xarelto)	Do not hold	Defer procedure until off medication for 2 doses (CrCl > 50 mL/min), 2 doses (CrCl < 30–50 mL/min), or 3 doses (CrCl < 15–30 mL/min); if procedure is STAT, use reversal agent (andexanet alfa); consider checking anti-Xa activity or rivaroxaban level with impaired renal function. Resume: 24h.
Clopidogrel (Plavix)	Do not hold	Withhold for 5d before the procedure. Resume: 6h after procedure if using 75-mg or 24 h after procedure if using a loading dose (300–600 mg).
Ticagrelor (Brilinta)	Do not hold	Withhold for 5d before the procedure. Resume: POD1.
Prasugrel (Effient)	Do not hold	Withhold for 7d before the procedure. Resume: POD1.

Cangrelor (Kengreal)	Defer procedure until off medication; if procedure is STAT, withhold 1h before procedure; Resume: multidisciplinary discussion with cardiology suggested.	Multidisciplinary, shared decision making recommended.				
Cilostazol (Pletal)	Do not hold	Do not hold				
Short-acting: eptifibatide (Integrilin), tirofiban (Aggrastat)	Hold 4-8h before procedure	Multidisciplinary, shared decision making recommended.				
Antiplatelet agents: glycoprotein IIb/IIIa inhibitors Long-acting abciximab (ReoPro)	Hold 24h before procedure	Multidisciplinary, shared decision making recommended.				

Before entering the procedure room, the performing physician should conduct a physical examination of the affected knee. The area of pain and pathological concern can be marked with a metallic marker for fluoroscopic reference for targeting the contributing vascular tributaries [42]. The IR suite should be properly prepared for lower extremity angiography, ensuring that all anticipated resources are readily available [81]. It is common for patients to receive 2 g cefazolin IV, 30 mg ketorolac IV, and 10 mg dexamethasone IV before or during the procedure [81]. Little et al. describe the use of an ice pack on the skin surface in the pre-procedural setting to induce temporary vasoconstriction at the anticipated embolization site, reducing the risk of non-target cutaneous branch embolization [17]. Notably, in this study, the incidence of non-target cutaneous branch embolization was 11% when using an ice pack, compared to 65% reported in the study by Bagla et al. and 57% in the study by Okuno et al. [10,11,17].

The GAE procedure is commonly performed under minimal or moderate sedation with local anesthesia as per institutional guidelines and patient preferences. Patients should be advised to fast for at least eight hours prior to any procedure requiring sedation [93]. The American Society of Anesthesiologists (ASA) describes sedation in the following categories:

- 1. Minimal Sedation ("anxiolysis"): A drug-induced state in which patients respond normally to verbal commands [94]. While physical coordination and cognitive function may be impaired, airway reflexes, ventilatory function, and cardiovascular function remain unchanged [94]. Anxiolysis is typically achieved with a single oral dose of a sedative or analgesic before the procedure [94].
- 2. Moderate Sedation/Analgesia ("conscious sedation"): It is a drug-induced reduction of consciousness, during which patients respond purposefully to verbal commands, either alone or with light tactile stimulation [94]. The patient maintains their airway and spontaneous ventilation without assistance [94]. Cardiovascular function remains stable, as IV sedatives and/or analgesics are carefully titrated throughout the procedure [94].
- 3. Deep sedation: A drug-induced state of reduced consciousness where patients cannot be easily aroused but still respond purposefully to repeated or painful stimulation [94]. Ventilatory

- function may be impaired, and airway support such as intubation or mechanical ventilation may be required. However, cardiovascular function is typically maintained through IV titration, similar to moderate sedation [94].
- 4. General anesthesia: A drug-induced loss of consciousness in which patients do not respond to painful stimulation and cannot maintain their airway independently. As a result, intubation with positive pressure ventilation is necessary to ensure adequate respiration.

For vascular access, ipsilateral antegrade femoral artery access is recommended as the first-choice puncture site when feasible, depending on body habitus [81]. Alternatively, retrograde contralateral femoral artery access or ipsilateral radial artery access may be considered based on the operator and patient preference, institutional setup and availability of radial-specific access instruments [42]. The most technically challenging option is ipsilateral retrograde pedal access, typically performed via the posterior tibial or dorsalis pedis artery. This approach is generally reserved for cases in which femoral or radial access is not feasible [95].

Once an intravascular catheter is placed, angiography is performed from the distal superficial femoral artery, capturing early and delayed digital subtraction angiography (DSA) images to identify and target the index genicular artery for embolization. The abnormal target arteries exhibit hypertrophy and a "tumor-blush", as shown in Figure 5 [42].

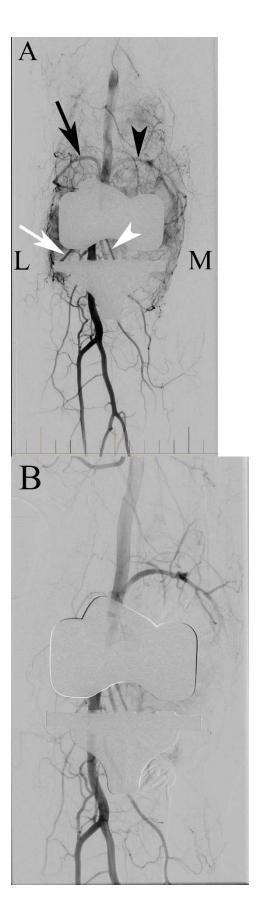


Figure 5. Right knee angiography in a 57 year-old female with hemarthrosis and recurrent painful knee approximately 3 years after total knee arthroplasty. Note significant periarticular hyperemia in the territories of lateral superior (black arrow), lateral inferior (white arrow), medial superior (black arrowhead) and medial inferior (white arrowhead) genicular arteries in the pre-embolization digital subtraction angiography (A). After

selective embolization of the respective branches with $100 - 300 \, \mu m$ and $300 - 500 \, \mu m$ embolic beads to near stasis, there is a significant reduction in the periarticular hyperemia on post-embolization digital subtraction angiography (B). On post-embolization follow-up, there was significant reduction in patient's knee pain, and no recurrence of hemarthrosis.

Previously placed radiopaque pain localizers can help guide the interventionist toward the abnormal genicular circulation and potential embolization targets [6]. Intra-procedural cone-beam computerized tomography (CBCT) of the knee, combined with simultaneous contrast injection via a power injector, can assist in mapping the genicular arteries, identifying variant anatomy, and recognizing branches at risk for non-target embolization [81]. Selective DSA in the target genicular artery is used to identify and avoid branches that may lead to non-target embolization of cutaneous or collateral branches [81]. Embolization is typically performed via a 1.7–2.4 Fr microcatheter using small-sized particles. Imipenem/cilastatin (IPM-CS) mixed with contrast (0.5 g of IPM-CS in 5-10 mL of iodinated contrast agent) was the first embolic agent used for this purpose due to its natural crystalline structure and temporary embolization characteristics. Alternatively, Embozene microspheres (Varian, Palo Alto, California, USA; 75 µm in 2 mL of contrast agent) were used in patients with allergies to IPM-CS [9]. Studies have shown that IPM-CS has lower necrotic effects, even with complete occlusive embolization, compared to the nearly 100% necrotic effects observed with permanent embolics such as Embozene [96]. However, IPM-CS is not approved for GAE by the United States Food and Drug Administration (FDA) [42]. IPM-CS has a particle size of 10–70 µm and is the most commonly used embolic agent for GAE in OA treatment outside the U.S. [97]. In recent years, 75-100 µm permanent embolic particles have demonstrated successful outcomes for GAE in the treatment of OA, with no significant difference in clinical results when compared to IPM-CS [10,12]. These include;

- Embozene microspheres (75–100 μm) (Varian Medical Systems, Palo Alto, California, USA),
- Embospheres (Merit Medical Systems, South Jordan, Utah; 100–300 μm),
- HydroPearl (Terumo, Tokyo, Japan; 200 μm), and
- Polyvinyl alcohol (PVA, 10–70 µm) [6].

Furthermore, patients who underwent embolization with permanent particles reported a greater mean decrease in VAS and WOMAC scores at one month compared to those embolized with IPM-CS [98].

Understanding the embolization endpoint for GAE is crucial, as pruning hypervascularity while maintaining arterial flow differs from the common embolization goal of achieving complete stasis [81]. Technical success is not defined by complete stasis but rather by the resolution of distal hypervascularity while maintaining a patent parent genicular artery and branches on DSA, indicating an adequate embolized volume for GAE [81]. A slow injection of embolic beads under continuous fluoroscopic visualization is crucial to ensure proper endpoint detection [64]. Intermittent test contrast injections with DSA between each 0.2-0.4 mL injection of embolic material are advised to evaluate the target vessel's robustness, monitor embolization speed, and prevent reflux, reducing the risk of non-target embolization [64,81]. Selective power injections immediately after embolization may theoretically displace particles through anastomoses and should be avoided [64].

Once embolization is complete and the catheters are removed, hemostasis can be achieved with direct manual pressure at the access site for at least 15 minutes, with gradual release of pressure over another several minutes. Alternatively, a vascular closure device can provide immediate and more secure closure of the arteriotomy site [6]. On average, the GAE procedure may take approximately 1–2 hours in an outpatient setting, though duration may vary depending on procedural difficulty and operator experience [6]. Complete bed rest in a supine position for 4–6 hours, along with instructions to avoid straining for 24–48 hours, is recommended, particularly when hemostasis has been achieved through manual compression. Most patients can be discharged within 4 hours after the procedure [15]. Discharge instructions vary by institution, but most advise patients to avoid heavy lifting, straining and strenuous exercise for at least 24–48 hours. Laxative agents can be recommended prior

to the procedure to decrease risk of straining, especially in those with constipation. For patients with bilateral OA, treatment of the contralateral knee can be performed if indicated [81]. While specific guidelines regarding the interval between embolization of different knees have not been rigorously studied, theoretically, the contralateral knee can undergo GAE once the initial knee has had sufficient time for pain reduction and access site healing, and any potential complications have resolved.

8. Post-Treatment Follow-Up

There is a wide range of follow-up practices and protocols, but most commonly, patients are seen within one week of the procedure to assess for acute complications. This includes examining the skin overlying the treated knee for discoloration, ulceration, or necrosis, as non-target cutaneous embolization is the most frequently documented adverse effect in the literature [6,17,51]. Although osteonecrosis is a theoretical adverse effect of GAE, it is extremely rare, and permanent necrosis has not been reported in the literature. Possibility of osteonecrosis following GAE has been documented in only one study, where 3 out of 17 patients developed non-specific osteonecrosis-like areas on MRI one month post-GAE; however, all cases resolved within six months [99]. The only other reported case involved one patient (out of 31) who developed aseptic necrosis of the femoral condyles following GAE performed for recurrent hemarthrosis after TKA [8]. While rare, the potential severity of osteonecrosis warrants high clinical suspicion. Post-procedural symptoms of osteonecrosis include localized pain disproportionate to the expected recovery and possible flexion contracture due to secondary muscle spasm [100,101]. Additionally, the access site should be assessed for infection or hematoma, and a brief neurological exam should be performed to rule out paresthesias or progression of neurological deficits [10–13,17].

Long-term follow-up includes periodic reassessment of the patient's pain and functionality scores (WOMAC, VAS, and/or KOOS) or quality of life measures (OAQoL or OAKHQOL questionnaires) to evaluate the clinical response to GAE [10–12,17]. Common follow-up intervals include 1 month, 3–4 months, 6 months, and then every 6–12 months for up to 2–4 years [10,11,44]. Adjunct therapy usage, particularly pain medication, should be monitored, as GAE has been shown to reduce medication dependence, allowing for appropriate adjustments to controlled prescriptions [10–12,17]. Knee radiographs may be obtained to monitor radiographic disease progression if clinically indicated. In cases of treatment failure, repeat GAE may be considered after 12 months from the initial procedure [6,102].

Currently, the literature defines clinical success as at least a 50% reduction in pain, as measured by WOMAC scores, or at least a 10-point increase in Knee injury and Osteoarthritis Outcome Score (KOOS). However, the time endpoint for clinical success varies between studies. For example, Correa et al. uses this criteria to define success at three months post-procedure, and sustained success at twelve months post-procedure [47]. Alternatively, Padia et al. defined clinical success as meeting those same criteria at 12 months post-procedure [15].

9. Complications

The complications experienced by patients after undergoing GAE are typically minor, fleeting, and frequently related to the selected embolic material [6]. The most commonly reported complication is transient cutaneous erythema, which occurs in approximately 12% of cases [11]. The incidence and duration of erythema are higher with permanent embolics (63%, lasting 1–3 months) compared with IPM-CS (2.5%, lasting 3 weeks) [10–13,17]. Further data suggest a higher incidence of overall complications with permanent embolics (Embozene, PVA, and Embospheres) than with temporary embolics (IPM-CS). Skin discoloration has been observed when using particle sizes smaller than 100 μ m, and other studies report a high incidence of transient cutaneous erythema with microspheres <300 μ m, as smaller embolics travel to more distal arterial branches [8,11,51]. In response, some authors now recommend avoiding embolic particles <300 μ m to minimize transient cutaneous complications [8,51].

Less commonly reported complications include access-site hematomas (10%), plantar sensory paresthesia (1.1%), and mild temporary fevers (0.55%), all of which were transient, resolving in up to 2 weeks period [10–13,17]. Plantar paresthesias have been observed with smaller embolic particles (~75 µm diameter) and are believed to result from non-target embolization of the medial plantar nerve [11]. Some proceduralists advocate for the use of intravenous NSAIDs and corticosteroids to alleviate post-embolization syndrome (PES), a constellation of symptoms including pain, fever, nausea, and vomiting [15] seen up to 72 hours after procedure. Although osteonecrosis is considered a serious theoretical complication of GAE, in practice, it has been an extremely rare entity, and there is no evidence of permanent necrosis in studies with MRI scans performed two years after the procedure [8,10].

Concerns have been raised regarding GAE's potential tissue hypoperfusion and its adverse impact on wound healing if knee surgery is required. However, GAE specifically targets minuscule microvessels and aims to prune neoangiogenic vessels that contribute to OA progression, rather than affecting normal circulation. As a result, GAE has not been shown to increase surgical complexity or impair healing following arthroplasty in the long-term results of the GENESIS trial, the only clinical trial that has studied the topic [19].

10. Comparative Effectiveness

As previously discussed, GAE for the symptomatic treatment of knee OA is a relatively novel therapy that has gained attention in international literature over the past decade, demonstrating promising technical and clinical results [6,9–13,17,19,31,103]. Currently, guidelines recommend a multifaceted approach to managing knee OA, beginning with non-pharmacological strategies, such as exercise, weight loss, transcutaneous electrical nerve stimulation, and orthopedic aids, alongside pharmacological treatments, including oral or topical analgesics and intra-articular injections [104]. Surgical referral is typically reserved for patients with symptomatic knee OA who experience a significant impact on quality of life and are refractory to the aforementioned conservative management options [104]. Despite increasing recognition in the clinical community, direct comparisons between GAE and alternative therapies remain limited in the current literature, with relatively variable results. A comprehensive list of completed and active prospective studies and clinical trials is presented in table 1 and reviewed from historical perspective. In this section, a more detailed review of the results of these studies will be provided.

10.1. Conservative Management

Few studies have directly compared the clinical effectiveness of GAE to sham control procedures, in which participants were allowed to continue concurrent conservative therapies post-procedure [18,40,76]. Two of these studies demonstrated either clinically or statistically significant pain reduction in the embolization group during short-term follow-up (between 4 and 12 months post-procedure) [18,76]. A third study conducted a subgroup analysis, comparing sham control procedures to participants who underwent single-vessel, incomplete, and complete embolization [40]. This analysis yielded progressive improvements in pain, functionality, and quality of life, with increasing benefits from single-vessel embolization to complete embolization, suggesting a possible dose-response effect [40].

A recent meta-analysis reported a 27% and 65% reduction in the number of patients using opioids and non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs), respectively, after undergoing GAE [105].

Several ongoing clinical trials aim to provide further comparative data on GAE's effectiveness versus sham procedures. The GENESIS II and LIPIOJOINT2 trials are currently recruiting participants to evaluate the clinical benefits of GAE in OA and its impact on reducing analgesic use post-procedure [22,23]. Each of the research groups involved in these trials have previously published the results of their initial trials. In the GENESIS Trial, statistically significant improvements in all KOOS subcategories, except for function in daily living, were demonstrated at 6-week through

1-year follow up, with nearly half of the participants experiencing improved symptoms sustained through 24-months [17,106]. In the LIPIOJOINT-1 Trial, a 100% technical success rate was achieved with 73% of participants experiencing high improvement in pain, physical function, or both, at 3-month follow up [34]. Furthermore, the GRAVITY Trial is currently recruiting participants to evaluate the clinical, radiological, and biochemical effectiveness of GAE compared to conservative management with physical therapy [26].

10.2. Nerve Blocks and Ablations

In the wake of growing interest in minimally invasive procedures for knee OA treatment, nerve blocks and neurolytic therapies, such as radiofrequency ablation (RFA), have been proposed as additional alternatives to surgical interventions, demonstrating promising clinical outcomes [107–117]. A meta-analysis and literature review conducted by Sajan et al. in 2022 analyzed data from seven studies investigating GAE and 13 studies examining RFA of the genicular nerve, medial retinacular nerve, infrapatellar branch of the saphenous nerve, and intra-articular nerves. The study compared patient-reported pain measurements using VAS at baseline and at various post-procedural intervals [118]. The analysis found that both RFA and GAE result in significant pain reduction post-procedurally [118]. Additionally, RFA demonstrated greater pain reduction at one-year follow-up, while GAE showed a higher reduction in pain during follow-ups within the first year after embolization [118]. Furthermore, GAE has been suggested to be a more cost-effective therapy compared to RFA [119]. Interestingly, a recent case report described the successful use of combined GAE and genicular nerve block as a treatment of chronic pain following total knee arthroplasty (TKA). The patient experienced improved functional status and pain relief over a 10-month follow-up period [120].

Currently, the Genicular Artery Embolization vs Nerve Ablation Intervention (GENI) Trial is underway to evaluate the effectiveness of both GAE and phenol nerve ablation in OA patients, compared to a sham control group [21]. Additionally, another ongoing trial is assessing the utility of genicular nerve ablation prior to GAE, compared to GAE alone, in patients with chronic knee pain [20].

10.3. Intra-articular Injections

The use of intra-articular injections for symptomatic relief of knee OA is a well-established therapy compared to GAE. Direct injection of various agents, such as corticosteroids, hyaluronic acid, and platelet-rich plasma, into the articular space at regular intervals has been shown to provide short-term symptomatic relief before considering surgical intervention [121,122]. A meta-analysis by Sajan et al. included intra-articular injections in their comparative analysis [118]. While intra-articular injections were found to be effective in improving symptoms, they were associated with the lowest reduction in reported pain and lacked the duration of symptomatic relief observed with RFA and GAE [118].

Further literature presents conflicting evidence regarding the long-term therapeutic effects of intra-articular injections, but there is limited data suggesting they provide symptom relief as long-lasting as GAE [31,123–127]. One study demonstrated that 73% of patients who underwent GAE discontinued intra-articular hyaluronic acid injections afterward [105].

Currently, the GAE Using Embosphere Microspheres vs Corticosteroid Injections for Treatment of Symptomatic Knee OA (MOTION) trial is underway, to compare the clinical outcomes and effectiveness of GAE versus intra-articular corticosteroid injections [24].

10.4. Partial and Total Knee Arthroplasty

As previously discussed, current literature suggests that GAE may be an effective alternative for patients who are unsuitable surgical candidates and experience symptoms resistant to conservative management, effectively bridging the gap of invasivity between treatment options [44]. Some studies

support the use of GAE in conjunction with surgical interventions, demonstrating beneficial clinical outcomes, such as reducing synovial hyperemia preoperatively in patients with hemophilia [128].

Additionally, GAE was initially introduced for the treatment of recurrent postoperative hemarthrosis following TKA and has shown clinical benefits compared to traditional invasive treatments, such as open or arthroscopic synovectomy [129–131]. The EPROGE Trial is currently recruiting participants to evaluate the benefits of using GAE as an adjunct therapy to improve pain and functionality after TKA [25]. Some literature also suggests that embolization before synovectomy may be beneficial, which can be extrapolated to the idea of preoperative genicular embolization in knee arthroplasty cases. This approach may serve as a prophylactic measure to prevent hemarthrosis in higher-risk surgical patients and further enhance postoperative pain relief and functional outcomes [51].

11. Future Directions

Several potential future directions exist to further establish and develop the role of GAE in OA treatment. The development of newer embolic agents and improved embolization techniques could lead to better outcomes and potentially expand the eligible patient population, including those who are currently not considered suitable for GAE.

From a clinical perspective, stronger multidisciplinary collaborations between primary care, orthopedics, and interventional radiology could optimize OA management and position GAE as an earlier treatment option for patients with chronic knee OA pain who do not qualify for surgical intervention, regardless of OA severity (KL grades 1–4) [6,10,17]. Additionally, GAE could serve as an initial treatment for high-risk patients, such as those with a high BMI, to slow OA progression and delay the need for surgery [6].

Patients with severe, progressive OA who undergo GAE and later require surgical intervention should continue to be studied. However, preliminary evidence suggests that GAE does not increase the complication rates or the technical difficulty of surgery. Nonetheless, this concept should be evaluated further in longer-term, large-scale studies [17]. Currently, the longest post-procedure follow-up in the literature is two years [6,17,31]. Long-term follow-up studies would be highly beneficial in confirming the safety and reliability of GAE as an OA treatment and in determining the optimal timing and benefits of repeat procedures.

GAE may also be a viable alternative treatment for various other knee conditions and injuries. Initial evidence suggests promising results in the treatment of overuse sports injuries, such as pes anserine tendinopathy and patellar tendinopathy. As a minimally invasive procedure with a shorter recovery time compared to conventional conservative or surgical treatments, GAE is an attractive therapeutic option. Currently, available evidence is limited to case studies in elite athletes, but further research could lay the groundwork to expand the indications to sports-related injuries [132].

New imaging modalities, such as optical coherence tomography (OCT), have been explored and may improve initial patient assessment, patient selection, and response evaluation during follow-up [133–135].

Finally, genomic, transcriptomic, proteomic, and metabolomic insights into OA pathophysiology could further optimize patient selection. A better understanding of the abnormal signaling pathways and genetic/epigenetic regulatory factors underlying cartilage destruction, pain, and disease progression may enable personalized treatment strategies and an improved prediction of individual patient response to GAE [58,136].

12. Conclusions

Genicular artery embolization (GAE) has emerged as a promising minimally invasive treatment for osteoarthritis (OA), offering pain relief and improved function for patients who are not ideal candidates for surgery or as a bridge to delay surgical intervention. As the prevalence of OA and obesity continues to rise, the need for alternative treatment options beyond total knee arthroplasty

(TKA) is becoming increasingly critical. Early research has demonstrated that GAE can reduce pain and improve mobility, with sustained benefits lasting up to two years after embolization.

The evolution of GAE from its initial use in treating postoperative hemarthrosis to its current role in OA management highlights the growing recognition of vascular contributions to OA pathophysiology. By selectively embolizing hypervascular genicular arteries, GAE disrupts the inflammatory cascade that drives pain and joint degeneration, setting it apart from traditional therapies such as intra-articular injections and nerve ablations. Multiple ongoing randomized controlled trials are currently evaluating GAE's safety and efficacy, with more robust outcome measures and higher-quality evidence expected in the near future.

Despite its promising results, several challenges remain. The long-term durability of GAE beyond two years is not yet well established, and further studies are needed to optimize patient selection criteria.

Future advancements in embolic materials, imaging techniques, and molecular profiling may help refine patient selection, further assess GAE's effectiveness, and expand its indications beyond OA to other musculoskeletal conditions, such as sports-related injuries. With ongoing research and multidisciplinary collaboration, GAE has the potential to become a standard therapeutic option in the continuum of OA care, providing relief for patients seeking alternatives to surgery while maintaining or improving their quality of life.

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Abbreviations

The following abbreviations are used in this manuscript:

GAE- Genicular artery embolization

OA-Osteoarthritis

TKA- Total knee arthroplasty

KOOS- Knee injury and osteoarthritis outcome score

WOMAC- Western Ontario and McMaster universities arthritis index

VAS- Visual analog scale

RFA- Radiofrequency ablation

BMI- Body mass index

PAD- Peripheral Arterial Disease

KL- Kellgren-Lawrence scale

WORMS- Whole-organ magnetic resonance imaging score

OAKHQOL- Osteoarthritis knee and hip quality of life

OA-QoL- Osteoarthritis quality of life

VEGF- Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor

Ang-1- Angiopoietin-1

DNA- Deoxyribonucleic acid

miRNA- micro-ribonucleic acid

NGF- Nerve growth factor

CGRP- calcitonin gene-related peptide

CL2/CCR2- chemokine C-C motif ligand 2 and receptor 2

TNFa- Tumour necrosis factor alpha

PA- Popliteal artery

DGA- Descending genicular artery

SB- Saphenous branch

MB- Muscular branch

OAB- Osteoarticular branch

- SMGA- Superior medial genicular artery
- MGA- Middle genicular artery
- SLGA- Superior lateral genicular artery
- IMGA- Inferior medial genicular artery
- ILGA- Inferior lateral genicular artery
- ATRA- Anterior tibial recurrent artery
- ATA- Anterior tibial artery
- OCT- Optical coherence tomography
- CBCT- Cone-beam computerized tomography
- FDA- Food and Drug Administration
- IPM-CS- Imipenem/cilastatin
- PVA- Polyvinyl alcohol
- DSA- Digital subtraction angiography
- POD- Post-operative day
- CrCl- Creatinine clearance
- NSAID- Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugsrfa
- DOAC- direct oral anticoagulant
- ASA- American Society of Anesthesiologists

Appendix A

Table 1. Knee Injury and Osteoarthritis Outcomes Score Questionnaire Knee Injury and Osteoarthritis Outcome Score (KOOS).

Pain				
P1 How often is your knee painful?	□ Never □ M	onthly 🛭 Week	ly □Daily	□ Always
What degree of pain have you e	xperienced the last w	veek when?		
P2 Twisting/pivoting on your knee	□ None □ Mild	□ Moderate	□ Severe	□Extreme
P3 Straightening knee fully	□ None □ Mild	□ Moderate	□ Severe	□ Extreme
P4 Bending knee fully	□ None □ Mild	□ Moderate	□ Severe	□ Extreme
P5 Walking on flat surface	□ None □ Mild	□ Moderate	□ Severe	□ Extreme
P6 Going up or down stairs	□ None □ Mild	□ Moderate	□ Severe	□ Extreme
P7 At night while in bed	□ None □ Mild	□ Moderate	□ Severe	□ Extreme
P8 Sitting or lying	□ None □ Mild	□ Moderate	□ Severe	□ Extreme
P9 Standing upright	□ None □ Mild	□ Moderate	□ Severe	□ Extreme
Symptoms				
Sy1 How severe is your knee stif wakening in the morn		□ □ Ione Mild Mo	derate Seven	ce Extreme

	Sy2 How severe is your knee stiffness after sitting, lying, or resting later in the day?		□ one	M	⊃ ild	□ Modera	□ te Severe	☐ Extreme
	Sy3 Do you have swelling in your knee?	Ne	□ ever	Rai	⊐ rely	☐ Sometin es	n □ Often	□ Always
	Sy4 Do you feel grinding, hear clicking or an other type of noise when your knee moves?	U	□ vver	Rai	⊐ rely	Sometin	n □ Often	l Always
	Sy5 Does your knee catch or hang up when moving?		□ ver	Rai	⊐ rely	☐ Sometin es	n □ Often	l Always
	Sy6 Can you straighten your knee fully?		□ way s	Of	⊐ ten	☐ Sometin es	n 🛭 Rarely	□Never
	Sy7 Can you bend your knee fully?		□ way s	Of	⊐ ten	☐ Sometin es	n 🛭 Rarely	□Never
	Activities of daily living	ruzoak	2					
	What difficulty have you experienced the last		. <u>:</u>	7			_	
	A1 Descending	None	M	ild	$\Box \lambda$	Aoderati	e 🗆 Severe	Extreme
	A2 Ascending stairs	□ None	M	⊃ ild	Ωλ	Aoderat	e 🗆 Severe	Extreme
	A3 Rising from sitting	□ None	М	כ ild	Ωλ	Aoderat	e 🗆 Severe	Extreme
	A4 Standing	□ None	M	⊃ ild	Ωλ	Aoderat	e 🗆 Severe	Extreme
	A5 Bending to floor/picking up an object	□ None	М	⊃ ild	Ωλ	Aoderat	e 🗆 Severe	Extreme
	A6 Walking on flat surface	□ None	M] ild	Ωλ	Aoderat	e 🗆 Severe	Extreme
	A7 Getting in/out of car	□ None	М) ild	Ωλ	Aoderat	e 🗆 Severe	Extreme
	A8 Going shopping	□ None	M) ild	Ωλ	Aoderat	e 🗆 Severe	Extreme
	A9 Putting on socks/stockings	□ None	<i>М</i>) ild	Ωλ	Aoderat	e 🗆 Severe	Extreme
	A10 Rising from bed	□ None	<i>M</i>	כ ild	Ωλ	Aoderat	e 🗆 Severe	Extreme
	A11 Taking off socks/stockings	□ None	M) ild	Ωλ	Aoderat	e 🗆 Severe	Extreme
1	A12 Lying in bed (turning over, maintaining knee position)	□ None	М] ild	□λ	Aoderat	e 🗆 Severe	Extreme
	A13 Getting in/out of bath	□ None	M	כ ild	Ωλ	Aoderat	e 🗆 Severe	Extreme

A14 Sitting	□ None	□ Mild	□ Mod	lerate	□ Seve	re Ext	□ treme
A15 Getting on/off toilet	□ None	□ Mild	□ Mod	lerate	□ Seve	re Ext	□ treme
A16 Heavy domestic duties (shovelling, scrubbing floors, etc)	□ None	□ Mild	□ Mod	lerate	□ Seve	re Ext	□ treme
A17 Light domestic duties (cooking, dustin etc)	g, 🛮 None	□ Mild	□ Mod	lerate	□ Seve	re Ext	□ treme
Sport and recreation function What difficulty have you experienced the	last week	.?					
Sp1 Squatting \square N	Jone □M	ild 🛭	Modera	te L	⊃ Sever	e OE	xtreme
Sp2 Running \square N	Jone □M	ild 🛭	Modera	te L	🗆 Sever	e OE	Extreme
Sp3 Jumping \square N	Jone □M	ild 🛭	Modera	te L	⊃ Sever	e OE	Extreme
Sp4 Turning/twisting on your injured $\square N$	Jone □M	ild 🛭	Modera	te L	⊐ Sever	е ОЕ	Extreme
Sp5 Kneeling \square N	Jone □M	ild 🛭	Modera	te L	🗆 Sever	e OE	atreme
Knee-related quality of life							
Q1 How often are you aware of your knee pro	blems? □ Ì	Never _]	□ Monthly	σW	eekly □	Daily	□ Alway s
Q2 Have you modified your lifestyle to ave potentially damaging activities to your kn		Not t all	□ Mildly	Mode 1	⊐ eratel Se y	□ verely	□ Totall y
Q3 How troubled are you with lack of confide your knee?		Not t all	□ Mildly	Mode	⊃ eratel Se	□ verely	□ Totall y
Q4 In general, how much difficulty do you with your knee?	have 🛭	None	□Mild	Mod	⊃ 'erate S	□ Severe	☐ Extre me

Table 2. The Western Ontario and McMaster Universities Osteoarthritis Index Questionnaire.

The Western Ontario and McMaster Universities Osteoarthritis Index (WOMAC) Name:

Date:

Instructions: Please rate the activities in each category according to the following scale of difficulty:

0 = None, 1 = Slight, 2 = Moderate, 3 = Very, 4 = Extremely

Circle **one number** for each activity

Pain	1. Walking	0 1 2 3 4
	2. Stair Climbing	0 1 2 3 4
_	3. Nocturnal	0 1 2 3 4
_	4. Rest	0 1 2 3 4
_	5. Weight bearing	0 1 2 3 4
Stiffness	1. Morning stiffness	0 1 2 3 _ 4

	2. Stiffness occurring later in the day	0	1	2	3	4
Physical Function	1. Descending stairs	0	1	2	3	4
	2. Ascending stairs	0	1	2	3	4
	3. Rising from sitting	0	1	2	3	4
	4. Standing	0	1	2	3	4
	5. Bending to floor	0	1	2	3	4
	6. Walking on flat surface	0	1	2	3	4
	7. Getting in / out of car	0	1	2	3	4
	8. Going shopping	0	1	2	3	4
	9. Putting on socks	0	1	2	3	4
	10. Lying in bed	0	1	2	3	4
	11. Taking off socks	0	1	2	3	4
	12. Rising from bed	0	1	2	3	4
	13. Getting in/out of bath	0	1	2	3	4
	14. Sitting	0	1	2	3	4
	15. Getting on/off toilet	0	1	2	3	4
	16. Heavy domestic duties	0	1	2	3	4
	17. Light domestic duties	0	1	2	3	4

Total Score: ______ / 96 = _____%

Comments / Interpretation (to be completed by therapist only):

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