



SOLICITATED REVIEW // *Interventional imaging*

Interventional radiology techniques for pain reduction and mobility improvement in patients with knee osteoarthritis



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KEYWORDS

Knee;
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Abstract Osteoarthritis of the knee is the most common cause of chronic knee pain being more prevalent in middle-aged and elderly patients. Symptomatic patients complain of pain and mobility impairment. Therapeutic armamentarium includes physical therapy, oral pharmacologic therapy, intra-articular injections, nerve ablation or modulation, trans-catheter arterial embolization, minimally invasive arthroscopic treatment and partial or total knee arthroplasty. Interventional radiology therapies for knee osteoarthritis include intra-articular injections, neurotomy and neuromodulation techniques as well as transcatheter intra-arterial therapies. These therapies aim to control pain and inflammation, improve mobility and function whilst the novel cell-based therapies have the potential for bone and cartilage regenerative repair facilitating the delay to surgery. The purpose of this review is to illustrate the technical aspects, the indications and the methodology of local therapies for knee osteoarthritis performed by interventional radiologists and provide current evidence.

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Osteoarthritis of the knee is the most common cause of chronic knee pain and represents a major cause of disability and burden on healthcare systems worldwide, being more prevalent in middle-aged and elderly patients [1]. Knee osteoarthritis is characterized by progressive degradation of

articular cartilage and bone remodeling whilst risk factors for knee include increased age, obesity and mechanical stress or trauma to the joint [2]. Although most of patients with knee osteoarthritis present with a discrepancy between clinical and imaging findings, x-rays and magnetic resonance imaging are currently the most commonly applied modalities for diagnosis, prognosis and therapeutic efficacy [3–5]. Depending on the severity of knee osteoarthritis, various treatments can be used, including physical therapy,

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oral pharmacologic therapy, intra-articular injections, nerve ablation or modulation, trans-catheter arterial embolization, minimally invasive arthroscopic treatment and partial or total knee arthroplasty [6–12]. However, no single treatment has proven complete effectiveness.

Local therapies for knee osteoarthritis comprise intra-articular injections, neurotomy and neuromodulation techniques as well as transcatheter intra-arterial therapies. These therapies aim at controlling pain and inflammation, improve mobility and function whilst the novel cell-based therapies have the potential for bone and cartilage regenerative repair facilitating the delay to surgery which is offered when conservative and local minimally invasive treatments no longer control patient's pain.

The purpose of this review is to illustrate the technical aspects, the indications and the methodology of all local therapies for knee osteoarthritis performed by interventional radiologists and provide current evidence.

Intra-articular injections

Intra-articular corticosteroids

Intra-articular corticosteroids are recommended by treatment guidelines and widely used in knee osteoarthritis. However, no consensus exists regarding their safety and efficacy [12–16]. Corticosteroids have anti-inflammatory and immunosuppressive effects as they directly act on nuclear steroid receptors and interrupt the inflammatory-immune cascade [17]. These agents reduce cytokine diapedesis within the capillary endothelium, inhibit inflammatory cell accumulation, adhesion, phagocytosis and immunoglobulin synthesis as well as the release of prostaglandin and leukotriene [18–20].

Corticosteroids used for the treatment of knee osteoarthritis include triamcinolone acetonide, methylprednisolone acetate, betamethasone acetate, betamethasone sodium phosphate, and dexamethasone sodium phosphate [21,22]. The selection of the specific drug varies according to physician's preference. However, when compared to other corticosteroids, triamcinolone acetonide has greater potential, longer duration of action and rare flare reaction [22].

Corticosteroids provide short-term moderate pain relief for up to 3–4 weeks post intra-articular knee injection; extended-release formulations have been designed to provide prolonged analgesia with a similar to saline placebo safety profile [23–25]. The response to this kind of intra-articular injection is suggested to be better in less severe radiographic stages or in the presence of a joint effusion; specifically in the latter case, the response regarding pain or ultrasound synovial effusion at one month after corticosteroid injection is suggested to predict the response at one year [26–28]. Patients should be advised that the analgesic effects of intra-articular corticosteroid injections are time-limited as these injections are not suggested to provide sustained symptom relief for over 2 years of follow-up [29].

Intra-articular corticosteroid injections, especially when repeated, can be related to rare adverse effects comprising joint infection, tendinopathy, local nerve damage, skin

atrophy, osteoporosis, increased cartilage loss and hyperglycemia while acute complications of the technique are rare [30–32]. In current practice, the interval between corticosteroid injections is recommended to be between 2–6 weeks and it is advised not to perform more than 3–4 injections per year [33].

Hyaluronic acid derivatives injection

Hyaluronic acid (HA) is a glycosaminoglycan molecule and a natural major component of synovial fluid and it is also present in hyaline cartilage [13,34,35]. The amount of HA approximates 3–4 ml in each knee and acts as a joint lubricant and shock absorber, improving joint elasticity and viscosity, and also it provides nutrients to the cartilage. It is secreted by type B synoviocytes of the joint capsule [36]. In knee osteoarthritis HA undergoes degradation and its molecular weight and concentration is reduced, correlating with pain and functional impairment and increasing the susceptibility of joint cartilage to degenerate [37–39].

Viscosupplementation with HA derivatives has been widely used to treat pain in knee osteoarthritis and HA is the most commonly used injectable drug aside from corticosteroids [40,41]. The primary mechanism of action is the restoration of the lubrication of the joint but although the residence time of HA inside the joint approximates 2–3 days, the effects are sustained for several weeks after HA injection suggesting the presence of additional mechanisms of action which possibly have disease-modifying effects [42]. HA may have immunosuppressive and anti-inflammatory effects whilst viscosupplementation stimulates chondrocyte production of hyaluronate and prevents chondrocyte degradation [43]. Although there are numerous HA derivatives marketed nowadays differing on the basis of origin (from avian or synthetic), reticulation (linear or reticulated), chain length (low or high molecular weight), sterilization process (heat or ultra-filtration), dosing (single or multiple injections and presence or not of associated adjuvants (mannitol, sorbitol, chondroitin sulfate) the major classification is into low molecular weight linear and high molecular weight reticulated products [44]. Reticulated HA derivatives are 3-dimensional structure of linked HA chains which are administered as a single dose in most of the cases offering slower degradation and longer joint residence [44].

For HA injection, the lateral mid- and supero-lateral patellar approaches are strongly recommended whilst imaging guidance verifies correct intra-articular needle location especially in obese patients or in the case of severe patellofemoral osteoarthritis (Fig. 1). Most common modalities for imaging guidance include ultrasonography or fluoroscopy [11].

Intra-articular injection of HA (especially agents of high molecular weight) is widely used and recommended in the management of patients with knee osteoarthritis with mild to moderate clinically and radiologically confirmed disease who either had not received other therapies or in whom non-pharmacologic or pharmacologic therapies had failed or had a limited response [45–47]. Complications associated with intra-articular HA injection are rare and because of its very good safety profile and favorable benefit/risk ratio it can be used even in elderly or frail patients [11,48].

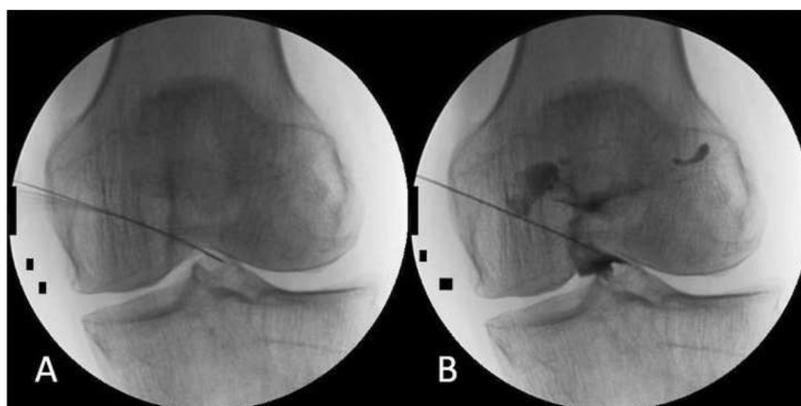


Figure 1. A 57-year-old man with knee osteoarthritis undergoing intra-articular injection under fluoroscopy guidance. A. Fluoroscopy image in antero-posterior projection shows a 22-G needle inserted inside the knee joint using a superior lateral approach. B. After intra-articular administration of iodinated contrast material through the 22-G needle, fluoroscopy image confirms correct needle placement inside the knee joint.



Figure 2. Photographs show the different steps for mesenchymal stem cells (MSC) harvesting. A. Under local anesthesia or mild sedation MSC can be harvested from the subumbilical fat. B. The fat sample undergoes centrifugation and MSC are isolated. C. Isolated MSC are aspirated and further injected inside the knee joint (not shown) (courtesy of Dimitrios Tsoukas, MD, Athens, Greece).

The most commonly reported adverse effects of viscosupplementation include injection site reactions such as local pain, swelling and arthralgia which were transient [49]. Sterile synovitis is a rare, painful but typically self-limited disease that is specific to HA injections; it is recommended not to perform viscosupplementation in patients with a history or radiographic evidence of calcium pyrophosphate dihydrate arthropathy [12,50–52]. The overall rate of adverse effects after repeat injection courses is very low [49,53].

Viscosupplementation with HA has a delayed onset of action providing pain relief 2–3 weeks after injection but the effects can last up to 6 months whilst retreatment can be considered in patients with pain recurrence [54,55].

Intra-articular injections are effective in reducing symptoms in short term clinical trials, however, studies on the long-term effects of HA are limited and with inconclusive results regarding sustained symptom relief and delay in need of total knee arthroplasty [29,41,49,56,57]. Combined injections of corticosteroids and HA can provide an increased reduction in pain in the first 2–4 weeks post injection and at 24–26 and 52 weeks as suggested by a Level II meta-analysis [58]. Factors with negative impact on the outcome of viscosupplementation include obesity, a large synovial fluid effusion, a severe joint space narrowing, major malalignment, a severe and/or isolated patello-femoral involvement and failure of a previous HA injection [11].

Platelet-rich plasma injection

Platelet-rich plasma (PRP) is a blood derived product, prepared by the centrifugation of autologous whole blood, which has a high concentration of platelets that is generally 4–6 times higher than the subject's baseline platelets concentration [59,60]. PRP is high in growth factors which are stored in platelet α -granules and have been shown to stimulate *in vivo* HA formation and decrease cartilage metabolism [61,62]. Due to its regenerative and anti-inflammatory effects PRP has been used for intra-articular treatment of mild to moderate knee osteoarthritis with favorable outcomes [59]. When compared to placebo saline injections PRP injections significantly reduce knee pain and improve physical function; when compared to HA or other intra-articular knee injections PRP provide greater clinical improvement at 1 year post-injection and are more efficacious in terms of pain relief and self-imported function improvement [6,59,63,64]. Adverse effects of PRP injection and collection include injection site pain, infection, joint stiffness, bleeding and non-specific symptoms such as syncope, dizziness, headache, nausea, tachycardia and gastritis [65]. At the moment there are no clear guidelines concerning exclusion of intra-articular corticosteroids when PRP is injected, however, as a general practice intra-articular PRP injection should be performed at least 3 weeks post any potential corticosteroid injection.

Mesenchymal stem cell injection

Injection of mesenchymal stem cells (MSC) is an alternative treatment option for osteoarthritic knee pain; these cells secrete, according to the local microenvironment, growth factors, chemokines, cytokine, anti-inflammatory and immunomodulatory molecules and thus, are considered to offer cartilage regeneration or repair [66]. MSCs can be obtained using minimally invasive techniques from bone marrow or adipose tissue (autologous MSC) (Fig. 2) or from amniotic fluid and membrane (allogeneic MSC); *in vitro* expansion of these cells aims at the selection of a more homogenous MSC population [66–68]. Due to the low immunogenicity allogeneic may be a better alternative than autologous MSCs in old patients or in the case of co-morbidities where these cells can have reduced potential to regenerate [69–72]. The current literature suggests that MSC injections are safe and produce positive clinical outcomes in terms of pain, knee function, quality of life and cartilage volume; these current studies have limited follow-up periods and there is no consensus about the ideal therapeutic dose for MSCs injection in knee osteoarthritis [14,66,73,74]. Adverse events related to MSC treatment are not severe and include knee pain and swelling [14]. Before MSC injection can be used on a wider scale, more research is needed with high-level studies to draw definite conclusions about the efficacy and long-term durability of this treatment [12,14,66,73].

Other injectable treatments

Intraarticular onabotulinum toxin A has been used to reduce osteoarthritic knee pain, however the reported results are

inconsistent and conflicting so further trials are necessary to assess its role, if any, as a therapeutic approach for knee osteoarthritis [12,75,76]. Another experimental therapy is intraarticular injection of ozone gas, which showed reduction of pain and improvement of knee function and quality of life in knee osteoarthritis but lasting for a shorter period of time compared to HA and PRP, with adverse events including only puncture-related reports [77,78]. In knee osteoarthritis treatment, a gene therapy approach involving the intra-articular injection of human chondrocytes expressing TGF- β 1 (TG-C) has also been used showing improvement in knee pain and function and delayed progression of cartilage damage but further studies are needed to elucidate the long-term therapeutic effects of this approach [79–81].

Neurolysis—Neuromodulation

Both techniques aim to palliative management of chronic pain secondary to knee osteoarthritis (even in the presence of an artificial joint); ablation modalities for neurolysis include radiofrequency (continuous mode) or cryotherapy whilst pulsed radiofrequency mode can be used for neuromodulation [8,82]. The targets for neurolysis include the genicular nerve branches, or peri-articularly targeting pericapsular saphenous nerve branch endings [8,12,82]. Genicular nerves arise from branches of the sciatic, femoral and obturator nerves which are derived from the lumbar plexus [83,84]. The typical targets during neurolysis include the superior lateral, the superior medial and inferior medial genicular nerves running at the femoral or tibial epicondyles level respectively (Fig. 3) [82,85,86]. Bony landmarks and imaging guidance are pre-requisites for safe and correct needle placement in extra-articular neurolysis. Prior to the ablation session the physician must perform stimulation tests to the target area and confirm sensory as evidenced by the presence of nerve related pain, in the absence of any motor nerve response [12]. Extra-articular neuromodulation can be performed with pulsed radiofrequency mode in the same target locations [8,86–88]. With both techniques, adverse events are rare and the only worrisome theoretical complication is vascular injury of the geniculate arteries that can result in pseudoaneurysm or arteriovenous fistula formation, hemarthrosis or osteonecrosis [89]. Pulsed radiofrequency ablation (RFA) tends to have much less, if any, effects but the procedure is less painful with a smaller risk for development of deafferentation pain compared to conventional RFA [87,90]. Current evidence suggests that RFA can be a safe and technically successful neuromodulation technique, with pain reduction in knee lasting between 3 and 12 months after the procedure. The use of RFA is suggested in patients with confirmed nerve-related pain but further research is required to better assess relative effectiveness compared to other treatments [8,12,87,88]. In a similar way, percutaneous cryotherapy with the direct application of low temperatures (–20 to –100°C) in nerve endings causes Wallerian degeneration and disrupts nerve conduction with additional reduction in blood flow and anti-inflammatory effects on the target area [91–94]. Percutaneous cryoneurolysis had been used for the treatment of knee osteoarthritis pain with favorable results compared to sham treatment for up to 150 days with no occurrence of serious complications [95].

Table 1 Interventional radiology techniques for pain reduction and mobility improvement in knee osteoarthritis.

Technique	Practical aspect	Level of evidence	Included in guidelines
Intra-articular corticosteroids	Standard intra-articular approach	Conditionally to fully recommended	Yes
Intra-articular hyaluronic acid derivatives	Standard intra-articular approach	Conditionally to fully recommended	Yes
Intra-articular plasma rich proteins	Standard intra-articular approach—vein puncture for blood sampling and centrifugation	No recommendations	No
Intra-articular stem cells	Standard intra-articular approach—abdominal fat puncture for sampling	No recommendations	No
Percutaneous neurolysis	3 RFA needles are placed extra-articularly	No recommendations	No
Percutaneous neuromodulation	Standard intra-articular approach with a single RFA needle	No recommendations	No
Trans-arterial embolization	Standard embolization technique of genocular arteries	No recommendations	No

RFA indicates radiofrequency ablation

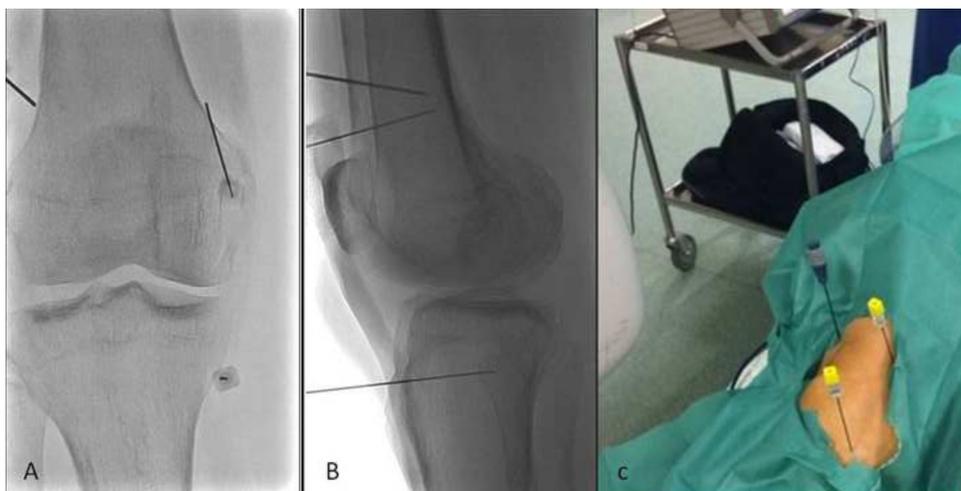


Figure 3. A 54-year-old woman with knee osteoarthritis undergoing fluoroscopy-guided neurolysis of genicular nerves. A. Fluoroscopy image in antero-posterior projection shows the three radiofrequency electrodes that have been placed at the level of the superior lateral, superior medial and inferior medial genicular nerves running at the femoral or tibial epicondyles level respectively. B. Fluoroscopy image in right to left projection (lateral view) shows final position of the three electrodes. The three electrodes are correctly placed at the junction of posterior and middle thirds of the bone. C. Photograph shows the three radiofrequency electrodes that have been placed. Sensory and motor stimulation tests will follow before neurolysis session.

Percutaneous neuromodulation can also be performed through an intra-articular approach with the RFA trocar inserted from the antero-lateral region of the knee joint (Fig. 4). With the pulsed mode neurolysis the long silent phases (480 msec) between the short bursts of

energy application (10–20 msec) maintain tissue temperature below the irreversible tissue damage threshold (the long silent phases (480 msec) between the short bursts of energy application (10–20 msec) maintain tissue temperature below the irreversible tissue damage threshold

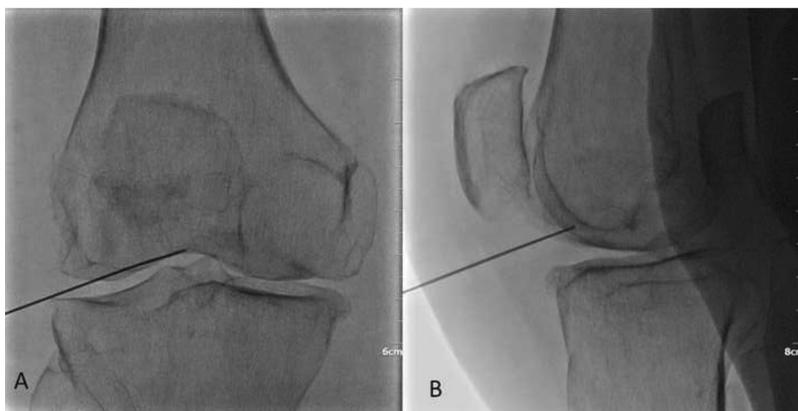


Figure 4. A 82-year-old woman with knee osteoarthritis undergoing fluoroscopy guided intra-articular neuromodulation. A. Fluorocopy image in antero-posterior projection shows radiofrequency electrode inserted from the antero-lateral region of the knee joint. B. Fluorocopy image in right to left projection (lateral view) shows the final position of the radiofrequency trocar inside the knee joint. The two views confirm that the tip of the trocar is correctly placed (midline and in an equidistant level between tibial and femoral bones).

[8]. Intra-articular pulsed RF neurolysis is reported to suppress the excitatory C fiber response and the synaptic transmission resulting in immediate pain relief; additionally, it causes an immune response interrupting production of pro-inflammatory cytokines, such as interleukin-1b and interleukin-6[8].

Trans-catheter arterial embolization

Trans-catheter arterial embolization of geniculate arteries is a novel minimal invasive technique that has been used to alleviate pain in knee osteoarthritis and is based on the observation that inflammation causes abnormal neovascularization and accompanying sensory nerves to grow, thus the decrease of abnormal blood flow in the periarticular soft tissues via embolization is a means for suppression of inflammation and reduction of pain [96,97].

Transcatheter arterial embolization of geniculate arteries has been used in patients with resistant to conservative management mild to moderate radiographic knee osteoarthritis resulting in improvement of pain scores and knee function that were maintained for 4–19 months or as long as 4 years of follow-up without serious adverse effects [96,97]. Technical success of embolization, which was performed with temporary embolic materials, was 100% and cumulative clinical success rate at 6 months was 86.3% and at 3 years was 79.8% [96,97]. Adverse events that were related to embolization were minor, including subcutaneous hemorrhage at the puncture site and transient cutaneous color change on the treated knee that resolved without treatment [97]. Non-target embolization can lead to potential bone infarction or transient numbness [12].

Evaluating osteoarthritis local therapies

To date, only intra-articular injections of hyaluronic acid derivatives or corticosteroids are included in the proposed therapeutic algorithm by a task force of the European Society for Clinical and Economic Aspects of Osteoporosis and Osteoarthritis (ESCEO) (Table 1) [98]. There is a clear need for improving level of evidence for the rest

of the techniques described in this review. The economic burden of osteoarthritis is significant including both direct (hospital admissions, medical examinations, drug therapy) as well as indirect (e.g., losses in productivity resulting from absence from work) costs. All the proposed therapies including total joint replacement aim in pain reduction and mobility improvement targeting in higher life quality. At the moment and although the treatment costs (mostly due to surgical therapies) steadily increase there are no studies allowing ready comparisons between different techniques and therefore it is hard for solid conclusions to be drawn esp concerning cost effectiveness. Another significant disadvantage for cost effectiveness evaluation is the wide variety of products and prices available throughout the globe rendering any comparison extremely difficult.

Conclusion

Osteoarthritis of the knee joint is a common condition that constitutes a significant burden on global healthcare; in the management of osteoarthritic symptoms many different local interventions have been used to relieve pain, improve knee function and prolong the time to arthroplasty. Local therapies comprise intra-articular injections, neurotomy and neuromodulation techniques and transcatheter intra-arterial therapies which, in comparison to knee arthroplasty are less expensive and need a shorter hospital stay; these techniques have been proven safe and efficient in improving knee osteoarthritis symptoms. Local therapies for knee osteoarthritis are governed by inconsistent and controversial evidence; intra-articular injections of corticosteroids and hyaluronic acid derivatives are conditionally to fully recommended whilst there are no recommendations for the rest of the local therapies [97]. At present intra-articular injections of corticosteroids, hyaluronic acid derivatives and PRP as well as genicular nerve neurolysis are included to the routine knee osteoarthritis therapies. Intra-articular stem cells injection, neuromodulation and trans-arterial embolization have just started gaining acceptance whilst further trials are necessary to assess the role of ozone, onabotulinumtoxin A and human chondrocytes. The treatment approach should

be personalized and patient-centered to achieve successful clinical outcomes. Further research is required to investigate the potential of minimal invasive techniques to affect or reverse the progression of the chronic destructive disease process.

Human and animal rights

The authors declare that the work described has been carried out in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki of the World Medical Association revised in 2013 for experiments involving humans.

Informed consent and patient details

The authors declare that this report does not contain any personal information that could lead to the identification of the patient(s).

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Author contributions

All authors attest that they meet the current International Committee of Medical Journal Editors (ICMJE) criteria for authorship.

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Dimitrios Filippiadis, George Charalampopoulos, Argyro Mazioti, Efthymia Alexopoulou, Thomas Vrachliotis, Elias Brountzos, Nikolaos Kelekis, Alexis Kelekis.

Substantial contribution to the study conception and design, data acquisition, analysis, and interpretation.

Drafting or revising the article for intellectual content.

Agreement to be accountable for all aspects of the work related to the accuracy or integrity of any part of the work.

Approval of the final version.

Disclosure of interest

The authors declare that they have no competing interest.

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