

1 **Clinical Practice Guideline:** **Extra-Spinal Joint Manipulation/Mobilization**
 2 **for the Treatment of Upper Extremity**
 3 **Musculoskeletal Conditions**

4
 5 **Date of Implementation:** **May 15, 2014**

6
 7 **Product:** **Specialty**
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9
 10 **GUIDELINES**

11 American Specialty Health - Specialty (ASH) considers upper extremity (UE) joint
 12 manipulation/mobilization medically necessary as part of a multimodal treatment plan for
 13 the treatment of UE Musculoskeletal Conditions if supported by documentation (Refer to
 14 Documentation Requirements to Substantiate Medical Necessity).

15
 16 **Extra-Spinal Manipulation/Mobilization and the Scapulothoracic Articulation**

17 The scapula is not typically treated with grade V manipulation / high-velocity, low
 18 amplitude thrust (HVLA) joint manipulation. This articulation, however, can be treated
 19 with mobilization (Grades I - IV). Therefore, mobilization of the scapula is better described
 20 as manual therapy (CPT Code 97140). Mobilizing the scapula stretches the attaching
 21 muscles and connective tissues. The scapula does not directly attach to the ribs. The scapula
 22 lies on top of the ribs and is connected by muscles and connective tissues.

23
 24 **Documentation Requirements to Substantiate Medical Necessity**

25 “Medically necessary” or “medical necessity” shall mean health care services that a
 26 healthcare practitioner/provider, exercising prudent clinical judgment, would provide to a
 27 patient for the purpose of evaluating, diagnosing, or treating an illness, injury, disease or
 28 its symptoms, and that are (a) in accordance with generally accepted standards of medical
 29 practice; (b) clinically appropriate in terms of type, frequency, extent, site, and duration;
 30 and considered effective for the patient’s illness, injury, or disease; and (c) not primarily
 31 for the convenience of the patient or healthcare provider, and not more costly than an
 32 alternative service or sequence of services at least as likely to produce equivalent
 33 therapeutic or diagnostic results as to the diagnosis or treatment of that patient’s illness,
 34 injury, or disease.

35
 36 The patient’s medical records should document the practitioner’s clinical rationale to
 37 support UE joint manipulation/mobilization. Documentation should include the following
 38 in order to substantiate medical necessity:

- 39 • Absence of contraindications to UE joint manipulation/mobilization in the area of
 40 treatment, including but not limited to:
 - 41 1) Malignancy or infection
 - 42 2) Metabolic bone disease

- 1 3) Fusion or ankylosis
- 2 4) Acute fracture or ligament rupture
- 3 5) Joint hypermobility/instability
- 4 • A subjective record of a UE complaint that correlates with physical exam findings
- 5 to support UE joint manipulation/mobilization.
- 6 • Upon physical examination and as a best practice a hypomobile joint (e.g.,
- 7 restricted joint play of right glenohumeral joint) should be appropriately
- 8 documented. At a minimum, abnormal joint mechanics or a range of motion
- 9 abnormality **MUST** be appropriately documented and correlated with the subjective
- 10 findings of a UE complaint and other pertinent exam findings in order to support
- 11 UE joint manipulation/mobilization.
- 12 • A valid musculoskeletal diagnosis for a UE complaint for which UE joint
- 13 manipulation/mobilization has been shown to be both safe and efficacious.
- 14 • Assessment of clinically significant change in patient condition, for continued care.

CPT Codes and Descriptions

CPT® Code	CPT® Code Description
98943	Chiropractic manipulative treatment (CMT); extraspinal, 1 or more regions *, **
97140	Manual therapy techniques (e.g., mobilization/ manipulation, manual lymphatic drainage, manual traction), 1 or more regions, each 15 minutes

*In accordance with the current version of the CPT code manual, the five extraspinal regions are: 1) the head [includes the temporomandibular joint, excluding the atlanto-occipital] region; 2) the upper extremities; 3) the lower extremities; 4) the rib cage [excluding the costotransverse and costovertebral joints]; and 5) the abdomen.

**ASH considers Chiropractic Manipulation Treatment; extraspinal, 1 or more regions to be associated with HVLA thrust joint manipulation (or Grade V Mobilization) and Not joint mobilization (Grades I - IV).

DESCRIPTION/BACKGROUND

Much of the research on manipulation and the upper extremities is focused on the shoulder (as opposed to the elbow or wrist) and relates to rotator cuff injuries or disorders, shoulder complaints/dysfunction/disorder, and frozen shoulder (McHardy et al., 2008). Brantingham et al. (2011) included soft tissue disorders, and neurogenic shoulder pain. They noted that the definition of shoulder girdle was not standardized, and some studies would include the thoracic and cervical spine as well as the upper rib.

1 EVIDENCE REVIEW

2 Shoulder Rotator Cuff Disease/Disorder

3 Atkinson et al. (2008) looked at 60 volunteers (average age of 42 years) with a diagnosis
4 of rotator cuff tendinopathy and randomized them into two groups (30 per group). Their
5 outcome measures included the numerical pain rating scale (NRS-101), algometry, and
6 goniometry. They compared an HVLA adjustment to a placebo (sham laser). The
7 adjustment group had statistically significant decreases in the NRS and significantly
8 increased global range of motion (ROM) in flexion, extension, abduction, adduction,
9 external rotation, and horizontal abduction (all $p < 0.05$). There were no serious adverse
10 events. The shoulder manipulation appeared to provide short-term relief of rotator cuff
11 tendinopathy vs. placebo ($p = 0.05$). The sample size was not large enough to have full
12 power.

13
14 Bennell et al. (2010) studied 120 patients (average age of 60 years) with rotator cuff disease
15 with a history longer than three (3) months. The active treatment consisted of manual
16 therapy and a home exercise program. The manual therapy consisted of soft tissue massage,
17 passive mobilization of the glenohumeral joint, scapular retraining and postural taping,
18 spinal mobilization and home exercises. The glenohumeral mobilization was a
19 combination of anteroposterior and inferior joint glides in a supine position with the arm
20 abducted at 45 and 90 degrees. This was performed for four (4) repetitions at 30 seconds
21 in each position. The placebo treatment consisted of inactive ultrasound therapy. Patients
22 received 10 treatments over a 10-week period. The active group continued their exercise
23 over the next 12 weeks. The control group received no treatment. Outcomes were pain and
24 function measured by the shoulder pain and disability index, and participants' perceived
25 global rating of overall change. At the end of 11 weeks, the active treatment generally
26 produced similar improvements on shoulder pain and function, compared with a realistic
27 placebo treatment that controlled for therapists' contact time. Significant differences
28 favoring the active group for objective and subjective measures of muscle strength were
29 seen at follow-up. Overall, significant differences in improvement were not seen in the
30 active group until the 22-week follow-up.

31
32 In systematic reviews by Bronfort et al. (2010) and Brantingham et al. (2011), there was
33 some support for manipulation for rotator cuff injury/disease. Bronfort et al. felt that the
34 evidence was inconclusive, but favorable. Brantingham et al. (2011) concluded that there
35 was fair evidence for using manipulation/mobilization for rotator cuff problems. Clar et al.
36 (2014) concluded that mobilization and manipulation combined with exercise for rotator
37 cuff disorders had moderate positive evidence to support effectiveness.

38 Shoulder Impingement Syndrome

39 Bang and Deyle (2000) looked at 30 men and 22 women (average age 43 years old)
40 diagnosed with shoulder impingement syndrome. The exercise group performed
41 supervised flexibility and strengthening exercises. The manual therapy group performed
42

1 the same program and received manual physical therapy treatment. Mobilizations of grade
2 I-V were used. There was also mobilization of the thoracic and cervical spine, and the
3 upper rib. Treatment was six (6) sessions over a three (3) week period. Strength was
4 measured isometrically. Pain was a composite score of visual analog scale measures during
5 resisted break tests, active abduction, and functional activities. Function was measured
6 with a functional assessment questionnaire. The visual analog scale used to measure pain
7 with functional activities and the functional assessment questionnaire were also measured
8 two (2) months after the initiation of treatment. Both groups experienced significant
9 decreases in pain and increases in function, but there was significantly more improvement
10 in the manual therapy group compared to the exercise group. Strength in the manual
11 therapy group improved significantly while strength in the exercise group did not. Strength
12 improvement initially may primarily be due to functional restoration.

13
14 Mundy et al. (2007) examined 30 patients (average age 23 years old) with shoulder
15 impingement syndrome. They were divided into a treatment group that received shoulder
16 adjustments and a control group that received sham ultrasound treatments. Manipulations
17 were HVLA and directed at the GH joint, AC joint, and the upper ribs/scapula. Subjects
18 were treated eight (8) times over three (3) weeks and came back for a one-month follow-
19 up. Outcome measures were Algometry (ALG), goniometric joint range of motion (GON),
20 Visual Analogue Scale (VAS), and the Short-Form McGill Pain Questionnaire (SFMPQ).
21 Data were collected at the 1st, 8th, and follow-up visits. Significant treatment effect was
22 seen in the manipulation group at treatment eight (8) and the one-month follow-up. The
23 sample size was too small to be definitive.

24
25 Surenkok and Aytar (2009) looked at the effect of scapular mobilization in shoulder
26 dysfunction but included shoulder impingement syndrome, rotator cuff injury, and frozen
27 shoulder patients. There were 30 subjects with an average age of 54.3 years. The three
28 groups received either scapula mobilization, a sham treatment, or no treatment (control
29 group). Scapula mobilization consisted of supero-inferior gliding, rotations, and distraction
30 to the scapula. Sets of 10 mobilizations with 30 seconds in between were performed.
31 Outcomes included pain severity, upward rotation of the scapula (measured by digital
32 inclinometer), and a Constant Shoulder Score (CSS). There were significant improvements
33 for shoulder ROM, scapular upward rotation, and CSS between pretreatment and post-
34 treatment compared with the sham and control groups. There did not seem to be any
35 difference in patients with different shoulder diagnoses. Guimarães et al. (2016) compared
36 the immediate effects of mobilization with movement (MWM) with sham technique on
37 range of motion (ROM), muscle strength, and function in patients with shoulder
38 impingement syndrome. Group 1 received the MWM technique in the first 4 sessions and
39 the sham technique in the last 4 sessions and group 2 was treated with the opposite order
40 of treatment conditions described for group 1. Shoulder ROM, isometric peak force
41 assessed with a handheld dynamometer, and function as determined through the
42 Disabilities of the Arm, Shoulder and Hand and Shoulder Pain and Disability Index

1 (SPADI) questionnaires were collected at preintervention, interchange, and
2 postintervention moments. Authors concluded that the MWM technique was no more
3 effective than a sham intervention in improving shoulder ROM during external rotation
4 and abduction, pain, and function in patients with shoulder impingement syndrome.

5
6 Riley et al. (2021) sought: (1) to determine if there was a difference in outcomes between
7 immediate responders to glenohumeral mobilizations at the initial evaluation, 2-week, 4-
8 week, and 6-month follow-up as compared to those that do not respond in participants with
9 subacromial pain syndrome; (2) to see if there were statistically significant differences in
10 outcomes within these groups between these time frames of interest, and (3) to see if
11 symptom response at the initial evaluation was predictive of a favorable recovery. Data
12 were collected for the subjective and objective variables of interest at the initial evaluation,
13 2-week, 4-week, and 6-month follow-up. Results demonstrated that there were no
14 statistically significant between-group differences for the variables of interest except for
15 the Global Rating of Change. The shoulder abduction AROM between-group difference
16 exceeded the minimal detectable change at 4 weeks. The pair-wise comparison showed
17 statistically significant differences for the outcomes of interest at each time point except
18 for the GROC between 4 weeks and 6 months. There was a statistically significant
19 correlation between responders at the initial evaluation and shoulder abduction AROM at
20 the 4-week follow-up. Authors concluded that individuals with subacromial pain syndrome
21 may benefit from shoulder mobilization independent of their within-session response to
22 shoulder mobilization at the initial evaluation. Eliason et al. (2021) evaluated the clinical
23 outcome of guided exercises with or without joint mobilization, compared with controls
24 who did not receive any treatment. A total of 120 patients, with clinically diagnosed
25 subacromial pain syndrome, were randomized into guided exercise groups with and
26 without additional joint mobilization, and a control group that did not receive any
27 treatment. Data were analysed at baseline, 6 weeks, 12 weeks and 6 months. Shoulder
28 function improved in all groups. At 12 weeks and 6 months the exercise groups improved
29 significantly compared with the control group. Add-on joint mobilization resulted in
30 decreased pain in active range of motion at 6 and 12 weeks compared with guided exercise
31 or no treatment. Range of motion increased over time in all 3 groups. Authors concluded
32 that in patients with subacromial pain syndrome guided exercises improved shoulder
33 function compared with no treatment. Add-on joint mobilization decreased pain in the
34 short-term compared with exercise alone or no treatment.

35
36 Rosa et al. (2021) assessed the effects of two interventions on shoulder kinematics,
37 Shoulder Pain and Disability Index (SPADI) scores, ROM, strength, and pressure pain
38 threshold (PPT) in individuals with posterior capsule tightness (PCT) and shoulder
39 impingement symptoms. In this prospectively registered randomized controlled trial, 59
40 individuals were randomized to either an Experimental Intervention Group (EIG, $n=31$) or
41 a Control Intervention Group (CIG, $n=28$). The EIG received three targeted techniques on
42 the involved shoulder: anterior-posterior directed glenohumeral mobilization, active

1 resistance exercise for the shoulder external rotators, and posterior capsule stretching. The
2 control group received sham ultrasound, active scapular retraction and upper trapezius
3 stretching. Both groups received this physical therapist supervised intervention three times
4 per week (approximately 20min each session) for 4 weeks. Authors concluded that the
5 experimental intervention was more effective at improving PCT. No benefit of the specific
6 approach over the non-specific intervention was noted for the remaining variables and both
7 groups improved with no significant difference between the two interventions.

8 9 **Shoulder Dysfunction and/or Pain (SCDP)**

10 Bergman et al. (2004) looked at 150 patients with SCDP. One group received the usual
11 medical care, and the other group received the usual medical care plus additional
12 manipulative therapy. The manipulative group received up to six (6) treatments over a 12-
13 week period. Manipulation was performed on the shoulder girdle but there was no
14 manipulation to the glenohumeral joint. The shoulder girdle included the cervicothoracic
15 spine and the adjacent ribs. Both HVLA manipulation and mobilization techniques were
16 used. Outcomes included pain scales, shoulder disability, and general health. There was no
17 significant difference between groups during treatment (6 weeks). After treatment (12
18 weeks), 43% of the intervention group and 21% of the control group reported full recovery.
19 At 52-week follow-up, the same difference in recovery rate was seen. Improved outcomes
20 favored the additional manipulative therapy, but the assessment of end points was
21 subjective. One of the outcomes was the question “Are you cured?”

22
23 Chen et al. (2009) studied 90 people who had shoulder pain and stiffness for more than one
24 month. All patients received advice and exercise. The experimental group also received
25 passive mobilization of the shoulder joint. The mobilizations were directed at either the
26 glenohumeral joint, acromioclavicular joint and/or the sternoclavicular joint. Only low
27 velocity mobilizations were used either as a passive oscillatory movement or a sustained
28 stretch. Outcome measures included the Shoulder Pain and Disability Index (SPADI) and
29 ROM. Both groups improved but there was no statistical difference between groups.

30
31 Teys et al. (2008) investigated the effects of mobilization with movement (MWM) on
32 ROM and pain pressure threshold (PPT). Eleven males and thirteen females (average age
33 46.1 years old) with an inability to elevate their arm greater than 100 degrees in the scapula
34 plane, and pain greater than one month were included. The pain needed to be located over
35 the anterior aspect of the shoulder. Outcome measures were ROM and algometry. The three
36 groups were the experimental group, sham group, and control group. MWM was a posterior
37 gliding force (Mulligan technique) applied to the humeral head during elevation in the
38 scapula plane. Three sets of ten repetitions with a rest interval of 30 seconds between sets
39 were performed. There was a significant improvement in the experimental group compared
40 to the sham and control groups.

1 Knebl et al. (2002) examined 29 elderly patients (ages 65-85 years) with multiple types of
2 shoulder dysfunction. One group received the manipulative therapy and the other group
3 received a placebo. The manipulative therapy was the Spencer technique, which is a
4 combination of extension and circumduction movements. Treatment was once per week
5 for five (5) weeks. Outcome measures were ROM, a pain scale, and a functional assessment
6 scale. Unlike most studies that reported no adverse effects, Knebl reported temporary
7 soreness and stiffness that did resolve.

8
9 Brudvig et al. (2011) summarized the published research evidence examining if the
10 combination of therapeutic exercise and joint mobilization is more beneficial than
11 therapeutic exercise alone in patients with shoulder dysfunction. Seven studies that met the
12 inclusion criteria were identified, with a total of 290 participants. Authors concluded that
13 the current evidence is inconclusive with respect to the beneficial effects of the
14 combination of therapeutic exercise and joint mobilization versus therapeutic exercise
15 alone for reducing pain, increasing ROM and function, and limiting disability in patients
16 with shoulder dysfunction. Satpute et al. (2015) investigated the effects of hand-behind-
17 back (HBB) Mulligan mobilization with movement (MWM) techniques on acute shoulder
18 pain, impairment, and disability. This double-blind, randomized, controlled trial recruited
19 44 patients with acute shoulder pain and movement impairment allocated subjects to
20 receive either MWM and exercise/hot pack ($n = 22$) or exercise/hot pack alone ($n = 22$).
21 The average duration of symptoms was 4.1 and 4.7 weeks in the exercise and MWM
22 groups, respectively. Paired t tests revealed that both groups demonstrated statistically
23 significant improvements ($P < .001$) with large effect sizes for all variables. However, for
24 all variables, the MWM-with-exercise group showed significantly greater improvements
25 than the exercise group. Authors concluded that the outcomes of patients with acute
26 shoulder pain and disability receiving shoulder HBB MWM with exercise improved greater
27 than those receiving exercise/hot packs alone. In a systematic review by Clar et al. (2014),
28 moderate favorable evidence was noted for mobilization and manipulation and
29 mobilization with movement for shoulder girdle pain and dysfunction.

30 31 **Adhesive Capsulitis**

32 Nicholson (1985) compared two groups of 10 patients (average age 53 years old) with
33 adhesive capsulitis. One group received standard clinic care and home exercises. The other
34 group received the same treatment plus manual therapy. The manual therapy consisted of
35 grade I-IV mobilizations applied to the glenohumeral joint. Mobilizations were received
36 two to three (2-3) times per week for four (4) weeks. Outcomes were pain questionnaires
37 and ROM. All ranges of movement in the experimental group increased significantly from
38 baseline measures except for internal rotation. Passive abduction was significantly
39 increased compared to the control group. Pain scores were lower in the mobilization group
40 but the difference was not significant.

1 Vermeulen et al. (2006) compared high-grade mobilization technique (HGMT) and low-
 2 grade mobilization techniques (LGMT) in 100 patients (average age 51.7 years old), who
 3 had adhesive capsulitis (median duration of eight [8] months). The HGMT were applied
 4 according to grades III and IV mobilizations. LGMT were grades I and II techniques. All
 5 mobilizations were directed at the glenohumeral joint only. Treatments were received 24
 6 times in a 12-week period. Outcome measures were ROM, two (2) shoulder questionnaires,
 7 pain visual analog scale, and the SF-36. Both groups improved significantly in all
 8 measures. The HGMT were significantly better for passive ABD and Ext. Rotation, active
 9 Ext. Rotation, and both shoulder questionnaires.

10
 11 Buchbinder et al. (2007) looked at 144 patients (average age 55 years old) with adhesive
 12 capsulitis to determine if manual therapy and exercise had different outcomes when
 13 compared to a placebo (sham ultrasound). Shoulder symptoms had to be of duration greater
 14 than three (3) months. Manual therapy included passive stretch, cervical and thoracic
 15 mobilization, glenohumeral joint glides, glenohumeral joint mobilization, and exercise.
 16 Treatments were performed two times (2x) per week for two (2) weeks, and then once (1x)
 17 per week for four (4) weeks. All treatments followed arthrographic joint distension.
 18 Outcome measures included the Shoulder Pain and Disability Index (SPADI), overall pain,
 19 active shoulder ROM, and the SF-36. Outcomes were assessed at baseline, six (6), 12, and
 20 26 weeks. There was no additional benefit in pain, function, or quality of life with the
 21 manual therapy group, but there was a greater active ROM in the shoulder at six (6) month
 22 follow-up. Perceived improvement was also greater at six (6) months.

23
 24 Yang et al. (2007) compared the use of three different mobilization techniques on 23 female
 25 patients (average age 55.7 years old) with adhesive capsulitis of greater than three (3)
 26 months. Techniques used were end-range mobilization (ERM), mid-range mobilization
 27 (MRM), and mobilization with movement (MWM). Treatments were performed two times
 28 (2x) per week for 12 weeks. Outcome measures were the Flexibility Scale of Shoulder
 29 Function (FLEX-SF), and shoulder kinematics as measured by the FASTRAK motion
 30 analysis. Data collection was done at the end of each three (3) week interval. ERM and
 31 MWM were more effective than MRM in increasing mobility and functional ability. In a
 32 2012 study, Yang et al. again examined the effectiveness of ERM/scapula mobilization on
 33 23 patients with adhesive capsulitis, compared to a standard physical therapy approach.
 34 Treatments were received two times (2x) per week for eight (8) weeks. Outcomes included
 35 ROM, disability scores, and shoulder complex kinematics. The mobilization group was
 36 significantly more effective than the standard physical therapy approach. Clar et al. (2014)
 37 noted in their systematic review that evidence for high grade mobilization was moderate
 38 and positive and inconclusive but favorable for mobilization with movement and Niel-
 39 Asher osteopathic techniques.

40
 41 Page et al. (2014) evaluated manual therapy and exercise for adhesive capsulitis in a
 42 Cochrane Database Systematic Review. Authors included RCTs and quasi-randomized

1 trials comparing any manual therapy or exercise intervention vs. placebo, no intervention,
2 a different type of manual therapy or exercise or any other intervention for patients with
3 adhesive capsulitis. Interventions included mobilization, manipulation and supervised or
4 home exercise, delivered alone or in combination. Main outcomes of interest were
5 participant-reported pain relief of 30% or greater, overall pain (mean or mean change),
6 function, global assessment of treatment success, active shoulder abduction, quality of life
7 and the number of participants experiencing adverse events. Thirty-three trials (1,836
8 participants) were included. The overall impression gained from these trials is that the few
9 outcome differences between interventions that were clinically important were detected
10 only up to seven weeks. Evidence of moderate quality shows that a combination of manual
11 therapy and exercise for six weeks probably results in less improvement at seven weeks,
12 but a similar number of adverse events compared with glucocorticoid injection. Forty-six
13 percent (26/56) of participants reported treatment success with manual therapy and exercise
14 compared with 77% (40/52) of participants receiving glucocorticoid injection. Group
15 differences in improvement in overall pain and function at six months and 12 months were
16 not clinically important. Authors concluded that the best available data show that a
17 combination of manual therapy and exercise may not be as effective as glucocorticoid
18 injection in the short-term. It is unclear whether a combination of manual therapy, exercise
19 and electrotherapy is an effective adjunct to glucocorticoid injection or oral NSAID. High-
20 quality RCTs are needed to establish the benefits and harms of manual therapy and exercise
21 interventions that reflect actual practice, compared with placebo, no intervention and active
22 interventions with evidence of benefit (e.g., glucocorticoid injection).

23
24 Noten et al. (2016) systematically reviewed the literature for efficacy of isolated articular
25 mobilization techniques in patients with primary adhesive capsulitis (AC) of the shoulder.
26 Twelve randomized controlled trials involving 810 patients were included. The efficacy of
27 7 different types of mobilization techniques was evaluated. Authors concluded that overall,
28 mobilization techniques have beneficial effects in patients with primary AC of the
29 shoulder. Because of preliminary evidence for many mobilization techniques, the Maitland
30 technique and combined mobilizations seem recommended at the moment. Hando et al.
31 (2017) completed a study with the purpose to: (1) report clinical outcomes following
32 translational manipulation under anesthesia (tMUA), (2) describe relevant health care costs
33 and utilization following tMUA, and (3) summarize findings from two cases receiving joint
34 arthroscopy following tMUA. Thirteen patients completed the six-week follow-up. Mean
35 change scores for ROM and SPADI values were flexion; +38.5°, abduction; +71.1°,
36 external rotation (shoulder abducted); +49.8°, internal rotation (shoulder abducted);
37 +26.6°, SPADI scores; +44.4. 13 patient records were analyzed for health care utilization.
38 Ten of the 13 patients utilized no additional shoulder-related health care. Surgical
39 evaluation revealed no evidence of iatrogenic injury. Authors concluded that clinical
40 outcomes were similar to previous studies. Utilization data indicated that for the majority
41 of patients, little shoulder-related health care was utilized. Woods and Loganathan (2017)
42 analyzed a prospectively collected, single-surgeon, consecutive series of patients who

1 underwent MUA for frozen shoulder between January 1999 and December 2015. The
2 Oxford Shoulder Scores (OSS) and range of movement were the outcome measures.

3
4 A total of 730 patients (792 shoulders) underwent MUA during the study period. A further
5 MUA was undertaken in 141 shoulders (17.8%), for which they had complete data for 126.
6 The mean improvement in OSS for all patients undergoing MUA was 16, and the mean
7 post-operative OSS in those requiring a further MUA was 14 showing no significant
8 difference. Improvement was seen after a further MUA, regardless both of the outcome of
9 the initial MUA, and of the time of recurrence. Authors concluded that patients with a poor
10 outcome or recurrent symptoms of a frozen shoulder after a MUA should be offered a
11 further MUA with the expectation of a good outcome and a low complication rate.

12
13 Duzgun et al. (2019) aimed to compare the superiority of scapular mobilization, manual
14 capsule stretching, and the combination of these two techniques in the treatment of frozen
15 shoulder patients to evaluate the acute effects of these techniques on shoulder movements.
16 Group 1 ($n=27$) received scapular mobilization, and Group 2 ($n=27$) received manual
17 posterior capsule stretching. After the patients were assessed, the interventions were re-
18 applied with a crossover design to obtain results for the combined application ($n=54$). The
19 range of motion, active total elevation, active internal rotation, and posterior capsule
20 tensions of the shoulder joint were recorded before and immediately after mobilization.
21 Statistical analysis showed an increase in all range of motion values, except for shoulder
22 internal rotation, without significant difference among the groups ($p>0.05$). Authors
23 concluded that scapular mobilization and manual posterior capsule interventions were
24 effective in improving the acute joint range of motion in frozen shoulder patients.

25
26 Rangen et al. (2020) compared these two surgical interventions with early structured
27 physiotherapy plus steroid injection. Participants were randomly assigned (2:2:1) to
28 receive manipulation under anesthesia, arthroscopic capsular release, or early structured
29 physiotherapy. In manipulation under anesthesia, the surgeon manipulated the affected
30 shoulder to stretch and tear the tight capsule while the participant was under general
31 anesthesia, supplemented by a steroid injection. Arthroscopic capsular release, also done
32 under general anesthesia, involved surgically dividing the contracted anterior capsule in
33 the rotator interval, followed by manipulation, with optional steroid injection. Both forms
34 of surgery were followed by postprocedural physiotherapy. Early structured physiotherapy
35 involved mobilization techniques and a graduated home exercise program supplemented
36 by a steroid injection. Both early structured physiotherapy and postprocedural
37 physiotherapy involved 12 sessions during up to 12 weeks. The primary outcome was the
38 Oxford Shoulder Score (OSS; 0-48) at 12 months after randomization. All mean
39 differences on the assessment of shoulder pain and function (OSS) at the primary endpoint
40 of 12 months were less than the target differences. Therefore, none of the three
41 interventions were clinically superior. Arthroscopic capsular release carried higher risks,
42 and manipulation under anesthesia was the most cost-effective.

1 Rahbar et al. (2022) compared the efficacy of acromioclavicular joint mobilization and
2 standard physical-therapy versus physical-therapy alone in the treatment of the frozen
3 shoulder. Participants were randomly allocated into mobilization + physical-therapy ($n =$
4 28), and physical-therapy alone ($n = 28$) groups for one month. The primary outcomes were
5 the shoulder pain and disability index and the shoulder range of motion. The secondary
6 outcome was the visual analogue scale. Measures were performed at the baseline,
7 immediately and one month after the beginning of the treatment. Visual analogue scale and
8 the shoulder pain and disability index improved more significantly in the mobilization
9 group compared to the physical-therapy group immediately and one month after the
10 beginning of the treatment. Active abduction range of motion was also improved more
11 significantly immediately after the treatment in the mobilization group compared to the
12 physical-therapy group, however there were no significant differences between two groups
13 concerning other measured range of motions. Authors concluded that adding
14 acromioclavicular mobilization to standard physical-therapy was more efficient in
15 decreasing pain and disability and improving active abduction range of motion compared
16 to standard physical-therapy in frozen shoulder patients.

17
18 Costantino et al. (2022) sought to define the state of the art and guide specialists in choosing
19 effective treatments for adhesive capsulitis. For this study, 1089 subjects were taken into
20 consideration and 19 out of the 20 studies compared multimodal therapies: 6 directly
21 assessed the effectiveness of physical therapies (3 US; 1 WBC; 1 HILT and 1 rESWT), 3
22 studies evaluated the efficacy of manual glenohumeral mobilizations, 4 compared manual
23 and mechanical stretching techniques, and 7 evaluated the effectiveness of different
24 supervised group or home therapeutic exercises in multimodal rehabilitation programs. The
25 characteristics of the selected studies were very heterogeneous, and sample were not
26 uniform as regards stage of disease, level of ROM reduction and mean duration of
27 complaints). Ultrasound therapy did not prove effective on the pathology, unlike radial
28 shockwaves and cryotherapy. The joint mobilizations, techniques adopting posterior
29 glenohumeral approaches and high-end mobilizations would appear to be effective both
30 manual and instrumental techniques. In general stretching is a mandatory implementation
31 in rehabilitation programs. From the data in the literature, it does not emerge the possibility
32 of identifying treatment guidelines except for individual or group exercises, that are
33 possibly oriented to the performance of daily activities.

34
35 Olguín-Huerta et al. (2023) sought to determine the effectiveness of scapular mobilization
36 on range of motion, shoulder disability, and pain intensity in patients with primary adhesive
37 capsulitis (AC). Six randomized clinical trials met the eligibility criteria. For scapular
38 mobilization versus other therapeutic interventions, there was no significant difference in
39 the effect sizes between groups for external rotation, for flexion, for shoulder disability,
40 and for pain intensity. Authors concluded that scapular mobilization with or without other
41 therapeutic interventions does not provide a significant clinical benefit regarding active
42 shoulder range of motion, disability, or pain intensity in patients with primary AC,

1 compared with other manual therapy techniques or other treatments; the quality of evidence
 2 was very low to moderate according to the grading of recommendation, assessment,
 3 development and evaluation approach.

4
 5 Gutiérrez-Espinoza et al. (2023) sought to determine the effects of scapular mobilization
 6 in addition to an exercise program in people with subacromial impingement syndrome
 7 (SIS). Seventy-two adults with SIS were randomly allocated to 1 of 2 groups. The control
 8 group (n=36) participated in a 6-week exercise program, and the intervention group (n =
 9 36) participated in the same exercise program plus passive manual scapular mobilization.
 10 Both groups were assessed at baseline and 6 weeks (end of treatment). The primary
 11 outcome measure was upper limb function assessed using the Disabilities of the Arm,
 12 Shoulder and Hand (DASH) questionnaire. Secondary outcome measures were the
 13 Constant-Murley questionnaire, pain (visual analog scale [VAS]), and scapular upward
 14 rotation. All participants completed the trial. The between-group difference in DASH was
 15 -1.1 points, Constant-Murley 2.1 points, VAS rating of pain at rest -0.1 cm, and VAS rating
 16 of pain during movement -0.2 cm; scapular upward rotation at rest (arm by the side) was
 17 0.6°, at 45° shoulder abduction was 0.8°, at 90° was 0.1°, and at 135° was 0.1°. Most
 18 differences were in favor of the intervention group; however, the effect sizes were weak
 19 and not statistically significant. Authors concluded that in the short-term, the addition of
 20 scapular mobilization did not provide significant clinical benefits in terms of function, pain
 21 or scapular motion in participants with SIS.

22 23 **Epicondylitis/Epicondylalgia of the Elbow**

24 There has been very little research on manipulation of the elbow in relation to elbow
 25 conditions. What little research that has been conducted invariably involves epicondylitis
 26 or the cubital tunnel. Most of this research is case reports. Hoogvliet et al. (2013) did a
 27 systematic review looking at the effectiveness of exercise therapy and mobilization
 28 techniques for epicondylitis. They found one review and 12 randomized controlled trials
 29 (RCTs) that studied lateral epicondylitis. A best evidence synthesis was used for the results,
 30 and they found limited, conflicting, or no evidence for the use of manual therapy to the
 31 extremity.

32
 33 Stasinopoulos & Johnson (2004) looked at the effects of Cyriax physiotherapy on lateral
 34 epicondylitis. This consists of the combination of deep transverse friction followed
 35 immediately by a manipulation to the elbow (Mill's manipulation). They found only one
 36 (1) study that compared Cyriax physiotherapy to cortisone injections in the management
 37 of lateral epicondylitis (Verhaar et al.). The cortisone injections were more effective at the
 38 end of treatment but there were no significant differences at the one (1) year follow-up.

39
 40 Vicenzino et al. (2001) looked at the effects of mobilization with movement (MWM) – a
 41 system of manual therapy interventions developed by Brian Mulligan which combine a
 42 sustained manual `gliding' force to a joint with concurrent physiologic (osteo-kinematic)

1 motion of the joint, either actively performed by the patient, or passively performed by the
2 operator for chronic lateral epicondylitis in 10 female and 14 male subjects (average age
3 46.4 years old) with symptoms greater than six (6) weeks. The three treatment conditions
4 were MWM, a placebo technique, and a control condition. The mobilization was a lateral
5 glide performed during a pain-free gripping technique. Six repetitions were performed with
6 a 15 second rest between repetitions. Outcomes were pain-free grip strength and algometry.
7 There was a significant increase in pain-free strength in the mobilization group, but not in
8 the other two conditions. There was a significant decrease in the pressure-pain threshold
9 after treatment, but at a much lower value.

10
11 Abbott (2001) measured shoulder ROM in patients with lateral epicondylitis after a single
12 treatment of MWM. Subjects (18 male, 5 female) were measured for internal and external
13 rotation of the shoulder pre and post treatment, in the affected and unaffected arms. The
14 MWM used was applied to the medial proximal forearm during wrist extension while
15 making a fist. While there were significant differences in external rotation in the affected
16 arm before treatment, there was no significant difference post-treatment. There was a
17 significant increase in external rotation and internal rotation ROM after the MWM which
18 was also measured in the unaffected arm.

19
20 Kearns & Wang (2012) had a case study on the effectiveness of thrust manipulation to the
21 elbow and carpals in the management of a 45 year old woman with a diagnosis of cubital
22 tunnel syndrome. The woman had a six (6) week history of insidious onset medial elbow
23 pain. A thrust manipulation was performed to the humeroulnar joint and to the carpal joints.
24 Two manipulations were done to the elbow and one (1) manipulation was done to the
25 carpals over a course of four (4) sessions. All pain and paresthesia were resolved. Clar et
26 al. (2014) concluded that the evidence for manipulation alone for patients with lateral
27 epicondylitis is inconclusive and non-favorable at this time. The evidence is stronger for
28 mobilization of the elbow in addition to exercise for treatment of lateral epicondylitis;
29 however, the results were still viewed as inconclusive (favorable). Hsu et al. (2016)
30 conducted a randomized controlled trial and included 35 patients with lateral
31 epicondylalgia for more than 2 months. Either manipulation treatment ($n = 16$) or
32 acupuncture ($n = 19$) was given to these patients for 2 weeks and all patients' symptoms
33 were followed up for 8 weeks after treatment. Both groups demonstrated changes in pain
34 VAS score, grip strength, and DASH questionnaire. Lateral epicondylalgia patients who
35 received manipulation treatment felt pain relief sooner than those who had acupuncture
36 treatments during the first few treatments. However, authors concluded that both
37 acupuncture and manipulation are effective, given no significant at the 8-week follow-up.

38
39 Lucado et al. (2018) sought to determine if joint mobilizations are effective in improving
40 pain, grip strength, and disability in adults with lateral elbow tendinopathy. A total of 20
41 studies met the inclusion criteria; 7 were included in the meta-analysis. Authors concluded
42 that there was compelling evidence that joint mobilizations have a positive effect on both

1 pain and/or functional grip scores across all time frames compared to control groups in the
2 management of LET. Westad et al. (2019) systematically reviewed the literature to
3 establish whether MWM treatment is effective for improving pain and function in patients
4 with MSK conditions related to peripheral joints. Seven published trials were identified in
5 which all trials presented positive clinical outcome in pain and function of MWM. Low
6 quality evidence for shoulder impingement syndrome (SIS) existed and low and very low-
7 quality evidence for lateral epicondylalgia. Authors concluded that overall MWM
8 interventions applied to peripheral joints seems to be superior to placebo and no
9 intervention controls, but not in comparison with other medical or physiotherapy
10 interventions. There is a need for more high-quality trials that investigate the short and
11 long-term effect of a series of MWM interventions.

12
13 Bagcaci et al. (2023) aim of this study was to compare the acute effects of mobilization
14 with movement (MWM) and muscle energy technique (MET) on pain, grip strength, and
15 functionality in patients diagnosed with lateral elbow tendinopathy (LET). Forty-five
16 patients with LET aged 30-55 years were enrolled in this study. Patients were divided into
17 three groups: MWM, MET, and control group. The control group received a 4-week home
18 exercise program. In addition to the home exercise program in the MWM group, 12
19 sessions of MWM and 12 sessions of MET were performed in the MET group. Participants'
20 pain, grip strength, and functionality were assessed before and after the study. After the
21 treatment period, greater improvement in pain, grip strength, finger strength, and
22 functionality were observed in the MWM and MET groups than in the control group, but
23 no statistically significant difference was found between the MWM and MET groups.
24 Authors concluded that this study shows that MWM and MET, used in addition to home
25 exercises, can be used to relieve pain and increase grip strength, finger strength, and
26 functionality.

27 28 **Carpal Tunnel Syndrome (CTS)**

29 Siu et al. (2012) describes the use of osteopathic manipulation to supplement traditional
30 methods for management of CTS. Davis & Hulbert (1998) reviewed conservative and
31 nonconservative treatment of CTS and concluded that CTS without axonal degeneration
32 can be treated with manual procedures, but they did not find evidence on the efficacy of
33 manipulation. Russell's case study (2003) discusses the use of manipulation of the wrist to
34 resolve ulnar tunnel syndrome symptoms in four (4) visits. A Cochrane review by Page et
35 al. (2012) reviewed the efficacy and safety of mobilization methods in people with CTS.
36 There were two (2) studies that compared mobilization to a no treatment control, three (3)
37 compared one mobilization intervention to another, and three compared a mobilization
38 intervention to another non-surgical intervention. Because of the heterogeneity of the
39 interventions delivered, results could not be pooled across the studies. Their conclusion
40 was that there was limited and very low-quality evidence for the use of mobilization as a
41 treatment for CTS. These results were supported by Brantingham et al. (2013) in a
42 systematic review of upper extremity manual techniques. Clar et al. (2014) noted favorable

1 limited evidence for mobilization of the carpal bones in patients with CTS in improvement
 2 of symptoms over no treatment. However, given the limited available research, results are
 3 inconclusive at this time for mobilization in the treatment of CTS.

4 **Distal Forearm Fracture**

6 Gutiérrez-Espinoza et al. (2022) sought to determine the effectiveness of manual therapy
 7 (MT) for functional outcomes in patients with distal radius fracture (DRF). Eight clinical
 8 trials met the eligibility criteria, six studies were included. For supervised physiotherapy
 9 plus joint mobilization versus home exercise program at 6 weeks follow-up, the mean
 10 difference (MD) for wrist flexion was 7.1 degrees ($p = 0.20$), and extension was 11.99
 11 degrees ($p = 0.16$). For exercise program plus mobilization with movement versus exercise
 12 program at 12 weeks follow-up, the Patient-Rated Wrist Evaluation (PRWE) was -10.2
 13 points ($p = 0.02$), the Disabilities of the Arm, Shoulder and Hand (DASH) was -9.86 points
 14 ($p = 0.0001$), and grip strength was 3.9 percent ($p = 0.25$). For conventional treatment plus
 15 manual lymph drainage versus conventional treatment, for edema the MD at 3-7 days was
 16 -14.58 ml ($p = 0.03$), at 17-21 days -17.96 ml ($p = 0.009$), at 33-42 days -15.34 ml ($p =$
 17 0.003), and at 63-68 days -13.97 ml ($p = 0.002$). Authors concluded that adding
 18 mobilization with movement and manual lymphatic drainage showed statistically
 19 significant differences in wrist, upper limb function, and hand edema in patients with DRF.

21 **Upper Extremity**

22 Heiser et al. (2013) examined the current evidence describing joint mobilizations for
 23 treatment of conditions of the elbow, wrist and hand. Twenty-two studies dated between
 24 1980 and 2011 were included in the systematic review for analysis. The current evidence
 25 provides moderate support for the inclusion of joint mobilizations in the treatment of lateral
 26 epicondylalgia (LE). In particular, mobilization with movement as described by Mulligan
 27 is supported with evidence from nine randomized clinical trials as an effective technique
 28 for the treatment of pain. Other described techniques include those known as Kaltenborn,
 29 Cyriax physical therapy, and Maitland, but the evidence for these techniques is limited.
 30 There is also limited evidence for the joint mobilizations in the treatment of wrist and hand
 31 conditions. Authors concluded that there is limited support for joint mobilizations of the
 32 wrist and hand, and moderate support for joint mobilizations of the elbow for LE. There is
 33 moderate support for mobilization with movement.

35 Roll and Hardison (2017) evaluated the effectiveness of Occupational Therapy
 36 interventions for adults with musculoskeletal conditions of the forearm, wrist, and hand in
 37 a systematic review. They noted that mixed evidence exists for mobilization techniques
 38 and manual therapy for the treatment of CTS. For patients with loss of wrist ROM due to
 39 distal radial fracture, moderate evidence supports the use of joint mobilization, but no
 40 evidence supports the use of dynamic splinting. The paucity of evidence for occupation-
 41 based interventions and outcomes points to an opportunity and need to expand the scope
 42 of UE rehabilitation research.

1 Savva et al. (2021) summarized the available literature with regards to the potential
 2 analgesic effect and mechanism of joint mobilization and manipulation in tendinopathy.
 3 The effect of these techniques in rotator cuff tendinopathy and lateral elbow tendinopathy,
 4 applied alone, compared to a placebo intervention or along with other interventions has
 5 been reported in some randomized controlled trials which have been scrutinized in
 6 systematic reviews. Due to the small randomized controlled trials and other methodological
 7 limitations of the evidence base, including short-term follow-ups, small sample size and
 8 lack of homogenous samples further studies are needed. Literature in other tendinopathies
 9 such as medial elbow tendinopathy, de Quervain's disease and Achilles tendinopathy is
 10 limited since the analgesic effect of these techniques has been identified in few case series
 11 and reports. Therefore, the low methodological quality renders caution in the generalization
 12 of findings in clinical practice. Studies on the analgesic mechanism of these techniques
 13 highlight the activation of the descending inhibitory pain mechanism and
 14 sympathoexcitation although this area needs further investigation. Authors concluded that
 15 this study suggests that joint mobilization and manipulation may be a potential contributor
 16 in the management of tendinopathy as a pre-conditioning process prior to formal exercise
 17 loading rehabilitation or other proven effective treatment approaches.

18 **Peripheral Joint Pathologies**

19 Stathopoulos et al. (2018) provided an updated systematic review and meta-analysis
 20 regarding the effectiveness of mobilization with movement (MWM) techniques on range
 21 of motion (ROM). Included were 18 studies with 753 participants in 10 separate meta-
 22 analyses for ROM. All studies were classified as high quality or medium quality. Peripheral
 23 joint MWM seems to produce better therapeutic results in comparison to sham, passive,
 24 other active, or no therapeutic approach, regarding improvement of joint ROM in specific
 25 peripheral joint pathologies, consistently in all movement directions for shoulder adhesive
 26 capsulitis and hip pain. Authors concluded that mobilization with movement produced a
 27 statistically and clinically significant ROM increase consistently in all movement
 28 directions for shoulder adhesive capsulitis and hip pain. However, for shoulder
 29 impingement, shoulder pain/dysfunction, hamstring tightness, knee osteoarthritis, and
 30 chronic ankle instability pathologies, a therapeutic benefit regarding ROM could not be
 31 clearly established.

32 **PRACTITIONER SCOPE AND TRAINING**

33
 34 Practitioners should practice only in the areas in which they are competent based on their
 35 education training and experience. Levels of education, experience, and proficiency may
 36 vary among individual practitioners. It is ethically and legally incumbent on a practitioner
 37 to determine where they have the knowledge and skills necessary to perform such services.
 38 It is best practice for the practitioner to appropriately render services to a patient only if
 39 they are trained, equally skilled, and adequately competent to deliver a service compared
 40 to others trained to perform the same procedure. If the service would be most competently
 41

1 delivered by another health care practitioner who has more skill and expert training, it
2 would be best practice to refer the patient to the more expert practitioner.

3
4 Best practice can be defined as a clinical, scientific, or professional technique, method, or
5 process that is typically evidence-based and consensus driven and is recognized by a
6 majority of professionals in a particular field as more effective at delivering a particular
7 outcome than any other practice (Joint Commission International Accreditation Standards
8 for Hospitals, 2020).

9
10 Depending on the practitioner’s scope of practice, training, and experience, a member’s
11 condition and/or symptoms during examination or the course of treatment may indicate the
12 need for referral to another practitioner or even emergency care. In such cases it is prudent
13 for the practitioner to refer the member for appropriate co-management (e.g., to their
14 primary care physician) or if immediate emergency care is warranted, to contact 911 as
15 appropriate. See the *Managing Medical Emergencies (CPG 159 – S)* clinical practice
16 guideline for information.

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