

1 **Clinical Practice Guideline: Inserts and Other Shoe Modifications**
 2 **for Individuals without Diabetes**

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6 **Product: Specialty**

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26
 27 **GUIDELINES**

28 For plans that have limited coverage:

29
 30 American Specialty Health – Specialty (ASH) considers shoe inserts and other shoe
 31 modifications described by HCPCS Codes L3000, L3001, L3002, L3003, L3010, L3020,
 32 L3030, L3031, L3040, L3050, L3060, L3070, L3080, L3090, L3100, L3140, L3150,
 33 L3160, L3170, L3300, L3310, L3320, L3330, L3332, L3334, L3340, L3350, L3360,
 34 L3370, L3380, L3390, L3400, L3410, L3420, L3430, L3440, L3450, L3465, L3470,
 35 L3480, L3485, L3500, L3510, L3520, L3550, L3560, L3570, L3580, L3590 or L3595 (as
 36 described below) to be medically necessary when the following is met:

371. If they are on a shoe that is an integral part of a medically necessary brace and if they are
 38 medically necessary for the proper functioning of the brace.

1 The above criteria are consistent with CMS policy. Refer to the *Diabetic Shoes/Inserts*
 2 (*CPG 259 – S*) clinical practice guideline for orthopedic footwear criteria for patients with
 3 diabetes.

4
 5 For plans that do **not** exclude foot orthotics:

6
 7 ASH considers shoe inserts and other shoe modifications described by HCPCS Codes
 8 L3000, L3001, L3002, L3003, L3010, L3020, L3030, L3031, L3040, L3050, L3060,
 9 L3070, L3080, L3090, L3100, L3140, L3150, L3160, L3170, L3300, L3310, L3320,
 10 L3330, L3332, L3334, L3340, L3350, L3360, L3370, L3380, L3390, L3400, L3410,
 11 L3420, L3430, L3440, L3450, L3465, L3470, L3480, L3485, L3500, L3510, L3520,
 12 L3550, L3560, L3570, L3580, L3590 or L3595 (as described below) to be medically
 13 necessary when prescribed by a physician for the below criteria:

- 14 1. For Adults and Children (any one condition)
- 15 a. Chronic plantar fasciitis
 - 16 b. Chronic calcaneal bursitis
 - 17 c. Calcaneal spurs
 - 18 d. Inflammatory conditions of the foot/ankle
 - 19 e. Medial osteoarthritis of the knee (lateral wedge insole)
 - 20 f. Musculoskeletal/arthropathic deformities (e.g., bunions, hallux valgus, talipes
 21 deformities, tendonitis, pes cavus deformities, hammertoes, anomalies of toes)
 - 22 g. Neurologically impaired feet (e.g., neuroma, tarsal tunnel syndrome)
 - 23 h. Vascular conditions (e.g., Buerger’s disease, peripheral vascular disease)

24
 25 NOTE: Both adults and children must have symptoms associated with the particular foot
 26 condition (foot orthotics are NOT medically necessary when the foot condition does not
 27 cause symptoms) and have failed to respond to a course of appropriate conservative
 28 treatment (e.g., physical therapy, injections, strapping, anti-inflammatory medications,
 29 over-the-counter/pre-fabricated foot inserts/orthotics). Orthotics should not be the first line
 30 of treatment.

31
 32 Foot orthotics are considered not medically necessary when these criteria are not met such
 33 as for back or knee pain (other than medial osteoarthritis), corns and calluses, and lower
 34 leg injuries as there is insufficient evidence to support a conclusion supporting the health
 35 outcomes or benefit.

36
 37 ASH considers CPT® code L3260 medically necessary when prescribed as rehabilitative
 38 foot orthotics following foot surgery or trauma when the rehabilitative foot orthotics are
 39 medically necessary as part of their post-surgical or casting care. In these instances, foot
 40 orthotics are considered an integral part of the covered surgical procedure or foot trauma
 41 repair.

1 **HCPCS Codes and Descriptions**

HCPCS Code	HCPCS Code Description
L3000	Foot insert, removable, molded to patient model, UCB type, Berkeley shell, each
L3001	Foot, insert, removable, molded to patient model, Spenco, each
L3002	Foot insert, removable, molded to patient model, Plastazote or equal, each
L3003	Foot, insert, removable, molded to patient model, silicone gel, each
L3010	Foot insert, removable, molded to patient model, longitudinal arch support, each
L3020	Foot insert, removable, molded to patient model, longitudinal/metatarsal support, each
L3030	Foot insert, removable, formed to patient foot, each
L3031	Foot insert/plate, removable, addition to lower extremity orthosis, high strength, lightweight material, all hybrid lamination/prepreg composite, each
L3040	Foot, arch support, removable, premolded, longitudinal, each
L3050	Foot, arch support, removable, premolded, metatarsal, each
L3060	Foot, arch support, removable, premolded, longitudinal/metatarsal, each
L3070	Foot, arch support, nonremovable, attached to shoe, longitudinal, each
L3080	Foot, arch support, nonremovable, attached to shoe, metatarsal, each
L3090	Foot, arch support, nonremovable, attached to shoe, longitudinal/metatarsal, each
L3100	Hallus-valgus night dynamic splint, prefabricated, off-the-shelf
L3140	Foot, abduction rotation bar, including shoes
L3150	Foot, abduction rotation bar, without shoes
L3160	Foot, adjustable shoe-styled positioning device
L3170	Foot, plastic, silicone or equal, heel stabilizer, prefabricated, off-the-shelf, each
L3260	Surgical boot/shoe, each
L3300	Lift, elevation, heel, tapered to metatarsals, per in
L3310	Lift, elevation, heel and sole, neoprene, per in
L3320	Lift, elevation, heel and sole, cork, per in
L3330	Lift, elevation, metal extension (skate)
L3332	Lift, elevation, inside shoe, tapered, up to one-half inch
L3334	Lift, elevation, heel, per inch

CPG 186 Revision 12 – S

Inserts and Other Shoe Modifications for Individuals without Diabetes

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HCPCS Code	HCPCS Code Description
L3340	Heel wedge, SACH
L3350	Heel wedge
L3360	Sole wedge, outside sole
L3370	Sole wedge, between sole
L3380	Clubfoot wedge
L3390	Outflare wedge
L3400	Metatarsal bar wedge, rocker
L3410	Metatarsal bar wedge, between sole
L3420	Full sole and heel wedge, between sole
L3430	Heel, counter, plastic reinforced
L3440	Heel, counter, leather reinforced
L3450	Heel, SACH cushion type
L3465	Heel, Thomas with wedge
L3470	Heel, Thomas extended to ball
L3480	Heel, pad and depression for spur
L3485	Heel, pad, removable for spur
L3500	Orthopedic shoe addition, insole, leather
L3510	Orthopedic shoe addition, insole, rubber
L3520	Orthopedic shoe addition, insole, felt covered with leather
L3550	Orthopedic shoe addition, toe tap, standard
L3560	Orthopedic shoe addition, toe tap, horseshoe
L3570	Orthopedic shoe addition, special extension to instep (leather with eyelets)
L3580	Orthopedic shoe addition, convert instep to Velcro closure
L3590	Orthopedic shoe addition, convert firm shoe counter to soft counter
L3595	Orthopedic shoe addition, March bar

1 DESCRIPTION/BACKGROUND

2 Orthotics are usually rigid or semi-rigid devices that provide stability or restrict motion,
 3 prevent deformity, protect against injury, assist with function, or support weak or injured
 4 body parts. When speaking of foot orthotics specifically, they function to protect fixed or
 5 long-term malalignment or biomechanical faults, cushion exposed bones or protect skin at
 6 risk of breakdown due to disease or other conditions that result from disease. The scope of
 7 this guideline is foot orthotics or inserts. A foot orthotic is a type of shoe insert that does
 8 not extend beyond the ankle and may include heel wedges and arch supports. The goal of
 9 treating conditions with foot orthotics is to decrease pain and increase function. They may
 10 also correct some foot deformities and provide shock absorption to the foot. A custom-
 11 fitted or custom-molded foot orthosis may be used as a replacement or substitute for
 12 missing parts of the foot (e.g., due to amputation) and when it is necessary for the
 13 alleviation or correction of illness, injury or congenital defect. The major foot-related
 14 conditions that increase the risk of ulcers and amputations in those with diabetes and other
 15 conditions that impair peripheral circulation, are peripheral neuropathy, altered
 16 biomechanics (caused by increased plantar pressure, bone deformities, limited joint
 17 mobility), peripheral vascular disease, skin pathology and a history of prior ulcers. When
 18 properly fitted, footwear can reduce abnormal pressures, reduce formation of calluses and
 19 ulcers, and protect the foot from external trauma. Foot orthotics can either be over-the-
 20 counter/prefabricated/pre-molded orthotics or a custom device derived from a three-
 21 dimensional representation of the member’s foot. Most patients with these conditions can
 22 safely wear properly fitted commercial shoes. Prefabricated shoe inserts may also be used.
 23 The use of custom-fitted or custom-molded orthotic inserts are typically reserved for those
 24 patients with neuropathy and/or altered circulation who also have severe foot deformities
 25 such as Charcot arthropathy, severe arthritis, large bunions, or prior amputation.

26
 27 A prefabricated orthosis is one that is manufactured in quantity without a specific patient
 28 in mind. A prefabricated orthosis may be trimmed, bent, molded (with or without heat), or
 29 otherwise modified for use by a specific patient (i.e., custom-fitted). An orthosis that is
 30 assembled from prefabricated components is considered prefabricated. Any orthosis that
 31 does not meet the definition of a custom-fabricated (custom-made) orthosis is considered
 32 prefabricated.

33
 34 A custom foot orthotic is a shoe insert that is made directly from an Anatomical Volumetric
 35 Foot Model (AVFM). The AVFM is modified with the appropriate medial and/or lateral
 36 arch fill, lateral column expansion, heel expansion, and intrinsic forefoot and/or rearfoot
 37 corrections as defined by the prescribing physician (PFOLA, 2006). Custom orthotics can
 38 be divided into two categories functional or accommodative. Functional orthotics are
 39 designed to control abnormal motion. They may be used to treat foot pain caused by
 40 abnormal motion; they can also be used to treat injuries such as shin splints or tendinitis.
 41 Functional orthotics are typically crafted of a semi-rigid material such as plastic or
 42 graphite; whereas accommodative orthotics are softer and are designed to provide

1 additional cushioning and support. They can be used to treat diabetic foot ulcers, painful
2 calluses on the bottom of the foot, and other uncomfortable conditions.

3
4 CPT[®] Codes L3000 and L3010 are two commonly used custom foot orthoses codes. CPT
5 Code L3000 is the traditional UCBL (University of California-Berkeley Lab) type; a rigid
6 device with high heel cups, high medial flanges, a sustentaculum tali shelf, and aggressive
7 cast corrections to provide maximal control. The L3010 is seen as a Levy Mold, the
8 removable, longitudinal arch support that is molded to the cast of the patient’s foot but has
9 little or no heel cup.

10
11 The Pedorthic Footcare Association classifies custom foot orthoses within the following
12 categories: rigid, semi-rigid, and soft. Rigid shells are constructed with base materials such
13 as plastics, fiberglass, and carbon fiber or similar. Semi-rigid shells would be made with
14 base materials from cork, or dense foams with a durometer, or hardness, of 45 and higher.
15 Soft shells would be shells made with base materials from soft materials, generally with a
16 durometer of less than 45.

17
18 Conservative treatment of foot pain may include adjustment of activities and patient
19 education, anti-inflammatory medications (if the patient is able to tolerate), night splints,
20 physical therapy interventions, and/or prefabricated orthotics and taping.

21 22 **EVIDENCE REVIEW**

23 Overall, the evidence base with respect to the clinical effectiveness of foot orthoses is
24 limited. Many studies have used heterogeneous combinations of treatments and materials,
25 making it difficult to draw conclusions from reviews of the clinical trials. There is some
26 evidence in the literature to suggest that custom made orthoses are as effective as
27 prefabricated orthoses for the treatment of heel pain syndromes and related conditions.

28 29 **Low Back Pain and Orthotics**

30 Kelaher et al. (2000) looked at the effects of semi-rigid orthotics on asymptomatic workers
31 who stand all day. Ten subjects wore prefabricated semi-rigid orthotics for two months
32 while a control group wore flexible Sorbothane shoe inserts for two months. No significant
33 changes were noted for strength, posture, or stability measures after two months for either
34 group. Subjects did report reduced low back discomfort and increased foot discomfort
35 during a tiring exertion task while using the semi-rigid orthotics vs. the control condition.
36 Many limitations exist for this study.

37
38 Defrin et al. (2005) looked at whether the correction of a small leg length inequality (LLI)
39 (i.e., 10mm or less) can help relieve chronic low back pain. Thirty-three patients from a
40 physical therapy clinic participated in the RCT. In 22 patients, LLI was corrected using
41 shoe inserts and in 11 patients, no correction was made. Pain and disability were measured
42 and a significant reduction in both was noted. Further studies are needed to confirm these

1 outcomes. In another study looking at chronic low back pain and LLI, Zhang (2005)
2 performed a study looking at the impact of chiropractic adjustments and orthotics to reduce
3 symptoms in the feet and other parts of the body, including the low back, for standing
4 workers. Thirty-two subjects were split into three study groups; 10 subjects in the
5 chiropractic care (Activator technique and home exercises) plus orthotics group (and home
6 exercises), 8 in the control group, and 14 subjects in the orthotics group. Foot orthotic
7 information was captured and sent to Foot Level-ers, Inc. for fabrication. Outcomes
8 showed that the combination of chiropractic care and orthotics significantly improved
9 symptoms, function, and quality of life. For the orthotics group, trends in improvements
10 were noted, except for pain, where no trend or significance was noted. The control group
11 did not experience any changes during this time. Authors suggested that orthotics and
12 chiropractic care may improve symptoms for workers who stand longer than 6 hours.
13 However, several limitations were noted; orthotic compliance was unknown, and pain
14 levels for low back and other pain were rated very low. Golightly et al. (2007) wanted to
15 determine the changes in pain and disability after shoe lift intervention for subjects with
16 chronic LBP who have LLI. Only 11 subjects participated in this study. Subjects were
17 tested pre and post treatment intervention. Lift height was determined by subjects based on
18 reduction of pain. Subjects did experience pain relief and less disability following the
19 intervention. Further well-designed studies are needed to confirm these findings.

20
21 Cambron et al. (2011) completed a pilot study on shoe orthotics and their effect on chronic
22 low back pain. The main purpose of this study was to pilot a randomized controlled trial
23 (RCT) design for the use of shoe orthotics for patients with chronic low back pain. Fifty
24 subjects were randomized into either a treatment group who received customized orthotics,
25 or a wait-list control group. After 6 weeks, the wait-listed group received customized
26 orthotics as well. Pain levels and function were measured using the Visual Analog Scale
27 (VAS) and Oswestry Disability Index at the end of the 6-week period. Data suggested that
28 orthotics reduced pain and improved function relative to the control group after 6 weeks.
29 Improvements were maintained at 12 weeks, but no additional improvements were gained
30 during this time. Further studies are needed to confirm these results, keeping in mind
31 controlling for external influences.

32
33 Ferrari (2012) noted that while customized foot orthotics are prescribed often for patients
34 with chronic low back pain (LBP) and lower limb pain, there are few trials to demonstrate
35 the effectiveness. For fibromyalgia, there are none. Thus, Ferrari (2012) completed a
36 cohort-controlled trial of the addition of customized orthotics to the standard care of
37 patients diagnosed with fibromyalgia. Thirty-two subjects were given back exercises and
38 analgesics and were considered the control group. The remaining 35 subjects received the
39 same therapy and also customized foot orthotics. After 8 weeks, the orthotics group had an
40 improvement in function over the control group. The author suggested that adding orthotics
41 to ‘usual care’ for patients with fibromyalgia may help in the short term. Consideration of
42 what really is ‘usual care’ for patients with fibromyalgia should be attended to when

1 deciphering results. Additionally, Ferrari (2013) compared reported disability due to
2 chronic low back pain following a motor vehicle accident in groups of patients receiving
3 usual care and usual care plus customized foot orthotics. 66 patients completed treatment
4 (34 received orthotics). At 8 week follow up, both groups improved however the orthotic
5 group had a lower Oswestry disability score and used fewer analgesics than the usual care
6 group. He concluded that orthotics improved short term outcomes compared with usual
7 care alone. He found the same results in patients with chronic low back pain following
8 work-related injury (Ferrari, 2013).

9
10 Cabron et al. (2017) investigated the efficacy of shoe orthotics with and without
11 chiropractic treatment for chronic low back pain compared with no treatment. Adult
12 subjects ($N=225$) with symptomatic low back pain of ≥ 3 months were recruited from a
13 volunteer sample. Subjects were randomized into 1 of 3 treatment groups (shoe orthotic,
14 plus, and waitlist groups). The shoe orthotic group received custom-made shoe orthotics.
15 The plus group received custom-made orthotics plus chiropractic manipulation, hot or cold
16 packs, and manual soft tissue massage. The waitlist group received no care. The primary
17 outcome measures were change in perceived back pain (numerical pain rating scale) and
18 functional health status (Oswestry Disability Index) after 6 weeks of study participation.
19 Outcomes were also assessed after 12 weeks and then after an additional 3, 6, and 12
20 months. After 6 weeks, all 3 groups demonstrated significant within-group improvement
21 in average back pain, but only the shoe orthotic and plus groups had significant within-
22 group improvement in function. When compared with the waitlist group, the shoe orthotic
23 group demonstrated significantly greater improvements in pain ($P<.0001$) and function
24 ($P=.0068$). The addition of chiropractic to orthotics treatment demonstrated significantly
25 greater improvements in function ($P=.0278$) when compared with orthotics alone, but no
26 significant difference in pain ($P=.3431$). Group differences at 12 weeks and later were not
27 significant. Authors concluded that six weeks of prescription shoe orthotics significantly
28 improved back pain and dysfunction compared with no treatment. The addition of
29 chiropractic care led to higher improvements in function.

30
31 Menez et al. (2023) examined the effects of foot orthoses on gait kinematics and low back
32 pain (LBP) in individuals with leg length inequality (LLI) in a systematic review. Inclusion
33 criteria were the analysis of kinematic parameters during walking or LBP before and after
34 foot orthosis use in patients with LLI. Ultimately, five studies were retained. The results
35 showed that insoles seem to reduce pelvic drop and active compensations of the spine when
36 LLI is moderate/severe. However, insoles do not always seem to be efficient in improving
37 gait kinematics in patients with low LLI. All the studies noted a significant reduction of
38 LBP with use of insoles. Consequently, although these studies revealed no consensus on
39 whether and how insoles affect gait kinematics, the orthoses seemed helpful in relieving
40 LBP.

1 **Orthotic Management in Knee Osteoarthritis (OA)**

2 In 2002, Toda and Segal assessed the effectiveness of an insole with subtalar taping on
 3 patients with medial compartment OA. Prior to this several authors reported that inserted
 4 insoles were effective for patients with mild OA versus severe OA. In the cases of severe
 5 OA, it is very difficult to change the femorotibial angle (FTA) where the varus angle of the
 6 knee has already changed due to degeneration of the medial compartment of the knee.
 7 Subtalar taping has also shown some potential in affecting pain and function in patients
 8 with knee OA. Eighty-eight females diagnosed with knee OA were treated with wedged
 9 insoles for 8 weeks. Two types of wedged insoles were used. One had the lateral wedge
 10 fixed to an ankle strap (subtalar strapping insole) and the other was a sock type ankle
 11 support with lateral rubber heel wedge insert. Participants were randomized into one of the
 12 two groups. Results indicate that the subtalar strapping insole was more effective than the
 13 sock type insole for increasing maximum ambulation and pain. They postulate that the
 14 subtalar strapping insole may regulate medial compartment loading, however not all
 15 participants demonstrated a changed FTA. It is also notable that those with subtalar
 16 strapping complained of more pain with ambulation on uneven surfaces.

17
 18 Given that the medial compartment is the most commonly affected in osteoarthritis,
 19 different means of reducing the adduction moment at the knee was evaluated by Reeves
 20 and Bowling (2011) as it is regarded as an indication of medial knee joint compression.
 21 They examined evidence for the following: walking barefoot, lateral wedges, thin soled
 22 shoes, toe out gait, cane use, lateral trunk sway, and bracing to unload the knee. Results
 23 indicated that despite the discomfort with lateral wedges in shoes, they are effective for
 24 those with early-stage OA, yet not for severe cases of OA. Barefoot walking or using thin
 25 soled shoes reduces the knee adduction moment relative to thick soled shoes. Walking with
 26 a toe-out gait reduces the second peak of the adduction moment but not the first peak. Cane
 27 use in the opposite hand and lateral trunk sway both effectively reduce the adduction
 28 moment. Unloading braces reduce the net adduction moment and unload the medial
 29 compartment of the knee. Thus, these biomechanically related interventions may
 30 effectively delay the onset or severity of OA.

31
 32 Raj and Dewan (2011) reviewed the efficacy of knee braces and foot orthoses in the
 33 management of knee OA. Twenty-five studies met the inclusion criteria. In focusing on the
 34 evidence for foot orthoses, lateral wedged insoles with subtalar strapping, medial-wedged
 35 insoles and specialized footwear were discussed. Results showed that foot orthoses are
 36 effective in decreasing pain, joint stiffness, and drug dosage for those with OA.
 37 Improvement in proprioception, balance and physical function were also noted. Results
 38 should be taken with some skepticism given the poor quality of studies and heterogeneity
 39 of interventions.

40
 41 Hinman et al. (2012) evaluated the effects of lateral wedges on frontal plane biomechanics
 42 in patients with medial knee osteoarthritis. Seventy-three participants with knee

1 osteoarthritis completed gain analysis with and without a lateral wedge in their shoe. The
2 purpose behind lateral wedges for those with osteoarthritis is to reduce the adduction
3 moment that promotes degeneration of the medial knee joint. Frontal plane kinetics were
4 evaluated. Results demonstrated that lateral wedges did reduce the peak knee adduction
5 moment and angular impulse. Other analysis suggested that a reduced knee ground reaction
6 force lever arm with lateral wedges may be the central reason why loading is reduced in
7 the medial compartment.

8
9 Sacco et al. (2012) confirmed that joint loading was decreased not only in gait, but also in
10 functional activities like walking downstairs when wearing flexible and minimalistic
11 footwear in patients with knee OA. Thirty-four (34) elderly women were split into two
12 groups: OA and a control. Stair descent was evaluated with heeled shoes, barefoot and with
13 the minimalistic shoe. They found that the reduced load was equivalent in the barefoot and
14 minimalist shoe trials vs. the heeled shoe.

15
16 In a 2015 Cochrane review on braces and orthoses for treating osteoarthritis of the knee by
17 Duivenvoorden et al. Randomized and controlled clinical trials investigating all types of
18 braces and foot/ankle orthoses for OA of the knee compared with an active control or no
19 treatment were selected for review. For the comparison of laterally wedged insole versus
20 no insole, one study ($n = 40$, low-quality evidence) showed a lower VAS pain score in the
21 laterally wedged insole group (absolute percent change 16%) after nine months. For the
22 comparison of laterally wedged versus neutral insole after pooling of three studies ($n = 358$,
23 moderate-quality evidence), little evidence was found of an effect on numerical rating scale
24 (NRS) pain scores (absolute percent change 1.0%), Western Ontario-McMaster
25 Osteoarthritis Scale (WOMAC) stiffness scores (absolute percent change 0.1%) and
26 WOMAC function scores (absolute percent change 0.9%) after 12 months. Evidence of an
27 effect on health-related quality of life scores (absolute percent change 1.0%) was lacking
28 in one study ($n = 179$, moderate-quality evidence). Data for the comparison of laterally
29 wedged insole versus valgus knee brace could not be pooled. After six months' follow-up,
30 no statistically significant difference was noted in VAS pain scores (absolute percent
31 change -2.0%) and WOMAC function scores (absolute percent change 0.1%) in one study
32 ($n = 91$, low-quality evidence); however, both groups showed improvement. Authors
33 conclude that the optimal choice for an orthotic remains unclear and long-term results are
34 lacking.

35
36 Wagner and Luna (2018) investigated the effects of footwear, including shoe inserts, in
37 reducing lower extremity joint pain and improving gait, mobility, and quality of life in
38 older adults with OA. Participants who were 50 years or older and those who had OA in at
39 least one lower extremity joint narrowed the results. The initial search resulted in a total of
40 417 citations. Eleven articles met inclusion criteria. Authors conclude that because of the
41 limited number of randomized control trials, it is not possible to make a definitive
42 conclusion about the long-term effects of footwear on lower extremity joint pain caused by

1 OA. There is mounting evidence that shock-absorbing insoles, subtalar strapping, and
2 avoidance of high heels and sandals early in life may prevent lower extremity joint pain in
3 older adults, but no conclusive evidence exists to show that lateral wedge insoles will
4 provide long-term relief from knee joint pain and improved mobility in older adults with
5 OA. More high-quality randomized control trials are needed to study the effectiveness of
6 footwear and shoe inserts on joint pain and function in older adults with OA.

7
8 Zafar et al. (2020) investigated the effectiveness of insoles for knee osteoarthritis and
9 provide future areas of research to help better define treatment guidelines. Foot orthoses
10 are an example of non-pharmacological conservative treatments mentioned in National
11 Institute for Health and Care Excellence (NICE) guidelines to treat knee osteoarthritis
12 (OA). These include lateral wedge insoles (LWI), developed with the intention of load
13 reduction of the knee. Different footwear has also been shown to affect pain, biomechanical
14 and functional outcomes in knee OA patients. Thirty-four out of 226 papers were included
15 after application of inclusion and exclusion criteria. Results also showed that insoles work
16 in correcting the position of the knee, but it may or may not affect patients' pain and
17 function. Ferreira et al. (2021) sought to determine if lateral wedge insoles adjusted by
18 biomechanical analysis improve the condition of patients with medial knee osteoarthritis.
19 A total of 38 patients with medial knee osteoarthritis were allocated to either an
20 experimental group (lateral wedge insoles) or a control group (neutral insoles). The
21 experimental group ($n = 20$) received an adjusted lateral wedge insole of 2, 4, 6, 8, or 10
22 degrees, after previous biomechanical analysis. The control group ($n = 18$) received a
23 neutral insole (0 degrees). All patients used the insoles for 12 weeks. After 12 weeks,
24 between-group differences did not differ significantly for pain intensity, biomechanical
25 parameters, Knee Injury and Osteoarthritis Outcome Score, and physical performance
26 tests, except on the Knee Injury and Osteoarthritis Outcome Score subscale. Authors
27 concluded tailored wedge insoles were no more effective at improving biomechanical or
28 clinically meaningful outcomes than neutral insoles, except on symptoms. More
29 participants from the experimental group reported they felt some improvement. However,
30 these effects were minimal and without clinical significance.

31
32 Bartsch et al. (2022) investigated the impact of varus malalignment of the knee on pain
33 reduction achieved by an ankle-foot orthosis and a laterally wedged insole in patients with
34 medial knee osteoarthritis. Twenty-eight participants with medial knee osteoarthritis. All
35 participants wore a 5-mm laterally wedged insole and an ankle-foot orthosis for a period
36 of 6 weeks each in a randomized order. Pain was reported on a numerical rating scale and
37 was correlated with limb alignment, as defined by the mechanical axis deviation in full-leg
38 standing radiographs. Insole and orthosis use reduced pain compared with baseline. A
39 higher mechanical axis deviation (greater varus) correlated significantly with smaller pain
40 reduction for both aids (insole $p = 0.003$, orthosis $p < 0.001$). A cut-off to predict pain
41 response was found at a mechanical axis deviation of 14-15 mm for both aids, i.e. $> 3^\circ$

1 knee varus. Authors concluded that there is a correlation between varus malalignment and
 2 pain reduction. There seems to be a mechanical axis deviation cut-off that predicts the
 3 response to treatment with the aids with good sensitivity.

4
 5 **Patellofemoral Pain Syndrome (PFPS) and Anterior Knee Pain and Orthotic Use**

6 A Cochrane Review by Hossain et al. (2011) assessed the effects of foot orthoses for
 7 managing PFPS in adults. RCTs and quasi-randomized clinical studies comparing foot
 8 orthoses with flat insoles or other physical therapy intervention were included. Primary
 9 outcomes were knee pain and knee function. Two trials with a total of 210 participants
 10 were included. One trial found that foot orthoses had reduced pain at 6 weeks but not at
 11 one year follow up. The orthoses group also complained of more minor adverse events as
 12 well. The evidence did not provide compelling support for the use of orthotics for
 13 management of PFPS over other interventions.

14
 15 Barton et al. (2011) conducted an interesting study attempting to define preliminary clinical
 16 predictors for when foot orthoses would be efficacious for patients with PFPS. Sixty (60)
 17 individuals with PFPS were given non-custom, prefabricated foot orthoses with a 4°
 18 rearfoot varus wedge. At 12 weeks, levels of improvement were documented along with
 19 other measures. Fourteen (14) patients (25%) reported marked improvement. When the
 20 following were included, 78% of all patients reported marked improvement: footwear
 21 motion control property score of <5.0 (meaning they wear less supportive footwear), usual
 22 pain <22.0 mm, dorsiflexion ROM with knee flexed <41°, and reduced single leg squat
 23 pain when wearing orthoses. Thus, it appears that by identification of these four (4) factors,
 24 a stronger prediction of the helpfulness of orthotics can be assumed.

25
 26 Collins et al. (2012) conducted a systematic review and meta-analysis evaluating the
 27 evidence for conservative management of PFPS. Of the 48 studies identified, 27 had low
 28 to moderate risk of bias and were included. Meta-analysis of the highest quality of studies
 29 demonstrated that a multi-modal approach, without biofeedback, for 6 weeks is appropriate
 30 for management of PFPS. Individual intervention data supported the use of foot orthoses
 31 with and without multi-modal physical therapy vs. flat inserts. They suggest that
 32 practitioners begin with a multi-modal approach and add foot orthotics if improvement is
 33 not noted.

34
 35 Mills et al. (2012) performed an RCT of the short-term efficacy of in-shoe orthotics. They
 36 also evaluated the impact of foot mobility on results. Forty patients diagnosed with anterior
 37 knee pain of greater than 6 weeks who had never used orthotics in the previous 5 years
 38 participated in the study. Subjects were able to choose between orthotics of 3 different
 39 firmness values based on comfort. At 6 weeks foot orthoses produced a significant global
 40 improvement compared with the control group. Measures of function also showed
 41 significant improvement over the control group as well. When analyzing foot mobility,

1 patients with noted changes in midfoot width from non-weight bearing to weight bearing
2 were more likely to report a successful outcome.

3
4 Collins et al. (2018) developed consensus statements using best practice methods. This
5 consensus statement, from the 5th International Patellofemoral Research Retreat held in
6 Australia in July 2017, focuses on exercise therapy and physical interventions (e.g.,
7 orthoses, taping and manual therapy) for patellofemoral pain. Recommendations from the
8 expert panel support the use of exercise therapy (especially the combination of hip-focused
9 and knee-focused exercises), combined interventions and foot orthoses to improve pain
10 and/or function in people with patellofemoral pain. The use of patellofemoral, knee or
11 lumbar mobilizations in isolation, or electrophysical agents, is not recommended. There is
12 uncertainty regarding the use of patellar taping/bracing, acupuncture/dry needling, manual
13 soft tissue techniques, blood flow restriction training and gait retraining in patients with
14 patellofemoral pain. Callaghan et al. (2021) investigated what treatments impacted
15 patellofemoral joint osteoarthritis (PFJOA). Eleven studies were identified which included
16 assessment of either patellar taping, or foot orthotics, knee bracing or combined
17 physiotherapy treatments. A randomized trial of a foot orthotic showed a non-significant
18 improvement in pain after 6 weeks with a between groups adjusted mean difference for
19 maximum VAS of 21.9 mm and 8.1 for KOOS pain. Long-term effects of all interventions
20 are still unknown, which indicates the need for further research to determine the longer-
21 term impact of all biomechanical devices on outcomes in symptomatic PFJOA.

22
23 Kayll et al. (2023) evaluated the effects of biomechanical foot-based interventions (e.g.,
24 footwear, insoles, taping and bracing on the foot) on patellofemoral loads during walking,
25 running, or walking and running combined in adults with and without patellofemoral pain
26 or osteoarthritis. Authors identified 22 footwear and 11 insole studies (participant $n=578$).
27 Pooled analyses indicated low-certainty evidence that minimalist footwear leads to a small
28 reduction in peak patellofemoral joint loads compared with conventional footwear during
29 running only. Low-certainty evidence indicated that medial support insoles do not alter
30 patellofemoral joint loads during walking or running. Very low-certainty evidence
31 indicated rocker-soled shoes have no effect on patellofemoral joint loads during walking
32 and running combined. Authors concluded that minimalist footwear may reduce peak
33 patellofemoral joint loads slightly compared with conventional footwear during running
34 only. Medial support insoles may not alter patellofemoral joint loads during walking or
35 running and the evidence is very uncertain about the effect of rocker-soled shoes during
36 walking and running combined. Clinicians aiming to reduce patellofemoral joint loads
37 during running in people with patellofemoral pain or osteoarthritis may consider minimalist
38 footwear. Alexander et al. (2023) evaluated the effectiveness of interventions to prevent
39 and manage knee injuries in runners in a systematic review and meta-analysis. Thirty RCTs
40 (18 prevention, 12 management) analyzed multiple interventions in novice and recreational
41 running populations. Low-certainty evidence indicated that running technique retraining
42 (to land softer) reduced the risk of knee injury compared with control treadmill running.

1 Very low-certainty to low-certainty evidence from 17 other prevention trials indicated that
 2 various footwear options, multicomponent exercise therapy, graduated running programs
 3 and online and in person injury prevention education programs did not influence knee
 4 injury risk. In runners with patellofemoral pain, very low-certainty to low-certainty
 5 evidence indicated that running technique retraining strategies, medial-wedged foot
 6 orthoses, multicomponent exercise therapy and osteopathic manipulation can reduce knee
 7 pain in the short-term. Authors concluded that there was low-certainty evidence that
 8 running technique retraining to land softer may reduce knee injury risk by two-thirds. Very
 9 low-certainty to low-certainty evidence suggests that running-related patellofemoral pain
 10 may be effectively managed through a variety of active (e.g., running technique retraining,
 11 multicomponent exercise therapy) and passive interventions (e.g., foot orthoses,
 12 osteopathic manipulation).

13 14 **Knee Ligament Injury and Orthotics**

15 In a study by Jenkins et al. (2008), the relationship of foot orthoses uses, and anterior
 16 cruciate ligament (ACL) injury was explored in women basketball players. Given the high
 17 prevalence of ACL injury in women athletes, any potential influences for prevention of
 18 injury should be explored. One hundred and fifty-five players were observed for ACL and
 19 other ligament injury from 1992-2005. Certain groups of athletes (based on years of
 20 participation) did not receive foot orthoses and served as a control group. The treatment
 21 group included athletes who participated in the remaining years. These athletes received
 22 orthotics to wear during the basketball season. Data analysis included knee ligament injury
 23 rates and comparison of rates among groups. Athletes in the control group had three
 24 collateral injuries and three ACL injuries. Athletes in the treatment group had four
 25 collateral injuries and one ACL injury. Thus, athletes in the control group were 1.72 times
 26 more likely to sustain a collateral injury and 7.14 times more likely to experience an ACL
 27 injury than the treatment group. Thus, foot orthotics may play a role in preventing ACL
 28 injury in female collegiate basketball players.

29
30 Jenkins and Raedeke (2006) also studied the use of foot orthotics in women's basketball
 31 and their effect on lower extremity (LE) injury. One hundred and thirty-two female athletes
 32 were observed for LE injury between 1993 and 2004. Groups were established based on
 33 the same methodology as the previous study. Data analysis included LE overuse injury
 34 rates and effect of foot orthotics on these rates. The control group had a LE injury rate of
 35 5.37 per 1,000 exposures and the orthotic group had a rate of 6.44 per 1,000 exposures.
 36 The incidence ratio was not significantly different between groups. This study rejected the
 37 idea that foot orthotics can assist with prevention of LE injury in female basketball players.

38 39 **Plantar Fasciitis (PF) and Orthotics**

40 Gross et al. (2002) studied the impact of semi-rigid customized orthotics on pain and
 41 disability for patients with plantar fasciitis. Fifteen subjects with PF participated in the
 42 study. Pre and post measures suggest that semi-rigid custom orthotics may significantly

1 reduce pain with walking and also reduce more global measures of pain and disability for
2 patients with PF. Cole et al. (2005) reviewed the literature and determined that of all
3 interventions for plantar fasciitis, shoe inserts, stretching exercises, steroid injections, and
4 custom-made night splints may all be beneficial. In a study by Roos et al. (2006), 43
5 patients (34 women and nine men) diagnosed with PF were randomized to receive foot
6 orthoses and night splints, or just night splints alone. Some patients were lost to drop out,
7 but results for 34 subjects indicated that at 12 weeks, pain reduction was 30-50% improved
8 from baseline. All outcome measures improved significantly as well. At 52 weeks, 38
9 subjects indicated continued improved outcomes and pain reduction of 62% for the orthotic
10 group compared to 48% for the night splint only group. At 12 months, the majority of
11 subjects were still using the orthotics, while only one subject was using the night splint.
12 Authors suggested that both interventions are effective in the short and long term, but that
13 compliance is better with fewer side effects for the orthotic group. Thus, orthotics may be
14 the better initial treatment method for patients with PF.

15
16 In another study looking at the effectiveness of foot orthoses to treat PF, Landorf et al.
17 (2006) attempted to improve study design by performing an RCT of 135 subjects with PF.
18 Subjects were allocated to one of three groups; sham orthoses, prefabricated orthoses, or
19 customized orthoses. After 3 months of treatment, pain and function were more positively
20 improved with the prefabricated and custom orthotics; however, only pain reduction was
21 significantly improved. At 12 months, there were no significant differences between
22 groups. Thus, orthotics may provide short term pain relief and small benefits in function.
23 It also appears that customized and prefabricated orthoses have similar results.

24
25 Chia et al. (2009) wanted to look at differences in foot pressure patterns between orthotics,
26 bone spur pads and flat insoles in patients with chronic plantar fasciitis. Thirty subjects
27 with unilateral plantar fasciitis (PF) participated in this study. Both feet were examined for
28 contact pressures and pressure distribution patterns while standing in shoes, customized
29 and prefabricated orthotics, bone spur pads and with flat insoles. The asymptomatic foot
30 was used as a control. Contact pressures were higher for the asymptomatic side due to
31 unequal weight bearing. Bone spur pads were ineffective in reducing rearfoot pressure,
32 while prefabricated and customized orthotics reduced peak rearfoot pressures significantly
33 and may be useful in distributing pressure uniformly over the rearfoot region.

34
35 Drake et al. (2011) sought to identify the short-term effectiveness of custom orthotics and
36 stretching for the treatment of plantar fasciitis. Fifteen patients with PF received a custom
37 orthotic and were instructed to wear it for 2 weeks while weight bearing. After two weeks,
38 they were weaned off it. Primary outcome measures were assessed at 2, 4, and 12 weeks.
39 They concluded that use of a custom orthotic in the short term followed by stretching can
40 improve function in patients with PF.

1 Crawford and Thomson (2003) updated a 2000 Cochrane Review on interventions for
2 plantar heel pain. RCTs and quasi-randomized trials were included. Nineteen trials were
3 included which corresponded to 1,626 subjects. Overall, trial quality was poor, and pooling
4 of data was impossible due to heterogeneity. Heel pain was the primary outcome measured.
5 Only 7 trials evaluated the interventions against a control group (placebo or no treatment).
6 Results showed that limited evidence existed for iontophoresis, more evidence existed for
7 cortisone injections. For chronic pain, evidence existed for the use of dorsiflexion night
8 splints for reducing pain. Limited evidence did support the use of orthotics as well and
9 when comparing orthotics to cortisone injections, the evidence was too limited to draw any
10 conclusions. It does appear that there is limited evidence that stretching exercises and heel
11 pads produce better results than custom orthotics for patients who stand longer than 8 hours
12 a day. An important consensus of this review is that well designed RCTs are required to
13 confirm results and state which interventions are most effective. A meta-analysis and
14 comparative trial examined the effectiveness of foot orthotics in patients with plantar
15 fasciitis and found that prefabricated and custom foot orthotics can decrease rear foot pain
16 and improve foot function. (Lee et al., 2009; Chia et al., 2009) Lee et al. (2009) performed
17 a meta-analysis examining the effects of foot orthoses on self-reported pain and function
18 in patients with plantar fasciitis. The meta-analysis results showed significant reductions
19 in pain and significant increases in function after orthotic intervention. The authors
20 concluded that the use of foot orthoses in patients with plantar fasciitis appears to be
21 associated with reduced pain and increased function. A Cochrane review found that custom
22 foot orthotics may not reduce foot pain any more than prefabricated foot orthotics, but that
23 when custom foot orthotics are used in conjunction with a night splint, patients may get
24 heel pain relief. (Hawke et al., 2008).

25
26 A cross-over study design by Van Lunen et al. (2011) studied the immediate effects of
27 heel-pain orthosis and augmented low-dye taping on plantar pressures and pain in subjects
28 with PF while walking and jogging. Seventeen subjects with PF participated in the study.
29 Plantar pressures and pain were assessed in three conditions; control, taping, and orthosis
30 after 45 seconds of walking and jogging. Both taping and orthosis use reduced pressures
31 and pain significantly during walking and jogging compared to the control group. Further
32 research is needed to determine long term effect of these interventions.

33
34 Coheña-Jiménez et al. (2021) sought to determine the clinical results of custom-made foot
35 orthoses versus placebo flat cushioning insoles combined with an extracorporeal shock
36 wave therapy on pain and foot functionality in patients with plantar fasciitis. Patients with
37 plantar fasciitis were randomly assigned to either group A ($n = 42$), which received custom-
38 made foot orthoses, or group B ($n = 41$), which received placebo insoles. All the
39 participants received active extracorporeal shock wave therapy including stretching
40 exercises. The main outcome was foot pain, measured by visual analogue scale and the
41 secondary outcome measures were recorded by Roles and Maudsley scores respectively,
42 at the beginning and at one week, one month and six months. Eighty-eight patients were

1 assessed for eligibility. Eighty-three patients were recruited and randomized. This study
 2 showed significant differences between both groups according to the visual analogue scale
 3 at one and six months. Authors concluded that wearing a custom-made foot orthosis leads
 4 to an improvement in patients with plantar fasciitis; it reduced foot pain and improved foot
 5 functionality.

6
 7 Cooper (2023) reviewed common foot and ankle conditions. He reports first-line
 8 nonoperative therapy include stretching of the plantar fascia and foot orthotics, followed
 9 by extracorporeal shockwave therapy, corticosteroid injection, or platelet-rich plasma
 10 injection.

11
 12 Lourenço et al. (2023) investigated the effects of pharmacological and non-
 13 pharmacological therapies on pain intensity and disability for plantar fasciitis. Seventeen
 14 different therapies investigated in 28 trials were included in the quantitative analysis. For
 15 non-pharmacological therapies, moderate certainty evidence showed short-term effects of
 16 customized orthoses on pain intensity when compared with control. Low certainty evidence
 17 showed short-term effects of taping on pain intensity. Long-term effects and effects on
 18 disability are still uncertain. Authors concluded that moderate-quality and low-quality
 19 evidence demonstrates customized orthoses and taping, respectively, reduce pain intensity
 20 in the short term in patients with plantar fasciitis.

21 22 **Heel Pain and Inserts**

23 Bonanno et al. (2011) wanted to determine the mechanism behind the effectiveness of heel
 24 inserts for treatment of plantar heel pain in the older population. The purpose of their study
 25 was to investigate whether foot orthoses and heel inserts affect plantar pressures in older
 26 adults with heel pain. Thirty-six older adults were subjects for the study. Five different
 27 conditions were tested during walking: wearing a standardized shoe, shoe with silicon heel
 28 cup, shoe with soft foam heel pad, shoe with heel lift, and shoe with prefabricated orthotic.
 29 Statistically significant reductions of heel pressures occurred in 3 of the 4 conditions with
 30 shoe inserts. The largest reduction was noted in the prefabricated orthotic (fivefold
 31 reduction in heel pressure), with an increase in midfoot contact area, which resulted in a
 32 greater distribution of forces. Thus, this was considered the most effective insert for this
 33 population. McGinnis and Stubbs (2011) completed a recent Cochrane Review on the
 34 treatment of heel pressure ulcers with various pressure relieving devices. Heel pressure
 35 ulcers can develop readily in patients with vascular compromise, and these ulcers require
 36 special attention due to the impact on function. Only one study met criteria for inclusion.
 37 This study, with 141 patients, compared two mattress systems and no heel devices. Too
 38 many losses to-follow-up occurred, thus no conclusions could be gained. Authors
 39 concluded more research is needed in this area. In a dated paper by Nichols (1989), heel
 40 lifts are discussed as a conservative intervention for Achilles tendinitis, along with relative
 41 rest, gastrocnemius-soleus rehabilitation, cryotherapy, nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory

1 drugs, and correction of biomechanical abnormalities. No newer studies were found to
2 support this summary.

3
4 Whittaker et al. (2018) investigated the effectiveness of foot orthoses for pain and function
5 in adults with plantar heel pain. A total of 19 trials (1,660 participants) were included. In
6 the short term, there was very low-quality evidence that foot orthoses do not reduce pain
7 or improve function. In the medium term, there was moderate-quality evidence that foot
8 orthoses were more effective than sham foot orthoses at reducing pain. There was no
9 improvement in function in the medium term. In the longer term, there was very low-
10 quality evidence that foot orthoses do not reduce pain or improve function. A comparison
11 of customized and prefabricated foot orthoses showed no difference at any time point.
12 Authors concluded that there is moderate-quality evidence that foot orthoses are effective
13 at reducing pain in the medium term, however it is uncertain whether this is a clinically
14 important change. Rasenberg et al. (2018) investigated the effects of different orthoses on
15 pain, function, and self-reported recovery in patients with PHP and compare them with
16 other conservative interventions. Twenty studies investigating eight different types of foot
17 orthoses were included in the review. Most studies were of high quality. Authors concluded
18 that foot orthoses are not superior for improving pain and function compared with sham or
19 other conservative treatment in patients with PHP.

20
21 Tran and Spyr (2019) reviewed the comparative clinical and cost effectiveness of custom-
22 made foot orthoses versus prefabricated foot orthoses for patients requiring a foot orthotics.
23 The evidence showed no difference between custom-made and prefabricated foot orthoses
24 for pain reduction or functional improvement after short-term (6 weeks), medium-term (12
25 weeks) and long-term (12 months) treatment in adult patients with plantar heel pain. There
26 was also no difference between interventions for short-term self-reported recovery and
27 patient satisfaction. Evidence on comfort was mixed. Morrissey et al. (2021) developed a
28 best practice guide for managing people with plantar heel pain (PHP). Fifty-one eligible
29 trials enrolled 4,351 participants, with 9 RCTs suitable to determine proof of efficacy for
30 10 interventions. Forty people with PHP completed the online survey and 14 experts were
31 interviewed resulting in 7 themes and 38 subthemes. Authors concluded that best practice
32 from a mixed-methods study synthesizing systematic review with expert opinion and
33 patient feedback suggests core treatment for people with PHP should include taping,
34 stretching and individualized education. Patients who do not optimally improve may be
35 offered shockwave therapy, followed by custom orthoses.

36
37 Harutaichun et al. (2023) aimed to determine the effects of heat molded custom foot
38 orthoses (CFOs) on foot and lower limb kinematics when compared with prefabricated foot
39 orthoses (PFOs) and wearing no orthoses (shod condition), and to determine the short-term
40 effects of CFOs on pain intensity and foot function. The immediate effects of CFOs on the
41 lower limb and multi-segment foot motion were assessed. Participants were then asked to
42 use the CFOs for one month and foot pain, function, and temporal-spatial parameters were

1 assessed at baseline and at one month follow up. Thirty-five participants (22 females) aged
 2 40.1 (10.5) years, with a mean duration of symptoms of 12.59 months were recruited. The
 3 symptomatic limbs showed a higher forefoot varus angle and greater rearfoot and forefoot
 4 corrections were required compared to the non-symptomatic limbs. When compared with
 5 PFOs and shod conditions, CFOs provided the least forefoot and knee motion in the
 6 transverse plane during contact phase, least rearfoot motion in the coronal plane during
 7 midstance, and least forefoot motion in the frontal plane, knee motion in the transverse
 8 plane, and hallux motion during the propulsive phase. Significant improvements were seen
 9 for foot pain and function with significant increases in cadence and walking velocity after
 10 one month of CFO use, and those most likely to respond had greater pain and less ankle
 11 eversion. Authors concluded that CFOs appear to improve pathological biomechanics
 12 associated with plantar heel pain. After one month follow up, the CFOs decreased pain
 13 intensity and increased foot function, and showed significant improvements in temporal
 14 and spatial parameters of gait.

15 **Pes Planus and Inserts**

16 In a study by Wenger et al. (1989) the use of corrective shoes and inserts for flexible flatfoot
 17 in infants and children was evaluated. One hundred and twenty-nine children were
 18 randomly assigned to four groups: control, corrective orthopedic shoes, heel cup, and
 19 custom molded inserts. After three years of treatment, 98 patients remained compliant, and
 20 their data was used in analysis. Radiographic analysis showed no significant differences
 21 between groups, including the control group. Thus, it appears that the course of flexible
 22 flatfoot in infants is not affected by use of corrective shoes or inserts. A Cochrane review
 23 by Evans and Rome (2011) identified the evidence for non-surgical interventions for
 24 flexible pediatric flat feet. Flat feet typically reduce as a child ages and few have been
 25 found to be symptomatic. No standardized framework has been identified to evaluate the
 26 pediatric flat foot and it is often unnecessarily treated. Currently management is determined
 27 according to age, flexibility, pain, gender, weight, and joint hypermobility. When foot
 28 orthoses are indicated, inexpensive generic, over the counter inserts will work. Customized
 29 orthotics should be reserved for children with foot pain and arthritis, deformity or for those
 30 who are unresponsive. Authors suggest that there is a need for standardized assessment and
 31 management with focus on the best available evidence. Further research on the effects of
 32 shoes and inserts is warranted. Dars et al. (2017) updated the current evidence base for the
 33 effectiveness of foot orthotics (FOs) for pediatric flexible pes planus. Out of 606 articles
 34 identified, 11 studies (3 RCTs; 2 case-controls; 5 case-series and 1 single case study) met
 35 the inclusion criteria. A diverse range of pre-fabricated and customized FOs were utilized
 36 and effectiveness measured through a plethora of outcomes. Summarized findings from the
 37 heterogeneous evidence base indicated that FOs may have a positive impact across a range
 38 of outcomes including pain, foot posture, gait, function, and structural and kinetic
 39 measures. Despite these consistent positive outcomes reported in several studies, the
 40 current evidence base lacks clarity and uniformity in terms of diagnostic criteria,
 41 interventions delivered, and outcomes measured for pediatric flexible pes planus. Authors
 42

1 concluded that there continues to remain uncertainty on the effectiveness of FOs for
2 pediatric flexible pes planus. Despite several methodological limitations, FOs show
3 potential as a treatment method for children with flexible pes planus. Herchenröder et al.
4 (2021) synthesized the evidence of foot orthoses for adults with flatfoot. A total of 110
5 studies were identified through the database search. 12 studies met the inclusion criteria
6 and were included in the review. These studies investigated prefabricated and custom-made
7 foot orthoses, evaluating stance and plantar pressure during gait. The sample sizes of the
8 identified studies ranged from 8 to 80. In most of the studies, the methodological quality
9 was low and a lack of information was frequently detected. Authors concluded there is a
10 lack of evidence on the effect of foot orthoses for flatfoot in adults. This review illustrates
11 the importance of conducting randomized controlled trials and the comprehensive
12 development of guidelines for the prescription of foot orthoses. Given the weak evidence
13 available, the common prescription of foot orthoses is somewhat surprising.

14
15 Evans et al. (2022) assessed the benefits and harms of foot orthoses for treating pediatric
16 flat feet. Authors identified all randomized controlled trials (RCTs) of FOs as an
17 intervention for pediatric flat feet. The outcomes included in this review were pain,
18 function, quality of life, treatment success, and adverse events. Intended comparisons were
19 any FOs versus sham, any FOs versus shoes, customized FOs (CFOs) versus prefabricated
20 FOs (PFOs). They included 16 trials with 1,058 children, aged 11 months to 19 years, with
21 flexible flat feet. Distinct flat foot presentations included asymptomatic, juvenile idiopathic
22 arthritis (JIA), symptomatic and developmental coordination disorder (DCD). The trial
23 interventions were FOs, footwear, foot and rehabilitative exercises, and neuromuscular
24 electrical stimulation (NMES). Due to heterogeneity, we did not pool the data. Most trials
25 had potential for selection, performance, detection, and selective reporting bias. No trial
26 blinded participants. The certainty of evidence was very low to low, downgraded for bias,
27 imprecision, and indirectness. Three comparisons were evaluated across trials: CFO versus
28 shoes; PFO versus shoes; CFO versus PFO. Authors concluded that FOs may improve pain
29 and function, versus shoes in children with JIA, with minimal delineation between costly
30 CFOs and generic PFOs. This review updates that from 2010, confirming that in the
31 absence of pain, the use of high-cost CFOs for healthy children with flexible flat feet has
32 no supporting evidence, and draws very limited conclusions about FOs for treating
33 pediatric flat feet. The availability of normative and prospective foot development data
34 dismisses most flat foot concerns and negates continued attention to this topic.

35
36 According to Barry and Pille (2023) customized or prefabricated foot orthoses do not result
37 in significant improvements in pain, function, or parent and child quality-of-life scores.
38 Importantly, quality-of-life scores were not reported in patients who were asymptomatic.
39 There is a need for further targeted studies to identify the clinical utility of foot orthoses in
40 children with flat feet that are associated with underlying conditions; however,
41 asymptomatic flat feet in children should not be routinely treated. (Strength of
42 Recommendation: C, consensus, disease-oriented evidence, usual practice, expert opinion,

1 or case series.) Oerlemans et al. (2023) examined the effectiveness of orthoses for flexible
 2 flatfeet in terms of patient-reported outcomes in children and adults in a systematic review
 3 and meta-analysis. In total 9 studies were included: 4 RCT in children ($N = 353$) and 4
 4 RCT and 1 prospective study in adults ($N = 268$) were included. There was considerable
 5 heterogeneity between studies. A meta-analysis demonstrated that pain reduction between
 6 baseline and follow-up was significantly larger in the orthoses ($N = 167$) than in the control
 7 groups in adults. Authors concluded that due to heterogeneity in study designs, we cannot
 8 conclude that foot orthoses are useful for flexible flatfoot in children and adults. However,
 9 based on the meta-analysis orthoses might be useful in decreasing pain in adults. The
 10 authors did not receive support from any organization for the submitted work.

11 **Rheumatic Arthritis (RA)/Juvenile Idiopathic Arthritis (JIA)**

12 JIA is a condition that can affect the gait and function of children. Powell et al. (2005)
 13 examined the efficacy of different orthotics, shoe inserts and shoes for this condition. Forty
 14 children with JIA and foot pain were randomized into one of three groups: custom made
 15 semi-rigid orthotics with shock absorbers, off-the-shelf flat neoprene shoe inserts, and
 16 supportive athletic shoes with arch support and shock absorption qualities. Subjects were
 17 assessed by blinded personnel for pain, timed walking, foot function index, and physical
 18 functioning subscale of the Pediatric Quality of Life Inventory. Results demonstrated that
 19 children in the orthotics group showed a significantly greater improvement in pain,
 20 ambulation speed, activity limitations, and level of disability when compared to the two
 21 other groups. Parents and children also reported clinically meaningful improvement in
 22 quality of life, though not statistically significant. Supportive athletic shoes or off-the-shelf
 23 shoe inserts did not report significant changes in measures except for pain. The authors
 24 concluded that children with JIA with foot pain may benefit from customized semi-rigid
 25 foot orthotics to improve pain, increase gait speed, and improve activity and functional
 26 levels compared to prefabricated orthotics, shoe inserts, and athletic shoes.
 27

28
 29 Foot orthoses have been prescribed for patients with RA who experience foot pain. Given
 30 the limited evidence to support this intervention, Clark et al. (2006) sought to review the
 31 present state of the literature to determine efficacy of foot orthoses for these patients.
 32 Authors suggest there is no consensus of opinion on the type of foot orthoses for
 33 management of foot pain in the patient with RA. However, the literature does provide high
 34 evidence for a reduction of pain and improvement of functional ability when orthoses are
 35 used. Overall, given the small sample sizes and lack of valid or reliable outcomes, further
 36 research is necessary to confirm results and determine efficacy.

37
 38 A Cochrane Review by Hawke et al. (2008) discussed the use of custom foot orthoses for
 39 the treatment of foot pain. Because customized orthotics are often prescribed for patients
 40 with foot pain, it is important to synthesize the evidence of their effectiveness for different
 41 types of foot pain. As is typical for Cochrane Reviews, RCTs and controlled clinical trials
 42 were evaluated. Outcomes included foot pain, function, disability, quality of life,

1 satisfaction, adverse events, and compliance. Eleven trials consisting of 1,332 subjects
2 were included. Foot pain conditions included plantar fasciitis (PF) (691 participants),
3 rheumatoid arthritis (RA) foot pain (231 participants), pes cavus (154 participants),
4 juvenile idiopathic arthritis (JIA) (147 participants), and hallux valgus (209 participants).
5 Comparisons to customized orthoses were made against sham orthoses, no intervention,
6 standard intervention, prefabricated orthoses, manipulation/mobilization and stretching,
7 night splints and surgery. Follow up periods ranged from one week to three years. Results
8 demonstrated that customized foot orthotics were effective for pes cavus, rearfoot pain RA,
9 JIA foot pain, and painful hallux valgus. Surgery was more effective for hallux valgus.
10 Prefabricated orthotics appeared to be as effective for JIA as customized orthotics, but
11 study quality was lacking. No conclusions could be made about whether custom orthoses
12 were effective for PF of metatarsophalangeal joint pain in RA. Overall, customized
13 orthoses were safe to use.

14
15 Chang et al. (2012) suggest that use of materials that have memory properties can be
16 effective for reducing the pain of metatarsalgia in patients with RA. Insoles are used to
17 redistribute forces under the heads of the metatarsals, which can relieve pain. Often, typical
18 insoles are not effective due to the deformities that are present in patients with RA. Chang
19 and his team developed dynamic insoles that use sequential foam padding and are
20 customized under successive walking, which causes impressions. Seventeen patients
21 participated in the study. Pain and plantar pressures were evaluated. Results demonstrated
22 that peak and mean pressures across the metatarsal heads were reduced significantly in the
23 dynamic insoles. Heel pressures were not reduced significantly. Pain scores were also
24 reduced for the dynamic insole group.

25
26 In a review of custom foot orthoses for RA, Hennessy et al. (2012) critically appraised the
27 evidence regarding the effectiveness of custom foot and ankle orthoses for patients with
28 RA. Meta-analyses were conducted for outcome domains with multiple RCTs. The
29 inclusion criteria were met by 17 studies. Two studies had high quality for internal validity
30 and 3 studies had high quality for external validity. No study had high quality for both
31 internal and external validity. There was weak evidence for custom orthoses reducing pain
32 and forefoot plantar pressures. Evidence was inconclusive for foot function, walking speed,
33 gait parameters, and reducing hallux abductovalgus angle progression. Authors concluded
34 that custom orthoses may be beneficial in reducing pain and elevated forefoot plantar
35 pressures in the rheumatoid foot and ankle. However, more definitive research is needed
36 in this area. Conceição et al. (2015) completed a systematic review and meta-analysis of
37 effects of foot orthoses (FO) on pain and disability in rheumatoid arthritis patients. Three
38 studies, involving 110 patients who received FO and 108 control patients, met the study
39 criteria. Relative to controls, FO had a positive impact on pain. Between group differences
40 in disability were not statistically significant. Authors concluded that FO may improve pain
41 in RA patients, but their impact on disability remains undetermined. Additional large RCTs
42 are needed to investigate the effects of these devices in RA patients.

1 Frecklington et al. (2017) conducted a literature review on the effectiveness of footwear on
2 foot pain, function, impairment, and disability for people with foot and ankle arthritis. A
3 total of 1,440 studies were identified for screening with 11 studies included in the review.
4 Mean (range) quality scores were 67% (39-96%). The majority of studies investigated
5 rheumatoid arthritis ($n = 7$), but also included gout ($n = 2$), and 1st metatarsophalangeal
6 joint osteoarthritis ($n = 2$). Meta-analysis and GRADE assessment were not deemed
7 appropriate based on methodological variation. Footwear interventions included off-the-
8 shelf footwear, therapeutic footwear, and therapeutic footwear with foot orthoses. Key
9 footwear characteristics included cushioning and a wide toe box for rheumatoid arthritis;
10 cushioning, midsole stability and a rocker-sole for gout; and a rocker-sole for 1st
11 metatarsophalangeal joint osteoarthritis. Footwear interventions were associated with
12 reductions in foot pain, impairment and disability for people with rheumatoid arthritis.
13 Between group differences were more likely to be observed in studies with shorter follow-
14 up periods in people with rheumatoid arthritis (12 weeks). Footwear interventions
15 improved foot pain, function, and disability in people with gout and foot pain and function
16 in 1st metatarsophalangeal joint osteoarthritis. Footwear interventions were associated with
17 changes to plantar pressure in people with rheumatoid arthritis, gout and 1st
18 metatarsophalangeal joint osteoarthritis and walking velocity in people with rheumatoid
19 arthritis and gout. Authors concluded that footwear interventions are associated with
20 reductions in foot pain, impairment, and disability in people with rheumatoid arthritis,
21 improvements to foot pain, function, and disability in people with gout and improvements
22 to foot pain and function in people with 1st metatarsophalangeal joint osteoarthritis.
23 Footwear interventions have been shown to reduce plantar pressure rheumatoid arthritis,
24 gout and 1st metatarsophalangeal joint osteoarthritis and improve walking velocity in
25 rheumatoid arthritis and gout.

26
27 Gijon-Nogueron et al. (2018) sought to determine the effectiveness of foot orthoses in
28 patients with rheumatoid arthritis (RA), in comparison with other treatments, in terms of
29 enhanced disability and reduced pain. A systematic review and meta-analysis were
30 conducted of a number of randomized controlled trials focusing on patients with RA. Of
31 the initial 118 studies considered, 5 were included in the final systematic review and meta-
32 analysis. These five studies had enrolled a total of 301 participants, with follow-up periods
33 ranging from 4 to 36 months. Although the use of orthoses seems to alleviate foot pain, our
34 meta-analysis did not reveal statistically significant differences between control and
35 intervention groups regarding long- and short-term pain relief and/or reduced disability.
36 Authors concluded that foot orthoses can relieve pain and disability and enhance patients,
37 but no significant differences were found between control and intervention groups.

38
39 Tenten-Diepenmaat et al. (2019) summarized the comparative effectiveness of FOs in the
40 treatment of various foot problems in patients with rheumatoid arthritis, on the primary
41 outcomes foot function and foot pain, and the secondary outcomes physical functioning,
42 health related quality of life, compliance, adverse events, the costs of FOs and patient

1 satisfaction. Studies comparing different kinds of FOs, with a presumed therapeutic effect,
2 in the treatment of foot problems related to rheumatoid arthritis were included. Ten studies
3 were identified, with a total number of 235 patients. These studies made a comparison
4 between different materials used (soft versus semi-rigid), types of FOs (custom-made
5 versus ready-made; total contact versus non-total contact), or modifications applied
6 (metatarsal bars versus domes). Also, different techniques to construct custom-made FOs
7 were compared (standard custom-molding techniques versus more sophisticated
8 techniques). A medium effect for (immediate) reduction of forefoot plantar pressure was
9 found in favor of treatment with soft FOs compared to semi-rigid FOs. Other comparisons
10 between FOs resulted in non-significant effects or inconclusive evidence for one kind of
11 FOs over the other. Authors concluded that foot orthoses made of soft materials may lead
12 to more (immediate) forefoot plantar pressure reduction compared to foot orthoses
13 constructed of semi-rigid materials. Definitive high quality RCTs, with adequate sample
14 sizes and long-term follow-up, are needed to investigate the comparative (cost-)
15 effectiveness of different kinds of foot orthoses for the treatment of foot problems related
16 to rheumatoid arthritis. Reina-Bueno et al. (2019) sought to determine the effect of custom-
17 made foot orthoses versus placebo insoles on pain, disability, foot functionality, and quality
18 of life. Patients were randomly assigned to either group A, which received custom-made
19 foot orthoses, or group B, which received placebo, flat cushioning insoles, for three
20 months. The primary outcome was foot pain, measured by visual analog scale. Foot
21 functionality, foot-related disability, and quality of life were measured using the Foot
22 Function Index, the Manchester Foot Pain and Disability Index, and 12-Item Short Form
23 Health Survey (SF-12) questionnaires, respectively, at the beginning and at days 30, 60,
24 and 90. A total of 53 patients, aged 59.21 ± 11.38 years, received either the custom-made
25 foot orthoses ($N = 28$) or the placebo ($N = 25$). For the analysis of the data, only participants
26 who had been measured at the four time points (0, 30, 60, and 90 days) were included. In
27 group A, all variables showed statistically significant differences when comparing the
28 initial and final measurements. Pain showed 6.61 ± 2.33 and 4.11 ± 2.66 in group A, at
29 baseline and at 90 days, respectively, and Group B showed 6.16 ± 1.77 and 5.60 ± 2.71 at
30 baseline and at 90 days, respectively. This was the only variable that showed statistically
31 significant difference between groups ($P = 0.048$). Authors concluded that the custom-
32 made foot orthoses significantly reduced the participants' foot pain, although they did not
33 have positive effects on disability, foot functionality, and quality of life compared with
34 only cushioning.

35
36 Gaino et al. (2021) compared balance, foot function and mobility in patients with
37 rheumatoid arthritis with and without foot orthoses. A total of 94 subjects with rheumatoid
38 arthritis were randomized; of these, 81 were included in the analyses (Intervention group:
39 40; Control group: 41). The Intervention Group received custom-made foot orthoses while
40 the Control Group received no intervention. Measures assessed at baseline and after 4
41 weeks included the "Foot Function Index," the "Berg Balance Scale," and the "Timed-up-

1 and-go Test". Authors concluded that foot orthoses improved foot function and balance in
2 patients with rheumatoid arthritis.

3
4 Brosseau et al. (2016) created evidence-based guidelines evaluating foot care interventions
5 for the management of juvenile idiopathic arthritis (JIA). The Ottawa Panel selection
6 criteria targeted studies that assessed foot care or foot orthotic interventions for the
7 management of JIA in those aged 0 to ≤ 18 years. Authors concluded that the use of
8 customized foot orthotics and prefabricated shoe inserts seems to be a good choice for
9 managing foot pain and function in JIA. Fellas et al. (2022) investigated the effect of
10 customized preformed foot orthoses on pain, quality of life, swollen and tender lower joints
11 and foot and ankle disability in children with JIA. Pain was the primary outcome and was
12 followed up to 12 months post intervention. Secondary outcomes include quality of life,
13 foot and ankle disability and swollen and tender joints. A linear mixed model was used to
14 assess the impact of the intervention at each time point. Sixty-six participants were
15 recruited. Child-reported pain was reduced statistically and clinically significant at 4 weeks
16 and 3 months post intervention in favor of the trial group. Statistical significance was not
17 reached at 6 and 12-month follow-ups. Quality of life and foot and ankle disability were
18 not statistically significant at any follow-up; however, tender midfoot and ankle joints were
19 significantly reduced 6 months post intervention. Authors concluded that results of this
20 clinical trial indicate customized preformed foot orthoses can be effective in reducing pain
21 and tender joints in children with JIA exhibiting foot and ankle symptoms. Long-term
22 efficacy of foot orthoses remains unclear. Overall, the trial intervention was safe,
23 inexpensive, and well tolerated by pediatric patients. Fellas et al. (2022) also sought to
24 understand whether customized preformed FOs are effective in improving gait parameters
25 in children with JIA. A multicenter, parallel design, single-blinded randomized clinical trial
26 was used to assess the gait impacts of customized preformed FOs on children with JIA.
27 Children with a diagnosis of JIA, exhibiting lower limb symptoms and aged 5-18 were
28 eligible. The trial group received a low-density full length, Slimflex Simple device which
29 was customized chair side and the control group received a sham device. Peak pressure and
30 pressure time integrals were used as the main gait outcomes and were measured using
31 portable Tekscan gait analysis technology at baseline, 3 and 6 months. Differences at each
32 follow-up were assessed using the Wilcoxon rank sum test. 66 participants were recruited.
33 Customized preformed FOs were effective in altering plantar pressures in children with
34 JIA versus a control device. Reductions of peak pressures and pressure time integrals in
35 the heel, forefoot and 5th metatarsophalangeal joint were statistically significant in favor
36 of the trial group. This was associated with statistically significant increased midfoot
37 contact with the trial device at baseline, 3 and 6-month data collections. The trial
38 intervention was safe and well accepted by participants, which is reflected in the high
39 retention rate (92%).

1 **Chronic Non-Cancer Pain (includes many of the conditions above)**

2 Banerjee and Butcher (2020) reviewed the clinical effectiveness of customized or
 3 prefabricated shoe inserts for chronic, non-cancer pain. There are a variety of chronic pain
 4 conditions such as chronic back pain, chronic neck pain, chronic tension headache, and
 5 chronic arthritic pain. Chronic pain can affect various parts of the body such as the lower
 6 back, upper back, knee, leg, feet, shoulder, neck, and hip. Lower back pain appears to be
 7 the most predominant type, accounting for more than one-third of those suffering from
 8 chronic pain. There are several non-pharmacological treatment options available for
 9 chronic pain such as exercise, multidisciplinary rehabilitation, psychological therapies, and
 10 physical modalities. Foot orthotics are one example of a non-pharmacological treatment
 11 option for chronic pain and include custom-made shoe inserts or prefabricated shoe inserts
 12 (with a treatment intent). These inserts are intended to support or align foot structures or to
 13 prevent or correct foot deformities, and can be of various types such as soft, semi-rigid,
 14 and rigid. Foot orthotics have been used for the management of chronic pain, in individuals
 15 with various conditions such as rheumatoid arthritis and low back pain., However, there
 16 appears to be some uncertainty with respect to its effectiveness in improving pain and
 17 disability. This report is an upgrade from a recent (published in 2020) CADTH Reference
 18 List report and with additional restrictions with respect to inclusion criteria. The purpose
 19 of the current report was to summarize and critically appraise the relevant evidence
 20 identified in the previous report regarding the clinical effectiveness of customized foot
 21 orthotics or prefabricated shoe inserts (with a therapeutic intent) for chronic non-cancer
 22 pain. Key findings included the following:

- 23 • There were inconsistencies regarding the effectiveness of foot orthoses compared
 24 with control (standard insole, placebo, or none) in alleviating pain in adult patients
 25 with foot pain based on findings from three systematic reviews and two randomized
 26 controlled trials (RCTs); reported results from these studies included statistically
 27 significant improvements in pain with foot orthoses compared to control (one
 28 systematic review, and two RCTs), no statistically significant between group
 29 difference (one systematic review) and inconsistent findings for between group
 30 differences (one systematic review describing studies individually).
- 31 • There were inconsistencies regarding the effectiveness of foot orthoses compared
 32 with control (standard insole, placebo, or none) in improving function in adult
 33 patients with foot pain based on findings from two systematic reviews and one
 34 RCT; reported results from these studies included a statistically significant
 35 improvement with foot orthoses compared to control (one RCT) and no statistical
 36 significance between group differences (two systematic reviews and one RCT).
- 37 • Limited evidence (one RCT) showed improvement in pain and function with foot
 38 orthoses compared to no foot orthoses, in adult patients with chronic low back pain.

39
 40 Findings need to be interpreted with caution considering the limitations (such as unclear or
 41 variable quality of included studies, small sample size and overlap of studies included in

1 the systematic reviews). No studies were identified that compared treatments with foot
2 orthoses with pharmacological treatments for non-cancer pain in adults.

3
4 Hurn et al. (2022) conducted a systematic review and meta-analysis investigating the
5 effectiveness of nonsurgical interventions for hallux valgus (HV). Eighteen included
6 studies investigated a wide range of nonsurgical interventions for HV. Most studies had
7 small sample sizes and concerns regarding risk of bias. Five separate meta-analyses for
8 foot orthoses, splints, manual therapy, and taping added to foot exercises showed no
9 significant effects on primary outcomes. However, results from 8 studies showed a
10 significant pain reduction with the use of foot orthoses, night splints, dynamic splints,
11 manual therapy, taping added to foot exercises, a multifaceted physical therapy program,
12 and Botox injections. Four studies reported a clinically significant reduction in HV angle
13 with night splints, foot exercises, multifaceted physical therapy, and Botox injections.
14 Authors concluded that there is a low level of certainty surrounding the effectiveness of
15 nonsurgical interventions for HV, but a reduction in pain appears more likely than
16 improvement in HV angle.

17
18 Pires Neves et al. (2022) performed a systematic review to investigate the effects of foot
19 orthoses on pain and the prevention of lower limb injuries in runners. Twelve studies (5,321
20 runners) met our review criteria. The control and the foot orthoses group sustained 721
21 (37%) and 238 (24%) injuries, respectively. Compared with the control group, the use of
22 foot orthoses resulted in a significant reduction in lower limb injury risk. Moreover, the
23 foot orthoses group corresponded to a 40% reduction in the risk of developing lower limb
24 injuries. Authors concluded that the use of foot orthoses may help reduce the incidence of
25 lower limb injuries and pain in runners.

26
27 Hunter et al. (2023) aimed to determine if medially-posted foot orthoses immediately
28 reduce hip abduction moment (HAM) and pain in females with Greater trochanteric pain
29 syndrome (GTPS), including gluteal tendinopathy and bursitis during walking gait. A
30 double-blind, repeated-measures trial with randomized intervention order compared three
31 conditions in 53 women with GTPS. Participants acted as their own control during baseline
32 (everyday-shoe insole), medially-posted (active) orthosis, or flat insert (sham orthosis)
33 walking. Data were collected via three-dimensional gait analysis for HAM, hip, pelvic, and
34 thorax kinematics; as well as ground reaction force; and pain via the numerical rating scale.
35 Subgroup analysis was performed based on a pronated foot-posture defined by the Foot
36 Posture Index. A small pain reduction was found between the active orthosis and flat insert.
37 No difference was detected for pain between other condition comparisons. Thoracic lateral
38 flexion increased at second-peak HAM between the baseline and active conditions. No
39 differences were detected for HAM, remaining kinematic or kinetic variables, or ground
40 reaction force data across the three conditions. No significant differences were detected
41 between any of the three conditions for biomechanical or pain data in the pronated-foot
42 subgroup. Authors concluded that a medially-posted foot orthosis did not immediately alter

1 gait biomechanics or provide a clinically meaningful pain reduction in women with GTPS.
2 There is uncertainty regarding the clinical benefit of orthoses in the management of GTPS.
3 Longer-term follow-up or the use of customized orthoses may produce different outcomes
4 and should be explored in future research.

5 6 **Diabetic Foot Ulcers and Orthotics**

7 Diabetic foot ulcers are a serious issue and have many functional implications. Spencer
8 (2000) completed a Cochrane Systematic Review on the pressure-relieving interventions
9 used for preventing or treating these foot ulcers. Five total RCTs met the inclusion criteria:
10 4 for prevention and 1 for treatment. The studies for prevention of foot ulcers suggested
11 that in-shoe orthotics are beneficial as a sole intervention when comparing different types
12 of orthotics, and as compared to removal of the callus. They could not conclude whether it
13 was the cushioning or the pressure re-distribution that provided the positive outcomes, as
14 the data indicated equality of the two. Many other pressure-relieving methods (e.g.,
15 removable casts or foam inlays) have not been investigated adequately. For the one study
16 on treatment of ulcers, contact casting indicated positive results, but evidence was limited.
17 More research is needed to effectively demonstrate appropriate treatment interventions for
18 the diabetic foot ulcer. Chevalier and Chockalingam (2012) examined the role of the
19 practitioner in foot orthoses effectiveness. They emphasize that while foot orthoses have
20 been shown to have positive effects in the literature for various lower extremity issues, the
21 literature is of variable quality and outcomes. The exact mechanisms of orthotic use are not
22 fully understood but seem to relate to reducing plantar pressure and changing biomechanics
23 of the foot and knee. Added into this is practitioner variability in the assessment of orthoses
24 performance. Eleven practitioners participated in this study. Each completed a clinical
25 assessment of one subject and then created custom orthotics based on that assessment and
26 casting in a neutral non-weight bearing position. Each subject completed 10 trials (i.e., 10
27 walks over force plates wearing each of the custom orthotics made by each of the eleven
28 practitioners). Kinetic and kinematic data were recorded for each trial. Results
29 demonstrated that systematic kinematic effects could be observed for the kinematic data in
30 the sagittal plane for forefoot to hindfoot and hindfoot to tibia peak angles. This confirmed
31 for the authors that inter-practitioner variability is a major factor in orthotic intervention
32 for patients with various conditions. They suggest that caution be taken when considering
33 the literature where customized orthotics are used as an intervention based on the
34 practitioner variability noted in this study, where clinical assessments vastly differ for the
35 same patient. Evidence in the published scientific literature does not demonstrate a clear
36 advantage of one treatment over another. Experts generally recommend that conservative
37 therapy should be tried first, and over-the-counter arch supports, and heel pads should be
38 tried for most patients prior to the use of custom-fabricated devices.

39
40 Bus et al. (2015) systematically reviewed footwear and offloading interventions to prevent
41 and heal foot ulcers and reduce plantar pressure in patients with diabetes. Authors reviewed
42 both controlled and non-controlled studies. They included 2 systematic reviews and meta-

1 analyses, 32 randomized controlled trials, 15 other controlled studies, and another 127 non-
2 controlled studies. Sufficient evidence of good quality supports the use of non-removable
3 offloading to heal plantar neuropathic forefoot ulcers and therapeutic footwear with
4 demonstrated pressure relief that is worn by the patient to prevent plantar foot ulcer
5 recurrence. The evidence base to support the use of other offloading interventions is still
6 limited and of variable quality. The evidence for the use of interventions to prevent a first
7 foot ulcer or heal ischemic, infected, non-plantar, or proximal foot ulcers is basically non-
8 existent. High-quality controlled studies are needed in these areas.

9
10 Ahmed et al. (2020) aimed to summarize and evaluate the evidence for footwear and insole
11 features that reduce pathological plantar pressures and the occurrence of diabetic
12 neuropathy ulceration at the plantar forefoot in people with diabetic neuropathy. Twenty-
13 five studies were reviewed. This involved a total of 2,063 participants. Eleven studies
14 investigated footwear, and 14 studies investigated insoles as an intervention. Six studies
15 investigated ulcer recurrence; no study investigated the first occurrence of ulceration. The
16 most commonly examined outcome measures were peak plantar pressure, pressure-time
17 integral and total contact area. Methodological quality varied. Strong evidence existed for
18 rocker soles to reduce peak plantar pressure. Moderate evidence existed for custom insoles
19 to offload forefoot plantar pressure. There was weak evidence that insole contact area
20 influenced plantar pressure. Authors concluded that rocker soles, custom-made insoles
21 with metatarsal additions and a high degree of contact between the insole and foot reduce
22 plantar pressures in a manner that may reduce ulcer occurrence. Most studies rely on
23 reduction in plantar pressure measures as an outcome, rather than the occurrence of
24 ulceration. There is limited evidence to inform footwear and insole interventions and
25 prescription in this population. Further high-quality studies in this field are required.

26
27 Kaminski et al. (2022) aimed to systematically identify and adapt suitable international
28 guidelines to the Australian context to create new Australian evidence-based guidelines on
29 prevention of first-ever and/or recurrent diabetes-related foot ulceration (DFU). Relative
30 to these guidelines, Recommendation 8 was adopted and states: Consider prescribing
31 orthotic interventions, such as toe silicone or (semi-)rigid orthotic devices, to help reduce
32 abundant callus in a person with diabetes who is at risk for foot ulceration. Moon et al.
33 (2023) concluded that, based on the literature, to prevent diabetic foot ulcers, practitioners
34 should regularly screen patients for the presence of neuropathy as well as
35 neuroarthropathies and prescribe the appropriate shoes and orthotics based on the best
36 available clinical evidence. Although not widely available, there is potential for data-driven
37 customization of orthotics and shoe wear based on plantar pressure data to prevent the
38 development of diabetic foot ulcers more effectively, and ultimately prevent lower limb
39 amputations.

1 Bus et al. (2024) updated a previous review with the following recommendations:

- 2 • Screening a person with diabetes at very low risk of foot ulceration annually for the
- 3 loss of protective sensation and peripheral artery disease, and screening persons at
- 4 higher risk at higher frequencies for additional risk factors.
- 5 • For preventing a foot ulcer, educate persons at-risk about appropriate foot self-care,
- 6 educate not to walk without suitable foot protection, and treat any pre-ulcerative
- 7 lesion on the foot.
- 8 • Educate moderate-to-high risk people with diabetes to wear properly fitting,
- 9 accommodative, therapeutic footwear, and consider coaching them to monitor foot
- 10 skin temperature.
- 11 • Prescribe therapeutic footwear that has a demonstrated plantar pressure relieving
- 12 effect during walking, to help prevent plantar foot ulcer recurrence.
- 13 • Consider advising people at low-to-moderate risk to undertake a, preferably
- 14 supervised, foot-ankle exercise program to reduce ulcer risk factors, and consider
- 15 communicating that a total increase in weight-bearing activity of 1000 steps/day is
- 16 likely safe with regards to risk of ulceration.
- 17 • In people with non-rigid hammertoe with pre-ulcerative lesion, consider flexor
- 18 tendon tenotomy.
- 19 • Do not to use a nerve decompression procedure to help prevent foot ulcers.
- 20 • Provide integrated foot care for moderate-to-high-risk people with diabetes to help
- 21 prevent (recurrence of) ulceration.

22 **PRACTITIONER SCOPE AND TRAINING**

23 Practitioners should practice only in the areas in which they are competent based on their

24 education, training, and experience. Levels of education, experience, and proficiency may

25 vary among individual practitioners. It is ethically and legally incumbent on a practitioner

26 to determine where they have the knowledge and skills necessary to perform such services

27 and whether the services are within their scope of practice.

28

29

30 It is best practice for the practitioner to appropriately render services to a member only if

31 they are trained, equally skilled, and adequately competent to deliver a service compared

32 to others trained to perform the same procedure. If the service would be most competently

33 delivered by another health care practitioner who has more skill and training, it would be

34 best practice to refer the member to the more expert practitioner.

35

36 Best practice can be defined as a clinical, scientific, or professional technique, method, or

37 process that is typically evidence-based and consensus driven and is recognized by a

38 majority of professionals in a particular field as more effective at delivering a particular

39 outcome than any other practice (Joint Commission International Accreditation Standards

40 for Hospitals, 2020).

1 Depending on the practitioner’s scope of practice, training, and experience, a member’s
 2 condition and/or symptoms during examination or the course of treatment may indicate the
 3 need for referral to another practitioner or even emergency care. In such cases it is prudent
 4 for the practitioner to refer the member for appropriate co-management (e.g., to their
 5 primary care physician) or if immediate emergency care is warranted, to contact 911 as
 6 appropriate. See the *Managing Medical Emergencies (CPG 159 – S)* policy for
 7 information.

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