

1 **Clinical Practice Guideline:** **Mechanical Traction (Provided in a Clinic Setting)**

2

3 **Date of Implementation:** **June 16, 2016**

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5 **Product:** **Specialty**

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<p>Related Policies: CPG 83: Axial Decompression Therapy CPG 121: Passive Physiotherapy Modalities CPG 135: Physical Therapy Medical Policy/Guideline CPG 155: Occupational Therapy Medical Policy/Guideline CPG 265: Home Traction Therapy</p>
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13 **GUIDELINES**

14 **I. Cervical Spine**

15 ASH considers use of cervical mechanical traction as medically necessary for patients
16 who meet all of the following criteria:

- 17 • Failure of other evidence-based therapeutic procedures to significantly improve
18 symptoms after 3 weeks.
- 19 • Only used in combination with other evidence-based treatments including
20 therapeutic exercise. The therapeutic exercise(s) should not cause aggravation or
21 peripheralization of symptoms.
- 22 • Cervical radiculopathy should be supported by the exam findings including
23 provocative testing such as positive shoulder abduction, positive upper limb tension
24 test A, and/or positive neck distraction test.

25

26 ASH considers cervical mechanical traction as unproven because there is insufficient
27 evidence for treatment of other conditions or when the above criteria are not met.

28

29 **II. Lumbar Spine**

30 ASH considers use of lumbar mechanical traction as medically necessary for patients
31 who meet all of the following criteria:

- 32 • Failure of other evidence-based therapeutic procedures to significantly improve
33 symptoms after 3 weeks.
- 34 • Patient has sciatica or signs of nerve root compression and either peripheralization
35 with extension movements or a positive crossed straight leg raise test.
- 36 • Only used in combination with other evidence-based treatments including
37 therapeutic exercise with extension movements. The therapeutic exercise(s) should
38 not cause aggravation or peripheralization of symptoms.

1 ASH considers lumbar mechanical traction as unproven because there is insufficient
 2 evidence for treatment of other conditions or when the above criteria are not met. These
 3 guidelines are NOT relevant to axial or spinal decompression therapy.
 4

5 **III. Thoracic Spine**

6 ASH considers mechanical traction applied to the thoracic spine as unproven because
 7 there is insufficient evidence for treatment of thoracic conditions or other spinal
 8 conditions beyond those outlined in this guideline.
 9

10 **IV. Other Types of Mechanical Traction**

11 ASH considers mechanical traction using a table with moving roller(s) against the spine
 12 or paraspinal tissue (e.g., Spinalator) a type of passive mobilization modality (often
 13 referred to as “intersegmental traction”) that may have limited value in reducing spinal
 14 stiffness and muscle tension and is only appropriate as preparatory or adjunctive to
 15 spinal manipulative procedures. It should not be used as a stand-alone therapy. It should
 16 only be used for a short duration (1-2 weeks) to facilitate manipulations and to
 17 transition into an active therapy program.
 18

19 ASH considers mechanical traction applied to other spinal conditions other than those
 20 outlined in this guideline as unproven because there is insufficient evidence to support
 21 their use.
 22

23 **CPT CODES AND DESCRIPTIONS**

CPT® Code	CPT® Code Description
97012	Application of a modality to 1 or more areas; traction, mechanical

24
 25 **BACKGROUND AND DESCRIPTION**

26 Traction is a therapeutic method used to relieve pain by stretching and separating the
 27 vertebrae to help to relieve direct nerve pressure and stress on the vertebral discs. Cervical
 28 traction is a common nonsurgical treatment for a herniated disc in the neck that relieves
 29 pain by opening up the cervical foramen to reduce pressure on compressed nerve roots
 30 exiting the spinal canal. Traction can either be applied manually or by spinal traction
 31 devices. This guideline focuses on various mechanical traction devices that provide
 32 continuous or intermittent forces to the spine. It has been proposed that cervical traction
 33 results in an expansion of the intervertebral spaces, an increase joint mobility, and a
 34 stretching muscles and ligaments adjacent to the vertebral bodies, which will improve
 35 clinical outcomes in those with neck pain. After 2 minutes of sustained traction, the
 36 intervertebral spaces begin to widen. Forces between 20 and 50 pounds are frequently used
 37 to achieve intervertebral separation. Continuous or static traction can be applied in a steady
 38 amount for specific time periods. Intermittent or cyclical traction involves traction being

1 applied and released multiple times during one treatment session. Duration of cervical
2 traction can range from a few minutes to 20 to 30 minutes, one to three times weekly.

3
4 Traction is used for treatment of low back pain (LBP) as well and it is provided in
5 combination with other treatment modalities, as is cervical traction. Lumbar traction uses
6 a harness (with Velcro strapping) that is put around the lower rib cage and around the iliac
7 crest. Duration and level of force exerted through this harness can be varied in a continuous
8 or intermittent mode. The exact mechanism through which traction might be effective is
9 still unclear. It has been suggested that spinal elongation, through decreasing lordosis and
10 increasing intervertebral space, inhibits pain (nociceptive) impulses, improves mobility,
11 decreases mechanical stress, reduces muscle spasm or spinal nerve root compression (due
12 to osteophytes), releases luxation of a disc or capsule from the zygapophyseal joint, and
13 releases adhesions around the zygapophyseal joint and the annulus fibrosus. So far, the
14 proposed mechanisms have not been supported by sufficient empirical information.

15 16 **Contraindications and Precautions**

17 Contraindications for Traction include:

- 18 • Where motion is contraindicated
- 19 • Acute injury or inflammation
- 20 • Joint hypermobility or instability
- 21 • Peripheralization of symptoms with traction
- 22 • Uncontrolled hypertension

23
24 Precautions for Traction include:

- 25 • Structural diseases or conditions affecting the tissues in the area to be treated (e.g.,
26 tumor, infection, osteoporosis, RA, prolonged systemic steroid use, local radiation
27 therapy)
- 28 • When pressure of the belts may be hazardous (e.g., with pregnancy, hiatal hernia,
29 vascular compromise, osteoporosis)
- 30 • Displaced annular fragment
- 31 • Medial disc protrusion
- 32 • When severe pain fully resolves with traction
- 33 • Claustrophobia or other psychological aversion to traction
- 34 • Inability to tolerate prone or supine position
- 35 • Disorientation

36
37 Additional precautions for cervical traction:

- 38 • TMJ problems

1 EVIDENCE AND RESEARCH

2 Cervical

3 Although traction has been used as a treatment for neck pain for decades, its effectiveness
4 is unproven. Large, well designed, randomized controlled trials are needed that evaluate
5 the effect of cervical traction as an adjunct treatment in both chronic and acute neck pain
6 syndromes. Regardless, cervical traction remains a common treatment modality in the
7 treatment of neck pain and radiculopathy. Borman et al. (2008) evaluated cervical traction
8 for the treatment of chronic neck pain. Patients received standard care (hot pack, ultrasound
9 and exercise) or cervical traction + standard care. The main outcome measures of the
10 treatment were pain intensity by visual analog scale (VAS), disability by neck disability
11 index (NDI), and quality of life assessed by Nottingham Health Profile (NHP) Both groups
12 improved significantly in pain intensity and the scores of NDI and physical status of NHP
13 at the end of the therapies ($p < 0.05$). Authors concluded that there was no specific effect of
14 traction over standard physical therapy interventions in patients with chronic neck pain.
15 Young et al. (2009) conducted a randomized controlled trial (RCT) on 81 patients with
16 cervical radiculopathy to examine the effects of manual therapy and exercise, with or
17 without the addition of cervical traction, on pain, function, and disability. Patients were
18 randomly assigned to 1 of 2 groups: a group that received manual therapy, exercise, and
19 intermittent cervical traction and a group that received manual therapy, exercise, and sham
20 intermittent cervical traction. Patients were treated, on average, 2 times per week for an
21 average of 4.2 weeks. Results demonstrated there were no significant differences between
22 the groups for any of the primary or secondary outcome measures at 2 weeks or 4 weeks.
23 Authors concluded that the addition of mechanical cervical traction to a multimodal
24 treatment program of manual therapy and exercise adds no significant additional benefit to
25 pain, function, or disability in patients with cervical radiculopathy.

26
27 Chiu et al. (2011) investigated the efficacy of intermittent cervical traction in the treatment
28 of chronic neck pain over a 12-week period in an RCT of 79 patients The experimental
29 group received intermittent cervical traction and the control group received infrared
30 irradiation alone twice a week over a period of six weeks. The authors concluded that there
31 were no significant differences between the two groups. Graham et al. (2013) completed a
32 systematic review on physical modalities for acute to chronic neck pain. Of 103 reviews
33 eligible, 20 were included and 83 were excluded. Moderate evidence of benefit in the short
34 term was noted for intermittent traction over placebo for chronic neck pain. No benefit was
35 noted for continuous traction over placebo for whiplash associated disorder (WAD).
36 Moderate evidence of no benefit for continuous traction was noted, as it was no better than
37 placebo for acute whiplash associated disorder, chronic myofascial neck pain or subacute
38 to chronic neck pain. Improved design and long term follow up were suggested for future
39 research.

1 Raney et al. (2009) sought to determine a clinical prediction rule (CPR) to identify those
2 patients that were likely to benefit from cervical traction and exercise. Patients were
3 randomly selected into the following groups: exercise only, exercise with mechanical
4 traction, or exercise with over-door traction for patients with cervical radiculopathy. Sixty-
5 eight patients (38 female) were included in data analysis of which 30 had a successful
6 outcome. A CPR with five variables was identified: (1) patient reported peripheralization
7 with lower cervical spine (C4-7) mobility testing; (2) positive shoulder abduction test; (3)
8 age > or =55; (4) positive upper limb tension test A; and (5) positive neck distraction test.
9 Having at least three out of five predictors present resulted in a +LR equal to 4.81 (95% CI
10 = 2.17-11.4), increasing the likelihood of success with cervical traction from 44 to 79.2%.
11 If at least four out of five variables were present, the +LR was equal to 23.1 (2.5-227.9),
12 increasing the post-test probability of having improvement with cervical traction to 94.8%.
13 This preliminary CPR provides the ability to a priori identify patients with neck pain likely
14 to experience a dramatic response with cervical traction and exercise. Before the rule can
15 be implemented in routine clinical practice, future studies are necessary to validate the rule.
16 In 2014, Fritz et al. examined the effectiveness of cervical traction in addition to exercise
17 for specific subgroups of patients with neck pain. Patients with neck pain and signs of
18 radiculopathy were randomized to 4 weeks of treatment with exercise, exercise with
19 mechanical traction, or exercise with over-door traction. Secondary outcomes favored
20 mechanical traction at several time points. The validity of the subgrouping rule was
21 supported on the Neck Disability Index at the 6-month time point only. Authors concluded
22 that adding mechanical traction to exercise for patients with cervical radiculopathy resulted
23 in lower disability and pain, particularly at long-term follow-ups. Yang et al. (2017)
24 performed a comprehensive search of current literature and conduct a meta-analysis of
25 randomized controlled trials (RCTs) to assess the neck pain relieving effect of intermittent
26 cervical traction (ICT). The meta-analysis included seven RCTs. The results indicated that
27 patients who received ICT for neck pain had significantly lower pain scores than those
28 receiving placebos did immediately after treatment. The pain scores during the follow-up
29 period and the neck disability index scores immediately after treatment and during the
30 follow-up period did not differ significantly. Authors concluded that ICT may have a short-
31 term neck pain-relieving effect. Some risks of bias were noted in the included studies,
32 reducing the evidence level of this meta-analysis. According to Blanpied et al. (2017), for
33 patients with chronic neck pain with mobility deficits, clinicians should provide a
34 multimodal approach that may include intermittent mechanical/manual traction. They also
35 report that for patients with chronic neck pain with radiating pain, clinicians should provide
36 mechanical intermittent cervical traction, combined with other interventions such as
37 stretching and strengthening exercise plus cervical and thoracic mobilization/manipulation.
38 However, Bier et al. (2018) states that the physical therapist is advised not to use traction.
39 Romeo et al. (2018) conducted a review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials
40 (RCTs) on the effect of cervical traction combined with other physical therapy procedures
41 versus physical therapy procedures alone on pain and disability on patients with cervical
42 radiculopathy (CR). Five studies met the inclusion criteria. Mechanical traction had a

1 significant effect on pain at short- and intermediate-terms and significant effects on
 2 disability at intermediate term. Manual traction had significant effects on pain at short-
 3 term. Authors conclude that the current literature lends some support to the use of the
 4 mechanical and manual traction for CR in addition to other physical therapy procedures
 5 for pain reduction but yielding lesser effects on function/disability.

6
 7 Colombo et al. (2020) investigated the effectiveness of traction therapy in reducing pain
 8 for patients with cervical radicular syndrome (CRS) by performing a systematic review
 9 with meta-analysis. A total of seven studies (589 patients), one with low risk of bias, were
 10 evaluated. An overall estimate of treatment modalities showed low evidence that adding
 11 traction to other treatments is statistically compared to other treatments alone. The
 12 subgroup analyses were still statistically significant only for mechanical and continuous
 13 modalities. Authors concluded that overall analysis showed that, compared to controls,
 14 reduction in pain intensity after traction therapy was achieved in patients with cervical
 15 radiculopathy. However, the quality of evidence was generally low and none of these
 16 effects were clinically meaningful.

17 18 **Lumbar**

19 According to the Philadelphia Panel Evidence-Based Clinical Practice Guidelines on
 20 Selected Rehabilitation Interventions for Low Back Pain publication (2001), mechanical
 21 traction for chronic LBP was not effective or beneficial for pain, function, patient global
 22 assessment, and return to work. This was based on four (4) RCTs of mechanical traction
 23 versus placebo or no treatment and rated as level I (good evidence). A larger Cochrane
 24 Collaboration systematic review by Clarke et al. (2009) determined similar results (25
 25 RCTs). Available studies in this review involved mixed groups of acute, sub-acute and
 26 chronic patients with LBP with and without sciatica and were all consistent, indicating that
 27 continuous or intermittent traction as a single treatment for LBP is not likely effective for
 28 these patients. Traction for patients with sciatica cannot be judged effective at present
 29 either, due to inconsistent results and methodological problems in most studies (Clarke et
 30 al., 2009). An updated Cochrane review published in 2013 by Wegner et al. indicated that
 31 traction, either alone or in combination with other treatments, has little or no impact on
 32 pain intensity, functional status, global improvement and return to work among people with
 33 LBP (with or without sciatica). The effects shown by the included studies were small and
 34 not clinically relevant. These conclusions were applicable to both manual and mechanical
 35 traction.

36
 37 One study attempted to determine which subcategory of patients with LBP would most
 38 benefit from mechanical traction. Fritz et al. (2007) determined that patients with sciatica,
 39 signs of nerve root compression, and either peripheralization with extension movements or
 40 a positive crossed straight leg raise test were most likely to benefit from a combined
 41 traction and extension-oriented physical therapy intervention. The authors reported
 42 improvements in both disability (Oswestry Disability Questionnaire) and fear-avoidance

1 beliefs (Fear Avoidance Belief Questionnaire) in the combined traction/extension-oriented
2 approach group at two weeks compared to the group that received just an extension-
3 oriented approach. This study provides some initial evidence for the use of traction for the
4 subgroup of patients mentioned above. The primary limitation to this study is the type of
5 traction table used is not one that is typically found in most clinical settings. The authors
6 used a mechanical traction table allowing for modifications of a subject's position in
7 flexion/extension, rotation or side-bending (3-dimensional ActiveTrac table, The Saunders
8 Group, Inc.). The following parameters were utilized: static traction for a maximum of 12
9 minutes (10 minutes at desired intensity and one minute ramp up/down) at 40% - 60% of
10 the patient's body weight for a maximum of 12 sessions during a 6 week period (four
11 sessions/week during the first two weeks then one session/week during weeks three
12 through six). Thackeray et al. (2016) examined the effectiveness of mechanical traction in
13 patients with lumbar nerve root compression and within a predefined subgroup. One
14 hundred twenty patients with low back pain with nerve root compression were recruited
15 from physical therapy clinics. Using predefined subgrouping criteria, patients were
16 stratified at baseline and randomized to receive an extension-oriented treatment approach
17 with or without the addition of mechanical traction. During a 6-week period, patients
18 received up to 12 treatment visits. Primary outcomes of pain and disability were collected
19 at 6 weeks, 6 months, and 1 year by assessors blinded to group allocation. No significant
20 differences in disability or pain outcomes were noted between treatment groups at any time
21 point, nor was any interaction found between subgroup status and treatment. Authors
22 concluded that patients with lumbar nerve root compression presenting for physical therapy
23 can expect significant changes in disability and pain over a 6-week treatment period. There
24 is no evidence that mechanical lumbar traction in combination with an extension-oriented
25 treatment is superior to extension-oriented exercises alone in the management of these
26 patients or within a predefined subgroup of patients.

27
28 The North American Spine Society's clinical practice guideline on "Diagnosis and
29 treatment of degenerative lumbar spinal stenosis" (2011) noted that there is insufficient
30 evidence to make a recommendation for or against traction, electrical stimulation or
31 transcutaneous electrical nerve stimulation for the treatment of patients with lumbar spinal
32 stenosis.

33
34 According to the AHRQ publication on Non-Invasive Techniques for Low Back Pain
35 (2016):

- 36 • For low back pain with or without radicular symptoms, a systematic review
37 included 13 trials that found no clear differences with inconsistent effects of
38 traction versus placebo, sham, or no treatment in pain, function, or other outcomes,
39 though two trials reported favorable effects on pain in patients with radicular back
40 pain (SOE: insufficient for pain and function).

- 1 • For low back pain with or without radicular symptoms, a systematic review
2 included five trials that found no clear differences between traction versus
3 physiotherapy versus physiotherapy alone.
- 4 • For low back pain with or without radicular symptoms, a systematic review
5 included 15 trials of traction versus other interventions that found no clear
6 difference between traction versus other active interventions in pain or function
7 (SOE: low for pain and function).
- 8 • A systematic review included five trials that found no clear differences between
9 different types of traction.
- 10 • Eleven trials of traction in a systematic review reported no adverse events or no
11 difference in risk of adverse events versus placebo or other interventions. Three
12 subsequent trials reported findings consistent with the systematic review.

13
14 According to the American College of Physician’s clinical practice guideline (2017) on
15 noninvasive treatments for acute, subacute, and chronic low back pain, evidence was
16 insufficient to determine the effectiveness of traction tables/devices. Foster et al. (2018)
17 summarizes that passive electrical or physical modalities, such as traction, interferential
18 therapy, short-wave diathermy, are generally ineffective and not recommended.

19
20 Bilgilişoy Filiz et al. (2018) compared the effects of mechanical lumbar traction either in
21 the supine or in the prone position with conventional physical therapy (PT) in patients with
22 chronic low back pain and lumbosacral nerve root involvement in terms of disability, pain,
23 and mobility. Participants (N = 125) were randomly assigned to receive 15 sessions of PT
24 with additional mechanical lumbar traction either in the supine position (supine traction
25 group) or in the prone position (prone traction group) or only PT without traction (PT only
26 group). Patients were assessed at baseline and at the end of the PT sessions in terms of
27 disability, pain, and mobility. Disability was assessed using the modified Oswestry
28 Disability Index; pain was assessed using a visual analog scale, and lumbar mobility was
29 assessed using the modified lumbar Schober test. One hundred eighteen patients completed
30 the trial. All groups improved significantly for all outcomes. In the between-group analysis,
31 improvements of Oswestry Disability Index and visual analog scale were found
32 significantly better in the prone traction group compared with the PT only group. Authors
33 concluded that the addition of traction in the prone position to other modalities resulted in
34 larger immediate improvements in terms of pain and disability, and the results suggest that
35 when using traction, prone traction might be first choice. Kuligowski et al. (2019)
36 completed a study that enrolled 37 people aged 22-35. The subjects underwent radiological
37 evaluation (MRI), which constituted the basis for assigning them to one of two groups: a
38 protrusion group (PRO) or an extrusion group (EXT). During the experiment, the patient
39 was in the supine position while the therapist administered three-dimensional traction using
40 a manual therapy belt. Authors concluded the following: 1. The type of intervertebral disc
41 damage determines the functional status of young people with degenerative disc disease.
42 2. The study demonstrated and confirmed a positive effect of traction on the functional

1 status of subjects with lumbar disc herniation. 3. Traction techniques are safe and can be
 2 successfully used in the treatment of lumbar disc herniation as noted on MRI. Hirayama et
 3 al. (2019) sought to develop a clinical prediction rule (CPR) that predicts treatment
 4 responses to mechanical lumbar traction (MLT) among patients with lumbar disc
 5 herniation (LDH). The subjects included 103 patients diagnosed with LDH for which they
 6 underwent conservative therapy. The subjects received MLT for 2 weeks, and the
 7 application of any other medication was left at the discretion of the attending physician.
 8 The patients whose ODI after 2 weeks of treatment improved by $\geq 50\%$ of that at the initial
 9 evaluation were defined as responders. Of the 103 subjects, 24 were responders, and the
 10 five predictors selected for the CPR were limited lumbar extension range of motion, low-
 11 level fear-avoidance beliefs regarding work, no segmental hypomobility in the lumbar
 12 spine, short duration of symptoms, and sudden onset of symptoms. For the patients with at
 13 least three of the five predictors, the probability of their ODI greatly improving increased
 14 from 23.3% to 48.7% compared with the patients without these predictors (positive
 15 likelihood ratio, 3.13). Cheng et al. (2020) evaluated the effectiveness of traction in
 16 improving low back pain, functional outcome, and disk morphology in patients with
 17 herniated intervertebral disks. Seven articles involving 403 participants were included for
 18 quantitative analysis. Compared with the control group, the participants in the traction
 19 group showed significantly greater improvements in pain and function in the short term,
 20 with standard mean differences of 0.44 (95% confidence interval (CI): 0.11-0.77) and 0.42
 21 (95% CI: 0.08-0.76), respectively. The standard mean differences were not significant to
 22 support the long-term effects on pain and function, nor the effects on herniated disk size.

23
 24 Authors concluded that compared with sham or no traction, lumbar traction exhibited
 25 significantly more pain reduction and functional improvements in the short term, but not
 26 in the long term. There is insufficient evidence to support the effect of lumbar traction on
 27 herniated disk size reduction.

28
 29 Chou et al. (2018) states that clinicians should not offer traction for neck and back pain
 30 given lack of effectiveness. Vanti et al. (2020) evaluated the effects of different types of
 31 traction added to or compared with conservative treatments on pain and disability for
 32 patients with lumbar radiculopathy (LR) in a systematic review and meta-analysis. Eight
 33 studies met the inclusion criteria, and 5 were meta-analyzed. Meta-analyses of results from
 34 low-quality studies indicated that supine mechanical traction added to physical therapist
 35 treatments had significant effects on pain and disability. Analyses of results from high-
 36 quality studies of prone mechanical traction added to physical therapist intervention for
 37 pain and disability were not significant. These results were also evident at short-term
 38 follow-up (up to 3 months after intervention). Authors concluded that the literature
 39 suggests that, for pain and disability in LR, there is short-term effectiveness of supine
 40 mechanical traction when added to physical therapist intervention.

1 George et al. (2021) state that physical therapists should not use mechanical traction for
 2 patients with chronic LBP with leg pain, based on the lack of benefit when added to other
 3 interventions in an updated clinical practice guideline.

4 **PRACTITIONER SCOPE AND TRAINING**

6 Practitioners should practice only in the areas in which they are competent based on their
 7 education, training and experience. Levels of education, experience, and proficiency may
 8 vary among individual practitioners. It is ethically and legally incumbent on a practitioner
 9 to determine where they have the knowledge and skills necessary to perform such services
 10 and whether the services are within their scope of practice.

12 It is best practice for the practitioner to appropriately render services to a member only if
 13 they are trained, equally skilled, and adequately competent to deliver a service compared
 14 to others trained to perform the same procedure. If the service would be most competently
 15 delivered by another health care practitioner who has more skill and training, it would be
 16 best practice to refer the member to the more expert practitioner.

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

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

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