

1 **Clinical Practice Guideline:**           **Manipulation Under Anesthesia (MUA)**  
 2  
 3 **Date of Implementation:**           **July 13, 2006**  
 4  
 5 **Product:**                               **Specialty**  
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21  
 22 **GUIDELINES**

23 American Specialty Health – Specialty (ASH) considers one session of manipulation under  
 24 anesthesia (MUA) medically necessary for the following indications:

- 25     • Adhesive capsulitis (i.e., frozen shoulder) when there is failure of conservative  
 26       management, including medications with or without articular injections, home  
 27       exercise programs and physical therapy for at least 6 to 8 weeks at a minimum (CPT  
 28       code 23700).
- 29     • Post-traumatic or postoperative arthrofibrosis of the knee (e.g., total knee  
 30       replacement, anterior cruciate ligament reconstruction) when there is failure of  
 31       conservative management, including exercise and physical therapy per surgeon’s  
 32       recommendations (CPT code 27570).
- 33     • Reduction of a displaced fracture (e.g., vertebral, long bones) (CPT codes 22505  
 34       and 25675).
- 35     • Reduction of acute/traumatic dislocation (e.g., vertebral, perched cervical facet)  
 36       (e.g., CPT code 22505).
- 37     • Chronic contracture of upper or lower extremity joint (e.g., fixed contracture from  
 38       a neuromuscular condition) when there is failure of conservative management

1 including range of motion exercise programs and physical therapy for at least 6 to  
2 8 weeks at a minimum.

3

4 Manipulation under anesthesia (MUA) is considered safe and effective and is a well-  
5 established method of treatment of the above conditions. When performed for these  
6 specific conditions, MUA generally requires a single session of treatment, most often  
7 performed unilaterally, involving a single joint. Data supporting the need for, and clinical  
8 efficacy of multiple, repeat MUA treatment sessions for these specific conditions, is  
9 lacking in the peer-reviewed published medical literature.

10

11 ASH considers MUA for acute or chronic pain conditions of any of the following joints  
12 (other than those listed above as medically necessary) as unproven and thus, not medically  
13 necessary:

14

- Ankle (CPT code 27860)
- Cervical, thoracic or lumbar spine (e.g., CPT code 22505)
- Elbow (CPT code 24300)
- Finger (e.g., CPT code 26340, 26675)
- Hip (CPT code 27275)
- Pelvis, Sacroiliac (CPT code 27198)
- Temporomandibular (CPT code 21073)
- Thumb (CPT code 26340)
- Toe (CPT code 28635, 28665)
- Wrist (CPT code 25259)

15

16 The available evidence does not enable ASH to determine if MUA is safe or effective  
17 relative to more conservative care. Well-designed studies are needed to evaluate and  
18 confirm its place in treatment of neck and low back pain and for other pain conditions  
19 related to the above joints.

20

## 21 **DESCRIPTION/BACKGROUND**

22 Manipulation under anesthesia (MUA) is the use of manual manipulation of the spine or  
23 other joints while the patient is anesthetized. The addition of an anesthetic allows for  
24 manipulation under circumstances where conscious manipulation would not be effective  
25 because of pain response, spasm, muscle contracture, and/or guarding. The manipulative  
26 procedure that the physician performs depends upon the goals of the procedure, the tissues  
27 involved, and the presence of potential complications and/or contraindication(s).  
28 Treatment may include passive soft tissue stretching, oscillation of joints, and articular  
29 adjustments. In general, patients selected for MUA have generally undergone more  
30 conservative treatment and failed to improve, unless it is an urgent situation with a  
31 displaced vertebral fracture or long bone fracture. As such, in most cases, MUA is not a  
32 first line therapy for musculoskeletal conditions.

33

1 The treatment is typically performed in a hospital or surgery center with the assistance of  
2 an anesthesiologist. MUA can be performed under varying levels of anesthesia, including  
3 general anesthesia, conscious sedation, and local anesthesia. General anesthesia is the most  
4 complete form of anesthesia and requires intubation of the patient to help control their  
5 breathing and monitor their respiratory function. General anesthesia was more commonly  
6 used for MUA in the past, but its use for this procedure has declined notably over the last  
7 ten (10) years. Conscious sedation is an intermediary level of anesthesia where the patient  
8 is given intravenous or oral sedation that depresses the central nervous system. At this stage  
9 of anesthesia, a patient is conscious and does not require intubation. A patient under  
10 conscious sedation would not respond to mildly painful stimuli such as being pinched;  
11 however, they would respond to severely painful stimuli such as undergoing surgery.  
12 Proponents of MUA claim that conscious sedation allows for more patient feedback during  
13 treatment than general anesthesia. However, the use of conscious sedation does not allow  
14 for the same level of patient feedback as manipulation without any anesthesia. Local  
15 anesthesia is another option for MUA, though it is less frequently used than conscious  
16 sedation. A local anesthesia involves the injection of an anesthetizing substance at the site  
17 where the manipulation will be performed. In this type of anesthesia, the patient remains  
18 completely awake and aware of the procedure but sensations of pain are blocked in the  
19 specific area of manipulation. In addition, there are inherent risks to any type of anesthesia.

20  
21 Comment on spinal MUA: while MUA of the spine may be considered professionally  
22 recognized by certain physician groups (e.g., chiropractors and osteopaths), it may also  
23 pose a health and safety risk greater than traditional high-velocity, low-amplitude (HVLA)  
24 manipulation for the spine in particular. The use of any anesthesia during joint  
25 manipulation does not allow the same level of patient feedback as manipulation without  
26 anesthesia. Patient feedback during manipulation is an important safeguard in the  
27 prevention of treatment related injury. Although safer than both general anesthesia and  
28 conscious sedation, local anesthesia is often considered inappropriate for MUA of the  
29 spine.

## 30 **EVIDENCE REVIEW**

### 31 **Spine**

32 Within the realm of chiropractic, spinal MUA is generally performed daily for 1 to 5  
33 consecutive days on an outpatient basis, and is followed by a post-SMUA rehabilitation  
34 regimen, which entails 1 week of daily manipulation to maintain joint mobility and avoid  
35 re-adhesion of fibrotic tissue. Anesthesia is usually induced by intravenous Pentothal  
36 (sodium thiopental), and manipulation of the affected joints takes about 7 to 10 minutes.

37  
38  
39 An old randomized controlled trial by Siehl et al. (1971) evaluated MUA for patients with  
40 spinal nerve root compression. This study could not determine the benefits of MUA due to  
41 the design of the study, which would have required very large differences between groups  
42 to have significance.

1 Review of the literature revealed numerous case series and reports that expounded the  
 2 benefits of MUA (Aspegren et al., 1997; Ben-David et al., 1994; Cremata et al., 2005;  
 3 Dreyfuss et al., 1995; Herzog, 1999; Maxwell et al., 1994; Tsai and Chou, 2005; West et  
 4 al., 1999; Xiong et al., 1998). There were also two non-randomized studies evaluating the  
 5 efficacy of MUA. Palmieri and Smoyak (2002) evaluated MUA versus traditional spinal  
 6 manipulation in the treatment of low back pain, but their objectives were to evaluate  
 7 methods useful for studying the procedure, not to determine the efficacy of MUA for spinal  
 8 pain. Although more of the patients reported more improvement in pain with MUA, the  
 9 intervention group received treatments other than MUA (e.g., physical therapy) that the  
 10 control group did not receive. Due to the design and goal of this study, it is not possible to  
 11 attribute the effects seen in the study to MUA. Kohlbeck et al. (2005) found that MUA  
 12 offered benefits exceeding those of traditional spinal manipulation in chronic low back  
 13 pain patients. However, this study has many limitations. The authors state that their pre-  
 14 study analysis found that a sample size of 80 patients (half in each group) would be  
 15 necessary to detect group differences similar to the differences they found, but their study  
 16 was much smaller than this. In addition, patient selection protocols allowed patients to  
 17 choose which therapy they would receive and all of those with the worst baseline pain  
 18 chose to receive MUA. As such, the conclusions of this study cannot be taken to show that  
 19 MUA is beneficial. Digiorgi (2013) states the evidence to support the efficacy of MUA of  
 20 the spine remains largely anecdotal. There is a lack of high-quality evidence in the peer-  
 21 reviewed medical literature of the effectiveness. Evidence of spinal manipulation under  
 22 anesthesia consists primarily of case reports and uncontrolled case series. Limitations of  
 23 current literature include small sample sizes, lack of random assignment, and limited  
 24 evidence of long term benefit. Other issues include lack of detail regarding patient selection  
 25 criteria, and differences in protocols reported in studies, making generalizations difficult.  
 26 Guidelines from the American College of Occupational and Environmental Medicine  
 27 (2007, 2008) and the Work Loss Data Institute (2011) state that spinal manipulation under  
 28 anesthesia is not recommended. Colorado Division of Workers' Compensation's guidelines  
 29 on "Low back pain medical treatment" (2014) did not recommend MUA.

### 30 **Shoulder**

31 In a Cochrane review, Green et al. (2000) examined the effectiveness of common  
 32 interventions for shoulder pain. Intervention of interest included NSAIDs, intra-articular  
 33 or subacromial glucocorticosteroid injection, oral glucocorticosteroid treatment,  
 34 physiotherapy, MUA, hydrodilatation, or surgery. The authors concluded that there is little  
 35 evidence to support or refute the effectiveness of common interventions for shoulder pain.  
 36 They stated that there is a need for further well-designed clinical trials to establish a  
 37 uniform method of defining shoulder disorders. An updated review in 2007 was  
 38 withdrawn. A systematic review in BMJ Clinical Evidence (Speed, 2006) found that MUA  
 39 plus intra-articular injection is "likely to be beneficial" for persons with frozen shoulder.  
 40 The conclusions were based upon the results of two randomized controlled trials (RCTs).  
 41 One RCT ( $n = 30$ ) found that, in people with adhesive capsulitis, MUA plus intra-articular  
 42

1 hydrocortisone injection increased recovery rates compared with intra-articular  
2 hydrocortisone injection alone at 3 months (Thomas et al., 1980). Another, weaker RCT  
3 ( $n = 98$ ) found limited evidence that subjects having MUA plus intra-articular saline  
4 injection versus manipulation alone or manipulation plus intra-articular injection of  
5 methylprednisolone had greater improvements in range of motion (ROM), pain relief, and  
6 return to normal activities (Hamdan and Al Essa, 2003). The review noted that potential  
7 adverse effects of MUA of the shoulder include intra-articular lesions within the  
8 glenohumeral joint (Speed, 2006).

9  
10 Quraishi et al. (2007) assessed the outcome of MUA and hydrodilatation as treatments for  
11 adhesive capsulitis. A total of 36 patients (38 shoulders) were randomized to receive either  
12 method, with all patients being treated in stage II of the disease process. The visual analog  
13 scale (VAS) in the hydro dilatation group were significantly better than those in the MUA  
14 group over the 6-month follow-up period. The ROM improved in all patients over the 6  
15 months but was not significantly different between the groups. At the final follow-up, 94%  
16 of patients (17 of 18) were satisfied or very satisfied after hydrodilatation compared with  
17 81% (13 of 16) of those who received MUA. Most patients were treated successfully, but  
18 those undergoing hydrodilatation did better than those who underwent MUA. Kivimäki  
19 and colleagues (2007) examined the effect of MUA in patients with frozen shoulder. A  
20 blinded randomized trial with a 1-year follow-up was performed at 3 referral hospitals. A  
21 total of 125 patients with clinically verified frozen shoulder were randomly assigned to the  
22 manipulation group ( $n = 65$ ) or control group ( $n = 60$ ). Both the intervention group and the  
23 control group were instructed in specific therapeutic exercises by physiotherapists. Clinical  
24 data were gathered at baseline and at 6 weeks and 3, 6, and 12 months after randomization.  
25 The two groups did not differ at any time of the follow-up in terms of shoulder pain or  
26 working ability. Small differences in the ROM were detected favoring the manipulation  
27 group. Perceived shoulder pain decreased during follow-up equally in the 2 groups, and at  
28 1 year after randomization, only slight pain remained. Authors concluded that  
29 manipulation under anesthesia does not add effectiveness to an exercise program  
30 performed by patients.

31  
32 Flannery et al. (2007) examined the influence of timing of MUA for adhesive capsulitis of  
33 the shoulder on the long-term outcome. A total of 180 consecutive patients with a diagnosis  
34 of adhesive capsulitis were selected from a shoulder surgery database; 145 were available  
35 for follow-up after a mean period of 62 months (range of 12 to 125). All patients underwent  
36 MUA with intra-articular steroid injection. A statistically significant improvement in range  
37 of movement, function (Oxford Shoulder Score (OSS)) and VAS was obtained following  
38 manipulation. Ninety percent of the 145 patients who successfully completed the study  
39 were satisfied with the procedure; 89% indicated that they would choose the same  
40 procedure again if the same problem arose in the opposite shoulder. Eighty-three percent  
41 of the patients had MUA performed less than 9 months from onset of symptoms (early  
42 MUA). The remainder had MUA performed after 9 to 40 months (late MUA). Patients who

1 had early intervention had a significantly better OSS at final follow-up. There was no  
2 significant difference for mobility and pain. Theodorides et al. (2014) aimed to evaluate  
3 and determine the factors that affect short- and long-term outcome following MUA of  
4 patients with adhesive capsulitis. In total, 295 patients (315 shoulders) were sequentially  
5 recruited, and information was collected at baseline, as well as at a mean follow-up of 28  
6 days and 3.6 years. A significant improvement in OSS and ROM was noted 1 month post  
7 MUA with females benefiting more than males. Long-term follow-up revealed that the  
8 improvement in OSS was maintained. Secondary adhesive capsulitis significantly reduced  
9 the efficacy of MUA as assessed by ROM. Other factors (age, initial ROM and OSS, and  
10 length of symptoms prior to MUA) did not significantly affect the outcome over the short-  
11 or long-term. The findings of the present study show that all patient groups had a  
12 significantly improved ROM and OSS in the short-term with long-term maintenance of  
13 improved OSS. Woods and Loganathan (2017) aimed to address the issue of why not all  
14 patients benefit from MUA. Some have persistent or recurrent symptoms. There are no  
15 clear recommendations in the literature on the optimal management of recurrent frozen  
16 shoulder after a MUA. A total of 730 patients (792 shoulders) underwent MUA during the  
17 study period. A further MUA was undertaken in 141 shoulders (17.8%), for which we had  
18 complete data for 126. The mean improvement in OSS for all patients undergoing MUA  
19 was 16 (26 to 42), and the mean post-operative OSS in those requiring a further MUA was  
20 14 (28 to 42). Improvement was seen after a further MUA, regardless both of the outcome  
21 of the initial MUA, and of the time of recurrence. Patients with type-1 diabetes mellitus  
22 were at a 38% increased risk of requiring a further MUA, compared with the 18% increased  
23 risk of the group as a whole. Authors concluded that patients with a poor outcome or  
24 recurrent symptoms of a frozen shoulder after a MUA should be offered a further MUA  
25 with the expectation of a good outcome and a low complication rate.

26  
27 Rangan et al. (2020) compared these two surgical interventions with early structured  
28 physiotherapy plus steroid injection. In this multicentre, pragmatic, three-arm, superiority  
29 randomized trial, patients referred to secondary care for treatment of primary frozen  
30 shoulder were recruited from 35 hospital sites in the UK. Participants were adults ( $\geq 18$   
31 years) with unilateral frozen shoulder, characterised by restriction of passive external  
32 rotation ( $\geq 50\%$ ) in the affected shoulder. Participants were randomly assigned (2:2:1) to  
33 receive manipulation under anaesthesia, arthroscopic capsular release, or early structured  
34 physiotherapy. Both forms of surgery were followed by postprocedural physiotherapy.  
35 Early structured physiotherapy involved mobilisation techniques and a graduated home  
36 exercise programme supplemented by a steroid injection. Both early structured  
37 physiotherapy and postprocedural physiotherapy involved 12 sessions during up to 12  
38 weeks. The primary outcome was the Oxford Shoulder Score (OSS). We sought a target  
39 difference of 5 OSS points between physiotherapy and either form of surgery, or 4 points  
40 between manipulation and capsular release. At 12 months, OSS data were available for  
41 189 (94%) of 201 participants assigned to manipulation (mean estimate 38.3 points, 95%  
42 CI 36.9 to 39.7), 191 (94%) of 203 participants assigned to capsular release (40.3 points,

1 38.9 to 41.7), and 93 (94%) of 99 participants assigned to physiotherapy (37.2 points, 35.3  
2 to 39.2). Eight serious adverse events were reported with capsular release and two with  
3 manipulation. Authors concluded that all mean differences on the assessment of shoulder  
4 pain and function (OSS) at the primary endpoint of 12 months were less than the target  
5 differences. Therefore, none of the three interventions were clinically superior.  
6 Arthroscopic capsular release carried higher risks, and manipulation under anaesthesia was  
7 the most cost-effective.

8  
9 Brealey et al. (2020) compared the clinical effectiveness and cost-effectiveness of three  
10 treatments in secondary care for adults with frozen shoulder; to qualitatively explore the  
11 acceptability of these treatments to patients and health-care professionals; and to update a  
12 systematic review to explore the trial findings in the context of existing evidence for the  
13 three treatments. Participants were adults (aged  $\geq 18$  years) with unilateral frozen shoulder,  
14 characterised by restriction of passive external rotation in the affected shoulder to  $< 50\%$   
15 of the opposite shoulder, and with plain radiographs excluding other pathology. The  
16 interventions were early structured physiotherapy with a steroid injection, MUA with a  
17 steroid injection and arthroscopic capsular release followed by manipulation. Post-  
18 procedural physiotherapy followed both surgical interventions. The primary outcome and  
19 end point was the Oxford Shoulder Score at 12 months post randomization. A difference  
20 of five points was considered clinically important between early structured physiotherapy  
21 and MUA or arthroscopic capsular release. Similarly, a four-point difference between  
22 MUA and arthroscopic capsular release was considered significant. The mean age of the  
23 503 participants was 54 years; 319 were female (63%) and 150 had diabetes (30%). The  
24 primary analyses comprised 473 participants (94%). At the primary end point of 12  
25 months, participants randomized to arthroscopic capsular release had, on average, a  
26 statistically significantly higher (better) Oxford Shoulder Score than those randomized to  
27 MUA or early structured physiotherapy. MUA did not result in statistically significantly  
28 better Oxford Shoulder Score than early structured physiotherapy. No differences were  
29 deemed of clinical importance. Serious adverse events were rare but occurred in  
30 participants randomized to surgery (arthroscopic capsular release,  $n = 8$ ; manipulation  
31 under anaesthesia,  $n = 2$ ). Participants in the qualitative study wanted early medical help  
32 and a quicker pathway to resolve their shoulder problem. Nine studies from the updated  
33 systematic review, including UK FROST, of which only two could be pooled, and found  
34 that arthroscopic capsular release was more effective than physiotherapy in the long-term  
35 shoulder functioning of patients, but not to the clinically important magnitude used in UK  
36 FROST. Authors concluded that none of the three interventions were clearly superior.  
37 Early structured physiotherapy with a steroid injection is an accessible and low-cost option.  
38 MUA is the most cost-effective option. Arthroscopic capsular release carries higher risks  
39 and higher costs.

40  
41 Song et al. (2021) aimed to evaluate the effect of MUA with intra-articular steroid injection  
42 (ISI) or not on pain severity and function of the shoulder. Data on 141 patients receiving

1 MUA with primary frozen shoulder (FS) refractory to conservative treatments for at least  
2 1 month were retrospectively obtained from medical records. Propensity score matching  
3 analysis was performed between patients receiving MUA only and those receiving MUA  
4 plus ISI, and then conducted logistic regression analysis to identify the risk factors for the  
5 need to other treatments during 6-month follow-up. More improvement in terms of the  
6 SPADI pain scores and passive ROM at 2 weeks after first intervention remained in  
7 patients receiving MUA plus ISI after matching. The need to other treatments during 6-  
8 month follow-up occurred in 10.6% patients ( $n = 141$ ). Logistic regression analysis  
9 revealed that a repeat MUA 1 week after first intervention was a protective factor and  
10 duration of disease was the only one risk factor (OR 1.080; 95% CI 1.020-1.144;  $P = .008$ )  
11 for the need to other treatments during follow-up. ISI immediately following MUA  
12 provided additional benefits in rapid relief of pain and disability for patients with refractory  
13 FS. Authors suggest that pain and disability of the shoulder may be rapidly alleviated by  
14 an earlier MUA from the onset of the symptoms and a repeat MUA 1 week after first  
15 intervention.

16  
17 Rex et al. (2021) includes a recently completed multicenter randomized controlled trial  
18 (RCT), UK FROST, in the context of existing randomized evidence for the management  
19 of primary frozen shoulder in a systematic review. UK FROST compared the effectiveness  
20 of pre-specified physiotherapy techniques with a steroid injection (PTSI), manipulation  
21 under anaesthesia (MUA) with a steroid injection, and arthroscopic capsular release  
22 (ACR). This review updates a 2012 review focusing on the effectiveness of MUA, ACR,  
23 hydrodilatation, and PTSI. Nine RCTs were included. The primary outcome of patient-  
24 reported shoulder function at long-term follow-up ( $> 6$  months and  $\leq 12$  months) was  
25 reported for five treatment comparisons across four studies. Authors concluded that the  
26 findings from a recent multicentre RCT provided the strongest evidence that, when  
27 compared with each other, neither PTSI, MUA, nor ACR are clinically superior. Evidence  
28 from smaller RCTs did not change this conclusion. The effectiveness of hydrodilatation  
29 based on four RCTs was inconclusive and there remains an evidence gap.

30  
31 Ko et al. (2021) aimed to assess how comorbidities influence the recovery speed and  
32 clinical outcomes after MUA. Between April 2013 and September 2018, 281 consecutive  
33 primary stiff shoulders in the frozen phase treated with MUA were included in this study.  
34 They investigated the comorbidities of patients and divided them into the control ( $n = 203$ ),  
35 diabetes mellitus (DM) ( $n = 32$ ), hyperlipidemia ( $n = 26$ ), and thyroid disorder ( $n = 20$ )  
36 groups. The range of motion (ROM) and clinical scores for each group before MUA and 1  
37 week, 6 weeks, and 3 months after MUA were comparatively analyzed. They identified  
38 the ROM recovery time after MUA and the responsiveness to MUA. Then, subjects were  
39 subdivided into early and late recovery groups based on their recovery time and into  
40 successful and unsuccessful MUA groups based on their responsiveness to MUA.  
41 Significant improvements in ROM and clinical scores at 3 months after MUA were  
42 observed in all groups. Significant differences in ROM among the 4 groups were also



1 observed during follow-up ( $P < .05$ ). The DM group had significantly lower ROM values,  
2 even at 3 months after MUA, compared with the control group. The ROM recovery speed  
3 after MUA was slowest in the DM group, followed by the thyroid disorder, hyperlipidemia,  
4 and control groups. Most (90.6%) of the DM group experienced late recovery. The  
5 proportion of nonsuccessful MUA was higher in the DM and thyroid disorder groups than  
6 that in the control and hyperlipidemia groups ( $P = .004$ ). During follow-up, there were no  
7 differences among groups regarding the visual analog scale, University of California at  
8 Los Angeles shoulder, and Constant scores. Authors concluded that the ROM recovery  
9 speed and responsiveness to MUA for primary stiff shoulder were poorer for the DM and  
10 thyroid disorder groups than for the control group. In particular, compared with any other  
11 disease, outcomes were poorer when the comorbidity was DM. If patients have  
12 comorbidities, then they should be informed before MUA that the comorbidity could affect  
13 the outcomes of treatment.

14  
15 Salomon et al. (2022) investigated the efficacy of manipulation under anesthesia (MUA)  
16 compared to other non-surgical therapeutic strategies for patients with frozen shoulder  
17 contracture syndrome (FSCS). Five randomized controlled trials were included. The  
18 overall risk of bias (RoB) was high in 4 out of 5 of the included studies. MUA was found  
19 to be not superior in terms of reduction of pain and improvement of function when  
20 compared to cortisone injections with hydrodilatation and home exercise in the short term  
21 (3 months), and cortisone injections with hydrodilatation in the long term ( $>6$  months).  
22 Moreover, if compared to structured physiotherapy, MUA highlighted a higher Oxford  
23 Shoulder Score at final 1-year follow up. Similar results were obtained for disability, with  
24 statistically no significant long-term differences between MUA and home exercise or  
25 structured physiotherapy. Only two trials reported adverse events. This review suggested  
26 that limited and inconsistent evidence currently exists on the efficacy of MUA compared  
27 to other non-surgical strategies in the management of patients with FSCS. Future research  
28 should focus on clinical trials with higher methodological quality.

29  
30 Kraal et al. (2023) evaluated the effectiveness of MUA followed by a physiotherapy (PT)  
31 program compared to a PT program alone in patients with stage 2 Frozen Shoulder (FS).  
32 Frozen shoulder (FS) is a common cause of shoulder pain and stiffness. Conservative  
33 treatment is sufficient for the majority of patients with long-term recovery of shoulder  
34 function. Manipulation under anesthesia (MUA) is known as a well-established treatment  
35 option if conservative treatment fails. It is unknown whether MUA does indeed shorten the  
36 duration of symptoms or leads to a superior outcome compared to conservative treatment.  
37 For this study, patients between 18 and 70 years old with stage 2 FS were deemed eligible  
38 if an initial course of conservative treatment consisting of PT and intra-articular  
39 corticosteroid infiltration was considered unsatisfactory. MUA was performed by a single  
40 surgeon under interscalene block, and intensive PT treatment protocol was started within  
41 4 hours after MUA. In the PT group, patients were referred to instructed physiotherapist,  
42 and treatment was guided by tissue irritability. The primary outcome was the Shoulder

1 Pain and Disability Index (SPADI) score. Secondary outcomes were pain, range of motion  
2 (ROM), Oxford Shoulder Score, quality of life, and ability to work. In total, 82 patients  
3 were included, 42 in the PT group and 40 in the MUA group. There was a significant  
4 improvement in SPADI, Oxford Shoulder Score, pain, ROM, and quality of life in both  
5 groups at 1-year follow-up. SPADI scores at three months were significantly improved in  
6 favor of MUA. MUA showed a significantly bigger increase in flexion and abduction  
7 compared to PT at all points of follow-up. No significant differences between both groups  
8 were found for all other parameters. No fractures, dislocations, or brachial plexus injuries  
9 occurred in this trial. Authors concluded that MUA in stage 2 FS can be considered safe  
10 and results in a faster recovery of ROM and improved functional outcome, measured with  
11 SPADI scores, compared to PT alone in the short term. After 1 year, except for slightly  
12 better ROM scores for MUA, the result of MUA is equal to PT.

### 13 14 **Knee**

15 MUA is indicated, with or without arthroscopy for arthrofibrosis of the knee (i.e., post  
16 ACL reconstruction), when there is  $<90^\circ$  range of motion following surgery or trauma  
17 despite physical therapy (Magit et al., 2007). Manipulation under anesthesia has also been  
18 used to treat fibroarthrosis following total knee replacement. Following total knee  
19 arthroplasty, some patients who fail to achieve greater than 90 degrees of flexion in the  
20 early peri-operative period may be considered candidates for MUA of the knee.  
21 Manipulation under anesthesia is indicated in total knee arthroplasty having less than 90  
22 degrees ROM 4 to 12 weeks following surgery, with no progression or regression in ROM  
23 (Pariante et al., 2006; Magit et al., 2007). Keating et al. (2007) assessed the outcomes of  
24 manipulation following total knee arthroplasty. A total of 113 knees in 90 patients  
25 underwent manipulation for post-operative flexion of less than or equal to 90 degrees at a  
26 mean of 10 weeks after surgery. Eighty-one (90%) of the 90 patients achieved  
27 improvement of ultimate knee flexion following manipulation. The average improvement  
28 in flexion from the measurement made before manipulation to that recorded at the 5-year  
29 follow-up was 35 degrees. The investigators reported that there was no significant  
30 difference in the mean improvement in flexion when patients who had manipulation within  
31 12 weeks post-operatively were compared with those who had manipulation more than 12  
32 weeks post-operatively. Patients who eventually underwent manipulation had significantly  
33 more pain than those who had not had manipulation. The investigators concluded that  
34 manipulation generally increases final flexion following total knee arthroplasty. They  
35 noted that patients with severe pre-operative pain are more likely to require manipulation.

36  
37 Sassoon et al. (2015) investigated the results of closed manipulations performed under  
38 anesthesia (MUA) to evaluate whether it is an effective means to treat posttraumatic knee  
39 arthrofibrosis. Twenty-two patients with a mean age of 40 underwent closed MUA for  
40 posttraumatic knee arthrofibrosis. Injuries included fractures of the femur, tibia, and patella  
41 as well as ligamentous injuries and traumatic arthrotomies. The mean time from treatment  
42 to manipulation was 90 days. Mean follow-up after manipulation was 7 months. The mean

1 premanipulation ROM arc was  $59 \pm 25$  degrees. The mean intraoperative arc of motion,  
 2 achieved at the time of the manipulation was  $123 \pm 14$  degrees. No complications occurred  
 3 during the MUA procedure. At the most recent follow-up, the mean ROM arc was  $110 \pm$   
 4  $19$  degrees. Tobacco use, associated injuries, elevated body mass index, open fracture, and  
 5 advanced age did not impact manipulation efficacy. Additionally, manipulations  
 6 performed 90 days or more after surgical treatment provided a benefit equaling those  
 7 performed more acutely. Authors concluded that MUA is a safe and effective method to  
 8 increase knee ROM in the setting of posttraumatic arthrofibrosis. Improvement in ROM  
 9 was noted in all patients.

10  
 11 Ekhtiari et al. (2017) reviewed the literature to: (a) describe existing definitions of  
 12 arthrofibrosis, and (b) characterize the management strategies and outcomes of  
 13 arthrofibrosis treatment in patients post ACL reconstruction. Twenty-five studies of  
 14 primarily level IV evidence (88%) were included. A total of 647 patients with a mean age  
 15 of  $28.2 \pm 1.8$  years (range 14-62 years) were treated for arthrofibrosis following ACL  
 16 reconstruction and followed for a mean  $30.1 \pm 16.9$  months (range 2 months-9.6 years).  
 17 Definitions of arthrofibrosis varied widely and included subjective definitions and the  
 18 Shelbourne classification system. Patients were treated by one or more of: arthroscopic  
 19 arthrolysis (570 patients), MUA (153 patients), oral corticosteroids (31 patients),  
 20 physiotherapy (81 patients), drop-casting (17 patients), epidural therapy combined with  
 21 inpatient physiotherapy (6 patients), and intra-articular interleukin-1 antagonist injection  
 22 (4 patients). All studies reported improvement in range of motion post-operatively, with  
 23 statistically significant improvement reported for 306 patients (6 studies, p range  $<0.001$   
 24 to  $=0.05$ ), and one study (18 patients) reporting significantly better results if arthrofibrosis  
 25 was treated within 8 months of reconstruction ( $p < 0.03$ ). The greatest improvements for  
 26 extension loss were seen with drop-casting (mean  $6.2^\circ \pm 0.6^\circ$  improvement), whereas  
 27 MUA produced the greatest improvement for flexion deficit (mean  $47.8^\circ \pm 3.3^\circ$   
 28 improvement). Gu et al. (2018) performed a systematic review of the literature was  
 29 performed to identify studies that reported clinical outcomes for patients who underwent  
 30 MUA for post-operative stiffness treatment. Repeat MUA procedures were included in the  
 31 study but were analyzed separately. Twenty-two studies (1,488 patients) reported on ROM  
 32 after MUA, and 4 studies (81 patients) reported ROM after repeat MUA. All studies  
 33 reported pre-MUA motion of less than  $90^\circ$ , while mean ROM at last follow-up exceeded  
 34  $90^\circ$  in all studies except two. For studies reporting ROM improvement following repeat  
 35 MUA, the mean pre-manipulation ROM was  $80^\circ$  and the mean post-manipulation ROM  
 36 was  $100.6^\circ$ .

37  
 38 Authors concluded that MUA remains an efficacious, minimally invasive treatment option  
 39 for post-operative stiffness following total knee arthroplasty (TKA). MUA provides  
 40 clinically significant improvement in ROM for most patients, with the best outcomes  
 41 occurring in patients treated within 12 weeks post-operatively. Neuman et al. (2018)  
 42 completed a study on risk factors, outcomes, and timing of MUA after TKA. Clinical

1 variables were compared between patients who underwent MUA and those who did not;  
2 variables that differed were utilized to identify an appropriately matched control group of  
3 non-MUA patients. The MUA group was divided into early (MUA  $\leq$ 6 weeks from index)  
4 and late ( $>$ 6 weeks) subgroups. Flexion values at multiple time points were compared. In  
5 total, 1,729 TKA patients were reviewed; MUA was performed in 62 patients. TKA  
6 patients undergoing MUAs were younger, more likely to be current smokers, and more  
7 likely to have undergone prior knee surgery. Even in patients with severe initial  
8 postoperative limitations in ROM, MUA within 6 weeks may allow for final outcomes that  
9 are equivalent to those experienced by similar patients not requiring manipulation.

10  
11 Archunan et al. (2021) aimed to ascertain the prevalence, determine the influencing factors,  
12 and evaluate the efficacy of MUA as a treatment option. For the study, stiffness was  
13 defined as flexion contracture of  $>$ 15 degrees and/or flexion of  $<$ 75 degrees. Demographic  
14 data included co-morbidities, previous knee surgery, pre-operative and post-operative  
15 ROM, anesthetic techniques and use of nerve blocks, type of prosthesis, ligament balancing  
16 including release, mobility post-surgery, patient motivation, physiotherapy, complications,  
17 and final ROM post-MUA. Of the 1,350 patients evaluated, 33 (2.44%) had stiffness  
18 defined by the above-outlined criteria and required intervention. Thirty-one patients  
19 underwent MUA as a first-line treatment. No complications arose following MUA. One  
20 patient (0.07%) required arthroscopic arthrolysis while another patient (0.07%) required  
21 revision arthroplasty due to patellar maltracking. Following manipulation, mean flexion  
22 contracture decreased from 8 degrees to 3.6 degrees, and mean flexion improved from 51.8  
23 degrees to 93.2 degrees. Arc of motion improved in 100% of patients but it is important to  
24 note that multiple manipulations were performed in seven patients. Authors concluded that  
25 stiffness after TKA can be difficult to treat and can result in prolonged morbidity and  
26 dissatisfaction. This retrospective study highlights the effectiveness of MUA as a first-line  
27 treatment option leading to improved outcomes especially if done early.

28  
29 Sala et al. (2022) completed a retrospective study determined the outcome of MUA and  
30 identified the factors affecting it. The final sample consisted of 150 MUAs performed on  
31 145 patients. The parameters of interest were ROM and Knee Society Score (KSS) or  
32 Oxford Knee Score (OKS). The mean of 26° gain in flexion and the mean of 3° gain in  
33 extension were noticed at post-MUA follow-up when compared with the ROM preceding  
34 MUA. The mean post-MUA-FU flexion was 99° and the mean post-MUA-FU extension  
35 deficit was 4°. KSS (121 vs. 129) and OKS (29 vs. 28) were similar before and after MUA.  
36 The early timing of MUA was associated with better gain in flexion -0.04, while we found  
37 no association between the timing of MUA and flexion after MUA -0.004. High BMI was  
38 associated with better gain in flexion 0.8. Authors found that ROM improved substantially  
39 after MUA. The gain in flexion decreased as the time between TKA and MUA increased.  
40 DeFrance et al. (2022) sought to determine whether MUA was associated with an increase  
41 in the rate of revision TKA within 2 years of MUA. A total of 49,310 patients within a  
42 single institution who underwent primary TKA were identified from 1999 to 2019. Data

1 were matched at a 1:3 ratio (TKA with and without MUA, respectively) based on age, sex,  
2 and body mass index. A matched comparison cohort was conducted, with the MUA cohort  
3 having 575 patients and the no MUA cohort having 1,725 patients. A statistically  
4 significant increase in the rate of noninfectious etiology revision TKA was found in the  
5 MUA cohort (7.3%) compared with the no MUA cohort (4.9%;  $P=.034$ ). The most  
6 common reason for revision TKA after MUA was persistent stiffness, including  
7 arthrofibrosis and ankylosis; however, aseptic loosening, ligamentous instability, and  
8 periprosthetic fracture were found to be responsible for 21.4% of revision TKA procedures.  
9 Although MUA is a commonly performed procedure for treating stiffness after primary  
10 TKA, the orthopedic surgeon should counsel patients on the association of increased rate  
11 of revision TKA after MUA, most commonly, persistent stiffness.

12  
13 Haffar et al. (2022) performed a systematic review to compare the outcomes of  
14 manipulation under anaesthesia (MUA), arthroscopic lysis of adhesions (aLOA), and  
15 revision TKA (rTKA) for arthrofibrosis and stiffness following TKA. A total of 40 studies  
16 were included: 21 on rTKA, 7 on aLOA, and 14 on MUA. The mean or median post-  
17 operative arc ROM was  $> 90^\circ$  in 6/20 (30%) rTKA, 5/7 (71%) aLOA, and 7/10 (70%)  
18 MUA studies. Post-operative Knee Society (KSS) clinical and functional scores were the  
19 greatest in patients who underwent MUA and aLOA. As many as 43% of rTKA patients  
20 required further care compared to 25% of aLOA and 17% of MUA patients. Authors  
21 concluded that stiffness following TKA remains a challenging condition to treat.  
22 Nonetheless, current evidence suggests that patients who undergo rTKA have poorer  
23 clinical outcomes and a greater need for further treatment compared to patients who  
24 undergo MUA or aLOA.

25  
26 Thomas et al. (2023) compared the 2-year complication rates of arthroscopic lysis of  
27 adhesions (ALA) and MUA and range-of-motion (ROM) outcomes for ALA, early MUA  
28 ( $<3$  months after TKA), and delayed MUA ( $>3$  months after TKA). This retrospective  
29 cohort study included 425 patients undergoing ALA or MUA after primary TKA from  
30 2001 to 2018. Demographics, clinical variables, and complication rates were collected  
31 from clinical records. ALA patients were younger (55.2 versus 58.9 years,  $P < 0.001$ ) and  
32 underwent surgery later from the index TKA (12 versus 1.9 months,  $P < 0.001$ ). The  
33 Charlson Comorbidity Index was higher in the MUA group. Preoperative ROM was  
34 significantly worse in the MUA cohort but did not differ between groups after the  
35 procedure or at 2 years. Demographics and ROM outcomes were equivalent between early  
36 MUA and delayed MUA. The incidence of repeat arthrofibrosis (7.1%) and revision  
37 arthroplasty (2.4%) was similar between ALA and MUA cohorts while ALA patients had  
38 significantly more surgical site infections (3.8%) compared with MUA patients (0.47%,  $P$   
39  $= 0.017$ ). Equivalent ROM outcomes were seen between ALA, early MUA, and delayed  
40 MUA for the treatment of arthrofibrosis after TKA. However, this study demonstrated a  
41 markedly higher complication rate, particularly surgical site infection, after ALA,

1 suggesting that MUA may be the preferred option for treating arthrofibrosis at both early  
2 and late time points.

3  
4 Akhtar et al. (2024) evaluated the functional and clinical outcomes of early versus delayed  
5 MUA for stiffness following TKA. Stiffness following TKA is often treated with MUA.  
6 However, there is debate regarding the timing of MUA, with many recommending against  
7 MUA beyond 3 months after TKA. Included were 14 studies analyzing 13,445 knees,  
8 72.1% of which underwent early MUA and 27.8% of which underwent delayed MUA. Of  
9 the 14 studies, 10 defined early MUA as being performed within 3 months of the index  
10 TKA. Pre-MUA and post-MUA knee flexion for the early/delayed groups was 71.3°/77.9°  
11 and 103.0°/96.1°, respectively. Upon meta-analysis, pre-MUA knee flexion was  
12 significantly higher in the delayed group, whereas post-MUA flexion was similar in both  
13 groups. The mean gain in knee flexion for the early and delayed groups was 32.0°/19.2°.  
14 The surgical complication and revision TKA rates for the early and delayed groups were  
15 4.9%/10.3% and 5%/9%, respectively. A meta-analysis found the risk of surgical or  
16 medical complications and revision TKA to be significantly higher in the delayed MUA  
17 group. Authors concluded that although post-MUA knee flexion was similar in patients  
18 undergoing early and delayed MUA following TKA, the mean gain in flexion for early  
19 patients was nearly double that of delayed patients. Delayed patients also had significantly  
20 higher risks of surgical or medical complications and revision TKA following MUA.

21  
22 Brown et al. (2024) sought to determine whether MUA had any advantage over routine  
23 care in the treatment of patients who developed arthrofibrosis following TKA.  
24 Arthrofibrosis is a multifactorial process that results in decreased knee range of motion  
25 (ROM). Manipulation under anesthesia (MUA) is commonly regarded as the preferred  
26 initial treatment of arthrofibrosis following total knee arthroplasty (TKA). There have been  
27 no well-controlled studies demonstrating that MUA effectively increases ROM in patients  
28 who develop arthrofibrosis after TKA when compared with routine care. The authors  
29 identified patients who underwent primary TKA at the authors' institution between 2010  
30 and 2014 and had flexion  $\leq 100$  degrees at early follow-up. Knees were grouped based on  
31 how the arthrofibrosis was treated: those who underwent MUA and those who received  
32 routine care. Knee flexion was captured preoperatively (prior to TKA), at early follow-up  
33 (prior to MUA or routine care), and at 1-year follow up. Flexion change from early follow-  
34 up to 1 year was calculated. The average flexion at 1-year follow-up was not significantly  
35 different between the two groups ( $106.1 \pm 11.7$  degrees in the routine care group versus  
36  $106.3 \pm 12.8$  degrees in the MUA group). The MUA group had a greater proportion of  
37 patients with flexion gains  $> 20$  degrees at final follow-up when compared with patients  
38 who underwent routine care (56% vs. 8%,  $p < 0.0001$ ). This study demonstrates that  
39 patients with decreased ROM at early follow-up after primary TKA can expect greater  
40 ROM increase at 1-year follow-up if they undergo MUA compared with patients who  
41 undergo routine care.

1 Marquez-Lara et al. (2024) evaluated the safety and efficacy of early (<3 mo  
 2 postoperatively) MUA for the treatment of knee arthrofibrosis in adolescent patients.  
 3 Authors hypothesized that early MUA could restore normal knee motion with a low  
 4 complication rate and without the need for more invasive intervention. In a retrospective  
 5 review, 57 patients who underwent MUA for postoperative knee arthrofibrosis were  
 6 identified. The median age of the cohort at time of MUA was 14.5 years. 54.4% were male.  
 7 Median time to MUA was 64 days after index surgery. ROM before MUA was 90.0  
 8 degrees, which improved to 130 degrees (120 to 135) after MUA. At final median follow-  
 9 up of 8.9 months, mean ROM was 133 degrees (130 to 140). There were no iatrogenic  
 10 fractures or physeal separations associated with MUA. 12.3% (n=7/57) failed MUA either  
 11 due to the need for subsequent repeat MUA (n=2), need for lysis of adhesions (n=3) or  
 12 need for surgery after MUA (n=2). Those who failed early MUA and required subsequent  
 13 procedures had ROM >120 degrees at final follow-up. Authors concluded that  
 14 postoperative knee arthrofibrosis can be safely and effectively treated with early (<3 mo  
 15 postoperative) MUA. There were no iatrogenic fractures or physeal separations during  
 16 MUA. Patients who had recurrence of motion deficits after early MUA and required further  
 17 intervention, regained satisfactory knee motion at final follow-up. Although further  
 18 research is warranted to better characterize risk factors for knee arthrofibrosis in adolescent  
 19 patients, early recognition and MUA is a safe and effective treatment for arthrofibrosis to  
 20 help patients regain full ROM without invasive intervention.

### 21 22 **Fracture and/or Dislocation**

23 MUA is also considered a well-established and successful treatment for some types of  
 24 fractures (e.g., vertebral, long bones) and acute/traumatic dislocations (e.g., perched  
 25 cervical facet). It is typically performed with surgical repair and other medically necessary  
 26 procedures such as arthroscopy. When performed in this context, MUA is considered  
 27 incidental to the base procedure.

### 28 29 **Chronic Joint Contracture**

30 A joint contracture is a limitation in the passive range of motion of a joint. Joint  
 31 contractures prevent normal movement of the associated body part and can result from a  
 32 variety of causes such as spasticity or prolonged immobilization. Intra-articular adhesions  
 33 and peri-articular adhesions, as well as capsular, ligament and muscle shortening, and  
 34 tightness may develop. As a result, activities of daily living and other functions may be  
 35 adversely affected due to the decreased mobility. In many cases, contractures can be  
 36 successfully treated nonoperatively with aggressive physical therapy or splinting with  
 37 restoration of functional range of motion. When conservative treatment fails more  
 38 aggressive treatment may necessary and includes anesthetic block, maximal stretching, and  
 39 in some cases, serial casting (Garden, 2002). For joint contracture deformities, extra-  
 40 articular and intra-articular soft tissue releases are considered standard treatment (Paley,  
 41 2003). Surgical treatments include tenotomy, tendon lengthening and joint capsule release.  
 42 Manipulation under anesthesia, involving maximal passive stretching may be considered

1 standard treatment and is often performed in combination with serial casting and/or  
2 surgical release when less aggressive treatments have failed.

### 3 **Elbow**

4 Published peer reviewed supporting the safety and effectiveness of using manipulation  
5 under anesthesia of the elbow is limited to retrospective case series, involve small sample  
6 populations and lack control groups (Araghi et al., 2012; Tan. Et al., 2006; Chao et al.,  
7 2002; Gaur et al., 2003). Few studies support clinical effectiveness for the treatment of  
8 joint stiffness/fibrosis when other conservative measures, such as bracing and splinting,  
9 have failed to improve range of motion. There is insufficient evidence in the peer-reviewed  
10 published literature and lack of consensus among professional societies to support the  
11 effectiveness of MUA as treatment for arthrofibrosis of the elbow. Spitler et al. (2018)  
12 evaluated the safety and efficacy of manipulation under anesthesia (MUA) for  
13 posttraumatic elbow stiffness. Comparison of improvement between the early and late  
14 MUA groups found a significant difference ( $P < 0.001$ ) in mean flexion arc improvement  
15 from premanipulation to postmanipulation, favoring the early group. Authors concluded  
16 that MUA is a safe and effective adjunct to improving motion in posttraumatic elbow  
17 stiffness when used within 3 months from the original injury or time of surgical fixation.  
18 After 3 months, MUA does not reliably increase elbow motion.

### 19 **TMJ**

20 Available evidence for MUA for temporomandibular joint syndrome is limited to small,  
21 uncontrolled studies with limited follow-up. Foster et al. (2000) conducted an uncontrolled  
22 prospective study of manipulation of the temporomandibular joint under anesthesia. The  
23 investigators reported that of the 55 patients available for participation in this study, 15  
24 improved, 15 did not, 6 showed partial improvement, and 19 were not treated. The median  
25 pre-treatment opening was 20 mm (range of 13 to 27). Among those who improved after  
26 manipulation, the median opening after treatment was 38 mm (range of 35 to 56). The  
27 investigators reported that some of those who improved experienced a return of TMJ  
28 clicking but not of joint or muscle tenderness. There is insufficient evidence in the peer-  
29 reviewed published literature to support the effectiveness of MUA as treatment for TMJ  
30 syndrome.

### 31 **Other Joints and Conditions**

32 Evidence in the medical literature evaluating the use of MUA for management of pain  
33 conditions involving one or more (i.e., multiple joints, whole body MUA) of other major  
34 joints such as the hip, ankle, toe, elbow, and wrist, is lacking. Due to insufficient evidence  
35 conclusions cannot be made regarding the clinical utility or safety and efficacy of MUA  
36 involving other single or multiple joints for pain management. There is a paucity of  
37 evidence supporting the use of MUA for the treatment of disorders of other body joints  
38 such as the hip, ankle, knee, and wrist.



1 **PRACTITIONER SCOPE AND TRAINING**

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

7  
8 It is best practice for the practitioner to appropriately render services to a member only if  
9 they are trained, equally skilled, and adequately competent to deliver a service compared  
10 to others trained to perform the same procedure. If the service would be most competently  
11 delivered by another health care practitioner who has more skill and training, it would be  
12 best practice to refer the member to the more expert practitioner.

13  
14 Best practice can be defined as a clinical, scientific, or professional technique, method, or  
15 process that is typically evidence-based and consensus driven and is recognized by a  
16 majority of professionals in a particular field as more effective at delivering a particular  
17 outcome than any other practice (Joint Commission International Accreditation Standards  
18 for Hospitals, 2020).

19  
20 Depending on the practitioner’s scope of practice, training, and experience, a member’s  
21 condition and/or symptoms during examination or the course of treatment may indicate the  
22 need for referral to another practitioner or even emergency care. In such cases it is prudent  
23 for the practitioner to refer the member for appropriate co-management (e.g., to their  
24 primary care physician) or if immediate emergency care is warranted, to contact 911 as  
25 appropriate. See the *Managing Medical Emergencies (CPG 159 – S)* policy for  
26 information.

27  
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