

1 **Clinical Practice Guideline: Prolotherapy**

2
3 **Date of Implementation: July 13, 2006**

4
5 **Product: Specialty**

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7
8 **GUIDELINES**

9 American Specialty Health (ASH) considers prolotherapy as a treatment of
10 musculoskeletal pain or any other indication unproven.

11
12 Despite ongoing studies, there continues to be insufficient evidence of its effectiveness in
13 the peer-reviewed literature.

14
15 For more information, see *ASH Techniques and Procedures Not Widely Supported as*
16 *Evidence Based (CPG 133 – S)* clinical practice guideline.

17
18 **HCPCS Code and Description**

HCPCS Code	HCPC Code Description
M0076	Prolotherapy

19
20 Patients must be informed verbally and in writing of the nature of any procedure or
21 treatment technique that is considered experimental/investigational or unproven, poses a
22 significant health and safety risk, and/or is scientifically implausible. If the patient decides
23 to receive such services, they must sign a Member Billing Acknowledgment Form (for
24 Medicare use Advance Beneficiary Notice of Non-Coverage form) indicating they
25 understand they are assuming financial responsibility for any service-related fees. Further,
26 the patient must sign an attestation indicating that they understand what is known and
27 unknown about, and the possible risks associated with such techniques prior to receiving
28 these services. All procedures, including those considered here, must be documented in the
29 medical record. Finally, prior to using experimental/investigational or unproven
30 procedures, those that pose a significant health and safety risk, and/or those considered
31 scientifically implausible, it is incumbent on the practitioner to confirm that their
32 professional liability insurance covers the use of these techniques or procedures in the event
33 of an adverse outcome.

34
35 **DESCRIPTION/BACKGROUND**

36 Prolotherapy has its roots in an ancient practice used by Hippocrates in healing athletes.
37 He found that by thrusting a hot lance into the injured athlete’s joint that the scar tissue
38 resulting from this procedure actually made the athletes stronger and perform better once
39 they were healed. Modern prolotherapy evolved from an injection technique called

1 sclerotherapy that arose in the 1920s to treat hernias and hemorrhoids. In the 1940s Dr.
2 Earl Gedney, an osteopathic physician, began to use sclerotherapy for back related
3 ailments. It was not until the 1950s that another physician coined the term prolotherapy. In
4 modern practice sclerotherapy now refers to the use of injections to affect the venous
5 system such as treatment for spider veins; while prolotherapy refers to injection for pain
6 management and strengthening of joints and ligaments.

7
8 Prolotherapy is defined by the American Association of Orthopaedic Medicine (AAOM)
9 as the injection of any substance(s) that promotes growth of normal cells, tissues, or organs.
10 The most commonly used prolotherapy injection solutions contain dextrose; however,
11 prolotherapy can apply to the injection of various substances. The AAOM outlines three
12 different types of prolotherapy: growth factor injection prolotherapy, growth factor
13 stimulation prolotherapy, and inflammatory prolotherapy. According to Rabago et al.
14 (2011) prolotherapy is an injection-based complementary therapy for common chronic
15 musculoskeletal conditions including tendinopathy, knee osteoarthritis, and low back pain.
16 It involves the injection of irritant solutions into tender ligamentous and tendinous
17 attachments and adjacent joint spaces. Prolotherapy is based on the premise that chronic
18 musculoskeletal pain and disability often result from degeneration associated with these
19 structures, and that prolotherapy addresses this degeneration at the tissue level. Although
20 the mechanism of action for prolotherapy is not clearly understood, recent animal model
21 studies reported that prolotherapy is associated with local inflammation, which may lead
22 to induction of tissue growth factors. Prolotherapy injections may also act as central pain
23 modulators.

24
25 One such substance used for pain management is the herbal formula known as Sarapin,
26 which is a brand name for an extract of the pitcher plant, *Sarracenia Purpurea*. This plant
27 is an alkaloid used in herbal and botanical medicine to treat stomach and renal complaints.
28 Proponents of Sarapin’s use in prolotherapy contend that its alkaloid properties lend it an
29 analgesic effect when injected locally. Growth factor injection prolotherapy involves the
30 injection of a growth factor (a complex protein) that specifically begins growth of a certain
31 cell line. This type of prolotherapy is in the early stages of development and is currently
32 being investigated as a treatment for arthritis. Growth factor stimulation prolotherapy
33 involves the injection of a substance that causes the body to produce growth factors. Non-
34 inflammatory dextrose is one example that has been examined in the treatment of various
35 conditions of joint pain. Inflammatory prolotherapy involves the injection of a substance
36 activating the inflammatory response to produce growth factors. These solutions may
37 include dextrose but are designed to produce a more vigorous growth response. Examples
38 include dextrose solutions of a concentration of 12%-25% and phenol-containing
39 solutions. This has been examined to treat various types of joint pain, including back pain,
40 neck pain, knee pain, and headache.

1 Although prolotherapy techniques and injected solutions vary by condition, clinical
 2 severity, and physician preferences, a core principle is that a small volume (0.2 to 0.5 mL)
 3 of solution is injected into tender ligamentous and tendinous attachments in a peppering
 4 fashion, and into adjacent joint spaces. The most common injectant is dextrose 15% (3 mL
 5 dextrose 50%, 5 mL saline 0.9%, and 2-mL lidocaine 2% [Xylocaine]); a similar volume
 6 of the sclerosant morrhuate sodium is also used. Treatment typically involves at least three
 7 injection sessions one month apart, but injection intervals vary from two to six weeks.

8
 9 It is difficult to determine the safety profile of prolotherapy. It appears to be safe when
 10 applied by an experienced injector (Rabago et al., 2011), however studies often do not
 11 report adverse events consistently and therefore no conclusions can be drawn. The safety
 12 profile would include possible adverse and allergic reactions to a substance in the injecting
 13 solution and/or physical injury caused by the needle or other equipment used for the
 14 injection.

15 16 **EVIDENCE AND RESEARCH**

17 Prolotherapy, also referred to as joint sclerotherapy or reconstructive ligament therapy, has
 18 been investigated as a treatment of various sources of musculoskeletal pain, including
 19 arthritis, chronic neck and back pain, degenerative disc disease, fibromyalgia, tendonitis
 20 and ligamentous instability.

21 22 **Musculoskeletal Pain**

23 Systematic reviews concluded that there are limited high quality studies supporting the use
 24 of prolotherapy in the treatment of musculoskeletal pain or sport-related soft tissue injuries
 25 (Rabago et al., 2005; Kim et al., 2004; Uthman et al., 2003).

26
 27 Hauser et al. (2016) completed a systematic review of dextrose prolotherapy for chronic
 28 musculoskeletal pain. Fourteen RCTs and 1 case-control study, and 18 case series studies
 29 met the inclusion criteria and were evaluated. Pain conditions were clustered into
 30 tendinopathies, osteoarthritis (OA), spinal/pelvic, and myofascial pain. The RCTs were
 31 high-quality Level 1 evidence (Physiotherapy Evidence Database ≥ 8) and found dextrose
 32 injection superior to controls in Osgood-Schlatter disease, lateral epicondylitis of the
 33 elbow, traumatic rotator cuff injury, knee OA, finger OA, and myofascial pain; in
 34 biomechanical but not subjective measures in temporal mandibular joint; and comparable
 35 in a short-term RCT but superior in a long-term RCT in low back pain. Many observational
 36 studies were of high quality and reported consistent positive evidence in multiple studies
 37 of tendinopathies, knee OA, sacroiliac pain, and iliac crest pain that received RCT
 38 confirmation in separate studies. Eighteen studies combined patient self-rating (subjective)
 39 with psychometric, imaging, and/or biomechanical (objective) outcome measurement and
 40 found both positive subjective and objective outcomes in 16 studies and positive objective
 41 but not subjective outcomes in two studies. All 15 studies solely using subjective or
 42 psychometric measures reported positive findings. Authors concluded that the use of

1 dextrose prolotherapy is supported for treatment of tendinopathies, knee and finger joint
2 OA, and spinal/pelvic pain due to ligament dysfunction. Efficacy in acute pain, as first-line
3 therapy, and in myofascial pain cannot be determined from the literature.

4 5 **Low Back Pain**

6 A California Technology Assessment Forum (CTAF) (Feldman, 2004) has concluded that
7 prolotherapy does not meet CTAF's assessment criteria, as only one early study (Ongley,
8 1987) was able to demonstrate conclusively that prolotherapy was significantly superior to
9 placebo for treatment of chronic low back pain. Subsequent research has not been able to
10 replicate this finding. It is therefore not possible to conclude from the published literature
11 that prolotherapy is superior to placebo injection for the treatment of chronic low back
12 pain.

13
14 A systematic review found conflicting evidence regarding the effectiveness of prolotherapy
15 injections for reducing pain and disability in patients with chronic low back pain (Yelland
16 et al., 2004a). Conclusions were confounded by clinical heterogeneity among studies and
17 by the presence of co-interventions. The authors found no evidence that prolotherapy
18 injections alone were more effective than control injections alone. However, in the
19 presence of co-interventions, prolotherapy injections were more effective than control
20 injections, more so when both injections and co-interventions were controlled concurrently
21 (Yelland et al., 2004a; Yelland et al., 2004c). A randomized controlled trial (RCT)
22 evaluating the effectiveness of prolotherapy and exercise for patients with chronic
23 nonspecific low back pain found no significant benefit for prolotherapy injections over
24 normal saline injections but concluded that significant and sustained reductions in pain and
25 disability occur with ligament injections, irrespective of the solution injected or the
26 concurrent use of exercises (Yelland et al., 2004b).

27
28 A later critical review of the literature supporting prolotherapy found evidence that this
29 technique may be effective for reducing spinal pain. Authors noted great variation among
30 injection and treatment protocols used in the reviewed studies that precludes definite
31 conclusions (Dagenais et al., 2005). An updated Cochrane review by Dagenais et al. (2007)
32 stated that conflicting evidence exists for the efficacy of prolotherapy injections for patients
33 with chronic low-back pain. When used alone, prolotherapy is not an effective treatment
34 for chronic low-back pain. When combined with spinal manipulation, exercise, and other
35 co-interventions, prolotherapy may improve chronic low-back pain and disability.
36 Conclusions are confounded by clinical heterogeneity amongst studies and by the presence
37 of co-interventions.

38
39 Watson and Shay (2010) performed a retrospective case series for patients with chronic
40 low back pain involving ligamentous pathology receiving injection therapy. They
41 concluded that at one year follow up, patients receiving prolotherapy using a variety of
42 substances can be effective for some patients when performed by a skilled practitioner.

1 Distal and Best (2011) completed a clinical review on the effectiveness of prolotherapy in
2 the treatment of low back pain. Authors recognized that numerous studies do exist with the
3 majority focusing on the treatment of low back pain. They conclude that there is a growing
4 body of evidence to suggest that prolotherapy may be helpful in treating chronic low back
5 pain when coupled with adjunctive therapies such as spinal manipulation or corticosteroid
6 injections. They also note that prolotherapy may also be effective in treating chronic
7 tendinopathies such as lateral epicondylitis and Achilles tendinopathy.
8

9 Giordano et al. (2021) aims to clarify the place of prolotherapy in chronic low back pain
10 (CLBP) in a review article. A total of 12 articles was included in their present work. An
11 area of agreement within these articles was that with consideration to the level of evidence
12 and the quality of the studies assessed using the modified Coleman Score, prolotherapy is
13 an effective management modality for CLBP patients in whom conservative therapies
14 failed. However, areas of controversy included that the presence of co-interventions and
15 the clinical heterogeneity of the work confounds the overall conclusions. Authors
16 concluded that the analysis of the studies included in the review, using appropriate tools,
17 showed how their quality has decreased over the years, reflecting the need for appropriately
18 powered well planned and performed randomized control trials.
19

20 **Sacroiliac Joint Pain**

21 In a small randomized controlled trial (n=48), Kim and colleagues (2010) evaluated the
22 efficacy and long-term effectiveness of intra-articular prolotherapy compared with intra-
23 articular steroid injection in relieving sacroiliac joint pain. Participants experienced
24 sacroiliac joint pain (confirmed by greater than or equal to 50% improvement in response
25 to local anesthetic block) lasting 3 months or longer and failed medical treatment. The
26 treatment involved intra-articular dextrose water prolotherapy or triamcinolone acetonide
27 injection using fluoroscopic guidance, with a biweekly schedule and maximum of 3
28 injections. Pain and disability scores were assessed at baseline, in 2 weeks, and monthly
29 after completion of treatment. The pain and disability scores were significantly improved
30 from baseline in both groups at the 2-week follow-up, with no significant difference
31 between them. The cumulative incidence of $\geq 50\%$ pain relief at 15 months was 58.7% in
32 the prolotherapy group and 10.2% in the steroid group, as determined by Kaplan-Meier
33 analysis; there was a statistically significant difference between the groups (log-rank,
34 $p < 0.005$). The authors concluded that intra-articular prolotherapy provided significant
35 relief of sacroiliac joint pain, and its effects lasted longer than those of steroid injections.
36 However, further studies are needed to confirm the safety of the procedure and to validate
37 an appropriate injection protocol.
38

39 In a retrospective cohort study, Hoffman and Agnish (2018) examined the effectiveness of
40 sacroiliac (SI) joint prolotherapy for SI joint instability and characterized the patients most
41 likely to benefit from this treatment. 103 patients referred for low back pain and diagnosed
42 with SI joint instability received a series of three SI joint prolotherapy injections (15%

1 dextrose in lidocaine) at approximately a one-month interval. The outcome of those
2 completing treatment was retrospectively examined, and characteristics were compared
3 between those with at least a minimum clinically important improvement and those without
4 improvement. Results demonstrated that of 103 treated patients returning for post-
5 treatment follow-up at a median of 117 days, 24 (23%) showed a minimum clinically
6 important improvement despite a median of 2 years with low back pain and a mean (\pm SD)
7 pre-intervention ODI of 54 ± 15 points. Much of the improvement was evident after the
8 initial prolotherapy injection, and a 15-point improvement in ODI prior to the second
9 prolotherapy injection had a sensitivity of 92% and specificity of 80% for determining
10 which patients would improve. Authors concluded that a satisfactory proportion of patients
11 with symptomatic SI joint instability as an etiology of low back pain can have clinically
12 meaningful functional gains with prolotherapy treatment. The patients who are not likely
13 to improve with prolotherapy were generally evident by lack of improvement following
14 the initial prolotherapy injection.

15 16 **Enthesopathies**

17 Wilkinson (2005) evaluated the effectiveness of injection therapy for enthesopathies.
18 Thirty-five patients diagnosed as having painful enthesopathies as a major pain generator
19 were studied. Of the patients studied, 86% of patients had undergone prior lumbar spine
20 surgery and all were referred for neurosurgical evaluation for possible surgery. Patients
21 were injected either with anesthetics alone or with anesthetics combined with phenol-
22 glycerol proliferant prolotherapy. Patients received a total of 86 injections, 39 with local
23 anesthetics, and 47 with prolotherapy. By clinical assessment patients obtained excellent
24 to good relief of pain and tenderness after 80% of prolotherapy injections, but only 47%
25 after anesthetics alone. By questionnaire, 66% reported excellent to good relief after
26 prolotherapy vs. 34% after anesthetics alone. Patients reported improvement in work
27 capacity and social functioning following both types of injections, but a greater reduction
28 in focal pain intensity following prolotherapy injections. In the crossover portion of the
29 study, patients reported that prolotherapy injections following initial anesthetic-only
30 injections provided much better relief than that achieved after their anesthetic-only
31 injections, and that anesthetic-only injections following initial prolotherapy injections
32 failed to provide relief as good as that achieved after their prolotherapy. Subsequent to this
33 study, only four of 35 patients required additional spine surgery, but 29 of the 35 patients
34 requested additional injections. Authors suggest that injection therapy can provide
35 significant relief for back pain, even following a diagnosis of ‘failed back syndrome’. They
36 continue to suggest that phenol-glycerol prolotherapy provides better and longer lasting
37 relief than injection with anesthetics alone. Results should be considered with caution given
38 the small sample size and other methodologic flaws.

39 40 **Osteoarthritis**

41 A randomized controlled trial (RCT) (n = 38 knees) evaluating the effectiveness of this
42 technique for patients with knee osteoarthritis (OA) found that prolotherapy injection with

1 10% dextrose resulted in clinically and statistically significant improvements in knee OA.
2 Preliminary blinded radiographic readings demonstrated improvement in several measures
3 of OA severity. ACL laxity, when present, also improved (Reeves and Hassanein, 2000).
4 Another RCT (n = 27) evaluating the effectiveness of this technique for patients with OA
5 in finger joints found that dextrose prolotherapy was clinically effective and safe for the
6 treatment of pain with joint movement and range limitation (Reeves and Hassanein, 2004).
7 The use of prolotherapy was evaluated in a prospective, uncontrolled study of adults with
8 at least 3 months of symptomatic moderate to severe knee osteoarthritis (Rabago et al.,
9 2012). The primary objective of the study was to determine whether prolotherapy improved
10 pain, stiffness, and function when compared to baseline status with 1-year follow-up.
11 Participants received extra-articular injections of 15% dextrose and intra-articular
12 prolotherapy injections of 25% dextrose at 1-, 5-, and 9 weeks, with "as-needed" treatments
13 at weeks 13 and 17. The primary outcome measure was the Western Ontario McMaster
14 University Osteoarthritis Index (WOMAC). Participants reported overall WOMAC score
15 improvement 4 weeks after the first injection session (17.2%, 7.6 ± 2.4 points), and
16 continued to improve through the 52-week follow-up (36.1%, 15.9 ± 2.5 points; $p < 0.001$).
17 Female gender, age 46-65 years old, and body mass index of 25 kg/m² or less were
18 associated with greater improvement on the WOMAC index. Limitations of this study
19 include the lack of a randomized control group and the small number of study participants.
20 Additional study with a larger randomized sample of participants is needed to determine
21 the effectiveness of prolotherapy for knee osteoarthritis.

22
23 Rabago and colleagues (2013b) evaluated the efficacy of prolotherapy in adults with at
24 least 3 months of painful knee osteoarthritis in a study supported by the National Center
25 for Complementary and Alternative Medicine (NCCAM). A total of 90 participants were
26 randomized to blinded injections (3 to 5 treatments with dextrose prolotherapy or saline)
27 or at-home exercise. The study measures were limited to subjective responses to treatment,
28 pain, stiffness and functional limitations. All 3 groups showed improvements on the
29 composite WOMAC, with significantly greater improvement in the prolotherapy group
30 compared to saline and exercise groups. At 52 weeks, 50% of participants in the
31 prolotherapy group achieved the minimum clinically important difference (MCID) of a 12-
32 point change in WOMAC, compared to 30% of saline-treated participants and 24% of
33 exercise participants. Knee pain scores also improved in the prolotherapy group.
34 Limitations of this study include the relatively small sample size which resulted in an
35 inability to detect uncommon adverse events such as intolerance to medication or rare-
36 injection-related sequelae, lack of participants with very severe baseline WOMAC scores,
37 and indirect assessment of participant satisfaction that was subject to bias. Rahimzadeh
38 et al. (2014) compared the efficacy of three methods of intra-articular knee joint therapies
39 with erythropoietin, dextrose, and pulsed radiofrequency. Seventy patients who were
40 suffering from primary knee osteoarthrosis went through one of the treatment methods
41 (erythropoietin, dextrose, and pulsed radiofrequency). The study was double-blind
42 randomized clinical trial. Outcomes included pain, range of motion (ROM), and

1 satisfaction. The authors concluded intra-articular prolotherapy with erythropoietin was
2 more effective in terms of pain level reduction and ROM improvement compared with
3 dextrose and pulsed radiofrequency. Rabago et al. (2014) sought to determine whether
4 injection with hypertonic dextrose and morrhuate sodium (prolotherapy) using a pragmatic,
5 clinically determined injection schedule for knee osteoarthritis (KOA) results in improved
6 knee pain, function, and stiffness compared to baseline status. They used a prospective
7 three-arm uncontrolled study with 1-year follow-up. The participants were 38 adults who
8 had at least 3 months of symptomatic KOA and who were in the control groups of a prior
9 prolotherapy randomized controlled trial (RCT) (Prior-Control), were ineligible for the
10 RCT (Prior-Ineligible) or were eligible but declined the RCT (Prior-Declined). The
11 injection sessions occurred at 1, 5, and 9 weeks with as-needed treatment at weeks 13 and
12 17. Extra-articular injections of 15% dextrose and 5% morrhuate sodium were done at peri-
13 articular tendon and ligament insertions. The Prior-Declined group reported the most
14 severe baseline WOMAC score ($p=0.02$). Compared to baseline status, participants in the
15 Prior-Control group reported a score change of 12.4 ± 3.5 points (19.5%, $p=0.002$). Prior-
16 Decline and Prior-Ineligible groups improved by 19.4 ± 7.0 (42.9%, $p=0.05$) and 17.8 ± 3.9
17 (28.4%, $p=0.008$) points, respectively; 55.6% of Prior-Control, 75% of Prior-Decline, and
18 50% of Prior-Ineligible participants reported score improvement in excess of the 12-point
19 minimal clinical important difference on the WOMAC measure. Post-procedure opioid
20 medication resulted in rapid diminution of prolotherapy injection pain. Satisfaction was
21 high and there were no adverse events. Authors concluded that prolotherapy using dextrose
22 and morrhuate sodium injections for participants with mild-to-severe KOA resulted in safe,
23 significant, sustained improvement of WOMAC-based knee pain, function, and stiffness
24 scores compared to baseline status.

25
26 Eslamian and Amouzandeh (2015) sought to determine the therapeutic efficacy of dextrose
27 prolotherapy on pain, range of motion, and function in patients with knee osteoarthritis
28 (OA). In this prospective study, participants with symptomatic moderate knee osteoarthritis
29 underwent prolotherapy with intra-articular injection of 20% dextrose water at baseline,
30 and at 4 weeks and 8 weeks later. Patients were followed for 24 weeks. Pain severity, ROM,
31 and Western Ontario and McMaster Universities arthritis index (WOMAC) scores were
32 measured at baseline, 4, 8, and 24 weeks later. A total of 24 female patients (average age:
33 58.37 ± 11.8 years old) received 3-monthly injection therapies. The authors concluded
34 prolotherapy with three intra-articular injections of hypertonic dextrose given 4 weeks
35 apart for selected patients with knee OA, resulted in significant improvement of validated
36 pain, ROM, and WOMAC scores, when baseline levels were compared at 24 weeks.
37 Further studies with randomized controlled trials involving a comparison group are
38 suggested to confirm these findings. Rabago et al. (2016) completed a qualitative
39 assessment of patients receiving prolotherapy for knee osteoarthritis in a multimethod
40 study. Randomized and open-label studies assessing prolotherapy for knee osteoarthritis
41 have found quantitative improvement on the validated Western Ontario McMaster
42 University Osteoarthritis Index (WOMAC) compared with baseline status and control

1 therapies. This study assessed the qualitative response of participants receiving
2 prolotherapy, an injection-based complementary treatment for symptomatic knee
3 osteoarthritis (OA). Twenty-two patients treated with prolotherapy for symptomatic knee
4 OA who were exited from three randomized and open-label studies participated. Most
5 participants reported substantially improved knee-specific effects, resulting in improved
6 quality of life and activities of daily living; four participants reported minimal or no effect.
7 Clear, complete description of procedural rationale may enhance optimism about and
8 adherence to treatment appointments.

9
10 Sit et al. (2016) conducted a systematic review with meta-analysis to synthesize clinical
11 evidence on the effect of prolotherapy for knee OA. In the meta-analysis of two eligible
12 studies, prolotherapy is superior to exercise alone by a standardized mean difference
13 (SMD) of 0.81 , 0.78 and 0.62 on the WOMAC composite scale; and WOMAC function
14 and pain subscale scores respectively. Moderate heterogeneity exists in all cases. Overall,
15 prolotherapy conferred a positive and significant beneficial effect in the treatment of knee
16 OA. Adequately powered, longer-term trials with uniform end points are needed to better
17 elucidate the efficacy of prolotherapy. Hassan et al. (2017) completed another systematic
18 review on the effectiveness of prolotherapy in treating knee OA in adults. Ten studies were
19 evaluated, and results show significant improvement in scores for pain, function and range
20 of motion, both in the short term and long term. Patient satisfaction was also high in these
21 patients (82%). Meta-analysis was not possible due to heterogeneity of outcome measures
22 and populations. Authors conclude that moderate evidence suggests that prolotherapy is
23 safe and can help achieve significant symptomatic control in individuals with OA. Future
24 research should focus on larger sample size, standardization of treatment protocol and basic
25 science evidence.

26
27 Krstičević et al. (2017) completed a systematic review on proliferative injection therapy
28 for OA. They sought to systematically analyze RCTs about efficacy and safety of
29 proliferative injection therapy (prolotherapy) for treatment of osteoarthritis (OA). Seven
30 RCTs were included, with 393 participants aged 40-75 years and mean OA pain duration
31 from three months to eight years. Follow-up was 12 weeks to 12 months. Studies analyzed
32 OA of the knee joint (n = 5), first carpometacarpal joint (n = 1) and finger joints (n = 1).
33 Various types of prolotherapy were used; dextrose was the most commonly used irritant
34 agent. All studies concluded that prolotherapy was effective treatment for OA. No serious
35 adverse events were reported. The studies had considerable methodological limitations.
36 Authors concluded that limited evidence from low-quality studies indicates a beneficial
37 effect of prolotherapy for OA management. The number of participants in these studies
38 was too small to provide reliable evidence. Current data from trials about prolotherapy for
39 OA should be considered preliminary, and future high-quality trials on this topic are
40 warranted.

1 Rabago and Nourani (2017) completed a descriptive review on prolotherapy for OA and
2 tendinopathy. The authors reviewed the basic science and clinical literature associated with
3 prolotherapy for these conditions. Recent findings suggest that prolotherapy may be
4 associated with symptom improvement in mild to moderate symptomatic knee
5 osteoarthritis and overuse tendinopathy. Although the mechanism of action is not well
6 understood and is likely multifactorial, a growing body of literature suggests that
7 prolotherapy for knee osteoarthritis may be appropriate for the treatment of symptoms
8 associated with knee osteoarthritis in carefully selected patients who are refractory to
9 conservative therapy and deserves further basic and clinical science investigation for the
10 treatment of osteoarthritis and tendinopathy.

11 Hassan et al. (2018) completed a systematic review on alternatives to biologics in
12 management of knee osteoarthritis. A total of 18 studies were evaluated and results
13 demonstrated moderate supporting evidence for prolotherapy.

14
15 Arias-Vázquez et al. (2019) evaluated the efficacy and safety of prolotherapy with
16 hypertonic dextrose in patients with knee osteoarthritis. Ten randomized clinical trials were
17 included in this systematic review, the total sample size comprised 328 patients treated
18 with hypertonic dextrose (prolotherapy) (HDP) vs 348 controls treated with other
19 infiltrations such as local anesthetics, hyaluronic acid, ozone, platelet-rich plasma or
20 interventional procedures like radiofrequency. In terms of pain reduction and function
21 improvement, prolotherapy with hypertonic dextrose was more effective than infiltrations
22 with local anesthetics, as effective as infiltrations with hyaluronic acid, ozone or
23 radiofrequency and less effective than PRP and erythropoietin, with beneficial effect in the
24 short, medium and long term. In addition, no side effects or serious adverse reactions were
25 reported in patients treated with hypertonic dextrose. Although HDP seems to be a
26 promising interventional treatment for knee OA, more studies with better methodological
27 quality and low risk of bias are needed to confirm the efficacy and safety of this
28 intervention.

29
30 Chen et al. (2022) assessed the effectiveness, compliance, and safety of dextrose
31 prolotherapy for patients with knee osteoarthritis. Randomized controlled trials regarding
32 the effectiveness of dextrose prolotherapy in knee osteoarthritis were identified. The
33 included trials were subjected to meta-analysis. A total of 14 trials enrolling 978 patients
34 were included in the meta-analysis. Compared with placebo injection and noninvasive
35 control therapy, dextrose prolotherapy had favorable effects on pain, global function, and
36 quality of life during the overall follow-up. Dextrose prolotherapy yielded greater
37 reductions in pain score over each follow-up duration than did the placebo. Compared with
38 other invasive therapies, dextrose prolotherapy generally achieved comparable effects on
39 pain and functional outcomes for each follow-up duration. Subgroup results indicated that
40 combined intra-articular and extra-articular injection techniques may have stronger effects
41 on pain than a single intra-articular technique. Authors concluded that dextrose
42 prolotherapy may have dose-dependent and time-dependent effects on pain reduction and

1 function recovery, respectively, in patients with knee osteoarthritis. Due to remarkable
 2 heterogeneity and the risk of biases across the included trials, the study results should be
 3 cautiously interpreted.

4
 5 Waluyo et al. (2023) evaluated the efficacy of dextrose prolotherapy (DPT) compared with
 6 other interventions in the management of osteoarthritis in a systematic review. Randomized
 7 controlled trials that compared the use of dextrose prolotherapy with other interventions
 8 (injection, placebo, therapy, or conservative treatment) in the treatment of osteoarthritis
 9 were included. 12 studies reported that DPT was as effective or even more effective in
 10 improving functional outcomes compared with other interventions whilst others found that
 11 HA, PRP, EP, and ACS were more effective. Fourteen studies assessed the effectiveness
 12 of DPT and ten of them reported that DPT was more effective in reducing pain compared
 13 with other interventions. Authors concluded that dextrose prolotherapy in osteoarthritis
 14 confers potential benefits for pain and functional outcomes, but this systematic review
 15 found that the studies to date are at high risk of bias.

16 17 **Lateral Epicondylitis/Epicondylitis**

18 A pilot RCT (n = 24) evaluating the effectiveness of this technique in patients with lateral
 19 epicondylitis found that prolotherapy with dextrose sodium morrhuate was well-tolerated,
 20 effectively decreased elbow pain, and improved strength testing when compared to control
 21 group saline injections (Scarpone et al., 2008). A systematic review by Rabago et al. (2009)
 22 concluded that there is strong pilot-level evidence supporting the use of prolotherapy,
 23 polidocanol, autologous whole blood and platelet-rich plasma injections in the treatment
 24 of lateral epicondylitis, and that more rigorous studies are needed to determine long-term
 25 effectiveness and safety. Krogh et al. (2013) performed a systematic review and meta-
 26 analysis of the available randomized trials, concluding there was "a paucity of evidence
 27 from unbiased trials on which to base treatment recommendations regarding injection
 28 therapies for the treatment of lateral epicondylitis."

29
 30 Rabago and colleagues (2013a) conducted a randomized controlled trial of 26 adults (32
 31 elbows) with chronic lateral epicondylitis for 3 months or longer who were randomized to
 32 ultrasound-guided prolotherapy with dextrose solution, ultrasound-guided prolotherapy
 33 with dextrose-morrhuate sodium solution, or watchful waiting. The primary outcome was
 34 the Patient-Rated Tennis Elbow Evaluation (100 points) at 4-, 8-, and 16 weeks (all groups)
 35 and at 32 weeks (prolotherapy groups). The participants receiving prolotherapy with
 36 dextrose and prolotherapy with dextrose-morrhuate reported improvement at 4-, 8-, and/or
 37 16 weeks compared with those in the wait-and-see group ($p < 0.05$). The grip strength of the
 38 participants receiving prolotherapy with dextrose exceeded that of the prolotherapy with
 39 dextrose-morrhuate and the watchful waiting group at 8 and 16 weeks ($p < 0.05$).
 40 Limitations in drawing conclusions from this pilot study include the small number of
 41 participants and the lack of blinding.

1 Kahlenberg et al. (2015) discussed prolotherapy in their article on new developments in
2 the use of biologics and other modalities in the management of lateral epicondylitis. They
3 describe it as such: prolotherapy for lateral epicondylitis includes multiple injections of a
4 small amount of irritant or sclerosing solution over the course of a two-week trial.
5 Commonly used irritants include hypertonic dextrose, phenol-glycerine-glucose, or sodium
6 morrhuate. The proposed mechanism of prolotherapy injections is that the hypertonic
7 dextrose causes cell rupture through osmosis while the monosodium morrhuate attracts
8 inflammatory mediators and improves blood supply to the diseased tendon. They describe
9 research by Scarpone and colleagues who performed a randomized controlled trial
10 comparing prolotherapy consisting of hypertonic dextrose and sodium morrhuate versus
11 placebo for lateral epicondylitis. A series of 3 separate injections were performed over 8
12 weeks and those patients in the prolotherapy group had significantly improved pain scores
13 and isometric strength at 16 weeks compared to placebo. No long-term data suggests that
14 prolotherapy allows for better pain relief and function compared to placebo and further
15 long-term follow-up studies are needed for better recommendations. Yelland et al. (2019)
16 compared the short- and long-term clinical effectiveness, cost effectiveness, and safety of
17 prolotherapy used singly and in combination with physiotherapy for lateral epicondylalgia.
18 Using a single-blinded randomised clinical trial design, 120 participants with lateral
19 epicondylalgia of at least 6 weeks' duration were randomly assigned to prolotherapy (4
20 sessions, monthly intervals), physiotherapy (weekly for 4 sessions) or combined
21 (prolotherapy+physiotherapy). The Patient-Rated Tennis Elbow Evaluation (PRTEE) and
22 participant global impression of change scores were assessed by blinded evaluators at
23 baseline, 6, 12, 26 and 52 weeks. Eighty-eight percent completed the 12-month assessment.
24 At 52 weeks, there were substantial, significant improvements compared with baseline
25 status for all outcomes and groups, but no significant differences between groups. The
26 physiotherapy group exhibited greater reductions in PRTEE at 12 weeks than the
27 prolotherapy group ($p = 0.014$).

28
29 Zhu et al. (2022) systematically reviewed the effectiveness of hypertonic dextrose
30 prolotherapy (DPT) on pain intensity and physical functioning in patients with lateral
31 elbow tendinosis (LET) compared with other active non-surgical treatments. The search
32 identified 245 records; data from 8 studies (354 patients) were included. Pooled results
33 favored the use of DPT in reducing tennis elbow pain intensity compared with active
34 controls at 12 weeks post-enrollment. Pooled results also favored the use of DPT on
35 physical functioning compared with active controls at 12 weeks, with Disabilities of the
36 Arm, Shoulder and Hand scores achieving a mean difference of -15.04 and of low
37 heterogeneity. No major related adverse events have been reported. Authors concluded that
38 DPT is superior to active controls at 12 weeks for decreasing pain intensity and functioning
39 by margins that meet criteria for clinical relevance in the treatment of LET. Although
40 existing studies are too small to assess rare adverse events, for patients with LET,
41 especially those refractory to first-line treatments, DPT can be considered a nonsurgical

1 treatment option in carefully selected patients. Further high-quality trials with comparison
2 with other injection therapies are needed.

4 **Lower Limb Tendinopathy**

5 Sanderson and Bryant (2015) studied the effectiveness and safety of prolotherapy
6 injections for management of lower limb tendinopathy and fasciopathy in a systematic
7 review. The aim of this review was to identify and evaluate existing research to determine
8 the clinical effectiveness and safety of prolotherapy injections for treatment of lower limb
9 tendinopathy and fasciopathy. All prospective randomized and non-randomized trials,
10 cohort studies, case-series, cross-sectional studies and controlled trials assessing the
11 effectiveness of one or more prolotherapy injections for tendinopathy or fasciopathy at or
12 below the superior aspect of the tibia/fibula were included. Two hundred and three studies
13 were identified, eight of which met the inclusion criteria. These were then grouped
14 according to tendinopathy or fasciopathy being treated with prolotherapy injections:
15 Achilles tendinopathy, plantar fasciopathy and Osgood-Schlatter disease. The
16 methodological quality of the eight included studies was generally poor, particularly in
17 regard to allocation concealment, intention to treat analysis and blinding procedures.
18 Results of the analysis provide limited support for the hypothesis that prolotherapy is
19 effective in both reducing pain and improving function for lower limb tendinopathy and
20 fasciopathy, with no study reporting a mean negative or non-significant outcome following
21 prolotherapy injection. The analysis also suggests prolotherapy injections provide equal or
22 superior short-, intermediate-and long-term results to alternative treatment modalities,
23 including eccentric loading exercises for Achilles tendinopathy, platelet-rich plasma for
24 plantar fasciopathy and usual care or lignocaine injections for Osgood-Schlatter disease.
25 No adverse events following prolotherapy injections were reported in any study in this
26 review. The results of this review found limited evidence that prolotherapy injections are
27 a safe and effective treatment for Achilles tendinopathy, plantar fasciopathy and Osgood-
28 Schlatter disease, however more robust research using large, methodologically-sound
29 randomized controlled trials is required to substantiate these findings.

30
31 An RCT (n = 43) evaluating the effectiveness of eccentric loading exercises (ELE) and
32 prolotherapy for treatment of painful Achilles tendinosis found that ELE combined with
33 prolotherapy resulted in more rapid improvements than ELE alone (Yelland et al., 2010).
34 Yelland and colleagues (2011) reported a multicenter randomized trial of prolotherapy or
35 exercises for Achilles tendonitis in 43 individuals. The percentage of individuals achieving
36 full recovery was 53% for exercise alone, 71% for prolotherapy alone, and 64% for the
37 combined treatment group, but these differences were not significant. Although the authors
38 concluded that prolotherapy may be a cost-effective method to speed recovery in
39 individuals with Achilles tendonitis, this study is limited by the combination of a small
40 number of subjects per group, unequal duration of pain in the treatment groups at baseline,
41 and minimal differences in the number of individuals showing recovery. Additional
42 randomized trials are needed to confirm findings. Choi et al. (2011) concluded that the

1 available literature evaluating injectable treatments for non-insertional Achilles tendinosis
2 has variable results with conflicting methodologies and inconclusive evidence concerning
3 indications for treatment and the mechanism of their effects on chronically degenerated
4 tendons. Gross and colleagues (2013) conducted a systematic review of clinical outcomes
5 following injectable therapy of non-insertional Achilles tendinosis. The nine clinical
6 studies that met the inclusion criteria at the final follow-up consisted of randomized
7 controlled trials and cohort studies with a comparative control group (n=312 Achilles
8 tendons). Interventions included platelet-rich plasma (n=54), autologous blood injection
9 (n=40), sclerosing agents (n=72), protease inhibitors (n=26), hemodialysate (n=60),
10 corticosteroids (n=52), and prolotherapy (n=20).

11
12 Morath et al. (2018) studied the effect of sclerotherapy and prolotherapy on chronic painful
13 Achilles tendinopathy (AT) in a systematic review including meta-analysis. After
14 screening articles, 18 articles were available for qualitative synthesis, six of which were
15 subjected to meta-analysis. Four RCTs were ranked as having a low risk of selection bias.
16 Three of those reported a statistically significant drop in the visual analog scale (VAS)
17 score, one a significant increase in the VISA-A Score. 12 of 13 human studies reported
18 positive results in achieving pain relief and patient satisfaction, whereas only one study's
19 finding differed. Meta-analysis revealed an unambiguous result in favor of the
20 intervention. Authors concluded that this systematic review suggests that these
21 interventions may be effective treatment options for AT and that they can be considered
22 safe given the low number of adverse events. However, long-term studies and RCTs are
23 still needed to support their recommendation.

24 25 **Rotator Cuff Tendinopathy**

26 Lin et al. (2019) compared the effectiveness of diverse injections in patients with rotator
27 cuff tendinopathy. Among the 1495 records screened, 18 studies were included in the meta-
28 analysis. The primary outcome was pain reduction, and the secondary outcome was
29 functional improvement. Results determined that for patients with rotator cuff
30 tendinopathy, corticosteroid plays a role in the short term (3-6wk) but not in long-term
31 (over 24wk) pain reduction and functional improvement. By contrast, PRP and
32 prolotherapy may yield better outcomes in the long term (over 24wk). On account of
33 heterogeneity, interpreting these results with caution is warranted.

34
35 Catapano et al. (2020) systematically reviewed and evaluated the efficacy and complication
36 profile of prolotherapy using hyperosmolar dextrose solution injection for rotator cuff
37 tendinopathy. Five studies satisfied inclusion criteria. Included studies analyzed a total of
38 272 participants with a final follow-up ranging from 6 weeks to 12 months. Prolotherapy
39 differed greatly among studies. There was statistically significant improvement in pain
40 intensity with multisite injection protocols compared to physical therapy and medical
41 management in both studies. Ultrasound-guided supraspinatus injection trials did not find
42 any statistically significant difference in pain intensity, range of motion, strength, function,

1 or ultrasound characteristics compared to controls of entheses saline injection or
 2 corticosteroid. The complication rate was low, with only 6/272 participants experiencing
 3 adverse events consisting of transient increase in pain for 1 to 2 days postintervention.
 4 Authors concluded that prolotherapy with hyperosmolar dextrose solution is a potentially
 5 effective adjuvant intervention to physical therapy for patients with rotator cuff
 6 tendinopathy ranging from tendinosis to partial-thickness and small full-thickness tears.
 7 Further studies are necessary to determine effects in subpopulations as well as optimal
 8 technique including dextrose concentration, volume, and location.

9
 10 **Temporomandibular Joint** Reeves et al. (2016) state in their narrative review of
 11 prolotherapy that data on effectiveness for temporomandibular dysfunction are promising
 12 but insufficient for recommendations. Nagori et al. (2018) analyzed the available evidence
 13 in order to assess the efficacy of dextrose prolotherapy in improving outcomes in
 14 temporomandibular joint (TMJ) hypermobility patients as compared to placebo. Within
 15 the limitations of the study, dextrose prolotherapy may cause significant reduction in
 16 mouth opening and pain associated with TMJ hypermobility. Authors stated there is a need
 17 of more high-quality RCTs with larger sample size and homogenous prolotherapy protocol
 18 to draw stronger conclusions on the effect of dextrose prolotherapy in patients with TMJ
 19 hypermobility. Louw et al. (2019) assessed the efficacy and longer-term effectiveness of
 20 dextrose prolotherapy injections in participants with temporomandibular dysfunction.
 21 Based on results, intra-articular dextrose injection (prolotherapy) resulted in substantial
 22 improvement in jaw pain, function, and MIO compared with masked control injection at 3
 23 months; clinical improvements endured to 12 months.

24
 25 Sit et al. (2021) conducted a systematic review with meta-analysis of randomized
 26 controlled trials (RCTs) to synthesize evidence on the effectiveness of Hypertonic dextrose
 27 prolotherapy (DPT) for temporomandibular disorders (TMDs). Eleven electronic
 28 databases were searched from their inception to October, 2020. The primary outcome of
 29 interest was pain intensity. Secondary outcomes included maximum inter-incisal mouth
 30 opening (MIO) and disability score. Ten RCTs (n = 336) with some to high risk of bias
 31 were included. In a meta-analysis of 5 RCTs, DPT was significantly superior to placebo
 32 injections in reducing TMJ pain at 12 weeks, with moderate effect size and low
 33 heterogeneity. No statistically significant differences were detected for changes in MIO
 34 and functional scores. In this systematic review and meta-analysis, evidence from low to
 35 moderate quality studies show that DPT conferred a large positive effect which met criteria
 36 for clinical relevance in the treatment of TMJ pain, compared with placebo injections.

37 **Osteitis Pubis**

38 Choi et al. (2011) evaluated the most current evidence in a systematic review of treatment
 39 options for athletes with osteitis pubis and osteomyelitis pubis, attempting to determine
 40 which options provide optimal pain relief with rapid return to sport and prevention of
 41 symptom reoccurrence. Treatment options included either conservative measures/physical
 42

1 therapy, local injection with corticosteroids and/or local anesthetic, dextrose prolotherapy,
2 surgery or antibiotic therapy. There were no randomized controlled trials available for
3 review. Only one case series described the use of dextrose prolotherapy as a treatment
4 modality. The authors concluded that the evidence was weak in all case reports/case series
5 and suggested further study is necessary to compare the different treatment options and
6 determine which modality provides the fastest return to sport. Yelland et al. (2011) was the
7 only prolotherapy study included in the review.

9 **Plantar Fasciitis/Connective Tissue**

10 Chung et al. (2020) assessed the effectiveness and superiority of prolotherapy separately
11 in treating dense fibrous connective tissue injuries. Ten trials involving 358 participants
12 were included for review. At study level, the majority of comparisons did not reveal
13 significant differences between dextrose prolotherapy and no treatment (or placebo)
14 regarding pain control. The meta-analysis showed dextrose prolotherapy was effective in
15 improving activity only at immediate follow-up (i.e., 0-1 month); and superior to
16 corticosteroid injections only in pain reduction at short-term follow-up (i.e., 1-3 month).
17 Authors concluded that there is insufficient evidence to support the clinical benefits of
18 dextrose prolotherapy in managing dense fibrous tissue injuries. More high-quality
19 randomized controlled trials are warranted to establish the benefits of dextrose
20 prolotherapy.

21
22 Lai et al. (2021) Dextrose prolotherapy (DPT) aimed to evaluate the effectiveness and
23 safety of DPT for plantar fasciitis. Six studies with 388 adult patients diagnosed with
24 plantar fasciitis were included for the meta-analysis. In terms of pain scores improvement,
25 DPT was superior to placebo or exercise in the short-term and the medium-term. DPT was
26 inferior to corticosteroid injection in the short-term. For functional improvement, DPT was
27 superior to placebo or exercise in the short-term, but inferior to corticosteroid injection and
28 extracorporeal shock wave therapy in the short-term. Randomized controlled trials showed
29 a better pain improvement in the long-term for patients treated with DPT compared to
30 corticosteroid ($P = .002$) and exercise control ($P < .05$). No significant differences were
31 found between patients treated with DPT and patients treated with platelet-rich plasma.
32 Authors concluded that dextrose prolotherapy was a safe and effective treatment option for
33 plantar fasciitis that may have long-term benefits for patients. The effects were comparable
34 to extracorporeal shock wave therapy or platelet-rich plasma injection. Further studies with
35 standardized protocols and long-term follow-up are needed to address potential biases.

36
37 Chutumstid et al. (2023) systematically investigated the efficacy and safety of dextrose
38 prolotherapy for treating chronic plantar fasciitis. Comprehensive review of randomized
39 controlled trials investigating dextrose prolotherapy for chronic plantar fasciitis was done.
40 The changes in visual analog scale (VAS) pain score, foot function index (FFI), American
41 Orthopaedic Foot and Ankle Society (AOFAS) score, and plantar fascia thickness were
42 analyzed. Reports of complications of the procedure were collected. Eight randomized

1 controlled trials (RCTs) were included in the meta-analysis, analyzing 444 patients in total.
2 The subgroup analysis showed that at short-term follow-up (<6 months) dextrose
3 prolotherapy was more effective in reducing VAS pain score compared to the non-active
4 treatment control group including exercise and normal saline solution (NSS) injection.
5 However, there was no difference in the change of VAS pain score between dextrose
6 prolotherapy and active treatment control group, which included extracorporeal shock
7 wave therapy (ESWT), steroid injection, and platelet-rich plasma (PRP) injection.
8 Dextrose prolotherapy was more effective in reducing FFI, increasing AOFAS score, and
9 reducing plantar fascia thickness at short-term (<6 months) follow-up compared to other
10 comparators. For long-term (≥ 6 months) follow-up, there was no significant difference in
11 the change in VAS pain score and FFI between the dextrose prolotherapy group and other
12 comparators. No serious complication was reported. Authors concluded that dextrose
13 prolotherapy is an effective treatment of chronic plantar fasciitis to reduce pain, improve
14 foot functional score, and decrease plantar fascia thickness at short-term follow-up. Further
15 studies in larger populations are needed to identify the optimal treatment regimen including
16 dextrose concentration, volume, injection site, injection technique, and the number of
17 injections required. The long-term effects of these treatments also require further
18 examination.

19
20 Ahadi et al. (2023) investigated the effect of dextrose prolotherapy (DPT) versus
21 placebo/other non-surgical treatments on pain in chronic plantar fasciitis. Primary outcome
22 was pain and the secondary outcomes were foot function and plantar fascia thickness.
23 Overall, eight studies with a total of 449 patients were included in the meta-analysis. All
24 the included studies reported short-term pain. A large effect size was observed favoring the
25 use of DPT to reduce pain in patients with chronic plantar fasciitis in the short-term. The
26 results for foot function improvement and plantar fascia thickness reduction in the short-
27 term were also in favor of DPT. Authors concluded that since almost all the included
28 studies had high risk of bias and multiple trials lacked long-term follow-ups, further high-
29 quality research is required to determine the long-term effects of DPT vs placebo/other
30 non-surgical interventions.

31 **All Musculoskeletal Conditions**

32 Hsu et al. (2023) completed a narrative review of mechanisms, techniques, and protocols,
33 and evidence for common musculoskeletal conditions. Authors suggested that
34 prolotherapy is beneficial in a variety of different musculoskeletal conditions, including,
35 but not limited to, lateral epicondylitis, rotator cuff tendinopathy, plantar fasciitis,
36 Achilles tendinopathy, osteoarthritis, low back pain, sacroiliac joint pain, and TMJ laxity.
37
38

39 No research or evidence was found on the usage of herbal solutions such as Sarapin in the
40 literature. As such, ASH clinical committees were unable to evaluate the effectiveness and
41 safety of injecting herbal solutions.

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 *Managing Medical Emergencies (CPG 159 – S)* clinical practice guideline
26 for information.

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