

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

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GUIDELINES

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

Extra-Spinal Manipulation/Mobilization and the Scapulothoracic Articulation

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

Documentation Requirements to Substantiate Medical Necessity

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

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

- Absence of contraindications to UE joint manipulation/mobilization in the area of treatment, including but not limited to:
 - 1) Malignancy or infection
 - 2) Metabolic bone disease
 - 3) Fusion or ankylosis
 - 4) Acute fracture or ligament rupture
 - 5) Joint hypermobility/instability
- A subjective record of a UE complaint that correlates with physical exam findings to support UE joint manipulation/mobilization.
- Upon physical examination and as a best practice a hypomobile joint (e.g., restricted joint play of right glenohumeral joint) should be appropriately documented. At a minimum, abnormal joint mechanics or a range of motion abnormality MUST be appropriately documented and correlated with the subjective findings of a UE complaint and other pertinent exam findings in order to support UE joint manipulation/mobilization.
- A valid musculoskeletal diagnosis for a UE complaint for which UE joint manipulation/mobilization has been shown to be both safe and efficacious.
- Assessment of clinically significant change in patient condition, for continued care.

CPT® Codes and Descriptions

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

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

5
 6 **ASH considers Chiropractic Manipulation Treatment; extraspinal, 1 or more regions to
 7 be associated with HVLA thrust joint manipulation (or Grade V Mobilization) and Not
 8 joint mobilization (Grades I - IV).

9 10 ***DESCRIPTION/BACKGROUND***

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

17 18 ***EVIDENCE REVIEW***

19 **Shoulder Rotator Cuff Disease/Disorder**

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

30
 31 Bennell et al. (2010) studied 120 patients (average age of 60 years) with rotator cuff disease
 32 with a history longer than 3 months. The active treatment consisted of manual therapy and
 33 a home exercise program. The manual therapy consisted of soft tissue massage, passive
 34 mobilization of the glenohumeral joint, scapular retraining and postural taping, spinal
 35 mobilization and home exercises. The glenohumeral mobilization was a combination of
 36 anteroposterior and inferior joint glides in a supine position with the arm abducted at 45
 37 and 90 degrees. This was performed for four repetitions at 30 seconds in each position. The
 38 placebo treatment consisted of inactive ultrasound therapy. Patients received 10 treatments
 39 over a 10-week period. The active group continued their exercise over the next 12 weeks.
 40 The control group received no treatment. Outcomes were pain and function measured by
 41 the shoulder pain and disability index, and participants' perceived global rating of overall
 42 change. At the end of 11 weeks, the active treatment generally produced similar

1 improvements on shoulder pain and function, compared with a realistic placebo treatment
2 that controlled for therapists' contact time. Significant differences favoring the active
3 group for objective and subjective measures of muscle strength were seen at follow-up.
4 Overall, significant differences in improvement were not seen in the active group until the
5 22-week follow-up.

6
7 In systematic reviews by Bronfort et al. (2010) and Brantingham et al. (2011), there was
8 some support for manipulation for rotator cuff injury/disease. Bronfort et al. felt that the
9 evidence was inconclusive, but favorable. Brantingham et al. (2011) concluded that there
10 was fair evidence for using manipulation/mobilization for rotator cuff problems. Clar et al.
11 (2014) concluded that mobilization and manipulation combined with exercise for rotator
12 cuff disorders had moderate positive evidence to support effectiveness.

13
14 Wang et al. (2024) aimed to systematically map the type and dosage of joint mobilizations
15 used in previous trials for managing patients with rotator cuff-related shoulder pain; and
16 summarize the rationale for adopting a specific joint mobilization dosage. Authors included
17 32 studies. Most studies did not or partially report technique (67%) and within-session
18 dosage (64%) of passive joint mobilization. Overall treatment was fully reported in 95%
19 of studies. The dosage used for passive joint mobilization was heterogeneous (ranging from
20 grade I to grade V). Most studies (85%) did not or partially report technique of mobilization
21 with movement (MWM), whereas within-session and overall treatment dosages were fully
22 reported in more than 85% of studies. Three sets of 10 repetitions were commonly used
23 within-session dosage for MWM. Authors found very limited information on the rationale
24 for selecting dosage of joint mobilization.

25 26 **Shoulder Impingement Syndrome**

27 Bang and Deyle (2000) looked at 30 men and 22 women (average age 43 years old)
28 diagnosed with shoulder impingement syndrome. The exercise group performed
29 supervised flexibility and strengthening exercises. The manual therapy group performed
30 the same program and received manual physical therapy treatment. Mobilizations of grade
31 I-V were used. There was also mobilization of the thoracic and cervical spine, and the
32 upper rib. Treatment was 6 sessions over a 3 week period. Strength was measured
33 isometrically. Pain was a composite score of visual analog scale measures during resisted
34 break tests, active abduction, and functional activities. Function was measured with a
35 functional assessment questionnaire. The visual analog scale used to measure pain with
36 functional activities and the functional assessment questionnaire were also measured 2
37 months after the initiation of treatment. Both groups experienced significant decreases in
38 pain and increases in function, but there was significantly more improvement in the manual
39 therapy group compared to the exercise group. Strength in the manual therapy group
40 improved significantly while strength in the exercise group did not. Strength improvement
41 initially may primarily be due to functional restoration.

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

11
12 Surenkok and Aytar (2009) looked at the effect of scapular mobilization in shoulder
13 dysfunction but included shoulder impingement syndrome, rotator cuff injury, and frozen
14 shoulder patients. There were 30 subjects with an average age of 54.3 years. The three
15 groups received either scapula mobilization, a sham treatment, or no treatment (control
16 group). Scapula mobilization consisted of supero-inferior gliding, rotations, and distraction
17 to the scapula. Sets of 10 mobilizations with 30 seconds in between were performed.
18 Outcomes included pain severity, upward rotation of the scapula (measured by digital
19 inclinometer), and a Constant Shoulder Score (CSS). There were significant improvements
20 for shoulder ROM, scapular upward rotation, and CSS between pretreatment and post-
21 treatment compared with the sham and control groups. There did not seem to be any
22 difference in patients with different shoulder diagnoses. Guimarães et al. (2016) compared
23 the immediate effects of mobilization with movement (MWM) with sham technique on
24 range of motion (ROM), muscle strength, and function in patients with shoulder
25 impingement syndrome. Group 1 received the MWM technique in the first 4 sessions and
26 the sham technique in the last 4 sessions and group 2 was treated with the opposite order
27 of treatment conditions described for group 1. Shoulder ROM, isometric peak force
28 assessed with a handheld dynamometer, and function as determined through the
29 Disabilities of the Arm, Shoulder and Hand and Shoulder Pain and Disability Index
30 (SPADI) questionnaires were collected at preintervention, interchange, and
31 postintervention moments. Authors concluded that the MWM technique was no more
32 effective than a sham intervention in improving shoulder ROM during external rotation
33 and abduction, pain, and function in patients with shoulder impingement syndrome.

34
35 Riley et al. (2021) sought: (a) to determine if there was a difference in outcomes between
36 immediate responders to glenohumeral mobilizations at the initial evaluation, 2-week, 4-
37 week, and 6-month follow-up as compared to those that do not respond in participants with
38 subacromial pain syndrome; (b) to see if there were statistically significant differences in
39 outcomes within these groups between these time frames of interest, and (c) to see if
40 symptom response at the initial evaluation was predictive of a favorable recovery. Data
41 were collected for the subjective and objective variables of interest at the initial evaluation,
42 2-week, 4-week, and 6-month follow-up. Results demonstrated that there were no

1 statistically significant between-group differences for the variables of interest except for
2 the Global Rating of Change. The shoulder abduction AROM between-group difference
3 exceeded the minimal detectable change at 4 weeks. The pair-wise comparison showed
4 statistically significant differences for the outcomes of interest at each time point except
5 for the GRoC between 4 weeks and 6 months. There was a statistically significant
6 correlation between responders at the initial evaluation and shoulder abduction AROM at
7 the 4-week follow-up. Authors concluded that individuals with subacromial pain syndrome
8 may benefit from shoulder mobilization independent of their within-session response to
9 shoulder mobilization at the initial evaluation. Eliason et al. (2021) evaluated the clinical
10 outcome of guided exercises with or without joint mobilization, compared with controls
11 who did not receive any treatment. A total of 120 patients, with clinically diagnosed
12 subacromial pain syndrome, were randomized into guided exercise groups with and
13 without additional joint mobilization, and a control group that did not receive any
14 treatment. Data were analysed at baseline, 6 weeks, 12 weeks and 6 months. Shoulder
15 function improved in all groups. At 12 weeks and 6 months the exercise groups improved
16 significantly compared with the control group. Add-on joint mobilization resulted in
17 decreased pain in active range of motion at 6 and 12 weeks compared with guided exercise
18 or no treatment. Range of motion increased over time in all 3 groups. Authors concluded
19 that in patients with subacromial pain syndrome guided exercises improved shoulder
20 function compared with no treatment. Add-on joint mobilization decreased pain in the
21 short-term compared with exercise alone or no treatment.

22
23 Rosa et al. (2021) assessed the effects of two interventions on shoulder kinematics,
24 Shoulder Pain and Disability Index (SPADI) scores, ROM, strength, and pressure pain
25 threshold (PPT) in individuals with posterior capsule tightness (PCT) and shoulder
26 impingement symptoms. In this prospectively registered randomized controlled trial, 59
27 individuals were randomized to either an Experimental Intervention Group (EIG, $n=31$) or
28 a Control Intervention Group (CIG, $n=28$). The EIG received three targeted techniques on
29 the involved shoulder: anterior-posterior directed glenohumeral mobilization, active
30 resistance exercise for the shoulder external rotators, and posterior capsule stretching. The
31 control group received sham ultrasound, active scapular retraction and upper trapezius
32 stretching. Both groups received this physical therapist supervised intervention three times
33 per week (approximately 20min each session) for 4 weeks. Authors concluded that the
34 experimental intervention was more effective at improving PCT. No benefit of the specific
35 approach over the non-specific intervention was noted for the remaining variables and both
36 groups improved with no significant difference between the two interventions.

37
38 Gutiérrez-Espinoza et al. (2023) sought to determine the effects of scapular mobilization
39 in addition to an exercise program in people with subacromial impingement syndrome
40 (SIS). Seventy-two adults with SIS were randomly allocated to 1 of 2 groups. The control
41 group ($n=36$) participated in a 6-week exercise program, and the intervention group ($n =$
42 36) participated in the same exercise program plus passive manual scapular mobilization.

1 Both groups were assessed at baseline and 6 weeks (end of treatment). The primary
2 outcome measure was upper limb function assessed using the Disabilities of the Arm,
3 Shoulder and Hand (DASH) questionnaire. Secondary outcome measures were the
4 Constant-Murley questionnaire, pain (visual analog scale [VAS]), and scapular upward
5 rotation. All participants completed the trial. The between-group difference in DASH was
6 -1.1 points, Constant-Murley 2.1 points, VAS rating of pain at rest -0.1 cm, and VAS rating
7 of pain during movement -0.2 cm; scapular upward rotation at rest (arm by the side) was
8 0.6°, at 45° shoulder abduction was 0.8°, at 90° was 0.1°, and at 135° was 0.1°. Most
9 differences were in favor of the intervention group; however, the effect sizes were weak
10 and not statistically significant. Authors concluded that in the short-term, the addition of
11 scapular mobilization did not provide significant clinical benefits in terms of function, pain
12 or scapular motion in participants with SIS.

13 14 **Shoulder Dysfunction and/or Pain (SCDP)**

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

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

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

1 scapula plane. Three sets of ten repetitions with a rest interval of 30 seconds between sets
2 were performed. There was a significant improvement in the experimental group compared
3 to the sham and control groups.

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

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

34 35 **Adhesive Capsulitis**

36 Nicholson (1985) compared two groups of 10 patients (average age 53 years old) with
37 adhesive capsulitis. One group received standard clinic care and home exercises. The other
38 group received the same treatment plus manual therapy. The manual therapy consisted of
39 grade I-IV mobilizations applied to the glenohumeral joint. Mobilizations were received 2-
40 3 times per week for 4 weeks. Outcomes were pain questionnaires and ROM. All ranges
41 of movement in the experimental group increased significantly from baseline measures
42 except for internal rotation. Passive abduction was significantly increased compared to the

1 control group. Pain scores were lower in the mobilization group, but the difference was not
2 significant.

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

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

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

1 Page et al. (2014) evaluated manual therapy and exercise for adhesive capsulitis in a
2 Cochrane Database Systematic Review. Authors included RCTs and quasi-randomized
3 trials comparing any manual therapy or exercise intervention vs. placebo, no intervention,
4 a different type of manual therapy or exercise or any other intervention for patients with
5 adhesive capsulitis. Interventions included mobilization, manipulation and supervised or
6 home exercise, delivered alone or in combination. Main outcomes of interest were
7 participant-reported pain relief of 30% or greater, overall pain (mean or mean change),
8 function, global assessment of treatment success, active shoulder abduction, quality of life
9 and the number of participants experiencing adverse events. Thirty-three trials (1,836
10 participants) were included. The overall impression gained from these trials is that the few
11 outcome differences between interventions that were clinically important were detected
12 only up to seven weeks. Evidence of moderate quality shows that a combination of manual
13 therapy and exercise for six weeks probably results in less improvement at seven weeks,
14 but a similar number of adverse events compared with glucocorticoid injection. Forty-six
15 percent (26/56) of participants reported treatment success with manual therapy and exercise
16 compared with 77% (40/52) of participants receiving glucocorticoid injection. Group
17 differences in improvement in overall pain and function at six months and 12 months were
18 not clinically important. Authors concluded that the best available data show that a
19 combination of manual therapy and exercise may not be as effective as glucocorticoid
20 injection in the short-term. It is unclear whether a combination of manual therapy, exercise
21 and electrotherapy is an effective adjunct to glucocorticoid injection or oral NSAID. High-
22 quality RCTs are needed to establish the benefits and harms of manual therapy and exercise
23 interventions that reflect actual practice, compared with placebo, no intervention and active
24 interventions with evidence of benefit (e.g., glucocorticoid injection).

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

1 outcomes were similar to previous studies. Utilization data indicated that for the majority
2 of patients, little shoulder-related health care was utilized.

3
4 Woods and Loganathan (2017) analyzed a prospectively collected, single-surgeon,
5 consecutive series of patients who underwent MUA for frozen shoulder between January
6 1999 and December 2015. The Oxford Shoulder Scores (OSS) and range of movement
7 were the outcome measures. A total of 730 patients (792 shoulders) underwent MUA
8 during the study period. A further MUA was undertaken in 141 shoulders (17.8%), for
9 which they had complete data for 126. The mean improvement in OSS for all patients
10 undergoing MUA was 16, and the mean post-operative OSS in those requiring a further
11 MUA was 14 showing no significant difference. Improvement was seen after a further
12 MUA, regardless both of the outcome of the initial MUA, and of the time of recurrence.
13 Authors concluded that patients with a poor outcome or recurrent symptoms of a frozen
14 shoulder after a MUA should be offered a further MUA with the expectation of a good
15 outcome and a low complication rate.

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

29
30 Rangan et al. (2020) compared MUA and arthroscopic capsular release with early
31 structured physiotherapy plus steroid injection. Participants were randomly assigned
32 (2:2:1) to receive manipulation under anesthesia, arthroscopic capsular release, or early
33 structured physiotherapy. In manipulation under anesthesia, the surgeon manipulated the
34 affected shoulder to stretch and tear the tight capsule while the participant was under
35 general anesthesia, supplemented by a steroid injection. Arthroscopic capsular release, also
36 done under general anesthesia, involved surgically dividing the contracted anterior capsule
37 in the rotator interval, followed by manipulation, with optional steroid injection. Both
38 forms of surgery were followed by postprocedural physiotherapy. Early structured
39 physiotherapy involved mobilization techniques and a graduated home exercise program
40 supplemented by a steroid injection. Both early structured physiotherapy and
41 postprocedural physiotherapy involved 12 sessions during up to 12 weeks. The primary
42 outcome was the Oxford Shoulder Score (OSS; 0-48) at 12 months after randomization.

1 All mean differences on the assessment of shoulder pain and function (OSS) at the primary
2 endpoint of 12 months were less than the target differences. Therefore, none of the three
3 interventions were clinically superior. Arthroscopic capsular release carried higher risks,
4 and manipulation under anesthesia was the most cost-effective.

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

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

39
40 Olguín-Huerta et al. (2023) sought to determine the effectiveness of scapular mobilization
41 on range of motion, shoulder disability, and pain intensity in patients with primary adhesive
42 capsulitis (AC). Six randomized clinical trials met the eligibility criteria. For scapular

1 mobilization versus other therapeutic interventions, there was no significant difference in
 2 the effect sizes between groups for external rotation, for flexion, for shoulder disability,
 3 and for pain intensity. Authors concluded that scapular mobilization with or without other
 4 therapeutic interventions does not provide a significant clinical benefit regarding active
 5 shoulder range of motion, disability, or pain intensity in patients with primary AC,
 6 compared with other manual therapy techniques or other treatments; the quality of evidence
 7 was very low to moderate according to the grading of recommendation, assessment,
 8 development and evaluation approach.

9
 10 Zhao et al. (2024) compared the efficacy and safety of arthroscopic capsular release (ACR)
 11 and manipulation under anesthesia (MUA) for refractory frozen shoulder (FS). A total of
 12 eight comparative studies with 768 patients were included. Compared with MUA, ACR
 13 had statistically better Δ VAS at over 12-month follow-up, which did not reach the minimal
 14 clinically important difference (MCID). Other outcomes regarding pain relief, function,
 15 and range of motion (ROM) improvements were not statistically different between the two
 16 groups at different follow-up timepoints. Compared with the MUA group, the ACR group
 17 had a significantly higher rate of severe complications, but comparable rates of mild
 18 complications and additional intervention. Authors concluded that in treating refractory
 19 FS, ACR demonstrated comparable pain relief, functional and ROM improvements, rates
 20 of mild complications and additional intervention but a higher risk of severe complications
 21 to MUA during short-term follow-up periods. Notably, ACR exhibited statistically superior
 22 improvement in the long-term pain relief compared to the MUA group, although it did not
 23 reach the MCID.

24 **Epicondylitis/Epicondylalgia of the Elbow**

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

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

1 Vicenzino et al. (2001) looked at the effects of mobilization with movement (MWM) – a
2 system of manual therapy interventions developed by Brian Mulligan which combine a
3 sustained manual ‘gliding’ force to a joint with concurrent physiologic (osteo-kinematic)
4 motion of the joint, either actively performed by the patient, or passively performed by the
5 operator for chronic lateral epicondylitis in 10 female and 14 male subjects (average age
6 46.4 years old) with symptoms greater than 6 weeks. The three treatment conditions were
7 MWM, a placebo technique, and a control condition. The mobilization was a lateral glide
8 performed during a pain-free gripping technique. Six repetitions were performed with a 15
9 second rest between repetitions. Outcomes were pain-free grip strength and algometry.
10 There was a significant increase in pain-free strength in the mobilization group, but not in
11 the other two conditions. There was a significant decrease in the pressure-pain threshold
12 after treatment, but at a much lower value.

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

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

1 Lucado et al. (2018) sought to determine if joint mobilizations are effective in improving
2 pain, grip strength, and disability in adults with lateral elbow tendinopathy. A total of 20
3 studies met the inclusion criteria; 7 were included in the meta-analysis. Authors concluded
4 that there was compelling evidence that joint mobilizations have a positive effect on both
5 pain and/or functional grip scores across all time frames compared to control groups in the
6 management of LET. Westad et al. (2019) systematically reviewed the literature to
7 establish whether MWM treatment is effective for improving pain and function in patients
8 with MSK conditions related to peripheral joints. Seven published trials were identified in
9 which all trials presented positive clinical outcome in pain and function of MWM. Low
10 quality evidence for shoulder impingement syndrome (SIS) existed and low and very low-
11 quality evidence for lateral epicondylalgia. Authors concluded that overall MWM
12 interventions applied to peripheral joints seems to be superior to placebo and no
13 intervention controls, but not in comparison with other medical or physiotherapy
14 interventions. There is a need for more high-quality trials that investigate the short and
15 long-term effect of a series of MWM interventions.

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

31 32 **Carpal Tunnel Syndrome (CTS)**

33 Siu et al. (2012) describes the use of osteopathic manipulation to supplement traditional
34 methods for management of CTS. Davis & Hulbert (1998) reviewed conservative and
35 nonconservative treatment of CTS and concluded that CTS without axonal degeneration
36 can be treated with manual procedures, but they did not find evidence on the efficacy of
37 manipulation. Russell's case study (2003) discusses the use of manipulation of the wrist to
38 resolve ulnar tunnel syndrome symptoms in 4 visits. A Cochrane review by Page et al.
39 (2012) reviewed the efficacy and safety of mobilization methods in people with CTS. There
40 were two studies that compared mobilization to a no treatment control, three compared one
41 mobilization intervention to another, and three compared a mobilization intervention to
42 another non-surgical intervention. Because of the heterogeneity of the interventions

1 delivered, results could not be pooled across the studies. Their conclusion was that there
2 was limited and very low-quality evidence for the use of mobilization as a treatment for
3 CTS. These results were supported by Brantingham et al. (2013) in a systematic review of
4 upper extremity manual techniques. Clar et al. (2014) noted favorable limited evidence for
5 mobilization of the carpal bones in patients with CTS in improvement of symptoms over
6 no treatment. However, given the limited available research, results are inconclusive at this
7 time for mobilization in the treatment of CTS.

8
9 Ceylan et al. (2023) examined the effectiveness of MWM technique on pain, grip strength,
10 range of motion, edema, hand reaction, nerve conduction, and functional status in patients
11 with CTS. A total of 45 patients enrolled in the study. The MWM group (n = 18) completed
12 a 4-week combined conservative physiotherapy and MWM program, whereas the control
13 group (n = 18) received only the 4 weeks of conservative physiotherapy. Pain severity
14 according to the numerical rating scale was used as primary outcome. Authors found an
15 improvement within the subjects in resting pain, in activity pain and in night pain. For
16 between the groups, a statistical difference was found for the activity pain, Disabilities of
17 the Arm Shoulder and Hand Questionnaire score, Michigan Hand Outcomes Questionnaire
18 (MHQ-1), and MHQ-5 parameters in favor of MWM group. This study showed that MWM
19 compared to conservative physiotherapy might be more effective in reducing perceived
20 symptoms in mild and moderate CTS patients. Authors concluded that MWM produced a
21 small benefit to recovery of activity pain and upper extremity functionality level outcomes
22 of patients with mild to moderate CTS when added to a traditional CTS physical therapy
23 program.

24 **Distal Forearm Fracture**

25
26 Gutiérrez-Espinoza et al. (2022) sought to determine the effectiveness of manual therapy
27 (MT) for functional outcomes in patients with distal radius fracture (DRF). Eight clinical
28 trials met the eligibility criteria, six studies were included. For supervised physiotherapy
29 plus joint mobilization versus home exercise program at 6 weeks follow-up, the mean
30 difference (MD) for wrist flexion was 7.1 degrees (p = 0.20), and extension was 11.99
31 degrees (p = 0.16). For exercise program plus mobilization with movement versus exercise
32 program at 12 weeks follow-up, the Patient-Rated Wrist Evaluation (PRWE) was -10.2
33 points (p = 0.02), the Disabilities of the Arm, Shoulder and Hand (DASH) was -9.86 points
34 (p = 0.0001), and grip strength was 3.9 percent (p = 0.25). For conventional treatment plus
35 manual lymph drainage versus conventional treatment, for edema the MD at 3-7 days was
36 -14.58 ml (p = 0.03), at 17-21 days -17.96 ml (p = 0.009), at 33-42 days -15.34 ml (p =
37 0.003), and at 63-68 days -13.97 ml (p = 0.002). Authors concluded that adding
38 mobilization with movement and manual lymphatic drainage showed statistically
39 significant differences in wrist, upper limb function, and hand edema in patients with DRF.

1 Upper Extremity

2 Heiser et al. (2013) examined the current evidence describing joint mobilizations for
3 treatment of conditions of the elbow, wrist and hand. Twenty-two studies dated between
4 1980 and 2011 were included in the systematic review for analysis. The current evidence
5 provides moderate support for the inclusion of joint mobilizations in the treatment of lateral
6 epicondylalgia (LE). In particular, mobilization with movement as described by Mulligan
7 is supported with evidence from nine randomized clinical trials as an effective technique
8 for the treatment of pain. Other described techniques include those known as Kaltenborn,
9 Cyriax physical therapy, and Maitland, but the evidence for these techniques is limited.
10 There is also limited evidence for the joint mobilizations in the treatment of wrist and hand
11 conditions. Authors concluded that there is limited support for joint mobilizations of the
12 wrist and hand, and moderate support for joint mobilizations of the elbow for LE. There is
13 moderate support for mobilization with movement.

14
15 Roll and Hardison (2017) evaluated the effectiveness of Occupational Therapy
16 interventions for adults with musculoskeletal conditions of the forearm, wrist, and hand in
17 a systematic review. They noted that mixed evidence exists for mobilization techniques
18 and manual therapy for the treatment of CTS. For patients with loss of wrist ROM due to
19 distal radial fracture, moderate evidence supports the use of joint mobilization, but no
20 evidence supports the use of dynamic splinting. The paucity of evidence for occupation-
21 based interventions and outcomes points to an opportunity and need to expand the scope
22 of UE rehabilitation research.

23
24 Savva et al. (2021) summarized the available literature with regards to the potential
25 analgesic effect and mechanism of joint mobilization and manipulation in tendinopathy.
26 The effect of these techniques in rotator cuff tendinopathy and lateral elbow tendinopathy,
27 applied alone, compared to a placebo intervention or along with other interventions has
28 been reported in some randomized controlled trials which have been scrutinized in
29 systematic reviews. Due to the small randomized controlled trials and other methodological
30 limitations of the evidence base, including short-term follow-ups, small sample size and
31 lack of homogenous samples further studies are needed. Literature in other tendinopathies
32 such as medial elbow tendinopathy, de Quervain's disease and Achilles tendinopathy is
33 limited since the analgesic effect of these techniques has been identified in few case series
34 and reports. Therefore, the low methodological quality renders caution in the generalization
35 of findings in clinical practice. Studies on the analgesic mechanism of these techniques
36 highlight the activation of the descending inhibitory pain mechanism and
37 sympathoexcitation although this area needs further investigation. Authors concluded that
38 this study suggests that joint mobilization and manipulation may be a potential contributor
39 in the management of tendinopathy as a pre-conditioning process prior to formal exercise
40 loading rehabilitation or other proven effective treatment approaches.

1 Liu et al. (2024) investigated the effect of Maitland joint mobilization technique on the
 2 recovery of upper extremity function in patients with spasticity after stroke. Seventy-one
 3 patients with upper extremity flexor spasm after stroke were recruited and randomly
 4 divided into experimental group (n = 35) and control group (n = 36). The control group
 5 was given conventional rehabilitation treatment, while the experimental group was treated
 6 with Maitland mobilization technique treatment of upper extremity joints on the basis of
 7 the control group. The experiment lasted for 8 weeks. Participants of the 2 groups were
 8 observed for Fugl-Meyer motor assessment-upper extremity (FMA-UE), box and block
 9 test (BBT) and Brunnstrom stage, modified Ashworth scale (MAS), and functional
 10 independence measure (FIM) at pre- and post-8 weeks study. There was no significant
 11 difference in gender distribution, hemiplegic side, diagnosis, past history, age, duration,
 12 body mass index, and mini-mental state examination between the 2 groups. After 8 weeks
 13 of intervention, both groups showed significant improvement in FMA-UE, Brunnstrom
 14 stage, BBT, FIM, and MAS of the shoulder; however, there was no significant change in
 15 MAS of the elbow, wrist, and finger joints. The posttreatment values showed a significant
 16 improvement in FMA-UE, BBT, and FIM in the experimental group compared to the
 17 control group. Comparing the changes in pretreatment and posttreatment, FMA-UE, BBT,
 18 and FIM in the experimental group were significantly improved compared with those in
 19 the control group. Authors concluded that Maitland joint mobilization can improve the
 20 motor function of upper extremity and the spasticity of shoulder joint complex in patients
 21 with stroke.

22 **Peripheral Joint Pathologies**

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

37 ***PRACTITIONER SCOPE AND TRAINING***

38 Practitioners should practice only in the areas in which they are competent based on their
 39 education, training, and experience. Levels of education, experience, and proficiency may
 40 vary among individual practitioners. It is ethically and legally incumbent on a practitioner
 41 to determine where they have the knowledge and skills necessary to perform such services.
 42

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

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

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

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