

1 **Clinical Practice Guideline: Instrument-Assisted Soft Tissue Mobilization**

2  
3 **Date of Implementation: July 13, 2005**

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5 **Product: Specialty**

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8 **GUIDELINES**

9 American Specialty Health – Specialty (ASH) considers Instrument-assisted Soft Tissue  
10 Mobilization (IASTM) (i.e., use of Graston Technique<sup>®</sup>, Astym<sup>®</sup>, Gua Sha, or other similar  
11 tools) as reasonable in the treatment of soft tissues including muscle, fascia, and tendon, if  
12 used to assist the practitioner’s hands during soft tissue mobilization. There is no evidence  
13 to support its use for other purposes and in treatment of any other medical conditions.

14  
15 Cupping in any form is not medically necessary as it has unproven effectiveness based on  
16 the quality and outcome of the literature with a resulting unacceptable risk:benefit ratio.

17  
18 **DESCRIPTION/BACKGROUND**

19 The Graston Technique<sup>®</sup> is an IASTM technique that enables clinicians to effectively treat  
20 scar tissue and restrictions that affect normal function. The technique uses 6 handheld  
21 stainless-steel instruments. The instruments are applied to the affected area in multiple  
22 directions to correct restrictions that create the abnormal barrier sensation. Proponents of  
23 the Graston Technique<sup>®</sup> believe the intervention accomplishes the following (without  
24 support of high-quality research):

- 25 • Separates and breaks down collagen cross-links, and splays and stretches
- 26 connective tissue and muscle fibers
- 27 • Increases skin temperature
- 28 • Facilitates reflex changes in the chronic muscle holding pattern
- 29 • Alters spinal reflex activity (facilitated segment)
- 30 • Increases the rate and amount of blood flow to and from the area
- 31 • Increases cellular activity in the region, including fibroblasts and mast cells
- 32 • Increases histamine response secondary to mast cell activity

33  
34 It has been postulated by practitioners of this technique that the stainless-steel instruments  
35 are more sensitive at locating soft tissue restrictions than manual palpation. The  
36 practitioner may feel a ‘vibratory’ sensation as the instrument passes over a soft tissue  
37 lesion. Skilled clinicians use the stainless-steel instruments to comb over and ‘catch’ on  
38 fibrotic tissue, which immediately identifies the areas of restriction. Once the tissue has  
39 been identified, the instruments are used to break up the scar tissue so it can be absorbed  
40 by the body. The patient may experience a similar sensation as the tool crosses over the  
41 treatment area. The protocol includes a brief warm-up exercise, Graston Technique<sup>®</sup>  
42 treatment, followed by stretching, strengthening and ice, thus it is not used in isolation.

1 Also, only clinicians who have been trained and accredited in the Graston Technique®  
2 basic course are qualified to obtain the Graston Technique® instruments and apply the  
3 technique to treat patients. The course is available either on-site or at trainings offered  
4 throughout the year at a variety of locations.

5  
6 Any condition that is a contraindication for soft tissue mobilization (STM) is also a  
7 contraindication for IASTM (i.e., use of Graston Technique®, Astym®, Gua Sha, or other  
8 similar tools). These conditions include but are not limited to:

- 9 • Open wound
- 10 • Unhealed fracture
- 11 • Thrombophlebitis
- 12 • Uncontrolled hypertension
- 13 • Kidney dysfunction
- 14 • Patient intolerance/hypersensitivity
- 15 • Osteomyelitis
- 16 • Myositis ossificans

17  
18 Astym® treatment is another form of instrument assisted STM and is a regenerative soft  
19 tissue therapy which is claimed to successfully resolve many difficult conditions, including  
20 chronic tendinopathies and movement restrictions/pain resulting from scar tissue. Astym®  
21 treatment was developed from basic science investigations to stimulate regeneration at a  
22 cellular level and eliminate or reduce problematic scar tissue that may be causing pain or  
23 movement restrictions. Theories regarding mechanisms of action for Astym® treatment  
24 were developed based on the foundation of recent histologic research identifying the  
25 primarily degenerative nature of tendinopathies, and the investigations into the use of  
26 cellular mediators, growth factors and related products to assist in the healing and  
27 regeneration of tissues. Guided by these principles and proposed theories, the Astym®  
28 process research team conducted their own basic science and clinical research to develop  
29 and refine non-invasive protocols aimed at activating a regenerative process. According to  
30 their research team, Astym® treatment non-invasively activates a regenerative response  
31 throughout dysfunctional soft tissues by inducing dysfunctional capillary exudation, local  
32 fibroblast activation, macrophage mediated phagocytosis (micro debridement) and release  
33 of growth factors that result in additional fibroblast recruitment. In addition to this release  
34 of humoral mediators and growth factors, the Astym® process detects and eliminates or  
35 reduces inappropriate fibrosis that may be causing irritation or restrictions in movement.  
36 Treatment includes customized exercises and stresses on the collagen remodeling to adapt  
37 the tissues, so they become stronger and more functional, which reduces the risk of re-  
38 injury.

1 According to proponents of Astym® treatment, it safely, effectively, and efficiently  
 2 stimulates scar tissue to be resorbed by the body and regenerates damaged soft tissues.  
 3 They also believe that Astym® therapy and IASTM are very different in goals and  
 4 application, and therefore any application of research findings from one to the other would  
 5 be inappropriate and misleading. Some of the more common diagnoses that have  
 6 demonstrated excellent clinical results according to Astym® literature are:

7  
 8 **General Conditions**

- 9 • Chronic tendinopathy
- 10 • Joint and muscle stiffness
- 11 • Pain and stiffness associated with early degenerative joint disease

12  
 13 **Specific Conditions**

- 14 • Achilles tendinopathy
- 15 • Anterior and posterior tibialis tendinopathy
- 16 • Arthrofibrosis
- 17 • Carpal tunnel syndrome
- 18 • Chronic ankle pain and stiffness
- 19 • Chronic wrist pain and stiffness
- 20 • DeQuervain’s tenosynovitis
- 21 • Golfer’s elbow
- 22 • Hamstring strain
- 23 • IT band syndrome
- 24 • Jumper’s knee
- 25 • Lateral epicondylopathy
- 26 • Low back pain (nonradicular)
- 27 • Medial epicondylopathy
- 28 • Patellar tendinopathy
- 29 • Plantar fasciopathy
- 30 • Post-mastectomy scarring
- 31 • Post-surgical scarring/fibrosis
- 32 • Rotator cuff tendinopathy
- 33 • Scar tissue/fibrosis
- 34 • Tennis elbow
- 35 • Trochanteric bursitis

36  
 37 Gua Sha is another form of IASTM, but with a different philosophy behind it. It is also  
 38 known as skin scraping, scraping therapy, or coin rubbing, and has long been a traditional  
 39 healing that is widely practiced in China and Southeast Asia. Gua Sha involves scraping  
 40 the body surface with a tool (e.g., a buffalo horn scrape) with or without a skin lubricant to  
 41 intentionally create petechiae, which is traditionally called Sha and can be loosely

1 translated as stagnant blood. Gua Sha roughly translates into English as “dredging meridian  
2 stagnation.” The scraping marks (petechiae and ecchymoses) are formed when capillaries  
3 break open and blood leaks into the subcutaneous space. These marks fade and completely  
4 resolve over 2–5 days. Disappearance of petechiae and ecchymoses occurs via erythrocyte  
5 lysis. Cell debris is concurrently removed by microglia/macrophages. Hemolysis is  
6 associated with the release of hemoglobin and its catabolic products. It is hypothesized that  
7 the skin, the nervous system, and immune system interact with one another to generate a  
8 cascade of physiological responses to the scraping, through which scraping may result in  
9 therapeutic benefits. Potential mechanisms of therapeutic benefit include dampening of  
10 pain-promoting substances, presence of nitric oxide and its antinociceptive properties, and  
11 modulation of pain by counterirritation (gate theory principles). It is often used to treat  
12 neck pain, myalgia, chronic pain, and other muscle issues.

13  
14 Cupping is another type of ancient healing of using heated cups to create petechiae for a  
15 therapeutic purpose. It has been used in the alleviation of pain and many other complaints  
16 for millennia and is still commonly practiced as part of traditional acupuncture, Persian  
17 and European medicine. Cupping therapy is similar to Gua Sha in terms of its hypothetical,  
18 physiological and clinical basis. Cupping therapy can generally be described as a technique  
19 that uses cups placed over the skin to create negative pressure through suction. The specific  
20 mechanism in which cupping exerts its therapeutic effect has not been identified. There are  
21 two types of cupping methods, dry and wet. Dry cupping is noninvasive with no  
22 bloodletting. Wet cupping is invasive and includes bloodletting. It is further subdivided  
23 into traditional wet cupping and Al-hijamah, which comes from the Arabic word hajm  
24 translating to sucking, expansion, and bloodletting. Traditional wet cupping is commonly  
25 used in China, Korea, and Germany. Al-hijamah is more common in the Middle East and  
26 North Africa. One method, called Taibah, suggests wet cupping mimics an artificial  
27 kidney. Where an in vivo kidney filters hydrophobic materials through the glomeruli via  
28 normal pressure filtration, wet cupping filters both hydrophilic and hydrophobic material  
29 through high-pressure filtration. The high pressure from suction leads to increased blood  
30 volume which leads to increased capillary filtration rate leading to the expulsion of filtered  
31 and interstitial fluid in the area. Scalpels are also used in this method. The scratches made  
32 with the scalpel increase innate and acquired immunity by stimulating inflammatory cell  
33 migration and endogenous opioid release. This action leads to improved blood flow,  
34 removal of toxins, restored neuroendocrine balance, improved oxygen supply, and tissue  
35 perfusion.

36  
37 Jam (2016) describes the novel cupping technique of Tissue Distraction Release with  
38 Movement (TDR-WM), which involves the gliding of the cups in various directions while  
39 the patient simultaneously actively moves the relevant joint and tissues underneath the cup.  
40 During TDR-WM, the negative pressure inside the cup literally lifts and separates the tissue  
41 underneath the cup; the addition of active movement of the tissues while the cup is applied  
42 may further assist the release of the interfaces between the soft-tissues such as skin, fascia,

1 neural tissues, muscles, ligaments, and tendons. TDR-WM techniques have been clinically  
2 observed to be particularly effective in soft-tissue conditions where physical therapy  
3 treatments have classically focused on tissue compression. According to Aboushanab et al.  
4 (2018) and referenced in Matos et al. (2021), “From a Western perspective, the cupping  
5 action mechanisms are still unclear. The sub-atmospheric pressure inside the cup seems to  
6 change the skin’s biomechanical properties, increasing peripheral blood circulation and  
7 pain threshold, improving local anaerobic metabolism, reducing inflammation, and  
8 modulating the cellular immune system. The comfort and relaxation sensation on a  
9 systemic level often reported after cupping might be related to the resulting increase in  
10 endogenous opioid production in the brain leading, to improved pain control.”

11  
12 Localized ailments that may benefit from cupping therapy include myofascial conditions,  
13 headache, lower back pain, neck pain, and knee pain. Systemic illnesses with claimed  
14 benefits include hypertension, rheumatoid arthritis, diabetes mellitus, mental disorders,  
15 heart disease, hypertension, infections, and skin disorders.

16  
17 Absolute contraindications to cupping therapy include cancer patients, those suffering from  
18 any organ failure and those using a pacemaker or suffering from hemophilia or a similar  
19 blood disorder. Cupping therapy is not recommended for geriatric patients, pediatric  
20 patients, women experiencing their menstrual cycle and pregnant women. Those with high  
21 serum cholesterol are at higher risk of developing cardiovascular ailments with cupping.  
22 Anatomical contraindications include sites with deep vein thrombosis, open wounds, and  
23 bone fractures. Cupping should not be done directly on nerves, arteries, veins, varicose  
24 veins, skin lesions, body orifices, lymph nodes, eyes, or areas with skin inflammation.  
25 Those suffering from chronic diseases (e.g., cardiovascular diseases), using anticoagulants  
26 or have an acute infection should generally avoid cupping therapy. Cupping therapy is  
27 generally safe with adverse events being infrequent. Those that are reported range from  
28 mild to moderate in severity. Preventable adverse events reported include scar formation,  
29 burns, bullae formation, abscess and skin infection, pruritus, anemia, and panniculitis.  
30 Nonpreventable adverse events reported include Koebner phenomenon, headaches,  
31 dizziness, tiredness, vasovagal attack, nausea, and insomnia. Risk of infection, vasovagal  
32 attacks and scarring are seen more in wet cupping. Standard results of dry cupping include  
33 bruising (may be severe), erythema, and ecchymosis. There is an increased risk of burns if  
34 fire is used for suctioning.

## 35 36 **EVIDENCE REVIEW**

### 37 **Instrument-Assisted Soft Tissue Mobilization (IASTM)**

38 Some case series have shown promising results with the use of instrument assisted soft  
39 tissue mobilization for plantar fasciitis, plantar heel pain and Achilles tendinopathy,  
40 demonstrating clinically meaningful improvements. However, given the study designs, no  
41 conclusions can be drawn from the outcomes (Holtz et al., 2012; Phipps et al., 2011;  
42 Looney et al., 2011). A study was performed on patients with lateral epicondylitis who

1 were randomly assigned to one of two groups: traditional physical therapy protocol  
2 (phonophoresis and manual cross-friction massage) or the Graston Technique protocol.  
3 The physical therapy group and the Graston group also received cryotherapy, exercise, and  
4 stretching programs. Pain level, mechanical finger power, and grip strength were measured.  
5 Although both groups improved, the Graston group improved significantly more than the  
6 physical therapy group (Sevier et al., 1995). Schaefer and Sandrey (2012) examined the  
7 effects of IASTM in conjunction with a dynamic balance program for subjects with chronic  
8 ankle instability. All groups received the exercise program, while one received IASTM and  
9 the other received a sham IASTM protocol. All groups improved over time based on  
10 outcome measures, with the IASTM group improving the most (though not significantly).  
11 Laudner et al. (2014) studied whether IASTM can improve passive glenohumeral (GH)  
12 horizontal adduction and internal rotation range of motion (ROM) acutely in collegiate  
13 baseball players. Thirty-five asymptomatic collegiate baseball players were randomly  
14 assigned to one of two groups. Seventeen participants received one application of IASTM  
15 to the posterior shoulder in between pretest and posttest measurements of passive GH  
16 horizontal adduction and internal rotation ROM. The remaining 18 participants did not  
17 receive a treatment intervention between tests, serving as the controls. The results of this  
18 study indicated that an application of IASTM to the posterior shoulder provides acute  
19 improvements in both GH horizontal adduction ROM and internal rotation ROM among  
20 baseball players. Given subjects were asymptomatic, consideration of clinical applicability  
21 is of concern.

22  
23 Sevier and Stegink-Jansen (2015) completed a RCT using IASTYM (Astym protocol)  
24 treatment vs. eccentric exercise for lateral elbow tendinopathy (107 subjects with 113  
25 affected elbows) Subjects were randomly assigned to 4 weeks of Astym treatment (57  
26 elbows) or eccentric exercise (EE) treatment (56 elbows). Results demonstrated resolution  
27 response rates of 78.3% for the Astym group and 40.9% for the EE group. Astym subjects  
28 showed greater gains in DASH scores and in maximum grip strength than EE subjects.  
29 Astym therapy also resolved 20/21 (95.7%) of the EE non-responders, who showed  
30 improvements in DASH scores, pain with activity and function following Astym treatment.  
31 Gains continued at 6 and 12 months. No adverse effects were reported. Authors suggest  
32 that Astym therapy is an effective treatment option for patients with lateral elbow  
33 tendinopathy, as an initial treatment, and after an eccentric exercise program has failed.  
34 However, there is a need for more effective, conservative treatment options given the lack  
35 of large RCTs using this intervention with similar or same conditions.

36  
37 Cheatham et al. (2016) systematically appraised the current evidence assessing the effects  
38 of IASTM as an intervention to treat a musculoskeletal pathology or to enhance joint ROM.  
39 A total of seven randomized controlled trials were appraised. Five of the studies measured  
40 an IASTM intervention versus a control or alternate intervention group for a  
41 musculoskeletal pathology. The results of the studies were insignificant ( $p > .05$ ) with both  
42 groups displaying equal outcomes. Two studies measured an IASTM intervention versus a

1 control or alternate intervention group on the effects of joint ROM. The IASTM  
2 intervention produced significant ( $P<.05$ ) short term gains up to 24 hours. Authors  
3 concluded that the literature measuring the effects of IASTM is still emerging. The current  
4 research has indicated insignificant results which challenges the efficacy of IASTM as a  
5 treatment for common musculoskeletal pathology, which may be due to the methodological  
6 variability among studies. There appears to be some evidence supporting its ability to  
7 increase short term joint ROM.

8  
9 Lambert et al. (2017) systematically examined evidence on the effectiveness of IASTM,  
10 compared to other interventions on patients with pain and disability resulting from  
11 musculoskeletal impairments. Seven studies met the inclusion criteria. The studies  
12 involved treatment of numerous anatomical locations and the majority of the studies  
13 demonstrated significant improvements in pain and/or range of motion when compared to  
14 control or other conservative treatment groups. Authors conclude that these outcomes  
15 support the idea that IASTM may have an impact on physiological changes by providing  
16 an increase in blood flow, reduction in tissue viscosity, myofascial release, interruption of  
17 pain receptors, and improvement of flexibility of underlying tissue. It is suggested that  
18 IASTM is an effective treatment intervention for reducing pain and improving function in  
19 less than a three-month period. Kim et al. (2017) reviewed the mechanism and effects of  
20 IASTM, along with guidelines for its practical application. Some experimental studies and  
21 case reports have reported that IASTM can significantly improve soft tissue function and  
22 range of motion following sports injury, while also reducing pain. Based on the previous  
23 studies, it is thought that IASTM can help shorten the rehabilitation period and time to  
24 return to sports among athletes and ordinary people who have suffered sports injuries.  
25 However, authors report that few experimental studies of the mechanisms and effects of  
26 IASTM have examined, while case reports have accounted for the majority of articles.  
27 Authors conclude that future studies should provide the scientific basis of IASTM and its  
28 reliability through well-designed experimental studies on humans. Moreover, they note that  
29 IASTM studies have mostly focused on tendons and need to broaden their scope toward  
30 other soft tissues such as muscles and ligaments.

31  
32 Cheatham et al. (2019) authored an article stating the need for development of clinical  
33 practice guidelines describing intervention, indications, precautions, contraindications,  
34 tool hygiene, safe treatment and assessment relative to IASTM. They encourage further  
35 discussions of standards and implore other sports medicine professionals and researchers  
36 to contribute their expertise to the development of such guidelines given the widespread  
37 use of these instruments. Seffrin et al. (2019) sought to determine the overall effectiveness  
38 of IASTM in improving range of motion (ROM), pain, strength, and patient-reported  
39 function in order to provide recommendations for use. Included articles were randomized  
40 controlled trials that measured ROM, pain, strength, or patient-reported function and  
41 compared IASTM treatment with at least 1 other group. Authors concluded that the current  
42 literature provides support for IASTM in improving ROM in uninjured individuals as well

1 as pain and patient-reported function (or both) in injured patients. However, more high-  
2 quality research involving a larger variety of patients and products is needed to further  
3 substantiate and allow for generalization of these findings. Nazari et al. (2019) assessed the  
4 effectiveness of IASTM to other treatments or placebo in athletes or participants without  
5 extremity or spinal conditions and individuals with upper extremity, lower extremity, and  
6 spinal conditions in a systematic review. Randomized controlled trials of participants  
7 without extremity or spinal conditions or athletes and people with upper extremity, lower  
8 extremity, or spinal conditions, who received IASTM vs other active treatment, placebo,  
9 or control (no treatment), to improve outcome (function, pain, range of motion). Nine trials  
10 with 43 reported outcomes (function, pain, range of motion, grip strength), compared the  
11 addition of IASTM over other treatments vs other treatments. Six trials with 36 outcomes  
12 reported no clinically important differences in outcomes between the two groups. Two  
13 trials with 2 outcomes displayed clinically important differences favoring the other  
14 treatment (without IASTM) group. Six trials with 15 reported outcomes (pressure  
15 sensitivity, pain, range of motion, muscle performance), compared IASTM vs control (no  
16 treatment). Three trials with five outcomes reported no clinically important differences in  
17 outcomes between the two groups. Furthermore, in one trial with five outcomes, IASTM  
18 demonstrated small effects (standard mean difference range 0.03-0.24) in terms of  
19 improvement muscle performance in physically active individuals when compared to a no  
20 treatment group. Authors concluded that the current evidence does not support the use of  
21 IASTM to improve pain, function, or range of motion in individuals without extremity or  
22 spinal conditions or for those with varied pathologies.

23  
24 Elserty and Galal (2020) compared the effects of active soft tissue therapies versus Graston  
25 technique in chronic neck pain patients with latent trigger point of upper trapezius muscle.  
26 Forty-five female chronic neck pain patients with latent myofascial trigger points in the  
27 upper trapezius muscle were randomly assigned into equal groups of 15 subjects. Group  
28 (A) received stretching exercise and active soft tissue therapy, group (B) received  
29 stretching exercise and Graston technique and group (C) received stretching exercise only.  
30 Pain pressure threshold (PPT) and cervical ranges of motions were obtained before and  
31 after treatment in each group. Results demonstrated a significant main effect of time and  
32 interaction of treatment and time. Between groups comparisons pretreatment revealed no  
33 significant difference in all parameters. Comparison between groups post treatment  
34 revealed a significant increase in PPT and cervical flexion, extension, lateral flexion, and  
35 rotation toward affected and non-affected side of group A and B compared with that of  
36 group C ( $p < .01$ ). Most importantly, there was no significant difference in in PPT and all  
37 cervical ROM between group A and B post treatment. Authors concluded that this study  
38 does not support the efficacy of IASTM in increasing pain pressure threshold and range of  
39 motion in chronic neck pain patients with latent trigger point of upper trapezius muscle  
40 when compared with other soft tissue treatments.



1 El-hafez et al. (2020) investigated the effects of IASTM versus stripping massage (SM) on  
2 myofascial trigger points in the right upper trapezius. Forty patients (34 women and 6 men)  
3 aged 18–23 years, with active trigger points in the right upper trapezius were divided into  
4 two equal groups (A and B). Group A ( $n = 20$ ) received IASTM using an M2T blade twice  
5 a week for four weeks in addition to stretching exercise. Group B ( $n = 20$ ) received SM  
6 twice a week for four weeks in addition to stretching exercise. The visual analogue scale,  
7 a pressure algometer, and the Arabic version of the Neck Disability Index were used to  
8 evaluate patients' pre- and post-treatment statuses. Results showed significant differences  
9 between pre- and post-treatment values of all outcome measures in both groups based on  
10 within group analysis. In contrast, between-group analysis did not show any significant  
11 differences between the two groups in pre- or post-treatment values of any outcome  
12 measures. Authors concluded that IASTM and SM are effective methods for improving  
13 pain and function in patients with upper trapezius trigger points.

14  
15 Sandrey et al. (2020) examined the effects of myofascial release techniques (foam rolling  
16 [FR] vs the instrumented portion of IASTM) on knee joint ROM, rectus femoris (RF) and  
17 biceps femoris (BF) fascial displacement, and patient satisfaction. Twenty moderately  
18 active participants (age 21.1 [2.0] y) with variable levels of soft tissue restriction in the  
19 quadriceps and hamstrings started and completed the study. Participants were randomly  
20 assigned to two groups, FR or IASTM. All participants completed the same warm-up prior  
21 to the intervention. The FR group followed the proper FR protocol for gluteal/iliotibial  
22 band, quadriceps, and hamstrings/adductors, and the participants were monitored while the  
23 protocol was completed. The IASTM group received treatment on the gluteal/iliotibial  
24 band followed by the quadriceps, adductors, and hamstrings. Participants in both groups  
25 attended intervention sessions twice per week for 3 weeks. Prior to the start, knee ROM  
26 measurements were taken, along with fascial displacement measured via ultrasound. Upon  
27 completion of the study, posttest measurements were completed. A patient satisfaction  
28 survey was also administered at this time. Results demonstrated that both groups improved  
29 pretest to posttest for knee-extension ROM, with a slight trend toward increased knee-  
30 extension ROM for the FR group. Both groups improved pretest to posttest for BF and RF  
31 fascial displacement, in favor of the IASTM group for BF fascial displacement. Both  
32 groups were equally satisfied.

33  
34 Studies are limited with use of Gua Sha. The majority are pilot studies with low sample  
35 sizes. In a 2011 study, Braun et al. aimed to investigate the effectiveness of Gua Sha in the  
36 symptomatic treatment of chronic neck pain. Forty-eight outpatients with chronic  
37 mechanical neck pain were the subjects of the study. Patients were randomized into Gua  
38 Sha ( $N=24$ ) or control groups ( $N=24$ ) and followed up for 7 days. Gua Sha patients were  
39 treated once with Gua Sha, while control patients were treated with a local thermal heat  
40 pad. Neck pain severity improved significantly after 1 week in the Gua Sha group  
41 compared with the control group. Authors concluded that Gua Sha has beneficial short-  
42 term effects on pain and functional status in patients with chronic neck pain. The value of

1 Gua Sha in the long-term management of neck pain and related mechanisms remains to be  
2 clarified. Saha et al. (2019) tested the efficacy of Gua Sha therapy in patients with chronic  
3 low back pain. 50 patients with chronic low back pain were randomized to two Gua Sha  
4 treatments ( $n = 25$ ) or waitlist control ( $n = 25$ ). Primary outcome was current pain intensity  
5 (100-mm visual analog scale); secondary outcome measures included function (Oswestry  
6 Disability Index), pain on movement (Pain on Movement Questionnaire), perceived change  
7 in health status, pressure pain threshold, mechanical detection threshold, and vibration  
8 detection threshold. After treatment, patients in the Gua Sha group reported lower pain  
9 intensity ( $p < 0.001$ ) and better overall health status ( $p = 0.002$ ) compared to the waitlist  
10 group. No further group differences were found. No serious adverse events occurred.  
11 Authors concluded that Gua Sha appears to be an acceptable, safe, and effective treatment  
12 for patients with chronic low back pain. Further rigorous studies are needed to confirm and  
13 extend these results.

14  
15 Nazari et al. (2023) critically appraised randomized controlled trials (RCTs) on Instrument-  
16 Assisted Soft Tissue Mobilization (IASTM) and quantified the effects of IASTM compared  
17 with other treatment in individuals with or without pathologies on function, pain, and range  
18 of motion. Forty-six RCTs were considered eligible for data analysis. Effects of IASTM  
19 plus other treatment versus other treatment on function and pain intensity were not  
20 statistically significant or clinically meaningful. No clinically meaningful improvements  
21 were found on range of motion outcomes. Out of the 46 included RCTs, only 10 assessed  
22 and reported IASTM-related adverse events. Results indicated that evidence of very low  
23 quality certainty does not support the efficacy of IASTM in individuals with or without  
24 various pathologies on function, pain, and range of motion in the management of upper  
25 body, lower body, or spinal conditions. The included RCTs had a high risk of bias and were  
26 assessed as very low quality evidence for all the included outcomes. Authors concluded  
27 that IASTM does not lead to clinically meaningful improvements in function, pain, or range  
28 of motion in individuals with upper body, lower body, and spinal conditions. The available  
29 evidence on IASTM does not support its use to improve function, pain, or range of motion  
30 in individuals with upper body, lower body, and spinal conditions. They also note that the  
31 publication of IASTM trials in suspected predatory journals is increasing and health care  
32 practitioners should be wary of these articles and conclusions.

### 33 34 **Cupping**

35 Dry cupping has been commonly used for musculoskeletal pain and muscular tension. Cao  
36 et al. (2010) evaluated the therapeutic effect of cupping therapy using an evidence-based  
37 approach based on all available clinical studies. A total of 550 clinical studies were  
38 identified published between 1959 and 2008, including 73 randomized controlled trials  
39 (RCTs), 22 clinical controlled trials, 373 case series, and 82 case reports. The quality of  
40 the RCTs was generally poor according to the risk of bias of the Cochrane standard for  
41 important outcome within each trial. The diseases in which cupping was commonly  
42 employed included pain conditions, herpes zoster, cough, and asthma. Wet cupping was

1 used in majority studies, followed by retained cupping, moving cupping, and medicinal  
2 cupping. Thirty-eight studies used a combination of 2 types of cupping therapies. No  
3 serious adverse effects were reported in the studies. Authors concluded that the majority of  
4 studies from China show potential benefit on pain conditions, herpes zoster and other  
5 diseases. However, further rigorously designed trials in relevant conditions are warranted  
6 to support their use in practice.

7  
8 Li et al. (2017) evaluated the available evidence from RCTs of cupping therapy for treating  
9 patients with knee osteoarthritis (KOA). Seven RCTs met the inclusion criteria, and most  
10 were of low methodological quality. Study participants in the dry cupping therapy plus the  
11 Western medicine therapy group showed significantly greater improvements in the pain  
12 and physical function domains of Western Ontario and McMaster Universities  
13 Osteoarthritis Index (WOMAC) compared to participants in the Western medicine therapy  
14 group, with low heterogeneity. However, it failed to do so on a Visual Analog Scale (VAS).  
15 Authors concluded that only weak evidence can support the hypothesis that cupping  
16 therapy can effectively improve the treatment efficacy and physical function in patients  
17 with KOA.

18  
19 Ma et al. (2018) reviewed data from RCTs of cupping therapy for treating patients with  
20 Akylosing spondylitis (AS). A total of 5 RCTs met the inclusion criteria, and most were of  
21 low methodological quality. Authors concluded that only weak evidence supported the  
22 hypothesis that cupping therapy had potential benefits for patients with AS. Wang et al.  
23 (2018) aimed to evaluate the efficacy and safety of cupping therapy for treating patients  
24 with KOA. A total of 5 studies (535 participants) met inclusion criteria. All included  
25 studies were judged to be at high risk for bias. Dry cupping therapy plus Western medicine  
26 therapy was more effective than Western therapy alone in reducing the pain score. In  
27 addition, the study participants in the dry cupping therapy plus Western medicine therapy  
28 group showed significantly greater improvements in the pain, and physical function  
29 domains of the Western Ontario and McMaster Universities Osteoarthritis Index  
30 (WOMAC) compared to participants in the Western medicine therapy group. Authors  
31 concluded that there is weak evidence to support the hypothesis that cupping therapy has  
32 beneficial effects on reducing the pain intensity and improving the physical function in  
33 patients with KOA. Wang et al. (2018) assessed the effects and safety of cupping for  
34 patients with low back pain (LBP). Six RCTs were included in this synthesized analysis.  
35 The results showed that cupping therapy was superior to the control management with  
36 respect to VAS and ODI scores. No serious adverse events were reported in the included  
37 studies. Authors concluded that cupping therapy can significantly decrease the VAS scores  
38 and ODI scores for patients with LBP compared to the control management. High  
39 heterogeneity and risk of bias existing in studies limit the authenticity of the findings.

40  
41 Kim et al. (2018) aimed to investigate the effects of cupping on neck pain from the current  
42 literature. Nine databases, including Chinese, Korean and Japanese databases, were

1 searched for data up to January 2018 with no restrictions on publication language.  
2 Participants include patients with neck pain who received cupping therapy as the sole or  
3 add-on intervention compared with no treatment or active controls. Primary and secondary  
4 outcome measures included pain severity, functional disability, and quality of life.  
5 Eighteen RCTs were selected. Compared with the no intervention group, the cupping group  
6 exhibited significant reduction in pain and improvement in function. Compared with the  
7 active control, the cupping group reported significant reduction in pain and significantly  
8 improved quality of life. The group that received control treatment with cupping therapy  
9 (add-on group) displayed significant pain reduction compared with the active control  
10 group. Of the 18 studies, only 8 reported occurrences of adverse events, which were mostly  
11 mild and temporary. Authors concluded that cupping was found to reduce neck pain in  
12 patients compared with no intervention or active control groups, or as an add-on treatment.  
13 Depending on the type of control group, cupping was also associated with significant  
14 improvement in terms of function and quality of life; however, due to the low quality of  
15 evidence of the included studies, definitive conclusions could not be drawn from this  
16 review. Future well-designed studies are needed to substantiate the effectiveness of  
17 cupping on neck pain.

18  
19 Charles et al. (2019) compared the efficacy of different treatments in the short-term relief  
20 of myofascial pain and myofascial trigger points. Eight studies on manual therapy, twenty-  
21 three studies on dry needling, and two studies on dry cupping met the inclusion criteria.  
22 While there was a moderate number of randomized controlled trials supporting the use of  
23 manual therapy, the evidence for dry needling ranged from very low to moderate compared  
24 to control groups, sham interventions, or other treatments and there was a paucity of data  
25 on dry cupping. Limitations included unclear methodologies, high risk for bias, inadequate  
26 blinding, no control group, and small sample sizes. Authors concluded that while there is  
27 moderate evidence for manual therapy in myofascial pain treatment, the evidence for dry  
28 needling and cupping is not greater than placebo. Future studies should address the  
29 limitations of small sample sizes, unclear methodologies, poor blinding, and lack of control  
30 groups.

31  
32 Wood et al. (2020) evaluated the efficacy and safety of western dry cupping methods for  
33 the treatment of musculoskeletal pain and reduced range of motion. A total of 21 RCTs  
34 with 1049 participants were included. Low-quality evidence revealed dry cupping had a  
35 significant effect on pain reduction for chronic neck pain and low back pain. Moderate-  
36 quality evidence suggested that dry cupping improved functional status for chronic neck  
37 pain. For range of motion, low quality evidence revealed a significant difference when  
38 compared to no treatment. Authors concluded that dry cupping was found to be effective  
39 for reducing pain in patients with chronic neck pain and non-specific low back pain.  
40 However, definitive conclusions regarding the effectiveness and safety of dry cupping for  
41 musculoskeletal pain and range of motion were unable to be made due to the low-moderate  
42 quality of evidence. Further high-quality trials with larger sample sizes, long-term follow

1 up, and reporting of adverse events are warranted. Cramer et al. (2020) aimed to assess the  
2 effectiveness and safety of cupping in chronic pain. Of the 18 included trials ( $n = 1,172$ ),  
3 most were limited by clinical heterogeneity and risk of bias. Meta-analyses found large  
4 short-term effects of cupping on pain intensity compared to no treatment, but no significant  
5 effects compared to sham cupping or other active treatment. For disability, there were  
6 medium-sized short-term effects of cupping compared to no treatment, and compared to  
7 other active treatments, but not compared to sham cupping. Adverse events were more  
8 frequent among patients treated with cupping compared to no treatment; differences  
9 compared to sham cupping or other active treatment were not statistically significant.  
10 Cupping might be a treatment option for chronic pain, but the evidence is still limited by  
11 the clinical heterogeneity and risk of bias.

12  
13 Choi et al. (2021) aimed to describe and assess the current evidence in systematic reviews  
14 on cupping therapy for various conditions. Thirteen systematic reviews that met the  
15 inclusion criteria were included in the evidence map. The findings from six reviews showed  
16 potential benefits of cupping for conditions such as low back pain, ankylosing spondylitis,  
17 knee osteoarthritis, neck pain, herpes zoster, migraine, plaque psoriasis, and chronic  
18 urticaria. Cupping has been applied in a variety of clinical areas, and systematic reviews in  
19 a few of these areas have demonstrated statistically significant benefits. Evidence of a  
20 positive effect, as indicated by statistically significant pooled treatment effects in  
21 systematic reviews, were noted for low back pain. Evidence of a potentially positive effect  
22 of cupping include ankylosing spondylitis, knee osteoarthritis, neck pain, herpes zoster,  
23 migraine, plaque psoriasis, and chronic urticaria. Unclear evidence is noted for cupping in  
24 treating clinical conditions (e.g., cervical spondylosis, lateral femoral cutaneous neuritis,  
25 scapulohumeral periarthritis, facial paralysis, acne, stroke rehabilitation, hypertension, and  
26 obesity) based on more than one included study.

27  
28 Seo et al. (2021) aimed to evaluate the effectiveness of cupping therapy for migraine. 218  
29 studies were identified, and six RCTs were enrolled in this review. In comparison to drugs,  
30 wet cupping showed a higher total effective rate (TER). In the dry cupping plus  
31 acupuncture, the result of TER showed more effectiveness compared with acupuncture  
32 alone, but there was no statistically significant difference. In qualitative analysis, the results  
33 showed wet cupping plus drugs treatment could quickly relieve pain and significantly  
34 improve patients' quality of life and wet cupping could reduce headache pain. Authors  
35 concluded that cupping therapy could be effective for the treatment of migraine. However,  
36 the qualities of the evidence were low, so well-designed RCTs are needed to confirm the  
37 effectiveness of cupping. Almeida Silvo et al. (2021) studied the effects of dry cupping on  
38 pain intensity, physical function, functional mobility, trunk range of motion, perceived  
39 overall effect, quality of life, psychological symptoms and medication use in individuals  
40 with chronic non-specific low back pain. Ninety participants with chronic non-specific low  
41 back pain participated in the study. The experimental group ( $n = 45$ ) received dry cupping  
42 therapy, with cups bilaterally positioned parallel to the L1 to L5 vertebrae. The control

1 group ( $n = 45$ ) received sham cupping therapy. The interventions were applied once a week  
2 for 8 weeks. Participants were assessed before and after the first treatment session, and  
3 after 4 and 8 weeks of intervention. Authors concluded that dry cupping therapy was not  
4 superior to sham cupping for improving pain, physical function, mobility, quality of life,  
5 psychological symptoms or medication use in people with non-specific chronic low back  
6 pain.

7  
8 Shen et al. (2022) evaluated the evidence from the literature regarding the effects of dry  
9 and wet cupping therapy on LBP in adults. There were 656 studies identified, of which 10  
10 studies (690 patients with LBP) were included in the meta-analysis. There was a significant  
11 reduction in the pain intensity score with present pain intensity using wet cupping therapy.  
12 In addition, both cupping therapy groups displayed significant Oswestry disability index  
13 score reduction compared to the control group. The patients with LBP experienced a  
14 substantial reduction when undergoing wet cupping, but there was not a considerable  
15 decrease observed with dry cupping. In addition, only wet cupping therapy groups  
16 displayed a significantly improved quality of life compared to the control group. The study  
17 had a very high heterogeneity, which means there is no standardization in the treatment  
18 protocol in randomized clinical trials. Authors concluded that the meta-analysis  
19 demonstrated the effectiveness of wet cupping therapy effectively in reducing the pain  
20 intensity of LBP. Furthermore, both dry and wet cupping therapy improved the quality of  
21 life for patients with LBP.

22  
23 Szlosek and Campbell (2022) sought to determine whether there is evidence suggesting  
24 that dry cupping is effective in improving pain and function for patients experiencing  
25 plantar fasciitis when compared with therapeutic exercise or electrical stimulation. Three  
26 studies examining the effectiveness of dry cupping for the treatment of plantar fasciitis  
27 were included in this review. Two studies compared dry cupping to therapeutic exercises  
28 and stretching, and one study used electrical stimulation. Authors note that there is  
29 moderate evidence to support the use of dry cupping to improve pain and function in  
30 patients with plantar fasciitis.

31  
32 Mohamed et al. (2023) evaluated the evidence level of the effect of cupping therapy in  
33 managing common musculoskeletal and sports conditions. A total of 2214 studies were  
34 identified through a computerized search, of which 22 met the inclusion criteria. The search  
35 involved randomized and case series studies published between 1990 and 2019. The results  
36 showed that most studies used dry cupping, except five which used wet cupping. Most  
37 studies compared cupping therapy to non-intervention, the remaining studies compared  
38 cupping to standard medical care, heat, routine physiotherapy, electrical stimulation, active  
39 range of motion and stretching, passive stretching, or acetaminophen. Treatment duration  
40 ranged from 1 day to 12 weeks. The evidence of cupping on increasing soft tissue flexibility  
41 is moderate, decreasing low back pain or cervical pain is low to moderate, and treating  
42 other musculoskeletal conditions is very low to low. The incidence of adverse events is

1 very low. Authors concluded that this study provides the first attempt to analyze the  
 2 evidence level of cupping therapy in musculoskeletal and sports rehabilitation. However,  
 3 cupping therapy has low to moderate evidence in musculoskeletal and sports rehabilitation.  
 4

## 5 **PRACTITIONER SCOPE AND TRAINING**

6 Practitioners should practice only in the areas in which they are competent based on their  
 7 education, training and experience. Levels of education, experience, and proficiency may  
 8 vary among individual practitioners. It is ethically and legally incumbent on a practitioner  
 9 to determine where they have the knowledge and skills necessary to perform such services  
 10 and whether the services are within their scope of practice.  
 11

12 It is best practice for the practitioner to appropriately render services to a member only if  
 13 they are trained, equally skilled, and adequately competent to deliver a service compared  
 14 to others trained to perform the same procedure. If the service would be most competently  
 15 delivered by another health care practitioner who has more skill and training, it would be  
 16 best practice to refer the member to the more expert practitioner.  
 17

18 Best practice can be defined as a clinical, scientific, or professional technique, method, or  
 19 process that is typically evidence-based and consensus driven and is recognized by a  
 20 majority of professionals in a particular field as more effective at delivering a particular  
 21 outcome than any other practice (Joint Commission International Accreditation Standards  
 22 for Hospitals, 2020).  
 23

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

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