

1 **Clinical Practice Guideline:**           **Manipulation Under Anesthesia (MUA)**

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

4  
5 **Product:**                               **Specialty**

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8 **GUIDELINES**

9 American Specialty Health – Specialty (ASH) considers one (1) session of MUA medically  
10 necessary for the following indications:

- 11     • Adhesive capsulitis (i.e., frozen shoulder) when there is failure of conservative  
12       management, including medications with or without articular injections, home  
13       exercise programs and physical therapy for at least six to eight weeks at a minimum  
14       (CPT code 23700).
- 15     • Post-traumatic or postoperative arthrofibrosis of the knee (e.g., total knee  
16       replacement, anterior cruciate ligament reconstruction) when there is failure of  
17       conservative management, including exercise and physical therapy per surgeon’s  
18       recommendations (CPT code 27570).
- 19     • Reduction of a displaced fracture (e.g., vertebral, long bones) (CPT codes 22505  
20       and 25675).
- 21     • Reduction of acute/traumatic dislocation (e.g., vertebral, perched cervical facet)  
22       (e.g., CPT code 22505).
- 23     • Chronic contracture of upper or lower extremity joint (e.g., fixed contracture from  
24       a neuromuscular condition) when there is failure of conservative management  
25       including range of motion exercise programs and physical therapy for at least six  
26       to eight weeks at a minimum.

27  
28 MUA is considered safe and effective and is a well-established method of treatment of the  
29 above conditions. When performed for these specific conditions, MUA generally requires  
30 a single session of treatment, most often performed unilaterally, involving a single joint.  
31 Data supporting the need for, and clinical efficacy of multiple, repeat MUA treatment  
32 sessions for these specific conditions, is lacking in the peer-reviewed published medical  
33 literature.

34  
35 ASH considers MUA for acute or chronic pain conditions of any of the following joints  
36 (other than those listed above as medically necessary) as unproven and thus, not medically  
37 necessary:

- 38     • Ankle (CPT code 27860)
- 39     • Cervical, thoracic or lumbar spine (e.g., CPT code 22505)
- 40     • Elbow (CPT code 24300)
- 41     • Finger (e.g., CPT code 26340, 26675)
- 42     • Hip (CPT code 27275)

- 1 • Pelvis, Sacroiliac (CPT code 27198)
- 2 • Temporomandibular (CPT code 21073)
- 3 • Thumb (CPT code 26340)
- 4 • Toe (CPT code 28635, 28665)
- 5 • Wrist (CPT code 25259)

6

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

11

## 12 **DESCRIPTION/BACKGROUND**

13

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

24

25

26 The treatment is typically performed in a hospital or surgery center with the assistance of  
 27 an anesthesiologist. MUA can be performed under varying levels of anesthesia, including  
 28 general anesthesia, conscious sedation, and local anesthesia. General anesthesia is the most  
 29 complete form of anesthesia and requires intubation of the patient to help control their  
 30 breathing and monitor their respiratory function. General anesthesia was more commonly  
 31 used for MUA in the past, but its use for this procedure has declined notably over the last  
 32 ten (10) years. Conscious sedation is an intermediary level of anesthesia where the patient  
 33 is given intravenous or oral sedation that depresses the central nervous system. At this stage  
 34 of anesthesia a patient is conscious and does not require intubation. A patient under  
 35 conscious sedation would not respond to mildly painful stimuli such as being pinched;  
 36 however, they would respond to severely painful stimuli such as undergoing surgery.  
 37 Proponents of MUA claim that conscious sedation allows for more patient feedback during  
 38 treatment than general anesthesia. However, the use of conscious sedation does not allow  
 39 for the same level of patient feedback as manipulation without any anesthesia. Local  
 40 anesthesia is another option for MUA, though it is less frequently used than conscious  
 41 sedation. A local anesthesia involves the injection of an anesthetizing substance at the site  
 where the manipulation will be performed. In this type of anesthesia the patient remains

1 completely awake and aware of the procedure but sensations of pain are blocked in the  
2 specific area of manipulation. In addition, there are inherent risks to any type of anesthesia.

3  
4 Comment on spinal MUA: while MUA of the spine may be considered professionally  
5 recognized by certain physician groups (e.g., chiropractors and osteopaths), it may also  
6 pose a health and safety risk greater than traditional high-velocity, low-amplitude (HVLA)  
7 manipulation for the spine in particular. The use of any anesthesia during joint  
8 manipulation does not allow the same level of patient feedback as manipulation without  
9 anesthesia. Patient feedback during manipulation is an important safeguard in the  
10 prevention of treatment related injury. Although safer than both general anesthesia and  
11 conscious sedation, local anesthesia is often considered inappropriate for MUA of the  
12 spine.

## 13 14 **EVIDENCE REVIEW**

### 15 **Spine**

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

21  
22 An old randomized controlled trial (RCT) by Siehl et al., (1971) evaluated MUA for  
23 patients with spinal nerve root compression. This study could not determine the benefits  
24 of MUA due to the design of the study, which would have required very large differences  
25 between groups to have significance.

26  
27 Review of the literature revealed numerous case series and reports that expounded the  
28 benefits of MUA (Aspegren et al., 1997; Ben-David et al., 1994; Cremata et al., 2005;  
29 Dreyfuss et al., 1995; Herzog, 1999; Maxwell et al., 1994; Tsai and Chou, 2005; West et  
30 al., 1999; Xiong et al., 1998). There were also two non-randomized studies evaluating the  
31 efficacy of MUA. Palmieri and Smoyak (2002) evaluated MUA versus traditional spinal  
32 manipulation in the treatment of low back pain, but their objectives were to evaluate  
33 methods useful for studying the procedure, not to determine the efficacy of MUA for spinal  
34 pain. Although more of the patients reported more improvement in pain with MUA, the  
35 intervention group received treatments other than MUA (e.g., physical therapy) that the  
36 control group did not receive. Due to the design and goal of this study, it is not possible to  
37 attribute the effects seen in the study to MUA. Kohlbeck et al. (2005) found that  
38 manipulation under anesthesia offered benefits exceeding those of traditional spinal  
39 manipulation in chronic low back pain patients. However, this study has many limitations;  
40 the authors state that their pre-study analysis found that a sample size of eighty (80) patients  
41 (half in each group) would be necessary to detect group differences similar to the  
42 differences they found, but their study was much smaller than this. In addition, patient

1 selection protocols allowed patients to choose which therapy they would receive and all of  
2 those with the worst baseline pain chose to receive MUA. As such, the conclusions of this  
3 study cannot be taken to show that MUA is beneficial. Digiorgi (2013) states the evidence  
4 to support the efficacy of MUA of the spine remains largely anecdotal. There is a lack of  
5 high-quality evidence in the peer-reviewed medical literature of the effectiveness of spinal  
6 manipulation under anesthesia. Evidence of spinal manipulation under anesthesia consists  
7 primarily of case reports and uncontrolled case series. Limitations of current literature  
8 include small sample sizes, lack of random assignment, and limited evidence of long term  
9 benefit. Other issues include lack of detail regarding patient selection criteria, and  
10 differences in protocols reported in studies, making generalizations difficult. Guidelines  
11 from the American College of Occupational and Environmental Medicine (2007, 2008)  
12 and the Work Loss Data Institute (2011) state that spinal manipulation under anesthesia is  
13 not recommended. Colorado Division of Workers' Compensation's guidelines on "Low  
14 back pain medical treatment" (2014) did not recommend MUA.

### 15 **Shoulder**

16 In a Cochrane review, Green et al. (2000) examined the effectiveness of common  
17 interventions for shoulder pain. Intervention of interest included NSAIDs, intra-articular  
18 or subacromial glucocorticosteroid injection, oral glucocorticosteroid treatment,  
19 physiotherapy, MUA, hydrodilatation, or surgery. The authors concluded that there is little  
20 evidence to support or refute the effectiveness of common interventions for shoulder pain.  
21 They stated that there is a need for further well-designed clinical trials to establish a  
22 uniform method of defining shoulder disorders. An updated review in 2007 was  
23 withdrawn. A systematic review in BMJ Clinical Evidence (Speed, 2006) found that MUA  
24 plus intra-articular injection is "likely to be beneficial" for persons with frozen shoulder.  
25 The conclusions were based upon the results of 2 randomized controlled trials (RCTs). One  
26 RCT (n = 30) found that, in people with adhesive capsulitis, MUA plus intra-articular  
27 hydrocortisone injection increased recovery rates compared with intra-articular  
28 hydrocortisone injection alone at 3 months (Thomas et al., 1980). Another, weaker RCT  
29 (n = 98) found limited evidence that subjects having MUA plus intra-articular saline  
30 injection versus manipulation alone or manipulation plus intra-articular injection of  
31 methylprednisolone had greater improvements in ROM, pain relief, and return to normal  
32 activities (Hamdan and Al Essa, 2003). The review noted that potential adverse effects of  
33 MUA of the shoulder include intra-articular lesions within the glenohumeral joint (Speed,  
34 2006).

35  
36  
37 Quraishi et al. (2007) assessed the outcome of MUA and hydrodilatation as treatments for  
38 adhesive capsulitis. A total of 36 patients (38 shoulders) were randomized to receive either  
39 method, with all patients being treated in stage II of the disease process. The VAS in the  
40 hydrodilatation group were significantly better than those in the MUA group over the 6-  
41 month follow-up period. The ROM improved in all patients over the 6 months, but was not  
42 significantly different between the groups. At the final follow-up, 94% of patients (17 of

1 18) were satisfied or very satisfied after hydrodilatation compared with 81% (13 of 16) of  
2 those who received MUA. Most patients were treated successfully, but those undergoing  
3 hydrodilatation did better than those who underwent MUA. Kivimäki and colleagues  
4 (2007) examined the effect of MUA in patients with frozen shoulder. A blinded  
5 randomized trial with a 1-year follow-up was performed at 3 referral hospitals. A total of  
6 125 patients with clinically verified frozen shoulder were randomly assigned to the  
7 manipulation group (n = 65) or control group (n = 60). Both the intervention group and the  
8 control group were instructed in specific therapeutic exercises by physiotherapists. Clinical  
9 data were gathered at baseline and at 6 weeks and 3, 6, and 12 months after randomization.  
10 The 2 groups did not differ at any time of the follow-up in terms of shoulder pain or  
11 working ability. Small differences in the ROM were detected favoring the manipulation  
12 group. Perceived shoulder pain decreased during follow-up equally in the 2 groups, and at  
13 1 year after randomization, only slight pain remained. Authors concluded that  
14 manipulation under anesthesia does not add effectiveness to an exercise program  
15 performed by patients.

16  
17 Flannery et al. (2007) examined the influence of timing of MUA for adhesive capsulitis of  
18 the shoulder on the long-term outcome. A total of 180 consecutive patients with a diagnosis  
19 of adhesive capsulitis were selected from a shoulder surgery database; 145 were available  
20 for follow-up after a mean period of 62 months (range of 12 to 125). All patients underwent  
21 MUA with intra-articular steroid injection. A statistically significant improvement in range  
22 of movement, function (Oxford Shoulder Score (OSS)) and VAS was obtained following  
23 manipulation. Ninety percent of the 145 patients who successfully completed the study  
24 were satisfied with the procedure; 89% indicated that they would choose the same  
25 procedure again if the same problem arose in the opposite shoulder. Eighty-three percent  
26 of the patients had MUA performed less than 9 months from onset of symptoms (early  
27 MUA). The remainder had MUA performed after 9 to 40 months (late MUA). Patients who  
28 had early intervention had a significantly better OSS at final follow-up. There was no  
29 significant difference for mobility and pain. Theodorides et al. (2014) aimed to evaluate  
30 and determine the factors that affect short- and long-term outcome following manipulation  
31 under anaesthesia (MUA) of patients with adhesive capsulitis. In total, 295 patients (315  
32 shoulders) were sequentially recruited, and information was collected at baseline, as well  
33 as at a mean follow-up of 28 days and 3.6 years. A significant improvement in OSS and  
34 ROM was noted 1 month post MUA with females benefiting more than males. Long-term  
35 follow-up revealed that the improvement in OSS was maintained. Secondary adhesive  
36 capsulitis significantly reduced the efficacy of MUA as assessed by ROM. Other factors  
37 (age, initial ROM and OSS, and length of symptoms prior to MUA) did not significantly  
38 affect the outcome over the short- or long-term. The findings of the present study show  
39 that all patient groups had a significantly improved ROM and OSS in the short-term with  
40 long-term maintenance of improved OSS. Woods and Loganathan (2017) aimed to address  
41 the issue of why not all patients benefit from MUA. Some have persistent or recurrent  
42 symptoms. There are no clear recommendations in the literature on the optimal

1 management of recurrent frozen shoulder after a MUA. A total of 730 patients (792  
2 shoulders) underwent MUA during the study period. A further MUA was undertaken in  
3 141 shoulders (17.8%), for which we had complete data for 126. The mean improvement  
4 in OSS for all patients undergoing MUA was 16 (26 to 42), and the mean post-operative  
5 OSS in those requiring a further MUA was 14 (28 to 42). Improvement was seen after a  
6 further MUA, regardless both of the outcome of the initial MUA, and of the time of  
7 recurrence. Patients with type-1 diabetes mellitus were at a 38% increased risk of requiring  
8 a further MUA, compared with the 18% increased risk of the group as a whole. Authors  
9 concluded that patients with a poor outcome or recurrent symptoms of a frozen shoulder  
10 after a MUA should be offered a further MUA with the expectation of a good outcome and  
11 a low complication rate.

12  
13 Rangan et al. (2020) compared these two surgical interventions with early structured  
14 physiotherapy plus steroid injection. In this multicentre, pragmatic, three-arm, superiority  
15 randomised trial, patients referred to secondary care for treatment of primary frozen  
16 shoulder were recruited from 35 hospital sites in the UK. Participants were adults ( $\geq 18$   
17 years) with unilateral frozen shoulder, characterised by restriction of passive external  
18 rotation ( $\geq 50\%$ ) in the affected shoulder. Participants were randomly assigned (2:2:1) to  
19 receive manipulation under anaesthesia, arthroscopic capsular release, or early structured  
20 physiotherapy. Both forms of surgery were followed by postprocedural physiotherapy.  
21 Early structured physiotherapy involved mobilisation techniques and a graduated home  
22 exercise programme supplemented by a steroid injection. Both early structured  
23 physiotherapy and postprocedural physiotherapy involved 12 sessions during up to 12  
24 weeks. The primary outcome was the Oxford Shoulder Score. We sought a target  
25 difference of 5 OSS points between physiotherapy and either form of surgery, or 4 points  
26 between manipulation and capsular release. At 12 months, OSS data were available for  
27 189 (94%) of 201 participants assigned to manipulation (mean estimate 38.3 points, 95%  
28 CI 36.9 to 39.7), 191 (94%) of 203 participants assigned to capsular release (40.3 points,  
29 38.9 to 41.7), and 93 (94%) of 99 participants assigned to physiotherapy (37.2 points, 35.3  
30 to 39.2). Eight serious adverse events were reported with capsular release and two with  
31 manipulation. At a willingness-to-pay threshold of £20 000 per quality-adjusted life-year,  
32 manipulation under anaesthesia had the highest probability of being cost-effective (0.8632,  
33 compared with 0.1366 for physiotherapy and 0.0002 for capsular release). Authors  
34 concluded that all mean differences on the assessment of shoulder pain and function (OSS)  
35 at the primary endpoint of 12 months were less than the target differences. Therefore, none  
36 of the three interventions were clinically superior. Arthroscopic capsular release carried  
37 higher risks, and manipulation under anaesthesia was the most cost-effective.

38  
39 Brealey et al. (2020) compared the clinical effectiveness and cost-effectiveness of three  
40 treatments in secondary care for adults with frozen shoulder; to qualitatively explore the  
41 acceptability of these treatments to patients and health-care professionals; and to update a  
42 systematic review to explore the trial findings in the context of existing evidence for the

1 three treatments. Participants were adults (aged  $\geq 18$  years) with unilateral frozen shoulder,  
2 characterised by restriction of passive external rotation in the affected shoulder to  $< 50\%$   
3 of the opposite shoulder, and with plain radiographs excluding other pathology. The  
4 interventions were early structured physiotherapy with a steroid injection, manipulation  
5 under anaesthesia with a steroid injection and arthroscopic capsular release followed by  
6 manipulation. Both of the surgical interventions were followed with post-procedural  
7 physiotherapy. The primary outcome and end point was the Oxford Shoulder Score at 12  
8 months post randomisation. A difference of 5 points between early structured  
9 physiotherapy and manipulation under anaesthesia or arthroscopic capsular release or of 4  
10 points between manipulation under anaesthesia and arthroscopic capsular release was  
11 judged clinically important. The mean age of the 503 participants was 54 years; 319 were  
12 female (63%) and 150 had diabetes (30%). The primary analyses comprised 473  
13 participants (94%). At the primary end point of 12 months, participants randomised to  
14 arthroscopic capsular release had, on average, a statistically significantly higher (better)  
15 Oxford Shoulder Score than those randomised to manipulation under anaesthesia or early  
16 structured physiotherapy. Manipulation under anaesthesia did not result in statistically  
17 significantly better Oxford Shoulder Score than early structured physiotherapy. No  
18 differences were deemed of clinical importance. Serious adverse events were rare but  
19 occurred in participants randomised to surgery (arthroscopic capsular release,  $n = 8$ ;  
20 manipulation under anaesthesia,  $n = 2$ ). Participants in the qualitative study wanted early  
21 medical help and a quicker pathway to resolve their shoulder problem. Nine studies were  
22 identified from the updated systematic review, including UK FROST, of which only two  
23 could be pooled, and found that arthroscopic capsular release was more effective than  
24 physiotherapy in the long-term shoulder functioning of patients, but not to the clinically  
25 important magnitude used in UK FROST. Authors concluded that none of the three  
26 interventions was clearly superior. Early structured physiotherapy with a steroid injection  
27 is an accessible and low-cost option. Manipulation under anaesthesia is the most cost-  
28 effective option. Arthroscopic capsular release carries higher risks and higher costs.

29  
30 Song et al. (2021) aimed to evaluate the effect of MUA with intra-articular steroid injection  
31 (ISI) or not on pain severity and function of the shoulder. Data on 141 patients receiving  
32 MUA with primary frozen shoulder (FS) refractory to conservative treatments for at least  
33 1 month were retrospectively obtained from medical records. Propensity score matching  
34 analysis was performed between patients receiving MUA only and those receiving MUA  
35 plus ISI, and then conducted logistic regression analysis to identify the risk factors for the  
36 need to other treatments during 6-month follow-up. More improvement in terms of the  
37 SPADI pain scores and passive ROM at 2 weeks after first intervention remained in  
38 patients receiving MUA plus ISI after matching. The need to other treatments during 6-  
39 month follow-up occurred in 10.6% patients ( $n = 141$ ). Logistic regression analysis  
40 revealed that a repeat MUA 1 week after first intervention was a protective factor and  
41 duration of disease was the only one risk factor (OR 1.080; 95% CI 1.020-1.144;  $P = .008$ )  
42 for the need to other treatments during follow-up. ISI immediately following MUA

1 provided additional benefits in rapid relief of pain and disability for patients with refractory  
2 FS. Authors suggest that pain and disability of the shoulder may be rapidly alleviated by  
3 an earlier MUA from the onset of the symptoms and a repeat MUA 1 week after first  
4 intervention.

5  
6 Rex et al. (2021) includes a recently completed multicentre randomized controlled trial  
7 (RCT), UK FROST, in the context of existing randomized evidence for the management  
8 of primary frozen shoulder in a systematic review. UK FROST compared the effectiveness  
9 of pre-specified physiotherapy techniques with a steroid injection (PTSI), manipulation  
10 under anaesthesia (MUA) with a steroid injection, and arthroscopic capsular release  
11 (ACR). This review updates a 2012 review focusing on the effectiveness of MUA, ACR,  
12 hydrodilatation, and PTSI. Nine RCTs were included. The primary outcome of patient-  
13 reported shoulder function at long-term follow-up ( $> 6$  months and  $\leq 12$  months) was  
14 reported for five treatment comparisons across four studies. Authors concluded that the  
15 findings from a recent multicentre RCT provided the strongest evidence that, when  
16 compared with each other, neither PTSI, MUA, nor ACR are clinically superior. Evidence  
17 from smaller RCTs did not change this conclusion. The effectiveness of hydrodilatation  
18 based on four RCTs was inconclusive and there remains an evidence gap.

19  
20 Ko et al. (2021) aimed to assess how comorbidities influence the recovery speed and  
21 clinical outcomes after MUA. Between April 2013 and September 2018, 281 consecutive  
22 primary stiff shoulders in the frozen phase treated with MUA were included in this study.  
23 They investigated the comorbidities of patients and divided them into the control ( $n = 203$ ),  
24 diabetes mellitus (DM) ( $n = 32$ ), hyperlipidemia ( $n = 26$ ), and thyroid disorder ( $n = 20$ )  
25 groups. The range of motion (ROM) and clinical scores for each group before MUA and 1  
26 week, 6 weeks, and 3 months after MUA were comparatively analyzed. They identified  
27 the ROM recovery time after MUA and the responsiveness to MUA. Then, subjects were  
28 subdivided into early and late recovery groups based on their recovery time and into  
29 successful and unsuccessful MUA groups based on their responsiveness to MUA.  
30 Significant improvements in ROM and clinical scores at 3 months after MUA were  
31 observed in all groups. Significant differences in ROM among the 4 groups were also  
32 observed during follow-up ( $P < .05$ ). The DM group had significantly lower ROM values,  
33 even at 3 months after MUA, compared with the control group. The ROM recovery speed  
34 after MUA was slowest in the DM group, followed by the thyroid disorder, hyperlipidemia,  
35 and control groups. Most (90.6%) of the DM group experienced late recovery. The  
36 proportion of unsuccessful MUA was higher in the DM and thyroid disorder groups than  
37 that in the control and hyperlipidemia groups ( $P = .004$ ). During follow-up, there were no  
38 differences among groups regarding the visual analog scale, University of California at  
39 Los Angeles shoulder, and Constant scores. Authors concluded that the ROM recovery  
40 speed and responsiveness to MUA for primary stiff shoulder were poorer for the DM and  
41 thyroid disorder groups than for the control group. In particular, compared with any other  
42 disease, outcomes were poorer when the comorbidity was DM. If patients have



1 comorbidities, then they should be informed before MUA that the comorbidity could affect  
2 the outcomes of treatment.

3  
4 Salomon et al. (2022) investigated the efficacy of manipulation under anesthesia (MUA)  
5 compared to other non-surgical therapeutic strategies for patients with frozen shoulder  
6 contracture syndrome (FSCS). Five randomized controlled trials were included. The  
7 overall risk of bias (RoB) was high in 4 out of 5 of the included studies. MUA was found  
8 to be not superior in terms of reduction of pain and improvement of function when  
9 compared to cortisone injections with hydrodilatation and home exercise in the short term  
10 (3 months), and cortisone injections with hydrodilatation in the long term (>6 months).  
11 Moreover, if compared to structured physiotherapy, MUA highlighted a higher Oxford  
12 Shoulder Score at final 1-year follow up. Similar results were obtained for disability, with  
13 statistically no significant long-term (>12 months) differences between MUA and home  
14 exercise or structured physiotherapy. Only two trials reported adverse events. This review  
15 suggested that limited and inconsistent evidence currently exists on the efficacy of MUA  
16 compared to other non-surgical strategies in the management of patients with FSCS. Future  
17 research should focus on clinical trials with higher methodological quality.

18  
19 Evidence in the peer-reviewed published scientific literature supports consideration of  
20 MUA for refractory cases of adhesive capsulitis of the shoulder (Song et al., 2021; Brealey  
21 et al., 2020; Vastamaki and Vastamaki, 2013; Maund, et al., 2012; Kivimaki, et al., 2007;  
22 Wang, et al., 2007; Sheridan and Hannafin, 2006; Farrell, et al., 2005; Hamdan and Essa,  
23 2003). MUA is generally recommended for individuals who do not respond to or who  
24 demonstrate little improvement after conservative treatment.

## 25 26 **Knee**

27 MUA is indicated, with or without arthroscopy for arthrofibrosis of the knee (i.e., post  
28 ACL reconstruction), when there is <90° range of motion following surgery or trauma  
29 despite physical therapy (Magit et al., 2007). Manipulation under anesthesia has also been  
30 used to treat fibroarthrosis following total knee replacement. Following total knee  
31 arthroplasty, some patients who fail to achieve greater than 90 degrees of flexion in the  
32 early peri-operative period may be considered candidates for MUA of the knee.  
33 Manipulation under anesthesia is indicated in total knee arthroplasty having less than 90  
34 degrees ROM 4 to 12 weeks following surgery, with no progression or regression in ROM  
35 (Pariente et al., 2006; Magit et al., 2007). Keating et al. (2007) assessed the outcomes of  
36 manipulation following total knee arthroplasty. A total of 113 knees in 90 patients  
37 underwent manipulation for post-operative flexion of less than or equal to 90 degrees at a  
38 mean of 10 weeks after surgery. Eighty-one (90%) of the 90 patients achieved  
39 improvement of ultimate knee flexion following manipulation. The average improvement  
40 in flexion from the measurement made before manipulation to that recorded at the 5-year  
41 follow-up was 35 degrees. The investigators reported that there was no significant  
42 difference in the mean improvement in flexion when patients who had manipulation within

1 12 weeks post-operatively were compared with those who had manipulation more than 12  
2 weeks post-operatively. Patients who eventually underwent manipulation had significantly  
3 more pain than those who had not had manipulation. The investigators concluded that  
4 manipulation generally increases final flexion following total knee arthroplasty. They  
5 noted that patients with severe pre-operative pain are more likely to require manipulation.

6  
7 Sassoon et al. (2015) investigated the results of closed manipulations performed under  
8 anesthesia (MUA) to evaluate whether it is an effective means to treat posttraumatic knee  
9 arthrofibrosis. Twenty-two patients with a mean age of 40 underwent closed MUA for  
10 posttraumatic knee arthrofibrosis. Injuries included fractures of the femur, tibia, and patella  
11 as well as ligamentous injuries and traumatic arthrotomies. The mean time from treatment  
12 to manipulation was 90 days. Mean follow-up after manipulation was 7 months. The mean  
13 premanipulation ROM arc was  $59 \pm 25$  degrees. The mean intraoperative arc of motion,  
14 achieved at the time of the manipulation was  $123 \pm 14$  degrees. No complications occurred  
15 during the MUA procedure. At the most recent follow-up, the mean ROM arc was  $110 \pm$   
16  $19$  degrees. Tobacco use, associated injuries, elevated body mass index, open fracture, and  
17 advanced age did not impact manipulation efficacy. Additionally, manipulations  
18 performed 90 days or more after surgical treatment provided a benefit equaling those  
19 performed more acutely. Authors concluded that MUA is a safe and effective method to  
20 increase knee ROM in the setting of posttraumatic arthrofibrosis. Improvement in ROM  
21 was noted in all patients.

22  
23 Ekhtiari et al. (2017) reviewed the literature to: (a) describe existing definitions of  
24 arthrofibrosis, and (b) characterize the management strategies and outcomes of  
25 arthrofibrosis treatment in patients post ACL reconstruction. Twenty-five studies of  
26 primarily level IV evidence (88%) were included. A total of 647 patients (648 knees) with  
27 a mean age of  $28.2 \pm 1.8$  years (range 14-62 years) were treated for arthrofibrosis following  
28 ACL reconstruction and followed for a mean  $30.1 \pm 16.9$  months (range 2 months-9.6  
29 years). Definitions of arthrofibrosis varied widely and included subjective definitions and  
30 the Shelbourne classification system. Patients were treated by one or more of: arthroscopic  
31 arthrolysis (570 patients), manipulation under anaesthesia (MUA) (153 patients), oral  
32 corticosteroids (31 patients), physiotherapy (81 patients), drop-casting (17 patients),  
33 epidural therapy combined with inpatient physiotherapy (six patients), and intra-articular  
34 interleukin-1 antagonist injection (four patients). All studies reported improvement in  
35 range of motion post-operatively, with statistically significant improvement reported for  
36 306 patients (six studies, p range  $<0.001$  to  $=0.05$ ), and one study (18 patients) reporting  
37 significantly better results if arthrofibrosis was treated within 8 months of reconstruction  
38 ( $p < 0.03$ ). The greatest improvements for extension loss were seen with drop-casting  
39 (mean  $6.2^\circ \pm 0.6^\circ$  improvement), whereas MUA produced the greatest improvement for  
40 flexion deficit (mean  $47.8^\circ \pm 3.3^\circ$  improvement). Gu et al. (2018) performed a systematic  
41 review of the literature was performed to identify studies that reported clinical outcomes  
42 for patients who underwent MUA for post-operative stiffness treatment. Repeat MUA

1 procedures were included in the study but were analyzed separately. Twenty-two studies  
 2 (1488 patients) reported on range of motion (ROM) after MUA, and 4 studies (81 patients)  
 3 reported ROM after repeat MUA. All studies reported pre-MUA motion of less than 90°,  
 4 while mean ROM at last follow-up exceeded 90° in all studies except 2. For studies  
 5 reporting ROM improvement following repeat MUA, the mean pre-manipulation ROM  
 6 was 80° and the mean post-manipulation ROM was 100.6°.

7  
 8 Authors concluded that MUA remains an efficacious, minimally invasive treatment option  
 9 for post-operative stiffness following TKA. MUA provides clinically significant  
 10 improvement in ROM for most patients, with the best outcomes occurring in patients  
 11 treated within 12 weeks post-operatively. Neuman et al. (2018) completed a study on risk  
 12 factors, outcomes, and timing of MUA after TKA. Clinical variables were compared  
 13 between patients who underwent MUA and those who did not; variables that differed were  
 14 utilized to identify an appropriately matched control group of non-MUA patients. The  
 15 MUA group was divided into early (MUA ≤6 weeks from index) and late (>6 weeks)  
 16 subgroups. Flexion values at multiple time points were compared. In total, 1729 TKA  
 17 patients were reviewed; MUA was performed in 62 patients. TKA patients undergoing  
 18 MUAs were younger, more likely to be current smokers, and more likely to have  
 19 undergone prior knee surgery. Even in patients with severe initial postoperative limitations  
 20 in range of motion, MUA within 6 weeks may allow for final outcomes that are equivalent  
 21 to those experienced by similar patients not requiring manipulation.

22  
 23 Archunan et al. (2021) aimed to ascertain the prevalence, determine the influencing factors,  
 24 and evaluate the efficacy of manipulation under anaesthesia (MUA) as a treatment option.  
 25 For the purpose of the study, stiffness was defined as flexion contracture of >15 degrees  
 26 and/or flexion of <75 degrees. Demographic data included co-morbidities, previous knee  
 27 surgery, pre-operative and post-operative range of movement, anaesthetic techniques and  
 28 use of nerve blocks, type of prosthesis, ligament balancing including release, mobility post-  
 29 surgery, patient motivation, physiotherapy, complications, and final range of motion post-  
 30 MUA. Results Of the 1350 patients evaluated, 33 (2.44%) had stiffness defined by the  
 31 above-outlined criteria and required intervention. Thirty-one patients (2.29%) underwent  
 32 MUA as a first-line treatment. No complications arose following MUA. One patient  
 33 (0.07%) required arthroscopic arthrolysis while another patient (0.07%) required revision  
 34 arthroplasty due to patellar maltracking. Following manipulation, mean flexion contracture  
 35 decreased from 8 degrees to 3.6 degrees, and mean flexion improved from 51.8 degrees to  
 36 93.2 degrees. Arc of motion improved in 100% of patients but it is important to note that  
 37 multiple manipulations were performed in seven patients. Authors concluded that stiffness  
 38 after TKA can be difficult to treat and can result in prolonged morbidity and dissatisfaction.  
 39 This retrospective study highlights the effectiveness of manipulation under anaesthesia as  
 40 a first-line treatment option leading to improved outcomes especially if done early.

1 Sala et al. (2022) completed a retrospective study determined the outcome of MUA and  
2 identified the factors affecting it. The final sample consisted of 150 MUAs performed on  
3 145 patients. The parameters of interest were ROM and Knee Society Score (KSS) or  
4 Oxford Knee Score (OKS). The mean of 26° gain in flexion and the mean of 3° gain in  
5 extension were noticed at post-MUA follow-up when compared with the ROM preceding  
6 MUA. The mean post-MUA-FU flexion was 99° and the mean post-MUA-FU extension  
7 deficit was 4°. KSS (121 vs. 129) and OKS (29 vs. 28) were similar before and after MUA.  
8 The early timing of MUA was associated with better gain in flexion -0.04, while we found  
9 no association between the timing of MUA and flexion after MUA -0.004. High BMI was  
10 associated with better gain in flexion 0.8. Authors found that ROM improved substantially  
11 after MUA. The gain in flexion decreased as the time between TKA and MUA increased.  
12 DeFrance et al. (2022) sought to determine whether MUA was associated with an increase  
13 in the rate of revision TKA within 2 years of MUA. A total of 49,310 patients within a  
14 single institution who underwent primary TKA were identified from 1999 to 2019. Data  
15 were matched at a 1:3 ratio (TKA with and without MUA, respectively) based on age, sex,  
16 and body mass index. A matched comparison cohort was conducted, with the MUA cohort  
17 having 575 patients and the no MUA cohort having 1725 patients. A statistically significant  
18 increase in the rate of noninfectious etiology revision TKA was found in the MUA cohort  
19 (7.3%) compared with the no MUA cohort (4.9%; P=.034). The most common reason for  
20 revision TKA after MUA was persistent stiffness, including arthrofibrosis and ankylosis;  
21 however, aseptic loosening, ligamentous instability, and periprosthetic fracture were found  
22 to be responsible for 21.4% of revision TKA procedures. Although MUA is a commonly  
23 performed procedure for treating stiffness after primary TKA, the orthopedic surgeon  
24 should counsel patients on the association of increased rate of revision TKA after MUA,  
25 most commonly, persistent stiffness.

26  
27 Haffar et al. (2022) performed a systematic review to compare the outcomes of  
28 manipulation under anaesthesia (MUA), arthroscopic lysis of adhesions (aLOA), and  
29 revision TKA (rTKA) for arthrofibrosis and stiffness following TKA. A total of 40 studies  
30 were included: 21 on rTKA, 7 on aLOA, and 14 on MUA. The mean or median post-  
31 operative arc ROM was > 90° in 6/20 (30%) rTKA, 5/7 (71%) aLOA, and 7/10 (70%)  
32 MUA studies. Post-operative Knee Society (KSS) clinical and functional scores were the  
33 greatest in patients who underwent MUA and aLOA. As many as 43% of rTKA patients  
34 required further care compared to 25% of aLOA and 17% of MUA patients. Authors  
35 concluded that stiffness following TKA remains a challenging condition to treat.  
36 Nonetheless, current evidence suggests that patients who undergo rTKA have poorer  
37 clinical outcomes and a greater need for further treatment compared to patients who  
38 undergo MUA or aLOA.

39  
40 Marquez-Lara et al. (2023) evaluated the safety and efficacy of early (<3 mo  
41 postoperatively) manipulation under anesthesia (MUA) for the treatment of knee  
42 arthrofibrosis in adolescent patients. Authors hypothesized that early MUA could restore

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

17  
18 Thomas et al. (2023) compared the 2-year complication rates of arthroscopic lysis of  
19 adhesions (ALA) and MUA and range-of-motion (ROM) outcomes for ALA, early MUA  
20 (<3 months after TKA), and delayed MUA (>3 months after TKA). This retrospective  
21 cohort study included 425 patients undergoing ALA or MUA after primary TKA from  
22 2001 to 2018. Demographics, clinical variables, and complication rates were collected  
23 from clinical records. ALA patients were younger (55.2 versus 58.9 years,  $P < 0.001$ ) and  
24 underwent surgery later from the index TKA (12 versus 1.9 months,  $P < 0.001$ ). The  
25 Charlson Comorbidity Index was higher in the MUA group. Preoperative ROM was  
26 significantly worse in the MUA cohort, but did not differ between groups after the  
27 procedure or at 2 years. Demographics and ROM outcomes were equivalent between early  
28 MUA and delayed MUA. The incidence of repeat arthrofibrosis (7.1%) and revision  
29 arthroplasty (2.4%) was similar between ALA and MUA cohorts while ALA patients had  
30 significantly more surgical site infections (3.8%) compared with MUA patients (0.47%,  $P$   
31 = 0.017). Equivalent ROM outcomes were seen between ALA, early MUA, and delayed  
32 MUA for the treatment of arthrofibrosis after TKA. However, this study demonstrated a  
33 markedly higher complication rate, particularly surgical site infection, after ALA,  
34 suggesting that MUA may be the preferred option for treating arthrofibrosis at both early  
35 and late time points.

36  
37 Published evidence in the medical literature supports MUA as a well-established safe and  
38 effective treatment for arthrofibrosis of the knee (Sala et al., 2022; Haffar, et al., 2022;  
39 Randsborg, et al., 2020; Gu, et al., 2018; Issa, et al., 2014; Pivec et al., 2013; Ghani et al.,  
40 2012; Ipach et al., 2011; Fitzsimmons et al., 2010; Mohammed et al., 2009; Keating et al.,  
41 2007; Magit et al., 2007; Namba and Inacio 2007; Neuman et al., 2018; Gu et al., 2018).

## 1 **Fracture and/or Dislocation**

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

## 8 **Chronic Joint Contracture**

9 A joint contracture is a limitation in the passive range of motion of a joint. Joint  
10 contractures prevent normal movement of the associated body part and can result from a  
11 variety of causes such as spasticity or prolonged immobilization. Intra-articular adhesions  
12 and peri-articular adhesions, as well as capsular, ligament and muscle shortening and  
13 tightness may develop. As a result, activities of daily living and other functions may be  
14 adversely affected due to the decreased mobility. In many cases, contractures can be  
15 successfully treated nonoperatively with aggressive physical therapy or splinting with  
16 restoration of functional range of motion. When conservative treatment fails more  
17 aggressive treatment may necessary and includes anesthetic block, maximal stretching, and  
18 in some cases, serial casting (Garden, 2002). For joint contracture deformities, extra-  
19 articular and intra-articular soft tissue releases are considered standard treatment (Paley,  
20 2003). Surgical treatments include tenotomy, tendon lengthening and joint capsule release.  
21 Manipulation under anesthesia, involving maximal passive stretching may be considered  
22 standard treatment and is often performed in combination with serial casting and/or  
23 surgical release when less aggressive treatments have failed.

## 25 **Elbow**

26 Published peer reviewed supporting the safety and effectiveness of using manipulation  
27 under anesthesia of the elbow is limited to retrospective case series, involve small sample  
28 populations and lack control groups (Araghi et al., 2012; Tan. Et al., 2006; Chao et al.,  
29 2002; Gaur et al., 2003). Few studies support clinical effectiveness for the treatment of  
30 joint stiffness/fibrosis when other conservative measures, such as bracing and splinting,  
31 have failed to improve range of motion. There is insufficient evidence in the peer-reviewed  
32 published literature and lack of consensus among professional societies to support the  
33 effectiveness of MUA as treatment for arthrofibrosis of the elbow. Spitler et al. (2018)  
34 evaluated the safety and efficacy of manipulation under anesthesia (MUA) for  
35 posttraumatic elbow stiffness. Comparison of improvement between the early and late  
36 MUA groups found a significant difference ( $P < 0.001$ ) in mean flexion arc improvement  
37 from premanipulation to postmanipulation, favoring the early group. Authors concluded  
38 that MUA is a safe and effective adjunct to improving motion in posttraumatic elbow  
39 stiffness when used within 3 months from the original injury or time of surgical fixation.  
40 After 3 months, MUA does not reliably increase elbow motion.

## 1 **TMJ**

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

## 13

## 14 **Other Joints and Conditions**

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

## 22

## 23 **PRACTITIONER SCOPE AND TRAINING**

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

29

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

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

40

41 Depending on the practitioner's scope of practice, training, and experience, a member's  
 42 condition and/or symptoms during examination or the course of treatment may indicate the

1 need for referral to another practitioner or even emergency care. In such cases it is prudent  
 2 for the practitioner to refer the member for appropriate co-management (e.g., to their  
 3 primary care physician) or if immediate emergency care is warranted, to contact 911 as  
 4 appropriate. See the *Managing Medical Emergencies (CPG 159 – S)* policy for  
 5 information.

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