

1	Clinical Practice Guideline:	Rolfing
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3	Date of Implementation:	July 13, 2006
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5	Effective Date:	January 29, 2026
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7	Product:	Specialty
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10 GUIDELINES

11 American Specialty Health – Specialty (ASH) considers Rolfing medically necessary as a
12 form of soft tissue mobilization for treatment of soft tissues including muscle and fascia.

14 DESCRIPTION/BACKGROUND

15 Rolfing is the popular name used for structural integration, a manual therapy of bodywork
16 that is based on the idea that human function is improved when the segments of the body
17 are properly aligned. This concept assumes that over time the use of incorrect postures and
18 body alignments when walking, sitting, or doing other activities results in changes in the
19 fascia; it is these changes that result in pain and tension in the body. Fascia is connective
20 tissue mostly made of collagen that covers every muscle, bone, vessel, nerve, and organ in
21 the body. Additionally, in structural integration, fascia plays a key role in maintaining
22 posture and proper movement. The proposed goal of Rolfing is to release the body from
23 these learned patterns of movement that are causing the dysfunction and pain. Proponents
24 of Rolfing purport that through soft tissue manipulation via deep tissue massage and
25 myofascial release, a therapist can reorganize the fascia to allow the muscles to relax. The
26 aim of Rolfing is to integrate parts of the body such that the alignment of the joints results
27 in the most efficient movement within the earth’s gravitational force. It is claimed that a
28 general Rolfing intervention realigns the patient’s body, and the practitioner prescribes
29 new modes of movement. Rolfing practitioners use pressure applied by the fingers,
30 knuckles, and elbows to break the bonds of the fascia so that they can be reorganized.

31
32 The basic certification process for Rolfing in the U.S. takes place at the Rolf Institute of
33 Structural Integration in Boulder, Colorado. The process takes one to two years
34 (approximately 700 hours), at the end of which one achieves basic certification as a Rolfer.
35 For advanced certification, more training is required.

36
37 Rolfing (structural integration) was developed by Dr. Ida Rolf in the 1950s. Dr. Rolf
38 received her PhD in biological chemistry from Columbia University in 1920 and then
39 worked as a researcher at the Rockefeller Institute throughout the 1920s. She became
40 interested in the human body after observing those around her suffer from pain syndromes
41 that modern medicine could not cure. She gained her first exposure to manipulation when
42 she was treated by an osteopathic physician for a respiratory condition, whereupon the

1 doctor performed manipulations to reposition a rib that had been displaced from an earlier
2 injury. However, she disagreed with what she saw as an osteopathic emphasis on solely
3 freeing joint restrictions, as she felt this left out the crucial role of soft tissue in body
4 functioning. Dr. Rolf also familiarized herself with chiropractic, the Alexander technique,
5 and the Feldenkrais method.

6
7 In the 1950s, Dr. Rolf used these concepts to create a ten-session sequence of
8 manipulations she called structural integration. In 1971, she founded the Rolf Institute of
9 Structural Integration, electing some of her students to teach and carry out her work
10 through this institute.

11 **EVIDENCE REVIEW**

12 Two small randomized controlled trials (RCTs) were undertaken in 1988 by Cottingham
13 et al. to evaluate patients with pelvic tilt. The first study examined the use of Rolfing pelvic
14 lift on parasympathetic tone. The outcome measure for this study was the amplitude of the
15 respiratory sinus arrhythmia (RSA). The pelvic lift is a soft tissue manipulation involving
16 a combination of posterior tilting and pelvic traction with moderate pressure to the
17 epigastrium. Their results showed that the pelvic lift technique produced significant
18 autonomic nervous system response in younger patients. The second study examined the
19 impact of Rolfing soft tissue manipulation on healthy men with a pelvic tilt, and once again
20 their outcome measure was the amplitude of the RSA.
21

22
23 One systematic review of the literature on Rolfing and Rolfing techniques was undertaken
24 by Jones (2004). She examined both RCTs by Cottingham et al. as well as the case series
25 by Perry et al. Jones points out that the clinical significance of RSA amplitude and vagal
26 tone (outcome measures for the Cottingham et al. studies) has not been established in the
27 medical literature. As such the results of these two RCTs are limited. In addition, she points
28 out the lack of (and need for) clinical studies on Rolfing in a symptomatic population
29 examining clinically relevant outcomes such as pain.
30

31 James et al. (2009) investigated the effect of rolfing structural integration (RSI) in neck
32 motion and pain levels of 31 subjects who received RSI. This investigation demonstrated
33 that the basic 10 sessions of RSI, when applied by a physical therapist with advanced RSI
34 certification, is capable of significantly decreasing pain and increasing AROM in adult
35 subjects, male and female, with complaints of cervical spine dysfunction regardless of age.
36 Jacobson (2011) reviewed the clinical practice of Structural Integration (SI), an alternative
37 method of soft-tissue manipulation and sensorimotor education, and to summarize the
38 evidence to date for mechanism and clinical efficacy. According to the author, limited
39 preliminary evidence exists for improvements in neuromotor coordination, sensory
40 processing, self-concept, and vagal tone, and for reductions in state anxiety. Preliminary,
41 small sample clinical studies with cerebral palsy, chronic musculoskeletal pain, impaired
42 balance, and chronic fatigue syndrome have reported improvements in gait, pain and range-

1 of-motion, impaired balance, functional status, and well-being. Adverse events are thought
 2 to be mild and transient, although survey data are not available. Contraindications are
 3 thought to be the same as for massage. The author concludes that evidence for clinical
 4 effectiveness and hypothesized mechanisms is severely limited by small sample sizes and
 5 absence of control arms, thus more adequate research is warranted.

6
 7 There was one case series on Rolfing (Perry et al., 1981) that demonstrated Rolfing’s
 8 efficacious effects on the walking and gait abilities of children with cerebral palsy. They
 9 showed that Rolfing led to improved performance in range of motion for the hip, knee, and
 10 ankle for those with mild cerebral palsy. Hansen et al. (2014) aimed to document gait
 11 characteristics of two children with cerebral palsy and the effects of myofascial structural
 12 integration (Rolfing) on gait patterns. Children received 3 months of weekly therapy
 13 sessions by an experienced practitioner. Gait parameters were recorded at baseline and
 14 after treatment using an electronic walkway. Children with cerebral palsy demonstrated
 15 abnormal velocity and cadence, decreased step length and single support times, and
 16 increased double support time. After treatment, both children demonstrated improvement
 17 for 3 months in cadence and double support time. The objective gait analyses demonstrated
 18 temporary improvements after myofascial structural integration in children with spastic
 19 cerebral palsy. These outcomes resulted in another study.

20
 21 Loi et al. (2015) examined myofascial structural integration therapy on gross motor
 22 function and gait of young children with spastic cerebral palsy in a RCT. Participants
 23 ($N = 29$) were enrolled in a randomized controlled trial. The main outcome was the Gross
 24 Motor Function Measure-66 assessed at 3-month intervals. Gait ($n = 8$) was assessed using
 25 the GAITRite® electronic walkway. Parents completed a survey at study conclusion.
 26 Comparing Treatment ($n = 15$) and Waitlist-Control groups ($n = 9$), authors found a
 27 significant main effect of time but no effect of group or time \times group interaction. The
 28 pooled sample ($n = 27$) showed a main effect of time, but no significantly greater change
 29 after treatment than between other assessments. Foot length on the affected side increased
 30 significantly after treatment, likely indicating improvement in the children's ability to
 31 approach a heel strike. Parent surveys indicated satisfaction and improvements in the
 32 children's quality of movement. MSI did not increase the rate of motor skill development
 33 but was associated with improvement in gait quality.

34
 35 Schleich et al. (2025) conducted a retrospective secondary analysis of data drawn from the
 36 archive of clinical records to explore the influence of SI on lower limb mobility, trunk
 37 symmetry, and respiratory thoracic expansion. A total of 563 subjects (aged 18-60 years,
 38 BMI 19-29) who completed 10 Rolfing structural integration (SI) sessions were included.
 39 Outcomes evaluated included passive hip flexion (right/left), passive knee flexion mobility
 40 (right/left), trunk length symmetry, and chest diameter at normal breath as well as in full
 41 inspiration. Wilcoxon signed-rank tests were used for statistical analysis. All parameters
 42 showed statistically significant improvements post-intervention, including increased

1 thoracic expansion, enhanced trunk symmetry, and improved mobility in hip joint flexion
 2 and knee flexion. Ten sessions of SI were associated with statistically significant
 3 improvements in lower limb mobility, trunk symmetry, and respiratory thoracic mobility.
 4 These findings support the role of SI in addressing postural and mobility-related
 5 dysfunctions through fascia-oriented mobilization.

6 7 **PRACTITIONER SCOPE AND TRAINING**

8 Practitioners should practice only in the areas in which they are competent based on their
 9 education training and experience. Levels of education, experience, and proficiency may
 10 vary among individual practitioners. It is ethically and legally incumbent on a practitioner
 11 to determine where they have the knowledge and skills necessary to perform such services.
 12

13 It is best practice for the practitioner to appropriately render services to a patient only if
 14 they are trained, equally skilled, and adequately competent to deliver a service compared
 15 to others trained to perform the same procedure. If the service would be most competently
 16 delivered by another health care practitioner who has more skill and expert training, it
 17 would be best practice to refer the patient to the more expert practitioner.
 18

19 Best practice can be defined as a clinical, scientific, or professional technique, method, or
 20 process that is typically evidence-based and consensus driven and is recognized by a
 21 majority of professionals in a particular field as more effective at delivering a particular
 22 outcome than any other practice (Joint Commission International Accreditation Standards
 23 for Hospitals, 2020).
 24

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

- 5 The Rolf Institute of Structural Integration Website: <https://www.rolf.org/rolfing.php>