Medical Policy

MP 2.01.40
Extracorporeal Shock Wave Treatment for Plantar Fasciitis and Other Musculoskeletal Conditions

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POLICY
Extracorporeal shock wave therapy using either a high- or low-dose protocol or radial extracorporeal shock wave therapy is considered investigational as a treatment of musculoskeletal conditions, including but not limited to plantar fasciitis; tendinopathies including tendinitis of the shoulder, Achilles tendinitis, tendinitis of the elbow (lateral epicondylitis), and patellar tendinitis; stress fractures; avascular necrosis of the femoral head; delayed union and nonunion of fractures; and spasticity.

POLICY GUIDELINES
There is a CPT code for extracorporeal shock wave therapy (ESWT) for plantar fasciitis performed using high energy:

28890 Extracorporeal shock wave, high energy, performed by a physician, requiring anesthesia other than local, including ultrasound guidance, involving the plantar fascia.

There are category III CPT codes for other high-energy ESWT indications:

0101T Extracorporeal shock wave therapy; involving musculoskeletal system, not otherwise specified; high energy
0102T Extracorporeal shock wave therapy; high energy, performed by a physician, requiring anesthesia other than local, involving lateral humeral epicondyle.

Note that high-energy ESWT requires the use of anesthesia and is performed in a hospital or ambulatory surgery center. Low-energy ESWT is usually applied in the office without anesthesia.

There is no specific CPT code for low-energy or radial ESWT. The unlisted CPT code for general musculoskeletal procedure (20999) should be used.

BENEFIT APPLICATION
BLUECARD/NATIONAL ACCOUNT ISSUES
State or federal mandates (eg, Federal Employee Program) may dictate that certain U.S. Food and Drug Administration–approved devices, drugs, or biologics may not be considered investigational, and thus these devices may be assessed only by their medical necessity.
Extracorporeal shock wave treatment for plantar fasciitis may be performed by podiatrists, orthopedic surgeons, and primary care physicians.

**BACKGROUND**

**CHRONIC MUSCULOSKELETAL CONDITIONS**

Chronic musculoskeletal conditions (eg, tendinitis) can be associated with a substantial degree of scarring and calcium deposition. Calcium deposits may restrict motion and encroach on other structures, such as nerves and blood vessels, causing pain and decreased function. One hypothesis is that disruption of calcific deposits by shock waves may loosen adjacent structures and promote resorption of calcium, thereby decreasing pain and improving function.

**Plantar Fasciitis**

Plantar fasciitis is a common ailment characterized by deep pain in the plantar aspect of the heel, particularly on arising from bed. While the pain may subside with activity, in some patients the pain persists, interrupting activities of daily living. On physical examination, firm pressure will elicit a tender spot over the medial tubercle of the calcaneus. The exact etiology of plantar fasciitis is unclear, although repetitive injury is suspected. Heel spurs are a common associated finding, although it is unproven that heel spurs cause the pain. Asymptomatic heel spurs can be found in up to 10% of the population.

**Tendinitis and Tendinopathies**

Common tendinitis and tendinopathy syndromes are summarized in Table 1. Many tendinitis and tendinopathy syndromes are related to overuse injury.

**Table 1. Tendinitis and Tendinopathy Syndromes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Disorder</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Symptoms</th>
<th>Conservative Therapy</th>
<th>Other Therapies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lateral epicondylitis</td>
<td>Lateral elbow (insertion of wrist extensors)</td>
<td>Tenderness over lateral epicondyle and proximal wrist extensor muscle mass; pain with resisted wrist extension with elbow in full extension; pain with passive terminal wrist flexion with elbow in full extension</td>
<td>Rest&lt;br&gt;Activity modification&lt;br&gt;NSAIDs&lt;br&gt;Physical therapy&lt;br&gt;Orthotic devices</td>
<td>Corticosteroid injections; joint débridement (open or laparoscopic)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(“tennis elbow”)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shoulder tendinopathy</td>
<td>Rotator cuff muscle tendons, most commonly supraspinatus</td>
<td>Pain with overhead activity</td>
<td>Rest&lt;br&gt;Ice&lt;br&gt;NSAIDs&lt;br&gt;Physical therapy</td>
<td>Corticosteroid injections</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achilles tendinopathy</td>
<td>Achilles tendon</td>
<td>Pain or stiffness 2-6 cm above the posterior calcaneus</td>
<td>Avoidance of aggravating activities&lt;br&gt;Ice when symptomatic&lt;br&gt;NSAIDs&lt;br&gt;Heel lift</td>
<td>Surgical repair for tendon rupture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disorder</td>
<td>Location</td>
<td>Symptoms</td>
<td>Conservative Therapy</td>
<td>Other Therapies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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<td>-----------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Patellar tendinopathy</td>
<td>Proximal tendon at lower pole of</td>
<td>Pain over anterior knee and patellar tendon; may progress to tendon calcification and/or tear</td>
<td>• Ice</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(&quot;jumper’s knee&quot;)</td>
<td>patella</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Supportive taping</td>
<td>Patellar tendon straps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>NSAIDs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NSAIDs: nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs.

Fracture Nonunion and Delayed Union
The definition of a fracture nonunion remains controversial, particularly the duration necessary to define nonunion. One proposed definition is a failure of progression of fracture healing for at least 3 consecutive months (and at least 6 months after the fracture) accompanied by clinical symptoms of delayed/nonunion (pain, difficulty weight bearing). The following criteria to define nonunion were used to inform this review:

- at least 3 months since the date of fracture;
- serial radiographs have confirmed that no progressive signs of healing have occurred;
- the fracture gap is 1 cm or less; and
- the patient can be adequately immobilized and is of an age likely to comply with nonweight bearing.

The delayed union can be defined as a decelerating healing process, as determined by serial radiographs, together with a lack of clinical and radiologic evidence of union, bony continuity, or bone reaction at the fracture site for no less than 3 months from the index injury or the most recent intervention. (In contrast, nonunion serial radiographs show no evidence of healing.)

Other Musculoskeletal and Neurologic Conditions
Other musculoskeletal conditions include medial tibial stress syndrome, osteonecrosis (avascular necrosis) of the femoral head, coccydynia, and painful stump neuromas. Neurologic conditions include spasticity, which refers to a motor disorder characterized by increased velocity-dependent stretch reflexes. It is a characteristic of upper motor neuron dysfunction, which may be due to a variety of pathologies.

Treatment
Most cases of plantar fasciitis are treated with conservative therapy, including rest or minimization of running and jumping, heel cups, and nonsteroidal-anti-inflammatory drugs. Local steroid injection may also be used. Improvement may take up to 1 year in some cases.

For tendinitis and tendinopathy syndromes, conservative treatment often involves rest, activity modifications, physical therapy, and anti-inflammatory medications (see Table 1).

Extracorporeal Shock Wave Therapy
Also known as orthotripsy, extracorporeal shock wave therapy (ESWT) has been available since the early 1980s for the treatment of renal stones and has been widely investigated for the treatment of biliary stones. ESWT uses externally applied shock waves to create a transient pressure disturbance, which disrupts solid structures, breaking them into smaller fragments, thus allowing spontaneous passage and/or removal of stones. The mechanism by which ESWT might have an effect on musculoskeletal conditions is not well-defined.
Other mechanisms are also thought to be involved in ESWT. Physical stimuli are known to activate endogenous pain control systems, and activation by shock waves may “reset” the endogenous pain receptors. Damage to endothelial tissue from ESWT may result in increased vessel wall permeability, causing increased diffusion of cytokines, which may, in turn, promote healing. Microtrauma induced by ESWT may promote angiogenesis and thus aid healing. Finally, shock waves have been shown to stimulate osteogenesis and promote callous formation in animals, which is the basis for trials of ESWT in delayed union or nonunion of bone fractures.

There are 2 types of ESWT: focused and radial. Focused ESWT sends medium- to high-energy shockwaves of single pressure pulses lasting microseconds, directed on a specific target using ultrasound or radiographic guidance. Radial ESWT (RSW) transmits low- to medium-energy shockwaves radially over a larger surface area. The Food and Drug Administration (FDA) approval was first granted in 2002 for focused ESWT devices and in 2007 for RSW devices.

REGULATORY STATUS
Currently, 6 focused ESWT devices have been approved by FDA through the premarket approval process for orthopedic use (see Table 2). FDA product code: NBN.

Table 2. FDA-Approved Extracorporeal Shock Wave Therapy Devices

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Device Name</th>
<th>Approval Date</th>
<th>Delivery System Type</th>
<th>Indication</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OssaTron® device</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>Electrohydraulic delivery system</td>
<td>• Chronic proximal plantar fasciitis, ie, pain persisting &gt;6 mo and unresponsive to conservative management&lt;br&gt;• Lateral epicondylitis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(HealthTronics)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epos™ Ultra (Dornier)</td>
<td>2002</td>
<td>Electromagnetic delivery system</td>
<td>Plantar fasciitis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sonocur® Basic (Siemens)</td>
<td>2002</td>
<td>Electromagnetic delivery system</td>
<td>Chronic lateral epicondylitis (unresponsive to conservative therapy for &gt;6 mo)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orthospec™ Orthopedic ESWT (Medispec)</td>
<td>2005</td>
<td>Electrohydraulic spark-gap system</td>
<td>Chronic proximal plantar fasciitis in patients ≥18 y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orbasone™ Pain Relief System (Orthometrix)</td>
<td>2005</td>
<td>High-energy sonic wave system</td>
<td>Chronic proximal plantar fasciitis in patients ≥18 y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duolith® SD1 Shock Wave Therapy Device (Storz Medical AG)</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>Electromagnetic delivery system</td>
<td>Chronic proximal plantar fasciitis in patients ≥18 y with history of failed alternative conservative therapies &gt;6 mo</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FDA: Food and Drug Administration.

Both high-dose and low-dose protocols have been investigated. A high-dose protocol consists of a single treatment of high-energy shock waves (1300 mJ/mm²). This painful procedure requires anesthesia. A low-dose protocol consists of multiple treatments, spaced 1 week to 1 month apart, in which lower dose shock waves are applied. This protocol does not require anesthesia. The FDA-labeled indication for the OssaTron® and Epos™ Ultra devices specifically describes a high-dose protocol, while the labeled indication for the Sonocur® device describes a low-dose protocol.

In 2007, Dolorclast® (EMS Electro Medical Systems), a radial ESWT, was approved by FDA through the premarket approval process. Radial ESWT is generated ballistically by accelerating a bullet to hit an
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applicator, which transforms the kinetic energy into radially expanding shock waves. Radial ESWT is described as an alternative to focused ESWT and is said to address larger treatment areas, thus providing potential advantages in superficial applications like tendinopathies. The FDA-approved indication is for the treatment of patients 18 years and older with chronic proximal plantar fasciitis and a history of unsuccessful conservative therapy. FDA product code: NBN.

RATIONALE

This evidence review was created in May 2001 and has been updated regularly with searches using the MEDLINE database. The most recent literature update was performed through April 30, 2018.

This review was informed by a TEC Assessment (2001) that concluded extracorporeal shock wave therapy (ESWT) met TEC criteria as a treatment for plantar fasciitis in patients who had not responded to conservative therapies.¹ Another TEC Assessment (2003) reviewed the subsequent literature on ESWT for musculoskeletal conditions with a focus on 3 conditions: plantar fasciitis, tendinitis of the shoulder, and tendinitis of the elbow.² The 2003 TEC Assessment came to different conclusions, specifically, that ESWT did not meet TEC criteria as a treatment of plantar fasciitis or other musculoskeletal conditions. In 2004, updated TEC Assessments were completed for plantar fasciitis and tendinitis of the elbow.³⁴ These Assessments concluded that ESWT did not meet TEC criteria for the treatment of these conditions.

The most clinically relevant outcome measures of ESWT used for musculoskeletal conditions are pain and functional limitations. Pain is a subjective, patient-reported measure. Therefore, pain outcomes require quantifiable pre- and posttreatment measures. Pain is most commonly measured with a visual analog scale (VAS). Quantifiable pre- and posttreatment measures of functional status are also used, such as 12-Item Short-Form Health Survey and 36-Item Short-Form Health Survey. Minor adverse events of ESWT are common but transient, including local pain, discomfort, trauma, bleeding, and swelling. More serious adverse events of ESWT may potentially include neurologic damage causing numbness or tingling, permanent vascular damage, or rupture of a tendon or other soft tissue structure.

Evidence reviews assess the clinical evidence to determine whether the use of a technology improves the net health outcome. Broadly defined, health outcomes are length of life, quality of life, and ability to function—including benefits and harms. Every clinical condition has specific outcomes that are important to patients and to managing the course of that condition. Validated outcome measures are necessary to ascertain whether a condition improves or worsens; and whether the magnitude of that change is clinically significant. The net health outcome is a balance of benefits and harms.

To assess whether the evidence is sufficient to draw conclusions about the net health outcome of a technology, 2 domains are examined: the relevance and the quality and credibility. To be relevant, studies must represent one or more intended clinical use of the technology in the intended population and compare an effective and appropriate alternative at a comparable intensity. For some conditions, the alternative will be supportive care or surveillance. The quality and credibility of the evidence depend on study design and conduct, minimizing bias and confounding that can generate incorrect findings. The randomized controlled trial (RCT) is preferred to assess efficacy; however, in some circumstances, nonrandomized studies may be adequate. RCTs are rarely large enough or long enough to capture less common adverse events and long-term effects. Other types of studies can be used for these purposes and to assess generalizability to broader clinical populations and settings of clinical practice.
MUSCULOSKELETAL AND NEUROLOGIC CONDITIONS

Clinical Context and Therapy Purpose
The purpose of ESWT in patients who have various musculoskeletal and neurologic conditions is to provide a treatment option that is an alternative to or an improvement on existing therapies.

The question addressed in this evidence review is: Does use of ESWT improve health outcomes in patients who have plantar fasciitis, lateral epicondylitis, tendinopathies (eg, shoulder, Achilles, patellar), medial tibial stress syndrome, osteonecrosis of the femoral head, acute fracture nonunion or delayed union, or spasticity?

The following PICOTS were used to select literature to inform this review.

Patients
The relevant populations of interest are those with plantar fasciitis, lateral epicondylitis, tendinopathies (eg, shoulder, Achilles, patellar), medial tibial stress syndrome, osteonecrosis of the femoral head, acute fracture nonunion or delayed union, or spasticity.

Interventions
The therapy being considered is ESWT.

Comparators
The following therapies and practices are currently being used, ranging from conservative therapies, nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs, and local corticosteroid injection (plantar fasciitis), conservative therapies and nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (lateral epicondylitis, shoulder tendinopathy, Achilles tendinopathy, patellar tendinopathy), conservative therapies only (medial tibial stress syndrome), medication therapy and hip arthroplasty (osteonecrosis of the femoral head), surgery (acute fracture nonunion or delayed union), or spasticity (medication therapy, baclofen).

Outcomes
The general outcomes of interest are reductions in pain and improvements in functional improvement (eg, the range of motion).

Timing
The time frame for outcomes measures varies from months to years.

Setting
ESWT is administered on an outpatient basis over the course of several sessions.

Plantar Fasciitis

Systematic Reviews
Eight studies met the inclusion criteria for the TEC Assessment (2004).³ Five double-blind RCTs, reporting on 992 patients, were considered high quality. Overall, evidence included in this Assessment showed a statistically significant effect on the between-group difference in morning pain measured on a 0-to-10 VAS score. Uncertain was the clinical significance of the change. The absolute value and effect size were small. Complete information on the number needed to treat to achieve 50% to 60% reduction in morning pain came from 2 studies of high-energy ESWT (and including confidential data provided by Dornier). The combined number needed to treat was 7 (95% confidence interval [CI], 4 to 15). Improvements in pain measures were not associated with improvements in function. The effect size for improvement in pain with activity was not significant, based on reporting for 81% of patients in all
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studies and 73% of patients in high-energy ESWT studies. Success in improvement in Roles and Maudsley score was reported for fewer than half the patients: although statistically significant, confidence intervals were wide. Where reported, improvement in morning pain was not accompanied by a significant difference in the quality of life measurement (12-Item Short-Form Health Survey Physical and Mental Component Summary scores) or use in pain medication.

Two recent meta-analyses were published; each included 9 RCTs (8 of the 9 trials were in both meta-analyses). Both meta-analyses used the Cochrane risk of bias tool to assess the quality of included RCTs. Results must be interpreted with caution due to the following limitations: lack of uniform measurement of outcomes, heterogeneity in ESWT protocols (focused and radial, the number of shocks per treatment, treatment duration), and lack of functional outcomes.

The meta-analysis by Sun et al (2017) evaluated the efficacy of all ESWT, then conducted subgroup analyses on the type of ESWT (focused shock wave [FSW], radial shock wave [RSW]). The literature search, conducted through July 2016, identified 9 trials for inclusion (total N=935 patients). An outcome in all 9 trials was “therapeutic success” rate, defined as a proportion of patients experiencing a decrease in VAS pain score from baseline more than a threshold of either at least 50% or at least 60%. Only 4 studies provided data on reducing pain (3 FSW, 1 RSW). Pooled results are summarized in Table 3.

A meta-analysis by Lou et al (2017) evaluated the efficacy of ESWT without local anesthesia in patients with recalcitrant plantar fasciitis. The literature search, conducted through September 2015, identified 9 trials for inclusion (total N=1174 patients). Meta-analyses focused on pain reduction at 12 weeks of follow-up: overall, at first step in the morning, and during daily activities. Three RCTs also provided data to analyze improvement in the Roles and Maudsley score to excellent or good at 12-week follow-up. Analyses are summarized in Table 3.

### Table 3. Meta-Analytic Outcomes for the Use of ESWT for Plantar Fasciitis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Outcomes</th>
<th>No. of Trials</th>
<th>No. of Patients</th>
<th>Odds Ratio</th>
<th>95% CI</th>
<th>$i^2$, %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sun et al (2017)⁵</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Success rate, all ESWT</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>935</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>1.97 to 3.39</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Success rate, FSW</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>474</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>1.49 to 3.16</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Success rate, RSW</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>461</td>
<td>4.63</td>
<td>1.30 to 16.46</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pain reduction, all ESWT</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>559</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>-0.01 to 2.03</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pain reduction, FSW</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>315</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>0.39 to 2.19</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lou et al (2017)⁶</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roles and Maudsley score</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>529</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td>1.26 to 1.81</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pain reduction, overall</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>773</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>1.27 to 1.77</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pain reduction, at first step in morning</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>617</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>1.11 to 1.56</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pain reduction, during daily activities</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>529</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td>1.14 to 1.65</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CI: confidence interval; ESWT: extracorporeal shock wave treatment; FSW: focused shock wave; RSW: radial shock wave.
A systematic review and meta-analysis by Yin et al (2014) evaluated 7 RCTs or quasi-RCTs of ESWT for chronic (≥6 months) recalcitrant plantar fasciitis. Treatment success rate of the 5 trials (n=448 patients) that evaluated low-intensity ESWT showed it was more likely than the control treatment to be successful (pooled relative risk, 1.69; 95% CI, 1.37 to 2.07; p<0.001). In a pooled analysis of 2 trials (n=105 subjects) that evaluated high-intensity ESWT, there was no difference between ESWT and control in treatment success. A strength of this analysis was restricting the population to patients with at least 6 months of symptoms because this clinical population is more difficult to treat and less likely to respond to interventions. However, a weakness was the heterogeneity in the definition of “treatment success” across trials, which makes interpreting the pooled analysis challenging.

Meta-analyses of RCTs published in 2013 have reported that ESWT for plantar fasciitis is better than or comparable to placebo in reducing pain and improving functional status in the short-term. However, RCTs were subject to a number of limitations. They reported inconsistent results, and heterogeneity across them sometimes precluded meta-analysis of pooled data. Outcomes measured and trial protocols (eg, dose intensities, type of shockwaves, the frequency of treatments) also lacked uniformity. Also, given that plantar fasciitis often resolves within a 6-month period, longer follow-up would be required to compare ESWT results with the natural resolution of the condition. The clinical significance of results reported at shorter follow-up (eg, 3 months) is uncertain.

**Randomized Controlled Trials**

**Trials With Sham Controls**

Several representative RCT trials are discussed next. For example, Gollwitzer et al (2015) reported on results of a sham-controlled randomized trial, with patients and outcome assessments blinded, evaluating ESWT for plantar fasciitis present for at least 6 months and refractory to at least 2 nonpharmacologic and 2 pharmacologic treatments. A total of 250 subjects were enrolled (126 in the ESWT group, 124 in the placebo group). The trial’s primary outcome was an overall reduction of heel pain, measured by percentage change of the VAS composite score at 12 weeks. Median decrease for the ESWT group was -69.2% and -34.5% for the placebo group (effect size, 0.603; p=0.003). Secondary outcomes included success rates defined as decreases in heel pain of at least 60% from baseline. Secondary outcomes generally favored the ESWT group. Most patients reported satisfaction with the procedure. Strengths of this trial included intention-to-treat analysis, use of validated outcome measures, and at least some reporting of changes in success rates (rather than percentage decrease in pain) for groups. There was some potential for bias because treating physicians were unblinded.

In 2005, results were reported from the U.S. Food and Drug Administration–regulated trials delivering ESWT with the Orthospec and Orbasone Pain Relief System. In the RCT evaluating Orthospec, investigators conducted a multicenter, double-blind, sham-controlled trial randomizing 172 participants with chronic proximal plantar fasciitis failing conservative therapy to ESWT or to sham treatments. At 3 months, the ESWT arm had lower investigator-assessed pain levels with the application of a pressure sensor (0.94 points lower on a 10-point VAS; 95% CI, 0.02 to 1.87). However, this improvement was not found for patient-assessed activity and function. In the trial supporting the Food and Drug Administration approval of Orbasone, investigators conducted a multicenter, randomized, sham-controlled, double-blind trial evaluating 179 participants with chronic proximal plantar fasciitis. At 3 months, both active and sham groups improved in patient-assessed pain levels on awakening (by 4.6 and 2.3 points, respectively, on a 10-point VAS; absolute difference between groups, 2.3; 95% CI, 1.5 to 3.3). While ESWT was associated with more rapid and statistically significant improvement in a mixed-effects regression model, insufficient details were provided to evaluate the analyses.
Gerdesmeyer et al (2008) reported on a multicenter, double-blind RCT of RSW conducted for Food and Drug Administration premarket approval of the Dolorclast. The trial randomized 252 patients, 129 to RSW and 122 to sham treatment. Patients had heel pain for at least 6 months and had failed at least 2 nonpharmacologic and 2 pharmacologic treatments. Over 90% of patients were compliant with the 3 weekly treatment schedule. Outcome measures were composite heel pain (pain on first steps of the day, with activity and as measured with Dolormeter), change in VAS pain score, and Roles and Maudsley score measured at 12 weeks and 12 months. Success was defined as a reduction of 60% or more in 2 of 3 VAS scores, or patient ability to work and complete activities of daily living, treatment satisfaction, and requiring no further treatment. Secondary outcomes at 12 weeks included changes in Roles and Maudsley score, 36-Item Short-Form Health Survey Physical Component Summary score, 36-Item Short-Form Health Survey Mental Component Summary score, investigator’s and patient’s judgment of effectiveness, and patient recommendation of therapy to a friend. At 12-week follow-up, RSW resulted in a decrease of the composite VAS score by 72.1% vs 44.7% after placebo (p=0.022). Success rates for the composite heel pain score were 61% and 42% (p=0.002). Statistically significant differences were noted in all secondary measures. A number of limitations prevent definite conclusions from being reached: the limited data on specific outcomes (eg, presenting percent changes rather than actual results of measures); inadequate description of prior treatments; use of a composite outcome measure; no data on the use of rescue medication; and uncertainty in the clinical significance of changes in outcome measures.

Several smaller trials (≤50 patients) have shown inconsistent results.15-18

Trials With Active Comparators
Radwan et al (2012) compared ESWT with endoscopic plantar fasciotomy in 65 patients who had refractory plantar fasciitis and had failed at least 3 lines of treatment in the preceding 6 months. Outcome measures included a 0-to-100 VAS assessing morning pain, the American Orthopaedic Foot and Ankle (AOFAS) Ankle-Hindfoot Scale score, and patient subjective assessment using the 4-item Roles and Maudsley score. Improvements were similar in both treatment groups at the 1-year follow-up; however, a larger proportion of patients in the surgery group continued to report success at years 2 and 3 compared with those of the ESWT group.

RCTs comparing ESWT and RSW with corticosteroid injection and conservative treatment (exercise, orthotic support) have been performed, with mixed findings.20,21 As the follow-up period for these studies is 3 months or less, the clinical significance of these results are uncertain.22

Nonrandomized Studies
Nonrandomized studies have reported outcomes after ESWT for plantar fasciitis, but given the availability of randomized trials, such studies do not provide additional evidence on ESWT’s efficacy compared with alternatives.

Section Summary: Plantar Fasciitis
Numerous RCTs were identified, including several well-designed double-blinded RCTs, that evaluated ESWT for the treatment of plantar fasciitis. Two systematic reviews and meta-analyses, including 9 RCTs each, have been conducted. While 8 of 9 of the same trials were included in each meta-analysis, pooled results were inconsistent. One meta-analysis reported that ESWT reduced pain, while another reported nonsignificant pain reduction. Reasons for the differing results included lack of uniformity in the definitions of outcomes and heterogeneity in ESWT protocols (focused vs radial, number and duration of shocks per treatment, number of treatments). In studies reporting a benefit, the magnitude of effect for some or all outcomes was of uncertain clinical significance. Definitive, clinically meaningful treatment
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benefits at 3 months are not apparent, nor is it evident that the longer term disease natural history is altered with ESWT. Currently, it is not possible to determine whether ESWT improves outcomes for patients with plantar fasciitis.

Lateral Epicondylitis

Systematic Reviews

Six randomized, double-blinded, placebo-controlled trials enrolling 808 patients with lateral epicondylitis (tendinitis of the elbow) met inclusion criteria for the TEC Assessment (2004). Four trials were rated good quality and are summarized next. Three trials used low-energy ESWT and one used high-energy ESWT. Two trials reported positive effects on pain, 1 trial had mixed results, and another large sham-controlled study reported negative results with ESWT.

In the Sonocur trial (2002), 114 patients were randomized to low-energy ESWT or sham ESWT for 3 treatment sessions administered at 1-week intervals. The main outcome measures were percent response on a self-reported pain scale (at least 50% improvement on 0-to-100 VAS) and change in Upper Extremity Function Scale (UEFS) scores. Results for the 2 main outcome measures at 3 months showed greater improvement in the ESWT group. The response rate was 60% in the active treatment group and 29% in the placebo group (p<0.001). UEFS score improved by 51% in the active treatment group and by 30% in the placebo group (p<0.05).

Rompe et al (2004) randomized 78 tennis players to 3 treatments at weekly intervals of low-energy or sham ESWT. Outcomes included pain ratings during wrist extension and Thomsen Provocation Test score, Roles and Maudsley score, UEFS score, grip strength, and satisfaction with a return to activities. At the 3-month follow-up, the ESWT group significantly improved on all outcomes except grip strength compared with placebo. Treatment success (at least a 50% decrease in pain) was 65% for the ESWT group and 28% for the placebo group (p<0.01); and 65% of the ESWT group, compared with 35% of the placebo group, expressed satisfaction with their return to activities (p=0.01).

The OssaTron trial (2000) randomized 183 patients to a single session of high-energy or sham ESWT. Treatment success was a 50% improvement on investigator- and patient-assessed pain using a 0-to-10 VAS and no or rare use of pain medication. At the 8-week follow-up, the ESWT group had a greater rate of treatment success (35%) than the placebo group (22%; p<0.05). The main driver for group differences in treatment success was the investigator-assessed pain (48% vs 29%, respectively; p<0.01); self-assessment of pain (81% vs 70%, respectively; p=0.06) and nonuse of pain medication (81% vs 70%, respectively; p=0.09) improved only marginally.

Haake et al (2002) randomized 272 patients to 3 sessions of low-energy or sham ESWT. Treatment success was defined as achieving a Roles and Maudsley score of 1 or 2 with no need for additional treatments. At 12 weeks, the ESWT success rate was 25.8% and the placebo success rate was 25.4%. The percentage of Roles and Maudsley scores below 3 did not differ between groups at either the 12-week (31.7% ESWT vs 33.1% placebo) or 1-year (65.7% ESWT vs 65.3% placebo) follow-ups. Moreover, the groups did not differ on any of 5 pain assessment measures or on grip strength.

Other systematic reviews published since the 2004 Assessment have reached similar conclusions. A Cochrane review by Buchbinder et al (2005) concluded, “there is ‘Platinum’ level evidence [the strongest level of evidence] that shock wave therapy provides little or no benefit regarding pain and function in lateral elbow pain.” A systematic review by Dingemanse et al (2014), which evaluated electrophysical therapies for epicondylitis, found conflicting evidence on the short-term benefits of ESWT. No evidence demonstrated any long-term benefits with ESWT over placebo for epicondylitis treatment.
### Randomized Controlled Trials

Several small RCTs on ESWT for lateral epicondylitis have been published since the 2004 TEC Assessment.

Yang et al (2017) published results from an RCT (N=30) comparing RSW plus physical therapy with physical therapy alone in patients with lateral epicondylitis. Outcomes included VAS pain and grip strength. Significant differences were seen in grip strength by 12 weeks of follow-up; the mean difference in grip strength between groups was 7.7 (95% CI, 1.3 to 14.2), favoring RSW. Significant differences in VAS pain (10-point scale) were not detected until 24 weeks of follow-up; the mean difference between groups was -1.8 (95% CI, -3.0 to -0.5), favoring RSW.

A small RCT by Capan et al (2016) comparing RSW (n=28) with sham RSW (n=28) for lateral epicondylitis did not find significant differences between groups in grip strength or function. However, this trial might have been underpowered to detect a difference.

Lizis (2015) compared ESWT with therapeutic ultrasound among 50 patients who had chronic tennis elbow. For most pain measures assessed, the pain was lower in the ESWT group immediately posttreatment and at 3 months, except pain on gripping, which was higher in the ESWT group. While trial results favored ESWT, it had a high risk of bias, in particular, due to lack of blinding of participants and outcome assessors, which make interpretation of results difficult.

Gunduz et al (2012) compared ESWT with 2 active comparators. This trial randomized 59 patients with lateral epicondylitis to ESWT, physical therapy, or a single corticosteroid injection. Outcome measures were VAS pain, grip strength, and pinch strength by dynamometer. The authors reported that VAS pain scores improved significantly in all 3 groups at all 3 follow-up time points out to 6 months, but reported no between-group differences. No consistent changes were reported for grip strength or on ultrasonography.

Staples et al (2008) reported on a double-blind controlled trial of ESWT for epicondylitis in 68 patients. Patients were randomized to 3 ESWT treatments or 3 treatments at a subtherapeutic dose at weekly intervals. There were significant improvements in most of the 7 outcome measures for both groups over 6 months of follow-up but no between-group differences. The authors found little evidence to support the use of ESWT for this indication.

Pettrone and McCall (2005) reported on results from a multicenter, double-blind, randomized trial of 114 patients receiving ESWT in a “focused” manner (2000 impulses at 0.06 mj/mm² without local anesthesia) weekly for 3 weeks or placebo. Patients were followed for 12 weeks, and benefit demonstrated with the following outcomes: VAS pain (0-10 points) declined at 12 weeks in the treatment group from 7.4 to 3.8; among placebo patients, from 7.6 to 5.1. A reduction in pain on the Thomsen Provocation Test of at least 50% was demonstrated in 61% of those treated compared with 29% in the placebo group. Mean improvement on a 10-point UEFS activity score was 2.4 for ESWT-treated patients compared with 1.4 in the placebo group—a difference at 12 weeks of 0.9 (95% CI, 0.18 to 1.6). Although this trial found a benefit of ESWT for lateral epicondylitis over 12 weeks, the placebo group also improved significantly; whether the natural history of disease was altered with ESWT is unclear.

### Nonrandomized Studies

Nonrandomized observational studies have reported functional outcomes after ESWT for epicondylitis; however, these studies provide limited evidence on the effectiveness of ESWT for lateral epicondylitis compared with other therapies.
Section Summary: Lateral Epicondylitis
The most direct evidence on the use of ESWT to treat lateral epicondylitis comes from multiple small RCTs, which did not consistently show outcome improvements beyond those seen in control groups. The highest quality trials tend to show no benefit, and systematic reviews have generally concluded that the evidence does not support a treatment benefit.

Shoulder Tendinopathy
Numerous small RCTs have evaluated ESWT for shoulder tendinopathy, primarily calcific, and noncalcific tendinopathy of the rotator cuff. Several systematic reviews are discussed below, along with select RCTs published after the last systematic review’s literature search cutoff point.

Systematic Reviews
A systematic review and network meta-analysis of RCTs by Wu et al (2017) compared the effectiveness of nonoperative treatments for chronic calcific tendinitis. The literature review, conducted through April 2016, identified 14 RCTs (total N=1105 patients) for inclusion. Treatments included in the network meta-analysis were ultrasound-guided needling (UGN), RSW, high-energy FSW (H-FSW), low-energy FSW (L-FSW), ultrasound therapy, and transcutaneous electrical nerve stimulation. Trials either compared the treatments with each other or with sham/placebo. Outcomes were pain (VAS range, 0 [no pain] to 10 [worst pain]), functional assessment (Constant-Murley Score [CMS], up to 100 [asymptomatic]), and calcific deposit change (“no change,” “partial resolution,” or “complete resolution,” assessed by radiograph or ultrasound). Treatments most effective in reducing pain and resolving calcific deposits were UGN, RSW, H-FSW. The only treatment significantly improving function was H-FSW. Table 4 lists the treatments, from most effective to the least effective, by outcome, as determined by network meta-analysis.

Table 4. Ranking of Nonoperative Treatments for Chronic Calcific Tendinitis, by Outcome

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pain Reduction (8 Trials)</th>
<th>Functional Assessment (7 Trials)</th>
<th>Calcific Deposit Change (14 Trials)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Treatment</td>
<td>Difference From Control (95% CrI)</td>
<td>Difference From Control (95% CrI)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UGN</td>
<td>8.0 (4.9 to 11.1)</td>
<td>H-FSW 25.1 (10.3 to 40.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RSW</td>
<td>6.1 (3.9 to 8.3)</td>
<td>TENS 8.7 (-13.5 to 30.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H-FSW</td>
<td>4.2 (2.0 to 6.4)</td>
<td>L-FSW 7.6 (-7.2 to 22.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TENS</td>
<td>3.2 (-0.1 to 6.5)</td>
<td>Ultrasound 3.3 (-15.0 to 21.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L-FSW</td>
<td>1.9 (-0.4 to 4.3)</td>
<td>TENS 1.9 (-0.8 to 4.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ultrasound</td>
<td>1.1 (-1.7 to 3.9)</td>
<td>L-FSW 1.2 (0.1 to 2.2)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


A systematic review and network meta-analysis of RCTs by Arirachakaran et al (2017) evaluated ESWT, ultrasound-guided percutaneous lavage (UGPL), subacromial corticosteroid injection (SAI), and combined treatments for rotator cuff calcific tendinopathy. The literature search, conducted through September 2015, identified 7 RCTs for inclusion. Six of the trials had ESWT as 1 treatment arm, with the following comparators: placebo (4 trials), UGPL plus ESWT (1 trial), and UGPL plus SAI (1 trial). One trial compared UGPL plus SAI with SAI alone. Outcomes were CMS (5 trials), VAS pain (5 trials), and size of calcium deposit (4 trials). Network meta-analysis results are summarized below:
Extracorporeal Shock Wave Treatment for Plantar Fasciitis and Other Musculoskeletal Conditions

- VAS pain:
  - ESWT, UGPL plus SAI, and SAI alone were more effective in reducing pain than placebo
  - Compared with each other, ESWT, UGPL plus SAI, and SAI alone did not differ statistically
- CMS:
  - ESWT was statistically more effective than placebo
  - No other treatment comparisons differed statistically
- Size of calcium deposit:
  - UGPL plus SAI was statistically more effective than placebo and SAI alone
  - ESWT was statistically better than SAI alone, but not more effective than placebo.

In a systematic review by Yu et al (2015) of RCTs of various passive physical modalities for shoulder pain, which included 11 studies considered at low risk of bias, 5 studies reported on ESWT. Three, published from 2003 to 2011, assessed calcific shoulder tendinopathy, including 1 RCT comparing high-energy ESWT with low-energy ESWT (N=80), 1 RCT comparing RSW with sham ESWT (N=90), and 1 RCT comparing high-energy ESWT with low-energy ESWT and sham ESWT (N=144). All 3 trials reported statistically significant differences between groups for change in VAS score for shoulder pain.

Bannuru et al (2014) published a systematic review of RCTs comparing high-energy ESWT with placebo or low-energy ESWT for the treatment of calcific or noncalcific shoulder tendinitis. All 7 studies comparing ESWT with placebo for calcific tendinitis reported significant improvements in pain or functional outcomes associated with ESWT. Only high-energy ESWT was consistently associated with significant improvements in both pain and functional outcomes. Eight studies comparing high- with low-energy ESWT for calcific tendinitis did not demonstrate significant improvements in pain outcomes, although shoulder function improved. Trials were reported to be of low quality with a high risk of bias.

In another meta-analysis of RCTs comparing high-energy with low-energy ESWT, Verstraelen et al (2014) evaluated 5 studies (total N=359 patients) on calcific shoulder tendinosis. Three were considered high quality. High-energy ESWT was associated with significant improvements in functional outcomes, with a mean difference at 3 months of 9.88 (95% CI, 0.04 to 10.72; p<0.001). High-energy ESWT was more likely to lead to resolution of calcium deposits at 3 months (pooled odds ratio, 3.4; 95% CI, 1.35 to 8.58; p=0.009). The pooled analysis could not be performed for 6-month follow-up data.

In a systematic review and meta-analysis, Ioppolo et al (2013) identified 6 RCTs that compared ESWT with sham treatment or placebo for calcific shoulder tendinopathy. Greater shoulder function and pain improvements were reported at 6 months with ESWT than placebo. Most studies were considered low quality.

Huisstede et al (2011) published a systematic review of RCTs that included 17 RCTs on calcific (n=11) and noncalcific (n=6) tendinopathy of the rotator cuff. Moderate-quality evidence was found for the efficacy of ESWT vs placebo for calcific tendinopathy, but not for noncalcific tendinopathy. High-frequency ESWT was found to be more efficacious than low-frequency ESWT for calcific tendinopathy.

**Randomized Controlled Trials**

An RCT by Kvalvaag et al (2017) randomized patients with subacromial shoulder pain to RSW plus supervised exercise (n=74) or to sham treatment plus supervised exercise (n=69). Patients received 4 treatments of RSW or sham at 1-week intervals. After 24 weeks of follow-up, both groups improved from baseline, with no significant differences between groups. Within a prespecified subgroup of patients with calcification in the rotator cuff, there was a statistically significant improvement in the group receiving ESWT compared with sham treatment (p=0.18). After 1 year, there was no statistically
significant difference in improvements between RSW and sham when groups were analyzed together and separately.

An RCT by Kim et al (2016) evaluated the use of ESWT in patients with calcific tendinitis. All patients received nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs, transcutaneous electrical nerve stimulation, and ultrasound therapy (N=34). A subset (n=18) also received ESWT, 3 times a week for 6 weeks. CMS was measured at 2, 6, and 12 weeks. Both groups improved significantly from baseline. The group receiving ESWT improved significantly more than the control group; however, the lack of a sham control limits interpretability of results.

The following are select trials included in the systematic reviews described above.

Kim et al (2014) compared UGPL plus SAI with ESWT in patients who had unilateral calcific shoulder tendinopathy and ultrasound-documented calcifications of the supraspinatus tendon. Sixty-two patients were randomized. Fifty-four patients were included in the data analysis (8 subjects were lost to follow-up). ESWT was performed for 3 sessions once weekly. The radiologic evaluation was blinded, although it was not specified whether evaluators for pain and functional outcomes were blinded. After an average follow-up of 23.0 months (range, 12.1-28.5 months), functional outcomes improved in both groups: for the UGPL plus SAI group, scores on the American Shoulder and Elbow Surgeons scale improved from 41.5 to 91.1 (p=0.001) and on the Simple Shoulder Test from 38.2% to 91.7% (p=0.03). In the ESWT group, scores on the American Shoulder and Elbow Surgeons scale improved from 49.9 to 78.3 (p=0.026) and on the Simple Shoulder Test from 34.0% to 78.6% (p=0.017). Similarly, VAS pain scores improved from baseline to the last follow-up in both groups. At the last follow-up visit, calcium deposit size was smaller in the UGPL plus SAI group (0.5 mm) than in the ESWT group (5.6 mm; p=0.001).

An example of a high-energy vs low-energy trial is that by Schofer et al (2009), which assessed 40 patients with rotator cuff tendinopathy. An increase in function and reduction of pain were found in both groups (p<0.001). Although improvement in the Constant score was greater in the high-energy group, there were no statistically significant differences in any outcomes studied (Constant score, pain, subjective improvement) at 12 weeks, or at 1 year posttreatment.

At least 1 RCT has evaluated patients with bicipital tendinitis of the shoulder. This trial by Liu et al (2012) randomized 79 patients with tenosynovitis to ESWT or to sham treatment. ESWT was given for 4 sessions over 4 weeks. Outcomes were measured at up to 12 months using a VAS for pain and the L’Insalata Shoulder Questionnaire. The mean decrease in the VAS score at 12 months was greater for the ESWT group (4.24 units) than for the sham group (0.47 units; p<0.001). There were similar improvements in the L’Insalata Shoulder Questionnaire, with scores in the ESWT group improving by 22.8 points.

Section Summary: Shoulder Tendinopathy

A number of small RCTs, summarized in several systematic reviews and meta-analyses, have evaluated the use of ESWT to treat shoulder tendinopathy. A network meta-analyses focused on 3 outcomes: pain reduction, functional assessment, and change in calcific deposits. One network meta-analysis separated trials using H-FSW, L-FSW, and RSW. It reported that the most effective treatment for pain reduction was UGN, followed by RSW and H-FSW. The only treatment showing a benefit in functional outcomes was H-FSW. For the largest change in calcific deposits, the most effective treatment was UGN, followed by RSW and H-FSW. Although some trials have reported a benefit for pain and functional outcomes, particularly for high-energy ESWT for calcific tendinopathy, many available trials have been considered poor quality. More high-quality trials are needed to determine whether ESWT improves outcomes for shoulder tendinopathy.
Achilles Tendinopathy
Evidence for the use of ESWT for Achilles tendinopathy consists of systematic reviews, an RCT published after the reviews, and nonrandomized studies.

Systematic Reviews
Mani-Babu et al (2015) reported on results of a systematic review of studies evaluating ESWT for lower-limb tendinopathies.51 Reviewers included 20 studies, 11 of which evaluated ESWT for Achilles tendinopathy (5 RCTs, 4 cohort studies, 2 case-control studies). In the pooled analysis, reviewers reported that evidence was limited, but showed that ESWT was associated with greater short-term (<12 months) and long-term (>12 months) improvements in pain and function compared with nonoperative treatments, including rest, footwear modifications, anti-inflammatory medication, and gastrocnemius-soleus stretching and strengthening. Reviewers noted that findings from RCTs of ESWT for Achilles tendinopathy were contradictory, but that some evidence supported short-term improvements in function with ESWT. Reviewers warned that results be interpreted cautiously due to the heterogeneity in patient populations (age, insertional vs mid-portion Achilles tendinopathy) and treatment protocols.

Al-Abbad and Simon (2013) conducted a systematic review of 6 studies on ESWT for Achilles tendinopathy.52 Selected for the review were 4 small RCTs and 2 cohort studies. Satisfactory evidence was found in 4 studies demonstrating the effectiveness of ESWT in the treatment of Achilles tendinopathy at 3 months. However, 2 RCTs found no significant difference between ESWT and placebo in the treatment of Achilles tendinopathy. These trials are described next.53,54

Randomized Controlled Trials
Lynen et al (2017) published results from an RCT comparing 2 peri-tendinous hyaluronan injections (n=29) with 3 ESWT applications (n=30) for the treatment of Achilles tendinopathy.55 The primary outcome was percent change in VAS pain score at the 3-month follow-up. Other measurements included the Victorian Institute of Sports Assessment–Achilles, clinical parameters (redness, warmth, swelling, tenderness, edema), and patients’ and investigators’ impression of treatment outcome. Follow-up was conducted at 4 weeks, 3 months, and 6 months. Pain decreased in both groups from baseline, though percent decrease in pain was statistically larger in the hyaluronan injections group than in the ESWT group at all follow-up time points. Secondary outcomes also showed larger improvements in the hyaluronan injections group.

The 2 trials described next were included in the systematic reviews.

Rasmussen et al (2008) reported on a single-center, double-blind controlled trial with 48 patients, half randomized after 4 weeks of conservative treatment to 4 sessions of active RSW and half to sham ESWT.54 The primary end point was AOFAS score measuring function, pain, and alignment and VAS pain score. AOFAS score after treatment increased from 70 to 88 in the ESWT group and from 74 to 81 in the control (p=0.05). The pain was reduced in both groups, with no statistically significant difference between groups. The authors suggested that the AOFAS might not be appropriate to evaluate treatment of Achilles tendinopathy.

Costa et al (2005) reported on a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial of ESWT for chronic Achilles tendon pain treated monthly for 3 months.51 The trial randomized 49 participants and was powered to detect a 50% reduction in VAS pain scores. No differences in pain relief at rest or during sports participation were found at 1 year. Two older ESWT-treated participants experienced tendon ruptures.
**Nonrandomized Studies**

Lee et al (2017) studied factors that affect immediate (1 week after last treatment) and long-term (mean 26 months after last treatment) success of ESWT for chronic refractory Achilles tendinopathy. Patients with “poor” or “fair” grades on Roles and Maudsley assessment after conservative treatment for Achilles tendinopathy (N=33 patients, 45 feet) were treated weekly with ESWT to a maximum of 12 sessions. Success was defined as Roles and Maudsley scores of “good” or “excellent.” Thirty-two (71%) feet were considered successfully treated at the long-term follow-up assessment. Factors predicting immediate success included retrocalcaneal enthesophyte on x-ray, the presence of abnormal ultrasonography echogenicity, and shorter duration of soreness after first ESWT. The only factor predicting long-term success was the shorter duration of soreness after first ESWT.

Wu et al (2016) compared the effect of ESWT on insertional Achilles tendinopathy with or without Haglund deformity. A total of 67 patients were enrolled, 30 with and 37 without the deformity. Patients received weekly ESWT for 5 weeks. The Victorian Institute of Sports Assessment–Achilles scores improved significantly in both groups, regardless of the presence or absence of the deformity.

**Section Summary: Achilles Tendonopathy**

Two systematic reviews of RCTs and an RCT published after the systematic reviews, and nonrandomized studies have evaluated the use of ESWT for Achilles tendinopathy. In the most recent systematic review, a pooled analysis found that ESWT reduced both short- and long-term pain compared with nonoperative treatments, although these reviewers warned that results were inconsistent across the RCTs and that there was heterogeneity across patient populations and treatment protocols. An RCT published after the systematic review compared ESWT with hyaluronan injections and reported improvements in both treatment groups, although significantly higher in the injection group.

**Patellar Tendinopathy**

Evidence for the use of ESWT for patellar tendinopathy consists of systematic reviews, an RCT published after the reviews, and a nonrandomized study.

**Systematic Reviews**

Van Leeuwen et al (2009) conducted a literature review to study the effectiveness of ESWT for patellar tendinopathy and to draft a treatment protocol. Reviewers found that most of the 7 selected studies had methodologic deficiencies, small numbers and/or short follow-up periods, and variation in treatment parameters. Reviewers concluded ESWT appears to be a safe and promising treatment but could not recommend a treatment protocol.

In the systematic review of ESWT for lower-extremity tendonopathies (previously described), Mani-Babu et al (2015) identified 7 studies of ESWT for patellar tendinopathy (2 RCTs, 1 quasi-RCT, 1 retrospective cross-sectional study, 2 prospective cohort studies, 1 case-control study). The 2 RCTs came to different conclusions: one found no difference in outcomes between ESWT and placebo at 1, 12, or 22 weeks, whereas the other found improved outcomes on vertical jump test and Victorian Institute of Sport Assessment–Patellar scores at 12 weeks with ESWT compared with placebo. Two studies that evaluated outcomes beyond 24 months found ESWT comparable to patellar tenotomy surgery and better than nonoperative treatments.

**Randomized Controlled Trials**

An RCT by Thijs et al (2017) compared the use of ESWT plus eccentric training (n=22) with sham shock wave therapy plus eccentric training (n=30) for the treatment of patellar tendinopathy. Patients were physically active with a mean age 28.6 years (range, 18–45 years). ESWT and sham shock wave were
administered in 3 sessions, once weekly. Patients were instructed to perform eccentric exercises, 3 sets of 15 repetitions twice daily for 3 months on a decline board at home. Primary outcomes were Victorian Institute of Sport Assessment–Patellar score and pain score during functional knee loading tests (10 decline squats, 3 single leg jumps, 3 vertical jumps). Measurements were taken at baseline, 6, 12, and 24 weeks. There were no statistically significant differences between the ESWT and sham shock wave groups for any of the primary outcome measurements at any follow-up except for the vertical jump test at week 6.

In an RCT of patients with chronic patellar tendinopathy (N=46), despite at least 12 weeks of nonsurgical management, Smith and Sellon (2014) reported that improvements in pain and functional outcomes were significantly greater (p<0.05) with plasma-rich protein injections than with ESWT at 6 and 12 months, respectively.60

Nonrandomized Studies
Williams et al (2017) investigated whether the location of the patellar tendinopathy impacted the response to ESWT.61 All 40 patients underwent a magnetic resonance imaging scan. The scan showed that 20 patients had tendon involvement and 20 patients had retropatella fat pad extension. All patients underwent RSW. If there was no improvement of symptoms following RSW, patients were offered arthroscopic débridement. Seventeen of the 20 patients with tendon involvement responded to the RSW and needed no further treatment. None of the patients with retropatella fat extension responded to RSW.

Section Summary: Patellar Tendinopathy
The trials on the use of ESWT for patellar tendinopathy have reported inconsistent results and were heterogeneous in treatment protocols and lengths of follow-up. One nonrandomized study has suggested that the location of the patellar tendinopathy might impact the response to ESWT.

Medial Tibial Stress Syndrome
Newman et al (2017) published a double-blind, sham-controlled randomized trial on the use of ESWT for the treatment of 28 patients with medial tibial stress syndrome (MTSS; commonly called shin splints).62 Enrolled patients had running-related pain for at least 21 days confined to the posteromedial tibia, lasting for hours or days after running. Patients received treatments (ESWT or sham) at weeks 1, 2, 3, 5, and 9 and were instructed to keep activity levels as consistent as possible. At week 10 measurements, there was no difference between the treatment and control groups in self-reported pain during bone pressure, muscle pressure, or during running. There was no difference in pain-limited running distances between groups.

Rompe et al (2010) published a report on the use of ESWT in medial tibial stress syndrome.63 In this nonrandomized cohort study, 47 patients with MTSS for at least 6 months received 3 weekly sessions of RSW and were compared with 47 age-matched controls at 4 months. Mild adverse events were noted in 10 patients: skin reddening in 2 patients and pain during the procedure in 8 patients. Patients rated their condition on a 6-point Likert scale. Successful treatment was defined as self-rating “completely recovered” or “much improved.” The authors reported a success rate of 64% (30/47) in the treatment group compared with 30% (14/47) in the control group. In a comment, Barnes (2010) raised several limitations of this nonrandomized study, including the possibility of selection bias.64

Section Summary: Medial Tibial Stress Syndrome
Evidence for the use of ESWT for MTSS includes a small RCT and a small nonrandomized study. The RCT showed no differences in self-reported pain measurements between study groups. The nonrandomized trial reported improvements with ESWT, but selection bias limited the strength of the conclusions.
Osteonecrosis of the Femoral Head

A systematic review by Zhang et al (2016) evaluated evidence on the use of ESWT for osteonecrosis of the femoral head. The literature search, conducted through July 2016, identified 17 studies for inclusion (9 open-label studies, 4 RCTs, 2 cohort studies, 2 case reports). Study quality was assessed using the Oxford Centre of Evidence-Based Medicine Levels of Evidence (I = highest quality and V = lowest quality, and each level can be subdivided a through c). Four studies were Ib, 2 studies were Iib, and 11 studies were IV. Most studies included patients with Association Research Circulation Osseous categories I through III (out of 5 stages of osteonecrosis). Outcomes in most studies were VAS pain score and Harris Hip Score, a composite measure of pain and hip function. Reviewers concluded that ESWT can be a safe and effective method to improve motor function and relieve pain, particularly in patients with early-stage osteonecrosis. Studies that included imaging results showed that bone marrow edema could be relieved, but that necrotic bone was not reversed. Evidence limitations included the heterogeneity of treatment protocol (numbers of sessions, energy intensities, focus sizes differed among studies) and most studies were of low quality.

A systematic review of ESWT for osteonecrosis (avascular necrosis) of the femoral head was conducted by Alves et al (2009). The literature search conducted through 2009 identified 5 articles, all from non-U.S. sites (2 RCTs, 1 comparative study, 1 open-label study, 1 case report; total N=133 patients). Of the 2 RCTs, 1 randomized 48 patients to the use of concomitant alendronate; both arms received ESWT treatments and therefore ESWT was not a comparator. The other RCT compared ESWT with a standard surgical procedure. All results noted a reduction in pain during the trial, which the authors attributed to ESWT. However, reviewers, when discussing the limitations of the available evidence, noted a lack of double-blind designs, small numbers of patients enrolled, short follow-up times, and nonstandard interventions (eg, energy level, the number of treatments).

An example of a comparative study included in the Zhang review was published by Chen et al (2009). In this study of 17 patients with bilateral hip osteonecrosis, 1 hip was treated with total hip arthroplasty while the other was treated with ESWT. Each patient was evaluated at baseline and after treatment using VAS score for pain and Harris Hip Score. There was a significant reduction in scores before and after both treatments. Hips treated with ESWT were also evaluated for radiographic reduction of bone marrow edema on magnetic resonance imaging, which also appeared to be reduced. A comparison of ESWT data with total hip arthroplasty data showed the magnitude of improvement was greater for the ESWT-treated hips. However, treatment allocations were not randomized. The hip with the greater degree of disease was treated with surgery in each case. Moreover, the time between hip interventions within the same patient averaged 17.3 months (range, 6-36 months); in all but 1 case, surgery preceded ESWT. Conclusions about the superiority of either intervention could not be made.

Han et al (2016) evaluated the effect of 2 energy intensities of ESWT on early-stage (the Association Research Circulation Osseous categories I through III) osteonecrosis of the femoral head. One arm of the trial (n=15) received 1000 shocks per session with an energy flux density of 0.12 mJ/mm² and the other arm (n=15) received 1000 shocks per session with an energy flux density of 0.32 mJ/mm². Outcomes included VAS pain and Harris Hip Score; they were measured at baseline, and at 1, 3, and 6 months. Pain significantly decreased and hip functional scores significantly increased in both treatment groups at each follow-up measurement. The authors concluded that lower energy levels of ESWT might be effective in treating early-stage osteonecrosis of the femoral head.

Section Summary: Osteonecrosis of the Femoral Head

The body of evidence on the use of ESWT for osteonecrosis of the femoral head consists of 2 systematic reviews of small, mostly nonrandomized studies. Many of the studies were low quality and lacked
comparators. While most studies reported favorable outcomes with ESWT, limitations such as the heterogeneity in the treatment protocols, patient populations, and lengths of follow-up make conclusions on the efficacy of ESWT for osteonecrosis uncertain.

**Nonunion or Delayed Union of Acute Fracture**

The evidence for the use of ESWT for nonunion or delayed union fractures consists of a systematic review of an RCT and case series, and 2 RCTs published after the review.

**Systematic Reviews**

Zelle et al (2010) published a review of the English and German medical literature on ESWT for the treatment of fractures and delayed union/nonunion. Limiting the review to studies with more than 10 patients, reviewers identified 10 case series and 1 RCT. The number of treatment sessions, energy levels, and definitions of nonunion varied across studies; union rates after the intervention were likewise defined heterogeneously, ranging from 40.7% to 87.5%. Reviewers concluded the overall quality of evidence was conflicting and of poor quality.

**Randomized Controlled Trials**

The RCT in the Zelle et al (2010) review reported on the use of ESWT in acute long bone fractures. Wang et al (2007) randomized 56 trauma patients with femur or tibia fractures to a single ESWT treatment following surgical fixation while still under anesthesia. Patients in the control group underwent surgical fixation but did not receive the ESWT. Patients were evaluated for pain and percent weight-bearing capability by an independent, blinded evaluator at 3, 6, and 12 months. Radiographs taken at these same intervals were evaluated by a radiologist blinded to study group assignment. Both groups showed significant improvements in pain scores and weight-bearing status. Between-group comparisons of VAS pain and weight bearing favored ESWT patients at each interval. At 6 months, patients who had received ESWT had VAS scores of 1.2 compared with 2.5 in the control group (p<0.001); mean percentage of weight bearing at 6 months was 87% and 78%, respectively (p=0.01). Radiographic evidence of union at each interval also favored the ESWT group. At 6 months, 63% (17/27) of the treatment group achieved fracture union compared with 20% (6/30) in the control group (p<0.001). The authors noted some limitations of the trial: the small number of patients enrolled, surgeries performed by multiple surgeons, and questions about the adequacy of randomization.

RCTs published after the review are described next. They include the multicenter RCT by Caccio et al (2009), which randomized 126 patients into 3 groups: low-energy ESWT, high-energy ESWT therapy, or surgery. Nonunion fractures were defined as at least 6 months without evidence of radiographic healing. The primary end point was radiographic evidence of healing. Secondary end points were pain and functional status, collected by blinded evaluators. Neither patients nor treating physicians were blinded. At 6 months, healing rates in the low-energy ESWT, high-energy ESWT, and surgical arms were similar (70%, 71%, 73%, respectively). All groups’ healing rates improved at 12- and 24-month follow-ups, without significant between-group differences. Secondary end points of pain and disability were also similar. Lack of blinding might have led to differing levels of participation in other aspects of the treatment protocol.

A study by Zhai et al (2016) evaluated the use of human autologous bone mesenchymal stem cells combined with ESWT for the treatment of nonunion long bones. Nonunion was defined as 6 or more months post fracture with no evidence of additional healing in the past 3 months. Patients were randomized to high-energy ESWT (n=31) or human autologous mesenchymal stem cells plus ESWT (n=32). ESWT was administered every 3 days, 4 times for upper-limb nonunion and 5 times for lower-limb nonunion. Outcome measures were no pain, no abnormal mobility, an x-ray showing blurred
fracture line, and upper-limb holding 1 kg for 1 minute or lower-limb walking for 3 minutes. Success was defined as meeting all 4 criteria at 12 months. The human autologous stem cells plus ESWT group experienced an 84% healing rate. The ESWT alone group experienced a 68% healing rate (p<0.05).

**Section Summary: Nonunion or Delayed Union of Acute Fracture**

The evidence on the use of ESWT for the treatment of fractures or for fracture nonunion or delayed union includes several relatively small RCTs with methodologic limitations (eg, heterogeneous outcomes and treatment protocols), along with case series. The available evidence does not permit conclusions on the efficacy of ESWT in fracture nonunion, delayed union, or acute long bone fractures.

**Spasticity**

*Systematic Reviews*

Lee et al (2014) conducted a meta-analysis of studies evaluating ESWT for patients with spasticity secondary to a brain injury. Studies included evaluated ESWT as sole therapy and reported pre- and postintervention Modified Ashworth Scale (MAS) scores. Five studies were selected, 4 examining spasticity in the ankle plantar flexor and one examining spasticity in the wrist and finger flexors; 3 studies evaluated poststroke spasticity and 2 evaluated spasticity associated with cerebral palsy. Immediately post-ESWT, MAS scores improved significantly compared with baseline (standardized mean difference, -0.792; 95% CI, -1.001 to -0.583; p<0.001). Four weeks post-ESWT, MAS scores continued to demonstrate significant improvements compared with baseline (standardized mean difference, -0.735; 95% CI, -0.951 to -0.519; p<0.001). A strength of this meta-analysis was its use of a consistent and well-definable outcome measure. However, the MAS does not account for certain clinically important factors related to spasticity, including pain and functional impairment.

*Randomized Controlled Trials*

The efficacy and safety of RSW in the treatment of spasticity in patients with cerebral palsy were examined in a small European RCT. As reported by Vidal et al (2011), the 15 patients in this trial were divided into 3 groups (ESWT in a spastic muscle, ESWT in both spastic and antagonistic muscle, placebo ESWT) and treated in 3 weekly sessions. Spasticity was evaluated in the lower limbs by passive range of motion with a goniometer and in the upper limbs with the Ashworth Scale (0 [not spasticity] to 4 [severe spasticity]) at 1, 2, and 3 months posttreatment. The blinded evaluation showed significant differences between the ESWT and placebo groups for range of motion and Ashworth Scale score. For the group in which only the spastic muscle was treated, there was a 1-point improvement on the Ashworth Scale (reported significant vs placebo); for the group with both spastic agonist and antagonist muscles treated, there was a 0.5-point improvement (p=NS vs placebo); and for the placebo group, there was no change. The significant improvements were maintained at 2 months posttreatment, but not at 3 months.

*Noncomparative Studies*

Daliri et al (2015) evaluated the efficacy of a single session of ESWT for the treatment of poststroke wrist flexor spasticity in a single-blinded trial in which each patient received sham control and active stimulation. Fifteen patients at a mean 30 months poststroke were included, each of whom received 1 sham stimulation followed 1 week later by 1 active ESWT treatment. Investigators were not blinded. Outcomes evaluated included MAS score to evaluate spasticity intensity, the Brunnstrom Recovery Stage tool to assess motor recovery, and the neurophysiological measure of Hmax/Mmax to measure alpha motoneuron excitability. MAS scores and Brunnstrom Recovery Stage scores did not improve after sham treatment. MAS scores improved significantly from baseline (mean, 3) to post active treatment (mean scores, 2, 2, and 2 immediately posttherapy, 1 week posttherapy, and 5 weeks posttherapy,
respectively; p<0.05). The Hmax/Mmax ratio improved from 2.30 before therapy to 1 the week after active ESWT (p=0.047). Brunnstrom scores did not significantly improve after active ESWT. Given the lack of a control group, this study provides limited evidence on the comparative efficacy of ESWT for poststroke spasticity.

Santamato et al (2014) evaluated outcomes after a single session of ESWT for poststroke plantar flexor spasticity (equinus foot) in 23 subjects. Subjects with gastrocnemius/soleus Heckmann scores on ultrasound from I to III (maximum score, IV [very high muscle echo intensity due to fat and fibrosis]) had significant improvements in MAS scores from baseline to immediately post-ESWT (3.5 to 2.1, p<0.01) and from baseline to 30 days post-ESWT (3.5 to 2.6, p<0.05). Those with a Heckmann score of IV showed improvements in MAS scores from baseline to immediately post-ESWT (4.7 to 3.3, p<0.05), but 30-day scores did not differ significantly from baseline. Results were similar for passive ankle dorsiflexion scores.

**Section Summary: Spasticity**

A relatively small body of evidence, with limited RCT evidence, is available on the use of ESWT for spasticity. Several studies have demonstrated improvements in spasticity measures after ESWT. More controlled trials in larger populations are needed to determine whether ESWT leads to clinically meaningful improvements in pain and/or functional outcomes for spasticity.

**ESWT for Other Conditions**

ESWT has been investigated in small studies for other conditions, including coccydynia in a case series of 2 patients, painful neuromas at amputation sites in an RCT assessing 30 subjects, and chronic distal biceps tendinopathy in a case-control study of 48 patients.

The systematic review of ESWT for lower-extremity tendinopathies (previously described) by Mani-Babu et al (2015) reviewed 2 studies of ESWT for greater trochanteric pain syndrome, including 1 quasi-RCT comparing ESWT with home therapy or corticosteroid injection and 1 case-control study comparing ESWT with placebo. ESWT was associated with some benefits compared with placebo or home therapy.

**SUMMARY OF EVIDENCE**

For individuals who have plantar fasciitis who receive ESWT, the evidence includes 2 recent systematic reviews containing 9 RCTs each (8 overlapping RCTs). Relevant outcomes are symptoms, functional outcomes, quality of life, medication use, and treatment-related morbidity. While most of the same trials were included in both meta-analyses, pooled results were inconsistent. One meta-analysis reported that ESWT was beneficial in reducing pain, while the other reported nonsignificant findings in pain reduction. Reasons for the differing results include lack of uniformity in the definitions of outcomes, and heterogeneity in ESWT protocols (focused vs radial, number and duration of shocks per treatment, number of treatments). The evidence is insufficient to determine the effects of the technology on health outcomes.

For individuals who have lateral epicondylitis who receive ESWT, the evidence includes small RCTs. Relevant outcomes are symptoms, functional outcomes, quality of life, medication use, and treatment-related morbidity. Overall, although some RCTs have demonstrated benefits in pain and functional outcomes associated with ESWT, the limited amount of high-quality RCT evidence precludes conclusions about the efficacy of ESWT for lateral epicondylitis. The evidence is insufficient to determine the effects of the technology on health outcomes.

For individuals who have shoulder tendinopathy who receive ESWT, the evidence includes 2 network meta-analyses as well as several systematic reviews and meta-analyses of RCTs. Relevant outcomes are
symptoms, functional outcomes, quality of life, medication use, and treatment-related morbidity. The network meta-analyses focused on 3 outcomes: pain reduction, functional assessment, and change in calcific deposits. One network meta-analysis separated trials using high-energy focused ESWT (H-FSW), low-energy ESWT, and radial ESWT (RSW). This analysis reported the most effective treatment for pain reduction was ultrasound-guided needling, followed by RSW and H-FSW. The only treatment showing a benefit in functional outcomes was H-FSW. For the largest change in calcific deposits, the most effective treatment was ultrasound-guided needling, followed by RSW, then H-FSW. Many of the RCTs were judged of poor quality. The evidence is insufficient to determine the effects of the technology on health outcomes.

For individuals who have Achilles tendinopathy who receive ESWT, the evidence includes systematic reviews of RCTs, an RCT published after the systematic review, and nonrandomized studies. Relevant outcomes are symptoms, functional outcomes, quality of life, medication use, and treatment-related morbidity. In the most recent systematic review, a pooled analysis found that ESWT reduced both short- and long-term pain compared with nonoperative treatments, although reviewers warned that results were inconsistent across the RCTs and that there was heterogeneity across studies (e.g., patient populations, treatment protocols). An RCT published after the systematic review compared ESWT with hyaluronan injections and reported improvements in both treatment groups, although the improvements were significantly higher in the injection group. The evidence is insufficient to determine the effects of the technology on health outcomes.

For individuals who have patellar tendinopathy who receive ESWT, the evidence includes systematic reviews of small studies, an RCT published after the systematic review, and a nonrandomized study. Relevant outcomes are symptoms, functional outcomes, quality of life, medication use, and treatment-related morbidity. The studies reported inconsistent results. Many had methodologic deficiencies such as small numbers, short follow-up periods, and heterogeneous treatment protocols. Results from a nonrandomized study suggested that the location of the patellar tendinopathy might impact the response to ESWT (patients with retropatella fat extension did not respond to RSW compared with patients with tendon involvement). The evidence is insufficient to determine the effects of the technology on health outcomes.

For individuals who have medial tibial stress syndrome who receive ESWT, the evidence includes a small RCT and a small nonrandomized cohort study. Relevant outcomes are symptoms, functional outcomes, quality of life, medication use, and treatment-related morbidity. The RCT reported no difference in self-reported pain between study groups. The cohort study reported improvements with ESWT, although selection bias impacted the strength of the conclusions. The available evidence is limited and inconsistent; it does not permit conclusions about the benefits of ESWT for medial tibial stress syndrome. The evidence is insufficient to determine the effects of the technology on health outcomes.

For individuals who have osteonecrosis of the femoral head who receive ESWT, the evidence includes 2 systematic reviews of small, mostly nonrandomized studies. Relevant outcomes are symptoms, functional outcomes, quality of life, medication use, and treatment-related morbidity. While many of the studies have suggested that ESWT might be effective in improving motor function and reducing pain, particularly in patients with early-stage osteonecrosis, the studies were judged of low quality based on lack of blinding, lack of comparators, small sample sizes, short follow-up, and variations in treatment protocols. The evidence is insufficient to determine the effects of the technology on health outcomes.

For individuals who have nonunion or delayed union who receive ESWT, the evidence includes a systematic review of an RCT and several case series, as well as 2 RCTs published after the systematic review. Relevant outcomes are symptoms, functional outcomes, quality of life, medication use, and
treatment-related morbidity. Reviewers concluded that the evidence was inconsistent and of poor quality. Data pooling was not possible due to the heterogeneity of outcome definitions and treatment protocols. The evidence is insufficient to determine the effects of the technology on health outcomes.

For individuals who have spasticity who receive ESWT, the evidence includes RCTs and systematic reviews. Relevant outcomes are symptoms, functional outcomes, quality of life, medication use, and treatment-related morbidity. As a treatment for spasticity, several small studies have demonstrated ESWT provides short-term improvements in Modified Ashworth Scale scores, but direct evidence on the effect of ESWT on more clinically meaningful measures (eg, pain, function) are lacking. Differences in treatment parameters among studies, including energy dosage, method of generating and directing shock waves, and use or absence of anesthesia, limit generalizations about the evidence base. The evidence is insufficient to determine the effects of the technology on health outcomes.

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

PRACTICE GUIDELINES AND POSITION STATEMENTS

American College of Foot and Ankle Surgeons
Thomas et al (2010) revised guidelines on the treatment of heel pain on behalf of the American College of Foot and Ankle Surgeons.80 The guidelines identified extracorporeal shock wave therapy (ESWT) as a third tier treatment modality in patients who have failed other interventions, including steroid injection. The guidelines recommended ESWT as a reasonable alternative to surgery.

National Institute for Health and Care Excellence
The National Institute for Health and Care Excellence has published guidance on ESWT for a number of applications.

- A guidance issued in 2003 stated that current evidence on safety and efficacy for treatment of calcific tendonitis of the shoulder “appears adequate to support the use of the procedure.”81
- The 2 guidance documents issued in 2009 stated that current evidence on the efficacy of ESWT for refractory tennis elbow and plantar fasciitis “is inconsistent.”82,83
- A guidance issued in 2011 stated that evidence on the efficacy and safety of ESWT for refractory greater trochanteric pain syndrome “is limited in quality and quantity.”84
- A guidance issued in 2016 stated that current evidence on the efficacy of ESWT for Achilles tendinopathy “is inconsistent and limited in quality and quantity.”85

Canadian Agency for Drugs and Technologies in Health
A 2007 summary by the Canadian Agency for Drugs and Technologies in Health (CADTH) noted that results from randomized trials of ESWT for plantar fasciitis have been conflicting.86 The report noted that the “lack of convergent findings from randomized trials of ESWT for chronic plantar fasciitis suggests uncertainty about its effectiveness. The evidence reviewed ... does not support the use of this technology for this condition.”

Similarly, a 2007 report by CADTH on ESWT for chronic lateral epicondylitis noted conflicting results from randomized trials (RCTs), with half showing no benefit over placebo for any outcome measures.87 The report noted that “the lack of convincing evidence regarding its effectiveness does not support the use of ESWT for CLE [chronic lateral epicondylitis].”

A third 2007 summary by CADTH concluded that “the current evidence supports the use of high-energy ESWT for chronic calcific rotator cuff tendonitis that is recalcitrant to conventional conservative
treatment, although more high-quality RCTs with larger sample sizes are required to provide more convincing evidence."\(^8\)

A 2016 update from CADTH addressed the use of shockwave therapy for pain associated with upper-extremity orthopedic disorders.\(^8\) Based on results from 7 systematic reviews (with overlapping randomized controlled trials), the Agency concluded the following (see Table 5).

### Table 5. Conclusions on the Use of ESWT for Upper-Extremity Pain

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>Evidence</th>
<th>Comparator</th>
<th>Conclusions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Shoulder</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calcific tendonitis</td>
<td>Systematic reviews</td>
<td>Placebo</td>
<td>Effective in reducing pain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noncalcific tendonitis</td>
<td>Systematic reviews</td>
<td>Placebo or other treatments</td>
<td>No significant benefit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tendonitis</td>
<td>Single RCTs</td>
<td>Exercise or radiotherapy</td>
<td>No significant benefit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tendonitis</td>
<td>1 RCT</td>
<td>Transcutaneous electric nerve stimulation</td>
<td>Effective in reducing pain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elbow</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lateral epicondylitis</td>
<td>Systematic reviews</td>
<td>Placebo</td>
<td>Inconclusive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lateral epicondylitis</td>
<td>Single RCTs</td>
<td>Physical therapy or percutaneous tenotomy</td>
<td>No significant benefit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lateral epicondylitis</td>
<td>Single RCTs</td>
<td>Corticosteroid injections</td>
<td>Inconclusive</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ESWT: extracorporeal shockwave treatment; RCT: randomized controlled trial.

### U.S. PREVENTIVE SERVICES TASK FORCE RECOMMENDATIONS

Not applicable.

### MEDICARE NATIONAL COVERAGE

There is no national coverage determination. In the absence of a national coverage determination, coverage decisions are left to the discretion of local Medicare carriers.

### ONGOING AND UNPUBLISHED CLINICAL TRIALS

Some currently ongoing and unpublished trials that might influence this review are listed in Table 6.

### Table 6. Summary of Key Trials

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NCT No.</th>
<th>Trial Name</th>
<th>Planned Enrollment</th>
<th>Completion Date</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ongoing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NCT02424084</td>
<td>Effects of Extracorporeal Shock Wave Therapy in Bone Microcirculation</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>Dec 2017 (ongoing)</td>
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<tr>
<td>NCT02757664</td>
<td>Shock Wave Therapy, Associated to Eccentric Strengthening Versus Isolated Eccentric Strengthening for Treating Insertional Achilles Tendinopathy: Double Blinded Randomized Clinical Trial</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>Sep 2018</td>
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</table>
### Extracorporeal Shock Wave Treatment for Plantar Fasciitis and Other Musculoskeletal Conditions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NCT Number</th>
<th>Study Title</th>
<th>Trial Duration</th>
<th>Completion Date</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NCT02668510</td>
<td>A Randomized Controlled Trial Comparing Extracorporeal Shock Wave Therapy with Platelet Rich Plasma versus Extracorporeal Shock Wave Therapy in a High Demand Cohort with Resistant Plantar Fasciitis</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>Dec 2018</td>
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<tr>
<td>NCT02546128</td>
<td>LEICSTES=LEICeSter Tendon Extracorporeal Shock Wave Studies Assessing the Benefits of the Addition of Extracorporeal Shock Wave Treatment to a Home-Rehabilitation Programme for Patients with Tendinopathy</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>Jun 2020</td>
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<tr>
<td>NCT03472989</td>
<td>The Effectiveness of Radial Extracorporeal Shockwave Therapy (rESWT), Sham- rESWT, Standardized Exercise Program or Usual Care for Patients With Plantar Fasciopathy. Study Protocol for a Double-blind, Randomized Sham-Controlled Trial</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>Feb 2021</td>
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<tr>
<td>NCT02613455</td>
<td>Prospective Randomized Trial Comparing Corticosteroid Injection to High Energy Extracorporeal Shock Wave Therapy for Lateral Epicondylitis</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>Dec 2016 (unknown)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NCT: national clinical trial.

### REFERENCES


16. Greve JM, Grecco MV, Santos-Silva PR. Comparison of radial shockwaves and conventional physiotherapy for treating plantar fasciitis. *Clinics (Sao Paulo).* Feb 2009;64(2):97-103. PMID 19219314


**CODES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CPT</td>
<td>28890</td>
<td>Extracorporeal shock wave, high energy, performed by a physician, requiring anesthesia other than local, including ultrasound guidance, involving the plantar fascia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0101T</td>
<td>Extracorporeal shock wave therapy; involving musculoskeletal system, not otherwise specified; high energy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0102T</td>
<td>Extracorporeal shock wave therapy; high energy; performed by a physician, requiring anesthesia other than local, involving lateral humeral epicondyle</td>
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<tr>
<td>ICD-10-CM</td>
<td>M72.2</td>
<td>Plantar fascial fibromatosis (plantar fasciitis)</td>
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</table>
Extracorporeal Shock Wave Treatment for Plantar Fasciitis and Other Musculoskeletal Conditions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code Range</th>
<th>Diagnosis</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>M75.20-M75.22</td>
<td>Bicipital tendinitis code range</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M75.30-M75.32</td>
<td>Calcific tendinitis of shoulder code range</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M77.00-M77.02</td>
<td>Medial epicondylitis code range</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M77.10-M77.12</td>
<td>Lateral epicondylitis code range</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M84.311A-M84.38S</td>
<td>Stress fracture code range</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M87.051-M87.059</td>
<td>Idiopathic aseptic necrosis of femur code range</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S32.2xxK-S32.9xxK</td>
<td>Fracture nonunion codes for the appendicular skeleton – 7th digit “K” is subsequent encounter for nonunion (in forearm, femur, lower leg &amp; ankle fractures 7th digits “M” and “N” are also nonunion for certain types of open fractures – in fractures of the shoulder, humerus, wrist, hand and foot there isn’t separation of open vs. closed nonunions).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ICD-10-PCS codes are only used for inpatient services

Type of service: Medicine
Place of service: Outpatient

POLICY HISTORY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Action</th>
<th>Description</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td>02/13/14</td>
<td>Replace policy</td>
<td>Policy updated with literature review through January 20, 2014, references 5-7, 24-25, 30, and 34 added. No change to policy statements.</td>
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<tr>
<td>02/12/15</td>
<td>Replace policy</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date</td>
<td>Action</td>
<td>Changes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------</td>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>06/16/16</td>
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<td>Policy updated with literature review through May 2, 2016; references 9, 27-28, and 30 added. Policy statements unchanged.</td>
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<tr>
<td>06/22/17</td>
<td>Replace policy</td>
<td>Policy updated with literature review through April 25, 2017; references 5-6, 18, 27, 34-35, 41-43, 51-53, 56-58, 61, 64, and 68. Policy statement unchanged.</td>
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<tr>
<td>06/27/18</td>
<td>Replace policy</td>
<td>Blue Cross of Idaho adopted changes as noted. Policy updated with literature review through April 30, 2018; references 18, 20-22, 37, 45-46, and 79. Policy statement unchanged.</td>
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