Tang et al. BMC Musculoskeletal Disorders

https://doi.org/10.1186/s12891-024-07452-8

Open Access

The effectiveness of instrument-assisted soft tissue mobilization on range of motion: a meta-analysis

Sien Tang^{1*}, Li Sheng¹, Jinming Xia¹, Bing Xu¹ and Peiyong Jin¹

(2024) 25:319

Abstract

Background To evaluate the effectiveness of instrument-assisted soft tissue mobilization (IASTM) on range of motion (ROM).

Methods We performed a literature search of the PubMed, Embase, Web of Science, and Cochrane Library databases from inception to December 23, 2023. Randomized controlled trials that compared treatment groups receiving IASTM to controls or IASTM plus another treatment(s) to other treatment(s) among healthy individuals with or without ROM deficits, or patients with musculoskeletal disorders were included. The Cochrane risk of bias tool was used to assess the risk of bias.

Results Nine trials including 450 participants were included in the quantitative analysis. The IASTM was effective in improving ROM in degree in healthy individuals with ROM deficits and patients with musculoskeletal disorders (n=4) (MD = 4.94, 95% CI: 3.29 to 6.60), and in healthy individuals without ROM deficits (n=4) (MD = 2.32, 95% CI: 1.30 to 3.34), but failed to improve ROM in centimeter in healthy individuals with ROM deficits (n=1) (MD = 0.39, 95% CI: -1.34 to 2.11, p=0.66, l^2 = 88%).

Conclusions IASTM can improve ROM in degree in healthy individuals with or without ROM deficits, or in patients with musculoskeletal disorders (with very low to low certainty).

Trial registration The PROSPERO registration ID is CRD42023425200.

Keywords Instrument-assisted soft tissue mobilization, Range of motion, Meta-analysis

Background

Musculoskeletal disorders are among the most common types of human diseases and can affect all parts of the body [1, 2]. Surveys have revealed that musculoskeletal disorders affect more than a billion people worldwide, and are showing an increasing trend annually [1, 2]. Musculoskeletal disorders not only induce pain and joint

tangsien0105@163.com

adhesions that disrupt normal body movement but also have the potential to trigger mental health issues such as depression and stress [3, 4]. Range of motion (ROM) deficits are a critical predisposing factor and clinical manifestation of musculoskeletal disorders [4–6]. The effects and symptoms of ROM deficits are not limited to the joints and muscles directly affected, but may even involve other areas [7–9]. Consequently, improving ROM is seen as a crucial step in both the prevention and treatment of these conditions.

There are different ways of improving ROM, such as PRP and PRF injections, biofeedback, medications, physiotherapy, and surgery [6, 10–13]. Among these,



© The Author(s) 2024. **Open Access** This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit http://creativecommons.gr/licenses/by/4.0/. The Creative Commons Public Domain Dedication waiver (http://creativecommons.gr/licenses/by/4.0/. The Creative Commons Public Domain Dedication waiver (http://creativecommons.gr/licenses/by/4.



^{*}Correspondence:

Sien Tang

¹ The Fourth Rehabilitation Hospital of Shanghai, No. 995 Kangding Road, Jing'an District, Shanghai 200000, China

physiotherapy has the widest range of applications. It can be used not only to treat patients, but also to treat healthy people [6, 14]. Currently, there are various methods used in physiotherapy that can improve ROM, such as stretching, relaxation and mobilization [6, 14]. Among these methods, instrument-assisted soft tissue mobilization (IASTM) is gaining popularity [15]. Soft tissues should be released based upon the principles of cross-friction massage and specially designed manual instruments [16, 17].

However, the efficacy of IASTM on ROM has not been consistently supported by clinical studies [18-21]. It is necessary to review these studies to evaluate the effectiveness of IASTM. To date, two meta-analyses, both of which were conducted by the same team, have concluded that the evidence does not support that IASTM could improve ROM [22, 23]. However, both of these studies have important limitations. Both studies presented analyses of individuals with or without ROM deficits simultaneously, which may underestimate the effectiveness of IASTM. They also compared the effects of IASTM with those of other treatments or placebo, which may have produced incorrect results. In addition, the use of minimal clinically important difference to assess the effectiveness of treatment is misleading when healthy individuals without ROM deficits are included. Therefore, it is reasonable to re-assess the effectiveness of IASTM on ROM. The aim of this meta-analysis was to assess the effect of IASTM on ROM in healthy individuals with or without ROM deficits, or patients with musculoskeletal disorders.

Methods

This meta-analysis followed the updated guidelines of the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA, 2020) and has been registered on the PROSPERO website (RegNo. : CRD42023425200) [24].

Eligibility criteria

Studies were included if they met the following criteria: (1) were randomized controlled clinical trials; (2) were healthy individuals with or without ROM deficits, or patients with musculoskeletal disorders; (3) compared IASTM alone to control or IASTM plus another treatment(s) to other treatment(s); and (4) had an outcome of ROM. We had no language restrictions.

Studies were excluded if the following criteria were met: (1) no mention of randomization in the text; (2) the described randomization was nonrandom; or (3) lacked outcome data of interest.

Information sources

Since instrument-assisted soft tissue mobilization (IASTM) is not a medical subject heading (MeSH), we

expanded the entry terms to cover both instrumentassisted and manual mobilization. We searched the Pub-Med, Embase, Web of Science, and Cochrane Library databases from inception to December 23, 2023, by using the syntax shown in Additional file 1. The references of published systematic reviews were examined to ensure the retrieval of all available studies that had been included in the meta-analysis.

Study selection

Two researchers (S. Tang and L. Sheng) independently carried out the study selection: (1) all retrieved studies were imported into EndNote 21 software (Ceverbridge Analytics, Philadelphia, PA, USA), and duplicates were removed; (2) clearly irrelevant studies were judged by the title and abstract and excluded; and (3) the full texts of relevant studies were then retrieved, and the final included studies met both the inclusion and exclusion criteria. In cases of disagreement, a consensus was reached through discussion.

Data extraction

We designed a pilot Excel form (by S. Tang) to independently extract data from five representative studies by two researchers (S. Tang and L. Sheng). The final Excel form was developed from the pilot form following discussion and modification. These two researchers independently extracted the data from all the included studies. The extracted data were cross-checked, and in the case of any disagreements, a consensus was reached by recreating the process of selecting the study and calculating the data. Information on the study identification and principles of the PICOS (participant, intervention, control, outcome and study design) was extracted. The outcome data of interest were the mean difference (MD) and its standard deviation (SD) (or its 95% confidence interval, 95% CI) of ROM from baseline in two parallel groups.

The data for analysis were as follows: (1) for subgroup data from multiarm trials, the sample size was split by the number of arms; (2) for studies in which multiple measurements were used to assess the same outcome, only the most reliable measurement was used; (3) for studies in which multiple outcomes (except inversion and eversion of the ankle due to the small data) were used for the relevant outcomes, and the sample size was averaged based on the number of outcomes; (4) for studies in which only the outcome at the end of the treatment was used but not the intermediate measurements or those during followup were used; and (5) for studies in which the MD and SD from baseline were not reported, we converted from the CI and standard errors (SE), when available, by using the calculator provided in RevMan 5.4 (the Cochrane Collaboration, London, UK). If no outcome data were

available, we contacted the authors through emails for their research results. If data from the study authors were unavailable, the data were estimated by using the data from other studies. The following formulas were used for extrapolation [25]:

$$R = \frac{SDbaseline^2 + SDfinal^2 - SDchange^2}{2^*SDbaseline^*SDfinal}$$
(1)

 $SDchange = \sqrt{SDbaseline^2 + SDfinal^2 - 2*R*SDbaseline*SDfinal}$ (2)

Assessment of the risk of bias

Two researchers (S. Tang and J. Xia) independently assessed the risk of bias of the included studies (see Additional file 2). In cases of disagreement, a third researcher (L. Sheng) participated in the discussion and reached a consensus. The Cochrane risk of bias tool was used to assess the risk of bias. Each of the seven risk of bias domains was rated as "low", "unclear", or "high" [26]. The other bias and overall risk of the study were assessed using the method employed by Goris et al. [23] The other bias was defined as studies published in suspected predatory journals, as identified by Manca et al. [27] The overall risk of bias was as follows: if all risk of bias was rated as low, then the study was rated as low risk; if at least one of the risk of bias was rated as unclear, then the study was rated as unclear risk; and if at least one of the risk of bias was rated as high, then the study was rated as high risk [23]. Considering the nature of the IASTM intervention, if a study merely had a high risk of bias due to the blinding of participants and personnel, the study was not rated as high risk. Instead, it was rated as either low risk (if the remaining six domains were rated as low risk) or unclear risk (if one or more of the remaining six domains were rated as unclear risk) [22, 23].

Statistical analysis

The data were analyzed by using Review Manager 5.4 (the Cochrane Collaboration, London, UK) and Stata 14 (StataCorp LLC, Texas, USA). Heterogeneity was estimated by using the Cochran Q and I² indices. If $P \ge 0.1$ and I² $\le 50\%$, indicating low heterogeneity, the fixed effects model was used; if P < 0.1 and I² > 50%, indicating significant heterogeneity, the random-effects model was applied [25]. The mean difference and 95% CI are reported for the synthesized data in the forest plot. Subgroup analyses were conducted according to intervention methods (combined therapies or IASTM alone). Due to the limited number of studies included, publication bias was not evaluated [25]. Sensitivity analyses were

performed using leave-one-out tests to confirm the stability of the results [25].

Results

Study selection

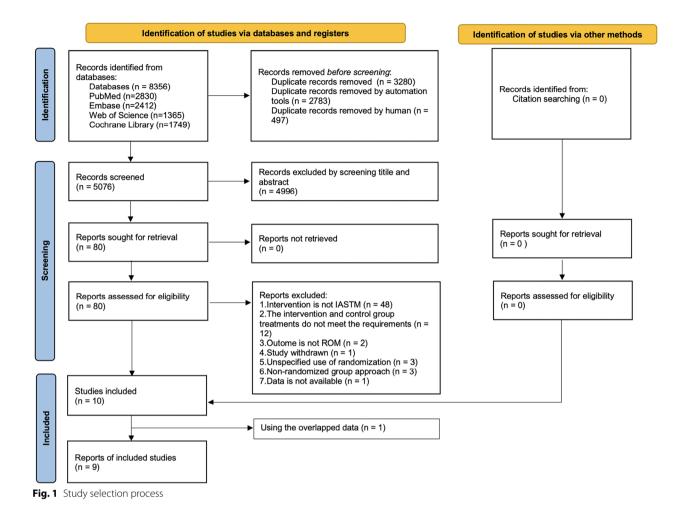
A total of 8356 articles were identified: 2830 from Pub-Med, 2412 from Embase, 1365 from Web of Science, and 1749 from the Cochrane Library. No additional studies were identified from other sources. After removing duplications, 5076 articles remained, and 4996 clearly irrelevant studies were excluded based on the titles and abstracts. The full texts of the remaining 80 articles were retrieved and read carefully. Ultimately, a total of 10 studies that met both the inclusion and exclusion criteria were included [28–37]. Two different studies published by the same author used overlapping data [31, 32], we excluded the study published in 2017 [32] (we thought the data in this piece extended from the 2015 study [31, 32]) and analyzed the data from the remaining 9 studies (Fig. 1) [28–31, 33–37].

Study characteristics

The 9 included studies were published between 2012 and 2022 and involved a total of 522 participants [28–31, 33– 37]. The age of the study participants was not described in one of the studies [35], whereas the remaining 8 studies had an average age of 27.17 ± 10.96 years [28-31, 33, 34, 36, 37]. Two studies did not provide information about the gender of the participants [30, 34]. Among the remaining 7 studies, the proportion of male participants was 61.67% [28, 29, 31, 33, 35-37]. Regarding study characteristics, 4 studies focused on healthy individuals without ROM deficits [30, 33, 34, 36], 3 studies focused on healthy individuals with ROM deficits [31, 35, 37], and 2 studies included patients with musculoskeletal disorders [28, 29]. Additionally, 6 studies treated only one session [30, 31, 33-36], while 3 studies treated multiple sessions [28, 29, 37]. Furthermore, only IASTM was used in 2 studies [33, 34], combined therapies were used in 6 studies [28-31, 36, 37], and one study included both alone and in combination [35]. Eight studies of ROM used degrees as a unit of measurement [28–31, 33, 34, 36, 37], while 1 study used centimeters (assessed by the lunge test) [35]. A summary of the 9 studies is shown in Table 1 (at the end of the paper).

Risk of bias assessment

The risk of bias assessment of the 9 studies is presented in Fig. 2. From the overall risk of the study, one study was rated as low risk [28], seven studies were rated as unclear risk [29–31, 33–36], and one study was rated as high risk [37].



Outcomes

Effect of IASTM on ROM in healthy individuals with ROM deficits and patients with musculoskeletal disorders (in degree)

Considering that both patients with musculoskeletal disorders and healthy people with ROM deficits have ROM limitations, we analyzed these two factors together. Collectively (trials=4), 88 participants were in the IASTM treatment group, and 86 participants were in the control group. All 4 studies compared IASTM plus other treatment(s) to other treatment(s) (two studies used conventional treatments as the other treatments, and the other two used stretching as the other treatment) [28, 29, 31, 37]. IASTM significantly improved ROM (MD = 4.94, 95% CI: 3.29 to 6.60, p <0.00001, I² = 0%) (Fig. 3). Sensitivity analyses showed stable results (see Additional file 3).

Effect of IASTM on ROM in healthy individuals without ROM deficits (in degree)

Collectively (trials=4), 64 participants were in the IASTM treatment group, and 65 participants were in the control group. IASTM significantly improved ROM (MD = 2.32, 95% CI: 1.30 to 3.34, p < 0.00001, $I^2 = 5\%$) (Fig. 4). Sensitivity analyses showed stable results (see Additional file 4). Of the 4 studies, two compared IASTM alone with controls, while the other two compared IASTM plus other treatments with other treatments (the other treatments were kinetic flossing and step taps) [30, 33, 34, 36]. The subgroup analyses indicated that IASTM could significantly improve ROM when IASTM alone was used (MD = 2.99, 95% CI: 1.04 to 4.93, p = 0.003, $I^2 = 16\%$) or when combined therapies were used (MD = 2.07, 95% CI: 0.87 to 3.26, p = 0.0007, $I^2 = 12\%$) (see Additional file 5).

Table 1 Summary of included studies

| study | Participant age ± SD (y) / males (%) | Groups / N | Outcome | IASTM Duration |
|--------------------------------------|--|--|--|--|
| Abdel-aal et al (2021) [28] | Patients with cervicogenic headache 41.69 ± 4.89 / 38.3 % | Intervention group / 30: exercise program + IASTM Control group / 30: exercise program | Cervical ROM: flexion, extension, left lateral flexion, right lateral flexion, left rotation, right rotation | approximately 3 min per time, 3 times per week for 4 weeks |
| Aggarwal et al(2021) [29] | Patients of shoulder adhe- sive capsulitis 49.4 ± 8.13 / 23.3 % | Intervention group / 15: conventional treatment + IASTM Control group / 15: conventional treatment | Passive and active shoulder ROM: flexion, extension, abduction, internal rotation, external rotation | 2 min per time, 3 times per week for 4 weeks |
| Angelopoulos et al(2021) [30] | Healthy amateur over- head athletes (dominant shoulders) 23.03 ± 1.89 / no description | Intervention group / 20: IASTM + kinetic flossing Control group / 20: kinetic flossing IASTM group / 20: IASTM KT group / 20: kinesiology taping | Passive shoulder ROM: internal rotation, external rotation | 6 min per time, one time |
| Bailey et al(2015) [31] | Asymptomatic baseball play- ers with ROM deficits 19 ± 2 / 100 % | Intervention group / 30: IASTM + self-stretching Control group / 30: self-stretching | Passive shoulder ROM: horizontal adduction, internal rotation, external rotation | 2 min per time, one time |
| lkeda et al(2019) [33] | Health individuals (right leg) 24 ± 4 / 78.6 % | Intervention group / 7: IASTM Control group / 7: no treatment | Passive ankle ROM: dorsiflexion | 5 min per time, one time |
| Laudner et al(2014) [34] | Asymptomatic collegiate baseball players (their throwing arm) 20.1 ± 1.2 / no description | Intervention group / 17: IASTM Control group / 18: no treatment | Passive shoulder ROM: horizontal adduction, internal rotation | 40 s per time, one time |
| Lehr et al(2022) [<mark>35</mark>] | Healthy collegiate athletes (the more restricted leg) No description / 66 % | Combine group / 34: IASTM + MWM Intervention group / 36: IASTM Control group / 33: no treatment MWM group / 44: MWM | Passive ankle ROM: dorsiflexion | 2 min per time, one time |
| Rowlett et al(2019) [36] | Health individuals 25.8 \pm 6.7 / 36.7 % | Intervention group / 20: warm-up + IASTM Stretch group / 20: warm-up +stretching Control group / 20: warm-up | Passive ankle ROM: dorsiflexion | 2 min per time, one time |
| Schaefer & Sandrey(2012) [37] | Healthy individuals with a history of chronic ankle instability 17.7 ± 1.9 / 86.1 % | Intervention group / 13: warm up + IASTM + balance training Sham group / 12: warm up + sham IASTM + balance training Control group / 11: warm up + balance training | Active ankle ROM: dorsiflexion, flexion, inversion, evrsion | 8 min per time, 2 times per week for 4 weeks |

IASTM Instrument-assisted soft-tissue mobilization, KT Kinesiology taping, MWM Mobilization with movement, ROM Range of motion, SD Standard deviation

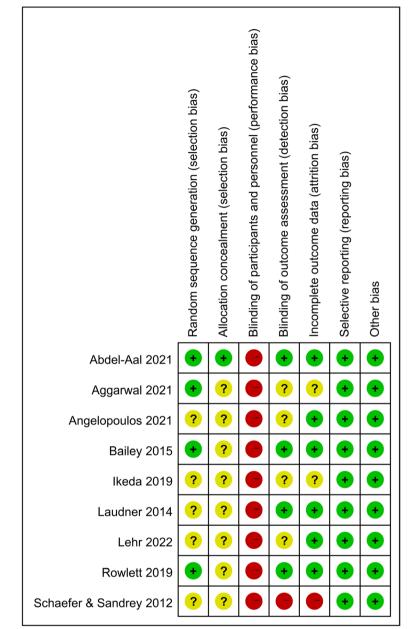


Fig. 2 Risk of bias summary

Effect of IASTM on ROM in healthy individuals with ROM deficits (in centimeter)

Collectively (trials=1), 70 participants were in the IASTM treatment group, and 77 participants were in the control group. The pooled results indicated that IASTM could not improve ROM (MD = 0.39, 95% CI: -1.34 to 2.11, p = 0.66, $I^2 = 88\%$) (Fig. 5).

Discussion

The results of our study showed that IASTM could improve ROM in degree in healthy individuals with or without ROM deficits, or in patients with musculoskeletal disorders.

In recent years, researchers have investigated the impact of IASTM on ROM from various angles.

| | 1 | IASTM | | 0 | Control | | | Mean Difference | Mean Difference |
|---|---------------|-------|-------|-------|---------|-------|--------|----------------------|-----------------------------------|
| Study or Subgroup | Mean | SD | Total | Mean | SD | Total | Weight | IV, Fixed, 95% CI | IV, Fixed, 95% CI |
| Abdel-Aal 2021 (extension) | 10.33 | 7.39 | 5 | 5.8 | 7.41 | 5 | 3.3% | 4.53 [-4.64, 13.70] | |
| Abdel-Aal 2021 (flexion) | 16.23 | 10.66 | 5 | 8.9 | 10.66 | 5 | 1.6% | 7.33 [-5.88, 20.54] | |
| Abdel-Aal 2021 (left lateral flexion) | 10.77 | 5.38 | 5 | 4.5 | 5.38 | 5 | 6.2% | 6.27 [-0.40, 12.94] | |
| Abdel-Aal 2021 (left rotation) | 13.57 | 4.55 | 5 | 5.37 | 4.55 | 5 | 8.6% | 8.20 [2.56, 13.84] | _ _ |
| Abdel-Aal 2021 (right lateral flexion) | 11.33 | 6.05 | 5 | 5.4 | 6.05 | 5 | 4.9% | 5.93 [-1.57, 13.43] | <u>+</u> |
| Abdel-Aal 2021 (right rotation) | 15.1 | 4.47 | 5 | 7.33 | 4.5 | 5 | 8.9% | 7.77 [2.21, 13.33] | _ - - |
| Aggarwal 2021 (A-abduction) | 26.6 | 7.79 | 2 | 16.07 | 9.36 | 2 | 1.0% | 10.53 [-6.35, 27.41] | |
| Aggarwal 2021 (A-extension) | 17 | 5.29 | 3 | 11.13 | 3.15 | 3 | 5.7% | 5.87 [-1.10, 12.84] | <u>+</u> |
| Aggarwal 2021 (A-external rotation) | 18.33 | 9.06 | 2 | 11.47 | 3.99 | 2 | 1.5% | 6.86 [-6.86, 20.58] | |
| Aggarwal 2021 (P-abduction) | 24.47 | 8.28 | 3 | 17 | 6.22 | 3 | 2.0% | 7.47 [-4.25, 19.19] | |
| Aggarwal 2021 (P-extension) | 15.87 | 4.15 | 3 | 10.6 | 2.9 | 3 | 8.4% | 5.27 [-0.46, 11.00] | |
| Aggarwal 2021 (P-external rotation) | 17.87 | 8.34 | 2 | 12.27 | 3.84 | 2 | 1.7% | 5.60 [-7.12, 18.32] | |
| Bailey 2015 (horizontal adduction) | 13.5 | 20.21 | 15 | 6.9 | 10.33 | 15 | 2.1% | 6.60 [-4.89, 18.09] | |
| Bailey 2015 (internal rotation) | 12.1 | 18.11 | 15 | 7.2 | 10.78 | 15 | 2.4% | 4.90 [-5.77, 15.57] | |
| Schaefer 2012 (IASTM vs no dorflexion) | 4.2 | 3.51 | 7 | 2.8 | 2.02 | 6 | 29.3% | 1.40 [-1.66, 4.46] | |
| Schaefer 2012 (IASTM vs no plantar flexion) | 6.9 | 5.76 | 6 | 1.2 | 0.87 | 5 | 12.6% | 5.70 [1.03, 10.37] | |
| Total (95% CI) | | | 88 | | | 86 | 100.0% | 4.94 [3.29, 6.60] | • |
| Heterogeneity: Chi ² = 8.72, df = 15 (P = 0.89); | $I^{2} = 0\%$ | | | | | | | _ | |
| Test for overall effect: $Z = 5.84$ (P < 0.00001) | | | | | | | | | -20 -10 0 10 20 |
| () | | | | | | | | | Favours [control] Favours [IASTM] |

| Fig. 3 Forest plot of the effect of IASTM on ROM in ROM deficits indivi | iduals (in degree) |
|---|--------------------|
|---|--------------------|

| | 1 | ASTM | | C | ontrol | | | Mean Difference | Mean Difference |
|---|-------------|-------|-------|-------|--------|-------|--------|----------------------|--|
| Study or Subgroup | Mean | SD | Total | Mean | SD | Total | Weight | IV, Fixed, 95% CI | IV, Fixed, 95% CI |
| Angelopoulos 2021 (external rotation) | 4.35 | 5.01 | 10 | 3.95 | 4.55 | 10 | 5.9% | 0.40 [-3.79, 4.59] | |
| Angelopoulos 2021 (internal rotation) | 6.05 | 6.97 | 10 | 8.65 | 9.96 | 10 | 1.8% | -2.60 [-10.13, 4.93] | |
| Ikeda 2019 | 3.4 | 2.43 | 7 | 0.9 | 1.44 | 7 | 23.7% | 2.50 [0.41, 4.59] | |
| Laudner 2014 (horizontal adduction) | 11.1 | 18.51 | 9 | -0.12 | 1.62 | 9 | 0.7% | 11.22 [-0.92, 23.36] | |
| Laudner 2014 (internal rotation) | 4.8 | 8 | 8 | -0.14 | 3.38 | 9 | 2.9% | 4.94 [-1.03, 10.91] | <u> </u> |
| Rowlett 2019 | 1.81 | 1.7 | 20 | -0.54 | 2.33 | 20 | 65.0% | 2.35 [1.09, 3.61] | |
| Total (95% CI) | | | 64 | | | 65 | 100.0% | 2.32 [1.30, 3.34] | • |
| Heterogeneity: $Chi^2 = 5.28$, df = 5 (P = 0 |).38); l² = | = 5% | | | | | | | |
| Test for overall effect: $Z = 4.46$ (P < 0.0 | 0001) | | | | | | | | -20 -10 0 10 20 Favours [control] Favours [IASTM] |

Fig. 4 Forest plot of the effect of IASTM on ROM in ROM unlimited individuals (in degree)

| | L | ASTM | | С | ontrol | | | Mean Difference | | Mea | an Differe | nce | |
|--|------------|------|---------|----------|--------|-------|--------|---------------------|-----|--------------|------------|-------|----|
| Study or Subgroup | Mean | SD | Total | Mean | SD | Total | Weight | IV, Random, 95% CI | | <u>IV, R</u> | andom, 9 | 5% CI | |
| Lehr 2020 (IASTM+MWM vs MWM) | 0.79 | 1.5 | 34 | 1.26 | 1.82 | 44 | 51.3% | -0.47 [-1.21, 0.27] | | | | | |
| Lehr 2020 (IASTM vs no) | 1.64 | 2.67 | 36 | 0.35 | 0.89 | 33 | 48.7% | 1.29 [0.37, 2.21] | | | - | | |
| Total (95% CI) | | | 70 | | | 77 | 100.0% | 0.39 [-1.34, 2.11] | | | • | | |
| Heterogeneity: Tau ² = 1.37; Chi ² = 8.5 | 52, df = 1 | (P=) | 0.004); | l² = 88% | 6 | | | - | -20 | -10 | <u> </u> | 10 | 20 |

Fig. 5 Forest plot of the effect of IASTM on ROM in ROM deficits individuals (in centimeter)

Cheatham et al. [15] conducted an online survey of 853 members of the National Athletic Trainers' Association and the American Physical Therapy Association and found that the majority of respondents believed that IASTM improved ROM. Brandl et al. [38] reported that the bioimpedance of tissues increases after IASTM, suggesting that IASTM reduces the water content of tissues. Then, the tissue may gain more water through a delayed supercompensatory effect [39], thereby increasing the flexibility of the tissue. The results of these two studies, as well as our results in degree, indicated that IASTM improves ROM. However, we only had very low to low certainty based on the Grading of Recommendations Assessment, Development, and Evaluation scores [40], with downgrading for study limitations, imprecision, and publication bias. As a result, more high-quality randomized controlled studies are needed in the future.

To date, two meta-analyses have investigated the impact of IASTM on ROM [22, 23]. Both studies reported that IASTM did not improve ROM [22, 23], which contrasts with our results in degree. This discrepancy may be attributed to the use of distinct inclusion and exclusion criteria, and effect indicators. Previous meta-analyses included studies comparing

IASTM with other treatments or placebo and found no significant difference between the two by combining the data as a basis for the conclusion that IASTM did not improve ROM [22, 23]. However, the possibility that both interventions were effective was ignored. We included only studies comparing IASTM with controls and IASTM plus other treatments with other treatments, and the combined results in degree merging both supported IASTM, with a significant difference in *p*-values. Previous studies have also shown that some of the results of the included studies presented significant differences in the Pvalue, but instead of basing the efficacy judgment on these results, the authors further compared the increase in ROM with the minimum clinically important difference and found that the changes did not reach the threshold, therefore, they concluded that IASTM was unable to improve ROM [22, 23]. In contrast, we used P values to assess the efficacy of the interventions because the included participants included individuals without ROM deficits. In addition, we excluded one negative study [21], which was included in both previous studies [22, 23]. The reason for exclusion was that we considered the randomization described in the text to be nonrandom. Therefore, previous studies may have underestimated the validity of IASTM, but our results were more accurate. Additionally, we included more studies (comparing IASTM alone to controls and IASTM plus other treatments to other treatments) and the quality of the included studies was higher than the quality of the included studies in the two previous studies (one study in our study was rated as low risk, while all the included studies were rated as high risk in the previous meta-analyses [22, 23]), which also increased the credibility of our results.

To our surprise, the results in centimeter showed that IASTM failed to improve ROM. The two sets of data were derived from the same study, in which IASTM alone was effective and combined therapies were ineffective. The authors of this study suggested that the results may stem from overloaded neurophysiological thresholds, which are exceeded by the combination treatment, diminishing the benefit of the treatment [35]. However, it is difficult to explain the results of our subgroup analyses among healthy individuals without ROM deficits, in which both IASTM alone and combined therapies were effective. Superficially, the two opposite results in our study seem to be caused by the different units of measurement. However, we still think that the more likely reason is the limited number of included studies. More randomized controlled studies in centimeter (including those at low risk) are needed in the future to assess the validity of IASTM on ROM and to explore the sources of heterogeneity.

This study has several limitations. First, only a few studies and participants were included, resulting in the inability to reach a definitive conclusion (including judging publication bias). Second, we lack sufficient data to perform independent analyses of combined therapies and IASTM alone, and we lack adequate data to analyze the effects of different treatment durations on treatment outcomes. Third, only the outcome at the end of the treatment was utilized, with no consideration given to intermediate measurements or those taken during follow-up. Fourth, we merged two datasets from the same study due to the scarcity of studies, potentially compromising the independence principle in meta-analyses. Fifth, we split the sample size in some studies, which would change the weights of these studies in the evidence synthesis. Finally, several deviations from the original protocol were made during this study. We have updated the search date and expanded the literature search to cover all possible articles that met our study criteria. We also conducted unplanned subgroup analyses.

Conclusions

IASTM can improve ROM in degree in healthy individuals with or without ROM deficits, or in patients with musculoskeletal disorders (with very low to low certainty). More high-quality studies (including different units) are needed in the future to explore the effects of IASTM on ROM.

Abbreviations

| CI | Confidence interval |
|--------|--|
| IASTM | Instrument-assisted soft tissue mobilization |
| KT | Kinesiology taping |
| MD | Mean difference |
| MeSH | Medical subject heading |
| MWM | Mobilization with movement |
| ROM | Range of motion |
| PRISMA | Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and |
| | Meta-Analyses |
| SD | Standard deviation |
| | |

Supplementary Information

The online version contains supplementary material available at https://doi.org/10.1186/s12891-024-07452-8.

| Supplementary Material 1. |
|---------------------------|
| Supplementary Material 2. |
| Supplementary Material 3. |
| Supplementary Material 4. |
| Supplementary Material 5. |

Acknowledgements

Not applicable.

Authors' contributions

SET planned the study, performed the data extraction and statistical analysis, and drafted the manuscript; SET, and LS extracted the data; SET, and JM

X assessed the risk of bias; and BX and PY J reviewed the included studies, extracted the data and performed the statistical analysis. All the authors have read the manuscript and approved it for publication.

Funding

This research received no specific grant from any funding agency in the public, commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.

Availability of data and materials

All data generated or analyzed during this study are included in this published article and its supplementary information files.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate Not applicable.

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Received: 12 December 2023 Accepted: 17 April 2024 Published online: 23 April 2024

References

- Chen N, Fong DYT, Wong JYH. Secular trends in musculoskeletal rehabilitation needs in 191 countries and territories from 1990 to 2019. JAMA Netw Open. 2022;5(1):e2144198.
- Cieza A, Causey K, Kamenov K, Hanson SW, Chatterji S, Vos T. Global estimates of the need for rehabilitation based on the Global Burden of Disease study 2019: a systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2019. Lancet. 2021;396(10267):2006–17.
- Bitiniene D, Zamaliauskiene R, Kubilius R, Leketas M, Gailius T, Smirnovaite K. Quality of life in patients with temporomandibular disorders A systematic review. Stomatologija. 2018;20(1):3–9.
- Figas G, Kostka J, Pikala M, Kujawa JE, Adamczewski T. Analysis of clinical pattern of musculoskeletal disorders in the cervical and cervico-thoracic regions of the spine. J Clin Med. 2024;13(3):840.
- Tooth C, Gofflot A, Schwartz C, Croisier JL, Beaudart C, Bruyère O, et al. Risk factors of overuse shoulder injuries in overhead athletes: a systematic review. Sports Health. 2020;12(5):478–87.
- George SZ, Fritz JM, Silfies SP, Schneider MJ, Beneciuk JM, Lentz TA, et al. Interventions for the management of acute and chronic low back pain: revision 2021. J Orthop Sports Phys Ther. 2021;51(11):CPG1–60.
- Walczyńska-Dragon K, Baron S, Nitecka-Buchta A, Tkacz E. Correlation between TMD and cervical spine pain and mobility: is the whole body balance TMJ related? Biomed Res Int. 2014;2014:582414.
- Silveira A, Gadotti IC, Armijo-Olivo S, Biasotto-Gonzalez DA, Magee D. Jaw dysfunction is associated with neck disability and muscle tenderness in subjects with and without chronic temporomandibular disorders. Biomed Res Int. 2015;2015:512792.
- 9. Ramazanoglu E, Turhan B, Usgu S. Evaluation of the tone and viscoelastic properties of the masseter muscle in the supine position, and its relation to age and gender. Dent Med Probl. 2021;58(2):155–61.
- Pietruszka P, Chruścicka I, Duś-Ilnicka I, Paradowska-Stolarz A. PRP and PRF-subgroups and divisions when used in dentistry. J Pers Med. 2021;11(10):944.
- Florjanski W, Malysa A, Orzeszek S, Smardz J, Olchowy A, Paradowska-Stolarz A, et al. Evaluation of biofeedback usefulness in masticatory muscle activity management-a systematic review. J Clin Med. 2019;8(6):766.
- Raeissadat SA, Ghazi Hosseini P, Bahrami MH, Salman Roghani R, Fathi M, Gharooee Ahangar A, et al. The comparison effects of intraarticular injection of Platelet Rich Plasma (PRP), Plasma Rich in Growth

- Hu J, Wei K, Xu Y, Chen L. Outcome of arthroscopic triple release combined with rotator cuff repair in the treatment of rotator cuff injury combined with frozen shoulder. Pak J Med Sci. 2024;40(3 Part-II):520–5.
- Konrad A, Nakamura M, Paternoster FK, Tilp M, Behm DG. A comparison of a single bout of stretching or foam rolling on range of motion in healthy adults. Eur J Appl Physiol. 2022;122(7):1545–57.
- Cheatham SW, Baker RT, Larkins LW, Baker JG, Casanova MP. Clinical practice patterns among health care professionals for instrumentassisted soft tissue mobilization. J Athl Train. 2021;56(10):1100–11.
- Davidson CJ, Ganion LR, Gehlsen GM, Verhoestra B, Roepke JE, Sevier TL. Rat tendon morphologic and functional changes resulting from soft tissue mobilization. Med Sci Sports Exerc. 1997;29(3):313–9.
- Loghmani MT, Warden SJ. Instrument-assisted cross fiber massage increases tissue perfusion and alters microvascular morphology in the vicinity of healing knee ligaments. BMC Complement Altern Med. 2013;13:240.
- Gupta U, Sharma A, Rizvi MR, Alqahtani MM, Ahmad F, Kashoo FZ, et al. Instrument-assisted soft tissue mobilization technique versus static stretching in patients with pronated dominant foot: a comparison in effectiveness on flexibility, foot posture, foot function index, and dynamic balance. Healthcare (Basel). 2023;11(6):785.
- Mahmood T, Afzal W, Ahmad U, Arif MA, Ahmad A. Comparative effectiveness of routine physical therapy with and without instrument assisted soft tissue mobilization in patients with neck pain due to upper crossed syndrome. J Pak Med Assoc. 2021;71(10):2304–8.
- Vardiman JP, Siedlik J, Herda T, Hawkins W, Cooper M, Graham ZA, et al. Instrument—assisted soft tissue mobilization: effects on the properties of human plantar flexors. Int J Sports Med. 2015;36(3):197–203.
- 21. Stanek J, Sullivan T, Davis S. Comparison of compressive myofascial release and the graston technique for improving ankle-dorsiflexion range of motion. J Athl Train. 2018;53(2):160–7.
- 22. Nazari G, Bobos P, MacDermid JC, Birmingham T. The effectiveness of instrument-assisted soft tissue mobilization in athletes, participants without extremity or spinal conditions, and individuals with upper extremity, lower extremity, and spinal conditions: a systematic review. Arch Phys Med Rehabil. 2019;100(9):1726–51.
- Nazari G, Bobos P, Lu SZ, Reischl S, Sharma S, Le CY, et al. Effectiveness of instrument-assisted soft tissue mobilization for the management of upper body, lower body, and spinal conditions. An updated systematic review with meta-analyses. Disabil Rehabil. 2023;45(10):1608–18.
- Page MJ, McKenzie JE, Bossuyt PM, Boutron I, Hoffmann TC, Mulrow CD, et al. The PRISMA 2020 statement: an updated guideline for reporting systematic reviews. BMJ. 2021;372:71.
- 25. Julian PT Higgins, Sally Green. Cochrane handbook for systematic reviews of interventions 4.2.6. UK: The Cochrane Library; 2006.
- Higgins JP, Altman DG, Gøtzsche PC, Jüni P, Moher D, Oxman AD, et al. The Cochrane Collaboration's tool for assessing risk of bias in randomised trials. BMJ. 2011;343:5928.
- Manca A, Martinez G, Cugusi L, Dragone D, Mercuro G, Deriu F. Predatory open access in rehabilitation. Arch Phys Med Rehabil. 2017;98(5):1051–6.
- Abdel-Aal NM, Elsayyad MM, Megahed AA. Short-term effect of adding Graston technique to exercise program in treatment of patients with cervicogenic headache: a single-blinded, randomized controlled trial. Eur J Phys Rehabil Med. 2021;57(5):758–66.
- Aggarwal A, Saxena K, Palekar TJ, Rathi M. Instrument assisted soft tissue mobilization in adhesive capsulitis: a randomized clinical trial. J Bodyw Mov Ther. 2021;26:435–42.
- Angelopoulos P, Mylonas K, Tsepis E, Billis E, Vaitsis N, Fousekis K. The effects of instrument-assisted soft tissue mobilization, tissue flossing, and kinesiology taping on shoulder functional capacities in amateur athletes. J Sport Rehabil. 2021;30(7):1028–37.
- Bailey LB, Shanley E, Hawkins R, Beattie PF, Fritz S, Kwartowitz D, et al. Mechanisms of shoulder range of motion deficits in asymptomatic baseball players. Am J Sports Med. 2015;43(11):2783–93.
- Bailey LB, Thigpen CA, Hawkins RJ, Beattie PF, Shanley E. Effectiveness of manual therapy and stretching for baseball players with shoulder range of motion deficits. Sports Health. 2017;9(3):230–7.

- Ikeda N, Otsuka S, Kawanishi Y, Kawakami Y. Effects of instrument-assisted soft tissue mobilization on musculoskeletal properties. Med Sci Sports Exerc. 2019;51(10):2166–72.
- Laudner K, Compton BD, McLoda TA, Walters CM. Acute effects of instrument assisted soft tissue mobilization for improving posterior shoulder range of motion in collegiate baseball players. Int J Sports Phys Ther. 2014;9(1):1–7.
- Lehr ME, Fink ML, Ulrich E, Butler RJ. Comparison of manual therapy techniques on ankle dorsiflexion range of motion and dynamic single leg balance in collegiate athletes. J Bodyw Mov Ther. 2022;29:206–14.
- Rowlett CA, Hanney WJ, Pabian PS, McArthur JH, Rothschild CE, Kolber MJ. Efficacy of instrument-assisted soft tissue mobilization in comparison to gastrocnemius-soleus stretching for dorsiflexion range of motion: a randomized controlled trial. J Bodyw Mov Ther. 2019;23(2):233–40.
- Schaefer JL, Sandrey MA. Effects of a 4-week dynamic-balancetraining program supplemented with Graston instrument-assisted soft-tissue mobilization for chronic ankle instability. J Sport Rehabil. 2012;21(4):313–26.
- Brandl A, Egner C, Schwarze M, Reer R, Schmidt T, Schleip R. Immediate effects of instrument-assisted soft tissue mobilization on hydration content in lumbar myofascial tissues: a quasi-experiment. J Clin Med. 2023;12(3):1009.
- Schleip R, Duerselen L, Vleeming A, Naylor IL, Lehmann-Horn F, Zorn A, et al. Strain hardening of fascia: static stretching of dense fibrous connective tissues can induce a temporary stiffness increase accompanied by enhanced matrix hydration. J Bodyw Mov Ther. 2012;16(1):94–100.
- Guyatt GH, Oxman AD, Kunz R, Vist GE, Falck-Ytter Y, Schünemann HJ. What is "quality of evidence" and why is it important to clinicians? BMJ. 2008;336(7651):995–8.

Publisher's Note

Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.