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Long-term follow-up after treatment of invasive and *in situ* breast cancer

- aspects on second breast cancers, HRQOL and lymphoedema

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To women

ABSTRACT

Breast cancer is the most frequent cancer among Swedish women and in 2012, 8490 new invasive breast cancers were diagnosed. The incidence of *in situ* breast cancer has markedly increased since nationwide mammography screening was introduced in the late 1980s. The increasing figures of *in situ* breast cancer are predominantly attributable to an increased frequency of ductal carcinoma *in situ* (DCIS). In 2012, 1443 *in situ* breast cancers were diagnosed in Sweden, which is approximately 15% of all diagnosed breast cancers.

The main aims of the first two papers were to study the long-term HRQOL after different types of surgical treatment in women with DCIS (paper I) and to study the risk of developing a new *in situ* or invasive breast cancer after a first *in situ* cancer in women with and without a family history for breast cancer (paper II). Since the 1980s, breast-conserving surgery for DCIS has been recommended whenever feasible. Several randomised trials have shown a decreased rate of ipsilateral DCIS or invasive breast cancer recurrence through the addition of adjuvant radiotherapy. Mastectomy is still recommended for women with either multifocal DCIS, and/or unfavourable proportion between tumour size and breast volume. For these women an immediate breast reconstruction (IBR) is an alternative to maintain a breast contour. As surgery is the primary treatment for this disease, it is essential to increase current understanding of its long-term consequences. In paper I, 162 women treated for DCIS with breast-conserving surgery with or without postoperative radiotherapy, or with mastectomy and IBR, had a satisfactory long-term HRQOL. However, body image appeared to be affected in women after mastectomy and IBR.

Using the population-based Swedish Multi-Generation and Cancer Registers we identified 8,111 women (paper II) diagnosed with *in situ* breast cancer between 1980 and 2004. The risk of a subsequent invasive breast cancer was increased more than fourfold [SIR 4.55 (95% CI 4.23- 4.88)] among women with *in situ* breast cancer as compared to women in the general population and the risk for a contralateral *in situ* breast cancer was almost sixteenfold increased [SIR 15.98(95% CI, 13.23-19.14)]. Having a family history for breast cancer increased the risk for contralateral invasive breast cancer by almost 50 % [incidence rate ratio 1.47 (95% CI 1.05-2.05)]. The risk for a subsequent invasive breast cancer, as well as mortality was substantially higher in younger women, which should be taken into account when planning their treatment and follow-up.

The main aims of paper III and IV were to evaluate the impact of axillary surgery on arm lymphoedema and long-term HRQOL. Axillary lymph node dissection (ALND) was the standard surgical procedure for staging well into the 1990s, when it was replaced by the sentinel lymph node biopsy (SLNB), in patients with preoperatively no signs of axillary metastases. In a multicentre study, including 557 women, we showed that SLNB alone is associated with a minimal risk of increased arm volume and few self-perceived symptoms of arm lymphoedema, significantly less than after ALND, regardless of lymph node status. Yet, 20% of the women who underwent SLNB, reported symptoms of arm lymphoedema, which emphasizes the importance of performing SLNB strictly on patients who can benefit from the staging results. Three years after surgery women in all three study groups appeared to have a satisfactory HRQOL. Women reporting self-perceived arm lymphoedema, regardless of objective lymphoedema or not, reported poorer HRQOL than those women who did not, indicating that more attention should be given to the subjective reports of symptoms, in order to better help these women.

LIST OF PUBLICATIONS

This thesis is based on the following papers, which will be referred to by their Roman numerals as indicated below:

I. Ductal carcinoma *in situ* of the breast. Long-term follow-up of healthrelated qulity of life, emotional reactions and body image

H. Sackey, K. Sandelin, J. Frisell, M. Wickman, Y. Brandberg. *EJSO 36 (2010) 756-762*.

II. The impact of *in situ* breast cancer and family history on risk of subsequent breast cancer events and mortality – a population based study from Sweden

H. Sackey, M. Hui, K. Czene, H.Verkooijen, G. Edgren, J. Frisell, M. Hartman. *Submitted for publication*.

III. Arm lymphoedema after axillary surgery in women with invasive breast cancer. Objective and subjective assessment in a prospective multicenter study

H. Sackey, A. Magnusson, K. Sandelin, G. Liljegren, L. Bergkvist, Z. Fülep, F. Celebioglu, J. Frisell. *Br J Surg. 2014 Mar;101(4):390-7*

IV. Impact of arm-lymphoedema and different types of axillary surgery on long-term health-related quality of life in breast cancer patients

H. Sackey, H Johansson, K. Sandelin, G. Liljegren, G. MacLean, J. Frisell, Y. Brandberg. *Submitted for publication*.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ALND	Axillary lymph node dissections		
AVD	Arm volume difference		
BIS	Body Image Scale		
BMI	Body mass index		
BP	Bodily pain		
DCIS	Ductal carcinoma in situ		
EAR	Excess additive risk		
EORTC	European Organisation for Research and Treatment of Cancer		
ER	Oestrogen receptor		
GEE	Generalised estimating equations		
GH	General health		
HADS	Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale		
HER2	Human epidermal growth factor receptor 2		
HRQOL	Health-related quality of life		
IBR	Immediate breast reconstruction		
ICD	International Classification of Disease		
LCIS	Lobular carcinoma in situ		
MGR	Multi-Generation Register		
MH	Mental health		
MRI	Magnetic Resonance Imaging		
PF	Physical functioning		
RE	Role limitation due to emotional problems		
RP	Physical problems		
RT	Postoperative radiotherapy		
SF	Social functioning		
SIR	Standardised incidence ratios		
SLNB	Sentinel lymph node biopsy		
SMR	Standardised mortality ratio		
SOC	Sense of coherence		
SPS	Self-perceived symptoms		
TNM	Tumor-Node-Metastasis		
VT	Vitality		

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THESIS AT A GLANCE

	Aim	Subjects and Methods	Results and Conclusion
I	To investigate and compare long- term HRQOL, body image, and emotional reactions in women with <i>in situ</i> breast cancer treated with different surgical methods.	Women in Stockholm Coun- ty with DCIS $N=162$ HRQOL assessed with Ques- tionnaires: SF-36, Hospital and Anxiety Scale and Body Image Scale	Women treated for DCIS have a satis- factory long-term HRQOL. Body image appears to be affected in women treated with mastectomy and immediate breast reconstruction.
II	To evaluate long-term risk of subsequent breast cancer and mortality in women diagnosed with <i>in situ</i> breast cancer. To evaluate the impact of family history on long-term risk of sub- sequent breast cancer and mortal- ity in women diagnosed with <i>in</i> <i>situ</i> breast cancer.	All women in the Multi- Generation Register with first <i>in situ</i> breast cancer diag- nosed 1980-2004 N=8111 Relative risk for second breast cancer and relative mortality risk in women with <i>in situ</i> breast cancer.	The risk for a subsequent invasive breast cancer, as well as mortality is substan- tially higher in younger women, which should be taken into account when planning their treatment and follow-up. For women with <i>in situ</i> breast cancer a positive family history increases the risk only for a contralateral invasive breast cancer.
III	To compare arm lymphoedema after SLNB alone vs. ALND, both in node-negative and node- positive breast cancer patients. To examine the potential associa- tion between subjectively and objectively measured arm lym- phoedema.	 Women operated for invasive breast cancer in four hospitals in Sweden. N=557 Arm lymphoedema measured with water displacement technique. Questionnaire regarding self-perceived symptoms of arm lymphoedema. 	SLNB is associated with a minimal risk of increased arm volume and few self- perceived symptoms of arm lymphoe- dema. Yet, 20% of women report symp- toms of arm lymphoedema after sentinel lymph node biopsy, which emphasizes the importance of performing axillary surgery strictly on patients who can benefit from the staging results. Three years after surgery there is a weak correlation between objectively meas- ured arm lymphoedema and self- perceived symptoms of arm lymphoe- dema.
IV	To compare long-term HRQOL in patients undergoing SLNB alone vs. ALND with or without axillary metastases. To assess the impact of objective arm lymphoedema and subjective ratings on health-related quality of life	Women operated for invasive breast cancer in four hospit- als in Sweden. $N=557$ HRQOL assessed with SF-36 questionnaire. Questionnaire regarding self- perceived symptoms of arm lymphoedema.	Women treated for invasive breast cancer have a satisfactory long-term HRQOL. Women reporting self-perceived arm lymphoedema, regardless of objective lymphoedema or not, reported poorer HRQOL than those who did not, indi- cating that more attention should be given to the subjective reports of symp- toms in order to better help these wom- en.

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"Where there is love for mankind, there is the love for the art of healing".

Hippocrates

Epidemiology and risk factors

In Sweden, breast cancer is the most frequent cancer among women, accounting for almost 30% of all female malignancies¹. Breast cancer incidence and mortality demonstrate a distinct geographic variability, with high rates in Northern Europe and North America, intermediate rates in Southern Europe and Latin America and low rates in Asia and Africa². In high incidence countries like Sweden, approximately every tenth to eight woman will be afflicted by breast cancer^{1, $\frac{2}{2}$}. In 2012, 8490 new invasive breast cancers were diagnosed in Sweden¹. The incidence of breast cancer has increased markedly over time, and in the last two decades this increase has been observed in almost all countries^{3, 4}. In Sweden, the incidence more than doubled between 1980 and 2013⁵. The introduction of population-based mammography screening have had a major influence on the increased incidence, but cannot fully explain it^{3, 4}. Other factors that may have contributed are changes in risk factors, e.g. lower parity, increased use of hormone replacement therapy, higher age at first childbirth and higher mean weight⁶.

The incidence of *in situ* breast cancer has markedly increased since nationwide mammography screening was introduced in Sweden in the late 1980s¹. The increasing figures of *in situ* breast cancer are predominantly attributable to an increased frequency of ductal carcinoma in situ (DCIS). Today, the majority of all DCIS are screening detected^{7, 8}. In 2012, 1443 *in situ* breast cancers were diagnosed in Sweden, which is approximately 15% of all diagnosed breast cancers. This compares with 30-50 cases of *in situ* breast cancer per year in the 1960s⁹.

Age and sex are the most important determinants of breast cancer incidence⁶. Breast cancer incidence is low in women before 40 years of age, but then increases steeply. The mean age of developing breast cancer in Sweden is 63 years and approximately 10% of the breast cancer cases are diagnosed among women younger than 45 years of age⁵. Only 0.5% of all breast cancer cases are male⁵.

The aetiology of breast cancer is multifactorial and not fully known. Several risk factors have been identified in the development of the disease, although it is not clear why a breast cell mutates and becomes malignant. The association between hormonal activity and the risk of developing breast cancer has been studied extensively. Early menarche, late menopause, low parity and late childbirth, as well as hormone replacement therapy with combined oestrogen and gestagen increase the risk $^{6, 10, 11}$. This is also true of oral contraceptives, but to a more moderate degree⁶. Obesity and high intake of alcohol are lifestyle factors that increase the risk of breast cancer in post-menopausal women^{6, 12,} 13 , while physical activity decreases the risk 14 . A breast with a dense mammography pattern, i.e. a breast rich in connective and epithelial tissue, increases the risk for breast cancer¹⁵, as does exposure to radiation at a young age^{6} .

The risk factors for developing an *in situ* breast cancer are largely the same as for invasive breast cancer^{16, 17}. Population-based studies that use family history data predict that 5% of women with DCIS carry a mutation in the BRCA 1 or BRCA 2 genes¹⁸. The mean age of developing *in situ* breast cancer in Sweden is 59 years¹⁹. Women with *in situ* breast cancer have an increased risk of developing *in situ* or invasive breast cancer in the ipsi- or contralateral breast²⁰⁻³⁰. Moreover women with *in situ* breast cancer, even after treatment, are at increased risk of subsequent invasive breast cancer compared to women in the general population^{20, 22-28, 31-33}. Several

factors have been associated with invasive recurrences after *in situ* diagnosis, including patient characteristics ^{23, 24, 27}, tumor characteristics^{23, 24, 34} and treatment^{23, 35, 36}.

Familial aggregation of breast cancer has been observed all over the world. In general, early onset and bilateral disease are two important features in these families ³⁷. A Scandinavian twin study has revealed that hereditary factors are important in 27% of all breast cancers³⁸ and 5-10 % of the cases appear to be the results of autosomal dominant genes³⁹. In 1994 and 1995, respectively, the two tumour-suppressor genes BRCA 1 on chromosome 17 and BRCA 2 on chromosome 13 were cloned. Carrying a mutation in either of these suppressor genes entails a 50-80% lifetime risk of developing breast cancer ⁴⁰, however, these mutations only account for 2-3% of all breast cancer cases^{41, 42}. In the clinical setting, hereditary breast cancer is defined as > three cases of breast cancer in the same branch of the family, of which at least one occurs prior to age 50^{42} . An aggregation that does not fulfill these criteria is called familial breast cancer⁴². In population-based studies, a family history is defined as having one first degree family member with breast cancer. Two meta-analyses of familial risks for breast cancer presented the relative risks associated with having a first degree relative of breast cancer of 2.1 and 1.8, respectively^{43,44}. There are statistical models for estimating the risk for individual patients and these are used in oncogenetic counselling⁴⁵. Genetic testing, risk prediction and counselling are offered to women with an accumulation of breast and ovarian cancer in their families^{9, 42}.



Figure 1. Number of new invasive breast cancers in Sweden by year of diagnosis. *Cancer i siffror 2012. The National Board of Health and Welfare.*

Prognostic and treatment predictive factors

Despite the increasing incidence during the last 30-40 years, there has been a slight decrease in mortality rates since the 1980s and today, approximately 87% survive five years after diagnosis⁵. This is partly due to earlier diagnosis through mammography screening programmes, multidisciplinary team conferences, well established national guidelines, and high awareness among women together with more effective adjuvant treatment. Despite this, one in four women diagnosed with breast cancer dies of the disease⁵. In Sweden, breast cancer accounts for approximately 3% of the total mortality among women, and around 1500 women a year die from the disease⁵.

The mortality for women diagnosed with *in situ* breast cancer is considered to be at most only marginally increased, but remains less well characterized and with few exceptions, studies are often limited by short follow-up and non-population based designs^{32, 46}.

The factors that traditionally have been associated with breast cancer recurrence and death are patient's age, tumor stage according to the Tumor-Node-Metastasis (TNM) classification and histological grade. Today, breast cancer characterisation has expanded and is also classified according to the expression of different receptors and biomarkers, which provide prognostic and/or predictive information regarding therapy response.

Age

The mean age for being diagnosed with breast cancer in Sweden is 63 years and only 5% of the breast cancers are diagnosed in women younger than 40 years of age¹. Very young⁴⁷ and very old⁴⁸ women seem to have worse prognoses. Breast cancers in young women are more often oestrogen receptor (ER)-negative, of a higher histological grade

and have a higher proliferation, which is associated with poor prognosis⁴⁹. In older women, poor survival may be related to comorbidity or receiving adjuvant therapy less often than would be appropriate, given their tumour characteristics⁴⁸.

TNM classification

The TNM classification system is based on tumour size and invasiveness (T), number of lymph node metastases (N) and the presence of distant metastases (M). The prognostic information obtained from the size of the tumour is well established, only 10-20% of women with a tumour < 1 cm will have lymph node metastases compared with 50% of women with a tumour size > 2 cm⁴².

This TNM classification is divided into four stages. Stage I means no nodal involvement (no tumour growth outside the breast) and the tumour is < 2cm. Stage II is a breast cancer > 2-5 cm with no metastases or that the tumor is <5 cm with movable lymph node metastases. Stage III includes cases with tumor spread to the skin of the breast or chest wall or fixed lymph node metastasis. In stage IV, there are distant metastases. In stage I, the 10-year survival is 80-100%, and with a limited spread to the lymph nodes, stage II, the prognosis is still good, at around 60-70%⁴².

After the introduction of mammography screening the frequency of early breast cancer without lymph node metastases has increased and today about two thirds of all patients have no axillary metastases at diagnosis⁴². In addition to the traditionally used prognostic markers, biomarkers expressed by tumor cells are today more clinically relevant. In case of some biomarkers, like ER and human epidermal growth factor receptor 2 (HER2), they provide both prognostic and treatment predictive information.

Histopathological classification and the Nottingham Histological Grade

Breast cancer is not an entity but a collective name for malignancies in the breast tissue with different genetic background and prognosis. Roughly, there is invasive and *in situ* breast cancer and the classification according to the World Health Organisation (WHO) is based on the histological appearance of the cancer.

Invasive breast cancer

Invasive breast cancer is divided into six histological groups and ductal and lobular invasive breast cancer account for approxi-mately 50-80% and 5-15%, respectively. Other types of rare invasive breast cancers are tubular carcinoma, medullary carcinoma, mucinous carcinoma, invasive cribriform, invasive papillary carcinoma and metaplastic breast cancer. Inflammatory breast cancer has symptoms including all the signs of inflammation, and the symptoms are caused by obstruction of the lymphatics⁴².

Invasive breast cancer is further graded according to the Nottingham Histological Grade, a three-grade scoring system for tumour aggressiveness based on mitotic count, tubular formation and degree of nuclear atypia. The score is a measure of how similar the tumour cell is to normal breast cell, i.e. the degree of differentiation. This grade is an independent prognostic factor with almost 100% 5-year survival among grade 1 patients and 60% in grade 3 patients⁴².

In situ breast cancer

In situ breast cancer is by definition a cancer that respects the natural barrier, i.e. the basal membranes, and does not invade or infiltrate their surroundings. In situ breast cancer can be divided into ductal carcinoma in situ (DCIS) and lobular carcinoma in situ (LCIS)⁴².

DCIS is a precursor lesion that has the potential to transform into an invasive

cancer over a timespan that may be a few years or decades long. DCIS was rarely diagnosed before the introduction of national mammography screening programmes in the late 1990s and today, the majority of DCIS cases are screening detected, thus asymptomatic¹⁹. DCIS that presents with clinical signs is more likely to be extensive or to have an invasive component⁴².

The traditional system for classifying DCIS was based primarily on the architectural pattern of the lesion and recognised five major subtypes: comedo, cribriform, micropapillary, papillary, and solid⁵⁰. The hallmark of the comedo pattern is the presence of prominent necrosis in the involved spaces, which can be appreciated on macroscopic examination as cords of pasty material exuding from the cut surface of the specimen or readily expressed from involved ducts by palpation. Many of the involved spaces contain necrotic cellular debris within their centres. This necrotic material frequently becomes calcified, and these calcifications may be detected mammographically 51 .

At present, there is no universally accepted histopathological classification of DCIS. In Sweden, DCIS is graded according to Holland's classification system⁵². This is based on cytonuclear differentiation and architectural differentiation (cellular polarisation). The presence of nuclear necrosis is also included in this system and, all together, DCIS is divided into three subgroups⁵².

LCIS is considered to be a marker of increased risk of an invasive cancer rather than a precursor ⁴². An incident finding of LCIS does not require treatment but warrants follow-up⁹.

Bio- and proliferation markers

Breast cancer is further classified according to the expression of different receptors. In 1896, Beatson showed remarkable regression in some breast cancer patients with metastatic disease after oophorectomy. In 1970, the ER was identified and the positive response to endocrine ablation could be explained⁵³. ER activates transcription and is often up-regulated in tumour cells. ER is expressed in over three quarters of breast cancer patients and is associated with a better prognosis^{42, 54}.

The progesterone receptor is also often upregulated in tumor cells and is simultaneously expressed in >50% of the Erpositive tumours⁴². The PR appears not to have any ER-independent mechanism of action. In a meta-analysis, no benefits of endocrine therapy in ER-negative, PRpositive tumours were found⁵⁴.

HER2 is a tyrosine kinase receptor located on the cell membrane and was identified and reported to be amplified in women with breast cancer in the late 1980s⁵⁵. Approximately 20% of all breast cancers express HER2^{56, 57} and it is strongly associated with increased disease recurrence and a poorer prognosis⁵⁸.

Ki67 is a proliferation marker expressed in the cell nucleus in all phases of the cell cycle except G0, with a maximal expression at mitosis⁴². The exact function of Ki67 is not known, out high expression is associated with poor prognosis and blocking Ki67 prevents cell proliferation⁵⁹. All three receptors (ER, PR and HER2) and Ki67 can be assessed by immunohistochemistry⁴².

Molecular subtypes

Global gene expression profiling describes the activity or level of expression of a particular gene by counting the mRNA instead of the protein for which the gene encodes. At the beginning of the 21st century, malignant breast tumours were analysed by hierarchical clustering and were shown to subdivide into five subgroups^{60, 61}. These subgroups of tumours have revealed critical differences in response to treatment^{62, 63} and survival^{60, 61}.

The technique of gene expression profiling has been developed and commercial multigene assays are available. These genetic techniques have, due to their high costs, led to surrogate molecular subtypes based on immunohistochemical analyses of the biomarkers used in the clinical setting, i.e. ER, PR, HER2 and Ki67. The surrogate molecular subtypes recommended by the St. Gallen International Expert Consensus on the Primary Therapy of Early Breast Cancer 2013⁶⁴ are:

- luminal A: ER+ and/or PR+, HER2and Ki67low
- luminal B: ER+ and/or PR-, HER2and Ki67 high or low ER+ and/or PR+, HER2- and Ki67 high
- luminal HER2+: ER+ and/or PR+, HER2+ and any Ki67
- HER2 type: ER-, PR- and HER2+
- **triple negative:** ER-, PR- and HER2-

Diagnostics

The diagnosis of breast cancer diagnosis is based on a triple diagnostic procedure with clinical examination of the breast and locoregional lymph nodes, mammography and/or ultrasound of the breast and cytological examination of cell sample obtained by fineneedle aspiration or histopathological examination of core biopsy. Using this triple procedure the sensitivity is very high, with less than 1% missed cases^{65, 66}. Mammography screening in Sweden started in 1986 and reached complete national coverage by 1997⁶⁷. According to Swedish guidelines all women between the ages 40 and 74 are offered mammographic examination at regular intervals⁶⁸. In Sweden, approximately 50% of all breast cancers are diagnosed by mammography screening¹⁹. In comparison to clinically detected breast cancer, screening-detected breast cancers are smaller, more often nodenegative and in general have a lower histological grade and a better prognosis than clinically-detected tumours^{69, 70}. The benefits of mammography screening have been debated and opponents claim that the benefits are cancelled out by the risks of over- diagnosis and over- treatment⁷¹. Data from a Cochrane review suggested that screening reduces breast cancer mortality by 15% and that over diagnosis and over treatment runs at 30%⁷². An overview of the Swedish randomised trials, show that the relative risk reduction in breast cancer mortality is approximately 21%⁷³.

Ultrasound is a routinely used complement to mammography and has a higher sensitivity, especially in women with high density breasts ⁷⁴. Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) is recommended when screening women who are BRCA 1 and/or 2 carriers, as MRI is reported to have a higher sensitivity than other imaging modalities⁷⁵.

Treatment

Sweden has national and regional guidelines for the treatment of breast cancer and the primary treatment for the majority of patients is surgery^{68, 76}. According to these guidelines, all breast cancer patients are to be discussed at pre- and postoperative multidisciplinary conferences. Surgery of the breast is currently performed either as a mastectomy or breastconserving surgery, where the tumourbearing part of the breast is removed. Since the 1990s, breast-conserving surgery has become more common than mastectomy and today approximately 55% of all patients in Sweden receive breast-conserving surgery¹⁹. The decision regarding the surgery is based on tumour size in relation to the size of the breast, whether there are multiple cancer regions in the breast and the patient's own wishes. Prospective randomised trials, with long follow-up times, have not shown any differences in survival between breastconserving surgery, followed by radiotherapy of the breast and mastectomy⁷⁷⁻⁷⁹.

History of breast cancer treatment

The contemporary history of breast cancer surgery is strongly associated with the American surgeon William Halsted (1852-1922). In 1882 he performed the first radical mastectomy at the John Hopkins Hospital⁸⁰. The radical mastectomy comprised en-bloc extirpation of the breast gland, the pectoral major and minor muscles and extensive removal of axillary and adjacently located lymph nodes (exposing the subclavian vein and the brachial plexus). This extensive procedure resulted in comparatively superior locoregional control and became the gold standard for breast cancer surgery for the next hundred years. However, the severe disfigurement created by the radical mastectomy also raised doubts as to whether such extensive surgery was necessary. In 1948, Patey and Dyson described a

modification of the Halstedian operation and named it the "modified radical mastectomy". Here, the pectoralis major muscle was spared, which significantly decreased postoperative morbidity⁸¹. In the 1960s, Bernard Fisher revolutionised cancer treatment with the theory that breast cancer may be a systemic disease, the outcome of which would not merely depend upon the extent of locoregional treatment⁸². With the advent of radiotherapv in the1930s and 1940s, and the knowledge of the side effects of extensive surgery, alternative surgical procedures such as breastconserving surgery and mastectomy, with or without radiotherapy, and more limited axillary dissection were introduced in clinical studies^{77, 81, 83}

The application of oncoplastic surgery techniques further allows complete removal of the tumour with adequate surgical margins, and preserves the natural appearance of the breast⁸⁴. In case of mastectomy, the loss of a breast might constitute a psychological trauma for some women and a breast reconstruction can help to restore body image and improve health-related quality of life (HRQOL) after mastectomy^{85, 86}.

Historically, DCIS was treated with mastectomy, but since the 1980s, breast-conserving surgery for DCIS has been recommended whenever feasible. Mastectomy and breastconserving surgery for DCIS have not been compared in randomized trials. However data from observational studies suggest that the rates of local or regional recurrence are significantly lower after mastectomy than after breast-conserving surgery, but no significant differences in survival has been shown⁸⁷⁻⁸⁹. Mastectomy is still recommended for women with multifocal DCIS and/or an unfavourable proportion between tumor size and breast volume. For these women immediatebreast reconstruction (IBR) may be an alternative in order to maintain a breast contour.

Breast reconstruction

Reconstruction of the breast can be performed using an implant or autologous tissue, or a combination of both. In 1961, the first silicone implant was launched by Cronin and Gerow and, in 1963, the first implant was placed into a patient⁹⁰. Becker further developed the tissue expander which came into frequent use in the 1990s. Since then, five generations of implants have been developed. The advances primarily include improvement of materials, design and contour.

The choice of a reconstructive method is a multifactorial issue with many aspects to take into consideration, e.g. oncological safety, primary or delayed reconstruction, autolog-ous tissue or implant, and the patient's condition and preferences. The local expertise and competence in reconstructive surgery influences the choice of method. Breast reconstructions were initially made mainly by plastic surgeons as a delayed procedure. However, the number of IBRs has increased in recent years, and so has the number of breast surgeons performing the procedure.

Any woman planned for mastectomy may be a candidate for IBR. Absolute contraindications are inflammatory cancer, growth in skin or thoracic wall, and relative contraindications are distant metastases, patients who are active smokers and/or obese, and those with co-morbidities and unrealistic expectations. Although the number of performed IBRs has increased in recent years, the proportion of breast cancer patients undergoing the procedure in Sweden is only 6%¹⁹.

Axillary surgery

Axillary surgery is indicated in all patients with invasive breast cancer, and axillary lymph node status is an important prognostic factor for breast cancer recurrence and death^{91, 92}. Axillary surgery is primarily a staging procedure to determine prognosis and decide upon the appropriate adjuvant therapy⁹. However, it also protects against axillary recurrence and for some patients, it has a survival benefit⁹³⁻⁹⁵. The fewer the nodes that are removed the greater the likelihood of leaving involved nodes in the axillae, followed by a higher risk of axillary recurrence⁹⁵. However, the more axillary lymph nodes removed, the greater risk of arm morbidity⁹⁶. The removal of ten lymph nodes has been suggested as reasonable compromise⁴². Earlier detection of breast cancer by the introduction of mammography screening has resulted in an increasing number of patients with smaller tumors and node negative disease^{69, 70}. For patients without axillary metastases, axillary lymph node dissection (ALND) is of no value. ALND was the standard surgical procedure well into the 1990s, when it was replaced by the sentinel lymph node biopsy (SLNB), for those patients being clinically node-negative⁹⁷.

Sentinel lymph node biopsy

The sentinel node is the first lymph node or group of lymph nodes draining a cancer. The term "sentinel node" was first used in 1951 by Gould *et al*, who, during a parotidectomy for a parotid cancer, noticed a normal looking lymph node at the junction of the anterior and posterior facial vein. The node was excised and sent for frozen section pathology and, surprisingly, was found to be a metastatic lymph node⁹⁸. In 1977, Cabanas used the term sentinel node to describe a group of lymph nodes most likely to be the primary site for metastases in penile carcinoma. He suggested that these lymph nodes could be removed by limited surgery and examined to determine whether further lymph node dissection should be performed⁹⁹. The injection of blue dye into the breast tissue was performed by Turner-Warwick to demonstrate the lymphatic drainage of the breast in the late 1950s¹⁰⁰. In 1993, the SLNB technique was described in breast cancer patients using Tc99m-sulphur colloid and gamma detector¹⁰¹. The following year, the first study in breast cancer patients using the blue dye

method was published¹⁰². Shortly thereafter a study using a combination of blue dye and isotope was published, which demonstrated improved detection rate¹⁰³. In Sweden, the SLNB was introduced through nationwide studies before it become a clinical routine^{97, 104}

The sentinel node is identified by injecting a radioactive isotope intradermally, close to the tumour prior to the operation. Blue dye is injected in the same area when the patient is on the operating table. The blue dye and the isotope follow the lymphatic drainage of the area in the same way metastatic tumor cells are drained. A gamma probe is used to locate the sentinel node in the axillae and the dissection can start 5-10 minutes after the injection of the dye. The isotope and the blue dye help the surgeon to identify the affected lymph node or nodes by following a blue lymphatic tract and listening to the gamma-probe. The resected lymph node or nodes can be sent for immediate histopathological analysis. If metastases are found, complementary ALND is performed.

The major advantage of SLNB is that in the case of absence of sentinel node metastases, the rest of the axillae is left intact; which decreases the risk of postoperative arm morbidity. In a meta-analysis, the incidence of arm lymphoedema was about four times higher in women after ALND than it was in those who had SLNB⁹⁶. Despite the less invasive nature of SLNB, studies have indicated that there is still a risk of arm morbidity such as limitation in movement of the shoulder, arm lymphoedema and paraesthesia¹⁰⁵⁻¹⁰⁸. Another possible advantage is a more accurate staging, as the dye and isotope identifies the lymph node or nodes most likely to contain metastases, a lymph node that might have been left out during ALND. The SLNB has been validated in several studies and has a high sensitivity^{97, 104,} ¹⁰⁹. Furthermore, overall survival, diseasefree survival, and regional control appear to groups¹¹⁰, 111 between be equivalent



Figure 2. Sentinel lymph node biopsy. *With the kind permission of Jana de Boniface.*



Figure 3. The sentinel lymph node.

The need for SLNB in patients with a preoperative diagnosis of DCIS is debated. There have been reports that question the need for SLNB in patients with pure DCIS due to the very low rate of axillary metastases¹¹²⁻¹¹⁴. However, in a meta-analysis, the overall estimate for the incidence of sentinel lymph node SLN metastases in patients with a preoperative diagnosis of DCIS was 7.4%¹¹⁵. In clinical practice, SLNB is considered in patients with high risk DCIS (grade III, with palpable mass or large size on imaging), as well as in patients undergoing mastectomy after a prior breast-conserving surgery for DCIS.

Radiotherapy

Already in the latter part of the 19th century, radiotherapy was given to breast cancer patients. Initially it was given mainly as palliation for advanced breast cancer cases, but from 1930 onwards radiotherapy was given as a complement after radical surgery⁴². Postoperative radiotherapy is given in order to eradicate microscopic residual tumours and, to reduce loco-regional recurrence and, potentially, improve overall survival. According to Swedish and International guidelines, radiotherapy to the breast or chest wall is recom-

mended for those patients treated with breastconserving surgery or after mastectomy for tumours >5cm, i.e. when the risk of local recurrence is >20% within the next 10 years⁹. A meta-analysis reported that after breastconserving surgery, radiotherapy to the breast reduces the risk of recurrence by 50% and reduces breast cancer mortality by about a sixth ¹¹⁶.

There is no world-wide consensus on the radiation dose and fractions that are used after breast cancer surgery, and in Sweden there have been different regimes in different regions. Today, after breast-conserving surgery, the national guidelines recommend radiotherapy delivered as two opposed tangential fields in 25 fractions of 2 gray (Gy) up to a total dose of 50 Gy. An additional booster dose of 16 Gy is given to patients ≤ 40 years of age at diagnosis ⁹. Women with \geq 4 axillary lymph node metastases receive radiotherapy both to loco-regional lymph nodes and to the chest wall after mastectomy. For breast tumours < 5 cm, in patients with 1-3 lymph node metastases, the benefits of loco-regional therapy of the axillae and supraclavicular area is uncertain⁹. According to present national guidelines radiotherapy should be considered in patients with 1-3 lymph node metastases,

in presence of lymphovascular invasion, age ≤ 40 and histological grade III. Radiotherapy should also be considered if >20% of the examined lymph nodes have metastases.

Four randomised clinical trials have shown that postoperative radiotherapy after breast-conserving surgery for DCIS significantly reduces the risk of a ipsilateral DCIS or invasive recurrence by almost 50%^{36, 117-119}. An overview from 2010 reported that radio-therapy reduced the absolute 10-year risk of any ipsilateral breast event by 15%¹²⁰. Older (>50 years) patients received greater benefit from radiotherapy than younger ones.

Early side effects from radiotherapy includes erythema, fatigue, nausea and pneumonitis^{42,}¹²¹. Years after radiotherapy, side effects such as arm lymphoedema, skin atrophy, pain, fibrosis of the lung, and ischemic heart disease can occur^{42, 79, 122, 123}. Brachial plexus neuropathy with paralysis is a severe but uncommon side effect with the radiation dose and fractions that are used today¹²⁴.

Systemic therapy

Adjuvant systemic therapy is given to eliminate micro metastases remaining in any part of the body and includes endocrine therapy, chemotherapy and anti-HER2 therapy.

Endocrine therapy

The main source of oestrogen are the ovaries in premenopausal women, while in postmenopausal women most of the body's oestrogen is synthesised from adrenal and ovarian androgens in the muscles, adipose tissue and liver. Approximately 70-80% of all breast cancer tumours are ER-positive⁴². The effects of oestrogen on the tumour can be inhibited either by blocking the ER with tamoxifen, by binding, blocking and increasing the degradation of the ER by fulvestran, or by preventing the synthesis of oestrogen by aromatase inhibitors. Tamoxifen can be used for all ER- and/or PR-positive breast cancer regardless of menopausal status. In a meta-analysis, ER- positive breast cancer patients treated with tamoxifen for about five years, experienced a reduction in breast cancer mortality of about a third throughout the first 15 years⁵⁴. Prolonged treatment with tamoxifen for total of 10 years has been reported to further reduce breast cancer death ¹²⁵. The most common side effects caused by tamoxifen are hot flushes, vaginal dryness, discharge, or irritation and decreased interest in sex^{126, 127}. Other side effects that are rare but more severe include endometrial cancer and thromboembolic events^{42, 127}.

The effect of aromatase inhibitors is restricted to postmenopausal women as they work by inhibiting the action of the enzyme aromatase, which converts androgens into oestrogens in peripheral tissue and have no effect on the ovarian oestrogen production. Studies have shown a significantly reduced recurrence rate and mortality when comparing aromatase inhibitors with tamoxifen in postmenopausal women with hormone-sensitive breast cancer¹²⁸⁻¹³⁰. A recent metaanalysis, however, revealed no significant decrease in mortality, yet an absolute reduced recurrence rate of 2.9% when comparing five years of treatment with tamoxifen versus aromatase inhibitors¹³¹. Side effects for aromatase inhibitors include osteoporosis, fractures, arthralgia and hypercholesterolemia^{127, 132}.

In a randomised study, women treated with breast-conserving surgery and radiotherapy, tamoxifen reduced the likelihood of an ipsilateral breast cancer recurrence five years after surgery from 9 to 6%¹³³. Today, tamoxifen is not routinely given to patients with DCIS.

Chemotherapy

Adjuvant chemotherapy was introduced in clinical trials in the 1950s and the first study reporting a significantly improved survival was published in 1968⁸². Bonadonna initiated the first randomised clinical trial comparing polychemotherapy versus no chemotherapy

in node-positive breast cancer patients and reported a decrease in recurrence rate¹³⁴. Overall survival was also increased at 20-year follow-up¹³⁵. The Early Breast Cancer Trialists' Collaborative Group (EBCTCG) was established in the early 1980s and the aim was to coordinate meta-analyses of all randomised trials of adjuvant breast cancer treatment. The first meta-analysis was presented in 1988 and the latest in 2012, which reported that the 10-year risk of death from breast cancer can be reduced by a third for women treated with modern regimes with the addition of taxanes to athracyclines compared with women treated with no chemotherapy 136 . These results were independent of age, nodal status, tumour size, histological grade, ER status and Tamoxifen use. These metaanalyses have provided the basis for modern chemotherapy and current guidelines recommend chemotherapy to patients with axillary lymph node metastases. Node-negative patients with unfavourable tumour characteristics such as large tumour size >1cm, high proliferation rate, ER-negative tumours, HER2 positivity and young age may also be recommended chemotherapy⁹. Chemotherapy for breast cancer has - like most chemotherapy regimens -a number of side effects. It is important to even further tailor the adjuvant chemotherapy so only women who benefit from the therapy receive it, as it has been shown to have several side-effects and symptoms that negatively affect quality of life^{137,} ¹³⁸. There is no role for chemotherapy in DCIS treatment ⁵¹.

Monoclonal antibodies

Trastuzumab is a monoclonal antibody directed against the tyrosine kinase receptor HER2. Over-expression of HER2 occurs in approximately 15% of breast cancers patients⁵⁷ and is strongly associated with an increased risk of recurrence and a poorer prognosis^{56, 58}. Adjuvant treatment with trastazumab reduces mortality by 30% and recurrences by 50% ¹³⁹⁻¹⁴¹. The most clinically significant side effect of trastuzumab is the

risk of cardiac myocyte injury, leading to the development of congestive heart failure⁵⁶.

The lymphatic system and lymphoedema

The lymphatic system

Olof Rudbeck, a Swedish scientist published his theses De Cirkulatione Sanguinis in 1652 and became the first to describe the function of the lymphatic system¹⁴². The initial lymph vessels start blindly, are valveless, branch abundantly and are anastomose free. They consist of a single endothelial layer and communicate with larger vessels, the precollectors, which in addition also contain an accessory membrane, a few smooth muscle cells and valves. Next, the lymph collectors consist of three layers (intimae, media and adventitia) corresponding with the layers in veins and arteries. They also contain valves. The smooth muscle cells in the collectors, together with valves, direct the lymph towards the heart¹⁴³. There are superficial, deep and visceral collectors. The later supply the inner organs, the superficial collectors merely follow the superficial veins and the deep lymphatic vessels are located beneath the muscle fascia and follow the main blood vessels. The superficial and deep lymphatic systems are considered to be anatomically separated from one another. Connections between them have, however, been demonstrated especially under pathological conditions¹⁴⁴. There are also lymphovenous communications, some of which function constantly whereas others do so only under pathological conditions¹⁴⁵. These connections could enable the transit of circulating tumor cells from one system to another 146 .

On the way from the periphery to the central veins, the lymph passes at least one lymph node. The presence of lymph nodes is the major difference between the blood and the lymphatic vessel¹⁴³. The most frequent metastatic location for breast cancer is in the axillary lymph nodes. There are three levels

of axillary lymph nodes in the axillae. Level I is the bottom level, below the lower edge of the pectoralis minor muscle. Level II lies underneath the pectoralis minor muscle and Level III is between the pectoralis minor muscle and the lower border of the clavicle. The sentinel lymph node is usually found in level I⁴². The ipsilateral axillary lymph nodes receive more than 75% of the lymphatic drainage from the breast with the lymph nodes below the pectoralis minor muscle receiving it first. The internal mammary chain represents another important pathway for the lymph drainage from the breast. There are reports that the incidence of a positive sentinel lymph node in the internal mammary chain in up to 32% of cases, although solitary metastases here are very rare^{109, 147}.

Arm lymphoedema

Lymphoedema is divided into primary and secondary lymphoedema. Primary lymphoedema is caused by a disease or malformation in the lymphatic vessels, whereas a secondary lymphoedema is a result of disease or trauma in another organ¹⁴³. Unlike oedema caused by heart failure. lymphoedema is rich in proteins, which in the long-term has a negative effect on the tissue by stimulating the growth of fibrocytes¹⁴³. Arm lymphoedema is defined as a chronic swelling of the upper limb caused by an impairment of lymph drainage. It is a well-recognised long-term complication related to breast and axillary surgery, radiotherapy and nodal status. Other factors such as recurrent infections may increase the incidence. It can also cause recurrent erysipelas, which increases the swelling even more^{148, 149}.

Arm lymphoedema in breast cancer patients was first described as a side effect of radical mastectomy by Halsted in 1921¹⁵⁰. The destruction of lymphatic vessels, removal of lymph nodes and tissue scarring results in an incapacity for the remaining lymph vessels to remove the lymph. The vessels become dilated, overloaded and their valves incompetent. This spreads distally until the most peripheral lymph vessels become dilated, resulting in the accumulation of interstitial fluid, usually in the subcutaneous tissue¹⁵¹. At this stage the lymphoedema is soft and pitting oedema can be seen. In a parallel process, the mononuclear phagocyte system begins to lose its capacity to remove the proteins that accumulate. These proteins are osmotically active and attract even more fluid to the area. In time, there will be an increase in the adipose tissue, due to an effect of the decrease in lymph circulation $^{152-154}$. The mechanism for this is not yet fully understood. It is the increase in adipose tissue that subsequently causes subcutaneous lymphoedema to become firm and denser¹⁵⁵. Later, the activation of fibrocytes increases the component of connective tissue in chronic lymph oedema¹⁴³. Due to increased breast cancer incidence and reduced mortality, more women will face the risk of developing lymphoedema. Arm lymphoedema can be severe and causes considerable psychological morbidity, pain, disability and impairs the activities of daily living^{137, 156-} 159

The reported incidence of arm lymphoedema after breast cancer surgery varies widely, from 6 to 49%, and can occur weeks to years after surgery ^{107, 159-164}. The true incidence is difficult to assess because of the varying criteria used to define lymphoedema, differences in measuring the oedema and different follow-up times across studies. ALND has previously been standard for staging the axillae in women with invasive breast cancer. However, it is associated with a number of side effects including lymphoedema, pain, numbness and limited shoulder movements^{156, 157,}

^{161, 165}. Despite the less invasive nature of SLNB, studies have indicated that there is still a risk for arm morbidity such as limitation in movement of the shoulder, arm lymphoedema and paraesthesia^{105-108, 166}.

Measurements

Mainly for therapeutic reasons there have been attempts to classify arm lymphoedema. Several techniques, classified as internal and external, have been used to measure the difference in the involved arm compared with the non-operated side after breast cancer surgery.

The internal techniques are expensive, highly technology-based and include computed to-mography, magnetic resonance imaging, ul-trasound with and without Doppler flow, bio-impedance spectroscopy and lymphoscinti-graphic investigations^{167, 168}.

The external techniques involve clinical signs, measuring arm circumference or armvolume by using water displacement volumetry, or they can be based on functional disabilities or self-perceived symptoms^{169, 170}. Water displacement volumetry offers a reliable and objective method and is considered the gold standard for measuring arm lymphoedema^{167, 169, 170}. The definition used by Stillwell is based on the volume of the oedema in relation to the contralateral limb expressed as a percentage: insignificant (<10% difference), slight (10-20%), moderate (20marked (40-80%) 40%), and severe $(>80\%)^{171}$. The lymphoedema can also be classified into clinical signs as proposed by the International Society of Lymphology; grade I is characterised by pits left after pressure and is largely reduced or completely restored after arm elevation. Grade II is characterised by fibrosis and does not respond to either pressure or arm elevation¹⁷².

Treatment

In the initial phase of the lymphoedema there is only lymph in the oedema and it is reversible and more easily treated. The International Society of Lymphology and the Swedish guidelines recommend non-surgical treatment to prevent worsening of the lymphoedema and prevent increase in adipose tissue^{172, 173}. Ideally, patients should be evaluated by a multidisciplinary rehabilitation team and be offered conservative treatment including information, skin treatment, standard elastic comprehension garments, exercise and a specific form of massage known as manual lymphatic drainage. This massage is thought to mobilise oedema fluid from the distal to proximal areas and from areas of stasis to healthy lymphatics. For patients with large lymphoedema, an intense period of treatment for 2-3 weeks is needed. Compression therapy may also be provided with the use of compression pumps. For patients who are not sufficiently responsive to nonsurgical treatment reconstructive microsurgery with lymphaticovenous anastomosis may be a therapy to consider¹⁷⁴⁻¹⁷⁶. However, it is only performed in some centres and the evidence is low.

The above therapies work when the excess swelling consists of accumulated lymph but do not work when the excess volume is dominated by adipose tissue ¹⁷⁷. Chronic non-pitting oedema can be removed by the use of liposuction. There are results that this can be done without further reduction in lymph transportation and that it has good long-term results¹⁷⁷⁻¹⁷⁹. However, the use of a compression garment after liposuction is necessary to maintain the normalised arm volume¹⁷⁹.

Patient-reported outcome measures

HRQOL, the term for quality of life used in research and clinical practice, is limited to the quality of life related to a disease, and its symptoms and treatment¹⁸⁰. Half a century ago, the WHO introduced this multidimensional health concept by defining health as "a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being, and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity"¹⁸¹. Although there is no generally accepted definition of HROOL, most definitions agree that HRQOL is a multidimensional concept including at least four dimensions: physical function, emotional function, cognitive and social function, as well as symptoms and problems related to the disease. It should preferably be estimated by the individual himself and is variable over time¹⁸⁰. Several models of HRQOL have been presented, of which the model presented by Wilson and Cleary in 1995 is the most used in published HROOL frequently studies^{182, 183}. This model integrates biological and psychosocial aspects of health outcomes by linking measures of HROOL to traditional clinical variables. Five core domains are depicted in the scheme, including biological and physiological factors, symptom status, functional status, general health, perceptions, and overall quality of life¹⁸². As stated above, HRQOL is a subjective experience and should preferably be reported by the patient. Studies have shown that there is poor correlation between patients' and health professionals' evaluation of patients' problems ¹⁸⁴, as well as the experts versus the patients opinion on for example the outcome of a reconstructive breast reconstruction^{185, 186}. The U.S. Food and Drug Administration recently coined the umbrella term patient-reported outcome (PRO), which further emphasises the subjective nature of HRQOL¹⁸⁷. A PRO is any report coming directly from patients, without interpretation by physicians or others about how they function or feel in relation to their health condition, disease or its therapy.

Thus, PRO is a broader term than HRQOL, encompassing the effects of treatment, symptoms, side effects, perception of treatment and satisfaction with care¹⁸⁷.

There is a wide variety of different HRQOL questionnaires available. These can schematically be categorised into generic, diseasespecific, and aspects or domain-specific. Generic HRQOL questionnaires are intended for use across a wide range of populations, allowing for the comparison of data across studies and against the general population. The most widely used is the Medical Outcomes Study-36 item short form (SF-36). Disease-specific **HROOL**-questionnaires cover issues that are relevant to certain groups of diseases, e.g. the Functional Assessment of Cancer Therapy-General (FACT-G) and the European Organization for Research and Treatment of Cancer Core Quality of Life Questionnaire (EORTC QLQ-C30), which is intended for cancer patients. These questionnaires can be complemented with modules for a specific cancer site and treatment aspects e.g. the EORTC-BR23, intended to assess breast cancer specific topics.

Aspect- or domain-specific questionnaires address one specific domain of HRQOL in greater detail and include the Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale (HADS), the Body Image Scale (BIS), and the McGill Pain Questionnaire.

Breast cancer and HRQOL

Among the HRQOL studies in cancer patients, breast cancer has received most attention for several reasons. Firstly, the number of women with breast cancer is increasing. Secondly, the early detection and treatment of breast cancer has improved and survivors now live longer; thus studying HRQOL in this context is important. Thirdly, breast cancer affects women's identities and therefore studying the HRQOL is vital.

There is a significant body of literature regarding HRQOL in breast cancer patients.

In summary, these studies report that the and treatment, diagnosis in particular chemotherapy and endocrine treatment, have a negative effect on patients' HRQOL¹⁸⁸⁻¹⁹¹. The psychosocial impact of the type of primary surgery for breast cancer occurs largely in areas of body image and feelings of attractiveness, with women receiving breast conserving surgery experiencing the most positive outcome ^{85, 192, 193}. Beyond the first years after diagnosis, a woman's quality of life is more likely influenced by her age or exposure to adjuvant therapy than by her breast cancer surgery.

With this stated, the majority of "long-term survivors" after breast cancer report a good overall HRQOL, despite the fact that many patients have some specific problems such as arm morbidity and sexual problems^{138, 194-198}. Comorbidity, lack of social support, financial problems, and previously having had adjuvant chemotherapy all appears to have negative impact on HRQOL^{138, 198, 199}. Helena Sackey

AIMS OF THE THESIS

The main aim of this thesis was to extend the knowledge on health-related quality of life and lymphoedema after breast cancer surgery and to evaluate the risk of future invasive disease following an *in situ* breast cancer diagnosis.

The specific aims were:

- 1. To investigate and compare long-term health-related quality of life, body image, and emotional reactions in women with ductal carcinoma *in situ* breast cancer treated with different surgical methods.
- 2. To evaluate long-term risk of subsequent breast cancer and mortality in women diagnosed with *in situ* breast cancer.
- 3. To evaluate the impact of family history on long-term risk of subsequent breast cancer and mortality among women diagnosed with *in situ* breast cancer.
- 4. To compare arm lymphoedema after sentinel lymph node biopsy alone versus axillary lymph node dissection, both in node-negative and node-positive breast cancer patients.
- 5. To examine the potential association between self-perceived symptoms of arm lymphoedema and objectively measured arm lymphoedema.
- 6. To compare long-term health-related quality of life in patients undergoing sentinel lymph node biopsy alone versus axillary lymph node dissection, with or without axillary metastases.
- 7. To assess the impact of objective arm lymphoedema and self-perceived symptoms of arm lymphoedema on health-related quality of life in patients with invasive breast cancer.

Helena Sackey

"Whenever a theory appears to you as the only possible one, take this as a sign that you have neither understood the theory nor the problem which it was intended to solve".

Karl Popper

Data Sources

The Regional Breast Cancer Register Stockholm- Gotland (Paper I)

Since 1976, all new primary breast cancers in the Stockholm-Gotland Health Care Region have been reported to a central regional breast cancer registry²⁰⁰. The register holds information on the individually unique national registration number, International Classification of Disease (ICD)-code, date of diagnosis, receptor status, surgery, adjuvant treatment as well as data on locoregional and distant recurrences.

The Plastic Surgery Register (Paper I)

The register was initiated in 1990 to report on all immediate breast reconstructions performed at the Department of Reconstructive and Plastic Surgery at Karolinska University Hospital. The register holds information on the individually unique national registration number, diagnosis, date of surgery and surgery performed.

The Swedish National DCIS study (Paper I)

The Swedish National DCIS study was a multicentre study that assessed the effect of postoperative radiotherapy after breast conserving surgery³⁶. A total of 1046 women with screening-detected DCIS were randomised to postoperative radiotherapy or not between 1987 and 1999. The primary endpoint was ipsilateral local recurrence.

Multi-Generation Register (Paper II)

The Multi-Generation Register (MGR) includes all Swedish residents born after 1931, who were alive in 1960, and all those born thereafter²⁰¹. The Register was initiated in 1961 from written records in church parishes and country registration offices. It contains links between children and parents through their individually unique national registration numbers. From 1961 to 2001 the completeness of the MGR improved substantially and since 1991 it has been considered to be almost complete.

Swedish Cancer Register (Paper II)

The Swedish Cancer Register was established in 1958. It is a nationwide, population-based register that contains information on virtually all diagnosed cancers in Sweden since 1958²⁰². Reporting new cancer diagnoses is mandatory for all clinicians and pathologists. The register is considered complete for invasive cancer²⁰³⁻²⁰⁵ and almost complete with regard to *in situ* breast cancer from 1980 onwards²⁰⁴. All cancer diagnoses are registered according to ICD-code.

The Swedish Causes of Death Register (Paper II)

The nation-wide Swedish Causes of Death Register was established in 1952. It provides information on date and cause of death, as well as the underlying and contributory causes of death of all deceased Swedish residents. The completeness of the register is estimated to exceed 99%²⁰⁶.

The Total Population Register (Paper II)

The Total Population Register records the vital life events of the inhabitants of Sweden²⁰⁷. The data is administered by the Swedish Tax Agency. The register spans several centuries of data and provides information on each citizen's personal identity number, sex, births, marital status, address, country of birth, immigration, emigration, and date of death.

Study Population

Paper I

All women who took part in the Swedish National DCIS study³⁶ between 1991 and 1999 in the County of Stockholm were eligible. Furthermore, all women with DCIS who underwent mastectomy and immediate breast reconstruction at Karolinska University Hospital, Stockholm, during the same period, were asked to participate in the present study. Only women with DCIS proven by final histopathology, a total of 162 women, were included in the study. Exclusion criteria were: Paget's disease of the nipple, invasive breast cancer, lobular carcinoma in situ, ongoing tamoxifen treatment, and a history of present or previous malignancy (except basalioma and cervical cancer). Furthermore, women with dementia, severe brain damage, and without sufficient knowledge of the Swedish language were excluded, as were those with an invasive recurrence after primary DCIS surgery. Prior to inclusion, all data were controlled against the Regional Breast Cancer Register to validate the DCIS diagnosis.

Paper II

Data from the Multi-Generation Register (including more than 11 million individuals, from around three million families) were combined with the Swedish Cancer Register, the Cause of Death Register, and the Total Population Register. Family history of breast cancer was defined as having at least one first-degree relative diagnosed with invasive breast cancer at any point in time. Our final study population consisted of 8111 women in the Swedish Multi-Generation Register diagnosed with primary diagnosis of *in situ* breast cancer between January 1st 1980 and January 1st 2005.

Papers III and IV

The study cohort consisted of 557 women with invasive breast cancer undergoing breast cancer surgery in four centres in Sweden between 1999 and 2004. Difficulty in understanding the Swedish language, bilateral breast cancer, clinically fixed axillary metastases, neoadjuvant treatment and previous surgery or radiation therapy to either axillae were exclusion criteria.

Methods

Treatment (Studies I, III and IV)

Patients were treated according to the prevailing national and regional guidelines; breastconserving surgery was performed as a sector resection as previously defined²⁰⁸. For women who had mastectomy and immediate breast reconstruction, the reconstructive method was implant based with an expander prostheses (Paper I). All axillary lymph node dissections (ALND) included level I and II. The sentinel nodes were identified by the combined dye and isotope mappingtechnique¹⁰². Experienced breast surgeons or trainees under supervision performed the operations.

Radiotherapy was administered with tangential fields with 2 Gy daily 25 times up to 50 Gy to the breast after breast-conserving surgery and to the chest wall after mastectomy for tumours over 5 cm. Postoperative adjuvant chemotherapy and/or endocrine treatment was recommended according to the Swedish guidelines depending on the patient's age, hormone receptor status, lymph node status, Elston grade, HER2 status and comorbidity⁹.

Arm volume (Papers III and IV)

Arm volume was measured using the water displacement technique^{170, 209}, which is considered a reliable and valid tool for estimating arm volume after breast cancer surgery²¹⁰. A nurse, trained in the procedure, measured both arms repeatedly and the difference in ml between the arms was recorded. This difference defined the increase in arm volume and was followed over time and compared between study groups.



Figure 4. Arm volume measurement. *With the kind permission of Håkan Brorson and the patient.*

Questionnaires

The Hospital Anxiety and Depression (HAD) scale (Paper I)

The HAD scale consists of 14 items, seven assessing anxiety and seven depression²¹¹.

The possible sum score of each scale ranges from 0 to 21, with each item scored from 0 to 3 points. High summated scores represent high levels of problems. Cut-off points for each of the scales are: < 8 (within normal range), 8-10 (possible clinical case), and ≥ 11 (clinical case). The HAD scale is considered a reliable and valid instrument for the assessment of anxiety and depression in somatic, psychiatric, and primary care patients, as well as in the general population²¹². The Swedish version has been validated in breast cancer patients against diary recordings²¹³.

The Body Image Scale (BIS) (Paper I)

The BIS was designed for the assessment of body image in cancer patients²¹⁴. It consists of 10 items concerning the impact of surgery on self-consciousness, physical and sexual attractiveness, femininity, satisfaction with body and scars, body integrity, and avoidance behaviour. The BIS items are scored from 0 (not at all) to 3 (very much). A high score represents problems with body image. The BIS scale has a high reliability and good clinical validity²¹⁴. No formal validation or reliability testing of the Swedish version has been performed. The translation into Swedish was performed by a group of five professionals (three nurses, one sociologist, and one psychologist) at the Department of Oncology, Karolinska University Hospital.



Figure 5. The measurement model of SF-36 questionnaire. Adapted from Ware et al. 1992.

The Swedish SF-36 Health Survey (Papers I and IV)

The Swedish SF-36 Health Survey (SF-36) is used to asses health-related quality of life (HRQOL). It is a standardised questionnaire that has been widely used in international studies. The Swedish version has been validated, and normative data for Swedish wom-en are available^{215, 216}. The SF-36 consists of 36 items constituting eight domains: physical functioning (PF), role limitations as a result of physical problems (RP), bodily pain (BP), general health perception (GH), vitality (VT), social functioning (SF), role limitation due to emotional problems (RE), and mental health (MH). The first three domains (PF, RF, and BP) measure physical well-being and the last three (SF, RE, and MH) relate to emotional well-being. A high score on the subscales

signifies a higher level of function and HRQOL.

Self-perceived symptoms of lymphoedema (Paper III and IV)

At the time of the start of the study there was no existing validated instrument for assessment of symptoms after axillary surgery. Therefore, a questionnaire was designed by a group of breast surgeons, a physiotherapist specialized in arm lymphoedema treatment, a psychologist, and an anaesthetist specialising in pain management. The final questionnaire format was determined after using a pilot questionnaire in consultation with breast cancer patients. The questionnaire consists of eight questions: four regarding early signs of
lymphatic insufficiency (does your operated arm feel heavy, tired, sore or tense ?) and four regarding arm lymphoedema (are your fingers, hand, arm or axillae/breast/chest wall swollen?). The items scores were, 0 (never), 1 (sometimes) and 2 (always).

Statistical Analysis

Paper I

The scores derived from the SF-36 questionnaire were linearly transformed into a 0-100 scale according to the SF-36 manual²¹⁶. The results were compared with normative data from an age-matched reference group consisting of 920 women from the general Swedish population. The mean HAD subscale values were compared between groups, as well as proportions of patients in each clinical stage, as suggested by the original authors²¹¹. Student's t-test was used to evaluate differences between the study sample and normative data (SF-36). ANOVA repeated measurement was used to evaluate differences between the three study groups on HAD subscales and SF-36 subscales. Chi-2 test was used for categorical data (HAD and BIS). Differences between groups were considered statistically significant when p < 0.01. Statistical analyses were done using StatView version 4.5 (SAS Institute, Cary, NC, USA).

Paper II

The standardised incidence ratios (SIRs), i.e., the ratio of the observed to the expected number of breast cancers (ipsi-or contralateral invasive or contralateral *in situ* breast cancer), standardised by age and calendar period, were used as a measure of relative risk, and were stratified by family history of breast cancer. All women were followed from the date of their first *in situ* breast cancer diagnosis until a subsequent breast cancer event, emigration, death, or end of follow-up, whichever came first. The expected number of subsequent breast cancer events was calculated as the product of the person-years accumulated by women with *in situ* breast cancer by the age and calendar period-specific incidence of unilateral *in situ*/invasive breast cancer of the general population in the Swedish Multi-Generation Register.

Excess additive risks (EARs), i.e. the difference between the observed number of subsequent invasive breast cancers and the expected number in the general population in the Swedish Multi-Generation register, were used as a measure of absolute risk for subsequent invasive cancer.

The standardised mortality ratio (SMR), i.e. the ratio of the observed to the expected number of deaths, standardised by age and calendar period, was used as a measure of relative mortality. The expected number of deaths was calculated from the general population in the Swedish Multi-Generation regis-For overall SMRs, subjects were folter. lowed from the date of the first in situ breast cancer diagnosis until date of emigration, death, or end of follow-up, whichever came first. All data preparation and analysis were done using the SAS statistical package, version 8.2 or higher (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA).

Paper III

A mixed model with first order autoregressive correlation structure was used to compare the mean arm-volume difference between the three study groups over time. In the unadjusted model, the study group, years after surgery and their interaction term were included. In the adjusted model, body mass index (BMI) at surgery, age at surgery, preoperative difference in arm volume, surgery on the dominant side, body mass index change from the preoperative value, and radiotherapy to breast and lymph nodes were included. A mixed model was also used to evaluate armvolume differences with self-perceived symptoms of lymphoedema.

Logistic regression for repeated measurements by generalized estimating equations (GEE), with an exchangeable correlation structure was used to analyze differences in self-perceived symptoms of lymphoedema between groups, years after surgery and their interaction. In the adjusted model, age at surgery, BMI at surgery, and BMI change from the pre-operative value were also included. The same type of GEE model and analysis strategy was applied for self-perceived early signs of lymphatic insufficiency.

The unpaired t-test was used to compare continuous patient characteristics or, when appropriate, the Mann-Whitney U-test. A chi-2 test, or when appropriate, the Fisher's exact test, was used for categorical variables. A pvalue less than 0.05 was regarded as statistically significant. All analyses were done using SPSS version 17 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA) except GEE models where STATA release 11 (StataCorp. College Station, TX, USA) was used.

Paper IV

The scores derived from the SF-36 questionnaire were linearly transformed into a 0-100 scale according to the SF-36 manual²¹⁶. Expected mean scale scores were calculated by using age-specific normative data from the Swedish population and the indirect standardisation technique²¹⁵. Linear regression models were used to estimate the effect of surgery on the SF-36 scales at the three-year assessment. In the unadjusted models, surgery was the only variable included, whereas in the adjusted models, age, radiotherapy, chemotherapy, hormonal treatment and baseline (preoperative) SF-36 were included as well as surgery. Reported p-values refer to F-tests.

Lymphoedema was considered evident if the arm-volume difference (AVD) was >10%. Agreement between AVD and self-perceived symptoms of lymphoedema (SPS) was estimated using the kappa statistic. Bootstrap was used to obtain the 99% confidence interval.

The risk of SPS at three-years was modelled by generalised linear models with log link and binomial distribution. Both unadjusted and adjusted (age, BMI, operation on dominant side, radiotherapy to the axillae and preoperative difference in arm volume) effects of surgery (with sentinel lymph node biopsy (SLNB) as the reference category) were estimated, and were presented as risk ratios together with 99% confidence intervals and p-values from Wald tests.

A chi-2 test or, when appropriate Fisher's exact test was used to compare differences between the three study groups in categorical variables. The Kruskal-Wallis test was used to compare differences in continuous variables. A p-value less than 0.05 was regarded as statistically significant. All analyses were done with STATA release 11 (StataCorpColege Station, TX, USA)

	Paper I	Paper II	Paper III	Paper IV	
Study De- sign	Cohort study	Population-based co- hort study	Cohort study		
Data Sources	 The Plastic Surgery Register ,Karolinska University Hospital The Swedish Nation- al DCIS study Stockholm Regional Oncological Cancer Centre Register 	 The Multi-Generation Register The Swedish Cancer Register3. The Swedish Causes of Death Regis- ter The Total Population Register 			
Study Popu- lation	Women in Stockholm County in the Swedish National DCIS study and all women with DCIS who underwent mastectomy and IBR at Karolinska University Hospital N=162	All women in the Mul- ti-Generation Register with first <i>in situ</i> breast cancer diagnosed <i>N=8111</i>	Women operated for invasive breast cancer in four hospitals in Sweden N=557		
Inclusion period	1991-1999	1980-2004	1999-2004		
Follow-up	1991 -2007	1980-2004	1999-2007		
Exposure/ Intervention	Breast conserving sur- gery with or without radiotherapy, or mas- tectomy and immediate breast reconstruction	<i>In situ</i> breast cancer Family history for breast cancer	Axillary surgery with/ v metastases	vithout axillary	
Outcome	HRQOL assessed with SF-36, HAD BIS	Second breast cancer (invasive/in situ) Mortality	Arm lymphoedema Self-perceived symp- toms	HRQOL assessed with SF-36	
Main statistical methods	Student's t-test ANO- VA, Chi-2 test	SIR, SMR, EAR, life- table method	Linear mixed model Logistic regression by generalised estimating equations (GEE)	Kappa statistics Generalised linear models, Linear regression models	

Table 1. Overview of Subjects and Methods.

Helena Sackey

"Just living is not enough," said the butterfly, "one must have sunshine, freedom and a little flower."

Hans Christian Andersen

Paper I

In total, 162 women were included in the study and 131 (81%) responded to the questionnaires. The number of patients and reasons for attrition are presented in Figure 6. The median age was 58.5 years (range 40-77) for women treated with mastectomy and immediate breast reconstruction (IBR), 65.0 years (range 55-83) for those treated with sector resection alone, and 64.0 years (range 48-89) for women treated with sector resection and postoperative radiotherapy (RT). The mean time from surgery to completion of questionnaires was 7.0 years (SD 2.4) in the mastectomy and IBR group, 9.8 years (SD 2.8) in the sector resection and postoperative RT group and 9.9 years (SD 2.7) in the sector resection alone group.

Health-related quality of life (HRQOL)

Overall, women in all three study groups appeared to have a satisfactory HRQOL in the long term, similar to women in the general

population. These findings are consistent with three other studies of long-term HRQOL among women with DCIS²¹⁷⁻²¹⁹. Women who underwent mastectomy and IBR scored higher on physical functioning and bodily pain than the other two study groups and also when compared with their age-adjusted norm groups (Table2). These findings, that women who underwent mastectomy and IBR reported better physical functioning and less bodily pain than the other two study groups, and their age-adjusted norm groups, was not expected. It might be explained by a response shift, which is an adaptation process that patients with a disease undergo to accommodate their illness 220 . It is therefore possible that the more extensive surgical procedures and, probably, the more prolonged rehabilitation period that these women experienced resulted in a response shift with respect to bodily pain and physical functioning.

The addition of postoperative radiotherapy to breast-conserving therapy did not appear to have negative impact on HRQOL in the long term.



Figure 6. Number of patients and reasons for attrition.

Mean values and standard deviations for the SF-36 subscales for the three study groups and their respect	ective age-adjusted norm values
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Variables	Mastectomy and IBR Mean ^a (SD) Sweden $N = 40-42$		Sector resection alone Mean ^a (SD) N = 32-36		Sector resection and radiotherapy Mean ^a (SD) $N = 45-52$		P-values for differences between the study samples	P-values for differences between mastectomy and IBR
	Study sample	Norm	Study sample	Norm	Study sample	Norm		and the norm ^b
Physical functioning PF	92.4 (10.4)	80.8 (20.8)	73.4 (26.6)	72.1 (24.3)	74.1 (25.5)	72.1 (24.2)	0.002	0.002
Role physical RP	90.2 (23.0)	77.8 (35.0)	75.0 (38.4)	67.2 (40.1)	79.5 (36.0)	65.5 (39.6)	NS	NS
Bodily pain BP	86.5 (19.7)	68.3 (27.4)	70.2 (28.0)	65.9 (28.4)	70.7 (28.1)	65.3 (28.5)	0.006	< 0.001
General health GH	72.7 (20.5)	70.6 (23.1)	70.6 (22.4)	65.4 (23.8)	66.0 (22.4)	65.2 (23.6)	NS	NS
Vitality VT	56.4 (16.0)	67.0 (24.0)	63.6 (12.0)	65.6 (25.0)	57.8 (16.0)	63.6 (25.2)	NS	NS
Social functioning SF	86.6 (20.4)	87.0 (21.1)	93.2 (13.0)	85.3 (22.4)	85.2 (21.3)	84.4 (22.4)	NS	NS
Role emotional RE	78.9 (36.3)	83.3 (31.2)	82.9 (32.7)	77.6 (35.9)	83.7 (34.8)	76.9 (35.6)	NS	NS
Mental health MH	73.0 (20.0)	79.5 (20.3)	84.9 (13.3)	78.5 (21.3)	76.0 (18.7)	77.6 (21.3)	0.012	NS

* Range 0-100 (high values represent high functioning).

^b No statistically significant differences were found between the other two study groups and their norm values.

Table 2. Mean values for the SF-36 subscales for the three study groups and their age-adjusted norm values

Anxiety and depression

No statistically significant differences between the study groups were found for the mean scores on the HAD anxiety or depression subscales, nor for the proportions of patients scoring in the clinical category on the subscale. Our results show however, a trend towards increased levels of anxiety in the mastectomy and IBR group compared with the two other study groups. The mean anxiety score was 6.24 (SD 5.00) in the mastectomy and IBR group, and 3.76 (SD 3.25) and 4.41 (4.22) in the sector resection alone group and sector resection and RT group, respectively (p-value=0.02). In addition, women in the mastectomy and IBR group also scored statistically significantly lower than the other two study groups on the mental health subscales of the SF-36, although there were no statistically significant differences with their ageadjusted norm group. It was expected that mastectomy and IBR, a treatment implying a lower risk of recurrence, would result in less anxiety than the two other treatment options. This hypothesis was not supported in this study, nor in an American study showing that the perception of risk of recurrence did not diminish in women with DCIS who underwent mastectomy 221 .

A Dutch study found that women with DCIS had comparable perceptions of the risk of recurrence and breast cancer death to women with invasive breast cancer, despite their better prognosis²¹⁷. We speculate that these trends, with increased anxiety and lower mental health, might reflect the more extensive and longer treatment that mastectomy and IBR implies when compared with sector resection alone or followed by RT, and that these women may have become more aware of and affected by their disease.

Body image

Overall, statistically significant differences between the three study groups were found for six of the items (self-consciousness, feeling less physically attractive, feeling less feminine, feeling less sexually attractive, being dissatisfied with body, being dissatisfied with scars) with larger proportions of women in the mastectomy and IBR group reporting problems. To our knowledge, this is the first study comparing different surgical treatments with respect to long-term body image among women with DCIS. Three previous studies on long-term postoperative body image among women with invasive breast cancer reported a more favourable body image among women treated with breast-conserving surgery than those treated with mastectomy alone^{85, 192, 193}. Contradictory results have been found in studies that address whether mastectomy with reconstruction results in a better long-term body image than mastectomy alone^{85, 196, 222}. In addition, one long-term follow-up study showed no differences in body image between women treated with sector resection and mastectomy with reconstruction²²³. It is important to consider that sector resection was not an option for most women in the mastectomy and IBR group and that the alternative. mastectomy alone, is not represented in this study. Given that mastectomy and IBR is the surgical option that provides a superior esthetical result, emphasis on preoperative information about expected postoperative changes in body image may have improved these results.

Methodological considerations, strengths and limitations

This study has a number of limitations. No preoperative data on our study variables were collected and, therefore, it was not possible to ascertain differences in the studied variables before surgery. No women treated with mastectomy alone were included and better body image might have been expected with IBR than without. Potential confounders in this study are age, tamoxifen treatment, invasive breast cancer or other malignancies and comorbidity. All patients with tamoxifen treatment or an invasive cancer were excluded. but no adjustment for age was performed in the analysis, which is a limitation. The results on the SF-36 subscales are, however, compared with age-adjusted norm data, which minimises the influence of age on these results.

To our knowledge, there is no previous study evaluating long-term HROOL and body image in women with DCIS treated with different surgical methods, including mastectomy with IBR and sector resection with or without radiotherapy. The assessments of the exposures were thoroughly reviewed through medical records and the patients filled in the questionnaires in present time, which minimises the risk for information and recall bias. The response rate to the questionnaires was 81%, which is high considering the long period between surgery and follow-up. Standardised questionnaires employed in many previous studies were used. A threat to all studies that include multiple testing is the occurrence of a false positive finding reaching the level of statistical significance, i.e. a type I error. To reduce this risk, differences between groups were considered statistically significant when p < 0.01.

Paper II

Over a follow-up period of 71 458 personyears, 825 (10.2%) women developed 886 subsequent breast events (118 contralateral *in situ* and 768 ipsi- or contralateral invasive breast cancers). The average time from first *in situ* breast cancer diagnosis to a second breast event was overall 5.6 years \pm 4.6 years.

Second breast cancers in women diagnosed with *in situ* breast cancer

Among women diagnosed with in situ breast cancer, the cumulative 10- and 20-year risk for a subsequent contra- or ipsilateral invasive cancer was approximately 10 and 18% respectively, while the cumulative 10- and 20-year risk for a subsequent contralateral in situ breast cancer was 1 and 2% respectively (Figure 7).

The risk of a subsequent ipsi- or contralateral invasive breast cancer was increased more than fourfold [SIR 4.55 (95% CI 4.23- 4.88)]

among women with *in situ* breast cancer compared with women in the general population. The risk for a contralateral *in situ* breast cancer was increased almost sixteenfold [SIR 15.98 (95% CI, 13.23-19.14)]



Figure 7. Cumulative incidence of second breast event among women diagnosed with *in situ* breast cancer, stratified by types of subsequent breast events.

Risk stratified by family history

The proportion of subsequent breast events was similar in women with and without a family history (11.3%, n=97 versus 10.0%, n=728). In women with a positive family history, the risk for a contralateral invasive breast cancer was more than four times higher compared with women in the general population, and almost 50% higher compared with women with no family history of breast cancer (Table. 3). This observed increased risk is approximately twice as high as the risk of breast cancer that women with a positive family history without a previous breast cancer face. Two meta-analyses of familiar risks for breast cancer presented the relative risk associated with having a first degree relative of breast cancer to 2.1 and 1.8, respectively⁴⁴, ²²⁴. The observed diluted additional risk in women with a family history, i.e. only a 50 % increased risk for a contralateral invasive cancer, was lower than expected. We speculate that women with a positive family history were likely more prone to choose mastectomy, which would reduce the risk for an ipsilateral cancer in these women. Additional stratification into one, two or even three affected first-degree members to better quantify the hereditary component may have allowed a deeper understanding of these results.

The reduced risk may also be a reflection of heterogeneity of the in situ breast cancer phenotype. Several studies have shown that the molecular profile of the primary invasive breast cancer can predict the risk of recurrence, metastatic behaviour and survival²²⁵⁻²²⁷. Much less attention has focused on the subtypes of in situ breast cancer. A population-based study from Sweden failed to demonstrate a prognostic value for the surrogate molecular subtyping of DCIS using the St. Gallen criteria²²⁸. Theoretically, it should be possible to identify an in situ expression profile that predicts a high probability of progression to the invasive form of the disease. We do not know however, if any of these subtypes occur to a greater degree in women with familial breast cancer.

		All	No family history		Fan	nily history	
	No.		No.		No.		Incidence
	of	SIR	of	SIR	of	SIR	Rate Ratio*
	cases	(95 % CI)	cases	(95 % CI)	cases	(95 % CI)	(95% CI)
2nd breast		5.08		4.95		6.27	1.17
cancer ¹	886	(4.75,5.43)	781	(4.61,5.31)	105	(5.13,7.60)	(0.95,1.44)
2nd contralat ¹ in		15.98		15.80		17.44	1.09
situ	118	(13.23,19.14)	104	(12.91,19.15)	14	(9.54,29.26)	(0.62,1.92)
2nd invasive ²		4.55		4.40		5.62	1.19
	768	(4.23,4.88)	677	(4.07,4.74)	91	(4.53,6.91)	(0.95,1.49)
2nd ipsilat		4.26		4.19		4.97	1.00
invasive ³	376	(3.84,4.72)	334	(3.75,4.66)	42	(3.58,6.72)	(0.72,1.38)
2nd contralat		3.42		3.28		4.82	1.47
invasive ³	303	(3.05, 3.83)	262	(2.89,3.70)	41	(3.46,6.54)	(1.05, 2.05)

¹background rate of *in situ* breast cancer was divided by 2.²includes ipsilateral, contralateral and missing side. ³background rate of invasive breast cancer was divided by 2. *Reference group is No Family History. IRR has been adjusted for age and year of first diagnosis of *in situ* and time since first diagnosis.

Table 3. SIR of second breast event after diagnosis of first *in situ* breast cancer and its 95% CI, by type of second breast event and family history.

Risk stratified by age

Regardless of family history, women under forty years of age at diagnosis had a significantly higher risk of subsequent invasive breast cancer compared with women above forty years, SIR 8.54 (95% CI 6.07-11.67) and 4.44 (95% CI 4.12-4.77) respectively (pvalue <0.001). These young women would experience an excess absolute risk (EAR) ranging from about eight events per 1000 person-years to as high as 15 events per 1000 person-years depending on family history. This absolute excess risk decreased with older age only for women with a positive family history. In contrast, women with a family history of breast cancer had the highest EAR, with women under 40 years of age carrying the greatest EAR (154.10 per 10000 personyears; 95% CI 77.14-266.30), compared with women older than 40 years at diagnosis (105.72 per 10000 person-years; 95% CI 78.88-136.82). This suggests that both relative and absolute risks are higher with younger age of onset of in situ disease in women with a positive family history. Given that a younger woman with both a high risk of a subsequent event as well as a longer life expectancy, which translates to a higher cumulative risk, mastectomy may be considered for this patient population.

Risk stratified by calendar year

Women with *in situ* breast cancer with no family history experienced an increasing risk of subsequent invasive cancer during the study period, SIR 3.09 (95% CI 2.42-3.89) in 1980-1984, versus SIR 5.05 (95% CI 3.88-6.46) in 2000-2004 (p-trend <0.001). In contrast, women with a family history experienced no such increased risk for a subsequent invasive breast cancer over the study period.

The increased relative risk of subsequent invasive breast cancer by almost 60% from 1980-84 to 2000-04, exclusively in women with no family history, may be related to a combination of screening and treatment patterns. During the study period, nationwide mammography screening was introduced, and had achieved complete national coverage by 1997⁶⁷. With increasing mammography screening, and subsequently, a larger number of detected smaller lesions-the majority of which are non-palpable-the use of breastconserving surgery has become the norm since 1990 onwards⁶⁸. In comparison with mastectomy, breast-conserving surgery poses an increased risk of both local recurrence and new ipsilateral primary cancers⁴². In contrast, women with a positive family history had no increased risk during the study period and we speculate that these women, who had relatives with breast cancer, were more prone to choose mastectomy.

Risk stratified by time since diagnosis

Regardless of family history, the risk of subsequent invasive cancer during the first five years after the first in situ breast cancer was increased more than fivefold compared with the general population (SIR 5.20; 95% CI 4.71-5.74). In women with no family history there was a significant decline in both the relative and absolute risk over time, but this was not observed in women with a family history. However, it remains that 15 years after the first in situ breast cancer diagnosis, the overall risk of an invasive breast cancer was almost three times higher than for women in the general population. This indicates that women diagnosed with in situ breast cancer have a lifelong increased risk, which needs to be taken into account when planning their follow-up.

		All	No family history		Family history <50			>50		
	No. of deaths	SMR (95 % CI)	No. of deaths	SMR (95 % CI)	No. of deaths	SMR (95 % CI)	No. of deaths	SMR (95 % CI)	No. of deaths	SMR (95 % CI)
Overall	1343	1.28 (1.22,1.36)	1258	1.28 (1.21,1.35)	85	1.44 (1.15,1.78)	122	2.19 (1.82,2.61)	1221	1.24 (1.17,1.31)
No event + 2 nd contralat in situ	927	1.01 (0.95,1.08)	875	1.01 (0.94,1.08)	52	1.02 (0.76,1.34)	58	1.17 (0.89,1.52)	869	1.00 (0.93,1.07)
2nd invasive ¹	132	2.06 (1.72,2.44)	122	2.03 (1.68,2.42)	10	2.54 (1.22,4.67)	29	8.03 (5.38,11.54)	103	1.70 (1.39,2.06)
2 nd ipsilateral invasive	63	2.16 (1.66,2.77)	58	2.12 (1.61,2.74)	5*	2.75 (0.89,6.43)	17	12.89 (7.51,20.64)	46	1.65 (1.21,2.21)
2 nd contralat invasive	55	1.99 (1.50,2.59)	49	1.92 (1.42,2.54)	6*	2.82 (1.04,6.15)	10	7.85 (3.77,14.44)	45	1.71 (1.24,2.28)

*one subject has both ipsilateral and contralateral invasive breast cancer, that is why total is 6+5=11>10.¹ includes ipsilateral, contralateral and missing side

Table 4. SMR of second breast event after diagnosis of first *in situ* breast cancer, by type of second breast event and family history.

Mortality after in situ breast cancer

The overall risk of death in women with in situ breast cancer was significantly increased, by 30% compared to the general population, but highly dependent on the occurrence of a second invasive breast cancer event. Women, who did not develop a second invasive event following in situ breast cancer, had a similar mortality to the background population [SMR 1.01(95% CI 0.95-1.08)]. In contrast, women who were diagnosed with a second invasive event had a twice as high mortality rate compared with women in the general population [SMR 2.06 (95% CI 1.72-2.44)], with no significant differences between women with and without a family history of breast cancer (Table 4).

Given that deaths were rare at younger ages we compared mortality among women above and below 50 years of age. Women below the age of 50 at the first *in situ* breast cancer diagnosis and who were diagnosed with a second invasive cancer had significantly higher mortality compared with women over 50 years at diagnosis, (SMR 8.03; 95% CI 5.38-11.54 versus SMR 1.70; 95% CI 1.39-2.06).

Young age at onset was an important predictor of death for women with *in situ* disease due to an increased risk of second invasive cancers and thus a substantially higher mortality. This should be taken into account when planning their treatment and follow-up.

Methodological considerations, strengths and limitations

This study has some limitations. We have no treatment data nor have we distinguished between ductal carcinoma *in situ* breast cancer and lobular carcinoma *in situ* breast cancer. With this stated, a previous Swedish casecontrol study has shown that the risk of a subsequent invasive breast cancer was equal after lobular and ductal carcinoma *in situ* breast cancer³⁴. Due to regional differences in how to report second ipsilateral *in situ* breast cancer, such events were not included in the study.

Strengths of the current study include the population-based design, its large sample size and complete follow-up. The information regarding family history is unlikely to be subjected to any bias since it is not dependent on personal reporting but is collected by the tax authorities. In addition, the reporting of cancers to the Cancer Register is mandatory and the register is considered almost complete for invasive breast cancer²⁰³⁻²⁰⁵. Since 1980 it has also been of a very high reliability with regards to *in situ* breast cancer²⁰⁴, which makes the risk of information bias unlikely. To the best of our knowledge, this is the largest study yet carried out to assess the impact of a positive family history of breast cancer on risk and mortality after in situ breast cancer.

Papers III and IV

Of the original 516 women who were operated in the axillae, 420 (81.4%) had a preopera-

tive and at least one postoperative measurement of the difference in arm-volume; 96 were non-attenders. The study groups were defined by the axillary procedure performed and the presence of axillary metastases: 1) sentinel lymph node biopsy (SLNB) alone (N=140), 2) axillary lymph node dissection (ALND) in patients without axillary metastases (N=125) and 3) ALND in patients with axillary metastases (N=155). In the third study group we included patients with ALND performed due to preoperatively known axillary metastases, as well as those with ALND performed after a positive SLNB. Clinical characteristics according to study group are shown in Table 5. No differences were seen between attenders and non-attenders in the three groups, except in the node-positive ALND group, where chemotherapy was given less frequently and more mastectomies were performed among non-attenders (data not shown).

	SLNB (n=140)	Node- negative ALND (n=125)	p-value ¹	Node- positi ve ALND (n=155)	p-v a lue ²
Operated on right side if right handed or left side if left handed, %	48.1 (n=133)	50.9 (n=108)	0.665	52.5 (n=141)	0.470
Age at operation, mean (SD)	60.0 (9.4)	58.8 (111)	0.349	57.2 (11.2)	0.020
Body mass index Normal (<25 kg/m²), % Over weight (25-29 kg/m²), % Obesity (=30 kg/m²), %	52.9 31.4 15.7	52.8 26.4 20.8	0.4 68	51.0 35.5 13.5	0.723
Type of operation Breast conserving surgery, % Mastectomy, %	91.4 8.6	67.2 32.8	<0.001	59.4 40.6	<0.001
Adjuvant chemotherapy, %	14.3	20.0	0.216	77.4	<0.001
Adjuvant anti-hormonal treatment, %	74.3	70.4	0.480	80.6	0.191
Radiotherapytothe breast, %	81.4	69.6	0.025	87.7	0.132
Radiotherapy to the axillae, %	7.1	8.0	0.792	70.3	<0.001
Infections,%	2.9	4.9		2.6	
Lymph nodes, median (min-max) Metastasis lymph nodes, median (min-max)	(n=138) 2.0 (0-14) 0 (0-1)	(n=123) 10.0 (2-25) 0 (0-0)		(n=151) 12.0 (4-42) 2.0 (1-31)	
Tumour diameter (cm), median (min-max)	1.6 (0.5 - 7.0)	1.9 (0.4-17)		2.0 (0.7-10)	

¹ Comparison between SLNB vs node negative ALND. Unpaired t-test for test of age at operation and chi-2 test for all other tests.² Comparison between SLNB vs node positive ALND. Unpaired t-test for test of age at operation and chi-2 test for all other tests.

Table 5. Description of patient characteristics and treatment. All patients have at least one postoperative measurement of arm-volume.

Lymphoedema after axillary surgery

In paper III, the adjusted mean arm-volume difference, three years after surgery, was 61 ml (95% CI 10 to 113) in the node-negative ALND group and 61 ml (95 % CI 6 to 116) in the node-positive ALND group, both significantly higher than the SLNB group (Table 6). Among women operated with SLNB alone there was no increase in postoperative mean arm-volume difference over time, while both ALND groups showed a statistically significant increase (Figure 8).

In paper IV, a dichotomous definition of arm lymphoedema was used, commonly used in the literature, i.e. the proportion of women having ≥ 10 % increase in arm volume difference. By this definition, we found that 5% in the SLNB group, compared with 13% and 24% in the node-negative and node- positive ALNB groups, respectively, had an arm lymphoedema (p<0.001). There are two possible reasons for the lack of an increase in mean arm-volume difference over time even though 5% in the SLNB group had a $\geq 10\%$ increase in arm- volume difference. There was a great variance in measured arm-volume and a wide range of harvested lymph nodes even in the SLNB group. Thus, some patients in this group had more than just the sentinel lymph nodes harvested.



Figure 8. Mean arm-volume difference between operated and non-operated side over time

In a recent meta-analysis the overall incidence for lymphoedema, when restricted to data from prospective studies, was 21.4% $(14.9-29.8)^{96}$. The incidence was around four times higher in women who had ALND than it was among those having SLNB, 19.9% and 5.6%, respectively. Although this pooled estimate was from studies with many different definitions of arm lymphoedema, our results are in line with previous studies and today around one fifth of all women diagnosed with breast cancer are expected to develop arm lymphoedema⁹⁶.

Previous studies have shown that the majority of patients will develop arm-lymphoedema within the first two to three years after diagnosis^{96, 163}. Our follow-up time in Papers III and IV was three years and the adjusted mean arm-volume difference three years after surgery was 61 ml in both the node-negative and the node-positive group. However, the unadjusted mean-arm volume difference was 67 ml (95% CI 15,120) in the node-negative ALND group and 96ml (95%CI 45, 147) in the node positive group, which probably reflects the late effects of radiotherapy.

	SLN	IB	Node-negat	ive ALND	Node-positive ALND		
	Unadjusted Adjusted ¹		Unadjusted	Unadjusted Adjusted ¹		Adjusted ¹	
	(n=140)	(n=133)	(n=125)	(n=108)	(n=155)	(n=140)	
	β	β	β	β	β	β	
	(95 % CI)	(95 % CI)	(95 % CI)	(95 % CI)	(95 % CI)	(95 % CI)	
	p-value	p-value	p-value	p-value	p-value	p-value	
Preop	ref	ref	ref	ref	ref	Ref	
1 vear	9	12	49	36	16	8	
norton	(-26 to 45)	(-26 to 49)	(10 to 88)	(-6 to 78)	(-19 to 52)	(-30 to 46)	
postop	p=0.626	p=0.546	p=0.014	p=0.089	p=0.367	p=0.673	
2 vears	26	15	73	58	70	53	
noston	(-18 to 70)	(-29 to 59)	(25 to 122)	(6 to 110)	(25 to 115)	(6 to 101)	
postop	p=0.242	p=0.498	p=0.003	p=0.029	p=0.002	p=0.028	
3 vears	12	8	61	50	89	62	
noston	(-34 to 59)	(-38 to 54)	(12 to 111)	(-2 to 101)	(44 to 135)	(15 to 109)	
postop	p=0.610	p=0.737	p=0.015	p=0.059	p<0.001	p=0.009	

¹Adjusted for operation on dominant side, age at operation, BMI at operation and BMI change from preop, radiotherapy to the breast and radiotherapy to the axillae.

Table 6. Mixed model with arm-volume difference between operated and non-operated side as outcome variable, comparison between time periods, n=420.

Self-perceived symptoms of arm lymphoedema

It may take up to several years, before a lymphoedema develops; the water displacement technique therefore has little sensitivity in the preclinical setting. Bioimpedance spectroscopy has been shown to be sensitive to detect early extracellular fluid changes and can thereby be used in early diagnosis of lymphoedema²²⁹. Self-report methods are an alternative way of capturing early signs of lymphoedema which were also used in Papers III and IV in addition to the water displacement technique. The proportion of women reporting early signs of lymphoedema (does your operated arm feel heavy, tired, sore or tense?), one year after surgery, was 36% in the SLNB group, and 56% and 74% in the node-negative and node-positive ALND groups, respectively. Both ALND groups had a significantly higher risk compared with women in the SLNB group, adjusted odds ratio 2.2(95% CI 1.3-3.9) and 4.7(95% CI 2.7-8.3), respectively. The differences

remained statistically significant two and three years after surgery.

Two years after surgery there was a positive correlation between greater mean armvolume difference and self-perceived arm lymphoedema which remained after three years. As shown in previous studies, using self-reported symptoms as a diagnostic indicator of lymphoedema has its limitations, because many symptoms that are associated with lymphoedema are also common after breast cancer surgery in women without lym-phoedema^{230, 231}.

In study IV, we defined arm lymphoedema as $\geq 10\%$ increase in arm volume difference and there was no statistically significant agreement between self-perceived and objectively measured arm lymphoedema one and three years after surgery; kappa 0.05(95% CI -0.01-0.12) and 0.10 (95% CI 0.02-0.18). These results indicate that it might not be those women with the most severe lymphoedema who report self-perceived symptoms of lymphoedema.



Figure 9. Proportion of women in the three study groups reporting self-perceived symptoms of arm lymphoedema

The poor agreement between patient perceptions and objective measures has also been reported in two other studies^{231, 232}. One of these studies suggested that factors other than limb enlargement, such as sensory nerve injury, may play a significant role as patients with numbness were more likely to report self-perceived arm lymphoedema²³¹.

Even if women treated with SLNB have a limited increase in mean arm-volume difference and fewer self-perceived symptoms of lymphoedema, as many as 20% report self perceived symptoms of arm lymphoedema and 5% experience $\geq 10\%$ increase in arm-volume difference. This emphasizes the im-

portance of performing SLNB strictly on patients who can benefit from the staging results.

Today, there is an ongoing discussion whether ALND in sentinel node positive breast cancer is necessary. Further studies are needed to answer the question if ALND in sentinel node positive cases could be omitted, without effect on survival or local control^{233,} ²³⁴. However, if only considering the risk for arm lymphoedema, our study supports the trend to omit ALND in patients with positive sentinel node.



Based on 342 patients with HRQoL data. Observed scores in dark gray and expected in light gray. In black 99% CI for the observed scores

Figure 10. SF-36 assessment at 3 years.

HRQOL after axillary surgery

Three years after surgery, the overall meanscore for all study groups was statistically significantly higher for the bodily pain domain when compared with their age-specific norm-group (Figure 10). No other statistically significant differences were found between the study groups and their respective agespecific norm groups.

In the unadjusted model, one year after surgery, the score for physical role functioning was statistically significantly lower in the node positive ALND group compared with the two other study groups; mean score 51 compared with 69 and 64, respectively (p=0.001). Patients in this group more often received chemotherapy, a well-known risk factor for poorer HRQOL^{137, 190, 191, 235}. No other statistically significant differences were seen between the three study groups.

In a recent published study from France, with a follow-up time of six years no statistically significant differences appeared in the HRQOL scores for global health

between patients treated for ALND and $SLNB^{236}$. However, on the scores for arm symptoms women treated with SLNB reported fewer symptoms than women treated with ALND. In addition, patients reporting arm lymphoedema had affected arm dimension subscores on HRQOL²³⁶. The SF-36 questionnaire used in our study is generic and it is possible that if we had used a disease- or aspect specific questionnaire we would have found an impact on surgery on certain domains on HROOL. Our study indicates that after a few years treatment has less impact on the overall HRQOL, as women with breast cancer have the same HROOL as the background population. Figure 11 shows the SF-36 profiles grouped by correlation between objective and subjective arm lymphoedema three years after surgery. Women with an objective lymphoedema but reporting no self-perceived symptoms of lymphoedema, reported the highest levels of HRQOL. On the other hand, women with no objective lymphoedema, but reporting selfperceived symptoms of lymphoedema scored the lowest HROOL.



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Figure 12. The SF-36 profiles grouped by correlation between objective and subjective arm lymphoedema three years after surgery

It has been shown in a few studies that specific arm symptoms, such as reduced shoulder abduction and pain - related or unrelated to arm lymphoedema – are more associated with poor HRQOL outcomes than the arm swelling per se $^{237-239}$. We speculate that women reporting symptoms of arm lymphoedema might associate other diffuse symptoms after surgery such as numbness, paraesthesia and wound pain as a sign of lymphoedema, and, in line with previous studies²³⁷⁻²³⁹, report lower levels of HRQOL. For the clinician, this is an important finding, as it indicates that it is as important to focus on arm symptoms and pain, as it is to treat arm lymphoedema in order to help these patients. Another explanation might be that, three years after surgery, other factors such as personality and ability to cope with problems, have a greater impact on the HRQOL than the symptoms and disease itself.

Methodological considerations, strengths and limitations

Papers III and IV are based on the same prospectively follow cohort. Regarding selfperceived arm lymphoedema, one limitation is that baseline data were not available for these items and that the arm symptoms questionnaire was not validated. The questionnaire was, however, constructed by a group of breast care professionals and piloted in a group of breast cancer patients before use in the present study.

Another limitation is that no power analysis was carried out. There is therefore a potential risk for type II error, i.e. that the study is too small to reveal potential between group differences.

The strengths of this study are that it is prospective, with assessments of both objective and subjective lymphoedema at multiple time points, and was performed at four largevolume university-affiliated hospitals and with a long follow up time. The HRQOL questionnaire is validated. In addition, we were able to include node-negative patients, treated with ALND in the study in order to evaluate the impact of surgery per se on arm lymphoedema.

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CONCLUSIONS

- 1. Women treated for DCIS have a satisfactory long-term health-related quality of life. The addition of radiotherapy to breast-conserving surgery does not seem to have any negative impact on health-related quality of life in the long-term. However, body image appears to be affected in women treated with mastectomy and immediate breast reconstruction.
- 2. Young women diagnosed with their first *in situ* breast cancer have both a higher risk for a future invasive breast cancer and higher mortality than their older counterparts, which should be taken into account when planning their treatment and follow-up
- 3. Among women with *in situ* breast cancer, a positive family history increases the risk only for a contralateral invasive breast cancer.
- 4. Sentinel lymph node biopsy is associated with a minimal risk of increased arm volume and few self-perceived symptoms of arm lymphoedema, significantly less than after axillary lymph node dissection, regardless of lymph node status. Yet, 20% percent of women report symptoms of arm lymphoedema after sentinel lymph node biopsy, which emphasizes the importance of performing axillary surgery strictly on patients who can benefit from the staging results.
- 5. Three years after surgery there is a weak correlation between mean arm volume difference and self-perceived symptoms of arm lymphoedema.
- 6. Women treated for invasive breast cancer have a satisfactory long-term health-related quality of life.
- 7. Women reporting self-perceived arm lymphoedema, regardless of objective lymphoedema or not, scored lower on all eight SF-36 domains than those who did not, indicating that more attention should be given to the subjective reports of symptoms in order to better help these women.

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In situ breast cancer

Young women diagnosed with their first in situ breast cancer have both a higher risk for a future invasive breast cancer and a higher mortality than their older counterparts. In addition, they have less effect of post-operative radiotherapy^{240, 241}Paper II in this thesis, further indicates that the risk of a second invasive event after previous in situ diagnosis increased when breast-conserving surgery became more common in Sweden than mastectomies. Taken together, these facts indicate that mastectomy, with or without primary reconstruction, might be considered for young patients with in situ breast cancer, in order to prevent an invasive breast recurrence. To answer the question - whether the type of surgery, i.e. breast conserving surgery versus mastectomy affects survival we plan to study the incidence of second invasive and in situ and mortality in regard to surgical treatment in women diagnosed with in situ in the Stockholm-Gotland Region from 1980-2012.

A subgroup of women with *in situ* breast cancer is most likely over-treated, and thus neither benefits from extensive surgery nor adjuvant treatment. Theoretically, it should be possible to identify an *in situ* expression profile predicting a low probability of an invasive cancer recurrence. A populationbased study from Sweden, however, failed to demonstrate a prognostic value for the surrogate molecular subtyping of DCIS using the St. Gallen criteria²²⁸. It would also be of interest to analyse whether any of such hypothetical subtypes are more common in women with familial breast cancer.

Arm lymphoedema

Women treated with SLNB develop significantly less arm lymphoedema and report fewer self-perceived symptoms of lymphoedema than women treated with ALND, regardless of nodal status. In Paper II we observed a trend towards a continued increase in arm lymphoedema in the node-positive ALND group when compared with the nodenegative group. It would be of interest to conduct a long-term follow-up 10 years after surgery in order to study whether this trend continues; this would indicate that the side effects of radiotherapy occur later and continue to increase for a longer period than the side effects of surgery.

Patient-reported outcome

Women treated for *in situ* and invasive breast cancer overall appeared to have a satisfactory long-term HRQOL, similar to women in the general population. Women with selfperceived symptoms of lymphoedema, regardless of its objective measurable confirmation, scored lower on all HRQOL domains than women without symptoms. Thus, there might be other arm symptoms not analysed in this study that have an impact on HRQOL. It would therefore be of interest to study the impact of pain, numbness and reduced shoulder mobility on HRQOL.

The concept of sense of coherence (SOC) was put forward by Aaron Antonovsky in 1979 to explain why some people become ill under stress and while others stay healthy²⁴². A high SOC was suggested to mirror successful coping with stressors, thereby increasing

resilience. In our arm-lymphoedema study, the SOC-scale was used preoperatively and one year postoperatively. We aim to study correlations between preoperatively SOC scores, and HRQOL three years after surgery in order to investigate if the SOC-scale can be used as a predictive tool to identify women with risk for decreased long-term HRQOL.

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