

PAIN

Prevalence and intensity of persistent post-surgical pain following breast cancer surgery: a systematic review and meta-analysis of observational studies

Li Wang^{1,2,3,*}, Jared C. Cohen⁴, Niveditha Devasenapathy⁵, Brian Y. Hong⁶, Sasha Kheyson⁷, Daniel Lu⁴, Yvgeniy Oparin⁴, Sean A. Kennedy⁸, Beatriz Romerosa⁹, Nikita Arora¹⁰, Henry Y. Kwon¹¹, Kate Jackson⁴, Manya Prasad¹², Dulitha Jayasekera¹³, Allen Li⁴, Giuliana Guarna⁴, Shane Natalwalla¹⁴, Rachel J. Couban², Susan Reid¹⁵, James S. Khan¹⁶, Michael McGillion¹⁷ and Jason W. Busse^{1,2,18,19}

¹Department of Anesthesia, McMaster University, Hamilton, ON, Canada, ²Michael G. DeGroote Institute for Pain Research and Care, McMaster University, Hamilton, ON, Canada, ³Chinese Cochrane Centre, West China Hospital, Sichuan University, Chengdu, China, ⁴Michael G. DeGroote School of Medicine, McMaster University, Hamilton, ON, Canada, ⁵Indian Institute of Public Health-Delhi, Public Health Foundation of India, Gurgaon, Haryana, India, ⁶Division of Plastic Surgery, University of Toronto, Toronto, ON, Canada, ⁷Department of Family Medicine, Cumming School of Medicine, University of Calgary, Calgary, AB, Canada, ⁸Department of Diagnostic Radiology, University of Toronto, Toronto, ON, Canada, ⁹Department of Anesthesia and Critical Care, University Hospital of Toledo, Toledo, Spain, ¹⁰Department of Surgery, Queen's University, Kingston, ON, Canada, ¹¹Wayne State University School of Medicine, Detroit, MI, USA, ¹²Department of Community Medicine, North DMC Medical College, New Delhi, India, ¹³Department of Family Medicine, McMaster University, Hamilton, ON, Canada, ¹⁴Department of Medicine, University of Toronto, Toronto, ON, Canada, ¹⁵Department of Surgery, McMaster University, Hamilton, ON, Canada, ¹⁶Department of Anesthesia, University of Toronto, Toronto, ON, Canada, ¹⁷School of Nursing, McMaster University, Hamilton, ON, Canada, ¹⁸Michael G. DeGroote Centre for Medicinal Cannabis Research, McMaster University, Hamilton, ON, Canada and ¹⁹Department of Health Research Methods, Evidence & Impact, McMaster University, Hamilton, ON, Canada

*Corresponding author. E-mail: wangli1@mcmaster.ca

Abstract

Background: The prevalence and intensity of persistent post-surgical pain (PPSP) after breast cancer surgery are uncertain. We conducted a systematic review and meta-analysis to further elucidate this issue.

Methods: We searched MEDLINE, Embase, CINAHL, and PsycINFO, from inception to November 2018, for observational studies reporting persistent pain (≥ 3 months) after breast cancer surgery. We used random-effects meta-analysis and the Grading of Recommendations, Assessment, Development and Evaluations approach to rate quality of evidence.

Results: We included 187 observational studies with 297 612 breast cancer patients. The prevalence of PPSP ranged from 2% to 78%, median 37% (inter-quartile range: 22–48%); the pooled prevalence was 35% (95% confidence interval [CI]: 32–39%). The pooled pain intensity was 3.9 cm on a 10 cm visual analogue scale (95% CI: 3.6–4.2 cm). Moderate-quality evidence supported the subgroup effects of PPSP prevalence for localized pain vs any pain (29% vs 44%), moderate or greater vs any pain (26% vs 44%), clinician-assessed vs patient-reported pain (23% vs 36%), and whether patients underwent sentinel lymph node biopsy vs axillary lymph node dissection (26% vs 43%). The adjusted analysis found that the prevalence of patient-reported PPSP (any severity/location) was 46% (95% CI: 36–56%), and the prevalence of patient-reported moderate-to-severe PPSP at any location was 27% (95% CI: 10–43%).

Received: January 30, 2020; Accepted: 16 April 2020

© 2020 British Journal of Anaesthesia. Published by Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.
For Permissions, please email: permissions@elsevier.com

Conclusions: Moderate-quality evidence suggests that almost half of all women undergoing breast cancer surgery develop persistent post-surgical pain, and about one in four develop moderate-to-severe persistent post-surgical pain; the higher prevalence was associated with axillary lymph node dissection. Future studies should explore whether nerve sparing for axillary procedures reduces persistent post-surgical pain after breast cancer surgery.

Keywords: breast cancer; chronic postoperative pain; intensity; meta-analysis; persistent post-surgical pain; prevalence; systematic review

Editor's key points

- Persistent pain after breast cancer surgery is common, but reported prevalence varies widely.
- In this systematic review and meta-analysis, the authors found that almost half of all women undergoing breast cancer surgery develop persistent pain, and about one in four develop moderate-to-severe pain. Greater prevalence was associated with axillary lymph node dissection.
- Future studies should explore whether nerve sparing for axillary procedures reduces persistent pain after breast cancer surgery.

Worldwide, there were 2.1 million newly diagnosed cases of breast cancer in 2018, accounting for almost 25% of all cancers amongst women.¹ Breast cancer survival rates have increased over time as a result of improvements in early detection and treatment, particularly in developed countries. The 5 and 10 yr survival rates were 90% and 83%, respectively, in the USA from 2008 to 2014,^{2–4} 87% and 78% in the UK from 2010 to 2011,⁵ and 88% and 82% in Canada from 2012 to 2014.⁶ However, persistent post-surgical pain (PPSP) is a potential complication of breast cancer surgery, and is associated with reduced quality of life, increased risk of unemployment, and greater health-care costs.^{7–10}

The most recent systematic review concluded, based on 30 studies (3746 patients), that 30% of breast cancer patients experienced PPSP after breast cancer surgery.¹¹ However, this review calculated a weighted average without consideration of variation between studies; combined patient-reported and clinician-assessed rates, pain that was and was not localised to the surgical site, and pain of different severities without exploring for subgroup effects; and did not evaluate risk of bias amongst individual studies or the overall quality of evidence. We conducted a systematic review and meta-analysis of observational studies to investigate the prevalence and intensity of persistent pain following breast cancer surgery, which addresses these limitations.

Methods

We followed the reporting of Meta-analysis of Observational Studies in Epidemiology statement,¹² and registered our protocol (PROSPERO identifier: CRD42015024504). Before analysis, we added three additional subgroup analyses, assuming higher rates of PPSP were associated with higher-income vs low- or middle-income countries,¹³ and axillary lymph node dissection (ALND) vs sentinel lymph node biopsy (SLNB), and that higher rates of neuropathic pain were associated with clinical assessment vs use of a validated instrument (e.g.

Douleur Neuropathique 4 Questions [DN4], Leeds Assessment of Neuropathic Symptoms and Signs [LANSS], or Self-Report LANSS [S-LANSS]). We also added a subgroup analysis for PPSP intensity assuming greater severity in patients reporting PPSP than amongst all patients who underwent breast cancer surgery. After registration of our protocol, but before analysis, we committed to conduct meta-regression to explore whether studies enrolling a greater proportion of patients with breast-conserving surgery, breast reconstruction, radiotherapy, chemotherapy, or endocrine therapy were associated with higher prevalence and intensity of PPSP after breast cancer surgery.

Data sources and searches

We searched MEDLINE, Embase, CINAHL, and PsycINFO from inception to November 2018, with database-specific search strategies developed by an academic librarian ([Supplementary Appendix, section 1.1](#)). We screened the reference lists of all eligible studies and three previous systematic reviews for additional studies.^{11,14,15}

We included prospective and retrospective cohort or cross-sectional studies that (i) enrolled ≥ 100 breast cancer patients and (ii) reported the prevalence or intensity of PPSP (≥ 3 months after surgery); [Supplementary Appendix, section 1.2](#). We excluded conference abstracts, letters, and non-English-language articles. We excluded RCTs, which, because of restrictive eligibility criteria, often highly select patients undergoing breast cancer surgery and limit their generalisability. We excluded case-control studies of PPSP, as the number of cases and controls is preselected, which produces an artificial prevalence. When study populations overlapped $>50\%$ between articles, we included only the study with the larger sample size. Studies excluded for population overlap are listed in [Supplementary Appendix, section 1.3](#).

Study selection

Paired reviewers independently screened the titles and abstracts of identified citations and full texts of potentially eligible studies. Reviewers resolved any disagreements by discussion or with the help of an adjudicator (LW). We used online systematic review software (DistillerSR; Evidence Partners, Ottawa, Canada; <http://systematic-review.net/>) to facilitate literature screening.

Risk-of-bias assessment in individual studies

We used the following criteria from the Users' Guides to the Medical Literature¹⁶ to assess eligible studies for risk of bias: (i) representativeness of the study population, (ii) validity of

outcome assessment, and (iii) loss to follow-up ($\geq 20\%$ was considered high risk of bias).

Data extraction

We used standardised, pilot-tested data extraction forms and a detailed instruction manual to facilitate data extraction. All reviewers extracted a common set of 10 articles as a calibration exercise before data extraction. After consensus was achieved on all calibration studies, paired reviewers, independently and in duplicate, extracted data from the remaining articles. Data abstracted included study and patient information, details regarding breast cancer treatment, the prevalence and intensity of PPSP, and pain characteristics.

Our primary outcome was the prevalence of PPSP at the longest follow-up time reported. Secondary outcomes were (i) prevalence of moderate-to-severe (≥ 4 cm on a 10 cm visual analogue scale [VAS]) and severe (≥ 7 cm on a 10 cm VAS) persistent pain; (ii) overall intensity of PPSP; (iii) prevalence and intensity of PPSP at 3–12 months, 13–24 months, and >2 yr after breast cancer surgery; (iv) prevalence and intensity of PPSP at different locations, including breast, axilla, arm/shoulder, or incisional scar; and (v) prevalence and intensity of persistent, post-surgical, neuropathic pain.

Data synthesis and analysis

We calculated an adjusted kappa statistic (κ) to assess inter-rater agreement for full-text screening.¹⁷ We used random-effects models to pool data for prevalence of PPSP across studies, which consider both within- and between-study variability.¹⁸ We used Freeman–Tukey double arcsine transformation to stabilise the variance and to ensure that confidence intervals (CIs) contained only admissible values.^{19,20} Without this transformation, very high or very low prevalence estimates can produce CIs that contain values lower than 0% or higher than 100%.²⁰ We used the DerSimonian and Laird²¹ method to compute the pooled estimate based on the transformed values and their variances, and then the harmonic mean of sample sizes for the back-transformation to the original units of proportions.²² We pooled pain intensity after converting all pain instruments to the 10 cm VAS using linear transformation by assuming that instruments assessing pain share similar measurement properties (Supplementary Appendix, section 2).²³ We used this approach, vs pooling different instruments as a standardised mean difference (SMD), as the SMD is difficult to interpret and is vulnerable to baseline heterogeneity of enrolled patients.^{24,25}

If a study reported multiple types of persistent pain, we chose the one that most closely approximated the following definition of PPSP²⁶: (i) pain persists ≥ 3 months after surgery, (ii) pain develops or increases in intensity after the surgical procedure, (iii) pain is either localised to the surgical field or a referred area, and (iv) other causes of pain have been excluded. If a study only reported persistent pain for independent subgroups of patients, we estimated the overall PPSP prevalence and intensity by combining subgroups.¹⁸ If a study reported pain at multiple locations or sites, we used the data for breast or arm pain for estimating the overall prevalence, which was the site most commonly reported across studies eligible for our review. If a study reported PPSP at different follow-up times, we used the longest follow-up for pooling overall PPSP

prevalence and intensity. If authors reported pain intensity as the worst, least, and average pain, we used data for average pain. We derived the mean and standard deviation (SD) of pain intensity when reported as ordinal data (e.g. as mild, moderate, and severe pain). We estimated mean from median and SD from inter-quartile range (IQR) and range.¹⁸ If not reported, we imputed the SD from a linear regression of $\log(\text{SD})$ on $\log(\text{mean})$.¹⁸

Patient involvement

To optimise reporting of our results, we engaged two breast cancer patients during the planning phase of our review to determine if they prioritised (i) persistent pain reported by patients or by their clinician, (ii) pain anywhere or associated with the surgical site, and (iii) persistent pain of any severity or moderate-to-severe pain. Both patients endorsed that persistent pain should be based on patient report, and in any location, but were divided over severity. We therefore used multivariable meta-regression to estimate the prevalence of PPSP as reported by patients, at any location, for both 'any pain' and 'moderate-to-severe pain'. We also asked the same patients and three clinical experts what prevalence of PPSP would be considered important for any pain, moderate pain, and severe pain.

Small-study effects

We explored for small-study effects by visual assessment of asymmetry of funnel plots and calculation of Egger's test, when there were at least 10 studies in a meta-analysis.^{18,27}

Subgroup analyses, meta-regression, and sensitivity analyses

We examined heterogeneity for all pooled estimates through visual inspection of forest plots.²⁷ Some statistical tests of heterogeneity (I^2 and Cochran's Q) can be misleading when sample sizes are very large and associated measures of precision are therefore very narrow²⁸; therefore, we used τ^2 to estimate the extent of variation amongst the effect size parameters (e.g. PPSP prevalence or intensity) observed in different studies (between-study variance).²⁸

We generated the following *a priori* hypotheses to explain variability between studies assuming a higher prevalence but less severity of PPSP with (i) patient-reported vs clinician-assessed pain; (ii) pain at any location vs pain associated with the surgical site or referred areas; (iii) pain of any severity vs moderate-to-severe pain; (iv) high-income vs low- or middle-income countries, according to the United Nations¹³ classification; (v) greater vs lower risk of bias, on a criterion-by-criterion basis; and (vi) whether studies used a less rigorous vs a more rigorous definition of PPSP; and we assumed (vii) higher prevalence and greater severity of PPSP for ALND vs SLNB. We also explored whether prevalence of persistent neuropathic pain was higher when clinically diagnosed vs use of a validated instrument. We conducted a subgroup analysis for PPSP intensity assuming greater severity in patients with PPSP than amongst all breast cancer surgery patients. We conducted within-study subgroup analyses when possible to reduce risk of confounding, and between-study when not.

We performed meta-regression to explore the relationship between year of publication (as a surrogate for advancement in surgical techniques); length of follow-up; proportion of loss to follow-up; mean/median age; and proportion of patients undergoing breast-conserving surgery, breast reconstruction, radiotherapy, chemotherapy, and endocrine therapy with the prevalence and intensity of PPSP. All significant factors were explored with multivariable meta-regression.

We performed sensitivity analyses to examine (i) the impact of logit transformation vs Freeman–Tukey double arcsine transformation for PPSP prevalence,^{20,29} (ii) imputing data for missing SD of PPSP intensity, and (iii) estimation from ordinal data for intensity of PPSP. We used Stata statistical software version 15 (StataCorp, College Station, TX, USA) for all analyses. All comparisons were two-tailed, with a threshold P-value of 0.05.

Quality of evidence

We used the Grading of Recommendations, Assessment, Development and Evaluations (GRADE) approach to summarise the quality of evidence for all meta-analyses as high, moderate, low, or very low.²⁷ Based on feedback from two patients and three clinicians, we used the following thresholds for determining imprecision regarding prevalence of PPSP: 20% for any pain, 10% for moderate pain, and 5% for severe pain.

Results

Of 9849 unique citations, 197 articles from 187 cohorts with 297 612 patients proved eligible (Fig. 1; Supplementary Appendix, section 1.2). There was near-perfect agreement ($\kappa=0.87$) between reviewers for full-text screening. Amongst eligible

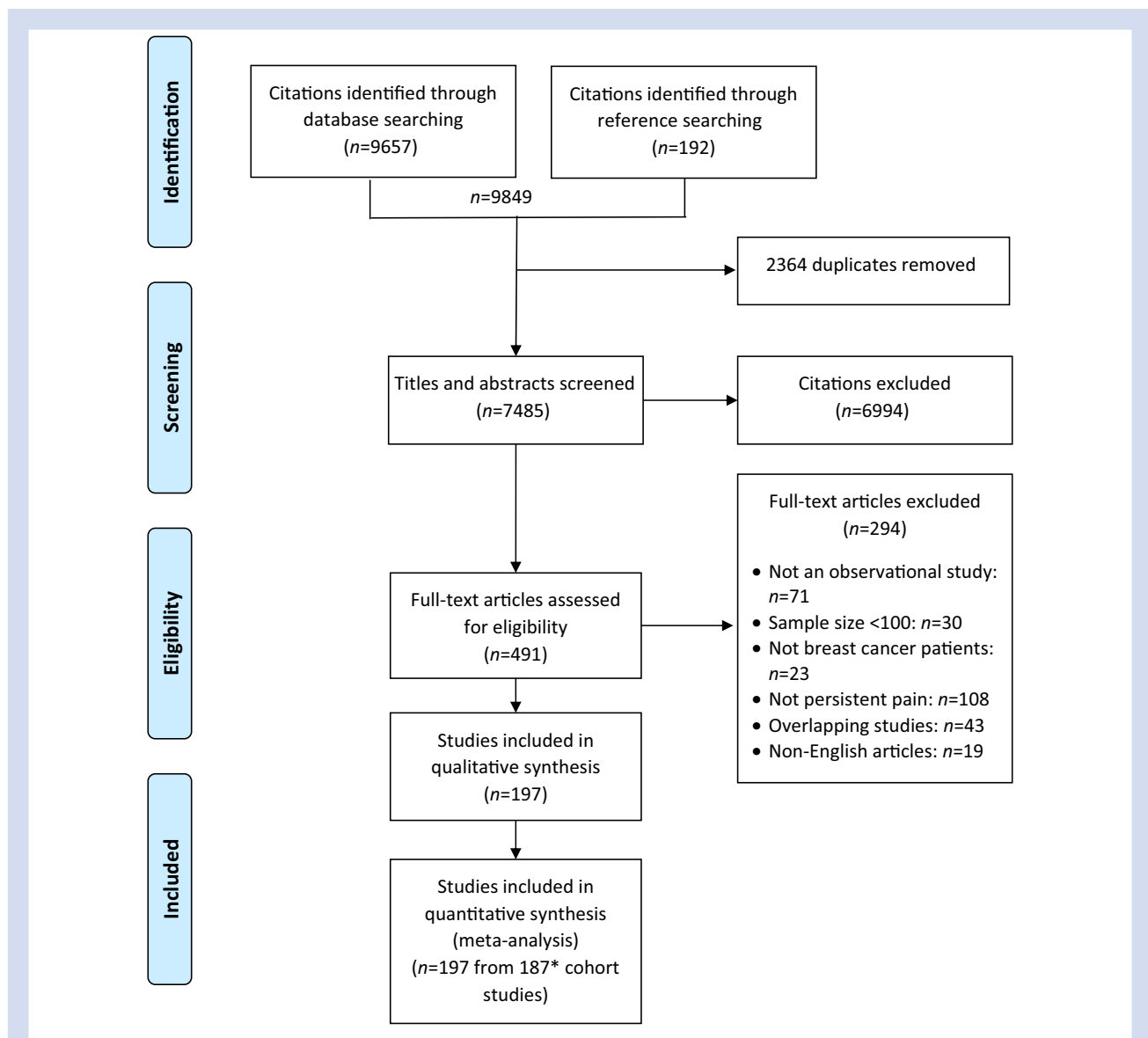


Fig 1. Flow diagram of study selection. *Each of 10 cohort studies was published in two articles, which reported different aspects of the same cohort (e.g. one reported pain prevalence, whereas the other reported pain intensity or neuropathic pain).

studies, 165 (88%) were conducted in high-income countries, 22 (12%) in middle-income countries, and none in low-income countries. The median sample size was 300 (IQR: 178–529; range: 100–119 576), the median of the mean age was 56 (IQR: 53–60), length of follow-up ranged from 3 months to >10 yr, and 10 studies (5%) only reported clinician-assessed pain (Supplementary Appendix, sections 3.1 and 3.2).

Risk of bias and outcome reporting

Amongst 187 eligible studies, 83% ($n=155$) enrolled representative samples, 69% ($n=129$) used validated pain measures, and 62% ($n=116$) reported <20% missing data. All studies defined persistent pain as ≥ 3 months, the majority (132 studies; 71%) as localised to the surgical site or a referred area, and most (106 studies; 57%) as distinct from pain before surgery, but only a minority (22 studies; 12%) explicitly excluded other possible causes of persistent pain (Supplementary Appendix, section 3.2).

Prevalence of persistent post-surgical pain after breast cancer surgery

One hundred forty-six studies (137 675 patients) reported the prevalence of persistent pain, which ranged from 2% to 78%; median prevalence was 37% (IQR: 22–48%). The pooled overall prevalence for PPSP of any severity was 35% (95% CI: 32–39%). Moderate-quality evidence found that the pooled prevalence for moderate-to-severe pain was 20% (95% CI: 17–23%; 78 studies; 29 939 patients), and 4% (95% CI: 3–5%; 58 studies; 24 002 patients; Supplementary Appendix, section 3.3) for severe persistent pain (Table 1). Seventy-three studies reported PPSP prevalence at specific locations. The pooled prevalence of PPSP involving the breast was 30% (95% CI: 24–38%; 42 studies; 97 780 patients), 27% (95% CI: 22–33%; 43 studies; 15 965 patients) for the arm/shoulder, 29% (95% CI: 18–41%; 19 studies; 7389 patients) for the axilla, and 33% (95% CI: 17–52%; 10 studies; 2529 patients) for the incisional scar (Supplementary Appendix, section 3.4).

A within-study subgroup analysis (34 studies; 18 089 patients)^{30–63} provided moderate-quality evidence that ALND was associated with higher prevalence of PPSP than SLNB (43%; 95% CI: 36–51% vs 26%; 95% CI: 21–32%; test of interaction, $P=0.001$; Table 1; Figs. 2 and 3; Supplementary Appendix, section 3.5).

For PPSP of any severity, we found significant between-study subgroup effects for any pain vs localised pain (44% [95% CI: 41–48%] vs 29% [95% CI: 24–34%]; test of interaction, $P<0.001$), any severity vs moderate-to-severe pain (44% [95% CI: 41–48%] vs 26% [95% CI: 20–32%]; test of interaction, $P<0.001$), and patient-reported vs clinician-assessed pain (36% [95% CI: 33–40%] vs 23% [95% CI: 12–35%]; test of interaction, $P=0.03$); all moderate-quality evidence (Table 1; Fig. 2; Supplementary Appendix, section 3.5). All subgroup factors remained significant in multivariable meta-regression (Supplementary Appendix, section 3.6). Our adjusted analysis found that the prevalence of patient-reported PPSP, of any severity, at any location, was 46% (95% CI: 36–56%), and the prevalence of patient-reported moderate-to-severe PPSP at any location was 27% (95% CI: 10–43%).

Amongst 79 studies that reported prevalence of persistent pain at discrete time intervals, the pooled estimates were 39% (95% CI: 29–49%) at 3–12 months (54 studies; 110 050 patients), 31% (95% CI: 23–41%) at 1–2 yr (18 studies; 6364 patients), and

29% (95% CI: 22–37%) at >2 yr (30 studies; 94 655 patients) (Supplementary Appendix, section 3.7). Random-effects meta-regression found no significant association between prevalence of PPSP and length of follow-up ($P=0.43$; Supplementary Appendix, section 3.8).

Intensity of persistent post-surgical pain after breast cancer surgery

Amongst 127 studies (30 832 patients) that reported the intensity of PPSP, the pooled intensity on a 10 cm VAS was 3.0 cm (95% CI: 2.8–3.2 cm; Supplementary Appendix, section 3.9); however, pain scores amongst studies reporting on all breast cancer patients were significantly lower vs those reporting on patients with PPSP (2.1 cm [95% CI: 1.9–2.3 cm] vs 3.9 cm [95% CI: 3.6–4.2 cm]; test of interaction, $P<0.001$; Supplementary Appendix, sections 3.9 and 3.10).

Twenty-two studies reported PPSP intensity scores for the breast (22 studies; 4461 patients) and 19 studies (2404 patients) for the arm/shoulder. We found a significant subgroup effect for less pain severity in studies that reported on all patients vs patients with PPSP (test of interaction ≤ 0.001 ; Supplementary Appendix, sections 3.9 and 3.10) at these locations. The pooled pain intensity amongst patients with PPSP on a 10 cm VAS was 3.9 cm (95% CI: 3.6–4.3 cm) at the breast and 4.4 cm (3.6–5.3 cm) at the arm/shoulder (Supplementary Appendix, section 3.9).

Amongst 127 studies that reported intensity of persistent pain at discrete time intervals, the pooled estimates for patients reporting PPSP were 3.7 cm (95% CI: 3.1–4.4 cm) at 3–12 months (12 studies; 2023 patients), 3.1 cm (95% CI: 2.7–3.6 cm) at 1–2 years, and 4.3 cm (95% CI: 3.7–4.8 cm) at >2 yr (6 studies; 705 patients) (Supplementary Appendix, section 3.11). Random-effects meta-regression found no significant association between intensity of persistent pain and length of follow-up ($P=0.88$; Supplementary Appendix, section 3.12).

Persistent neuropathic pain after breast cancer surgery

Moderate-quality evidence suggested that the pooled prevalence of persistent neuropathic pain amongst patients undergoing breast cancer surgery was 29% (95% CI: 23–35%; 31 studies [9263 patients]; Table 1). The pooled pain intensity amongst patients who developed persistent neuropathic pain after surgery was 3.8 cm (95% CI: 3.1–4.5 cm on a 10 cm VAS; 10 studies [901 patients]) (Supplementary Appendix, section 3.9).

Additional subgroup analysis and meta-regression

Aside from those reported previously, no subgroup analysis was significant, including high-income vs middle-income countries, representativeness of patients, validity of outcome assessment, rigor of PPSP definition, and rigor of neuropathic pain assessment; test of interaction P -values ranged from 0.32 to 0.99 for pain prevalence (Supplementary Appendix, section 3.5) and from 0.19 to 0.51 for pain intensity (Supplementary Appendix, section 3.10). In addition, meta-regression found no significant association between prevalence or intensity of PPSP and year of publication; length of follow-up; proportion of loss to follow-up; mean/median age; or the proportion of patients receiving breast-conserving surgery, breast reconstruction, radiotherapy, chemotherapy, and endocrine therapy (P -values ranged from 0.16 to 0.89 for pain prevalence and

Table 1 Grading of Recommendations, Assessment, Development and Evaluations evidence profile: prevalence of persistent post-surgical pain (PPSP) following breast cancer surgery. ALND, axillary lymph node dissection; CI, confidence interval; SLNB, sentinel lymph node biopsy. Localised pain: pain associated with the surgical site (e.g. breast, axilla, arm/shoulder, or incisional scar). * τ^2 reduced by 20%, 3%, and 17%, respectively, after introducing subgroup analysis of localised pain or high threshold pain vs any pain of any severity, patient-reported pain vs clinician-assessed pain, and ALND vs SLNB. ¹Significant subgroup effect was found for pain at any location vs localised pain (interaction $P < 0.001$). ²Significant subgroup effect was found for pain with low threshold vs high threshold (interaction $P < 0.001$). ³Significant subgroup effect was found for patient-reported vs clinician-assessed pain (interaction $P = 0.03$). ⁴Significant subgroup effect was found for pain after ALND vs SLNB (interaction $P = 0.001$). ⁵We did not rate down for risk of bias, because our subgroup analyses and meta-regression did not identify any significant difference between each risk-of-bias component and the estimates of prevalence. ⁶We did not rate down for imprecision because the 95% CI associated with the pain prevalence did not include our threshold of 20% for any pain prevalence (pain present or ≥ 1 on a 0–10 scale); 10% for moderate-to-severe pain prevalence (pain ≥ 4 on a 0–10 scale or equivalent definitions by authors). ⁷We rated down for imprecision because the 95% CI (3.1–5.4%) associated with the pain prevalence included our threshold of 5% for severe pain (pain ≥ 7 on a 0–10 scale or equivalent definitions by authors), which means clinical actions based on the estimates in the lower or upper boundary may be different.

Outcomes	Study characteristics			Quality assessment						Summary of findings	
	No. of studies	No. of participants	Length of follow-up (months)	Risk of bias	Inconsistency	Indirectness	Imprecision	Small-study effects	Overall quality of evidence	Absolute PPSP prevalence	
										Prevalence (%)	95% CI (%)
Any pain ^{1,2,*}	65	27 889	3 to >120	No serious risk of bias ⁵	Serious inconsistency; $\tau^2=0.015$	No serious indirectness	No serious imprecision ⁶	Undetected; symmetric funnel plot; Egger's test $P=0.52$	Moderate because of inconsistency	44	41–48
Localised pain ¹	61	100 817	5–96	No serious risk of bias ⁵	Serious inconsistency; $\tau^2=0.026$	No serious indirectness	No serious imprecision ⁶	Undetected; symmetric funnel plot; Egger's test $P=0.70$	Moderate because of inconsistency	29	24–34
High threshold pain ²	20	8969	3–96	No serious risk of bias ⁵	Serious inconsistency; $\tau^2=0.021$	No serious indirectness	No serious imprecision ⁶	Undetected; symmetric funnel plot; Egger's test $P=0.38$	Moderate because of inconsistency	26	20–32
Patient-reported pain ³	136	133 959	3 to >120	No serious risk of bias ⁵	Serious inconsistency; $\tau^2=0.025$	No serious indirectness	No serious imprecision ⁶	Undetected; symmetric funnel plot; Egger's test $P=1.0$	Moderate because of inconsistency	36	33–40
Pain after ALND ⁴	34	8310	3–95	No serious risk of bias ⁵	Serious inconsistency; $\tau^2=0.030$	No serious indirectness	No serious imprecision ⁶	Undetected; symmetric funnel plot; Egger's test $P=1.0$	Moderate because of inconsistency	43	36–51
Pain after SLNB ⁴	34	9779	3–95	No serious risk of bias ⁵	Serious inconsistency; $\tau^2=0.020$	No serious indirectness	No serious imprecision ⁶	Undetected; symmetric funnel plot; Egger's test $P=1.0$	Moderate because of inconsistency	26	21–32
Neuropathic pain	31	9263	3–108	No serious risk of bias ⁵	Serious inconsistency; $\tau^2=0.022$	No serious indirectness	No serious imprecision ⁶	Undetected; symmetric funnel plot; Egger's test $P=0.90$	Moderate because of inconsistency	29	23–35
Moderate-to-severe pain	78	29 939	3–96	No serious risk of bias ⁵	Serious inconsistency; $\tau^2=0.023$	No serious indirectness	No serious imprecision ⁶	Undetected; symmetric funnel plot; Egger's test $P=0.25$	Moderate because of inconsistency	20	17–23
Severe pain	58	24 002	3–96	No serious risk of bias ⁵	No serious inconsistency; $\tau^2=0.0001$	No serious indirectness	Serious imprecision ⁷	Undetected; symmetric funnel plot; Egger's test $P=0.69$	Moderate because of imprecision	4	3–5

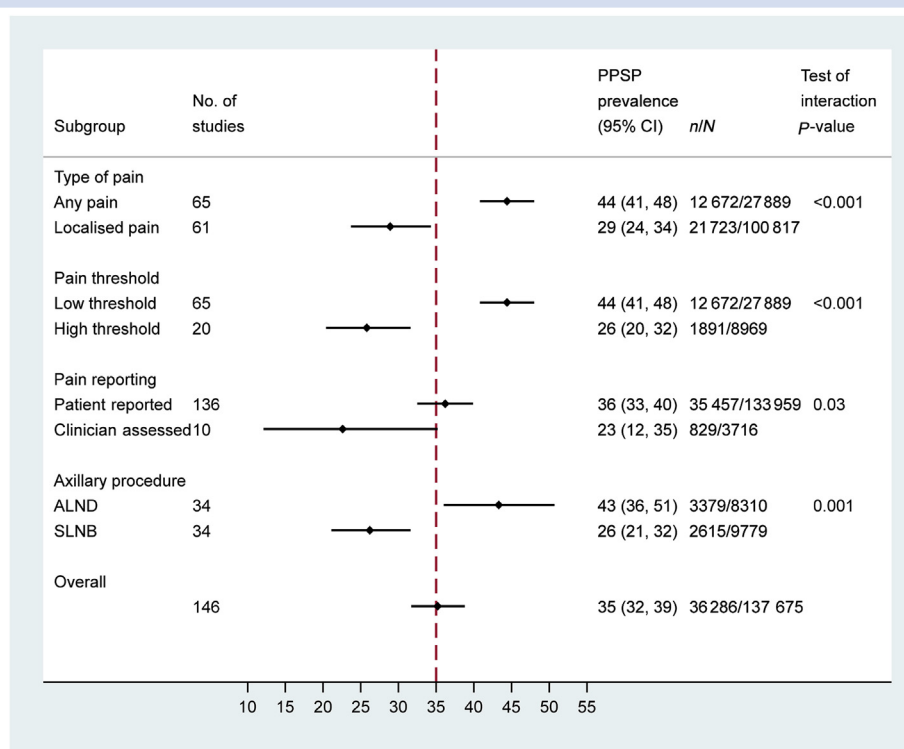


Fig 2. Persistent post-surgical pain prevalence subgroup analysis summary. Localised pain: pain associated with the surgical site (e.g. breast, axilla, arm/shoulder, or incisional scar). Low threshold: any pain present vs not; high threshold: moderate-to-severe pain vs no/mild pain. ALND, axillary lymph node dissection; CI, confidence interval; PPSP, persistent post-surgical pain; SLNB, sentinel lymph node biopsy.

from 0.07 to 0.89 for pain intensity; [Supplementary Appendix, section 3.13](#)).

Sensitivity analysis and small-study effects

Sensitivity analyses using logit transformation showed similar results in pooled pain prevalence ([Supplementary Appendix, section 3.14](#)). Sensitivity analyses, excluding data of missing SD imputed or estimated from IQR or range or excluding pain score derived from ordinal data, showed no important differences in pooled measures of pain intensity ([Supplementary Appendix, section 3.15](#)). No small-study effects were detected for prevalence and intensity of pain in general or neuropathic pain in particular ([Supplementary Appendix, sections 3.16–3.19](#)).

Discussion

Main findings

Persistent pain is common after breast cancer surgery with an average pain intensity, on a 10 cm VAS, of 3.9 cm in the breast and 4.4 cm in the arm and shoulder. When present, the intensity of persistent neuropathic pain after surgery was 3.8 cm. The prevalence of PPSP differs based on the location and severity of pain, whether pain is reported directly by patients

or assessed by their clinician, and the surgical approach used. The prevalence of PPSP after breast cancer surgery is 46% when considering any location, any severity, and when captured directly from patients; the prevalence of patient-reported pain at any location reduces to 27% when restricted to moderate or greater severity. Higher prevalence of persistent pain is associated with ALND, likely because of sacrifice of the intercostobrachial nerve. Both prevalence and severity of persistent pain were stable for over 2 yr, suggesting that once PPSP develops, it may be unlikely to improve.

Relation to other studies and implications

Previous narrative reviews reported rates of PPSP after breast cancer surgery ranging from 10% to 69%,^{64–66} and the only systematic review of overall PPSP reported a weighted average of 30%.¹¹ Our systematic review and meta-analysis found an overall pooled prevalence for PPSP of 35% (95% CI: 32–39%); however, we found evidence for a number of significant subgroup effects, suggesting a focus on the overall prevalence is misleading. Based on a qualitative assessment, the prior systematic review concluded the rate of PPSP had decreased from the 1990s to the 2010s.¹¹ Our meta-regression did not provide support for an association between the prevalence of PPSP after breast cancer surgery and year of study publication. A prior systematic review of neuropathic pain after breast

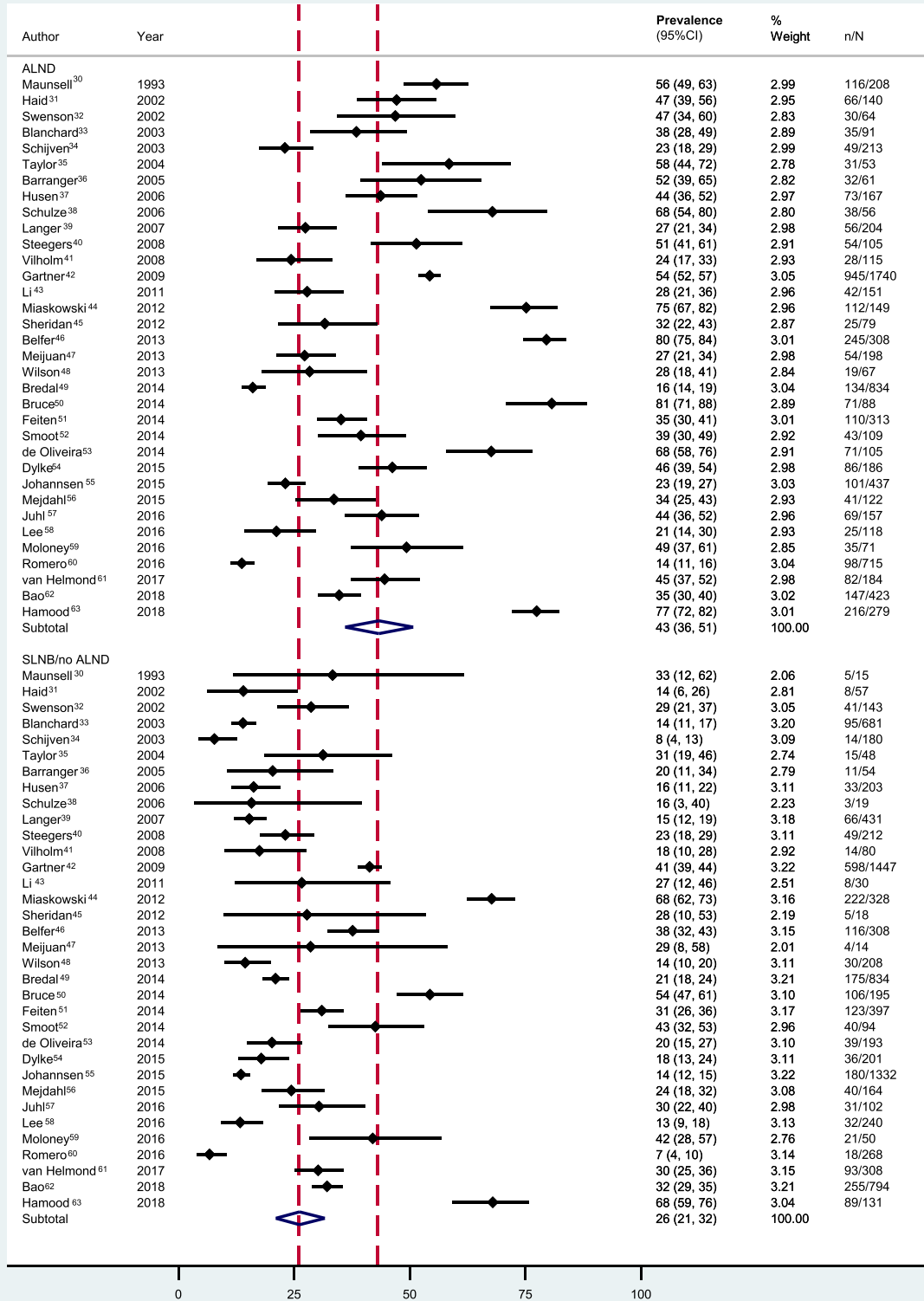


Fig 3. Persistent post-surgical pain prevalence subgroup analysis for axillary lymph node dissection (ALND) vs sentinel lymph node biopsy (SLNB). Test of interaction P=0.001. CI, confidence interval.

cancer surgery reported the prevalence ranged from 14% to 27%, based on the questionnaire used.¹⁵ Our systematic review found a pooled prevalence of 29% for persistent neuropathic pain after surgery, and no evidence for a subgroup effect based on instrument-defined neuropathic pain (e.g. DN4, LANSS, or S-LANSS) vs clinically assessed neuropathic pain.

In our systematic review, we found a significant subgroup effect for patient-reported vs clinician-assessed pain, which indicates that clinical assessment may systematically underestimate pain prevalence. There is indirect evidence from other patient populations that support this finding. For example, 73% of patients with rheumatoid arthritis find it difficult to discuss pain with their healthcare provider, primarily because they do not want to be perceived as 'complaining'.⁶⁷

Our review reaffirmed that ALND is associated with a higher prevalence of persistent pain after breast cancer surgery,¹⁴ which is likely a result of sacrificing the intercostal brachial nerve.⁷⁹ A case series of breast cancer surgery patients who underwent ALND and developed post-surgical pain found that all showed evidence of a lesion of the intercostobrachial nerve.⁶⁸ Preservation of the intercostobrachial nerves during ALND reduces the incidence of post-mastectomy pain syndrome,^{35,69} pain intensity,⁷⁰ and the risk of sensory deficits after axillary clearance without significant increase in total surgery time.⁷¹ The American Society of Clinical Oncology recommends SLNB for patients with early-stage breast cancer, followed by dissection only if biopsy is positive,⁷² as this approach may reduce PPSP and shows equivalent rates of axillary relapse compared with axillary dissection.^{33,73,74}

Our review adds to a growing body of evidence that PPSP after breast cancer surgery is a major clinical problem.^{64–66} Preliminary evidence suggests that education,⁷⁵ exercise therapy,⁷⁶ psychological or behavioural interventions,⁷⁷ and paravertebral blocks in addition to general anaesthesia⁷⁸ or ketamine infusion perioperatively^{79,80} may reduce the rate of persistent pain after breast cancer surgery; however, further research is urgently needed to identify effective interventions, including the potential role of nerve sparing during ALND.

Strengths and limitations

The strengths of our review include explicit eligibility criteria and a comprehensive search that identified additional 113 observational studies, enrolling 137 123 patients that were not included in the previous systematic review. We converted different pain scales to a 10 cm VAS across studies to optimise interpretation of our findings. We used meta-analysis to estimate the prevalence and intensity of PPSP after breast cancer surgery, and Freeman–Tukey double arcsine transformation for pain prevalence to stabilise the variance.²⁰ We conducted sensitivity analyses to confirm robustness of our findings and the GRADE approach to appraise the quality of evidence.

There are some limitations to our systematic review. We excluded 19 non-English-language articles, and none of our included studies were conducted in low-income countries, which restricts the generalisability of our findings. Our pooled prevalence of PPSP showed considerable heterogeneity; however, subgroup analyses and meta-regression were able to explain some of the variability on the basis of how studies considered pain severity and location, if pain was assessed by

clinicians or reported by patients, and if women underwent ALND or SLNB.

Conclusions

Moderate-quality evidence suggests that almost half of all women undergoing breast cancer surgery develop persistent pain, and one in four develop moderate-to-severe PPSP; higher prevalence is associated with ALND. Further, chronic pain after breast cancer surgery persists for years without significant improvement in either prevalence or intensity. Clinical trials are needed to determine whether axillary-nerve-sparing techniques are effective for reducing persistent pain after breast surgery involving ALND.

Authors' contributions

Study conception/design: LW, JWB

Literature search: RJC

Data acquisition: LW, JCC, ND, BYH, SK, DL, YO, SAK, BR, NA, HYK, KJ, MP, DJ, AL, GG, SN

Statistical analysis: LW

Data interpretation: LW, JWB, SR, JSK, MM

Drafting of manuscript: LW, JWB

Critical revision of manuscript for important intellectual content: all authors

LW had full access to all of the data in the study and takes responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis.

Declarations of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

Acknowledgements

The authors thank Suzannah Bennett, MSc, Health Quality Ontario, Toronto, ON, Canada; Susan Reid, MD, Department of Surgery, McMaster University, Hamilton, ON, Canada; Tara Packham, PhD, School of Rehabilitation Sciences, McMaster University, Hamilton, ON, Canada; and Jaime Escallon, MD, Department of Surgery, University of Toronto, Toronto, ON, Canada for providing insights about patient's preference and patient important pain thresholds. The second patient partner requested to remain anonymous. The authors also thank Eugene Michanine and Hassan Mir, BSc, McMaster University, Hamilton, ON, Canada; Carlos Podalirio Borges de Almeida, PhD, Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul, Porto Alegre, Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil; Maria das Neves Dantas da Silveira Barros, PhD, Universidade de Pernambuco, Recife, Brazil; and Laxsana Sivananthan, medical student at the Graduate Entry Medical School, University of Limerick, Limerick, Ireland for help with title/abstract screening or full-text screening. No financial compensation was provided to any of these individuals.

Funding

No funds were received for this study.

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bja.2020.04.088>.

References

- Bray F, Ferlay J, Soerjomataram I, Siegel RL, Torre LA, Jemal A. Global cancer statistics 2018: GLOBOCAN estimates of incidence and mortality worldwide for 36 cancers in 185 countries. *CA Cancer J Clin* 2018; **68**: 394–424
- American Cancer Society *Cancer Facts & Figures*. Atlanta, GA: American Cancer Society; 2019. 2019
- Siegel RL, Miller KD, Jemal A. Cancer statistics. *CA Cancer J Clin* 2019; **2019**(69): 7–34
- Miller KD, Nogueira L, Mariotto AB, et al. Cancer treatment and survivorship statistics. *CA Cancer J Clin* 2019; **2019**(69): 363–85
- Cancer Research UK. *Breast cancer survival statistics*. Available from: <https://www.cancerresearchuk.org/health-professional/cancer-statistics/statistics-by-cancer-type/breast-cancer/survival#heading=Zero>. [Accessed 30 October 2017]
- Ellison LF. Progress in net cancer survival in Canada over 20 years. *Health Rep* 2018; **29**: 10–8
- Liu CQ, Guo Y, Shi JY, Sheng Y. Late morbidity associated with a tumour-negative sentinel lymph node biopsy in primary breast cancer patients: a systematic review. *Eur J Cancer* 2009; **45**: 1560–8
- Levangie PK, Drouin J. Magnitude of late effects of breast cancer treatments on shoulder function: a systematic review. *Breast Cancer Res Treat* 2009; **116**: 1–15
- Rietman JS, Dijkstra PU, Hoekstra HJ, et al. Late morbidity after treatment of breast cancer in relation to daily activities and quality of life: a systematic review. *Eur J Surg Oncol* 2003; **29**: 229–38
- Wang L, Hong BY, Kennedy SA, et al. Predictors of unemployment after breast cancer surgery: a systematic review and meta-analysis of observational studies. *J Clin Oncol* 2018; **36**: 1868–79
- Wang K, Yee C, Tam S, et al. Prevalence of pain in patients with breast cancer post-treatment: a systematic review. *Breast* 2018; **42**: 113–27
- Stroup DF, Berlin JA, Morton SC, et al. Meta-analysis of observational studies in epidemiology: a proposal for reporting. *JAMA* 2000; **283**: 2008–12
- United Nations. *World economic situation and prospects 2019*. Available from: https://www.un.org/development/desa/dpad/wp-content/uploads/sites/45/WESP2019_BOOK-web.pdf. [Accessed 30 August 2019]
- Wang L, Guyatt GH, Kennedy SA, et al. Predictors of persistent pain after breast cancer surgery: a systematic review and meta-analysis of observational studies. *CMAJ* 2016; **188**: E352–61
- Ilhan E, Chee E, Hush J, Moloney N. The prevalence of neuropathic pain is high after treatment for breast cancer: a systematic review. *Pain* 2017; **158**: 2082–91
- Randolph AG, Cook DJ, Guyatt G. Chapter 20: prognosis. In: Guyatt G, Rennie D, Meade MO, Cook DJ, editors. *Users' Guides to the medical literature: a manual for evidence-based clinical practice*. 3rd Edn. New York: McGraw-Hill; 2015. p. 421–9
- Landis JR, Koch GG. The measurement of observer agreement for categorical data. *Biometrics* 1977; **33**: 159–74
- Higgins JPT, Thomas J, Chandler J, et al. *Cochrane handbook for systematic reviews of interventions version 5.1.0* [updated March 2011]. Available from: www.training.cochrane.org/handbook. [Accessed 30 October 2017]
- Freeman MF, Tukey JW. Transformations related to the angular and the square root. *Ann Math Stat* 1950; **21**: 607–11
- Nyaga VN, Arbyn M, Aerts M. Metaprop: a Stata command to perform meta-analysis of binomial data. *Arch Public Health* 2014; **72**: 39
- DerSimonian R, Laird N. Meta-analysis in clinical trials. *Control Clin Trial*. 1986; **7**: 177–88
- Miller J. The inverse of the Freeman–Tukey double arcsine transformation. *Am Stat* 1978; **32**: 138
- Thorlund K, Walter SD, Johnston BC, Furukawa TA, Guyatt GH. Pooling health-related quality of life outcomes in meta-analysis—a tutorial and review of methods for enhancing interpretability. *Res Synth Methods* 2011; **2**: 188–203
- Busse JW, Bartlett SJ, Dougados M, et al. Optimal strategies for reporting pain in clinical trials and systematic reviews: recommendations from an OMERACT 12 workshop. *J Rheumatol* 2015; **42**: 1962–70
- Johnston BC, Alonso-Coello P, Friedrich JO, et al. Do clinicians understand the size of treatment effects? A randomized survey across 8 countries. *CMAJ* 2016; **188**: 25–32
- Werner MU, Kongsgaard UEI. Defining persistent post-surgical pain: is an update required? *Br J Anaesth* 2014; **113**: 1–4
- Iorio A, Spencer FA, Falavigna M, et al. Use of GRADE for assessment of evidence about prognosis: rating confidence in estimates of event rates in broad categories of patients. *BMJ* 2015; **350**: h870
- Rucker G, Schwarzer G, Carpenter JR, Schumacher M. Undue reliance on I^2 in assessing heterogeneity may mislead. *BMC Med Res Methodol* 2008; **8**: 79
- Barendregt JJ, Doi SA, Lee YY, Norman RE, Vos T. Meta-analysis of prevalence. *J Epidemiol Community Health* 2013; **67**: 974–8
- Maunsell E, Brisson J, Deschenes L. Arm problems and psychological distress after surgery for breast cancer. *Can J Surg* 1993; **36**: 315–20
- Haid A, Koberle-Wuhrer R, Knauer M, et al. Morbidity of breast cancer patients following complete axillary dissection or sentinel node biopsy only: a comparative evaluation. *Breast Cancer Res Treat* 2002; **73**: 31–6
- Swenson KK, Nissen MJ, Ceronsky C, Swenson L, Lee MW, Tuttle TM. Comparison of side effects between sentinel lymph node and axillary lymph node dissection for breast cancer. *Ann Surg Oncol* 2002; **9**: 745–53
- Blanchard DK, Donohue JH, Reynolds C, Grant CS. Relapse and morbidity in patients undergoing sentinel lymph node biopsy alone or with axillary dissection for breast cancer. *Arch Surg* 2003; **138**: 482–7. discussion 7–8
- Schijven MP, Vingerhoets AJ, Rutten HJ, et al. Comparison of morbidity between axillary lymph node dissection and sentinel node biopsy. *Eur J Surg Oncol* 2003; **29**: 341–50
- Taylor KO. Morbidity associated with axillary surgery for breast cancer. *ANZ J Surg* 2004; **74**: 314–7
- Barranger E, Dubernard G, Fleurence J, Antoine M, Darai E, Uzan S. Subjective morbidity and quality of life after sentinel node biopsy and axillary lymph node dissection for breast cancer. *J Surg Oncol* 2005; **92**: 17–22

37. Husen M, Paaschburg B, Flyger HL. Two-step axillary operation increases risk of arm morbidity in breast cancer patients. *Breast* 2006; **15**: 620–8
38. Schulze T, Mucke J, Markwardt J, Schlag PM, Bembenek A. Long-term morbidity of patients with early breast cancer after sentinel lymph node biopsy compared to axillary lymph node dissection. *J Surg Oncol* 2006; **93**: 109–19
39. Langer I, Guller U, Berclaz G, et al. Morbidity of sentinel lymph node biopsy (SLN) alone versus SLN and completion axillary lymph node dissection after breast cancer surgery: a prospective Swiss multicenter study on 659 patients. *Ann Surg* 2007; **245**: 452–61
40. Steegers MA, Wolters B, Evers AW, Strobbe L, Wilder-Smith OH. Effect of axillary lymph node dissection on prevalence and intensity of chronic and phantom pain after breast cancer surgery. *J Pain* 2008; **9**: 813–22
41. Vilholm OJ, Cold S, Rasmussen L, Sindrup SH. The post-mastectomy pain syndrome: an epidemiological study on the prevalence of chronic pain after surgery for breast cancer. *Br J Cancer* 2008; **99**: 604–10
42. Gartner R, Jensen MB, Nielsen J, Ewertz M, Kroman N, Kehlet H. Prevalence of and factors associated with persistent pain following breast cancer surgery. *JAMA* 2009; **302**: 1985–92
43. Li YY, Kong SK. Persistent pain after breast cancer surgery in a Chinese population. *Clin J Pain* 2011; **27**: 481–5
44. Miaskowski C, Cooper B, Paul SM, et al. Identification of patient subgroups and risk factors for persistent breast pain following breast cancer surgery. *J Pain* 2012; **13**: 1172–87
45. Sheridan D, Foo I, O’Shea H, et al. Long-term follow-up of pain and emotional characteristics of women after surgery for breast cancer. *J Pain Symptom Manage* 2012; **44**: 608–14
46. Belfer I, Schreiber KL, Shaffer JR, et al. Persistent post-mastectomy pain in breast cancer survivors: analysis of clinical, demographic, and psychosocial factors. *J Pain* 2013; **14**: 1185–95
47. Meijuan Y, Zhiyou P, Yuwen T, Ying F, Xinzhong C. A retrospective study of postmastectomy pain syndrome: incidence, characteristics, risk factors, and influence on quality of life. *ScientificWorldJournal* 2013; **2013**: 159732
48. Wilson GC, Quillin 3rd RC, Hanseman DJ, Lewis JD, Edwards MJ, Shaughnessy EA. Incidence and predictors of neuropathic pain following breast surgery. *Ann Surg Oncol* 2013; **20**: 3330–4
49. Bredal IS, Smeby NA, Ottesen S, Warncke T, Schlichting E. Chronic pain in breast cancer survivors: comparison of psychosocial, surgical, and medical characteristics between survivors with and without pain. *J Pain Symptom Manage* 2014; **48**: 852–62
50. Bruce J, Thornton AJ, Powell R, et al. Psychological, surgical, and sociodemographic predictors of pain outcomes after breast cancer surgery: a population-based cohort study. *Pain* 2014; **155**: 232–43
51. Feiten S, Dunnebacke J, Heymanns J, et al. Breast cancer morbidity: questionnaire survey of patients on the long term effects of disease and adjuvant therapy. *Dtsch Arztebl Int* 2014; **111**: 537–44
52. Smoot B, Boyd BS, Byl N, Dodd M. Mechanosensitivity in the upper extremity following breast cancer treatment. *J Hand Ther* 2014; **27**: 4–11
53. De Oliveira Jr GS, Chang R, Khan SA, et al. Factors associated with the development of chronic pain after surgery for breast cancer: a prospective cohort from a tertiary center in the United States. *Breast J* 2014; **20**: 9–14
54. Dylke ES, Kilbreath S. Current rehabilitation processes do not prevent long-term impairments after treatment for breast cancer in Australia. *Aust Fam Physician* 2015; **44**: 405–9
55. Johannsen M, Christensen S, Zachariae R, Jensen AB. Socio-demographic, treatment-related, and health behavioral predictors of persistent pain 15 months and 7–9 years after surgery: a nationwide prospective study of women treated for primary breast cancer. *Breast Cancer Res Treat* 2015; **152**: 645–58
56. Mejdahl MK, Mertz BG, Bidstrup PE, Andersen KG. Preoperative distress predicts persistent pain after breast cancer treatment: a prospective cohort study. *J Natl Compr Canc Netw* 2015; **13**: 995–1003. quiz
57. Juhl AA, Christiansen P, Damsgaard TE. Persistent pain after breast cancer treatment: a questionnaire-based study on the prevalence, associated treatment variables, and pain type. *J Breast Cancer* 2016; **19**: 447–54
58. Lee E, Takita C, Wright JL, et al. Characterization of risk factors for adjuvant radiotherapy-associated pain in a tri-racial/ethnic breast cancer population. *Pain* 2016; **157**: 1122–31
59. Moloney N, Sung JM, Kilbreath S, Dylke E. Prevalence and risk factors associated with pain 21 months following surgery for breast cancer. *Support Care Cancer* 2016; **24**: 4533–9
60. Romero A, Tora-Rocamora I, Bare M, et al. Prevalence of persistent pain after breast cancer treatment by detection mode among participants in population-based screening programs. *BMC Cancer* 2016; **16**: 735
61. van Helmond N, Timmerman H, van Dassel NT, et al. High body mass index is a potential risk factor for persistent postoperative pain after breast cancer treatment. *Pain Physician* 2017; **20**: E661–71
62. Bao T, Seidman A, Li Q, et al. Living with chronic pain: perceptions of breast cancer survivors. *Breast Cancer Res Treat* 2018; **169**: 133–40
63. Hamood R, Hamood H, Merhasin I, Keinan-Boker L. Chronic pain and other symptoms among breast cancer survivors: prevalence, predictors, and effects on quality of life. *Breast Cancer Res Treat* 2018; **167**: 157–69
64. Kehlet H, Jensen TS, Woolf CJ. Persistent postsurgical pain: risk factors and prevention. *Lancet* 2006; **367**: 1618–25
65. Correll D. Chronic postoperative pain: recent findings in understanding and management. *F1000Res* 2017; **6**: 1054
66. Richebe P, Capdevila X, Rivat C. Persistent postsurgical pain: pathophysiology and preventative pharmacologic considerations. *Anesthesiology* 2018; **129**: 590–607
67. Strand V, Wright GC, Bergman MJ, Tambiah J, Taylor PC. Patient expectations and perceptions of goal-setting strategies for disease management in rheumatoid arthritis. *J Rheumatol* 2015; **42**: 2046–54
68. Vecht CJ, Van de Brand HJ, Wajer OJ. Post-axillary dissection pain in breast cancer due to a lesion of the intercostobrachial nerve. *Pain* 1989; **38**: 171–6
69. Kostanyan M. Intercostobrachial syndrome after nerve-sparing axillary lymph node dissection. *Eur J Cancer* 2014; **50**: S127
70. Maycock LA, Dillon P, Dixon JM. Morbidity related to intercostobrachial nerve damage following axillary surgery for breast cancer. *Breast* 1998; **7**: 209–12

71. Torresan RZ, Cabello C, Conde DM, Brenelli HB. Impact of the preservation of the intercostobrachial nerve in axillary lymphadenectomy due to breast cancer. *Breast J* 2003; **9**: 389–92
72. Lyman GH, Temin S, Edge SB, et al. Sentinel lymph node biopsy for patients with early-stage breast cancer: American Society of Clinical Oncology clinical practice guideline update. *J Clin Oncol* 2014; **32**: 1365–83
73. Giuliano AE, McCall L, Beitsch P, et al. Locoregional recurrence after sentinel lymph node dissection with or without axillary dissection in patients with sentinel lymph node metastases: the American College of Surgeons Oncology Group Z0011 randomized trial. *Ann Surg* 2010; **252**: 426–32. discussion 32–3
74. Huang TW, Kuo KN, Chen KH, et al. Recommendation for axillary lymph node dissection in women with early breast cancer and sentinel node metastasis: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials using the GRADE system. *Int J Surg* 2016; **34**: 73–80
75. Adam R, Bond C, Murchie P. Educational interventions for cancer pain. A systematic review of systematic reviews with nested narrative review of randomized controlled trials. *Patient Educ Couns* 2015; **98**: 269–82
76. De Groef A, Penen F, Dams L, Van der Gucht E, Nijs J, Meeus M. Best-evidence rehabilitation for chronic pain part 2: pain during and after cancer treatment. *J Clin Med* 2019; **8**: E979
77. Busse JW, Wang L, Kamaleldin M, et al. Opioids for chronic noncancer pain: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *JAMA* 2018; **320**: 2448–60
78. Andrae MH, Andrae DA. Local anaesthetics and regional anaesthesia for preventing chronic pain after surgery. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2012; **10**. CD007105
79. Chaparro LE, Smith SA, Moore RA, Wiffen PJ, Gilron I. Pharmacotherapy for the prevention of chronic pain after surgery in adults. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2013 Jul 24; **2013**(7). CD008307
80. McNicol ED, Schumann R, Haroutounian S. A systematic review and meta-analysis of ketamine for the prevention of persistent post-surgical pain. *Acta Anaesthesiol Scand* 2014; **58**: 1199–213

Handling editor: Jonathan Hardman