



Published in final edited form as:

*Ann Surg.* 2022 October 01; 276(4): 635–653. doi:10.1097/SLA.0000000000005591.

## A Prospective Study on the Safety and Efficacy of Vascularized Lymph Node Transplant

Stav Brown, MD,

Babak J. Mehrara, MD,

Michelle Coriddi, MD,

Leslie McGrath, NP,

Michele Cavalli, BA,

Joseph H. Dayan, MD

Division of Plastic & Reconstructive Surgery, Department of Surgery, Memorial Sloan Kettering Cancer Center, New York, NY

### Abstract

**PURPOSE:** While vascularized lymph node transplant (VLNT) has gained popularity, there is a lack of prospective long-term studies and standardized outcomes. The purpose of this study was to evaluate the safety and efficacy of VLNT using all available outcome measures.

**METHODS:** This was a prospective study on all consecutive patients who underwent VLNT. Outcomes were assessed with two patient-reported outcome metrics, limb volume, bioimpedance, need for compression, and incidence of cellulitis.

**RESULTS:** There were 89 patients with the following donor sites: omentum (73%), axilla (13%), supraclavicular (7%), groin (3.5%). Mean follow-up was  $23.7 \pm 12$  months. There was a significant improvement at 2 years post-op across all outcome measures: 28.4% improvement in the Lymphedema Life Impact Scale (LLIS), 20% average reduction in limb volume, 27.5% improvement in bioimpedance score, 93% reduction in cellulitis, and 34% of patients no longer required compression. Complications were transient and low without any donor site lymphedema.

**CONCLUSION:** VLNT is a safe and effective treatment for lymphedema with significant benefits fully manifesting at 2 years post-op. Omentum does not have any donor site lymphedema risk making it an attractive first choice.

### Mini Abstract

Vascularized lymph node transplant provides satisfactory reduction in limb volume, bioimpedance, and improved quality of life. Vascularized omentum transplant is a reliable alternative to peripheral VLNT with no risk of donor site lymphedema and particularly significant impact in reducing the incidence of cellulitis.

---

**Corresponding author:** Joseph H. Dayan, MD, MBA, Associate Professor, Division of Plastic & Reconstructive Surgery, Co-Director, Lymphatic Surgery & Research Program, Director, Facial Nerve Program, Memorial Sloan Kettering Cancer Center, 321 East 61 Street, 6<sup>th</sup> Floor, New York, NY 10065, (646) 608-8095, dayanj@mskcc.org.

## INTRODUCTION

Lymphedema is a common, debilitating, and often misunderstood disease. The primary treatment is lifelong compression and manual lymphatic drainage. While these therapies are essential for managing swelling, they do not treat the underlying disease. It is not uncommon to see a young breast cancer survivor with lymphedema who is 100% compliant with compression still experience increased limb swelling over time. This is because chronic lymphedema is immunologically-mediated fibroproliferative disorder. Stagnant lymph leads to an inflammatory response causing fibrosis of the lymphatic vessels which causes even more lymph stasis spiraling into fulminant lymphedema.(1–6) This inflammatory response also leads to fibroadipose deposition.(7) Compression may mitigate swelling, but its effectiveness is limited by the lack of an exit for lymph. Consequently, vascularized lymph node transplant has been used to both restore immunologically active lymph nodes and provide a portal for lymph egress.

Vascularized lymph node transplant (VLNT) is now routinely used at an increasing number of academic centers. (8–12) VLNT involves transplanting vascularized lymph nodes to the affected limb with an arterial and venous anastomosis. A lymphatic anastomosis is not typically performed as the transplanted lymph nodes stimulate lymphangiogenesis via VEGF-C signaling.(13, 14) Ingrowth of new lymphatics into transplanted lymph nodes has been confirmed in both animals and humans.(15) The proposed mechanism for VLNT is that the lymph entering the transplanted lymph nodes is shunted into the venous system via interconnections between the lymphatic sinuses and venules within the transplanted nodes. (9) Initial concerns of donor site lymphedema have been addressed using reverse lymphatic mapping which minimizes this risk.(16) While a variety of donor sites have been utilized for VLNT (Table 1), the authors' first choice is the omentum and gastroepiploic lymph nodes which eliminate any risk of donor site lymphedema.(17, 18) These advances in safety have led to increased use of VLNT.

While VLNT is being performed at higher rates, there are limited prospective outcomes studies. Most studies are retrospective and rely on a single outcome measure—limb circumference—often with limited follow-up. Limb circumference or limb volume is only a snapshot of the limb that is in flux throughout the day. Often patients are placed in postoperative compression which can confound the outcome data. The purpose of this study was to address gaps in our knowledge of outcomes following VLNT by using all available outcome metrics: limb volume, bioimpedance, and two different patient reported outcome metrics with long-term follow-up.

## METHODS

This was a prospective study conducted at Memorial Sloan Kettering Cancer Center between November 2014 and July 2020, under IRB #17–377. Inclusion criteria consisted of patients aged 18–80 years with secondary lymphedema of the upper or lower extremity, International Society of Lymphology (ISL) Stage 0, 1, 2, or 3 lymphedema, and a BMI of less than 30. Patients who underwent combined VLNT and either lymphovenous bypass or liposuction were excluded. Preoperative assessment included: BMI, history of cellulitis,

use of prophylactic antibiotics, lymphedema stage, and compression regimen. All patients underwent preoperative decongestive therapy prior to baseline measurements. Lymphedema evaluation included limb volume measurements, bio-impedance, and two lymphedema-specific validated quality of life (QOL) questionnaires. (19) Preoperative imaging included indocyanine green (ICG) lymphangiography, lymphoscintigraphy and magnetic resonance angiography (MRA) to assess the lymphatic system, fluid and fat composition, vein stenosis, and rule out cancer recurrence.

### Limb Volume

Limb volume was assessed using a perometer and manual measurements. In order to minimize the confounding factor of postoperative lymphedema therapy on limb volume outcomes, preoperative baseline measurements were taken *after* each patient was optimized with preoperative decongestive therapy. Limb volumes were then recorded at 6 months, 12 months, and annually thereafter. Manual limb volumes were calculated by measuring limb circumferences at 4 cm intervals from the wrist to 44 cm proximally (19) then using the truncated cone formula used by Brorson for volume calculation.(20). A limb volume difference of 10% or greater is traditionally the threshold for lymphedema although this is an arbitrary and historical cutoff.(21) A perometer (Pero-system model 1000NT, Wuppertal, Germany) was used for automated limb volume measurements. A conversion formula previously described by our group was used for manual measurement conversion to perometer measurements, for a unified limb volume scale.(19)

### Bioimpedance

Bioimpedance was recorded using the L-DEX model U400 (Impedimed, Brisbane, Australia). Bioimpedance spectroscopy extrapolates the extracellular fluid content by measuring electrical impedance across each limb which is then normalized resulting in an L-DEX score. The lower the L-DEX score, the less fluid in the limb. Historically, an L-DEX score of 10 or greater was consistent with a diagnosis of lymphedema but more recently a score of 6 or higher has been accepted as the new threshold. (22, 23)

### Patient-reported Outcomes (PROMs)

Patient-reported outcomes were measured using two validated lymphedema-specific questionnaires with different look-back periods at each follow-up. These included the Lymphedema Life Impact Scale (LLIS version 2) and the Upper Limb Lymphedema-27 (ULL27).(24) The LLIS questionnaire includes 18 questions measuring physical, psychological and functional domains with a look back period of 1 week. Scores are presented for each domain and for overall impairment (%). ULL-27 is an upper-extremity lymphedema-specific questionnaire, which includes 27 questions, measuring physical, emotional and social domains with a look back period of 1 month. Similar to LLIS, ULL-27 scores are generated for each domain as well as for overall impairment.

### Surgical Technique

Donor site selection for VLNT was tailored to each patient. In general, the authors' first choice was omentum using an open approach.(11) However, if the patient required skin

replacement or had a hostile abdomen, peripheral lymph nodes from the lateral thoracic system, groin, or supraclavicular region were harvested. This was always performed using reverse lymphatic mapping to minimize the risk of donor site lymphedema.(9) The recipient site selection was also patient-specific. In the upper extremity, if there was axillary vein compression or axillary contracture, then lymph nodes were placed in the axilla after vein decompression and scar excision. If the axilla was asymptomatic and the majority of swelling was in the forearm, distal heterotopic lymph node transplant was performed.(25) A similar approach was used for the lower limb.

A few technical details regarding the omentum harvest are worth highlighting. A nasogastric tube was placed temporarily during surgery to decompress the gut and was removed prior to extubation. An open approach for omentum harvest was used for precise bipolar dissection around the proximal pedicle and lymph nodes, which is not possible using laparoscopic instruments. The gastroepiploic nodes and omentum were based on the right gastroepiploic vessels. Whenever possible, two venous anastomoses were performed to both the proximal and distal end of the gastroepiploic vein. This restores the normal bidirectional venous drainage of the omentum and eliminates venous hypertension.(26) The thoracodorsal and circumflex scapular vessels were most commonly used as recipients.

For the lower extremity, the most common recipient sites were the calf using medial sural vessels, or the ankle used posterior tibial vessels. When going proximal, the descending branch of the lateral circumflex femoral vessels were most commonly used. Intraoperative perfusion of the omentum in all cases was confirmed with ICG angiography. Post-operative viability of the omentum was confirmed with MRA at 1-year post-op.

### Postoperative Care

All patients resume a regular diet after presence of flatus typically within 24 hours. Nasogastric tubes are not used postoperatively. Patients with upper extremity lymphedema are typically discharged on post-operative day 3. Patients with lower extremity lymphedema are typically out of bed by post-operative day 3 but remain non-weight bearing with a walker for 2 weeks. Compression is resumed at two weeks post-operatively and then patients gradually resume full weight bearing over the next 5 days. 40 mg of subcutaneous enoxaparin is given daily for 1 month to reduce the risk of venous thromboembolism. Two weeks postoperatively, both upper extremity and lower extremity patients begin compression wrapping and manual lymphatic drainage of the entire limb without restriction by a certified lymphedema therapist. Once the limb has plateaued in volume, the patient is placed in a compression garment.

### Statistical Analysis

Statistical analysis was conducted using the GraphPad Prism software v.9.2.0. Continuous variables were presented as averages and standard deviations and were compared using paired student *t*-test. A *p* value of <0.05 was considered significant.

## RESULTS

### Demographic and Clinical Data

All demographic and intake data is listed in Table 2. A total of 89 patients, 88 females (98.9 percent) and 1 male (1.1%), with an average age of  $58.8 \pm 10.6$  years were included in this study. The mean BMI was  $25.8 \pm 3.4$  kg/m<sup>2</sup>. Mean follow-up time was  $23.7 \pm 12$  months (Table 2). All 89 patients were diagnosed with secondary lymphedema due to breast cancer (73%), gynecological cancer (20%), melanoma (2%) or other (5%). The majority of patients had ISL stage II lymphedema (n=79, 89%). A total of 65 patients (73%) were diagnosed with upper extremity lymphedema, and 24 patients (27%) were diagnosed with lower extremity lymphedema. The mean preoperative duration of lymphedema was 55.1 months.

35 patients experienced cellulitis preoperatively (39.3%) and the mean number of episodes per year was  $3 \pm 3.4$ . 10 patients (11%) were on prophylactic antibiotics. 45 patients (51%) were in compression around the clock, 22 patients used daily compression (25%), 13 patients used occasional compression (15%), and 9 patients (10%) did not use any form of compression.

VLNT donor site breakdown was: omentum (n=65, 73%), lateral thoracic (n=12, 13%), supraclavicular (n=6, 7%), groin (n=3, 3.5%) and other (n=3, 3.5%). A total of 110 omentum transplants were performed including 68 single lymph node transplants and 21 double omentum transplants with both a proximal and distal recipient site in the same limb.

### Clinical Outcomes

**VLNT Decreases Limb Volume**—Volume differential outcomes are outlined in Figure 1 and Table 3. The mean preoperative volume differential for patients diagnosed with lymphedema was  $31.4\% \pm 14.7$ . All patients at 1 year postoperatively had a mean reduction in limb volume differential of 8.6 percent ( $p=0.0954$ ) although this was not significant. However, there was a statistically significant difference by two years postop with a mean reduction of 20% ( $p=0.0239$ ). At 2 years after treatment with VLNT, 51.6 percent of patients demonstrated improved volume differential. A similar trend was noted in a subgroup analysis of upper extremity lymphedema patients (Figure 7, Table 4). A 14.9 percent decrease was demonstrated 1 year after treatment with VLNT ( $p=0.0704$ ) and a 15.6 percent decrease in volume differential was recorded 2 years after VLNT ( $p=0.0239$ ). 60.6 percent and 55.6 percent of patients had an improved volume differential 1 year and 2 years postoperatively, respectively.

**VLNT Reduces Bioimpedance Score and Need for Compression**—The mean preoperative L-DEX score was  $34.0 \pm 29.5$ . The mean L-DEX score at 1 year postoperatively was  $31.1 \pm 25.9$  which was not statistically significant. However, at two years postop, there was a statistically significant 27.5% reduction in the L-DEX score. 58.6 percent of patients had decreased L-DEX scores 2 years after VLNT (Figure 2, Table 3). Sub-group analysis of upper extremity lymphedema patients was similar to the overall cohort (Figure 8, Table 4), demonstrating 24.0 percent and 31.1 decrease in LDEX scores 1 year ( $p=0.0400$ ) and 2

years ( $p=0.0696$ ) after VLNT, with 62.6 percent and 57.9 percent of patients demonstrating improved L-DEX scores 1 year and 2 years after VLNT, respectively. Finally, out of all patients that were using some form of compression pre-operatively, 34.4% of these patients no longer used compression following VLNT.

**VLNT improves Quality of Life**—Overall, lymphedema patients had a significant and sustained improvement in LLIS scores which manifested as 29.3 percent ( $p=0.0003$ ) significant decrease recorded 1 year after treatment and 28.5 percent ( $p=0.0322$ ) significant decrease recorded 2 years after treatment (Figure 3, Table 3). Interestingly, improvement in QOL 1 year after VLNT was demonstrated in each of the LLIS components alone, demonstrating an improvement in both Physical ( $p<0.0001$ ), Psychological ( $p=0.0830$ ) and Functional ( $p=0.0104$ ) subscales (Figure 4–5, Table 3). Improvement in Physical LLIS score was shown to be persistent 2 years after VLNT ( $p = 0.0117$ ), while the psychological and functional domains did not show to be significantly improved at that time point ( $p = 0.1230$ ,  $p = 0.5763$ , respectively). 84 percent of patients demonstrated improved LLIS scores 1 year after treatment, a trend which persisted in 72.7 percent of patients 2 years after surgery.

LLIS scores analyzed for upper extremity patients (Figure 9–14, Table 4) demonstrated similar results with improved LLIS scores 1 year ( $p=0.002$ ) and 2 years ( $p=0.0781$ ) postoperatively, and 89.4 percent and 75 percent of patients demonstrating improvement 1 year and 2 years after surgery, respectively.

These findings were corroborated by the ULL-27 questionnaire results, demonstrating significantly improved scores across all domains (physical:  $p=0.0011$ , emotional:  $p=0.0054$ , social:  $p=0.0008$ ), as well as significantly improved total scores 1 year after surgery ( $p=0.0006$ ). 89.4 percent of upper extremity lymphedema patients demonstrated improved ULL-27 scores 1 year after surgery, which persisted in 85.7 percent 2 years after surgery. 34.4 percent of patients included in this study stopped wearing compression by 2 years post-VLNT.

**VLNT Decreases Incidence of Cellulitis**—Overall, patients with secondary lymphedema showed an 85 percent decrease in the total number of cellulitis episodes by 1 year after VLNT from  $3.0\pm 3.4$  to  $0.5\pm 1.2$  total episodes ( $p=0.0002$ ). This finding was confirmed by a significant 82 percent ( $p=0.0008$ ) decrease in average number of cellulitis episodes per year from  $1.1\pm 1.3$  to  $0.2\pm 0.4$  episodes per year (Figure 6, Table 3). These findings were supported by the subgroup analysis for upper extremity lymphedema patients demonstrating 78 percent decrease in cellulitis episodes per year after VLNT. (Figure 15, Table 4)

**VLNT is Safe**—Complications after treatment with VLNT were recorded in 14 patients resulting in a 15.7 percent complication rate (Table 5). Donor site complications included 1 hernia (1.1 percent) and 1 episode of transient pancreatitis (1.1 percent). This was during our first omentum harvest and we have since limited our pedicle dissection without any further issues. None of the patients in this series developed donor site lymphedema. Recipient site complications included 2 cases of total flap loss (1.8 percent), and one partial flap loss (0.9 percent). Other complications included hematoma (3.4 percent), seroma (3.4 percent),



postoperative infection (2.2 percent) and wound dehiscence (1.1 percent). 4 patients (4.5 percent) experienced cancer recurrence (Table 3).

### Case Studies

**Case 1**—This is a 68-year-old patient who developed severe right upper extremity lymphedema following axillary dissection and radiation for breast cancer. The patient had an axillary contracture and limited range of motion. Despite full compliance with compression, her lymphedema progressed. The patient underwent a free omentum transfer to the right axilla and a second free omentum transfer to the right forearm. Her manual volume differential significantly improved from 39.4% preoperatively to 21.4% 1 year after surgery and 13.1% 2 years after surgery (Figure 16), which has been reflected in significant improvement in her range of motion and quality of life scores. She was in daily compression both pre- and post-operatively.

**Case 2**—A 49-year-old patient with a history of right breast cancer developed lymphedema following axillary dissection and radiation. Despite all conservative measures and physiotherapy, she continued to have progressive and intractable right upper extremity lymphedema. She has also had cellulitis resulting in sepsis and an ICU stay. The patient underwent vascularized omentum lymphatic transplant to right forearm. Her manual volume differential has significantly improved from 79.6% preoperatively to 47.8% 1 year after surgery and 44.9% 2 years after surgery (Figure 17), which has been reflected in significant improvement in her quality of life scores. Her cellulitis episodes have also decreased from 0.7 episodes per year to none 2 years after surgery. She was in occasional compression prior to surgery, but optimized preoperatively and remains in compression postoperatively.

## DISCUSSION

Vascularized lymph node transplant is one of several surgical techniques we use to address different stages of lymphedema. When a patient first connects with our team, potential surgical candidates are those with a BMI of less than 30, are compliant with lymphedema treatment, and do not have significant venous disease. The reason for a BMI cutoff for physiologic surgery is that elevated BMI impairs lymphatic function. (27, 28) In our experience, these patients have had poorer outcomes with higher complication rates. Consequently, patients with a BMI over 30 are first referred to for weight loss or bariatric surgery as appropriate.

All patients have MRA preoperatively and indocyanine green (ICG) lymphangiography performed in the office. If a linear lymphatic vessel is visualized on ICG, then a lymphovenous bypass is attempted. If there are no bypassable lymphatic vessels identified, then VLNT is offered. Patients with axillary contracture, pain, or axillary vein compression are offered VLNT to the axilla upfront as there is an opportunity to improve range of motion and decompress the vein. Omentum is typically our first choice because of the abundance of lymphatic tissue and no risk of donor site lymphedema. However, patients who require skin replacement or have had significant abdominal surgery or omentectomy are not candidates. In such cases we will use a lateral thoracic, supraclavicular, or groin lymph node flap. Currently there is no data comparing the efficacy of omentum to peripheral lymph node

flaps and we did not have enough patients in each group to adequately power a subgroup analysis. However, approximately one-third of all patients had uptake of technetium in their transplanted lymph nodes on lymphoscintigraphy at one year postop, confirming lymphangiogenesis into the VLNT.

Finally, liposuction is reserved only for those patients with advanced lymphedema that is fat-dominant, with minimal to no pitting edema who are committed to lifelong compression around the clock. While we will combine these procedures in series when indicated, we do not perform them simultaneously so that we can measure the effect of lymph node transplant alone.

Vascularized lymph node transplant has evolved considerably in the past decade. VLNT was initially met with justifiable concerns of donor site lymphedema. The description of reverse lymphatic mapping by Dayan and colleagues significantly reduced this risk.<sup>(16)</sup> More recently, donor sites such as the omentum and supraclavicular flap have virtually eliminated the risk of donor site lymphedema. These improvements in safety have led to more widespread adoption.

Of equal importance was the efficacy of VLNT, where studies were limited in early years with varying outcome measures. There are now a total of 15 prospective studies to date on VLNT which report significant improvements in limb circumference or volume, quality of life, cellulitis, and compression. (25, 29–40) While these results appear positive across the board, they do not reflect the consensus of the lymphatic surgery community: VLNT does work but not everyone experiences an improvement. It is difficult to obtain a clear picture of the outcomes of VLNT because current publications focus on mean and standard deviation, and outcomes do not always follow a standard distribution. For example, a mean limb volume reduction of 20% does not tell you if every patient improved or if some patients did not respond. This study aimed to provide the trajectory of each individual patient by publishing the estimation plots, and by using all available outcome measures with long-term follow-up.

Summarizing the findings in this study, statistically significant improvements following VLNT fully manifest at 2 years post-op. 75% of patients reported a significantly improved quality of life. Approximately half of all patients had an average of a 20% reduction in their limb volume differential. This finding was paralleled by an average improvement in the bioimpedance score of 27 percent. There was also a highly significant reduction in the incidence of cellulitis. Finally, one-third of patients who were using a compression garment preoperatively were no longer using compression post-operatively.

One might ask why 75% of patients had an improvement in quality of life while only about 50% of patients had a significantly reduced limb volume. The reason for this discordance is multi-factorial. Limb volume differentials are often the primary focus in outcomes but do not reflect the full reality of the patient. There are several points to highlight: (1) baseline measurements in this study were recorded *after* patients were first optimized with lymphedema therapy, (2) limb volume is an isolated snapshot of a moving target and often misleading, and (3) limb volume outcomes are of limited use in patients who do not have



significant limb volume differentials. Regarding the first point, most studies record the baseline limb volume measurement when the patient first presents to the office, prior to any preoperative lymphedema therapy. The major confounding issue with this baseline is that it is standard of care for patients to undergo postoperative lymphedema therapy. This leaves one wondering whether it was the surgery or the therapy that led to an improved measurement. To minimize this issue, baseline measurements in this study were taken only after each patient was optimized with preoperative lymphedema therapy. The average volume reduction would otherwise have been more impressive if our baseline measurements were taken at the patient's initial consult.

Secondly, limb volume measurements are limited because they do not represent the totality of the condition of the limb. This is because swelling fluctuates due to a wide array of conditions: time of day, diet, temperature, and activity all impact measurements and are in constant flux. Using two isolated limb volume measurements to determine efficacy of an intervention is like using two single blood glucose measurements in a diabetic to determine if a new drug was effective. There is nothing that exists that is analogous to a hemoglobin A1C in lymphedema. Only multiple limb volume measurements over time will provide a higher resolution picture of any significant changes in the limb.

Furthermore, limb volume differential is only a useful metric in patients who have a significant difference in limb volume. Many of these patients still have a poor quality of life which does not correlate with limb volume as previously published. (41) One specific reason for poor quality of life in a patient with minimal volume difference is the need for compression. In this study, one-third of patients no longer required compression—even though their modest limb volume difference never changed, their quality of life significantly benefitted from doing away with compression.

The results in this study and other studies demonstrate that VLNT does work. What we struggle to figure out is who will respond and who will not respond to VLNT. At this time, we cannot adequately power a subgroup analysis of responders and non-responders to VLNT. However, as patient recruitment continues to increase, we hope to determine those independent variables that may predict both success and failure with VLNT. Based on what we know now, our ideal candidate for VLNT is someone who already has axillary contracture or axillary vein compression, rapid progression of lymphedema, thin body habitus and compliant with conservative treatment.

### **VLNT Effect on Limb Volume**

This study demonstrates the efficacy of VLNT treatment with 8.6 percent excess volume reduction in patients treated with VLNT for secondary lymphedema with 61 percent of patients demonstrating improvement in volume reduction 1 year after VLNT. A statistically significant 20 percent excess volume reduction was demonstrated 2 years after VLNT, with 51.6 percent of patients demonstrating improvement. These findings were confirmed by 8.5 percent decrease in L-DEX scores 1 year after VLNT, and a statistically significant 27.2 percent decrease 2 years after VLNT. Taken together, these findings support the results demonstrated in previous studies showing a correlation between L-DEX scores and limb volume reductions at different time points (11, 42, 43).

Significant limb volume and circumference reductions after VLNT have been consistently reported in the literature (11, 25, 44, 45). A recent meta-analysis by Basta *et al* (46) showed a 48.8 percent reduction in excess limb circumference and 56.6 percent reduction in volume following LVA and VLNT. Another recent meta-analysis of randomized and nonrandomized clinical trials found 17 studies that examined the role of VLNT in the treatment of lymphedema.[5, 9, 10, 12, 14, 16, 40–50] Based on this analysis, the authors concluded that ‘there is evidence to support that VLNT can be effective in reducing severity of lymphedema (grade 1B), however, there is no evidence that VLNT can cure lymphedema’. (12) A systematic review of 10 studies pooling 185 patients treated with VLNT, showed an average of 39.55 percent excess circumference reduction and 26.4 percent excess volume reduction after VLNT. However, follow-up periods were variable. (47) Patel *et al.* and Ho *et al.* (40, 48) demonstrated a significant reduction in excess limb volume by an average 9.60 percent, as calculated in a recent meta-analysis. (12)

Nguyen *et al.* (17) reported a mean volume reduction of 22% in 42 patients who underwent VOLT. However, p value was not provided and the mean follow-up consisted of 14 months. (17) Several additional studies reported limb volume reductions following VLNT treatment, however, results were presented as volumes (49, 50) or absolute volume reduction (as opposed to excess volume reduction). Other studies demonstrated significant circumference reductions after treatment with VLNT utilizing different donor sites (14, 25, 35, 51–55), including the omentum (56–59), however, volumes were not calculated.

While several systematic reviews (12, 44, 47, 60–63) have demonstrated a reduction in circumference and volume for both upper and lower extremities (8, 43, 64–67), the high heterogeneity of the included studies in terms of both the methods and outcome measures used to assess limb changes pre and post-VLNT limits the conclusions that can be drawn in the aggregate and precludes the development of substantial quantitative conclusions and precise estimates of the effects of VLNT on limb volume/circumference. Volume measurements were used to depict limb changes in this study due to their consistently demonstrated superiority over circumference measurements and higher sensitivity and specificity. (19) Volume changes were presented as “volume differential” or “volume excess reduction”, utilizing three different objective modalities including perometer, manual measurements and bio-impedance (L-DEX scores).

The consistently significant excess volume reduction 2 years after treatment demonstrated in our study, supports the assumption that the effects of VLNT are delayed compared to other treatments.(68) This could be explained by the proposed mechanism by which VLNT improves lymphedema; While the exact mechanism by which VLNT improves lymphedema has yet to be fully deciphered, our lab has shown that in addition to assisting in absorbing local lymphatic fluid and redirecting it into the vascular system (44), the transplanted lymph nodes produce vascular endothelial growth factor-C (VEGF-C) which induces local lymphangiogenesis by formation of spontaneous connections between the transferred nodes and the recipient site.(15) Lymphangiogenesis induction and connections formation with the systemic circulation might require more time for optimal function, compared to other surgical management strategies. These findings stress the importance of longer follow

up periods in lymphedema patients to fully characterized and quantify VLNT effects on lymphedema, for better selection criteria and improved outcomes.

### **VLNT Effect on QoL**

In addition to significant improvements in objective measures after treatment with VLNT reported in the literature, VLNT has been shown to improve overall quality of life and functional status in lymphedema patients.(25, 69) This study demonstrated durable improvement in all quality of life domains—physical, psychological, and functional. These outcomes support the findings of previous studies that demonstrated significant improvements in LLIS scores after VLNT treatment.(11, 70–72) Having a long-term improvement after 2 years is more compelling than results reported at one year post-op when many patients are still in the post-operative “honeymoon” period where optimism and hope can result in a more positively skewed result.

This finding supports previous studies showing that limb volume excess and QOL scores are not correlated.(19) This finding also justifies using PROMs as the primary outcome metric for lymphatic surgery as there are lymphedema patients with minimal limb volume differences that do not meet the conventional 10% volume differential in diagnosing lymphedema.

There are a variety of patient-reported outcome metrics for lymphedema that are used, some validated and some arbitrary that have been reported. This makes comparison of outcomes between the results in this study and other published studies unfortunately difficult. A recent systematic review and meta-analysis concluded that patients who underwent VLNT and physiotherapy had significantly reduced pain and heaviness and significantly improved overall function.(12) The Lymphoedema Quality of Life (LYMQOL) score also demonstrated significant improvement after VLNT for both upper and lower extremity lymphedema patients. (40) Ciudad et al. (56) demonstrated a 2.7-fold quality-of-life improvement ( $P < 0.01$ ) using the LYMQOL tool in 16 patients undergoing combined gastroepiploic VLNTs and modified RRPP. Mousavi et al. (59) reported a ‘significant improvement, satisfaction, function and appearance’ as well as non-significant ‘improvements in symptoms and mood domains’ in 24 VOLT patients, however, no validated tools were used for QoL estimation.

### **VLNT Effect on Cellulitis**

Reducing the risk of infection is an imperative component in the effectiveness of lymphedema management. About a third of patients with lymphedema develop recurrent soft tissue infections (73, 74), which often require hospitalization for intravenous antibiotics resulting in substantial costs on patients and healthcare systems (73, 75–77). Several studies have demonstrated an interplay between bacteria and the lymphatic system on a molecular level, suggesting a direct role of bacteria in generating lymphatic dysfunction which impairs the host immune mechanisms leading to a vicious cycle. (78–81) Therefore, reducing the incidence of infections is of paramount importance to lymphedema patients, both clinically and financially. (11, 76, 82)

This study demonstrated a significant 85 percent reduction in total cellulitis episodes and an 82 percent reduction in cellulitis episodes per-year after treatment with VLNT (mean difference of  $-2.5$  total episodes,  $p=0.0002$  and  $-0.9$  episodes per-year,  $p=0.0008$ ). These findings support other studies that have shown a decrease in skin infections including erysipelas, lymphangitis, and cellulitis.(25, 52, 69, 83–85) Becker et al.(86) showed a 2 percent reported infection recurrence in a series of 1,500 patients who underwent VLNT over a period of 20 years. A more recent study investigating a combined double VLNT and modified radical reduction with preservation of perforators (RRPP) reported no episodes of infection postoperatively, compared to an average of two infections per year preoperatively (87). According to a recent meta-analysis, a pooled analysis of two studies with a total of 56 patients showed a nonsignificant reduction in the number of infections per year in patients after VLNT with a mean difference of  $-0.48$  episodes per year ( $p = 0.22$ ).<sup>(12)</sup> Eight case series with a total of 248 patients reported a significantly reduced mean number of cellulitis infections per year after surgery with a mean difference of  $-2.34$  episodes per year ( $p < 0.00001$ ). (35, 40, 48, 88–92) Six case series with a total of 233 patients reported on the proportion of patients with pre- operative and postoperative cellulitis. Cellulitis was significantly reduced by 35 percent after vascularized lymph node transfer ( $p < 0.0001$ ).<sup>(17, 39, 43, 50, 57, 93)</sup> Mousavi et al. (59) reported a significant 95.7% reduction in cellulitis episodes per-year after VOLT in 24 patients ( $p=0.04$ ). Nguyen et al. (17) reported that postoperative cellulitis episodes occurred in 2 lower-extremity patients, compared to history of cellulitis in 31 patients. However, the number of cellulitis episodes, and reduction in cellulitis episodes were not recorded.

### Safety of VLNT

The results in this study demonstrate a satisfactory safety profile for VLNT. There was no donor site lymphedema observed in this study. Donor site complications, particularly for the omentum were isolated and largely mild. Most prior publications on the omentum demonstrate higher complication rates, but these are largely for pedicled flaps which necessitate the creation of a hernia when transposed into the subcutaneous layer. (94, 95), (96) The results in this study report a lower complication rate than published in the literature (30.1 percent), according to a recent systematic review. This finding challenges the widely held assumption that VLNT should be reserved for only severe forms of lymphedema due to high complication rates. (53, 58, 97, 98) Nguyen et al. (17) reported a 16% complication rate in a series of 42 patients after VOLT, including one episode of pancreatitis and one case of flap loss. Ciudad et al. (56) reported a 37.5% recipient site complication rate in 16 patients after VOLT, including paresthesia, hyperesthesia, seroma and lymphatic leakage. No donor site complications were recorded.

**Strengths and Limitations**—This study possesses a number of limitations. All VLNT procedures were performed by a single lymphedema surgical team, potentially limiting the generalizability of the findings despite the considerable number of patients. Second, the use of consistent selection of omentum lymphatic transplants as donor sites (73 percent of cases) potentially limits the conclusions that can be drawn in the aggregate.

Secondly, there was no control group of patients undergoing lymphedema therapy alone. While we have a control group in our study protocol, it has been difficult to recruit patients and maintain consistent follow-up for measurements without providing them with any therapeutic benefits. This was compounded by COVID restrictions which minimized any non-essential office visits. We expect to recruit more patients into the control group in the future for comparison.

The present study represents the accumulated experience of a tertiary cancer center specializing in the treatment of secondary lymphedema and is the largest single-center series with the longest follow-up period investigating the effects of VOLT to date. (17, 18, 56–59) Both objective (perometer, manual and L-DEX) and subjective (LLIS, ULL-27) measurements were independently taken by a single trained clinical research coordinator, independent of the surgical team. Multicenter studies with longer follow-up are needed to better understand different disease patterns (fluid-dominant versus fat-dominant), and unlock the pathophysiological mysteries behind the variability in patient presentation and disease progression to select the best candidates for VLNT. Additional studies are needed to examine the effect of different donor sites (99) and combined approaches that utilize adjunctive procedures such as liposuction and excisions (47, 49, 52–54, 68, 85, 100) on VLNT outcomes.

## CONCLUSION

VLNT is a safe and effective treatment for patients with lymphedema who face a relentlessly progressive and proliferative disease. The findings of the present study demonstrate the benefits of VLNT across multiple outcome measures. The lack of donor site lymphedema risk is a significant advantage of the omentum. Larger studies are needed to further refine patient selection

## Financial disclosure:

Dr. Dayan is an advisor to Stryker Corporation and is on the board of Welwaze Medical, LLC. Dr. Mehrara is an advisor to PureTech Corporation and the recipient of an investigator-initiated research award from Regeneron Corporation. This research was funded in part through the NIH/NCI Cancer Center Support Grant P30CA008748, NIH/NHLBI R01 grant (R01HL111130), the Emerson Collective, and a Tri-Institutional Stem Cell Initiative grant.

## REFERENCES

1. Alitalo K The lymphatic vasculature in disease. *Nature medicine* 2011;17:1371–1380.
2. Rockson SG The lymphatics and the inflammatory response: lessons learned from human lymphedema. *Lymphatic research and biology* 2013;11:117–120. [PubMed: 24024576]
3. Rockson SG Lymphedema. *Current treatment options in cardiovascular medicine* 2000;2:237–242. [PubMed: 11096529]
4. Zampell JC, Yan A, Elhadad S, Avraham T, Weitman E, Mehrara BJ CD4(+) cells regulate fibrosis and lymphangiogenesis in response to lymphatic fluid stasis. *PloS one* 2012;7:e49940.
5. Kataru RP, Wiser I, Baik JE, et al. Fibrosis and secondary lymphedema: chicken or egg? *Translational research : the journal of laboratory and clinical medicine* 2019;209:68–76. [PubMed: 31022376]
6. Ly CL, Kataru RP, Mehrara BJ Inflammatory Manifestations of Lymphedema. *International journal of molecular sciences* 2017;18.

7. Dayan JH, Wisner I, Verma R, et al. Regional Patterns of Fluid and Fat Accumulation in Patients with Lower Extremity Lymphedema Using Magnetic Resonance Angiography. *Plastic and reconstructive surgery* 2020;145:555–563. [PubMed: 31985658]
8. Patel KM, Lin CY, Cheng MH From theory to evidence: long-term evaluation of the mechanism of action and flap integration of distal vascularized lymph node transfers. *Journal of reconstructive microsurgery* 2015;31:26–30. [PubMed: 25137504]
9. Schaverien MV, Badash I, Patel KM, Selber JC, Cheng MH Vascularized Lymph Node Transfer for Lymphedema. *Seminars in plastic surgery* 2018;32:28–35. [PubMed: 29636651]
10. Kraft CT, Eiferman D, Jordan S, Skoracki RJ Complications after vascularized jejunal mesenteric lymph node transfer: A 3-year experience. *Microsurgery* 2019;39:497–501. [PubMed: 31283856]
11. Schaverien MV, Coroneos CJ Surgical Treatment of Lymphedema. *Plastic and reconstructive surgery* 2019;144:738–758. [PubMed: 31461041]
12. Chang DW, Dayan J, Greene AK, et al. Surgical Treatment of Lymphedema: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis of Controlled Trials. Results of a Consensus Conference. *Plastic and reconstructive surgery* 2021;147:975–993. [PubMed: 33761519]
13. Tammela T, Saaristo A, Holopainen T, et al. Therapeutic differentiation and maturation of lymphatic vessels after lymph node dissection and transplantation. *Nature medicine* 2007;13:1458–1466.
14. Viitanen TP, Visuri MT, Hartiala P, et al. Lymphatic vessel function and lymphatic growth factor secretion after microvascular lymph node transfer in lymphedema patients. *Plastic and reconstructive surgery Global open* 2013;1:1–9.
15. Aschen SZ, Farias-Eisner G, Cuzzone DA, et al. Lymph node transplantation results in spontaneous lymphatic reconnection and restoration of lymphatic flow. *Plastic and reconstructive surgery* 2014;133:301–310. [PubMed: 24469165]
16. Dayan JH, Dayan E, Smith ML Reverse lymphatic mapping: a new technique for maximizing safety in vascularized lymph node transfer. *Plastic and reconstructive surgery* 2015;135:277–285. [PubMed: 25285683]
17. Nguyen AT, Suami H, Hanasono MM, Womack VA, Wong FC, Chang EI Long-term outcomes of the minimally invasive free vascularized omental lymphatic flap for the treatment of lymphedema. *Journal of surgical oncology* 2017;115:84–89. [PubMed: 27439587]
18. Kenworthy EO, Nelson JA, Verma R, Mbabu J, Mehrara BJ, Dayan JH Double vascularized omentum lymphatic transplant (VOLT) for the treatment of lymphedema. *Journal of surgical oncology* 2018;117:1413–1419. [PubMed: 29518822]
19. Wisner I, Mehrara BJ, Coriddi M, et al. Preoperative Assessment of Upper Extremity Secondary Lymphedema. *Cancers* 2020;12.
20. Brorson H, Höijer P Standardised measurements used to order compression garments can be used to calculate arm volumes to evaluate lymphoedema treatment. *Journal of plastic surgery and hand surgery* 2012;46:410–415. [PubMed: 23157502]
21. Armer JM, Stewart BR A comparison of four diagnostic criteria for lymphedema in a post-breast cancer population. *Lymphatic research and biology* 2005;3:208–217. [PubMed: 16379589]
22. Seward C, Skolny M, Brunelle C, Asdourian M, Salama L, Taghian AG A comprehensive review of bioimpedance spectroscopy as a diagnostic tool for the detection and measurement of breast cancer-related lymphedema. *Journal of surgical oncology* 2016;114:537–542. [PubMed: 27393376]
23. Fu MR, Cleland CM, Guth AA, et al. L-dex ratio in detecting breast cancer-related lymphedema: reliability, sensitivity, and specificity. *Lymphology* 2013;46:85–96. [PubMed: 24354107]
24. Weiss J, Daniel T VALIDATION OF THE LYMPHEDEMA LIFE IMPACT SCALE (LLIS): A CONDITION-SPECIFIC MEASUREMENT TOOL FOR PERSONS WITH LYMPHEDEMA. *Lymphology* 2015;48:128–138. [PubMed: 26939160]
25. Cheng MH, Chen SC, Henry SL, Tan BK, Chia-Yu Lin M, Huang JJ Vascularized groin lymph node flap transfer for postmastectomy upper limb lymphedema: flap anatomy, recipient sites, and outcomes. *Plastic and reconstructive surgery* 2013;131:1286–1298. [PubMed: 23714790]



26. Dayan JH, Voineskos S, Verma R, Mehrara BJ Managing Venous Hypertension in Vascularized Omentum Lymphatic Transplant: Restoring Bidirectional Venous Drainage. *Plastic and reconstructive surgery* 2018;141:326e-327e.
27. Savetsky IL, Torrisi JS, Cuzzzone DA, et al. Obesity increases inflammation and impairs lymphatic function in a mouse model of lymphedema. *American journal of physiology Heart and circulatory physiology* 2014;307:H165–172. [PubMed: 24858842]
28. Greene AK, Grant FD, Slavin SA, Maclellan RA Obesity-induced lymphedema: clinical and lymphoscintigraphic features. *Plastic and reconstructive surgery* 2015;135:1715–1719. [PubMed: 25724063]
29. Schaverien MV, Hofstetter WL, Hall MS, Chen DN, Selber JC Jejunal Mesenteric Vascularized Lymph Node Transplantation for Lymphedema: Outcomes and Technical Modifications. *Plastic and reconstructive surgery* 2022;149:700e-710e.
30. Bolletta A, di Taranto G, Losco L, et al. Combined lymph node transfer and suction-assisted lipectomy in lymphedema treatment: A prospective study. *Microsurgery* 2022.
31. Coroneos CJ, Asaad M, Wong FC, et al. Outcomes and technical modifications of vascularized lymph node transplantation from the lateral thoracic region for treatment of lymphedema. *Journal of surgical oncology* 2022;125:603–614. [PubMed: 34989418]
32. Schaverien MV, Asaad M, Selber JC, et al. Outcomes of Vascularized Lymph Node Transplantation for Treatment of Lymphedema. *Journal of the American College of Surgeons* 2021;232:982–994. [PubMed: 33766726]
33. Di Taranto G, Bolletta A, Chen SH, et al. A prospective study on combined lymphedema surgery: Gastroepiploic vascularized lymph nodes transfer and lymphaticovenous anastomosis followed by suction lipectomy. *Microsurgery* 2021;41:34–43. [PubMed: 32845534]
34. Chang EI, Ibrahim A, Liu J, et al. Optimizing Quality of Life for Patients with Breast Cancer–Related Lymphedema: A Prospective Study Combining DIEP Flap Breast Reconstruction and Lymphedema Surgery. *Plastic and reconstructive surgery* 2020;145:676e-685e.
35. Lin CY, Liu HE, Cheng MH Factors associated with professional healthcare advice seeking in breast cancer-related lymphedema. *Journal of surgical oncology* 2020;121:67–74. [PubMed: 31209885]
36. Beederman M, Garza RM, Agarwal S, Chang DW Outcomes for Physiologic Microsurgical Treatment of Secondary Lymphedema Involving the Extremity. *Annals of surgery* 9000.
37. Maldonado AA, Chen R, Chang DW The use of supraclavicular free flap with vascularized lymph node transfer for treatment of lymphedema: A prospective study of 100 consecutive cases. *Journal of surgical oncology* 2017;115:68–71. [PubMed: 27449974]
38. Agko M, Ciudad P, Chen HC Staged surgical treatment of extremity lymphedema with dual gastroepiploic vascularized lymph node transfers followed by suction-assisted lipectomy-A prospective study. *Journal of surgical oncology* 2018;117:1148–1156. [PubMed: 29355987]
39. Gratzon A, Schultz J, Secrest K, Lee K, Feiner J, Klein RD Clinical and Psychosocial Outcomes of Vascularized Lymph Node Transfer for the Treatment of Upper Extremity Lymphedema After Breast Cancer Therapy. *Annals of surgical oncology* 2017;24:1475–1481. [PubMed: 27734176]
40. Patel KM, Lin CY, Cheng MH A Prospective Evaluation of Lymphedema-Specific Quality-of-Life Outcomes Following Vascularized Lymph Node Transfer. *Annals of surgical oncology* 2015;22:2424–2430. [PubMed: 25515196]
41. Dayan JH, Ly CL, Kataru RP, Mehrara BJ Lymphedema: Pathogenesis and Novel Therapies. *Annual review of medicine* 2018;69:263–276.
42. Akita S, Nakamura R, Yamamoto N, et al. Early Detection of Lymphatic Disorder and Treatment for Lymphedema following Breast Cancer. *Plastic and reconstructive surgery* 2016;138:192e-202e.
43. Ciudad P, Agko M, Perez Coca JJ, et al. Comparison of long-term clinical outcomes among different vascularized lymph node transfers: 6-year experience of a single center’s approach to the treatment of lymphedema. *Journal of surgical oncology* 2017;116:671–682. [PubMed: 28695707]
44. Scaglioni MF, Arvanitakis M, Chen YC, Giovanoli P, Chia-Shen Yang J, Chang EI Comprehensive review of vascularized lymph node transfers for lymphedema: Outcomes and complications. *Microsurgery* 2018;38:222–229. [PubMed: 27270748]

45. Cook KH, Park MC, Lee IJ, Lim SY, Jung YS Vascularized Free Lymph Node Flap Transfer in Advanced Lymphedema Patient after Axillary Lymph Node Dissection. *Journal of breast cancer* 2016;19:92–95. [PubMed: 27064862]
46. Basta MN, Gao LL, Wu LC Operative treatment of peripheral lymphedema: a systematic meta-analysis of the efficacy and safety of lymphovenous microsurgery and tissue transplantation. *Plastic and reconstructive surgery* 2014;133:905–913. [PubMed: 24352208]
47. Carl HM, Walia G, Bello R, et al. Systematic Review of the Surgical Treatment of Extremity Lymphedema. *Journal of reconstructive microsurgery* 2017;33:412–425. [PubMed: 28235214]
48. Ho OA, Chu S-Y, Huang Y-L, Chen W-H, Lin C-Y, Cheng M-H Effectiveness of Vascularized Lymph Node Transfer for Extremity Lymphedema Using Volumetric and Circumferential Differences. *Plastic and Reconstructive Surgery – Global Open* 2019;7:e2003.
49. Batista BN, Germain M, Faria JC, Becker C Lymph node flap transfer for patients with secondary lower limb lymphedema. *Microsurgery* 2017;37:29–33. [PubMed: 25771917]
50. Leppäpuska IM, Suominen E, Viitanen T, et al. Combined Surgical Treatment for Chronic Upper Extremity Lymphedema Patients: Simultaneous Lymph Node Transfer and Liposuction. *Annals of plastic surgery* 2019;83:308–317. [PubMed: 31008792]
51. Engel H, Lin C-Y, Huang J-J, Cheng M-H Outcomes of Lymphedema Microsurgery for Breast Cancer-related Lymphedema With or Without Microvascular Breast Reconstruction. *Annals of surgery* 2018;268:1076–1083. [PubMed: 28594742]
52. Gharb BB, Rampazzo A, Spanio di Spilimbergo S, Xu ES, Chung KP, Chen HC Vascularized lymph node transfer based on the hilar perforators improves the outcome in upper limb lymphedema. *Annals of plastic surgery* 2011;67:589–593. [PubMed: 21540737]
53. Lin CH, Ali R, Chen SC, et al. Vascularized groin lymph node transfer using the wrist as a recipient site for management of postmastectomy upper extremity lymphedema. *Plastic and reconstructive surgery* 2009;123:1265–1275. [PubMed: 19337095]
54. Nicoli F, Constantinides J, Ciudad P, et al. Free lymph node flap transfer and laser-assisted liposuction: a combined technique for the treatment of moderate upper limb lymphedema. *Lasers in medical science* 2015;30:1377–1385. [PubMed: 25820369]
55. Saaristo AM, Niemi TS, Viitanen TP, Tervala TV, Hartiala P, Suominen EA Microvascular breast reconstruction and lymph node transfer for postmastectomy lymphedema patients. *Annals of surgery* 2012;255:468–473. [PubMed: 22233832]
56. Ciudad P, Manrique OJ, Adabi K, et al. Combined double vascularized lymph node transfers and modified radical reduction with preservation of perforators for advanced stages of lymphedema. *Journal of surgical oncology* 2019;119:439–448. [PubMed: 30609042]
57. Ciudad P, Manrique OJ, Date S, et al. Double gastroepiploic vascularized lymph node transfers to middle and distal limb for the treatment of lymphedema. *Microsurgery* 2017;37:771–779. [PubMed: 28334445]
58. Ciudad P, Maruccia M, Socas J, et al. The laparoscopic right gastroepiploic lymph node flap transfer for upper and lower limb lymphedema: Technique and outcomes. *Microsurgery* 2017;37:197–205. [PubMed: 26175309]
59. Mousavi SR, Akbari ME, Zarrintan S Vascularized gastroepiploic lymph node transfer significantly improves breast cancer-related lymphedema. *Journal of surgical oncology* 2020;121:163–167. [PubMed: 31309574]
60. Cormier JN, Askew RL, Mungovan KS, Xing Y, Ross MI, Armer JM Lymphedema beyond breast cancer: a systematic review and meta-analysis of cancer-related secondary lymphedema. *Cancer* 2010;116:5138–5149. [PubMed: 20665892]
61. Ito R, Suami H Overview of lymph node transfer for lymphedema treatment. *Plastic and reconstructive surgery* 2014;134:548–556. [PubMed: 25158711]
62. Ozturk CN, Ozturk C, Glasgow M, et al. Free vascularized lymph node transfer for treatment of lymphedema: A systematic evidence based review. *Journal of plastic, reconstructive & aesthetic surgery : JPRAS* 2016;69:1234–1247.
63. Raju A, Chang DW Vascularized lymph node transfer for treatment of lymphedema: a comprehensive literature review. *Annals of surgery* 2015;261:1013–1023. [PubMed: 24950271]

64. Abalmasov KG, Malinin AA, Egorov Iu S Lymphedema of the extremities: prospects of microsurgical treatment. *Angiologiya i sosudistaia khirurgiya = Angiology and vascular surgery* 2003;9:66–79.
65. Becker C, Hidden G, Godart S, Maurage H, Pecking A Free lymphatic transplant. *Eur J Lymphol Rel Prob* 1991;6:25–77.
66. Feng G-M, Yang W-G, Huang C-H, Wang S-Y, Chen H-C Lymph Nodes Transfer for Treating Mild to Moderate Limb Lymphedema-A Preliminary Result. *中華民國整形外科醫學會雜誌* 2003;12:95–105.
67. Lee BB, Laredo J, Neville R Reconstructive surgery for chronic lymphedema: a viable option, but. *Vascular* 2011;19:195–205. [PubMed: 21784876]
68. Chang DW Combined Approach to Surgical Treatment of Lymphedema. *Lymphatic research and biology* 2021;19:23–24. [PubMed: 33226911]
69. De Brucker B, Zeltzer A, Seidenstuecker K, Hendrickx B, Adriaenssens N, Hamdi M Breast Cancer-Related Lymphedema: Quality of Life after Lymph Node Transfer. *Plastic and reconstructive surgery* 2016;137:1673–1680. [PubMed: 27219223]
70. Rutkowski JM, Swartz MA A driving force for change: interstitial flow as a morphoregulator. *Trends in cell biology* 2007;17:44–50. [PubMed: 17141502]
71. Bae JS, Yoo RE, Choi SH, et al. Evaluation of lymphedema in upper extremities by MR lymphangiography: Comparison with lymphoscintigraphy. *Magnetic resonance imaging* 2018;49:63–70. [PubMed: 29306049]
72. Liao S, Cheng G, Conner DA, et al. Impaired lymphatic contraction associated with immunosuppression. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* 2011;108:18784–18789. [PubMed: 22065738]
73. Moffatt CJ, Franks PJ, Doherty DC, et al. Lymphoedema: an underestimated health problem. *QJM : monthly journal of the Association of Physicians* 2003;96:731–738. [PubMed: 14500859]
74. Ridner SH, Deng J, Fu MR, et al. Symptom burden and infection occurrence among individuals with extremity lymphedema. *Lymphology* 2012;45:113–123. [PubMed: 23342931]
75. Kuroda K, Yamamoto Y, Yanagisawa M, et al. Risk factors and a prediction model for lower limb lymphedema following lymphadenectomy in gynecologic cancer: a hospital-based retrospective cohort study. *BMC women's health* 2017;17:50. [PubMed: 28743274]
76. Kung TA, Champaneria MC, Maki JH, Neligan PC Current Concepts in the Surgical Management of Lymphedema. *Plastic and reconstructive surgery* 2017;139:1003e-1013e.
77. Connor MP, Gamelli R Challenges of cellulitis in a lymphedematous extremity: a case report. *Cases journal* 2009;2:9377. [PubMed: 20062550]
78. Soo JK, Bicanic TA, Heenan S, Mortimer PS Lymphatic abnormalities demonstrated by lymphoscintigraphy after lower limb cellulitis. *The British journal of dermatology* 2008;158:1350–1353. [PubMed: 18241266]
79. de Godoy JM, de Godoy MF, Valente A, Camacho EL, Paiva EV Lymphoscintigraphic evaluation in patients after erysipelas. *Lymphology* 2000;33:177–180. [PubMed: 11191659]
80. Jones D, Meijer EFJ, Blatter C, et al. Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* causes sustained collecting lymphatic vessel dysfunction. *Science translational medicine* 2018;10.
81. García Nores GD, Ly CL, Savetsky IL, et al. Regulatory T Cells Mediate Local Immunosuppression in Lymphedema. *The Journal of investigative dermatology* 2018;138:325–335. [PubMed: 28942366]
82. Koshima I, Inagawa K, Urushibara K, Moriguchi T Supermicrosurgical lymphaticovenular anastomosis for the treatment of lymphedema in the upper extremities. *Journal of reconstructive microsurgery* 2000;16:437–442. [PubMed: 10993089]
83. Yamamoto R, Yamamoto T Effectiveness of the treatment-phase of two-phase complex decongestive physiotherapy for the treatment of extremity lymphedema. *International journal of clinical oncology* 2007;12:463–468. [PubMed: 18071866]
84. Sapountzis S, Ciudad P, Lim SY, et al. Modified Charles procedure and lymph node flap transfer for advanced lower extremity lymphedema. *Microsurgery* 2014;34:439–447. [PubMed: 24677042]

85. Vignes S, Blanchard M, Yannoutsos A, Arrault M Complications of autologous lymph-node transplantation for limb lymphoedema. *European journal of vascular and endovascular surgery : the official journal of the European Society for Vascular Surgery* 2013;45:516–520.
86. Becker C, Vasile JV, Levine JL, et al. Microlymphatic surgery for the treatment of iatrogenic lymphedema. *Clinics in plastic surgery* 2012;39:385–398. [PubMed: 23036289]
87. Ciudad P, Agko M, Huang TC, et al. Comprehensive multimodal surgical treatment of end-stage lower extremity lymphedema with toe management: The combined Charles, Homan's, and vascularized lymph node transfer (CHAHOVA) procedures. *Journal of surgical oncology* 2019;119:430–438. [PubMed: 30613978]
88. Cheng MH, Huang JJ, Nguyen DH, et al. A novel approach to the treatment of lower extremity lymphedema by transferring a vascularized submental lymph node flap to the ankle. *Gynecologic oncology* 2012;126:93–98. [PubMed: 22516659]
89. Aljaaly HA, Fries CA, Cheng MH Dorsal Wrist Placement for Vascularized Submental Lymph Node Transfer Significantly Improves Breast Cancer-Related Lymphedema. *Plastic and reconstructive surgery Global open* 2019;7:e2149.
90. Asuncion MO, Chu SY, Huang YL, Lin CY, Cheng MH Accurate Prediction of Submental Lymph Nodes Using Magnetic Resonance Imaging for Lymphedema Surgery. *Plastic and reconstructive surgery Global open* 2018;6:e1691.
91. Gustafsson J, Chu SY, Chan WH, Cheng MH Correlation between Quantity of Transferred Lymph Nodes and Outcome in Vascularized Submental Lymph Node Flap Transfer for Lower Limb Lymphedema. *Plastic and reconstructive surgery* 2018;142:1056–1063. [PubMed: 30020232]
92. Maruccia M, Elia R, Ciudad P, et al. Postmastectomy upper limb lymphedema: Combined vascularized lymph node transfer and scar release with fat graft expedites surgical and patients' related outcomes. A retrospective comparative study. *Journal of plastic, reconstructive & aesthetic surgery : JPRAS* 2019;72:892–901. [PubMed: 30819649]
93. Montag E, Okada AY, Arruda EGP, et al. Influence of vascularized lymph node transfer (VLNT) flap positioning on the response to breast cancer-related lymphedema treatment. *Revista do Colegio Brasileiro de Cirurgioes* 2019;46:e2156.
94. Goldsmith HS Long term evaluation of omental transposition for chronic lymphedema. *Annals of surgery* 1974;180:847–849. [PubMed: 4433169]
95. Suami H, Chang DW Overview of surgical treatments for breast cancer-related lymphedema. *Plastic and reconstructive surgery* 2010;126:1853–1863. [PubMed: 21124127]
96. Brorson H, Ohlin K, Olsson G, Karlsson MK Breast cancer-related chronic arm lymphedema is associated with excess adipose and muscle tissue. *Lymphatic research and biology* 2009;7:3–10. [PubMed: 19231988]
97. Akita S, Mitsukawa N, Kuriyama M, et al. Comparison of vascularized supraclavicular lymph node transfer and lymphaticovenular anastomosis for advanced stage lower extremity lymphedema. *Annals of plastic surgery* 2015;74:573–579. [PubMed: 25875724]
98. Travis EC, Shugg S, McEwan WM Lymph node grafting in the treatment of upper limb lymphoedema: a clinical trial. *ANZ journal of surgery* 2015;85:631–635. [PubMed: 25982238]
99. Savetsky IL, Ghanta S, Gardenier JC, et al. Th2 cytokines inhibit lymphangiogenesis. *PloS one* 2015;10:e0126908.
100. Qi F, Gu J, Shi Y, Yang Y Treatment of upper limb lymphedema with combination of liposuction, myocutaneous flap transfer, and lymph-fascia grafting: a preliminary study. *Microsurgery* 2009;29:29–34. [PubMed: 18942656]

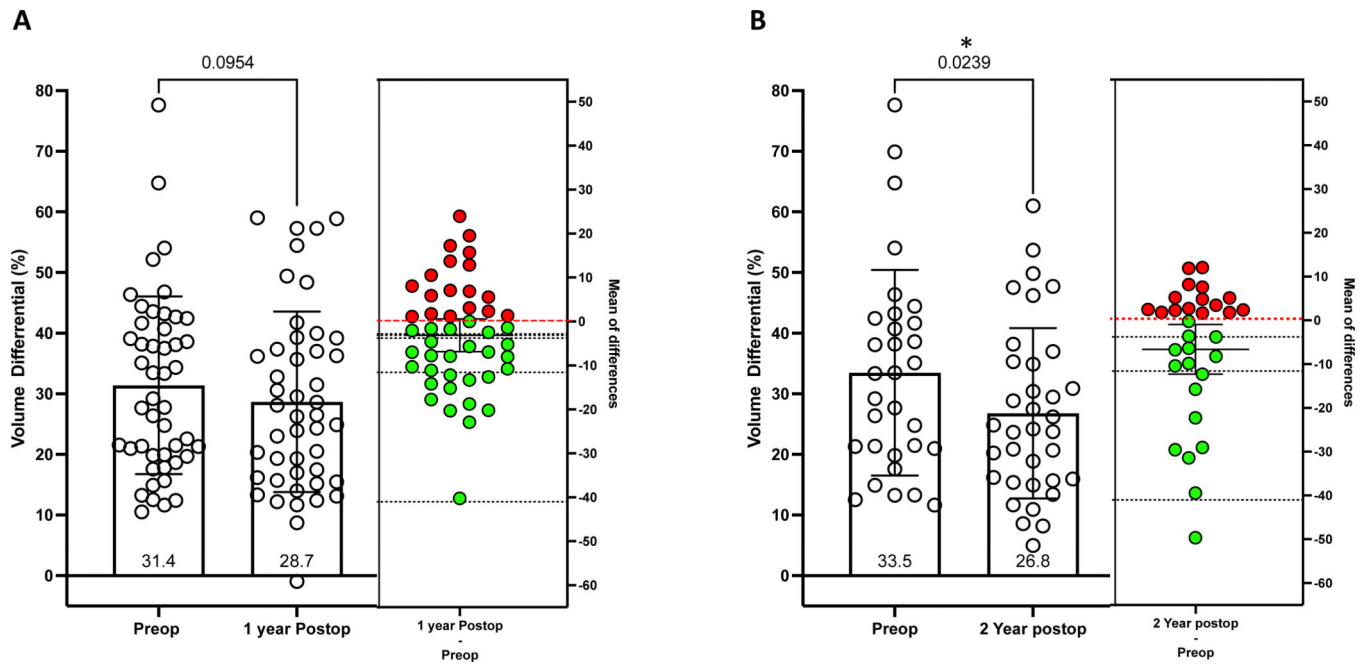


Figure 1 - Volume Differential (%) 1 year and 2 years post-VLNT

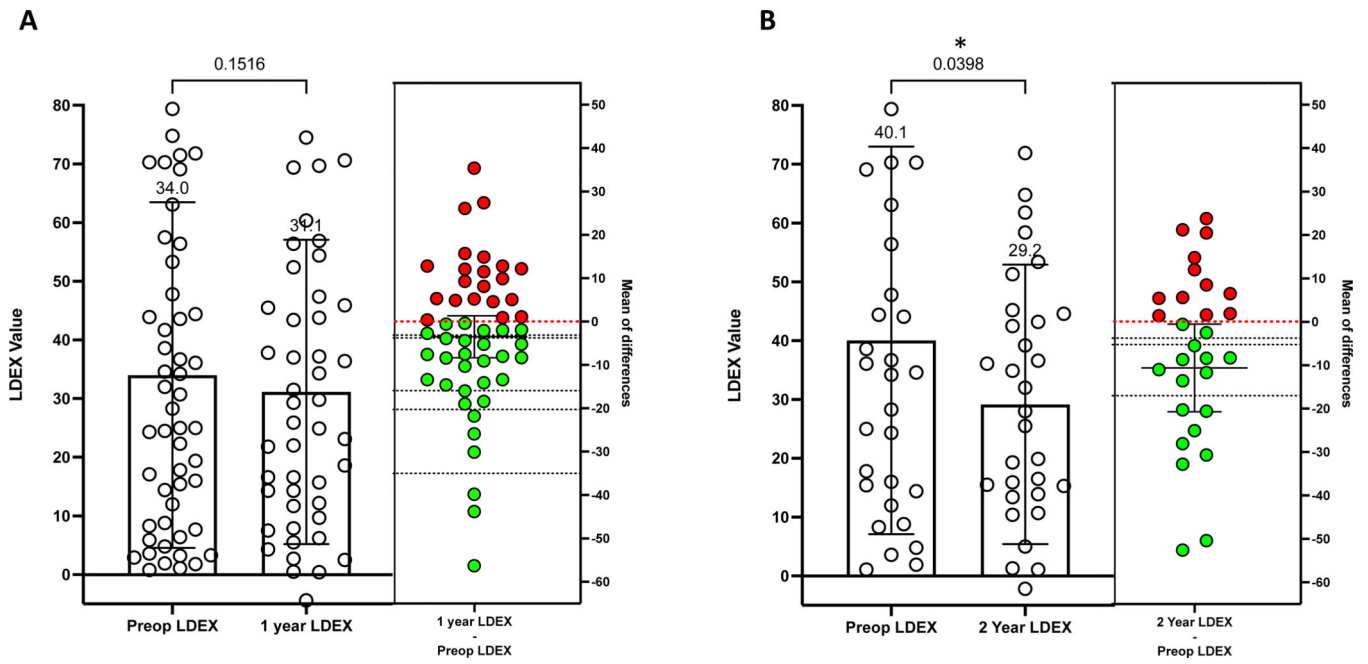
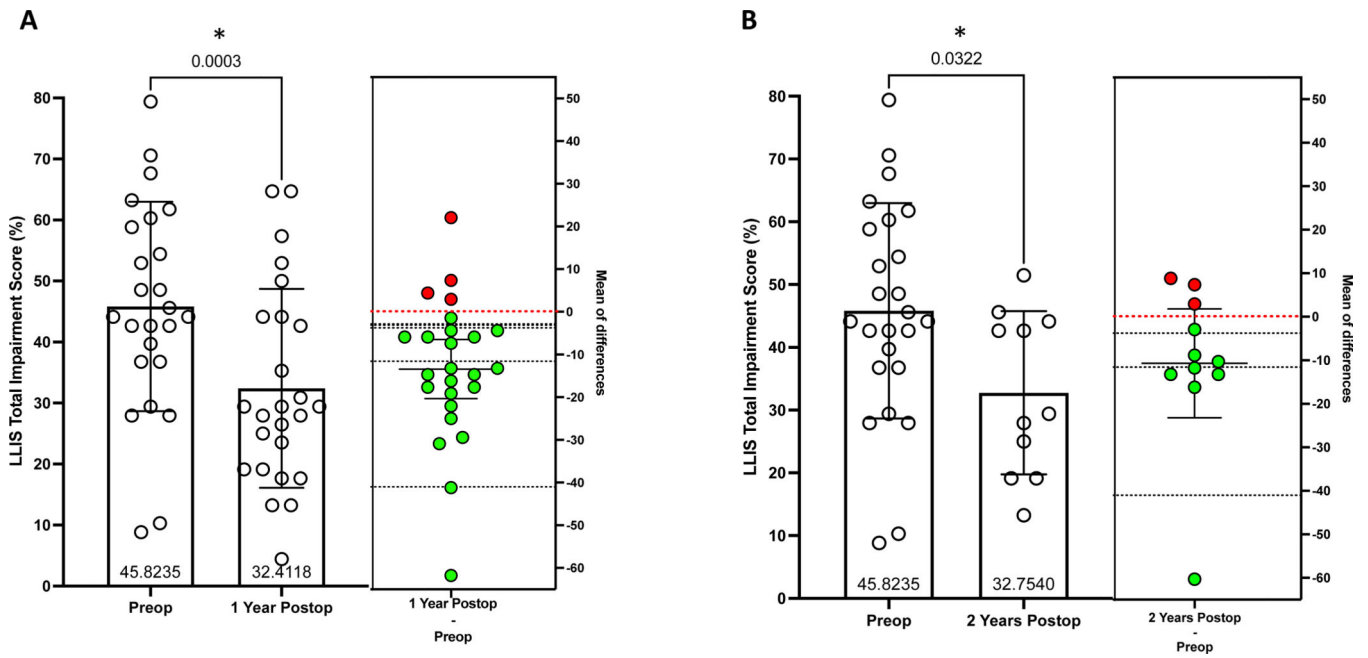


Figure 2 -  
LDEX scores 1 year and 2 years post-VLNT





**Figure 3 -**  
LLIS Total Impairment Scores 1 year and 2 years post-VLNT

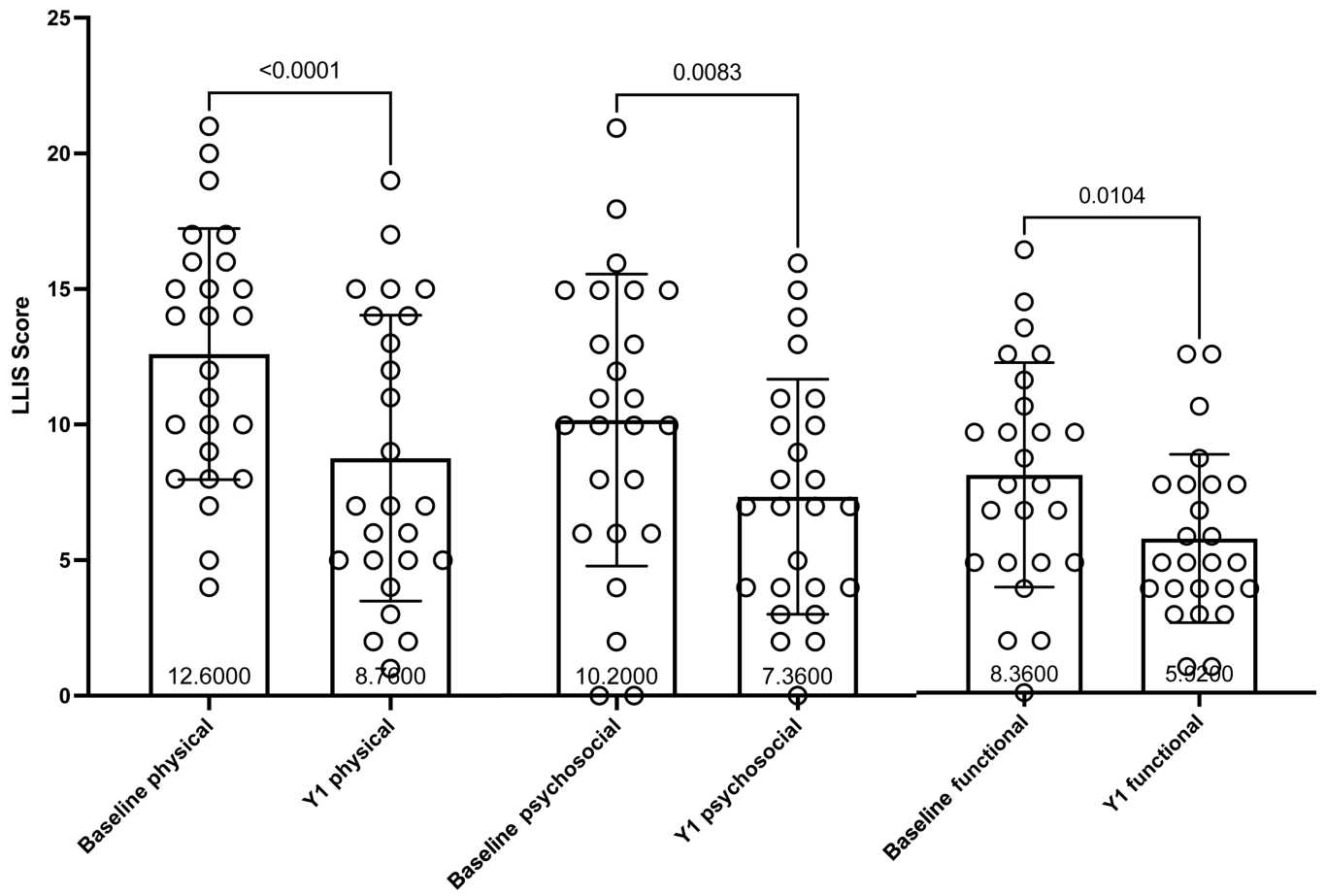
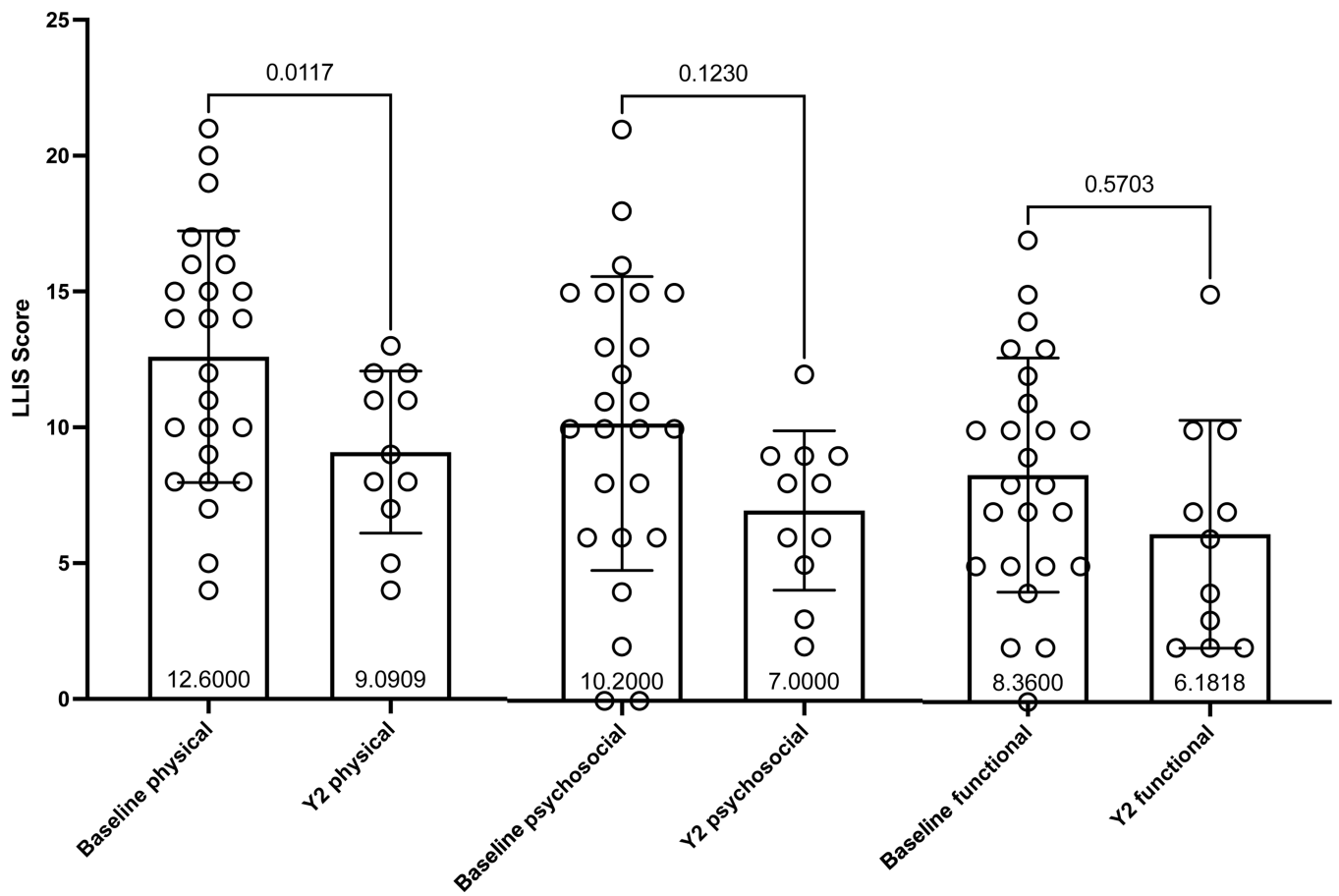
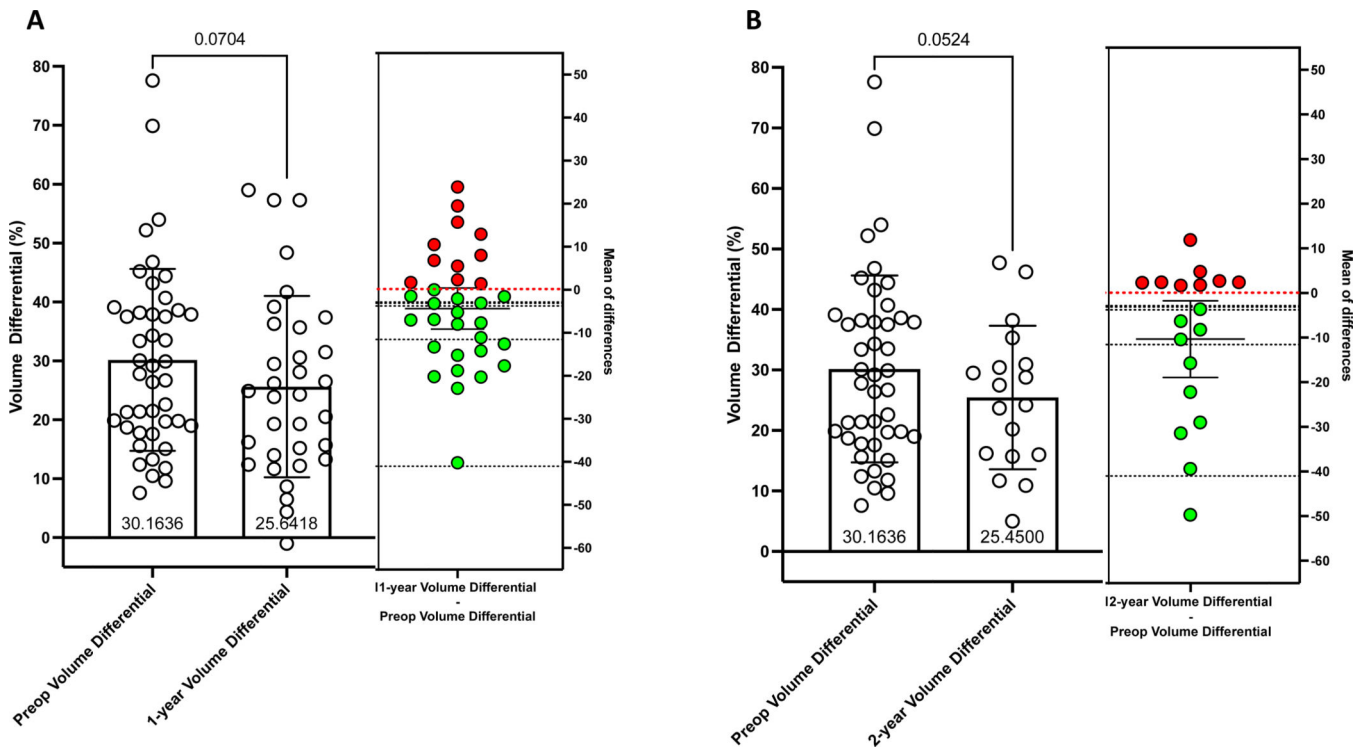


Figure 4 - L LIS Physical, Psychological and Functional Scores 1 year post-VLNT

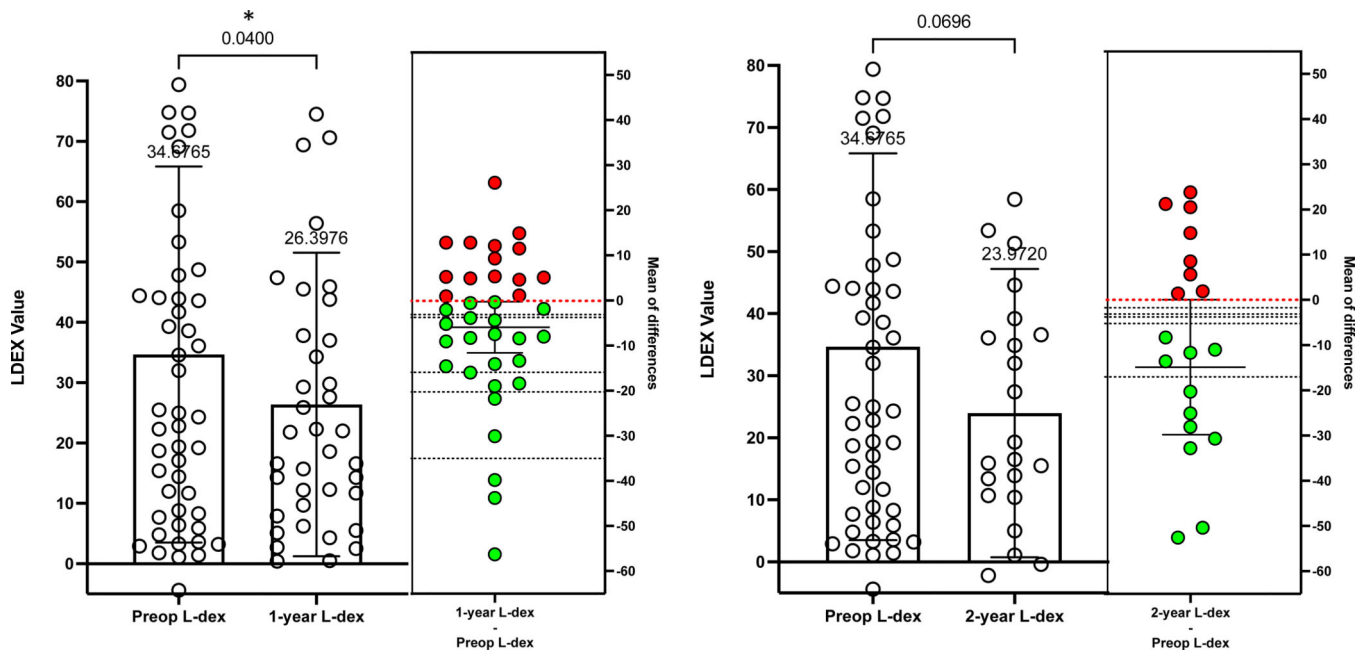


**Figure 5 -**  
LLIS Physical, Psychological and Functional Scores 2 years post-VLNT



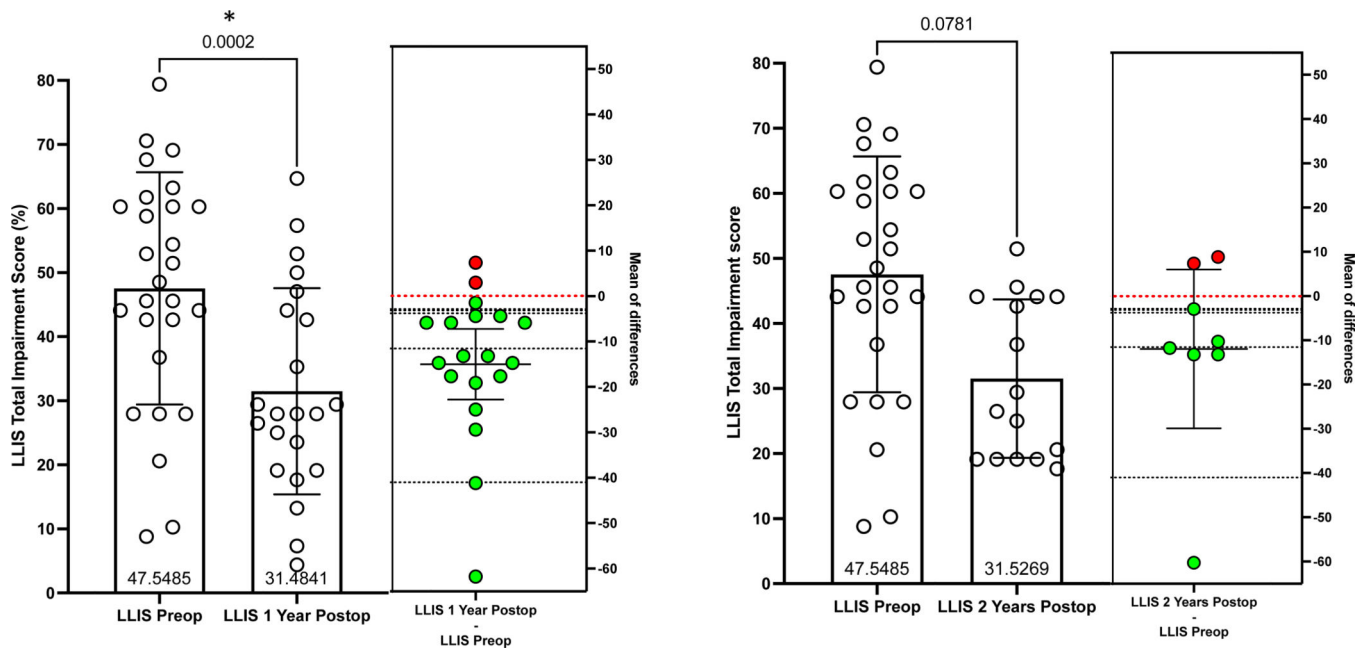


**Figure 7 -**  
Volume Differential (%) 1 year and 2 years post-VLNT in upper extremity lymphedema patients

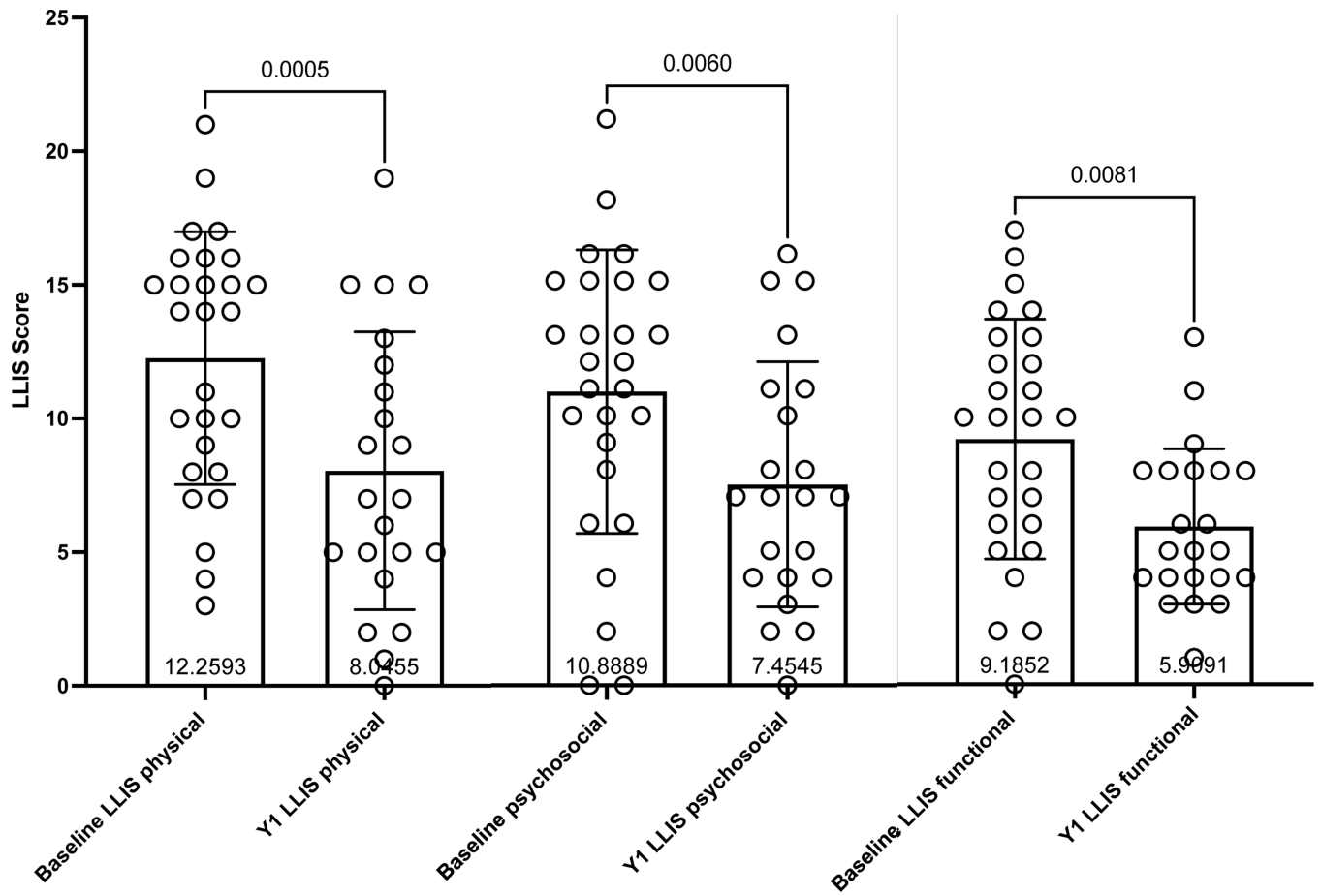


**Figure 8 -**  
LDEX scores 1 year and 2 years post-VLNT in upper extremity lymphedema patients

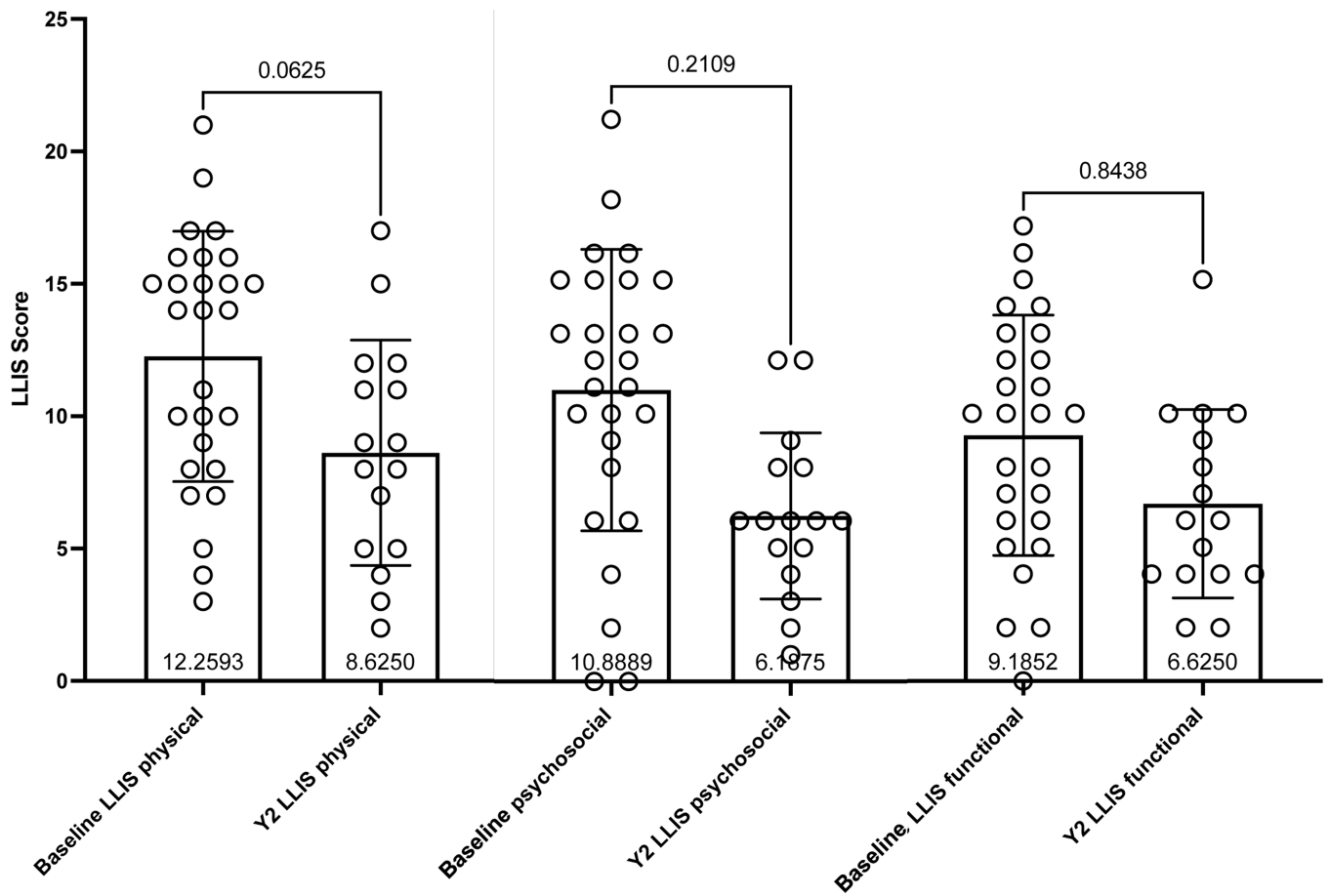




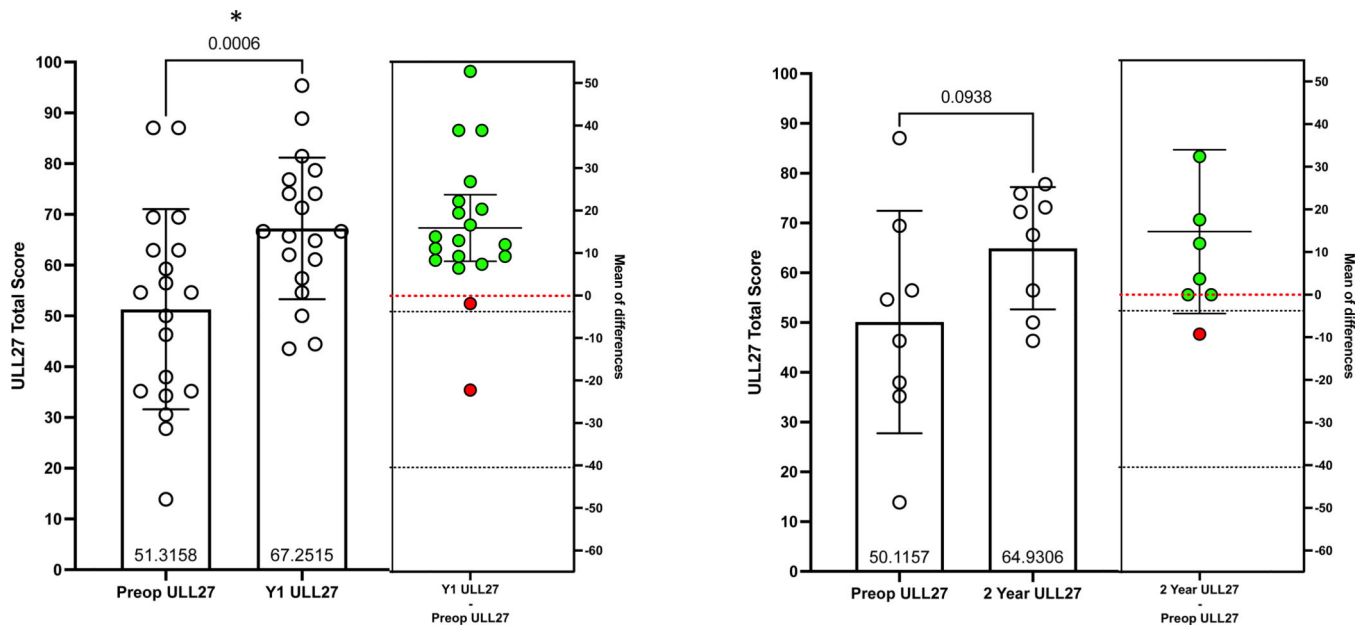
**Figure 9 -**  
LLIS Total Impairment scores at 1 year and 2 years post-VLNT in upper extremity lymphedema patients



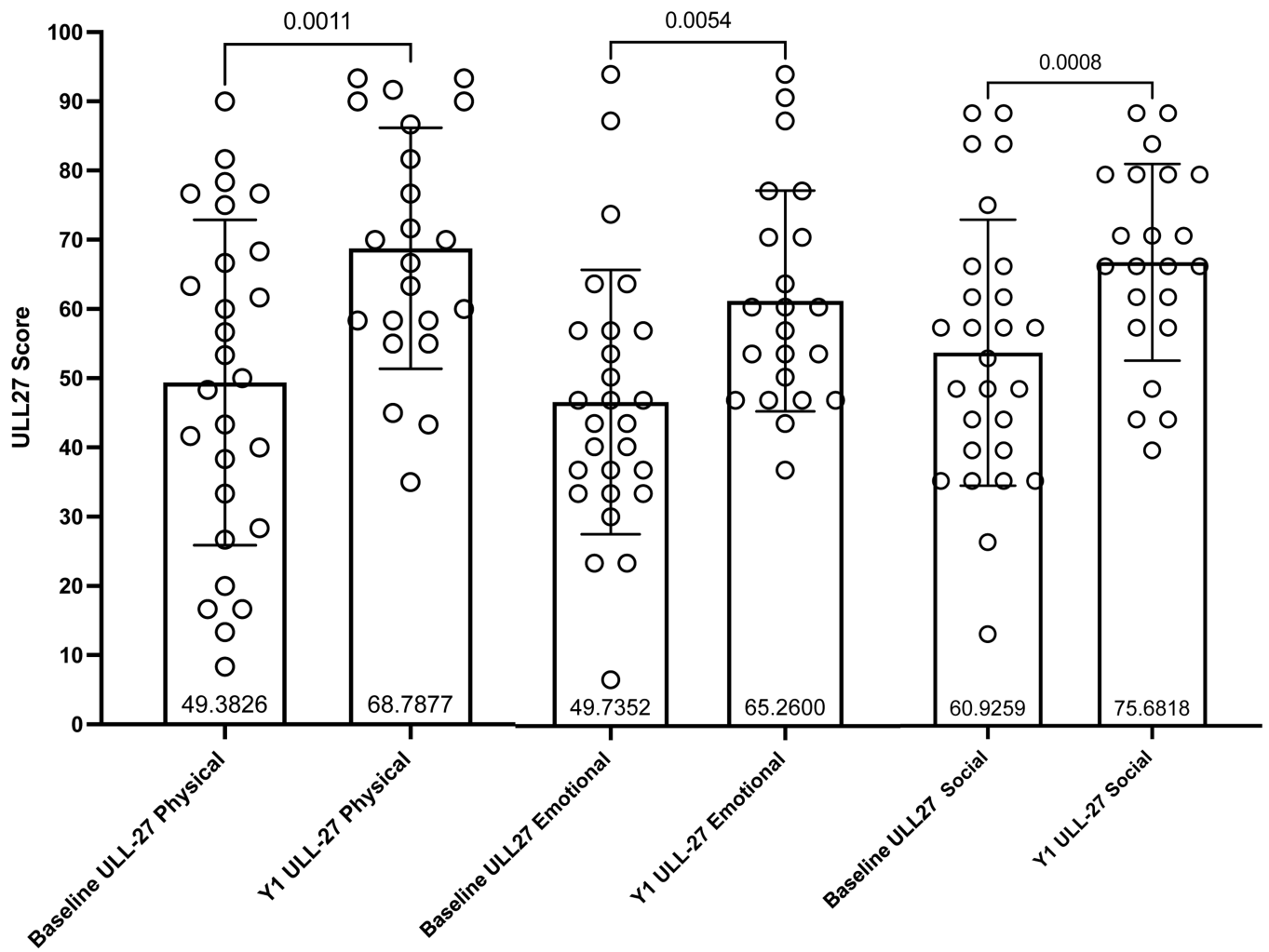
**Figure 10 -**  
LLIS Physical, Psychosocial and Functional Scores 1 year post-VLNT



**Figure 11 -**  
LLIS Physical, Psychological and Functional Scores 2 years post-VLNT



**Figure 12 -**  
ULL27 Total scores at 1 year and 2 years post-VLNT in upper extremity lymphedema patients



**Figure 13 -**  
ULL27 Physical, Emotional and Social Scores 1 year post-VLNT

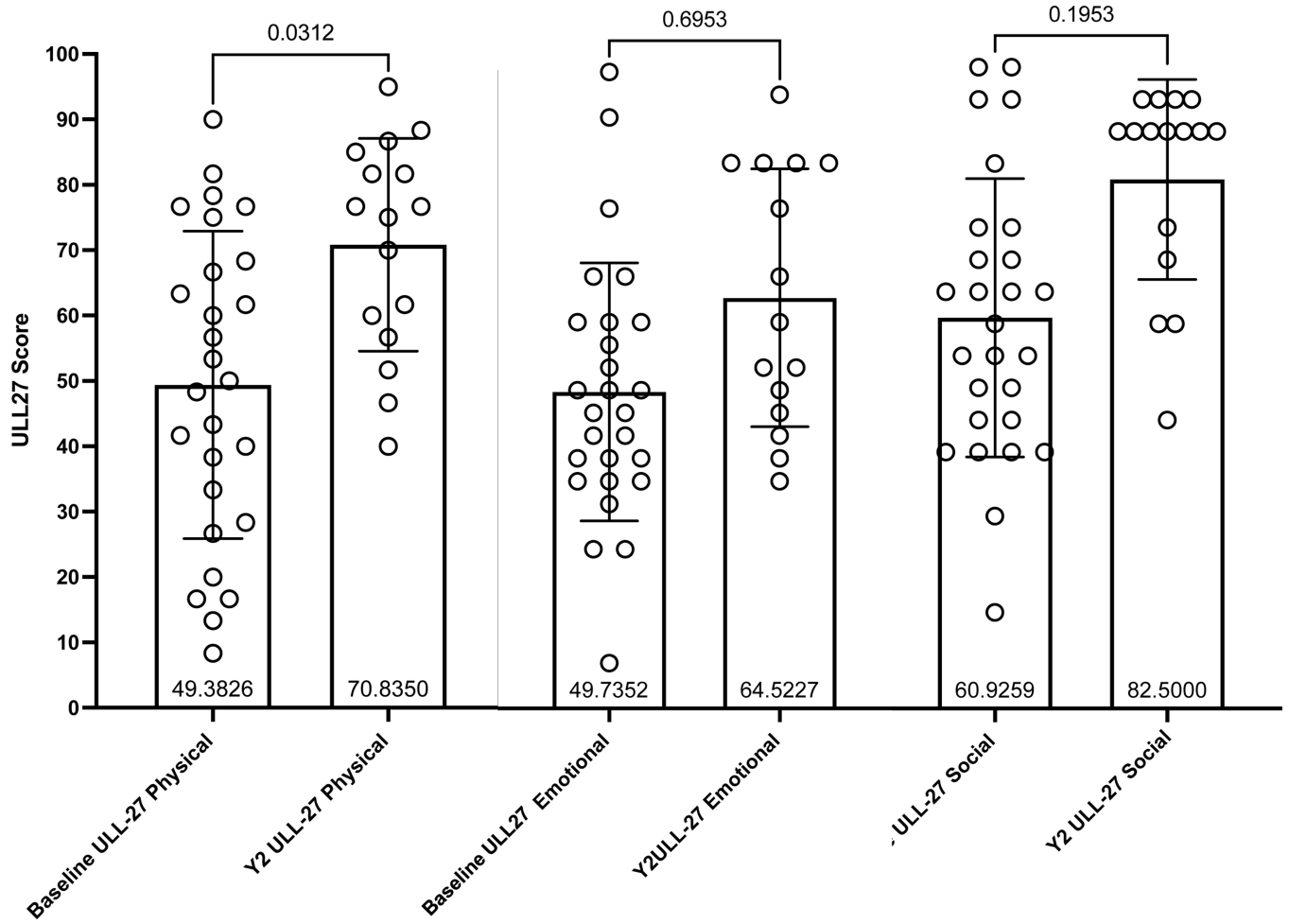


Figure 14 - ULL27 Physical, Emotional and Social Scores 2 years post-VLNT



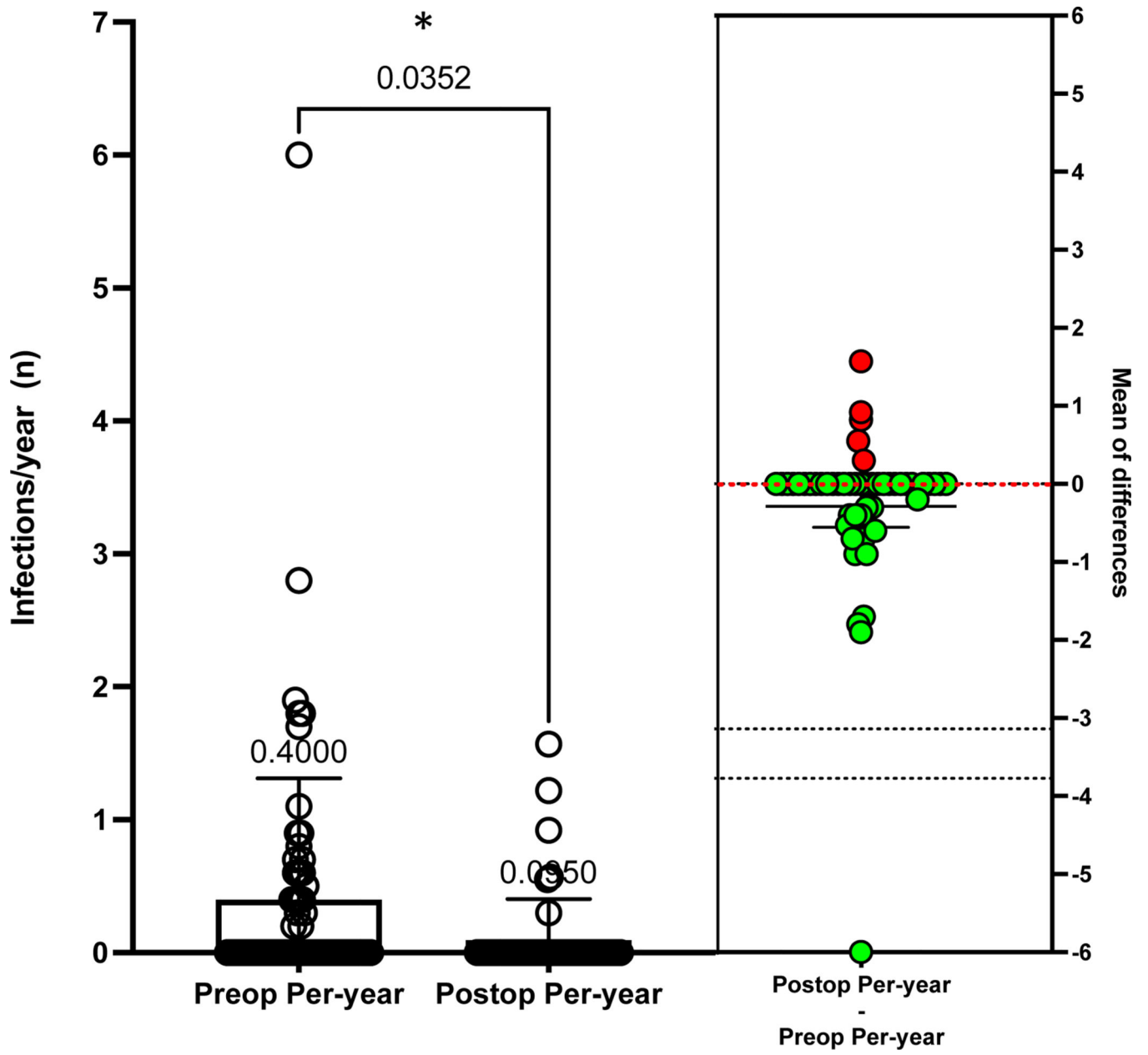
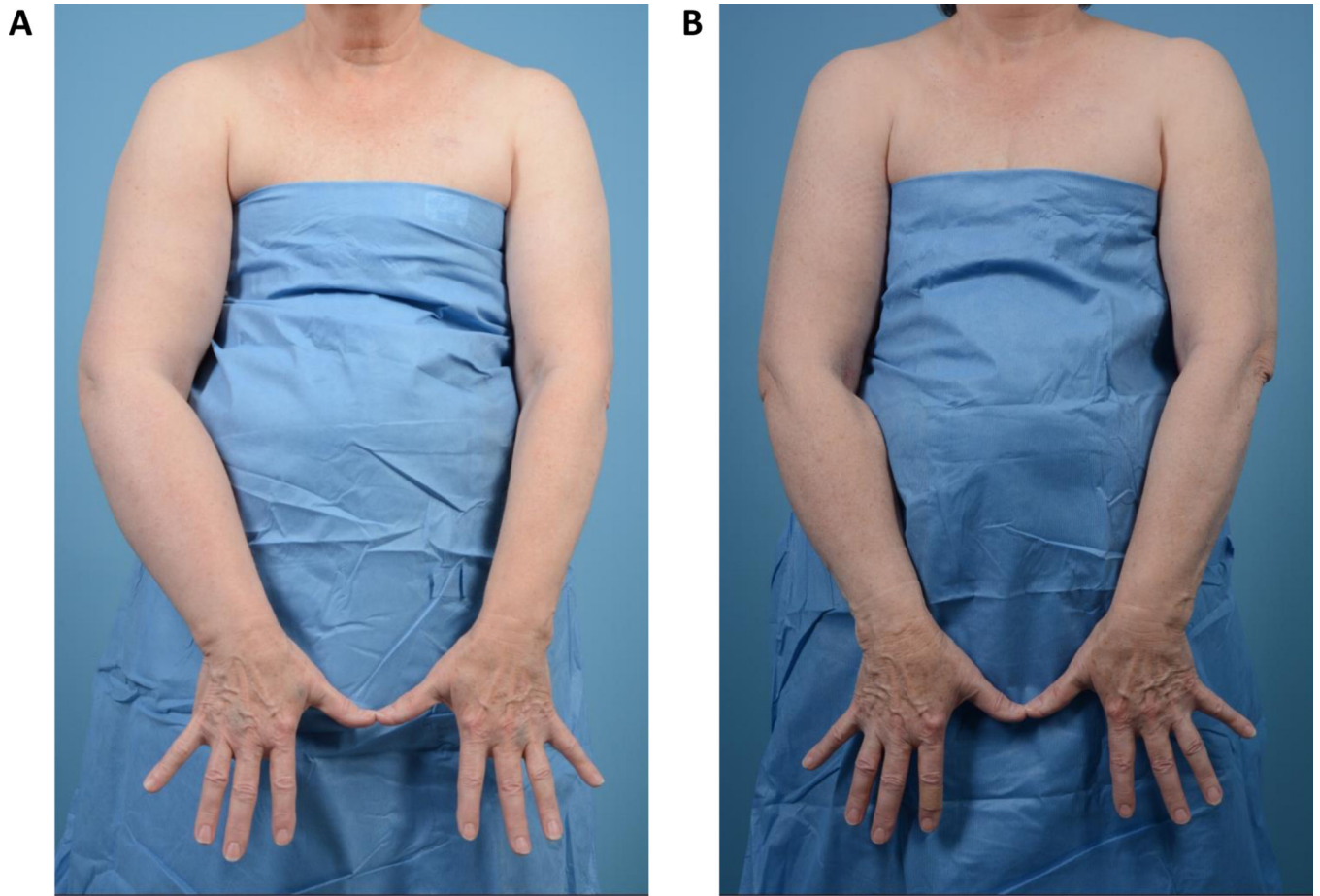
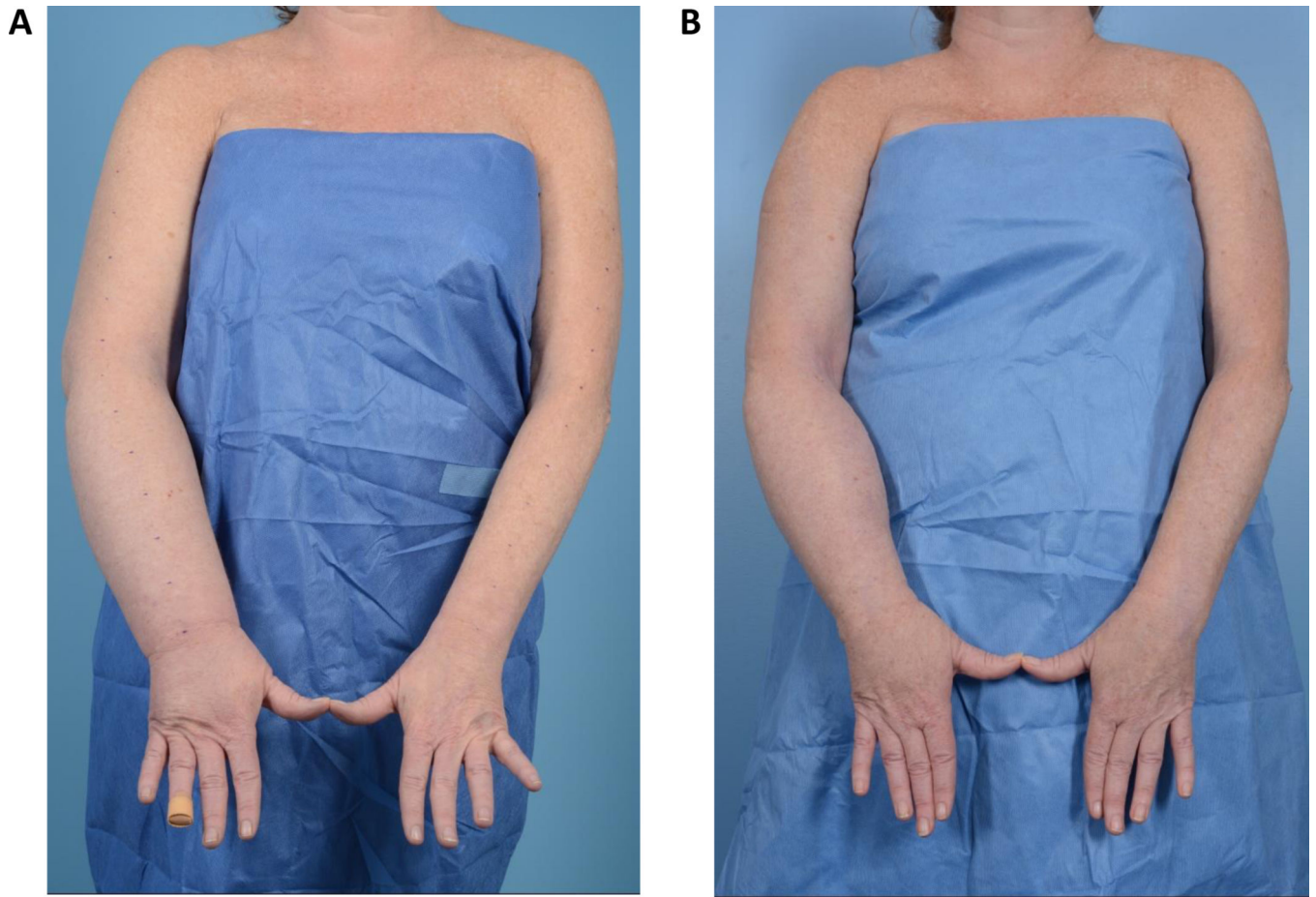


Figure 15 -  
Cellulitis episodes post-VLNT



**Figure 16 -**  
**Case 1: A.** Preoperative photographs of a 68-year-old vascularized omentum lymphatic transplant (VOLT) patient. **B.** 2-year postoperative photographs of the same patient



**Figure 17 -**  
**Case 2: A.** Preoperative photographs of a 49-year-old vascularized omentum lymphatic transplant (VOLT) patient. **B.** 2-year postoperative photographs of the same patient

Potential advantages and disadvantages of different donor sites used for vascularized lymph node transplant

**Table 1:**

	Groin	Lateral Thoracic	Supraclavicular	Omentum	Submental
<b>Potential Advantages</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Familiar anatomy</li> <li>• Hidden scar</li> <li>• Simple harvest</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Abundance of lymph nodes for transplant</li> <li>• Skin abundance</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Low risk of donor site lymphedema</li> <li>• Acceptable scar</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ease of harvest</li> <li>• No donor-site lymphedema</li> <li>• Double-flap</li> <li>• Large amount of soft tissue</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Low risk of donor-site lymphedema</li> <li>• Acceptable scar</li> <li>• Large lymph nodes for transplant</li> </ul>
<b>Potential Disadvantages</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Higher risk of donor-site lymphedema</li> <li>• Higher risk of seroma</li> <li>• More significant pain</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• More difficult harvest</li> <li>• Nerve injury</li> <li>• Higher risk of donor-site lymphedema</li> <li>• Future breast carcinoma?</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Small skin island</li> <li>• Neuropathic pain</li> <li>• Thoracic duct injury</li> <li>• Chyle leak</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Risk of hernia</li> <li>• Risk of intraabdominal complications</li> <li>• Difficult with prior abdominal surgery</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Possible submental nerve injury</li> <li>• Short pedicle</li> <li>• Relatively difficult dissection</li> <li>• Small skin paddle</li> </ul>

Demographic and clinical information of patients with lymphedema who underwent VLNT

**Table 2:**

Parameter	Mean ± SD/n (%)
Age (years)	58.8±10.6
Gender	Female
	Male
Body mass index (kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	25.8±3.4
Duration of lymphedema (months)	55.1±67.4
Follow-up (months)	23.7±12
Etiology of lymphedema	Breast cancer
	Gynecologic cancer
	Melanoma
	Other
Location of lymphedema	Upper extremity
	Lower extremity
ISL Stage	0
	I
	II
	III
History of cellulitis preoperatively	
Total free flaps	Single flap
	Double flap
Donor site	Omentum
	Axilla
	Supraclavicular
	Groin
	Other

Main outcomes in all patients who underwent VLNT

**Table 3:**

	Pre-VLNT (mean±SD)	1-year post-VLNT (mean±SD)	Change (%)	Pts improved (%)	P value	2 years post-VLNT (mean±SD)	Change (%)	Pts improved (%)	P value
<b>Volume differential</b>	31.4±14.7	28.7±14.9	8.6%	60.8%	0.0954	26.8±14.1	20.0%	51.6%	0.0239*
<b>LDEX Score</b>	34.0±29.5	31.1±25.9	8.5%	58.8%	0.11516	29.2±23.7	27.2%	58.6%	0.0398*
<b>LLIS Total Impairment Score</b>	45.8±17.6	32.4±16.3	29.3%	84.0%	0.0003*	32.8±13.0	28.5%	72.7%	0.0322*
<b>LLIS Physical Score</b>	12.6±4.6	8.8±5.2	30.5%	92.0%	<0.0001*	9.1±2.9	27.8%	91.0%	0.0117*
<b>LLIS Psychological Score</b>	10.2±5.4	7.4±4.3	27.8%	76%	0.0830	7.0±2.9	31.4%	72.7%	0.1230
<b>LLIS Functional Score</b>	8.4±4.3	5.9±3.2	29.1%	80.0%	0.0104*	6.2±4.2	26.1%	63.6%	0.5763
<b>Total Cellulitis Episodes</b>	3.0±3.4	0.5±1.2	85.0%	93.5%	0.0002*		-		
<b>Cellulitis Episodes per-year</b>	1.1±1.3	0.2±0.4	81.8%	90.0%	0.0008*		-		

## Main outcomes in upper extremity patients who underwent VLNT

Table 4:

	Pre-VLNT (mean±SD)	1-year post-VLNT (mean±SD)	Change (%)	Pts improved (%)	P value	2 years post-VLNT (mean±SD)	Change (%)	Pts improved (%)	P value
Volume differential	30.2±15.4	25.6±15.4	14.9%	60.6%	0.0704	25.5±11.9	15.6%	55.6%	0.0524
LDEX Score	34.7±31.2	26.4±25.2	24.0%	62.2%	0.0400*	23.9±23.2	31.1%	57.9%	0.0696
LLIS Total Impairment Score	47.5±18.1	31.5±16.1	33.7%	89.4%	0.0002*	31.5±12.2	33.7%	75.0%	0.0781
LLIS Physical Score	12.3±4.7	8.0±5.2	34.4%	89.5%	0.0005*	8.6±4.3	29.6%	85.7%	0.0625
LLIS Psychological Score	10.9±5.3	7.5±4.5	31.2%	78.9%	0.0060*	6.2±3.1	43.1%	75%	0.8438
LLIS Functional Score	9.2±4.5	5.9±2.9	35.9%	83.3%	0.0081*	6.6±3.5	28.3%	62.5%	0.8438
ULL27 Total Score	51.5±19.7	69.1±14.7	34.2%	89.4%	0.0006*	72.6±16.6	40.9%	85.7%	0.0938
ULL27 Physical Score	49.4±23.5	68.8±17.4	39.3%	88.9%	0.0011*	70.8±16.3	43.3%	85.7%	0.00312*
ULL27 Emotional Score	49.7±20.3	65.3±16.9	31.4%	84.2%	0.0054*	64.5±20.3	50%	29.8%	0.6953
ULL27 Social Score	60.9±20.7	75.7±16.1	24.3%	88.9%	0.0008*	82.5±15.6	35.4%	71.4%	1.1953
Cellulitis Episodes per-year	0.4±0.9	0.09±0.3	77.5%	90.74%	0.00352*	-	-	-	-



**Table 5:**

Complications in patients who underwent VLNT

<b>Donor site</b>	<b>Complication</b>	<b>No. of cases (%)</b>
	Hernia	1 (1.1%)
	Pancreatitis	1 (1.1%)
	Ileus	0 (0.0%)
	Small bowel obstruction	0 (0.0%)
<b>Recipient site</b>	Total flap loss*	2 (1.8%)
	Partial flap loss*	1 (0.9%)
<b>Other</b>	Hematoma	3 (3.3%)
	Seroma	3 (3.3%)
	Infection	2 (2.2%)

\* Total flaps = 110