# Latest Advancements in Autologous Breast Reconstruction

Edward I. Chang, M.D. Houston, Texas



**Learning Objectives:** After studying this article, the participant should be able to: 1. Understand the available donor sites for autologous breast reconstruction. 2. Describe the advantages and limitations of each donor site. 3. Provide a rational, algorithmic preoperative evaluation and approach for patients seeking autologous breast reconstruction. 4. Develop an effective postoperative monitoring system to minimize complications and maximize salvage of microvascular thromboses. Summary: Breast reconstruction remains at the heart of the field of plastic and reconstructive surgery, and it is continuously evolving. Tremendous advances in breast implant technology and supplemental products, particularly acellular dermal matrices, have revolutionized breast reconstruction in the modern era. However, microvascular free flap breast reconstruction has also witnessed profound advancements with exceptionally high success rates, with the ability to provide the most durable and natural breast reconstruction. Although the pendulum oscillates between prosthesis-based reconstruction and autologous tissue, the present synopsis will focus on autologous free flap breast reconstruction from an historical perspective, recent advancements in microsurgery, and the future of autologous breast reconstruction. (Plast. Reconstr. Surg. 147: 111e, 2021.)

he first surgery for breast reconstruction was performed using the contralateral breast but the operation has evolved tremendously over the years.<sup>1</sup> Pedicle flaps were originally the mainstay options for breast reconstruction; however, the first free tissue transfer for breast reconstruction was described using gluteal tissue.<sup>1,2</sup> Since then, the abdominal donor site has become the most common donor site as either a pedicle or free flap.<sup>2,3</sup> With the advancements in technology and comfort with microsurgery, the use of autologous tissue has also continued to evolve, with expanding indications, delineation of new donor sites, and high success rates and excellent patientreported outcomes and satisfaction. The present article aims to provide a comprehensive synopsis of the advancements and controversies in microvascular free flap breast reconstruction.

## PREOPERATIVE EVALUATION AND HISTORY

As with any patient undergoing breast reconstruction, a thorough history is warranted.

From the Department of Plastic Surgery, University of Texas M. D. Anderson Cancer Center.

Received for publication October 5, 2019; accepted August 12, 2020.

Copyright © 2020 by the American Society of Plastic Surgeons DOI: 10.1097/PRS.000000000007480 Although age alone is not associated with increased risks of complications, factors such as obesity have been associated with higher complications in the donor site in addition to flap loss.<sup>4–7</sup> However, recent evidence suggests that prior notions regarding obesity as a contraindication are no longer valid.<sup>8</sup> Similarly, although smoking has not been shown to increase risks for flap loss, there is little debate regarding increased risks for complications and delayed wound healing.<sup>9</sup>

Adjuvant therapies should also be considered before embarking on reconstruction, particularly the need for postoperative radiation therapy.<sup>10</sup> Although some institutions have demonstrated little detriment to radiation therapy, ideally, autologous breast reconstruction should be performed a minimum of 6 months after radiation therapy.<sup>11</sup> In patients with advanced breast cancer or inflammatory breast cancer, reconstruction should

**Disclosure:** The author has no commercial associations or financial disclosures that might pose or create a conflict of interest with information presented in this article. No funding was received for the work presented in this article.

Related digital media are available in the full-text version of the article on www.PRSJournal.com.

Copyright © 2020 American Society of Plastic Surgeons. Unauthorized reproduction of this article is prohibited.

ideally be performed 1 year after completion of treatment to verify there is no recurrent disease.<sup>12</sup> Patients on hormonal therapy should also be counseled regarding the potential for venous thromboembolic events and thrombosis of the microvascular anastomosis. Although prior studies have recommended withholding tamoxifen, recent studies have questioned their validity.<sup>13,14</sup> Whether or not tamoxifen should be discontinued remains a topic of considerable debate and is at the operating surgeon's discretion. In addition, any history of unprovoked venous thromboembolic events, multiple spontaneous abortions, or miscarriages should alert the reconstructive surgeon to the possibility of a hypercoagulable condition that may warrant further hematologic evaluation.<sup>15,16</sup> Although there are reports of successful reconstructions in prothrombotic patients, these patients should be counseled carefully regarding the need for reoperations, prolonged hospital stays, need for transfusions, and potentially a failed free flap or another life-threatening venous thromboembolic event.17

Autologous breast reconstruction should also involve a multidisciplinary approach, including the primary care physician, anesthesiologists, physical therapists and rehabilitation medicine, medical and radiation oncologists, and breast and oncologic surgeons. Patients with a strong family history of breast or ovarian cancer should undergo genetic counseling and testing for a deleterious BRCA mutation and should be offered bilateral breast reconstruction with a contralateral or bilateral prophylactic mastectomy.<sup>18-20</sup> Patients undergoing a contralateral symmetry and balancing procedure should have a preoperative mammogram and ultrasound if warranted. In the current era of opioid use, patients should also be educated on the benefits of nonnarcotic analgesics, nerve blocks, and other components of enhanced recovery after surgery protocols.<sup>21</sup>

## PATIENT SELECTION, PHYSICAL EXAMINATION, AND WORKUP

A physical examination should be performed, including a thorough breast examination, to document any abnormal findings but should also note breast and bra size, degree of ptosis, asymmetry, prior scars and incisions, and the skin envelop. For patients undergoing a nipplesparing mastectomy, the presence of periareolar scars should raise concerns of potential complications and warrants a cohesive discussion to plan the incision with the resecting surgeon. Although a nipple-sparing mastectomy can be performed safely through a variety of incisions, the inframammary fold incision is associated with the lowest risk for complications.<sup>22-24</sup> For patients undergoing delayed reconstruction, the remaining skin should be evaluated for pliability and softness, radiation damage, scarring and tethering in the axilla, and amount of skin that is needed to resurface the chest to create an aesthetic breast mound.

Furthermore, the physical examination should evaluate the anticipated donor site. A careful examination of the abdomen is paramount in ascertaining whether the patient has sufficient soft-tissue volume. If there is not ample tissue, the patient should be counseled regarding the need for additional revision operations to augment the reconstructed breast by means of autologous fat grafting or a breast implant. Patients may be offered the option of immediate placement of a breast implant under the flap,<sup>25,26</sup> a bipedicle approach,<sup>27-29</sup> a stacked approach combining alternate flaps,<sup>30,31</sup> or a contralateral reduction procedure that can be performed at the same time or in a staged fashion.<sup>32,33</sup> Conversely, morbid obesity in patients with ample soft tissue should no longer be considered an absolute contraindication; rather, these patients should be counseled regarding the increased risks of complications, particularly in the donor site.<sup>8</sup>

During physical examination, one should also pay close attention to prior scars in the donor site.<sup>34,35</sup> Studies have demonstrated that an abdominal flap can be harvested safely following prior operations, including liposuction, although a formal abdominoplasty is generally a contraindication. The examination should evaluate alternate donor sites such as the gluteal region, medial thighs, and the lumbar region. If additional volume is needed, using multiple flaps to reconstruct a single breast has been performed safely and reliably and has demonstrated excellent results, with high patient satisfaction.

Although many studies have reported added benefits to preoperative imaging, the decision to obtain a computed tomographic scan or magnetic resonance angiogram is at the discretion of the reconstructive surgeon who must consider the potential for decreased operative time, taking into account the accuracy of the study.<sup>36–40</sup> One must also consider the added costs of these studies, which may not be covered by insurance, and the increased exposure to radiation and nephrotoxic contrast dye for a computed tomographic angiogram.

## **RECIPIENT SITE AND VESSELS**

Providing an aesthetic breast reconstruction requires appropriate management of the recipient site with a keen eye for detail and artistic shaping and design. The internal mammary vessels have largely supplanted the thoracodorsal vessels as the preferred recipient vessels, allowing for more medial positioning of the flap, maximizing superior and medial pole fullness, and preserving the latissimus dorsi flap for salvage reconstruction.<sup>41</sup> However, although the internal mammary vessels are reliable and typically of sufficient caliber, careful consideration should be given to the left internal mammary vein, particularly in the irradiated chest.<sup>42</sup> The left internal mammary vein is significantly smaller than the right, and an alternate recipient vein should be used if the diameter is less than 2 mm, which is associated with higher flap loss rates. When the internal mammary vein cannot be used, a cephalic vein transposition should be considered as the primary recipient vein; it can also serve as a second venous outflow to augment venous drainage in a superficial dominant flap (Fig. 1).43

Reconstruction of an aesthetic breast mandates restoration of the breast footprint, restoring the natural boundaries of the breast. In delayed reconstruction, dissection of the pocket and breast footprint is critical to the appropriate management of the upper pole to provide the optimal fullness medially and superiorly.<sup>44</sup> In both delayed and immediate reconstruction, the inframammary fold position should be restored to create a distinct fold that is symmetric with the contralateral side.<sup>45</sup>

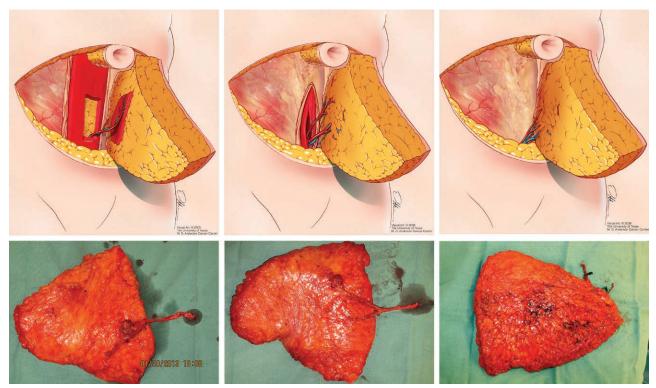
# DONOR-SITE ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES

## Abdomen

The abdominal donor site provides tissue that shares the consistency and texture most closely resembling breast tissue compared to other donor sites. In addition, the harvest creates a favorable abdominal contour, which is also an important consideration.46,47 Larger, dominant perforators are often centered around the umbilicus; however, the decision to harvest a deep inferior epigastric perforator (DIEP) flap or a muscle-sparing transverse rectus abdominis myocutaneous (TRAM) flap is dependent on the microsurgeon (Fig. 2). Most studies have demonstrated increased morbidity and risks for hernias and bulges with a full-muscle TRAM flap or with sacrifice of increasing amounts of fascia.48 In this setting, reinforcing the closure with mesh is recommended.<sup>48,49</sup> Consequently, most microsurgeons favor either a DIEP or a muscle-sparing TRAM flap, which have equivalent donor-site outcomes.<sup>49-54</sup> Some studies, however, have found superior outcomes for DIEP flaps, suggesting that surgeon experience and technique are also critical factors in minimizing complications.<sup>55,56</sup> The novice microsurgeon should exercise caution in performing single-perforator DIEP flaps, which have higher total flap loss rates and rates of fat necrosis compared to multiple perforator flaps.<sup>57,58</sup> Alternatively, a superficial inferior epigastric artery flap is another potential option that does not violate the fascia or muscle but has a higher flap failure rates compared to other abdominal flaps (Fig. 2).<sup>57,59</sup> Consequently, although a superficial



**Fig. 1.** (*Left*) The left internal mammary vein is typically smaller than the right and more prone to congestion. In the setting where the internal mammary vein is not usable, or if the diameter is smaller than 2.0 mm, an alternate venous outflow should be used. (*Right*) Cephalic transposition is a useful technique for providing an alternate vein for drainage in autologous free flap breast reconstruction. The cephalic vein can be harvested by means of step incisions as shown.



**Fig. 2.** Schematic representations of a muscle-sparing TRAM flap (*above*, *left*), superficial inferior epigastric artery flap (*above*, *center*), and DIEP flap (*above*, *right*). Muscle-sparing TRAM flap (*below*, *left*). The flap is harvested, and the fascia and the muscle are spared. (*Below*, *center*) The flap is harvested, preserving the rectus abdominis muscle. The muscle may need to be divided to isolate the perforators, but no muscle is harvested with the flap. Superficial inferior epigastric artery flap (*below*, *right*). The abdominal tissue can be harvested, including variable amounts of muscle with the tissue. In the muscle-sparing TRAM flap approach, a portion of the muscle including the perforators is harvested with the abdominal flap.

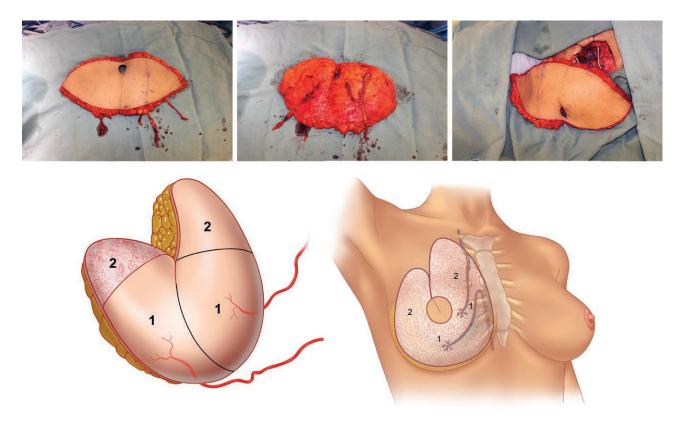
inferior epigastric artery flap is an option, careful patient selection is warranted.<sup>60,61</sup>

In patients undergoing unilateral reconstruction, the entire abdomen can be used if additional volume or skin is needed. However, a single pedicle may not be sufficient to perfuse the entire abdomen without risks of partial flap loss or significant fat necrosis. The introduction of indocyanine green angiography can aid in identifying areas of poor perfusion and determine whether a bipedicle or dual-pedicle flap is necessary.<sup>62</sup> Harvesting two pedicles, either both deep inferior epigastric systems or the superficial system, requires two sets of microvascular anastomoses. A number of different orientations have been described; however, it is the author's preference to perform the anastomoses to the internal mammary vessels in an antegrade and retrograde fashion (Fig. 3).<sup>62-64</sup>

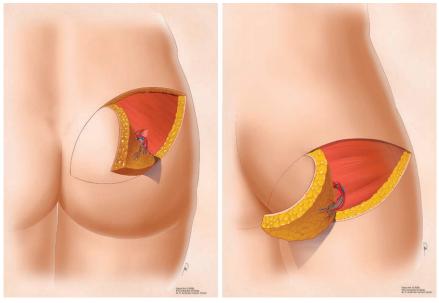
The abdominal donor site has a number of notable advantages as previously mentioned, including the availability of ample amounts of skin and tissue and ease of harvest. A two-team approach can be used to shorten the operative time, allowing for simultaneous flap harvest at the time of the mastectomy or dissection of recipient vessels. Reconstructive microsurgeons should be aware of the phenomenon of superficial dominance where the primary venous drainage is through the superficial inferior epigastric vein. In this setting, it is imperative to perform a second venous anastomosis to allow drainage from both the deep and superficial systems.<sup>65</sup>

## Buttock

The gluteal region can also serve as a donor site and was previously the preferred secondary option when the abdomen was not available.<sup>66-69</sup> A flap can be harvested reliably based on perforators arising from either the superior or inferior gluteal artery (Fig. 4). Most patients have ample amounts of soft tissue in the gluteal region; however, the subcutaneous fat and tissue tend to be firmer and less pliable.<sup>69,70</sup> The superior gluteal artery perforator flap harvests tissue from the upper lateral aspect of the buttock. Although the scar should be concealable in clothing and undergarments, a contour deformity can occur, leading to noticeable asymmetry. The inferior gluteal artery



**Fig. 3.** (*Above, left*) When a large volume of skin replacement is needed, the entire abdominal tissue can be harvested to reconstruct a unilateral mastectomy defect. (*Above, center*) To provide adequate perfusion to the entire abdominal flap, two separate pedicles are needed. The dual pedicle or bipedicle flap is another useful iteration of an abdominal free flap that can be used in breast reconstruction. (*Above, right*) Two anastomoses are needed, which are typically performed to the internal mammary vessels in an antegrade and retrograde fashion. (*Below*) Schematic representations of (*below, left*) bipedicle flap harvest and (*below, right*) orientation using antegrade and retrograde internal mammary vessels.



**Fig. 4.** Schematic depiction of autologous free flaps, which can also be harvested from the gluteal region based on the superior (*left*) or inferior gluteal vessels (*right*).

perforator flap, in contrast, should ideally conceal the scar in the infragluteal crease, which is welltolerated, although patients should be cautioned about potential sensory and gait disturbances.<sup>71,72</sup>

Although a computed tomographic angiogram may be useful, anatomical landmarks can also be used.<sup>73</sup> The superior gluteal artery perforator flap is designed based on the location of the superior gluteal artery, which arises approximately one-third the distance along a line joining the posterior superior iliac spine and greater trochanter of the femur. A line from the greater trochanter that bisects a third line from the posterior superior iliac spine to the coccyx aligns with the piriformis muscle. The superior gluteal artery perforator flap perforators should be cranial to the piriformis line and in the lateral two-thirds of a line joining the posterior superior iliac spine and greater trochanter.<sup>67,68</sup> The inferior gluteal artery perforator flap is based on the posterior superior iliac spine and ischial tuberosity, which serve as landmarks. The junction between the middle and distal thirds marks the emergence of the inferior gluteal artery pedicle. The posterior femoral cutaneous nerve travels with the inferior gluteal vessels and should be protected during the dissection.<sup>69</sup> In general, laterally based perforators are preferable to maximize pedicle length, allow coning the flap to maximize projection, and achieve an aesthetic donor-site closure.74-76 Despite studies demonstrating acceptable outcomes, the dissection is more tedious, and a position change is often needed, precluding a two-team approach in many circumstances. With a shorter pedicle and smaller caliber vessels, there is a significantly higher total flap loss rate compared to abdominal flaps, and caution should be exercised when considering gluteal flaps for breast reconstruction.<sup>57,77</sup>

Thigh

Thigh-based flaps have grown in popularity and recently have supplanted the gluteal donor site when the abdomen is not available. Furthermore, the thigh serves as a popular auxiliary donor site when stacked flaps are needed to supplement the volume of an abdominal flap.<sup>78,79</sup> The gracilis myocutaneous flap represents a useful alternative in small-breasted patients with ample medial thigh tissue. The flap can be oriented vertically or transversely, but the transverse upper gracilis flap results in a more well-concealed scar. The gracilis muscle is harvested with the overlying skin, including a perforator arising from the medial circumflex femoral artery, but has a shorter pedicle measuring 6 to 8 cm, with a relatively smaller artery. The length and caliber of the transverse upper gracilis pedicle is often better suited for internal mammary vessel perforators or distal internal mammary vessels to minimize the size mismatch.<sup>80–82</sup> The amount of tissue harvested should allow a tension-free closure to avoid scar widening and migration.83-85

The profunda artery perforator flap is supplied by perforators arising from the profunda femoris artery (Fig. 5).<sup>78</sup> It can also be oriented longitudinally or transversely, depending on the distribution of fat in the medial thigh.<sup>86–88</sup> A transverse profunda artery perforator is best harvested in the lithotomy position but requires the presence of a sizable proximal perforator, which may not always be present. [**See Video (online)**, which displays the intraoperative harvest of a profunda artery perforator flap. The flap is harvested in a vertical longitudinal orientation. The profunda artery perforator flap can also be harvested in a transverse orientation; however, this requires the presence of a proximal perforator, which is not



**Fig. 5.** The profunda artery perforator flap is becoming an increasingly commonly used flap in autologous breast reconstruction, and can be harvested in a transverse, longitudinal, or oblique fashion. Schematic depiction of a longitudinal profunda artery perforator flap that can be based on a single perforator or two perforators that converge (*left*). Bilateral profunda artery perforator flaps were harvested in a longitudinal fashion, both based on two converging perforators (*center*). (*Right*) A single profunda artery perforator was not sufficient to match the volume, so two profunda artery perforator flaps were stacked and oriented using the antegrade and retrograde internal mammary vessels, similar to a dual-pedicle DIEP flap.

# 116e

always present.] However, in the setting in which a suitable perforator is not encountered, a transverse upper gracilis flap can be harvested.<sup>89</sup> A longitudinal profunda artery perforator flap can be harvested, placing the patient in a supine frogleg position. The transverse orientation provides a more favorable scar, concealed in the infragluteal crease; however, a longitudinal scar is also well-tolerated. The pedicle for the profunda artery perforator is typically longer and larger, measuring 10 to 12 cm in length, with an artery that is often 2 mm in diameter.

All thigh-based flaps allow for a two-team approach. For unilateral reconstruction, the author favors performing bilateral profunda artery perforator flaps, using the antegrade and retrograde internal mammary vessels, which not only provides more volume than a single flap, but also allows for better symmetry and contour of the medial thigh donor site.<sup>63</sup> The transverse scar is well-concealed, and harvesting a longitudinal flap can provide more volume for shaping, with lower risk of fat necrosis, as the flap orientation corresponds with the profunda artery perforator perforasome.<sup>88</sup> Additional concerns with harvesting of the transverse profunda artery perforator and transverse upper gracilis include the risk of partial flap loss at the apices and the potential risk of lymphedema if the flap harvest proceeds too medially.<sup>89,90</sup>

#### Lumbar

A relatively novel flap that has recently emerged is the lumbar artery perforator flap, based on perforators typically arising at the level of the third or fourth lumbar vertebrae, most commonly 7 to 10 cm from the midline.<sup>91,92</sup> The location of sizable perforators is relatively consistent and can be mapped using a handheld Doppler probe, obviating the need for additional imaging studies.<sup>93,94</sup> For patients who have more fat distribution in the flanks, the lumbar artery perforator flap represents a reasonable option that provides soft, pliable tissue closely resembling breast tissue and also achieves a pleasing aesthetic contour in the donor site. In properly selected patients, the donor site can provide a substantial amount of tissue and can recruit additional tissue from the superior gluteal region if needed.

The flap is best harvested in the prone position, which requires two position changes to isolate recipient vessels followed by the flap harvest and finally the microvascular anastomosis and flap inset. This precludes a two-team approach, which may translate into longer operative times. Likely the greatest limitation of the lumbar artery perforator flap is the pedicle length and caliber. Most recommend harvesting a vein graft or the deep inferior epigastric vessels to mitigate these difficulties, which also corrects the size mismatch with the internal mammary vessels.<sup>92,93</sup> Although more pedicle length can be obtained, the pedicle dissection becomes considerably more tedious and can risk inadvertent injury to nerve roots. Early experiences also demonstrated higher complications and total flap loss rates compared to abdominal flaps.<sup>92</sup> Given the availability of alternate flaps, and the disadvantages of multiple position changes and suboptimal pedicle characteristics, the lumbar artery perforator flap remains a second-tier alternative, in the author's opinion.

## POSTOPERATIVE MONITORING AND COMPLICATIONS

The most dreaded complication is a microvascular thrombosis resulting in total flap loss. Fortunately, this is a relatively infrequent event, ranging from 2 to 5 percent at most high-volume institutions.<sup>57</sup> Although such complications are inevitable, a number of maneuvers should be considered to minimize these risks. Such recommendations are likely more applicable to the novice microsurgeon, but all reconstructive surgeons should be cognizant of the potential avoidable risks. Proper patient selection and flap design, thorough preoperative evaluation and appropriate imaging studies, meticulous technique, and diligent postoperative monitoring are critical for maximizing flap success rates.<sup>95</sup> Considerable debate exists regarding the best modality for postoperative monitoring, but most agree that clinical examination remains the gold standard. Whether any of the new technologically advanced devices and modalities such as near-infrared spectroscopy and tissue oxygenation monitors supplant clinical expertise and experience remains to be elucidated. The use of implantable Doppler probes may be useful for nipple-sparing mastectomies when the flap is completely buried.96-99 However, despite promising results and reportedly high sensitivity and specificity, no modality has been universally adopted and replaced clinical examination.

#### **NEUROTIZATION AND SENSATE FLAPS**

Flap neurotization has been described for over two decades, but performing a neurorrhaphy to create a sensate flap has not gained broad acceptance or universal application.<sup>100</sup> Although most studies confirm that coaptation of a nerve supplying the flap (to the third intercostal nerve



**Fig. 6.** Creating a sensate flap including harvest of the nerve with the abdominal DIEP flap that can then be connected to a lateral intercostal nerve or to an intercostal nerve found medially during the isolation of the internal mammary vessels.

most commonly) can create a sensate flap, currently available studies demonstrate conflicting results, tremendously variable techniques, and inconsistent patient-reported outcome metrics. Some flaps have also demonstrated spontaneous return of sensation without a nerve repair.<sup>101,102</sup> Nonetheless, there are studies supporting the efficacy of performing nerve coaptation. Flaps with a neurorrhaphy generally demonstrated superior and earlier return of sensation compared to noninnervated flaps.<sup>102,103</sup> The reinnervation can be performed directly or using a nerve graft or conduit (Fig. 6).<sup>104</sup> Further studies are needed to decipher the best technique for innervating a sensate breast flap, but the current literature demonstrates promising results.<sup>101-105</sup>

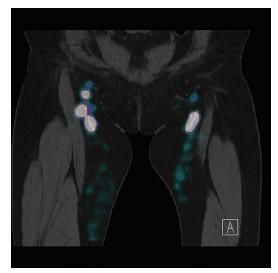
## **LYMPHEDEMA**

Although an exhaustive review of surgical treatment for breast cancer–related lymphedema is beyond the scope of the present article, significant advancements have emerged with the growing field of lymphedema supermicrosurgery.<sup>106</sup> The risk of breast cancer–related lymphedema when patients have had an axillary dissection, chemotherapy, and radiation therapy can be as high as 40 percent.<sup>107–109</sup> Although effective, neither the lymphaticovenular anastomosis, nor lymphovenous bypass, nor a vascularized lymph node transfer is a cure for lymphedema.<sup>110</sup>

For patients suffering from breast cancerrelated lymphedema who are also seeking breast reconstruction, combining a DIEP flap with an inguinal vascularized lymph node transfer has proven to be effective in achieving both objectives.<sup>111,112</sup> The superficial inguinal nodes adjacent to the superficial circumflex iliac or superficial inferior epigastric vessels can be taken in conjunction with the DIEP flap (Fig. 7). The entire composite flap, including the inguinal lymph nodes, is then transferred to reconstruct the breast while simultaneously transferring lymph nodes to improve the lymphatic drainage from the arm. The DIEP flap is anastomosed to the internal mammary vessels, but an additional set of anastomoses may be necessary to perfuse the inguinal nodes.<sup>113</sup> The recipient vessels for the lymph nodes are often branches of the thoracodorsal vessels or the subscapular axis. In general, we prefer to preserve the thoracodorsal pedicle so a latissimus dorsi flap can still be used to salvage a failed flap.



**Fig. 7.** With the growing field of lymphedema surgery, treatment of breast cancer–related lymphedema has made tremendous advancements, where breast reconstruction with lymphedema surgery can be performed simultaneously. (*Left*) The superficial inguinal nodes can be harvested with the DIEP flap to reconstruct the breast and improve the lymphatic drainage in one operation. (*Right*) Schematic representation of a flap harvested with the inguinal nodes, allowing for anastomosis to the internal mammary system and allowing the nodes to be placed into the axilla. Often, the anastomosis perfusing the DIEP flap will also maintain the vascularized lymph node transfer.



**Fig. 8.** Preoperative lymphoscintigraph demonstrating location of sentinel nodes in the groin draining the lower extremity to guide laterality for node harvest.

Although some studies have demonstrated that breast reconstruction alone can lower the risk for breast cancer-related lymphedema, others have challenged this claim.<sup>114–116</sup> Thus, a combined DIEP vascularized lymph node transfer represents the optimal means of addressing breast cancer-related lymphedema and should be performed by experienced, trained microsurgeons with supermicrosurgical expertise. The inguinal node harvest should be performed meticulously, taking into account anatomical landmarks, preoperative imaging including lymphoscintigraphy, and reverse lymphatic mapping to avoid precipitating lymphedema of the leg (Fig. 8).<sup>112,113</sup> Other potential complications—including lymphocele, prolonged seroma, and contour deficiencies of the donor site-can also be prevented with proper technique and experience. Despite these serious complications, performed appropriately, the operation is effective in the overwhelming majority of patients suffering from breast cancer-related lymphedema.<sup>117</sup> As the field continues to evolve, modalities aimed to cure lymphedema are on the horizon and will likely become a reality in the near future.

#### **CONCLUSIONS**

Autologous breast reconstruction has witnessed tremendous advancements over the years, where the focus is no longer on just achieving a viable flap. The increasing number of available donor sites, growing understanding and expertise with perforator flaps, advancements in technology, and innovations in neurotization and lymphedema surgery have revolutionized breast reconstruction in the modern era. Reconstructive microsurgeons, with more tools available, should strive to deliver safer care, provide the spectrum of options for each individual patient, and be able to achieve high patient satisfaction and superior outcomes to buoy the spirt of those afflicted with breast cancer.

> *Edward I. Chang, M.D.* Department of Plastic Surgery, Unit 443 University of Texas M. D. Anderson Cancer Center 1515 Holcombe Boulevard Houston, Texas 77030 eichang@mdanderson.org

#### ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The author would like to thank David Aten and members of the medical graphics team at the University of Texas M.D. Anderson Cancer Center for their artistry and figures.

#### REFERENCES

- Rozen WM, Rajkomar AK, Anavekar NS, Ashton MW. Postmastectomy breast reconstruction: A history in evolution. *Clin Breast Cancer* 2009;9:145–154.
- 2. Sigurdson L, Lalonde DH. MOC-PSSM CME article: Breast reconstruction. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2008;121(Suppl):1–12.
- Healy C, Allen RJ Sr. The evolution of perforator flap breast reconstruction: Twenty years after the first DIEP flap. J Reconstr Microsurg. 2014;30:121–125.
- 4. Torabi R, Stalder MW, Tessler O, et al. Assessing age as a risk factor for complications in autologous breast reconstruction. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2018;142:840e–846e.
- Fischer JP, Nelson JA, Sieber B, et al. Free tissue transfer in the obese patient: An outcome and cost analysis in 1258 consecutive abdominally based reconstructions. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2013;131:681e–692e.
- 6. Jandali S, Nelson JA, Sonnad SS, et al. Breast reconstruction with free tissue transfer from the abdomen in the morbidly obese. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2011;127:2206–2213.
- Lee KT, Mun GH. Effects of obesity on postoperative complications after breast reconstruction using free muscle-sparing transverse rectus abdominis myocutaneous, deep inferior epigastric perforator, and superficial inferior epigastric artery flap: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Ann Plast Surg.* 2016;76:576–584.
- 8. Chang EI, Liu J. Prospective evaluation of obese patients undergoing autologous abdominal free flap breast reconstruction. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2018;142:120e–125e.
- 9. O'Neill AC, Haykal S, Bagher S, Zhong T, Hofer S. Predictors and consequences of intraoperative microvascular problems in autologous breast reconstruction. *J Plast Reconstr Aesthet Surg.* 2016;69:1349–1355.
- Kronowitz SJ, Robb GL. Radiation therapy and breast reconstruction: A critical review of the literature. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2009;124:395–408.
- Baumann DP, Crosby MA, Selber JC, et al. Optimal timing of delayed free lower abdominal flap breast reconstruction after postmastectomy radiation therapy. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2011;127:1100–1106.
- 12. Chang EI, Chang EI, Ito R, et al. Challenging a traditional paradigm: 12-year experience with autologous free flap

Downloaded from http://journals.lww.com/plasreconsurg by RzUSysRlyqiZg+J5ivYjoyV6s6t/G+nVOYytTyC2t5u bv2Mw44Nk6awDKbkjm0/CB5wIBTZvoL4f4lGlgiJznd6kQqeAePqdTYzTn66446mqQHYZE8w20wLAyDV4K55/5jimyl9b230= on 11/06/2023 breast reconstruction for inflammatory breast cancer. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2015;135:262e–269e.

- Kelley BP, Valero V, Yi M, Kronowitz SJ. Tamoxifen increases the risk of microvascular flap complications in patients undergoing microvascular breast reconstruction. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2012;129:305–314.
- 14. Mirzabeigi MN, Nelson JA, Fischer JP, et al. Tamoxifen (selective estrogen-receptor modulators) and aromatase inhibitors as potential perioperative thrombotic risk factors in free flap breast reconstruction. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2015;135:670e–679e.
- 15. Schreiber K, Sciascia S, de Groot PG, et al. Antiphospholipid syndrome. *Nat Rev Dis Primers* 2018;4:17103.
- **16.** Bouvier S, Cochery-Nouvellon E, Lavigne-Lissalde G, et al. Comparative incidence of pregnancy outcomes in thrombophilia-positive women from the NOH-APS observational study. *Blood* 2014;123:414–421.
- Wang TY, Serletti JM, Cuker A, et al. Free tissue transfer in the hypercoagulable patient: A review of 58 flaps. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2012;129:443–453.
- Panchal H, Matros E. Current trends in postmastectomy breast reconstruction. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2017;140(Advances in Breast Reconstruction):7S–13S.
- Bletsis P, Bucknor A, Chattha A, et al. Evaluation of contralateral and bilateral prophylactic mastectomy and reconstruction outcomes: Comparing alloplastic and autologous reconstruction. *Ann Plast Surg.* 2018;80 (Suppl 4):S144–S149.
- 20. Chang EI, Chang EI, Soto-Miranda MA, et al. Evolution of bilateral free flap breast reconstruction over 10 years: Optimizing outcomes and comparison to unilateral reconstruction. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2015;135:946e–953e.
- 21. Temple-Oberle C, Shea-Budgell MA, Tan M, et al.; ERAS Society. Consensus review of optimal perioperative care in breast reconstruction: Enhanced Recovery after Surgery (ERAS) Society recommendations. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2017;139:1056e–1071e.
- 22. Daar DA, Abdou SA, Rosario L, et al. Is there a preferred incision location for nipple-sparing mastectomy? A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2019;143:906e–919e.
- Frey JD, Salibian AA, Levine JP, Karp NS, Choi M. Incision choices in nipple-sparing mastectomy: A comparative analysis of outcomes and evolution of a clinical algorithm. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2018;142:826e–835e.
- 24. Frey JD, Stranix JT, Chiodo MV, et al. Evolution in monitoring of free flap autologous breast reconstruction after nipple-sparing mastectomy: Is there a best way? *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2018;141:1086–1093.
- Momeni A, Kanchwala S. Hybrid prepectoral breast reconstruction: A surgical approach that combines the benefits of autologous and implant-based reconstruction. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2018;142:1109–1115.
- Roehl KR, Baumann DP, Chevray PM, Chang DW. Evaluation of outcomes in breast reconstructions combining lower abdominal free flaps and permanent implants. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2010;126:349–357.
- 27. Beahm EK, Walton RL. The efficacy of bilateral lower abdominal free flaps for unilateral breast reconstruction. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2007;120:41–54.
- Agarwal JP, Gottlieb LJ. Double pedicle deep inferior epigastric perforator/muscle-sparing TRAM flaps for unilateral breast reconstruction. *Ann Plast Surg.* 2007;58:359–363.
- 29. Hamdi M, Khuthaila DK, Van Landuyt K, Roche N, Monstrey S. Double-pedicle abdominal perforator free flaps for unilateral breast reconstruction: New horizons in microsurgical tissue transfer to the breast. *J Plast Reconstr Aesthet Surg.* 2007;60:904–912; discussion 913–914.

- **30.** Beugels J, Vasile JV, Tuinder SMH, et al. The stacked hemiabdominal extended perforator flap for autologous breast reconstruction. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2018;142:1424–1434.
- **31.** DellaCroce FJ, Sullivan SK, Trahan C. Stacked deep inferior epigastric perforator flap breast reconstruction: A review of 110 flaps in 55 cases over 3 years. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2011;127:1093–1099.
- 32. Chang EI, Selber JC, Chang EI, et al. Choosing the optimal timing for contralateral symmetry procedures after unilateral free flap breast reconstruction. *Ann Plast Surg.* 2015;74:12–16.
- Chang EI, Lamaris G, Chang DW. Simultaneous contralateral reduction mammoplasty or mastopexy during unilateral free flap breast reconstruction. *Ann Plast Surg.* 2013;71:144–148.
- 34. Roostaeian J, Yoon AP, Sanchez IS, et al. The effect of prior abdominal surgery on abdominally based free flaps in breast reconstruction. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2014;133:247e–255e.
- 35. Wes AM, Cleveland E, Nelson JA, et al. Do prior abdominal surgeries increase complications in abdominally based breast reconstructions? *Ann Plast Surg.* 2015;75:526–533.
- 36. Wong C, Saint-Cyr M, Arbique G, et al. Three- and fourdimensional computed tomography angiographic studies of commonly used abdominal flaps in breast reconstruction. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2009;124:18–27.
- **37.** Ohkuma R, Mohan R, Baltodano PA, et al. Abdominally based free flap planning in breast reconstruction with computed tomographic angiography: Systematic review and meta-analysis. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2014;133:483–494.
- Chang EI, Chu CK, Chang EI. Advancements in imaging technology for microvascular free tissue transfer. J Surg Oncol. 2018;118:729–735.
- **39.** Mossa-Basha M, Lee C. Impact of preoperative computed tomography angiogram on abdominal flap breast reconstruction outcomes: A systematic review. *J Reconstr Microsurg.* 2017;33:328–335.
- Vargas CR, Koolen PG, Ho OA, Tobias AM, Lin SJ, Lee BT. Preoperative CT-angiography in autologous breast reconstruction. *Microsurgery* 2016;36:623–627.
- 41. Saint-Cyr M, Youssef A, Bae HW, Robb GL, Chang DW. Changing trends in recipient vessel selection for microvascular autologous breast reconstruction: An analysis of 1483 consecutive cases. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2007;119:1993–2000.
- 42. Chang EI, Chang EI, Soto-Miranda MA, Nosrati N, Robb GL, Chang DW. Demystifying the use of internal mammary vessels as recipient vessels in free flap breast reconstruction. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2013;132:763–768.
- 43. Chang EI, Fearmonti RM, Chang DW, Butler CE. Cephalic vein transposition versus vein grafts for venous outflow in free-flap breast reconstruction. *Plast Reconstr Surg Glob Open* 2014;2:e141.
- 44. Blondeel PN, Hijjawi J, Depypere H, Roche N, Van Landuyt K. Shaping the breast in aesthetic and reconstructive breast surgery: An easy three-step principle. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2009;123:455–462.
- 45. Kraft CT, Rendon JL, Koutz CA, Miller MJ. Inframammary fold reconstruction in the previously reconstructed breast: A comprehensive review. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2019;143:1019–1029.
- 46. Atisha DM, Tessiatore KM, Rushing CN, Dayicioglu D, Pusic A, Hwang S. A national snapshot of patient-reported outcomes comparing types of abdominal flaps for breast reconstruction. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2019;143:667–677.
- 47. Macadam SA, Zhong T, Weichman K, et al. Quality of life and patient-reported outcomes in breast cancer survivors: A multicenter comparison of four abdominally based autologous reconstruction methods. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2016;137:758–771.

# 120e

Copyright © 2020 American Society of Plastic Surgeons. Unauthorized reproduction of this article is prohibited.

- 48. Chang EI, Chang EI, Soto-Miranda MA, et al. Comprehensive analysis of donor-site morbidity in abdominally based free flap breast reconstruction. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2013;132:1383–1391.
- **49.** Wan DC, Tseng CY, Anderson-Dam J, Dalio AL, Crisera CA, Festekjian JH. Inclusion of mesh in donor-site repair of free TRAM and muscle-sparing free TRAM flaps yields rates of abdominal complications comparable to those of DIEP flap reconstruction. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2010;126:367–374.
- Nelson JA, Guo Y, Sonnad SS, et al. A comparison between DIEP and muscle-sparing free TRAM flaps in breast reconstruction: A single surgeon's recent experience. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2010;126:1428–1435.
- 51. Selber JC, Nelson J, Fosnot J, et al. A prospective study comparing the functional impact of SIEA, DIEP, and muscle-sparing free TRAM flaps on the abdominal wall: Part I. Unilateral reconstruction. *Plast Reconstr Surg*, 2010;126:1142–1153.
- 52. Selber JC, Fosnot J, Nelson J, et al. A prospective study comparing the functional impact of SIEA, DIEP, and muscle-sparing free TRAM flaps on the abdominal wall: Part II. Bilateral reconstruction. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2010;126:1438–1453.
- 53. Uda H, Kamochi H, Sarukawa S, Sunaga A, Sugawara Y, Yoshimura K. Clinical and quantitative isokinetic comparison of abdominal morbidity and dynamics following DIEP versus muscle-sparing free TRAM flap breast reconstruction. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2017;140:1101–1109.
- 54. Wu LC, Bajaj A, Chang DW, Chevray PM. Comparison of donor-site morbidity of SIEA, DIEP, and muscle-sparing TRAM flaps for breast reconstruction. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2008;122:702–709.
- 55. Tan MG, Isaranuwatchai W, DeLyzer T, et al. A cost-effectiveness analysis of DIEP vs free MS-TRAM flap for microsurgical breast reconstruction. *J Surg Oncol.* 2019;119:388–396.
- 56. Zhong T, Novak CB, Bagher S, et al. Using propensity score analysis to compare major complications between DIEP and free muscle-sparing TRAM flap breast reconstructions. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2014;133:774–782.
- 57. Chang EI, Chang EI, Soto-Miranda MA, et al. Comprehensive evaluation of risk factors and management of impending flap loss in 2138 breast free flaps. *Ann Plast Surg.* 2016;77:67–71.
- 58. Baumann DP, Lin HY, Chevray PM. Perforator number predicts fat necrosis in a prospective analysis of breast reconstruction with free TRAM, DIEP, and SIEA flaps. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2010;125:1335–1341.
- **59.** Selber JC, Samra F, Bristol M, et al. A head-to-head comparison between the muscle-sparing free TRAM and the SIEA flaps: Is the rate of flap loss worth the gain in abdominal wall function? *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2008;122:348–355.
- 60. Garza RM, Shenaq D, Song DH, Park JE. Superficial inferior epigastric artery flap salvage technique using deep inferior epigastric artery graft. *Plast Reconstr Surg Glob Open* 2018;6:e1528.
- **61.** Park JE, Shenaq DS, Silva AK, Mhlaba JM, Song DH. Breast reconstruction with SIEA flaps: A single-institution experience with 145 free flaps. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2016;137:1682–1689.
- **62.** Chang EI, Kronowitz SJ. Dual-pedicle flap for unilateral autologous breast reconstruction revisited: Evolution and optimization of flap design over 15 years. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2016;137:1372–1380.
- **63.** Stalder MW, Lam J, Allen RJ, Sadeghi A. Using the retrograde internal mammary system for stacked perforator flap breast reconstruction: 71 breast reconstructions in 53 consecutive patients. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2016;137:265e–277e.
- 64. Tomioka YK, Uda H, Yoshimura K, Sunaga A, Kamochi H, Sugawara Y. Studying the blood pressures of antegrade

and retrograde internal mammary vessels: Do they really work as recipient vessels? *J Plast Reconstr Aesthet Surg.* 2017;70:1391–1396.

- 65. Sbitany H, Mirzabeigi MN, Kovach SJ, Wu LC, Serletti JM. Strategies for recognizing and managing intraoperative venous congestion in abdominally based autologous breast reconstruction. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2012;129:809–815.
- LoTempio MM, Allen RJ. Breast reconstruction with SGAP and IGAP flaps. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2010;126:393–401.
- 67. Blondeel PN, Van Landuyt K, Hamdi M, Monstrey SJ. Soft tissue reconstruction with the superior gluteal artery perforator flap. *Clin Plast Surg.* 2003;30:371–382.
- Allen RJ, Tucker C Jr. Superior gluteal artery perforator free flap for breast reconstruction. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 1995;95:1207–1212.
- **69**. Ahmadzadeh R, Bergeron L, Tang M, Morris SF. The superior and inferior gluteal artery perforator flaps. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2007;120:1551–1556.
- 70. Guerra AB, Metzinger SE, Bidros RS, Gill PS, Dupin CL, Allen RJ. Breast reconstruction with gluteal artery perforator (GAP) flaps: A critical analysis of 142 cases. *Ann Plast Surg.* 2004;52:118–125.
- Allen RJ, Levine JL, Granzow JW. The in-the-crease inferior gluteal artery perforator flap for breast reconstruction. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2006;118:333–339.
- 72. Hur K, Ohkuma R, Bellamy JL, et al. Patient-reported assessment of functional gait outcomes following superior gluteal artery perforator reconstruction. *Plast Reconstr Surg Glob Open* 2013;1:e31.
- Rozen WM, Ting JW, Grinsell D, Ashton MW. Superior and inferior gluteal artery perforators: In-vivo anatomical study and planning for breast reconstruction. *J Plast Reconstr Aesthet Surg.* 2011;64:217–225.
- 74. Fade G, Gobel F, Pele E, et al. Anatomical basis of the lateral superior gluteal artery perforator (LSGAP) flap and role in bilateral breast reconstruction. *J Plast Reconstr Aesthet Surg.* 2013;66:756–762.
- Kronowitz SJ. Redesigned gluteal artery perforator flap for breast reconstruction. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2008;121:728–734.
- Rad AN, Flores JI, Prucz RB, Stapleton SM, Rosson GD. Clinical experience with the lateral septocutaneous superior gluteal artery perforator flap for autologous breast reconstruction. *Microsurgery* 2010;30:339–347.
- 77. Mirzabeigi MN, Au A, Jandali S, Natoli N, Sbitany H, Serletti JM. Trials and tribulations with the inferior gluteal artery perforator flap in autologous breast reconstruction. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2011;128:614e–624e.
- Dayan JH, Allen RJ Jr. Lower extremity free flaps for breast reconstruction. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2017;140(Advances in Breast Reconstruction):77S–86S.
- **79.** Haddock NT, Gassman A, Cho MJ, Teotia SS. 101 consecutive profunda artery perforator flaps in breast reconstruction: Lessons learned with our early experience. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2017;140:229–239.
- Park JE, Alkureishi LW, Song DH. TUGs into VUGs and friendly BUGs: Transforming the gracilis territory into the best secondary breast reconstructive option. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2015;136:447–454.
- 81. Buchel EW, Dalke KR, Hayakawa TE. The transverse upper gracilis flap: Efficiencies and design tips. *Can J Plast Surg.* 2013;21:162–166.
- Natoli NB, Wu LC. Vascular variations of the transverse upper gracilis flap in consideration for breast reconstruction. *Ann Plast Surg.* 2015;74:528–531.
- 83. Bodin F, Dissaux C, Dupret-Bories A, Schohn T, Fiquet C, Bruant-Rodier C. The transverse musculo-cutaneous gracilis

flap for breast reconstruction: How to avoid complications. *Microsurgery* 2016;36:42–48.

- 84. Buntic RF, Horton KM, Brooks D, Althubaiti GA. Transverse upper gracilis flap as an alternative to abdominal tissue breast reconstruction: Technique and modifications. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2011;128:607e–613e.
- 85. Craggs B, Vanmierlo B, Zeltzer A, Buyl R, Haentjens P, Hamdi M. Donor-site morbidity following harvest of the transverse myocutaneous gracilis flap for breast reconstruction. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2014;134:682e–691e.
- **86.** Allen RJ Jr, Lee ZH, Mayo JL, Levine J, Ahn C, Allen RJ Sr. The profunda artery perforator flap experience for breast reconstruction. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2016;138:968–975.
- Allen RJ, Haddock NT, Ahn CY, Sadeghi A. Breast reconstruction with the profunda artery perforator flap. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2012;129:16e–23e.
- 88. Mohan AT, Zhu L, Sur YJ, et al. Application of posterior thigh three-dimensional profunda artery perforator perforasomes in refining next-generation flap designs: Transverse, vertical, and S-shaped profunda artery perforator flaps. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2017;139:834e–845e.
- 89. Hunter JE, Lardi AM, Dower DR, Farhadi J. Evolution from the TUG to PAP flap for breast reconstruction: Comparison and refinements of technique. *J Plast Reconstr Aesthet Surg.* 2015;68:960–965.
- **90.** Haddock N, Nagarkar P, Teotia SS. Versatility of the profunda artery perforator flap: Creative uses in breast reconstruction. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2017;139:606e–612e.
- **91.** Peters KT, Blondeel PN, Lobo F, van Landuyt K. Early experience with the free lumbar artery perforator flap for breast reconstruction. *J Plast Reconstr Aesthet Surg.* 2015;68:1112–1119.
- **92.** Opsomer D, Stillaert F, Blondeel P, Van Landuyt K. The lumbar artery perforator flap in autologous breast reconstruction: Initial experience with 100 cases. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2018;142:1e–8e.
- 93. Hamdi M, Craggs B, Brussaard C, Seidenstueker K, Hendrickx B, Zeltzer A. Lumbar artery perforator flap: An anatomical study using multidetector computed tomographic scan and surgical pearls for breast reconstruction. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2016;138:343–352.
- 94. Sommeling CE, Colebunders B, Pardon HE, Stillaert FB, Blondeel PN, van Landuyt K. Lumbar artery perforators: An anatomical study based on computed tomographic angiography imaging. *Acta Chir Belg.* 2017;117:223–226.
- **95.** Massey MF, Spiegel AJ, Levine JL, et al.; Group for the Advancement of Breast Reconstruction. Perforator flaps: Recent experience, current trends, and future directions based on 3974 microsurgical breast reconstructions. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2009;124:737–751.
- **96.** Chang EI, Ibrahim A, Zhang H, et al. Deciphering the sensitivity and specificity of the implantable Doppler probe in free flap monitoring. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2016;137:971–976.
- **97.** Koolen PG, Vargas CR, Ho OA, et al. Does increased experience with tissue oximetry monitoring in microsurgical breast reconstruction lead to decreased flap loss? The learning effect. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2016;137:1093–1101.
- 98. Um GT, Chang J, Louie O, et al. Implantable Cook-Swartz Doppler probe versus Synovis Flow Coupler for the postoperative monitoring of free flap breast reconstruction. J *Plast Reconstr Aesthet Surg.* 2014;67:960–966.
- **99.** Levine SM, Snider C, Gerald G, et al. Buried flap reconstruction after nipple-sparing mastectomy: Advancing toward single-stage breast reconstruction. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2013;132:489e–497e.

- 100. Blondeel PN. The sensate free superior gluteal artery perforator (S-GAP) flap: A valuable alternative in autologous breast reconstruction. *Br J Plast Surg.* 1999;52:185–193.
- 101. Weissler JM, Koltz PF, Carney MJ, Serletti JM, Wu LC. Sifting through the evidence: A comprehensive review and analysis of neurotization in breast reconstruction. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2018;141:550–565.
- 102. Beugels J, Cornelissen AJM, Spiegel AJ, et al. Sensory recovery of the breast after innervated and non-innervated autologous breast reconstructions: A systematic review. J Plast Reconstr Aesthet Surg. 2017;70:1229–1241.
- 103. Puonti HK, Jääskeläinen SK, Hallikainen HK, Partanen TA. Improved sensory recovery with a novel dual neurorrhaphy technique for breast reconstruction with free muscle sparing TRAM flap technique. *Microsurgery* 2017;37:21–28.
- 104. Spiegel AJ, Menn ZK, Eldor L, Kaufman Y, Dellon AL. Breast reinnervation: DIEP neurotization using the third anterior intercostal nerve. *Plast Reconstr Surg Glob Open* 2013;1:e72.
- 105. Cornelissen AJM, Beugels J, van Kuijk SMJ, et al. Sensation of the autologous reconstructed breast improves quality of life: A pilot study. *Breast Cancer Res Treat.* 2018;167:687–695.
- 106. Park JE, Chang DW. Advances and innovations in microsurgery. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2016;138:915e–924e.
- 107. Rockson SG. Lymphedema after breast cancer treatment. N Engl J Med. 2018;379:1937–1944.
- 108. Johnson AR, Kimball S, Epstein S, et al. Lymphedema incidence after axillary lymph node dissection: Quantifying the impact of radiation and the lymphatic microsurgical preventive healing approach. *Ann Plast Surg.* 2019;82(Suppl 3): S234–S241.
- 109. Zou L, Liu FH, Shen PP, et al. The incidence and risk factors of related lymphedema for breast cancer survivors post-operation: A 2-year follow-up prospective cohort study. *Breast Cancer* 2018;25:309–314.
- 110. Chang DW, Masia J, Garza R III, Skoracki R, Neligan PC. Lymphedema: Surgical and medical therapy. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2016;138(Suppl):2098–218S.
- 111. Saaristo AM, Niemi TS, Viitanen TP, Tervala TV, Hartiala P, Suominen EA. Microvascular breast reconstruction and lymph node transfer for postmastectomy lymphedema patients. *Ann Surg*. 2012;255:468–473.
- 112. Chang EI, Masià J, Smith ML. Combining autologous breast reconstruction and vascularized lymph node transfer. *Semin Plast Surg.* 2018;32:36–41.
- 113. Nguyen AT, Chang EI, Suami H, Chang DW. An algorithmic approach to simultaneous vascularized lymph node transfer with microvascular breast reconstruction. *Ann Surg Oncol.* 2015;22:2919–2924.
- 114. Siotos C, Sebai ME, Wan EL, et al. Breast reconstruction and risk of arm lymphedema development: A meta-analysis. *J Plast Reconstr Aesthet Surg.* 2018;71:807–818.
- 115. Card A, Crosby MA, Liu J, Lindstrom WA, Lucci A, Chang DW. Reduced incidence of breast cancer-related lymphedema following mastectomy and breast reconstruction versus mastectomy alone. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2012;130:1169–1178.
- 116. Engel H, Lin CY, Huang JJ, Cheng MH. Outcomes of lymphedema microsurgery for breast cancer-related lymphedema with or without microvascular breast reconstruction. *Ann Surg.* 2018;268:1076–1083.
- 117. De Brucker B, Zeltzer A, Seidenstuecker K, Hendrickx B, Adriaenssens N, Hamdi M. Breast cancer-related lymphedema: Quality of life after lymph node transfer. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2016;137:1673–1680.

Copyright © 2020 American Society of Plastic Surgeons. Unauthorized reproduction of this article is prohibited.