

Distorted body schema after mastectomy with immediate breast reconstruction: A 4-month follow up study

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Background. After breast cancer, some patients report residual pain-related upper limb disability without physical impairment. Although pain and altered proprioception are known to affect the working body schema (WBS), there is little available evidence investigating the WBS of breast cancer survivors (BrCS). WBS—body representations in the brain—affect the “neuromatrix” that modulates pain sensitivity and the threshold for threatening stimuli. The aim of this study was to investigate whether WBS was disrupted after mastectomy with immediate breast reconstruction (IBR) for breast cancer and whether pain and proprioceptive changes affected WBS. **Methods.** Thirty-five BrCS participated in the 4-month follow-up study. They were observed at 1 and 4 months postoperatively. The main outcome measures were the left right judgement test (LRJT) results, absolute angle error, pectoralis minor length index (PMI), pain, and Quick-Disabilities of the Arm, Shoulder, and Hand (Q-DASH) score. They were measured at each observation, and parametric tests were performed to identify the nature of WBS. **Results.** Both the reaction time and accuracy of the hand LRJT were poorer than those of the foot and back LRJT ($p < 0.001$). The hand LRJT reaction time and accuracy were unchanged over the total follow-up period ($p = 0.77$ and $p = 0.47$, respectively). There was a weak correlation between the LRJT reaction time and PMI ($r = -0.26$, $p = 0.07$), pain severity ($r = 0.37$, $p = 0.02$), and Q-DASH score ($r = 0.37$, $p = 0.02$). There was also a weak correlation between LRJT accuracy and Q-DASH score ($r = -0.31$, $p = 0.04$). The LRJT accuracy of BrCS who underwent surgery on their dominant side was higher than that of BrCS who underwent surgery on their non-dominant side ($p = 0.002$). Regression analysis found a weak but significant relationship between the early hand LRJT results and late pain severity (adjusted $R^2 = 0.179$, $p = 0.007$). A similar relationship was found between early hand LRJT results and Q-DASH score (adjusted $R^2 = 0.099$, $p = 0.039$). **Conclusion.** To the

best of our knowledge, this is the first study providing the nature of WBS after mastectomy with IBR. In this population, it is necessary to postoperatively preserve WBS integrity for pain and upper limb disability.

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19

20 Abstract

21 **Background.** After breast cancer, some patients report residual pain-related upper limb
22 disability without physical impairment. Although pain and altered proprioception are known to
23 affect the working body schema (WBS), there is little available evidence investigating the WBS
24 of breast cancer survivors (BrCS). WBS—body representations in the brain—affect the
25 “neuromatrix” that modulates pain sensitivity and the threshold for threatening stimuli. The aim
26 of this study was to investigate whether WBS was disrupted after mastectomy with immediate
27 breast reconstruction (IBR) for breast cancer and whether pain and proprioceptive changes
28 affected WBS.

29 **Methods.** Thirty-five BrCS participated in the 4-month follow-up study. They were observed at
30 1 and 4 months postoperatively. The main outcome measures were the left right judgement test
31 (LRJT) results, absolute angle error, pectoralis minor length index (PMI), pain, and Quick-
32 Disabilities of the Arm, Shoulder, and Hand (Q-DASH) score. They were measured at each
33 observation, and parametric tests were performed to identify the nature of WBS.

34 **Results.** Both the reaction time and accuracy of the hand LRJT were poorer than those of the
35 foot and back LRJT ($p < 0.001$). The hand LRJT reaction time and accuracy were unchanged
36 over the total follow-up period ($p = 0.77$ and $p = 0.47$, respectively). There was a weak
37 correlation between the LRJT reaction time and PMI ($r = -0.26$, $p = 0.07$), pain severity ($r = 0.37$,
38 $p = 0.02$), and Q-DASH score ($r = 0.37$, $p = 0.02$). There was also a weak correlation between
39 LRJT accuracy and Q-DASH score ($r = -0.31$, $p = 0.04$). The LRJT accuracy of BrCS who

40 underwent surgery on their dominant side was higher than that of BrCS who underwent surgery
41 on their non-dominant side ($p = 0.002$). Regression analysis found a weak but significant
42 relationship between the early hand LRJT results and late pain severity (adjusted $R^2 = 0.179$, $p =$
43 0.007). A similar relationship was found between early hand LRJT results and Q-DASH score
44 (adjusted $R^2 = 0.099$, $p = 0.039$).

45 **Conclusion.** To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study providing the nature of WBS
46 after mastectomy with IBR. In this population, it is necessary to postoperatively preserve WBS
47 integrity for pain and upper limb disability.

48

49 Introduction

50 The increasing prevalence of breast cancer in young women has led to increased interest
51 regarding upper limb function after surgery and treatment (Kummerow et al., 2015). Limitation
52 of range of motion (LOM), decreased upper limb muscle strength (Harrington et al., 2013),
53 shortened pectoralis muscles (Lee et al., 2019; Yang et al., 2010), and altered proprioception
54 (Zabit & Iyigun, 2019) are commonly observed after breast cancer treatment. These factors
55 affect each other and are related to upper limb disability (Harrington et al., 2013; Lee et al.,
56 2019; Yang et al., 2010). Therefore, current studies recommend early free range of motion
57 (ROM) exercises (de Almeida Rizzi et al., 2020) or immediate breast reconstruction (IBR)
58 (Myung et al., 2018) for physical function recovery. However, many breast cancer survivors
59 (BrCS) still complain of upper limb dysfunction without physical dysfunction (Siqueira et al.,
60 2021). A recent study reported that pain components were associated with upper limb
61 dysfunction (Siqueira et al., 2021).

62 There are several reasons for the occurrence of pain in this population; however, the reason for
63 sustained pain in this population has rarely been discussed. In pain science, disrupted working
64 body schema (WBS) is known to delay pain and disability resolution (Moseley & Flor, 2012).
65 The WBS is stored in the sensory and motor cortices, and is able to recognize the size and
66 orientation of body parts to execute movements precisely (Holmes & Spence, 2004). Since
67 sensory input from the cortical representation of S1 affects the integrity of WBS, WBS
68 disruption would alter the movement execution (Bray & Moseley, 2011; Moseley & Flor, 2012).
69 The left right judgement test (LRJT) is the preferred tool for the evaluation of WBS disruption.
70 The test assesses the reaction time and accuracy of discrimination when the participant is asked
71 to decide the side of displayed body part images. The reaction time represents the processing
72 time in the motor cortex (Hudson et al., 2006), whereas the accuracy represents the cortical
73 proprioceptive representation (Moseley & Flor, 2012). Hand and foot LRJTs were performed to
74 evaluate upper and lower limb body representation; currently, various body part discrimination
75 tests—such as shoulder, knee, and movement direction of the neck and back—are available
76 (Breckenridge et al., 2019). The assessment ability of LRJT depends on the affected body part;
77 for example, the hand LRJT was not disrupted in participants with neck pain (Wallwork et al.,
78 2020).

79 Disrupted WBS has been reported in those with neurologic impairment (Conson et al., 2010;
80 Fiori et al., 2014), limb loss (Nico et al., 2004), proprioception alterations (Meugnot &
81 Toussaint, 2015; Silva et al., 2011), and chronic pain conditions (Breckenridge et al., 2019).
82 Although these factors are commonly observed in BrCS, only one study (Boyd et al., 2022) has
83 reported WBS disruption in this population. In this study, the LRJT results of the hand, shoulder,
84 and chest were poorer than those of control groups and the chest LRJT was affected by various
85 factors such as chemotherapy history, reconstructive surgery, and pain-related components
86 (Boyd et al., 2022). Considering that the hand and shoulder LRJT ability represent the upper
87 limb WBS (Breckenridge et al., 2019; Breckenridge et al., 2020), there was little evidence
88 reporting the assessment ability of upper limb LRJT and related factors in this population (Boyd
89 et al., 2022). Furthermore, most of the study was conducted on chronic pain participants
90 (Barbosa et al., 2021; Bray & Moseley, 2011; Breckenridge et al., 2019; Breckenridge et al.,
91 2020; Ismail et al., 2019; Magni et al., 2018; Pelletier et al., 2018a; Pelletier et al., 2018b;
92 Schmid & Coppieters, 2012; Wallwork et al., 2020; Wiebusch et al., 2021a); therefore, the effect
93 of WBS disruption on the recovery of pain and disability was less understood.

94 BrCS commonly show reduced length of the pectoralis minor after surgery (Lee et al., 2019),
95 which induces scapular protraction. Considering that altered scapular alignment affects shoulder
96 kinematics and function (Ha et al., 2016; Lee et al., 2015; Ludewig & Cook, 2000; Reinold et al.,
97 2009), this positional and muscular change may evoke pain and decline in proprioceptive
98 function (Caldwell et al., 2007; Janwantanakul et al., 2002; Voight et al., 1996). The presence of
99 pain due to the surgery (Bosompra et al., 2002) could also contribute to posture changes owing to
100 protective (Lee et al., 2019; Stubblefield & Keole, 2014), intended disuse (Zocca et al., 2018), as
101 well as cortical reorganization (Coslett et al., 2010). Therefore, these abnormal sensory inputs
102 could disrupt the upper limb WBS so that the movement execution would be adapted to the body
103 representations (Holmes & Spence, 2004). Consequently, BrCS would perceive discomfort or
104 disability, despite sufficient physical function. Therefore, we designed this follow-up study to
105 verify this scenario with the perspective of WBS.

106 The first purpose of our study was to investigate the upper limb body schema disruption along
107 the course of breast cancer treatment. We hypothesized that the hand LRJT results would be
108 poorer than the foot (remote body region) and back LRJT results (different type of LRJT and
109 movement directions) at early observations, but the differences would disappear at later
110 observations. The second purpose of the study was to identify the predictive value of WBS for
111 pain and disability. For this, we hypothesized that the early measured hand LRJT results
112 (reaction time and/or accuracy) would be directionally associated with later pain severity and
113 upper limb disability score. The third purpose of this study was to identify factors related to hand
114 LRJT results. We hypothesized that there was a directional relationship between joint-reposition
115 angle error, pectoralis minor length index (PMI), pain severity, disability level, and hand LRJT
116 results. The extent of S1 representation depends on the use (Gindrat et al., 2015) and type of
117 prosthesis (Nico et al., 2004). Gindrat et al. (2015) found continuous reshaping of sensory
118 processing via repetitive hand movements. In this way, the use of the limb improves the cortical

119 representation (Gindrat et al., 2015). Considering that the dominant arm is used more than the
120 non-dominant arm after breast cancer surgery (Fisher et al., 2020), the BrCS who underwent
121 surgery on their dominant side [DS] might have better hand LRJT results than the BrCS who
122 underwent surgery on their non-dominant side [NDS]. Nico et al. (2004) found poor
123 discrimination performance in amputees wearing prostheses compared to controls and amputees
124 not wearing prostheses. In addition, they also reported poorer performance in the amputees with
125 aesthetic prostheses than those with myo-electric prostheses, which produce the actual
126 movement. Based on their speculation that the aesthetic prostheses emphasized a mismatch
127 between the motor command and the sensory feedback, BrCS who underwent direct-to implant
128 or tissue expander insertion [DoT] would have poorer hand LRJT results than those who
129 underwent transverse rectus abdominis myocutaneous [TRAM] flap reconstruction. This is
130 because the implant or tissue expander provides poorer sensation recovery than does autologous
131 breast reconstruction (Hwang et al., 2022).

132

133 **Materials & Methods**

134 **Study design and ethical approval**

135 This study formed part of a cohort study observing BrCS after mastectomy with IBR in a clinical
136 setting. This STROBE study was designed to observe BrCS at 1 and 4 months postoperatively.
137 From August 2021 to March 2022, 67 participants were enrolled in the cohort study. Ethical
138 approval was obtained from the Seoul National University Bundang Hospital Institutional
139 Review Board (IRB No. B-2108-702-309). This study was also registered at the Clinical
140 Research Information Service (Registration No. KCT0006501). All participants provided written
141 informed consent per the guidelines of the Declaration of Helsinki.

142

143 **Participants**

144 As the study design involved two-way repeated measure analysis of variance [3 (task) * 2 (time)
145 RM ANOVA], the total sample size was calculated using the GLIMMPSSE 3.0.0 online power
146 and sample size calculation program (Kreidler et al., 2013). Using an alpha of 0.05 and power of
147 0.8, both Geisser–Greenhouse and Huynh–Feldt corrected tests recommended a sample size of
148 31. Considering a drop-out rate of 10%, 35 participants were required. Among the enrolled
149 participants who provided informed consent, participants younger than 65 years without
150 sustained pain in the leg and back were included in this study to study the effect of aging and
151 pain on the back and foot LRJT results. We conducted additional LRJTs, physical assessments,
152 and questionnaires on 35 BrCS at each visit. The second follow-up measurements ended in April
153 2022. The overall observation flow is shown in Figure 1.

154

155 **Electronic medical record review**

156 The electronic medical records were reviewed by A.K. to identify breast cancer surgery data
157 (operation date and side, mastectomy type, lumpectomy type, and reconstruction type).
158 Participants' height, weight, cancer treatment data, history of chemotherapy (yes/no), radiation

159 therapy (yes/no), tamoxifen intake (yes/no), and presence of edema (yes/no) at each visit were
160 also identified by A.K.

161

162 **LRJT**

163 Region-specific WBS was measured using LRJT. The Recognise™ Hand, Back, and Foot
164 applications (<http://www.recognise.noigroup.com/recognise/>; noigroup.com, Adelaide, Australia)
165 were administered using an iPad®. Random numbers were generated online
166 (<https://www.randomizer.org/>). The order of applications was organized according to the random
167 number. The software was set in the “vanilla” mode with 40 images and 5 s of display time for
168 each image (Wallwork et al., 2020). The participant was asked to sit on a stool, and the iPad was
169 placed on the table. To minimize orientation bias and hand dominance bias, the iPad was placed
170 in front of the participant’s midline. Next, the participant was asked to touch the “right” and
171 “left” buttons with their right and left index fingers, respectively. To avoid copying the image,
172 the participant was not allowed to move their body, but was instead requested to discriminate as
173 quickly as possible. If the decision was not made within 5 s, the next image would appear
174 automatically. Familiarization trials were provided for each application. For the familiarization
175 trial, 20 images were displayed in the vanilla mode with a 5-s display time. After a brief rest (30
176 s), two test trials were conducted with rest time between trials (Wallwork et al., 2020). After two
177 trials, a 1-min rest time was provided before performing the second-order application. Thus, a
178 total of 240 images (80 * 3) were discriminated. The reaction time (s) and accuracy (%) of each
179 side were automatically recorded by the application. In addition, results of the two sides were
180 averaged and documented for analysis. The overall procedure was supervised by A.K.

181

182 **PMI**

183 The PALpation Meter (PALM; Performance Attainment Associates, St Paul, MN, USA) was
184 used to measure the distance between the coracoid process and the fourth intercostal space
185 (Harrington et al., 2020). This was measured three times by A.K., and the data were averaged.
186 As the pectoralis minor length differs by height, the length was divided by the height for
187 normalization.

188

189 **Joint-reposition angle error**

190 The GetMyROM version 1.0 (<https://apps.apple.com/kr/app/getmyrom/id438534405>; Interactive
191 Medical productions, Hampton, NH, USA) was administered using an iPhone 11® to observe
192 real-time ROM. This mobile application is a reliable and validated goniometer to measure
193 shoulder ROM (Mejia-Hernandez et al., 2018). In a previous study (Ager et al., 2017), a
194 passive/active protocol of internal rotation in the supine position was performed. In the current
195 study, the target angle was set at 10° to avoid the sense of tightness.

196 The test position is shown in Figure 2. The arm band was fastened to hold the mobile phone, and
197 then the arm was moved to 0° (start position). When the arm was in the start position, the screen
198 was touched to record the start angle. For the test, the operated arm was moved to the target

199 angle (10°), and the position was maintained for the participant to memorize. After 5 s of
200 memorization, the arm was returned to the start position and the participant was asked to actively
201 move to the target angle. When the participant felt they had reached the target angle, they were
202 asked to stop and say “here.” When the screen was touched to record the stop angle, the total
203 ROM was automatically calculated. Three trials were conducted, and the absolute error angle
204 (difference between 10° and the total ROM) was documented. The average absolute angle error
205 was used for the analysis.

206

207 **Limitation of shoulder ROM**

208 The participant’s shoulder ROM was evaluated via the same application above. The active
209 flexion and abduction angles were tested in the sitting position, whereas the active external
210 rotation was tested in the supine position. According to the normative data, we regarded 150°
211 and 60° as the cut-off values for normal elevation and external rotation, respectively (Gill et al.,
212 2020). Thus, the average angle between flexion and abduction of $<150^\circ$ was regarded as
213 elevation limitation. Likewise, external rotation of $<60^\circ$ was regarded as external rotation
214 limitation. As pectoral tightness was the major complaint after breast cancer surgery, we
215 excluded internal rotation LOM in this study.

216

217 **Questionnaires**

218 The questionnaires for the dominant hand, pain characteristics, and disability were provided by
219 MJ. Any missing item was requested to be filled out. The dominant hand was defined as the
220 writing hand (Shiri et al., 2007); based on this, DS surgery (yes/no) was classified.

221 For pain evaluation, a simple questionnaire was provided: (1) present pain existence (yes/no), (2)
222 visual analogue scale (VAS) for severe pain intensity lasting 1 month. The question regarding
223 present pain existence was to identify whether they felt pain in the previous 1 week. VAS is an
224 11-point Likert scale (0-10, 10 indicates extreme pain such as pain during delivery) instrument to
225 subjectively evaluate pain severity.

226 For disability evaluation, the Quick-Disabilities of the Arm, Shoulder, and Hand score (Q-
227 DASH) was administered. The Q-DASH [Korean version (Lee et al., 2008)] is an easy and
228 reliable tool that validates subjective assessment to assess upper limb disability in BrCS
229 (LeBlanc et al., 2014). The Q-DASH score was normalized according to instruction (Kennedy,
230 2011). Although there is no definitive cut-off value to distinguish normal ability from upper limb
231 disability, we defined 16 as the cut-off value—based on normative data (Aasheim & Finsen,
232 2014) of the Q-DASH score among 30- to 60-year-old women.

233 At the second visit, one exercise adherence grading questionnaire was added. The exercise
234 adherence questionnaire consisted of three questions: (1) I practiced the exercise as instructed for
235 the last 3 months, (2) I practiced both exercises, and (3) I followed the instructed exercise
236 frequency. The response was graded on a 5-point Likert scale (0-4; never, rarely, sometimes,
237 often, always). The normalized exercise adherence was calculated as the average of three
238 responses multiplied by 25.

239

240 Exercise education

241 After physical assessments, instructions for two exercises to improve pectoral muscle tightness
242 and scapular stability were provided (M.J.). Detailed instructions are provided in the
243 supplemental information. Additional exercises such as yoga, pilates, and general stretching were
244 permitted.

245

246 Statistical analysis

247 All statistical analyses were performed using SPSS 26.0 (SPSS, Chicago, IL, USA). Parametric
248 tests were performed as all statistics met normality criteria (Shapiro–Wilk test and visual
249 inspection of Q-Q plot). A correlation test was performed to determine aging effect and time-
250 accuracy trade-off (i.e., slower but correct response), which would indicate incorrect
251 performance of LRJT. In all analyses, the alpha level was set at 0.05. Per-protocol analysis was
252 performed. Two RM ANOVA was performed to determine within effects and an interaction
253 effect for reaction time and accuracy. Within factors were time (2) and task (3). The LRJT results
254 were pooled to conduct Bonferroni adjustment and Tukey’s honestly significant difference
255 (HSD) test for post-hoc analysis. Two linear regressions were performed to explain post-pain
256 severity and post-Q-DASH score with early hand LRJT reaction time and accuracy. Given the
257 recommendation of at least 10 samples per variable (Kotrlík & Higgins, 2001), 34 samples were
258 enough to conduct analyses. The linear regression was performed with the stepwise method.
259 Pearson’s correlation tests were performed to examine correlations between variables (absolute
260 angle error, PMI, pain intensity, and Q-DASH score) and hand LRJT results at each visit. In
261 addition, intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) estimates for absolute angle error measurement
262 and their 95% confidence intervals were calculated based on a single measurement, absolute-
263 agreement, and a two-way mixed-effects model. For the two-way mixed-effects model, two-way
264 RM ANOVA was performed to determine a main effect for reconstruction type and surgery side,
265 and an interaction effect between the two variables.

266

267 Results**268 Participants**

269 Among 35 participants, 34 BrCS participated in the two outcome measurements. One BrCS
270 could not participate in the second visit because of newly diagnosed adhesive capsulitis.

271 Participant age and cancer-related information are shown in Table 1.

272 Over the follow-up period, physical variables such as LOM, joint position sense angle error,
273 PMI, and Q-DASH score were significantly improved. However, the LRJT results and pain
274 index remained unchanged. Table 2 summarizes all outcomes within the cohort.

275

276 Aging effect and accuracy-time trade-off

277 The one-tailed Pearson’s correlation test found no to weak correlation coefficients ($r = -0.13$ –
278 0.09) between age and hand LRJT results over time, and no correlation coefficient ($r = 0.01$ –

279 0.10) between age and foot LRJT results over time. There were only weak to moderate
280 correlation coefficients ($r = -0.49$ – -0.49 , $p = 0.00$ – 0.03) between age and back LRJT results over
281 time. Using Pearson's correlation test, we investigated whether a time-accuracy trade-off existed;
282 there were negative correlation coefficients ($r = -0.14$ to -0.58) between time and accuracy in all
283 LRJTs over time. Thus, it was justified to not consider age as a co-variate, and the LRJTs were
284 performed appropriately.

285

286 **Purpose 1: to evaluate WBS distortion and its change over time**

287 Two-way (time*task) RM ANOVA was performed to determine the main and interaction effects
288 within factors for reaction time and accuracy. For the main effect (time) of reaction time and
289 accuracy, sphericity was met as indicated by Mauchly's test (Mauchly's $W = 1.000$). For the
290 main effect (task) of reaction time and accuracy, sphericity was met as indicated by Mauchly's
291 test [$\chi^2(2) = 2.57$, $p = 0.28$ and $\chi^2(2) = 3.37$, $p = 0.19$, respectively]. For the time*task interaction
292 effect of reaction time and accuracy, sphericity was met as indicated by Mauchly's test [$\chi^2(2) =$
293 0.09 , $p = 0.95$ and $\chi^2(2) = 3.69$, $p = 0.16$, respectively]. Repeated measures ANOVA for reaction
294 time reported a main effect for the task [$F(2, 66) = 61.65$, $p = 0.00$, partial eta square = 0.65].
295 There was no main effect for time [$F(1,33) = 0.81$, $p = 0.38$, partial eta square = 0.02], and no
296 interaction effect between the task and time [$F(2,66) = 1.07$, $p = 0.35$, partial eta square = 0.03].
297 Repeated measures ANOVA for accuracy also found a main effect for the task [$F(2, 66) = 41.33$,
298 $p = 0.00$, partial eta square = 0.56]; however, there was no main effect for time [$F(1,33) = 4.04$, p
299 $= 0.05$, partial eta square = 0.11], and no interaction effect between the task and time [$F(2,66) =$
300 0.72 , $p = 0.49$, partial eta square = 0.02]. Both Bonferroni adjustment and Tukey's HSD tests for
301 multiple comparisons found that the mean value of the hand LRJTs (both reaction time and
302 accuracy) was only significantly different between that of the back and foot in both evaluations
303 ($p = 0.00$). The overall results of the analyses are shown in Figure 3.

304

305 **Purpose 2: to study the relationship between early hand LRJT results and late** 306 **pain/disability**

307 According to linear regressions, each reaction time and accuracy at the first visit could solely
308 predict pain severity and Q-DASH score at the second visit, respectively. The variance inflation
309 factor for each of the two models was 1.000 . The partial correlations between the hand LRJT
310 results (reaction time and accuracy) at the first visit and pain severity at the second visit were $r =$
311 0.45 ($p = 0.004$) and $r = -0.21$ ($p = 0.12$), respectively. The partial correlations between the hand
312 LRJT results (reaction time and accuracy) at the first visit and the Q-DASH score at the second
313 visit were $r = 0.27$ ($p = 0.06$) and $r = -0.36$ ($p = 0.02$), respectively. Although the significant
314 models were reported, the explanation power was weak (Chin, 1998). Results of regression
315 analyses for each dependent variable are described in Table 3.

316

317 **Purpose 3: to identify factors affecting hand LRJT results**

318 At the first visit, there were no significantly correlated variables. The absolute error angle had no
319 correlation with reaction time and accuracy ($r = -0.06$ and -0.01 , $p = 0.36$ and 0.47 , respectively).
320 Additionally, PMI had a very weak negative correlation with reaction time and accuracy ($r = -$
321 0.19 and -0.16 , $p = 0.14$ and 0.18 , respectively). Pain severity (VAS) had a very weak positive
322 correlation with reaction time and accuracy ($r = 0.18$ and 0.11 , $p = 0.15$ and 0.27 , respectively).
323 The Q-DASH score also had a very weak correlation with reaction time and accuracy ($r = 0.14$
324 and -0.13 , $p = 0.22$ and 0.22 , respectively).

325 At the second visit, there were weak and significantly correlated variables. The absolute error
326 angle showed no correlation with reaction time and accuracy ($r = -0.04$ and 0.08 , $p = 0.41$ and
327 0.32 , respectively). The PMI had a weak negative correlation with the reaction time ($r = -0.26$, p
328 $= 0.07$); however, there was no correlation with accuracy ($r = -0.07$, $p = 0.36$). Pain severity
329 (VAS) correlated weakly, yet significantly, with reaction time ($r = 0.37$, $p = 0.02$); however, the
330 correlation of VAS with accuracy was weak and insignificant ($r = -0.19$, $p = 0.14$). The Q-DASH
331 score had a weak and significant correlation with reaction time and accuracy ($r = 0.37$ and -0.31 ,
332 $p = 0.02$ and 0.04 , respectively). A poor-to-moderate degree (Koo & Li, 2016) of reliability was
333 found between the absolute angle error measurements over the follow-up period. The single
334 measure ICC (3,1) was 0.60 with a 95% confidence interval (CI) of 0.42 – 0.75 [$F(34,68) = 5.66$,
335 $p = 0.00$] at the first evaluation and 0.42 with a 95% CI of 0.21 – 0.62 [$F(33,66) = 3.25$, $p = 0.00$]
336 at the second evaluation.

337 Two-way RM ANOVA found no main effect of both reconstruction type and surgery side on
338 reaction time [$F(1,30) = 2.48$, $p = 0.13$ and $F(1,30) = 1.35$, $p = 0.26$, respectively]. Two-way RM
339 ANOVA also found no interaction effect of reaction time between reconstruction type and
340 surgery side [$F(1,30) = 2.68$, $p = 0.11$]. Although two-way RM ANOVA reported no main effect
341 of reconstruction type on accuracy [$F(1,30) = 0.01$, $p = 0.91$], there was a main effect of surgery
342 side on accuracy [$F(1,30) = 11.06$, $p = 0.00$]. However, there was no interaction effect for
343 accuracy between the two variables [$F(1,30) = 0.02$, $p = 0.90$]. The estimated marginal mean
344 (EM mean) of the accuracy of DS [$M = 82.42$, 95% CI (79.50, 85.34)] was significantly higher
345 than that of NDS [$M = 75.25$, 95% CI (71.96, 78.54)] ($p = 0.002$). In addition, there was no
346 interaction effect between time and surgery side [$F(1,30) = 1.77$, $p = 0.19$]. The EM mean of the
347 accuracy of the DS at the first visit was 82.78 [95% CI (78.91, 86.65)], whereas that of the DS at
348 the second visit was 82.06 [95% CI (78.78, 85.34)]. The EM mean of accuracy of the NDS at the
349 first visit was 73.57 [95% CI (69.21, 77.93)], whereas that of the NDS at the second visit was
350 76.93 [95% CI (73.23, 80.62)].

351

352 Discussion

353 This study aimed to investigate WBS after mastectomy with IBR using LRJT and to identify
354 factors associated with WBS. The participants were in their forties. Considering the highest
355 incidence rate in individuals aged 40–49 years in South Korea (Kang et al., 2020), the sample
356 could be representative of the population. During the follow-up, participants' physical variables
357 such as arm elevation limitation, reposition angle error, PMI, and Q-DASH score were

358 improved, whereas the pain severity and hand LRJT results remained unchanged. Interestingly,
359 only a few BrCS showed the external rotation LOM; this may indicate that cancer treatment,
360 including chemotherapy, radiation therapy, and tamoxifen intake, did not evoke capsular
361 restriction. In addition, the instructed exercises likely contributed to improve physical variables,
362 but not the WBS

363

364 **Primary findings**

365 The first purpose of the study was to define differences between the results of LRJTs (hand, foot,
366 and back). Based on our results, our hypotheses were partially proved. Two-way RM ANOVA
367 and post-hoc analysis revealed a slower reaction time and poorer accuracy of the hand LRJT than
368 that of the other two tasks. As we did not include a control group in this study, these additional
369 comparisons should be performed referring to previous studies. One study compared the hand
370 LRJT results of BrCS to that of healthy controls; this study reported reaction times and
371 accuracies of 2.842 s and 81.46% for healthy controls and 3.229 s and 76.28% for BrCS,
372 respectively (Boyd et al., 2022). Our study results showed faster reaction times and similar
373 accuracy in BrCS compared with the findings of this previous study (Boyd et al., 2022). These
374 differences may be owing to the older age of the control group in the previous study, longer
375 response times provided (8,000 ms), and the possibility of the image being copied by the
376 participant owing to the test environment (Boyd et al., 2022). However, since previous studies
377 have reported a 2 s reaction time and 90% accuracy within the no pain group in hand LRJT
378 (Breckenridge et al., 2019; Wallwork et al., 2020), it is reasonable to report that BrCS showed
379 poor proprioceptive representations during follow-up. In our present study, the processing time
380 of the BrCS was not severely delayed (1.9 s reaction time); however, they had poor accuracy
381 (80%) during the hand LRJT. In addition, the discrimination ability did not improve over the
382 follow-up period. According to a previous study (Harms et al., 2020) comparing the effects of
383 standard care and brain-targeted intervention for knee osteoarthritis, accuracy improved in the
384 standard care group, whereas in the brain-targeted intervention group, accuracy was maintained
385 (Harms et al., 2020). The author stated that standard care—including strengthening and
386 mobilization—might require participants to pay close attention to their knee, and regular exercise
387 might improve proprioceptive input, subsequently increasing the accuracy (Harms et al., 2020).
388 However, performing pectoral stretching and strengthening the scapular stabilizer would not be
389 sufficient to improve discrimination ability. Considering the recommendation to restore WBS
390 (through targeted intervention) for limb and face conditions, but not for back and neck conditions
391 (Breckenridge et al., 2019), this population would require exercise and brain-targeted
392 interventions.

393 The second aim of the study was to find the predictive value of the hand LRJT for future pain
394 and upper limb disability. Based on our results, the hypothesis was proven correct. Each hand
395 LRJT reaction time and accuracy at the first visit significantly predicted pain severity and upper
396 limb disability (Q-DASH score) at the second visit, respectively. Disrupted WBS is reportedly
397 associated with the fear of movement, catastrophizing (Araya-Quintanilla et al., 2020), and

398 declined cognition (Pelletier et al., 2018a). Since WBS is the cortical representation, complex
399 interactions between the physical body and neuro-matrix may have modulated the subjective
400 symptoms. In other words, the patients' subjective evaluation of pain or disability could be
401 devaluated because of the interaction. As people usually make use of their dominant arm after
402 any surgery, the sense of movement success could reduce the feeling of pain or disability. Owing
403 to the low explanation power, our study did not show WBS to be a powerful predictor of future
404 pain and disability. However, it is worth considering WBS at the early stages to facilitate
405 improvement of pain and disability in rehabilitation intervention after mastectomy with IBR. In
406 addition, there were significant correlations between LRJT accuracy and Q-DASH score at the
407 second visit. Over the follow-up period, 9 participants reported limitation of arm elevation,
408 whereas 18 reported upper limb disability. Based on these results, the LRJT should be evaluated
409 from the first postoperative month to provide preventive or curative rehabilitation.

410

411 **Secondary findings**

412 For the last purpose of this study, we investigated factors affecting the hand LRJT results over
413 the follow-up period. We hypothesized that various postoperative factors might affect the
414 integrity of WBS. Based on the correlation coefficient, our hypothesis that WBS would be
415 directly associated with pain severity and disability level was partially supported. Although a
416 different LRJT was used, Boyd et al. (2022) reported a regression model predicting chest LRJT
417 results with various components. In the study, DASH score was one of the variables predicting
418 accuracy, whereas the pain severity—using brief pain inventory—was one of the variables
419 predicting reaction time (Boyd et al., 2022). Breckenridge et al. (2020) also reported a significant
420 regression model predicting shoulder LRJT results with current pain and disability level using
421 the Shoulder Pain and Disability Index (SPADI) (Breckenridge et al., 2020). Although
422 heterogeneity of pain duration was present, reaction time and accuracy were increased and
423 decreased, respectively, when the current pain intensity increased (Breckenridge et al., 2020).
424 Only the accuracy decreased when the SPADI score increased, which indicates severe disability
425 level (Breckenridge et al., 2020). In contrast, another study (Barbosa et al., 2021) reported no
426 correlation between pain intensity and shoulder LRJT results within chronic shoulder pain
427 conditions (Barbosa et al., 2021). However, there are studies that reported no correlation between
428 LRJT results and pain intensity or disability level in populations with upper limb pain conditions
429 such as lateral elbow tendinopathy (Wiebusch et al., 2021a), unilateral carpal tunnel syndrome
430 (Schmid & Coppieters, 2012), wrist/hand disorder (Pelletier et al., 2018b), and hand
431 osteoarthritis (Magni et al., 2018). Therefore, the results of these previous studies indicate that
432 the correlation between pain intensity and upper limb disability depends on the condition and
433 pain duration. Our present study results, which report a significant correlation between LRJT
434 results and pain intensity or Q-DASH score in BrCS, were only significant at 4 months
435 postoperatively, and not at 1 month postoperatively. However, we failed to support our
436 hypothesis that the reposition angle error, which represents proprioception and pectoralis minor
437 length, would have an impact on the hand LRJT results. In addition, there were very weak to no

438 correlations at the first visit, whereas the correlations at the second visit were weak and
439 significant. The reason we did not find any correlations in the early observation may be because
440 the most effective factors in this stage would be sensory deficits or psychological changes, rather
441 than the variables of interest in this study. After surgery, patients commonly complain of
442 numbness (Bosompra et al., 2002), concerns of movement (Van der Gucht et al., 2020), and fear
443 of recurrence (Koch et al., 2014). Compared with the arm on the contralateral side, the operated
444 arm is therefore commonly moved less. A previous study showed that activity in the non-
445 dominant arm was significantly lower than that in the dominant arm postoperatively (Fisher et
446 al., 2020). Furthermore, we did not find a significant correlation between WBS and
447 proprioceptive components such as reposition angle error and PMI at the second visit. We
448 speculate that altered proprioceptive accuracy and scapular position might be representative of
449 the altered proprioceptive cortical maps. This might be because the source of the proprioceptive
450 input was not peripheral. Previous studies reported no disruption of WBS in participants with
451 ligament deficits (Ismail et al., 2019) and lateral elbow tendinopathy, who showed altered joint
452 position sense (Wiebusch et al., 2021b). However, other studies have reported a slower reaction
453 time after hand immobilization (Meugnot et al., 2016; Meugnot & Toussaint, 2015; Toussaint et
454 al., 2021). Given the results of our present study, as well as those of previous studies, the cortical
455 map alterations may be due to the disuse of or decreased activity level of the upper limb, not the
456 accuracy of such. This assumption may be supported by the significant main effect of the surgery
457 side. In this study, the BrCS who underwent surgery on their DS performed the hand LRJT more
458 accurately than those who underwent surgery on their NDS. Even though the accuracy was
459 improved in the NDS group, this improvement was not significant. Although the instructed
460 exercise would increase the activity level, it might be insufficient in the NDS group. In contrast,
461 accuracy was maintained in the DS group, which might show that they have already used their
462 dominant arm to some extent, and the exercise did not change the activity level. Thus, it is
463 possible to conclude that insufficient movement of the limb may affect WBS integrity.
464 In addition, Nico et al. (2004) and Meugnot & Toussaint (2015) reported that the effect of limb
465 loss and 48-hour hand immobilization on LRJT was larger in the dominant hand, as the dominant
466 hand was more affected by the level of physical activity (Meugnot & Toussaint, 2015). Nico et
467 al. (2004) also reported the effect of wearing prostheses in upper limb amputees; the amputees
468 wearing prostheses performed LRJTs more poorly than did controls and those not wearing
469 prostheses. In addition, there were differences in LRJT results between the different types of
470 prostheses. Two amputees wearing myo-electric prostheses, which allow specific thumb and
471 wrist movements through residual forearm muscle contractions, performed slightly better than
472 did other amputees wearing aesthetic prostheses. Based on this previous study, we formulated
473 our hypothesis predicting better LRJT results in the TRAM group than that in the DoT group.
474 However, there was no difference between the two groups in our study. This might be because
475 the upper limb usage was not dependent upon the breast reconstruction material. In conclusion,
476 the surgery side (DS or NDS), but not the reconstruction type (TRAM or DoT), should be
477 considered when evaluating LRJT in BrCS.

478 To the best of our knowledge, this is the first cohort study to investigate WBS in BrCS who
479 underwent mastectomy with IBR. Despite the very weak to weak correlations, we investigated
480 the relationships between LRJT results and physical functions that affect upper limb disability.
481 Our study findings indicate that it is worth investigating WBS in BrCS who underwent
482 mastectomy with IBR, and targeted intervention for WBS may be effective in improving upper
483 limb pain and disability. In addition, the homogeneity within the population, as well as the
484 timing of the evaluation, strengthened the value of this study.
485 This study has various limitations that need to be considered for interpretation. First, we did not
486 include a control group (healthy control or surgery-type control). Therefore, additional
487 comparison with previous studies is necessary to confirm our results regarding disrupted hand
488 WBS. Second, we modified the method to evaluate the absolute angle error. We analyzed the
489 test-retest reliability to cover this limitation. However, there were poor-to-moderate ICC (3,1).
490 Furthermore, we did not assess other sensory aspects such as the two-point discrimination test
491 and upper limb activity level. Therefore, we could only assume the relationship between
492 proprioception and WBS. Lastly, we only followed up for 4 months after surgery. It is unclear
493 whether this result would be the same at 4–5 months or more postoperatively.
494

495 **Conclusions**

496 We demonstrated the distorted WBS and its associated factors in BrCS who underwent
497 mastectomy with IBR. The surgery side (DS or NDS), as well as increases in pain intensity and
498 disability level, were shown to alter WBS integrity. This study indicates that mastectomy with
499 IBR may be accompanied by maladaptive proprioceptive map changes; therefore, postoperative
500 evaluation and targeted intervention of WBS may be useful in this population. This finding
501 reporting a significant correlation between LRJT accuracy and Q-DASH score at later
502 observation (when many BrCS still reported upper limb disability without arm elevation
503 limitation) also provides evidence for upper limb disability without shoulder ROM limitation.
504 Considering the limitations of our present study, future studies investigating the effect of WBS-
505 targeted intervention on upper limb pain and disability in this population are necessary to
506 confirm our results. In future studies, the very early postoperative effect of brain-targeted
507 intervention on pain, ROM, and upper limb disability improvement should be investigated to
508 recommend the specific intervention for the immobilized phase after surgery.
509

510 **Acknowledgements**

511 We would like to thank Editage (www.editage.co.kr) for English language editing.
512

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Figure 1

Figure 1: Overall flowchart of the study.

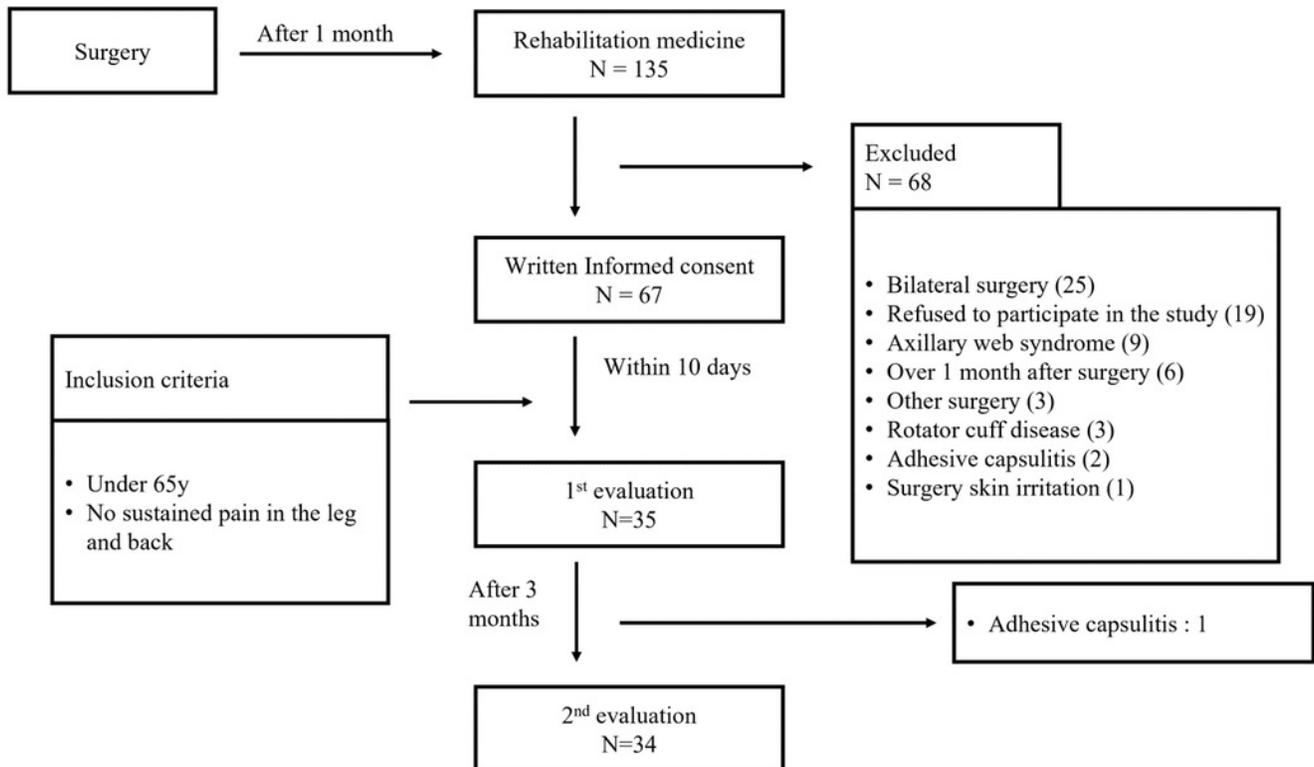


Figure 2

Figure 2: Measurement of the joint reposition angle error

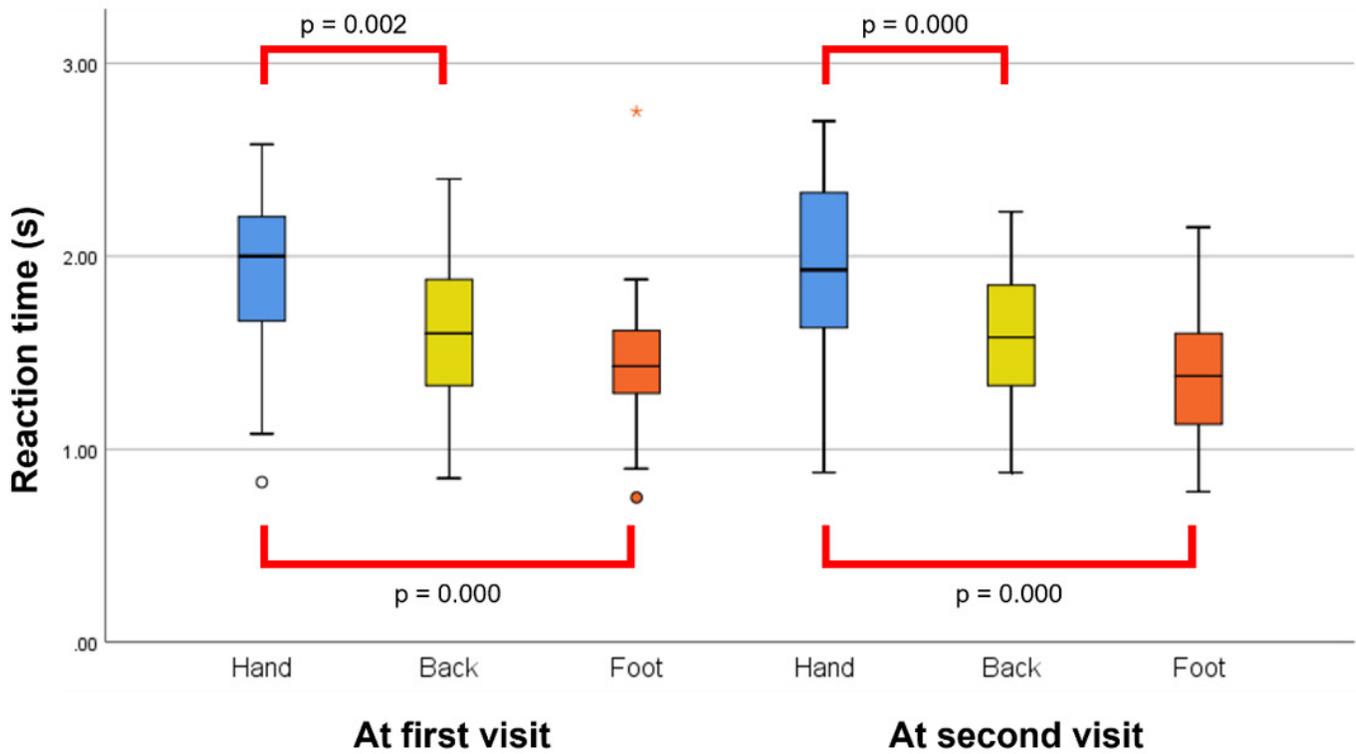


Figure 3

Figure 3: Group differences in the left/right judgement test over the follow-up period

(A) shows group differences in the reaction time. (B) shows group differences in the accuracy. The red line indicates the significant post-hoc Bonferroni analysis and Tukey's test findings for this comparison, performed following an overall main effect of task. The p-value of both post-hoc analyses were identical. The blue line indicates the significant paired t-test findings.

A. Reaction Time



B. Accuracy

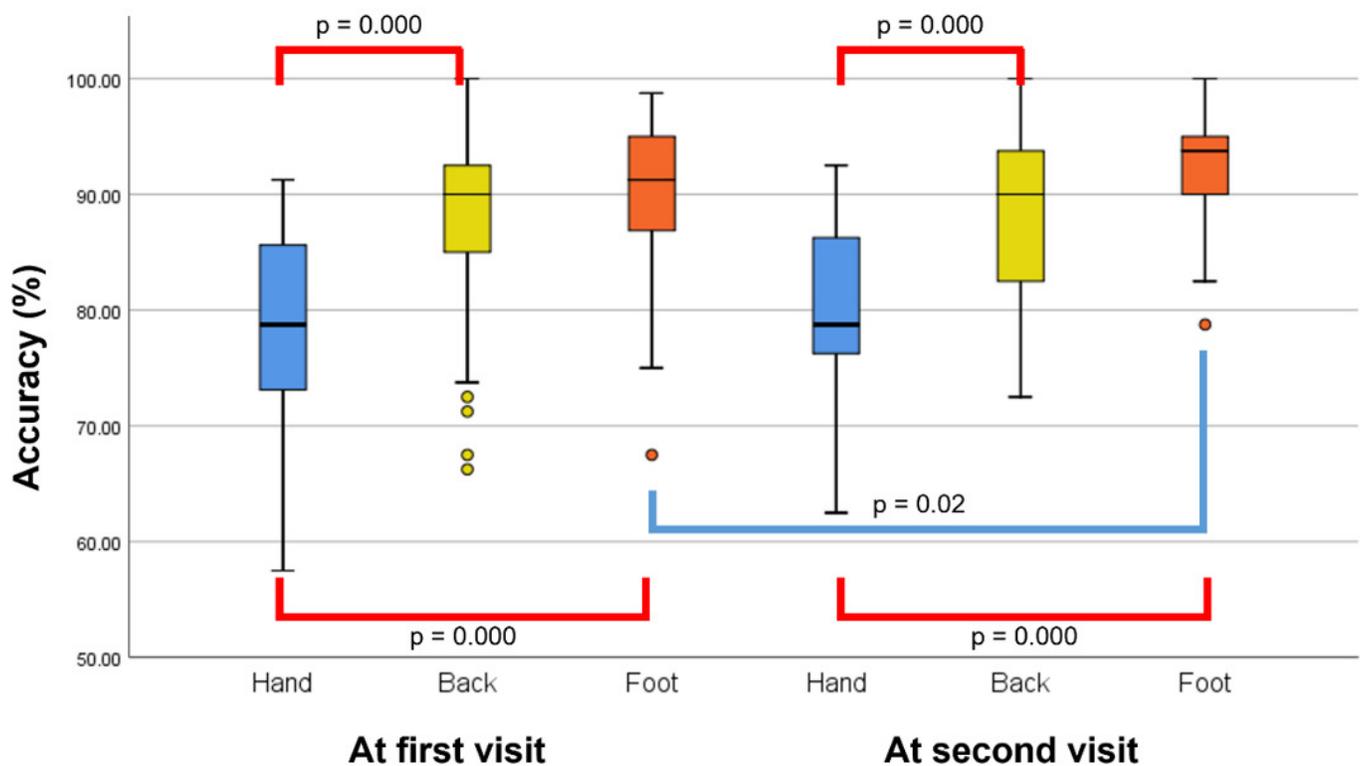


Table 1 (on next page)

Participant age and cancer-related information

Results are expressed as frequencies unless otherwise specified. SD, standard deviation; is, carcinoma in situ; SLNB, sentinel lymph node biopsy; ALND, axillary lymph node dissection; TRAM, transverse rectus abdominis myocutaneous flap; DoT, direct-to-implant or tissue expander insertion.

1 **Table 1:**2 **Participant age and cancer-related information**

Category	Frequencies
Age (years), mean (SD)	45.23 (1.174)
Tumor stage (is/1/2/3)	3/17/13/2
Node stage (0/1/2/3)	25/6/2/2
Type of mastectomy	
Nipple sparing/Skin sparing/Total	26/6/3
Type of lymph node dissection	
None/SLNB/ALND/Both	1/26/4/4
Type of Reconstruction	
TRAM/DoT	17/18
Surgery side (Right/Left)	18/17
Surgery on dominant side (yes/no)	20/15

Results are expressed as frequencies unless otherwise specified.

SD, standard deviation; is, carcinoma in situ; SLNB, sentinel lymph node biopsy; ALND, axillary lymph node dissection; TRAM, transverse rectus abdominis myocutaneous flap; DoT, direct-to-implant or tissue expander insertion.

3

Table 2 (on next page)

Mean and standard deviation of the assessments

^aPaired t-test(two-tailed); ^bMcNemar test; *p-value<0.05; **p-value<0.01 Results are expressed as frequencies and mean (SD). SD, standard deviation; ROM, range of motion; LRJT, left right judgement test; VAS, visual analogue scale; DASH, disabilities of the arm, shoulder, and hand Quick DASH scores over 16 are classified into the upper limb disability group.

1 **Table 2:**
 2 **Mean and standard deviation of the assessments**

Category	First visit	Second visit	P value
Sample size	35	34	N/A
Height (cm)	161.65 (4.63)	162.18 (4.63)	0.00***a
Weight (kg)	58.13 (6.65)	58.13 (6.21)	0.93 ^a
Postoperative day	39.31 (7.66)	119.50 (16.86)	0.00***a
History of chemotherapy (yes/no)	18/17	20/14	0.69 ^b
History of radiation therapy (yes/no)	6/29	11/23	0.13 ^b
History of tamoxifen intake (yes/no)	11/24	17/17	0.15 ^b
Presence of edematous arm (yes/no)	5/30	6/28	1.00 ^b
ROM limitation of elevation (yes/no)	22/13	9/25	0.00***b
ROM limitation of external rotation (yes/no)	5/30	5/29	1.00 ^b
LRJT reaction time (s)			
Hand	1.92 (0.40)	1.95 (0.45)	0.77 ^a
Back	1.61 (0.38)	1.58 (0.35)	0.27 ^a
Foot	1.45 (0.36)	1.41 (0.33)	0.15 ^a
LRJT accuracy (%)			
Hand	78.71 (8.99)	79.82 (7.19)	0.47 ^a
Back	87.57 (8.59)	88.68 (6.86)	0.27 ^a
Foot	89.50 (7.32)	92.32 (5.02)	0.02***a
Joint-reposition angle error (°)	3.37 (2.18)	2.06 (1.27)	0.00***a
Pectoralis minor length index	9.81 (0.38)	10.28 (0.29)	0.00***a
Present pain (yes/no)	27/8	20/14	0.15 ^b
VAS-severe pain (0-10, 0 means no pain)	4.31 (2.54)	4.18 (2.72)	0.96 ^a
Quick DASH score (0-100, 0 means no disability)	28.77 (15.70)	22.53 (16.35)	0.02***a
Upper limb disability (yes/no)	27/8	18/16	0.04 ^b
Exercise adherence score (0-100, 0 means no exercise adherence)		58.09 (20.57)	N/A

^aPaired t-test(two-tailed); ^bMcNemar test; *p-value<0.05; **p-value<0.01

Results are expressed as frequencies and mean (SD).

SD, standard deviation; ROM, range of motion; LRJT, left right judgement test; VAS, visual analogue scale; DASH, disabilities of the arm, shoulder, and hand

Quick DASH scores over 16 are classified into the upper limb disability group.

3

Table 3 (on next page)

Results of the regression analyses

^aOne-second increase in reaction time at 1 month postoperatively, associated with a 3.165-point higher severe pain intensity. ^bOne percent point increase in accuracy at 1 month postoperatively, associated with a 0.637-point lower Q-DASH score. *p-value<0.05; **p-value<0.01 RT, reaction time at 1 month postoperatively; ACC, accuracy at 1 month postoperatively; Q-DASH, quick disabilities of the arm, shoulder, and hand

1 **Table 3:**
 2 **Results of the regression analyses**

Variables	Unstandardized Coefficient B	Standard Error	Standardized Coefficient B	<i>t</i>	Significance
(A) Regression model for pain severity					
R=0.452	R ² =0.204	Adjusted R ² =0.179	F(1,32)=8.212	0.007**	
Constant	-1.961	2.183		-0.898	0.376
RT ^a	3.165	1.104	0.452	2.866	0.007**
(B) Regression model for the Q-DASH score					
R=0.356	R ² =0.126	Adjusted R ² =0.099	F(1,32)=4.632	0.039*	
Constant	72.658	23.445		3.099	0.004**
ACC ^b	-0.637	0.296	-0.356	-2.152	0.039*

^aOne-second increase in reaction time at 1 month postoperatively, associated with a 3.165-point higher severe pain intensity.

^bOne percent point increase in accuracy at 1 month postoperatively, associated with a 0.637-point lower Q-DASH score.

*p-value<0.05; **p-value<0.01

RT, reaction time at 1 month postoperatively; ACC, accuracy at 1 month postoperatively; Q-DASH, quick disabilities of the arm, shoulder, and hand

3