Treatment of Post-Mastectomy Lymphedema with Laser Therapy: Double Blind Placebo Control Randomized Study

Mohammed Taher Ahmed Omar, PT.D.,^{*,1} Anwar Abd-EL-Gayed Ebid, PT.D.,[†] and Ahmed Mohammed El Morsy, M.D.[‡]

*Lecturer Physical Therapy, Faculty of Physical Therapy, Cairo, Egypt. Member of International Panel of Advisory Board for Indian Journal of Physiotherapy and Occupational Therapy; †Lecturer Physical Therapy, Faculty of Physical Therapy, Cairo, Egypt; and ‡Consultant of Surgery, Department of General Surgery, El-Mataria Teaching Hospital, Cairo, Egypt

Submitted for publication February 10, 2010

Background. In post-mastectomy patients, lymphedema has the potential to become a permanent progressive condition and become extremely resistant to treatment. Thus, it can results in function impairment and decrease quality of life. The aim of this study was to evaluate the effect of low level laser therapy (LLLT) on limb volume, shoulder mobility, and hand grip strength.

Material and Methods. Fifty women with breast cancer-related lymphedema were enrolled in a double-blind, placebo controlled trial. Patients were randomly assigned to active laser (n = 25) and placebo (n = 25) groups and received irradiation with Ga-As laser device that had wavelength of 904 nm, power of 5 mW, and spot size of 0.2 cm² over the axillary and arm areas, three times a week for 12 wk. The total energy applied at each point was 300 mjoules over seven points, giving a dosage of 1.5 joules/cm² in the active group. The placebo group received placebo therapy in which the laser had been disabled without affecting its apparent function. Limb circumference, shoulder mobility, and grip strength were measured before treatment and at 4, 8, and 12 wk.

Results. The two groups had similar parameters at baseline. The reduction of limb volume tended to decline in both groups. The trend being more significantly pronounced in active LLLT group than placebo at 8 and 12 wk, respectively (P < 0.05). Goniometric data for shoulder mobility and hand grip strength were statistically significance for LLLT group than for placebo.

Conclusion. Laser treatment was found to be effective in reducing the limb volume, increase shoulder mobility, and hand grip strength in approximately 93% of patients with postmastectomy lymphedema. © 2011 Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved.

Key Words: LLLT; postmastectomy lymphedema; breast cancer.

INTRODUCTION

Lymphedema is the accumulation of protein rich interstitial fluid as a result of impaired lymphatic function [1]. Lymphedema related to breast cancer treatment may result from surgical removal of lymph nodes and lymphatic drainage pathways. Further damage to the lymphatic system may result from soft tissue fibrosis following inflammation, infection, or radiation and chemotherapy [2].

The incidence and prevalence of breast cancer related lymphedema vary considerably in the literature due to lack of consistency in defining lymphedema, variation in the measurement techniques, and in the length of patient follow-up [3]. A recent review reported that lymphedema remains an important problem in women treated for breast cancer, occurring in 12% to 28% of the cases even with modern therapies [2, 4, 5]. Another study of women with either modified or radical mastectomy plus axillary dissection found that lymphedema was at least reported by 62.5% of participants, as evaluated by questionnaire and arm circumferential self-measurements [6].

The breast cancer related lymphedema can lead to a feeling of heaviness, discomfort, weakness, pain, and restricted shoulder mobility in the involved extremity



¹ To whom correspondence and reprint requests should be addressed at Cairo University, Faculty of Physical Therapy, Physical Therapy Department for Surgery, 7 Ahmed Elziat Street, Giza, Egypt. E-mail: Dr.Taher_M@Yahoo.Com.

[7, 8]. Functionally, the distended tissue and the increased weight of the limb may result in impairment of upper extremity range of motion. This impairment has important implications because such difficulties in function influence daily living activities such as washing the hair, putting on clothing, and reaching for objects overhead, as well as psychologic aspect [9, 10].

The impairment of shoulder rang of motion is limited in up to 45% (24) of patients who have had sentinel node biopsy, and 86% (31) of patients who have undergone axillary dissection [11]. Clinical experience reveals that in moderate to severe cases, women often complain that there is a loss of power in the arm and hand grip and easily fatigued with use [9]. The authors concluded that more aggressive breast cancer treatments, such as mastectomy *versus* breast conserving surgery, and axillary node dissection *versus* sentinel node biopsy, are associated with greater deficits in shoulder range of motion [12–14].

Range of motion restrictions of the ipsilateral arm are almost universal and are a result of tissue manipulation and positioning during surgery. Even if successful resolution of surgery-induced ROM restrictions occurs, lymphedema, by itself, can cause ROM limitations of the shoulder, elbow, and wrist. As the expanding subcutaneous tissues reach maximum capacity, tissue spaces that are necessary for free movement of the joints become full of fluid, and joint mobility can be severely reduced. The sheer weight of the arm further limits movement, can negatively alter posture, and can reduce the functional abilities necessary for independent activities of daily living [15–17].

Treatment of lymphedema is difficult and multidisciplinary in nature, and even in the best outcome, costly and time-consuming. Therapy available for lymphedema can be divided into pharmacological, surgery, and rehabilitation. The latter is a multidisciplinary and comprehensive approach incorporating specialized massage, skin care, bandaging, exercises, pneumatic pump, and complex decongestive therapy [18].

Low-level laser therapy (LLLT) is reported to have beneficial effect on cell and tissues. These remarkable effects are reported for treatment of broad range of conditions such as musculoskeletal disorders [19, 20], wound healing problem, and scarring [21, 22]. Yet, few studies regarding the benefit of LLLT in the treatment of postmastectomy lymphedema have been reported [1, 23, 24]. It has been suggested that LLLT encourages lymphangiogenesis and stimulation of lymphatic motoricity as well as stimulation of macrophage cell and to stimulate the immune system [7]. Therefore, the purpose of this prospective, doubleblind, placebo controlled randomized study was conducted to evaluate the effects of LLLT in the management of breast cancer related lymphedema.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Subjects

Fifty-eight women were eligible for the study if they had undergone breast cancer surgery including axillary node dissection for stages II or III breast cancer and had subsequently developed unilateral lymphedema that was defined as an increase in arm circumference at any level by 2 cm and less than 8 cm compared with the contralateral side. A cut-off value of 2 cm (circumference difference) was the most common definition for lymphedema [25-28]. A difference in arm circumference of more than 8 cm represented severe lymphedema [29], and they excluded from the study. To control for other variables that may have affected the results of the study, subjects were excluded from the study if (1) they had current metastases, continuing radiotherapy, cellulites, venous thrombosis, chronic inflammatory diseases, history of sever trauma; (2) photosensitivity that made laser therapy prohibitive; (3) medication that affects body fluid and electrolyte balance; (4) history of physical therapy other than skin care, home exercises, and bandaging directed to lymphedema within the previous 6 mo (one) and (five) patients with bilateral lymphedema were also excluded because the contralateral normal limb was needed to predicate percentage of lymphedema [23]. All subjects participated in double blind, randomized, placebo control study. To avoid a type II error, a preliminary power analysis (power = 0.90, α =0.05, effect size = 0.65) determined a sample size of 50 for this study. This effect size was chosen because it yielded a realistic sample size [30]. Subjects were recruited from outpatient clinic at National Cancer Institute and Mataria Teaching Hospital, Cairo, Egypt, and all patients signed an informed consent. Then we generated a computerized random number list and the subject allocation sequence was created from the list. The patients met with the evaluator therapist who conducted the assessments. The therapist was blinded to the group assignment. Following their assessments, the patients were randomly assigned to either active laser or placebo groups. Therefore, neither patients nor the evaluator therapist knew who was in which group.

Measurements

All patients were evaluated every 4 wk for 12 wk, beginning with the baseline measurement, producing a total of four measurements. Follow-up assessment of lymphedema was conducted at 16 wk.

Assessment of Lymphedema

Although various methods exist for assessing the quantity and quality of lymphedema, the most commonly used assessment technique involves measuring the circumference of limb at several points along its length [31-33]. The arm circumference measurements were taken with the subjects in a prone position, arms relaxed by their sides, and elbows straight. Both arms were measured at each test date. Circumference was measured every 3 cm beginning at the ulnar styloid process and continuing 45 cm proximally, as well as at the metacarpals and mid-hand, which indicated presence of hand edema. The measuring tape was placed around the extremity so that there was no slack but also that there was no indentation in the tissue. The sum circumference of the normal side was calculated likewise. The difference between these two was considered as "circumference difference" [23, 34]. Reliability of the circumference measurements, expressed as an intra-class correlation, ranged from 0.96 to 0.99 for both surgical and contralateral upper extremities, and the standard error of measurement was reported as 0.09 cm to 0.20 cm [31].

 $\begin{array}{c} CL \ _{affected} _ CL \ _{normal} = CD \\ CD \ _{n} _ CD_{0} = TRC \end{array}$

Where:

${ m CL}$ affected	Circumference of affected limb for all anatomical
	points
CL normal	Circumference of normal limb for all anatomical
	points
CD	Circumference difference of two limbs
CD_n	Circumference differences at each follow up session
CD_0	Circumference difference at pretreatment session
TRC	Total reduction in circumference

Assessment of Hand Grip Strength

Grip strength was measured by portable hand Jamar dynamometer (Lafayette Instrument 78010 Hand Dynamometer; Lafayette Instrument Co., Loughboroug, Leics, UK), the measurements were made while the patients were seated in a chair with a back, with the shoulder adducted, elbow flexed 90° and forearm in neutral rotation. A mean of three trials was calculated, with a 15 s rest between each of the three contractions [35]. Mathiowetz [36] reported the inter-rater reliability in his norm study to have an ICC of 0.99 for reading a dynamometer. Peolsson *et al.* [37] found the inter-rater reliability ICC to be 0.98 for handgrip using the Jamar dynamometer.

Assessment of the Shoulder Mobility

A standard plastic goniometer was used to measure active ROM for shoulder flexion, abduction, and external rotation. For measurement the patient was placed supine with the thorax firmly strapped to the table to prevent body shift, which would tend to compensate for movement of the shoulder. The reliability (r > 0.84) of this goniometric measurement technique for the assessment of shoulder ROM has been shown previously [38]. In addition, measurements of active ROM tend to be more reliable than measurements of passive ROM [39, 40]. Most likely, this is because passive ROM is influenced by the degree of force exerted by the examiner upon a subject's limb at the end range of motion. Differences in passive stretch imposed by the examiner will affect the ultimate measurement of passive ROM; active ROM measurements are not affected by variations in the examiner's manipulations [41, 42].

For shoulder flexion, the arms were initially relaxed at the side of the body (neutral position of 0°); the arm under test was raised in a sagittal plane from 0 to 180°, but affected arm was raised to the limit of pain. For shoulder abduction, the normal arm was moved away from the side of the body in a coronal plane from 0 to 180°, but affected arm was moved to the limit of pain. For shoulder external rotation, the normal arm was abducted to 90°, and the elbow flexed 90°, with forearm in pronation, movement at radioulnar joint where the palm facing downward toward the floor or facing the feet, but the other arm moved according to pain.

Intervention

Patients in the active laser group received irradiation with (Ga-As laser device that had wavelength of 904 nm, power of 5 mW, and spot size of 0.2 cm² (RianCorp Pty Ltd., Henley Beach, South Australia, Australia; Pagani IR27/4), average of 1.5 J/cm² dosage delivered continuously for 20 min, with pulse duration of 50 ns, and maximum frequency of 2800 Hz, three times per week for 36 sessions. Laser therapy was administered at three points on the antecubital fossa (modified from Kozanoglu *et al.* [1] and at seven points on the axilla modified from Carati *et al.* [7] where the lymph nodes accumulated. (The axillary zone is the location of the lymph nodes through which the upper limb lymph principally drains, and is the supposed site of blockage of lymphatic drainage from the PML limb). The probe was held vertically against each point by direct contact with slight pressure to minimize power loss due to beam divergence. Each point

had been irradiated for 2 min with total duration of 20 min. The total energy applied at each point was 300 mjoules over 20 points giving a dosage of 1.5 J/cm^2 in the active group. All patients wore safety goggles. For patients in placebo group, the following parameters of therapy were set up without switching the machines [1]. Cellular studies support the use of low dose of (e.g., 1.5 J/cm^2) to improve absorption of extracellular fluid. The finding includes increased neutrophil activity, increased secretion of macrophage growth factors, enhanced DNA synthesis, and enhanced electron respiratory chain reaction increased endothelial PGI2 secretion and degradation of fibrin networks [43–45]. High dosages of LILT (8-32J/cm²) generally have an inhibitory effect on tissue metabolism [46–48]. In review of literature, laser therapy giving three times per week at 1.5 J/cm² was recommended as actual doses for human clinical trial, especially for those suffering from post-mastectomy lymphedema [1, 7].

All patients were given advice to perform daily limb exercise program including the following [49]:

- (1) Arm elevation to 180° with elbows straight
- (2) Internal rotation with the hand on the back trying to reach as high as possible
- (3) Abduction with the fingertips on the shoulders
- (4) Elbows together and apart with the hands behind the neck

And the following exercises in the standing position:

- (1) Arm extension with a stick held horizontally behind the back
- $\left(2\right)$ Shoulders forward, backwards, upwards, and downwards
- $(3)\$ Shoulder circles with the fingertips on the shoulder
- (4) Arm elevation standing in a corner with the back of the hand gliding along the wall.

Patients were told to perform each exercise five times in every set, daily. Participants were instructed in skin care to protect against infections. It consists of maintaining the affected area clean and dry to decrease the risk of infection. All women were instructed to wear pressure garment that provides pressure of (40 to 60 mmHg), and for 20 h daily during the period of the study as reported in our previous work [49]. All patients were given a diary logbook to complete on a daily basis during the intervention period. They were asked to maintain a daily self-report of their daily exercise activities and duration of wearing garment. The content of the logbooks did not differ between active laser and placebo groups

Statistical Analysis

The data were expressed as mean and standard deviation (mean \pm SD). For normally distributed data, student unpaired *t*-test was used to identify differences between the two groups. Repeated-measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) was done for comparison of independent variables within groups. The α level of significance was <0.05.

RESULTS

Figure 1 depicts a CONSORT flowchart of the trial. Fifty-eight women who fulfilled the criteria were randomized to the active laser group or the placebo laser group, and each group had 29 subjects. Four women who were randomized to the active laser group withdrew from the study because of cellulitis (n = 1) and poor adherence to treatment (n = 3). For the placebo laser therapy, four women were withdrawn due to cellulitis (n = 2) and poor adherence (n = 2). Participant with poor adherence to the program (defined as missing more than three consecutive sessions or more than 20% of all sessions) were excluded from the program, and their data were not

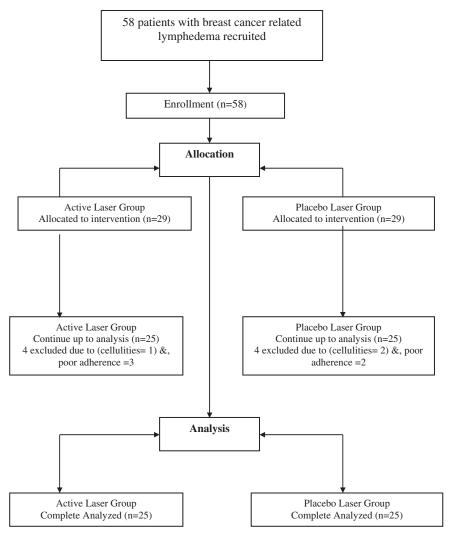


FIG. 1. Flow of participants through the study.

used in the statistical analysis. The rest (n = 50) completed the entire trial to the follow-up, and were equally assigned to active laser (n = 25) and placebo laser (n = 25).

Table 1 lists the clinical and demographic characteristics of the groups. The age of the women ranged from 45 to 55 y, with a mean age of 54.06 y (SD = 3.49). The postoperative duration ranged from 32 to 50 mo, with a mean of 40.3 mo (SD = 8.5). Self-report of length of time that subjects had swelling ranged from 12 to 36 mo, with a mean of 13.98 mo (SD = 2.85). Radiotherapy and hormonal therapy had been given to 14% of patients, radiotherapy and chemotherapy to 38% of patients, and radiotherapy, chemotherapy, and hormonal therapy to 48% of patients. All patients had undergone axillary dissection; with a range of 7 to 25 nodes removed and mean of 15.0 (SD = 5.3). The two groups did not differ significantly (P > 0.05) at baseline regarding demographic, and clinical characteristics.

Limb Circumference Measurement

The reduction of total limb circumference at each assessment session at 4, 8, 12, and 16 wk tended to decline after initiation of laser therapy is shown in Fig. 2 and Table 2. The total reduction in limb circumference in the active laser group was greater than in the placebo group in all session with greater significant (P < 0.01) reduction observed at 8 wk (20 \pm $3.05 \ versus \ 16.4 \pm 3.05$), and at $12 \ wk \ (29 \pm 3.75 \ versus \ 16.4 \pm 3.05)$ sus 21.8.4 \pm 6.9), for active laser compared with placebo group, respectively. Follow-up assessment of lymphedema at 16 wk revealed non-significant increase in limb circumferences compared with 12 wk values within each group, while significant reduction in total limb circumference (31 ± 6.75) for active laser group was observed in comparison to placebo laser group (23 ± 9.75) .

	Active laser $(n = 25)$	Placebo laser $(n = 25)$	Total $(n = 50)$
Age (y)	54.76 ± 3.33	53.36 ± 3.56	54.06 ± 3.49
BMI (kg/cm ²)	29.1 ± 6.6	25.6 ± 3.3	27.35 ± 5.3
Postoperative period (mo)	40.4 ± 7.5	41.9 ± 5.5	40.3 ± 8.5
Lymphedema duration (mo)	13.8 ± 1.77	14.16 ± 2.23	13.98 ± 2
Circ. diff.	109.6 ± 5.9	113.3 ± 4.3	111.5 ± 5.0
Types of operations $n(\%)$			
Radical mastectomy $+$ CALD	2(8%)	3 (12%)	5(10%)
Modified radical mastectomy + PALD	19 (76%)	17 (68%)	36(72%)
Lumpectomy	4 (16%)	5 (20%)	9 (18%)
Number of lymph node removed	15.6 ± 4.1	14.4 ± 4.7	15.0 ± 5.3
Adjuvant therapy $n(\%)$			
RT+CT	10 (40%)	9 (36%)	19(38%)
RT+HT	4 (16%)	3 (12%)	7~(14%)
RT+CT=HT	11 (44%)	13 (52%)	24(48%)
Affected arm (%)			
Dominant	20 (80%)	19 (76%)	39(78%)
Non-dominant	5 (20%)	6 (24%)	11(22%)

TABLE 1 Characteristics of Patients

There were no statistically significant differences between groups.

Values are mean \pm SD.

BMI = body mass index; Circ. diff. = circumference difference between the affected and normal arm; CALD = complete axillary lymph node dissection; PALD = partial axillary lymph node dissection; RT= radiotherapy; HT = hormonal therapy; CT = chemotherapy.

Shoulder Mobility

A comparison of two groups in relation to active ROM (shoulder flexion, abduction, external rotation) at 4 wk revealed clinical improvement in laser therapy group but not statistically significant (P > 0.05), while at 8 and 12 wk, there was statistically significant (P < 0.01) improvement in shoulder mobility (flexion and abduction) for the laser therapy, compared with placebo group, while shoulder external rotation showed no statistically significant differences at any point of evaluation between two groups (Table 2, Figs. 3 and 4). The percentages of increase in shoulder flexion and abduction (16.79% versus 10.74% and 14.9% versus 6.56%) were significant for active laser therapy compared with placebo at 12 wk.

Grip Strength

Grip strength improved post-treatment at 8 and 12 wk in both groups, with significant (P < 0.01) percentage of

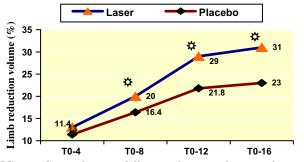


FIG. 2. Circumference difference between laser and control groups. (Color version of figure is available online.)

improvement (38.85 %) for active laser therapy group compared with placebo laser group (16.59%), at 12 wk (Table 2, and Fig 5).

DISCUSSION

The primary finding of this double-blind, randomized, placebo, control study is that laser therapy reduced the volume of the upper extremities, increases shoulder mobility, and hand grip strength in women with postmastectomy lymphedema with the benefit maintained for at least during the period of the study.

It has been reported that LLLT has antiinflammatory and anti-edematous actions by increasing prostaglandin I2 and, consequently, inhibition of platelet aggregation and vasodilatation that lead to reduction of edema and better oxygenation of tissues. There are several reasons to suggest the use of a LLLT in postmastectomy lymphedema: (1) aids in resorption of both microscopic and gross edema fluid (2) increases lymph vessel diameter, contractility, lymphatic regeneration; (3) stimulates phagocytic activity of neutrophils and monocytes; (4) improves wound healing and reduces scar adhesion to underlying tissues, and (5) reduces the risk of skin infections [7, 19, 20].

Further improvements in postmastectomy lymphedema secondary to the use of LLLT depend on its mode of action. At the molecular level, there are suggestions that LLLT affects cells by interacting with cytochromes of the mitochondrial electron transport chain [50] and/or may produce local gradients in energy because of laser speckle, resulting in local gradients in

TABLE 2

Variables	Active laser $(n - 28)$	Placebo laser $(n = 26)$
	The live faser $(n = 20)$	$\frac{1}{10000000000000000000000000000000000$
TRC(cm)		
Wk 0–4	$13\pm2.06^{*\dagger}$	11.4 ± 3.8
Wk 0–8	$20\pm 3.05^{*\dagger}$	$16.4\pm5.3^*$
Wk 0–12	$29\pm 3.75^{*\dagger}$	$21.8\pm6.9^*$
Wk 0–16	$31\pm 6.75^{*\dagger}$	$23\pm9.75^{*,\dagger}$
$Shoulder \ ROM (degrees)$		
Flexion		
Wk 0	156 ± 12.1	154.5 ± 4.07
Wk 4	$167 \pm 13.7^{*}$	161.2 ± 13.8
Wk 8	$171.9 \pm 11.4^{*\dagger}$	163.6 ± 13.4
Wk 12	$182.2\pm8.1^{*\dagger}$	$171.1 \pm 6.6^{*}$
Abduction		
W 0	161.05 ± 9.9	163.2 ± 6.8
Wk 4	$173.6 \pm 7.12^{*}$	167.2 ± 4.8
Wk 8	$178.6 \pm 7.12^{*\dagger}$	$170.09 \pm 11.4^{*}$
Wk 12	$185.2\pm6.5^{*\dagger}$	$173.9 \pm 5.9^{*}$
External rotation		
W 0	74.7 ± 5.02	72.7 ± 5.38
Wk 4	82.7 ± 12.3	76.96 ± 14.8
Wk 8	$84.6 \pm 8.1^{*}$	78.7 ± 11.4
Wk 12	$85.7 \pm 6.5^{*}$	$82.7 \pm 7.13^{*}$
Grip strength (Kg)		
Wk 0	18.87 ± 2.13	19.22 ± 1.54
Wk 4	24.2 ± 4.6	22.1 ± 4.7
Wk 8	$25.6\pm4.6^{*}$	$23.9\pm4.6^*$
Wk 12	$26.2\pm4.7^{*\dagger}$	22.41 ± 5.2

Comparison of Total Circumference Reduction, Range of Motion, and Grip Strength Between Groups

 $^{*}P < 0.05$ compared with baseline within group.

 $^{\dagger}P$ <0.05, compared between groups.

cellular heating [51]. At the cellular level, LLLT is reported to stimulate mitogenic activity, adhesion, synthetic activity, and viability of fibroblasts [52-56]. Macrophages were stimulated by LLLT to produce factors that increased or decreased fibroblast proliferation, depending on the wavelength of laser used [57]. LLLT stimulated lymphocytes to proliferate and to become activated, both in vitro and in vivo [58, 59], although again this may be true only in pathologic settings, in which LLLT "primes" lymphocytes to be more responsive to natural stimulatory products induced by pathophysiologic conditions [60]. All these cell types may be compro-

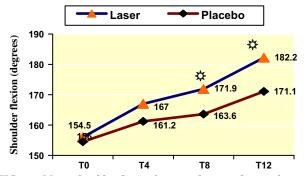


FIG. 3. Mean shoulder flexion between laser and control groups. (Color version of figure is available online.)

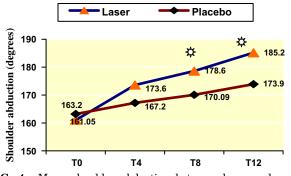


FIG. 4. Mean shoulder abduction between laser and control groups. (Color version of figure is available online.)

mised in lymphedema, and may respond to LLLT sufficiently to play a role in resolution of the lymphedema. At the microcirculatory level, there may be stimulatory/protective effects of LLLT on endothelial cells and vascular endothelium in situ [61].

This may involve angiogenic factor production by T-lymphocytes (associated with endothelial cell proliferation [62], or increased vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) production by smooth muscle cells or fibroblasts [63]. Use of LLLT is reported to enhance endothelial regeneration after damage in animal models [64, 65] and in humans after coronary arterial stent implantation [66]. We have not found any reports of LLLT affecting lymphangiogenesis, but it appears reasonable to propose that lymphatic vessels may respond similarly to blood vessels because members of the VEGF family, VEGF-C and VEGF-D, stimulate lymphangiogenesis [67]. There are reports of stimulation of local fluid circulation [51] and stimulatory effects on lymphatic vessels [68], perhaps in response to increased fluid mobility in laser-irradiated tissues. There does not appear to be a consistent effect of LLLT on normal mesenteric lymphatic vessel contractility when it is applied directly to the vessels alone in vivo [69].

There are few studies regarding low-level laser in the treatment of postmastectomy lymphedema. Piller and Thelander [24] studied low-level laser therapy in 10 women with unilateral postmastectomy lymphedema who received radiotherapy. Ten patients received 16

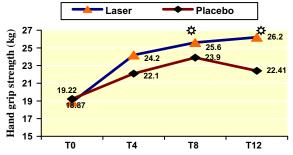


FIG. 5. Mean hand grip strength between laser and control groups. (Color version of figure is available online.)

sessions of low-level laser therapy over 10 wk and seven patients were followed for 36 mo. They found that after the treatment, edema volume was decreased and mobility of the arm was reported to be improved. This improvement continued at 1, 3, and 6 mo. A 29% volume reduction of the affected arm with subjective symptoms returning to pretreatment levels between 30 and 36 mo was also reported [24]. In another study, patients in one group received two cycles of active laser (n = 37) and the other group received one cycle of placebo laser and one cycle of active laser (n = 27) to the axillary region three times a week for 3 wk. Although no significant improvements were reported immediately after any of the treatments, mean affected limb volume was significantly reduced at 1 and 3 mo of follow-up after two cycles of active laser treatment. The authors concluded that two cycles of low-level laser was effective in reducing the limb volume, extracellular fluid, and tissue hardness in approximately one-third of the patients at 3 mo after the treatment [7]. The authors did not explain if their patients were wearing pressure garment, performing exercisers and activities during period of the study or follow-up.

In a study by Kaviani *et al.* [23] postmastectomy lymphedema patients were enrolled and randomly assigned to receive low-level laser therapy (n = 6) and sham laser (n = 5) groups. Assessments were made at 3, 9, 12, 18, and 22 wk. Reduction in limb circumference occurred in both groups but it was greater in the laser group up to the end of the 22nd week. Pain reduction was greater in the laser group except at wk 3 and 9. The authors also stressed that the desire to continue treatment was greater in the laser group than sham group in all sessions.

The limitations of the current study include (1) small number of patients because of the long-term follow-up and inadequate referral. Nevertheless, there are limited numbers of studies concerning the use of low-level laser in the treatment of postmastectomy lymphedema. There are some similarities between these studies [1, 7, 8, 23] and ours (e.g., patient selection criteria and protocols of laser therapy); there are also some differences in study protocols and measuring techniques of main objective outcomes. For evaluation of limb volume changes, Piller [24, 25] used arm circumference in several anatomical points on the affected arm only, whereas we used sum circumference difference between the affected and unaffected limbs. Due to anatomical variations of patient's limbs, using the subject's normal arm should serve as control for the affected arm.

We suggest that low level laser therapy has positive effects in the treatment of postmastectomy lymphedema. It seems that LLLT has beneficial results in postmastectomy lymphedema patients maintained for period of study. Prospective randomized controlled studies with a larger sample size are needed to better understand the efficacy of low-level laser therapy in the treatment of postmastectomy lymphedema. In addition to these suggested treatment modalities, patients are recommended to perform daily limb exercises and follow skin care instructions throughout their lives.

In conclusion, we found that LLLT may be effective in reducing arm circumference and increase shoulder mobility and hand grip in increasing the desire to continue treatment in patients with postmastectomy lymphedema. Despite these results, further studies on the effects of LLLT should be taken to determine the optimal physiologic and physical parameters to obtain the most effective clinical response. However, LLLT could be considered as an adjuvant therapy in addition to gold standard therapy that includes manual lymph drainage, compression garment, and skin care.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The authors thank to staff and patients of the Departments of Physical Therapy and General Surgery of El-Mataria Teaching Hospital, Cairo, Egypt.

REFERENCES

- Kozanoglu E, Basaran S. Efficacy of pneumatic compression and low-level laser therapy in the treatment of postmastectomy lymphedema: A randomized controlled trial. Clin Rehabil 2009; 23:117.
- Clark B, Sttzia J, Harlow W. Incidence and risk of arm edema following treatment for breast cancer: A three-year follow-up study. Q J Med 2005;98:343.
- 3. Hugi M, et al. Clinical practice guidelines for the treatment of breast cancer related lymphedema. A British Columbia Cancer Agency consensus document November 1997.
- Meric F, Buchholz TA, Mirza NQ, et al. Long-term complications associated with breast-conservation surgery and radiotherapy. Ann Surg Oncol 2002;9:543.
- Ozaslan C, Kuru B. Lymphedema after treatment of breast cancer. Am J Surg 2004;187:69.
- Segrstrom K, Bjerle P, Graffiman S, et al. Factors that influence the incidence of brachial edema after treatment of breast cancer. Scand J Plast Reconstr Hand Surg 1992;26:223.
- Carati CJ, Anderson SN, Gannon BJ, Piller NB. Treatment of post mastectomy lymphedema with low level laser therapy. Cancer 2003;98:1114.
- 8. Harris SR, Hugi MR, Olivotto IA, et al. Clinical guidelines for the care and treatment of breast cancer: II Lymphedema. CMAI 2001;23:1.
- 9. Velanovich V, Szymanski W. Quality of life of breast cancer patients with lymphedema. Am J Surg 1999;177:184.
- Rietman JS, Geertzen JH, Hoekstra HJ, et al. Long term treatment related upper limb morbidity and quality of life after sentinel lymph node biopsy for stage I or II breast cancer. Eur J Surg Oncol 2006;32:148.
- Lauridsen MC, Marie O, Jens O, et al. Shoulder disability and late symptoms following surgery for early breast cancer. Acta Oncol 2008;47:569.
- 12. Nesvold IL, Alv D, Erik L, et al. Arm and shoulder morbidity in breast cancer patients after breast-conserving therapy *versus* mastectomy. Acta Oncol 2008;47:835.

- Passik SD, McDonald MV. Psychosocial aspects of upper extremity lymphedema in women treated for breast cancer. Cancer 1998 (Dec Suppl):2871.
- 14. Leidenius M, Leppanen E, Krogerus L, et al. Motion restriction and axillary web syndrome after sentinel node biopsy and axillary clearance in breast cancer. Am J Surg 2003;185:127.
- Carter B. J. Women's experiences of lymphedema. Oneol Nurs Forum 1997;24:875.
- Brennan MJ, DePompolo RW, Garden FH. Focused review: Postmastectomy lymphedema. Arch Phys Med Rehabil 1996; 77(Suppl):S74.
- Warmuth MA, Bowen G, Prosnitz LR, et al. Complications of axillary lymph node dissection for carcinoma of the breast. Cancer 1998;83:1362.
- Badger CM, Peacock JL, Mortimer PS. A randomized controlled, parallel group clinical trial comparing multilayer bandaging followed by hosiery *versus* hosiery alone in the treatment of patients with lymphedema of the limb. Cancer 2000;83:2833.
- Gur A, Karakoc M, Cevik R, et al. Efficacy of low power laser therapy and exercise on pain and functions in chronic low back pain. Lasers Surg Med 2003;32:233.
- Gur A, Cosut A, Sarac AJ, et al. Efficacy of different therapy regimes of low power laser in painful osteoarthritis of the knee: A double-blind and randomized controlled trial. Lasers Surg Med 2003;33:330.
- Hopkins JT, McLoda TA, Seegmiller JG, et al. Low-level laser therapy facilitates superficial wound healing in humans: A triple-blind, sham-controlled study. J Athletic Train 2004; 39:223.
- Nussbaum EL. Low intensity laser therapy for benign fibrotic lumps in the breast following reduction mammoplasty. Phys Ther 1999;79:691.
- Kaviani A, Fateh M, Nooraie RY, Alinagizadeh MR, et al. Lowlevel laser therapy in management of postmastectomy lymphedema. Lasers Med Sci 2006;21:90.
- Piller NB, Thelander A. Treatment of chronic postmastectomy lymphedema with low level laser therapy: A 2.5 year follow-up. Lymphology 1998;31:74.
- Piller NB. Recognition, treatment and management of a lymphedema arm. Australia: Flinder Press, 2000.
- Piller N, O'Connor M. The Lymphedema Handbook: Causes, Effects, and Management. Hill of Content: Australia 2002.
- Petrek JA, Senie RT, Peters M, et al. Lymphedema in a cohort of breast carcinoma survivors 20 years after diagnosis. Cancer 2001;92:1368.
- Wilke LG, McCall LM, Posther KE, et al. Surgical complications associated with sentinel lymph node biopsy: Results from a prospective international cooperative group trial. Ann Surg Oncol 2006;13:491.
- Cluzan RV, Alliot F, Ghabboun S, et al. Treatment of secondary lymphedema of the upper limb with CYCLO 3 FORT. Lymphology 1996;29:29.
- Welkowitz J, Ewen RB, Cohen J. Introductory statistics for the behavioral sciences. 3rd ed. San Diego, CA: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1982.
- Karges JR. Assessing the relationship between water displacement and circumferential measurements in determining upper extremity volume in women with lymphedema. Dissertation. Krannert School of Physical Therapy. University of Indianapolis, 1996.
- 32. Karges JR, Mark BE, Stikeleather SJ, et al. Concurrent validity of upper extremity volume estimates: Comparison of calculated volume derived from girth measurements and water displacement volume. Phys Ther 2003;83:134.
- 33. Sander AP, Hajer NM, Hemenway K, et al. Upper extremity volume measurements in women with lymphedema: A comparison of measurements obtained *via* water displacement with geometrically determined volume. Phys Ther 2002;82:1201.

- Mc-Kenzie DC, Kalda AL. Effect of upper extremity exercise on secondary lymphedema in breast cancer patients: A pilot study. J Clin Oncol 2003;21:463.
- Mathiowetz V, Kashman N, Volland G, et al. Grip and pinch strength: Normative data for adults. Arch Phys Med Rehabil 1985;66:69.
- 36. Mathiowetz V. Reliability and validity of grip and pinch strength evaluations. J Hand Surg 1984;9:222.
- Peolsson A, Hedlund R, Oberg B. Intra- and inter-tester reliability and reference values for hand strength. J Rehabil Med 2001; 33:36.
- Riddle DL, Rothstein JM, Lamb RL. Goniometric reliability in a clinical setting. Shoulder measurements. Phys Ther 1987; 67:668.
- Gajkosik RL, Bohannon RW. Clinical measurement of range of motion: Review of goniometry emphasizing reliability and validity. Phys Ther 1987;67:1867.
- 40. Fish DR, Wingate L. Sources of goniometric error at the elbow. Phys Ther 1985;65:1666.
- Sabari JS, Maltzev I, Lubarsky D, Liszkay E, Homel R. Goniometric assessment of shoulder range of motion: Comparison testing in supine and sitting positions. Arch Phys Med Rehabil 1998;79:647.
- 42. Amis AA, Miller JH. The elbow. Clin Rheum Dis 1982;8:571.
- 43. Osanai T, Shiroto C, Mikami Y, et al. Measurement of Ga-Al-As diode laser action on phagocytic activity of human neutrophils as a possible therapeutic dosimetry determinant. Laser Ther 1990; 2:123.
- 44. Bolton P, Young S, Dyson M. Macrophage responsiveness to laser therapy: A dose response study. Laser Ther 1990;2:101.
- Loevschall H, Arenholt-Bindslev D. Effect of low level diode laser irradiation of human oral mucosa fibroblasts *in vitro*. Lasers Surg Med 1994;14:347.
- 46. O'Kane S, Shields T, Gilmore W, Allen J. Low intensity laser irradiation inhibits tritiated thymidine incorporation in the hemopoietic cell lines HL-60 and U937. Lasers Surg Med 1994;14:34.
- 47. Baxter G. Therapeutic Lasers: Theory and Practice. London. England: Churchill Livingstone, 1994.
- Ohshiro T, Maeda T. Application of 830-nm diode laser LLLT as successful adjunctive therapy of hypertrophic scars and keloids. Laser Ther 1992;4:155.
- 49. El-sabagh RM, Mersal AE, Taher MO. Treatment of postmastectomy lymphedema with exercises and compression garment versus compression garment. Proceedings from the 7th International Scientific Conference of Faculty of Physical Therapy, Cairo, Egypt, March 4-5, 2004.
- Karu T. Photobiology of low power laser effects. Health Phys 1989;56:691.
- Horvath Z, Donko Z. Possible *ab initio* explanation of laser "biostimulation" effects. In: Galletti G, Bolongnani L, Ussia G, Eds. Laser applications in medicine and surgery. Bologna: Monduzzi, 1992.
- 52. Glassberg E, Lask G, Tan E, et al. Cellular effects of the tunable pulsed dye laser at 577 nanometers on human endothelial cells, fibroblasts, and erythrocytes: An *in vitro* study. Lasers Surg Med 1988;8:567.
- Yu W, Naim J, Lanzafame R. The effect of laser irradiation on the release of bFGF from 3T3 fibroblasts. Photochem Photobiol 1994;59:167.
- Conlan M, Rapley J, Cobb C. Biostimulation of wound healing by low energy irradiation: A review. J Clin Periodontal 1996; 23:492.
- 55. Bednarska K, Rozga B, Kolodziejczyk K, et al. Effect of lowpower red light laser irradiation on the viability of human skin fibroblasts. Radiat Environ Biophys 1998;37:215.
- Abergel R, Meeker C, Lan T, et al. Control of connective tissue metabolism by lasers. Recent developments and future prospects. J Am Acad Dermatol 1984;11:1141.

- 57. Young S, Bolton P, Dyson M, et al. Macrophage responsiveness to light therapy. Lasers Surg Med 1989;9:497.
- Inoue K, Nishioka J, Hukuda S. Altered lymphocyte proliferation by low dosage laser irradiation. Clin Exp Rheumatol 1989;7:521.
- Ganju L, Salhan A, Karan D, et al. Immunomodulatory effect of laser on whole body exposure. Indian J Exp Biol 1999;37:444.
- Smol'yaninova N, Karu T, Fedoseeva G, et al. Effects of He-Ne laser irradiation on chromatin properties and synthesis of nucleic acids in human peripheral lymphocytes. Biomed Sci 1991; 2:121.
- 61. LaMuraglia G, Ortu P, Roberts G, et al. Photodynamic application on arteries. In: Galletti G, Bolongnani L, Ussia G, Eds. Laser applications in medicine and surgery. Bologna: Monduzzi, 1992.
- Agaiby A, Ghali L, Wilson R, et al. Laser modulation of angiogenic factors production by T-lymphocytes. Lasers Surg Med 2000;26:357.
- Kipshidze N, Sabota H, Komorowski R, et al. Photo-remodeling of arterial wall reduces restenosis following balloon angioplasty in an artherosclerotic rabbit model. J Am Coll Cardiol 1998; 31:1152.

- De Scheerder IK, Wang K, Zhou XR, et al. Intravascular low power red laser light as an adjunct to coronary stent implantation evaluated in a porcine coronary model. J Invasive Cardiol 1998;10:263.
- 65. Kipshidze N, Nikolaychik V, Keelan M, et al. Low power heliumneon laser irradiation enhances production of vascular endothelial growth factor and promotes growth of endothelial cells *in vitro*. Lasers Surg Med 2001;28:355.
- De Scheerder IK, Wang K, Zhou XR, et al. Intravascular low power red laser light as an adjunct to coronary stent implantation: Initial clinical experience. Catheter Cardiovasc Interv 2000;49:468.
- Plate H. From angiogenesis to lymphangiogenesis. Nat Med 2001;7:151.
- 68. Lievens P. The effect of combined HeNe and IR laser treatment on the regeneration of the lymphatic system during the process of wound healing. Lasers Med Sci 1991;6:193.
- Carati C, Jobling J, Fouyaxis J, et al. Effect of low-level laser on mesenteric lymphatics and blood vessels *in vivo*. Prog Microcirc Res 1999;10:77.