RESEARCH ARTICLE

Incorporating ultrasound-based lymph node staging significantly improves the performance of a clinical nomogram for predicting preoperative axillary lymph node metastasis in breast cancer

Xiaomin Wang ($0^{1,2,3,4,5,6,7#}$, Xiaoping Yi ($0^{4,5,6,7,8#}$, Qian Zhang ($0^{1,2,3}$, Xiaoxiao Wang ($0^{1,2,3}$, Hanghao Zhang ($0^{1,2,3}$, Shuai Peng ($0^{1,2,3}$, Kuansong Wang ($0^{9,10}$, and Liqiu Liao^{1,2,3*}

Models for predicting axillary lymph node metastasis (ALNM) in breast cancer patients are lacking. We aimed to develop an efficient model to accurately predict ALNM. Three hundred fifty-five breast cancer patients were recruited and randomly divided into the training and validation sets. Univariate and multivariate logistic regressions were applied to identify predictors of ALNM. We developed nomograms based on these variables to predict ALNM. The performance of the nomograms was tested using the receiver operating characteristic curve and calibration curve, and a decision curve analysis was performed to assess the clinical utility of the prediction models. The nomograms that included clinical N stage (cN), pathological grade (pathGrade), and hemoglobin accurately predicted ALNM in the training and validation sets (area under the curve [AUC] 0.80 and 0.80, respectively). We then explored the importance of the cN and pathGrade signatures used in the integrated model and developed new nomograms by removing the two variables. The results suggested that the combine-pathGrade nomogram also accurately predicted ALNM in the training and validation sets (AUC 0.78 and 0.78, respectively), but the combine-cN nomogram did not (AUC 0.64 and 0.60, in the training and validation sets, respectively). We described a cN-based ALNM prediction model in breast cancer patients, presenting a novel efficient clinical decision nomogram for predicting ALNM.

Keywords: Predictive model, axillary lymph node metastasis (ALNM), breast cancer.

Introduction

Breast cancer is one of the most commonly diagnosed cancers worldwide, with over 2 million new cases in 2020 based on the GLOBOCAN [1]. Axillary lymph node (ALN) status is a meaningful indicator for clinical staging in patients with breast cancer, and it is also one of the most crucial prognostic factors, thus influencing clinical decision making [2, 3]. Axillary lymph node dissection (ALND) is the gold standard to evaluate axillary lymph node metastasis (ALNM). However, ALND is an invasive procedure that might cause operative complications [4, 5]. Sentinel lymph node biopsy (SLNB) is the current standard method for ALN staging, which determines whether or not the doctor should perform ALND and guides the surgeon's decision for subsequent treatment [6, 7]. Unfortunately, both ALND and SLNB are invasive methods and may lead to some unacceptable complications, which would greatly reduce the quality of life of patients [8, 9]. Moreover, a long wait for SLNB results during surgery can unavoidably prolong the operation time and reduce efficiency. Therefore, there is an urgent need for a noninvasive and efficient diagnostic tool for preoperatively estimating ALNM.

Traditional noninvasive methods to confirm the ALN status are mainly preoperative imaging examinations, such as ultrasound, computed tomography (CT), and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI). However, these approaches may lead to some ALNM patients being missed due to low sensitivity [10, 11]. Previous studies have identified some risk factors for ALNM in breast cancer, but individual assessment for patients is

¹Department of Breast Surgery, Xiangya Hospital, Central South University, Changsha, Hunan, China; ²Clinical Research Center for Breast Cancer, Xiangya Hospital, Central South University, Changsha, Hunan, China; ³National Clinical Research Center for Geriatric Disorders, Xiangya Hospital, Central South University, Changsha, Hunan, China; ⁴National Engineering Research Center of Personalized Diagnostic and Therapeutic Technology, Xiangya Hospital, Changsha, Hunan, China; ⁵Hunan Engineering Research Center of Skin Health and Disease, Xiangya Hospital, Changsha, Hunan, China; ⁶Department of Dermatology, Xiangya Hospital, Central South University, Changsha, Hunan, China; ⁷Hunan Key Laboratory of Skin Cancer and Psoriasis, Xiangya Hospital, Central South University, Changsha, Hunan, China; ⁹Department of Pathology, Xiangya Hospital, Central South University, Changsha, Hunan, China; ¹⁰Department of Pathology, School of Basic Medical Science, Central South University, Changsha, Hunan, China.

^{*}Correspondence to Liqiu Liao: aq301981@163.com

^{*}Xiaomin Wang and Xiaoping Yi contributed equally to this work.

DOI: 10.17305/bb.2022.8564

^{© 2023} Wang et al. This article is available under a Creative Commons License (Attribution 4.0 International, as described at https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/).

Biomolecules & Biomedicine

lacking [12, 13]. With the advent of artificial intelligence, precision medicine for breast cancer has entered a bright era and new noninvasive methods have emerged to evaluate ALNM [14]. The machine learning-based approach used for evaluating the diagnosis of ALNM in breast cancer patients shows certain advantages in personalized prognostics [15]. Although several machine learning-based approaches have been used for predicting ALN status in patients, they provided little value for clinical application [16]. In addition, some imaging procedures, such as MRI and CT, are too expensive so that some patients cannot afford them. Therefore, these methods are not suitable for all patients. Hence, there is an urgent need for an accurate, efficient, clinically applicable, and extensive diagnostic method to estimate preoperative ALNM.

In the current study, we aimed to build and validate a noninvasive predictive model to accurately predict ALNM in breast cancer patients. We collected patients' demographics and laboratory tests and extracted clinical N stage (cN) signature, which was assessed by the Breast Surgery multidisciplinary team. Then, we used clinical factors and cN to generate nomograms for preoperative prediction of ALN status in breast cancer patients to optimize decision making for personalized cancer treatment.

Materials and methods

Study design

Based on the inclusion and exclusion criteria, the entire cohort ended up including 355 patients. We established and validated nomograms based on patients' preoperative clinical characteristics and pathological features to predict ALNM in breast cancer patients. Figure 1 shows the workflow of our study.

Study population

A total of 397 consecutive breast cancer patients treated at the Department of Breast Surgery at Xiangya Hospital (Changsha city, Hunan Province, China) from January 2011 to December 2012 were retrospectively screened, of whom 355 met the inclusion criteria and were included. The inclusion criteria were: 1) Female adults (age >18 years); 2) Histologically first confirmed breast cancer; 3) Patients who underwent ALND or SLNB to determine ALN status; 4) Patients with the absence of any distant metastasis at initial diagnosis; 5) Patients with no history of breast surgery or irradiation; 6) Patients with no other concomitant malignancy. Forty-two patients were excluded due to incomplete medical records, and a total of 355 patients were recruited in the end. The outcome was the ALN status at the surgery.

The included patients were randomly divided into two sets in a ratio of 7:3, with 249 patients in the training set and 106 patients in the validation set. The training set was used to filter the significant variables and develop nomogram, and the validation set was used to test the results obtained from the training set.

Clinicopathologic data collection

In this study, all patients enrolled underwent palpation and breast ultrasound at diagnosis and were diagnosed with breast



Figure 1. The process of patient enrollment and nomogram development. DCA: Decision curve analysis.

cancer by pathologic biopsy. Information regarding ALN status by SLNB or ALND was extracted from the records.

Data collection and analysis were conducted from December 2021 to June 2022. The privacy information of patients was protected during the research process. We did not collect information related to personal privacy, and patient identity was used only for sample coding. During the data analysis, we did not have access to patient privacy. We extracted the demographics data and laboratory parameters at diagnosis. Among these, demographics included sex, age, weight, height, and body mass index (BMI). BMI was calculated using a formula that divides weight by height into squares citation. Laboratory parameters at diagnosis included routine blood examination, electrolytes, liver function, and coagulation indices. We also collected data on TNM classification, hormone receptor status and human epidermal growth factor receptor 2 receptor (HER2) status, Ki-67, clinical and pathological staging, and tumor pathological type. Ultrasound evaluation of ALN status was performed by experienced breast radiologists, and the assessment of normal/abnormal was at the discretion of the evaluating radiologist based on ultrasound diagnostic criteria [17, 18].

TNM stage of patients was accessed by Breast Surgery multidisciplinary team according to American Joint Committee on Cancer criteria, then the clinical T stage and N stages were extracted from the patient's preoperative TNM stage. All patients accepted SLNB or ALND. The status of the patient's ALN was assessed according to previous reported criteria [19]. We used these variables to identify the potential independent risk factors for ALNM.

Nomogram development

To develop a nomogram, we used a three-step approach. Univariate logistic regression was applied to identify the patient's signature in the training set that was associated with ALNM. Second, we included the significant variables identified by

univariate logistic regression with P < 0.05 in a multivariate logistic regression analysis to determine which factors were independent predictors of ALNM [20]. Next, the independent factors of ALNM were used to establish the nomograms for predicting ALNM, and we investigated the predictive ability of each model with and without cN or pathological grade (pathGrade).

Ethical statement

This study was performed in line with the principles of the Declaration of Helsinki. Approval was granted by the Ethics Committee of Xiangya Hospital of Central South University (No. 202112189). Since this study was a retrospective study, the Ethics Committee waived the need to obtain informed consent from the patients.

Statistical analysis

We used R software to randomly divide the cohort into a training set and a validation set in the ratio of 7:3, and the chi-squared test was performed to check the differences in the categorical variables between the two groups. We used the receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve to evaluate discriminative ability and calibration plots to evaluate calibrating ability of the nomograms. Additionally, decision curve analysis (DCA) was used to quantify the clinical benefit of the cN-based nomograms. P < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

Results

Patient characteristics

A flowchart of the study is shown in Figure 1. A total of 355 breast cancer patients meeting the requirements from January 2011 to December 2012 were enrolled in this study. Tables 1 and 2 show the clinical characteristics of the whole set (355 patients), the training set (249 patients) and the validation set (106 patients). According to the result of ALND, ALNM was confirmed in 157 (44.23%) patients, 110 (44.18%) in the training set and in 47 (44.34) in the validation set. According to American Joint Committee on Cancer TNM staging system, clinical stages I, II, and III accounted for 11.3%, 67.0%, and 21.7%, respectively, in the entire set; 20.48%, 60.64%, and 18.87%, respectively, in the training set, and 13.20%, 66.98%, and 17.92%, respectively, in the validation set.

Signature screening and nomogram construction

The training set contained 249 patients, of whom 110 (44.18%) patients had ALNM. Univariate and multivariate logistic regression analyses were used to identify the independent risk factors for ALNM in breast cancer patients (Tables 3 and S1). We found that hemoglobin (odds ratio [OR] 1.03, 95% confidence interval [CI] 1.00–1.06), cN (OR 5.32, 95% CI 3.05–9.26), and pathGrade (OR 1.93, 95% CI 1.13–3.30) were independent predictors of ALNM (Table 3). Then, we constructed a nomogram using all these independent predictors for ALNM whose P < 0.05 (Figure 2A). Finally, we explored the importance of the cN and pathGrade included in the integrated model and developed a new nomogram by removing the pathGrade variable (Figure 2B).

Table 1.	Clinicopathologic characteristics of patients in the entire,
training,	and validation sets

		n (%)		
Characteristic	Entire set (n = 355)	Training set (n = 249)	Validation set (n = 106)	P value
Age (years)				0.171
<50 ≥50	223 (62.82) 132 (37.18)	150 (60.24) 99 (39.76)	72 (67.92) 34 (32.08)	
Clinical T stage				0.386
1 2 3 4	73 (20.56) 218 (61.41) 42 (11.83) 22 (6.20)	57 (22.89) 147 (59.04) 30 (12.05) 15 (6.02)	16 (15.09) 71 (66.98) 12 (11.32) 7 (6.6)	
Clinical N stage				0.035*
0 1 2 3	216 (60.85) 99 (27.89) 37 (10.42) 3 (0.85)	162 (65.06) 60 (24.1) 24 (9.64) 3 (1.2)	54 (50.94) 39 (36.79) 13 (12.26) 0 (0)	
Clinical TNM stag	e			0.205
 	65 (18.31) 222 (62.5) 68 (19.15)	51 (20.48) 151 (60.64) 47 (18.87)	14 (13.20) 71 (66.98) 21 (17.92)	
Pathological TNN	1 stage			0.45
 	40 (11.27) 238 (67.04) 77 (21.69)	31 (12.45) 167 (67.07) 51 (20.48)	9 (8.49) 71 (66.98) 26 (24.53)	
ER status				0.654
Negative Positive	103 (29.01) 77 (70.99)	74 (29.72) 175 (70.28)	29 (27.36) 77 (72.64)	
PR status				0.981
Negative Positive	141 (39.72) 214 (60.28)	99 (39.76) 150 (60.24)	42 (39.62) 64 (60.38)	
HER2				0.788
Negative Positive	251 (70.70) 104 (29.30)	175 (70.28) 74 (29.72)	76 (71.70) 30 (28.30)	
p53				0.62
Negative Positive	104 (29.30) 251 (70.70)	71 (28.51) 178 (71.49)	33 (31.13) 73 (68.87)	
Ki-67				0.766
≤20% >20%	254 (71.55) 101 (28.45)	177 (71.08) 72 (28.92)	77 (72.64) 29 (27.36)	

*Fisher's precision probability test

TNM: Tumor-node-metastasis; ER: Estrogen receptor; PR: Progesterone receptor; HER2: Human epidermal growth factor receptor 2; Ki67: Proliferation marker protein Ki67.

Nomogram validation

We performed ROC analysis on the two sets using different models. Both models highlighted satisfactory accuracy in predicting the probability of ALNM. The area under the curve (AUC) of the ROC curves (Figure 3A) showed valuable discriminative ability for predicting ALNM in the combined model in the training set (AUC 0.80, 95% CI 0.74–0.86) and in

	n (%), by set and axillary lymph node status								
	Entire set (<i>n</i> = 355)			Training set (n = 249)			Validation set ($n = 106$)		
Characteristic	Negative (n = 198)	Positive (n = 157)	P value	Negative (n = 139)	Positive (n = 110)	P value	Negative (n = 59)	Positive (n = 47)	P value
Age (years)			0.534			0.217			0.42
<50 ≥50	121 (61.11) 77 (38.89)	101 (64.33) 56 (35.67)		79 (56.84) 60 (43.17)	71 (64.55) 39 (35.45)		42 (71.19) 17 (28.81)	30 (63.83) 17 (36.17)	
Clinical T stage			< 0.001			< 0.001			0.003
1 2 3 4	55 (27.78) 123 (62.12) 14 (7.07) 6 (3.03)	18 (11.46) 95 (60.51) 28 (17.83) 16 (10.19)		40 (28.78) 86 (61.87) 9 (6.47) 4 (2.88)	17 (15.45) 61 (55.45) 21 (19.09) 11 (10)		15 (25.42) 37 (62.71) 5 (8.47) 2 (3.39)	1 (2.13) 34 (72.34) 7 (14.89) 5 (10.64)	
Clinical N stage			< 0.001*			< 0.001*			< 0.001
0 1 2 3	163 (82.32) 31 (15.66) 4 (2.02) 0 (0)	53 (33.76) 68 (43.31) 33 (21.02) 3 (1.91)		120 (86.33) 16 (11.51) 3 (2.16) 0 (0)	42 (38.18) 44 (40) 21 (19.09) 3 (2.73)		43 (72.88) 15 (25.42) 1 (1.69) 0 (0)	11 (23.4) 24 (51.06) 12 (25.53) (0)	
Clinical TNM stage			< 0.001			< 0.001*			< 0.001*
 	52 (26.26) 134 (67.68) 12 (6.06)	13 (8.28) 88 (56.05) 56 (35.67)		38 (27.34) 94 (67.63) 7 (5.04)	13 (11.82) 57 (51.82) 40 (36.36)		14 (23.73) 40 (67.8) 5 (8.47)	0 (0) 31 (65.96) 16 (34.04)	
Pathological TNM st	tage		< 0.001			0.002			0.175*
 	33 (16.67) 131 (66.16) 34 (17.17)	7 (4.46) 107 (68.15) 43 (27.39)		26 (18.71) 90 (64.75) 23 (16.55)	5 (4.55) 77 (70) 28 (25.45)		7 (11.86) 41 (69.49) 11 (18.64)	2 (4.26) 30 (63.83) 15 (31.91)	
ER status			0.284			0.452			0.512
Negative Positive	62 (31.31) 136 (68.69)	41 (26.11) 116 (73.89)		44 (31.65) 95 (68.35)	30 (27.27) 80 (72.73)		18 (30.51) 41 (69.49)	11 (23.4) 36 (76.6)	
PR status			0.72			0.555			0.803
Negative Positive	77 (38.89) 121 (61.11)	64 (40.76) 93 (59.24)		53 (38.13) 86 (61.87)	46 (41.82) 64 (58.18)		24 (40.68) 35 (59.32)	18 (38.3) 29 (61.7)	
HER2			0.347			0.519			0.461
Negative Positive	144 (72.73) 54 (27.27)	107 (68.15) 50 (31.85)		100 (71.94) 39 (28.06)	75 (68.18) 35 (31.82)		44 (74.58) 15 (25.42)	32 (68.09) 15 (31.91)	
p53			0.482			0.217			0.564
Negative Positive	61 (30.81) 137 (69.19)	43 (27.39) 114 (72.61)		44 (31.65) 95 (68.35)	27 (24.55) 83 (75.45)		17 (28.81) 42 (71.19)	16 (34.04) 31 (65.96)	
Ki-67			0.269			0.429			0.415
≤20% >20%	137 (69.19) 61 (30.81)	117 (74.52) 40 (25.48)		96 (69.06) 43 (30.94)	81 (73.64) 29 (26.36)		41 (69.49) 18 (30.51)	36 (76.6) 11 (23.4)	

Table 2. Clinical characteristics of patients with or without axillary lymph node metastasis across entire, training, and validation sets

*Fisher's precision probability test

TNM: Tumor-node-metastasis; ER: Estrogen receptor; PR: Progesterone receptor; HER2: Human epidermal growth factor receptor 2; Ki67: Proliferation marker protein Ki67.

the validation set (AUC 0.80, 95% CI 0.71-0.88). When we removed the pathGrade variable and developed a new model named combine-pathGrade to investigate whether pathGrade was an important risk factor in the combine model, similarly, the new model showed good predictive ability in the training set (AUC 0.78, 95% CI 0.73-0.84) and in the validation set (AUC 0.78, 95% CI 0.70-0.87). In addition, to clarify the

importance of cN for predicting ALNM, we developed a new model named combine-cN by removing the cN variable from the combine model. The ROC curve of the combine-cN model showed that the discriminative ability decreased significantly, with the AUCs of 0.64 (95% CI 0.57–0.71) in the training set and 0.60 (95% CI 0.49–0.71) in the validation set. Importantly, our results suggested that the cN played a dominant role in

Biomolecules & Biomedicine

Table 3. Multivariate logistic regression analyses of axillary lymph node metastasis

A

Variables	OR	95% CI	P value
HGB	1.03	1.00-1.06	0.04698
сT	1.39	0.91-2.11	0.12357
cN	5.32	3.05-9.26	< 0.0001
pathGrade	1.93	1.13-3.30	0.01646

CI: Confidence interval; OR: Odds ratio; HGB: Hemoglobin; cT: Clinical T stage; cN: Clinical N stage; pathGrade: Pathological grade.



в



Figure 2. Nomograms for predicting axillary lymph node metastasis based on risk factors. (A) Nomogram incorporating the HGB, cN, and path-Grade. (B) Nomogram including HGB and cN. HGB: Hemoglobin; cN: Clinical N stage; pathGrade: Pathological grade.

predicting ALNM. The calibration curve (Figure 3B) showed that the predicted and observed probability of ALNM were in good agreement. Meanwhile, the DCA exhibited great clinical benefits for predicting ALNM. When the threshold probability was > 15% in the training set, using the combine model and combine-pathGrade model added more benefits than the treat-all-patients scheme or the treat-none scheme in predicting ALNM in breast cancer patients (Figure 4). Actually, the combine and combine-pathGrade models showed better results than the combine-cN model in predicting ALNM.

Therefore, our nomograms show a good ability in forecasting the probability of ALNM.



Figure 3. ROC and calibration curves of the preoperative prediction of axillary lymph node metastasis in breast cancer patients. (A) The ROC curves of different nomograms with AUC for the training set (left) and the validation set (right). (B) Calibration curves of the combine model for the training set and validation set. ROC: Receiver operating characteristic; AUC: Area under the curve.



Figure 4. Decision curve analysis for the ALNM-nomograms in the training set. Net benefit is shown on the Y-axis. cN: Clinical N stage; path-Grade: Pathological grade; ALNM: Axillary lymph node metastasis.

Discussion

The global incidence of breast cancer is increasing rapidly, and it is of great clinical significance to study the diagnostic prediction of breast cancer [21]. ALN status of breast cancer

Biomolecules & Biomedicine

patients affects their prognosis and also affects doctors' decision on treatment options. The misjudgment of the ALNM may lead to inappropriate treatment of the patients [22]. At the time of the initial diagnosis of breast cancer, ALNM predicts poor future treatment outcomes in breast cancer patients. Studies have reported a worse prognosis in ALN-positive patients than in ALN-negative patients, so an accurate assessment of the status of ALN in breast cancer patients before treatment can optimize treatment strategies and improve outcomes [23, 24]. Therefore, it is of great interest to clarify the ALN status of breast cancer patients at initial diagnosis.

Most previous research on ALNM in breast cancer patients has only focused on single independent risk factors for ALNM, such as tumor size and grade [25, 26]. Recently, a number of researchers have also developed multivariate models to predict ALNM based on patient clinical information [25, 27]. The greatest advantage we have over these studies is that our model is noninvasive and convenient. There have also been attempts to investigate the relationship between the tumor immune microenvironment and ALNM. A previous study used the tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes signature to predict ALNM status in breast cancer patients, but in their study, few HER2positive breast cancer and triple negative breast cancer patients were included. In addition, they only focused on T1 breast cancer [28]. Some researchers investigated the use of MRI radiomic signature to develop a noninvasive preoperative model for predicting ALNM [15, 29]. Liu et al. [30] used the MRI radiomic signature to predict ALN status, however, the sample size of this single-center study was too small. In the present study, we enrolled a larger cohort including 355 breast cancer patients to develop nomograms. Our approach can be extended to a variety of clinical and experimental applications. Yao et al. used MRI radiomics signature to develop and validate a model for predicting ALNM and disease-free survival in patients with early-stage breast cancer. Their study showed that the predictive model combining radiological and clinical information for predicting ALNM was better than a model using either one alone [15]. However, in this multicenter retrospective study, there was heterogeneity in the magnetic resonance versions. Similarly, another retrospective study demonstrated that preoperative internal enhancement on dynamic contrast-enhanced MRI might help predict sentinel lymph node metastasis in patients with invasive breast cancer [29]. But the indicator was subjective because it was set by the radiologists, and as little is known about the reproducibility of measurements, the reproducibility of this method is uncertain. Unfortunately, the cost of MRI is relatively high, and the availability of MRI units in primary hospitals remains poor. Compared with those studies using MRI radiomic signature to predict ALNM status, our nomograms are much easier and simpler to perform, and the data needed in this model is easier and more convenient to be obtained.

Unlike previous studies that predicted ALNM, our study cohort included clinical lymph node staging of patients and other information to predict ALN status, resulting in a more accurate preoperative assessment of ALN status [30, 31]. In this study, we developed and validated models that can simply

and accurately predict ALNM status based on patient clinical information at a baseline level. Furthermore, we found that among these models, cN signature is a crucial factor for predicting ALNM in patients with breast cancer. Our models displayed an excellent ability to predict ALNM with good AUCs in the combine validation set (AUC 0.80, 95% CI 0.71-0.88) and the combine-pathGrade validation set (AUC 0.78, 95% CI 0.73-0.84). In addition, we constructed different nomograms to distinguish which signature plays the dominant role in the predictive model. When we removed the cN variable, the discriminative ability for predicting ALNM of the ROC curve decreased significantly, with the AUCs of 0.64 (95% CI 0.57–0.71) in the training set and 0.60 (95% CI 0.49–0.71) in the validation set. However, when we removed the pathGrade variable, the combine-pathGrade model still showed great discriminative ability for predicting ALNM. Our results suggested that cN played a dominant role in predicting ALNM, and nomograms, including cN, showed good abilities in predicting ALNM in breast cancer patients. In line with our study, previous studies showed that ALN condition based on breast ultrasound detection was a predictor of lymph node load [32]. However, in another research, the accuracy of the model using axillary ultrasound was not high, with an AUC of 0.585–0.719 [33]. Compared to these previous studies, our nomograms showed good predictive abilities. A previous study demonstrated that tumor lesion boundary, tumor size, and tumor quadrant locations were the most important factors affecting ALNM in cT1-2N0M0 stage breast cancer, and we would like to focus on these risk factors in our further study [34]. Besides, previous studies have focused on the predictive role of imaging features on ALNM, but little focus has been given to laboratory test indicators. In the present study, our results suggest that hemoglobin is a risk factor for ALNM, which has not been previously reported in studies, suggesting that an understanding of the laboratory parameters of patients helps predict ALN status. In the follow-up study, we plan to explore whether biochemical indicators, such as blood lipids and blood glucose, can predict the status of lymph node metastases in breast cancer patients.

Admittedly, this study has several limitations. First, our models were built based on data collected from a single center, and because this is a retrospective study, its clinical applicability may be reduced. Multicenter evidence will be needed to validate the models in the future before they can be put into clinical use. Second, we did not conduct subgroup analyses due to the small sample size. The possibility of ALNM may differ among breast cancer patients with different molecular subtyping. In future study, we will assess the ability of the predictive models to predict ALNM in each molecular subtype. Additionally, the cN relies heavily on the ultrasound results and the expertise of the doctors, which is subjective and little is known about the reproducibility of those methods. Fourth, due to medical limitations at the time of the patient's diagnosis approximately 10 years ago and the lack of genetic testing data, we focused only on the potential impact of clinical and pathological features on ALNM and did not consider the genetic features. For future prospective studies, researchers may combine transcriptome and gene mutation data for predicting ALNM. Finally, we have validated the effects of our nomograms by using the validation set which may overestimate the value of our model, and prospective external validation is lacking.

Conclusion

This study described a cN-based prediction model for ALNM in breast cancer patients, presenting a novel personalized clinical decision nomogram that can be used to predict ALNM status. The integrated nomogram is valuable for determining preoperative ALNM. When removing the pathGrade signature based on puncture pathology results from the integrated model, the nomogram did not reduce the predictive accuracy of the nomogram. But removing cN signature significantly reduced the predictive ability of the prediction model. Our results suggest that cN staging based on preoperative ultrasound is valuable for determining preoperative ALNM. The cN-based nomograms are useful clinical tools for predicting ALNM and can provide a preoperative prediction.

Conflicts of interest: Authors declare no conflicts of interest.

Funding: This study has received funding in part by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (81974420), and Natural Science Foundation of Hunan Province (2022JJ30979), the Xiangya-Peking University, Wei Ming Clinical and Rehabilitation Research Fund (No. xywm2015I35), and China Post-doctoral Science Foundation (2022M713536). The funding sources had no role in the study design, data collection, analysis, preparation of the manuscript, or decision to submit the manuscript for publication.

Data availability: The datasets generated and/or analyzed during the current study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Submitted: 29 November 2022 Accepted: 03 January 2023 Published online: 13 January 2022

References

- Sung H, Ferlay J, Siegel RL, Laversanne M, Soerjomataram I, Jemal A, et al. Global cancer statistics 2020: GLOBOCAN estimates of incidence and mortality worldwide for 36 cancers in 185 countries. CA Cancer J Clin 2021;71(3):209–49. https://doi.org/10.3322/caac.21660.
- [2] Cianfrocca M, Goldstein LJ. Prognostic and predictive factors in early-stage breast cancer. Oncologist 2004;9(6):606-16. https://doi. org/10.1634/theoncologist.9-6-606.
- [3] Jatoi I, Hilsenbeck SG, Clark GM, Osborne CK. Significance of axillary lymph node metastasis in primary breast cancer. J Clin Oncol 1999;17(8):2334-40. https://doi.org/10.1200/JCO.1999.17.8.2334.
- [4] Benson JR, della Rovere GQ. Management of the axilla in women with breast cancer. Lancet Oncol 2007;8(4):331-48. https://doi.org/10.1016/ S1470-2045(07)70103-1.
- [5] Giuliano AE, Ballman KV, McCall L, Beitsch PD, Brennan MB, Kelemen PR, et al. Effect of axillary dissection vs no axillary dissection on 10year overall survival among women with invasive breast cancer and sentinel node metastasis: the ACOSOG Z0011 (alliance) randomized clinical trial. JAMA 2017;318(10):918–26. https://doi.org/10.1001/jama. 2017.11470.
- [6] Qiu S-Q, Zhang G-J, Jansen L, de Vries J, Schröder CP, de Vries EGE, et al. Evolution in sentinel lymph node biopsy in breast cancer. Crit Rev Oncol Hematol 2018;123:83–94. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.critrevonc. 2017.09.010.

- [7] Brackstone M, Baldassarre FG, Perera FE, Cil T, Chavez Mac Gregor M, Dayes IS, et al. Management of the axilla in early-stage breast cancer: Ontario Health (cancer care Ontario) and ASCO guideline. J Clin Oncol 2021;39(27):3056–82. https://doi.org/10.1200/JCO.21.00934.
- [8] Kootstra J, Hoekstra-Weebers JEHM, Rietman H, de Vries J, Baas P, Geertzen JHB, et al. Quality of life after sentinel lymph node biopsy or axillary lymph node dissection in stage I/II breast cancer patients: a prospective longitudinal study. Ann Surg Oncol 2008;15(9):2533–41. https://doi.org/10.1245/s10434-008-9996-9.
- [9] Liu C-Q, Guo Y, Shi J-Y, Sheng Y. Late morbidity associated with a tumour-negative sentinel lymph node biopsy in primary breast cancer patients: a systematic review. Eur J Cancer 2009;45(9):1560–8. https:// doi.org/10.1016/j.ejca.2009.02.012.
- [10] Valente SA, Levine GM, Silverstein MJ, Rayhanabad JA, Weng-Grumley JG, Ji L, et al. Accuracy of predicting axillary lymph node positivity by physical examination, mammography, ultrasonography, and magnetic resonance imaging. Ann Surg Oncol 2012;19(6):1825–30. https://doi.org/10.1245/s10434-011-2200-7.
- [11] van Nijnatten TJA, Ploumen EH, Schipper RJ, Goorts B, Andriessen EH, Vanwetswinkel S, et al. Routine use of standard breast MRI compared to axillary ultrasound for differentiating between no, limited and advanced axillary nodal disease in newly diagnosed breast cancer patients. Eur J Radiol 2016;85(12):2288–94. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejrad.2016.10.030.
- [12] Yun SJ, Sohn Y-M, Seo M. Risk stratification for axillary lymph node metastases in breast cancer patients: what clinicopathological and radiological factors of primary breast cancer can predict preoperatively axillary lymph node metastases? Ultrasound Quart 2017;33(1):15-22. https://doi.org/10.1097/RUQ.00000000000249.
- [13] Rivadeneira DE, Simmons RM, Christos PJ, Hanna K, Daly JM, Osborne MP. Predictive factors associated with axillary lymph node metastases in T1a and T1b breast carcinomas: analysis in more than 900 patients. J Am Coll Surg 2000;191(1):1–6. https://doi.org/10.1016/ s1072-7515(00)00310-0.
- [14] McKinney SM, Sieniek M, Godbole V, Godwin J, Antropova N, Ashrafian H, et al. International evaluation of an AI system for breast cancer screening. Nature 2020;577(7788):89-94. https://doi.org/10. 1038/s41586-019-1799-6.
- [15] Yu Y, Tan Y, Xie C, Hu Q, Ouyang J, Chen Y, et al. Development and validation of a preoperative magnetic resonance imaging radiomics-based signature to predict axillary lymph node metastasis and disease-free survival in patients with early-stage breast cancer. JAMA Netw Open 2020;3(12):e2028086. https://doi.org/10.1001/ jamanetworkopen.2020.28086.
- [16] Chen C, Qin Y, Chen H, Zhu D, Gao F, Zhou X. A meta-analysis of the diagnostic performance of machine learning-based MRI in the prediction of axillary lymph node metastasis in breast cancer patients. Insights Imag 2021;12(1):156. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13244-021-01034-1.
- [17] Skarping I, Förnvik D, Zackrisson S, Borgquist S, Rydén L. Predicting pathological axillary lymph node status with ultrasound following neoadjuvant therapy for breast cancer. Breast Cancer Res Treat 2021;189(1):131-44. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10549-021-06283-8.
- [18] Krishnamurthy S, Sneige N, Bedi DG, Edieken BS, Fornage BD, Kuerer HM, et al. Role of ultrasound-guided fine-needle aspiration of indeterminate and suspicious axillary lymph nodes in the initial staging of breast carcinoma. Cancer 2002;95(5):982-8. https://doi.org/10.1002/ cncr.10786.
- [19] Liu Z, Feng B, Li C, Chen Y, Chen Q, Li X, et al. Preoperative prediction of lymphovascular invasion in invasive breast cancer with dynamic contrast-enhanced-MRI-based radiomics. J Magn Reson Imag JMRI 2019;50(3):847–57. https://doi.org/10.1002/jmri.26688.
- [20] Wang X, Chen L, Sun Y, Zhang B. Evaluation of axillary lymph node metastasis burden by preoperative ultrasound in early-stage breast cancer with needle biopsy-proven metastasis. Clin Transl Oncol 2020;22(4):468–73. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12094-019-02162-3.
- [21] Huang J, Chan PS, Lok V, Chen X, Ding H, Jin Y, et al. Global incidence and mortality of breast cancer: a trend analysis. Aging (Albany NY) 2021;13(4):5748–803. https://doi.org/10.18632/aging.202502.
- [22] Yu Y, He Z, Ouyang J, Tan Y, Chen Y, Gu Y, et al. Magnetic resonance imaging radiomics predicts preoperative axillary lymph node metastasis to support surgical decisions and is associated with tumor microenvironment in invasive breast cancer: a machine learning, multicenter study. EBioMedicine 2021;69:103460. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ebiom. 2021.103460.

- [23] Rack B, Janni W, Gerber B, Strobl B, Schindlbeck C, Klanner E, et al. Patients with recurrent breast cancer: does the primary axillary lymph node status predict more aggressive tumor progression? Breast Cancer Res Treat 2003;82(2):83–92. https://doi.org/10.1023/B:BREA. 0000003955.73738.9e.
- [24] Tausch C, Taucher S, Dubsky P, Seifert M, Reitsamer R, Kwasny W, et al. Prognostic value of number of removed lymph nodes, number of involved lymph nodes, and lymph node ratio in 7502 breast cancer patients enrolled onto trials of the Austrian breast and colorectal cancer study group (ABCSG). Ann Surg Oncol 2012;19(6):1808–17. https:// doi.org/10.1245/s10434-011-2189-y.
- [25] Luo N, Wen Y, Zou Q, Ouyang D, Chen Q, Zeng L, et al. Construction and validation of a risk prediction model for clinical axillary lymph node metastasis in T1-2 breast cancer. Sci Rep 2022;12(1):687. https://doi. org/10.1038/s41598-021-04495-y.
- [26] Liu C, Jiang Y, Gu X, Xu Z, Ai L, Zhang H, et al. Predicting level 2 axillary lymph node metastasis in a Chinese breast cancer population post-neoadjuvant chemotherapy: development and assessment of a new predictive nomogram. Oncotarget 2017;8(45):79147-56. https:// doi.org/10.18632/oncotarget.16131.
- [27] Tran H-T, Pack D, Mylander C, Martino L, Rosman M, Tafra L, et al. Ultrasound-based nomogram identifies breast cancer patients unlikely to harbor axillary metastasis: towards selective omission of sentinel lymph node biopsy. Ann Surg Oncol 2020;27(8):2679–86. https://doi. org/10.1245/s10434-019-08164-3.
- [28] Takada K, Kashiwagi S, Asano Y, Goto W, Kouhashi R, Yabumoto A, et al. Prediction of lymph node metastasis by tumor-infiltrating

lymphocytes in T1 breast cancer. BMC Cancer 2020;20(1):598. https:// doi.org/10.1186/s12885-020-07101-y.

- [29] Choi EJ, Youk JH, Choi H, Song JS. Dynamic contrast-enhanced and diffusion-weighted MRI of invasive breast cancer for the prediction of sentinel lymph node status. J Magn Reson Imag 2020;51(2):615–26. https://doi.org/10.1002/jmri.26865.
- [30] Liu J, Sun D, Chen L, Fang Z, Song W, Guo D, et al. Radiomics analysis of dynamic contrast-enhanced magnetic resonance imaging for the prediction of sentinel lymph node metastasis in breast cancer. Front Oncol 2019;9:980. https://doi.org/10.3389/fonc.2019.00980.
- [31] Han L, Zhu Y, Liu Z, Yu T, He C, Jiang W, et al. Radiomic nomogram for prediction of axillary lymph node metastasis in breast cancer. Eur Radiol 2019;29(7):3820-9. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00330-018-5981-2.
- [32] Farrell TPJ, Adams NC, Stenson M, Carroll PA, Griffin M, Connolly EM, et al. The Z0011 trial: is this the end of axillary ultrasound in the pre-operative assessment of breast cancer patients? Eur Radiol 2015;25(9):2682-7. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00330-015-3683-6.
- [33] Youk JH, Son EJ, Kim J-A, Gweon HM. Pre-operative evaluation of axillary lymph node status in patients with suspected breast cancer using shear wave elastography. Ultrasound Med Biol 2017;43(8): 1581-6. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ultrasmedbio.2017.03.016.
- [34] Zhang Y, Li J, Fan Y, Li X, Qiu J, Zhu M, et al. Risk factors for axillary lymph node metastases in clinical stage T1-2N0M0 breast cancer patients. Medicine (Baltimore) 2019;98(40):e17481. https://doi.org/10. 1097/MD.000000000017481.

Related articles published in BJBMS

1. Development and validation of radiomics machine learning model based on contrast-enhanced computed tomography to predict axillary lymph node metastasis in breast cancer

Jieqiu Zhang et al., BJBMS, 2022

2. Development and validation of nomograms for predicting survival of elderly patients with stage I small-cell lung cancer

Yaji Yang et al., BJBMS, 2020

Supplemental Data

Variables	OR	95% CI	P value
Age	0.98	0.95-1.00	0.08
Weight	1.00	0.96-1.03	0.85
Height	0.98	0.94-1.03	0.49
BMI	1.01	0.93-1.09	0.90
Neu	1.10	0.90-1.34	0.34
Lym	0.86	0.53-1.42	0.56
NLR	1.10	0.88-1.38	0.39
PLT	1.00	0.99-1.00	0.51
PLR	1.00	0.99-1.01	0.82
Mono	3.40	0.65-17.69	0.15
LMR	0.95	0.83-1.10	0.50
A	0.96	0.90-1.03	0.27
G	1.01	0.96-1.07	0.61
AG	0.51	0.19-1.35	0.17
AST	1.01	0.97-1.05	0.63
ALT	1.01	0.99-1.03	0.45
LDH	1.00	0.99-1.00	0.23
HGB	1.03	1.00-1.05	0.03
НСТ	1.01	0.97-1.04	0.71
Eos	0.36	0.03-4.11	0.41
Bas	0.06	0.00-13.97	0.31
РСТ	2.05	0.02-176.35	0.75
MPV	1.08	0.94-1.24	0.27
PDW	1.00	0.82-1.22	0.99
BUN	0.99	0.82-1.20	0.91
Scr	0.99	0.97-1.01	0.53
K	1 32	0.65-2.67	0.44
Na	0.94	0.85-1.05	0.28
Cl	0.98	0.93-1.03	0.36
CO2	0.96	0.87-1.06	0.39
AG	1.01	0.93-1.09	0.87
Ca	0.23	0.02-2.15	0.20
P	0.66	0.18-2.41	0.53
Mø	0 33	0.00-21.44	0.60
PT	1 25	0.85-1.85	0.25
РРТ	0.99	0.97-1.01	0.19
INR	12 29	0.26–584.25	0.20
ΔΡΤΤ	1.08	1 00-1 17	0.06
тт	0.96	0 79-1 16	0.67
FIR	0.90	0.62-1.32	0.61
сT	2.07	1 44-2 98	~0.001
cN	6 10	3 60-10 36	< 0.001
nathGrade	2 11	1 32-3 37	~0.001
FR	0.99	0.77-1.26	0.001
DR	0.55	0.66-1.14	0.52
Ki67	0.80	0.00-1.14	0.31
P53	1.30	0.87_1.77	0.75
	1.24	0.79 1.86	0.24
nekz	1.22	0.79-1.00	0.3/

Table S1. Univariate logistic regression analyses of axillary lymph node metastasis

CI: Confidence interval; OR: Odds ratio; Neu: Neutrophil; Lym: Lymphocyte; NLR: Neutrophil to lymphocyte ratio; PLT: Platelets; PLR: Platelet to lymphocyte ratio; Mono: Monocyte; LMR: Lymphocyte to monocyte ratio; A: Albumin; G: Globulin; A/G: Albumin to globulin ratio; AST: Aspartate transaminase; ALT: Alanine transaminase; LDH: Lactate dehydrogenase; HGB: Hemoglobin; HCT: Hematocrit; Eos: Eosinophil; Bas: Basophil; PCT: Thrombocytocrit; MPV: Mean platelet volume; PDW: The distribution width of platelets; BUN: Blood urea nitrogen; Src: Serum creatinine; CO2: Carbon dioxide; AG: Anion gap; PT: Prothrombin time; PPT: Percentage of prothrombin; INR: International normalized ratio; APTT: Activated partial thromboplastin time; TT: Thromboplastin time; FIB: Fibrinogen; cT: Clinical T stage; cN: Clinical N stage; pathGrade: Pathological grade; ER: Estrogen receptor; PR: Progesterone receptor; Ki67: Proliferation marker protein Ki67; HER2: Human epidermal growth factor receptor 2.