Background: This report describes the clinical evaluation of a novel, low-cost, high-resolution endoscopic microscope for obtaining fluorescent images of the cellular morphology of the epithelium of regions of the esophagus with Barrett’s metaplasia. This noninvasive point imaging system offers a method for obtaining real-time histologic information during endoscopy.

Objective: The objective of this study was to compare images taken with the fiberoptic endoscopic microscope with standard histopathologic examination.

Design: Feasibility study.

Setting: The University of Texas M.D. Anderson Cancer Center Department of Gastroenterology.

Patients, Interventions, and Main Outcome Measurements: The tissue samples studied in this report were obtained by endoscopic resection from patients with previous diagnoses of either high-grade dysplasia or esophageal adenocarcinoma.

Results: Three distinct tissue types were observed ex vivo with the endoscopic microscope: normal squamous mucosa, Barrett’s metaplasia, and high-grade dysplasia. Squamous tissue was identified by bright nuclei surrounded by dark cytoplasm in an ordered pattern. Barrett’s metaplasia could be identified by large glandular structures with intact nuclear polarity. High-grade dysplasia was visualized as plentiful, irregular glandular structures and loss of nuclear polarity. Standard histopathologic examination of study samples confirmed the results obtained by the endoscopic microscope.

Limitations: The endoscopic microscope probe had to be placed into direct contact with tissue.

Conclusions: It was feasible to obtain high-resolution histopathologic information using the endoscopic microscope device. Future improvement and integration with widefield endoscopic techniques will aid in improving the sensitivity of detection of dysplasia and early cancer development in the esophagus.

Barrett’s esophagus (BE) is characterized by the replacement of the normal squamous epithelium of the esophagus by a specialized metaplastic columnar mucosa. A result of chronic GERD, BE is significant because of a drastically increased risk for the development of esophageal adenocarcinoma (EAC). Indeed, subjects with BE carry a risk of EAC up to 125 times greater than that of the average person.1 EAC itself is one of the most rapidly rising cancers in the United States, having undergone a 5% to 10% increase in incidence per year over the last 30 years.2,3 Despite increased awareness, survival rates for EAC remain a dismal 10% to 25%, an outcome largely a result of diagnosis at an advanced stage.

In an effort to improve these statistics, much work has been focused on the early detection of EAC through the diagnosis of high-grade dysplasia (HGD) or minimally invasive (intramucosal) adenocarcinoma. However, the detection of this early neoplasia is technically challenging. On standard white-light endoscopy, dysplasia and early EAC are often focal, flat, and difficult to consistently distinguish from regular metaplasia. Moreover, the current standard of EGD with random, 4-quadrant biopsies has been shown to miss nearly two thirds of dysplastic lesions.4,6 Therefore, there is a demand for minimally invasive
techniques that can detect dysplasia or cancer at an early stage. Such early detection will not only improve survival rates but also facilitate the application of less-morbid alternatives to esophagectomy, such as EMR.

Several recent optical technologies have sought to increase the detection of neoplasia at both low and high resolution. Among the lower resolution (so-called “wide-field”) techniques, autofluorescence endoscopy and narrow-band imaging have been the best studied to date. Although both these modalities have been shown to increase the detection of HGD and early adenocarcinoma, specificity has not been impressive.\(^7\)\(^\text{-13}\) This is in part due to esophagitis and inflammatory confounders and other reactive epithelial alterations, which can increase the number of false-positive results.

To improve on the current specificity rates among these new endoscopic imaging modalities, the use of complementary high-resolution techniques, capable of subcellular imaging, has been proposed. One of the most promising of these high-resolution techniques is confocal endomicroscopy.\(^14\) Indeed, a recent study by Kiesslich et al\(^15\) found high sensitivity and specificity rates for the detection of HGD/intramucosal EAC when a confocal endoscope was used with fluorescent contrast agents.\(^15\)\(^\text{-16}\) Although use of such a device may be ideal in an academic or tertiary care setting where the prevalence of neoplasia is high, cost and the necessity for a separate system may preclude its translation to the community. Indeed, in a community-based, average-risk surveillance setting, the cost of each application of the device, making it an ideal technology for community-based applications.

**PATIENTS AND METHODS**

**Patients**

Patients who participated in this study had been previously diagnosed with either HGD or intramucosal adenocarcinoma and were scheduled for upper endoscopy with either jumbo biopsies or EMR of the affected areas. The study protocols were approved by both the Rice University Institutional Review Board and the University of Texas M.D. Anderson Cancer Center Institutional Review Board, and informed consent was obtained from each patient before the procedure. Eleven sequential patients with a documented history of BE were approached for enrollment. One patient was excluded because of inability to perform the EMR (nonlifting); the remaining 10 were imaged with the endoscopic microscope and topical acriflavine.

For each patient, typically 1 to 2 samples were obtained, with approximately 5 to 10 measurement sites on each sample. Images presented in this article are typical for high-quality specimens.

**Methods**

For this study, EMR specimens or 4-mm jumbo biopsy specimens were obtained by a single endoscopist (S. A.) from patients with Barrett’s dysplasia or EAC. Optical images were obtained immediately after application of topical acriflavine (see Fluorescent contrast agent). After imaging, the EMR samples and biopsy specimens were submitted to a single expert GI pathologist (D. M.) for interpretation, and the optical and histopathologic images were reviewed. More than 100 optical images were obtained and reviewed.

**The fiber bundle microscope**

The endoscopic microscope used in this study consisted of a 3-m image guide with 30,000 individual fibers. The spacing of the individual fibers largely determines the spatial resolution of the endoscopic microscope; in this case, the center-to-center spacing was approximately 4 \(\mu\text{m}\). The field of view of the system depends on the diameter of the active area of the fiber bundle; in this case, a circular field of view with a diameter of 750 \(\mu\text{m}\) was produced. Images were produced by placing the distal surface of the fiber bundle into direct contact with the tissue to be interrogated. The image guide can be easily passed through the biopsy port of a standard endoscope (Fig. 1). Illumination was provided by a blue light-emitting diode centered at 455 nm, which produced an illumination intensity of approximately 1 mW at the distal end of the fiber bundle. Fluorescent light
returning through the bundle was directed to a scientific-grade charge-coupled device camera coupled to a personal computer (PC). Images are displayed at a typical frame rate of 2 to 4 frames per second. The images presented in this article appear as they would to a clinician viewing the monitor in a real-time setting.

**Fluorescent contrast agent**

Acriflavine hydrochloride was used as a topical contrast agent and was applied to tissues before imaging. Acriflavine has been shown to localize to the nuclei of cells with minimal nonspecific cytoplasmic staining. A solution of 0.05% (wt/vol) acriflavine in buffered saline solution was applied with a cotton swab to the mucosa of each EMR or biopsy specimen before imaging. The acriflavine was placed on the specimen for 30 seconds, which was then rinsed with buffered saline solution to eliminate any unbound dye. Imaging was performed immediately after labeling.

**Criteria for interpretation of images**

The criteria applied to interpret endoscopic microscope images were based on differential histologic characteristics of tissue. These include well-established features seen on light microscopy of standard histologic sections and previously published criteria for scanning confocal microscopy. The criteria used for light microscopy and confocal microscopy were used to identify the tissue type and evaluate the architectural and cytologic alterations. The nonneoplastic squamous mucosa is identified on histologic sections by its flat multilayered arrangement with polyhedral cell shapes, well-defined cell membranes, and centrally situated nuclei with regular internuclear

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**Figure 1.** Endoscopic microscope. **A,** Image of fiber bundle extending through the biopsy port of a standard white-light endoscope. **B,** Image of fiber bundle probe in vivo. **C,** Image of table-top endoscopic microscope; fluorescence microscope unit is on the left, data-acquisition PC is on the right. **D,** Schematic overview of the system. **CCD,** Charge-coupled device; **LED,** light-emitting diode.
distances. The invaginating lamina propria (papillae) are identified as extensions of lamina propria—composed of loose connective tissue with thin walled blood vessels—into the squamous epithelium at regular intervals. On confocal microscopy the cytologic characteristics of squamous epithelium are essentially identical to those of histologic characteristics, with polygonal cell shapes with well-defined cell membranes and centrally situated nuclei, the latter two identified by their bright color compared with the darker cytoplasm. Flat multilayering is assessed by the unaltered shape of the epithelial arrangement at progressively deeper optical sections of the mucosa. The papillae are identified as a circular dark area with the presence of scattered small bright structures corresponding to the connective tissue, red blood cells, and inflammatory cells. The presence of intraepithelial inflammation is identified by inflammatory cells, which are seen as bright oval to round structures that are haphazardly distributed in the epithelium.

BE (intestinal metaplasia) is identified on histologic examination by the presence of villiform architecture, columnar enterocytes, and goblet cells. The criteria used for confocal microscopy include the presence of round double-layer ring (torus) structures that alter their shapes at different optical thicknesses. At deeper levels the ring-like structures show the classic villiform architecture. The villi are lined by the columnar enterocytes with bright nuclei and dark cytoplasm. The lamina propria in the core of the villi shows a similar appearance to the squamous papillae with blood vessels and inflammatory cells. At cellular levels the presence of goblet cells is identified by clear to dark blue globules admixed with the columnar enterocytes. The border of the goblet cells is particularly bright in good-quality images. In nondysplastic Barrett’s mucosa the intervillous stroma is abundant and identified by the presence of loose connective tissue, inflammatory cells, and blood vessels. In highly dysplastic Barrett’s mucosa the villous architecture is either effaced or completely lost. In addition, at different optical thicknesses the architecture is uniform with complex back-to-back arrangements of small glandular structures with minimal intervening stroma. The cytologic alterations, such as multilayering of the cells, bright nuclear appearance, decreased goblet cells, and high nuclear-to-cytoplasmic ratios, are also applied to identify high-grade dysplasia. Another feature seen in good-quality images is the structural relation of epithelium and subepithelial capillaries. In nondysplastic Barrett’s mucosa the capillaries are regular and seen at upper and mid level thicknesses. However, in highly dysplastic mucosa the capillaries are seen only at deeper levels and show variations in size and shape.

Each image was analyzed independently and in a blinded fashion by both a GI pathologist and a gastroenterologist. Endoscopic microscope images were then correlated with the standard histopathologic images, previously interpreted by the GI pathologist.

RESULTS

Images obtained with the endoscopic microscope were compared with histopathologic interpretation of the same areas. Fluorescence images were evaluated qualitatively, noting nuclear size and density; nuclear-to-cytoplasmic ratio, glandular structure and organization, and intensity of fluorescence. Distinct patterns of fluorescence images were observed for tissues with different histopathologic diagnoses: (1) normal squamous epithelium, (2) Barrett’s metaplasia/low-grade dysplasia, and (3) Barrett’s neoplasia (HGD or intramucosal adenocarcinoma).

Normal squamous tissue

Figure 2 shows histologic and endoscopic fluorescence microscopy images of normal squamous mucosa obtained from a site that appeared normal on white-light endoscopy. The biopsy fragment was also imaged with a commercial fiberoptic confocal endoscope (Pentax/Optiscan, Montvale, NJ) and a standard commercial benchtop confocal system (Zeiss LSM 510 Meta, Thornwood, NY). Both the fiberoptic confocal system and the benchtop confocal microscope used an excitation wavelength of 488 nm.

Individual cell nuclei are easily visible as discreet bright dots in fluorescence images obtained with the endoscopic microscope and the 2 confocal systems (Fig. 2). The field of view of the endoscopic microscope is much larger than those of the 2 confocal systems, whereas the spatial resolution is somewhat decreased. In addition, the frame rate of the endoscopic microscope (2 to 4 frames per second) is faster than that of the commercially available confocal endoscope (0.8 frames per second). The squamous epithelium is distinguished by its multilayering, polyhedral/polygonal shape and centrally situated nuclei, and well-defined cell membrane. Uniform spacing of the nuclei indicates the intact polarity that distinguishes benign squamous mucosa. This also helps in differentiating other, more randomly distributed cells (eg, inflammatory cells) that might infiltrate the epithelium.

Barrett’s metaplasia

Endoscopic microscope imaging was performed at several sites on EMR specimens labeled topically with acriflavin. Two sites are described in this article (Fig. 3). The endoscopic microscope image in Figure 3A shows glandular epithelium characterized by double-ring-like architecture with bright density distributed uniformly along the basement membrane consistent with intact nuclear polarity. In addition, the nuclei are uniformly distributed in the epithelium away from the basement membrane. These features are consistent with nondysplastic glandular mucosa.

The image in Figure 3B shows features similar to those in Figure 3A except for a small area of focal complex architecture, the significance of which is uncertain because the
nuclear arrangement is that of nondysplastic glandular epithelium described in Figure 3A. This image is also consistent with Barrett’s mucosa without dysplasia. The hematoxylin-eosin stained section of the same specimen in Figure 3C shows distinctive Barrett’s mucosa, histologically defined as intestinal metaplasia. The intestinal metaplasia is characterized by the presence of goblet cells, easily identified by intracytoplasmic clear to light blue vacuoles. These features are consistent with Barrett’s metaplasia.

**Figure 2.** Images of normal squamous tissue. A, Endoscopic microscope image of normal squamous tissue stained with 0.05% acriflavine. B, Benchtop confocal (Zeiss LSM 510 Meta) image of same tissue. C, Pentax endoscopic confocal image of same tissue. A to C, Flat arrangement of squamous epithelium with round regularly spaced nuclei. The round clear spaces surrounded by the epithelium represent the papillae (red arrowhead). The acriflavine in image A highlights the nuclei. D, Histopathologic features of same specimen (H&E, orig. mag. ×10). Scale bar is 100 μm.

**HGD**

Endoscopic microscopy and histopathologic images taken from an EMR specimen with HGD are shown in Figures 4A and B, respectively. Figure 4A shows a confluent proliferation of small glandular structures with variable size and shape with occasional areas showing a gland-in-gland appearance. High nuclear density along with a large component of cells occupied entirely by nuclei indicate high nuclear-to-cytoplasmic ratio. These features are consistent with HGD.
The hematoxylin-eosin stained section of the specimen shows distinctive Barrett’s mucosa with HGD, consistent with the features observed in the fluorescence image. The HGD is characterized by architecturally complex arrangement of the glands and loss of nuclear polarity, nuclear overcrowding, and nuclei and mitotic figures reaching up to the luminal surface.

DISCUSSION

This study demonstrates the ability of an inexpensive (<$2500) system with a reusable probe to produce high-resolution images of a variety of esophageal tissue types. Such a device can easily be integrated into any standard endoscope to noninvasively yield subcellular-resolution images of the surface histologic features of a suspected lesion with the use of an appropriate fluorescent dye. Coupled with widefield imaging devices, this endoscopic microscope system should further enhance specificity for detection of Barrett’s neoplasia. This low-cost device has advantages over more complex “optical biopsy” systems because of its easy application to a wide variety of settings and platforms. The probe itself can be disinfected and reused, further reducing the cost of each use of the device. Moreover, the straightforward optical design is highly robust and requires no scanning mirrors or other moving parts, enabling such technology to disseminate to areas with high levels of support and regions with less infrastructure and resources.

Noninvasive visualization of the cellular architecture enables a clinician to more thoroughly inspect the mucosa and to diagnose and treat intraepithelial neoplasia immediately. The strength of our study is the application of well-established, age-old pathologic criteria to interpret the optical images. Ideally, the real-time interpretation of such images will involve close collaboration between a gastroenterologist and a GI pathologist. As has been shown with the interpretation of confocal endomicroscopic images, gastroenterologists can be trained to interpret optical images and distinguish 2 pathologic classifications: Barrett’s metaplasia/low grade dysplasia and Barrett’s HGD/intramucosal adenocarcinoma. A larger study with robust $k$ statistics for interobserver reproducibility is planned for validation of this concept with this device. Additionally, work is underway to develop algorithms on the basis of standard pathologic criteria (nuclear:cytoplasmic ratio, etc) that can be translated into rapid real-time image-processing and interpretation software.
From a clinical management standpoint, the diagnosis of Barrett’s HGD or intramucosal adenocarcinoma is the most critical distinction. Given the large interobserver variability in the interpretation of low-grade dysplasia and the subtle architectural and morphologic features that characterize it, we feel that the identification of low-grade dysplasia may be beyond the capabilities of this technology. However, given the low likelihood of progression, we do not believe this is a significant drawback. To further enhance the sensitivity and specificity of the technology for the detection of HGD/intramucosal cancer, we are currently working on combining high-resolution fluorescence imaging with other molecular-specific techniques (eg, optical contrast agents targeted to epithelial biomarkers).

To achieve the high frame rates and good image quality seen in images from this device, selection of a bright, selective fluorescent dye is critical. Acriflavine hydrochloride, previously used as a topical antiseptic, was chosen for its ability to cross cell membranes and label acid molecules, including DNA. Acriflavine has been used in a number of European and Australian in vivo imaging studies of the GI epithelium, as well as other studies, without any reported adverse effects.16,19-21 Although acriflavine displays some affinity for collagen and elastin and some residual staining occurs in the cytoplasmic regions of cells, strong contrast is observed between cell nuclei and the surrounding cytoplasm. This enables qualitative observation of the cellular architecture of squamous and glandular patterns and provides an estimate of nuclear-to-cytoplasmic ratios. Topical acriflavine also stains only the superficial layers of tissue, and has been shown to have a limited effect below the lamina propria.16 Because the contact imaging procedure used in the endoscopic microscope does not perform optical sectioning and does not reject fluorescent light as efficiently as a confocal microscope, superficial labeling improves image detail.

There have been recent advances in the use of molecular-specific contrast agents. These agents consist of an optical reporter conjugated to a monoclonal antibody, aptamer, or other targeting ligand, and they have been successfully implemented for the detection of abnormal expression levels of cell surface markers, including epidermal growth factor receptor.22 These fluorescent contrast agents can be used with existing high-resolution point imaging devices to yield both qualitative and quantitative data about the nature of neoplastic disease. In addition, the response of a particular tumor to a given therapy could be monitored over time in a noninvasive fashion.

In conclusion, we have developed a low-cost, fiber bundle–based high-resolution imaging system that is capable of visualizing cellular architecture, morphologic features, and nuclear-to-cytoplasmic ratios. Preliminary ex vivo evaluation shows that this system can differentiate between squamous mucosa, Barrett’s metaplasia, and Barrett’s intraepithelial neoplasia. Through the use of image processing techniques and segmentation of individual cell nuclei in images collected from the endoscopic microscope, it will be possible to provide a quantitative estimate of nuclear-to-cytoplasmic ratios.17 Future development and automation of such image processing software will lead to objective surveillance algorithms that can assist the endoscopist in locating dysplastic lesions. The use of such a translatable system in concert with existing and developing widefield endoscopic technologies may facilitate improved specificity for the detection of Barrett’s neoplasia, and further clinical evaluation of this technology is forthcoming.

Figure 4. Image of high-grade dysplasia. A, Endoscopic microscope image of HGD stained with 0.05% acriflavine. Confluent and haphazard glandular proliferation with back-to-back arrangements and minimal to absent stroma. Foci of high nuclear intensity and high nuclear-to-cytoplasmic ratio are highlighted by markers (red arrowheads). B, Histopathologic features of same specimen (H&E, orig. mag. ×10). Scale bar is 100 μm; all images are at the same scale.
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