1 Detection of breast cancer lymph node metastases in frozen sections with a point-of-

- 2 care low-cost microscope scanner
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22 Abstract

23 **Background** Detection of lymph node metastases is essential in breast cancer diagnostics and staging, affecting treatment and prognosis. Intraoperative 24 25 microscopy analysis of sentinel lymph node frozen sections is standard for detection 26 of axillary metastases, but requires access to a pathologist for sample analysis. 27 Remote analysis of digitized samples is an alternative solution, but is limited by the 28 requirement for high-end slide scanning equipment. **Objective** To determine whether 29 the image quality achievable with a low-cost, miniature digital microscope scanner is 30 sufficient for detection of metastases in breast cancer lymph node frozen sections. 31 **Methods** Lymph node frozen sections from 79 breast cancer patients were digitized 32 using a prototype miniature microscope scanner and a high-end slide scanner. Images were independently reviewed by two pathologists and results compared 33 34 between devices with conventional light microscopy analysis as ground truth. Results Detection of metastases in the images acquired with the miniature scanner 35 vielded an overall sensitivity of 91 % and specificity of 99 % and showed strong 36 37 agreement when compared to light microscopy (k = 0.91). Strong agreement was also observed when results were compared to results from the high-end slide 38 39 scanner (k = 0.94). A majority of discrepant cases were micrometastases and 40 sections of which no anticytokeratin staining was available. Conclusion Accuracy of 41 detection of metastatic cells in breast cancer sentinel lymph node frozen sections by 42 visual analysis of samples digitized using low-cost, point-of-care microscopy is 43 comparable to analysis of digital samples scanned using a high-end, whole slide 44 scanner. This technique could potentially provide a workflow for digital diagnostics in 45 resource-limited settings, facilitate sample analysis at the point-of-care and reduce 46 the need for trained experts on-site during surgical procedures.

47 Introduction

48 Breast cancer is the most common form of cancer in women, and the second leading 49 cause of cancer-related death in women globally [1]. Detection of axillary lymph node 50 metastases remains essential for the staging of breast cancer, affecting treatment 51 and prognosis [2]. Presence of axillary lymph node metastases indicates a need for 52 more extensive surgical procedures, typically axillary lymph node dissection (ALND) 53 [3]. Axillary metastases can be detected accurately using sentinel lymph node 54 biopsies in the vast majority of node positive patients, thus avoiding unnecessary 55 further axillary surgery for node negative patients [4, 5]. This is important as 56 evacuation of axillary lymph nodes is a major cause of postoperative complications 57 [6]. Intraoperative evaluation of frozen sections from sentinel lymph nodes (FS) is 58 the most common technique to determine axillary lymph node status, but requires 59 the presence of a pathologist on-site or close to the point-of-care to analyze the 60 samples. Surgical pathology using FS is generally considered accurate for the 61 detection of macrometastases, but not as reliable for detection of smaller lesions, i.e. 62 micrometastases and isolated tumor cells [7, 8]. Light microscopy evaluation of FS is 63 also prone to a certain degree of subjectivity [9].

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During the last decade, the field of digital pathology has evolved significantly. Wholeslide imaging (i.e. slide digitization) is now feasible with magnification and spatial image quality comparable to conventional light microscopy [10]. Digital pathology using digitized microscopy samples, or whole slide images (WSI), has multiple advantages, such as enabling remote access to samples for consultation purposes and remote sample analysis, and thus reducing the need for on-site experts. Another significant advantage is the possibility of utilizing digital image analysis to facilitate

72 sample analysis [11]. Studies suggest that the use of WSI to interpret FS samples at 73 a distance is feasible with results comparable to conventional methods [12], and this 74 technique is already being utilized in clinical settings at certain locations where on-75 site access to a pathologist is limited [13]. Currently however, the digitization of FS 76 has to be carried out with high-end, whole slide scanners, which mainly due to their high cost (retail prices ranging from 30 000 - 200 000 €) are limited to well-equipped 77 78 clinics. These devices also tend to be bulky in size and require trained personnel and 79 regular maintenance, further limiting their usability for point-of-care slide scanning 80 [14].

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82 During recent years, studies have demonstrated how extremely cost-efficient digital 83 microscopy devices for point-of-care microscopy diagnostics can be constructed 84 using commonly available, low-cost, mass-produced components from consumer 85 electronic products (typically smart phone camera systems) [15]. As the performance 86 of smart phone cameras has improved significantly during the last decade, the 87 imaging performance of this type of devices has also increased accordingly. Studies 88 suggest that the image quality achievable with this type of devices and components 89 is sufficient for diagnostic purposes in a variety of diseases, such as parasitic 90 diseases [16, 17], routine cancer histopathology [18]. Currently these devices have 91 certain limitations, one being that the digitized area typically is limited to a single 92 field-of-view (FOV) of the device.

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Here, we studied the performance of a prototype, low-cost, mobile digital microscope
scanner which supports digitization of sample areas measuring multiple FOVs, i.e.
whole slide imaging. We evaluate the performance of the device for digitization of

97 routinely prepared, intraoperative breast cancer frozen sections. The WSIs captured
98 with the miniature microscope prototype are assessed by two independent
99 pathologists to detect metastases and results compared to conventional microscopy

100 and to analysis of WSIs captured with a high-end scanner.

101

102 Materials and methods

103 Sample collection

104 Samples used in this study were routinely collected sentinel lymph node frozen 105 sections, acquired during breast cancer surgery at hospitals within the Hospital 106 District of Helsinki and Uusimaa in southern Finland. The samples were collected 107 and prepared in accordance with local standard operating procedures during a 108 period of one year (2016), and archived in the files of the pathology laboratory of the 109 hospital district (HUSLAB, Helsinki, Finland). Frozen sections were cut with a 110 thickness of 5 µm, and routine staining performed using toluidine blue and anti-111 cytokeratin immunohistochemical staining. Immunostaining for cytokeratins was 112 performed with a staining kit containing mouse monoclonal antibodies, targeting a 113 variety of cytokeratins, and diamino benzidine as a chromogen (Cytonel Plus kit, 114 Jilab Inc., Tampere, Finland).

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For this study, we retrospectively identified and collected samples from a total number of 80 patients. Of these, 28 patients were node positive (i.e. histologically verified macro- or micrometastases) and 52 patients were node negative (i.e. no detected cancer cells). A majority of patients had sections stained with both toluidine blue and anti-cytokeratin antibodies, but for a minority of selected patients only

121	toluidine blue sections (n = 3) or anti-cytokeratin stained sections (n = 3) were
122	available. For this study, we decided to limit the analysis to one area of
123	representative tissue from every glass slide, selected visually by light microscopy
124	expert evaluation. For every patient, one representative glass slide stained with
125	toluidine blue and the corresponding slide, stained with anti-cytokeratin (if available)
126	was collected after which representative sample regions, measuring approximately
127	0.5 x 0.5 cm (25 mm ²), were selected and marked by a pathologist (SN) for
128	digitization and further analysis.
129	
130	The ground truth in the study was decided as the light microscopy diagnosis of the

physical frozen sections, performed by a pathologist experienced in breast cancer
pathology. Thus, after the slides had been collected, all slides were examined by a
pathologist (SN) to confirm diagnosis used as the study ground truth. One sample
was excluded during this phase, as staining artefacts affected sample guality.

135

136 Digitization of samples

137 The evaluated instrument is a portable, lightweight, cloud-connected digital 138 microscope scanner prototype developed by the Institute for Molecular Medicine 139 Finland – FIMM, University of Helsinki (Fig 1). The imaging optics of the microscope 140 is constructed using low-cost, mass produced polymer lenses, primarily developed 141 for usage in cell phone camera systems. The prototype was manufactured by a 142 company specialized in providing services for the microelectronics industry (Laser 143 Probe LP Ov, Oulu, Finland). Total material costs for the miniaturized imaging optics 144 in the device, including the integrated focusing system, are comparable to costs of 145 the optics of a mid-range smartphone. A white light-emitting diode (LED) is used as

146 the source of light for brightfield imaging, and by utilizing a retractable ultraviolet LED 147 source with adjacent filters, transmitted light fluorescence imaging is also supported. 148 The camera module (See3CAM 130, e-con Systems Inc., St Louis, USA) of the 149 microscope features a 13-megapixel complementary metal oxide semiconductor 150 (CMOS) sensor with a plastic 1/3.2" lens and a maximum image resolution of 4208 x 151 3120 pixels. The field of view of the microscope is approximately 0.93 x 0.69 mm² 152 with a pixel size of approximately 0.22 µm x 0.22 µm and the spatial resolution 0.9 153 µm, as measured using a standardized USAF resolution test chart (Fig 2). Coarse 154 focus is adjusted manually using a physical focus lever to adjust focus plane, and 155 fine focus automatically using the built-in auto focus-routine. The device is 156 connected, powered and operated through a universal serial bus (USB) connector 157 from a computer running a custom software written in the matrix laboratory 158 programming environment (MATLAB, MathWorks Inc, Natick, MA) to control the 159 device. The software features a live-view of the sample area, and controls to select 160 and adjust areas to be scanned. Adjustment of the glass slide can be performed 161 manually, or by utilizing the external motor unit to adjust sample position. Digitization 162 of larger sample areas (i.e. whole slide scanning), covering multiple field of views, is 163 possible by utilizing the external motor unit for automatic sample navigation while the 164 device automatically captures a series of images from the different location. Acquired 165 images are saved locally on the computer and uploaded to an image processing and 166 management platform (WebMicroscope, Fimmic Oy, Helsinki, Finland) running on a 167 cloud server located at the university campus (Meilahti Campus Library Terkko, 168 University of Helsinki, Helsinki, Finland). Scanned areas measuring multiple FOVs 169 are stitched together after the scanning process into a single virtual slide. We used 170 the commercially available software Image Composite Editor (Microsoft

171 Computational Photography Research Group, Microsoft Inc., Redmond, WA) for the 172 image stitching process. The generated digital samples were saved in the Tagged Image File Format (TIFF), and further compressed to a wavelet file format 173 174 (Enhanced Compressed Wavelet; ECW, Hexagon Geospatial, Wisconson, USA) 175 with a target compression ratio of 1:9 to reduce file size, before uploading to the 176 image management platform. As shown in earlier work, this amount of compression 177 preserves sufficient spatial detail to not alter results significantly [19]. Remote 178 access to the image server for sample viewing and scoring was established using a 179 web browser, secured with SSL encryption. 180 181 Fig 1. Miniature microscope scanner prototype. Left: Miniature microscope 182 scanner "MoMic" (red bounding box) next to reference whole slide scanner. Right: 183 Overview of the device showing main microscope unit housing camera module (A), 184 motor unit for sample navigation (B) and glass slide holder (C). 185 186 Fig 2. US Air Force 1951 three-bar resolution test chart. Images captured with 187 miniature microscope scanner. Enlarged images showing smallest resolvable bars 188 (group 9, element 2 - 3), corresponding to a spatial resolution of approximately 0.9 189 μm. 190 191 The samples used in this study were also digitized using a high-end, automated 192 whole slide scanner (Pannoramic P250, 3DHistech Ltd., Budapest, Hungary). The

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images were compressed with a compression ratio of 1:9 to a wavelet file format and

slide scanner uses a 20x objective (NA 0.8) equipped with a three-CCD (charge-

coupled device) digital camera with a pixel resolution of 0.22 µm. The acquired

uploaded to the whole-slide management server, using the configurations describedabove.

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199 Slide management and remote analysis of virtual slides

200 We used the image management platform described above to upload the virtual 201 slides into slide collections for evaluation by the pathologists. Based on these 202 collections of virtual slides, two separate online scoring questionnaires were created 203 for sample evaluations (one for each device) (Fig 3). The scoring system displayed 204 one patient case at a time, starting with the toluidine blue stained sample, after which 205 corresponding anti-cytokeratin stained section was displayed. If only one type of 206 staining was available, only this slide was displayed before continuing to the next 207 case. Display order of patient cases was randomized for both experts, and also for 208 the virtual samples from the separate devices. For every displayed virtual slide, the 209 pathologist was presented with three possible diagnostic categories: "Metastasis", 210 "No metastasis" and "Not evaluable". An option for inputting additional comments 211 was also provided for each sample, and experts were encouraged to comment on 212 slide quality during the scoring process. Two independent pathologists evaluated the 213 samples using the online scoring system, which was accessible through a link, sent 214 by e-mail.

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Figure 3. Online image management platform and slide scoring questionnaire. Image showing a scanned lymph node frozen sections (digitized with the miniature microscope scanner) and viewed on the slide management platform with the scoring questionnaire.

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222 Statistical analysis

223	Analysis of results and statistical calculations were performed using a general-
224	purpose statistical software package (Stata 15.1 for Mac, Stata Corp., College
225	Station, TX, USA). For statistical analysis, individual samples were classified as
226	either positive for metastatic tissue (i.e. presence of either macro- or
227	micrometastases) or negative for metastatic tissue (i.e. no visible cancer cells).
228	Samples not evaluable according to the pathologists were excluded. Concordance
229	between the miniature microscope scanner, the reference slide scanner and the
230	ground truth was estimated with kappa statistics (kappa values 0.01–0.20 were
231	considered as slight, 0.21–0.40 fair, 0.41–0.60 moderate, 0.61–0.80 good and 0.81–
232	1.00 as high agreement) [20]. Sensitivity for detection of metastatic cells was
233	calculated as the percentage of true positives (TP) divided by TP and false negatives
234	(FN), with conventional light microscopy analysis as the ground truth (GT).
235	Specificity was calculated as the percentage of true negatives (TN) divided by TN
236	and false positives (FP).
237	

238 **Results**

The total number of slides analyzed after exclusion of samples not evaluable by the pathologists was 152, from 79 patients. By light microscopy 27 (34 %) of these patients were node positive, with 24 (30 %) having macrometastases and 3 (4 %) micrometastases. Correspondingly, 52 patients (66 %) were node negative. When comparing analysis of whole slide images (WSIs) scanned with the miniature microscope scanner to the ground truth, mean overall sensitivity for detection of

- 245 metastases was 90.56 % (93.88 % and 87.23 %), and mean specificity 99.03 %
- 246 (100.00% and 98.06%), on a slide level. When comparing analysis of WSIs from the
- reference slide scanner to the ground truth, a mean sensitivity of 93.80 % (95.92 %
- and 91.67 %) for detection of metastases was observed and a mean specificity of
- 249 99.03 % (98.06 % and 100.00 %) (Table 1).
- 250
- Table 1. Accuracy for detection of metastases by pathologist analysis of virtual
- 252 slides, scanned with both microscope scanners.

Device	Sensitivity	Specificity	False	False	Not
	(%)	(%)	Negative	Positive	Evaluable
МоМіс	93.88	100	3	0	2
(Expert 1)					
MoMic	87.23	98.06	6	2	2
(Expert 2)					
Reference	95.92	98.06	2	1	1
Scanner					
(Expert 1)					
Reference	91.67	100.00	4	0	3
Scanner					
(Expert 2)					

Table showing overall sensitivity, specificity, total number of FN and FP, and slides

254 classified as not evaluable. Results calculated on a slide level, compared to ground

255 truth.

256

257	When measuring agreement between experts, a strong concordance between
258	results from the miniature microscope scanner and ground truth was observed for
259	both experts ($k = 0.95$ and $k = 0.87$). Results from the analysis of reference scanner
260	WSIs also showed a strong concordance with the ground truth for both experts ($k =$
261	0.95 and $k = 0.94$). Furthermore, strong intraobserver agreement for both
262	pathologists was observed when comparing results from both scanners for the same
263	expert (k = 0.94 and k = 0.92) (Table 2).

- 264
- 265 Table 2. Agreement of results for detection of metastases in slides scanned

with the miniature microscope scanner and the reference slide scanner.

Device	Ground	Momic	Reference	Momic	Reference
	Truth	(Expert 1)	scanner	(Expert 2)	scanner
			(Expert 1)		(Expert 2)
Ground	1				
Truth					
Momic	k = 0.95	1			
(Expert 1)	(CI95%: 0.90 -				
	1.00)				
Reference	k = 0.95,	k = 0.94	1		
scanner	(CI95%: 0.90 -	(CI95%: 0.88 -			
(Expert 1)	1.00)	1.00)			
Momic	k = 0.87,	k = 0.92	k = 0.86	1	
	(Cl95%: 0.79 -	(CI95%: 0.84 -	(CI95%: 0.77 -		

(Expert 2)	0.96)	0.99)	0.95)		
Reference	k = 0.94,	k = 0.95	k = 0.92	k = 0.92	1
scanner	(CI95%: 0.88	(CI95%: 0.90 -	(CI95%: 0.85 -	(CI95%: 0.85 -	
(Expert 2)	- 1.00)	1.00)	0.99)	0.99)	

267 Comparison of analysis of slides. Agreement calculated using kappa statistics with
268 associated confidence intervals (95%); p < 0.001 for all values shown.

269

270 The number of false negatives (FN) in the analysis of WSIs scanned with the 271 miniature microscope scanner was 3 (2 %) and 6 (4 %), for the experts. Two 272 samples (1%) were incorrectly classified as tumor positive by one expert with the 273 miniature microscope scanner, and no false positives (FP) were detected by the 274 other expert. The number of FN slides in the analysis of WSIs from the reference slide scanner was 2 (1%) and 4 (3%). For the WSIs from this device, a single FP (1 275 276 %) was detected by the first expert, and none by the second. Two slides (1%) were 277 classified as not evaluable by both experts when analyzing slides from the miniature 278 microscope scanner (different slides for both experts). The number of reference 279 scanner WSIs classified as not evaluable was 1 (1%) and 3 (2%).

280

On a patient level, i.e. including available slides with both staining methods for each patient, the pathologists classified the WSIs from two patients (3 %) incorrectly as tumor negative with the miniature microscope scanner. For the slides scanned with the reference slide scanner, one patient (1 %) was incorrectly classified as tumor negative. This case was the same patient, classified incorrectly as tumor negative in the WSIs from the miniature microscope scanner (Table 3). There were no FP on a

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patient level with either device. For one patient, both available slides (1 %) were

288 classified as not evaluable by one expert with the miniature microscope scanner.

- Table 3. Patient cases diagnosed incorrectly in analysis of WSIs from both
- scanners, compared to light microscopy.

Case	Staining	Light	MoMic	Reference	MoMic	Reference
number	type of	microscopy	WSI	slide	WSI	slide
	sample	diagnosis	(Expert 1)	scanner WSI	(Expert 2)	scanner WSI
		(Ground truth)		(Expert 1)		(Expert 2)
1	Toluidine	Micrometastasis	No	Metastasis	No	No
	blue		metastasis		metastasis	metastasis
			(FN)		(FN)	
	IHC	Micrometastasis	No	Metastasis	Metastasis	Metastasis
			metastasis			
			(FN)			
2	Toluidine	Micrometastasis	No	No	No	No
	blue		metastasis	metastasis	metastasis	metastasis
			(FN)	(FN)	(FN)	(FN)
	IHC	Not available	Not	Not available	Not	Not available
			available		available	
3	Toluidine	Macrometastasis	Metastasis	Metastasis	No	Metastasis
	blue				metastasis	
					(FN)	

	IHC	Macrometastasis	Metastasis	Metastasis	No	Metastasis
					metastasis	
					(FN)	
4	Toluidine	No metastasis	Not	No	No	No
	blue		evaluable	metastasis	metastasis	metastasis
	IHC	No metastasis	Not	No	No	No
			evaluable	metastasis	metastasis	metastasis

Table showing discrepant patient cases, compared to light microscopy. Included also
one case with both miniature microscope scanner WSIs classified as not evaluable
by one expert (number 4).

295

296 **Discussion**

297 In this article we evaluate a prototype of a portable, miniature digital microscope 298 scanner for diagnostic assessment of lymph node frozen sections, obtained during 299 breast cancer surgery. Key features of the device include support for whole slide 300 scanning, cloud-connectivity and the use of significantly more inexpensive 301 components, compared to conventional devices. We used the device to digitize 302 archived sentinel lymph node frozen sections and two pathologists with experience 303 in breast cancer histopathology assessed the whole slide images for the detection of 304 metastases. Results were compared to analysis of the same samples scanned with 305 a high-end slide microscope scanner and to pathologist light microscopy analysis of 306 the slides.

307

Overall, we observed a strong concordance in results from both devices for detection
 of metastases, compared to light microscopy as study ground truth (GT). A slightly

310	higher concordance to the GT was observed in results from the reference slide
311	scanner (mean $k = 0.95$), than in results from the miniature microscope scanner
312	(mean $k = 0.91$). Agreement between the pathologists was strong (k = 0.92 - 0.94).
313	

314 Overall sensitivity and specificity for detection of metastases was high for both the 315 miniature microscope scanner (sensitivity 90.56 % and specificity 99.03 %) and the 316 reference slide scanner (sensitivity 93.80 % and specificity 99.03%). Overall, the rate 317 of false negatives (FN) and false positives (FP) was low for both devices, although 318 FN rate was marginally higher with the miniature microscope scanner, and few whole 319 slide images (WSIs) were classified as not evaluable. These results suggest that 320 analysis of slides scanned with both devices yield comparable results, with an overall 321 high grade of sensitivity and specificity.

322

323 When grouping available slides from the same patient together, few major 324 discrepancies was observed on a patient level. The slides for two patients were 325 classified incorrectly as negative with the miniature microscope scanner. One of 326 these cases was the same for both experts and also classified incorrectly as 327 negative with the reference slide scanner. This patient had micrometastases, but 328 only toluidine blue-stained sections available, representing a challenging sample (Fig. 329 4). The second patient diagnosed incorrectly as negative by one expert with the 330 miniature microscope scanner also had micrometastases (Fig 5), but both staining 331 methods available. These slides were correctly diagnosed by the second expert. The 332 final discrepant patient case with the miniature microscope scanner, classified 333 incorrectly as negative by one expert, represented a sample with a macrometastasis 334 covering almost the entire section (Fig 6). This sample had sections with both

335	staining methods available, and slides for this case were correctly diagnosed by the
336	second expert. On a patient level, we observed no FP with either device.
337	
338	Figure 4. Toluidine blue stained frozen sections with micrometastasis. Slide
339	scanned with the miniature microscope scanner (upper images), and reference slide
340	scanner (lower images). Anti-cytokeratin staining was not available for this section,
341	making analysis challenging, and sample was incorrectly classified as negative by
342	both experts, regardless of device used for digitization.
343	
344	Figure 5. Anti-cytokeratin stained frozen section with micrometastasis. Slide
345	scanned with miniature microscope scanner (left), and reference slide scanner
346	(right). Red bounding box showing higher magnification (a. miniature scanner, and b.
347	reference slide scanner).
348	
349	Figure 6. Lymph node frozen section with macrometastasis, stained with both
350	anti-cytokeratin (upper row) and toluidine blue (lower row) staining. Overview of
351	area scanned with miniature microscope (left), red bounding box (A. and B.) showing
352	enlarged area (a. and b.). Reference scanner corresponding regions for comparison
353	purposes shown to the right (C. and c.).
354	
355	On a slide level, a majority of incorrectly classified WSIs from both devices were
356	toluidine blue slides, and slides with micrometastases. A majority of toluidine blue
357	sections were correctly diagnosed in consecutive anti-cytokeratin stained slides.

- 358 Detection of metastases in toluidine blue staining is known to be less reliable,
- 359 especially for smaller lesions [21]. Furthermore, micrometastases in regional lymph

360 nodes are associated with a reduced overall survival, but the exact clinical 361 significance is being debated [22]. Only one major discrepancy was observed on a 362 patient level, were a macrometastasis was misdiagnosed with the miniature 363 microscope scanner WSIs by one expert, suggesting an overall high sensitivity for 364 detection of macrometastases in slides from this device. Among the results from the same expert, a significant part of FN (20 - 30 %) were incorrectly classified in WSIs 365 366 from both scanners, suggesting other causes for discrepancy than only difference in 367 image quality.

368

369 Both pathologists were asked to comment on the guality of virtual slides. A majority 370 of the feedback concerned technical problems, such as areas being out of focus (for 371 both devices), "vignetting" of certain samples (mainly the miniature microscope 372 images) and poor tissue sample quality (in physical slide) (S1 Fig). Most of these 373 problems were related to slide scanning, and could be solved by rescanning affected 374 slides. Interestingly, technical guality did not seem to correlate with accuracy of final 375 sample interpretation, as all samples with comments regarding quality were 376 nonetheless correctly interpreted. Additional comparison WSIs from both devices 377 can be found in the supplementary material (S2 Fig.).

378

As this in an early study, there is a number of limitations. Our patient material included a relatively small number of micrometastases, and no cases of ITCs. Furthermore, only a single area per slide was digitized. A potential source of bias in this study is that one of the experts analyzing the WSIs (SN) had originally selected the slide areas to be digitized. As WSIs were displayed in a randomized order during analysis, and sample collection was performed in early stages of the study, we

believe the risk of significant bias is relatively small. In this study we have focused
mainly on image quality of virtual slides, but especially if larger amounts of slides are
scanned, additional factors needed to be considered in clinical applications include
e.g. turnover time for slide scanning and data connectivity for uploading of digitized
slides.

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391 Results here suggest that by using a portable, miniature microscope scanner 392 constructed out of components that are several orders of magnitude cheaper 393 compared to components in currently available scanners, routine breast cancer 394 lymph node frozen sections can be scanned with sufficient quality for detection of 395 metastases. Our work here demonstrates how inexpensive, mass-produced 396 components can be utilized to develop novel solutions for point-of-care slide 397 digitization, and potentially improve access to digital diagnostics and facilitate 398 sample analysis. This technology could likely be expanded also for real time analysis 399 of samples at the point-of-care, e.g. for intraoperative applications. Recent studies 400 show promising results for detection of metastases using deep learning-based image 401 analysis in sentinel lymph node samples, scanned with high-end scanners (23)(24). 402 As our results here suggest that image quality achievable with low-cost components 403 can be comparable, this type of image analysis could likely be applied to samples 404 scanned using this technology also. Further research is needed to validate these 405 results and should focus on evaluating the technology in clinical environments. 406

407 Conclusion

Breast cancer lymph node metastases in frozen sections can be accurately detected
by visual analysis of digitized slides, scanned with a low-cost, point-of-care slide

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scanner, with results comparable to conventional light microscopy and analysis of
slides scanned with a high-end whole slide scanner. This method could potentially
provide a novel platform for digital diagnostics, especially in resource-limited
settings, facilitate sample analysis and reduce the need for experts on-site during
surgical procedures.

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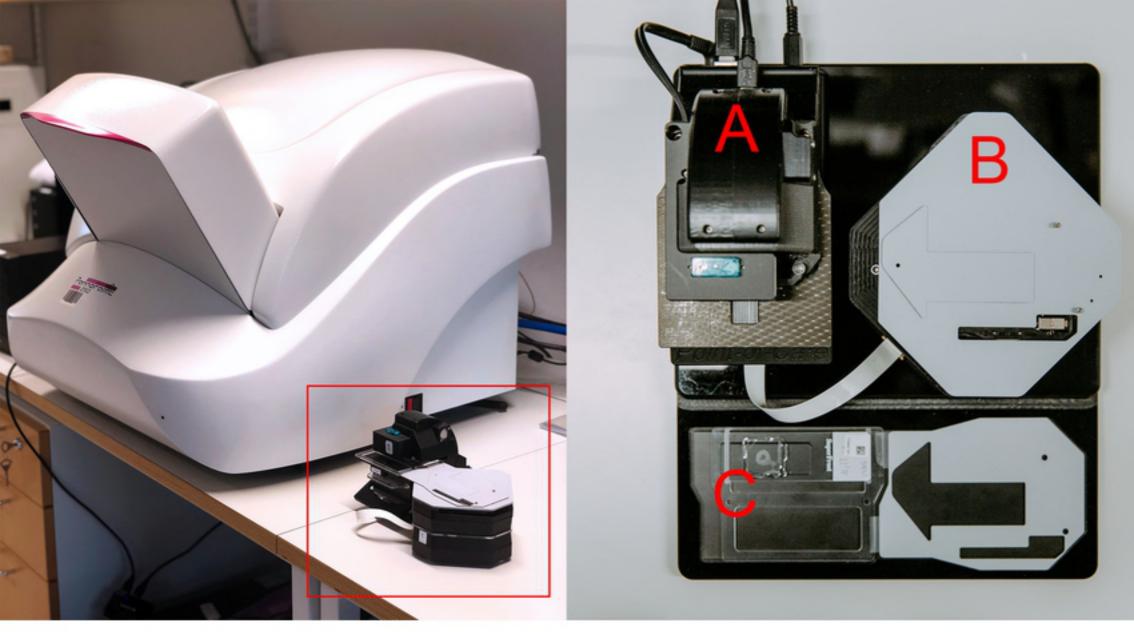
491 Supporting information

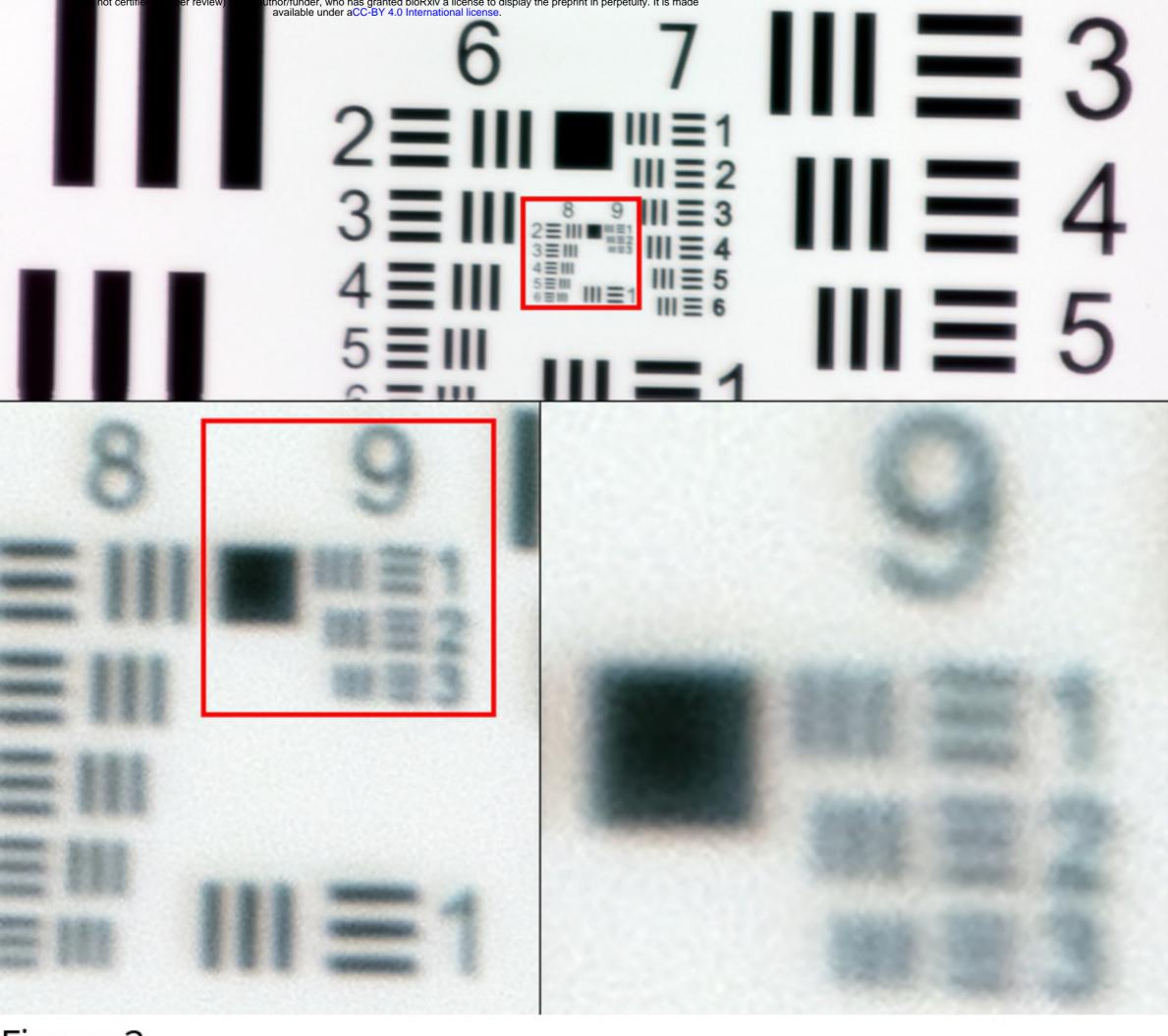
492 S1 Fig. Technical problems encountered in sample digitization. A minority of 493 slides scanned with the miniature microscope scanner displayed a "vignetting" effect, 494 showing uneven color intensity in scanned images (left panel). This was likely 495 caused by problems with the brightfield correction algorithm. Areas in some WSIs 496 were out of focus (right panel), due to focusing problems. This affected small areas 497 in a minority of samples, scanned with both devices. Problems here were temporary, 498 and could be corrected by rescanning affected slides.

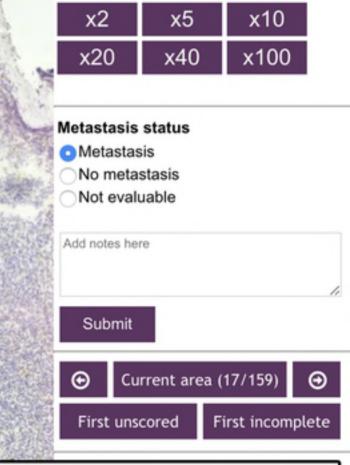
499 S2 Fig. Lymph node frozen section with macrometastasis, stained with

500 toluidine blue (left) and anti-cytokeratin (right) staining, and scanned with both

- 501 **devices.** Upper images showing overview of the FS section and lower side showing
- 502 enlarged areas (as indicated with red bounding boxes). Slides scanned with the
- 503 miniature microscope scanner on left side (A. and C.), and reference slide scanner
- 504 WSIs on the right side for comparison (B. and D.).









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