



## Thèse de doctorat de l'Université Sorbonne Paris Cité Préparée à l'Université Paris Diderot

Ecole doctorale 561 - Hématologie, Oncogenèse et biothérapies

INSERM U655 – Carcinose Angiogenèse Recherche Translationnelle

Pour l'obtention du titre de

## Docteur de l'Université Sorbonne Paris Cité

Discipline : Recherche clinique, Innovation technologique, Santé publique.

Présenté par :

### Haythem NAJAH

## Apport des nouvelles technologies dans l'exploration de la cavité péritonéale et la détection de la carcinose péritonéale : Endoscopie péritonéale souple et chromoendoscopie virtuelle.

Thèse dirigée par le Pr Marc Pocard

Présentée et soutenue publiquement le 28 Novembre 2018

Devant le Jury composé de

Président :	Pr Frédéric Prat	PU-PH. Université Paris V
Rapporteur :	Pr Xavier Dray	PU-PH. Université Paris VI
Rapporteur :	Pr Guillaume Morel	PU. Université Paris VI
Examinateur :	Pr Denis Collet	PU-PH. Université de Bordeaux
Examinateur :	Pr Laurence Bordenave	PU-PH. Université de Bordeaux
Examinateur :	Pr Christophe Trésallet	PU-PH. Université Paris VI

Je remercie pour l'honneur qu'ils me font :

Monsieur le Professeur Frédéric Prat

En acceptant de présider ce jury.

Monsieur le **Professeur Xavier Dray** Monsieur le **Professeur Guillaume Morel** 

En acceptant d'être les rapporteurs de cette thèse.

Monsieur le **Professeur Denis Collet** Madame le **Professeur Laurence Bordenave** Monsieur le **Professeur Christophe Trésallet** 

En acceptant de juger ce travail.

#### Je tiens à remercier également :

Monsieur le **Professeur Marc Pocard,** de m'avoir donné le goût de la recherche, de m'avoir fait confiance pour ce travail de thèse, de son aide précieuse et de ses conseils tout au long de ces années.

Tous les membres des Unités INSERM 965 et 942 ainsi que mes anciens collègues de l'Hôpital Lariboisière pour leur soutien et pour toutes ces belles années passées ensemble...

Ma famille, mes amis, mes collègues.

#### **TABLE DES MATIERES**

RÉSUMÉ
SUMMARY12
INTRODUCTION
1. Genèse des métastases péritonéales21
1.1. Microenvironnement métastatique et concept de niche métastatique
1.2. Passage micro -macro métastase et switch angiogénique
1.3. Architecture de l'angiogenèse métastatique22
2. Exploration de la carcinose péritonéale23
2.1. Imagerie préopératoire
2.1.1. La tomodensitométrie (TDM)23
2.1.2. L'imagerie par résonnance magnétique (IRM)24
2.1.3. La tomographie par émission de positons couplée à la TDM (TEP-TDM)24
2.2. La coelioscopie exploratrice25
2.3. Exploration péritonéale par monotrocart26
3. Endoscopie péritonéale souple28
4. Chromoendoscopie virtuelle29
4.1. Rappel : Spectre visible et endoscopie en lumière blanche :
4.2. Principe
4.3. Le système NBI
4.4. Le système FICE
RÉSULTATS
1 <sup>ère</sup> Partie : Endoscopie péritonéale souple :36
Article 1 : Laparo-endoscopic single site surgery for peritoneal carcinomatosis detection
and staging (with video)
Article 2 : The role of Single incision laparoscopic peritoneal exploration in the
management of patients with peritoneal metastases40
2 <sup>ère</sup> Partie : Chromoendoscopie virtuelle:73
Article 3 : A feasibility study of the use of Computed virtual chromoendoscopy for
laparoscopic evaluation of peritoneal metastases73

Article 4 : Specific Computed Virtual Chromoendoscopy for detection of peritoneal	
carcinomatosis: an animal study	84
DISCUSSION & PERSPECTIVES	.96
ANNEXES	104
Annexe 1 :	105
Single-incision flexible endoscopy (SIFE) for detection and staging of peritoneal	
carcinomatosis	105
Annexe 2 : Fiche Technique	114
1. Culture cellulaire	114
2. Animaux	115
3. Boite noire et endoscopie péritonéale	115
4. Anesthésie et exploration de la cavité péritonéale de la souris	116
5. Technique d'analyse tissulaire	116
BIBLIOGRAPHIE	121

## LISTE DES ABBRÉVIATIONS

5-FU	5-Fluorouracil
AG	Anesthésie générale
ANOVA	Analyse of variance
$C_{Back}$	Valeur numérique de la couleur du péritoine adjacent (Background)
CCD	Charge coupled device
CCR	Chirurgie de cytoréduction
CE	Cellule endothéliale
CHIP	Chimiothérapie hyperthermique intrapéritonéale
C <sub>Nod</sub>	Valeur numérique de la couleur du nodule de CP
CO <sub>2</sub>	Dioxyde de carbone
СР	Carcinose Péritonéale
DMEM	Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's medium
DMSO	Diméthylsulfoxide
EOPS	Exempts d'organismes pathogènes spécifiques
FICE	Fujinon Intelligent Chromoendoscopy
HEPES	acide 4-(2-hydroxyéthyl)-1-pipérazine éthane sulfonique
HES	Hématoxyline-éosine-safran
HSD	Honest significant difference
IP	Intrapéritonéal(e)
IRM	Imagerie par résonnance magnétique
LB	Lumière blanche
MB	Membrane basale
MP	Métastases péritonéales
MSST	Métastase sur site de trocart
NBI	Narrow band imaging
PBS	Phosphate buffered saline
PCI	Peritoneal Cancer Index
PSOGI	Peritoneal surface oncology group international

R.G.B	Red. Green. Blue
RENAPE	Réseau national de prise en charge des tumeurs rares du péritoine
RPM	Rotation par minute
SIFE	Single incision flexible endoscopy
SILPE	Single incision laparoscopic peritoneal exploration
SIRE	Single incision rigid endoscopy
TDM	Tomodensitométrie
TEP	Tomographie par émission de positons
VPP	Valeur prédictive positive

#### RÉSUMÉ

La prise en charge active de la carcinose péritonéale (CP) est devenue une réalité. Le pronostic de cette pathologie s'est complètement transformé depuis la naissance du concept de traitement combiné associant chirurgie de cytoréduction (CCR) et chimiothérapie hyperthermique intrapéritonéale (CHIP). Ce traitement permet aujourd'hui chez certains patients sélectionnés d'atteindre des survies équivalentes à celles des patients opérés de métastases hépatiques. L'un des facteurs pronostics majeurs est l'étendue de la carcinose péritonéale, évaluée par l'Indice de carcinose péritonéale (ou PCI pour Peritoneal Cancer Index). Plus le PCI est petit, meilleur sera le pronostic. La détection précoce de la de la maladie à un stade ou la CP est encore limitée, permet donc une prise en charge beaucoup plus efficace et moins morbide. La prise en charge de la CP doit donc évoluer vers un double objectif : une évaluation précise du caractère chirurgicalement totalement extirpable des lésions (possibilité d'une CCR complète) et une détection la plus précoce possible de la maladie. Or sur ces deux objectifs, les examens d'imagerie dont on dispose aujourd'hui sont régulièrement mis en défaut, et ce n'est souvent qu'on moment de la laparotomie qu'une évaluation précise de la CP est possible.

Dans ce projet nous nous sommes intéressés à l'apport potentiel de deux nouvelles technologies dans l'exploration de la CP : l'endoscopie péritonéale souple et la chromoendoscopie virtuelle.

Dans la première partie de cette thèse, nous avons étudié l'intérêt de l'exploration péritonéale par monotrocart avec endoscopie péritonéale souple dans le bilan de la CP. En effet, même si la coelioscopie conventionnelle s'intègre de plus en plus dans le bilan de la CP, les données actuelles de la littérature ne permettent pas de valider ses performances comme équivalentes à celles d'une exploration chirurgicale par laparotomie, et il persiste des réserves quant au risque de métastases sur les sites de trocarts. Le monotrocart permet une voie d'abord chirurgicale mini-invasive particulièrement adaptée à l'exploration de la cavité péritonéale dans le cadre d'une CP. Dans notre pratique institutionnelle, à l'Hôpital Lariboisière, l'exploration péritonéale par monotrocart (SILPE pour single incision

laparoscopic peritoneal exploration) est intégrée dans le bilan préparatoire des CP et réalisée de façon courante depuis l'année 2009.

Nous réalisons en plus de l'exploration classique à l'endoscope rigide, une exploration à l'endoscope souple ce qui autorise une meilleure visualisation de certaines zones péritonéales difficiles d'accès tel que la coupole diaphragmatique droite (Région 1), la coupole diaphragmatique gauche (Région 3) et le pelvis (Région 6).

Nous présentons ici les résultats de notre série de 183 SILPE. Plus de la moitié des patients avaient des antécédents d'au moins deux chirurgies abdominales. La SILPE a pu être réalisée dans 90,2% des cas. Les cas d'échecs étaient dus à une impossibilité d'accès à la cavité péritonéale chez 6 patients, et une exploration péritonéale insuffisante (n'ayant pu accéder qu'à moins de 7 régions) chez 12 patients. Cinq complications post-opératoires ont été observées (3%), toutes mineures, de Grade I ou II selon la classification de Dindo-Clavien. La valeur prédictive positive de la SILPE pour prédire une CCR complète, définie par le nombre de patients chez qui une CCR avec CHIP a été réalisée parmi les patients jugés candidats à une CCR CCO-1 et CHIP après SILPE et qui ont eu une laparotomie, était de 79,5%.

Chez les 81 patients ayant eu une laparotomie ultérieure, nous avons comparé les constations de la SILPE et de la laparotomie. Le délai médian entre la SILPE et la laparotomie était de 27 jours. Le PCI était de 9,7 ± 7,5 au moment de la SILPE et de 13,5 ± 9,6 au moment de la laparotomie (p<0,0001). Le nombre de régions explorées était supérieur avec la laparotomie 13,0 ± 0,3 qu'avec la SILPE 12,2 ± 1,6 (p<0,0001). Il en est de même pour les régions envahies : 6,9 ± 4,5 pour la laparotomie contre 5,4 ± 3,8 pour la SILPE (p<0,0001). La sensibilité globale de la SILPE dans la détection de la CP dans les différentes régions était de 75%, avec une spécificité de 97%, soit une précision de 85%. L'étude de ces paramètres région par région a permis de mettre en évidence la faible sensibilité de la SILPE dans le diagnostic des petits nodules de CP localisés au niveau de l'intestin grêle (régions 9, 10, 11 et 12), et qui était de 50 % (Etendue de 44% à 53%).

Il s'agit ici de la plus grande série de la littérature étudiant l'intérêt de la SILPE dans le bilan préopératoire des patients ayant une CP. La SILPE paraît donc comme une technique sûre et faisable. Même si elle sous estime le PCI et le nombre de régions envahies, elle permet de prédire, de manière correcte, les chances d'une CCR complète et d'éviter une laparotomie non thérapeutique chez les patients qui n'en ont pas besoin.

9

Dans la deuxième partie de cette thèse, nous avons étudié l'apport de la chromoendoscopie virtuelle dans l'exploration de la cavité péritonéale et la détection de la CP.

Nous sommes partis de l'hypothèse que le péritoine, comme tout autre organe soumis à un processus métastatique, doit subir des modifications selon le principe de la niche métastatique. Le stroma et le réseau vasculaire subissent des modifications au tout début du processus métastatique. Lors du passage micro-macro métastase, l'angiogenèse métastatique aboutit à la formation de vaisseaux tumoraux tortueux, dilatés et instables. La chromoendoscopie virtuelle permettrait de mieux visualiser ces premières modifications et donc une détection précoce des nodules de CP. Le principe de cette technologie repose sur l'exploitation des propriétés physiques et optiques de certaines longueurs d'onde réduites du spectre de la lumière visible, ce qui permet en endoscopie digestive d'améliorer la visualisation du réseau vasculaire et des détails de la surface muqueuse. Le FICE est un système de chromoendoscopie virtuelle dont le principe repose sur un processus d'estimation spectrale qui contient 10 réglages différents permettant d'obtenir 10 images virtuelles, construites à partir d'images ayant des longueurs d'ondes différentes. Nous présentons ici les deux premières études qui se sont intéressées au rôle du FICE, dans la CP.

Le premier travail est une étude de faisabilité clinique au cours de laquelle des endoscopies péritonéales avec le système FICE étaient réalisées. 561 images correspondant à 51 photos différentes de péritoine normal et de CP (pour chaque photo, une image en lumière blanche et 10 images FICE) ont été évaluées par 5 chirurgiens séniors, 5 internes et 5 externes. Dans un 1<sup>er</sup> questionnaire, ont été notées pour chaque photo, les images en lumière blanche (LB) et en FICE, permettant de sélectionner les 4 meilleures images. Dans un 2<sup>ème</sup> questionnaire, ont été classées pour chaque photo, ces 4 images en fonction de différents paramètres. Les trois meilleurs canaux du FICE pour l'exploration du péritoine étaient les canaux 2, 6 et 9. Pour la luminosité, la lumière blanche a été jugée meilleure (p<0,0001). En ce qui concerne la qualité du contraste, l'architecture vasculaire, la différentiation des organes, et la détection des nodules de CP, le canal 2 du FICE était jugé supérieur (p<0,0001). Les résultats étaient globalement homogènes entre les différents groupes d'évaluateurs.

Pour le 2<sup>ème</sup> travail, nous avons créé un modèle murin de CP naissante, grâce à l'injection intrapéritonéale de cellules tumorales de cancer colique murin. Les souris, séparées en 6

groupes, ont été opérées puis sacrifiées à des dates différentes. L'intervention consistait en une endoscopie péritonéale souple, au cours de laquelle tous les nodules de CP étaient pris en photo en LB et en FICE. 935 images correspondant à 85 nodules ont été analysées. Grâce au logiciel ImageJ, nous avons décomposé chaque image endoscopique en ces trois composantes élémentaires R-G-B. Pour chaque canal du FICE, chacune de ces images élémentaires correspond à une lumière monochromatique avec une longueur d'onde précise. Les longueurs d'ondes similaires étaient par la suite regroupées indépendamment du canal d'entrée du FICE pour lequel elles étaient assignées. Nous avons par la suite comparé les contrastes obtenues avec ces différentes longueurs d'ondes. Nous avons pu ainsi déterminer la longueur d'onde du spectre de la LB qui permettait d'avoir le meilleur contraste entre nodule de CP et péritoine avoisinant. Il s'agit de la lumière monochromatique à 460 nm (p<0,0001), avec un contraste moyen à 0,240 ± 0,151. Ces résultats ont fait l'objet d'un dépôt de brevet via InsermTransfert. Des études futures doivent être menées chez l'homme afin de tester cette lumière ( $\lambda$ =460 nm) et d'étudier son apport éventuel pour la détection des petits nodules de CP.

#### SUMMARY

The active management of peritoneal carcinomatosis has become a reality. The prognosis of this condition was completely transformed after the birth of the concept of the combined treatment associating cytoreductive surgery (CS) and hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy (HIPEC). Currently, this treatment permits, in some selected patients, to reach survivals equivalent to those of patients who had surgery for hepatic metastases. One of the major prognosis factors of this condition is the extent of the disease measured in terms of Peritoneal cancer index (PCI). The smaller the PCI is, the better the prognosis will be. The detection of this condition at an early stage, when the peritoneal seeding is still limited, permits, therefore, a more efficient and less morbid treatment.

The management of PC has to evolve towards two main goals: first an accurate evaluation of the disease burden in order to recognize the patients amenable to complete cytoreduction (CCR), and second an early detection of the disease. Unfortunately, current imaging methods strongly lack sensitivity in determining small tumor nodules, and it is often only at the time of laparotomy that an accurate evaluation of the PCI is possible.

In this work, we have studied the potential role of two new techniques in the evaluation of PC: peritoneal flexible endoscopy and virtual chromoendoscopy.

In the first part of the thesis, we have studied the role of single incision laparoscopic peritoneal exploration (SILPE) in the detection and staging of PC. In fact, even though conventional staging laparoscopy is more and more utilized as an adjunct to imaging in the preoperative evaluation of PC, it is not yet routinely recommended, and its role in the setting of PC is still discouraged with objections related mainly to the risk of trocar site metastases. SILPE is a minimally invasive procedure that appears to be particularly well adapted to PC detection and staging. In our institutional practice, at Lariboisière Hospital, SILPE has been routinely performed for detection and staging of PC since 2009. In our technique, we perform a peritoneoscopy with both a rigid endoscope and a flexible endoscope. The latter allows a better visualization of some difficult-to-access peritoneal

areas such as the right diaphragmatic cupola (Region 1), the left diaphragmatic cupola (Region 3), and the pelvis (Region 6).

We present, here in, the results of our series of 183 SILPE. More than half of the patients had a history of at least two prior abdominal surgeries. The SILPE procedure was successful in 90.2% of the cases. The cases of failure were due to the impossibility to access the peritoneal cavity in 6 patients, and to an insufficient assessment of PC due the impossibility to access more than half of the peritoneal cavity (less than 7 regions explored) in 12 patients. Five postoperative complications were observed (3%), all of them minor complications, Grade I or II Dindo-Clavien. The positive predictive value of SILPE to predict CCR, defined as the number of patients who achieved complete CRS and HIPEC among the number of CCR candidates who underwent surgery was 79.5%.

In the 81 patients who had a subsequent laparotomy, we compared the data recorded at SILPE and at laparotomy. The median delay between SILPE and laparotomy was 27 days. The PCI was  $9.7 \pm 7.5$  at the time of SILPE, and  $13.5 \pm 9.6$  at the time of laparotomy (p<0.0001). The number of the regions explored by SILPE was  $12.2 \pm 1.6$ , and by laparotomy  $13.0 \pm 0.3$  (p<0.0001). The number of affected regions was  $5.4 \pm 3.8$  at the time of SILPE and  $6.9 \pm 4.5$  at the time of laparotomy (p<0.0001). The overall sensitivity of SILPE in the detection of PC in the different regions was 75%, with a specificity of 97%, thus an accuracy rate of 85%. The study of these parameters in each region of the PCI reveals that the SILPE sensitivity in the detection of PC nodules of the small bowel (Regions 9, 10, 11, and 12) was the lowest with a median rate of 50% (range, 44% - 53%). This first large-scale study assessing the role of SILPE in the underestimates the PCI and the number of the affected regions, SILPE permits to avoid a non-therapeutic laparotomy in patients not deemed candidates for CCR and to predict the likelihood of CCR in patients being considered for CRS and HIPEC.

In the second part of this thesis, we have studied the role of virtual chromoendoscopy in the peritoneal exploration and PC detection. We started from the hypothesis that, as any organ subject to a metastatic process, the peritoneum would change according to the theory of the metastatic niche. The stroma, as well as the vascular network, would change at the very beginning of the metastatic process. At the passage from micro to macro metastasis, the metastatic angiogenesis leads to the formation of tortuous, dilated, and instable vessels.

13

Virtual chromoendoscopy could improve the visualization of these early changes and therefore the detection of an incipient PC. The principle of this technology is based on the use of physical and optical properties of some wavebands of the visible light, which permits in digestive endoscopy to enhance the visualization of the vascular network and the details of the mucosal surface. The FICE is a virtual chromoendoscopy system that is merchandised as a digital image processing technique enhancing the mucosal surface structures by using selected wavelengths of light in reconstituted virtual images. Ten factory-determined presets are available. We present, here in, the first two studies that apply this system to PC detection and staging.

The first study is a feasibility study in human in which peritoneal endoscopies using the FICE system were performed. 561 images, corresponding to 51 different areas of PC nodules and normal peritoneum (For each area, one white light image and 10 FICE images) were assessed by 5 senior surgeons, 5 surgical residents and 5 medical students. In a first questionnaire, the evaluators gave a score to each image, and the three best FICE channels were determined. In a second questionnaire, five criteria were studied specifically: contrast, brightness, vascular architecture, differentiation between organs and detection of PC. The three best FICE channels for peritoneal exploration were channels 2, 6, and 9. For brightness, white light endoscopy was judged superior to all FICE channels (p<0.0001). FICE Channel 2 was superior to white light endoscopy and other FICE channels, in terms of contrast, visualization of vascular architecture, differentiation between organs, and detection of PC (p<0.0001). The results were similar for the three groups of evaluators.

In the second study, we created a murine model of an incipient PC, by an intraperitoneal injection of murine colonic cancer cells. Mice were separated into six different groups, who had peritoneal explorations with FICE at different times. For each PC nodule detected, one white light endoscopy and 10 FICE images were recorded. 935 images corresponding to 85 nodules were analyzed. Thanks to the software program Image J, each image was then divided into its elementary red, green and blue band images. Depending on the FICE channel, each elementary image corresponds to a specific wavelength of the white light specter. After gathering similar wavelengths together independently of the monitor input for which they were assigned, the contrasts obtained with each wavelength were compared. We've therefore determined the wavelength of the white light specter that provides the

highest contrast between PC nodule and background peritoneum. It was the monochromatic light with a wavelength at 460 nm (p<0.0001), with a mean contrast value of 0.240 ± 0.151. In order to protect the results of this study, we have filed a patent via InsermTransfert. Future studies in human should assess the potential role of this monochromatic light ( $\lambda$ =460 nm) in the detection of small PC nodules.

## INTRODUCTION

L'apparition d'une carcinose péritonéale (CP), ou métastases péritonéales (MP) selon la nouvelle nomenclature, était considérée, il y a à peine deux décennies, comme le stade terminal de l'évolution tumorale de plusieurs néoplasies digestives ou extra-digestives et l'arsenal thérapeutique était limité à la chirurgie palliative, la chimiothérapie systémique palliative et les soins de confort. Le pronostic de cette pathologie était par conséquent extrêmement sombre, les résultats de la chimiothérapie systématiques étant très décevant avec des médianes de survies de quelques mois. Dans l'étude EVOCAPE 1, étude prospective multicentrique Française publiée en 2000, et ayant inclus 370 patients ayant une CP d'origine non gynécologique, la médiane de survie était de 3.1 mois [1]. Dans une grande série Asiatique étudiant 349 patients ayant une CP d'origine colo-rectale, et traités par chimiothérapie systématique à base de 5-Fluorouracil (5-FU) et acide folinique, la médiane de survie était de 7 mois [2].

Le pronostic de la CP s'est vu complètement transformé suite au développement de nouvelles thérapeutiques incluant de nouvelles combinaisons de chimiothérapie, tel que Oxaliplatine et Irinotecan [3], et surtout suite à la naissance du concept de traitement combiné associant une chirurgie de cytoréduction (CCR) et chimiothérapie hyperthermique intrapéritonéale (CHIP). Le principe de ce traitement combiné est de traiter la maladie macroscopique visible par la chirurgie, puis la maladie microscopique invisible par la CHIP. Une CCR complète est indispensable avant de réaliser le bain de CHIP car la pénétration tissulaire des molécules de chimiothérapie est limitée à quelques couches de cellules et ne peut traiter qu'une maladie résiduelle infra-millimétrique [4,5]. La CHIP associe les effets d'une chimiothérapie locale, permettant d'utiliser des concentrations au moins 25 fois supérieures à celles atteintes avec la chimiothérapie systémique, à ceux de l'hyperthermie qui potentialise l'action de la chimiothérapie. Elle doit être réalisée immédiatement après la chirurgie, soit à ventre ouvert avec la peau en traction (technique du « coliseum ») ou à ventre fermé juste après la fermeture pariétale ; dans tous les cas au cours de la même intervention, avant que les cellules tumorales résiduelles ne soient piégées dans les adhérences postopératoires, qui peuvent réaliser un véritable sanctuaire pour ces cellules [6].

Aujourd'hui, la CCR complète avec CHIP encadrée de chimiothérapie systémique est devenu le traitement de référence des CP d'origine colo-rectale et des tumeurs primitives du péritoine tel que le pseudomyxome péritonéal et le mésothéliome péritonéal. L'efficacité de ce traitement a été validée en 2003, par un essai clinique randomisé comparant l'association CCR et CHIP suivi d'une chimiothérapie systémique à une chimiothérapie systémique seule chez des patients ayant une CP d'origine colorectale. La survie médiane dans le bras CRS-CHIP était de 22,3 mois contre 12,6 mois dans le bras chimiothérapie systémique seule (*p*=0.032) [7]. Actuellement, ce traitement combiné permet d'atteindre des médianes de survie d'environ 41 mois. La survie globale à 5 ans peut atteindre jusqu'à 50 % [8–10]. Ces survies sont donc comparables à celles des patients opérés pour métastases hépatiques de cancers colo-rectaux [11,12]. Il en est de même du taux de guérison qui est estimé à 16 % après CRS-HIPEC pour CP d'origine colo-rectale [13], ce qui est extrêmement proche du taux de guérison rapporté dans les deux principales séries étudiant le suivi à long terme de patients opérés de métastases hépatiques d'origine colo-rectale et qui est estimée entre 16,2 % et 16,6% [14,15].

Ces bons résultats ne sont cependant vrais que chez les patients chez qui une CCR macroscopiquement complète est possible. En effet, une résection complète de tous les nodules de CP est un facteur pronostique majeur, avec des survies à 5 ans pouvant atteindre 45% contre moins de 10% en cas de CCR incomplète [8]. Un autre facteur pronostique majeur, est le degré d'extension de la CP, qui peut être évalué par l'Indice de carcinose péritonéale (Peritoneal Cancer Index [PCI]). Ce score, décrit par Jacquet et Sugarbaker [16], a été choisi en 2006, lors du congrès international du « Peritoneal Surface Oncology Group International (PSOGI) », comme score de référence de la CP pour homogénéiser la description des constations opératoires. L'abdomen et l'intestin grêle sont divisés en 13 régions : l'abdomen est divisé en 9 régions et l'intestin grêle en 4 segments [Figure 1]:

Région 0. Centrale: grand omentum, colon transverse.

Région 1. Hypochondre droit: surface supérieure du lobe droit hépatique, surface péritonéale du diaphragme droit, espace rétro-hépatique droit.

Région 2. Epigastre: graisse épigastrique, lobe gauche du foie, petit omentum, ligament falciforme.

Région 3. Hypochondre gauche : surface péritonéale du diaphragme gauche, rate, queue du pancréas, surface antérieure et postérieure de l'estomac.

Région 4. Flanc gauche : colon descendant, gouttière pariétocolique gauche.

Région 5. Fosse iliaque gauche : paroi latérale gauche du pelvis et colon sigmoïde.

18

Région 6. Pelvis: organes génitaux féminins (ovaires, trompes, utérus), cul-de-sac de Douglas, jonction recto-sigmoïdienne.

Région 7. Fosse iliaque droite : paroi latérale droite du pelvis, caecum et appendice.

Région 8. Flanc droit : colon ascendant, gouttière pariétocolique droite.

Région 9. Jéjunum supérieur : intestin grêle et son mésentère.

Région 10. Jéjunum inférieur : intestin grêle et son mésentère.

Région 11. Iléon supérieur : intestin grêle et son mésentère.

Région 12. lléon inférieur : intestin grêle et son mésentère.

La taille des lésions péritonéales est évaluée dans chaque région avec une échelle semiquantitative allant de 0 à 3 (0: pas de tumeur; 1: tumeur de moins de 0,5 cm; 2: tumeur mesurant entre 0,5 et 5 cm; 3: tumeur mesurant plus de 5 cm). Le PCI correspond à la somme des index de chacune des 13 régions et varie donc de 0 à 39. En fin d'intervention, l'exérèse est classée comme étant complète ou incomplète, en fonction de la présence éventuelle d'un résidu tumoral et de sa taille: CCR-RO: absence de résidu tumoral macroscopique; CCR-R1: résidu tumoral  $\leq$  0,25 cm; CCR-R2: résidu tumoral entre 0,25 et 2,5 cm; CCR-R3: résidu tumoral  $\geq$  2,5 cm.

Le PCI est un facteur pronostique indépendant de survie, comme l'a montré en 2008, une étude multicentrique Française réalisée auprès de 25 centres à la demande de l'Association Française de Chirurgie [17]. Plus le PCI est petit, meilleur sera le pronostic. Cette étude a également identifié, en plus du PCI, l'âge et l'état général du patient ainsi que le centre hospitalier comme facteurs influençant la survenue d'une complication post-opératoire. Le tendon d'Achille de ce traitement combiné associant CRS et CHIP est donc une sélection adéquate des patients, afin d'éviter une morbidité et une mortalité excessive, et de détecter le groupe de patients pouvant bénéficier de ce traitement. Outre l'évaluation de l'état général et des comorbidités, cette sélection se base donc essentiellement sur une évaluation précise du PCI. Par ailleurs, une détection précoce de la maladie à un stade ou la CP est encore limitée, permet une prise en charge beaucoup plus efficace et moins morbide

La prise en charge de la CP doit donc évoluer vers un double objectif : une évaluation précise du caractère chirurgicalement totalement extirpable des lésions (possibilité d'une chirurgie CCO) et une détection la plus précoce possible de la maladie. Or sur ces deux objectifs, les examens d'imagerie dont on dispose aujourd'hui sont régulièrement mis en défaut, et ce n'est souvent qu'on moment de la laparotomie qu'une évaluation précise de la CP est possible. Nous nous sommes donc intéressés à l'intérêt éventuel de deux nouvelles technologies dans cette indication : l'endoscopie péritonéale souple et la chromoendoscopie virtuelle.



Figure 1. Les différentes régions de l'abdomen et de l'intestin grêle du PCI.

#### 1. Genèse des métastases péritonéales

Le péritoine est une membrane séreuse continue tapissant la face profonde des parois de la cavité abdomino-pelvienne (feuillet pariétal) et les viscères qu'elle contient (feuillet viscéral). Ces deux feuillets sont en continuité au niveau des lignes de réflexion péritonéales, réalisant de véritables jonctions entre péritoine pariétal et viscéral.

Le péritoine est constitué d'une monocouche superficielle de cellules épithéliales mésothéliales et d'une couche sous-mésothéliale constituée d'un tissu conjonctif lâche comprenant capillaires sanguins et lymphatiques.

Les MP sont la conséquence de l'implantation des cellules tumorales sur le péritoine. Les mécanismes d'implantation sont de trois ordres : un essaimage direct par atteinte de la séreuse puis de son dépassement par la tumeur aboutissant à une exfoliation des cellules tumorales dans la cavité péritonéale ; un essaimage iatrogène secondaire à une ponctionbiopsie ou à une rupture tumorale peropératoire ; et enfin un essaimage par voie systémique.

Quelque soit le mode d'essaimage, et comme tout organe soumis à un processus métastatique, le péritoine devrait subir des modifications selon la théorie de la niche métastatique avant l'apparition de véritables MP macroscopiques.

#### 1.1. Microenvironnement métastatique et concept de niche métastatique

Le concept de microenvironnement métastatique n'est pas une notion nouvelle, puisque, déjà à la fin du 19<sup>ème</sup> siècle, Steven Paget introduisait la théorie du « seed and soil » (« graine et sol ») expliquant que le microenvironnement doit être réceptif et permissif envers la cellule tumorale pour permettre sa greffe dans l'organe cible et sa prolifération sous forme de métastase [18]. Cette théorie est étayée en clinique humaine par plusieurs types de tumeurs dont le carcinome mammaire, théorie décrite par Paget dans son article princeps, avec possibilité de formation de métastases dans des territoires spécifiques, non gouvernés par le territoire de drainage de la tumeur primitive, dont le péritoine en fait partie. Les travaux d'Isaiah Fidler ont conclu que les cellules tumorales atteignaient le lit vasculaire de tous les organes, mais les métastases ne se développeraient que dans certains organes [19,20].

La niche métastatique correspond au microenvironnement spécialisé de soutien des cellules tumorales interagissant avec elles et régulant activement leur fonction et prolifération. Ce modèle suggère que le microenvironnement doit être propice à accueillir les cellules tumorales (formant une niche pré-métastatique) et doit évoluer pour que ces cellules tumorales puissent se greffer (formation de la niche métastatique) et proliférer dans des sites secondaires sous forme de micro- puis macro-métastases.

#### 1.2. Passage micro -macro métastase et switch angiogénique

Les micro-métastases formées de cellules tumorales sont initialement avasculaires et tributaires du lit vasculaire natif de l'organe d'accueil qui leur apporte oxygène et nutriments. Il a été décrit un état de « dormance » des micro-métastases, dans lequel la prolifération cellulaire est équilibrée par un phénomène d'apoptose jusqu'à ce que la métastase puisse avoir une croissance soutenue grâce au recrutement de néo-vaisseaux sanguins [21,22]. La progression vers une macro-métastase cliniquement détectable nécessite la mise en place d'un lit vasculaire néoformé fonctionnel, processus qui requiert l'activation du « switch angiogénique ». Un changement dans l'équilibre local entre les régulateurs positifs et négatifs de l'angiogenèse se traduit par l'activation de l'endothélium normalement quiescent, débutant le processus de néo-vascularisation. Les cordons de nouvelles cellules endothéliales développent des lumières vasculaires permettant de créer de nouveaux vaisseaux qui alimenteront la masse de cellules tumorales, permettant d'enter dans une phase de croissance rapide.

Dans un modèle de cancer du poumon après injection sous-cutanée de cellules cancéreuses et dans un modèle de cancer du sein spontané chez des souris transgéniques, Gao et al. ont montré que le passage de micro (<1mm) à macro-métastase pulmonaire s'accompagnait de la formation d'un réseau vasculaire [23].

#### 1.3. Architecture de l'angiogenèse métastatique

Plusieurs types d'angiogenèse existent dans le processus néoplasique :

- Sprouting capillaire: caractérisé par une dégradation locale de la membrane basale (MB), prolifération et migration des cellules endothéliales (CE) avec formation d'une lumière puis

prolifération et migration des péricytes stabilisant le néo-vaisseau.

- Cooptation : caractérisé par une incorporation dans la vasculature tumorale de capillaires du parenchyme hôte [24].

- Mimétisme vasculaire (Vascular Mimicry): En l'absence de CE, les cellules tumorales hautement invasives et pouvant acquérir des caractéristiques de CE, s'organisent en canaux permettant la circulation sanguine intratumorale [25,26].

Tous ces mécanismes aboutissement à la formation de vaisseaux tumoraux tortueux, dilatés et instables, d'aspect franchement pathologique.

#### 2. Exploration de la carcinose péritonéale

#### 2.1. Imagerie préopératoire

Le bilan d'imagerie préopératoire a pris, ces dernières années, une place de plus en plus importante malgré des difficultés qui persistent, en particulier pour estimer précisément le PCI, le nombre de régions envahies, et pour rechercher des signes de non résécabilité [27–29]. Une évaluation préopératoire optimale permet une meilleure information du patient sur le geste qui sera réalisé et ses conséquences (stomie transitoire, etc.) ainsi que d'éviter des laparotomies inutiles en cas de lésions non résécables. En effet si une CCR complète ne peut être obtenue, la morbidité de l'intervention peut aggraver le pronostic du patient et retarder une prise en charge oncologique médicale [30].

#### 2.1.1. La tomodensitométrie (TDM)

La TDM abdomino-pelvienne demeure la technique de référence pour le bilan préopératoire de la CP [31]. L'acquisition est rapide et très standardisée, l'examen est peu couteux, facilement disponible et largement répandu. La sensibilité de la TDM dans détection de la CP reste par ailleurs diversement appréciée dans la littérature avec des taux variant de 25% à 96% [27,32–35]. Malgré les nombreuses évolutions technologiques permettant d'augmenter de façon considérable la résolution spatiale, toutes les études soulignent que les performances de la TDM ne sont pas suffisantes pour affirmer définitivement l'absence de lésion ou la non résécabilité de la maladie. Le taux de faux négatifs est d'autant plus important que les lésions sont une petite taille. Marin et al. ont rapporté une sensibilité de 43 % pour les lésions de moins de 5 mm, de 100 % pour les lésions de plus de 5cm, et de 87 % pour les lésions de taille intermédiaire [36]. Par ailleurs, la distinction entre une petite lésion de CP faisant une emprunte ou « scalopping » sur le foie et une métastase intrahépatique sous capsulaire peut parfois être très difficile, alors que cette distinction peut modifier considérablement la stratégie thérapeutique, en particulier lorsqu'il s'agit de la seule lésion ou d'une suspicion de récidive. En effet, le traitement et le pronostic d'une récidive péritonéale est très diffèrent de celui d'une lésion hépatique sous capsulaire unique.

#### 2.1.2. L'imagerie par résonnance magnétique (IRM)

L'intérêt de l'IRM dans le bilan préopératoire de la CP est de plus en plus étudié. Son association à la TDM permettrait d'avoir une meilleure estimation du PCI [37]. Certaines études ont rapporté des performances tellement élevées pour l'IRM, que les auteurs proposent qu'elle remplace complètement la TDM [38,39]. Toutefois, la principale limite de ces études, hormis leur faible effectif (*n*=33 et *n*=22), était que la majorité des patients traités avaient une CP mucineuse d'origine appendiculaire; or pour les tumeurs mucineuses, la très forte concentration des molécules d'eau permet d'avoir un excellent contraste en IRM, avec un hypersignal sur les séquences de diffusion.

L'IRM est par ailleurs plus couteuse, moins facilement disponible et le temps d'acquisition est plus long. Elle a plusieurs limites comme le manque de standardisation de la technique d'acquisition des séquences, une résolution spatiale significativement inférieure à celle de la TDM et une courbe d'apprentissage plus longue. Enfin, sa place dans le bilan de la CP n'a jamais été prospectivement validée: les études publiées incluent le plus souvent de petits effectifs et leurs résultats en termes de performances sont inconstants.

#### 2.1.3. La tomographie par émission de positons couplée à la TDM (TEP-TDM)

La TEP-TDM a été largement étudiée dans plusieurs cancers primitifs, mais en ce qui concerne la CP peu d'études existent à ce jour. La TEP-TDM fournit une information à la fois

anatomique et fonctionnelle, ce qui permet une amélioration globale des performances de la TDM, notamment en terme d'évaluation du PCI [40]. Elle permettrait notamment de détecter certains nodules accolés au tube digestif, qui, même s'ils sont visibles à la TDM ou en IRM, ne sont pas détectés en première lecture et sont considérés comme des structures normales [41].

Toutefois, la masse critique tumorale pour obtenir une fixation significative dépend des types tumoraux, de leur activité et du volume tumoral. Ainsi, par exemple, les micronodules pulmonaires malins, peuvent ne pas avoir d'hyperfixation, surtout lorsqu'ils mesurent moins de 5 mm. Dans le cadre de la CP, les petites infiltrations nodulaires où la masse tumorale est faible n'ont donc pas d'hyperfixation en raison de ce défaut de résolution. Par ailleurs, les tumeurs à faible contingent cellulaire, notamment celles à dominante mucineuse n'ont typiquement pas d'hyperfixation. A contrario, des cas de faux positifs, notamment en cas de chirurgie antérieure ont été rapportés [42].

Il s'agit d'une technique prometteuse, mais qui, aujourd'hui, ne résout toujours pas le problème de la détection des nodules de CP de petite taille.

#### 2.2. La coelioscopie exploratrice

La coelioscopie exploratrice est une voie d'abord chirurgicale mini-invasive permettant d'ajouter au bilan d'imagerie une visualisation directe de l'étendue de la maladie en amont du geste d'exérèse complète. L'exploration directe de la cavité péritonéale permet de voir les petits nodules de CP ainsi que les microlésions disséminées à type de « miliaire » qui sont classiquement non vues en imagerie car de taille inférieure au seuil de résolution des techniques actuelles. La coelioscopie exploratrice permet ainsi de limiter le taux de malades récusés au cours de la CCR avec CHIP.

Plusieurs études se sont intéressées à l'intérêt de la coelioscopie exploratoire dans le bilan préopératoire des CP. En 2005, Pomel et al. ont rapporté la première série de coelioscopie exploratrice dans l'évaluation de l'extension de la CP. Ils ont montré que la coelioscopie identifiait 27 % des patients non résécables et permettait de diminuer de 20 % à 13 % le taux de CHIP non réalisées après laparotomie exploratrice [43]. En 2013, Iversen et al. ont publié la seule cohorte prospective de 45 patients évalués par coelioscopie, avec un taux de faisabilité de 96 % [44]. L'introduction de la coelioscopie exploratrice dans le bilan

préopératoire des CP a permis de récuser et donc d'éviter une laparotomie non thérapeutique chez 40 % des patients. Elle sous-estimait l'étendue des lésions dans 31 % des cas. Dans l'étude de Pomel et al, le PCI médian après coelioscopie était de 13 (4–21) contre 20 (11–27) après laparotomie [43], faisant état de la sous-estimation de l'étendue de la CP par cette technique. Tabrizian et al. ont récemment rapporté, dans la plus grande série de coelioscopie exploratrice (n = 217) une faisabilité de l'ordre de 93 %, avec seulement 0,4 % de morbidité[45]. Un tiers des patients (31 %) ayant une CP initialement résécable d'après le bilan d'imagerie étaient récusés par la coelioscopie. Marmor et al. ont rapporté chez 141 patients ayant eu une coelioscopie exploratrice une valeur prédictive positive (VPP) de 83 % pour la résécabilité [46].

Même si la coelioscopie exploratrice s'intègre de plus en plus comme un outil essentiel dans le bilan de la CP [47], les données actuelles de la littérature ne permettent pas de valider ses performances comme équivalentes à celles d'une exploration chirurgicale par laparotomie. Une étude prospective qui compare les performances diagnostiques de la coelioscopie et de la laparotomie est en cours (BIG-RENAPE).

#### 2.3. Exploration péritonéale par monotrocart

Le monotrocart permet une voie d'abord chirurgicale mini-invasive qui paraît particulièrement adaptée à l'exploration de la cavité péritonéale dans le cadre d'une CP. En effet, l'un des risques majeurs de la coelioscopie conventionnelle est la greffe tumorale sur les orifices de trocarts [48]. En 2015, Nunez et al. ont établi que la présence de métastases sur site de trocart (MSST) est un facteur indépendant de mauvais pronostic [49]. Dans cette cohorte prospective, des MSST étaient présentes chez 34 % des patients ayant eu une coelioscopie avant CCR et CHIP. Ce taux atteignait 45 % pour les patients chez qui la coelioscopie était réalisée pour l'évaluation de l'extension de la CP. Par ailleurs, le développement de MSST peut rendre une CCR complète impossible, et une résection pariétale extensive permettant une CCR complète avec CHIP peut être mutilante, et augmente de façon significative la morbidité de la procédure [50]. C'est pour limiter les délabrements musculaires qu'il est préconisé de mettre les trocarts sur la ligne médiane ou encore mieux de réaliser une exploration péritonéale par monotrocart [51,52]. Une courte incision médiane sus ombilicale, de 2 cm de long, est suffisante pour mettre en place un dispositif monotrocart qui va permettre l'insufflation de CO<sub>2</sub> et l'insertion de 3 trocarts ; un trocart optique et deux trocarts opérateurs [Figure 2], permettant ainsi une exploration péritonéale, tout en respectant les muscles de la paroi abdominale. Dans notre pratique institutionnelle, à l'Hôpital Lariboisière, l'exploration péritonéale par monotrocart est intégrée dans le bilan préparatoire des CP et réalisée de façon courante depuis l'année 2009.



#### Figure 2. Exploration péritonéale par monotrocart.

A. Incision médiane sus-ombilicale. B. Mise en place de la jupe du dispositif monotrocart.

C. Mise en place du couvercle et insufflation de CO<sub>2</sub>. D. Mise en place des trocarts.

#### 3. Endoscopie péritonéale souple

L'exploration péritonéale par monotrocart permet certainement de limiter le risque de traumatisme pariétal et autorise une résection plus simple et non délabrante du site du trocart lors de la CCR-CHIP; mais elle a cependant ses limitations surtout en terme d'ergonomie et de manque de triangulation en raison de la position coaxiale des instruments, ce qui rajoute des difficultés opératoire par rapport à la coelioscopie conventionnelle. En effet, la manipulation d'instruments droits, parallèles à un endoscope rigide, réduit le champ des mouvements pour le chirurgien et complique la tenue de l'optique pour l'aide opératoire. Ceci affecte naturellement la qualité de l'exploration péritonéale, et par conséquent la précision du PCI. Par ailleurs, l'utilisation d'un endoscope rigide ne permet pas une exploration adéquate de certaines régions péritonéales difficiles d'accès tel que les coupoles diaphragmatiques et le pelvis. Cette exploration est d'autant plus difficile, et par conséquent incomplète, chez les patients aux antécédents de chirurgie abdominale, chez qui des adhérences et des brides post opératoires peuvent gêner les mouvements de l'endoscope rigide dans le ventre.

Afin d'améliorer la qualité et la précision de l'exploration péritonéale par monotrocart, nous avons développé, depuis plusieurs années, une technique d'exploration péritonéale souple par monotrocart. Le début était avec une étude animale, publiée en 2012, comparant chez le porc, l'endoscopie péritonéale souple et rigide [53]. Une exploration standardisée de la cavité péritonéale, dont le but était d'atteindre 11 sites électifs prédéfinis, était réalisée en monotrocart, par un endoscope rigide et souple. L'endoscope souple permettait un meilleur accès aux différents sites avec un taux global à 98% contre 87% avec l'endoscope rigide (p=0,001). Se basant sur ces résultats, nous avons mené une étude prospective chez l'homme, au cours de laquelle nous avons comparé, lors d'explorations péritonéales en monotrocart pour CP, l'endoscopie péritonéale rigide (*single-incision rigid endoscopy* (SIRE)) et l'endoscopie péritonéale souple (single-incision flexible endoscopy (SIFE)) [54]. Dans ce travail, présenté ici en Annexe 1, l'exploration péritonéale par monotrocart était réalisable dans 94 % des cas et permettait un accès aux 13 régions de l'abdomen chez 83 % des patients avec le SIRE et 91 % des patients avec le SIFE. L'endoscopie souple était supérieure à l'endoscopie rigide (p<0,0001), et permettait un meilleur accès à certaines zones péritonéales difficiles d'accès dans les régions 1 (hypochondre droit), 2 (épigastre), 3

(hypochondre gauche) et 6 (pelvis). Par rapport à la SIRE, la SIFE était plus performante dans l'évaluation du PCI; dans 25 % des cas, il existait un écart de PCI calculé d'au moins de 2 points entre les deux techniques et 6 % des malades jugés résécables par SIRE avaient finalement un PCI > 20 (et donc non résécable) après exploration par SIFE [54].

#### 4. Chromoendoscopie virtuelle

#### 4.1. Rappel : Spectre visible et endoscopie en lumière blanche :

En endoscopie, comme en coelioscopie, les tissus sont éclairés par une lumière blanche (LB) qui correspond aux ondes électromagnétiques couvrant l'ensemble du spectre de la lumière visible, allant de 400 à 700 nm. Ce spectre lumineux visible est composé de 3 couleurs primaires : bleu, vert et rouge; dont la superposition produit une LB. La lumière réfléchie est captée par un dispositif à transfert de charges (CCD : Charge coupled device) et permet la construction de l'image endoscopique.

Les structures tissulaires sont distinguées par leur absorption différente des longueurs d'onde qui composent ce spectre visible. Ainsi, les vaisseaux, essentiellement constitués de sang, absorbent la lumière différemment des tissus environnants. L'hémoglobine est en effet le principal facteur d'absorption de la lumière visible, avec un pic principal dans la bande bleue du spectre à 415 nm, et un pic secondaire dans la bande verte du spectre à 540 nm, ce qui explique la couleur rouge des vaisseaux sanguins. La figure 3 montre le spectre d'absorption de la désoxy-hémoglobine de l'Ultraviolet (UV) jusqu'à l'infrarouge (IR) proche [55].

La profondeur de pénétration de la lumière va également dépendre de sa longueur d'onde. Elle augmente avec celle-ci jusque dans le proche IR. Elle est superficielle pour le bleu, profonde pour le rouge et intermédiaire pour le vert. Chacun a pu remarquer que lorsqu'on éclaire la paume de la main avec une LB, seule la lumière rouge « traverse » la main.





#### 4.2. Principe

Depuis longtemps, les photographes utilisent des filtres colorés placés devant l'objectif de leur appareil pour améliorer le contraste de leurs clichés. Ce même principe a été adapté en médecine dans le but d'améliorer les performances diagnostiques des examens endoscopiques.

En effet, il y a quelques années, a été développée, pour les endoscopistes digestifs, une nouvelle technologie d'imagerie endoscopique visant à améliorer la visualisation du réseau vasculaire et des détails de la surface muqueuse, nommée chromoendoscopie virtuelle [56,57]. Le principe repose sur l'exploitation des propriétés physiques et optiques de certaines bandes spécifiques du spectre de la lumière visible. Ceci permet une coloration virtuelle sans avoir recours à des injections de colorants.

Les vidéo-endoscopes classiques peuvent être intégrés à ces nouveaux systèmes. Trois systèmes différents sont commercialisés. Ils reposent sur le même principe. Il s'agit du Narrow Band Imaging (NBI, Olympus), Image-enhanced endoscopy (i-scan, Pentax), et Fujinon Intelligent Chromoendoscopy (FICE, Fujinon) [56,58].

#### 4.3. Le système NBI

Le principe du NBI repose sur un éclairage séquentiel, avec utilisation de filtres optiques montés sur un système rotatif permettant d'isoler les lumières monochromatiques correspondant aux deux pics d'absorption de l'hémoglobine à 415 nm et 540 nm. Ceci aboutit une lumière bleu-vert qui permet de rehausser les détails vasculaires de la surface muqueuse [59,60]. Les capillaires les plus superficiels au niveau de la muqueuse prennent une coloration brunâtre, grâce au contraste obtenu par la lumière monochromatique à 415 nm. Les vaisseaux muqueux plus profonds et sous muqueux sont rehaussés par la lumière monochromatique à 540 nm qui pénètre plus profondément les tissus [59]. Parmi les différents systèmes de chromoendoscopie virtuelle disponibles, le NBI est sans doute le plus étudié, avec des applications diverses essentiellement en endoscopie digestive et en ORL. En effet, il a été démontré que ce système permettait de révéler des lésions qui sont le siège d'une néovascularisation, permettant de contribuer à une détection plus précoce des cancers ORL [61–63], de l'œsophage [64,65], de l'estomac [66–68] ou du colon [69–71].

#### 4.4. Le système FICE

Le FICE repose sur une technologie inventée au Japon par le Pr Yoichi Miyake à la Faculté d'Ingénierie de l'Université de Chiba, et présentée pour la première fois lors de la 13<sup>ème</sup> conférence internationale sur l'imagerie couleur qui s'est déroulée à Scottsdale en Arizona en 2005 [72]. Comme le NBI, il s'agit d'une technique de chromoendoscopie virtuelle, qui se base sur la sélection de certaines longueurs d'onde réduites du spectre de la lumière visible, et qui vise à obtenir une meilleure visualisation des détails de la surface muqueuse. Par contre, à la différence du NBI, dans lequel un filtre optique réduit le spectre de transmission et ne permet qu'à certaines longueurs d'ondes de passer et d'éclairer les tissus [Figure 3], le FICE repose sur un processus d'estimation spectrale et n'utilise aucun filtre optique [73].

Dans le FICE, les tissus sont éclairés par une LB issue d'une lampe en xénon. La lumière réfléchie est captée par un CCD et n'est traitée que secondairement par un vidéo processeur. Grâce à un processus d'estimation spectrale, l'image classique en LB est décomposée, et des images spectrales correspondant à différentes longueurs d'ondes du

spectre de la lumière visible sont produites puis directement attribuées aux canaux d'entrée rouge (R-red), vert (G-green) et bleu (B-blue) du moniteur, ce qui produit une image virtuelle en temps réel [Figure 4]. Sur la 2<sup>ème</sup> génération du FICE, dix réglages sont présélectionnés en usine, et immédiatement disponible sur la machine. Le passage de l'image classique en LB aux images du FICE se fait instantanément, par simple pression sur un bouton situé à la tête de l'endoscope. L'avantage de ce système repose sur la possibilité de choisir « à la carte » un réglage en fonction du tissu et de la pathologie étudiée. C'est la raison pour laquelle, nous avons décidé de le choisir pour notre étude. En effet, le NBI, même s'il demeure le dispositif de chromoendoscopie virtuelle le plus utilisé et le plus étudié, ne permet de générer qu'une image virtuelle unique qui a été conçue pour l'exploration de la muqueuse digestive et non la cavité péritonéale [74].



Figure 4. Comparaison entre les systèmes FICE et NBI.



Figure 5. Principe du système FICE.

Diverses études ont souligné l'intérêt du FICE dans la détection des lésions superficielles de l'œsophage [75] ou de l'estomac [76,77]. Il en est de même pour les lésions colorectales, ou la modification de l'aspect des vaisseaux sous muqueux, détectée par cette technique, permet de juger du caractère adénomateux des lésions [78,79]. Dans une méta analyse, publiée en 2013 dans « The Lancet Oncology », et qui a colligé 14 études s'étant intéressées à l'intérêt du FICE dans l'évaluation des polypes coliques, il a été montré que le FICE permettait un diagnostic optique des lésions coliques avec une sensibilité de 92%, une spécificité de 84% et une valeur prédictive négative de 84% [80]. Le FICE a également été couplé à la vidéo capsule pour exploration de l'intestin grêle, dans le but d'obtenir une meilleure visualisation des ulcérations, des télangiectasies ou des tumeurs du grêle [81,82]. Néanmoins, les résultats sont divergents, et son apport, dans cette indication, semble limité selon une méta-analyse récente [83].

Ce système n'a jusque là jamais été utilisé pour l'exploration de la cavité péritonéale. La deuxième partie de cette thèse a été consacrée à l'intérêt potentiel du système FICE dans l'exploration de la cavité péritonéale et la détection des nodules de CP, et nous présentons ici les résultats des deux premières études qui se sont intéressées à ce sujet.

# RÉSULTATS

1<sup>ère</sup> Partie : Endoscopie péritonéale souple :

Article 1 : Laparo-endoscopic single site surgery for peritoneal carcinomatosis detection and staging (with video)

Haythem Najah, Réa Lo Dico, Clarisse Eveno, Marc Pocard. J Visc Surg. 2017 Apr;154(2):133-134.

Nous décrivons dans ce premier papier notre technique d'exploration péritonéale par monotrocart pour la détection et le staging de la carcinose péritonéale. Une vidéo montre les différentes étapes nécessaires à la réalisation de cette intervention.

L'intervention débute par une courte incision sus ombilicale, à travers laquelle le dispositif du monotrocart est introduit. Après la création du pneumopéritoine, trois trocarts sont introduits à travers le dispositif. Nous commençons l'exploration péritonéale tout d'abord par un endoscope rigide (SIRE) en utilisant une optique de 30°, de 10 mm de diamètre, 60 cm de long (27425 P; Karl Storz Endoscopy, Guyancourt, France), puis par un endoscope souple (SIFE) en utilisant un gastroscope de 10.8 mm de diamètre, 110 cm de long de type Fujinon gastroscope EG-490ZW5 (Fujifilm Medical Systems France, Montigny Le Bretec, France).

Comme nous l'avons montré dans une étude antérieure, présentée en Annexe 1, l'utilisation de l'endoscope souple améliore l'accès global aux différentes régions du PCI en comparaison à l'endoscope rigide (91% versus 83%) [54]. Cette différence est due à la présence de certaines zones péritonéales difficiles d'accès, mal explorées par l'endoscope rigide. La vidéo montre comment l'endoscope souple autorise une meilleure exploration de ces zones difficiles d'accès tel que la coupole diaphragmatique droite (Région 1), la coupole diaphragmatique gauche (Région 2) et le pelvis (Région 6).

Ces deux techniques, SIRE et SIFE, ne doivent pas être perçues comme concurrentes mais sont plutôt complémentaires et doivent être réalisées au cours de la même intervention, la SIFE venant compléter l'exploration classique par SIRE. En effet, contrairement à
l'endoscope souple, l'endoscope rigide est conçu pour la chirurgie coelioscopique. Il offre par conséquent une stabilité optimale et une image familière pour les chirurgiens. L'endoscope souple, par contre, est conçu pour l'endoscopie digestive avec des capacités de mouvement beaucoup plus importantes et par conséquent une image moins stable, mais une meilleure capacité d'atteindre les zones difficiles d'accès.

#### Journal of Visceral Surgery (2017) 154, 133-134



VISCERAL SURGERY VIDEOS

### Laparo-endoscopic single site surgery for peritoneal carcinomatosis detection and staging (with video)



#### H. Najah<sup>a,b,\*</sup>, R. Lo Dico<sup>a,b</sup>, C. Eveno<sup>a,b</sup>, M. Pocard<sup>a,b</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Department of Oncologic & Digestive Surgery, Hospital Lariboisière, AP—HP, 2, rue Ambroise-Paré, 75475 Paris cedex 10, France

<sup>b</sup> INSERM U965, CART, université Paris Diderot, Sorbonne Paris Cité, 74575 Paris, France

Available online 7 April 2017

#### **KEYWORDS**

Minimally invasive surgery; Single-incision laparoscopic surgery; Peritoneal carcinomatosis; Peritoneoscopy; Laparo-endoscopic single-site surgery Cytoreductive surgery with hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy (CRS/HIPEC) is currently a recognized therapeutic strategy in patients with peritoneal carcinomatosis (PC). However, an accurate evaluation of the peritoneal cancer index (PCI) is mandatory in order to select patients eligible to CRS and HIPEC. Because current imaging methods are not sensitive enough for the diagnosis and staging of limited PC, precise evaluation is most often performed during surgical exploration, either by laparotomy or by laparoscopy. Another alternative is to use laparo-endoscopic single site surgery (LESS) for diagnosis and staging of PC. We believe that laparotomy is too morbid and should not be performed for exploration purposes only. In addition, due to the risk of port track seeding, we also believe that the conventional triangular laparoscopy is not the most suitable option for the evaluation of PC [1,2].

This video clearly shows the different steps needed to be performed for laparoendoscopic single site surgery (LESS) to detect and stage PC. During the procedure, and in addition to the rigid 30 degrees angled laparoscope, a flexible endoscope (Single Incision Flexible Endoscopy) is used. Overall, access rate to the different regions of PCI was higher with the use of a flexible endoscope (91.1%) in comparison with the use of a rigid laparoscope only (83%) [3]. In this study, this difference was due to the fact that single incision flexible endoscopy was significantly superior in the exploration of some difficult-to-access areas, located in regions 1 (right hypochondrium), 3 (left hypochondrium) and 6 (pelvis). The comments highlight the advantages and the drawbacks of both single incision rigid and flexible endoscopy techniques. This LESS technique for PC detection and staging is safe, feasible and allows, through the association of rigid and

http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jviscsurg.2017.03.001

1878-7886/© 2017 Elsevier Masson SAS. All rights reserved.

<sup>\*</sup> Corresponding author. Department of Oncologic & Digestive Surgery, Hospital Lariboisière, AP-HP, 2, rue Ambroise-Paré, 75475 Paris cedex 10, France. Tel.: +33 149 95 82 58; fax: +33 149 95 01 02. *E-mail address:* haythem.najah@gmail.com (H. Najah).



Figure 1. SIFE - exploration of the right hypochondrium.



Figure 2. SIFE - external view.



Figure 3. SIFE - exploration of the left hypochondrium.



Figure 4. SIFE - exploration of the pelvis.

flexible endoscopes, a comprehensive and accurate evaluation of the peritoneal seeding. We believe this video may be useful for surgeons interested in PC detection and staging (Video, Figs. 1–4).

#### **Acknowledgements**

The authors would like to thank Mr Eric Amsellem for his helpful contribution to this work.

#### **Disclosure of interest**

Fujifilm Medical System Company is partner to the INSERM 965 Unit to study the impact of endoscopy on the evaluation of peritoneal carcinomatosis. For that purpose, the company has lent the Unit a gastroscope and a FICE (Fuji Intelligent Chromoendoscopy) system.

Drs. H. Najah and M. Pocard had recently filed a patent via InsermTransfert concerning the contribution of computed virtual chromoendoscopy in the detection of an incipient peritoneal carcinomatosis.

 $\ensuremath{\mathsf{Drs.}}$  R. Lo Dico and C. Eveno declare that they have no competing interest.

#### Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jviscsurg.2017.03.001.

#### References

- [1] Nunez MF, Sardi A, Jimenez W, et al. Port-site metastases is an independent prognostic factor in patients with peritoneal carcinomatosis. Ann Surg Oncol 2015;22:1267–73, http://dx.doi.org/10.1245/s10434-014-4136-1.
- Pocard M. Exploratory laparoscopy for carcinomatosis: discard that quiver full of trocars and use just one! J Visc Surg 2015;152:147–8, <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/</u> j.jviscsurg.2015.04.004.
- [3] Najah H, Lo Dico R, Grienay M, Dohan A, Dray X, Pocard M. Single-incision flexible endoscopy (SIFE) for detection and staging of peritoneal carcinomatosis. Surg Endosc 2016;30:3808–15, http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s00464-015-4682-z.

## Article 2 : The role of Single incision laparoscopic peritoneal exploration in the management of patients with peritoneal metastases.

Haythem Najah, Anthony Dohan, Brice Malgras, Caroline Gronnier, Clarisse Eveno, Marc Pocard.

Soumis à Surg Endosc.

Le but de ce travail était d'évaluer la faisabilité, la sécurité et l'efficacité de l'exploration péritonéale par monotrocart (Single incision laparoscopic peritoneal exploration (SILPE)) dans une grande série de patients ayant une CP et considérés pour CCR et CHIP.

Il s'agit d'une étude rétrospective, mono-centrique, dans laquelle nous avons inclus tous les patients ayant eu une SILPE à l'Hôpital Lariboisière entre Janvier 2011 et Décembre 2015. Nous avons relevé les données concernant les caractéristiques des patients, les constatations opératoires, les évènements post-opératoires. Pour les patients ayant eu une laparotomie dans les suites, à visée curative ou palliative, nous avons comparé les constatations opératoires (PCI, nombre de régions explorées, nombre de régions touchées) du SILPE et de la laparotomie.

Un nombre total de 183 SILPE étaient réalisées sur la période de l'étude. L'origine de la CP était variée englobant quasiment toutes les étiologies possibles, mais avec une majorité de primitif colorectal (39,3%) ou gastrique (25,7%). La grande majorité des patients avaient des antécédents de chirurgie abdominale (85.8%), avec 94 patients (51.3%) ayant eu au moins deux et 48 patients (26.2%) ayant eu au moins trois chirurgies abdominales. La SILPE a pu être réalisée dans 90,2% des cas. Les cas d'échecs étaient dus à une impossibilité d'accès à la cavité péritonéale chez 6 patients, et une exploration péritonéale insuffisante (n'ayant pu accéder qu'à moins de 7 régions) chez 12 patients. La durée moyenne du séjour était de 2 jours. Deux complications peropératoires étaient relevées (1,2%) : une plaie vésicale lors d'une biopsie d'un nodule pelvien qui a été identifiée et suturée en peropératoire en monotrocart, et un collapsus cardio-vasculaire lors de l'induction anesthésique probablement dû à une choc anaphylactique aux drogues anesthésiques qui a bien répondu à une réanimation adéquate. Cinq complications post-opératoires ont été observées (3%), toutes mineures, de Grade I ou II selon la classification de Dindo-Clavien [84].

En se basant sur les constations de la SILPE, une CCR complète CCO-1 avec CHIP était indiquée chez 84 patients (50,9%). La valeur prédictive positive (VPP) de la SILPE pour prédire une CCR complète, définie par le nombre de patients chez qui une CCR avec CHIP a été réalisée (58) parmi les patients jugés candidats à une CCR CCO-1 et CHIP après SILPE et qui ont eu une laparotomie (73), était de 79,5%. Parmi les 15 patients chez qui une CCR complète n'était finalement pas possible, les raisons étaient un envahissement massif de l'intestin grêle chez 6 patients, un PCI élevé au dessus du cut-off défini en fonction de l'étiologie de la CP (20 pour une origine colorectale ou ovarienne, 12 pour une origine gastrique) chez 7 patients, et un envahissement massif du pédicule hépatique chez deux patients.

Finalement, 81 patients ont eu une laparotomie. Le délai médian entre la SILPE et la laparotomie était de 27 jours. Le PCI était de 9,7 ± 7,5 au moment de la SILPE et de 13,5 ± 9,6 au moment de la laparotomie (p<0,0001). Le nombre de régions explorées était supérieur avec la laparotomie 13,0 ± 0,3 qu'avec la SILPE 12,2 ± 1,6 (p<0,0001). Il en est de même pour les régions envahies : 6,9 ± 4,5 pour la laparotomie contre 5,4 ± 3,8 pour la SILPE (p<0,0001). La sensibilité globale de la SILPE dans la détection de la CP dans les différentes régions était de 75%, avec une spécificité de 97%, soit une précision de 85%. La VVP était de 97% et la valeur prédictive négative (VPN) de 77%. Nous avons calculé ces paramètres pour chacune des régions du PCI. Elles sont présentées dans le tableau 3 de l'article.

En conclusion, nous avons présenté dans ce travail les résultats de la première grande série étudiant l'intérêt du SILPE dans le bilan préopératoire des patients ayant une CP. Nous avons montré qu'il s'agit d'une technique sûre et faisable. Même si elle sous estime le PCI et le nombre de régions envahies, elle permet de prédire, de manière correcte, les chances d'une CCR complète et d'éviter une laparotomie non thérapeutique chez les patients qui n'en ont pas besoin.

#### Surgical Endoscopy

# The role of Single incision laparoscopic peritoneal exploration in the management of patients with peritoneal metastases --Manuscript Draft--

Manuscript Number:				
Full Title:	The role of Single incision laparoscopic peritoneal exploration in the management of patients with peritoneal metastases			
Article Type:	Original Article			
Manuscript Classifications:	HINDGUT; Surgery/interventions: Malignant colorectal and anorectal diseases			
Corresponding Author:	Haythem Najah, M.D. Hôpital Lariboisière-AP-HP Paris, FRANCE			
Corresponding Author Secondary Information:				
Corresponding Author's Institution:	Hôpital Lariboisière-AP-HP			
Corresponding Author's Secondary Institution:				
First Author:	Haythem Najah, M.D.			
First Author Secondary Information:				
Order of Authors:	Haythem Najah, M.D.			
	Anthony Dohan, M.D.			
	Brice Malgras, M.D.			
	Caroline Gronnier, M.D, Ph.D			
	Clarisse Eveno, M.D., Ph.D.			
	Marc Pocard, M.D, Ph.D.			
Order of Authors Secondary Information:				
Author Comments:	Dr H. Najah Department of Oncologic & Digestive Surgery. Hôpital Lariboisière, 2 rue Ambroise Paré. 75475 Paris Cedex 10, France. Haythem.najah@gmail.com			
	Pr M.A. Talamini Pr G.B. Hanna Editors-in-chief Surgical Endoscopy			
	September 07, 2018			
	Dear Editors-in-chief,			
	On behalf of my co-authors. I am pleased to submit this manuscript entitled "The role of			

Powered by Editorial Manager® and ProduXion Manager® from Aries Systems Corporation

	for publication as an original article in Surgical Endoscopy.
	In this retrospective study, we present our experience with single incision laparoscopic peritoneal exploration (SILPE) for detection and staging of peritoneal metastases (PM). Since preoperative imaging strongly lack sensitivity in determining if a patient's disease burden will be amenable to complete cytoreduction (CCR), and conventional laparoscopy carries the risk of trocar site metastases, SILPE could be incorporated in the preoperative assessment of patients with PM, allowing for a better selection of potential candidates for CCR.
	We believe this manuscript is appropriate for publication in the Surgical Endoscopy because it is the first large-scale study that assesses the use of SILPE in the setting of PM detection and staging.
	This manuscript has not been published and is not under consideration for publication elsewhere. It has been read and approved by all authors.
	Thank you for your consideration.
	Sincerely,
	H. NAJAH
Funding Information:	
Abstract:	Background
	The outcome of cytoreductive Surgery and hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy (CRS/HIPEC) depends on the extent of peritoneal metastases (PM) and the completeness of cytoreduction (CCR). The role of preoperative assessment of PM is to identify potential candidates for CRS/HIPEC and to prevent unwarranted laparotomy for those how are not. Laparoscopy has been utilized for that purpose but with concerns related to technical difficulties and risk of trocar site metastases. Single incision laparoscopic peritoneal exploration (SILPE) has not yet been evaluated in this setting.
	Methods
	This Single-center retrospective study examined patients from January 2011 to December 2015 who underwent SILPE for diagnosis and staging of PM. Preoperative, intraoperative, and postoperative data were collected. For the patients who underwent subsequent laparotomy, a comparison between SILPE and laparotomy findings was made.
	Results
	A total of 183 SILPE were performed. Primary sites were mostly colorectal in 72 cases (39.3%) and gastric in 47 (25.7%). Overall, 157 patients (85.8%) had at least one prior abdominal surgery and 48 (26.2%) had 3 or more. SILPE was successfully achieved in 90.2% of the cases. Two (1.2%) intraoperative complications and five (3%) postoperative complications were observed. Eighty-one patients had laparotomy, with a median of 27 days between SILPE and laparotomy (4-162 days). The peritoneal carcinomatosis index PCI was $9.7 \pm 7.5$ at SILPE, and $13.5 \pm 9.6$ at laparotomy. The positive predictive value of SILPE to predict CCR was 79.5%. SILPE sensitivity was 75% and specificity 97%. The lowest sensitivity was in regions 9 to 12 ranging from 44% to 53%.
	Conclusion
	SILPE can be safely incorporated in the management of patients with PM. It is a safe and feasible staging tool, allowing for preventing unwarranted laparotomy for patients not deemed candidate for CRS/HIPEC. Even thought, it may underestimate PCI, SILPE accurately predicts the possibility of CCR.

Powered by Editorial Manager® and ProduXion Manager® from Aries Systems Corporation

 $\sim \sim$ 

ck here to view linked References Running head: SILPE for PM

Title: The role of Single incision laparoscopic peritoneal exploration in the management of patients with peritoneal metastases.

Names: Haythem Najah <sup>1,2</sup> M.D., Anthony Dohan <sup>2,3</sup> M.D., Brice Malgras <sup>1,2</sup> M.D., Caroline Gronnier <sup>4</sup> M.D. Ph.D, Clarisse Eveno <sup>1,2</sup> M.D. Ph.D., Marc Pocard <sup>1,2</sup> M.D. Ph.D.

#### Institution:

<sup>1</sup> Department of Oncologic & Digestive Surgery, AP-HP, Hospital Lariboisière, 2 rue

Ambroise Paré, 75475 Paris Cedex 10, France

<sup>2</sup> Université Paris Diderot, Sorbonne Paris Cité, CART, INSERM U965, F-74575 Paris, France

<sup>3</sup> Department of Abdominal Imaging, Hôpital Lariboisière-AP-HP, 2 rue Ambroise Paré,
75475 Paris Cedex 10, France

<sup>4</sup> Department of Digestive and Endocrine Surgery, Bordeaux University Hospital, Hôpital

Haut lévêque, Centre Magellan, 33604 Pessac Cedex, France

Correspondence:

Haythem Najah, MD. Department of Oncologic & Digestive Surgery. Hôpital Lariboisière, 2 rue Ambroise Paré, 75475 Paris Cedex 10, France.

Mail: haythem.najah@gmail.com

Tel: 00 33 149 95 82 58 Fax: 00 33 149 95 01 02

SILPE for PM

#### Abstract

 $\sim \sim$ 

Background: The outcome of cytoreductive Surgery and hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy (CRS/HIPEC) depends on the extent of peritoneal metastases (PM) and the completeness of cytoreduction (CCR). The role of preoperative assessment of PM is to identify potential candidates for CRS/HIPEC and to prevent unwarranted laparotomy for those how are not. Laparoscopy has been utilized for that purpose but with concerns related to technical difficulties and risk of trocar site metastases. Single incision laparoscopic peritoneal exploration (SILPE) has not yet been evaluated in this setting.

Methods: This Single-center retrospective study examined patients from January 2011 to December 2015 who underwent SILPE for diagnosis and staging of PM. Preoperative, intraoperative, and postoperative data were collected. For the patients who underwent subsequent laparotomy, a comparison between SILPE and laparotomy findings was made.

Results: A total of 183 SILPE were performed. Primary sites were mostly colorectal in 72 cases (39.3%) and gastric in 47 (25.7%). Overall, 157 patients (85.8%) had at least one prior abdominal surgery and 48 (26.2%) had 3 or more. SILPE was successfully achieved in 90.2% of the cases. Two (1.2%) intraoperative complications and five (3%) postoperative complications were observed. Eighty-one patients had laparotomy, with a median of 27 days between SILPE and laparotomy (4-162 days). The peritoneal carcinomatosis index PCI was  $9.7 \pm 7.5$  at SILPE, and  $13.5 \pm 9.6$  at laparotomy. The positive predictive value of SILPE to predict CCR was 79.5%. SILPE sensitivity was 75% and specificity 97%. The lowest sensitivity was in regions 9 to 12 ranging from 44% to 53%.

Conclusion: SILPE can be safely incorporated in the management of patients with PM. It is a safe and feasible staging tool, allowing for preventing unwarranted laparotomy for patients not deemed candidate for CRS/HIPEC. Even thought, it may underestimate PCI, SILPE accurately predicts the possibility of CCR.

#### Keywords

Peritoneal carcinomatosis

Peritoneoscopy

Single-incision laparoscopic surgery

Minimally invasive surgery

Laparoendoscopic single-site surgery

Peritoneal cancer index

 $\sim \sim$ 

## Cytoreductive surgery combined with hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy (CRS/HIPEC) is currently a recognized therapeutic strategy in patients with peritoneal metastases (PM) [1]. This treatment could lead to long-term survival in highly selected patients [2–5]. However, CRS/HIPEC is associated with substantial perioperative morbidity and mortality [6–8], highlighting the importance of careful patient selection. The feasibility and outcome of CRS/HIPEC depend on the extent of the disease, measured in terms of Peritoneal Cancer Index (PCI), and the completeness of macroscopic cytoreduction (CCR) [9]. CRS/HIPEC can be performed with curative intent only in patients in whom complete (CC0) or near complete cytoreduction (CC1) is possible, thus no residual tumor nodules of more than 2.5 mm should be left behind after cytoreduction. Barriers to achieving CCR

include extensive pelvic disease, extensive involvement of the hepatic pedicle, diffuse small bowel or mesenteric involvement, and concomitant diffuse gastric and colic involvement, among others.

The role of preoperative evaluation of PM is therefore crucial in order to avoid unwarranted laparotomy in patients with non-resectable lesions, and to provide better information to the patients regarding the surgical gesture and its consequences such as a temporary stoma for example. Unfortunately, preoperative imaging strongly lack sensitivity in determining if a patient's disease burden will be amenable to CCR [10]. In fact, Computed tomography (CT) scan, which remains the reference investigation technique in the assessment of PC [11, 12], fails, despite its very high spatial resolution, to detect 30 to 45 % of PM nodules, in particular if these are smaller than 5 mm [13, 14]. Positron emission tomography coupled with CT scan (PET-CT) provides both anatomical and functional information that could improve the performance of CT [15]. However, it fails to demonstrate a hyperfixation when the tumor

mass is low or in tumors with low cellularity, in particular when they are predominantly mucinous. Moreover, its exposes to a risk of false positives [16]. This technique is promising but there are few studies available today and its place still has to be defined.

The role of Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) in the setting of PM has also been advocated but this technique has several limitations such as its cost and availability, the lack of standardization in imaging acquisition sequences and its long learning curve [17]. Moreover, its performance seems to be limited to tumors with high concentration of water molecules such as PM of appendicular mucinous origin [18].

Despite all the recent advancements in cross-sectional imaging, direct visualization during an exploratory laparotomy remains to date the most reliable method for assessing the PM tumor load [19]. Thus, this ultimate evaluation of PM takes place at the time of potential CRS/HIPEC, while up to 20-44% of patients are discovered to not be CCR candidates [20–22].

Laparoscopy has been utilized as an adjunct to imaging to better identify patients for CCR [20, 23–25]. Some recent large series support its safety and efficacy in the selection of potential candidates for CRS/HIPEC [6, 26]. However, the staging laparoscopy is not yet routinely recommended, and its role in the setting of PM is still discouraged with objections related mainly to the risk of trocar site metastases (TSM). In fact TSM are present in one third of the patients with a history of laparoscopic procedure prior to CRS/HIPEC; and this rate reaches 42 % if laparoscopy was performed for tumor staging purposes [27]. Moreover, the occurrence of port site metastases can make the cytoreduction impossible, and an extensive abdominal wall resection in order to achieve a CCR increases significantly the morbidity of the procedure [28]. Trocars should therefore be placed on the midline, to limit parietal dissemination of PM, since the sites can be excised along with the future midline incision

during CRS/HIPEC [29]. Better yet, the use of a single port device is particularly well adapted to the exploration of PM, limiting the risk of parietal dissemination. In our institution, all the peritoneal exploration procedures for diagnosis and staging of PM are performed via single-incision laparoscopic surgery[30].

The aim of this study was to investigate the safety, feasibility and efficacy of the routine use of Single incision laparoscopic peritoneal exploration (SILPE) in a large cohort of patients being considered for CRS/HIPEC.

#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

After institutional review board approval was obtained, the records of all patients undergoing SILPE to assess candidacy for CCR between January 2011 and December 2015 were reviewed. All the procedures were performed in a single tertiary center for PM, in the department of oncologic and digestive surgery in Lariboisière Hospital (Assistance Publique, Hôpitaux de Paris), Paris, France.

#### SILPE Indication

At our institution, SILPE is routinely performed for detection and staging of PM on patients being considered for CRS/HIPEC with PM of various origins potentially amenable to CCR. The indications are staging of PM already diagnosed or suspected with imaging (CT scan, MRI, and/or PET-CT), restaging after neoadjuvant chemotherapy or during follow-up in the case of dubious imaging. SILPE is usually not routinely performed in patients with imaging consistent with evident extensive unresectable PM, or in patients who have recently undergone laparoscopy or laparotomy at an outside institution with adequate assessment and documentation of disease burden.

#### SILPE Technique

Through a laparoendoscopic single site port using a GelPOINT system (Applied Medical, Rancho Santa Margarita, CA, USA), a standardized peritoneoscopy was conducted with both a rigid optic (Single incision Rigid endoscopy: SIRE) and a flexible endoscope (Single incision Flexible endoscopy: SIFE) [31].

Under general anesthesia, and in a supine position, a 25 mm supra-umbilical midline incision was made. An Alexis Wound Protector was inserted through this incision. The GelSeal Cap

 $\sim \sim$ 

was connected to a standard autoregulated laparoscopic insufflator (Electronic CO<sub>2</sub> Endoflator; Karl Storz Endoscopy, Guyancourt, France) to create and maintain 12 mm Hg CO<sub>2</sub> pneumoperitoneum. The SIRE was performed using a 10-mm-diameter, 60-cm-long, 30° axial optic (27425 P; Karl Storz Endoscopy, Guyancourt, France) and the SIFE using a 10.8mm-diameter, 110-cm-long, Fujinon gastroscope EG-490ZW5 (Fujifilm Medical Systems France, Montigny Le Bretec, France). Two 5-mm rigid laparoscopic graspers were also inserted through the GelPOINT system. As we have demonstrated in a previous study the flexible endoscope permits to better explore some difficult to access peritoneal areas and therefore to assess more accurately the PM tumor load [32].

A standardized exploration of the peritoneal cavity was conducted quadrant by quadrant using the two endoscopes, exploring the 13 regions of PCI as described by Sugarbaker [Figure 1] [9]. The procedures were only exploratory, and no extensive dissection was made. The adhesiolysis was limited to the essential minimum to avoid iatrogenic lesions. A detailed description of this SILPE was recorded including the PCI score, the number of regions explored, the number of regions affected by PM, and finally the candidacy for CCR. The following criteria were considered as indicators of unresectability: an elevated PCI with different cut-off values according to PC etiology (12 for gastric cancer, 20 for ovarian and colorectal cancer), diffuse small-bowel involvement with insufficient estimated residual bowel length (<150 cm), invasion with retraction of the mesenteric root, concomitant diffuse gastric and colic involvement, extensive involvement of the hepatic pedicle, and bladder–neck invasion.

#### Data collection

Preoperative, intraoperative, and postoperative data were obtained from review of medical records. Operative details and intraoperative complications were abstracted from surgical

reports. SILPE were deemed a failure if the access to the peritoneal cavity was impossible or the assessment of the peritoneal cavity insufficient (less than 7 regions explored). Postoperative complications were classified according to Clavien–Dindo classification system [33]. The length of hospital stay was calculated from the date of patient's admission on the eve of the surgical procedure to the date of discharge. Subsequent operative interventions were classified as follows: no further surgery and further surgery consisting in either CRS/HIPEC (characterized by the completeness of cytoreduction CC 0-1), or palliative surgery (non-curative procedure such as debulking, bowel resection, or ostomy, etc.). For the patients how underwent subsequent surgery, either curative or palliative, the operative details including the PCI score, the number of regions explored, the number of regions affected by PM were recorded. Thereafter we compared these data with those recorded during the SILPE.

#### Statistical Analysis

Statistical calculations were performed with R software Version 3.2.2. Continuous data are summarized as median and range or mean and standard deviation. Comparison was performed using Student's *t* test for paired data. Categorical variables were expressed as valid percentages. The positive predictive value (PPV) of SILPE to determine a CCR was measured as the percentage of patients undergoing CC0-1 CRS/HIPEC among those deemed candidates for CCR by SILPE who underwent surgery. For each of the 13 regions of the PCI, we determined the sensitivity (Se), Specificity (Sp), accuracy (ACC), positive predictive value (PPV), and negative predictive value (NPV) of the SILPE for diagnosing the presence of PM.

#### RESULTS

#### Preoperative and operative details

There was a total of 183 SILPE procedures for detection and staging of PM that were performed in the five-year period between January 2011 and December 2015. Preoperative demographic and clinicopathologic characteristics are represented in Table 1. Most of the possible origins of PM were represented in this cohort, with a majority of primary colorectal and gastric tumors: 39.3% and 25.7% respectively. The presentation of PM was synchronous in 101 (55.2%) and metachronous in 82 (44.8%) patients. The great majority of the patients (85.8%) had at least one prior abdominal surgery, with 94 (51.3%) having at least two prior operations and 48 (26.2%) having three or more prior abdominal surgeries. More than half of the patients (55.5%) received chemotherapy prior to SILPE, with a median time from last chemotherapy to SILPE of 33 days (range 5 – 564). Few patients had symptoms related to PM; acute bowel obstruction was present in 13 patients (7.1%) and ascites in 33 (18%). The SILPE procedure was successful in 90.2% of the cases [Table 2]. The cases of failure were due to the impossibility to access the peritoneal cavity in 6 patients, and to an insufficient assessment of PM due the impossibility to access more than half of the peritoneal cavity (less than 7 regions explored) in 12 patients [Figure 2].

#### Safety of SILPE procedure

All the SILPE procedures were performed in an inpatient setting with the patient being admitted the day before the operation. The mean length of hospital stay was 2 days (range, 1-8). There were two (1.2%) intraoperative complications: one bladder injury and one cardiovascular collapse during induction of general anesthesia. The bladder injury complicated a biopsy of a PM nodule located on the bladder; it was identified and

successfully repaired during the SILPE procedure. The general anesthesia complication was probably due to an anaphylactic reaction to anesthetic drugs and was successfully managed with adequate reanimation allowing the SILPE procedure to take place. The median blood loss was 0 cc (range 0-100).

Five (3%) postoperative complications were observed: three Dindo-Clavien Grade I complications (transient elevation of serum creatinine in two patients and vomiting with hypokalemia requiring antiemetics and electrolytes in one patient), and two Dindo-Clavien Grade II complications (an acalculus cholecystitis in one patient and a postoperative pneumonia in an other, both requiring antibiotics). There were no Dindo-Clavien Grade III or IV complications. No mortality was observed.

#### Efficacy of SILPE

The flowchart, in Figure 2 summarizes the outcomes of SILPE procedures. Based on SILPE evaluation, 84 patients (50.9%) were deemed amenable to CRS/HIPEC (CC0-1 candidate). Among these, 11 (13.1%) didn't have any surgery for various reasons: rapid spread of the disease, discovery of extra peritoneal metastases or CRS/HIPEC in another center. The PPV of SILPE to predict CCR, defined as the number of patients who achieved CC0-1 CRS/HIPEC (58) among the number of CC0-1 candidates who underwent surgery (73), was 79.5%. Among the 15 who proved finally to have a disease too extensive for CCR at the time of laparotomy, the reasons were diffuse small bowel involvement in 6, an elevated PCI above the admitted cut-off values in 7 and extensive involvement of the hepatic pedicle in 2. Among the patients deemed not amenable to CRS/HIPEC (Not CC0-1 candidate), eight had laparotomy. One patient had a significant response to chemotherapy and subsequently underwent CRS/HIPEC. The seven others had palliative surgery.

Eventually, 81 patients had laparotomy. The median delay between SILPE and laparotomy

 $\sim \sim$ 

was 27 days (range, 4-162). The PCI was  $9.7 \pm 7.5$  at the time of SILPE, and  $13.5 \pm 9.6$  at the time of laparotomy ( $p < 10^{-4}$ ) [Figure 3]. The number of the regions explored by SILPE was  $12.2 \pm 1.6$ , and by laparotomy  $13.0 \pm 0.3$  ( $p < 10^{-4}$ ). The number of affected regions was  $5.4 \pm 3.8$  at the time of SILPE and  $6.9 \pm 4.5$  at the time of laparotomy ( $p < 10^{-4}$ ).

At laparotomy, 561 regions were eventually involved with PM. SILPE correctly identified

PM in 418 regions, with 143 false-negative regions and 15 false-positive regions. The region

SILPE sensitivity was 75%, specificity 97%, accuracy 85%, PPV 97% and NPV 77%. The

PM depiction at the SILPE at each of the 13 PCI anatomic regions is listed in Table 3.

#### DISCUSSION

This study is the first to investigate the role of SILPE in the management of patients with PM. We showed that this technique is feasible in 90.2% of the cases, allowing a good assessment of PM despite the fact that more than half of the patients had at least two prior abdominal surgeries, and more than one quarter of them had three prior abdominal surgeries or more. We also demonstrated, in this large cohort comprising 183 procedures, that SILPE is safe with only 3% of post-operative morbidity. The complications were not serious and no Dindo-Clavien Grade III or IV complications or mortality were observed.

We believe that the use of a single port device is particularly well adapted to the exploration of PM, limiting the risk of parietal dissemination, which is an independent prognosis factor in patients with PM [27]. In on our institutional practice, SILPE is routinely performed for detection and staging of PM on patients being considered for CRS/HIPEC with PM of various origins potentially amenable to CCR. In our technique, which has been previously described [31], we utilize both rigid (SIRE) and flexible endoscopes (SIFE) to explore the peritoneal cavity. In fact, the single port generates new challenges and magnifies difficulties compared with conventional laparoscopic surgery. The handling of straight instruments in parallel with the laparoscope through a small single-incision decreases the range of movements for the surgeon and complicates the holding of the camera by the assistant. Furthermore, the lack of instrument triangulation increases the complexity of organ exposure and peritoneal exploration. SIFE proved to be useful to overcome these drawbacks and permits, thanks to the distal tip great deflection capacities, to better explore some difficult to access peritoneal areas and therefore to assess more accurately the PM tumor load [32]. In our technique, SIFE is usually associated with SIRE, which was the case in 147 (89.1%) patients. In 18 patients

(10.9%), only SIRE was performed due to technical problems related to flexible endoscope availability.

In our study, almost half of the patients (49.1%) were not deemed candidates for complete cytoreduction (Not CC0-1 candidates) at the time of SILPE, thus avoiding a nontherapeutic laparotomy and its attendant morbidity in those patients not requiring palliation. In fact, exploratory laparotomy carries a significant risk of morbidity and mortality, and postpones the initiation of palliative chemotherapy [19], thus adversely affecting the outcome of this vulnerable population and supporting the use of SILPE.

Moreover, SILPE accurately identified patients with PM amenable to complete CRS/HIPEC with a PPV of 79.5%. This rate is in accordance with the published series of diagnostic laparoscopy as a screening tool for CRS/HIPEC, where the PPV of laparoscopy varies from 63% to 85% [22, 23, 26, 34]. Iverson et al, showed that the rate of CCR in patients deemed amenable to CRS/HIPEC after preoperative radiological examination, grows from 56% to 63% after the inclusion of systematic diagnostic laparoscopy in the preoperative evaluation of patients with PM [22].

In our practice, SILPE has been routinely integrated in the preoperative assessment of PM since 2009. It's performed in an inpatient setting, with a median length of hospital stay of 2 days in this cohort. This allows the surgeon to take enough time to discuss with the patient in order to explain the operative findings and the resulting decision, which we believe may alleviate patient's anxiety. Diagnostic laparoscopy can also be performed just before laparotomy for a potential CRS/HIPEC, as the first step of the operation [35]. However, we believe that performing the two procedures separately is important in order to provide more accurate informed consent, including a discussion of viscera likely to be resected, the likelihood of ostomy, tube thoracostomy, or salpingo-oophorectomy. For patients requiring splenectomy, an additional benefit is to receive immunization prior to CRS/HIPEC.

Additionally, a cancelled CRS/HIPEC is time-consuming and expensive from a healthcare perspective.

SILPE permitted an exhaustive exploration of the different regions of the abdomen, with a mean of  $12.2 \pm 1.6$  regions explored. However, in accordance with the published results of diagnostic laparoscopy [35, 36], the PCI was also underestimated by SILPE. In fact, the PCI was estimated at 9.7 ± 7.5 at the time of SILPE and was  $13.5 \pm 9.6$  at laparotomy ( $p < 10^{-4}$ ). This can be partly explained by a median delay of 27 days between the two procedures. It is also explained by the low sensitivity of SILPE for diagnosing the presence of PM in some peritoneal regions such as the small bowel (regions 9 to 12) where the sensitivity of SILPE was about 50 % (ranging from 44% to 53%); or the region 2 where the sensitivity was 73%. In fact, periportal disease, mesenteric or small bowel involvement can be challenging for SILPE to fully assess. Moreover, small PM nodules can be barely visible to the naked eye with white light laparoscopy, which constitutes a visual interface between the surgeon and the operative field. Extraction and direct palpation of the small bowel at the end the exploration through the single port could in skinny patients allow for the detection of small and clear PM nodules undetected by SILPE, especially in the case of signet ring cell gastric carcinoma. The detection of the PM nodules and therefore the sensitivity of SILPE could be improved by the use of fluorescence imaging after indocyanine green injection [37] or by the use of computed virtual chromoendoscopy systems [38]. We have recently published the results of an animal study suggesting that the use of some specific wavelengths of the white light specter could possibly enhance the visualization of PM nodules [39]. Further studies are needed to apply these promising results in humans.

We acknowledge several limitations to this study due to its retrospective design and singleinstitutional experience. The great variety of the PM origins requiring different management strategies may also bring some confusion. Moreover most of the patients deemed not CC0-1

candidates at SILPE did not have a laparotomy. This approach carried the potential risk that possible candidates for CRS/HIPEC whose disease was overstaged by SILPE might have been denied treatment. We believe, however, that this risk is minimal. In fact, in patients who ultimately had laparotomy SILPE had high overall specificity and PPV in detecting PM of 97% for both measures.

In conclusion, this first study assessing the role of SILPE in the management of patients with PM showed that SILPE is safe and feasible. It permits to avoid a non-therapeutic laparotomy in patients not deemed candidates for CCR and to predict the likelihood of CCR in patients being considered for CRS/HIPEC. Finally, it allows for an improved informed consent process and operative planning.

#### Author disclosures

 $\sim \sim$ 

Fujifilm Medical System Company has lent the INSERM 965 Research Unit (attached to the department of Surgery of Lariboisière Hospital) a gastroscope and a FICE system in order to study the contribution of virtual chromoendoscopy to the detection of peritoneal carcinomatosis in an animal model. Drs. Haythem Najah and Marc Pocard had recently filed a patent via INSERMTransfert in Europe and in the USA. Drs. Anthony Dohan, Brice Malgras and Clarisse Eveno have no conflicts of interest or financial ties to disclose.

#### References

1. Verwaal VJ, van Ruth S, de Bree E, van Sloothen GW, van Tinteren H, Boot H, Zoetmulder FAN (2003) Randomized trial of cytoreduction and hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy versus systemic chemotherapy and palliative surgery in patients with peritoneal carcinomatosis of colorectal cancer. J Clin Oncol Off J Am Soc Clin Oncol 21:3737–3743 . doi: 10.1200/JCO.2003.04.187

2. Goéré D, Malka D, Tzanis D, Gava V, Boige V, Eveno C, Maggiori L, Dumont F, Ducreux M, Elias D (2013) Is there a possibility of a cure in patients with colorectal peritoneal carcinomatosis amenable to complete cytoreductive surgery and intraperitoneal chemotherapy? Ann Surg 257:1065–1071 . doi: 10.1097/SLA.0b013e31827e9289

3. Elias D, Gilly F, Boutitie F, Quenet F, Bereder J-M, Mansvelt B, Lorimier G, Dubè P, Glehen O (2010) Peritoneal colorectal carcinomatosis treated with surgery and perioperative intraperitoneal chemotherapy: retrospective analysis of 523 patients from a multicentric French study. J Clin Oncol Off J Am Soc Clin Oncol 28:63–68 . doi: 10.1200/JCO.2009.23.9285

4. Verwaal VJ, Bruin S, Boot H, van Slooten G, van Tinteren H (2008) 8-year follow-up of randomized trial: cytoreduction and hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy versus systemic chemotherapy in patients with peritoneal carcinomatosis of colorectal cancer. Ann Surg Oncol 15:2426–2432 . doi: 10.1245/s10434-008-9966-2

5. van Driel WJ, Koole SN, Sonke GS (2018) Hyperthermic Intraperitoneal Chemotherapy in Ovarian Cancer. N Engl J Med 378:1363–1364 . doi: 10.1056/NEJMc1802033

6. Tabrizian P, Shrager B, Jibara G, Yang M-J, Romanoff A, Hiotis S, Sarpel U, Labow DM (2014) Cytoreductive surgery and hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy for peritoneal carcinomatosis: outcomes from a single tertiary institution. J Gastrointest Surg Off J Soc Surg Aliment Tract 18:1024–1031. doi: 10.1007/s11605-014-2477-5

7. Chua TC, Saxena A, Schellekens JF, Liauw W, Yan TD, Fransi S, Zhao J, Morris DL (2010) Morbidity and mortality outcomes of cytoreductive surgery and perioperative intraperitoneal chemotherapy at a single tertiary institution: towards a new perspective of this treatment. Ann Surg 251:101–106 . doi: 10.1097/SLA.0b013e3181b5ae43

8. Jafari MD, Halabi WJ, Stamos MJ, Nguyen VQ, Carmichael JC, Mills SD, Pigazzi A (2014) Surgical outcomes of hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy: analysis of the american college of surgeons national surgical quality improvement program. JAMA Surg 149:170–175 . doi: 10.1001/jamasurg.2013.3640

9. Jacquet P, Sugarbaker PH (1996) Clinical research methodologies in diagnosis and staging of patients with peritoneal carcinomatosis. Cancer Treat Res 82:359–374
10. Cotte E, Passot G, Gilly F-N, Glehen O (2010) Selection of patients and staging of peritoneal surface malignancies. World J Gastrointest Oncol 2:31–35. doi: 10.4251/wigo.v2.i1.31

11. Esquivel J, Sticca R, Sugarbaker P, Levine E, Yan TD, Alexander R, Baratti D, Bartlett D, Barone R, Barrios P, Bieligk S, Bretcha-Boix P, Chang CK, Chu F, Chu Q, Daniel S, de Bree E, Deraco M, Dominguez-Parra L, Elias D, Flynn R, Foster J, Garofalo A, Gilly FN, Glehen O, Gomez-Portilla A, Gonzalez-Bayon L, Gonzalez-Moreno S, Goodman M, Gushchin V, Hanna N, Hartmann J, Harrison L, Hoefer R, Kane J, Kecmanovic D, Kelley S, Kuhn J, Lamont J, Lange J, Li B, Loggie B, Mahteme H, Mann G, Martin R, Misih RA, Moran B, Morris D, Onate-Ocana L, Petrelli N, Philippe G, Pingpank J, Pitroff A, Piso P, Quinones M, Riley L, Rutstein L, Saha S, Alrawi S, Sardi A, Schneebaum S, Shen P, Shibata D, Spellman J, Stojadinovic A, Stewart J, Torres-Melero J, Tuttle T, Verwaal V, Villar J, Wilkinson N, Younan R, Zeh H, Zoetmulder F, Sebbag G, Society of Surgical Oncology

Annual Meeting (2007) Cytoreductive surgery and hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy in the management of peritoneal surface malignancies of colonic origin: a consensus statement. Society of Surgical Oncology. Ann Surg Oncol 14:128–133 . doi: 10.1245/s10434-006-9185-7

12. Yan TD, Morris DL, Shigeki K, Dario B, Marcello D (2008) Preoperative investigations in the management of peritoneal surface malignancy with cytoreductive surgery and perioperative intraperitoneal chemotherapy: Expert consensus statement. J Surg Oncol 98:224–227. doi: 10.1002/jso.21069

13. Angelelli G, Ianora AA, Scardapane A, Pedote P, Memeo M, Rotondo A (2001) Role of computerized tomography in the staging of gastrointestinal neoplasms. Semin Surg Oncol 20:109–121

14. de Bree E, Koops W, Kröger R, van Ruth S, Verwaal VJ, Zoetmulder F a. N (2006) Preoperative computed tomography and selection of patients with colorectal peritoneal carcinomatosis for cytoreductive surgery and hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy. Eur J Surg Oncol J Eur Soc Surg Oncol Br Assoc Surg Oncol 32:65–71 . doi: 10.1016/j.ejso.2005.09.016

15. Pfannenberg C, Königsrainer I, Aschoff P, Oksüz MO, Zieker D, Beckert S, Symons S, Nieselt K, Glatzle J, Weyhern CV, Brücher BL, Claussen CD, Königsrainer A (2009) (18)F-FDG-PET/CT to select patients with peritoneal carcinomatosis for cytoreductive surgery and hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy. Ann Surg Oncol 16:1295–1303 . doi: 10.1245/s10434-009-0387-7

16. Audollent R, Eveno C, Dohan A, Sarda L, Jouvin I, Soyer P, Pocard M (2015) Pitfalls and mimickers on (18)F-FDG-PET/CT in peritoneal carcinomatosis from colorectal cancer: An analysis from 37 patients. J Visc Surg 152:285–291 . doi: 10.1016/j.jviscsurg.2015.06.003

17. Menassel B, Duclos A, Passot G, Dohan A, Payet C, Isaac S, Valette PJ, Glehen O, Rousset P (2016) Preoperative CT and MRI prediction of non-resectability in patients treated for pseudomyxoma peritonei from mucinous appendiceal neoplasms. Eur J Surg Oncol J Eur Soc Surg Oncol Br Assoc Surg Oncol 42:558–566 . doi: 10.1016/j.ejso.2016.01.005

18. Dohan A, Hobeika C, Najah H, Pocard M, Rousset P, Eveno C (2018) Preoperative assessment of peritoneal carcinomatosis of colorectal origin. J Visc Surg. doi: 10.1016/j.jviscsurg.2018.01.002

19. Elias D, Honoré C, Dumont F, Ducreux M, Boige V, Malka D, Burtin P, Dromain C, Goéré D (2011) Results of systematic second-look surgery plus HIPEC in asymptomatic patients presenting a high risk of developing colorectal peritoneal carcinomatosis. Ann Surg 254:289–293 . doi: 10.1097/SLA.0b013e31822638f6

20. Pomel C, Appleyard T-L, Gouy S, Rouzier R, Elias D (2005) The role of laparoscopy to evaluate candidates for complete cytoreduction of peritoneal carcinomatosis and hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy. Eur J Surg Oncol J Eur Soc Surg Oncol Br Assoc Surg Oncol 31:540–543 . doi: 10.1016/j.ejso.2005.01.009

21. van Oudheusden TR, Braam HJ, Luyer MDP, Wiezer MJ, van Ramshorst B, Nienhuijs SW, de Hingh IHJT (2015) Peritoneal cancer patients not suitable for cytoreductive surgery and HIPEC during explorative surgery: risk factors, treatment options, and prognosis. Ann Surg Oncol 22:1236–1242 . doi: 10.1245/s10434-014-4148-x

22. Iversen LH, Rasmussen PC, Laurberg S (2013) Value of laparoscopy before cytoreductive surgery and hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy for peritoneal carcinomatosis. Br J Surg 100:285–292 . doi: 10.1002/bjs.8908

23. Jayakrishnan TT, Zacharias AJ, Sharma A, Pappas SG, Gamblin TC, Turaga KK (2014) Role of laparoscopy in patients with peritoneal metastases considered for cytoreductive surgery and hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy (HIPEC). World J Surg Oncol 12:270 . doi: 10.1186/1477-7819-12-270

24. Iversen LH, Rasmussen PC, Laurberg S (2013) Value of laparoscopy before cytoreductive surgery and hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy for peritoneal carcinomatosis. Br J Surg 100:285–292 . doi: 10.1002/bjs.8908

25. Laterza B, Kusamura S, Baratti D, Oliva GD, Deraco M (2009) Role of explorative laparoscopy to evaluate optimal candidates for cytoreductive surgery and hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy (HIPEC) in patients with peritoneal mesothelioma. Vivo Athens Greece 23:187–190

26. Marmor RA, Kelly KJ, Lowy AM, Baumgartner JM (2016) Laparoscopy is Safe and Accurate to Evaluate Peritoneal Surface Metastasis Prior to Cytoreductive Surgery. Ann Surg Oncol 23:1461–1467 . doi: 10.1245/s10434-015-4958-5

27. Nunez MF, Sardi A, Jimenez W, Nieroda C, Sittig M, MacDonald R, Aydin N, Milovanov V, Gushchin V (2015) Port-site metastases is an independent prognostic factor in patients with peritoneal carcinomatosis. Ann Surg Oncol 22:1267–1273 . doi: 10.1245/s10434-014-4136-1

28. Nunez MF, Sardi A, Nieroda C, Jimenez W, Sittig M, MacDonald R, Aydin N, Milovanov V, Gushchin V (2015) Morbidity of the abdominal wall resection and reconstruction after cytoreductive surgery and hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy (CRS/HIPEC). Ann Surg Oncol 22:1658–1663 . doi: 10.1245/s10434-014-4075-x

29. Hobeika C, Sabbagh C, Najah H, Eveno C (2017) Laparoscopic exploration for peritoneal carcinomatosis: Surgical technique. J Visc Surg 154:430–435. doi: 10.1016/j.jviscsurg.2017.08.005

30. Pocard M (2015) Exploratory laparoscopy for carcinomatosis: discard that quiver full of trocars and use just one! J Visc Surg 152:147–148. doi: 10.1016/j.jviscsurg.2015.04.004 31. Najah H, Lo Dico R, Eveno C, Pocard M (2017) Laparo-endoscopic single site surgery for peritoneal carcinomatosis detection and staging (with video). J Visc Surg 154:133–134.

doi: 10.1016/j.jviscsurg.2017.03.001

32. Najah H, Lo Dico R, Grienay M, Dohan A, Dray X, Pocard M (2016) Single-incision flexible endoscopy (SIFE) for detection and staging of peritoneal carcinomatosis. Surg Endosc 30:3808–3815 . doi: 10.1007/s00464-015-4682-z

33. Dindo D, Demartines N, Clavien P-A (2004) Classification of surgical complications: a new proposal with evaluation in a cohort of 6336 patients and results of a survey. Ann Surg 240:205–213

34. Tabrizian P, Jayakrishnan TT, Zacharias A, Aycart S, Johnston FM, Sarpel U, Labow DM, Turaga KK (2015) Incorporation of diagnostic laparoscopy in the management algorithm for patients with peritoneal metastases: A multi-institutional analysis. J Surg Oncol 111:1035–1040 . doi: 10.1002/jso.23924

35. Passot G, Dumont F, Goéré D, Arvieux C, Rousset P, Regimbeau J-M, Elias D, Villeneuve L, Glehen O, BIG-RENAPE Surgery Working Group (2018) Multicentre study of laparoscopic or open assessment of the peritoneal cancer index (BIG-RENAPE). Br J Surg 105:663–667 . doi: 10.1002/bjs.10723

36. Sommariva A, Zagonel V, Rossi CR (2012) The role of laparoscopy in peritoneal surface malignancies selected for hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy (HIPEC). Ann Surg Oncol 19:3737–3744 . doi: 10.1245/s10434-012-2465-5

37. Liberale G, Vankerckhove S, Caldon MG, Ahmed B, Moreau M, Nakadi IE, Larsimont D, Donckier V, Bourgeois P, Group R&D for the Clinical Application of Fluorescence Imaging of the Jules Bordet's Institute. (2016) Fluorescence Imaging After Indocyanine Green Injection for Detection of Peritoneal Metastases in Patients Undergoing Cytoreductive Surgery for Peritoneal Carcinomatosis From Colorectal Cancer: A Pilot Study. Ann Surg 264:1110–1115 . doi: 10.1097/SLA.000000000001618

38. Najah H, Lo Dico R, Dohan A, Marry L, Eveno C, Pocard M (2017) A feasibility

#### SILPE for PM

study of the use of computed virtual chromoendoscopy for laparoscopic evaluation of peritoneal metastases. Surg Endosc 31:743–751 . doi: 10.1007/s00464-016-5028-1
39. Najah H, Jouvin I, Besbes S, Cifuentes D, Eveno C, Pocard M (2017) Specific computed virtual chromoendoscopy for detection of peritoneal carcinomatosis: an animal study. Surg Endosc 31:4034–4043 . doi: 10.1007/s00464-017-5442-z

Figure 1. The thirteen abdominal and pelvic regions of the PCI.
0: central, 1: right upper, 2: epigastrium, 3: left upper, 4: left flank, 5: left lower, 6: pelvis, 7: right lower, 8: right flank, 9: proximal jejunum, 10: distal jejunum, 11: proximal ileum, 12: distal ileum.

Figure 2. Flowchart depicting the outcomes of SILPE (Single incision Laparoscopic peritoneal exploration) and the potential subsequent laparotomy. CRS: Cytoreductive surgery, HIPEC: Hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy.

Figure 3. Comparison between PCI score at SILPE and at laparotomy.

Table 1. Patients and primary tumor characteristics.

\*Body mass index

\*\* American Society of Anaesthesiologists physical status classification system

Table 2. Operative details.

**Table 3.** SILPE peritoneal metastases detection at the 13 anatomic regions of the PCI.Numbers (n) indicate the number of patients in whom SILPE detected PM and categorizedeach patient as truly positive (TP), falsely negative (FN), falsely positive (FP), or trulynegative (TN) on the basis of comparison with the findings of laparotomy.Se: Sensitivity, Sp: Specificity, ACC: Accuracy, PPV: Positive predictive value, NPV:Negative predictive value.

Age (in years)         53.0 [19 - 79]           Gender         84 (45.9)           Malc         99 (54.1)           BM1* (in Kg/m <sup>2</sup> )         23.2 [15.2 - 41.9]           ASA Class**         21 (11.5)           ASA Class**         21 (11.5)           ASA Class**         149 (81.4)           ASA Class**         13 (7.1)           Primary tumor site         72 (39.3)           Colorectal         77 (39.3)           Gastric         47 (25.7)           Ovarian         12 (6.6)           Unknown         11 (6.0)           Pscudomyxoma Peritonci         7 (3.8)           Small Bowel         5 (2.7)           Panceas         3 (1.6)           Cholangiocarcinoma         1 (0.5)           Esophagus         1 (0.5)           Agrenal cancer         1 (0.5)           Prior abdominal surgery         48 (26.2)           None         26 (14.2)           One         10 (55.5)           Noa         10 (55.5)           Noa         10 (55.5)           Noa         10 (1 (55.5)           No         10 (0.5)           Presental cancer         10 (0.5)           Presont on thast chemo	Variable	Median [range]	n (%)
Gender Male         84 (45.9)           Female         99 (54.1)           BMI* (in Kg/m <sup>2</sup> )         23.2 [15.2 - 41.9]           ASA Class**         21 (11.5)           ASA 1         21 (11.5)           ASA 2         149 (81.4)           ASA 3         13 (7.1)           Primary tumor site         72 (39.3)           Colorectal         72 (39.3)           Gastric         47 (25.7)           Ovarian         18 (9.8)           Appendiceal         12 (6.6)           Unknown         11 (6.0)           Pseudomyxoma Peritonei         7 (3.8)           Small Bowel         5 (2.7)           Breast         5 (2.7)           Parceas         3 (1.6)           Cholangicocarcinoma         1 (0.5)           Esophagus         1 (0.5)           Prior abdominal surgery         26 (14.2)           None         26 (14.2)           One         10.5)           None         10.5)           Prior CRS/HIPEC         74 (95.1)           None         10.5)           None         10.5)           None         10.05)           Preoperative chemotherapy         33 [5 - 564]	Age (in years)	53.0 [19 - 79]	
Male         84 (45.9)           Female         99 (54.1)           BMI* (in Kg/m <sup>2</sup> )         23.2 [15.2 - 41.9]           ASA Class**         21 (11.5)           ASA Class**         21 (11.5)           ASA 2         149 (81.4)           ASA 3         13 (7.1)           Primary tumor site         72 (39.3)           Colorectal         72 (39.3)           Gastric         47 (25.7)           Ovarian         12 (6.6)           Unknown         11 (6.0)           Pseudomyxoma Peritonei         7 (3.8)           Small Bowel         5 (2.7)           Breast         5 (2.7)           Parcreas         3 (1.6)           Cholangiocarcinoma         1 (0.5)           Prior abdominal surgery         10 (0.5)           Prior abdominal surgery         46 (25.1)           None         26 (14.2)           One         74 (95.1)           One         10 (5.5)           No         10 (5.5)           No         10 (5.5)           No         10 (55.5)           No         13 (7.1)           Present chemotherapy         33 [5 - 564]           Yes         101 (55.5) </td <td>Gender</td> <td></td> <td></td>	Gender		
Female         99 (54.1)           BMI* (in Kg/m²)         23.2 [15.2 - 41.9]           ASA Class**         21 (11.5)           ASA 1         21 (11.5)           ASA 2         149 (81.4)           ASA 3         13 (7.1)           Primary tumor site         72 (39.3)           Colorectal         72 (39.3)           Gastric         47 (25.7)           Ovarian         18 (9.8)           Appendiceal         12 (6.6)           Unknown         11 (6.0)           Pseudomyxoma Peritonei         7 (3.8)           Small Bowel         5 (2.7)           Parceas         3 (1.6)           Charena cancer         1 (0.5)           Parceas         3 (1.6)           Charena cancer         1 (0.5)           Prior addominal surgery         63 (34.4)           None         26 (14.2)           One         48 (26.2)           Prior RS/HIPEC         100.5)           None         174 (95.1)           One         8 (4.4)           Two         100 (55.5)           No         101 (55.5)           No         100 (52.9)           Yes         33 (1.7)	Male		84 (45.9)
BMI* (in Kg/m <sup>2</sup> )         23.2 [15.2 - 41.9]           ASA Class**         21 (11.5)           ASA 1         21 (11.5)           ASA 2         149 (81.4)           ASA 3         13 (7.1)           Primary tumor site         72 (39.3)           Gastric         47 (25.7)           Ovarian         18 (9.8)           Appendiceal         12 (6.6)           Unknown         11 (6.0)           Pseudomyxoma Peritonci         7 (3.8)           Small Bowel         5 (2.7)           Parceas         3 (1.6)           Cholangiocarcinoma         1 (0.5)           Adrenal cancer         1 (0.5)           Prior abdominal surgery         26 (14.2)           None         26 (14.2)           One         63 (34.4)           Two         46 (25.1)           Three or more         48 (26.2)           Prior CRS/HIPEC         8 (4.4)           None         174 (95.1)           One         8 (4.4)           Two         1 (0.5)           Preoperative chemotherapy         33 [5 - 564]           Yes         13 (7.1)           Presence of asoites         150 (82)           No	Female		99 (54.1)
ASA Class**         21 (11.5)           ASA 1         149 (81.4)           ASA 2         13 (7.1)           Primary tumor site         72 (39.3)           Gastric         47 (25.7)           Ovarian         18 (9.8)           Appendiceal         12 (6.6)           Unknown         11 (6.0)           Pseudomyxoma Peritonci         7 (3.8)           Small Bowel         5 (2.7)           Breast         5 (2.7)           Pareceas         3 (1.6)           Cholangiocarcinoma         1 (0.5)           Esophagus         1 (0.5)           Adrenal cancer         1 (0.5)           Prior abdominal surgery         0           None         26 (14.2)           One         63 (34.4)           Two         26 (14.2)           One         10.5)           Prior CRS/HIPEC         102 (95.1)           None         174 (95.1)           One         8 (4.4)           Two         1 (0.5)           Preoperative chemotherapy         33 [5 - 564]           Yes         13 (7.1)           Presence of ascites         150 (82)           No         150 (82)	BMI* (in Kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	23.2 [15.2 - 41.9]	
ASA 1       21 (11.5)         ASA 2       149 (81.4)         ASA 3       13 (7.1)         Primary tumor site       72 (39.3)         Gastric       47 (25.7)         Ovarian       18 (9.8)         Appendiceal       12 (6.6)         Unknown       11 (6.0)         Pseudomyxoma Peritonei       7 (3.8)         Small Bowel       5 (2.7)         Breast       3 (1.6)         Cholangiocarcinoma       1 (0.5)         Adrenal cancer       1 (0.5)         Prior abdominal surgery       1 (0.5)         None       26 (14.2)         One       63 (34.4)         Two       26 (14.2)         None       174 (95.1)         One       8 (4.4)         Two       10 (.5)         Prior RS/HIPEC       8 (4.4)         None       174 (95.1)         One       13 (7.1)         Presentive chemotherapy       33 [5 - 564]         Yes       13 (7.1)         Presence of ascites       100 (55.5)         No       170 (92.9)         Yes       33 (18)         Presence of ascites       33 (18)         No       150 (82)	ASA Class**		
ASA 2       149 (81.4)         ASA 3       13 (7.1)         Primary tumor site       72 (39.3)         Gastric       47 (25.7)         Ovarian       18 (9.8)         Appendiceal       12 (6.6)         Unknown       11 (6.0)         Pseudomyxoma Peritonei       7 (3.8)         Small Bowel       5 (2.7)         Breast       3 (1.6)         Cholangiocarcinoma       1 (0.5)         Esophagus       1 (0.5)         Adrenal cancer       1 (0.5)         Prior abdominal surgery       0         None       26 (14.2)         One       26 (14.2)         One       26 (14.2)         One       48 (26.2)         Prior abdominal surgery       48 (26.2)         None       174 (95.1)         One       8 (4.4)         Two       1 (0.5)         Preoperative chemotherapy       33 [5 - 564]         Yes       13 (7.1)         Presentation of PM       13 (7.1)         Presence of ascites       13 (7.1)         No       150 (82)         Yes       33 (18)         Presentation of PM       101 (55.2)         Synchr	ASA 1		21 (11.5)
ASA 3         13 (7.1)           Primary tumor site         72 (39.3)           Gastric         72 (39.3)           Gastric         47 (25.7)           Ovarian         18 (9.8)           Appendiceal         12 (6.6)           Unknown         11 (6.0)           Pseudomyxoma Peritonei         7 (3.8)           Small Bowel         5 (2.7)           Breast         5 (2.7)           Pancreas         3 (1.6)           Cholangiocarcinoma         1 (0.5)           Esophagus         1 (0.5)           Adrenal cancer         1 (0.5)           Prior abdominal surgery         26 (14.2)           One         263 (34.4)           Two         46 (25.1)           Three or more         48 (26.2)           Prior CRS/HIPEC         74 (95.1)           None         174 (95.1)           One         8 (4.4)           Two         1 (0.5)           Properative chemotherapy         33 [5 – 564]           Yes         13 (7.1)           Presence of ascites         13 (7.1)           No         150 (82)           Yes         33 (18)           Presentation of PM         33 (18)	ASA 2		149 (81.4)
Primary tumor site         72 (39.3)           Colorectal         72 (39.3)           Gastric         47 (25.7)           Ovarian         18 (9.8)           Appendiceal         12 (6.6)           Unknown         11 (6.0)           Pseudomyxoma Peritonei         7 (3.8)           Small Bowel         5 (2.7)           Breast         5 (2.7)           Pancreas         3 (1.6)           Cholangiocarcinoma         1 (0.5)           Esophagus         1 (0.5)           Adrenal cancer         1 (0.5)           Prior abdominal surgery         26 (14.2)           One         63 (34.4)           Two         46 (25.1)           Three or more         48 (26.2)           Prior CRS/HIPEC         74 (95.1)           One         8 (4.4)           Two         1 (0.5)           Prior CRS/HIPEC         101 (55.5)           No         1 (0.5)           Prior CRS/HIPEC         101 (55.5)           No         101 (55.5)           No         101 (55.5)           No         12 (44.5)           Time from last chemotherapy         33 [5 – 564]           Ves         13 (7.1)	ASA 3		13 (7.1)
Colorectal         72 (39.3)           Gastric         47 (25.7)           Ovarian         18 (9.8)           Appendiceal         12 (6.6)           Unknown         11 (6.0)           Pseudomyxoma Peritonei         7 (3.8)           Small Bowel         5 (2.7)           Breast         3 (1.6)           Cholangiocarcinoma         1 (0.5)           Esophagus         1 (0.5)           Adrenal cancer         1 (0.5)           Prior abdominal surgery         26 (14.2)           One         63 (34.4)           Two         26 (14.2)           One         63 (34.4)           Two         48 (26.2)           Prior CRS/HIPEC         48 (26.2)           None         174 (95.1)           One         8 (4.4)           Two         1 (0.5)           Preoperative chemotherapy         33 [5 – 564]           Yes         101 (55.5)           No         170 (92.9)           Yes         13 (7.1)           Presence of ascites         33 (18)           No         150 (82)           Yes         33 (18)	Primary tumor site		
Gastric         47 (25.7)           Ovarian         18 (9.8)           Appendiceal         12 (6.6)           Unknown         11 (6.0)           Pseudomyxoma Peritonei         7 (3.8)           Small Bowel         5 (2.7)           Breast         5 (2.7)           Pancreas         3 (1.6)           Cholangiocarcinoma         1 (0.5)           Esophagus         1 (0.5)           Adrenal cancer         1 (0.5)           Prior abdominal surgery         0           None         26 (14.2)           One         63 (34.4)           Two         46 (25.1)           Three or more         48 (26.2)           Prior CRS/HIPEC         7           None         174 (95.1)           One         8 (4.4)           Two         1 (0.5)           Presentative chemotherapy         33 [5 – 564]           Yes         101 (55.5)           No         13 (7.1)           Presence of ascites         13 (7.1)           No         150 (82)           Yes         33 (18)           Presentation of PM         101 (55.2)           Synchronous         101 (55.2)	Colorectal		72 (39.3)
Ovarian         18 (9.8)           Appendiceal         12 (6.6)           Unknown         11 (6.0)           Pseudomyxoma Peritonei         7 (3.8)           Small Bowel         5 (2.7)           Breast         5 (2.7)           Pancreas         3 (1.6)           Cholangiocarcinoma         1 (0.5)           Esophagus         1 (0.5)           Adrenal cancer         1 (0.5)           Prior abdominal surgery         1 (0.5)           None         26 (14.2)           One         63 (34.4)           Two         46 (25.1)           Three or more         48 (26.2)           Prior CRS/HIPEC         1 (0.5)           None         1 (0.5)           Preoperative chemotherapy         33 [5 - 564]           Yes         101 (55.5)           No         13 (7.1)           Presence of ascites         13 (7.1)           No         150 (82)           Yes         33 (18)           Presentation of PM         20 (55.2)	Gastric		47 (25.7)
Appendiceal         12 (6.6)           Unknown         11 (6.0)           Pseudomyxoma Peritonei         7 (3.8)           Small Bowel         5 (2.7)           Breast         5 (2.7)           Pancreas         3 (1.6)           Cholangiocarcinoma         1 (0.5)           Esophagus         1 (0.5)           Adrenal cancer         1 (0.5)           Prior abdominal surgery         0           None         26 (14.2)           One         63 (34.4)           Two         46 (25.1)           Three or more         48 (26.2)           Prior CRS/HIPEC         74 (95.1)           None         1 (0.5)           None         1 (0.5)           Preoperative chemotherapy         33 [5 - 564]           Yes         101 (55.5)           No         170 (92.9)           Yes         13 (7.1)           Presence of ascites         7           No         150 (82)           Yes         33 (18)           Presentation of PM         101 (55.2)           Moth Amount         101 (55.2)	Ovarian		18 (9.8)
Unknown         11 (6.0)           Pseudomyxoma Peritonei         7 (3.8)           Small Bowel         5 (2.7)           Breast         3 (1.6)           Cholangiocarcinoma         1 (0.5)           Esophagus         1 (0.5)           Adrenal cancer         1 (0.5)           Prior abdominal surgery         1 (0.5)           None         26 (14.2)           One         63 (34.4)           Two         46 (25.1)           Three or more         48 (26.2)           Prior CRS/HIPEC         1 (0.5)           None         174 (95.1)           One         8 (4.4)           Two         1 (0.5)           Preoperative chemotherapy         33 [5 - 564]           Yes         101 (55.5)           No         170 (92.9)           Yes         13 (7.1)           Presence of ascites         33 (18)           No         150 (82)           Yes         33 (18)	Appendiceal		12 (6.6)
Pseudomyxoma Peritonei         7 (3.8)           Small Bowel         5 (2.7)           Breast         5 (2.7)           Pancreas         3 (1.6)           Cholangiocarcinoma         1 (0.5)           Esophagus         1 (0.5)           Adrenal cancer         1 (0.5)           Prior abdominal surgery         1 (0.5)           None         26 (14.2)           One         63 (34.4)           Two         46 (25.1)           Three or more         48 (26.2)           Prior CRS/HIPEC         100.5)           None         174 (95.1)           One         8 (4.4)           Two         1 (0.5)           Preoperative chemotherapy         Yes           Yes         101 (55.5)           No         81 (44.5)           Time from last chemotherapy         33 [5 – 564]           Ves         13 (7.1)           Presence of ascites         150 (82)           No         150 (82)           Yes         33 (18)           Presentation of PM         101 (55.2)           Synchronous         101 (55.2)	Unknown		11 (6.0)
Small Bowel         5 (2.7)           Breast         5 (2.7)           Pancreas         3 (1.6)           Cholangiocarcinoma         1 (0.5)           Esophagus         1 (0.5)           Adrenal cancer         1 (0.5)           Prior abdominal surgery         0           None         26 (14.2)           One         63 (34.4)           Two         46 (25.1)           Three or more         48 (26.2)           Prior CRS/HIPEC         100.5)           None         174 (95.1)           One         8 (4.4)           Two         1 (0.5)           Properative chemotherapy         Yes           Yes         101 (55.5)           No         170 (92.9)           Yes         33 [5 – 564]           No         170 (92.9)           Yes         33 (18)           Presence of ascites         33 (18)           No         150 (82)           Yes         33 (18)	Pseudomyxoma Peritonei		7 (3.8)
Breast         5 (2.7)           Pancreas         3 (1.6)           Cholangiocarcinoma         1 (0.5)           Esophagus         1 (0.5)           Adrenal cancer         1 (0.5)           Prior abdominal surgery         1 (0.5)           None         26 (14.2)           One         63 (34.4)           Two         46 (25.1)           Three or more         48 (26.2)           Prior CRS/HIPEC         100.5)           None         1 (0.5)           One         8 (4.4)           Two         1 (0.5)           Preoperative chemotherapy         33 [5 - 564]           Yes         101 (55.5)           No         170 (92.9)           Yes         13 (7.1)           Presence of ascites         101 (55.2)           No         150 (82)           Yes         33 (18)	Small Bowel		5 (2.7)
Pancreas         3 (1.6)           Cholangiocarcinoma         1 (0.5)           Esophagus         1 (0.5)           Adrenal cancer         1 (0.5)           Prior abdominal surgery         1 (0.5)           None         26 (14.2)           One         63 (34.4)           Two         46 (25.1)           Three or more         48 (26.2)           Prior CRS/HIPEC         8 (4.4)           None         1 (0.5)           One         8 (4.4)           Two         1 (0.5)           Preoperative chemotherapy         Yes           Yes         101 (55.5)           No         170 (92.9)           Yes         13 (7.1)           Presence of ascites         150 (82)           No         150 (82)           Yes         33 (18)           Presentation of PM         101 (55.2)           Moticharman         02 (44.9)	Breast		5 (2.7)
Cholangiocarcinoma $1 (0.5)$ Esophagus $1 (0.5)$ Adrenal cancer $1 (0.5)$ Prior abdominal surgery $1 (0.5)$ None $26 (14.2)$ One $63 (34.4)$ Two $46 (25.1)$ Three or more $48 (26.2)$ Prior CRS/HIPEC $174 (95.1)$ None $174 (95.1)$ One $8 (4.4)$ Two $1 (0.5)$ Preoperative chemotherapy Yes $101 (55.5)$ No $170 (92.9)$ Yes $13 (7.1)$ Presence of ascites No $150 (82)$ No $150 (82)$ Yes $33 (18)$ Presentation of PM Synchronous $101 (55.2)$ Matta kuranta $20 (44.0)$	Pancreas		3 (1.6)
Esophagus         1 (0.5)           Adrenal cancer         1 (0.5)           Prior abdominal surgery         26 (14.2)           None         26 (34.4)           Two         46 (25.1)           Three or more         48 (26.2)           Prior CRS/HIPEC         101 (55.5)           None         1 (0.5)           One         8 (4.4)           Two         1 (0.5)           Properative chemotherapy         81 (44.5)           Yes         101 (55.5)           No         170 (92.9)           Yes         13 (7.1)           Presence of ascites         150 (82)           No         150 (82)           Yes         33 (18)	Cholangiocarcinoma		1 (0.5)
Adrenal cancer       1 (0.5)         Prior abdominal surgery       26 (14.2)         None       63 (34.4)         Two       46 (25.1)         Three or more       48 (26.2)         Prior CRS/HIPEC       8 (4.4)         None       1 (0.5)         One       8 (4.4)         Two       1 (0.5)         Preoperative chemotherapy       8 (4.4)         Two       1 (0.5)         Preoperative chemotherapy       81 (44.5)         Yes       101 (55.5)         No       81 (44.5)         Time from last chemotherapy       33 [5 – 564]         Ves       170 (92.9)         Yes       13 (7.1)         Presence of ascites       150 (82)         No       150 (82)         Yes       33 (18)         Presentation of PM       101 (55.2)         Matchemore       62 (44.0)	Esophagus		1 (0.5)
Prior abdominal surgery None $26 (14.2)$ $63 (34.4)$ TwoTwo $26 (14.2)$ $63 (34.4)$ Two $46 (25.1)$ $48 (26.2)$ Prior CRS/HIPEC $174 (95.1)$ $0ne$ None $174 (95.1)$ $8 (4.4)$ $1 (0.5)$ Preoperative chemotherapy Yes $101 (55.5)$ $81 (44.5)$ No $101 (55.5)$ $81 (44.5)$ Time from last chemotherapy to SILPE (in days) $33 [5 - 564]$ Acute bowel occlusion No $170 (92.9)$ $13 (7.1)$ Presence of ascites No $150 (82)$ $33 (18)$ Presentation of PM Synchronous $101 (55.2)$ $02 (44.7)$	Adrenal cancer		1 (0.5)
None         26 (14.2)           One         63 (34.4)           Two         46 (25.1)           Three or more         48 (26.2)           Prior CRS/HIPEC         174 (95.1)           None         174 (95.1)           One         8 (4.4)           Two         1 (0.5)           Preoperative chemotherapy         Yes           Yes         101 (55.5)           No         81 (44.5)           Time from last chemotherapy         33 [5 - 564]           to SILPE (in days)         33 [5 - 564]           Acute bowel occlusion         170 (92.9)           Yes         13 (7.1)           Presence of ascites         150 (82)           No         150 (82)           Yes         33 (18)           Presentation of PM         92 (44.9)	Prior abdominal surgery		
One         63 (34.4)           Two         46 (25.1)           Three or more         48 (26.2)           Prior CRS/HIPEC         174 (95.1)           None         174 (95.1)           One         8 (4.4)           Two         1 (0.5)           Preoperative chemotherapy         Yes           Yes         101 (55.5)           No         81 (44.5)           Time from last chemotherapy         33 [5 – 564]           Yes         101 (92.9)           Yes         13 (7.1)           Presence of ascites         150 (82)           No         150 (82)           Yes         33 (18)           Presentation of PM         20 (44.0)	None		26 (14.2)
Two         46 (25.1)           Three or more         48 (26.2)           Prior CRS/HIPEC         174 (95.1)           None         174 (95.1)           One         8 (4.4)           Two         1 (0.5)           Preoperative chemotherapy         Yes           Yes         101 (55.5)           No         81 (44.5)           Time from last chemotherapy         33 [5 - 564]           to SILPE (in days)         33 [5 - 564]           Acute bowel occlusion         170 (92.9)           Yes         13 (7.1)           Presence of ascites         150 (82)           No         150 (82)           Yes         33 (18)           Presentation of PM         101 (55.2)           Matcher man         101 (55.2)	One		63 (34.4)
Three or more         48 (26.2)           Prior CRS/HIPEC         174 (95.1)           None         174 (95.1)           One         8 (4.4)           Two         1 (0.5)           Preoperative chemotherapy         Yes           Yes         101 (55.5)           No         81 (44.5)           Time from last chemotherapy         33 [5 – 564]           to SILPE (in days)         170 (92.9)           Yes         13 (7.1)           Presence of ascites         150 (82)           No         150 (82)           Yes         33 (18)           Presentation of PM         101 (55.2)           Materbarrance         22 (44.9)	Two		46 (25.1)
Prior CRS/HIPEC       174 (95.1)         None       174 (95.1)         One       8 (4.4)         Two       1 (0.5)         Preoperative chemotherapy       101 (55.5)         No       81 (44.5)         Time from last chemotherapy       33 [5 – 564]         Ves       101 (55.5)         No       81 (44.5)         Time from last chemotherapy       33 [5 – 564]         Ves       170 (92.9)         Yes       13 (7.1)         Presence of ascites       150 (82)         No       150 (82)         Yes       33 (18)         Presentation of PM       101 (55.2)         Synchronous       101 (55.2)	Three or more		48 (26.2)
None         174 (95.1)           One         8 (4.4)           Two         1 (0.5)           Preoperative chemotherapy         Yes           Yes         101 (55.5)           No         81 (44.5)           Time from last chemotherapy         33 [5 – 564]           to SILPE (in days)         33 [5 – 564]           Acute bowel occlusion         170 (92.9)           Yes         13 (7.1)           Presence of ascites         150 (82)           No         150 (82)           Yes         33 (18)           Presentation of PM         101 (55.2)           Mater hereare         22 (44.0)	Prior CRS/HIPEC		
One Two $8 (4.4)$ $1 (0.5)$ Preoperative chemotherapy Yes $101 (55.5)$ $81 (44.5)$ No $81 (44.5)$ Time from last chemotherapy to SILPE (in days) $33 [5 - 564]$ Acute bowel occlusion $170 (92.9)$ $13 (7.1)$ No $13 (7.1)$ Presence of ascites No $150 (82)$ $33 (18)$ Presentation of PM Synchronous $101 (55.2)$ Matter here $101 (55.2)$	None		174 (95.1)
Two         1 (0.5)           Preoperative chemotherapy         Yes           Yes         101 (55.5)           No         81 (44.5)           Time from last chemotherapy         33 [5 - 564]           to SILPE (in days)         33 [5 - 564]           Acute bowel occlusion         170 (92.9)           Yes         13 (7.1)           Presence of ascites         150 (82)           No         150 (82)           Yes         33 (18)           Presentation of PM         101 (55.2)           Metacherape         22 (44.9)	One		8 (4.4)
Preoperative chemotherapy Yes No Time from last chemotherapy to SILPE (in days) $101 (55.5)$ $81 (44.5)$ Acute bowel occlusion No Yes $33 [5 - 564]$ $170 (92.9)$ $13 (7.1)$ Presence of ascites No Yes $150 (82)$ $33 (18)$ Presentation of PM Synchronous $101 (55.2)$ Matter here even Synchronous $101 (55.2)$	Two		1 (0.5)
Yes       101 (55.5)         No       81 (44.5)         Time from last chemotherapy to SILPE (in days)       33 [5 - 564]         Acute bowel occlusion       170 (92.9)         Yes       13 (7.1)         Presence of ascites       150 (82)         No       150 (82)         Yes       33 (18)         Presentation of PM       101 (55.2)         Met sharp area       02 (44.5)	Preoperative chemotherapy		
No         81 (44.5)           Time from last chemotherapy to SILPE (in days)         33 [5 - 564]         81 (44.5)           Acute bowel occlusion         170 (92.9)           No         170 (92.9)           Yes         13 (7.1)           Presence of ascites         150 (82)           No         150 (82)           Yes         33 (18)           Presentation of PM         101 (55.2)           Materbraneses         22 (44.0)	Yes		101 (55.5)
Time from last chemotherapy to SILPE (in days)33 [5 - 564]Acute bowel occlusion No Yes170 (92.9) 13 (7.1)Presence of ascites No Yes150 (82) 	No		81 (44.5)
to SILPE (in days)Acute bowel occlusionNoNoYesPresence of ascitesNoYesSynchronousMetachemenerNo101 (55.2)22 (44.0)	Time from last chemotherapy	33 [5 – 564]	
Acute bowel occlusion170 (92.9)No170 (92.9)Yes13 (7.1)Presence of ascites150 (82)No150 (82)Yes33 (18)Presentation of PM101 (55.2)Synchronous101 (55.2)	to SILPE (in days)		
No         170 (92.9)           Yes         13 (7.1)           Presence of ascites         150 (82)           No         150 (82)           Yes         33 (18)           Presentation of PM         101 (55.2)           Materly present         22 (44.0)	Acute bowel occlusion		
Yes13 (7.1)Presence of ascites150 (82)No150 (82)Yes33 (18)Presentation of PM101 (55.2)Synchronous101 (55.2)	No		170 (92.9)
Presence of ascites No Yes150 (82) 33 (18)Presentation of PM Synchronous101 (55.2)Materlandment Synchronous22 (44.0)	Yes		13 (7.1)
No         150 (82)           Yes         33 (18)           Presentation of PM         101 (55.2)           Synchronous         101 (55.2)	Presence of ascites		
Yes33 (18)Presentation of PM Synchronous101 (55.2)Nata always22 (44.2)	No		150 (82)
Presentation of PM Synchronous 101 (55.2)	Yes		33 (18)
Synchronous101 (55.2)Mata alwamana02 (44.0)	Presentation of PM		
	Synchronous		101 (55.2)
Ivietachronous 82 (44.8)	Metachronous		82 (44.8)

Table 1. Patients and primary tumor characteristics. \*Body mass index \*\* American Society of Anesthesiologists physical status classification system

Variable	n (%)
Success to achieve SILPE	
Yes	165 (90.2)
No	18 (9.8)
SILPE technique (n=165)	
SIRE + SIFE	147 (89.1)
Only SIRE	18 (10.9)
Biopsy (n=165)	
Yes	107 (64.5)
No	59 (35.5)

Table 2 Operative details

Region	TP (n)	FN (n)	FP (n)	TN (n)	Se (%)	<b>Sp</b> (%)	ACC (%)	<b>PPV</b> (%)	NPV (%)
0	38	5	3	35	88	92	90	93	88
1	42	5	1	33	89	97	93	98	87
2	32	12	2	35	73	95	83	94	75
3	35	5	1	40	88	98	93	97	89
4	30	6	1	44	83	98	91	97	88
5	40	5	2	34	89	94	91	95	87
6	50	11	0	20	82	100	86	100	65
7	43	3	2	33	94	94	94	96	92
8	36	12	1	32	75	97	84	97	72
9	16	14	1	50	53	98	81	94	78
10	19	20	0	42	49	100	75	100	68
11	18	23	0	40	44	100	71	100	64
12	19	22	1	39	46	98	72	95	64
Total	418	143	15	477	75	97	85	97	77

Table 3. SILPE peritoneal metastases detection at the 13 anatomic regions of the PCI.

Numbers (n) indicate the number of patients in whom SILPE detected PM and categorized each patient as truly positive (TP), falsely negative (FN), falsely positive (FP), or truly negative (TN) on the basis of comparison with the findings of laparotomy. Se: Sensitivity, Sp: Specificity, ACC: Accuracy, PPV: Positive predictive value, NPV: Negative predictive value.





Figure 1





PCI





Laparotomy
### 2<sup>ère</sup> Partie : Chromoendoscopie virtuelle:

# Article 3 : A feasibility study of the use of Computed virtual chromoendoscopy for laparoscopic evaluation of peritoneal metastases.

Haythem Najah, Rea Lo Dico, Anthony Dohan, Lucy Marry, Clarisse Eveno, Marc Pocard. Surg Endosc. 2017 Feb; 31(2):743-751.

Le but de ce travail était d'étudier la faisabilité et l'utilité du FICE dans l'exploration de la cavité péritonéale et la détection de la CP. Il s'agit de la première étude publiée sur le sujet. En effet, il n'existe à ce jour pas d'endoscope rigide équipée de la technologie FICE, mais grâce à notre technique de SIFE, au cours de laquelle nous utilisons un endoscope souple, nous avons pu réaliser des explorations péritonéales par cette technologie.

Dans cette étude prospective, nous avons inclus 13 patients prévus pour SILPE pour le diagnostic et le staging de la CP. Pour chaque patient, deux petits nodules de CP était choisis par l'opérateur et pris en photo en LB et en FICE. Pour chaque nodule, nous obtenions ainsi 11 images : une en LB, et 10 correspondant aux 10 différents canaux du FICE.

Pour étudier le péritoine normal, nous avons également inclus 5 patients prévus pour cholécystectomie coelioscopique. Au cours de la coelioscopie, une endoscopie péritonéale souple était réalisée et des photos du péritoine normal étaient enregistrées. Nous avons étudié cinq zones péritonéales spécifiques : la coupole diaphragmatique droite, la coupole diaphragmatique gauche, le pédicule hépatique, le cul-de-sac de Douglas, et le récessus entre la veine mésentérique inférieure et l'angle de Treitz. Du fait de la circulation des fluides intrapéritonéaux, ces zones sont connues pour être des sites de prédilection pour la CP [85]. Pour chacune de ces zones, nous obtenions 11 images : une en LB, et 10 correspondant aux 10 différents canaux du FICE.

Un nombre total de 561 images correspondant à 51 zones péritonéales ont ainsi été obtenues (25 zones de péritoine normal et 26 nodules de CP). Afin d'évaluer ces images, nous les avons soumises au jugement de trois groupes d'évaluateurs. Le premier groupe

était constitué par 5 chirurgiens séniors spécialisés en chirurgie carcinologique digestive et ayant une grande expérience en coelioscopie. Les 2<sup>ème</sup> et 3<sup>ème</sup> groupes étaient composés respectivement par 5 internes de chirurgie, et 5 externes en médecine. Nous avons conçu, tout d'abord un premier questionnaire au cours duquel les évaluateurs avaient attribué une note (allant de 0 à 10) à chacune des images. Aucune question précise n'a été posée, et la note attribuée ne dépendait que de l'impression subjective des évaluateurs sur la qualité globale de l'image. Se basant sur les résultats de ce 1<sup>er</sup> questionnaire, nous avons déterminé les 3 meilleurs canaux du FICE, et conçu par la suite un 2<sup>ème</sup> questionnaire, au cours duquel cinq critères spécifiques ont été étudiés : le contraste, la luminosité, l'architecture vasculaire, la différentiation entre les organes et la détection de la CP. Pour chacune des 51 zones péritonéales étudiées, nous n'avons présenté aux évaluateurs que les 4 images correspondant à la LB et les trois meilleurs canaux du FICE, en leur demandant de les classer pour chacun des critères suscités.

Les trois meilleurs canaux du FICE étaient déterminés au terme du premier questionnaire et étaient les canaux 2, 6 et 9. Le meilleur score était attribué à la LB 6.53 ± 1.46 (p<0,0001). L'étude plus détaillée du 2<sup>ème</sup> questionnaire a montré que pour la luminosité, la LB était la meilleure (p<0,0001). Par contre, en ce qui concerne le contraste, l'architecture vasculaire, la différentiation des organes et la détection de la CP, le canal 2 du FICE était jugé supérieur avec une différence très significative (p<0,0001). Ces résultats étaient concordants entre les différents groupes d'évaluateurs, sauf pour la différentiation des organes, ou pour le groupe d'évaluateurs seniors, la LB était jugée la meilleure, alors que pour les internes et les externes le canal 2 du FICE venait en tête.

En conclusion, nous avons pu montrer dans ce travail que l'utilisation du FICE pour l'exploration de la cavité abdominale est faisable et permet, malgré une luminosité moindre, d'améliorer le contraste, la visualisation de l'architecture vasculaire, la différentiation entre les organes et la détection de la CP. Sur les dix réglages préconçus, c'est le canal 2 du FICE (R $\lambda$ -550 nm, G $\lambda$ -500 nm, B $\lambda$ -470 nm) qui est le plus adapté à l'exploration du péritoine.



## A feasibility study of the use of computed virtual chromoendoscopy for laparoscopic evaluation of peritoneal metastases

Haythem Najah<sup>1,2</sup> · Réa Lo Dico<sup>1,2</sup> · Anthony Dohan<sup>2,3</sup> · Lucy Marry<sup>4</sup> · Clarisse Eveno<sup>1,2</sup> · Marc Pocard<sup>1,2</sup>

Received: 29 January 2016/Accepted: 6 June 2016/Published online: 20 June 2016 © Springer Science+Business Media New York 2016

#### Abstract

*Background* Detection of an incipient peritoneal carcinomatosis (PC) is still challenging, and there is a crucial need for technological improvements in order to diagnose and to treat early this condition. Fujinon Intelligent Chromo Endoscopy (FICE) is a spectral image processing technology that enhances the contrast of the target tissue. The aim of this study is to investigate the usefulness of FICE system during peritoneal endoscopy and to establish the optimal FICE preset(s) for peritoneal exploration and PC detection.

*Methods* A total of 561 images corresponding to 51 different areas of PC nodules and normal peritoneum were recorded during peritoneal endoscopies (For each area, one white light endoscopy (WLE) image and 10 FICE images). Three groups of 5 evaluators each: senior surgeons, surgical residents and medical students assessed these images. In a first questionnaire, the evaluators gave a score ranging from 1 to 10 to each image, and the three best FICE channels were determined. In a second questionnaire, five criteria were studied specifically: contrast, brightness, vascular architecture, differentiation between organs and

Haythem Najah haythem.najah@gmail.com

- <sup>1</sup> Department of Oncologic and Digestive Surgery, Hôpital Lariboisière-AP-HP, 2 rue Ambroise Paré, 75475 Paris Cedex 10, France
- <sup>2</sup> Sorbonne Paris Cité, CART, INSERM U965, Université Paris Diderot, 74575 Paris, France
- <sup>3</sup> Department of Abdominal Imaging, Hôpital Lariboisière-AP-HP, 2 rue Ambroise Paré, 75475 Paris Cedex 10, France
- <sup>4</sup> Department of Anesthesiology, Hôpital Lariboisière-AP-HP, 2 rue Ambroise Paré, 75475 Paris Cedex 10, France

detection of PC. The evaluators ranked the WLE and the three best FICE channel images according to these criteria. *Results* The three best FICE channels were channels 6, 2 and 9 with mean scores of  $6.21 \pm 1.59$ ,  $6.17 \pm 1.48$  and  $6.06 \pm 1.52$ , respectively. FICE Channel 2 was superior to WLE and other FICE channels, in terms of contrast  $(p < 10^{-4})$ , visualization of vascular architecture  $(p < 10^{-4})$ , differentiation between organs  $(p < 10^{-4})$  and detection of PC  $(p < 10^{-4})$ ; and ranked first in 38.8, 41.5, 31 and 46.9 % of the cases, respectively.

*Conclusion* FICE system provides adequate illumination of the abdominal cavity and a unique contrast that enhances the vascular architecture. FICE Channel 2 is the optimal channel for peritoneal exploration and could be a useful tool for the diagnosis of PC during peritoneal explorations.

**Keywords** Peritoneal carcinomatosis · Peritoneoscopy · Computed virtual chromoendoscopy · Fujinon intelligent chromoendoscopy · Video imaging · Wavelength

Cytoreductive surgery with hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy (CRS/HIPEC) is currently a recognized therapeutic strategy in patients with peritoneal carcinomatosis (PC) [1]. This treatment makes it possible to reach median survival of about 41 months in selected patients who would otherwise have a dismal prognosis. At present, the 5-year overall survival can reach as high as 50 % [2–4]. This strategy is far more efficient and less morbid if it is performed when the peritoneal seeding is limited [3–5]. An early detection of the condition at an early stage when PC is still limited is therefore essential.

Unfortunately, PC is still often lately diagnosed. In fact, the symptoms usually appear at an advanced stage of the disease. Besides, current imaging methods are not sensitive enough for the diagnosis and staging of limited PC and often do not detect small tumors [6, 7]. Computed tomography scan, which remains the standard imaging modality in the assessment of PC [8], fails to detect 30 to 45 % of PC nodules, in particular if these are smaller than 5 mm [9, 10]. Currently, only laparotomy allows a complete and systematic exploration of the peritoneal cavity, making possible the detection of an incipient PC [11]. In fact, the direct visualization and palpation of the tissues permit the detection of lesions that are barely visible to the naked eye with white light laparoscopy. Therefore, there is still a crucial need to provide a more efficient method to discover and detect incipient PC.

We wondered whether the rapid strides made in innovative endoscopic technologies, which have revolutionized endoscopy, would benefit peritoneum exploration and PC detection. In the recent years, in order to respond to the emphasis on early detection of cancer, a new technology called virtual chromoendoscopy (VC) has emerged in the field. In contrast to traditional dye-based chromoendoscopy, this new technology uses either real-time processing filter algorithms or a rotating filter placed in front of the light source to enhance visualization of tissue vasculature and surface structures [12, 13]. The principle is based on the use of physical and optical properties of some wavebands of the visible light, which permits to color virtually, instantly, on demand, and reversibly the tissues, avoiding the use of any contrast or coloring agent.

Three different VC systems are now commercially available: the Olympus Narrow Band Imaging (NBI), the Fujinon Intelligent Chromo Endoscopy (FICE) and the Pentax iScan. In this study, we used the FICE system (Fujinon, Saitama, Japan) [14]. This computed virtual chromoendoscopy system is merchandised as a digital image processing technique enhancing the mucosal surface structures by using selected wavelengths of light in reconstituted virtual images. Ten factory-determined presets are available. Currently, there is no available rigid laparoscope fitted with the FICE system; hence, a flexible endoscope equipped with this new technology was used in this study.

In our institution, all the peritoneal exploration procedures for diagnosis and staging of PC are performed via single-incision laparoscopic surgery. In fact, due to the risk of port track seeding, we believe that the conventional triangular laparoscopy is not the most suitable option for the evaluation of PC [15, 16]. During the procedure, and in addition to the rigid laparoscope, we actually use a flexible endoscope. We showed in a previous study that this singleincision flexible endoscopy (SIFE) is safe, feasible and allows a comprehensive evaluation of the peritoneal cavity [17].

The aim of this study was to investigate the usefulness of the FICE system during peritoneal endoscopy for

Surg Endosc (2017) 31:743-751

detection of PC and to establish the optimal FICE preset(s) for peritoneal exploration and PC nodules detection.

#### Materials and methods

This is a prospective study, and all the patients were systematically informed of the aim of the study before surgery and gave their consent. Institutional review board approval was obtained from the local ethics committee. The study was carried out in the department of oncologic and digestive surgery in Lariboisière Hospital (Assistance Publique, Hôpitaux de Paris).

We included 13 patients who underwent surgical exploration for diagnosis and staging of PC. The indications were staging of a carcinomatosis already diagnosed with imaging (CT scan and MRI), restaging after neoadjuvant chemotherapy and restaging during follow-up in the case of dubious imaging.

The control group consisted of five patients who underwent laparoscopic cholecystectomy for symptomatic gallstone disease. We included patients whose age ranged from 18 to 65 years, with no history of abdominal surgery and who had no cancer or any inflammatory or systemic disease susceptible of altering the tissues vasculature.

#### Fuji Intelligent Chromo Endoscopy system (FICE)

The VC system used in this study was the FICE EPX-4400 video processor. The principle is based on spectral estimation technology, which takes an ordinary endoscopic image from the video processor and arithmetically processes, estimates and produces an image of a given, dedicated wavelength of light. Three single-wavelength images are selected and assigned to the red, green and blue channels to build a VC enhanced color image. The FICE system comes with 10 preset wavelengths patterns that are ready for use in the clinical setting (Table 1). A push button on the handle of the endoscope enables switching between the conventional white light and FICE images.

#### Access to the peritoneal cavity

The access to the peritoneal cavity was different for the two groups of patients:

 A laparoendoscopic single site surgery using a GelPOINT system (Applied Medical, Rancho Santa Margarita, CA, USA) was performed in patients with PC. Under general anesthesia, and in a supine position, a 25-mm paraumbilical midline incision was made. An Alexis Wound Protector was inserted through this Table 1FICE factory-determined presets

	Ch. 0	Ch. 1	Ch. 2	Ch. 3	Ch. 4	Ch. 5	Ch. 6	Ch. 7	Ch. 8	Ch. 9
Rλ	500	500	550	540	520	500	580	520	540	550
Gλ	445	470	500	490	500	480	520	450	415	500
Βλ	415	420	470	420	405	420	460	400	415	400

Wavelengths ( $\lambda$ ) are in nanometers. R $\lambda$ : the wavelength assigned to the red monitor input; G $\lambda$ : the wavelength assigned to the green monitor input; B $\lambda$ : the wavelength assigned to the blue monitor input

incision. The GelSeal Cap was connected to a standard autoregulated laparoscopic insufflator (Electronic  $CO_2$  Endoflator; Karl Storz Endoscopy, Guyancourt, France) to create and maintain 12 mm Hg  $CO_2$  pneumoperitoneum.

• A conventional laparoscopy was performed in the patients of the control group. Under general anesthesia, and in a supine position, a subumbilical open laparoscopic technique was performed, and a 10/12 mm trocar was inserted. The trocar was connected to a standard autoregulated laparoscopic insufflator (Electronic CO<sub>2</sub> Endoflator; Karl Storz Endoscopy, Guyancourt, France) to create and maintain 12 mm Hg CO<sub>2</sub> pneumoperitoneum. Three additional trocars were placed, as usual, in order to perform the cholecystectomy.

#### Peritoneal endoscopy and image acquisition

A 10.8 mm diameter, 110 cm long Fujinon<sup>®</sup> gastroscope EG-490ZW5 (Fujifilm medical systems France, Montigny Le Bretec, France) was inserted through the GelPOINT system for the PC group or through the 10/12 trocar for the control group. A single surgeon performed all the procedures (HN).

For the PC group, a standardized exploration of the peritoneal cavity was conducted quadrant by quadrant, and the PCI was calculated. For each of the 13 patients, two PC nodules were chosen at the surgeon's discretion and close photos of these nodules were captured. For each nodule, one WLE image and 10 FICE images were recorded (Fig. 1). We therefore obtained 286 images corresponding to 26 areas of PC.

For the control group, the peritoneal endoscopy was performed before the cholecystectomy. For each of the 5 patients, we specifically studied 5 peritoneal regions: the right diaphragmatic cupola, the left diaphragmatic cupola, the hepatic pedicle, the Douglas pouch and the recessus between the ligament of Treitz and the inferior mesenteric vein. Due to the peritoneal fluid circulation around the abdominal cavity, these regions are known to be sites of predilection for PC [18]. For each region, one WLE image and 10 FICE images were recorded. We, therefore, obtained 275 images corresponding to 25 areas of normal peritoneum.

#### **Images assessment**

Three groups of evaluators participated in this study. The first group was composed of 5 senior surgeons having a great experience in laparoscopic and oncologic surgery. The second and the third groups were composed of 5 surgical residents and 5 medical students, respectively.

In order to evaluate the 561 images (corresponding to the 51 areas of peritoneum studied: 25 areas of normal peritoneum and 26 areas of PC), we designed two questionnaires that we presented to the evaluators with an interval of 4 days between them.

In the first questionnaire, the evaluators were asked to give a score ranging from 1 to 10 to each image (1 meaning very poor and 10 meaning excellent). No specific question was asked, and the score given to each image was only based on the evaluators' subjective overall impression of the image quality.

Based on the results of the first questionnaire, we determined the three best FICE channels and we designed a second questionnaire in which five criteria were studied specifically: the contrast, the brightness, the vascular architecture, the differentiation between the organs and the detection of PC nodules. In this questionnaire, for each one of the 51 photos, we presented only the WLE image and the three images of the best FICE channels according to the first questionnaire, and the evaluators were asked to rank them according to each of the different criteria studied (Fig. 2).

The contrast and the brightness were assessed in all of the 51 photos. The detection of the PC was assessed in the 26 photos of PC nodules. The vascular architecture was assessed in the 44 photos that were close enough to show the microvasculature, and the differentiation between the organs in the 23 photos where at least three organs were present.

#### Statistical analysis

Statistical calculations were performed with R software Version 3.2.2. For the first questionnaire, the continuous data (the scores of each channel) were summarized as mean and standard deviation, and comparison was performed using an analysis of variance (ANOVA). Subsequently, a post hoc analysis using a Tukey HSD test was performed.



**Fig. 1** Endoscopic images of Peritoneal Carcinomatosis nodules. WLE, White light endoscopy. FICE 0, Channel 0. FICE 1, Channel 1. FICE 2, Channel 2. FICE 3, Channel 3. FICE 4, Channel 4. FICE 5,

Channel 5. FICE 6, Channel 6. FICE 7, Channel 7. FICE 8, Channel 8. FICE 9, Channel 9



**Fig. 2** Example of a slide presented to the evaluators in questionnaire 2, showing a PC nodule in WLE (D) and in FICE Channels 2 (C), 6 (B) and 9 (A) For the second questionnaire, the categorical variables (rank of each channel) were expressed as percentages and compared using the Mc Nemar test.

#### Results

The study was carried out between November 2014 and May 2015. The 13 patients operated on for PC and enrolled in this study were 8 men (62 %) and 5 women (38 %). The median age was 54 years (range 42-73). The median weight was 61 kg (range 48-89), and the median BMI was 21.8 kg/m<sup>2</sup> (range 16.3–31.2). The origin of the carcinomatosis was colic in 5 cases and gastric in 4 cases. The four other cases were secondary to an ovarian cancer, a breast cancer, a small bowel cancer and an appendiceal cancer. The 5 patients of the control group operated on for symptomatic gallstone disease were 4 women and 1 man. The median age was 43 years (range 29-65). The median weight was 66 kg (range 53-88), and the median BMI was 25.3 (range 22.2-36.4). No intra-operative or in-hospital complications related to the staging procedure were identified.

#### First questionnaire

The best mean score given was WLE's one:  $6.53 \pm 1.46$ . The three best FICE channels were the channels 6, 2 and 9 with mean given scores of  $6.21 \pm 1.59$ ,  $6.17 \pm 1.48$  and  $6.06 \pm 1.52$ , respectively. The ANOVA test was significant ( $p < 10^{-4}$ ). The HSD Tukey test showed that the WLE score was superior to all the FICE channel scores, and the Scores of the channels 6, 2 and 9 were not different between each other but significantly superior to the other channels. These results were the same for the three groups of evaluators, and for the two groups of patients.

#### Second questionnaire

#### **Brightness**

The WLE ranked first in 39.6 % of the cases, while the Channels 6, 2 and 9 ranked first in 25.1, 21.2 and 14.1 % of the cases, respectively ( $p < 10^{-4}$ ). The results were similar for the three groups of evaluators.

#### Contrast

The best contrast was obtained with Channel 2, which ranked first in 38.8 %. The Channel 6, the Channel 9 and the WLE ranked first, respectively, in 27.2, 23.5 and 10.7 % ( $p < 10^{-4}$ ). The results were similar for the three groups of evaluators.

#### Vascular architecture

The best visualization of the vascular architecture was obtained with Channel 2, which ranked first in 41.5 %. The Channel 6, the Channel 9 and the WLE ranked first, respectively, in 23.9, 24.4 and 10.0 % ( $p < 10^{-4}$ ). The results were similar for the three groups of evaluators.

#### Differentiation between the organs

The Channel 2 offers the best differentiation between the organs. It ranked first in 31 % of the cases. The WLE, the Channel 6 and the Channel 9 ranked first in 28.7, 23.8 and 16.5 % respectively ( $p < 10^{-4}$ ). The results were different between the three groups of evaluators. For the senior surgeons, the WLE was considered the best and ranked first in 41.7 % of the cases. However, for the surgical residents and the medical students, it was the Channel 2 that was considered the best. It ranked first in 33.9 and 36.3 %, respectively. In surgical residents' assessment, the WLE ranked first in 30.4 % of the cases, while in medical students assessment, it ranked first only in 13.9 % of the cases (Table 2).

#### Detection of PC nodules

It was also the Channel 2 that offers the best visualization of PC nodules. It ranked first in 46.9 % of the cases. The WLE ranked first only in 12.8 % ( $p < 10^{-4}$ ). The results were similar for the three groups of evaluators (Table 3).

#### Discussion

This is the first study that applied the FICE system to peritoneal exploration. It assessed the feasibility of peritoneal endoscopy coupled with the FICE system for peritoneal exploration and detection of PC. The results of our survey showed that the FICE channel 2 was considered the most suitable for peritoneal exploration and PC detection.

In both endoscopy and laparoscopy, the image display system is the visual interface between the surgeon and the operative field. The quality and other attributes of the displayed visual information are crucial to the correct visual perception and therefore to the accuracy and the safe execution of the operations performed. However, despite all the major technological advances done over the last few years, the video imaging does not approach the human eye. In fact, the loss of binocular vision equals systematically a loss of image quality [19, 20]. For instance, as far as PC detection is concerned, the direct visualization and palpation of the tissues permit the detection of lesions that are barely visible to the naked eye during laparoscopy. White**Table 2**Differentiationbetween the organs

Table 3 Detection of PC

nodules

1st Position (%)	2nd Position (%)	3rd Position (%)	4th Position (%)
28.7	15.7	19.4	36.2
31.0	27.8	23.2	18.0
23.8	29.0	29.0	18.3
16.5	27.5	28.4	27.5
41.7	19.1	15.7	23.5
22.6	21.7	34.8	20.9
24.3	36.5	21.7	17.4
11.3	22.6	27.8	38.3
30.4	13.9	24.3	31.3
33.9	27.0	21.7	17.4
17.4	28.7	30.4	23.5
18.3	30.4	23.5	27.8
13.9	13.9	18.3	53.9
36.3	34.8	13.0	15.7
29.6	21.7	34.8	13.9
20.0	29.6	33.9	16.5
	1st Position (%)         28.7         31.0         23.8         16.5         41.7         22.6         24.3         11.3         30.4         33.9         17.4         18.3         13.9         36.3         29.6         20.0	1st Position (%)       2nd Position (%)         28.7       15.7         31.0       27.8         23.8       29.0         16.5       27.5         41.7       19.1         22.6       21.7         24.3       36.5         11.3       22.6         30.4       13.9         33.9       27.0         17.4       28.7         18.3       30.4         13.9       13.9         36.3       34.8         29.6       21.7	1st Position (%)       2nd Position (%)       3rd Position (%)         28.7       15.7       19.4         31.0       27.8       23.2         23.8       29.0       29.0         16.5       27.5       28.4         41.7       19.1       15.7         22.6       21.7       34.8         24.3       36.5       21.7         11.3       22.6       27.8         30.4       13.9       24.3         33.9       27.0       21.7         17.4       28.7       30.4         18.3       30.4       23.5         13.9       13.9       18.3         36.3       34.8       13.0         29.6       21.7       34.8

Overall results are shown in Table 1A. Table 1B shows the results of the senior surgeons assessment, Table 1C those of surgical residents assessment and Table 1D those of medical students assessment. Mc Nemar test p < 0.0001

	1st Position (%)	2nd Position (%)	3rd Position (%)	4th Position (%)	
(A)					
WLE	12.8	14.4	21.3	51.5	
Channel 2	46.9	28.3	16.8	8.0	
Channel 6	22.1	23.7	35.7	18.4	
Channel 9	18.1	33.9	26.1	21.9	
(B)					
WLE	9.6	14.4	21.6	54.4	
Channel 2	46.4	24.8	19.2	9.6	
Channel 6	24.0	21.6	33.6	20.8	
Channel 9	20.0	39.2	25.6	15.2	

Overall results are shown in Table 2A. Table 2B shows the results of the senior surgeons assessment. Mc Nemar test p < 0.0001

light imaging only detects peritoneal metastases of a certain size. VC provides a negative contrast of the target tissue compared with the surrounding tissue, resulting in augmenting signal to background ratios [12]. These characteristics make this technology possibly very useful if applied to peritoneal cavity exploration in general and for detection of small PC nodules in particular.

Among the three different VC systems available, it is the NBI that has been the most studied. It has been shown that the NBI enables detection of early cancer in the head and neck [21–23], esophagus [24, 25], stomach [26, 27] and colon [28, 29]. NBI is also the only VC system that has been developed for laparoscopic surgery. In a recent study comparing white light laparoscopy and NBI laparoscopy, Schnelldorfer et al. [30] showed that NBI allows a unique contrast that enhances microvasculature and architectural surface pattern; however, NBI was not superior in detecting peritoneal metastases. Three single-case reports published suggest similar results [31–33]. NBI has also been tested for cancer staging of the pleural cavity, and similarly NBI

thoracoscopy did not reveal any additional lesions when compared to white light thoracoscopy [34, 35].

Since the NBI has been initially developed for endoscopy, these results seem obvious. In fact, the NBI uses optical filters to isolate two specific wavelengths of light: 415 nm blue light and 540 nm green light, respectively, wavelengths where hemoglobin has maximal light absorption. The deeper-penetrating 540 nm light corresponds to a secondary hemoglobin absorption peak. Capillaries in the superficial mucosal layer are emphasized by the 415 nm light and are displayed in brown, whereas deeper mucosal and submucosal vessels are made visible by the 540 nm light and are displayed in cyan [12]. The principle of the device is based on the penetration properties of light, which are directly proportional to wavelength [36]. These wavelengths proved efficient for digestive mucosal exploration.

However, the histology of the peritoneum and of the digestive mucosa is not the same. In fact, the peritoneum is a serous membrane composed of mesothelial cells supported by a thin layer of connective tissue, whereas the mucosa is thicker and has a greater degree of blood perfusion. Thus, we can hypothesize that what is applicable for the mucosa will not necessarily be appropriate for the peritoneum and that the wavelengths of interest might be different.

For these reasons, we used FICE in this study. In fact, FICE has ten different preset wavelength patterns that are ready for use in the clinical setting. Moreover, the presets can also be customized and configured from a very large number of wavelength permutations, because any of the 60 wavelengths (400 to 695 nm, in increments of 5 nm) can be input into any of the three RGB channels. The use of FICE in digestive endoscopy has led to a substantial benefit in the detection of minimal esophagitis [37, 38], a better detection of dysplasia in Barrett's [39, 40] and esophagus squamous cell cancer [41]. Moreover, FICE improves the visualization of the early gastric cancer [42–44].

The great number of images assessed in this study imposed the study design in two questionnaires. In fact, in the first questionnaire, no specific question was asked, and the score given to each image was only based on the evaluators' subjective overall impression of the image quality. For each of the 561 images, we obtained 15 scores; therefore, for each FICE preset, we had 765 scores. The WLE image proved to be superior to all the FICE images. This result can be explained by the fact that all the FICE presets generate a darker emission, since their wavelengths are smaller than those of white light. Indirectly, the evaluators assessed the brightness, which is one of the major factors influencing image quality [20]. The three best FICE channels were therefore those that had the highest wavelengths: Channels 2, 6 and 9 (Table 1). Thus, the first questionnaire results in the selection of the three FICE channels offering an adequate illumination of the abdominal cavity compatible with a satisfactory peritoneal exploration.

This result was confirmed in the specific question on brightness in the second questionnaire, where WLE image was statistically the best.

Otherwise, FICE Channels offer better contrast and better visualization of vascular architecture, confirming previous results of digestive endoscopy and eliminating concerns of poor light intensity. It was the Channel 2 that was statistically the best.

Our evaluators considered also that Channel 2 allows a better detection of PC nodules. The greatest limitation for this study is the fact that the assessment was subjective. But, the great number of images, the importance of the statistical significance and the three groups of evaluators' agreement make us believe that Channel 2 is currently the most suitable for PC detection. Another major drawback of this study is the great heterogeneity of the PC group regarding the size, the appearance and the histology of PC nodules. In fact, PC was secondary to different primary tumors: colic, gastric, appendiceal, small bowel, ovarian and breast cancer. Moreover, the choice of the PC nodules to be studied was left to the surgeon's discretion without any restriction for the size or appearance. We intentionally made the choice to avoid systematic biopsies. In fact, all the 13 patients with PC enrolled in this study had histologically proven malignant disease. Biopsies during peritoneal explorations would have prolonged the time of surgery and possibly would have increased the morbidity of this diagnostic procedure.

FICE Channel 2 may also be suitable for laparoscopic surgery. In fact, it was also considered to be the best channel for the differentiation between the organs. This result was, however, different between the three groups of evaluators. The more experience the evaluators have and the more they are used to white light laparoscopy, the more they ranked it better. The senior surgeons, who have a great experience in laparoscopic surgery, and who certainly experienced all the problems that could be associated with the procedure such as the glare caused by the reflection of stray light, still believe that WLE is better. However, the medical students, who have not yet any experience in laparoscopic vision, found that the WLE images were very poor in differentiating the organs. And, once again, it was the Channel 2 who ranked the first.

Previous studies have established for digestive endoscopy the optimal FICE presets depending on the organ and the pathology explored. It has been shown that the most suitable FICE channel for exploring colon polyps is Channel 3 [45]. Channels 4 and 2 proved to be the most appropriate for exploring gastric polyps [46] and for detecting depressed-type early gastric cancer [47], respectively. This is the first study that determined the optimal FICE Channel for peritoneal exploration and PC detection.

In this study, we evaluated the usefulness of FICE during the peritoneal endoscopy for detection of PC. This system provides adequate illumination of the abdominal cavity and a unique contrast that enhances the vascular architecture. Channel 2 was considered as the optimal channel for peritoneal exploration. It was the channel that offers the best contrast, the best visualization of vascular architecture, the best differentiation between the organs and the best detection of PC nodules. Channel 2 of the FICE may be beneficial in the diagnosis of peritoneal carcinomatosis.

Acknowledgments The authors would like to thank Drs. Karine Pautrat, Romain Amato, Silvia Basato, Giulia Boarini, and our surgical residents Iris Bitumba, Louise Montalva, Florie Pirot, Pauline Dewaele, Firas Dridi and Nicolas Leguimazon for their helpful contribution to this work.

#### Compliance with ethical standards

**Disclosures** Fujifilm Medical System Company paid the inscription and the travel to the «United European Gastroenterology Week» which took place in Stockholm in October 2011. One member of the team was present for the poster presentation (Dr. R.L.D.). It is also a partner to the INSERM U965 Unit to study impact of endoscopy on evaluation of peritoneal carcinomatosis. Drs. L. Marry, A. Dohan, H. Najah, C. Eveno, M. Pocard have no conflicts of interest or financial ties to disclose.

#### References

- Verwaal VJ, van Ruth S, de Bree E, van Sloothen GW, van Tinteren H, Boot H, Zoetmulder FAN (2003) Randomized trial of cytoreduction and hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy versus systemic chemotherapy and palliative surgery in patients with peritoneal carcinomatosis of colorectal cancer. J Clin Oncol Off J Am Soc Clin Oncol 21:3737–3743. doi:10.1200/JCO.2003. 04.187
- Elias D, Gilly F, Quenet F, Bereder JM, Sidéris L, Mansvelt B, Lorimier G, Glehen O, Association Française de Chirurgie (2010) Pseudomyxoma peritonei: a French multicentric study of 301 patients treated with cytoreductive surgery and intraperitoneal chemotherapy. Eur J Surg Oncol J Eur Soc Surg Oncol Br Assoc Surg Oncol 36:456–462. doi:10.1016/j.ejso.2010.01.006
- Elias D, Lefevre JH, Chevalier J, Brouquet A, Marchal F, Classe J-M, Ferron G, Guilloit J-M, Meeus P, Goéré D, Bonastre J (2009) Complete cytoreductive surgery plus intraperitoneal chemohyperthermia with oxaliplatin for peritoneal carcinomatosis of colorectal origin. J Clin Oncol Off J Am Soc Clin Oncol 27:681–685. doi:10.1200/JCO.2008.19.7160
- Verwaal VJ, Bruin S, Boot H, van Slooten G, van Tinteren H (2008) 8-year follow-up of randomized trial: cytoreduction and hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy versus systemic chemotherapy in patients with peritoneal carcinomatosis of colorectal cancer. Ann Surg Oncol 15:2426–2432. doi:10.1245/ s10434-008-9966-2
- Elias D, Gilly F, Boutitie F, Quenet F, Bereder J-M, Mansvelt B, Lorimier G, Dubè P, Glehen O (2010) Peritoneal colorectal carcinomatosis treated with surgery and perioperative intraperitoneal chemotherapy: retrospective analysis of 523 patients from

a multicentric French study. J Clin Oncol Off J Am Soc Clin Oncol 28:63–68. doi:10.1200/JCO.2009.23.9285

- Dromain C, Leboulleux S, Auperin A, Goere D, Malka D, Lumbroso J, Schumberger M, Sigal R, Elias D (2008) Staging of peritoneal carcinomatosis: enhanced CT vs. PET/CT. Abdom Imaging 33:87–93. doi:10.1007/s00261-007-9211-7
- Smyth EC, Shah MA (2011) Role of <sup>18</sup>F 2-fluoro-2-deoxyglucose positron emission tomography in upper gastrointestinal malignancies. World J Gastroenterol 17:5059–5074. doi:10.3748/wjg. v17.i46.5059
- Yan TD, Morris DL, Shigeki K, Dario B, Marcello D (2008) Preoperative investigations in the management of peritoneal surface malignancy with cytoreductive surgery and perioperative intraperitoneal chemotherapy: expert consensus statement. J Surg Oncol 98:224–227. doi:10.1002/jso.21069
- Angelelli G, Ianora AA, Scardapane A, Pedote P, Memeo M, Rotondo A (2001) Role of computerized tomography in the staging of gastrointestinal neoplasms. Semin Surg Oncol 20:109–121
- de Bree E, Koops W, Kröger R, van Ruth S, Verwaal VJ, Zoetmulder FN (2006) Preoperative computed tomography and selection of patients with colorectal peritoneal carcinomatosis for cytoreductive surgery and hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy. Eur J Surg Oncol J Eur Soc Surg Oncol Br Assoc Surg Oncol 32:65–71. doi:10.1016/j.ejso.2005.09.016
- Elias D, Goéré D, Di Pietrantonio D, Boige V, Malka D, Kohneh-Shahri N, Dromain C, Ducreux M (2008) Results of systematic second-look surgery in patients at high risk of developing colorectal peritoneal carcinomatosis. Ann Surg 247:445–450. doi:10. 1097/SLA.0b013e31815f0113
- Technology Committee ASGE, Manfredi MA, Abu Dayyeh BK, Bhat YM, Chauhan SS, Gottlieb KT, Hwang JH, Komanduri S, Konda V, Lo SK, Maple JT, Murad FM, Siddiqui UD, Wallace MB, Banerjee S (2015) Electronic chromoendoscopy. Gastrointest Endosc 81:249–261. doi:10.1016/j.gie.2014.06.020
- Subramanian V, Ragunath K (2014) Advanced endoscopic imaging: a review of commercially available technologies. Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol Off Clin Pract J Am Gastroenterol Assoc 12(368–376):e1. doi:10.1016/j.cgh.2013.06.015
- Miyake YK, Kouzu T, Takeuchi S Development of new electronic endoscopes using the spectral images of an internal organ. In: Proceedings of the ISTSID's thirteen color imaging conf. November 7–11, 2005. Scottsdale (Ariz), pp 261–269
- Nunez MF, Sardi A, Jimenez W, Nieroda C, Sittig M, MacDonald R, Aydin N, Milovanov V, Gushchin V (2015) Portsite metastases is an independent prognostic factor in patients with peritoneal carcinomatosis. Ann Surg Oncol 22:1267–1273. doi:10.1245/s10434-014-4136-1
- Pocard M (2015) Exploratory laparoscopy for carcinomatosis: discard that quiver full of trocars and use just one! J Visc Surg 152:147–148. doi:10.1016/j.jviscsurg.2015.04.004
- Najah H, Lo Dico R, Grienay M, Dohan A, Dray X, Pocard M (2015) Single-incision flexible endoscopy (SIFE) for detection and staging of peritoneal carcinomatosis. Surg Endosc. doi:10. 1007/s00464-015-4682-z
- Meyers MA (1973) Distribution of intra-abdominal malignant seeding: dependency on dynamics of flow of ascitic fluid. Am J Roentgenol Radium Ther Nucl Med 119:198–206
- Gallagher AG, Ritter EM, Lederman AB, McClusky DA, Smith CD (2005) Video-assisted surgery represents more than a loss of three-dimensional vision. Am J Surg 189:76–80. doi:10.1016/j. amjsurg.2004.04.008
- 20. Hanna G, Cuschieri A (2001) Image display technology and image processing. World J Surg 25:1419-1427
- 21. Muto M, Nakane M, Katada C, Sano Y, Ohtsu A, Esumi H, Ebihara S, Yoshida S (2004) Squamous cell carcinoma in situ at

oropharyngeal and hypopharyngeal mucosal sites. Cancer 101:1375–1381. doi:10.1002/cncr.20482

- 22. Watanabe A, Taniguchi M, Tsujie H, Hosokawa M, Fujita M, Sasaki S (2009) The value of narrow band imaging for early detection of laryngeal cancer. Eur Arch Oto-Rhino-Laryngol Off J Eur Fed Oto-Rhino-Laryngol Soc EUFOS Affil Ger Soc Oto-Rhino-Laryngol Head Neck Surg 266:1017–1023. doi:10.1007/ s00405-008-0835-1
- 23. Watanabe A, Taniguchi M, Tsujie H, Hosokawa M, Fujita M, Sasaki S (2009) The value of narrow band imaging for early detection of laryngeal cancer. Eur Arch Oto-Rhino-Laryngol Off J Eur Fed Oto-Rhino-Laryngol Soc EUFOS Affil Ger Soc Oto-Rhino-Laryngol - Head Neck Surg 266:1017–1023. doi:10.1007/ s00405-008-0835-1
- Kumagai Y, Inoue H, Nagai K, Kawano T, Iwai T (2002) Magnifying endoscopy, stereoscopic microscopy, and the microvascular architecture of superficial esophageal carcinoma. Endoscopy 34:369–375. doi:10.1055/s-2002-25285
- Yoshida T, Inoue H, Usui S, Satodate H, Fukami N, Kudo S (2004) Narrow-band imaging system with magnifying endoscopy for superficial esophageal lesions. Gastrointest Endosc 59:288–295
- Hu Y-Y, Lian Q-W, Lin Z-H, Zhong J, Xue M, Wang L-J (2015) Diagnostic performance of magnifying narrow-band imaging for early gastric cancer: a meta-analysis. World J Gastroenterol 21:7884–7894. doi:10.3748/wjg.v21.i25.7884
- 27. Yu H, Yang A-M, Lu X-H, Zhou W-X, Yao F, Fei G-J, Guo T, Yao L-Q, He L-P, Wang B-M (2015) Magnifying narrow-band imaging endoscopy is superior in diagnosis of early gastric cancer. World J Gastroenterol 21:9156–9162. doi:10.3748/wjg.v21. i30.9156
- Chiu H-M, Chang C-Y, Chen C-C, Lee Y-C, Wu M-S, Lin J-T, Shun C-T, Wang H-P (2007) A prospective comparative study of narrow-band imaging, chromoendoscopy, and conventional colonoscopy in the diagnosis of colorectal neoplasia. Gut 56:373–379. doi:10.1136/gut.2006.099614
- Su M-Y, Hsu C-M, Ho Y-P, Chen P-C, Lin C-J, Chiu C-T (2006) Comparative study of conventional colonoscopy, chromoendoscopy, and narrow-band imaging systems in differential diagnosis of neoplastic and nonneoplastic colonic polyps. Am J Gastroenterol 101:2711–2716. doi:10.1111/j.1572-0241.2006. 00932.x
- Schnelldorfer T, Jenkins RL, Birkett DH, Wright VJ, Price LL, Georgakoudi I (2015) Laparoscopic narrow band imaging for detection of occult cancer metastases: a randomized feasibility trial. Surg Endosc. doi:10.1007/s00464-015-4401-9
- Fanfani F, Gallotta V, Rossitto C, Fagotti A, Scambia G (2010) Narrow band imaging in borderline ovarian tumor. J Minim Invasive Gynecol 17:146–147. doi:10.1016/j.jmig.2009.04.001
- Fanfani F, Rossitto C, Fagotti A, Gallotta V, Gagliardi ML, Scambia G (2011) Narrow-band imaging in laparoscopic management of cervical carcinoma. J Minim Invasive Gynecol 18:146–147. doi:10.1016/j.jmig.2010.02.001
- Schnelldorfer T (2012) Image-enhanced laparoscopy: a promising technology for detection of peritoneal micrometastases. Surgery 151:345–350. doi:10.1016/j.surg.2011.12.012
- 34. Ishida A, Ishikawa F, Nakamura M, Miyazu YM, Mineshita M, Kurimoto N, Koike J, Nishisaka T, Miyazawa T, Astoul P (2009) Narrow band imaging applied to pleuroscopy for the assessment of vascular patterns of the pleura. Respir Int Rev Thorac Dis 78:432–439. doi:10.1159/000247335
- 35. Schönfeld N, Schwarz C, Kollmeier J, Blum T, Bauer TT, Ott S (2009) Narrow band imaging (NBI) during medical thoracoscopy: first impressions. J Occup Med Toxicol Lond Engl 4:24. doi:10.1186/1745-6673-4-24

- 36. Gono K, Obi T, Yamaguchi M, Ohyama N, Machida H, Sano Y, Yoshida S, Hamamoto Y, Endo T (2004) Appearance of enhanced tissue features in narrow-band endoscopic imaging. J Biomed Opt 9:568–577. doi:10.1117/1.1695563
- Chaiteerakij R, Rerknimitr R, Kullavanijaya P (2010) Role of digital chromoendoscopy in detecting minimal change esophageal reflux disease. World J Gastrointest Endosc 2:121–129. doi:10.4253/wjge.v2.i4.121
- Miyasaka M, Hirakawa M, Nakamura K, Tanaka F, Mimori K, Mori M, Honda H (2011) The endoscopic diagnosis of nonerosive reflux disease using flexible spectral imaging color enhancement image: a feasibility trial. Dis Esophagus Off J Int Soc Dis Esophagus ISDE 24:395–400. doi:10.1111/j.1442-2050.2010. 01166.x
- 39. Camus M, Coriat R, Leblanc S, Brezault C, Terris B, Pommaret E, Gaudric M, Chryssostalis A, Prat F, Chaussade S (2012) Helpfulness of the combination of acetic acid and FICE in the detection of Barrett's epithelium and Barrett's associated neoplasias. World J Gastroenterol 18:1921–1925. doi:10.3748/wjg. v18.i16.1921
- 40. Qumseya BJ, Wang H, Badie N, Uzomba RN, Parasa S, White DL, Wolfsen H, Sharma P, Wallace MB (2013) Advanced imaging technologies increase detection of dysplasia and neoplasia in patients with Barrett's esophagus: a meta-analysis and systematic review. Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol Off Clin Pract J Am Gastroenterol Assoc 11(1562–1570):e1–e2. doi:10.1016/j. cgh.2013.06.017
- 41. Arantes V, Albuquerque W, Salles JMP, Freitas Dias CA, Alberti LR, Kahaleh M, Ferrari TCA, Coelho LGV (2013) Effectiveness of unsedated transnasal endoscopy with white-light, flexible spectral imaging color enhancement, and lugol staining for eso-phageal cancer screening in high-risk patients. J Clin Gastroenterol 47:314–321. doi:10.1097/MCG.0b013e3182617fc1
- 42. Mouri R, Yoshida S, Tanaka S, Oka S, Yoshihara M, Chayama K (2009) Evaluation and validation of computed virtual chromoendoscopy in early gastric cancer. Gastrointest Endosc 69:1052–1058. doi:10.1016/j.gie.2008.08.032
- 43. Nakamura M, Nishikawa J, Goto A, Nishimura J, Hashimoto S, Okamoto T, Sakaida I (2013) Usefulness of ultraslim endoscopy with flexible spectral imaging color enhancement for detection of gastric neoplasm: a preliminary study. J Gastrointest Cancer 44:325–328. doi:10.1007/s12029-013-9500-z
- 44. Osawa H, Yamamoto H, Miura Y, Ajibe H, Shinhata H, Yoshizawa M, Sunada K, Toma S, Satoh K, Sugano K (2012) Diagnosis of depressed-type early gastric cancer using small-caliber endoscopy with flexible spectral imaging color enhancement. Dig Endosc Off J Jpn Gastroenterol Endosc Soc 24:231–236. doi:10. 1111/j.1443-1661.2011.01224.x
- 45. Togashi K, Osawa H, Koinuma K, Hayashi Y, Miyata T, Sunada K, Nokubi M, Horie H, Yamamoto H (2009) A comparison of conventional endoscopy, chromoendoscopy, and the optimal-band imaging system for the differentiation of neoplastic and non-neoplastic colonic polyps. Gastrointest Endosc 69:734–741. doi:10.1016/j.gie.2008.10.063
- 46. Coriat R, Chryssostalis A, Zeitoun JD, Deyra J, Gaudric M, Prat F, Chaussade S (2008) Computed virtual chromoendoscopy system (FICE): a new tool for upper endoscopy? Gastroentérologie Clin Biol 32:363–369. doi:10.1016/j.gcb.2007.11.013
- 47. Osawa H, Yoshizawa M, Yamamoto H, Kita H, Satoh K, Ohnishi H, Nakano H, Wada M, Arashiro M, Tsukui M, Ido K, Sugano K (2008) Optimal band imaging system can facilitate detection of changes in depressed-type early gastric cancer. Gastrointest Endosc 67:226–234. doi:10.1016/j.gie.2007.06.067

# Article 4 : Specific Computed Virtual Chromoendoscopy for detection of peritoneal carcinomatosis: an animal study.

Haythem Najah, Ingrid Jouvin, Samaher Besbes, Diana Cifuentes, Clarisse Eveno, Marc Pocard.

Surg Endosc. 2017 Oct; 31(10):4034-4043.

Dans cette étude, nous avons, dans un premier temps, établi un modèle murin reproductible de CP naissante. Une injection intrapéritonéale (IP) de cellules tumorales de cancer colique murin CT-26 était réalisée chez 18 souris immunocompétentes Balb/c. Six groupes de trois souris chacun étaient constitués. Les souris de chaque groupe étaient opérées puis sacrifiées à des dates différentes : à J5, J7, J8, J10 et J12. Un groupe contrôle, constitué de 3 souris ayant eu injection IP de milieu de culture sans cellules tumorales, était étudié à J10.

Ce modèle était efficace et une CP était obtenue chez 100% des souris ayant eu une injection IP de cellules CT-26. Le PCI adapté pour les rongeurs [86], la taille des nodules et le nombre de régions atteintes par la CP étaient de plus en plus importants au fur à mesure qu'on s'écartait du jour de l'injection IP. Le PCI moyen était de 1,6 ± 1,2 à J5 ; 1,3 ± 0,5 à J7 ; 7,7 ± 2,6 à J8 ; 14,3 ± 9,4 à J9 ; 15,0 ± 7,3 à J10 et 17,0 ± 8,0 à J12. La taille moyenne des nodules était de 1,0 ± 0,0 mm à J5 ; 1,6 ± 0,8 mm à J7 ; 2,9 ± 1,9 mm à J8 ; 3,4 ± 2,2 mm à J 9 ; 3,9 ± 2,9 mm à J10 et 6,2 ± 4,9 mm à J12. Le nombre de régions atteintes était de 2 ± 0,8 à J5 ; 1,3 ± 0,5 à J7 ; 3,3 ± 0,5 à J8 ; 6 ± 3,6 à J9 ; 6,7 ± 2,5 à J10 et 6,5 ± 3,5 à J12. Chez le groupe contrôle, il n'y avait pas de CP.

Les souris étaient opérées sous anesthésie générale et des images des nodules de CP, en LB et avec les 10 canaux du FICE, étaient enregistrés. Grâce au logiciel ImageJ, nous avons décomposé chaque image endoscopique en ces trois composantes élémentaires R-G-B. Pour chaque canal du FICE, chacune de ces images élémentaires correspond à une lumière monochromatique avec une longueur d'onde précise. A chaque pixel était associée une valeur numérique allant de 0 à 255. Pour chaque nodule, la valeur numérique du nodule, qui correspond à la moyenne des valeurs numériques des pixels constituant ce nodule, (C<sub>Nod</sub>) et du péritoine avoisinant (C<sub>Back</sub>) étaient déterminés, et le contraste entre les deux calculé. Cinq nodules par souris étaient étudiés, ce qui faisait un total de 2805 images élémentaires. Les longueurs d'ondes similaires étaient par la suite regroupées indépendamment du canal d'entrée du FICE pour lequel elles étaient assignées. Pour chacune de ces longueurs d'ondes, la valeur moyenne du contraste était par la suite calculée.

Nous avons pu ainsi déterminer la longueur d'onde du spectre de la lumière visible qui permettait d'avoir le meilleur contraste entre nodule de CP et péritoine avoisinant. Il s'agit de la lumière monochromatique à 460 nm (p<0,0001), avec un contraste moyen à 0,240 ± 0,151.

Les contrastes obtenues avec les longueurs d'ondes voisines à 450 nm et 470 nm étaient de 0,231  $\pm$  0,143 et 0,228  $\pm$  0,149 respectivement. La valeur du contraste diminuait progressivement de chaque coté de la courbe, pour atteindre le plus petit contraste avec la lumière monochromatique à 580 nm qui était de 0,082  $\pm$  0,077.

Enfin, et afin de composer un nouveau canal spécifique de la détection de la CP, dans cette 2<sup>ème</sup> génération du FICE, nous avons identifié pour chaque canal d'entrée, dans les réglages prédéfinis dans la machine, la longueur d'onde offrant le meilleur contraste. Ceci nous a permis de proposer le canal composé des lumières à 450 nm, 460 nm et 500 nm, qui offre théoriquement la meilleure visualisation des nodules de CP.

Afin de protéger ces résultats, nous avons déposé un brevet via InsermTransfert aux Etats Unis d'Amérique et en Europe.



## Specific computed virtual chromoendoscopy for detection of peritoneal carcinomatosis: an animal study

Haythem Najah<sup>1,2</sup> · Ingrid Jouvin<sup>1,2</sup> · Samaher Besbes<sup>2</sup> · Diana Cifuentes<sup>2</sup> · Clarisse Eveno<sup>1,2</sup> · Marc Pocard<sup>1,2</sup>

Received: 6 October 2016 / Accepted: 30 January 2017 © Springer Science+Business Media New York 2017

#### Abstract

*Background* Detection of an incipient Peritoneal Carcinomatosis (PC) is still challenging, and there is a crucial need for technological improvements in order to diagnose and to treat early this condition. The aim of this study was to create a murine model of incipient PC and to explore the PC with Fujinon Intelligent Chromo Endoscopy (FICE) in order to determine the wavelengths of the white light (WL) spectre that offer the highest contrast between PC nodules and surrounding peritoneum.

*Methods* Eighteen BALB/c mice had intraperitoneal injection of murine colonic cancer CT26 cells. Peritoneal exploration with FICE was performed at different times. For each PC nodule, 1 WL and 10 FICE images were recorded. Each image was then divided into its elementary red, green and blue band images. Depending on the FICE channel, each elementary image corresponds to a specific wavelength of the WL spectre. Through numerical analysis of these images, the value of the nodule and the background peritoneum were obtained, and the contrast value was calculated. Contrast values obtained with the different wavelengths were then compared.

*Results* PC grew in all the mice. The number as well as the size of PC nodules was increasingly high depending on the day of exploration. Mean PCI was  $1.6 \pm 1.2$  at day 5,  $7.7 \pm 2.6$  at day 8 and  $15.0 \pm 7.3$  at day 10. A total number

of 1805 elementary images of PC nodules were analysed. The wavelength that offered the best contrast between PC nodules and background peritoneum was 460 nm with a mean contrast value of  $0.240 \pm 0.151$  (p < 0.0001). *Conclusion* This murine model of incipient PC is effective, reliable and reproducible. A monochromatic light with a wavelength at 460 nm offers the highest contrast between

PC nodules and background peritoneum, allowing a better detection of PC.
Keywords Peritoneal carcinomatosis · Experimental

 $model \cdot Peritoneoscopy \cdot Computed virtual \\ chromoendoscopy \cdot Fujinon intelligent chromoendoscopy \cdot \\ Wavelength$ 

Detection and staging of peritoneal carcinomatosis (PC) are essential for the management of gastrointestinal and gynaecologic malignancies. In fact, an adequate staging of PC dictates the treatment strategy and defines the role of operative treatment. Cytoreductive surgery with hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy (CRS/HIPEC) is currently a recognized therapeutic strategy in patients with PC [1]. As far as PC of colorectal origin is concerned, this strategy allows reaching a median survival as high as 41 months in some selected patients who would otherwise have a dismal prognosis [2-4]. This strategy is far more efficient and less morbid if it is performed when the peritoneal seeding is limited. The 3-year overall survival decreases from 55% when the PCI < 6 to 18% when the PCI > 19 [3]. An early detection of this condition at an early stage when PC is still limited is therefore essential.

Despite the improvements in available staging tools, PC is still often lately diagnosed. In fact, current imaging methods are not sensitive enough for the diagnosis and

Haythem Najah haythem.najah@gmail.com

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Department of Oncologic & Digestive Surgery, AP-HP, Hospital Lariboisière, 2 rue Ambroise Paré, 75475 Paris Cedex 10, France

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Université Paris Diderot, Sorbonne Paris Cité, CART, INSERM U965, 74575 Paris, France

staging of limited PC and often do not detect small tumours [5, 6]. Conventional white light laparoscopy or white light imaging only detects peritoneal metastases of a certain size. Therefore, there is a crucial need for technological improvements in order to provide a more efficient method to discover and detect incipient PC.

In a previous study in human, we showed that flexible endoscopy allows a more comprehensive exploration of the peritoneal cavity, and therefore, a better detection of PC nodules [7]. We wondered whether these results would be even better if instead of white light endoscopy, we could use a light that enhances the visualization of PC nodules.

Fujinon intelligent chromoendoscopy (FICE, Fujinon, Saitama, Japan) [8] is a computed virtual chromoendoscopy system merchandised as a digital image processing technique enhancing the mucosal surface structures using selected wavelengths of light in reconstituted virtual images. Ten factory-determined presets are available. Each preset is composed of three different specific wavelengths of the visible light spectre assigned to the red, green and blue channels. The captured images are supposed to provide a contrast of the target tissue compared to the surrounding tissue, resulting in augmented signal-to-background ratios and possibly improved detection of small PC. The use of the FICE system in digestive endoscopy has led to a substantial benefit in the detection of minimal esophagitis [9, 10], a better detection of dysplasia in Barrett's [11, 12] and oesophagus squamous cell cancer [13]. Moreover, FICE improves the visualization of the early gastric cancer [14–16].

As any organ subject to a metastatic process, the peritoneum would change according to the theory of the premetastatic niche [17, 18]. The stroma, as well as the vascular network, would change at the very beginning of the metastatic process. We hypothesized that the FICE system could improve the detection of this incipient PC.

The aim of this animal study was first to a create a murine model of an incipient PC, than to explore this PC with the FICE system in order to determine the wavelengths of the white light spectre that would offer the highest contrast between PC nodules and surrounding peritoneum, and therefore a better detection of PC.

#### Materials and methods

This animal study was carried out in the laboratory of the INSERM Unit 965, Paris, France.

The laboratory number of national accreditation for animal experimentation is C75-10-03 (Novembre 27-2012). The registration number of the ethics committee for the carcinomatosis model experiments is APAFIS-3944-2015122813591563v3.

#### Cell line and culture

The cell line used to create the murine model of PC was the CT26, which is a murine colon adenocarcinoma cell line derived from BALB/c mice treated with N-nitroso-N-methylurethane. CT26 cells were maintained in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% foetal bovine serum, 1% L-Glutamine and 1% antibiotics. They were grown at 37 °C in a humidified incubator with 5% CO<sub>2</sub>.

#### Murine model of PC and experimentation plan

For the experimentation, female BALB/c mice (Charles River, Arbresle, France) of 4 weeks, weighing 20 g  $(\pm 2 \text{ g})$  were used. They were sheltered at 22 °C in a ventilated laboratory cupboard and fed with a standard-ised autoclaved diet (HARLAN 20.18 reproduction diet enriched with protein and fat). Sterile water was provided *ad libitum*. Day/night cycle was respected. The animals had been kept in these conditions for 10 days before any experimentation started.

A murine model of incipient PC was created through an intraperitoneal (IP) injection of  $10^4$  CT-26 cells. 18 female BALB/c mice had the IP injection at day 0. Six groups of 3 mice were created, and the peritoneal exploration of the mice of each group was carried out at different times: day 5, day 7, day 8, day 9, day 10 and day 12. A control group comprised three female BALB/c mice that received an IP injection of 1 mL of culture medium without tumour cells. Peritoneal explorations of these mice took place at day 10.

All the mice were sacrificed after the peritoneal explorations by cervical dislocation under general anaesthesia. Between the days of IP injection and sacrifice, the wellbeing of the mice was checked, twice a week, through the search of any sign of pain, dehydration, changing in behaviour or loss of weight.

#### Fuji Intelligent chromo endoscopy system (FICE)

In this study, we used the FICE EPX-4400 video processor. The principle is based on spectral estimation technology, which takes an ordinary endoscopic image from the video processor and arithmetically processes, estimates and produces an image of a given, dedicated wavelength of light. Three single-wavelength images are selected and assigned to the red, green and blue channels to build an enhanced colour image. The FICE system comes with 10 preset wavelengths patterns that are ready for use in the clinical setting (Table 1). A push button on the handle of Table 1FICE factory-<br/>determined presets

	Ch. 0	Ch. 1	Ch. 2	Ch. 3	Ch. 4	Ch. 5	Ch. 6	Ch. 7	Ch. 8	Ch. 9
Rλ	500	500	550	540	520	500	580	520	540	550
Gλ	445	470	500	490	500	480	520	450	415	500
Βλ	415	420	470	420	405	420	460	400	415	400

Wavelengths ( $\lambda$ ) are in nanometers.

 $R\lambda$  the wavelength assigned to the red monitor input;  $G\lambda$  the wavelength assigned to the green monitor input;  $B\lambda$  the wavelength assigned to the blue monitor input

the endoscope enables switching between conventional white light (WL) and FICE images.

#### Pathological analysis

#### **Peritoneal exploration**

A 10.8-mm-diameter, 110-cm-long Fujinon® gastroscope EG-490ZW5 (Fujifilm medical systems France, Montigny Le Bretec, France) coupled with the FICE system was used. Considering the size of this endoscope, it was obviously not possible to perform standard laparoscopic procedures in mice. In order to mimic a laparoscopy environment and to avoid that the light of the room interferes with the light emitted by the endoscope, we constructed a "black box", into which the mouse could be placed and the exploration of the peritoneum by this endoscope could be performed. A cardboard box of 40 cm long, 30 cm wide and 30 cm high was covered with a black blackout fabric. An opening was made at the upper surface of the box allowing the placement of a single access port for the endoscope. Another opening was made at one side of the box for the anaesthesia breathing tube.

The intervention consisted in exploring the peritoneal cavity on an anaesthetised living mouse. General anaesthesia was obtained through inhalation of isoflurane at 4% at induction and at 2% during maintenance (Baxter, Guyancourt, France) with air flow of 1.5 L min. Buprenorphine at 0.1 mg/kg was subcutaneously injected before any surgery.

A midline xiphoid-pubic laparotomy was performed. The abdominal wall was unfolded on both sides and fixed to reveal and uncover anterior parietal peritoneum. Visceral and parietal peritoneum was completely and meticulously analysed to discover PC nodules and the peritoneal carcinomatosis index (PCI) for the rodent [19] was calculated.

Subsequently, the mouse was placed inside the "black box"; the endoscope was introduced through the single access port, and the peritoneal endoscopy was performed. Once again, the peritoneal cavity was completely and meticulously explored to study the PC nodules. Photographs of all the discovered nodules were taken. For each nodule, one image under WL and 10 images corresponding to the FICE presets were stored (Fig. 1). All the nodules studied were removed for histopathologic evaluation. Nodule samples were kept in 10% buffered formalin. 40-µm-thick sections were cut using a microtome and coloured with haematoxylin/eosin/safran (HES).

#### Numerical analysis of the WL and FICE images

Image analysis was performed with the software program Image J (ImageJ 1.49v National Institutes of Health, USA). For each mouse, five nodules were studied, and for each nodule, 11 images were analysed (1 WL image and 10 FICE images). Each one of these endoscopic images was divided into three elementary images, i.e. a red (R) band image, a green (G) band image and a blue (B) band image (Fig. 2) Depending on the FICE channel, each elementary image corresponds to a specific wavelength of the white light spectre (Table 1).

Every pixel can be expressed numerically by a variable from 0 to 255, which corresponds to its luminosity expressed on a grey scale.

For each elementary image, we determined the numeric value of the nodule ( $V_{Nod}$ ), which corresponds to the mean numeric value of all the pixels composing the nodule. Subsequently, and in order to determine the numeric value of the adjacent background peritoneum ( $V_{Back}$ ), we calculated the mean value of 5 areas adjacent to the nodule. The sum of the surfaces of these 5 areas equals the surface of the nodule (Fig. 3).

Therefore, the contrast value between the nodule and the background peritoneum was obtained through the follow-ing formula:

$$Cont = \left| \frac{VNod - VBack}{VNod + VBack} \right|,$$

where  $V_{Nod}$  = numeric value of the nodule,  $V_{Back}$  = numeric value of the background peritoneum, Cont = contrast between the nodule and the background peritoneum

Then, similar wavelengths were gathered together independently of the monitor input for which they were



**Fig. 1** Endoscopic images of a peritoneal carcinomatosis nodule. *WL* White light image. *FICE 0* Channel 0. *FICE 1* Channel (1) *FICE 2* Channel (2) *FICE 3* Channel (3) *FICE 4* Channel (4) *FICE 5* Chan-

nel (5) *FICE 6* Channel (6) *FICE 7* Channel (7) *FICE 8* Channel (8) *FICE 9* Channel 9



Fig. 2 An endoscopic RGB image divided into three elementary images. R red band image. G green band image. B blue band image



Fig. 3 Determination of the numeric value of the nodule ( $V_{Nod}$ ) and of the adjacent background peritoneum ( $V_{Back}$ ). The limits of the nodule are drawn carefully (in *yellow* at the centre of the image) to determine the  $V_{Nod}$ . *White areas* that may be present and that correspond to the reflection of stray light are excluded from the surface of the pixels studied. Five areas having the same shape and the same global surface are generated in order to determine the  $V_{Back}$ 

assigned. The mean contrast obtained with each wavelength was calculated, and compared in order to determine the wavelength that offers the best contrast. Finally, and in order to create a new FICE channel specific for PC detection, we compared separately the contrast obtained with the different wavelengths assigned to the R, G and B monitor inputs.

#### Statistical analysis

Statistical calculations were performed with R software Version 3.2.2. Continuous data were summarized as mean and standard deviation, and comparison was performed using an analysis of variance (ANOVA). Subsequently, a post hoc analysis using a Tukey HSD test was performed.

#### Results

#### Analysis of the PC model

PC grew in all the mice that had IP injection with CT26 cell line. PC nodules were already present at day 5 after the injection. Their number and their size were increasingly high depending on the day of exploration. The mean PCI was  $1.6 \pm 1.2$  at day 5,  $1.3 \pm 0.5$  at day 7,  $7.7 \pm 2.6$  at day 8,  $14.3 \pm 9.4$  at day 9,  $15.0 \pm 7.3$  at day 10 and  $17.0 \pm 8.0$  at day 12.

The mean size of the PC nodules was  $1.0\pm0.0$  mm at day 5,  $1.6\pm0.8$  mm at day 7,  $2.9\pm1.9$  mm at day 8,  $3.4\pm2.2$  mm at day 9,  $3.9\pm2.9$  mm at day 10 and  $6.2\pm4.9$  mm at day 12. PC nodules developed in all the peritoneal regions. The number of regions where PC developed was  $2\pm0.8$  at day 5,  $1.3\pm0.5$  at day 7,  $3.3\pm0.5$  at day 8,  $6\pm3.6$  at day 9,  $6.7\pm2.5$  at day 10 and  $6.5\pm3.5$  at day 12.

During this study, we recorded one death. One mouse of the day-12 exploration group was found dead the day of surgery. There was no morbidity, and the well-being of the mice was satisfactory during all the study. We did not notice any sign of dehydration or pain, nor any excessive loss or gain of weight.

#### Pathological analysis

Among the 85 nodules studied, only 55 proved to be malignant. The 30 others corresponded to Peyer's patches hyperplasia. These benign nodules were also present in the mice of the control group.

The aspect of these benign nodules was quite typical and very different from the aspect of PC nodules (Fig. 4). In fact, they appeared like white, elliptic uplift, protruding structures that develop on the anti-mesenteric side of the jejunum or the ileum.

The histopathological examination, that was systematically performed, confirmed these findings. The PC nodules presented, at pathological analysis, as a malignant cells proliferation placed upon the peritoneum; Peyer's patches hyperplasia presented as a submucosal proliferation of lymphoid cells within the wall of the small intestine, located between the mucosa and the muscularis (Fig. 4).

#### Numerical analysis of the images

A total number of 935 images (85 WL and 850 FICE images) corresponding to the 85 nodules were stored. After the histopathologic examination, only the 605 images (55 WL and 550 FICE images), corresponding to the 55 histologically proven PC nodules were numerically analysed. As explained above, each one of these images was divided into its three elementary R, G and B band images. That makes a total number of 1805 elementary images analysed.

After gathering similar wavelengths together independently of the monitor input for which they were assigned, the contrasts obtained with each wavelength were determined (Fig. 5). The wavelength that offered the best contrast between PC nodule and background peritoneum was 460 nm with a mean contrast value of  $0.240 \pm 0.151$ . The contrast values obtained with 450 nm and 470 nm wavelengths were  $0.231 \pm 0.143$  and  $0.228 \pm 0.149$ , respectively. The 580 nm wavelength gave the worst contrast with a



Fig. 4 A PC nodule. *The upper image* shows the endoscopic aspect, *the lower image* shows the histologic aspect with optical microscope (original magnification $\times$ 10). *a* mucosa. *b* muscularis. *c* malignant cells proliferation. **B** Peyer's patches hyperplasia. *The upper image* 

value of  $0.082 \pm 0.077$  (Fig. 6). With the smallest wavelength studied, which was 400 nm, the contrast value was  $0.205 \pm 0.132$ .

The ANOVA was very significant with p < 0.0001. The Tukey HSD test showed that this significance was due to the pairs comprising the wavelengths 540, 550 and 580 nm.

There was no interaction between time (the day of evaluation) and wavelength, and there was also no difference in the contrast values depending on the day of evaluation (data not shown).

Finally, we compared separately the contrast obtained with the different wavelengths assigned to the R, G and B monitor inputs.

In the R monitor input, the best contrasts were obtained with the channels 0-R, 1-R and 5-R with mean contrast values of  $0.177 \pm 0.129$ ,  $0.170 \pm 0.127$  and  $0.179 \pm 0.127$ , respectively. These channels correspond to the 500 nm wavelength (Table 1). The 6-R channel showed the worst

shows the endoscopic aspect, *the lower image* the histologic aspect with optical microscope (original magnification  $\times 10$ ). *a* mucosa. *b* lymphoid tissue. *c* muscularis

contrast with a value of  $0.082 \pm 0.077$ . The ANOVA was very significant with p < 0.0001.

In the G monitor input, the contrasts were also different depending on the wavelengths (p=0.05). The best contrast was obtained with the channel 7-G with a mean value of  $0.206 \pm 0.128$ . This channel corresponds to the 450 nm wavelength. The worst contrast was obtained with the WL (Cont <sub>WL-G</sub>=0.123±0.090).

In the B monitor input, the results were globally similar (p=0.345). The best contrast was obtained with the channel 6-B with a mean value of  $0.208 \pm 0.135$ . This channel corresponds to the 460 nm wavelength. The contrast obtained with the WL-B channel was  $0.145 \pm 0.101$ .

Thus, as far as the wavelengths assigned to the R, G and B monitor inputs in the FICE system are concerned, the three wavelengths that offer the best contrast between PC nodule and background peritoneum are 450, 460 and 500 nm.



Contrast between PC nodule and background peritoneum

Fig. 5 Contrast between PC nodule and background peritoneum



Fig. 6 Difference of contrast between PC nodule and background peritoneum obtained with two monochromatic images corresponding to two different wavelengths. A  $\lambda$  = 460 nm. B  $\lambda$  = 580 nm

#### Discussion

Virtual chromoendoscopy is a novel technology developed relatively recently for imaging of neoplasms in different areas of healthcare. It provides a negative contrast of the target tissue compared with the surrounding tissue, resulting in augmenting signal-to-background ratios [20]. These characteristics make this technology possibly a hopeful candidate to provide good detection rates for early small PC nodules.

Among the different virtual chromoendoscopy systems available, only the Olympus Narrow Band Imaging (NBI) has been developed for laparoscopic surgery. I is therefore the only system that has been applied to PC nodules detection. In a recent study comparing WL laparoscopy and NBI laparoscopy, Schnelldorfer et al. [21] showed that NBI allows a unique contrast that enhances microvasculature and architectural surface pattern; however, NBI was not superior in detecting peritoneal metastases. Three single-case reports published suggest similar results [22-24]. NBI has also been tested for cancer staging of the pleural cavity, and similarly, NBI thoracoscopy did not reveal any additional lesions when compared to WL thoracoscopy [25, 26]. NBI, which initially had been developed for digestive endoscopy, uses optical filters to isolate two specific wavelengths of light: 415 nm blue light and 540 nm green light, respectively, wavelengths where haemoglobin has maximal light absorption. The deeper penetrating 540 nm light corresponds to a secondary haemoglobin absorption peak. Capillaries in the superficial mucosal layer are emphasized by the 415 nm light and are displayed in brown, whereas deeper mucosal and submucosal vessels are made visible by the 540 nm light and are displayed in cyan [20]. The principle of the device is based on the penetration properties of light, which are directly proportional to wavelengths [27]. These wavelengths proved to be efficient for digestive mucosal exploration and enabled early detection of cancer in the oesophagus [28, 29], stomach [30, 31] and colon [32, 33].

However, the histology of the peritoneum and of the digestive mucosa is not the same. The peritoneum is a serous membrane composed of mesothelial cells supported by a thin layer of connective tissue, whereas the mucosa is thicker and has a greater degree of blood perfusion. Thus, we can hypothesize that the wavelengths that proved to be suitable for the mucosal exploration will not necessarily be appropriate for the peritoneum.

The aim of this animal study was to determine the most suitable wavelengths of the visible light spectre for early PC detection. We therefore used the FICE system, which allowed us to test a wide number of wavelengths. In fact, the FICE system has ten different preset wavelength patterns that are ready for use in the clinical setting. Moreover, the presets can also be customized and configured from a very large number of wavelength permutations.

Mice models of laparoscopic surgery have been previously described [34, 35]. A 2 mm endoscope with a 3.3 mm external sheath for insufflation is generally used. Unfortunately, there is, at present, no laparoscope of this size that could be coupled with the FICE system.

In this study, we used a flexible endoscope of 10.8 mm diameter with which obviously no standard laparoscopy on the small animal could be performed. In order to overcome this major obstacle, we conceived this "black box" into which we placed the mouse for which a laparotomy had previously been made. The endoscope was than inserted through a single access port placed at the upper surface of the box, and the peritoneal endoscopy was carried out. A second opening at one side of the box permitted the passage of the anaesthesia breathing tube. This system makes it possible to perform peritoneal exploration on living mice under general anaesthesia. This point is of a crucial importance because the absence of blood circulation would have skewed the results; haemoglobin is a major factor of absorption of the visible light. That is why we excluded from the analysis the mouse found dead at day 12.

Our model of murine PC was effective, and PC grew in all the mice that had IP injection with CT26 cell line. We decided to kill the mice immediately after the peritoneal exploration and to follow the natural history of the PC on different mice. The choice of this experimentation plan was justified by two major reasons: first, we chose to systematically remove all the nodules studied for histopathologic analysis; second, we preferred to avoid any eventual interference between wound healing and PC growth.

The numerical analysis of the images and the study of the contrast showed that the 460 nm wavelength offers the best contrast between PC nodules and background peritoneum. The curve of contrasts reaches a peak at this wavelength, and then goes down on both sides. This result was independent of the day of evaluation, and the contrast obtained with this wavelength was also the highest at day 5 and day 7. We can therefore conclude that a monochromatic light at 460 nm is the most appropriate wavelength of the WL spectre for the detection of an incipient PC. After comparing separately the contrast obtained with the different wavelengths assigned to the R, G and B monitor inputs, three wavelengths of interest were also determined: 450, 460 and 500 nm. These wavelengths can then compose a new FICE channel and build an enhanced colour image specific for PC detection. These results can also be applied to the NBI system. In fact, the optical filters placed in front of the conventional WL source can be replaced in order to isolate the wavelengths 450 and 500 nm, or 460 and 500 nm.

This is the first animal study that applied the FICE system for PC detection. We developed a murine model of incipient PC of colonic origin. This model is reliable and reproducible. We showed that a monochromatic light with a wavelength at 460 nm offers the highest contrast between PC nodules and background peritoneum. If a new FICE channel specific for PC detection has to be created, the wavelengths of the three images to be assigned to the R, G and B channels are 500, 460 and 450 nm. Further studies in human are needed to validate these promising results. Acknowledgements The authors would like to thank Mme Cynthia Pimpie, Mlle Charlotte Canet-Jourdan, Mlle Marie Chevauchet and Mr Ghassen Tounsi for their helpful contribution to this work.

**Author contribution** Fujifilm Medical System Company is partner to the INSERM 965 Unit to study the impact of endoscopy on the evaluation of peritoneal carcinomatosis. For that purpose, the company has lent the Unit the gastroscope and the FICE (Fuji Intelligent Chromoendoscopy) system used in this study. In order to protect the results of this study, Drs. H Najah and M Pocard had recently filed a patent via INSERMTransfert in Europe and in the USA.

#### **Compliance with Ethical Standards**

**Conflict of interest** Drs. I Jouvin, S Besbes, D Cifuentes and C Eveno have no conflicts of interest or financial ties to disclose.

#### References

- Verwaal VJ, van Ruth S, de Bree E, van Sloothen GW, van Tinteren H, Boot H, Zoetmulder FAN (2003) Randomized trial of cytoreduction and hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy versus systemic chemotherapy and palliative surgery in patients with peritoneal carcinomatosis of colorectal cancer. J Clin Oncol 21:3737–3743. doi:10.1200/JCO.2003.04.187
- Elias D, Lefevre JH, Chevalier J, Brouquet A, Marchal F, Classe J-M, Ferron G, Guilloit J-M, Meeus P, Goéré D, Bonastre J (2009) Complete cytoreductive surgery plus intraperitoneal chemohyperthermia with oxaliplatin for peritoneal carcinomatosis of colorectal origin. J Clin Oncol 27:681–685. doi:10.1200/ JCO.2008.19.7160
- Elias D, Gilly F, Boutitie F, Quenet F, Bereder J-M, Mansvelt B, Lorimier G, Dubè P, Glehen O (2010) Peritoneal colorectal carcinomatosis treated with surgery and perioperative intraperitoneal chemotherapy: retrospective analysis of 523 patients from a multicentric French study. J Clin Oncol 28:63–68. doi:10.1200/ JCO.2009.23.9285
- Verwaal VJ, Bruin S, Boot H, van Slooten G, van Tinteren H (2008) 8-year follow-up of randomized trial: cytoreduction and hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy versus systemic chemotherapy in patients with peritoneal carcinomatosis of colorectal cancer. Ann Surg Oncol 15:2426–2432. doi:10.1245/ s10434-008-9966-2
- Dromain C, Leboulleux S, Auperin A, Goere D, Malka D, Lumbroso J, Schumberger M, Sigal R, Elias D (2008) Staging of peritoneal carcinomatosis: enhanced CT vs. PET/CT. Abdom Imaging 33:87–93. doi:10.1007/s00261-007-9211-7
- Smyth EC, Shah MA (2011) Role of <sup>18</sup>F 2-fluoro-2-deoxyglucose positron emission tomography in upper gastrointestinal malignancies. World J Gastroenterol 17:5059–5074. doi:10.3748/wjg. v17.i46.5059
- Najah H, Lo Dico R, Grienay M, Dohan A, Dray X, Pocard M (2016) Single-incision flexible endoscopy (SIFE) for detection and staging of peritoneal carcinomatosis. Surg Endosc 30:3808– 3815. doi:10.1007/s00464-015-4682-z
- Miyake YK, Kouzu T, Takeuchi S Development of new electronic endoscopes using the spectral images of an internal organ. In: Proceedings ISTSID's Thirteen Color Imaging Conference Nov 7–11 Scottsdale (Ariz) 2005: 61–269
- Chaiteerakij R, Rerknimitr R, Kullavanijaya P (2010) Role of digital chromoendoscopy in detecting minimal change esophageal reflux disease. World J Gastrointest Endosc 2:121–129. doi:10.4253/wjge.v2.i4.121

- Miyasaka M, Hirakawa M, Nakamura K, Tanaka F, Mimori K, Mori M, Honda H (2011) The endoscopic diagnosis of nonerosive reflux disease using flexible spectral imaging color enhancement image: a feasibility trial. Dis Esophagus Off J Int Soc Dis Esophagus ISDE 24:395–400. doi:10.1111/j.1442-2050.2010.01166.x
- Camus M, Coriat R, Leblanc S, Brezault C, Terris B, Pommaret E, Gaudric M, Chryssostalis A, Prat F, Chaussade S (2012) Helpfulness of the combination of acetic acid and FICE in the detection of Barrett's epithelium and Barrett's associated neoplasias. World J Gastroenterol 18:1921–1925. doi:10.3748/wjg.v18. i16.1921
- Qumseya BJ, Wang H, Badie N, Uzomba RN, Parasa S, White DL, Wolfsen H, Sharma P, Wallace MB (2013) Advanced imaging technologies increase detection of dysplasia and neoplasia in patients with Barrett's esophagus: a meta-analysis and systematic review. Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol Off Clin Pract J Am Gastroenterol Assoc 11:1562-1570-2. doi:10.1016/j.cgh.2013.06.017
- Arantes V, Albuquerque W, Salles JMP, Freitas Dias CA, Alberti LR, Kahaleh M, Ferrari TCA, Coelho LGV (2013) Effectiveness of unsedated transnasal endoscopy with white-light, flexible spectral imaging color enhancement, and lugol staining for esophageal cancer screening in high-risk patients. J Clin Gastroenterol 47:314–321. doi:10.1097/MCG.0b013e3182617fc1
- Mouri R, Yoshida S, Tanaka S, Oka S, Yoshihara M, Chayama K (2009) Evaluation and validation of computed virtual chromoendoscopy in early gastric cancer. Gastrointest Endosc 69:1052– 1058. doi:10.1016/j.gie.2008.08.032
- Nakamura M, Nishikawa J, Goto A, Nishimura J, Hashimoto S, Okamoto T, Sakaida I (2013) Usefulness of ultraslim endoscopy with flexible spectral imaging color enhancement for detection of gastric neoplasm: a preliminary study. J Gastrointest Cancer 44:325–328. doi:10.1007/s12029-013-9500-z
- 16. Osawa H, Yamamoto H, Miura Y, Ajibe H, Shinhata H, Yoshizawa M, Sunada K, Toma S, Satoh K, Sugano K (2012) Diagnosis of depressed-type early gastric cancer using small-caliber endoscopy with flexible spectral imaging color enhancement. Dig Endosc Off J Jpn Gastroenterol Endosc Soc 24:231–236. doi:10.1111/j.1443-1661.2011.01224.x
- 17. Kaplan RN, Riba RD, Zacharoulis S, Bramley AH, Vincent L, Costa C, MacDonald DD, Jin DK, Shido K, Kerns SA, Zhu Z, Hicklin D, Wu Y, Port JL, Altorki N, Port ER, Ruggero D, Shmelkov SV, Jensen KK, Rafii S, Lyden D (2005) VEGFR1-positive haematopoietic bone marrow progenitors initiate the pre-metastatic niche. Nature 438:820–827. doi:10.1038/nature04186
- Qian C-N, Berghuis B, Tsarfaty G, Bruch M, Kort EJ, Ditlev J, Tsarfaty I, Hudson E, Jackson DG, Petillo D, Chen J, Resau JH, Teh BT (2006) Preparing the "soil": the primary tumor induces vasculature reorganization in the sentinel lymph node before the arrival of metastatic cancer cells. Cancer Res 66:10365–10376. doi:10.1158/0008-5472.CAN-06-2977
- Otto J, Jansen PL, Lucas S, Schumpelick V, Jansen M (2007) Reduction of peritoneal carcinomatosis by intraperitoneal administration of phospholipids in rats. BMC Cancer 7:104. doi:10.1186/1471-2407-7-104
- ASGE Technology Committee, Manfredi MA, Abu Dayyeh BK, Bhat YM, Chauhan SS, Gottlieb KT, Hwang JH, Komanduri S, Konda V, Lo SK, Maple JT, Murad FM, Siddiqui UD, Wallace MB, Banerjee S (2015) Electronic chromoendoscopy. Gastrointest Endosc 81:249–261. doi:10.1016/j.gie.2014.06.020
- Schnelldorfer T, Jenkins RL, Birkett DH, Wright VJ, Price LL, Georgakoudi I (2016) Laparoscopic narrow band imaging for detection of occult cancer metastases: a randomized feasibility trial. Surg Endosc 30:1656–1661. doi:10.1007/ s00464-015-4401-9

- Schnelldorfer T (2012) Image-enhanced laparoscopy: a promising technology for detection of peritoneal micrometastases. Surgery 151:345–350. doi:10.1016/j.surg.2011.12.012
- Fanfani F, Gallotta V, Rossitto C, Fagotti A, Scambia G (2010) Narrow band imaging in borderline ovarian tumor. J Minim Invasive Gynecol 17:146–147. doi:10.1016/j.jmig.2009.04.001
- Fanfani F, Rossitto C, Fagotti A, Gallotta V, Gagliardi ML, Scambia G (2011) Narrow-band imaging in laparoscopic management of cervical carcinoma. J Minim Invasive Gynecol 18:146–147. doi:10.1016/j.jmig.2010.02.001
- 25. Ishida A, Ishikawa F, Nakamura M, Miyazu YM, Mineshita M, Kurimoto N, Koike J, Nishisaka T, Miyazawa T, Astoul P (2009) Narrow band imaging applied to pleuroscopy for the assessment of vascular patterns of the pleura. Respir Int Rev Thorac Dis 78:432–439. doi:10.1159/000247335
- Schönfeld N, Schwarz C, Kollmeier J, Blum T, Bauer TT, Ott S (2009) Narrow band imaging (NBI) during medical thoracoscopy: first impressions. J Occup Med Toxicol Lond Engl 4:24. doi:10.1186/1745-6673-4-24
- Gono K, Obi T, Yamaguchi M, Ohyama N, Machida H, Sano Y, Yoshida S, Hamamoto Y, Endo T (2004) Appearance of enhanced tissue features in narrow-band endoscopic imaging. J Biomed Opt 9:568–577. doi:10.1117/1.1695563
- Kumagai Y, Inoue H, Nagai K, Kawano T, Iwai T (2002) Magnifying endoscopy, stereoscopic microscopy, and the microvascular architecture of superficial esophageal carcinoma. Endoscopy 34:369–375. doi:10.1055/s-2002-25285
- Yoshida T, Inoue H, Usui S, Satodate H, Fukami N, Kudo S (2004) Narrow-band imaging system with magnifying endoscopy for superficial esophageal lesions. Gastrointest Endosc 59:288–295

- Hu Y-Y, Lian Q-W, Lin Z-H, Zhong J, Xue M, Wang L-J (2015) Diagnostic performance of magnifying narrow-band imaging for early gastric cancer: a meta-analysis. World J Gastroenterol 21:7884–7894. doi:10.3748/wjg.v21.i25.7884
- Yu H, Yang A-M, Lu X-H, Zhou W-X, Yao F, Fei G-J, Guo T, Yao L-Q, He L-P, Wang B-M (2015) Magnifying narrow-band imaging endoscopy is superior in diagnosis of early gastric cancer. World J Gastroenterol 21:9156–9162. doi:10.3748/wjg.v21. i30.9156
- Chiu H-M, Chang C-Y, Chen C-C, Lee Y-C, Wu M-S, Lin J-T, Shun C-T, Wang H-P (2007) A prospective comparative study of narrow-band imaging, chromoendoscopy, and conventional colonoscopy in the diagnosis of colorectal neoplasia. Gut 56:373– 379. doi:10.1136/gut.2006.099614
- 33. Su M-Y, Hsu C-M, Ho Y-P, Chen P-C, Lin C-J, Chiu C-T (2006) Comparative study of conventional colonoscopy, chromoendoscopy, and narrow-band imaging systems in differential diagnosis of neoplastic and nonneoplastic colonic polyps. Am J Gastroenterol 101:2711–2716. doi:10.1111/j.1572-0241.2006.00932.x
- Binda MM, Molinas CR, Hansen P, Koninckx PR (2006) Effect of desiccation and temperature during laparoscopy on adhesion formation in mice. Fertil Steril 86:166–175. doi:10.1016/j. fertnstert.2005.11.079
- 35. Gomez-Pinilla PJ, Binda MM, Lissens A, Di Giovangiulio M, van Bree SH, Nemethova A, Stakenborg N, Farro G, Bosmans G, Matteoli G, Deprest J, Boeckxstaens GE (2014) Absence of intestinal inflammation and postoperative ileus in a mouse model of laparoscopic surgery. Neurogastroenterol Motil Off J Eur Gastrointest Motil Soc 26:1238–1247. doi:10.1111/nmo.12376

# **DISCUSSION & PERSPECTIVES**

Malgré toutes les avancées récentes dans le domaine de l'imagerie médicale, une exploration visuelle directe de la cavité péritonéale au cours d'une laparotomie exploratrice reste la référence pour le bilan exhaustif de la maladie péritonéale [87,88]. Par conséquent, une évaluation précise de la CP ne se produit finalement qu'au cours d'une laparotomie pour une éventuelle CCR-CHIP, au moment où 20 à 44% des patients se trouvent avoir une CP non résécable [43,44,89]. Or, une laparotomie non thérapeutique a une morbidité et une mortalité importantes, et retarde l'initiation d'une chimiothérapie palliative [87,90]. Afin de mieux sélectionner les potentiels candidats à une CCR complète et CHIP et d'éviter ainsi une laparotomie non thérapeutique, nous avons développé cette technique de SILPE que nous présentons dans ce travail. Notre série est à ce jour la plus grande série mondiale traitant du sujet. Dans notre technique, nous réalisons en plus de l'exploration par endoscope rigide (SIRE), une exploration par endoscope souple (SIFE). Or ce dernier est conçu à la base pour les endoscopies digestives, ce qui peut soulever quelques réserves quand à la sécurité de la procédure notamment sur le plan de l'hygiène, même si, l'endoscope utilisé est dédiée à cette procédure et n'a jamais servi pour autre chose que des endoscopies péritonéales. En effet, plusieurs composants de l'endoscope souple sont thermosensibles, ce qui rend une stérilisation classique à la vapeur d'eau (autoclave) contre-indiquée. Les endoscopes sont traités par une désinfection de haut niveau ou une stérilisation basse température, suivant les recommandations en cours [91]. Dans notre étude, sur les 183 procédures réalisées, nous n'avons relevé que deux complications infectieuses post-opératoires (1,2%) : une cholécystite alithiasique et une pneumopathie post-opératoire dont l'évolution était favorable sous traitement antibiotique. Ce taux est similaire à celui rapporté dans la littérature pour les coelioscopies exploratrices. Dans une série de 197 patients ayant eu une coelioscopie exploratrice pour le staging d'une CP, Garofalo et al [92] ont rapporté un taux de morbidité de 2,04 %, dont la moitié étaient des complications infectieuses (infection du site de trocart).

Cette technique est donc sûre et faisable. Dans notre série, elle a été possible dans 90,2% des cas, alors que plus de la moitié des patients avaient des antécédents d'au moins deux chirurgies abdominales. Elle est également efficace, puisqu'elle a permis d'identifier les patients candidats à une CCR-CHIP avec une VPP de 79,5%. Ce taux est en accord avec celui rapportée dans la littérature pour les coelioscopies exploratrices, ou la VPP de la coelioscopie pour l'identification des candidats à une CCR-CHIP variait entre 63% et 85%

[44–46,93]. Iverson et al, ont montré que l'efficacité du bilan préopératoire pour prédire la possibilité d'une CCR complète et CHIP chez les patients ayant une CP passait de 56% à 63% après incorporation dans ce bilan d'une coelioscopie exploratrice systématique en plus des examens d'imagerie [44]. La SILPE fait donc au moins aussi bien que la coelioscopie, tout en s'affranchissant du risque de MSST.

Dans notre pratique, la SILPE a été intégrée, depuis 2009, dans le bilan d'évaluation préopératoire de la CP. Même si cette procédure est parfaitement réalisable en ambulatoire, nous avons choisi de la réaliser en hospitalisation traditionnelle. Ceci permet au chirurgien de prendre le temps nécessaire pour discuter avec le patient afin de l'informer des constatations opératoires, et de lui expliquer la suite de la prise en charge, ce qui, à nos yeux, a une importance fondamentale surtout dans les cas ou la CP s'avère non résécable. Dans cette étude, la durée moyenne du séjour était de 2 jours.

La SILPE pourrait également parfaitement être réalisée juste avant une laparotomie pour CCR-CHIP, comme premier temps opératoire, comme cela a été étudié avec les coelioscopies exploratrices [94]. Cependant, nous pensons qu'il est important de réaliser ces deux interventions séparément, et ce pour plusieurs raisons: tout d'abord, ceci permet de donner au patient une information précise sur la chirurgie qui va suivre, les organes qui risquent d'être réséqués, de la possibilité d'une stomie, d'un drainage thoracique ou encore d'une salpingectomie. Un consentement éclairé peut ainsi être obtenu. Si une splénectomie est prévue, une vaccination pourra être réalisée avant la CCR-CHIP. Par ailleurs, en terme d'économie de santé, une CCR-CHIP annulée au dernier moment engendre un surcoût important et entrave le bon fonctionnement du bloc opératoire.

Nous avons montré que la SILPE permet une exploration exhaustive de la cavité péritonéale avec une moyenne de 12.2 ± 1.6 régions explorées. Cependant, et en accord avec ce qui a été publié pour les coelioscopies exploratrices [94,95], le PCI lors de la SILPE était sous estimé dans notre étude. Cette différence peut être expliquée en partie par un délai médian de 27 jours entre la SILPE et la laparotomie. Mais elle est surtout expliquée par la faible sensibilité de la SILPE dans le diagnostic des petits nodules de CP localisés au niveau de l'intestin grêle (régions 9, 10, 11 et 12), et qui était de 50 % (Etendue de 44% à 53%).

Dans notre technique, la combinaison du SIRE et du SIFE a permis une meilleure exploration de certaines régions difficiles d'accès tel que les coupoles diaphragmatiques et le pelvis, comme nous l'avons montré dans une étude précédente [54]. Mais, nous constatons que l'exploration de l'intestin grêle reste difficile, et peut passer à coté de petits nodules de CP surtout lorsqu'il s'agit de microlésions disséminées sur le mésentère. D'ailleurs dans notre expérience, l'extraction de l'intestin grêle en fin d'intervention à travers l'orifice du monotrocart permet, chez certains patients maigres, une inspection et une palpation directe, qui peuvent parfois retrouver des lésions passées inaperçues lors de la SILPE.

Cette faible sensibilité de la SILPE dans la détection de petits nodules sur l'intestin grêle n'est donc pas due uniquement à un défaut d'exposition, et souligne les difficultés que peut avoir l'œil nu pour détecter à travers un écran de coelioscopie des petites lésions blanchâtres sur l'intestin grêle et son mésentère, ou d'ailleurs partout ailleurs dans la cavité péritonéale.

En effet, en coelioscopie comme en endoscopie, l'image projetée constitue une interface visuelle entre le chirurgien et le champ opératoire. La qualité de cette image a une importance cruciale pour une perception visuelle correcte et par conséquent pour un bon discernement et une bonne exécution des gestes opératoires. Or malgré toutes les avancées technologiques de ces dernières années, les systèmes d'imagerie vidéo font toujours moins bien que l'œil humain. En effet, la perte de la vision binoculaire est toujours synonyme de perte en qualité de l'image [96,97].

Cependant, ce qui est demandé aujourd'hui à un système d'imagerie vidéo c'est de faire encore mieux que l'œil humain, puisqu'en une coelioscopie classique comme en monotrocart, le chirurgien ne peut pas palper directement les structures.

Ceci est d'autant plus vrai pour la détection de la CP, ou la visualisation directe et la palpation des tissus permet toujours de détecter des petites lésions qui sont à peine visibles sur un écran lors d'une coelioscopie en LB.

En permettant une accentuation du contraste entre les lésions pathologiques et les tissus avoisinants, nous avons supposé que la chromoendoscopie virtuelle pourrait être utile pour l'exploration de la cavité péritonéale en général et la détection de la CP en particulier. A ce jour, seul le système NBI a été couplé à un endoscope rigide pour être utilisé lors d'une coelioscopie classique. Par conséquent c'est le seul système de chromoendoscopie virtuelle qui a été étudié dans cette indication. Dans une étude comparative, Schnelldorfer et all, ont montré que le NBI permettait un meilleur contraste et une meilleure visualisation de l'architecture vasculaire, mais qu'il n'était pas supérieur à la LB dans la détection des nodules de CP [98]. Trois case report publiés suggèrent des résultats similaires, à savoir une meilleure visualisation de l'architecture micro-vasculaire permettant une meilleure identification de la CP [99–101]. Le NBI a également été étudié en thoracoscopie, pour l'exploration de la cavité pleurale et la détection d'une carcinose pleurale, mais comme pour la cavité péritonéale, hormis une visualisation plus claire des lésions, le NBI ne permet pas de détecter plus de lésions que la LB [102,103].

Le système NBI ne semble donc pas avoir en coelioscopie les mêmes performances qu'il a en endoscopie digestive. Ceci nous paraît parfaitement logique, puisque les structures ne sont pas les mêmes. L'histologie du péritoine, son épaisseur et son architecture vasculaire sont différentes de la muqueuse digestive. Par conséquent les longueurs d'ondes d'intérêt peuvent également être différentes. Or, comme nous l'avons vu plus haut, le NBI ne produit qu'une image unique obtenue par le placement d'un filtre optique ne laissant passer que deux bandes étroites de lumière centrées sur les longueurs d'ondes 415 nm et 540 nm.

Nous avons donc, dans ce travail, choisi d'utiliser le système FICE, qui offre la possibilité de switcher entre 10 réglages présélectionnés par le fabriquant, ce qui augmente théoriquement les chances de trouver un réglage adapté à l'exploration du péritoine. Par ailleurs, il est possible de manipuler les images spectrales, produites par le processeur, qui couvrent tout le spectre de la lumière visible. Il existe 60 permutations possibles, les longueurs d'ondes pouvant être augmentées par intervalle de 5 nm, de 400 nm à 695 nm.

L'objectif de l'article 3 de cette thèse était de déterminer le canal du FICE le plus adapté à l'exploration de la cavité péritonéale et la détection des nodules de CP. En raison du nombre élevé des canaux du FICE ne permettant pas une évaluation précise et poussée de tous les canaux en une seule fois, nous avons opté pour la réalisation de deux questionnaires. Le premier questionnaire a permis de sélectionner, avec une ANOVA très significative (p<0,0001) les 3 meilleurs canaux du FICE qui étaient, dans l'ordre décroissant des notes qui leur étaient attribuées, les canaux 6, 2 et 9. Les notes moyennes de ces canaux étaient 6,21 ± 1,59 ; 6,17 ± 1,48 et 6,06 ± 1,52 respectivement. Au test HSD de Tukey, ces notes étaient supérieures à celles de tous les autres canaux, de manière significative. Par contre, elles étaient toutes inférieures à la note attribuée à la LB qui était de 6,53 ± 1,46. Ceci peut s'expliquer par le fait que pour ce premier questionnaire, aucune question spécifique n'a été posée aux évaluateurs, et ces notes n'étaient basées que sur leurs impressions globales sur la qualité des images. Les différents canaux du FICE ont des longueurs d'ondes réduites, ce qui fait que les images obtenues sont toujours plus sombres que celles de la LB. Or la

luminosité d'une image est un des critères majeurs de qualité. D'ailleurs les canaux choisis étaient ceux qui avaient les longueurs d'ondes les plus élevées. Le canal d'entrée rouge du canal 6 a une longueur d'onde à 580 nm, qui est la plus élevée du système FICE. Donc, d'une manière tout à fait spontanée, c'est la luminosité qui a été notée au cours de ce questionnaire. Lors du 2<sup>ème</sup> questionnaire, une question spécifique sur la luminosité était posée aux évaluateurs, et là encore, les résultats étaient en harmonie avec le premier questionnaire, dans la mesure ou c'est la LB qui était la mieux classée, et venait en 1<sup>ère</sup> position dans environ 40 % des cas. Le groupe des évaluateurs séniors l'avait classée 1<sup>ère</sup> dans 43% des cas. Pour ce même groupe, la LB permettait aussi de mieux différentier les organes que les canaux du FICE. En effet sur la question relative à la différentiation d'organes, le groupe des évaluateurs séniors a classé la LB 1<sup>ère</sup> dans 41.7% des cas, loin devant les canaux 6 et 2 qui étaient classés 1<sup>ers</sup> dans 24.3% et 22.6% des cas respectivement. Ces résultats peuvent être expliqués par le fait que ce groupe d'évaluateurs était constitué par des chirurgiens séniors ayant une grande expérience en chirurgie coelioscopique, et donc habitués à opérer en LB. Les internes, qui étaient moins habitué à la coelioscopie, trouvaient que le canal 2 du FICE permettait une meilleure différentiation d'organes et le classaient 1<sup>er</sup> dans 34% des cas, contre 30% pour la LB. Les externes, qui n'avaient que très peu ou pas du tout d'expérience, et dont le regard n'est pas encore habitué à l'image coelioscopique en LB, trouvaient que celle-ci était très mauvaise pour la différentiation d'organes et ne la classaient 1<sup>ère</sup> que dans 13.9% des cas. Le canal 2 du FICE était jugé le meilleur dans 36 % des cas contre 30% pour le canal 6 et 20% pour le canal 9 (p<0,0001). Nous pensons que ces résultats sont intéressants parce qu'une différentiation correcte entre les organes est à la base même d'une bonne exploration chirurgicale et est indispensable pour la réalisation d'une chirurgie de qualité. Or, les plus jeunes d'entre nous, dont l'esprit n'a pas encore été « formaté » par une vision classique en LB, disent voir beaucoup mieux avec une lumière composée de longueurs d'ondes réduites, notamment ici avec le canal 2 du FICE (Rλ-550 nm, Gλ-500 nm, Bλ-470 nm). Cette constatation doit nous amener à réfléchir sur les innovations futures en coelioscopie, et à penser une chirurgie avec une lumière autre que la LB. Nous pensons, que des études futures doivent explorer cette piste afin de comparer la qualité de la chirurgie en fonction de la lumière utilisée.

Enfin, pour tous les autres paramètres étudiés, à savoir le contraste, l'architecture vasculaire et surtout la détection des nodules de CP, c'est également le canal 2 qui a été jugé le meilleur, pour tous les groupes d'évaluateurs, et de façon très significative.

Dans le 4<sup>ème</sup> papier de cette thèse, nous avons présenté notre modèle murin de CP naissante. Il s'agit d'un modèle efficace et reproductible. Le PCI ainsi que la taille des nodules augmentaient avec le temps. Les sites de prédilection de la CP étaient les mêmes que chez l'homme, sauf pour le pelvis qui n'était que rarement atteint (6% des cas dans note étude), probablement en raison d'une anatomie différente avec une absence d'un vrai Cul de sac de Douglas, qui n'est vraiment profond et déclive que chez les espèces bipèdes. Dans notre étude, l'histoire naturelle de la CP a été étudiée sur des souris différentes. En effet, après chaque intervention, la souris était sacrifiée. Ce choix du plan de l'étude reposait sur plusieurs arguments : premièrement, nous avons choisi de faire un examen anatomopathologique systématique de toutes les lésions étudiées même si l'aspect macroscopique était fortement évocateur de CP. D'un autre côté, les phénomènes inflammatoires liés à la cicatrisation, voir le risque de voir « flamber » la carcinose, auraient pu fausser l'exploration endoscopique, si jamais on avait pris le parti de suivre la CP chez une même souris.

Dans ce travail, nous n'avons malheureusement pas pu réaliser de vraies coelioscopies chez nos souris. En effet, la coelioscopie chez la souris nécessite un matériel adapté et notamment un endoscope de 2 mm [104,105], or il n'y a pas encore d'endoscope de cette taille capable d'être intégré au vidéo processeur du FICE. Nous avons donc essayé de reconstituer, de façon artisanale, l'environnement de coelioscopie en créant une boite noire afin d'éviter que la lumière extérieure ne vienne interférer avec la lumière de l'endoscope. La souris, chez qui on réalisait une laparotomie, était placée dans cette boite noire pour exploration. Grâce à deux ouvertures, permettant le passage de l'endoscope et du respirateur, nous avons pu approcher un environnement de coelioscopie et réaliser les interventions chez des souris vivantes. Ce dernier point est d'une importance cruciale, puisque l'absence d'une circulation sanguine aurait faussé les résultats, l'hémoglobine étant le principal facteur d'absorption de la lumière visible.

Même s'il nous a permis de réaliser ce travail, ce système artisanal, a cependant plusieurs limites. Outre le problème de la stabilité de l'image, le principal problème rencontré était un

102

problème d'exposition. En effet, pour s'exposer afin de visualiser les différentes régions du PCI, nous étions obligé à chaque fois d'ouvrir la boite, de refouler les structures avec une pince, pour se réinstaller après en « coelioscopie ». Par conséquent, notre exploration endoscopique était guidée par les lésions visibles en laparotomie, donc en LB. Nous n'avons d'ailleurs pas découvert en FICE de lésions invisibles à l'œil nu.

Malgré ces insuffisances, nous avons tout de même réussi à identifier la lumière monochromatique du spectre visible qui permettrait le meilleur contraste entre un nodule de CP et le péritoine avoisinant. Des études futures doivent être menées chez l'homme afin de tester cette lumière ( $\lambda$ =460 nm) et d'étudier son apport éventuel pour la détection des petits nodules de CP. Une étude comparant cette lumière à la LB peut, par exemple, être menée lors d'une SILPE réalisée chez les patients à haut risque de CP.

# ANNEXES

### Annexe 1 :

## Single-incision flexible endoscopy (SIFE) for detection and staging of peritoneal carcinomatosis.

Haythem Najah, Réa Lo Dico, Marion Grieney, Anthony Dohan, Xavier Dray, Marc Pocard. Surg Endosc. 2016 Sep;30(9):3808-15.



# Single-incision flexible endoscopy (SIFE) for detection and staging of peritoneal carcinomatosis

Haythem Najah<sup>1,2</sup> · Réa Lo Dico<sup>1,2</sup> · Marion Grienay<sup>3</sup> · Anthony Dohan<sup>2,4</sup> · Xavier Dray<sup>5</sup> · Marc Pocard<sup>1,2</sup>

Received: 16 June 2015/Accepted: 14 November 2015/Published online: 10 December 2015 © Springer Science+Business Media New York 2015

#### Abstract

*Objective* To show the feasibility and the safety of peritoneal carcinomatosis (PC) evaluation by single-incision flexible endoscopy (SIFE) and to compare it to single-incision rigid endoscopy (SIRE).

*Background* Direct peritoneal visualization, either by laparotomy or laparoscopy, continues to be the gold standard in diagnosing PC. We reported, in animal study, that combining single-incision laparoscopic surgery and flexible endoscopy improved evaluation of the peritoneal cavity in a live porcine model and in four human cadavers.

*Methods* Patients, undergoing surgical exploration for diagnosis and staging of PC, were included in a prospective study. Using a superiority design a sample size of 47 patients was determined. Through a single incision, a standardized peritoneoscopy was conducted with rigid (SIRE) and with flexible endoscope (SIFE). Primary outcome was the access success rates for the 13 regions of the Peritoneal Carcinomatosis Index (PCI).

Haythem Najah haythem.najah@gmail.com

<sup>1</sup> Department of Oncologic and Digestive Surgery, Hôpital Lariboisière-AP-HP, 2 rue Ambroise Paré, 75475 Paris Cedex 10, France

- <sup>2</sup> Sorbonne Paris Cité, CART, INSERM U965, Université Paris Diderot, 74575 Paris, France
- <sup>3</sup> Department of Anesthesiology, Hôpital Lariboisière-AP-HP, 2 rue Ambroise Paré, 75475 Paris Cedex 10, France
- <sup>4</sup> Department of Abdominal Imaging, Hôpital Lariboisière-AP-HP, 2 rue Ambroise Paré, 75475 Paris Cedex 10, France
- <sup>5</sup> Department of Gastroenterology, Hôpital Lariboisière-AP-HP, 2 rue Ambroise Paré, 75475 Paris Cedex 10, France

*Results* Overall access to the 13 regions of PCI was successful in 83 % of the cases with SIRE and in 91.1 % with SIFE ( $p < 10^{-10}$ ). SIFE access rates were superior to SIREs' in the regions: R1 (87.2 vs. 61.7 %, p = 0.002), R2 (87.2 vs. 66 %, p = 0.004), R3 (85.1 vs. 59.6 %, p = 0.001) and R6 (80.9 vs. 61.7 %, p = 0.008). The mean PCI was higher ( $p < 10^4$ ) with SIFE 12.77 (±11.97) than with SIRE 11.77 (±11.63).

*Conclusion* This prospective, comparative study shows that SIFE was significantly superior to SIRE in the exploration of some difficult-to-access peritoneal areas, located in regions 1, 2, 3 and 6. These two minimally invasive staging procedures are safe, feasible and have to be seen as complementary rather than competing.

**Keywords** Minimally invasive surgery · Single-incision laparoscopic surgery · Peritoneal carcinomatosis · Peritoneoscopy · Laparoendoscopic single-site surgery

Peritoneal carcinomatosis (PC) was considered a terminal condition with a merely palliative treatment, which included only supportive care, palliative surgery and the best systemic chemotherapy. Since the birth of the concept of cytoreductive surgery (CRS) and hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy (HIPEC), the management of PC changed dramatically. In fact, it has been proven that CRS/ HIPEC improves survival in patients with PC of colorectal origin [1]. CRS with HIPEC framed by systemic chemotherapy is now proposed with curative intention in selected cases of limited PC from colonic and ovarian origin [2–4].

The Achilles heel of CRS and HIPEC is appropriate patient selection, in order to prevent from excessive morbidity and mortality. Among the criteria of patient's selection, the evaluation of the extension of the peritoneal disease through the Peritoneal Carcinomatosis Index (PCI) is one of the most important [5]. The PCI is an independent prognostic factor for survival. The lower the PCI, the better the prognosis maybe also due to the fact that a complete cytoreduction becomes more likely [6].

An accurate evaluation of the PCI is therefore required in order to select the patients eligible for CRS and HIPEC. Current imaging methods are not sensitive enough for the diagnosis and staging of limited PC and often do not detect small tumor nodules [7].

Computed tomography scan, which remains the standard imaging modality in the assessment of PC [8], misses 30-45 % of peritoneal nodules or lesions, in particular if these are smaller than 5 mm [9, 10]. Thus, the extent of PC is difficult to evaluate preoperatively, and precise evaluation is most often performed during surgical exploration [11]. Some institutions utilize laparoscopy for that purpose [12–15].

Due to the risk of tumoral spreading through the lateral ports into the abdominal wall muscles [16], we believe that the conventional triangle laparoscopy is not the most suitable option for the evaluation of PC.

It is true that the reported incidence of port site metastases in laparoscopic surgery has declined notably compared with early publications [17]. However, metastatic tumor seeding in surgical scars in the setting of PC in candidates for CRS/ HIPEC has not been studied as much. In a recently published study, Nunez et al. [18] showed that one-third (34 %) of the patients with a history of laparoscopic procedure prior to CRS/HIPEC had port site metastases at the time of CRS/ HIPEC. This rate reaches 42 %, if laparoscopy was performed for tumor staging purposes.

The occurrence of port site metastases can make the cytoreduction impossible, especially in some etiologies, such as mesothelioma [19]. Moreover, an extensive abdominal wall resection in order to achieve a complete cytoreduction increases significantly the morbidity of the procedure [20].

In our institution, all the peritoneal exploration procedures for diagnosis and staging of PC are performed via single-incision laparoscopic surgery. We called this procedure single-incision rigid endoscopy (SIRE).

We found, however, that the SIRE did not allow to properly explore the whole abdominal cavity. In fact, rigid endoscopy has some limitations in terms of ergonomic and lack of triangulation, due to the coaxial position of the instruments. Moreover, this procedure can be challenging, especially in those patients previously operated on.

We hypothesized that combining single-incision laparoscopic surgery and flexible endoscopy may overcome these pitfalls. We called this procedure single-incision flexible endoscopy (SIFE). We, therefore, performed an animal study comparing flexible and rigid single-port peritoneoscopy [21]. A standardized exploration of the peritoneal cavity was conducted in a porcine model, using the two techniques, aiming to access 11 elective sites of PC. We found that the overall rate of access to target was significantly higher in SIFE than in SIRE, 98 and 87 %, respectively (p < 0.001). Based on these encouraging results, we tried to transpose this new technique to humans.

The aim of this study is to show the feasibility and the safety of the SIFE technique in clinical practice, than to evaluate its diagnostic impact through a comparison between this technique and the rigid endoscopy SIRE.

#### Materials and methods

This is a prospective study, and all the patients were systematically informed of the aim of the study. Institutional review board approval was obtained from the local ethics committee.

The study was carried out in the Department of Surgical Oncology in Lariboisière Hospital (Assistance Publique Hôpitaux de Paris), which is a tertiary care center for PC.

We included patients, with histologically proven malignant disease, who underwent surgical exploration for diagnosis and staging of PC. The indications were staging of a carcinomatosis already diagnosed with imaging (CT scan and MRI), restaging after neoadjuvant chemotherapy, restaging during follow-up in the case of dubious imaging and restaging after adjuvant chemotherapy.

Through a single incision, a standardized peritoneoscopy was conducted with a rigid optic (SIRE) and with a flexible endoscope (SIFE), in a random order and in a back-to-back manner (i.e., one technique right after the other during the same operation).

#### Access to peritoneal cavity

Under general anesthesia, and in a supine position, a 25-mm paraumbilical midline incision was made. A sponge-like SILS<sup>TM</sup> port (Covidien France, Elancourt) was inserted through this incision. The SILS<sup>TM</sup> port was connected to a standard autoregulated laparoscopic insufflator (Electronic  $CO_2$  Endoflator; Karl Storz Endoscopy, Guyancourt, France) to create and maintain 12 mm Hg  $CO_2$  pneumoperitoneum.

#### Single-incision rigid endoscopy (SIRE)

A 10-mm-diameter, 60-cm-long, 30° axial optic (27425 P; Karl Storz Endoscopy, Guyancourt, France) and two 5-mm rigid laparoscopic graspers were inserted through the SILS<sup>TM</sup> port. A senior surgeon experienced in laparoscopy and in oncologic surgery performed all the SIRE procedures.

#### Single-incision flexible endoscopy (SIFE)

A 10.8-mm-diameter, 110-cm-long, Fujinon<sup>®</sup> gastroscope EG-490ZW5 (Fujifilm Medical Systems France, Montigny Le Bretec, France) was inserted through the SILS<sup>TM</sup> port. The endoscope distal tip could be deflected in four directions: 210° up, 90° down, 100° left, 100° right. If needed, two 5-mm rigid laparoscopic graspers were also inserted through the SILS<sup>TM</sup> port. Another senior surgeon with 3-year experience in endoscopy performed all the SIFE procedures.

#### Peritoneoscopy

Standardized exploration of the peritoneal cavity was conducted quadrant by quadrant using the two techniques in random order, aiming to access the 13 regions of PCI as described by Sugarbaker [22].

The procedures were only exploratory, and no extensive dissection was made. The viscerolysis was limited to the essential minimum to avoid iatrogenic lesions. For both techniques, and in order to facilitate access to the different regions when not reachable in supine position, the table was rolled laterally side to side possibly combined with Trendelenburg or anti-Trendelenburg position, up to 30°. These positions were often needed to adequately expose the pelvis and the diaphragmatic domes.

For each technique, we noted whether a complete exploration of each of the 13 regions was possible or not, and then, the PCI was calculated. Evaluation of access to the different regions was based on operators' consensus. An independent nurse scored the results for all the procedures.

Depending on the region explored, the exploration was considered successful if it allowed complete visualization of specific areas and anatomic structures:

- For the Region 0: The greater omentum and the transverse colon.
- For the Region 1: The superior surface of the right lobe of the liver and the under surface of the right hemidiaphragm to the peritoneal reflection at the level of the coronary ligament of the liver.
- For Region 2: The left lobe of the liver, the falciform ligament, the lesser omentum and the hepatic hilum.
- For Region 3: The spleen, the anterior surface of the stomach and the under surface of the left hemidiaphragm to the peritoneal reflection at the level of the phreno-splenic ligament.

- For Region 4: The descending colon and the left abdominal gutter.
- For Region 5: The sigmoid colon and the pelvic sidewall lateral to the sigmoid colon.
- For Region 6: The upper rectum, the Douglas pouch, the female internal genitalia with ovaries, tubes and uterus, and the bladder.
- For Region 7: The cecum, the appendix and the right pelvic sidewall.
- For Region 8: The ascending colon and the right abdominal gutter.
- For Region 9: The upper jejunum and its mesentery.
- For Region 10: The lower jejunum and its mesentery.
- For Region 11: The upper ileum and its mesentery.
- For Region 12: The lower ileum and its mesentery.

#### Outcome parameters and statistical analysis

Primary outcome parameters were the feasibility of the procedure and the access success rates for the 13 regions of the PCI. Evaluation of the successful access to these regions was based on operators' consensus.

Secondary outcomes were the safety of the procedure, the complications and the diagnostic impact defined as the difference in PCI between the two techniques.

For the primary endpoint, a superiority design was used to compare SIFE and SIRE. Using  $\alpha = 0.05$  and  $1-\beta = 0.8$ , and assuming that SIFE has a sensitivity of at least 98 % and SIRE a sensitivity of 87 %, a sample size of at least 47 patients was determined.

Mc Nemar's test was used for comparison of qualitative data, and Student's *t* test for paired data was used for comparison of continuous variables.

#### Results

Between October 2009 and October 2012, 50 patients underwent surgical exploration for diagnosis and staging of PC in our institution. Among these patients, 3 were excluded from the study because of the impossibility to access the peritoneal cavity. In the remaining 47 cases, both SIRE and SIFE access to the peritoneal cavity was successfully achieved.

In 45 patients (95.74 %), the SILS<sup>TM</sup> port was inserted through a para-umbilical midline incision. The two other patients (4.26 %) underwent stoma closure at the same operative time. The lateral hole of the stoma was therefore used to introduce the SILS<sup>TM</sup> port.

Among the patients enrolled in this study, 25 were male and 22 female. The median age was 54 (range 25–76). The median weight was 68 kg (range 47–103). The median
Table 1 Patients and primary tumor characteristics

Gender					
Male	25 (53.2 %)				
Female	22 (46.8 %)				
Mean age $\pm$ SD (year)	$53 \pm 11.3$				
Mean weight $\pm$ SD (Kg)	$68 \pm 12.6$				
Mean size $\pm$ SD (m)	$1.72\pm0.09$				
Mean BMI $\pm$ SD (Kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	$23\pm3.66$				
Previous surgical history n (%)					
None	12 (25.5 %)				
Laparoscopy	3 (6.4 %)				
One laparotomy	18 (38.3 %)				
Two laparotomies	8 (17 %)				
Three laparotomies or more	6 (6.4 %)				
Primary tumor site $n$ (%)					
Colorectal	24 (51.1 %)				
Stomach	14 (29.8 %)				
$PMP^{a}$	3 (6.4 %)				
Ovary	2 (4.3 %)				
Unknown	2 (4.3 %)				
Small bowel	1 (2.1 %)				
Appendix	1 (2.1 %)				

<sup>a</sup> Pseudomyxoma peritonei

BMI was 22.9 kg/m<sup>2</sup> (range 16.2–36.5). 74.5 % of the patients had previous abdominal surgery. The origin of the suspected carcinomatosis was mostly either colorectal (51.1 %) or gastric (29.8 %). The patients and tumors characteristics are summarized in Table 1.

Navigation into the peritoneal cavity was found to be easy in both techniques. Overall access to the 13 regions of PCI was successful in 83 % of the cases with SIRE and in 91.1 % with SIFE ( $p < 10^{-10}$ ) (Table 2).

Both techniques showed similar access rates to the regions 0, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11 and 12. SIFE access rates were superior to SIREs' in the regions: R1 (87.2 vs. 61.7 %, p = 0.002), R2 (87.2 vs. 66 %, p = 0.004), R3 (85.1 vs. 59.6 %, p = 0.001) and R6 (80.9 vs. 61.7 %, p = 0.008).

There was no significant difference for successful access to the different regions of PCI for both SIFE and SIRE, between male and female, and between the different types of carcinomatosis. These rates were also independent from the number of previous laparotomies. The order of procedures (SIFE first or SIRE first) did not significantly influence the results.

The mean peritoneal score for the extent of the peritoneal seeding was significantly higher ( $p < 10^{-4}$ ) with the SIFE procedure 12.77 than with the SIRE procedure 11.77.

The mean difference in PCI was 1 point. The PCI was the same in half of the cases. There was a difference of at least 2 points of PCI, in 25 % of the cases. The maximal difference noted was 5 points.

Patients eligible for HIPEC (PCI < 20) represented 66 % (31/47) of the patients. For this group, the PCI was significantly higher (p = 0.0005) with the SIFE procedure (7.10 ± 6.51) than with the SIRE procedure (6.16 ± 5.89). The results were similar for the remaining group of patients with a PCI ≥20, who represented 34 % (16/47) of the total. For this group, the PCI with the SIFE (27.06 ± 7.38) was also significantly higher (p = 0.005) than the PCI with the SIRE (25.56 ± 7.38).

Three patients (6.4 %) had an evaluation score of PCI <20 with the SIRE procedure and >20 with the SIFE procedure.

No postoperative mortality was observed. Postoperative complications occurred in two patients (4.3 %) and included an acute acalculus cholecystitis in one case and a postoperative pneumonia in the other. These two Grade II complications evolved well under medical treatment. The mean hospital stay was 2.8 days (range 2–6).

#### Discussion

This prospective study is the first to compare flexible and rigid endoscopic trans-umbilical exploration of the peritoneal cavity. We show that both techniques allow easy and

 Table 2
 Access rates to the different regions of peritoneal carcinomatosis by single-incision rigid endoscopy (SIRE) and single-incision flexible endoscopy (SIFE)

	R0	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	R6	R7	R8	R9	R10	R11	R12	Total
SIRE	46/47	29/47	31/47	28/47	43/47	41/47	29/47	42/47	44/47	41/47	47/47	43/47	43/47	507/611
	97.9 %	61.7 %	66 %	59.6 %	91.5 %	87.2 %	61.7 %	89.4 %	93.6 %	87.2 %	100 %	91.5 %	91.5 %	83 %
SIFE	46/47	41/47	41/47	40/47	45/47	42/47	38/47	43/47	45/47	43/47	47/47	43/47	43/47	557/611
	97.9 %	87.2 %	87.2 %	85.1 %	95.7 %	89.4 %	80.9 %	91.5 %	95.7 %	91.5 %	100 %	91.5 %	91.5 %	91.2 %
$P^{\mathrm{a}}$	$NA^b$	0.001	0.004	0.001	0.48	1	0.008	1	1	0.48	$NA^b$	$NA^b$	$NA^b$	$< 10^{-11}$

<sup>a</sup> McNemar's Chi-squared test

<sup>b</sup> Not available-perfect concordance between the two variables

safe minimally invasive navigation into the peritoneal cavity and staging of PC.

Despite major advances in imaging technology in the last few years, the early and adequate detection of peritoneal dissemination remains challenging because of the great variety in size, morphology and location of the peritoneal lesions. Thus, the gold standard in diagnosing PC continues to be the direct peritoneal visualization, either by laparotomy or laparoscopy [11, 23].

Laparoscopic exploration of the abdomen supplements the information provided by the imaging techniques and enables direct visual assessment of peritoneal involvement. It is associated with less pain, shorter hospitalization and quicker time to recovery in comparison with laparotomy [8]. Valle and Garofalo [24] used laparoscopy to stage 97 cases of PC and achieved full laparoscopic PCI assessment in 96/97 cases, while only 2/96 cases were understaged. There was a good correlation between the open successive surgery data and the laparoscopic PCI. Pomel et al. [25] achieved complete cytoreduction in seven of the eight patients who were considered resectable by laparoscopy.

Despite these advantages, there are two major limitations associated with laparoscopy. First, it is technically challenging, especially in patients with extensive prior surgery. In fact, a complete and systematic exploration of the entire abdominal cavity and the direct palpation of the peritoneum are only possible with laparotomy [26].

The second major concern is the risk of port track seeding. In order to prevent this risk, some authors propose to place all laparoscopy trocars in the midline and to resect the scars at the time of cytoreduction [25]. In a recently published study, Nunez et al. [18] showed that 42 % of patients who underwent diagnostic laparoscopy for staging of PC developed port site metastases. This complication was an independent prognosis factor in patients with PC.

In our institution, because of the risk of malignant cells spread through the trocar tract, all the PC-staging procedures are performed via single-incision laparoscopy. This minimally invasive technique allows using three instruments through a single port. Several human series have demonstrated its feasibility, with low morbidity and mortality [27–29].

We found that this procedure was feasible in 94 % of the cases (47/50). Two of the three failures were cases of pseudomyxoma peritonei with extensive PCI. The third case was a patient with PC from colic cancer who had undergone 4 prior laparotomies. In all three cases, the access to the peritoneal cavity was impossible, even after a second upper midline laparotomy, because of thick cancerous adhesions between the small bowel loops and the abdominal wall.

However, this single-incision laparoscopic surgery exploration generates new challenges and magnifies

difficulties compared with conventional laparoscopic surgery [30].

The handling of straight instruments in parallel with the laparoscope through a small single-incision decreases the range of movements for the surgeon and complicates the holding of the camera by the assistant [31]. Furthermore, the lack of instrument triangulation increases the complexity of organ exposure and exploration.

In order to overcome these pitfalls, we combined singleincision laparoscopic surgery and flexible endoscopy. We called this technique SIFE (single-incision flexible endoscopy). We showed that this technique consistently allowed comprehensive evaluation of the peritoneal cavity in a live porcine model, as well as in four human cadavers [21]. Some authors had described trans-umbilical endoscopic surgeries, mainly appendectomy and cholecystectomy [32– 34]. This is the first study that evaluates this new technique in the detection of PC.

We showed that the flexible endoscope allows better overall access to the 13 regions of PCI than the rigid laparoscope (91.2 vs. 83 %). The access rates to the regions 1, 2, 3 and 6 were statistically superior by SIFE in comparison with SIRE, 87.2 versus 61.7 %, 87.2 versus 66 %, 85.1 versus 59.6 % and 80.9 versus 61.7 %, respectively. These results can be explained by great deflection capacities of the distal tip of the flexible endoscope, which expands visualization possibilities in some areas difficult of access even with the 30° angled laparoscope. These difficult-to-access areas include the peritoneal reflection at the level of the coronary ligament of the liver in the Region 1, the peritoneal reflection at the level of the phreno-splenic ligament in the Region 3, the falciform ligament and the hepatic hilum in the Region 2 and the Douglas pouch in the Region 6.

There was no difference in the access rates to the other regions between the two techniques. The small bowel exploration was excellent with the two techniques. This result seems obvious because of the central position of the small bowel. It is also of major importance due to the fact that an extensive involvement of the small bowel and its mesentery can compromise the feasibility of cytoreductive surgery.

The mean PCI was also significantly higher ( $p < 10^4$ ) with SIFE 12.77 (±11.97) than with SIRE 11.77 (±11.63). The results were similar for the patients suitable for HIPEC (p = 0.0005), as well as the patients who had a PCI  $\geq 20$ (p = 0.005). In 25 % of the cases, the difference in PCI between the two techniques was at least equal to 2. This fact is of crucial importance, knowing that the PCI is the main prognosis factor of PC. It serves as an estimate of probability of complete cytoreduction and has been found to be an accurate assessment of survival when cytoreductive surgery and intraperitoneal chemotherapy are used as treatment [22, 35, 36]. The evaluation of the PCI with the SIFE had a therapeutic impact, in that it could help and even change decision making. In our study, three patients (6.38 %) with a PCI evaluation with SIRE <20 had in fact a PCI  $\geq$ 20 with SIFE and were, therefore, in theory, not eligible for HIPEC.

However, a major limitation was associated with SIFE because of its flexibility. In fact holding a flexible endoscope in a stable position in the peritoneal cavity is quiet difficult. In order to overcome this lack of stability, the assistant surgeon holds the trocar and maintains the torque of the flexible endoscope. Moreover, the SILS<sup>TM</sup> port system and the abdominal wall thickness allowed a certain degree of stability compatible with a comprehensive and convincing peritoneal exploration. This is not the case of trans-gastric peritoneal exploration, where the lack of stability is due to the thinness of the gastric wall [37]. Voermens et al. [38] showed in a prospective, randomized, controlled study in pigs that trans-gastric NOTES was inferior to laparoscopic surgery for evaluation of PC extension.

The problem of lack of stability may be solved by the use of the flexible tip laparoscope [39]. More studies are needed to evaluate this newly developed technology in detection and staging of PC.

Although SIFE and SIRE demonstrated significantly different results in terms of access rates to the different regions of the PCI, the two techniques should be seen as complementary rather than competing. In fact, SIRE offers interesting capabilities in terms of intraperitoneal navigation, with good overall access to most sites (83 %). It does not require any experience in endoscopy and is therefore feasible by the majority of surgeons. SIFE can be associated with the procedure in order to explore the difficult-to-access areas that we defined.

The last outcome of this prospective study was the safety of the procedure. Because many of the components of the flexible endoscope are temperature sensitive, steam sterilization was not possible, and low-temperature chemical methods, such as liquid chemical germicide, were used. However, the SIFE does not seem to increase the morbidity. In fact, the flexible endoscope was dedicated to the procedure.

Following the guidelines on reprocessing flexible gastrointestinal endoscopes, a high-level disinfection was performed after each procedure [40].

No mortality was observed. There were 2 grade II complications [41], an acalculous cholecystitis in one case and a postoperative pneumonia in the other. The evolution was good in the two cases under medical treatment. Garofalo et al. [42] reported a morbidity rate of 2.04 % in 197 patients who underwent laparoscopic staging of peritoneal surface malignancies (2 cases of infection of the

trocar insertion site, one diaphragm perforation and one intraoperative bleeding). We consider that SIRE and SIFE entail a small risk of complications, which is in contrast to exploratory surgery where high mortality (20–36 %) and morbidity (12–23 %) rates are observed in diagnostic laparotomies performed in advanced tumor case series [43].

This prospective study demonstrates that both SIRE and SIFE allow comprehensive evaluation of the peritoneal cavity for detection and staging of PC. Overall access rate to the different regions of PCI was higher with SIFE (91.1 %) than with SIRE (83 %). This difference was due to the fact that SIFE was significantly superior to SIRE in the exploration of some difficult-to-access areas, located in regions 1, 2, 3 and 6. These two minimally invasive staging procedures are safe and feasible. They have to be seen as complementary rather than competing and should be associated in order to appreciate accurately the PCI.

#### Compliance with ethical standards

**Disclosures** Fujifilm Medical System Company paid the inscription and the travel to the «United European Gastroenterology Week» which took place in Stockholm in October 2011. Two members of the team were present for poster presentation (Drs. R. Lo Dico and Dr. X. Dray). It is also a partner to the INSERM U965 Unit to study impact of endoscopy on evaluation of peritoneal carcinomatosis. Drs. M. Grienay, A. Dohan, H. Najah and M. Pocard have no conflicts of interest or financial ties to disclose.

#### References

- Verwaal VJ, Van Ruth S, De Bree E, Van Sloothen GW, Van Tinteren H, Boot H, Zoetmulder FA (2003) Randomized trial of cytoreduction and hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy versus systemic chemotherapy and palliative surgery in patients with peritoneal carcinomatosis of colorectal cancer. J Clin Oncol 15:3737–3743
- Cao C, Yan TD, Black D, Morris DL (2009) A systematic review and meta-analysis of cytoreductive surgery with perioperative intraperitoneal chemotherapy for peritoneal carcinomatosis of colorectal origin. Ann Surg Oncol 16:2152–2165
- 3. Glehen O, Kwiatkowski F, Sugarbaker PH, Elias D, Levine EA, De Simone M, Barone R, Yonemura Y, Cavaliere F, Quenet F, Gutman M, Tentes AA, Lorimier G, Bernard JL, Bereder JM, Porcheron J, Gomez-Portilla A, Shen P, Deraco M, Rat P (2004) Cytoreductive surgery combined with perioperative intraperitoneal chemotherapy for the management of peritoneal carcinomatosis from colorectal cancer: a multi-institutional study. J Clin Oncol 22:3284–3292
- 4. Glehen O, Osinsky D, Cotte E, Kwiatkowski F, Freyer G, Isaac S, Trillet-Lenoir V, Sayag-Beaujard AC, François Y, Vignal J, Gilly FN (2003) Intraperitoneal chemohyperthermia using a closed abdominal procedure and cytoreductive surgery for the treatment of peritoneal carcinomatosis: morbidity and mortality analysis of 216 consecutive procedures. Ann Surg Oncol 10:863–869
- Elias D, Gilly F, Glehen O (2008) Présentation du rapport de l'AFC. In: Arnette ED (ed) Carcinoses péritonéales d'origine digestive et primitive. Association Française de chirurgie, Paris, p 680

- 3814
- 6. Elias D, Gilly F, Boutitie F, Quenet F, Bereder JM, Mansvelt B, Lorimier G, Dube P, Glehen O (2010) Peritoneal colorectal carcinomatosis treated with surgery and perioperative intraperitoneal chemotherapy: retrospective analysis of 523 patients from a multicentric French study. J Clin Oncol 28:63–68
- Dromain C, Leboulleux S, Auperin A, Goere D, Malka D, Lumbroso J, Schumberger M, Sigal R, Elias D (2008) Staging of peritoneal carcinomatosis: enhanced CT vs PET/CT. Abdom Imaging 33:87–93
- Yan TD, Morris DL, Shigeki K, Dario B, Marcello D (2008) Preoperative investigations in the management of peritoneal surface malignancy with cytoreductive surgery and perioperative intraperitoneal chemotherapy: expert consensus statement. J Surg Oncol 98:224–227
- Angelelli G, Ianora AA, Scardapane A, Pedote P, Memeo M, Rotondo A (2001) Role of computerized tomography in the staging of gastrointestinal neoplasms. Semin Surg Oncol 20:109–121
- 10. De Bree E, Koops W, Kroger R, Van Ruth S, Verwaal VJ, Zoetmulder FA (2006) Preoperative computed tomography and selection of patients with colorectal peritoneal carcinomatosis for cytoreductive surgery and hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy. Eur J Surg Oncol 32:65–71
- Cotte E, Passot G, Gilly F, Glehen O (2010) Selection of patients and staging of peritoneal surface malignancies. World J Gastrointest Oncol 2:31–35
- Valle M, Garofalo A (2006) Laparoscopic staging of peritoneal surface malignancies. Eur J Surg Oncol 32:625–627
- Brun JL, Rouzier R, Uzan S, Darai E (2008) External validation of a laparoscopic-based score to evaluate resectability of advanced ovarian cancers: clues for a simplified score. Gynecol Oncol 110:354–359
- Fagotti A, Ferrandina G, Fanfani F, Ercoli A, Lorusso D, Rossi M, Scambia G (2006) A laparoscopy-based score to predict surgical outcome in patients with advanced ovarian carcinoma: a pilot study. Ann Surg Oncol 13:1156–1161
- Deffieux X, Castaigne D, Pomel C (2006) Role of laparoscopy to evaluate candidates for complete cytoreduction in advanced stages of epithelial ovarian cancer. Int J Gynecol Cancer 16:35–40
- Yan T, Sugarbaker P (2008) Rectus abdominis muscle resection for abdominal wall recurrence of mucinous adenocarcinoma or peritoneal mesothelioma. Tumori 94:309–313
- Ziprin P, Ridgway PF, Peck DH, Darzi AW (2002) The theories and realities of port-site metastases: a critical appraisal. J Am Coll Surg 195:395–408
- Nunez MF, Sardi A, Jimenez W, Nieroda C, Sitting M, MacDonald R, Aydin N, Milovanov V, Gushchin V (2015) Port site metastases is an independent prognosis factor in patients with peritoneal carcinomatosis. Ann Surg Oncol 22:1267–1273
- Pocard M (2015) Exploratory laparoscopy for carcinomatosis: discard that quiver full of trocars and use just one. J Visc Surg 152:147–148
- 20. Nunez MF, Sardi A, Nieroda C, Jimenez W, Sitting M, MacDonald R, Aydin N, Milovanov V, Gushcin V (2015) Morbidity of abdominal wall resection and reconstruction after cytoreductive surgery and hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy. Ann Surg Oncol 22:1658–1663
- 21. Ladjici Y, Dray X, Marteau P, Valleur P, Pocard M (2012) Flexible versus rigid single-port peritoneoscopy: a randomized controlled trial in a live porcine model followed by initial experience in human cadavers. Surg Endosc 26:2651–2657
- 22. Jacquet P, Sugarbaker PH (1996) Clinical research methodologies in diagnosis and staging of patients with peritoneal carcinomatosis. In: Sugarbaker PH (ed) Peritoneal carcinomatosis:

principles of management. Kluwer Academic Publishers, Boston, pp 359–374

- Coccolini F, Gheza F, Lotti M, Virzì S, Iusco D, Ghermandi C, Melotti R, Baiocchi G, Giulini SM, Ansaloni L, Catena F (2013) Peritoneal carcinomatosis. World J Gastroenterol 19:6979–6994
- Valle M, Garofalo A (2006) Laparoscopic staging of peritoneal malignancies. Eur J Surg Oncol 32:625–627
- 25. Pomel C, Appleyard T, Gouy S, Rouzier R, Elias D (2005) The role of laparoscopy to evaluate candidates for complete cytoreduction of peritoneal carcinomatosis and hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy. Eur J Surg Oncol 31:540–543
- 26. Elias D, Goéré D, Pietrantonio Di, Boige V, Malka D, Kohneh-Shahri N, Dromain C, Ducreux M (2008) Results of systematic second-look surgery in patients at high risk of developing colorectal peritoneal carcinomatosis. Ann Surg 247:445–450
- Froghi F, Sodergen M, Darzi A, Paraskeva P (2010) Single-incision Laparoscopic Surgery (SILS) in general surgery: a review of current practice. Surg Laparosc Endosc Percutan Tech 20:191–204
- Erbella JJ, Bunch G (2010) Single-incision laparoscopic cholecystectomy: the first 100 outpatients. Surg Endosc 24:1958–1961
- Saber AA, El-Ghazaly TH (2009) Early experience with single incision transumbilical laparoscopic adjustable gastric banding using the SILS Port. Int J Surg 7:456–459
- Gaujoux S, Bretagnol F, Ferron M, Panis Y (2011) Single-incision laparoscopic colonic surgery. Colorectal Dis 13:1066–1071
- Gandhi DP, Ragupathi M, Patel CB, Ramos-Valadez DI, Pickron TB, Haas EM (2010) Single-incision versus hand-assisted laparoscopic colectomy: a case-matched series. J Gastrointest Surg 14:1875–1880
- 32. Palanivelu C, Rajan PS, Rangarajan M, Parthasarathi R, Senthilnathan P, Praveenraj P (2008) Transumbilical endoscopic appendectomy in humans: on the road to NOTES: a prospective study. J Laparoendosc Adv Surg Tech A 18:579–582
- 33. Palanivelu C, Rajan PS, Rangarajan M, Parthasarathi R, Senthilnathan P, Praveenraj P (2008) Transumbilical flexible endoscopic cholecystectomy in humans: first feasibility study using a hybrid technique. Endoscopy 40:428–431
- 34. Lee CH, Jeon WJ, Youn SJ, Yun HY, Jang LC, Choi JW, Song YJ, Ryu DH (2014) The experience of transumbilical endoscopic appendicectomies. Ann Surg Treat Res 86:278–282
- Elias DM, Pocard M (2003) Treatment and prevention of peritoneal carcinomatosis from colorectal cancer. Surg Oncol Clin N Am 12:543–559
- Sugarbaker PH (1999) Successful management of microscopic residual disease in large bowel cancer. Cancer Chemother Pharmacol 43(Suppl):S15–S25
- Ladjici Y, Pocard M, Marteau P, Valleur P (2012) No-incision (NOTES) versus single-incision (single-port) surgery for access to sites of peritoneal carcinomatosis: a back-to-back animal study. Surg Endosc 26:2658–2666
- Voermans RP, Sheppard B, Van Berge Henegouwen MI, Fockens P, Faigel DO (2009) Comparison of transgastric NOTES and laparoscopic peritoneoscopy for detection of peritoneal metastases. Ann Surg 250:255–259
- 39. Matsui Y, Ryota H, Sakaguchi T, Nakatani K, Matsushima H, Yamaki S, Hirooka S, Yamamoto T, Kwon AH (2014) Comparison of a flexible-tip laparoscope with a rigid straight laparoscope for single-incision laparoscopic cholecystectomy. Am Surg 80:1245–1249
- Petersen BT, Chennat J, Cohen J, Cotton PB, Greenwald DA, Kowalski TE, Krinsky ML, Park WG, Pike IM, Romagnuolo J, Rutala WA (2011) Multisociety guideline on reprocessing flexible gastrointestinal endoscopes. Gastrointest Endosc 73:1075–1084

- Dindo D, Demartines N, Clavien PA (2004) Classification of surgical complications: a new proposal with evaluation in a cohort of 6336 patients and results of a survey. Ann Surg 240:205–213
- 42. Garofalo A, Valle M (2009) Laparoscopy in the management of peritoneal carcinomatosis. Cancer J 15(3):190–195
- 43. Esquivel J, Farinetti A, Sugarbaker PH (1999) Elective surgery in recurrent colon cancer with peritoneal seeding: when to and when not to proceed. G Chir 20:81–86

## Annexe 2 : Fiche Technique

#### 1. Culture cellulaire

Les cellules utilisées dans ce travail sont des cellules tumorales de cancer du côlon murin. Il s'agit de la lignée cellulaire CT-26 qui est issue d'un adénocarcinome colique de souris immunocompétentes BALB/c traitées par le N-nitroso-N-méhyluréthane [Figure 5].

Comme pratiquement pour toutes les lignées cellulaires, les CT26 étaient conservées dans l'azote liquide, dans un mélange de sérum de veau fœtal (80%) et de DMSO (Diméthylsulfoxide).

Dans notre étude, les cellules, préalablement stockées dans des cryotubes, étaient décongelées à température ambiante et remises en suspension dans leur milieu de culture, afin de diluer le DMSO et réduire sa toxicité. Le mélange était ensuite centrifugé à 4°C pendant 10 minutes à une vitesse égale à 1200 rpm. Le culot cellulaire était remis en culture avant d'être ensemencé dans une flasque. Le milieu de culture approprié pour les CT26 est le DMEM (*Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's medium*). Il était complété de 20% de sérum de veau fœtal, 1% de L-glutamine, 1% d'antibiotiques (pénicilline et streptomycine) et 1% d'HEPES (acide 4-(2-hydroxyéthyl)-1-pipérazine éthane sulfonique). Les cellules poussaient en monocouche à 37°C et à 5% de CO<sub>2</sub>. A 80% de confluence, elles étaient rincées au PBS (*phosphate buffered saline*), détachées de leur support par un traitement à la trypsine, diluées dans leur milieu de culture et centrifugées pour éliminer le traitement enzymatique. Le culot cellulaire était alors repris dans le milieu de culture et les cellules étaient ensemencées dans plusieurs flasques. On parlait de passage. A partir du troisième passage, les cellules étaient utilisées pour les expériences *in vivo*.

Les cellules étaient par la suite diluées d'un facteur de 10 avec du bleu de trypan. Elles étaient par la suite déposées sur une lame de mallasez et comptées au microscope optique. Des solutions de 1ml de milieu de culture contenant chacune 10<sup>4</sup> cellules étaient préparées pour injection.

# 2. Animaux

Toutes les expérimentations ont été réalisées selon le respect des règles éthiques en vigueur en Europe (Décret n° 2013-118 du 01/02/2013 relatif à la protection des animaux utilisés à des fins scientifiques). Les souris femelles BALB/c de 4 semaines pesant 20g (±2g), d'origine contrôlée (Charles River, Arbresle, France) étaient hébergées dans l'animalerie rattachée à l'unité Inserm U965 et agréée par le ministère de l'agriculture et de la pêche sous couvert de la direction départementale des services vétérinaires et dont les contrôles sanitaires ont permis de valider la présence de souris EOPS (Exempts d'Organisme Pathogènes Spécifiques) avec en particulier l'absence de virus d'hépatite murine.

Les souris étaient hébergées en armoire ventilée à 22°C (6 souris au maximum par cage) avec alimentation standard autoclavée (régime de reproduction enrichi en protéines et lipides, HARLAN 20.18) et eau stérile à volonté avec respect des cycles nycthéméraux. L'ensemble des animaux avait bénéficié d'une période d'acclimatation de 10 jours dans ces conditions avant tout geste d'expérimentation. Dans le cas où une souris se retrouvait seule dans la cage, elle disposait de nids compressés de fibre de peuplier. Toutes les précautions ont été prises pour éviter la souffrance de l'animal au cours des expérimentations.

#### 3. Boite noire et endoscopie péritonéale

Afin de reproduire un environnement de coelioscopie et d'éviter que la lumière de la salle vienne interférer avec la source lumineuse de l'endoscope, ce qui risquait de fausser les résultats, nous avons confectionné une boite noire, dans laquelle la souris était placée et l'exploration du péritoine par endoscopie et FICE réalisée.

Une boite en carton de 40 cm de longueur, 30 cm de largeur et 30 cm de hauteur, a été tapissée d'un tissu noir occultant. Elle a été recouverte par un morceau de carton rectangulaire de 40 cm de longueur sur 30 de largeur, également tapissée d'un tissu noir occultant, et au niveau duquel une ouverture a été réalisée, permettant la mise en place d'un système SILS<sup>™</sup> (Covidien France, Elancourt). Une deuxième ouverture a été réalisée sur la face latérale de la boite permettant le passage de la sonde du respirateur [Figure 6]. Un gastroscope de 10.8 mm de diamètre, et de 110 cm de long, type Fujinon<sup>®</sup> EG-490ZW5, raccordé au système FICE EPX-4400, a été utilisé. Comme pour l'homme, pour chaque zone

photographiée, 11 images étaient enregistrées (une image en LB et 10 images correspondant aux différents canaux du FICE).

#### 4. Anesthésie et exploration de la cavité péritonéale de la souris

L'exploration de la cavité péritonéale était réalisée sur la souris vivante, anesthésiée. L'anesthésie générale gazeuse (AG) des souris était réalisée par inhalation d'isoflurane à 4% à l'induction puis à 2% en entretien (BAXTER) avec un débit d'air de 1,5 L/min. L'efficacité de l'anesthésie était vérifiée avant le début de tout acte par pincement interdigital de la patte arrière de la souris. Si la souris venait à s'éveiller, la dose d'isoflurane était augmentée à 2.5% pendant quelques minutes. L'analgésie était assurée par une injection sous cutanée de Buprenorphine à la dose de 0.1 mg/Kg, en pré-opératoire. Après l'induction, la tête de la souris était placée dans un masque connecté à un vaporisateur pour le maintien de l'anesthésie, et le corps sur une plaque de liège.

Une laparotomie médiane xipho-pubienne était réalisée. La paroi était ensuite étalée latéralement des deux côtés et fixée sur la plaque de liège, afin d'exposer le péritoine pariétal antérieur. L'ensemble du péritoine viscéral et pariétal était analysé à la recherche de nodules de CP, et le PCI pour les rongeurs calculé [Figure 7].

La souris était par la suite placée dans la boite noire, et l'endoscopie péritonéale réalisée. La cavité péritonéale était de nouveau explorée de façon minutieuse, quadrant par quadrant à la recherche d'autres lésions [Figure 8]. Tous les nodules retrouvés étaient pris en photos. Pour chaque nodule, une image en LB et 10 images correspondant aux différents canaux du FICE étaient enregistrées. A la fin de la procédure, la souris était mise à mort par dislocation L'ensemble cervicale sous AG. des nodules était prélevé pour examen anatomopathologique.

## 5. Technique d'analyse tissulaire

Les nodules de CP prélevés étaient conservés dans du formol 10% tamponné afin de réaliser un examen histologique. Des coupes de 4 µm d'épaisseur ont été réalisées au microtome et colorées par l'hématoxyline-éosine-safran (HES) [Figure 9]. L'analyse des coupes a été réalisée avec l'aide du Dr Jean Philippe Brouland, dans le service d'anatomo-pathologie de Hôpital Lariboisière.



Figure 6. Cellules CT-26 en microscopie optique (x10)



Figure 7. Boite noire et endoscopie péritonéale



Figure 8. PCI modifié pour les rongeurs.



# Figure 9. Exploration endoscopique de la cavité péritonéale de la souris.

A. Hypochondre droit. B. Pédicule hépatique. C. Hypochondre gauche. D. Péritoine pariétal du flanc droit. E. Intestin grêle. F. Rétro-péritoine.



Figure 10. Nodule de CP situé sur l'intestin grêle en microscopie optique (x10).

A. Muqueuse. B. Musculeuse. C. Nodule de CP. (Quadrant supérieur droit : Aspect en endoscopie)

# BIBLIOGRAPHIE

- [1] Sadeghi B, Arvieux C, Glehen O, Beaujard AC, Rivoire M, Baulieux J, et al. Peritoneal carcinomatosis from non-gynecologic malignancies: results of the EVOCAPE 1 multicentric prospective study. Cancer 2000;88:358–63.
- [2] Jayne DG, Fook S, Loi C, Seow-Choen F. Peritoneal carcinomatosis from colorectal cancer. Br J Surg 2002;89:1545–50. doi:10.1046/j.1365-2168.2002.02274.x.
- [3] Klaver YLB, Lemmens VEPP, Creemers GJ, Rutten HJT, Nienhuijs SW, de Hingh IHJT. Population-based survival of patients with peritoneal carcinomatosis from colorectal origin in the era of increasing use of palliative chemotherapy. Ann Oncol Off J Eur Soc Med Oncol 2011;22:2250–6. doi:10.1093/annonc/mdq762.
- [4] van de Vaart PJ, van der Vange N, Zoetmulder FA, van Goethem AR, van Tellingen O, ten Bokkel Huinink WW, et al. Intraperitoneal cisplatin with regional hyperthermia in advanced ovarian cancer: pharmacokinetics and cisplatin-DNA adduct formation in patients and ovarian cancer cell lines. Eur J Cancer Oxf Engl 1990 1998;34:148–54.
- [5] Ceelen WP, Flessner MF. Intraperitoneal therapy for peritoneal tumors: biophysics and clinical evidence. Nat Rev Clin Oncol 2010;7:108–15. doi:10.1038/nrclinonc.2009.217.
- [6] Zoetmulder FA. Cancer cell seeding during abdominal surgery: experimental studies. Cancer Treat Res 1996;82:155–61.
- [7] Verwaal VJ, van Ruth S, de Bree E, van Sloothen GW, van Tinteren H, Boot H, et al. Randomized trial of cytoreduction and hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy versus systemic chemotherapy and palliative surgery in patients with peritoneal carcinomatosis of colorectal cancer. J Clin Oncol Off J Am Soc Clin Oncol 2003;21:3737–43. doi:10.1200/JCO.2003.04.187.
- [8] Verwaal VJ, Bruin S, Boot H, van Slooten G, van Tinteren H. 8-year follow-up of randomized trial: cytoreduction and hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy versus systemic chemotherapy in patients with peritoneal carcinomatosis of colorectal cancer. Ann Surg Oncol 2008;15:2426–32. doi:10.1245/s10434-008-9966-2.
- [9] Elias D, Lefevre JH, Chevalier J, Brouquet A, Marchal F, Classe J-M, et al. Complete cytoreductive surgery plus intraperitoneal chemohyperthermia with oxaliplatin for peritoneal carcinomatosis of colorectal origin. J Clin Oncol Off J Am Soc Clin Oncol 2009;27:681–5. doi:10.1200/JCO.2008.19.7160.
- [10] Elias D, Gilly F, Quenet F, Bereder JM, Sidéris L, Mansvelt B, et al. Pseudomyxoma peritonei: a French multicentric study of 301 patients treated with cytoreductive surgery and intraperitoneal chemotherapy. Eur J Surg Oncol J Eur Soc Surg Oncol Br Assoc Surg Oncol 2010;36:456–62. doi:10.1016/j.ejso.2010.01.006.
- [11] Elias D, Faron M, Iuga BS, Honoré C, Dumont F, Bourgain J-L, et al. Prognostic similarities and differences in optimally resected liver metastases and peritoneal metastases from colorectal cancers. Ann Surg 2015;261:157–63. doi:10.1097/SLA.00000000000582.
- [12] Cao CQ, Yan TD, Liauw W, Morris DL. Comparison of optimally resected hepatectomy and peritonectomy patients with colorectal cancer metastasis. J Surg Oncol 2009;100:529–33. doi:10.1002/jso.21369.
- [13] Goéré D, Malka D, Tzanis D, Gava V, Boige V, Eveno C, et al. Is there a possibility of a cure in patients with colorectal peritoneal carcinomatosis amenable to complete cytoreductive surgery and intraperitoneal chemotherapy? Ann Surg 2013;257:1065– 71. doi:10.1097/SLA.0b013e31827e9289.

- [14] Adam R, Wicherts DA, de Haas RJ, Ciacio O, Lévi F, Paule B, et al. Patients with initially unresectable colorectal liver metastases: is there a possibility of cure? J Clin Oncol Off J Am Soc Clin Oncol 2009;27:1829–35. doi:10.1200/JCO.2008.19.9273.
- [15] Tomlinson JS, Jarnagin WR, DeMatteo RP, Fong Y, Kornprat P, Gonen M, et al. Actual 10-year survival after resection of colorectal liver metastases defines cure. J Clin Oncol Off J Am Soc Clin Oncol 2007;25:4575–80. doi:10.1200/JCO.2007.11.0833.
- [16] Jacquet P, Sugarbaker PH. Clinical research methodologies in diagnosis and staging of patients with peritoneal carcinomatosis. Cancer Treat Res 1996;82:359–74.
- [17] Elias D, Gilly F, Boutitie F, Quenet F, Bereder J-M, Mansvelt B, et al. Peritoneal colorectal carcinomatosis treated with surgery and perioperative intraperitoneal chemotherapy: retrospective analysis of 523 patients from a multicentric French study. J Clin Oncol Off J Am Soc Clin Oncol 2010;28:63–8. doi:10.1200/JCO.2009.23.9285.
- [18] Paget S. The distribution of secondary growths in cancer of the breast. 1889. Cancer Metastasis Rev 1989;8:98–101.
- [19] Fidler IJ, Kripke ML. Metastasis results from preexisting variant cells within a malignant tumor. Science 1977;197:893–5.
- [20] Hart IR, Fidler IJ. Role of organ selectivity in the determination of metastatic patterns of B16 melanoma. Cancer Res 1980;40:2281–7.
- [21] Naumov GN, Akslen LA, Folkman J. Role of angiogenesis in human tumor dormancy: animal models of the angiogenic switch. Cell Cycle Georget Tex 2006;5:1779–87. doi:10.4161/cc.5.16.3018.
- [22] Holmgren L, O'Reilly MS, Folkman J. Dormancy of micrometastases: balanced proliferation and apoptosis in the presence of angiogenesis suppression. Nat Med 1995;1:149–53.
- [23] Gao D, Nolan DJ, Mellick AS, Bambino K, McDonnell K, Mittal V. Endothelial progenitor cells control the angiogenic switch in mouse lung metastasis. Science 2008;319:195–8. doi:10.1126/science.1150224.
- [24] Holash J, Maisonpierre PC, Compton D, Boland P, Alexander CR, Zagzag D, et al. Vessel cooption, regression, and growth in tumors mediated by angiopoietins and VEGF. Science 1999;284:1994–8.
- [25] Maniotis AJ, Folberg R, Hess A, Seftor EA, Gardner LM, Pe'er J, et al. Vascular channel formation by human melanoma cells in vivo and in vitro: vasculogenic mimicry. Am J Pathol 1999;155:739–52. doi:10.1016/S0002-9440(10)65173-5.
- [26] Folberg R, Hendrix MJ, Maniotis AJ. Vasculogenic mimicry and tumor angiogenesis. Am J Pathol 2000;156:361–81. doi:10.1016/S0002-9440(10)64739-6.
- [27] Dromain C, Leboulleux S, Auperin A, Goere D, Malka D, Lumbroso J, et al. Staging of peritoneal carcinomatosis: enhanced CT vs. PET/CT. Abdom Imaging 2008;33:87–93. doi:10.1007/s00261-007-9211-7.
- [28] Koh J-L, Yan TD, Glenn D, Morris DL. Evaluation of preoperative computed tomography in estimating peritoneal cancer index in colorectal peritoneal carcinomatosis. Ann Surg Oncol 2009;16:327–33. doi:10.1245/s10434-008-0234-2.
- [29] Dohan A, Hobeika C, Najah H, Pocard M, Rousset P, Eveno C. Preoperative assessment of peritoneal carcinomatosis of colorectal origin. J Visc Surg 2018;155:293–303. doi:10.1016/j.jviscsurg.2018.01.002.
- [30] Simkens GA, van Oudheusden TR, Luyer MD, Nienhuijs SW, Nieuwenhuijzen GA, Rutten HJ, et al. Serious Postoperative Complications Affect Early Recurrence After

Cytoreductive Surgery and HIPEC for Colorectal Peritoneal Carcinomatosis. Ann Surg Oncol 2015;22:2656–62. doi:10.1245/s10434-014-4297-y.

- [31] Esquivel J, Sticca R, Sugarbaker P, Levine E, Yan TD, Alexander R, et al. Cytoreductive surgery and hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy in the management of peritoneal surface malignancies of colonic origin: a consensus statement. Society of Surgical Oncology. Ann Surg Oncol 2007;14:128–33. doi:10.1245/s10434-006-9185-7.
- [32] de Bree E, Koops W, Kröger R, van Ruth S, Witkamp AJ, Zoetmulder FAN. Peritoneal carcinomatosis from colorectal or appendiceal origin: correlation of preoperative CT with intraoperative findings and evaluation of interobserver agreement. J Surg Oncol 2004;86:64–73. doi:10.1002/jso.20049.
- [33] Schmidt S, Meuli RA, Achtari C, Prior JO. Peritoneal carcinomatosis in primary ovarian cancer staging: comparison between MDCT, MRI, and 18F-FDG PET/CT. Clin Nucl Med 2015;40:371–7. doi:10.1097/RLU.000000000000768.
- [34] Pasqual EM, Bertozzi S, Bacchetti S, Londero AP, Basso SMM, Santeufemia DA, et al. Preoperative assessment of peritoneal carcinomatosis in patients undergoing hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy following cytoreductive surgery. Anticancer Res 2014;34:2363–8.
- [35] Coakley FV, Choi PH, Gougoutas CA, Pothuri B, Venkatraman E, Chi D, et al. Peritoneal metastases: detection with spiral CT in patients with ovarian cancer. Radiology 2002;223:495–9. doi:10.1148/radiol.2232011081.
- [36] Marin D, Catalano C, Baski M, Di Martino M, Geiger D, Di Giorgio A, et al. 64-Section multi-detector row CT in the preoperative diagnosis of peritoneal carcinomatosis: correlation with histopathological findings. Abdom Imaging 2010;35:694–700. doi:10.1007/s00261-008-9464-9.
- [37] Dohan A, Hoeffel C, Soyer P, Jannot AS, Valette P-J, Thivolet A, et al. Evaluation of the peritoneal carcinomatosis index with CT and MRI. Br J Surg 2017;104:1244–9. doi:10.1002/bjs.10527.
- [38] Low RN, Barone RM, Lucero J. Comparison of MRI and CT for predicting the Peritoneal Cancer Index (PCI) preoperatively in patients being considered for cytoreductive surgical procedures. Ann Surg Oncol 2015;22:1708–15. doi:10.1245/s10434-014-4041-7.
- [39] Low RN, Barone RM. Combined diffusion-weighted and gadolinium-enhanced MRI can accurately predict the peritoneal cancer index preoperatively in patients being considered for cytoreductive surgical procedures. Ann Surg Oncol 2012;19:1394–401. doi:10.1245/s10434-012-2236-3.
- [40] Pfannenberg C, Königsrainer I, Aschoff P, Oksüz MO, Zieker D, Beckert S, et al. (18)F-FDG-PET/CT to select patients with peritoneal carcinomatosis for cytoreductive surgery and hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy. Ann Surg Oncol 2009;16:1295–303. doi:10.1245/s10434-009-0387-7.
- [41] Liberale G, Lecocq C, Garcia C, Muylle K, Covas A, Deleporte A, et al. Accuracy of FDG-PET/CT in Colorectal Peritoneal Carcinomatosis: Potential Tool for Evaluation of Chemotherapeutic Response. Anticancer Res 2017;37:929–34. doi:10.21873/anticanres.11401.
- [42] Audollent R, Eveno C, Dohan A, Sarda L, Jouvin I, Soyer P, et al. Pitfalls and mimickers on (18)F-FDG-PET/CT in peritoneal carcinomatosis from colorectal

cancer: An analysis from 37 patients. J Visc Surg 2015;152:285–91. doi:10.1016/j.jviscsurg.2015.06.003.

- [43] Pomel C, Appleyard T-L, Gouy S, Rouzier R, Elias D. The role of laparoscopy to evaluate candidates for complete cytoreduction of peritoneal carcinomatosis and hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy. Eur J Surg Oncol J Eur Soc Surg Oncol Br Assoc Surg Oncol 2005;31:540–3. doi:10.1016/j.ejso.2005.01.009.
- [44] Iversen LH, Rasmussen PC, Laurberg S. Value of laparoscopy before cytoreductive surgery and hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy for peritoneal carcinomatosis. Br J Surg 2013;100:285–92. doi:10.1002/bjs.8908.
- [45] Tabrizian P, Jayakrishnan TT, Zacharias A, Aycart S, Johnston FM, Sarpel U, et al. Incorporation of diagnostic laparoscopy in the management algorithm for patients with peritoneal metastases: A multi-institutional analysis. J Surg Oncol 2015;111:1035–40. doi:10.1002/jso.23924.
- [46] Marmor RA, Kelly KJ, Lowy AM, Baumgartner JM. Laparoscopy is Safe and Accurate to Evaluate Peritoneal Surface Metastasis Prior to Cytoreductive Surgery. Ann Surg Oncol 2016;23:1461–7. doi:10.1245/s10434-015-4958-5.
- [47] Yan TD, Morris DL, Shigeki K, Dario B, Marcello D. Preoperative investigations in the management of peritoneal surface malignancy with cytoreductive surgery and perioperative intraperitoneal chemotherapy: Expert consensus statement. J Surg Oncol 2008;98:224–7. doi:10.1002/jso.21069.
- [48] Ouellette JR, Ko AS, Lefor AT. The physiologic effects of laparoscopy: applications in oncology. Cancer J Sudbury Mass 2005;11:2–9.
- [49] Nunez MF, Sardi A, Jimenez W, Nieroda C, Sittig M, MacDonald R, et al. Port-site metastases is an independent prognostic factor in patients with peritoneal carcinomatosis. Ann Surg Oncol 2015;22:1267–73. doi:10.1245/s10434-014-4136-1.
- [50] Nunez MF, Sardi A, Nieroda C, Jimenez W, Sittig M, MacDonald R, et al. Morbidity of the abdominal wall resection and reconstruction after cytoreductive surgery and hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy (CRS/HIPEC). Ann Surg Oncol 2015;22:1658–63. doi:10.1245/s10434-014-4075-x.
- [51] Pocard M. Exploratory laparoscopy for carcinomatosis: discard that quiver full of trocars and use just one! J Visc Surg 2015;152:147–8. doi:10.1016/j.jviscsurg.2015.04.004.
- [52] Hobeika C, Sabbagh C, Najah H, Eveno C. Laparoscopic exploration for peritoneal carcinomatosis: Surgical technique. J Visc Surg 2017;154:430–5. doi:10.1016/j.jviscsurg.2017.08.005.
- [53] Ladjici Y, Dray X, Marteau P, Valleur P, Pocard M. Flexible versus rigid single-port peritoneoscopy: a randomized controlled trial in a live porcine model followed by initial experience in human cadavers. Surg Endosc 2012;26:2651–7. doi:10.1007/s00464-012-2218-3.
- [54] Najah H, Lo Dico R, Grienay M, Dohan A, Dray X, Pocard M. Single-incision flexible endoscopy (SIFE) for detection and staging of peritoneal carcinomatosis. Surg Endosc 2016;30:3808–15. doi:10.1007/s00464-015-4682-z.
- [55] Optical Absorption of Hemoglobin n.d.
- [56] ASGE TECHNOLOGY COMMITTEE, Song LMWK, Adler DG, Conway JD, Diehl DL, Farraye FA, et al. Narrow band imaging and multiband imaging. Gastrointest Endosc 2008;67:581–9. doi:10.1016/j.gie.2008.01.013.

- [57] Subramanian V, Ragunath K. Advanced endoscopic imaging: a review of commercially available technologies. Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol Off Clin Pract J Am Gastroenterol Assoc 2014;12:368-376.e1. doi:10.1016/j.cgh.2013.06.015.
- [58] Galloro G. High technology imaging in digestive endoscopy. World J Gastrointest Endosc 2012;4:22–7. doi:10.4253/wjge.v4.i2.22.
- [59] Muto M, Horimatsu T, Ezoe Y, Hori K, Yukawa Y, Morita S, et al. Narrow-band imaging of the gastrointestinal tract. J Gastroenterol 2009;44:13–25. doi:10.1007/s00535-008-2291-5.
- [60] Gono K, Obi T, Yamaguchi M, Ohyama N, Machida H, Sano Y, et al. Appearance of enhanced tissue features in narrow-band endoscopic imaging. J Biomed Opt 2004;9:568–77. doi:10.1117/1.1695563.
- [61] Muto M, Nakane M, Katada C, Sano Y, Ohtsu A, Esumi H, et al. Squamous cell carcinoma in situ at oropharyngeal and hypopharyngeal mucosal sites. Cancer 2004;101:1375–81. doi:10.1002/cncr.20482.
- [62] Watanabe A, Taniguchi M, Tsujie H, Hosokawa M, Fujita M, Sasaki S. The value of narrow band imaging endoscope for early head and neck cancers. Otolaryngol--Head Neck Surg Off J Am Acad Otolaryngol-Head Neck Surg 2008;138:446–51. doi:10.1016/j.otohns.2007.12.034.
- [63] Watanabe A, Taniguchi M, Tsujie H, Hosokawa M, Fujita M, Sasaki S. The value of narrow band imaging for early detection of laryngeal cancer. Eur Arch Oto-Rhino-Laryngol Off J Eur Fed Oto-Rhino-Laryngol Soc EUFOS Affil Ger Soc Oto-Rhino-Laryngol - Head Neck Surg 2009;266:1017–23. doi:10.1007/s00405-008-0835-1.
- [64] Yoshida T, Inoue H, Usui S, Satodate H, Fukami N, Kudo S. Narrow-band imaging system with magnifying endoscopy for superficial esophageal lesions. Gastrointest Endosc 2004;59:288–95.
- [65] Kumagai Y, Inoue H, Nagai K, Kawano T, Iwai T. Magnifying endoscopy, stereoscopic microscopy, and the microvascular architecture of superficial esophageal carcinoma. Endoscopy 2002;34:369–75. doi:10.1055/s-2002-25285.
- [66] Nakayoshi T, Tajiri H, Matsuda K, Kaise M, Ikegami M, Sasaki H. Magnifying endoscopy combined with narrow band imaging system for early gastric cancer: correlation of vascular pattern with histopathology (including video). Endoscopy 2004;36:1080–4. doi:10.1055/s-2004-825961.
- [67] Hu Y-Y, Lian Q-W, Lin Z-H, Zhong J, Xue M, Wang L-J. Diagnostic performance of magnifying narrow-band imaging for early gastric cancer: A meta-analysis. World J Gastroenterol 2015;21:7884–94. doi:10.3748/wjg.v21.i25.7884.
- [68] Yu H, Yang A-M, Lu X-H, Zhou W-X, Yao F, Fei G-J, et al. Magnifying narrow-band imaging endoscopy is superior in diagnosis of early gastric cancer. World J Gastroenterol 2015;21:9156–62. doi:10.3748/wjg.v21.i30.9156.
- [69] Machida H, Sano Y, Hamamoto Y, Muto M, Kozu T, Tajiri H, et al. Narrow-band imaging in the diagnosis of colorectal mucosal lesions: a pilot study. Endoscopy 2004;36:1094–8. doi:10.1055/s-2004-826040.
- [70] Su M-Y, Hsu C-M, Ho Y-P, Chen P-C, Lin C-J, Chiu C-T. Comparative study of conventional colonoscopy, chromoendoscopy, and narrow-band imaging systems in differential diagnosis of neoplastic and nonneoplastic colonic polyps. Am J Gastroenterol 2006;101:2711–6. doi:10.1111/j.1572-0241.2006.00932.x.
- [71] Chiu H-M, Chang C-Y, Chen C-C, Lee Y-C, Wu M-S, Lin J-T, et al. A prospective comparative study of narrow-band imaging, chromoendoscopy, and conventional

colonoscopy in the diagnosis of colorectal neoplasia. Gut 2007;56:373–9. doi:10.1136/gut.2006.099614.

- [72] Miyake YK, Kouzu T, Takeuchi S. Development of new electronic endoscopes using the spectral images of an internal organ. Proc. ISTSID's Thirteen Color Imaging Conf. Novemb. 7-11 2005, Scottsdale (Ariz); n.d., p. 261–9.
- [73] Pohl J, May A, Rabenstein T, Pech O, Ell C. Computed virtual chromoendoscopy: a new tool for enhancing tissue surface structures. Endoscopy 2007;39:80–3. doi:10.1055/s-2006-945045.
- [74] Kuznetsov K, Lambert R, Rey J-F. Narrow-band imaging: potential and limitations. Endoscopy 2006;38:76–81. doi:10.1055/s-2005-921114.
- [75] Qumseya BJ, Wang H, Badie N, Uzomba RN, Parasa S, White DL, et al. Advanced imaging technologies increase detection of dysplasia and neoplasia in patients with Barrett's esophagus: a meta-analysis and systematic review. Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol Off Clin Pract J Am Gastroenterol Assoc 2013;11:1562-1570.e1-2. doi:10.1016/j.cgh.2013.06.017.
- [76] Mouri R, Yoshida S, Tanaka S, Oka S, Yoshihara M, Chayama K. Evaluation and validation of computed virtual chromoendoscopy in early gastric cancer. Gastrointest Endosc 2009;69:1052–8. doi:10.1016/j.gie.2008.08.032.
- [77] Osawa H, Yoshizawa M, Yamamoto H, Kita H, Satoh K, Ohnishi H, et al. Optimal band imaging system can facilitate detection of changes in depressed-type early gastric cancer. Gastrointest Endosc 2008;67:226–34. doi:10.1016/j.gie.2007.06.067.
- [78] Pohl J, Nguyen-Tat M, Pech O, May A, Rabenstein T, Ell C. Computed virtual chromoendoscopy for classification of small colorectal lesions: a prospective comparative study. Am J Gastroenterol 2008;103:562–9. doi:10.1111/j.1572-0241.2007.01670.x.
- [79] Pohl J, Lotterer E, Balzer C, Sackmann M, Schmidt K-D, Gossner L, et al. Computed virtual chromoendoscopy versus standard colonoscopy with targeted indigocarmine chromoscopy: a randomised multicentre trial. Gut 2009;58:73–8. doi:10.1136/gut.2008.153601.
- [80] Wanders LK, East JE, Uitentuis SE, Leeflang MMG, Dekker E. Diagnostic performance of narrowed spectrum endoscopy, autofluorescence imaging, and confocal laser endomicroscopy for optical diagnosis of colonic polyps: a meta-analysis. Lancet Oncol 2013;14:1337–47. doi:10.1016/S1470-2045(13)70509-6.
- [81] Van Gossum A. Image-enhanced capsule endoscopy for characterization of small bowel lesions. Best Pract Res Clin Gastroenterol 2015;29:525–31. doi:10.1016/j.bpg.2015.06.003.
- [82] Imagawa H, Oka S, Tanaka S, Noda I, Higashiyama M, Sanomura Y, et al. Improved visibility of lesions of the small intestine via capsule endoscopy with computed virtual chromoendoscopy. Gastrointest Endosc 2011;73:299–306. doi:10.1016/j.gie.2010.10.016.
- [83] Yung DE, Boal Carvalho P, Giannakou A, Kopylov U, Rosa B, Rondonotti E, et al. Clinical validity of flexible spectral imaging color enhancement (FICE) in small-bowel capsule endoscopy: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Endoscopy 2017;49:258–69. doi:10.1055/s-0042-122015.
- [84] Dindo D, Demartines N, Clavien P-A. Classification of surgical complications: a new proposal with evaluation in a cohort of 6336 patients and results of a survey. Ann Surg 2004;240:205–13.

- [85] Meyers MA. Distribution of intra-abdominal malignant seeding: dependency on dynamics of flow of ascitic fluid. Am J Roentgenol Radium Ther Nucl Med 1973;119:198–206.
- [86] Otto J, Jansen PL, Lucas S, Schumpelick V, Jansen M. Reduction of peritoneal carcinomatosis by intraperitoneal administration of phospholipids in rats. BMC Cancer 2007;7:104. doi:10.1186/1471-2407-7-104.
- [87] Elias D, Honoré C, Dumont F, Ducreux M, Boige V, Malka D, et al. Results of systematic second-look surgery plus HIPEC in asymptomatic patients presenting a high risk of developing colorectal peritoneal carcinomatosis. Ann Surg 2011;254:289–93. doi:10.1097/SLA.0b013e31822638f6.
- [88] Cotte E, Passot G, Gilly F-N, Glehen O. Selection of patients and staging of peritoneal surface malignancies. World J Gastrointest Oncol 2010;2:31–5. doi:10.4251/wjgo.v2.i1.31.
- [89] van Oudheusden TR, Braam HJ, Luyer MDP, Wiezer MJ, van Ramshorst B, Nienhuijs SW, et al. Peritoneal cancer patients not suitable for cytoreductive surgery and HIPEC during explorative surgery: risk factors, treatment options, and prognosis. Ann Surg Oncol 2015;22:1236–42. doi:10.1245/s10434-014-4148-x.
- [90] Esquivel J, Farinetti A, Sugarbaker PH. [Elective surgery in recurrent colon cancer with peritoneal seeding: when to and when not to proceed]. Il G Chir 1999;20:81–6.
- [91] Reprocessing Guideline Task Force, Petersen BT, Cohen J, Hambrick RD, Buttar N, Greenwald DA, et al. Multisociety guideline on reprocessing flexible GI endoscopes: 2016 update. Gastrointest Endosc 2017;85:282-294.e1. doi:10.1016/j.gie.2016.10.002.
- [92] Garofalo A, Valle M. Laparoscopy in the management of peritoneal carcinomatosis. Cancer J Sudbury Mass 2009;15:190–5. doi:10.1097/PPO.0b013e3181a58e93.
- [93] Jayakrishnan TT, Zacharias AJ, Sharma A, Pappas SG, Gamblin TC, Turaga KK. Role of laparoscopy in patients with peritoneal metastases considered for cytoreductive surgery and hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy (HIPEC). World J Surg Oncol 2014;12:270. doi:10.1186/1477-7819-12-270.
- [94] Passot G, Dumont F, Goéré D, Arvieux C, Rousset P, Regimbeau J-M, et al. Multicentre study of laparoscopic or open assessment of the peritoneal cancer index (BIG-RENAPE). Br J Surg 2018;105:663–7. doi:10.1002/bjs.10723.
- [95] Sommariva A, Zagonel V, Rossi CR. The role of laparoscopy in peritoneal surface malignancies selected for hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy (HIPEC). Ann Surg Oncol 2012;19:3737–44. doi:10.1245/s10434-012-2465-5.
- [96] Hanna G, Cuschieri A. Image display technology and image processing. World J Surg 2001;25:1419–27.
- [97] Gallagher AG, Ritter EM, Lederman AB, McClusky DA, Smith CD. Video-assisted surgery represents more than a loss of three-dimensional vision. Am J Surg 2005;189:76–80. doi:10.1016/j.amjsurg.2004.04.008.
- [98] Schnelldorfer T, Jenkins RL, Birkett DH, Wright VJ, Price LL, Georgakoudi I. Laparoscopic narrow band imaging for detection of occult cancer metastases: a randomized feasibility trial. Surg Endosc 2016;30:1656–61. doi:10.1007/s00464-015-4401-9.
- [99] Schnelldorfer T. Image-enhanced laparoscopy: a promising technology for detection of peritoneal micrometastases. Surgery 2012;151:345–50. doi:10.1016/j.surg.2011.12.012.

- [100] Fanfani F, Gallotta V, Rossitto C, Fagotti A, Scambia G. Narrow band imaging in borderline ovarian tumor. J Minim Invasive Gynecol 2010;17:146–7. doi:10.1016/j.jmig.2009.04.001.
- [101] Fanfani F, Rossitto C, Fagotti A, Gallotta V, Gagliardi ML, Scambia G. Narrow-band imaging in laparoscopic management of cervical carcinoma. J Minim Invasive Gynecol 2011;18:146–7. doi:10.1016/j.jmig.2010.02.001.
- [102] Schönfeld N, Schwarz C, Kollmeier J, Blum T, Bauer TT, Ott S. Narrow band imaging (NBI) during medical thoracoscopy: first impressions. J Occup Med Toxicol Lond Engl 2009;4:24. doi:10.1186/1745-6673-4-24.
- [103] Ishida A, Ishikawa F, Nakamura M, Miyazu YM, Mineshita M, Kurimoto N, et al. Narrow band imaging applied to pleuroscopy for the assessment of vascular patterns of the pleura. Respir Int Rev Thorac Dis 2009;78:432–9. doi:10.1159/000247335.
- [104] Gomez-Pinilla PJ, Binda MM, Lissens A, Di Giovangiulio M, van Bree SH, Nemethova A, et al. Absence of intestinal inflammation and postoperative ileus in a mouse model of laparoscopic surgery. Neurogastroenterol Motil Off J Eur Gastrointest Motil Soc 2014;26:1238–47. doi:10.1111/nmo.12376.
- [105] Binda MM, Molinas CR, Hansen P, Koninckx PR. Effect of desiccation and temperature during laparoscopy on adhesion formation in mice. Fertil Steril 2006;86:166–75. doi:10.1016/j.fertnstert.2005.11.079.