

1 **Title:** Eosinophilic Esophagitis - Pathophysiology and its Clinical Implications

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30 **Abstract:**

31 Classically, Eosinophilic Esophagitis is an antigen mediated chronic disease
32 distinct from gastroesophageal reflux disease. Eosinophilic Esophagitis is an
33 emerging clinical problem that is growing in recognition. It is characterized clinically
34 by feeding dysfunction, dysphagia and reflux-like symptoms. Histologically,
35 Eosinophilic Esophagitis is identifiable by a dense epithelial eosinophilic infiltrate.
36 Experimental modeling and clinical studies over the last decade have greatly
37 improved mechanistic insights and led to improvements in clinical understanding and
38 the assessment of therapeutic options for patients and their clinicians who manage
39 this disease. Here, we review the clinicopathologic diagnostic criteria and our
40 understanding of Eosinophilic Esophagitis as an allergic disease with genetic and
41 immunological components. We present studies defining the importance of the
42 epithelial barrier and the concept of barrier dysfunction as an initiating or perpetuating
43 factor for this disease. We discuss the relationship between the symptoms of
44 dysphagia and feeding dysfunction, our current knowledge of the underlying
45 pathophysiologic mechanisms, and advances in clinical assessment of esophageal
46 distensibility and narrowing in Eosinophilic Esophagitis patients. Lastly, therapeutic
47 implications relating to the advances that have led to our current understanding of the
48 pathophysiology of Eosinophilic Esophagitis are explored.

49 **Introduction**

50 In its healthy state, the esophagus provides for safe passage of nutrition from
51 the mouth to the stomach. This remarkable feat is accomplished by complex innate
52 features of defense that include mucus, bicarbonate, defensins, squamous epithelial
53 cells, and a network of neurons and smooth muscle cells that are arranged in
54 longitudinal and circular fashion. Close inspection of the epithelium reveals an
55 intricate array of stratified epithelia that are closely connected by a series of junctional
56 molecules and interspersed with a number of lymphocytes and other leukocytes such
57 as mast cells. In contrast to the rest of the healthy gastrointestinal (GI) tract where
58 eosinophils are present, eosinophils are absent in the normal esophageal mucosa.

59 To provide a deep understanding of the clinical features and pathophysiologic
60 mechanisms underlying eosinophilic esophagitis (EoE), it is important to provide
61 historical context of this relatively new disease. Prior to 1960, interrogations of the
62 intestinal mucosa were limited to surgical resections or post mortem analyses. The
63 advent of luminal fiberoptic endoscopy in the 1960's, afforded a new opportunity to
64 develop detailed histologic examination of the GI mucosa. In the 1980's, endoscopic
65 procedures were performed on adults and an increasing number of pediatric patients
66 who had gastroesophageal reflux (GERD) like symptoms. Analysis of mucosal
67 biopsies revealed a pattern of scattered epithelial eosinophilia **(82)**. **Soon thereafter,**

68 **some patients with reflux and other symptoms recalcitrant to acid blockade**
69 **were found to have a pattern different from that previously associated with**
70 **GERD, one that revealed dense mucosal eosinophilia of greater than 15**
71 **eosinophils per high power field (4, 33, 75). Clinically, these patients presented**
72 **uniquely from GERD and instead of a history of heartburn or regurgitation,**
73 **adult patients noted problems with solid food dysphagia and food impaction. In**
74 **contrast, children with EoE were found to have profound feeding difficulties**
75 **and in some circumstances, failure to thrive.**

76 Over the course of the last 20 years, a clinical and molecular profile emerged
77 that distinguishes EoE from its counterpart, GERD (57). **Conceptually, a paradigm**
78 **has arisen that may help to distinguish between these two esophageal**
79 **diseases. GERD is understood to be a disorder of motility and if complications**
80 **arise, they likely occur as a result of chronic mucosal inflammation (24, 76).**
81 **GERD related inflammation could be considered an “outside-in” process in**
82 **which luminal gastric refluxate initiates and perpetuates epithelial inflammation**
83 **resulting in an endoscopic appearance of friability and histologically in the**
84 **disruption of mucosal integrity. In contrast, EoE is conceptually considered, a**
85 **chronic, allergic inflammatory disorder with symptoms and complications that**
86 **are related to destructive tissue remodeling. In this paradigm, of an “inside-out”**

87 **disease, allergic inflammation can arise in a genetically predisposed patient in**
88 **whom chronic antigenic stimulation leads to a type-2 inflammatory response**
89 **that in some case results in excessive mucosal and submucosal tissue**
90 **remodeling (57). In contrast to GERD, the endoscopic appearance of EoE is**
91 **characterized by surface exudate (white plaques), thickened mucosa (linear**
92 **furrows and edema) and chronic remodeling (rings and strictures) as well as a**
93 **rubbery texture. In reality, there is likely an overlap between GERD and EoE and**
94 **the relationship between clinical features and pathophysiological mechanisms**
95 **continues to be defined(22).**

96

97 **Clinical features and diagnosis of EoE**

98 EoE is diagnosed in patients who have symptoms of esophageal dysfunction with
99 dense esophageal eosinophilia in whom other causes have been ruled out **(38)**. The
100 increasing incidence of EoE in pediatric and adult populations was last estimated at 1
101 in 10,000 (19). Patients can be affected at any age. EoE is more common in
102 Caucasians and has a clear male predominance (male: female ratio is about 3:1). In
103 addition, EoE accounts for 5-16% of patients with dysphagia, and approximately half
104 of patients with food impaction **(20)**. Approximately 30-60% of patients have
105 comorbidity for one or more classical allergic disorders, such as bronchial asthma

106 and food allergy (59). EoE related symptoms differ between young patients (infants
107 and children) and adults (38). Infants and children often exhibit a wide range of
108 nonspecific symptoms such as feeding difficulty, reflux and vomiting. Thus,
109 clinical recognition of EoE in children may be more difficult than in adults.
110 Teenagers and adults, develop stereotypical patterns of solid food dysphagia,
111 food impaction and chest pain. On the other hand, symptoms resembling
112 GERD, such as heartburn and precordial pain, are common regardless of age.
113 Symptoms may be underestimated by the patient's adaptation (long mealtimes,
114 preference for minced foods, frequent drinking during meals)(52). It is unclear
115 whether these symptomatic differences reflect the ability to report symptoms,
116 duration of illness or different pathophysiology of disease (68).

117 In order to properly diagnose EoE, various diseases such as GERD,
118 esophageal cancer, achalasia, hypereosinophilic syndrome, infection, Crohn's
119 disease, and drug allergies need to be ruled out. Of these, the major challenge
120 lies in differentiation from GERD and addressing the previous diagnostic
121 guidelines requiring empirical treatment of high dose proton pump inhibition
122 (38). Since the original diagnostic consensus recommendations were
123 published, it has become clear that proton pump inhibitors (PPIs) exert a
124 significant impact in reducing symptoms and esophageal eosinophilia in

125 **patients. Such patients have been termed to have PPI-Responsive Esophageal**
126 **Eosinophilia (PPI-REE). The last decade's worth of clinical experiences and**
127 **research showed that many of these patients exhibit no obvious differences in**
128 **clinical or molecular profiles when compared to those who have classical EoE**
129 **(47). Therefore, patients described as having PPI-REE may actually represent a**
130 **subset of patients with EoE who respond to PPIs. Thus, the trial of PPI has**
131 **been excluded from diagnostic recommendations (22, 39). The implications of**
132 **this change are significant and include decreased exposure to PPIs, reduction**
133 **in time to diagnosis, fewer endoscopies to establish diagnosis and a deeper**
134 **understanding of treatment naïve esophageal mucosa.**

135

136 **Allergies and genetic impact on EoE phenotypes**

137 In 1996, Kelly et al. reported the first series of children with EoE and made the
138 seminal observation that symptoms and histopathology responded to an amino acid
139 based diet and upon **food** reintroduction, symptoms and epithelial eosinophilia
140 returned (33). This finding provided the first evidence that esophageal eosinophilia
141 may have an underlying allergic etiology. Since then, a number of prospective trials of
142 food elimination documented the ability of dietary restriction to induce histologic
143 remission of EoE in upwards of 43% - 74% of children and adults (49). **Peripheral**

144 **eosinophilia is found in 40-50% of patients (38). In addition, a number of clinical**
145 **studies further characterized the allergic phenotype of patients with EoE**
146 **identifying that between 28-86% of adults, and between 42-96% of pediatric**
147 **patients may be affected by one or more co-morbid allergic diseases such as**
148 **atopic dermatitis, food allergies, asthma or allergic rhinitis (38).**

149 Studies examining the molecular underpinnings of EoE focus on
150 **chemokine's** known to be related to eosinophilia (**e.g. eotaxin-3**) and **type 2**
151 **cytokines (e.g. IL-5 and IL-13). Microarray** analysis using esophageal specimens
152 reveal that eotaxin-3 has the largest fold change in mRNA expression level between
153 EoE patients and controls. In addition, eotaxin-3 expression in tissues strongly
154 correlates with tissue eosinophil and mast cell counts (9). IL-5 participates in
155 eosinophil maturation and eventual migration into the esophageal epithelium and IL-5
156 mRNA and protein is increased in the esophagus of EoE patients(**73**). Subsequent
157 studies examined the role of IL-5 in murine models of EoE demonstrating a key role
158 for IL-5 in esophageal eosinophilia (45). Similarly, IL-13 is increased in tissue sections
159 of EoE patients and stimulation of esophageal epithelia with IL-13 leads to the
160 production of eotaxin-3, a major eosinophil chemotactic factor as well as diminished
161 expression of filaggrin **and results in** decreased esophageal barrier function (6, 8).
162 Using a translational approach, **Cianferoni et al.** found that Th2 cells expressing IL-4,

163 IL-5 and IL-13 significantly increased in peripheral blood in the active phase of EoE
164 patients who did not have milk-specific IgE (15), **further implicating type 2**
165 **immunity as a target for treatments in EoE. Several therapeutic trials have**
166 **targeted type 2 cytokines in EoE to limited success.** Trials using anti-IL-5 and
167 **anti-IL-13** antibodies **both** document **their** ability to diminish **esophageal**
168 **eosinophilia**. Despite these impressive findings, these studies did not support
169 clinical use because they were unable to meet the endpoint of symptom reduction (29,
170 61, 71, 74). Clinical trials of anti-IL-4R α (dupilumab) are in progress (NCT02379052).

171 In order to provide a unbiased approach, a genome wide association studies
172 (GWAS) provided further support for an underlying allergic/Th2 cytokine mechanism
173 for EoE **(66, 70)** In these studies, **single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNP) in the**
174 **TSLP locus were identified in EoE subjects but not controls.** TSLP expression is
175 increased in esophageal tissues of EoE patients. TSLP acts on dendritic cells evoking
176 a Th2 dominant immune response. Artis et al provide confirmation of a role for TSLP
177 in the underlying pathogenesis of esophageal eosinophilia (55). In this study,
178 inhibition of TSLP led to the reduction food impactions and eosinophilia in an EoE
179 mouse model.

180 **An emerging body of evidence supports the association of**
181 **immunoglobulin patterns in EoE.** For instance, IgG4 is increased in EoE tissues

182 (16, 65). Despite earlier hope that IgE mediated mechanisms may provide diagnostic,
183 therapeutic and pathogenetic insights for EoE patients, a growing body of evidence
184 does not support its direct role. Mouse models of EoE demonstrate the ability of B
185 cell-deficient mice to develop esophageal eosinophilia(46). IgE is not elevated in all
186 EoE patients and when increased, it is difficult to ascertain whether it is due to EoE or
187 other underlying allergic conditions. Omalizumab, an anti-IgE monoclonal antibody,
188 was not effective in inducing remission of EoE(16).

189 The impact of epigenetics and environmental factors on EoE continues to
190 emerge. Caesarian section, preterm birth, exposure to antibiotics in infantile period,
191 reduced breast feeding, and living in less crowded area have all been linked to an
192 increase of EoE (30, 31). As with the increase in other allergic diseases, the “Hygiene
193 Hypothesis” may also help to explain the recent increase in EoE. Decreased
194 exposure to bacteria within 2 to 3 years after birth can evoke Th2-dominant
195 immunological status, and thus a propensity to develop allergic disease (31, 77).
196 Based on similarity to the other classical allergic disorders, such deviation of Th1/Th2
197 balance stemming from the change in lifestyle could relate to the increase in EoE. For
198 example decreased bacterial exposure in infancy and childhood may relate to the
199 decreased rate of *Helicobacter pylori* detection in the general population (44). Such
200 decreases are especially prominent in developed countries, where the incidence of

201 EoE appears to be high. At least one study demonstrates that the infection rate of
202 *Helicobacter pylori* is inversely correlated to esophageal eosinophilia, but it is unclear
203 whether there is direct causative relationship or not (23). A recent study did not find
204 this same association indicating the need for more epidemiologic and mechanistic
205 studies (48).

206

207 **Barrier dysfunction; the chicken or the egg of the EoE story?**

208 A number of hypotheses have been raised regarding diminished esophageal
209 barrier function in EoE. First, some patients with EoE may have diminished epithelial
210 barrier at baseline when not inflamed thus predisposing them to allergic sensitization
211 or challenge; this model is similar to that seen in atopic dermatitis. **Indeed,**
212 transcriptional alterations **have been found** in human chromosome 1q21, which
213 encodes for a group of genes related to epidermal differentiation including filaggrin (8)
214 and another tissue specific proteolytic molecule, calpain14 (35). Altered expression of
215 these genes may predispose to barrier dysfunction at baseline or **after** activation by
216 **Type 2** cytokines such as IL-13 (8). A recent translational study measured the
217 esophageal **barrier using impedance monitors in adult EoE patients before and**
218 **after treatment (80)**. They determined that following treatment, esophageal barrier

219 was still reduced compared to normal values indicating a potential innate barrier
220 defect.

221 Second, the impaired barrier may develop as a result of peptic or other injury.
222 This hypothesis, termed the “two-hit hypothesis”, is based on the clinical observation
223 that EoE may develop after an epithelial insult from acid injury, trauma or infection (13,
224 27). In this circumstance, food or aeroallergens may then contact the damaged
225 epithelium and sensitized microenvironment in the esophageal mucosa leading to
226 activation of a **type 2 inflammatory** pathway.

227 Finally, barrier dysfunction may occur as a self-perpetuating product of
228 ongoing inflammation. In this circumstance, once an inflammatory process starts, the
229 epithelial surface may become increasingly permissive and allow more allergenic
230 stimulation to penetrate and develop an ongoing allergic cycle. Support for this
231 paradigm is based on histological findings of actively inflamed tissues that
232 demonstrate dilated intercellular spaces (Figure 2) and decreased desmosomes, as
233 well as abnormal impedance measurements in inflamed tissue compared to normal
234 (10, 79).

235 All of these hypotheses may help to explain part of the barriers’ role in EoE,
236 and several lines of evidence dissect the underlying associated pathways using
237 various model systems. Translational studies utilizing impedance monitors **and**

238 **Ussing chamber studies** reveal that the barrier is leaky during active inflammation
239 compared to inactive disease (80). Gene arrays laid the basis of several mechanistic
240 studies demonstrating the importance of IL-13 in barrier dysfunction. IL-13
241 downregulates filaggrin and desmoglein-1 and upregulates calpain 14, all of which
242 can contribute to diminished barrier. Filaggrin deficiency is also noted in patients with
243 atopic dermatitis (58), another allergic disease associated with dysfunctional barrier.
244 Genetic silencing of desmoglein induced barrier disruption *in vitro* (67). GWAS
245 studies highlighted increased CAPN14 expression associated with a subpopulation of
246 EoE (35), while *in vitro* culture of esophageal epithelial cells with IL-13 led to
247 increased CAPN14 expression and a subsequent loss of barrier function **implicating**
248 **its importance in barrier dysfunction in EoE** (18). In addition to its role in
249 remodeling, TGF- β 1 also decreased epithelial barrier function *in vitro*, by mediating a
250 decrease in the expression of the tight junction molecule Claudin 7 (53). Taken
251 together, the role of an intact barrier is likely critical to disease processes in EoE.

252

253 **Relationship of dysphagia and feeding problems with esophageal remodeling**

254 **in EoE**

255 Dysphagia, in adults, and feeding problems, in children, are some of the most
256 common presenting symptoms of EoE (52) that may relate to dysmotility or excessive

257 remodeling. Both of these symptoms **pose** significant challenges for the evaluation
258 and treatment of EoE patients. Patients often develop coping mechanisms to limit
259 symptoms. Instead of reporting difficulty swallowing, they may self-limit themselves
260 from eating highly textured foods that are difficult to swallow such as bread, steak or
261 rice. Parents may report excessively prolonged mealtimes due to drinking copious
262 amounts of water or chewing food excessively, often to the point of pulverization.
263 **These symptoms pose the practical problem related to caring for a child who**
264 **may take hours to feed a meal or limiting social exposure because of**
265 **embarrassment. They also create a barrier to completing therapeutic studies in**
266 **which this type of symptom has been difficult to measure.** Over the last few
267 years, symptom assessments for adults with EoE have been developed that take this
268 symptom into account (63). Other metrics to assess disease status which incorporate
269 the remodeling that occurs with chronic inflammation include barium esophagrams
270 with pill (43), endoscopic scoring of the mucosal surface (81), histological
271 assessments (17) and most recently catheter based measurement of esophageal
272 distensibility (42).

273 The underlying pathogenetic mechanisms that explain these symptoms are
274 not yet certain but early clinical studies suggested these problems **might** result from
275 overabundant remodeling of the epithelium, lamina propria, vasculature and the

276 deeper esophageal wall, or to disordered motility (26, 56). Remodeling in itself is a
277 necessary and critical part of host defense, but in excess can result in pathological
278 outcomes. For instance, the esophageal lumen in some patients with EoE is partially
279 **occluded due to either isolated, focal or diffuse, longitudinal stricture formation.**
280 **The classical histological findings of EoE include esophageal eosinophilia and**
281 **rete peg elongation. Additionally, evidence of dense collagen fibrils in the**
282 **lamina propria may represent problematic scarring. A number of molecules**
283 **have been implicated as targets of esophageal remodeling including mediators**
284 **such as TGF- β 1, CCL-18, and FGF-9.** Fibroblast activation occurs in response to
285 TGF- β 1 *in vitro* leading to the secretion of fibrotic factors such as collagen and
286 fibronectin (50, 60). Epithelial and sub-epithelial fibrosis has also been noted in EoE
287 (12), with epithelial cells themselves contributing to remodeling through mechanisms
288 such as epithelial-mesenchymal like transitions in response to factors including
289 TGF- β 1 (32, 50, 51). Increased vascular density and expression of activation
290 markers has been noted in EoE patients (2), while pre-clinical models treated with
291 anti-eosinophil (62) and anti-GM-CSF (41) reveal reduced vascular remodeling,
292 implicating remodeled vasculature as a response to chronic inflammation in EoE.
293 Cytokine involvement in the pathophysiology of EoE is also supported by the effects
294 of cytokine targeted drugs (anti-IL-5, anti-IL-13) on epithelial eosinophil

295 chemoattractant CCL26 production and **subsequent** esophageal eosinophilic
296 infiltration (3, 7, 14, 45, 61, 74) Finally, exposure of esophageal smooth muscle cells
297 to TGF- β 1 leads to smooth muscle cell activation *in vitro*, resulting in increased
298 contraction (1, 5, 60).

299 **New technology has brought more understanding of the functional**
300 **aspects of this esophageal remodeling.** Functional Luminal Imaging Probe (FLIP)
301 is a catheter-based technology that upon volume-based insufflation permits
302 measurement of esophageal compliance. Results from studies using this device in
303 adults demonstrate decreased distensibility in patients with EoE compared to controls
304 (37, 54). In children with EoE, distensibility was decreased compared to normal
305 controls and improved following treatment (42). Moreover, longitudinal studies have
306 demonstrated that treatment with either steroids or diet elimination improves
307 distensibility. These studies also demonstrated that improved distensibility correlated
308 with patient reported symptom severity indices possibly more so than the traditional
309 marker of histological marker of disease severity, eosinophils/hpf (11). Evaluations of
310 distensibility potentially offer a predictive quality as shown in an adult study in which,
311 a threshold distensibility plateau predicted the likelihood of food impaction (54). What
312 is unknown however, is what specific remodeling features have the greatest impact
313 on the observed differences in esophageal compliance and, more specifically, what

314 therapeutic target(s) that are affected during successful treatments. With respect to
315 motility, the incidence of dysmotility is high in long-term EoE patients (78), In EoE
316 patients, longitudinal muscle contractility is associated with impaired peristalsis and is
317 suspected to be associated with dysphagia (34). Submucosal mast cells found in EoE
318 patients may enhance the contractility of esophageal smooth muscle (1). In mouse
319 models of EoE, dysmotility of the esophagus similar to that of EoE patients was
320 observed (40).

321

322 **Natural history of EoE and impact of therapeutic interventions**

323 EoE was reported in the early 1990's but Consensus Recommendations **for**
324 **diagnosis** were **first** published in 2007 (28). Thus, few studies document long-term
325 outcomes of this disease. **As clinical experiences increase, phenotypic patterns**
326 **have been increasingly recognized.** For instance, while most children experience
327 normal growth, some may be found to have malnutrition. To date, no pre- or
328 malignant potential has been observed but food impactions are common occurrences.
329 Food impactions develop in upwards of 30 to 45% of patients and are often the
330 presenting symptom leading to diagnosis (69, 72). **Determination of the exact**
331 **incidence of stricture depends on how stricture or fibrostenosis is defined.**
332 **However, upwards of 67-70% of untreated patients were found to develop**

333 **strictures and in another study, 9% of subjects were found to have an extremely**
334 **narrow caliber esophagus (inability to pass a standard adult endoscope) (25, 64,**
335 **69).** Older age and duration of inflammation are currently considered the most
336 notable risk factors for having a stricture. For example, in the pediatric population,
337 fibrostenotic features are reported in up to 16% of the population and impaction in up
338 to 21% (21, 69).

339 In an effort to provide optimal outcomes, goals of treatment with diet
340 **elimination of food triggers and topical steroids include reduction of symptoms**
341 **and improvement of esophageal eosinophilia.** Whether or not these approaches
342 will alter the natural history of the disease is not certain. **However,** statistical modeling
343 of untreated disease suggests an increasing likelihood of developing strictures and
344 that prolonged use of topical steroid may prevent food impaction (21, 36). In a cohort
345 study of just over 200 adults with EoE, 9.1% developed food impactions during follow
346 up periods in which they had stopped topical steroid treatment. **In contrast,** only
347 3.5% experienced food impactions when using topical steroid treatment greater than
348 50% of the time, and even fewer (1.7%) experienced food impaction when taking
349 treatments >75% of the time (36). While swallowed topical steroids have
350 demonstrated the ability to impact inflammation, improve symptoms and prevent
351 complications of EoE when used consistently, adherence to treatment in the

352 management of chronic disease remains challenging. Additional options, including
353 biologics such as anti-IL-5 or IL-13 provide hope for alternative approaches.

354

355 **Summary**

356 In the past two decades since the **observation** of EoE was first **reported**,
357 the clarification of its pathophysiology has **advanced**. EoE is a chronic disease with a
358 unique gene expression pattern and an increasingly clear understanding of the
359 pathophysiology of eosinophil migration, barrier dysfunction and fibrosis has been
360 elucidated. Therapeutic interventions such as topical steroids may alter the natural
361 history of EoE even after treatment termination. **Based upon a deeper**
362 **understanding of the pathologic processes of EoE, we as a field** will develop
363 molecule-targeted therapeutic options with fewer side effects and **ultimately** better
364 medical management **of patients with EoE.**

365

366

367 **Figure Legends**

368 **Figure 1**

369 Endoscopic findings associated with EoE. A. Normal esophagus- smooth, pink,
370 lacelike veiled vascular pattern, B. Linear furrows extending longitudinally with loss of
371 vascular pattern and epithelial edema, C. White exudates representing eosinophilic
372 pus, D. Longitudinal tear that represents a fragile mucosa. This feature can occur with
373 the mere passage of the endoscope.

374

375 **Figure 2**

376 Histological patterns associated with EoE. A. In the left low power image, infiltration of
377 eosinophils and epithelial hyperplasia and microabscess (within the circle) can be
378 seen. B. In the right high power image (from different patient), rete peg elongation
379 (arrow) and the expansion of intracellular space, so-called spongiosis (within the
380 circle) is prominent in addition to numerous eosinophilic infiltration.

381

382

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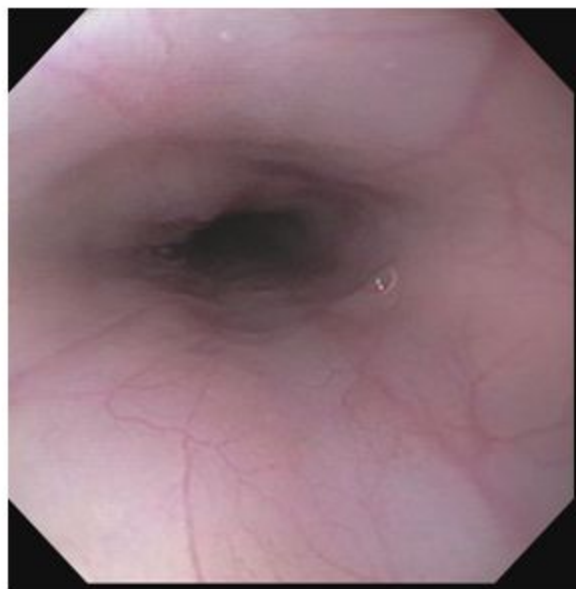
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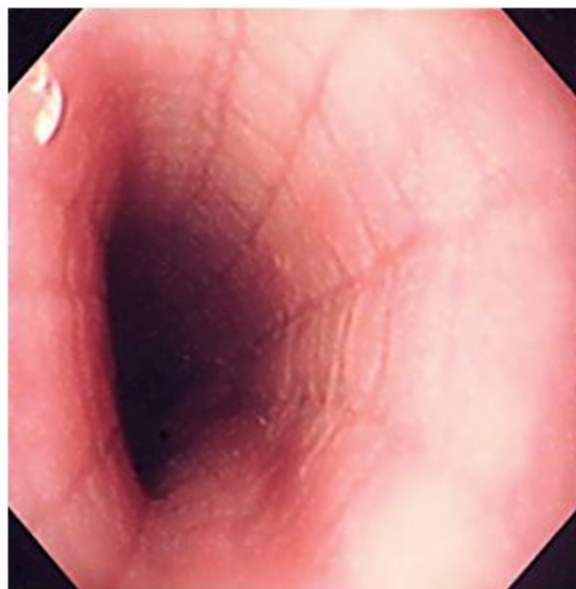
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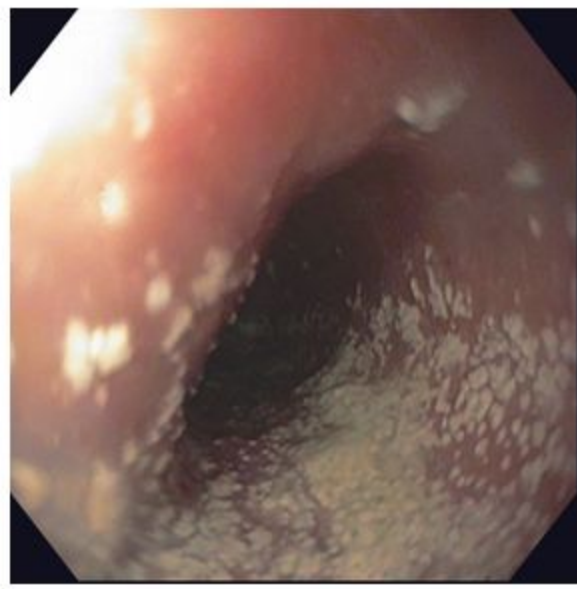
Figure 1



A. Normal



B. Linear furrows



C. White exudate



D. Longitudinal tear

Figure 2

