Imaging in Testicular Tumors

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SECTION I: INTRODUCTION AND ANATOMIC CONSIDERATIONS

Introduction

Prior to the advent of the newer imaging modalities, non-invasive evaluation of scrotal masses was limited to palpation and transillumination. Lymphangiography, however, has long been used in the evaluation of nodal metastases from testicular tumors and remains one of the most informative techniques in the staging of these tumors. More recently, newer non-invasive modalities, such as ultrasonography and computed tomography have become available and have had significant impact on our evaluation. It is the purpose of this article to describe and discuss the relative roles of these imaging modalities in the diagnosis of testicular neoplasms and work-up of metastatic disease. The ultimate role of MRI has yet to be evaluated. Other imaging modalities such as chest radiography, radionuclide scanning, and brain CT scanning may be performed as the need arises. Special procedures such as arteriography and venography are occasionally performed in search of undescended testicles complicated by malignancy.

Imaging techniques are also employed in preparation for transcatheter management by intraarterial infusion of chemotherapy and chemoembolization. In addition, imaging guided percutaneous biopsy and drainage techniques are of considerable value in diagnosis and treatment.

It is assumed that the reader is aware of the WHO classification shown on Table 11 and also of the multipotential nature of the germ cell tumors (Figure 1)2.

The classification most commonly employed at M.D. Anderson Hospital is shown on Table 2. Typical spread of testicular tumors is to the retroperitoneal lymph nodes, followed by the supradiaphragmatic mediastinal chain and supraclavicular nodes3,4. The most common extranodal metastases are to the lungs and liver. However, uncommon sites of metastatic disease have also been observed involving organs such as: kidneys,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1 – W.H.O. pathologic classification testicular tumors</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I. Germ Cell Tumor</td>
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<tr>
<td>A. Tumors of one histologic type</td>
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<tr>
<td>1. Seminoma</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Spermatocytic seminoma</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Embryonal carcinoma</td>
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<td>4. Yolk sac tumor (embryonal carcinoma infantile type)</td>
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<td>5. Polyembryoma</td>
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<td>6. Choriocarcinoma</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. Teratomas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. Mature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Immature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. With malignant transformation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Tumors with &gt; 1 histologic pattern</td>
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<tr>
<td>1. Embryonal carcinoma + teratoma (teratocarcinoma)</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Choriocarcinoma and any other types (specify)</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Other combinations (specify)</td>
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<td>II. Sex Cord-Stroma Tumors</td>
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<td>A. Well-differentiated forms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Leydig cell tumor</td>
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<td>2. Sertoli cell tumor</td>
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<td>3. Granulosa cell tumor</td>
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<tr>
<td>B. Mixed forms (specify)</td>
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<tr>
<td>C. Incompletely differentiated forms</td>
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adrenals, spleen, stomach and even the inferior vena cava³.

Anatomy

The normal testis (Figure 2) is an ovoid gland usually measuring just over 4cm in its longest dimension. The tunica vaginalis, as visceral peritoneum, covers the testis except at its site of attachment to the epididymis and spermatic cord. A capsule, the tunica albuginea, and numerous septa divide the testis into compartments, these converging toward the upper pole of the mediastinum region, which contains the rete testis (Figure 2). Each compartment contains several highly convoluted seminiferous tubules, these converging toward the rete network. Here they connect by straight tubular recti

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Figure 2 — Anatomy of the scrotum.
(From: The Radiologic Clinics of North America 1985; 23 (1): 122, reproduced with permission.)

Figure 3 — Sonographic anatomy of the normal testicle.
A. Sagittal scan demonstrating uniform medium level of echogenicity (cursors).
B. Sagittal scan showing echogenic band of the mediastinum testis (arrowheads).
C. Sagittal scan showing a normal testicle with a small hydrocele (long arrows) enabling visualization of the tunica vaginalis (short arrows).
which join to open into the head of the epididymis. At the upper pole of the testis is the appendix testis, a small vestigial pedunculated or sessile body.

Sonographically, the testis displays a uniform medium level of echogenicity similar to that of the thyroid gland (Figure 3). The head and body of the epididymis are routinely visualized and are as echogenic as the testicle or more so. The mediastinum testis, an invagination of the tunica albuginea into the testicular substance, is visualized as a highly echogenic band parallel to the long axis of the testicle (Figure 3). This should not be confused with an echogenic pathologic process. Occasionally, small echogenic foci may be seen with or without acoustical shadowing and these may represent spermatic granuloma or phleboliths. In the presence of a hydrocele, the appendix testis may be visualized cephalad to the testicle. The various layers of the scrotum itself are indistinguishable and are often seen as a highly echogenic stripe. The tunica vaginalis may be visualized when a hydrocele is present (Figure 3).

Testicular lymphatics (Figure 4) accompany the internal spermatic artery and vein and terminate in sentinel nodes at the level of L-1/L-2 on the left and L-1/L-3 on the right, slightly lateral to the lumbar nodes. From the right testis there may be direct filling of the right lateral nodes above or below the renal vein, or directly to the left-lateral nodes. Thus, there may be immediate crossover of the right testicular lymphatics to the contralateral nodes (Figure 21), while the left testicular lymphatics only crossover after permeating the sentinel nodes. From the lumbar nodes, continuity of the lymphatic system is usually maintained through the thoracic duct.

The external iliac nodes may occasionally drain the testes and on rare occasions pulmonary metastases of testicular tumors are discovered in the absence of retroperitoneal disease. This is most likely due to a variation in the normal lymphatic drainage, as shown in the rat where there may be direct communication between the testicular lymphatics and the thoracic duct. In addition, isolated metastases to the external iliac, inguinal and femoral nodes may occur as a result of surgical distortion or tumor involvement of the epididymis.

SECTION II: MODALITIES OF IMAGING FOR DIAGNOSIS AND STAGING

A. Ultrasonography

Ultrasound is a noninvasive, nonionizing modality which has gained wide acceptance for evaluation of the testes and other scrotal pathology. It is performed rapidly and without discomfort to the patient.

Ultrasound of the testicle is usually done in a patient presenting with an enlarged scrotum to differentiate between intratesticular and extratesticular masses (Figure 4). It is also useful in suspected testicular neoplasms, or in search of primary neoplasms which may be occult in patients presenting with metastatic disease. In addition, an undescended testicle alone or complicated by tumor may also be demonstrated by ultrasound. Finally after orchiectomy, with or without insertion of a prosthesis, the sac may be scanned in search of residual or recurrent tumors.

Technique. After a brief clinical history is obtained, the patient is placed in the supine position and with gloved hands, careful palpation of the scrotum and its contents is performed. A folded towel is placed between the thighs to keep the scrotum elevated. A second towel is spread between the scrotum and the
groin. The penis is folded upward and covered by another towel. Scanning may be performed with the scrotal contents either lying on the towel or cradled within the gloved hand of the operator. In any event, care must be taken to place the epididymis posteriorly. It would be preferable to have another person to assist marking the images with appropriate numbers and planes of scanning. The room temperature should be comfortably warm to prevent contraction of the scrotum during scanning.

At UT M.D. Anderson Hospital, high resolution 7.5 and 10-MHz small parts transducers are utilized. Scanning is begun using 7.5 MHz transducer in the transverse plane (preferably including both testicles in the field) and scans are numbered from the level of the head of the epididymis through the inferior pole. This will allow comparison of the echogenicity of the testicles. In larger testicles, each testicle may be scanned separately. Sagittal slices may be obtained from midline towards the lateral aspect and numbered as such. Finally, both testicles and the scrotum are carefully surveyed with a 10 MHz transducer and appropriate images and measurements of the lesions are obtained.

**Testicular tumors**

Sonography is extremely accurate in differentiating intra- from extratesticular masses (Figure 5). This is of paramount importance as the majority of the intratesticular masses are malignant while almost all of the extratesticular masses are either inflammatory lesions or benign neoplasms. Intratesticular masses arise either from the germ cells or the stroma. Other tumors include leukemia-lymphoma, and metastatic disease. Extratesticular masses include hydrocele, hematoma, spermatocele, abscess, and adenomatoid tumors. Sonographic features of the malignant intratesticular neoplasms consist of single or multiple masses, bright echogenic foci and diffuse abnormality of the echo texture. In one reported series of 21 patients, 72% of confirmed testicular neoplasms showed a mass on ultrasound, 66% had bright echogenic foci and 31% showed diffuse abnormality of the texture of the testicle, all these being ultrasonographic features of testicular neoplasm. It should be noted however, that focal intratesticular masses are nonspecific and while usually neoplastic may also be representative of other pathologic processes such as abscess, infarction or hemorrhage. Thickening of the scrotum and the epididymis has been described as a differentiating sign for inflammatory lesions, however, certain neoplasms such as embryonal carcinoma frequently infiltrate the tunica and epididymis and therefore may mimic inflammatory lesions. Hyperechoic foci in a suspected neoplasm may represent "burnt-out" germ cell tumor or calcification within a teratoma. "Burnt-out" tumors are important ultrasonic findings in patients presenting with metastatic germ cell tumors and normal testicles on palpation. Sonographically, these foci are seen at the periphery of the mass or in an area of diffusely altered texture. They measure 2 to 5mm in size. They may or may not show acoustic shadowing (Figure 11). These testicles are usually atrophic as compared to the contralateral testicle and the echogenic foci represent a regressed germ cell tumor. Diffuse changes in the echo texture may be seen in the lymphoma-leukemia group, seminoma and mixed germ cell tumors.

While ultrasound findings are not specific, the incidence of a false-negative examination in tumors is very low. In another series, accuracy in detection of a neoplasm was found to be 80% to 90%. This is of extreme importance in cases of metastatic germ cell tumors where no palpable mass is found in the testicle (occult testicular primary).
Sonographic findings in specific tumors

Ninety-five percent of the testicular tumors are of germ cell origin which are highly aggressive tumors and 5% are non-germinatal tumors, usually benign in nature. Of germ cell tumors, 60% are of pure cell type and 40% are mixed. Eight percent of the patients will be expected to develop a contralateral testicular tumor either of the same or different cell type (Figure 6).

Seminoma

Seminomas are the most common cell type and account for 40% of the germ cell tumors. These tumors are never seen in infants and the peak age is in the fourth decade. Seminomas are less aggressive, highly radiosensitive and the cure rate for stage I disease approaches 95% to 100%. Twenty-five percent of the seminomas will present with metastatic disease. These tumors are almost always confined to the tunica albuginea and represent the most common germ cell tumor arising in the undescended testicle (Figure 23). On sonography, seminomas usually present with solitary or multifocal hypoechoic lesions (Figure 6). Occasionally, they produce diffuse hypoechogenicity.

Embryonal carcinoma

Embryonal carcinoma is the most undifferentiated and the stem for all nonseminomatous germ cell tumors. These account for 20% of the germ cell tumors and occur in a younger age group than seminoma, usually between 15 and 30 years of age. They frequently invade the tunica and the epididymis and may contain necrosis and hemorrhage. On sonography, they manifest as well-defined lesions which are less homogeneous than seminomas and contain both cystic and echogenic areas.

Teratoma

Teratomas represent 5% to 10% of the primary germ cell tumors of the testicle and while they are frequently thought to be benign tumors, approximately one-third metastasize within five years. The mature (differentiated) forms in children behave as benign tumors and almost all have a good prognosis. In the adults, it is difficult to be certain and apparently differentiated mature teratomas may harbor foci of malignant cells; therefore, it is believed that all teratomas in the adults should be considered malignant. The sonographic appearance of the teratomas depends on the complex nature of these lesions; they may range from sonolucent to highly echogenic lesions (Figure 7). The cystic ones will present as sonolucent defects. Calcium and osseous components will create highly echogenic lesions with acoustic shadowing. A primary teratoma in the testicle may metastasize to the retroperitoneal nodes as a mixed germ cell tumor (Figure 7) and conversely a mixed germ cell tumor of the testicle may metastasize as a mature teratoma. These latter metastatic lesions may enlarge in size without containing malignant cells, so-called growing teratoma syndrome (Figure 19).

Choriocarcinoma

Choriocarcinoma is the least common of the germ cell tumors accounting for 1-3% of these tumors. They are usually small, very aggressive tumors containing hemorrhagic and necrotic foci. As expected, human
Figure 7 — Teratoma of the testicle.
A. Cystic pattern with solid component: 37-year-old male with supraclavicular node positive for metastatic poorly differentiated carcinoma of germ cell origin. Sagittal sonogram shows small cystic lesion (arrows) with mural nodule. Pathological examination of the testicle and retrocrural nodes revealed mature teratoma whereas the retroperitoneal nodes showed embryonal carcinoma.
B. Diffuse and focal pattern: 22-year-old male with an enlarged testicle and pulmonary parenchymal and mediastinal metastases. Sagittal sonogram shows a diffusely abnormal echo texture with cystic (open arrows), hyperechoic (closed arrows) and hypoechoic (arrowheads) foci. Pathologically the testicle was found infiltrated by mature teratoma with partially cystic and necrotic areas.

Figure 8 — Choriocarcinoma probably arising from an undescended testicle metastatic to lung and brain.
32-year-old male with disseminated choriocarcinoma diagnosed by lung biopsy. He had a history of undescended testicle, surgically corrected during infancy. Two hard nodules were palpable in the right testicle.
A. Sagittal sonogram prior to chemotherapy showing a discrete hypoechoic nodule (cursors) and a possible smaller one (arrow).
B. Postcontrast brain CT scan showing multiple enhancing metastases.
C. Postchemotherapy sonogram showing two cystic areas (arrows). Subsequent orchiectomy showed three small nodules. Pathologic diagnosis was cystic mature teratomas with 90% fibrosis. No choriocarcinoma was detected.
chorionic gonadotropin (HCG) is demonstrated in the cytoplasm of the syncytiotrophoblastic cells and as a result choriocarcinomas exclusively produce HCG. Choriocarcinomas cause early metastatic disease (Figure 8) and may be a component of other germ cell tumors. These tumors may metastasize as choriocarcinoma without choriocarcinoma being found in the testicular primary (Figure 8)\(^\text{11}\). On ultrasound, they present with mixed echogenic pattern due to necrosis, hemorrhage, and calcification.

**Endodermal sinus tumor**

Endodermal sinus tumors, also known as infantile embryonal carcinoma or yolk sac tumors, are the most common testicular tumors in infants and children\(^\text{11}\). Pure endodermal sinus tumor is rare in adults\(^\text{20}\) and is usually seen in association with embryonal carcinoma. These tumors produce exclusively alpha-fetoprotein (AFP). On ultrasound, these may present as hypoechoic or echogenic masses (Figure 9).

**Mixed tumors**

Mixed tumors constitute the remaining 40% of the germ cell tumors. The most common histologic type (25%) is the combination of teratoma and embryonal carcinoma (so called teratocarcinoma) and represents the second most common type of all germ cell tumors, second only to seminoma. These tumors contain cysts.

![Figure 9](image-url)

- *Figure 9* — Metastatic endodermal sinus tumor of the testicle. Two-year-old boy with testicular mass, pulmonary and retroperitoneal metastases.
  
  A. Sagittal sonogram shows an enlarged echogenic testicle.
  B. Prechemotherapy chest radiograph shows a metastatic nodule (arrowheads).
  C. Postchemotherapy chest radiography three months later shows resolution of the nodule.
hemorrhage, and necrosis. They frequently invade the tunica and epididymis and consequently lymphatic and hematogeneous metastatic disease occurs early. On sonography, these tumors may appear as solitary or multiple hypoechoic nodules, complex cystic-solid lesions or diffuse change in texture (Figure 10).

**Extragonadal germ cell tumors**

Extragonadal germ cell tumors may occur in the retroperitoneum, mediastinum, and pineal gland. Before a patient is diagnosed as having extragonadal germ cell tumor, a thorough search of the testicle by ultrasound should be performed to exclude a gonadal primary. Sonography of testicles in some patients with presumed extragonadal germ cell tumors may show bright echogenic foci representing so called “burned-out” germ cell tumors (Figure 11). Histologically these foci may contain hematoxyphlic bodies, immature bone, hyaline cartilage, calcification or tubular atrophy. These testicles are usually smaller than the contralateral testicle. These foci may or may not have distal acoustical shadowing. In one series, these foci were seen in 87% of the patients who had regressed germ cell tumor.

**Non-germ cell tumors**

Non-germ cell tumors account for 5% of the testicular tumors and they are usually of Sertoli-Leydig variety. These are usually benign in nature and may produce endocrinology manifestations. On sonography, they are usually solid hypoechoic masses containing cystic foci.

**Lymphoma and leukemia**

Lymphoma is not a primary tumor of the testicle and constitutes about 5% of testicular neoplasms. It is the most common testicular tumor in elderly men. Disseminated disease usually follows testicular involvement. The histologic pattern is diffuse in almost all of the cases. The sonographic appearance is that of diffuse-ly enlarged hypoechoic testicle, although occasionally multifocal involvement may be seen.
Figure 11 — "Burnt out" germ cell tumor of the testicle. A 24-year-old man with history of metastatic germ cell tumor in retroperitoneal nodes (EST and choriocarcinoma) treated two years ago with chemotherapy. Transverse sonogram of the testicle showing abnormal texture and multiple bright hyperechoic foci (arrows). Histology showed a small cyst, an island of hyaline cartilage and extensive fibrosis consistent with "burnt out" or differentiated tumor (mature teratoma).

Testicular involvement in acute lymphoblastic leukemia during the initial presentation is occasionally seen, however, most cases occur within one year of discontinuation of maintenance chemotherapy. The incidence of leukemic relapse in the testicle has been reported to be as high as 13% and probably represents an early manifestation of more occult systemic disease. Sonography at the completion of maintenance chemotherapy and thereafter may demonstrate early relapse and obviate the need for routine wedge biopsy. Sonographically leukemia manifests with enlarged diffusely hypoechoic testicles (Figure 13), although focal hypoechoic nodules are not uncommon. These focal areas of involvement may escape detection on clinical examination.

Metastases
Metastatic tumors to the testicle are more common than germ cell tumors in men over 50 and are usually from genitourinary primaries (prostate, kidney). On sonography these may appear as either hypoechoic or hyperechoic defects.
**Extratesticular tumors**

Among the extratesticular tumors, adenomatoid tumor is the most common and arises from the epididymis\(^5,11\). These are usually small benign tumors and are seen in the periphery of the testicle, as a solid mass usually more echogenic than the testicle\(^5\).

**Ultrasound in the evaluation of nodal metastasis**

Ultrasound may be utilized in search of nodal metastasis in the abdomen and pelvis. However, the retroperitoneum is frequently obscured by gas, especially in the lower abdomen and pelvis.

**Ultrasound of the scrotum following orchiectomy**

Following orchiectomy, a baseline sonogram should be obtained preferably 4-6 weeks postoperatively. This will allow time to record the status of the contralateral testicle and presence of residual or recurrent tumor in the hemiscrotum with or without prosthesis (Figure 14).

**Computed tomography**

While ultrasound can be utilized in the evaluation of the retroperitoneal spread of testicular tumors, the lower paraaortic nodes are frequently obscured by the interfering bowel gas and obesity of the patient. CT scan is extremely helpful in staging because it more accurately determines the extent of tumor preoperatively in most instances. In seminomas, it helps in radiation therapy treatment planning. In non-seminomatous tumors, the therapeutic modality chosen, namely surgery versus chemotherapy, may be guided by the CT findings\(^4,21\).

Reported accuracy of CT in the detection of retroperitoneal nodal metastasis is approximately 85% and it may detect early metastatic disease to the renal hilar nodes which are not opacified by bipedal lymphangiography (LAG)\(^4,7,8\). CT will help to depict the exact extent of the tumor, particularly in the upper periaortic regions. In addition, CT scan will demonstrate extranodal metastatic disease (liver, lung)\(^3,21\). Though larger lateral masses (> 1.5cm) can be better defined by CT, when the disease is small and the changes are subtle, the nodes are better defined by LAG (Table 3). However, CT and LAG are really complementary studies (see below)\(^7\). In addition, CT can be used for monitoring the

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**Table 2** — UT MDAH classification of neoplasms of the testis and related structures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I. Neoplasms of testis proper</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Germinal tumors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Seminoma, pure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. Classic type</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Anaplastic type</td>
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<tr>
<td>c. Spermatocytic type</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Embryonal carcinoma, pure, or with seminoma</td>
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<tr>
<td>a. Juvenile variant</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Teratoma, pure, or with seminoma</td>
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<tr>
<td>a. Mature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Immature</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Teratoma with embryonal carcinoma or choriocarcinoma or both, with or without seminoma</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Choriocarcinoma, pure or with embryonal carcinoma or seminoma or both</td>
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<tr>
<th>B. Gonadal stromal tumors</th>
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<tr>
<td>1. Interstitial cell tumor</td>
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<td>2. Tumor of specialized gonadal stroma</td>
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<tr>
<td>a. Androblastoma</td>
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<tr>
<td>b. Sertoli cell tumor</td>
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<td>c. Granulosa cell tumor</td>
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<th>C. Secondary neoplasms</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Reticuloendothelial neoplasms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. Malignant lymphoma, various types</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Metastatic neoplasms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. Adenocarcinoma of prostate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Malignant melanoma</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Bronchogenic carcinoma</td>
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<tr>
<td>d. Other</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>II. Neoplasms of related structures</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Connective tissue neoplasms</td>
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<tr>
<td>1. Paratesticular rhabdomyosarcoma</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Nonspecific connective tissue neoplasms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Granulosa cell tumor</td>
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<tr>
<td>B. Other neoplasms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Adenomatoid tumor of epididymus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Papillary cystadenoma of epididymus</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Mesothelioma of tunica vaginalis testis</td>
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**Figure 14** — Tumor recurrence in the postorchiectomy space. A 27-year-old male status one month postorchiectomy for mixed germ cell tumor invading the capsule and epididymis. There were also retroperitoneal metastases. A 1.5cm nodule was palpable in the right sac. Sagittal sonogram shows a 1.5cm hypoechoic mass (arrowheads). Notice small calcification (arrow). Following chemotherapy, both the nodule and retroperitoneal nodes regressed.
Table 3 - CT versus lymphangiography

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Usage/Indications*</th>
<th>Computed tomography</th>
<th>Lymphangiography</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To reveal flow dynamics</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>To detect small nodal lesion</td>
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<tr>
<td>To detect large nodal lesions</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To determine the extent of nodal lesions</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>To reveal extranodal involvement</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>To delineate nodes beyond LAG demonstration</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>To detect internal architecture</td>
<td>+</td>
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<tr>
<td>*CT and LAG are complementaries</td>
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response to treatment in patients with elevated levels of tumor markers.

**Technique:**

CT scans of the chest are obtained at 10mm contiguous slices from the apices through the lung bases. Intravenous contrast is routinely utilized. CT scans of the abdomen are taken with 15mm slices at 10mm intervals and from the pelvis 15mm slice intervals. Oral, intravenous and rectal contrast material are routinely used. In the search for an undescended testis, smaller (10mm) slice intervals are selected. Further evaluation by scans at closer intervals (3mm to 5mm) is determined after review of the initial surgery.

**Computed tomography in imaging of metastatic testicular tumors**

CT findings of metastatic masses from testicular tumors may be divided into three different groups: cystic, solid, and mixed.

The cystic pattern is seen in pure very mature teratomas (Figures 15, 25). The solid pattern is usually seen in pure seminoma (Figure 16) or pure choriocarcinoma. The semicystic (mixed) pattern is due to teratomatous components either metastasis from a pure primary immature teratoma or of primary mixed germ cell origin with teratomatous components (Figure 17). The degree of cystic change in a pure teratoma is directly proportional to the maturity of the teratoma, the more mature the teratoma the more cystic the appearance (Figure 25).

Low attenuation nodal metastases occurs in 43-46% of testicular cancer. A low attenuation mediastinal or retroperitoneal mass of unknown etiology in a young male should raise suspicion of a metastatic testicular neoplasm.

Persistent masses detected by CT are common after chemotherapy of seminomas and create a diagnostic...

Figure 15 - Retroperitoneal metastasis from mixed germ cell tumor (Embryonal carcinoma, endodermal sinus tumor and mature teratoma) of the testicle cystic pattern: A, CT scan shows septated cystic mass (white arrows) displacing the aorta (white arrowhead). The low density of the mass was consistent with its teratomatous component. B, LAG shows nodal metastasis, mostly non-opacified in left upper paraaortic area (black arrows) and a huge nodal mass inferiorly (black arrowheads) almost completely filled by tumor.
di1emma25,26, frequently requiring biopsy under CT guidance. Unlike their nonseminomatous counterpart they most often represent fibrosis27. Residual low attenuation masses represent necrosis with lipid-laden macrophages and cholesterol clefts (Figure 18)24.

In 1.9% of patients with metastatic mixed germ cell tumors treated with chemotherapy, recurrence of a solitary enlarging mass in the chest or abdomen has been described as the “growing teratoma” syndrome19. On surgical resection, these prove to be mature teratomas with no malignant features on histology (Figure 19). In two out of six patients reported from this institution, the growth was attributed to an expanding cystic nature of the mass; the remaining four had firm masses. Tumor biomarkers were normal in these cases and surgery was curative.

Aspiration needle biopsy of the retroperitoneal nodes may be performed under CT guidance; however, if the nodes contain lymphangiographic contrast the biopsy can be done under fluoroscopy. CT is also of value in diagnostic needle aspiration and drainage of lymphoceles that result from retroperitoneal node dissection.

C. Lymphangiography (LAG)

Lymphangiography in tumors of the testes:
Unlike the lumbar nodes, the sentinel nodes are usually not opacified by bipedal LAG. Thus, in the final analysis important nodes are filled by testicular LAG that are not opacified by the pedal route, necessitating
Figure 17 — Seminoma of the testicle metastatic to the retroperitoneal nodes, mixed pattern.
A. CT scan one month postcommencement of chemotherapy shows huge mass (arrow) engulfing the cava (c) and aorta (a) with areas of low attenuation, presumably representing necrosis.
B. CT scan three years posttreatment shows residual small left paraaortic node (arrowhead).

Figure 18 — Seminoma of the testicle with stable residual retroperitoneal mass.
A 29-year-old male with history of metastatic seminoma treated with chemotherapy.
CT scan shows a residual low density probably a necrotic mass in the left paraaortic area which has remained stable for at least 3 months.

Figure 19 — "Growing teratoma" syndrome.
A 39-year-old male was treated for metastatic embryonal carcinoma of the left testicle. The patient was clinically free of disease and biomarkers were normal. Pulmonary metastases had disappeared.
A. CT scan in March 1986, showing low density left paraaortic and interaortacaval nodes (arrows).
B. CT scan in July 1986, shows increase in the size and further decrease in attenuation of the paraaortic mass (arrowheads). The mass was surgically resected and a mature teratoma was diagnosed. No further therapy was given.
the combined approach for maximum information. However, in practice, this is seldom resorted to because of the risk of the operative procedure and the additional expense.

Nodal metastases from testicular malignant disease show several different architectural patterns. Involved nodes are more spherical than normal and may have a crescent deformity with the lymphatics that fail to penetrate the marginal defects (carcinoma pattern) (Figures 16, 20). Occasionally, they may have an abnormal internal architecture with a relatively intact marginal sinus (lymphoma pattern) (Figure 20). The latter picture is more frequently seen in some seminomas, lymphomas, and rhabdomyosarcomas of the testes. At times, the metastatic nodes show both carcinoma and lymphoma patterns, a mixed variety (Figure 20). At times, there may be immediate crossover metastasis from the right testicular lymphatics to the contralater-
Imaging in testicular tumors: Eftekhari et al.

In our series of a total of 83 patients considered negative by lymphangiography, 70 were negative at surgical exploration. Of the 13 patients (11%) who exhibited false negative findings, four showed microscopic lesions 3mm or less in size, one had a lesion in the interaortico-caval area, and eight were found to have metastases in nodes lateral to those usually opacified by pedal LAG. These metastases may have been diagnosed by the testicular route, ultrasound or CT. The overall accuracy by lymphangiography was 88.4%. Following lymphangiography, the patients can be monitored by conventional radiography of the abdomen in 75% of patients for one year and in 30% for two years (Figure 21).

Computed tomography versus lymphangiography in tumors of the testicle

The relative indications and usage of these two modalities of imaging are outlined in Table 3. At M.D. Anderson Hospital and Tumor Institute, in a comparative study of LAG and CT, CT scans were performed within a month following LAG in 103 patients with testicular tumors (82 with carcinoma and 21 with seminoma). Of these 103 patients (Table 4), LAG was positive for nodal metastases in 53 patients and was negative in 50. CT detected metastasis in 50 patients and no metastases in 53 patients. Thirty-nine of 103 patients had pathological correlation by retroperitoneal lymph node dissection or percutaneous needle biopsy (34 with carcinoma and 5 with seminoma (Table 5). LAG was proven to be positive in 29 patients with an overall accuracy of 92.3%. Twenty-six patients were positive on CT, with an overall accuracy of 84.6%. Ten false negatives in the CT group were due to small lesions less than 1.5-2cm. Two false negatives in LAG (5.1%) resulted from a microscopic lesion in one case and a lesion in the pre-aortic and the interaortico-caval regions in another case. One false positive (2.5%) in the CT group was due to lymphoid hyperplasia and one false positive in the LAG group was caused by a benign lesion, sinus histiocytosis. In advanced testicular tumors, LAG often failed to reveal the upper limits of the lesion; however, CT is of definite value in demonstrating the extent of the nodal metastases and the involvement of the adjacent organs. Sometimes when the nodal lesion is high in the renal hilar region, it is often partial-

Figure 21 — Embryonal carcinoma of the right testicle with cross-over metastasis to the left paraaortic nodes (arrows)
A. Lymphatic phase.
B. Nodal phase.
Figure 22 — Embryonal carcinoma of the right testicle with interval development of retroperitoneal nodal metastasis. This case demonstrates the value of follow-up by plain abdominal radiograph.

A. Baseline normal LAG.
B. Six-month follow-up KUB shows enlargement of the right L1-L2 nodes (long arrows).
C. CT shows enlarged retrocaval node with a filling defect anteriorly (short arrows).
Imaging in testicular tumors: Eftekharid et al.

Table 4 — Findings of LAG and CT in 103 patients with testicular tumors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Lymphangiography</th>
<th>Computed tomography</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 — Pathological correlation in 39 patients with testicular neoplasms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Lymphangiography</th>
<th>Computed tomography</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>False negative</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
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<td>7</td>
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<tr>
<td>False positive</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sensitivity          29/31 = 93.5% 26/31 = 83.8%
Specificity          7/8 = 87.5% 7/8 = 87.5%
Accuracy            36/39 = 92.3% 33/39 = 84.6%

ly visualized by LAG, and CT better delineates the extent of the lesion. Given the lack of absolute superiority of either CT or LAG in the assessment of the nodal metastasis from nonseminomatous testicular tumors, Castellino and Margulin (1982) and Lien et al. (1983) recommended computed tomography as the initial imaging procedure because of its greater patient acceptability and broader scope. It was their recommendation that abnormal results may be confirmed histologically. If the cytological results were negative or if the result of the CT examination itself was negative, lymphangiography was recommended. However, at M.D. Anderson Hospital and Tumor Institute, LAG and CT are performed as complementary procedures in the initial evaluation. In the further management of these patients conventional radiographs of the abdomen are obtained at two-month intervals while CT is used at 6-12-month intervals (Table 6).

In seminomas, when LAG and CT are positive, radiotherapy is given to the ipsilateral iliac and bilateral retroperitoneal nodes up to the diaphragm. The mediastinum and both supraclavicular areas are also treated. In the presence of a negative lymphangiogram and CT, radiotherapy is given only to the level of the diaphragm.

In nonseminomatous malignancies in the past, a patient with a positive lymphangiogram and/or CT was treated by radiotherapy to the tumor dose of 2500 rads to the nodes up to the diaphragm. A retroperitoneal node dissection was then undertaken to remove residual tumor tissue with additional radiotherapy, 2500 rads, following the retroperitoneal node dissection. In the presence of negative lymphangiographic and CT findings, the retroperitoneal node dissection was undertaken initially. If the node dissection was negative, no further treatment was instituted.

At present with the stage I disease, normal markers, normal CT, and normal LAG, the patient is observed closely with no further treatment. Markers and follow-up examinations of the abdomen are done every two months. CT is performed every six months (Table 6). When there is a change in these parameters, chemotherapy is instituted.

In the presence of more widespread disease, stage II or stage III where chemotherapy is the initial therapeutic approach, LAG or CT is of assistance in determining the status of the retroperitoneal lymph nodes. After a favorable response to chemotherapy (that is, resolution of the pulmonary and retroperitoneal metastases), the patient is managed by utilizing the markers, CT and LAG. Surgery is reserved for instances where there are persistent defects in the nodes or residual tumor. Of twenty-five patients subjected to surgery with persistent changes on CT and/or lymphangiogram only one had residual tumor. If there is inadequate residual contrast material, a repeat lymphangiogram can be performed. We have repeated the study on many patients with a maximum of five lymphangiograms in a patient over a seven-year period. Given these circumstances, CT is of value for follow-up examinations as an alternative to repeating the lymphangiogram. While ultrasound is less specific than lymphangiogram and less sensitive than CT scan in the diagnosis of nodal metastases, it is of significant importance to diagnose postoperative lymphoceles following retroperitoneal node dissection (Figure 26) and as a guide for aspiration and drainage.
D. Magnetic resonance imaging

To date no studies have evaluated testicular lesions by surface coil. In the assessment of metastases of testicular tumors to retroperitoneal lymph nodes and other abdominal structures, MRI and CT were nearly equivalent in their ability to correctly stage retroperitoneal adenopathy. In this study, CT surpassed MRI in detection of abnormalities other than retroperitoneal lymph nodes. However, with the advent of oral contrast medium, and technical advances, MRI may improve staging accuracy and serve as an effective substitute for CT in the evaluation of the retroperitoneum.

SECTION III: IMAGING IN SPECIAL CIRCUMSTANCES

A. Imaging in undescended testicles

The incidence of undescended testicle in the premature infant is 30% and in the term infant, 4%. In the adult population, this incidence is approximately 0.28%. This anomaly represents a complete or incomplete failure of the intraabdominal testes to descend into the scrotal sac via the inguinal canal. The malposition of the testes may be found at any point from mid abdomen to the inguinal canal. The undescended testicles may be unilateral or bilateral, and when unilateral, they are somewhat more common on the right side. Seventy percent of the undescended testicles are found in the inguinal canal. Apart from being prone to trauma and resulting in sterility, there is now agreement that the risk of testicular cancer is 12 to 40 times greater in the undescended testes than those that have descended. Unfortunately, the placement of the undescended testicle within the scrotum does not preclude the possibility of a cancer developing at a later date. Seminoma is the most common tumor arising from the undescended testicle. In a series of 23 patients reported from our institution, there were 14 cases of seminoma, six cases of embryonal carcinoma, two cases of mixed germ cell tumors and one case of teratoma. In the inguinal region, sonography can successfully detect the undescended testicle and the accuracy of

* Since the submission of this chapter, the following articles have appeared in the literature:
sonography and CT in this region is about the same\(^6\). However, in the abdominal and pelvic locations, CT scan is more sensitive\(^6,33\). The sensitivity will increase when there is a complicating tumor arising from the testicle (Figure 23). In rare instances where computed tomography fails to detect the undescended testicle or differentiate metastatic nodes from the undescended testicle, spermatic venography or gonadal arteriography should be performed (Figure 23). Iliac node metastasis is rare in testicular tumors but may be seen in tumors of undescended testicles, alone or in combination with lumbar node metastasis. Prognosis of tumors arising from the undescended testicle is the same as in normally descended testicles\(^24\).

**B. Extranodal metastasis in testicular tumors**

Spread of the testicular tumors is usually in a predictable fashion via the lymphatic channels to the renal parahilar nodes, paraaortic nodes followed by supradiaphragmatic nodes in the posterior mediastinum and finally to the supraclavicular nodes\(^3,7,8\). Hematogenous metastasis to the extranodal sites is common in certain testicular tumors such as choriocarcinoma and embryonal carcinoma particularly in instances where there is invasion of the tunica or epididymis\(^5,11\).

The most common sites of extranodal metastases are the lungs (Figure 9) and liver (Figure 27), although metastases to brain (Figure 8) and bone also occur\(^3\). Metastasis to the lungs may occur in any type of germ cell tumors but is most common in choriocarcinomas\(^3,11\). Husband and Bellamy have noticed unusual sites of extranodal metastasis in virtually every organ system such as the kidneys, adrenals, spleen, and muscle (Figure 24)\(^3\). Computed tomography plays a major role in detection of these metastases.

**SECTION IV: INTERVENTIONAL TECHNIQUES IN THE DIAGNOSIS AND TREATMENT OF TESTICULAR TUMORS**

**A. Biopsy of the retroperitoneal nodes**

Biopsy of the retroperitoneal nodes may be necessary to verify or exclude equivocal metastatic disease, determine the radiation therapy field and monitor the response of disease to treatment\(^34,35,36\).

Occasionally, the nodes are replaced by tumor and the abnormality may not be apparent on LAG. On the other hand, non-neoplastic filling defects in the nodes such as caseous necrosis, fatty replacement and conglomerate lymph nodes may cause false positive results on LAG. Therefore, biopsy of the abnormal nodes may become an essential part of clinical management and staging\(^35,36\).

Percutaneous biopsy may be done on an outpatient basis and will obviate the need for open biopsy. Since the node is left intact, therefore, response to treatment may be monitored by repeat biopsy\(^34\). Percutaneous biopsy is also performed to establish the presence of metastases in the lung, liver, bone, soft tissues and brain\(^35\).

Biopsy of the nodes may be performed transperitoneally or retroperitoneally using different modalities. If the nodes contain lymphangiographic contrast material, fluoroscopy (preferably biplane) is the best choice. CT is used when there is no contrast present within the nodes (Figure 25) or when the nodes are replaced by tumor and not opacified. In the instances where the nodal mass is large and accessible, ultrasound may be utilized as a guide. Results of percutane-
Figure 25 — CT guided biopsy of the lymph nodes. 31-year-old male with mixed germ cell tumor of the testicle (Embryonal carcinoma, EST and mature-immature teratoma), status postchemotherapy.
A. CT scan shows low density left retrocrural mass resulting in bone destruction (arrow).
B. CT scan with the patient in the prone position shows the biopsy needle in place. Biopsy revealed mature teratoma.

Figure 26 — Postoperative lymphotocele. 20-year-old male with history of the right testicular mixed germ cell tumor and retroperitoneal lymph node dissection three months previously.
A. Transverse sonogram showing large fluid collection in the left side of abdomen (arrowheads). One thousand ml of clear yellowish fluid containing lymphocytes aspirated.
B. CT scan 3 days later showed reaccumulation of the fluid (curved arrows). Urogram (not shown) revealed displacement and obstruction of the left ureter.
C. Abdominal film following drainage of 1200ml of fluid and injection of pantopaque and ethanol. Notice the contrast material outlining the large cavity (arrows).
Imaging in testicular tumors: Eftekhar et al.

Ovarian lymph node biopsy has been reported to be accurate in 70-85% of metastatic carcinoma. Transabdominal biopsy involves passage of a needle through various solid and hollow organs. Taking necessary precautions should obviate serious complications. The only relative contraindications to the procedure are bowel dilatation and abnormal coagulation profile.

B. Diagnosis and management of lymphoceles

Lymphoceles usually appear immediately after surgery but may be appreciated from days to months after retroperitoneal node dissection for testicular tumors. These may initially be asymptomatic and only manifest by an abdominal mass. However, they may become infected or cause venous, ureteral (Figure 26) or bowel obstruction.

Uncomplicated lymphocele would present as single or multiple fluid-containing masses with good sound transmission (Figure 26). Occasionally, they may contain debris. When abdominal sonogram is compromised by gas, CT scan can be used. CT will display a low-attenuation fluid collection in the case of uncomplicated lymphocele (Figure 26) and high attenuation in the complicated ones. Low CT numbers effectively exclude abscess or hematoma.

Lymphocele can also be diagnosed by lymphangiography, demonstrating a contrast/fluid level in the upright position. Management of the lymphocele should be either multiple needle aspirations or catheter drainage. The indications for catheter drainage are secondary infection, persistence or growth of larger collections, symptomatic patient, or signs of obstruction in the ureters or veins. The catheter drainage requires longer intervals, lasting an average of 18 days which is considerably longer than those for an abscess drainage. When the drainage ceases, a sclerosing agent is injected and the catheter is removed (Figure 26).

C. Intraarterial chemotherapy, embolization and chemoembolization

Transcatheter procedures are occasionally used in metastatic disease from testicular neoplasms to the liver, and large retroperitoneal and pelvic nodes dependent upon the availability, the ability to isolate and selectively catheterize and treat through the arterial supply. These metastatic lesions are initially treated by intraarterial infusion of the chemotherapeutic agents (Figure 27). When the latter fails and radiotherapy becomes ineffective then devascularization of the lesions is attempted by embolization techniques with Ivalon, gelfoam or stainless steel coils. Chemoembolization, the combination of Ivalon or gelfoam with cisplatinum, Actinomycin D, Mitomycin C, or Adriamycin has been effective in the management of liver, retroperitoneal nodes or osseous metastases. Treatment may provide a more demarcated and smaller avascular field for safe removal of the hepatic metastasis.

Embolization may also be utilized in patients with myelosuppression due to systemic or intraarterial infusion or in those patients who will be unable to tolerate further hepatic artery infusion chemotherapy. Failure of surgical resection is yet another indication for interventional therapy.

D. General interventional techniques

Additional interventional techniques including drainage procedures (abscess, urinary and biliary tract
obstruction, gastrostomy etc.), stent or balloon dilatation of stenoses of tubular structures, central venous catheter placement repositioning, foreign body retrieval, thrombolysis, etc. are available to assist in the management of the patient with a testicular neoplasm.

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References