Diagnostic Challenges and Therapeutic Advances in Paratesticular Rhabdomyosarcoma

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INTRODUCTION

Paratesticular rhabdomyosarcoma (RMS) is a rare and aggressive malignant mesenchymal tumor originating from connective tissues[1]. The urogenital tract is the most common site of involvement. Paratesticular localization accounts for approximately 7% to 10% of all RMS cases [1-3]. The disease typically presents in two age peaks: early childhood (2-5 years) and adolescence [4]. The embryonal variant is the most common histological subtype and carries a poor prognosis. Clinical presentation is nonspecific, and the diagnosis is confirmed by histopathological examination of the orchiectomy specimen. Management is multidisciplinary, combining surgery, chemotherapy, and radiotherapy, with treatment plans tailored to the clinical stage and prognostic group [5]. We report a case of embryonal paratesticular rhabdomyosarcoma (P-RMS) in a young patient and discuss the clinical and therapeutic aspects of this disease in our context, supported by a literature review.

CASE REPORT

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A 16-year-old boy with no significant medical history presented with a one-month history of right scrotal enlargement. Physical examination revealed a firm, painless, and enlarged right testis without associated signs of inflammation. Initial scrotal ultrasound demonstrated multiple solid masses infiltrating the tunica vaginalis (Figure1).

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Tumor markers, including alpha-fetoprotein, lactate dehydrogenase (LDH), and human chorionic gonadotropin (hCG), were within normal limits. An inguinal orchiectomy with high ligation of the spermatic cord was performed. Histopathological examination with immunohistochemistry revealed an embryonal rhabdomyosarcoma with spindle cells infiltrating the epididymis and base of the cord, with positive staining for actin, desmin, and myogenin (Figure02).



Figure 1. Ultrasound aspect of the testicle showing multiple solid scrotal tumor formations infiltrating the vaginal tunics (Photo credit Dr Sarah ZEROUAL)

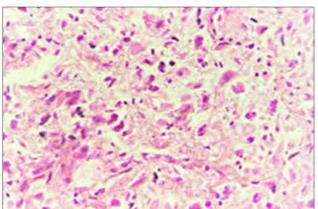


Figure 2 . Histopathological aspect of the tumor process on hématoxyline-éosine stain (Presence of spindle-shaped tumor cells. Photo credit: Dr Sarah ZEROUAL).

A computed tomography (CT) scan of the chest, abdomen, and pelvis, performed for staging, revealed bilateral pulmonary nodules, as well as intra-abdominal and inguinal lymph node involvement. The tumor was staged as IV according to the Intergroup Rhabdomyosarcoma Study (IRS) classification.

The patient was initiated on a multi-agent chemotherapy regimen (IVA protocol) consisting of ifosfamide, vincristine, and actinomycin D. A follow-up CT scan after the third cycle of chemotherapy demonstrated a partial response of the pulmonary and nodal lesions. However, a subsequent CT scan after three additional cycles showed progressive disease with an increase in the size and number of pulmonary nodules, along with the development of cough and dyspnea. A salvage chemotherapy regimen with cyclophosphamide and etoposide was initiated. Unfortunately, the patient developed Fournier's gangrene and succumbed during emergency surgery.

DISCUSSION

Paratesticular rhabdomyosarcoma (PT-RMS) represents 7-10% of all RMS tumors arising in the genitourinary tract, making it the third most common site after the prostate and bladder. The disease exhibits a bimodal age distribution, with peaks occurring in early childhood (1-5 years) and adolescence (16 years) [1-6].

The most frequent presenting symptom of PT-RMS is a scrotal mass, accounting for 85% of cases, consistent with the typical presentation described in the literature [7-8]. Other less common presenting symptoms include trauma or bruising (8%) and hydrocele or hernia (6%). Physical examination often reveals a palpable mass, although a hydrocele may mask the underlying testicular tumor in 15-20% of cases. Differential diagnoses to consider include testicular torsion, hydrocele, epididymo-orchitis, inguinal hernia, and mumps orchitis. However, the paratesticular nature of these tumors can be challenging to determine on physical examination alone. The rapid, often painless growth of PT-RMS contributes to early local invasion and a high risk of distant metastasis [9]. Metastatic spread most commonly involves the retroperitoneal lymph nodes, lungs, liver, and bones [9]. Unfortunately, there are no specific tumor markers to aid in the diagnosis of PT-RMS. The definitive diagnosis relies on the histopathological examination of the tissue obtained from an inguinal orchiectomy [10].

Histologically, three types of rhabdomyosarcoma exist: embryonal, the most common (97% of cases) with a poor prognosis due to frequent nodal involvement at diagnosis, as seen in our patient who presented with pulmonary and nodal metastases at initial evaluation; alveolar, and pleomorphic [11-15].

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• Embryonal RMS: The most common subtype, accounting for approximately 80% of cases. It is characterized by its expression of skeletal muscle markers and is thought to arise from muscle progenitor cells or through trans-differentiation of mesenchymal tissue (Figure 3). Histological examination remains the gold standard for diagnosis and classification. While gene fusions, particularly PAX7/FOXO1 and PAX3/ FOXO1, have been used for risk stratification, their prognostic significance is still being investigated. The International Classification of Rhabdomyosarcoma (ICR) has refined the classification system, leading to a more accurate assessment of tumor behavior and prognosis[15-16].

- Alveolar RMS: Associated with a worse prognosis, especially those with PAX7 or PAX3 gene fusions. However, a significant proportion of alveolar RMS cases lack these fusions.
- Spindle Cell and Sclerosing RMS: Rare subtypes with overlapping histological features .

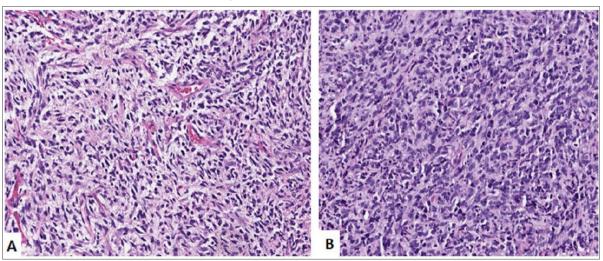


Figure 3. Histopathological appearance of Embryonal Rhabdomyosarcoma.

A.Low power image showing cellular neoplasm with hyper and hypocellular areas. (H&E, 200x) B. High power image showing primitive spindle cells with scattered rhabdomyoblasts. (H&E, 400x).

Discovery of a scrotal mass will be complemented by a systematic testicular ultrasound. It shows a mass with a heterogeneous echotexture, with inguinoscrotal extension in 80% of cases [17]. Echo-Doppler reveals a hypervascular appearance of the tumor mass and specifies its extratesticular location [17]. Conventional CT scan has been used for evaluation of the retroperitoneum and current recommendations are that all patient sunder go thin cut(5mm for age<10 years, 7mm for age > 10 years) abdominal or pelvic CT with double contrast to identify regional retroperitoneal lymph node in volvement for staging purposes [18-19].

The locoregional extension assessment can be completed by an MRI. MRI is a high-performance imaging modality, using surface coils; the tumor appears homogeneous on T1-weighted images and heterogeneous on T2-weighted images with a signal intensity similar to the normal testis. Due to the hypointensity of the tunica albuginea on T2weighted images, the mass is clearly separated from the testis [16-17]. For the assessment of distant metastases, a thoraco-abdominopelvic computed tomography (CT) scan allows the detection of deep lymph node involvement, especially the lumbar-aortic and pelvic nodes, as well as hepatic and pulmonary metastases. The assessment of distant metastases also includes a bone scan [9,18].

18F-fluoro-2-deoxy-D-glucose (FDG) positron emission tomography (PET)/CT has been studied as a more sensitive tool in staging and restaging of patients with RMS. Tateishi and colleagues compared the sensitivity of FDG PET/CT to that from conventional imaging(CI) (whole body CT, bone scan, and MRI) of the primary site. They demonstrated that using PET/CT, M stage was correctly assigned in 89% of patients compared with 63% when CI was used. There was also improved accuracy with nodal metastases being identified in 86% of patients undergoing PET/CT compared with 54% undergoing CI [20].

The classification of RMS malignancies is unique and can be confusing due to the 2 different prognostic systems used by the IRSG during their clinical trials. Risk stratification relies on both a pretreatment (Tumor-node-metastasis [TNM]) staging system and a surgical or pathologic clinical grouping system based on the extent of disease following initial surgery [18]. Therefore, during IRS-I/II, patients were separated into prognostic categories, referred to as "groups," based on the extent of disease remaining after primary surgical intervention. (Table 1).
 Table 1. TNM Pretreatment Staging System (IRSG) [18]

		Localized disease, completely resected			
I	A Confined to the organ or muscle or origin				
	В	Infiltration outside organ or muscle or origin; regional nodes not involved			
		Total gross resection with evidence of regional spread			
II	Α	Grossly resected tumors with "microscopic" residual tumor			
	D	Regional disease completely resected with regional nodes involved, tumor extension into adjacent organs, or			
	B	both.			
		Incomplete resection or biopsy with gross residual disease remaining			
III	Α	Localized or locally extensive tumor, gross residual disease after biopsy only			
	В	Localized or locally extensive tumor, gross residual disease after "major' resection (>50% debulking)			
IV	Any	size primary tumor, with or without regional lymph node involvement, with distant metastases irrespective			
		of surgical approach to the primary tumor			

With the advent of multimodal therapy, a pretreatment TNM staging system was introduced for IRS-III. This system considers tumor size, invasiveness, nodal status, and distant metastases. Additionally, tumor location (favorable or unfavorable) was identified as a significant prognostic factor (Table 2). risk categories, guiding treatment decisions (Table3).

PT-RMS can be either stage I or IV given its location as a favorable primary site. Risk stratification was introduced during IRS-V, in which the study combined stage, group, and histological subtype to place patients into different therapeutic protocols according to risk of recurrence (Table 4)

The IRS-IV study combined stage, group, and histological subtype to classify patients into low, intermediate, and high-

Table 2. Clinical grouping for patients with rhabdomyosarcoma [18]

	Classification Description					
Tumor						
T1	Confined to anatomical site of origin					
а	<5 cm in diameter					
b	\geq 5 cm in diameter					
T2	Extension or fixation to surrounding tissue					
a	<5 cm in diameter					
b	\geq 5 cm in diameter					
	Regional lymph nodes					
N0	Regional lymph nodes not clinically involved					
N1	Regional lymph nodes clinically involved by neoplasm					
Nx	Clinical status of regional lymph nodes unknown (especially with sites that preclude lymph node evaluation)					
	Metastasis					
M0	No distant metastasis					
M1	Metastasis present					

 Table 3. Soft Tissue Sarcoma Committee of the Children's Oncology Group: pretreatment staging system [18]

Stage	Sites	Т	Tumors Size	Ν	Μ		
Favorable							
Ι	Orbit	T1 or T2					
	Head and neck (excluding parameningeal)		a or b	N0 or N1 or N2	M0		
	GU-non bladder or non prostate						
II	Bladder or prostate	T1 or T2	b	N0 or Nx			
	Extremity				M0		
	Head and neck parameningeal				IVIU		
	Other (including trunk, retroperitoneum, etc.)						
Unfavorable							
III	Bladder or prostate						
	Extremity	T1 or T2	a	N1	M0		
	Head and neck parameningeal		b	N0 or N1 or Nx	IVIO		
	Other (including trunk, retroperitoneum, etc.)						
Metastasis							
IV	All	T1 or T2	a or b	N0 or N1	M1		

The 3 year failure free survival (FFS) rate was 88% for low risk patients,55-76% for intermediate risk patients, and less than 30% forhigh-risk patients [19].

In Summary RMS staging involves three key factors:

- 1. **Stage:** Based on pretreatment characteristics, including tumor location, size, nodal involvement, and distant metastases.
- 2. Group: Determined post-surgery by assessing residual disease and lymph node status.
- **3. Risk Category:** A combination of stage, group, and histological subtype used for risk stratification and treatment planning.

Table 4. Soft Tissue Sarcoma Committee of the Children's Oncology Group: rhabdomyosarcoma risk group classification [18]

Risk group	Histology	Stage	Group
	Embryonal	1	I, II, III
Low risk	Embryonal	2, 3	I, II
	Embryonal	2, 3	III
Intermediate risk	Alveolar	1, 2, 3	I, II, III
High risk	Embryonal or alveolar	4	IV

Multimodal treatment with systemic chemotherapy in conjunction with either surgery, RT, or both is used to maximize tumor control. Before using effective chemotherapy agents, surgical intervention alone produced approximately a 50% 2-year relapse-free survival [19,21]. Treatment guidelines for the surgical management of PT-RMS, including primary inguinal orchidectomy, pretreatmentre-excision(PRE),managementoflargetumors, trans-scrotal excision, scrotal violation, hemi-scrotectomy (HS), testicular transposition and retroperitoneal lymph node assessment and management[22].

Use of retroperitoneal lymph node dissection (RPLND) of RPLND in PT-RMS is controversial and has evolved over the past 20 years. Approximately 25% of patients with PT-RMS are found to have retroperitoneal lymph node disease at presentation [18]. Historically, RPLND was recommended for all patients with localized renal tumors, but recent studies have shown that this approach may lead to overtreatment in certain cases.

Adolescent male patients and those with primary tumors exceeding 7 cm are at heightened risk of retroperitoneal lymph node (RPLN) metastasis [19]. Current treatment guidelines advocate for RPLND in all adolescent boys and younger boys with suspicious lymph nodes on CT scans [22-24]. Additionally, RPLND is indicated for patients with confirmed RPLN metastasis, except in cases of excessively large lymph nodes. For low-risk patients with concerning imaging findings, PET/CT scans can aid in identifying true metastatic disease, thereby preventing unnecessary surgery[25]. While RPLND is a valuable tool, it carries potential risks, including bowel obstruction, retrograde ejaculation, and lymphedema. Therefore, treatment decisions should be tailored to individual patient characteristics, imaging findings, and risk assessment. Ongoing research endeavors to refine treatment strategies to optimize outcomes while minimizing adverse effects [25-28].

The primary objectives of chemotherapy in this context are to enhance overall survival and diminish the likelihood of disease recurrence. Multiple chemotherapy regimens have been investigated, including VAC, IVA, and VIE (consisting of vincristine, actinomycin D, etoposide or ifosfamide, and cyclophosphamide) [29]. Among these, the VAC regimen is the most widely adopted. In cases of tumor resistance or progression, additional agents such as doxorubicin, cisplatin, and bleomycin may be incorporated into the treatment plan [30].

Treatment with alkylating agents like cyclophosphamide and ifosfamide has been shown to affect fertility by depletion of the germinal epithelium. It has been shown that depletion of the germ cell epithelium is dose dependent[31].

Complete surgical resection as primary or salvage treatment is not always feasible and radiation therapy (RT) has assumed a major role in the management of RMS [18]. In contrast with other primary sites, up to 82% of PT-RMS are diagnosed in a localized stage and able to be completely resected [14,32].

RT has been primarily used as a salvage treatment for nodal extension or in cases of incomplete surgical resection [32]. Its role in treating locally advanced or nodal disease remains controversial. While the Children's Oncology Group (COG) recommends RT for patients with group II-III disease, the Société Internationale d'Oncologie Pédiatrique (SIOP) reserves RT for patients with poor response to systemic therapy or incomplete resection [33-34]. Both groups, however, have achieved similar 5-year overall survival (OS) and failure-free survival (FFS) rates. This suggests that the necessity of RT following RPLND in patients with pathologically confirmed nodal disease may be questionable [35].

For patients with advanced stage disease in the retroperitoneum, the extent of RT depends on the

completeness of post-chemotherapy RPLND. Patients with complete resection receive a lower dose of RT (41.4 Gy) compared to those with incomplete resection (50.4 Gy) [36].

While RT has shown benefit in improving FFS for patients with alveolar histology, it does not appear to provide additional benefit for patients with embryonal variants or other poor prognostic factors [18].

Although radiation therapy (RT) has significantly improved survival rates for pediatric renal cell tumors, it is associated with substantial long-term side effects. A retrospective study by Hughes et al. highlighted the potential risks, including fatal complications, organ damage, and growth impairment [37]. Despite these challenges, advancements in RT techniques, such as intensity-modulated radiation therapy (IMRT) and proton beam therapy, offer promise in reducing toxicity while maintaining therapeutic efficacy. These technologies allow for precise dose delivery to the tumor while minimizing exposure to surrounding healthy tissues.

CONCLUSION

Paratesticular rhabdomyosarcoma, while a rare malignancy, presents as an urgent diagnostic and therapeutic challenge, particularly in children and young adults. Early diagnosis, accurate staging, and a standardized treatment regimen involving surgery, multi-agent chemotherapy, and radiotherapy have significantly improved outcomes. Longterm follow-up is essential to detect potential recurrences. The introduction of multi-agent chemotherapy has dramatically transformed the prognosis for patients with paratesticular rhabdomyosarcoma, with 3-year overall survival rates reaching 95%. Ongoing advancements in genomic testing and imaging technologies offer promising opportunities to further personalize treatment strategies, optimizing both cancer control and minimizing long-term side effects.

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