An introductory overview of orbital tumors

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The term “orbital tumors” comprises a wide variety of lesions that often share the same cardinal clinical finding (exophthalmos) and clinical history. Age at presentation, associated ophthalmological findings, and radiological features, however, provide invaluable information as to the possible histological type of tumor. The present article serves as an introductory overview regarding the pathological characteristics, clinical features, radiological characteristics, and principles of treatment of orbital tumors.

KEY WORDS • orbital tumor • exophthalmos • hemangioma • meningioma • schwannoma • optic glioma • metastasis

Orbital tumors constitute a heterogeneous array of lesions (Table 1) and, as such, pose numerous challenges in terms of diagnosis, imaging and management. Given the variety of structures within the relatively confined orbit, a systematic approach is necessary to understand the classification and clinical features of orbital tumors. Schematically, orbital tumors can be classified based on origin: 1) primary lesions, which originate from the orbit itself; 2) secondary lesions, which extend to the orbit from neighboring structures and include such lesions as intracranial tumors and tumors of the paranasal sinuses that, by contiguity, extend to involve the orbit; and 3) metastatic tumors. Orbital tumors are also divided anatomically into intraconal and extraconal depending on their relationship with the muscle cone. The muscle cone is formed by the extraocular rectus muscles and their intermuscular septae, which separate the intraconal from the extraconal space. The muscle cone has a conical shape with the globe serving as the base and the optic canal as its apex.

In the present article, we provide a general overview of the pathological characteristics, clinical features, and imaging characteristics of primary orbital tumors. Metastatic lesions are also briefly reviewed.

OVERVIEW OF ORBITAL TUMORS

Tumor Arising From Bone and Cartilaginous Structures

The frontal, zygomatic, maxillary, sphenoid, lacrimal, palatine, and ethmoid bones form the orbit. The bony orbit protects the globe and allows for passage of the optic nerve, the ophthalmic division of the trigeminal nerve, the ocular motor nerves (third, fourth, and sixth), and the vessels required for proper function of the eye. These bones may be involved in fibroosseous tumor growth, such as osteomas, ossifying fibromas, fibrous dysplasia, aneurysmal bone cysts, and osteogenic sarcoma.

Osteomas arise most commonly from anterior ethmoid cells, although they are known to originate from posterior ethmoidal cells and sphenoid cells. This tumor exhibits a slowly invading growth pattern, and it can be associated with the presence of a mucocele if normal sinus drainage is occluded. Ossifying fibromas are benign, progressive, recurrent tumors that cause painless facial swelling and displacement of the eye; because of their possible extension into the anterior and middle cranial fossae, they can be problematic. These lesions are readily identified on CT scans by their diffusely dense signal.

Fibrous dysplasia commonly involves the sphenoid or frontal bone. It produces a slowly invading growth pattern, and it can be associated with the presence of a mucocele if normal sinus drainage is occluded. Ossifying fibromas are benign, progressive, recurrent tumors that cause painless facial swelling and displacement of the eye; because of their possible extension into the anterior and middle cranial fossae, they can be problematic. These lesions are readily identified on CT scans by their diffusely dense signal.

Aneurysmal bone cysts commonly affect the frontal bone in young children. These cysts form a large cavernous space filled with blood. It is thought that the inflam-
matory reaction caused by the surgical procedure helps to induce resorption of the lesion. Clearly, it is important to differentiate benign lesions of this type from the cystic changes of more sinister lesions, such as hemangiomas of the bone, giant cell tumor of bone, or osteogenic sarcoma. These lesions are definitively treated surgically.

Osteogenic sarcoma is rarely found in the orbital region. It may occur more frequently in cases in which there are genetic defects and a history of radiation therapy usually in the setting of an irradiation-treated retinoblastoma. Even radical excision may not improve the poor prognosis in patients with these tumors.

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Theperiosteal lining of the orbit, also known as the periorbita, is an important structure in the orbit because it helps serve as a barrier to the intracranial extension of neoplastic growth. The periorbita proper can also be involved in nonneoplastic lesions; in young children, this can be the site of an idiopathic inflammatory condition known as infantile cortical hyperostosis (Caffey disease).

The only cartilaginous structure of the orbit is the trochlea, a U-shaped structure that suspends the tendon of the superior oblique muscle. Tumors arising from the trochlea such as chondromas and chondrosarcomas are exceedingly rare.

Lesions of Vascular Origin

Vascular lesions of the orbit include capillary hemangiomas, cavernous hemangiomas, lymphangiomas, and hemangiopericytomas, as well as AVMs of intraorbital vessels. Together, these lesions comprise 12 to 15% of orbital tumors. Capillary hemangiomas usually present by the age of 6 months. These lesions are benign, yet widely infiltrative, and they can be associated with cutaneous manifestations such as strawberry nevi. Spontaneous resolution usually occurs over a 3- to 5-year period, but in some cases there may be significant residual cosmetic disfigurement and amblyopia. They can be treated with argon laser therapy or corticosteroid therapy to promote involution.

Cavernous hemangiomas, the most common benign orbital tumors, are found primarily in young and middle-aged adults. These are low-flow circumscribed lesions usually situated behind the globe, most commonly within the muscle cone. They do not usually interfere with visual acuity, except when the tumor lies in the orbital apex, where it may affect the optic nerve. Cavernous hemangiomas are readily amenable to surgical treatment and do not recur. They are seen as well-delineated enhancing masses on CT scans (Fig. 2). On T1-weighted MR images, these lesions have a low-intensity signal (Fig. 3 upper), whereas they are hyperintense on T2-weighted MR images (Fig. 3 lower). In the event of intralesional thrombosis, a higher-intensity signal will be demonstrated on T1-weighted MR images.

### TABLE 1

Summary of 1376 orbital lesions according to major category

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>No. of Lesions (%)</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th>Total</th>
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<td>osseous and cartilagenous</td>
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<td>osteoma</td>
<td>42 (3)</td>
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<td>1</td>
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<td></td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>73 (5.3)</td>
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<td>34</td>
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<td>42 (10.1)</td>
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<td>97</td>
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<td>3</td>
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<td>3</td>
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<td>98 (7.1)</td>
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<td>carcinoma</td>
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<tr>
<td>cystic</td>
<td>166 (12.1)</td>
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<tr>
<td>other</td>
<td>317 (23)</td>
<td></td>
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* Adapted from Henderson.
Overview of orbital tumors

Lymphangiomas are slow-growing lesions that may occur in the orbit even though the orbit does not have a lymphatic drainage system. These lesions most commonly occur in children and young adults and may cause a slowly progressive exophthalmos. Hemorrhage into the tumor may cause rapid expansion of the orbital contents and subsequent rapidly progressive, worrisome exophthalmos. These episodes may resolve spontaneously. Lymphangiomas are exceedingly difficult to manage surgically because they involve critical orbital structures, and laser therapies are currently being used as adjuvants when treatment is necessary. Because of their repeated episodes of hemorrhage, they demonstrate a heterogeneous signal intensity on T₁- and T₂-weighted MR imaging as a result of the presence of blood breakdown products. On MR imaging these lesions are not as enhancing as hemangiomas and may not enhance at all.

Hemangiopericytomas are malignant tumors thought to arise from undifferentiated mesenchymal cells with pericytic differentiation (Fig. 4). They are most common in young and middle-aged adults. They are invasive tumors with a known propensity for metastasis, although this is rare from the orbit. Total excision is necessary to prevent recurrence.

Miscellaneous Tumors Of Mesenchymal Origin

Other tumors of mesenchymal origin worthy of mention include rhabdomyosarcoma and fibrous histiocytoma. The former are the most common malignant orbital tumors affecting children. They are rapidly progressive lesions that respond readily to irradiation and chemotherapy and therefore should not be missed. On CT scans, they appear as bulky, mildly enhancing masses that erode bone, and they can invade into the surrounding sinuses. On MR images, they are of intermediate signal intensity.

Fibrous histiocytomas are the most common orbital tumors in adults. They develop insidiously and can be local-
ly infiltrating, and although they are benign lesions, their rate of recurrence is high. They should be resected, and the resection margins should be wide. Malignant fibrous histiocytomas may metastasize and lead to death.

Although the rectus, superior and inferior oblique, and levator palpebrae muscles may give rise to fibromas, fibrosarcomas, leiomyomas, and leiomyosarcomas, these primary muscle tumors are exceedingly rare. Lipomas, which can originate from the voluminous orbital fat, are sometimes difficult to differentiate clinically and pathologically from normal fat.

**Tumors Arising From Neural Structures and Their Coverings Within the Orbit**

Nerve sheath tumors within the orbit can give rise to neurofibromas, schwannomas, and malignant peripheral nerve sheath tumors, comprising approximately 15% of orbital tumors. These lesions do not involve the optic nerve sheath tumors, comprising approximately 15% of neurofibromas, schwannomas, and malignant peripheral nerve sheath tumors (previously termed neurofibrosarcomas or malignant schwannomas) are very rare lesions, but they are known to be associated with NF1. These malignant lesions must be distinguished histopathologically from mesenchymal tissue tumors.

Paragangiomas (chemodectomas) can arise from the ciliary ganglion, although they are more typically seen around the carotid arteries and in the jugular fossa (growing from the ganglia of the vagus nerve). In general, nerve sheath tumors exhibit a low-intensity signal on T1-weighted and high-intensity signal on T2-weighted MR images. Imaging of plexiform neurofibromas may demonstrate involvement and enlargement of the eyelids, fat, extraocular muscles, and lacrimal gland, as well as some facial deformity. Solitary neurofibromas and schwannomas are indistinguishable radiologically, as both appear as solitary, ovoid masses resembling cavernous hemangiomas.

The optic nerve is a white matter tract of the brain. Masses formed by abnormal proliferation of fibrillary astroglial cells in this area are termed optic nerve gliomas, which are the second most common orbital tumor in children, the fifth most common in adults, and the most common in patients with NF1. Most optic nerve gliomas are low-grade lesions and are most likely pilocytic astrocytomas; in approximately 50% of cases these lesions are diagnosed in patients before the age of 5 years. Patients with optic nerve gliomas typically present with exophthalmos, and examination shows a severely decreased visual acuity, with some patients being completely blind in the affected eye. Papilledema and pallor of the optic disc are also common findings. Optic gliomas are best visualized on MR imaging, which can demonstrate extraorbital extension, as well as a fusiform enlargement of the optic nerve. When these lesions are restricted to the orbit, they usually prove isointense with white matter on both T1- and T2-weighted MR images whereas lesions that involve the chiasm may have increased signal intensity on T2-weighted MR images.

Meningiomas are thought to arise from arachnoid cap cells, and therefore, they generally follow the distribution of the meninges (Fig. 6). Orbital meningiomas can be subdivided into primary and secondary types; the former arise in the orbit and the latter expand to include the orbit. They comprise approximately 10% of all intraorbital tumors, with a female/male preponderance of 3:1. Patients with orbital meningiomas present with a wide range of signs and symptoms, most commonly exophthalmos, decreased visual acuity, pallor of the optic disc, or visual field deficits. Unilateral boggy edema of the eyelid, resembling myxedema, is a rare, peculiar finding in cases of longstanding meningiomas. Orbital pain or headache is an uncommon symptom in patients with these lesions. Computed tomography scanning may demonstrate calcification in patients with meningiomas (Fig. 7). On T1-weighted MR images, meningiomas are usually isointense with muscle, whereas on T2-weighted MR images, they are variable. These lesions enhance markedly after administration of gadolinium. In general, angiography can determine the site of origin of these tumors by demonstrating their blood supply. Meningiomas originating from the optic nerve sheath are particularly slow growing. In the preimaging days they were often mistaken for "chronic optic neuritis."

**Fig. 5.** Postcontrast axial CT scan obtained in a patient with a schwannoma involving the right orbit.
Overview of orbital tumors

Dermoids and Epidermoids

Dermoids and epidermoids are benign cystic lesions that arise from congenital rests. Most orbital dermoids are located anteriorly, becoming evident during childhood because of their superficial location (Fig. 8 upper). The most frequent location is the frontozygomatic suture (Fig. 8 lower). Growth usually results from the slow production and accumulation of dermal products within the mass. On CT scans, these lesions appear well delimited from the surrounding structures, have smooth margins, and can have a fluid level (Fig. 9).

Metastatic Lesions

There is a variety of metastatic tumors (Fig. 10). The patient’s age at presentation helps differentiate among the possible tumor types. In children, the most common metastatic lesions include neuroblastoma, Ewing tumor, chloroma, and Langerhans cell histiocytosis. Neuroblastomas in pediatric patients are the most common metastatic tumor to spread to the orbit and have been reported in up to 40% of patients. These tumors arise from the adrenal medulla or parasympathetic or sympathetic structures, often spreading to both orbits, where they frequently cause an abrupt onset of exophthalmos and bilateral eyelid edema and ecchymosis (Fig. 11). Ewing tumor is a malignant bone lesion that classically involves the limbs, ribs, or pelvis. When this tumor metastasizes to the orbit, it usually presents as an abrupt hemorrhagic exophthalmos. Chloromas are the extramedullary form of acute myelogenous leukemia. This lesion is also heralded by the onsets of acute hemorrhagic exophthalmos. Langerhans cell histiocytosis is a term used to describe three similar but separate multisystem diseases: eosinophilic granulomatosis (or histiocytosis X), Hand-Schüller-Christian disease, and Letterer–Sewe disease. Only the first two subclasses.

Fig. 6. Photomicrographs. A transitional meningioma infiltrating the adipose periorbital tissues obtained in a 38-year-old woman (A). The typical meningothelial cells with bland nuclei and syncytial cellular arrangement (B). The meningioma diffusely infiltrated the orbital bony structures and the temporalis muscle. H & E, original magnification × 100 (A) and × 200 (B).

Fig. 7. Noncontrast axial CT scan obtained in a patient with right optic nerve sheath meningioma, revealing the presence of tumoral calcifications.

Fig. 8. Upper: Photograph showing upper-lid swelling in a patient with a frontal dermoid involving the orbit. Lower: Macroscopic view of a dermoid of the orbit during surgical removal. Note the typical location in the superotemporal orbit.
cause orbital disease: eosinophilic granulomatosis with solitary granulomatous proliferation may occur in the orbit, causing painful eye swelling and exophthalmos, whereas Hand-Schüller-Christian disease has exophthalmos as part of its clinical triad, as well as diabetes insipidus and lesions of the bone.

In adults, the most common primary tumors to metastasize to bone are, in decreasing order, breast, lung, prostate, melanoma, gastrointestinal tract, and kidney. Because the orbital tumor may be the presenting lesion in up to 25% of cases,¹ it should be strongly considered in the differential diagnosis of adult patients with orbital lesions causing exophthalmos. Due to the associated abysmal overall median survival rates of 1 to 2 years postdiagnosis,¹ these tumors are best treated with radiation therapy or chemotherapy. Obviously, treatment decisions must be modified according to the degree of systemic involvement and prognosis in each patient.

CLINICAL PRESENTATION

Exophthalmos as a Presenting Sign

Careful assessment of clinical signs and symptoms and their chronology and various associations helps to differentiate the various disease processes that present as space-occupying masses. The cardinal sign suggestive of orbital tumor is eye exophthalmos, or proptosis. Displacement of the globe horizontally or vertically is often referred to as dystopia and may suggest a particular location within the orbit.

In the evaluation of globe protrusion, distinguishing between pseudoxophthalmos and exophthalmos is essential. In the ipsilateral eye, lid retraction such as in Graves disease may give the appearance of exophthalmos, as can congenital glaucoma and unilateral high myopia. Features of the contralateral eye such as microphthalmos due to a congenital abnormality may give the examiner a false impression of exophthalmos; the same is true for exophthalmos caused by various processes, including blow-out orbital fractures, inflammatory processes, and orbital involvement of metastatic scirrhouos adenocarcinomas, usually originating in the breast. Congenital disease–related craniofacial asymmetries may also give the false impression of exophthalmos. True exophthalmos may be associated with those craniofacial abnormalities (for example, those found in Crouzon disease and Apert syndrome) associated with midface hypoplasia. An accurate diagnosis will be assisted by a strong degree of suspicion of pseudoxophthalmos, careful assessment of patient history, and thorough physical examination in which emphasis is placed on visual inspection; if available, an exophthalmometer will also aid in diagnosis.
Several features of the history, such as unilateral compared with bilateral eye involvement, direction of displacement, patient age, and the rate of symptom onset may help establish the nature of the disease. Bilateral globe protrusion is more likely in cases of systemic disease such as dysthyroid orbitopathy, and this is usually easily distinguished from unilateral orbital tumors. In the less common cases in which a thyroid origin results in unilateral exophthalmos, retraction of the eyelid can help identify this origin, as can a detailed clinical history, physical examination, and laboratory thyroid function tests. A discussion of dysthyroid orbitopathy will not be covered in this article, as it is not a true tumor and its relevance to the surgeon is limited to differential diagnosis and to the rare cases in which myxedema is severe enough to warrant surgery for corneal exposure or compressive optic neuropathy. Bilateral exophthalmos may occasionally be a feature of certain orbital tumors such as lymphoma, histiocytoma, or metastatic lesions.

Etiopathological information may be inferred from the tumor mass–induced direction of global deviation. With rare exceptions, tumor growth displaces the globe away from the lesion. Tumors of the lacrimal gland, for example, classically induce medial and inferior displacement of the globe. Tumors of the optic nerve generally cause displacement of the globe along the axis of the orbit, whereas tumors arising from the extraocular muscles tend toward axial and slightly inferior displacement of the eye.

The patient’s age of onset of the exophthalmos is also important because the incidence of certain lesions is different in the pediatric and adult populations. Infants and neonates with congenital, often subtle exophthalmos, are more likely to harbor teratomas, dermoid cysts, and capillary hemangiomas than the slightly older early childhood group in which the children are most likely to harbor lymphangiomas, optic gliomas such as pilocytic astrocytomas, or rhabdomyosarcomas. Lacrimal gland tumors, metastases to the orbit, cavernous hemangiomas, and neurilemmomas are more likely to occur in adults.

In general, a lesion that grows insidiously is more likely benign, whereas a more rapid process indicates a more aggressive histological type. Hyperacute onset of exophthalmos is more likely to be caused by inflammatory processes than tumor growth, and this should help guide investigations.

### Signs and Symptoms Other Than Exophthalmos

The rate and extent of visual acuity deterioration is of great importance in distinguishing primary from secondary involvement of the optic nerve. An optic nerve glioma or nerve sheath meningioma tends to cause profound visual deterioration, whereas a tumor that is external to the nerve affects visual acuity by compression and causes a mild visual deficit unless it is very advanced and is exerting considerable mass effect.

Pain is commonly a feature of inflammatory diseases or infections such as myositis or dacryoadenitis, although metastases and rapidly expanding neoplastic processes may also cause symptomatic pain. Orbital lesion–induced pain tends to be localized, constant, and may be more prominent at night. The sudden onset of orbital pain in a child may be caused by a hemorrhage into a cystic lymphangioma. Processes causing pain that can be localized deep in the orbit suggest orbital apex involvement, especially when there is ophthalmoplegia and/or facial dysesthesias in the distribution of V2. Benign tumors of the orbit usually tend not to cause any pain, although a feeling of pressure in the orbit is typically reported in cases of slow-growing lesions.

There are two mechanisms by which a tumor can cause diplopia: first, by infiltrating the nerves supplying the extraocular muscles, which is seen with malignant tumors and metastases; and second, by restricting the normal extraocular motility function and/or deviating the axis of the eye. A sudden onset of normal extraocular motility loss is usually associated with an aggressive malignant lesion.

Changes in the size of the pupils can be observed in...
cases in which the tumors invade or compress the para-
sympathetic (third nerve through the ciliary ganglion) or
the sympathetic fibers innervating the pupillary dilators.
This is found in cases of chemodectomas (parangliomas),
but many tumor types can also cause anisocoria
through involvement of the sympathetic or parasympathetic
fibers supplying the iris dilator and pupillary sphincter.

Bruitis may occur with AVMs and may be a source of
distress to patients, who may describe constant or inter-
mittent sounds that are pulsatile or swishing in nature.
They may also have a positional component, being excac-
erbated with recumbency. This symptom is associated
with arteriovenous fistulas, and more often of traumatic
origin.

A variety of fundus changes can be observed in associ-
ation with orbital tumors. Optic atrophy, which may be
precended by edema, is characteristic of long-standing op-
tic nerve damage. Compressive lesions that impede drain-
age through the central retinal vein can cause optociliary
shunts, which consist of enlarged preexisting peripapillary
vessels that divert blood from the central retinal venous
circulation to the peripapillary choroidal circulation when
obstruction of the normal drainage channels occurs. These
can be demonstrated in patients with optic nerve sheath
meningiomas, although they are seen most commonly
with central retinal vein occlusion. Choroidal folds are a
series of parallel, alternating light and dark striae, which
are a common manifestation of a variety of lesions includ-
ing orbital tumors. They tend to be more common when
the globe is directly compressed, especially by anteriorly
placed tumors, but at times they can precede the occur-
rence of clinically evident exophthalms. Venous dilation
can be associated with disc edema in patients with orbital
masses when the optic nerve is compressed.

Anteriorly located tumors can present with eyelid swel-
ling (Fig. 12 upper) and can be visible on ispection (Fig.
12 lower).

NEUROIMAGING FEATURES

In the CT and MR imaging era, plain radiography has a
limited role in the diagnostic workup of patients with sus-
ppected orbital tumor. Before the availability of high-reso-
lution cross-sectional imaging, ultrasonography was very
popular. Ultrasonography is, however, still useful in the
evaluation of ocular masses and fluid-filled orbital tumors
such as cysts and vascular lesions.

Computerized tomography scanning is the imaging mo-
dality of choice for bone lesions, because of the natural
contrast afforded by the retrobulbar fat, bone, and air.
Orbital imaging protocols must include coronal as well
as axial slices. In general, 1- to 5-mm-thick slices are ade-
quate for evaluation of orbital masses. Intravenous con-
trast administration helps in the characterization of indi-
vidual lesions.

Magnetic resonance imaging superbly demonstrates the
anatomy of the orbit is sensitive to the different soft-tissue
characteristics of orbital lesions. Additionally, MR imag-
ing has the advantage of being a nonradiation-based mo-
dality, and, as such, does not deliver radiation to the lens.
Despite the availability of MR angiography, conventional
angiography of orbital lesions remains the gold standard
for detecting vascular lesions, such as AVMs and low-
flow dural arteriovenous fistulas, and for defining the ex-
tent of the blood supply to orbital tumors, especially
meningiomas. Cerebral angiography should be considered
for any patient with pulsatile exophthalmos.

The variations in imaging characteristics of all different
orbital lesions are diverse and exceed the scope of this
review. Furthermore, it should be emphasized that diag-
noses of neoplastic growth should not be established in the
absence of histological evaluation of a biopsy specimen.
In this review, we focus on characteristics that can be use-
ful to distinguish the different classes of lesions and illus-
trate imaging features of common lesions. As a general
rule, benign tumors cause displacement and molding of
adjacent structures, whereas malignant lesions display an
aggressive pattern of growth, destroying and obliterating
the contours of surrounding structures. On imaging stud-
ies, these two patterns of growth are usually, albeit not
always, distinguishable. In cases of primary orbital tumors
the extensive bone destruction produced by metastatic
lesions is rarely demonstrated.

The radiological findings in pseudotumor depend on the
structures and the nature of the ongoing inflammatory
process, but the following generalities can be made. Pseu-
dotumors are enhancing lesions that are usually isodense
with muscle on T1-weighted images, whereas they are
nearly isodense with fat on T2-weighted images. Myotic
pseudotumor may be seen as an enlargement of one or
more muscle bellies in the orbit, but it may also involve
the tendinous origin, unlike dysthyroid orbitopathy.

Dysthyroid orbitopathy, which results in extraocular
muscle infiltration with lymphocytes, plasma cells, mast
cells, and mucopolysaccharides may involve any muscle
of the orbit but most commonly enlarges the inferior or
medial rectus. This can be helpful in distinguishing
Graves disease from neoplastic growth, whereas the spar-
ing of the tendinous origin in Graves disease distinguish-
es it from the myotic variant of pseudotumor.

Noteworthy imaging characteristics include enlarge-
ment of the optic canal observed in lesions involving the
optic nerve; destruction of bone can occur in cases of ag-
gressive tumors such as rhabdomyosarcomas. A decrease
in size of the canal can be observed in the presence of non-
neoplastic lesions involving the bone such as fibrous dys-
plasia and ossifying fibroma.

Arteriovenous malformations are associated with the
presence of phleboliths, (calcified deposits in a vein)
which appear almost isodense with bone on CT scans. This
type of lesion is also suggested by the presence of flow
voids demonstrated on MR imaging. Calcium de-
posits in the mass of a lesion are also more suggestive of
certain tumor types, most notably retinoblastoma and me-
ningioma.

PRINCIPLES OF TREATMENT

The best strategy for managing orbital tumors is large-
ly determined by the nature of the lesion. Lesions best
suited to medical treatment include the dysthyroid or-
itopathies, infectious processes involving the orbit, such
as mild cases of cellulitis, and inflammatory pseudotu-
mors. Definitive surgical treatment remains the mainstay
of therapy for the majority of symptomatic orbital tumors.
The type of anesthesia and the most appropriate surgical

T. E. Darsaut, et al.
Overview of orbital tumors

approach to the lesion are dependent on its anatomical location, proximity to vital structures, and extent of involvement as visualized on CT scanning and MR imaging. Orbital and nasal approaches can be warranted, especially when the tumor does not involve the apex or extend beyond the confines of the orbit.

Orbital approaches can be made more extensive when the lesion is posterior to the equator of the eye. A lateral orbitotomy, with temporary removal of the lateral orbit wall, may provide excellent exposure of the orbital contents, allowing for tumor resection without damage to the extraocular muscles or their nerve supply. This technique is useful for lesions in the lacrimal fossa and lateral orbit, including the areas above and below the optic nerve.

The transcranial approach is useful for the resection of medially situated lesions, especially those situated at the orbital apex or those involving the optic nerve. In this approach, it is important to establish the surgery-related goals preoperatively. Certainly, with a malignant process confined to the orbit, cosmesis is secondary to controlling the spread of disease, and it is important to attempt to determine the nature of the lesion prior to undertaking the operation.

Orbital exenteration is the excision of the eyelids and the removal of the conjunctiva, globe, optic nerve, extraocular muscles, the lacrimal gland, and all the soft tissues of the orbit. Careful consideration of a patient’s ultimate prognosis should precede this surgical procedure.

CONCLUSIONS

Orbital tumors encompass a heterogeneous variety of lesions. Careful evaluation of a patient’s history and examination along with modern high-resolution imaging studies provide invaluable information regarding the possible origin of an orbital lesion. For most tumors, surgery is the treatment of choice.

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