

New Aspects in Descriptive, Etiologic, and Molecular Epidemiology of Hodgkin's Lymphoma

Ola Landgren, MD, PhD*, Neil E. Caporaso, MD

Genetic Epidemiology Branch, Division of Cancer Epidemiology and Genetics, National Cancer Institute, Department of Health and Human Services, National Institutes of Health, 6120 Executive Boulevard, Building EPS/Room 7110, Bethesda, MD 20892-7236, USA

Hodgkin's disease was first described in 1832 by Thomas Hodgkin (1798–1866) who published his article entitled “On some morbid appearances of the adsorbent glands and spleen,” describing the post-mortem appearance of seven patients who had enlargements of lymph nodes and spleen [1]. More than 30 years later, based on some 15 additional cases, Wilks published his article entitled “Cases of enlargement of the lymphatic glands and spleen, (or, Hodgkin's disease) with remarks” which ultimately named the disease after Thomas Hodgkin [2]. In 2001, the World Health Organization (WHO) lymphoma classification system designated Hodgkin's disease to Hodgkin's lymphoma [3].

Although Hodgkin's lymphoma is a rare hematopoietic malignancy in the general population [4,5], it has drawn much attention among generations of clinicians, pathologists, and researchers deriving from its generally unusual biology and epidemiology and because it is one of the first malignancies to exhibit curative response to chemotherapy. Its symptomatic features (such as recurrent cycles of fever, night sweats, and lymphadenopathy), which at times emerge clinically like an infectious disease, and preferential targeting of young adults have influenced many clinicians and researchers to suspect an infectious cause of the malignancy.

Etiologic clues about Hodgkin's lymphoma have been suggested by the bimodal age distribution; by elevated risks in males, in individuals with higher socioeconomic status, and in smaller families; and by the occurrence of Epstein-Barr virus in Hodgkin's lymphoma tumor cells [6,7]. After the introduction of highly active antiretroviral therapy (HAART) in 1996 for HIV-infected people, AIDS non-Hodgkin's lymphoma has declined substantially; however, the incidence of Hodgkin's lymphoma has been observed to increase simultaneously [8]. In the past decade, there have been reports showing increased

*Corresponding author. *E-mail address:* landgreo@mail.nih.gov (O. Landgren).

risk for Hodgkin's lymphoma among individuals who have undergone organ transplant or bone marrow transplant [9,10]. More recently, autoimmune and related conditions have drawn attention to a potential role for immune-related and inflammatory conditions in the cause and pathogenesis of the malignancy [11]. A role for genetic factors is unequivocal based on evidence from multiply affected families from case series, a twin study, a case-control study, and population-based registry studies [12–17]. Emerging data from Eastern Asia and among Chinese immigrants in North America indicate increasing incidence trends for Hodgkin's lymphoma associated with westernization, which emphasizes the importance of lifestyle and environmental risk factors even in a short-term perspective [18,19].

CLASSIFICATIONS OF HODGKIN'S LYMPHOMA

Evolving Classification Systems

Jackson and Parker were the first to propose a comprehensive classification of Hodgkin's lymphoma [20,21]. This classification was subsequently found to be clinically irrelevant, because most of the patients belonged to the granuloma subtype with a huge variation in response to therapy and outcome. In 1956, Smetana and Cohen identified a variant of granuloma characterized by sclerotic changes and a better prognosis [22]. Lukes and Butler suggested a histologic classification distinguishing six types of Hodgkin's lymphoma based on the varying degree of lymphocytic infiltration [23–25]. At the Rye symposium in 1965 the number of separate histologic groups was reduced from six to four and thereafter applied routinely for several decades because of the high reproducibility and good clinicopathologic correlations. In 1994, in light of morphologic, phenotypic, genotypic, and clinical findings, Hodgkin's lymphoma was listed in the Revised European-American Lymphoma classification and subdivided into two main types: nodular lymphocyte-predominant and classic Hodgkin's lymphoma [3,26]. Classic Hodgkin's lymphoma was further divided into four histologically and clinically defined subtypes: nodular sclerosis, mixed cellularity, lymphocyte-rich, and lymphocyte-depleted. This approach has been adopted by the most recent WHO classification of lymphomas [3], which promoted classic Hodgkin's lymphoma from a provisional to an accepted entity.

Heterogeneous Neoplastic Cells

Nodular lymphocyte-predominant and classic Hodgkin's lymphoma [3,26] share certain pathognomonic characteristics. For example, affected tissues contain only a small number of neoplastic Hodgkin's and Reed-Sternberg cells (typically less than 1%) in a background of nonneoplastic inflammatory and accessory cells [3], suggestive of a chronic inflammatory process. Several lines of evidence indicate that the neoplastic cells of Hodgkin's lymphoma originate from a germinal center or immediate postgerminal B cell that has been selected and stimulated by antigen [27–32]. Further, immunohistochemical studies have found neoplastic cells of nodular lymphocyte-predominant Hodgkin's

lymphoma (popcorn cells) to be of BCL6+/CD138– phenotype, which is typical for germinal center cells. For the classic Hodgkin's lymphoma subtype, however, the neoplastic cells (Reed-Sternberg cells) have been observed to be typically BCL6+/CD138–, but sometimes they can be BCL6–/CD138+, which suggests that classic Hodgkin's lymphoma is a heterogeneous entity, including tumors of germinal center and postgerminal center B cell origin [33–35]. In rare cases of classic Hodgkin's lymphoma, tumor cells have been observed to be derived from peripheral (postthymic) T cells [36,37].

DESCRIPTIVE EPIDEMIOLOGY

Incidence and Mortality in Western Countries

Hodgkin's lymphoma composes about 11% of all lymphomas in western countries and has a unique bimodal (sometimes trimodal) age-incidence shape (Fig. 1). It is currently estimated by the American Cancer Society that there will be about 8190 new cases (55% males) and 1070 (72% males) deaths of Hodgkin's lymphoma in the United States in 2007 [38]. Also, the United States National Cancer Institute's Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results (SEER) and European-based International Agency for Research on Cancer

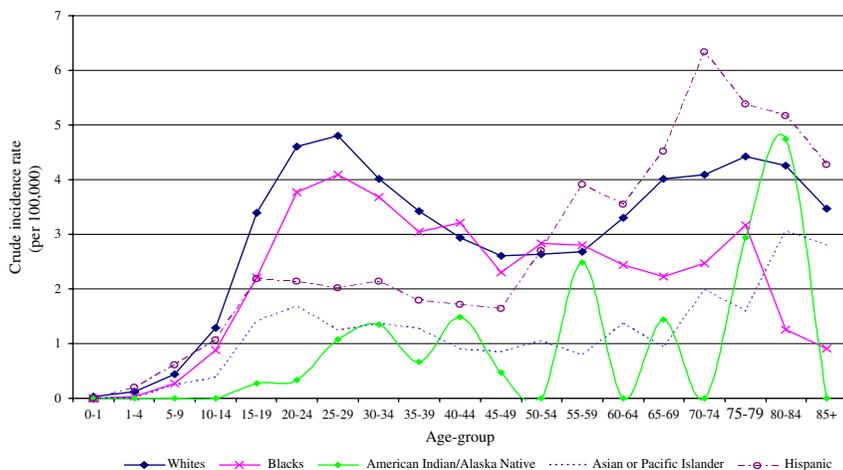


Fig. 1. Incidence of Hodgkin's lymphoma in the United States 1994–2003, by age and race. Statistics for American Indians/Alaska Natives do not include cases for the 2003 diagnosis year. Hispanic and Non-Hispanic are not mutually exclusive from White, Black, American Indian/Alaska Native, and Asian or Pacific Islander. Statistics for Hispanics and Non-Hispanics are based on NHIA and do not include cases from the Hawaii, Seattle, and Alaska Natives registries. Statistics for American Indians/Alaska Natives include cases from the Connecticut, Detroit, Iowa, New Mexico, Seattle, Utah, Atlanta and Alaska Natives registries. (Data from Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results (SEER) Program. SEER stat database: incidence—SEER13 regs public use, Nov 2005 Sub (1992–2003), National Cancer Institute, DCCPS, Surveillance Research Program, cancer Statistics branch, released April 2006, based on the November 2005 submission. Available at: <http://www.seer.cancer.gov>.)

population-based cancer registries have estimated the incidence of Hodgkin's lymphoma in the United States and in Europe to be around 2.3 to 3.1 per 100,000 males and 1.6 to 2.3 per 100,000 females, which underscores that Hodgkin's lymphoma is a rare malignancy in the general population [4,5]. Although the risk for developing Hodgkin's lymphoma is small (a life time risk of 0.24% for males and 0.20% for females) [5], it accounts for approximately 15% of all cancers in young adults (15 to 24 years). As to racial variation within the United States, a previous study on cancer incidence in California found the highest Hodgkin's lymphoma rates among whites, followed by African Americans and Hispanics, and the lowest incidence was observed among people of Asian descent [39]. This pattern is consistent with currently available data from the SEER database (see Fig. 1) [5].

The introduction of modern staging procedures and advances in radiotherapy and chemotherapy have significantly contributed to improved survival of patients who have Hodgkin's lymphoma over the past decades [40]. Clinical trials have observed long-term failure-free survival of 60% to 70% among patients treated with doxorubicin, bleomycin, vinblastine, and dacarbazine (ABVD)-based therapies [41,42]. The German Hodgkin's Study Group has reported further improved outcomes using their dose-escalated BEACOPP regimen (including cyclophosphamide, doxorubicin, etoposide, procarbazine, prednisone, vincristine, and bleomycin) developed for patients who have advanced-stage Hodgkin's lymphoma [43]. Consistent with results from clinical trials, data from 2000 to 2003 in the population-based SEER database reveal mortality rates for patients who have Hodgkin's lymphoma of 0.4 per 100,000 and 0.3 per 100,000 for males and females, respectively [5]. If one restricts the estimates to patients who are 65 years or older, the mortality rates are 2.1 per 100,000 (males) and 1.4 per 100,000 (females). By using 5-year relative survival rates as the measure of outcome the same pattern can be seen: the 5-year relative survival rates for all Hodgkin's lymphoma is about 85%, whereas the corresponding relative survival rate for older patients (65 years or older) is only 53% [5]. The outcomes of elderly (>50–60 years) patients still remain unsatisfactory, however, with inferior complete remission rates and overall survival [44–46]. Because older patients generally are not included in clinical trials the information on this topic is sparse. Population-based data from Scandinavia show that the 5-year overall survival for younger patients (diagnosed younger than age 50 years) increased from about 55% to 90% between the two calendar periods 1926 to 1955 and 1972 to 1994, whereas the corresponding improvement for patients diagnosed at 50 years or older improved from 20% to 50% during the same calendar periods [47,48]. Currently the underlying mechanisms for the clinically well-known poor prognosis of older patients who have Hodgkin's lymphoma treated with chemotherapy [49–53] remain unclear. Hodgkin's lymphoma in older patients is clinically more aggressive in that anemia, increased erythrocyte sedimentation rate, and B symptoms are significantly more frequent at diagnosis among the elderly [50,54], which supports the hypothesis of age-related disease

differences in Hodgkin's lymphoma. Alternatively, aging itself and associated factors (such as increased comorbidity [55], reduced tolerability of conventional therapy [49,56], more severe toxicity and treatment-related deaths [57,58], and poorer outcome after relapse [59]) may contribute to the worse prognosis for elderly patients. Future research is needed to explore disease mechanisms by age for patients who have Hodgkin's lymphoma. Clinically, more accurate markers of outcome in combination with less toxic novel therapies are needed [44–46].

International Variation and Westernization

The incidence of Hodgkin's lymphoma has been found to vary between westernized countries versus economically disadvantaged countries (Fig. 2). In the early 1970s, three epidemiologic patterns were described by Correa and O'Connor: type I in developing countries (a first incidence peak in male children and a second peak in older age around 50 years, with a predominance of histopathologic subtypes mixed cellularity and lymphocyte-depleted); type II in rural areas of developed countries (an intermediate pattern with high male childhood incidence and a second decade peak among females); type III in developed urbanized countries (a bimodal age distribution with a pronounced peak in young adults experiencing nodular sclerosis as the most frequent histopathologic subtype, and a continuously rising incidence older than 40 years) [60]. Correa and O'Connor [60] suggested that the observed variation in international patterns of disease reflected differences in economic development (ie, correlated for example with the level of public hygiene). More recent data from the mid-1990s have shown that the incidence rates for young adults have increased in less developed countries while remaining static in western countries [61]. A recent study from Japan, where historically Hodgkin's lymphoma has been rare before the age of 50, reported increasing incidence of Hodgkin's lymphoma in recent decades [62]. The Cancer registry in Singapore has observed (in parallel with data from Hong Kong) that local rates of non-Hodgkin's lymphoma (1998–2002, $n = 1170$) are the highest in Asia and the incidence has steadily increased over the past four decades [19], consistent with the well-documented rising trends in western societies the past almost half century [63]. Between 1998 and 2002 the age-standardized rates for males and female were 8.2 and 5.0 per 100,000, respectively. During the period 1993–1997 the corresponding rates were 7.5 and 4.4 per 100,000 and for the period 1968–1972 they were 3.1 and 1.9, respectively. For Hodgkin's lymphoma, the number of cases between 1998 and 2002 is small ($n = 122$), making interpretation of the time trend difficult. There is evidence of an upward trend of the malignancy over the past decade, however [19].

In a recent study on incidence trends for Hodgkin's lymphoma among immigrants of Chinese descent in British Columbia, Canada, Au and colleagues [18] found the incidence of Hodgkin's lymphoma among Chinese immigrants to be significantly lower than expected from the British Columbia background population (standardized incidence ratio [SIR] = 0.34; $P < .0001$). At the same

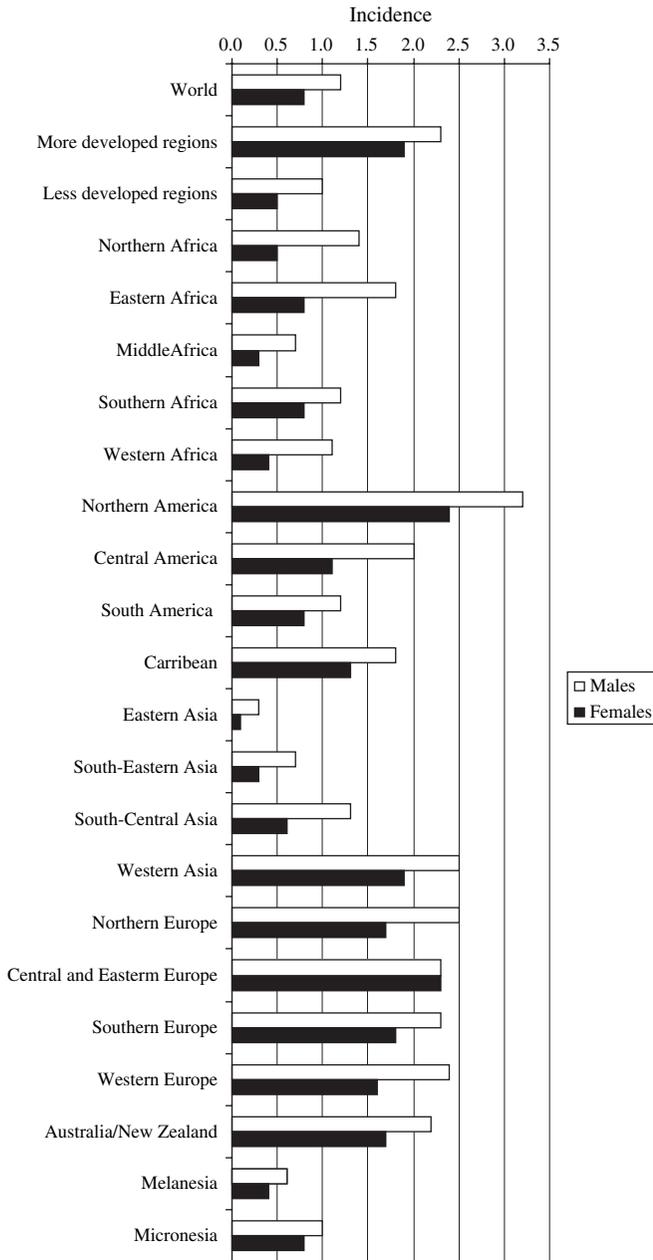


Fig. 2. Global incidence of Hodgkin's lymphoma 2002, by sex and region. Age-standardized rates per 100,000 person-years (world 2000 population). However, although the populations of the different countries are those estimated for the middle of 2002, the disease rates are not those for the year 2002, but from the most recent data available, generally 2–5 years earlier. The numbers of cases are computed by multiplying the estimated rates by the year 2002 population estimates for the corresponding country. The GLOBOCAN 2002 database provides estimates for the year 2002. (Data from Ferlay J, Bray F, Pisani P, et al. GLOBOCAN 2002: cancer incidence, mortality and prevalence worldwide. IARC CancerBase No. 5. version 2.0. Lyon: IARC Press; 2004.)

time, however, the incidence was significantly higher than that expected by extrapolating from the Hong Kong Chinese population ($SIR = 2.81$; $P < .0001$) [18]. The difference was mainly accounted for by young immigrants diagnosed with nodular sclerosis Hodgkin's lymphoma subtype. Although that study was restricted in size, it supports the hypothesis of a role for genetic, lifestyle, and environmental factors in the pathogenesis of Hodgkin's lymphoma. The results indicate that environmental and lifestyle factors can exert their influence over a relatively short period of time. Taken together, there is need for studies designed to quantify incidence trends for lymphomas in countries under the influence of westernization. Such results might provide opportunities to generate hypotheses regarding risk factors for the development of lymphomas and also are useful measures for health care planners who are responsible for future allocation of health care resources in these regions.

Secondary Tumors and Late Cardiovascular Disease

Developments in modern therapy have dramatically improved survival over the past decades for patients who have Hodgkin's lymphoma. Unfortunately, the improved outcome has been accompanied by long-term toxicity, such as elevated risk for second primary malignancies [64,65], cardiovascular disease [66], and infections [66,67]. In fact, second malignant neoplasms now are the leading cause of death among long-term survivors of Hodgkin's lymphoma [68], with breast cancer being the most common solid tumor among women [69]. The most pronounced risk for breast cancer has been found among women diagnosed with Hodgkin's lymphoma at age 30 years or younger [69–71] and is strongly associated with chest radiotherapy for Hodgkin's lymphoma. Risk has been reported to increase up to eightfold with increasing given radiation dose [69,71,72]. Other reported second cancers include acute nonlymphocytic leukemia, non-Hodgkin's lymphoma, lung cancer, stomach cancer, and melanoma [73]. Similar to the pattern of elevated risk for breast cancer, risks for other second cancer sites are highest among patients treated for Hodgkin's lymphoma at younger ages. Also, most solid tumors have been found to start within or at the edge of the irradiated field. Elevated radiation-related risks for second tumors have been found to increase even 20 to 30 years following therapy [73]. Finally, several studies have reported increased mortality of cardiac disease after mediastinal radiotherapy for Hodgkin's lymphoma [66,67]. Anthracycline chemotherapy significantly adds to the elevated risks of congestive heart failure ($HR = 2.8$) and valvular disorders ($HR = 2.1$) from mediastinal radiotherapy [74].

ETIOLOGIC AND MOLECULAR EPIDEMIOLOGY

Epstein-Barr Virus and Other Candidate Viruses

Over the past decades Epstein-Barr virus (EBV) has been the major candidate for an infectious agent causing Hodgkin's lymphoma. Previous studies have reported that individuals who have a personal history of infectious mononucleosis have an elevated risk for developing Hodgkin's lymphoma. The elevated risk for

Hodgkin's lymphoma has been found to be greater among people infected at older ages and weaker with time since infection [75]. Hypothetically, the observed association with infectious mononucleosis could reflect higher socioeconomic status resulting in relatively late infections with EBV. Based on Scandinavian data, however, there is no elevated risk for Hodgkin's lymphoma among first-degree relatives of patients who have infectious mononucleosis, strengthening the case for increased risk with infectious mononucleosis itself [75].

Previous studies investigating serum from patients who have Hodgkin's lymphoma have reported altered EBV antibody patterns. Typically, patients who have Hodgkin's lymphoma have higher mean antibody titers to EBV viral capsid antigen consistent with prior infection. Also, there is serologic evidence of elevated antibodies to early antigen and Epstein-Barr nuclear antigen among individuals subsequently diagnosed with Hodgkin's lymphoma [76].

Detection of the EBV genome has been reported in malignant cells of about one third to one half of the Hodgkin's lymphoma cases [76]. Almost all studies have demonstrated that EBV is more likely to be associated with the mixed cellularity subtype than with the nodular sclerosis subtype. The nodular lymphocyte-predominant subtype is not associated with EBV infection. The association of EBV with Hodgkin's lymphoma is strongest in children and the elderly and it is also more frequent in males than in females. The frequency of EBV association is higher in Asian and Central/Middle American countries than in the United States and Europe [77]. In situ hybridization and immunohistochemistry studies of affected tissues have demonstrated that EBV is localized to neoplastic Reed-Sternberg cells, which express EBV latent genes. Southern blot analysis of the fusion pattern of the EBV terminal repeat have shown that EBV in Reed-Sternberg cells is clonal. This evidence provides plausible evidence for the role of EBV in the pathogenesis of Hodgkin's lymphoma. EBV genome has only been found within the tumor in about 20% to 40% of patients who have Hodgkin's lymphoma with a prior diagnosis of infectious mononucleosis [78,79] and in around 30% to 40% of young adult patients overall [80]. Somewhat unexpected in relation to these findings, the association between infectious mononucleosis and Hodgkin's lymphoma has been found to be strongest for EBV-positive (versus EBV-negative) tumors [78,80]. One explanation is that EBV has been proposed to be the cause in patients who do not have viral genomic material within the tumor by way of a hit-and-run mechanism. Recent studies have not found evidence to support that hypothesis, however [81]. Based on the available evidence, the relationship between EBV and Hodgkin's lymphoma is plausible but unproven.

Several other viruses (such as cytomegalovirus, human herpesviruses 6, 7, and 8, polyoma viruses JC and BK, SV40, lymphotropic papovavirus, adenoviruses, human T-lymphotropic virus 1, and measles virus) have been examined as potential candidates or cofactors for involvement in Hodgkin's lymphoma. There is no consistent evidence indicating that these viruses are important in the cause of Hodgkin's lymphoma [82]. The risk for Hodgkin's lymphoma has been found to be elevated among people infected with HIV

[83]. Further, it has been observed that HIV-associated patients who have Hodgkin's lymphoma are more likely to be of mixed-cellularity or lymphocyte-depletion subtype and 80% to 100% of the cases have been reported to be EBV positive [84]. In a recent study investigating lymphoma trends in relation to HAART therapy, it was found that the dramatic decrease of non-Hodgkin's lymphoma has been paralleled by an increase of Hodgkin's lymphoma [8]. Currently, the underlying mechanisms for that observation remain unknown.

Autoimmunity and Hodgkin's Lymphoma

Autoimmune diseases are characterized by dysregulated lymphocyte reactivity against self-antigens and the production of autoantibodies, leading to damage of the targeted tissues, such as joints or skin [85]. Previous studies have shown that there is an increased risk for mainly non-Hodgkin's lymphoma subsequent to autoimmune conditions, including rheumatoid arthritis, Sjögren syndrome, and systemic lupus erythematosus [86–97]. Recent studies focusing on underlying pathophysiologic mechanisms related to lymphomagenesis have provided new evidence establishing differences in the risk for non-Hodgkin's lymphoma development associated with various autoimmune disorders [98]. A recent study investigated the association between a wide range of autoimmune conditions and subsequent risk for Hodgkin's lymphoma [11]. Elevated risk for Hodgkin's lymphoma was found for personal histories of several autoimmune conditions, including rheumatoid arthritis, systemic lupus erythematosus, sarcoidosis, and immune thrombocytopenic purpura. Also, a significant increased risk for Hodgkin's lymphoma was associated with family histories of sarcoidosis and ulcerative colitis. The association between personal and family history of sarcoidosis and a statistically significant increased risk for Hodgkin's lymphoma suggests shared susceptibility for these conditions.

Transplant and Hodgkin's Lymphoma

Allogeneic bone marrow transplantation is associated with an elevated risk for developing posttransplant lymphoproliferative disorders (PTLD). Although Hodgkin's lymphoma after transplantation is rare, an elevated risk has been reported [10]. Five of six assessable cases contained EBV genome. Differences from posttransplant lymphoproliferative disease after bone marrow transplantation were later onset (≥ 2.5 years) and lack of association with established risk factors (such as T-cell depletion and human leukocyte antigen disparity). As pointed out by Rowlings and colleagues [10], the long latency of Hodgkin's lymphoma after transplant and the lack of association with risk factors for PTLD is remarkable and should be explored further for possible insights into pathogenesis.

Previous studies of solid organ transplant patients have not generally found an elevated risk for Hodgkin's lymphoma. The Israel Penn Transplant Tumor Registry lists Hodgkin's lymphoma as the lymphoid malignancy in 2.5% (31 cases) among 1252 diseases following solid organ transplant [99]. EBV nuclear material has been demonstrated in some of the cases of Hodgkin's lymphoma following transplantation [100,101].

Genetic Factors

The importance of genetic factors in Hodgkin's lymphoma is indicated by reports of multiply affected families from case series, a twin study, a case-control study, and population-based registry studies performed in Utah, Denmark, Israel, and Sweden [12–17]. Our group recently analyzed data from registries in Scandinavia and found significant familial aggregation of Hodgkin's lymphoma (relative risk = 3.1) and other lymphoproliferative tumors [13]. Relative risks were higher in males compared with females, and in siblings of patients compared with parents and offspring. Relatives of earlier-onset patients were at higher risk for Hodgkin's lymphoma and for all lymphoproliferative tumors and were also at higher risk for developing early onset tumors themselves.

Currently, it is not known whether (or how) extrinsic risk factors interact with genetic susceptibility. Identifying inherited susceptibility genes is an important step toward defining the pathways leading to development of Hodgkin's lymphoma and understanding its complex etiology. Until recently, there have been no comprehensive searches of the genome for Hodgkin's lymphoma genes, largely because of the difficulty in assembling informative samples. In 2005, a study including 44 informative high-risk Hodgkin's lymphoma families was conducted. In that study, whole-genome scanning was applied using densely spaced microsatellite markers to localize susceptibility genes [102]. The strongest linkage finding was on chromosome 4p near the marker D4S394. The logarithm of odds score calculated by Genehunter Plus was 2.6 (nominal $P = .0002$) when both Hodgkin's lymphoma and non-Hodgkin's lymphoma individuals were considered affected. Other locations suggestive of linkage were found on chromosomes 2 and 11. The findings from this investigation are consistent with recessive inheritance. These results are the first step in the discovery of germ line susceptibility genes and delineation of the pathways involved in development of Hodgkin's lymphoma. Future work is needed to better define pathways and to determine their interactions with environmental factors.

Other Factors

Based on the shape of the incidence curve for Hodgkin's lymphoma by age and gender, Glaser proposed in the mid-1990s that that childbearing potentially could be protective against Hodgkin's lymphoma in adult women [103]. Results from Norwegian studies have supported this hypothesis [104,105]; however, the difference in the shape of the incidence curves between the sexes was not seen in England and Wales [106].

Prior studies examining occupational exposures and subsequent cancer risk have reported on Hodgkin's lymphoma risk. The results on Hodgkin's lymphoma risk in relation to exposure to wood and wood dust and chemicals are inconsistent and based on small numbers. Phenoxo herbicides and chlorophenols have also been investigated but, again, there has not been consistent evidence of a causal association [107]. There is no evidence of an association of ionizing radiation with risk for Hodgkin's lymphoma. Some studies have

found elevated risk for Hodgkin's lymphomas following tonsillectomy; however, the results are inconsistent.

FUTURE RESEARCH

Continued studies are needed to clarify the roles of EBV, HIV, and autoimmunity in the etiology and pathogenesis of Hodgkin's lymphoma. Future work also is needed to better define germ line susceptibility genes, to delineate pathways, and to determine their interactions with environmental factors. Observed increasing incidence trends for Hodgkin's lymphoma and their possible association with westernization should also be followed up.

Acknowledgments

This research was supported by the Intramural Research Program of the National Institutes of Health, National Cancer Institute.

References

- [1] Hodgkin T. On some morbid experiences of the absorbent glands and spleen. *Med Chir Trans* 1832;17:69–97.
- [2] Wilks S. Cases of enlargement of the lymphatic glands and spleen (or Hodgkin's disease), with remarks. *Guy's Hosp Rep* 1865;11:56–67.
- [3] Jaffe ES, Harris NL, Stein H, Vardiman JW, editors. World Health Organization classification of tumours. Pathology and genetics of tumours of haematopoietic and lymphoid tissues. Lyon: IARC Press; 2001.
- [4] Parkin DM, Whelan SL, Ferlay J, et al. Cancer incidence in five continents vol. I to VIII. Lyon: IARC; 2005 CancerBase No. 7.
- [5] Ries LAG, Harkins D, Krapcho M, et al. SEER Cancer Statistics Review, 1975–2003. Bethesda, (MD): National Cancer Institute; 2006.
- [6] O'Grady J, Stewart S, Elton RA, et al. Epstein-Barr virus in Hodgkin's disease and site of origin of tumour. *Lancet* 1994;343(8892):265–6.
- [7] Diepstra A, Niens M, Vellenga E, et al. Association with HLA class I in Epstein-Barr-virus-positive and with HLA class III in Epstein-Barr-virus-negative Hodgkin's lymphoma. *Lancet* 2005;365(9478):2216–24.
- [8] Biggar RJ, Jaffe ES, Goedert JJ, et al. Hodgkin lymphoma and immunodeficiency in persons with HIV/AIDS. *Blood* 2006;108(12):3786–91.
- [9] Bierman PJ, Vose JM, Langnas AN, et al. Hodgkin's disease following solid organ transplantation. *Ann Oncol* 1996;7(3):265–70.
- [10] Rowlings PA, Curtis RE, Passweg JR, et al. Increased incidence of Hodgkin's disease after allogeneic bone marrow transplantation. *J Clin Oncol* 1999;17(10):3122–7.
- [11] Landgren O, Engels EA, Pfeiffer RM, et al. Autoimmunity and susceptibility to Hodgkin lymphoma: a population-based case-control study in Scandinavia. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 2006;98(18):1321–30.
- [12] Goldgar DE, Easton DF, Cannon-Albright LA, et al. Systematic population-based assessment of cancer risk in first-degree relatives of cancer probands. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 1994;86(21):1600–8.
- [13] Goldin LR, Pfeiffer RM, Gridley G, et al. Familial aggregation of Hodgkin lymphoma and related tumors. *Cancer* 2004;100(9):1902–8.
- [14] Lindelof B, Eklund G. Analysis of hereditary component of cancer by use of a familial index by site. *Lancet* 2001;358(9294):1696–8.
- [15] Paltiel O, Schmit T, Adler B, et al. The incidence of lymphoma in first-degree relatives of patients with Hodgkin disease and non-Hodgkin lymphoma: results and limitations of a registry-linked study. *Cancer* 2000;88(10):2357–66.

- [16] Shugart YY, Hemminki K, Vaitinen P, et al. A genetic study of Hodgkin's lymphoma: an estimate of heritability and anticipation based on the familial cancer database in Sweden. *Hum Genet* 2000;106(5):553–6.
- [17] Westergaard T, Melbye M, Pedersen JB, et al. Birth order, sibship size and risk of Hodgkin's disease in children and young adults: a population-based study of 31 million person-years. *Int J Cancer* 1997;72(6):977–81.
- [18] Au WY, Gascoyne RD, Gallagher RE, et al. Hodgkin's lymphoma in Chinese migrants to British Columbia: a 25-year survey. *Ann Oncol* 2004;15(4):626–30.
- [19] Seow A, Koh WP, Chia KS, et al. Trends in cancer incidence in Singapore 1968–2002. Singapore: Singapore Cancer Registry; 2004. p. 6.
- [20] Jackson J, Parker J. Hodgkin's disease and allied disorders. New York: Oxford University Press; 1947.
- [21] Harris NL. Hodgkin's lymphomas: classification, diagnosis, and grading. *Semin Hematol* 1999;36(3):220–32.
- [22] Smetana HF, Cohen BM. Mortality in relation to histologic type in Hodgkin's disease. *Blood* 1956;11(3):211–24.
- [23] Rosenthal S. Significance of tissue lymphocytes in the prognosis of lymphogranulomatosis. *Arch Pathol* 1936;21:628–46.
- [24] Lukes RJ. Relationship of histologic features to clinical stages in Hodgkin's disease. *Am J Roentgenol Radium Ther Nucl Med* 1963;90:944–55.
- [25] Lukes RJ, Butler JJ. The pathology and nomenclature of Hodgkin's disease. *Cancer Res* 1966;26(6):1063–83.
- [26] Harris NL, Jaffe ES, Diebold J, et al. Lymphoma classification—from controversy to consensus: the R.E.A.L. and WHO Classification of lymphoid neoplasms. *Ann Oncol* 2000;11(Suppl 1):3–10.
- [27] Cossman J, Annunziata CM, Barash S, et al. Reed-Sternberg cell genome expression supports a B-cell lineage. *Blood* 1999;94(2):411–6.
- [28] Brauningner A, Hansmann ML, Strickler JG, et al. Identification of common germinal-center B-cell precursors in two patients with both Hodgkin's disease and non-Hodgkin's lymphoma. *N Engl J Med* 1999;340(16):1239–47.
- [29] Kuppers R, Roers A, Kanzler H. Molecular single cell studies of normal and transformed lymphocytes. *Cancer Surv* 1997;30:45–58.
- [30] Marafioti T, Hummel M, Anagnostopoulos I, et al. Origin of nodular lymphocyte-predominant Hodgkin's disease from a clonal expansion of highly mutated germinal-center B cells. *N Engl J Med* 1997;337(7):453–8.
- [31] Marafioti T, Hummel M, Foss HD, et al. Hodgkin and Reed-Sternberg cells represent an expansion of a single clone originating from a germinal center B-cell with functional immunoglobulin gene rearrangements but defective immunoglobulin transcription. *Blood* 2000;95(4):1443–50.
- [32] Brauningner A, Kuppers R, Strickler JG, et al. Hodgkin and Reed-Sternberg cells in lymphocyte predominant Hodgkin disease represent clonal populations of germinal center-derived tumor B cells. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 1997;94(17):9337–42.
- [33] Falini B, Mason DY. Proteins encoded by genes involved in chromosomal alterations in lymphoma and leukemia: clinical value of their detection by immunocytochemistry. *Blood* 2002;99(2):409–26.
- [34] Carbone A, Gloghini A, Gaidano G, et al. Expression status of BCL-6 and syndecan-1 identifies distinct histogenetic subtypes of Hodgkin's disease. *Blood* 1998;92(7):2220–8.
- [35] Falini B, Bigerna B, Pasqualucci L, et al. Distinctive expression pattern of the BCL-6 protein in nodular lymphocyte predominance Hodgkin's disease. *Blood* 1996;87(2):465–71.
- [36] Muschen M, Rajewsky K, Brauningner A, et al. Rare occurrence of classical Hodgkin's disease as a T cell lymphoma. *J Exp Med* 2000;191(2):387–94.

- [37] Seitz V, Hummel M, Marafioti T, et al. Detection of clonal T-cell receptor gamma-chain gene rearrangements in Reed-Sternberg cells of classic Hodgkin disease. *Blood* 2000;95(10):3020–4.
- [38] Anonymous. *Cancer facts & figures 2007*. Atlanta (GA): American Cancer Society; 2007.
- [39] Perkins CI, Morris CR, Wright WE, et al. Cancer incidence and mortality in California by detailed race/ethnicity, 1988–1992. Sacramento (CA): California Department of Health Services Surveillance Section; 1995.
- [40] Kennedy BJ, Fremgen AM, Menck HR. The National Cancer Data Base report on Hodgkin's disease for 1985–1989 and 1990–1994. *Cancer* 1998;83(5):1041–7.
- [41] Duggan DB, Petroni GR, Johnson JL, et al. Randomized comparison of ABVD and MOPP/ABV hybrid for the treatment of advanced Hodgkin's disease: report of an intergroup trial. *J Clin Oncol* 2003;21(4):607–14.
- [42] Canellos GP, Anderson JR, Propert KJ, et al. Chemotherapy of advanced Hodgkin's disease with MOPP, ABVD, or MOPP alternating with ABVD. *N Engl J Med* 1992;327(21):1478–84.
- [43] Diehl V, Behringer K. Could BEACOPP be the new standard for the treatment of advanced Hodgkin's lymphoma (HL)? *Cancer Invest* 2006;24(7):713–7.
- [44] Forsyth PD, Bessell EM, Moloney AJ, et al. Hodgkin's disease in patients older than 70 years of age: a registry-based analysis. *Eur J Cancer* 1997;33(10):1638–42.
- [45] Eghbali H, Hoerni-Simon G, de Mascarel I, et al. Hodgkin's disease in the elderly. A series of 30 patients aged older than 70 years. *Cancer* 1984;53(10):2191–3.
- [46] Wedelin C, Bjorkholm M, Biberfeld P, et al. Prognostic factors in Hodgkin's disease with special reference to age. *Cancer* 1984;53(5):1202–8.
- [47] Landgren O. Diagnostic and prognostic studies in Hodgkin's lymphoma. Stockholm: Department of Medicine, Division of Hematology, Karolinska Institutet; 2002.
- [48] Westling P. Studies of the prognosis in Hodgkin's disease. *Acta Radiol* 1965;(Suppl 245):5–125.
- [49] Landgren O, Algernon C, Axdorph U, et al. Hodgkin's lymphoma in the elderly with special reference to type and intensity of chemotherapy in relation to prognosis. *Haematologica* 2003;88(4):438–44.
- [50] Engert A, Ballova V, Haverkamp H, et al. Hodgkin's lymphoma in elderly patients: a comprehensive retrospective analysis from the German Hodgkin's Study Group. *J Clin Oncol* 2005;23(22):5052–60.
- [51] Ballova V, Ruffer JU, Haverkamp H, et al. A prospectively randomized trial carried out by the German Hodgkin Study Group (GHSG) for elderly patients with advanced Hodgkin's disease comparing BEACOPP baseline and COPP-ABVD (study HD9elderly). *Ann Oncol* 2005;16(1):124–31.
- [52] Weekes CD, Vose JM, Lynch JC, et al. Hodgkin's disease in the elderly: improved treatment outcome with a doxorubicin-containing regimen. *J Clin Oncol* 2002;20(4):1087–93.
- [53] Proctor SJ, White J, Jones GL. An international approach to the treatment of Hodgkin's disease in the elderly: launch of the SHIELD study programme. *Eur J Haematol Suppl* 2005;(66):63–7.
- [54] Landgren O, Axdorph U, Fears TR, et al. A population-based cohort study on early-stage Hodgkin lymphoma treated with radiotherapy alone: with special reference to older patients. *Ann Oncol* 2006;17(8):1290–5.
- [55] van Spronsen DJ, Janssen-Heijnen ML, Breed WP, et al. Prevalence of co-morbidity and its relationship to treatment among unselected patients with Hodgkin's disease and non-Hodgkin's lymphoma, 1993–1996. *Ann Hematol* 1999;78(7):315–9.
- [56] Erdkamp FL, Breed WP, Bosch LJ, et al. Hodgkin disease in the elderly. A registry-based analysis. *Cancer* 1992;70(4):830–4.
- [57] Peterson BA, Pajak TF, Cooper MR, et al. Effect of age on therapeutic response and survival in advanced Hodgkin's disease. *Cancer Treat Rep* 1982;66(4):889–98.

- [58] Levis A, Depaoli L, Bertini M, et al. Results of a low aggressivity chemotherapy regimen (CVP/CEB) in elderly Hodgkin's disease patients. *Haematologica* 1996;81(5):450-6.
- [59] Specht L, Nissen NI. Hodgkin's disease and age. *Eur J Haematol* 1989;43(2):127-35.
- [60] Correa P, O'Connor GT. Epidemiologic patterns of Hodgkin's disease. *Int J Cancer* 1971;8(2):192-201.
- [61] Macfarlane GJ, Evstifeeva T, Boyle P, et al. International patterns in the occurrence of Hodgkin's disease in children and young adult males. *Int J Cancer* 1995;61(2):165-9.
- [62] Aozasa K, Ueda T, Tamai M, et al. Hodgkin's disease in Osaka, Japan (1964-1985). *Eur J Cancer Clin Oncol* 1986;22(9):1117-9.
- [63] Clarke CA, Glaser SL. Changing incidence of non-Hodgkin lymphomas in the United States. *Cancer* 2002;94(7):2015-23.
- [64] Ng AK, Bernardo MV, Weller E, et al. Second malignancy after Hodgkin disease treated with radiation therapy with or without chemotherapy: long-term risks and risk factors. *Blood* 2002;100(6):1989-96.
- [65] Dores GM, Metayer C, Curtis RE, et al. Second malignant neoplasms among long-term survivors of Hodgkin's disease: a population-based evaluation over 25 years. *J Clin Oncol* 2002;20(16):3484-94.
- [66] Ng AK, Bernardo MP, Weller E, et al. Long-term survival and competing causes of death in patients with early-stage Hodgkin's disease treated at age 50 or younger. *J Clin Oncol* 2002;20(8):2101-8.
- [67] Aleman BM, van den Belt-Dusebout AW, Klokmann WJ, et al. Long-term cause-specific mortality of patients treated for Hodgkin's disease. *J Clin Oncol* 2003;21(18):3431-9.
- [68] Hoppe RT. Hodgkin's disease: complications of therapy and excess mortality. *Ann Oncol* 1997;8(Suppl 1):115-8.
- [69] Travis LB, Hill DA, Dores GM, et al. Breast cancer following radiotherapy and chemotherapy among young women with Hodgkin disease. *JAMA* 2003;290(4):465-75.
- [70] van Leeuwen FE, Klokmann WJ, Stovall M, et al. Roles of radiation dose, chemotherapy, and hormonal factors in breast cancer following Hodgkin's disease. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 2003;95(13):971-80.
- [71] Hill DA, Gilbert E, Dores GM, et al. Breast cancer risk following radiotherapy for Hodgkin lymphoma: modification by other risk factors. *Blood* 2005;106(10):3358-65.
- [72] Travis LB, Hill D, Dores GM, et al. Cumulative absolute breast cancer risk for young women treated for Hodgkin lymphoma. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 2005;97(19):1428-37.
- [73] Foss Abrahamsen A, Andersen A, Nome O, et al. Long-term risk of second malignancy after treatment of Hodgkin's disease: the influence of treatment, age and follow-up time. *Ann Oncol* 2002;13(11):1786-91.
- [74] Aleman BM, van den Belt-Dusebout AW, De Bruin ML, et al. Late cardiotoxicity after treatment for Hodgkin lymphoma. *Blood* 2007;109(5):1878-86.
- [75] Hjalgrim H, Askling J, Sorensen P, et al. Risk of Hodgkin's disease and other cancers after infectious mononucleosis. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 2000;92(18):1522-8.
- [76] Mueller NE. Hodgkin's disease. In: Schottenfield D, Fraumeni JF Jr, editors. *Cancer epidemiology and prevention*. 2nd edition. New York: Oxford University Press; 1996. p. 893-919.
- [77] Tomita Y, Ohsawa M, Kanno H, et al. Epstein-Barr virus in Hodgkin's disease patients in Japan. *Cancer* 1996;77(1):186-92.
- [78] Alexander FE, Jarrett RF, Lawrence D, et al. Risk factors for Hodgkin's disease by Epstein-Barr virus (EBV) status: prior infection by EBV and other agents. *Br J Cancer* 2000;82(5):1117-21.
- [79] Sleckman BG, Mauch PM, Ambinder RF, et al. Epstein-Barr virus in Hodgkin's disease: correlation of risk factors and disease characteristics with molecular evidence of viral infection. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* 1998;7(12):1117-21.
- [80] Glaser SL, Lin RJ, Stewart SL, et al. Epstein-Barr virus-associated Hodgkin's disease: epidemiologic characteristics in international data. *Int J Cancer* 1997;70(4):375-82.

- [81] Gallagher A, Perry J, Freeland J, et al. Hodgkin lymphoma and Epstein-Barr virus (EBV): no evidence to support hit-and-run mechanism in cases classified as non-EBV-associated. *Int J Cancer* 2003;104(5):624–30.
- [82] Benharroch D, Shemer-Avni Y, Levy A, et al. New candidate virus in association with Hodgkin's disease. *Leuk Lymphoma* 2003;44(4):605–10.
- [83] Goedert JJ, Cote TR, Virgo P, et al. Spectrum of AIDS-associated malignant disorders. *Lancet* 1998;351(9119):1833–9.
- [84] Carbone A, Gloghini A. AIDS-related lymphomas: from pathogenesis to pathology. *Br J Haematol* 2005;130(5):662–70.
- [85] Klippel JH. *Primer on the rheumatic diseases*. 12th edition. Atlanta (GA): Arthritis Foundation; 2001.
- [86] Bjornadal L, Lofstrom B, Yin L, et al. Increased cancer incidence in a Swedish cohort of patients with systemic lupus erythematosus. *Scand J Rheumatol* 2002;31(2):66–71.
- [87] Kassin SS, Thomas TL, Moutsopoulos HM, et al. Increased risk of lymphoma in sicca syndrome. *Ann Intern Med* 1978;89(6):888–92.
- [88] Isomaki HA, Hakulinen T, Joutsenlahti U. Excess risk of lymphomas, leukemia and myeloma in patients with rheumatoid arthritis. *J Chronic Dis* 1978;31(11):691–6.
- [89] Mellekjær L, Andersen V, Linet MS, et al. Non-Hodgkin's lymphoma and other cancers among a cohort of patients with systemic lupus erythematosus. *Arthritis Rheum* 1997;40(4):761–8.
- [90] Gridley G, McLaughlin JK, Ekbohm A, et al. Incidence of cancer among patients with rheumatoid arthritis. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 1993;85(4):307–11.
- [91] Ekstrom K, Hjalgrim H, Brandt L, et al. Risk of malignant lymphomas in patients with rheumatoid arthritis and in their first-degree relatives. *Arthritis Rheum* 2003;48(4):963–70.
- [92] Thomas E, Brewster DH, Black RJ, et al. Risk of malignancy among patients with rheumatic conditions. *Int J Cancer* 2000;88(3):497–502.
- [93] Mellekjær L, Alexander F, Olsen JH. Cancer among children of parents with autoimmune diseases. *Br J Cancer* 2000;82(7):1353–7.
- [94] Hartge P, Wang SS. Overview of the etiology and epidemiology of lymphoma. In: Mauch P, Armitage J, Lee N, Dalla-Favera R, Coiffier B, editors. *Non-Hodgkin's lymphoma*. Philadelphia: Lippincott Williams & Wilkins; 2004.
- [95] Landgren O, Kerstann KF, Gridley G, et al. Re: Familial clustering of Hodgkin lymphoma and multiple sclerosis. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 2005;97(7):543–4.
- [96] Smedby KE, Hjalgrim H, Askling J, et al. Autoimmune and chronic inflammatory disorders and risk of non-Hodgkin lymphoma by subtype. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 2006;98(1):51–60.
- [97] Engels EA, Cerhan JR, Linet MS, et al. Immune-related conditions and immune-modulating medications as risk factors for non-Hodgkin's lymphoma: a case-control study. *Am J Epidemiol* 2005;162(12):1153–61.
- [98] Zintzaras E, Voulgarelis M, Moutsopoulos HM. The risk of lymphoma development in autoimmune diseases: a meta-analysis. *Arch Intern Med* 2005;165(20):2337–44.
- [99] Penn I. Neoplastic complications of transplantation. *Semin Respir Infect* 1993;8(3):233–9.
- [100] Haluska FG, Brufsky AM, Canellos GP. The cellular biology of the Reed-Sternberg cell. *Blood* 1994;84(4):1005–19.
- [101] Garnier JL, Lebranchu Y, Lefrancois N, et al. Hodgkin's disease after renal transplantation. *Transplant Proc* 1995;27(2):1785.
- [102] Goldin LR, McMaster ML, Ter-Minassian M, et al. A genome screen of families at high risk for Hodgkin lymphoma: evidence for a susceptibility gene on chromosome 4. *J Med Genet* 2005;42(7):595–601.
- [103] Glaser SL. Reproductive factors in Hodgkin's disease in women: a review. *Am J Epidemiol* 1994;139(3):237–46.
- [104] Kravdal O, Hansen S. The importance of childbearing for Hodgkin's disease: new evidence from incidence and mortality models. *Int J Epidemiol* 1996;25(4):737–43.

- [105] Kravdal O, Hansen S. Hodgkin's disease: the protective effect of childbearing. *Int J Cancer* 1993;55(6):909–14.
- [106] Swerdlow A, dos Santos Silva I, Doll R. *Cancer incidence and mortality in England and Wales: trends and risk factors*. Oxford (UK): Oxford University Press; 2001.
- [107] McCunney RJ. Hodgkin's disease, work, and the environment. A review. *J Occup Environ Med* 1999;41(1):36–46.