



Lymphomas of the head and neck region: an update

José Cabeçadas¹ · Daniel Martínez² · Simon Andreasen³ · Lauge Hjorth Mikkelsen⁴ · Ricardo Molina-Urra⁵ · Diane Hall⁶ · Primož Strojan⁷ · Henrik Hellquist⁸ · Francesco Bandello⁹ · Alessandra Rinaldo¹⁰ · Antonio Cardesa¹¹ · Alfio Ferlito¹²

Received: 26 October 2018 / Revised: 6 February 2019 / Accepted: 8 February 2019 / Published online: 18 February 2019
© Springer-Verlag GmbH Germany, part of Springer Nature 2019

Abstract

The field of haematopathology is rapidly evolving and for the non-specialized pathologist receiving a specimen with the possibility of a lymphoid malignancy may be a daunting experience. The coincidence of the publication, in 2017, of the WHO monographies on head and neck and haematopoietic and lymphoid tumours prompted us to write this review. Although not substantially different from lymphomas elsewhere, lymphomas presenting in this region pose some specific problems and these are central to the review. In addition, differences in subtype frequency and morphological variations within the same entity are discussed. The difficulty in diagnosis related to some specimens led us to briefly mention common subtypes of systemic lymphomas presenting in the head and neck region.

Keywords Head and neck · Lymphomas · Classification

Introduction

Lymphomas constitute the second most common group of malignancies in the head and neck only inferior to cancers of epithelial origin. For the non-specialized pathologist, the evaluation of a potential lymphoma in the head and neck may be challenging due to the numerous subtypes found in this region, including entities exclusive for the head and neck. The

introduction of new subtypes and reclassification of previously established entities by the latest WHO lymphoma classification [1], and reflected in the fourth edition of the WHO Classification of Head and Neck Tumours [2], made this field even more challenging. This prompted us to provide an easy overview of diagnosis of head and neck lymphomas, most of them in extranodal locations. One main consideration should be made with regard to the term “extranodal” in the head and

This paper was written by members and invitees of the International Head and Neck Scientific Group (www.IHNSG.com)

✉ José Cabeçadas
jcabecadas@ipolisboa.min-saude.pt

¹ Departamento de Diagnóstico Laboratorial, Instituto Português de Oncologia de Lisboa, Francisco Gentil, Rua Prof. Lima Basto, Lisbon, Portugal

² Department of Anatomic Pathology, Hospital Clinic, University of Barcelona, Barcelona, Spain

³ Department of Otorhinolaryngology Head & Neck Surgery and Audiology, Department of Pathology, Rigshospitalet, 2100 Copenhagen, Denmark

⁴ Department of Pathology, Rigshospitalet, Copenhagen University Hospital, 2100 Copenhagen, Denmark

⁵ Pathology and Cytopathology Department, Hospital Base Puerto Montt, Puerto Montt, Chile

⁶ Department and Pathology, Henry Ford Allegiance Health, Jackson, USA

⁷ Department of Radiation Oncology, Institute of Oncology, Ljubljana, Slovenia

⁸ Epigenetics and Human Disease Laboratory, Department of Biomedical Sciences, CBMR, Algarve Biomedical Centre, University of Algarve, Faro, Portugal

⁹ Department of Ophthalmology, University Vita-Salute-IRCCS Ospedale San Raffaele, Milan, Italy

¹⁰ University of Udine School of Medicine, Udine, Italy

¹¹ Department of Anatomic Pathology, Hospital Clinic, University of Barcelona, Barcelona, Spain

¹² International Head and Neck Scientific Group, Padua, Italy

neck, as Waldeyer's ring (base of tongue, tonsils and adenoids) is the most common anatomical site for extranodal lymphoma in this region (35–65% of all head and neck lymphomas) [3]. Nevertheless, for staging purposes, this is considered as nodal location [4] and will only be mentioned in the context of the specific difficulties this location poses in the diagnostic work-up, mostly due to the small amount of tissue obtained for examination.

The anatomical distribution of head and neck lymphomas varies tremendously in the literature but involves in descending order the sinonasal tract, larynx, oral cavity and tongue [2]. Haematolymphoid tumours in odontogenic and maxillofacial bones are exceedingly rare and virtually only solitary plasmacytoma has been described [5]. Salivary gland lymphomas account for only 1–6% of all salivary gland tumours but as much as 6–25% of extranodal lymphomas in the head and neck [6]. The large variation in the proportions of salivary gland extranodal lymphoma in the literature is a result of the definition of extranodal being a lymphoma arising outside a lymphoid organ. In the parotid gland, this is complex as a significant proportion is likely to represent a nodal lymphoma arising in an intra- and/or periparotid lymph node with subsequent spread into the salivary gland parenchyma or even regional involvement by systemic disease.

In the following overview on the most relevant and characteristic lymphomas encountered in the head and neck region, the characteristic features and advances in diagnosis and treatment will be highlighted.

Table 1 summarizes the most relevant information for each entity.

Extranodal marginal zone lymphoma of mucosa-associated lymphoid tissue

General features

Extranodal marginal zone lymphoma (EMZL) of mucosa-associated lymphoid tissue (MALT lymphoma) most frequently occurs in the stomach (60–70%) but is also relatively common in the head and neck region. EMZL is an antigen-driven neoplasm characterized by an indolent clinical course and, in the head and neck, is preferentially associated with autoimmune disorders [7], arising within pre-existing chronic inflammation. Progression to diffuse large B cell lymphoma is rarely seen [8, 9].

Irrespective of site, EMZL has similar histological features. In most cases, the picture is quite monotonous dominated by monocytoid or centrocytoid tumour cells (Fig. 1). By definition, EMZL is a proliferation predominantly consisting of small- to intermediate-sized lymphocytes with variable morphology (Fig. 1c). Transformed large cells may be present, but the formation of sheets of large cells should lead to the

diagnosis of diffuse large B cell lymphoma (DLBCL). Quite often, there is plasma cell differentiation at the periphery of the lesion, and this may predominate causing difficulties in the differential diagnosis with lymphoplasmacytic lymphoma. Detection of the *MYD88* L265P mutation, present in almost all lymphoplasmacytic lymphoma, is also detected in 6–9% of EMZL [10, 11]. Its reasonable negative predictive value may prove useful in separating EMZL from lymphoplasmacytic lymphoma. Characteristic Dutcher bodies may be present within the tumour cells. Reactive lymphoid follicles with germinal centres are common, sometimes colonized by the tumour. The tumour cells may invade glands, resulting in so-called lymphoepithelial lesions [12]. Although these are not pathognomonic of EMZL, their presence combined with clonality studies will assist in the differential diagnosis of reactive conditions. Neoplastic cells do not have a specific immunophenotype and express pan B cell antigens, like CD20, CD79a and PAX5, BCL2 and are monotypically positive for IgM or less frequently IgA or IgG. In addition, EMZL is negative for CD5, BCL6, CD10, CD23 and cyclin D1 and lack or have a weak expression of IgD. Follicular dendritic cell markers may reveal an expanded meshwork that corresponds to colonized follicles. Cases with predominant nodular pattern and overt follicular colonization may be difficult to distinguish from follicular lymphomas. Negativity for germinal centre markers like CD10 or BCL6 supports the diagnosis of EMZL. Cases with abundant reactive follicles should be considered in the differential diagnosis with lymphoid hyperplasia and other differential diagnoses including sarcoidosis, granulomatosis with polyangiitis (formerly known as Wegener's granulomatosis) or chronic infection. Monotypic light chain restriction should support the diagnosis of EMZL but atypical marginal zone hyperplasia described in the tonsil [13] and lymph nodes [14], a polyclonal but monotypic proliferation, may create special difficulties. The expression of CD43 by the lymphoma cells is, by some, used for the diagnosis in cases where the light chain stains are not interpretable. However, this must be used with care, as atypical marginal zone hyperplasia is also CD43 positive [13]. In EMZL, chromosomal translocations and genetic aberrations are heterogeneous but have in common the activation of the NF- κ B pathway [15–17]. Gains of chromosome 3/3q and of chromosome 18/18q are observed in 20–40% of cases, but all these are non-specific. Translocations involving t(11;18)(*BIRC3-MALT1*) and t(14;18)(*IGH-MALT1*) are found in salivary gland and ocular adnexal EMZL. The t(3;14)(*IGH-FOXP1*) is recurrently found in EMZL affecting thyroid and ocular adnexal but is not found in salivary gland EMZL [18, 19].

Ocular adnexa

Fifty percent of ocular adnexal lymphomas are EMZL [20] and *Chlamydia psittaci* has been implicated as an aetiological

Table 1 General features of head and neck lymphomas

Entity	Morphology	Immunophenotype	Genetic abnormalities	Treatment	Prognosis
EMZL	Small B lymphocytes, centrocyte-like, monocytoid or plasmacytoid morphology Nodular architecture with marginal zone expansion Lymphoepithelial lesions Small irregular B lymphocytes (centrocytes) Nodular architecture with neoplastic follicles lacking polarization Expanded, serpinginous follicles with high Ki67 index (> 30%) in paediatric FL	+CD20/CD79a/PAX5/BCL2 +CD43 -CD5/CD10/cyclin D1 cytokeratin for LELs	Activation of NF-κB pathway Gains 3/3q and 18/18q t(11;18) & t(14;18) in salivary/ocular adnexal t(3;14) in thyroid. MYD88 L286P in 6–9%	XRT antibiotics, under evaluation	Favourable
FL	Small irregular B lymphocytes Nodular architecture with neoplastic follicles lacking polarization Expanded, serpinginous follicles with high Ki67 index (> 30%) in paediatric FL	+CD20/CD79a/PAX5 +CD10/BCL6 -CD5/cyclin D1	BCL2 negative in paediatric FL mutations in TNFRSF14 and MAP2K1 in paediatric FL	Surgical in paediatric FL	Favourable
LBCL w/ IRF4	Mid to large lymphocytes Follicular and diffuse growth patterns	+CD20/CD79a/PAX5 +IRF4/MUM1 high Ki67 +/-BCL6/ BCL2 -CD10	Cryptic rearrangement of IRF4 with IGH	Immunochemotherapy XRT	Favourable with treatment
PCN	Proliferations of mature terminally differentiated B cells or plasma cells with typical to plasmablastic morphology	+CD138/38/IRF4/MUM1 -CD19/CD20/CD79a +/-EMA and CD56	14q31 breaks or t(4;14)	XRT alone Surgical + XRT	Generally favourable 25% recur 15% progress to systemic myeloma with poor prognosis
PBL	Large cells with immunoblastic to plasmablastic morphology Diffuse architecture Oral cavity in HIV+ or immunosuppressed	+CD138/38/IRF4/MUM1/EMA -CD19/CD20/CD79a High Ki67 +EBER (EBV) in 75%	MYC translocations (50%) Complex karyotype	ChemoXRT	Poor
ENKTL	Polymorphic lymphoid infiltration Irregular nuclear contours, vascular damage, necrosis Nasal cavity/nasopharynx assoc. w/ EBV Increased prevalence in Asians and Native Americans	+CD2/cytoplasmic CD3ε+/CD56 -CD3/CD4/CD5/CD8/CD57/CD16 +Cytotoxic markers TIA-1/granzyme B/perforin High Ki67 +EBER	Mutations in <i>DDX3X</i> , <i>JAK3</i> , <i>STAT3</i> , <i>STAT5B</i> and <i>TP53</i>	ChemoXRT	Poor
CD30PTCLD	Atypical large lymphocytes with "hallmark cells" in a mixed inflammatory background Diffuse pattern Oral cavity location	T cell phenotype, with loss of lineage markers (often -CD7) generally CD4+ -B cell and NK cell markers -ALK-1 and EBER +CD20/CD79a/PAX5 +CD5/LEF1		Surgery +/- XRT	Indolent
CLL/SLL	Small monotonous B lymphocytes Nodular architecture with proliferation centres of polymorphocytes	-CD10/BCL6/cyclin D1 +CD20/CD79a/PAX5 +CD5/cyclin D1/SOX11 -CD10/BCL6	t(11;14)(q13;q32) cyclin D1 IGH	Chemotherapy	Poor
MCL	Small B lymphocytes Nodular architecture				
DLBCL	Large atypical B lymphocytes			Chemotherapy	Intermediate

Table 1 (continued)

Entity	Morphology	Immunophenotype	Genetic abnormalities	Treatment	Prognosis
	Diffuse infiltrate	+CD20/CD79a/PAX5 CD10 , BCL6 , BCL2 , MUM1/IRF , FOXP1 to assess germinal centre versus activated B cell types +CD45/CD20/CD79a/PAX5 +CD30, +/- CD15 + EBER	translocations involving <i>BCL2</i> , <i>BCL6</i> and <i>MYC</i>		
EBVPMCU	Scattered large immunoblastic or Hodgkin-like cells in a mixed inflammatory background			Reduction of iatrogenic immunosuppression Anti-CD20/CD30 immunotherapy	Indolent
	Solitary oropharyngeal ulcer in immunosuppressed patient				
EBL	Monomorphic intermediate-sized lymphocytes, scant basophilic cytoplasm, fine chromatin “starry-sky” pattern with tingible body macrophages	+CD20/CD79a/PAX5 + CD10/BCL6 - BCL2 High Ki67 + EBER	<i>IG/MYC</i> translocations as t(8;14)	Chemotherapy	Aggressive

On separate lines or in bold are the most helpful immunophenotypic features

EMZL extranodal marginal zone lymphoma, *FL* follicular lymphoma, *LBCL* w/ *IRF4* large B cell lymphoma with *IRF4* rearrangement, *PCN* plasma cell neoplasms, *PBL* plasmablastic lymphoma, *ENKTL* extranodal NK/T cell lymphoma, nasal type, *CD30PTCLD* CD30-positive T cell lymphoproliferative disorders, *CLL/SLL* chronic lymphocytic leukaemia/small lymphocytic lymphoma, *MCL* mantle cell lymphoma, *LBCL* large B cell lymphoma, *EBVPMCU* Epstein-Barr virus-positive mucocutaneous ulcer, *EBL* endemic Burkitt lymphoma, *XR7* radiation therapy. Bold type denotes the most discriminating markers

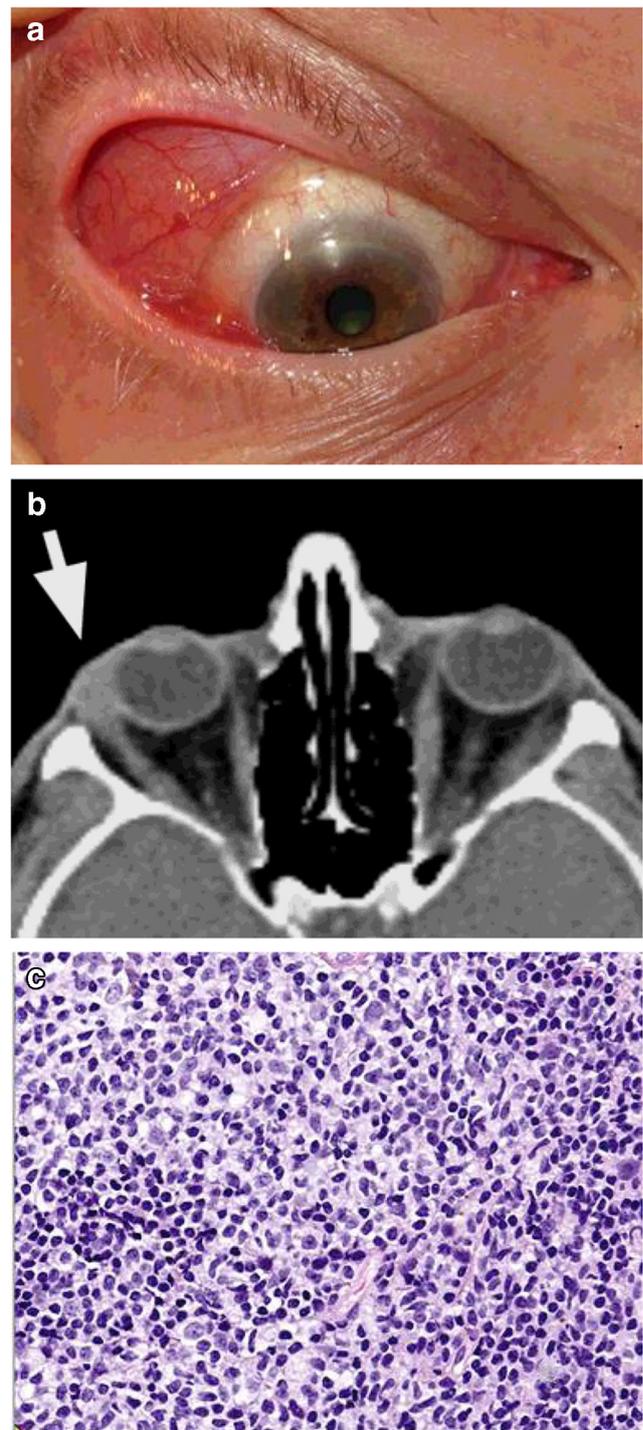


Fig. 1 Extranodal marginal zone lymphoma of the conjunctiva in a 77-year-old male. **a** Characteristic fleshy, salmon-colored and highly vascularized appearance of the lesion. **b** Computerized tomography demonstrating localized involvement of the lateral and superficial ocular adnexa, consistent with disease localized to the conjunctiva. The patient was subsequently treated with brachytherapy. **c** Monocytonic appearance of the infiltrate. Cells have a small nucleus with pale cytoplasm. H&E stained. $\times 100$ original magnification

agent. This is not confirmed by all groups and the association may have a greater influence in some geographical regions

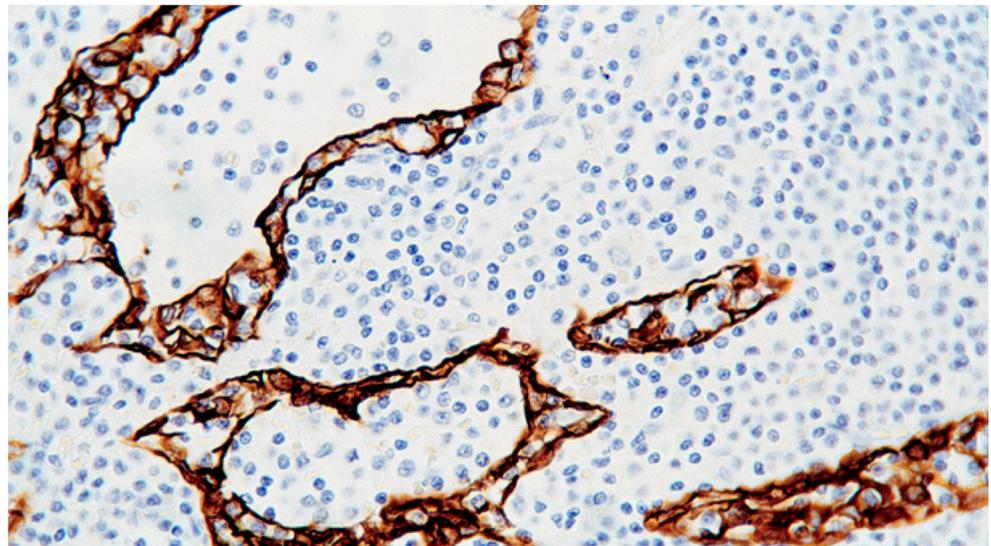
[21–25]. Patients with eyelid EMZL typically present with swelling of the eyelid, whereas conjunctival lymphoma characteristically presents early as a salmon-coloured tumour mass of the conjunctiva (Fig. 1a, b) [26, 27]. The clinical course of EMZL is usually indolent and the disease tends to remain localized.

Treatment with surgery, systemic therapy or local radiotherapy, depending of clinical status and stage of the disease, is preferred in these patients [28]. In the context of variable association between *C. psittaci* and ocular adnexal EMZL, some groups use an antibiotic therapy with doxycycline. However, the causative association between ocular adnexal EMZL and *C. psittaci* has not been firmly established and the use of doxycycline in the primary care should closely monitored [24, 25, 29, 30]. In low-stage ocular adnexal EMZL, the preferred treatment is radiotherapy applying 24–25 Gy in conventional daily fractions [31]. The prognosis is good with approximately 90% ten-year overall survival [32].

Salivary glands

EMZL is often associated with Sjögren's syndrome, a systemic autoimmune disorder with lymphoepithelial sialadenitis as a hallmark feature [33, 34]. Epimyoeplithelial islands composed mainly of proliferating epithelial cells should not be confused with lymphoepithelial lesions (Fig. 2). Similarly, chronic IgG4-related sclerosing sialadenitis (Küttner tumour), a localized inflammatory disorder, has also been implicated in salivary gland EMZL [34]. Like in ocular adnexa, the clinical course of salivary EMZL is usually indolent, and it tends to remain as a localized disease. In a large retrospective international study of 248 patients with salivary gland EMZL, there was no difference between patients who received local or systemic therapy in first-line management, and hence, radiotherapy is the treatment of choice for salivary gland EMZL [31].

Fig. 2 Extranodal marginal zone lymphoma in the parotid: typical lymphoepithelial lesions. The epithelium is distorted by the presence of infiltrating lymphoma cells immunostained with an anti-keratin antibody (CAM5.2). $\times 100$ original magnification



The median progression-free survival and overall survival were 9.3 and 18.3 years, respectively [35, 36]. Patients aged < 60 years with low to intermediate International Prognostic Index (IPI) score and associated Sjögren disease had improved overall survival [37].

Head and neck nodal predominant lymphoproliferative disorders, affecting young patients

Paediatric nodal marginal zone lymphoma

Paediatric nodal marginal zone lymphoma (PNMZL) is similar to a classic adult nodal marginal zone lymphoma that typically affects head and neck lymph nodes. This neoplasm occurs with isolated lymphadenopathy, usually in cervical region, submental zone, around major salivary glands and in rare cases in tonsils. It is described in young patients (2–27 years old) and there is a striking male predominance (male-to-female ratio of 7:1 to 20:1) [38–40].

Histologically, PNMZL shows a nodular pattern, with large follicles, composed of small- to medium-sized cells, often with centrococyte-like appearance. The cells of the mantle zone can extend into the nodules, mimicking progressive transformation of germinal centres (PTGC). Other histological features, such as marginal zone differentiation, plasma cell differentiation and scattered large immunoblastic cells, are similar to those observed in classic nodal marginal zone lymphoma [38–40].

Phenotypically, the tumour cells are positive for the B cell markers CD20, CD79a and PAX5 and can co-express CD43. These markers also show that tumour population usually extends outside the nodules reaching the interfollicular area. BCL2 is positive in half of cases. IgD is variably positive

and highlights the PTGC-like changes [38–40]. Germinal centre markers BCL6 and CD10 are negative. Numerous T-follicular helper PD1-positive cells are identified within the nodules [39]. Marginal zone hyperplasia in children must be considered in the differential diagnosis [13, 14] and B cell receptor clonality studies may be required for the diagnosis. In most cases, clonal rearrangements of the IGHV region are detected. Trisomy 18 and rarely trisomy 3 can be found in this neoplasm [40].

PNMZL like paediatric-type follicular lymphoma (PTFL) has a very good prognosis. In a retrospective study, complete resection and observation seem to be enough [41].

Paediatric-type follicular lymphoma

PTFL is a form of follicular lymphoma, involving lymph nodes of the head and neck and Waldeyer's ring.

Clinically, this neoplasm occurs mainly in young men (5–25 years; male-to-female ratio of 10:1). It presents usually as an isolated enlarged lymph node in head and neck region or with involvement of the Waldeyer's ring. Less frequently, involvement of other anatomical sites, such as testes, inguinal or femoral lymph nodes, is reported. There are no risk factors associated with the development of this neoplasm [42].

Morphologically, PTFL shows a partial or total effacement of the affected lymphoid tissue. The atypical lymphoid proliferation presents a follicular pattern, with large follicles, prominent germinal centres, often with a serpiginous configuration, starry-sky pattern and attenuated or absent mantle zones (Fig. 3). In some cases, marginal zone differentiation can be found. The tumour cells are monotonous, in some cases with centroblastic features and in others with medium cells and blastoid morphology, mimicking usual follicular lymphoma grade 3A or 3B. Mitoses are frequent. Areas of diffuse large cell lymphoma should not be present. In that case, the diagnosis of PTFL is excluded [1, 42].

The neoplastic cells are positive for CD20, CD79a and PAX5 and express the germinal centre markers BCL6 and CD10. Nevertheless, BCL2 is usually negative. With CD21 and CD23, the dendritic follicular cell network shows a nodular pattern. A high proliferation index is found with KI67 (> 30%). IRF4/MUM1 is negative. In cases with diffuse and strong positivity for IRF4/MUM1, lymphomas with IRF4 rearrangements should be excluded [1, 42].

Genetically, PTFL usually presents a clonal immunoglobulin gene rearrangement; however, mutations affecting BCL2, BCL6 or IRF4/MUM1 are not detected. The most common genetic aberrations observed in this entity include mutations affecting TNFRSF14 and MAP2K1 [1, 42–44].

This neoplasm has an excellent prognosis, usually with localized disease, without evidence of progression or relapse, and it can be treated with excision alone [45].

Large B cell lymphoma with IRF4 rearrangement

Large B cell lymphoma with IRF4 rearrangement represents only 0.05% of diffuse large B cell lymphomas, which predominantly affects children and young adults. Waldeyer's ring and head and neck lymph nodes are the most commonly involved anatomical sites. Gastrointestinal tract has also been reported. Clinically, patients present an early-stage disease with isolated tonsillar or lymph node swelling [46, 47].

Morphologically, the tumour is composed of medium- to large-sized cells, with vesicular chromatin and small basophilic nucleoli. The growth pattern is follicular and diffuse. In the follicular pattern, large neoplastic follicles can be seen, without starry-sky pattern and with attenuated or absent mantle zones.

The tumour cells have a B cell mature immunophenotype, with expression of CD79a, CD20 and PAX5. The antibody for IRF4/MUM1 is strongly positive. BCL6 and BCL2 may also be expressed. CD10 and BLIMP1 are usually negative. The proliferation index is high. These tumours are associated with a cytogenetically cryptic rearrangement of IRF4 with an IGH locus [47, 48]. Strong IRF/MUM1 expression with co-expression of BCL-6 and a high proliferation index is an indication for confirmatory IRF-4 FISH. Patients have a favourable prognosis with combination of immunochemotherapy and radiation [47].

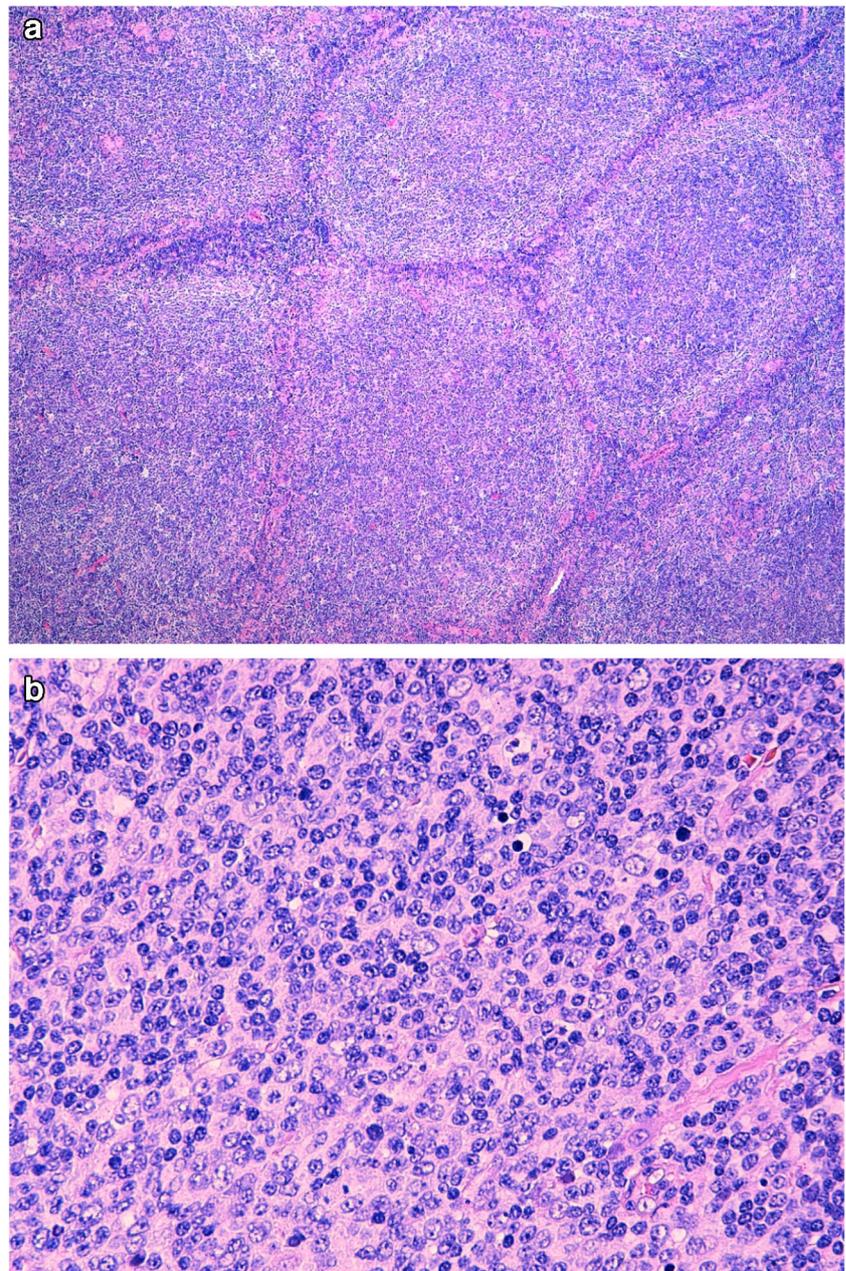
Plasma cell neoplasms

Plasma cell neoplasms are clonal proliferations of plasma cells or mature lymphocytes (terminally differentiated B cells) that produce a single class of immunoglobulin. This group of neoplasms includes non-IgM monoclonal gammopathy of undetermined significance (non-IgM MGUS), plasma cell myeloma, plasmacytoma, monoclonal immunoglobulin deposition diseases and plasma cell neoplasms with associated paraneoplastic syndrome.

Extraosseous (extramedullary) plasmacytomas (EP) are localized plasma cell tumours that arise in tissues outside of the bone marrow and represent up to 3% of all plasma cell tumours. EP occurs in the upper aerodigestive tract in more than 80% of cases, most often in the nasal cavity, paranasal sinuses, nasopharynx, tonsils and larynx, with regional lymph nodes involved in less than 10% [49]. Clinically, they present as solitary tumours without bone marrow involvement and are more frequent in male adults [50, 51].

EP is usually composed of plasma cells indistinguishable from normal plasma cells. Multinucleated and pleomorphic cells may be prominent in some cases. Depending on the amount of plasmablasts, the term plasmablastic plasmacytoma can be used [52]. Low-grade or high-grade lymphoproliferative disorders with extensive plasmacytic differentiation such as EMZL, plasmablastic lymphoma (PBL) or lymphoplasmacytic lymphoma must be excluded. Inflammatory or reactive lesions

Fig. 3 Paediatric follicular lymphoma. **a** Low-power view of large confluent follicles (original magnification $\times 40$). **b** High-power view of large cells with centroblast-like appearance. (Original magnification $\times 400$) H&E stained



with numerous plasma cells sometimes may be difficult to distinguish from a plasmacytoma. Immunoglobulin light chain expression should be enough to differentiate these cases.

Like plasma cell myeloma, EP shows immunoglobulin light chain restriction. This may be assessed via immunohistochemistry, in situ hybridization, flow cytometry or PCR. EP is associated with a plasma cell phenotype, with strong expression of CD138, CD38 and IRF4/MUM1. B cell markers CD19, CD20 and CD79 are negative or weakly positive. Epithelial membrane antigen (EMA) is expressed in some cases. CD56 is positive in approximately 80% of plasma cell myelomas and a similar proportion of extramedullary plasmacytomas maintain CD56 expression. Negativity for CD56 has been associated

with aggressive behaviour and primary or secondary plasma cell leukaemia [53]. In contrast to plasma cell myeloma, cyclin D1 is usually negative in EP [52, 54, 55]. Epstein-Barr positivity has been observed in occasional plasmacytomas of the head and neck in immunocompetent individuals [56].

These lesions have breaks in the 14q31 (IGH), similar to plasma cell myeloma. Some cases present *IGH/FGFR3* fusion corresponding to a $t(4;14)(p16;q32)$. On the other hand, $t(11;14)(q13;q32)$, $t(14;16)(q32;q23)$ or $t(8;14)(q24;q32)$ is absent [57].

The treatment of these tumours is surgical, usually accompanied with radiotherapy or with radiotherapy alone due to the radiosensitivity of the disease. Regional recurrences develop

in 25% of patients with EP and the prognosis is determined by progression to multiple myeloma, which occurs in approximately 15% of patients [53, 55]. The behaviour of extramedullary plasmacytomas without progression to medullary plasma cell myeloma is good, usually with an indolent course. On the contrary, extramedullary spread of a medullary plasma cell myeloma is associated with poor prognosis [58].

Plasmablastic lymphoma

PBL is a highly aggressive B cell tumour composed by large neoplastic cells with immunoblastic or plasmablastic features and plasma cell phenotype. Clinically, PBL usually occurs in the oral cavity of adult males in association with an immunodeficiency status like HIV infection, in the context of iatrogenic immunosuppression or in elderly patients who are more commonly HIV-negative [52, 59, 60]. Plasmablastic lymphoma rarely occurs in children, frequently in HIV-infected individuals. In the head and neck region, PBL commonly presents as an asymptomatic swelling in extranodal sites, particularly in the oral cavity with gingiva as the most frequently involved site, although the nasal cavity and paranasal sinuses may be also involved.

Histologically, PBL is composed of diffuse, cohesive proliferations with a morphology ranging from immunoblasts to cells with plasmacytic differentiation indistinguishable from plasmablasts in plasmablastic plasma cell myeloma [52] (Fig. 4). High mitotic activity and apoptotic bodies are frequent. Immunohistochemical features are consistent with plasma cell differentiation with positivity for IRF4/MUM1, CD38, CD138 and EMA. CD79a and immunoglobulins are variably expressed. B cell antigens like PAX5 and CD20 are negative. Ki67 proliferation index is high. Some cases express the T cell-associated markers CD43 and CD45RO [61]. The differential diagnosis with plasmacytoma is not always possible. Epstein-Barr virus (EBV) is positive in 75% of cases. Genetic alterations usually involve *MYC* translocations, which have been identified in approximately 50%, usually in the context of complex karyotypes [62–64].

Plasmablastic lymphoma is usually treated with chemotherapy, radiotherapy (with or without surgical excision) or combinations of these modalities. The prognosis is generally poor with approximately 60% of tumours relapsed in the first year after treatment and a median survival of less than 6 months and overall survival at 2 and 5 years of 42.4% and 33.5%, respectively. In recent reports, the use of bortezomib, alone or in combination with other systemic drugs, seems to improve response rates and prognosis [65]. EBV positivity, presence of B symptoms and the use of chemotherapy alone were identified as determinants of poor prognosis [60, 61].

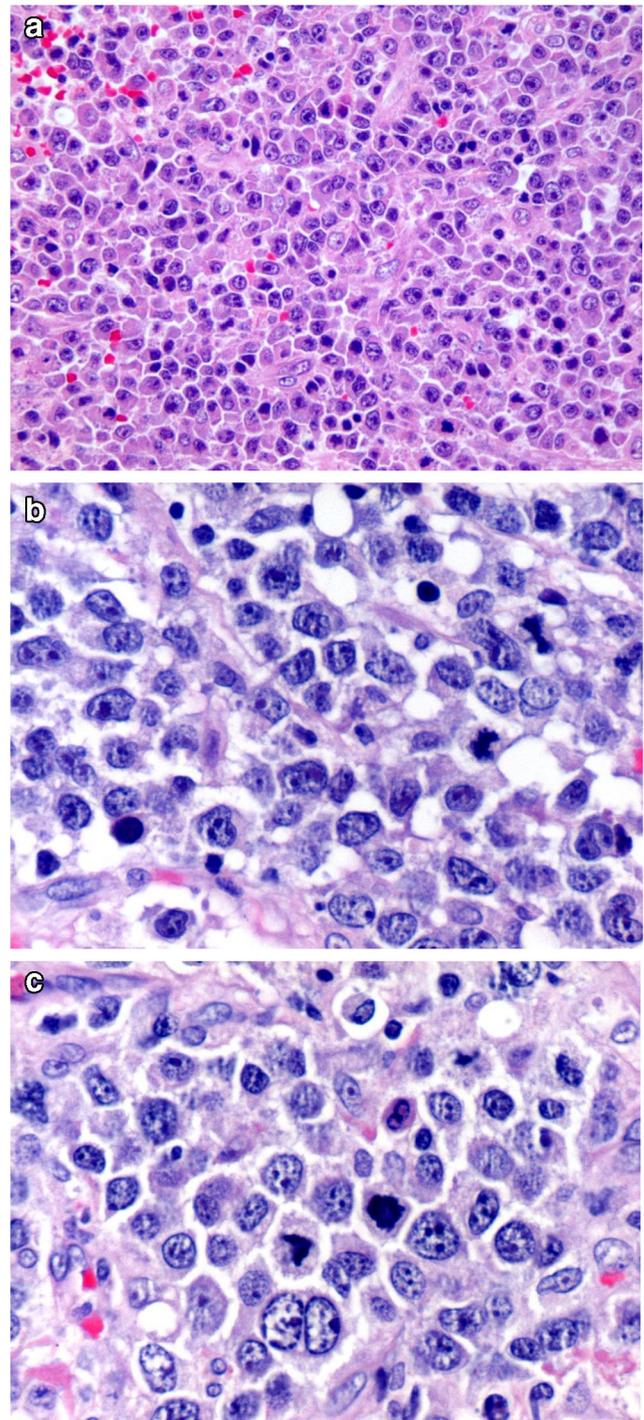


Fig. 4 Plasmablastic lymphoma: diffuse sheets (a; original magnification $\times 100$) of a large cell with pleomorphic features and plasmablastic morphology (original magnifications are $\times 400$ (b) and $\times 600$ (c)). H&E stained

Extranodal NK/T cell lymphoma, nasal type

Extranodal NK/T cell lymphoma, nasal type is an aggressive neoplasm composed of natural killer (NK cell) and T cells with cytotoxic features, typically associated with Epstein-Barr virus

infection and is characterized by the presence of vascular damage and prominent necrosis. Together with other conditions that affect the central region of the face (i.e. Wegener's granulomatosis, tegumentary leishmaniasis), it was also known as lethal midline granuloma. This tumour affects mostly male adults and is more prevalent among Asians and Native Americans [66, 67].

The lymphoma commonly involves the nasal cavity and nasopharynx, producing non-specific symptoms of upper airway infection and nasal obstruction, rhinorrhoea or nasal bleeding. The lesion is locally invasive, but bone marrow involvement is unusual [68]. Extranodal NK/T cell lymphoma infrequently affects anatomical sites outside the upper aerodigestive tract. These cases are referred to as "extranasal NK/T cell lymphomas" and can involve skin, soft tissue, gastrointestinal tract, lungs and testis and are associated with more advanced disease and inferior outcome [69].

Histologically, extranodal NK/T cell lymphoma is composed of a dense polymorphic lymphoid infiltrate, from small- to large-sized or anaplastic cellular elements, most frequently with medium-sized neoplastic cells with irregular nuclei and pale to clear cytoplasm. An angiocentric or angioinvasive growth pattern is very frequent, with fibrinoid necrosis of blood vessels and coagulative geographic necrosis or ulceration of the affected mucosa (Fig. 5). Mitotic figures and apoptotic bodies are abundant. A prominent mixed inflammatory infiltrate composed of small lymphocytes, plasma cells, histiocytes, eosinophils and neutrophils is present, and can mimic a reactive inflammatory process, especially in the small cell variants. In cases with predominant bone marrow infiltration, aggressive NK cell leukaemia must be considered.

Most of the cases express NK cell, or less frequently T cell, markers and one or more cytotoxic molecules. Tumour cells usually are CD2+, surface CD3– but cytoplasmic CD3ε+. Other common T cell markers, as CD4, CD5, CD8 and TCRαβ or TCRγδ, are usually not expressed. CD56 is positive in most cases, in contrast to the NK markers CD57 and CD16. Cytotoxic molecules as TIA-1, granzyme B or perforin are commonly expressed. CD30 is expressed in up to one third of cases (Fig. 5). The proliferation index with Ki67 is high.

In situ hybridization for EBV-encoded RNA (EBER) is nearly always positive and should be performed even in lesions with a reactive appearance. Cases that lack CD56 expression and EBV infection (EBER negative) should be classified as peripheral T cell lymphomas, not otherwise specified (PTCL-NOS) [66].

In most cases, the T cell receptor and immunoglobulin genes are in germline configuration. Ten to 40% of cases have a clonal rearrangement of the T cell receptors and presumably derived from cytotoxic T cells. Recurrent mutations have been found in *DDX3X*, *JAK3*, *STAT3*, *STAT5B* and *TP53* [70] and may be useful in subtyping of T cell lymphomas.

Extranodal NK/T cell lymphoma involving the nasal region frequently progresses to disseminated disease. Due to rapid

and aggressive course of the disease with marked destructive capacity, which is frequently associated with haemophagocytic syndrome (a hyperinflammatory condition, characterized with fever, pancytopenia, coagulation disorders, liver and renal abnormalities), the prognosis is poor with a 5-year survival rate of approximately 50%. Extranodal NK/T cell lymphomas present usually with advanced aggressive disease, poor response to treatment and short survival [71].

For localized disease, treatment consists of high-dose radiotherapy (> 50 Gy), with or without chemotherapy. There is no clear evidence that concomitant radiotherapy/chemotherapy results in improved outcome as compared to adjuvant chemotherapy/radiotherapy [72]. In advanced disease, combination chemotherapy remains the mainstay of treatment although with poor response and dismal outcome [72, 73]. Recently, some L-asparaginase-based chemotherapy regimens and novel immunotherapy options have shown promising results [74, 75]. Although there is limited data available, patients with advanced or relapsed lymphoma in remission can be offered allogeneic stem cell transplantation, preferably in a trial setting. For patients with persistent or residual disease, autologous or allogeneic stem cell transplantation has poor results [76].

CD30-positive T cell lymphoproliferative disorder

CD30-positive T cell lymphoproliferative disorders include a spectrum of clonal T cell lesions arising usually in the oral cavity and less commonly in other mucosal sites in head and neck region, as nasopharynx and ocular region. This entity is similar to primary cutaneous CD30-positive T cell disorders [77].

Clinically, this affects adults (mean age 54–57 years), predominantly men (male-to-female ratio 1.8–2.8:1) [77, 78]. The oral cavity is the most common site of involvement. A slow-growing lesion with occasional ulceration without spontaneous regression is frequent. Nasopharyngeal, conjunctival and orbital mucosa can be involved in a minority of cases [77–79].

The histopathological findings include a lymphoid infiltration of large atypical cells with irregular nuclei, vesicular chromatin and abundant pale cytoplasm, in a diffuse pattern. Neoplastic large cells with kidney-shaped nuclei, so-called hallmark cells, are usually seen. In the background, a variable number of inflammatory cells is usually present, including small lymphocytes, histiocytes, numerous neutrophils and eosinophils [77–79].

Immunohistochemically, the large cells are, by definition, CD30 positive, with T cell phenotype, more frequently CD4 positive and aberrant loss of lineage markers, usually CD7. In some cases, expression of cytotoxic markers, as for example granzyme B, TIA-1 and perforin, can be seen. B cell markers, NK cell markers, ALK-1 and EBER are negative [77–79].

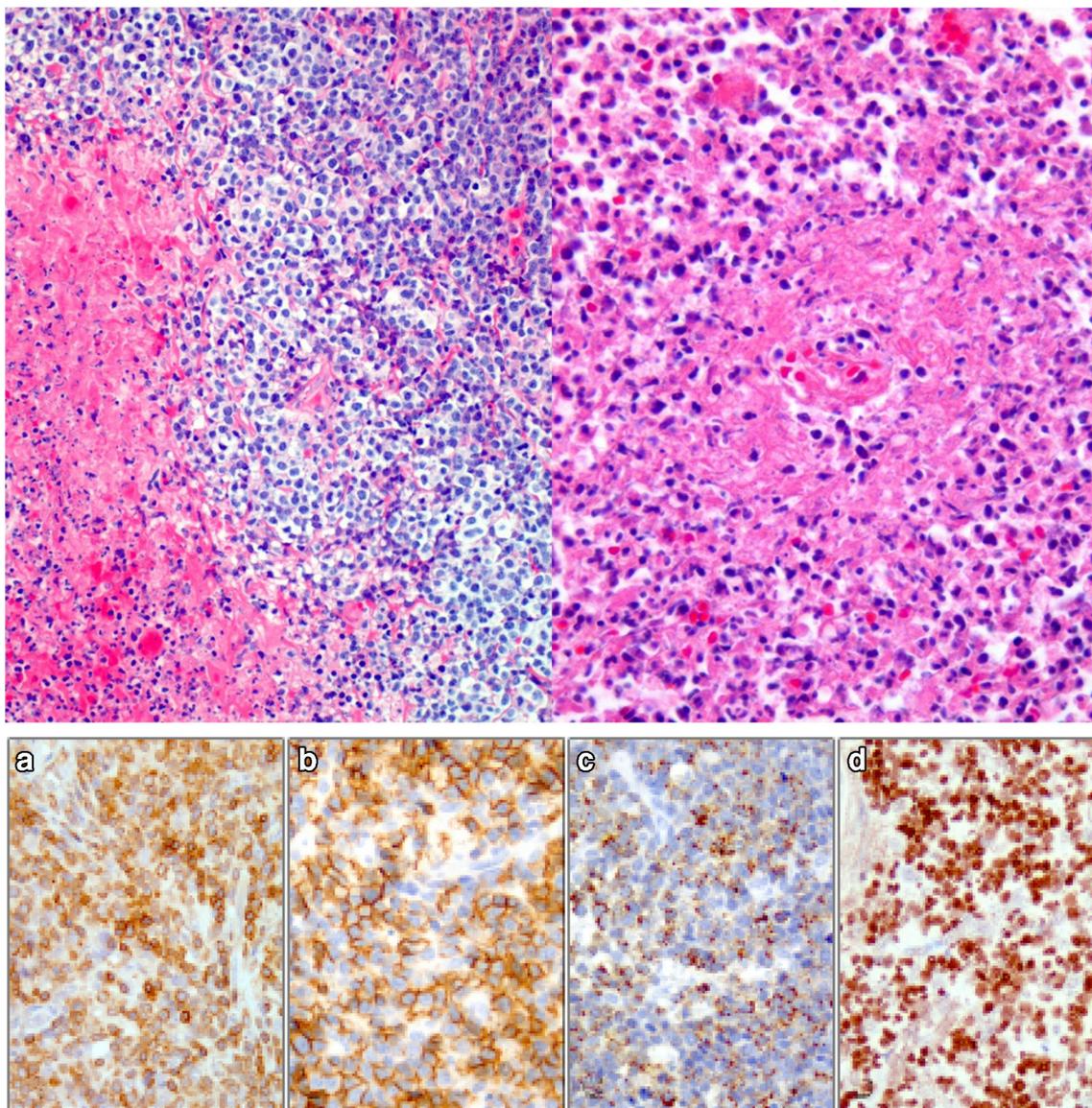


Fig. 5 Extranodal NK/T cell lymphoma. Upper panels show angiodestructive, necrotic lesion (original magnification $\times 100$). Lower panels display IHC: **a** CD3 ϵ , **b** CD56, **c** Tia1, and **d** EBER. Original magnification $\times 200$

Some cases present rearrangements of *DUSP22-IRF4* locus on chromosome 6p25.3. These findings suggest that this entity could be related to primary cutaneous CD30-positive lymphoproliferative disorders [77].

CD-30-positive T cell lymphoproliferative disorders of the head and neck have an indolent course. Surgical excision, with or without radiotherapy and in some cases combined with systemic chemotherapy, is recommended. Spontaneous regression has been reported [77, 78].

The differential diagnosis includes reactive conditions like traumatic ulcerative granuloma with stromal eosinophilia and lymphoproliferative disorders including chronic active EBV infection in paediatric cases and systemic anaplastic large cell lymphoma.

Common systemic lymphomas—specific problems in the head and neck region

Although not different from other locations, systemic lymphomas diagnosed in the head and neck may pose some specific problems and those are addressed here.

Chronic lymphocytic leukaemia/small lymphocytic lymphoma

Although this is the most common leukaemia of adults in western countries, its diagnosis in head and neck samples may be problematic. The differential diagnosis with reactive

conditions is hampered by the quality of the sample with frequent crushing artefact and the usual IHC markers should be used. Including an antibody to lymphoid enhancer-binding factor 1 (LEF1) [80] is useful as it is aberrantly expressed in almost all chronic lymphocytic leukaemia/small lymphocytic lymphoma (CLL/SLL). All mature normal B lymphocytes and virtually all other B cell lymphomas are negative [80]. In patients with CLL/SLL, the disease will be present in the lymph nodes removed as part of head and neck surgical procedures and coexistence with metastasis is reported [81].

Mantle cell lymphoma

Mantle cell lymphoma frequently involves extranodal sites, mainly in the gastrointestinal tract. In these locations, the disease has the same histological characteristics as those of the nodal involvement, and the main difficulties in the head and neck region are similar to those encountered in CLL/SLL. MCL is characterized by Cyclin D1 translocation t(11;14)(q13;q32). Staining for Cell Cyclin D1 and SOX11 in CCND1 negative cases, together with CD5 expression by the tumour cells, should clarify the diagnosis. Rarely other cyclins are involved in an immunoglobulin translocation, and this needs to be investigated by FISH.

A recent review [82] expanded an old observation [83] and identified a series of cases, some of which in the head and neck region, mimicking EMZL. According to these authors, “EMCL” may be a subset with preferential involvement of Waldeyer’s ring and gastrointestinal tract, mimicking the clinicopathologic features of EMZL. These cases share the morphologic and phenotypic features of the nodal form of MCL and the indolent course of the indolent variant of MCL.

The treatment of common MCL is systemic, and the prognosis is usually poor with a median overall survival of 3–5 years [28].

Large B cell lymphomas

Large B cell lymphomas, representing approximately 30% of all lymphomas, are also the most common type of non-Hodgkin lymphoma in the head and neck [84]. This denomination represents a heterogeneous group of neoplasms with many clinicopathologic variants and distinct subtypes. Lymphomas without clinical, morphological and genetic features allowing for subclassification are grouped as DLBCL not otherwise classified (NOS) and represent 80–85% of all cases [1].

In extranodal sites, DLBCL-NOS have variable frequencies depending on the anatomical site. In the ocular region, extranodal DLBCL-NOS account for 10% [20], whereas in other sites, the distribution is as follows: paranasal sinus 75–82%, nasal cavity 29–46%, Waldeyer’s ring 80% [85], oral cavity 50% [86], major salivary glands 27% [87] and thyroid gland

50–90% [88, 89]. DLBCL involving Waldeyer’s ring usually presents at an early stage with the absence of B symptoms or bone marrow involvement [90, 91]. An association between extranodal DLBCL and EBV infection has been confirmed by demonstration of the EBV-encoded small RNA, in 8–9% of Asian patients and in a much lower proportion (up to 3%) of patients from Western countries [92]. This is not included in DLBCL-NOS [1]. A low-grade lymphoproliferative disorder coexisting with a DLBCL component should be searched in the context of progression of low-grade lymphoma to DLBCL [1].

Histologically, DLBCL-NOS is not different from the nodal samples and is genetically associated with recurrent translocations involving *BCL2*, *BCL6* and *MYC* genes. In Waldeyer’s ring, the frequency of *BCL2* translocations is lower than in nodal DLBCL, NOS⁹⁰.

Histologically, in this region, especially in small samples, an important differential diagnosis of EBV+ large B cell lymphomas is Epstein-Barr virus-positive mucocutaneous ulcer discussed below.

Lymphoma of the head and neck should be distinguished clinically from systemic lymphoma with secondary extranodal involvement. In order to stage properly, CT or PET-CT scan and bone marrow biopsy must be performed in all cases. As no specific AJCC classification exists for head and neck lymphoma, the Ann Arbor staging manual or the modified Lugano classification should be used [93]. The IPI remains the best available index score in patients with DLBCL [94, 95]. Stage I DLBCL in the ocular adnexa may be treated with high-dose (30–36 Gy) EBRT alone [96]. Standard-of-care frontline therapy with R-CHOP results in 5-year overall survival rates in the range of 60–70%.

Epstein-Barr virus-positive mucocutaneous ulcer

Due to its possible confusion with a large cell lymphoma, Epstein-Barr virus-positive mucocutaneous ulcer (EBVPMCU) is included here. First described in 2010, EBVPMCU is not in the current WHO classification considered a lymphoma but rather is a lymphoproliferative disorder with mucosal or cutaneous ulceration and signs of EBV infection.

This lesion predominantly affects adults (median age 75 years) with a slight female preference. Patients have history of a slow-growing shallow, sharply circumscribed ulcer that appears as a solitary lesion, involving most commonly the oropharyngeal mucosa but also lip or facial skin. Less frequently, gastrointestinal tract or extra facial skin involvement has been described. Local lymph node enlargement can occur; nevertheless, there is no history of systemic lymphadenopathy, visceromegaly or bone marrow involvement.

Immunosuppression is common in all patients, in the context of HIV infection, iatrogenic immunosuppression (e.g. treatment with cyclosporine, methotrexate, azathioprine or corticosteroids) or age-related immunological senescence [97–99].

Histologically, EBVPMCU is made of scattered large cells, with immunoblastic or Hodgkin/Reed–Sternberg-like features. A variable proportion of apoptotic atypical cells is usually also seen. These cells are intermixed with a polymorphous infiltrate of lymphocytes, plasma cells, histiocytes and eosinophils. A rim of small mature lymphocytes limits the base of the lesion. In some cases, angioinvasion, thrombosis and necrosis are present. Pseudoepitheliomatous hyperplasia in the adjacent squamous epithelium can be present [98, 100].

Phenotypically, the atypical large cells express CD45, PAX5, CD79a and CD20. Further, these cells are strongly positive for CD30. Co-expression of CD15 may be seen in half of the cases. EBER is positive in many small to large pleomorphic B cells. A mixed population of small B lymphocytes, as well as CD4+ and/or CD8+ T cells, is commonly present in the lesion [98, 100].

The differential diagnosis includes lymphoproliferative disorders associated with EBV, as EBV-positive diffuse large B cell lymphoma, lymphomatoid granulomatosis, other immunodeficiency-associated lymphoproliferative disorders, CD30-positive T cell lymphoproliferative disorders and classical Hodgkin lymphoma.

A monoclonal immunoglobulin gene rearrangement is found in approximately one third of cases. A restricted (oligoclonal) or monoclonal T cell receptor gene rearrangement can be detected. This phenomenon might be related to a reduction in the T cell repertoire diversity [101].

This entity follows an indolent, self-limited course. In cases of iatrogenic immunosuppression, a reduction or discontinuation of the drug can lead to a complete remission. However, a minority of cases, in the context of age-related immunosuppression, show relapsing and remitting course that requires CD20- or CD30-directed antibody therapy, chemotherapy, radiotherapy, surgical excision and/or a combination of these to achieve a complete remission [100, 102].

Endemic Burkitt lymphoma

Burkitt lymphoma (BL) is a highly aggressive B cell lymphoma with rapid proliferation and three clinical variants: endemic, sporadic and immunodeficiency associated. These differ by anatomic site involved and global geographic distribution [1]. Endemic BL is a paediatric malignancy (peak 4–7 years) with a male predominance (2:1) and occurs in the head and neck, typically involving the jaw and facial bones in a mass-forming manner. Symptoms include swelling and distortion of facial bones accompanied by B symptoms of fever, night sweats and weight loss.

Histologically, BL features are similar in the three clinical variants, composed of an infiltrate of rather monomorphic intermediate-sized lymphocytes with scant amphophilic to basophilic cytoplasm and fine nuclear chromatin. There tends to be a “starry-sky” pattern with accompanying tingible body macrophages. BL expresses pan B cell antigens CD19, CD20, CD22, CD79a and CD10, CD38 and BCL6. It is negative for BCL2 and TdT. The Ki-67 proliferation index approaches 100%. EBV is present in most cases, with positive staining for EBER [103].

BL is characterized by *IG/MYC* translocations, commonly t(8;14). Infrequently, t(8;22) or t(8;2) translocations of *MYC* with kappa or lambda light chain loci may be seen [104].

BL has a rapid, aggressive clinical course and early diagnosis is paramount for effective treatment. It is a highly chemosensitive tumour, treated by combination chemotherapy [104].

Conclusions

The revisions of the fourth edition of the WHO Classification of Tumours of Haematopoietic and Lymphoid Tissues and the fourth edition of the WHO Classification of Head and Neck Tumours, both published in 2017, reflect the recent advances in the field of haematopathology. New approaches are needed to keep up with the new knowledge that led to changes in the classification. This review will help the practicing pathologist in the diagnosis of the specific characteristics of head and neck lymphoma and in the recognition of the regional variations of systemic lymphomas.

Acknowledgements The authors wish to thank Dr. Elias Campo from the Hematopathology Section, Laboratory of Pathology, Hospital Clinic of Barcelona, University of Barcelona, Barcelona, Spain for his suggestions regarding the structure of the manuscript.

Author's contributions José Cabeçadas conceived, designed, wrote, edited and reviewed the manuscript.

Daniel Martínez, Simon Andreasen, Lauge Hjorth Mikkelsen, Ricardo Molina-Urra, Diane Hall and Primož Strojjan wrote, edited and reviewed the manuscript.

Henrik Hellquist, Francesco Bandello, Alessandra Rinaldo and Antonio Cardesa reviewed the manuscript and provided comments.

Alfio Ferlito conceived, designed and reviewed the manuscript.

All authors gave final approval for publication.

José Cabeçadas takes full responsibility for the work as a whole, including design, access to data and the decision to submit and publish the manuscript.

Compliance with ethical standards

Conflict of interest The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest related to this work.

Publisher's note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

References

1. Swerdlow S, Campo E, Harris N et al (eds) (2017) WHO classification of tumours of haematopoietic and lymphoid tissues (Revised 4th Edition). IARC, Lyon
2. El-Nagar A, Chan J, Grandis J, Takata T, Slootweg P (eds) (2017) WHO classification of head and neck tumours. IARC, Lyon <http://publications.iarc.fr/Book-And-Report-Series/Who-Iarc-Classification-Of-Tumours/Who-Classification-Of-Head-And-Neck-Tumours-2017>. Accessed August 2, 2018
3. Ferry J, Ko Y (2017) Haematolymphoid tumours. In: El-Naggar A, Chan J, Grandis J, Takata T, Slootweg P (eds) WHO classification of head and neck tumours. IARC, Lyon
4. Zelenetz ADA, Jaffe EES, Advani RRRH et al (2017) Hodgkin and non-Hodgkin lymphomas. In: Amin M (ed) AJCC cancer staging manual, 8th edn. Springer-Verlag, Berlin, pp 937–958. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-40618-3_79
5. Agostini T, Sacco R, Bertolai R, Acella A, Lazzeri D (2011) Solitary plasmacytoma of the jaw. *J Craniofac Surg* 22(6):e2–e10. <https://doi.org/10.1097/SCS.0b013e31822ec79a>
6. Cheuk W, Ferry J (2017) Haematolymphoid tumours. In: El-Naggar A, Chan J, Grandis J, Takata T, Slootweg P (eds) WHO classification of head and neck tumours. IARC, Lyon, pp 200–202
7. Troch M, Formanek M, Streubel B, Müllauer L, Chott A, Raderer M (2011) Clinicopathological aspects of mucosa-associated lymphoid tissue (MALT) lymphoma of the parotid gland: a retrospective single-center analysis of 28 cases. *Head Neck*. 33(6):763–767. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hed.21533>
8. Thieblemont C, Berger F, Dumontet C et al (2000) Mucosa-associated lymphoid tissue lymphoma is a disseminated disease in one third of 158 patients analyzed. *Blood* 95(3):802–806
9. Thieblemont C, Bertoni F, Copie-Bergman C, Ferreri AJM, Ponzoni M (2014) Chronic inflammation and extra-nodal marginal-zone lymphomas of MALT-type. *Semin Cancer Biol* 24:33–42. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.semcancer.2013.11.005>
10. Gachard N, Parrens M, Soubeyran I, Petit B, Marfak A, Rizzo D, Devesa M, Delage-Corre M, Coste V, Laforêt MP, de Mascarel A, Merlio JP, Bouabdalla K, Milpied N, Soubeyran P, Schmitt A, Bordessoule D, Cogné M, Feuillard J (2013) IGHV gene features and MYD88 L265P mutation separate the three marginal zone lymphoma entities and Waldenström macroglobulinemia/lymphoplasmacytic lymphomas. *Leukemia* 27(1):183–189. <https://doi.org/10.1038/leu.2012.257>
11. Li ZM, Rinaldi A, Cavalli A, Mensah AA, Ponzoni M, Gascoyne RD, Bhagat G, Zucca E, Bertoni F (2012) MYD88 somatic mutations in MALT lymphomas. *Br J Haematol* 158(5):662–664. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2141.2012.09176.x>
12. Isaacson PG, Du MQ (2004) MALT lymphoma: from morphology to molecules. *Nat Rev Cancer* 4(8):644–653. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nrc1409>
13. Attygalle AD, Liu H, Shirali S, Diss TC, Lodenkemper C, Stein H, Dogan A, du MQ, Isaacson PG (2004) Atypical marginal zone hyperplasia of mucosa-associated lymphoid tissue: a reactive condition of childhood showing immunoglobulin lambda light-chain restriction. *Blood* 104(10):3343–3348. <https://doi.org/10.1182/blood-2004-01-0385>
14. Kluin PM, Langerak AW, Beverdam-Vincent J, Geurts-Giele WRR, Visser L, Rutgers B, Schuurung E, van Baarlen J, Lam KH, Seldenrijk K, Kibbelaar RE, de Wit P, Diepstra A, Rosati S, van Noesel MM, Zwaan CM, Hunting JCB, Hoogendoorn M, van der Gaag EJ, van Esser JWJ, de Bont E, Kluin-Nelemans HC, Winter RH, Lo ten Foe JR, van der Zanden AGM (2015) Paediatric nodal marginal zone B-cell lymphadenopathy of the neck: a Haemophilus influenzae-driven immune disorder? *J Pathol* 236(3):302–314. <https://doi.org/10.1002/path.4524>
15. Du MQ (2017) MALT lymphoma: genetic abnormalities, immunological stimulation and molecular mechanism. *Best Pract Res Clin Haematol* 30(1–2):13–23. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.beha.2016.09.002>
16. Du MQ (2016) MALT lymphoma: a paradigm of NF- κ B dysregulation. *Semin Cancer Biol* 39:49–60. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.semcancer.2016.07.003>
17. Du MQ (2011) MALT lymphoma: many roads lead to nuclear factor- κ B activation. *Histopathology* 58(1):26–38. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2559.2010.03699.x>
18. Remstein ED, Dogan A, Einerson RR, Paternoster SF, Fink SR, Law M, Dewald GW, Kurtin PJ (2006) The incidence and anatomic site specificity of chromosomal translocations in primary extranodal marginal zone B-cell lymphoma of mucosa-associated lymphoid tissue (MALT lymphoma) in North America. *Am J Surg Pathol* 30(12):1546–1553. <https://doi.org/10.1097/01.pas.0000213275.60962.2a>
19. Streubel B, Vinatzer U, Lamprecht A, Raderer M, Chott A (2005) T(3;14)(p14.1;q32) involving IGH and FOXP1 is a novel recurrent chromosomal aberration in MALT lymphoma. *Leukemia* 19(4):652–658. <https://doi.org/10.1038/sj.leu.2403644>
20. Ferry JA, Fung CY, Zukerberg L, Lucarelli MJ, Hasserjian RP, Preffer FI, Harris NL (2007) Lymphoma of the ocular adnexa: a study of 353 cases. *Am J Surg Pathol* 31(2):170–184. <https://doi.org/10.1097/01.pas.0000213350.49767.46>
21. Carugi A, Onnis A, Antonicelli G, Rossi B, Mannucci S, Luzzi A, Lazzi S, Bellan C, Tosi GM, Sayed S, de Falco G, Leoncini L (2010) Geographic variation and environmental conditions as cofactors in Chlamydia psittaci association with ocular adnexal lymphomas: a comparison between Italian and African samples. *Hematol Oncol* 28(1):20–26. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hon.921>
22. Jakobiec FA, Knowles DM (1989) An overview of ocular adnexal lymphoid tumors. *Trans Am Ophthalmol Soc*;87:420–42; discussion 442–4 <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/2562543>. Accessed August 2, 2018
23. White WL, Ferry JA, Harris NL, Grove AS (1995) Ocular adnexal lymphoma: a clinicopathologic study with identification of lymphomas of mucosa-associated lymphoid tissue type. *Ophthalmology* 102(12):1994–2006. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0161-6420\(95\)30764-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0161-6420(95)30764-6)
24. Ferreri AJM, Guidoboni M, Ponzoni M, de Conciliis C, Dell'Oro S, Fleischhauer K, Caggiari L, Lettini AA, Dal Cin E, Ieri R, Freschi M, Villa E, Boiocchi M, Dolcetti R (2004) Evidence for an association between Chlamydia psittaci and ocular adnexal lymphomas. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 96(8):586–594. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jnci/djh102>
25. Ferreri AJM, Ponzoni M, Guidoboni M, de Conciliis C, Resti AG, Mazzi B, Lettini AA, Demeter J, Dell'Oro S, Doglioni C, Villa E, Boiocchi M, Dolcetti R (2005) Regression of ocular adnexal lymphoma after Chlamydia psittaci-eradicating antibiotic therapy. *J Clin Oncol* 23(22):5067–5073. <https://doi.org/10.1200/JCO.2005.07.083>
26. Svendsen FH, Heegaard S (2017) Lymphoma of the eyelid. *Surv Ophthalmol* 62(3):312–331. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.survophthal.2016.11.009>
27. Kirkegaard MM, Rasmussen PK, Coupland SE, Esmaili B, Finger PT, Graue GF, Grossniklaus HE, Honavar SG, Khong JJ, McKelvie PA, Mulay K, Prause JU, Ralfkiaer E, Sjö LD, Toft PB, Vemuganti GK, Thuro BA, Curtin J, Heegaard S (2016) Conjunctival lymphoma—an international multicenter retrospective study. *JAMA Ophthalmol*. 134(4):406–414. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jamaophthalmol.2015.6122>
28. Mikkelsen LH, Würtz NS, Heegaard S (2018) Recent advances in treating extra-ocular lymphomas. *Expert Rev Ophthalmol* 13(4):189–201. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17469899.2018.1500176>

29. Ellis GL (2007) Lymphoid lesions of salivary glands: malignant and benign. *Med Oral Patol Oral Cir Bucal* 12(7):E479–E485 <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17978770>. Accessed August 2, 2018
30. Portell CA, Aronow ME, Rybicki LA, Macklis R, Singh AD, Sweetenham JW (2014) Clinical characteristics of 95 patients with ocular adnexal and uveal lymphoma: treatment outcomes in extranodal marginal zone subtype. *Clin Lymphoma, Myeloma Leuk* 14(3):203–210. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cml.2013.10.011>
31. Yahalom J, Illidge T, Specht L, Hoppe RT, Li Y-X, Tsang R (2015) Extranodale Lymphome ILROG. *Radiat Oncol Biol* 92(1):11–31. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.IJROBP.2015.01.009>
32. Olsen TG, Holm F, Mikkelsen LH, Rasmussen PK, Coupland SE, Esmaeli B, Finger PT, Graue GF, Grossniklaus HE, Honavar SG, Khong JJ, McKelvie PA, Mulay K, Sjö LD, Vemuganti GK, Thuro e Steffen Heegaard BA (2019) Orbital lymphoma—an international multicenter retrospective study. *Am J Ophthalmol* 199:44–57. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ajo.2018.11.002>
33. Wöhrer S, Troch M, Streubel B, Zwerina J, Skrabs C, Formanek M, Hauff W, Hoffmann M, Müllauer L, Chott A, Raderer M (2007) MALT lymphoma in patients with autoimmune diseases: a comparative analysis of characteristics and clinical course. *Leukemia* 21(8):1812–1818. <https://doi.org/10.1038/sj.leu.2404782>
34. Ochoa ER, Harris NL, Pilch BZ (2001) Marginal zone B-cell lymphoma of the salivary gland arising in chronic sclerosing sialadenitis (Küttner tumor). *Am J Surg Pathol* 25(12):1546–1550. <https://doi.org/10.1097/0000478-200112000-00012>
35. Anacak Y, Miller RC, Constantinou N, Mamusa AM, Epelbaum R, Li Y, Caldich AL, Kowalczyk A, Weber DC, Kadish SP, Bese N, Poortmans P, Kamer S, Ozsahin M (2012) Primary mucosa-associated lymphoid tissue lymphoma of the salivary glands: a multicenter rare cancer network study. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 82(1):315–320. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijrobp.2010.09.046>
36. Vazquez A, Khan MN, Sanghvi S, Patel NR, Caputo JL, Baredes S, Eloy JA (2015) Extranodal marginal zone lymphoma of mucosa-associated lymphoid tissue of the salivary glands: a population-based study from 1994 to 2009. *Head Neck* 37(1):18–22. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hed.23543>
37. Jackson AE, Mian M, Kalpadakis C, Pangalis GA, Stathis A, Porro E, Conconi A, Cortelazzo S, Gaidano G, Lopez A, Guillermo, Johnson PW, Martelli M, Martinelli G, Thieblemont C, McPhail ED, Copie-Bergman C, Pileri SA, Jack A, Campo E, Mazzucchelli L, Ristow K, Habermann TM, Cavalli F, Nowakowski GS, Zucca E (2015) Extranodal marginal zone lymphoma of mucosa-associated lymphoid tissue of the salivary glands: a multicenter, international experience of 248 patients (IELSG 41). *Oncologist* 20(10):1149–1153. <https://doi.org/10.1634/theoncologist.2015-0180>
38. Taddesse-Heath L, Pittaluga S, Sorbara L, Bussey M, Raffeld M, Jaffe ES (2003) Marginal zone B-cell lymphoma in children and young adults. *Am J Surg Pathol* 27(4):522–531. <https://doi.org/10.1097/0000478-200304000-00014>
39. Quintanilla-Martinez L, Sander B, Chan JKC, Xeri L, Ott G, Campo E, Swerdlow SH (2016) Indolent lymphomas in the pediatric population: follicular lymphoma, IRF4/MUM1+ lymphoma, nodal marginal zone lymphoma and chronic lymphocytic leukemia. *Virchows Arch* 468(2):141–157. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00428-015-1855-z>
40. Rizzo KA, Streubel B, Pittaluga S, Chott A, Xi L, Raffeld M, Jaffe ES (2010) Marginal zone lymphomas in children and the young adult population; characterization of genetic aberrations by FISH and RT-PCR. *Mod Pathol* 23(6):866–873. <https://doi.org/10.1038/modpathol.2010.63>
41. Ronceray L, Abla O, Barzilai-Birenboim S, Bomken S, Chiang AKS, Jazbec J, Kabickova E, Lazić J, Beishuizen A, Mellgren K, Tanaka F, Pillon M, Devalck C, Gouttenoire M, Makarova O, Burkhardt B, Attarbaschi A, on behalf of the European Intergroup for Childhood Non-Hodgkin Lymphoma (EICNHL) and the International Berlin-Frankfurt-Münster (i-BFM) Study Group (2018) Children and adolescents with marginal zone lymphoma have an excellent prognosis with limited chemotherapy or a watch-and-wait strategy after complete resection. *Pediatr Blood Cancer* 65(4):e26932. <https://doi.org/10.1002/psc.26932>
42. Louissaint A, Schafernak KT, Geyer JT, Kovach AE, Ghandi M, Gratzinger D, Roth CG, Paxton CN, Kim S, Namgyal C, Morin R, Morgan EA, Neuberg DS, South ST, Harris MH, Hasserjian RP, Hochberg EP, Garraway LA, Harris NL, Weinstock DM (2016) Pediatric-type nodal follicular lymphoma: a biologically distinct lymphoma with frequent MAPK pathway mutations. *Blood* 128(8):1093–1100. <https://doi.org/10.1182/blood-2015-12-682591>
43. Schmidt J, Gong S, Marafioti T, Mankel B, Gonzalez-Farre B, Balague O, Mozos A, Cabeçadas J, van der Walt J, Hoehn D, Rosenwald A, Ott G, Dojcinov S, Egan C, Nadeu F, Ramis-Zaldivar JE, Clot G, Barcena C, Perez-Alonso V, Endris V, Penzel R, Lome-Maldonado C, Bonzheim I, Fend F, Campo E, Jaffe ES, Salaverria I, Quintanilla-Martinez L (2016) Genome-wide analysis of pediatric-type follicular lymphoma reveals low genetic complexity and recurrent alterations of TNFRSF14 gene. *Blood* 128(8):1101–1111. <https://doi.org/10.1182/blood-2016-03-703819>
44. Schmidt J, Ramis-Zaldivar JE, Nadeu F, Gonzalez-Farre B, Navarro A, Egan C, Montes-Mojarro IA, Marafioti T, Cabeçadas J, van der Walt J, Dojcinov S, Rosenwald A, Ott G, Bonzheim I, Fend F, Campo E, Jaffe ES, Salaverria I, Quintanilla-Martinez L (2017) Mutations of MAP2K1 are frequent in pediatric-type follicular lymphoma and result in ERK pathway activation. *Blood* 130(3):323–327. <https://doi.org/10.1182/blood-2017-03-776278>
45. Louissaint A, Ackerman AM, Dias-Santagata D, Ferry JA, Hochberg EP, Huang MS, Iafrate AJ, Lara DO, Pinkus GS, Salaverria I, Siddiquee Z, Siebert R, Weinstein HJ, Zukerberg LR, Harris NL, Hasserjian RP (2012) Pediatric-type nodal follicular lymphoma: an indolent clonal proliferation in children and adults with high proliferation index and no BCL2 rearrangement. *Blood* 120(12):2395–2404. <https://doi.org/10.1182/blood-2012-05-429514>
46. Liu Q, Salaverria I, Pittaluga S, Jegalian AG, Xi L, Siebert R, Raffeld M, Hewitt SM, Jaffe ES (2013) Follicular lymphomas in children and young adults: a comparison of the pediatric variant with usual follicular lymphoma. *Am J Surg Pathol* 37(3):333–343. <https://doi.org/10.1097/PAS.0b013e31826b9b57>
47. Salaverria I, Philipp C, Oschlies I, Kohler CW, Kreuz M, Szczepanowski M, Burkhardt B, Trautmann H, Gesk S, Andrusiewicz M, Berger H, Fey M, Harder L, Hasenclever D, Hummel M, Loeffler M, Mahn F, Martin-Guerrero I, Pellissery S, Pott C, Pfreundschuh M, Reiter A, Richter J, Rosolowski M, Schwaenen C, Stein H, Trumper L, Wessendorf S, Spang R, Kuppers R, Klapper W, Siebert R, for the Molecular Mechanisms in Malignant Lymphomas Network Project of the Deutsche Krebshilfe, the German High-Grade Lymphoma Study Group, the Berlin-Frankfurt-Munster-NHL trial group (2011) Translocations activating IRF4 identify a subtype of germinal center-derived B-cell lymphoma affecting predominantly children and young adults. *Blood* 118(1):139–147. <https://doi.org/10.1182/blood-2011-01-330795>
48. Martin-Guerrero I, Salaverria I, Burkhardt B, Szczepanowski M, Baudis M, Bens S, de Leval L, Garcia-Orad A, Horn H, Lisfeld J, Pellissery S, Klapper W, Oschlies I, Siebert R (2013) Recurrent loss of heterozygosity in 1p36 associated with TNFRSF14 mutations in IRF4 translocation negative pediatric follicular

- lymphomas. *Haematologica* 98(8):1237–1241. <https://doi.org/10.3324/haematol.2012.073916>
49. Strojjan P, Soba E, Lamovec J, Munda A (2002) Extradural plasmacytoma: clinical and histopathologic study. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 53(3):692–701. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0360-3016\(02\)02780-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0360-3016(02)02780-3)
 50. Dimopoulos MA, Mouloupos LA, Maniatis A, Alexanian R (2000) Solitary plasmacytoma of bone and asymptomatic multiple myeloma. *Blood* 96(6):2037–2044. <https://doi.org/10.1016/S0889-8588>
 51. Kyle RA, Child JA, Anderson K et al (2003) Criteria for the classification of monoclonal gammopathies, multiple myeloma and related disorders: a report of the International Myeloma Working Group. *Br J Haematol* 121(5):749–757. <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-2141.2003.04355.x>
 52. Colomo L, López-Guillermo A, Perales M, Rives S, Martínez A, Bosch F, Colomer D, Falini B, Montserrat E, Campo E (2003) Clinical impact of the differentiation profile assessed by immunophenotyping in patients with diffuse large B-cell lymphoma. *Blood* 101(1):78–84. <https://doi.org/10.1182/blood-2002-04-1286>
 53. Rajkumar SV, Dimopoulos MA, Palumbo A, Blade J, Merlini G, Mateos MV, Kumar S, Hillengass J, Kastritis E, Richardson P, Landgren O, Paiva B, Dispenzieri A, Weiss B, LeLeu X, Zweegman S, Lonial S, Rosinol L, Zamagni E, Jagannath S, Sezer O, Kristinsson SY, Caers J, Usmani SZ, Lahuerta JJ, Johnsen HE, Beksac M, Cavo M, Goldschmidt H, Terpos E, Kyle RA, Anderson KC, Durie BGM, Miguel JFS (2014) International Myeloma Working Group updated criteria for the diagnosis of multiple myeloma. *Lancet Oncol* 15(12):e538–e548. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1470-2045\(14\)70442-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1470-2045(14)70442-5)
 54. Dahl IMS, Rasmussen T, Husebekk A, Kauric G (2002) Differential expression of CD56 and CD44 in the evolution of extramedullary myeloma. *Br J Haematol* 116(2):273–277. <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-2141.2002.03258.x>
 55. Boll M, Parkins E, O'Connor SJM, Rawstron AC, Owen RG (2010) Extradural plasmacytoma are characterized by a “myeloma-like” immunophenotype and genotype and occult bone marrow involvement. *Br J Haematol* 151(5):525–527. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2141.2010.08386.x>
 56. Loghavi S, Khoury JD, Medeiros LJ (2015) Epstein–Barr virus-positive plasmacytoma in immunocompetent patients. *Histopathology* 67(2):225–234. <https://doi.org/10.1111/his.12640>
 57. Bink K, Haralambieva E, Kremer M, Ott G, Beham-Schmid C, de Leval L, Peh SC, Laeng HR, Jutting U, Hutzler P, Quintanilla-Martinez L, Fend F (2008) Primary extradural plasmacytoma: similarities with and differences from multiple myeloma revealed by interphase cytogenetics. *Haematologica* 93(4):623–626. <https://doi.org/10.3324/haematol.12005>
 58. Venkatesulu B, Mallick S, Giridhar P, Upadhyay AD, Rath GK (2017) Pattern of care and impact of prognostic factors on the outcome of head and neck extradural plasmacytoma: a systematic review and individual patient data analysis of 315 cases. *Eur Arch Oto-Rhino-Laryngology* 275(2):595–606. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00405-017-4817-z>
 59. Delecluse HJ, Anagnostopoulos I, Dallenbach F, Hummel M, Marafioti T, Schneider U, Huhn D, Schmidt-Westhausen A, Reichart PA, Gross U, Stein H (1997) Plasmablastic lymphomas of the oral cavity: a new entity associated with the human immunodeficiency virus infection. *Blood* 89(4):1413–1420 <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/9028965>. Accessed August 2, 2018
 60. Rodrigues-Fernandes CI, de Souza LL, Dos Santos-Costa SF et al (2018) Clinicopathological analysis of oral plasmablastic lymphoma: a systematic review. *J Oral Pathol Med*. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jop.12753>
 61. Castillo JJ, Bibas M, Miranda RN (2015) The biology and treatment of plasmablastic lymphoma. *Blood* 125(15):2323–2330. <https://doi.org/10.1182/blood-2014-10-567479>
 62. Valera A, Balagué O, Colomo L, Martínez A, Delabie J, Tadesse-Heath L, Jaffe ES, Campo E (2010) IG/MYC rearrangements are the main cytogenetic alteration in plasmablastic lymphomas. *Am J Surg Pathol* 34(11):1686–1694. <https://doi.org/10.1097/PAS.0b013e3181f3e29f>
 63. Laurent C, Fabiani B, Do C, Tchemonog E, Cartron G, Gravelle P, Amara N, Malot S, Palisoc MM, Copie-Bergman C, Glehen AT, Copin MC, Brousset P, Pittaluga S, Jaffe ES, Coppo P (2016) Immune-checkpoint expression in Epstein-Barr virus positive and negative plasmablastic lymphoma: a clinical and pathological study in 82 patients. *Haematologica* 101(8):976–983. <https://doi.org/10.3324/haematol.2016.141978>
 64. Harmon CM, Smith LB (2016) Plasmablastic lymphoma: a review of clinicopathologic features and differential diagnosis. *Arch Pathol Lab Med* 140(10):1074–1078. <https://doi.org/10.5858/arpa.2016-0232-RA>
 65. Guerrero-García TA, Mogollon RJ, Castillo JJ (2017) Bortezomib in plasmablastic lymphoma: a glimpse of hope for a hard-to-treat disease. *Leuk Res* 62:12–16. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leukres.2017.09.020>
 66. Vose JM, Neumann M, Harris ME (2008) International peripheral T-cell and natural killer/T-cell lymphoma study: pathology findings and clinical outcomes international T-cell lymphoma project. *J Clin Oncol* 26(25):4124–4130. <https://doi.org/10.1200/JCO.2008.16.4558>
 67. Haverkos BM, Pan Z, Gru AA, Freud AG, Rabinovitch R, Xu-Welliver M, Otto B, Barrionuevo C, Baiocchi RA, Rochford R, Porcu P (2016) Extranodal NK/T cell lymphoma, nasal type (ENKTL-NT): an update on epidemiology, clinical presentation, and natural history in North American and European cases. *Curr Hematol Malig Rep* 11(6):514–527. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11899-016-0355-9>
 68. Foss F (2011) Evolving therapy of peripheral T-cell lymphoma: 2010 and beyond. *Ther Adv Hematol* 2(3):161–173. <https://doi.org/10.1177/2040620711408491>
 69. Foss FM, Zinzani PL, Vose JM, Gascoyne RD, Rosen ST, Tobinai K (2011) Peripheral T-cell lymphoma. *Blood* 117(25):6756–6767. <https://doi.org/10.1182/blood-2010-05-231548>
 70. Tse E, Kwong Y-L (2017) The diagnosis and management of NK/T-cell lymphomas. *J Hematol Oncol* 10(1):85. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13045-017-0452-9>
 71. Su Y-Y, Wang P-N, Chang H, Shih LY, Lin TL, Kuo MC, Chuang WY, Wu JH, Tang TC, Hung YS, Dunn P, Kao HW (2018) Extranodal NK/T-cell lymphoma, nasal type: clinical features, outcome, and prognostic factors in 101 cases. *Eur J Haematol* 101:379–388. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ejh.13126>
 72. Tse E, Kwong Y-L (2013) How I treat NK/T-cell lymphomas. *Blood* 121(25):4997–5005. <https://doi.org/10.1182/blood-2013-01-453233>
 73. Yamaguchi M, Tobinai K, Oguchi M, Ishizuka N, Kobayashi Y, Isobe Y, Ishizawa K, Maseki N, Itoh K, Usui N, Wasada I, Kinoshita T, Hotta T, Tsukasaki K, Oshimi K (2012) Concurrent chemoradiotherapy for localized nasal natural killer/T-cell lymphoma: an updated analysis of the Japan Clinical Oncology Group Study JCOG0211. *J Clin Oncol* 30(32):4044–4046. <https://doi.org/10.1200/JCO.2012.45.6541>
 74. Jaccard A, Gachard N, Marin B, Rogez S, Audrain M, Suarez F, Tilly H, Morschhauser F, Thieblemont C, Ysebaert L, Devidas A, Petit B, de Leval L, Gaulard P, Feuillard J, Bordessoule D, Hermine O, for the GELA and GOELAMS Intergroup (2011) Efficacy of L-asparaginase with methotrexate and dexamethasone (AspaMetDex regimen) in patients with refractory or relapsing extranodal NK/T-cell lymphoma, a phase 2 study. *Blood* 117(6):1834–1839. <https://doi.org/10.1182/blood-2010-09-307454>

75. Hu B, Oki Y (2018) Novel immunotherapy options for extranodal NK/T-cell lymphoma. *Front Oncol* 8:139. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fonc.2018.00139>
76. Kwong YL (2009) High-dose chemotherapy and hematopoietic SCT in the management of natural killer-cell malignancies. *Bone Marrow Transplant* 44(11):709–714. <https://doi.org/10.1038/bmt.2009.239>
77. Sciallis AP, Law ME, Inwards DJ, McClure RF, Macon WR, Kurtin PJ, Dogan A, Feldman AL (2012) Mucosal CD30-positive T-cell lymphoproliferations of the head and neck show a clinicopathologic spectrum similar to cutaneous CD30-positive T-cell lymphoproliferative disorders. *Mod Pathol* 25(7):983–992. <https://doi.org/10.1038/modpathol.2012.38>
78. Wang W, Cai Y, Sheng W, Lu H, Li X (2014) The spectrum of primary mucosal CD30-positive T-cell lymphoproliferative disorders of the head and neck. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol* 117(1):96–104. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.oooo.2013.10.002>
79. Agarwal M, Shenjere P, Blewitt RW, Hall G, Sloan P, Pigadas N, Banerjee SS (2008) CD30-positive T-cell lymphoproliferative disorder of the oral mucosa—an indolent lesion: report of 4 cases. *Int J Surg Pathol* 16(3):286–290. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1066896907313755>
80. Tandon B, Peterson L, Gao J, Nelson B, Ma S, Rosen S, Chen YH (2011) Nuclear overexpression of lymphoid-enhancer-binding factor 1 identifies chronic lymphocytic leukemia/small lymphocytic lymphoma in small B-cell lymphomas. *Mod Pathol* 24(11):1433–1443. <https://doi.org/10.1038/modpathol.2011.103>
81. Watanabe N, Inohara H, Akahani S, Yamamoto Y, Moriwaki K, Kubo T (2007) Synchronous squamous cell carcinoma and malignant lymphoma in the head and neck region. *Auris Nasus Larynx* 34(2):273–276. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.anl.2006.07.002>
82. Rattotti S, Croci G, Ferretti VV, Morello L, Marino D, Carli G, Ferrero S, Loseto G, Olivieri J, Pelosini M, Sgherza N, Calimeri T, Giannoccaro M, Fama A, Mosna F, Tisi MC, Tomei G, Mazzone AM, Arcaini L, Zaja F, Paulli M (2017) Mantle cell lymphoma mimicking mucosa-associated lymphoid tissue (MALT) lymphomas: a pathological characterization (on behalf of the “Fondazione Italiana Linfomi (FIL) - Postgraduate Master Course”). *Blood* 130:4049
83. Shibata K, Shimamoto Y, Nakano S, Miyahara M, Nakano H, Yamaguchi M (1995) Mantle cell lymphoma with the features of mucosa-associated lymphoid tissue (MALT) lymphoma in an HTLV-I-seropositive patient. *Ann Hematol* 70(1):47–51. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01715382>
84. Thakral B, Zhou J, Medeiros LJ (2015) Extranodal hematopoietic neoplasms and mimics in the head and neck: an update. *Hum Pathol* 46(8):1079–1100. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.humpath.2015.05.007>
85. Yamanaka N, Harabuchi Y, Sambe S, Shido F, Matsuda F, Kataura A, Ishii Y, Kikuchi K (1985) Non-Hodgkin's lymphoma of Waldeyer's ring and nasal cavity. Clinical and immunologic aspects. *Cancer* 56(4):768–776. [https://doi.org/10.1002/1097-0142\(19850815\)56:4<768::AID-CNCR2820560412>3.0.CO;2-W](https://doi.org/10.1002/1097-0142(19850815)56:4<768::AID-CNCR2820560412>3.0.CO;2-W)
86. Kemp S, Gallagher G, Kabani S, Noonan V, O'Hara C (2008) Oral non-Hodgkin's lymphoma: review of the literature and World Health Organization classification with reference to 40 cases. *Oral Surgery, Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endodontology* 105(2):194–201. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tripleo.2007.02.019>
87. Roh J-L, Huh J, Suh C (2008) Primary non-Hodgkin's lymphomas of the major salivary glands. *J Surg Oncol* 97(1):35–39. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jso.20901>
88. Derringer GA, Thompson LDR, Frommelt RA, Bijwaard KE, Heffess CS, Abbondanzo SL (2000) Malignant lymphoma of the thyroid gland: a clinicopathologic study of 108 cases. *Am J Surg Pathol* 24(5):623–639. <https://doi.org/10.1097/00000478-200005000-00001>
89. Skacel M, Ross CW, Hsi ED (2000) A reassessment of primary thyroid lymphoma: high-grade MALT-type lymphoma as a distinct subtype of diffuse large B-cell lymphoma. *Histopathology* 37(1):10–18. <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-2559.2000.00941.x>
90. de Leval L, Bonnet C, Copie-Bergman C, Seidel L, Baia M, Brière J, Molina TJ, Fabiani B, Petrella T, Bosq J, Gisselbrecht C, Siebert R, Tilly H, Haioun C, Fillet G, Gaulard P (2012) Diffuse large B-cell lymphoma of Waldeyer's ring has distinct clinicopathologic features: a GELA study. *Ann Oncol* 23(12):3143–3151. <https://doi.org/10.1093/annonc/mds150>
91. López-Guillermo A, Colomo L, Jiménez M, Bosch F, Villamor N, Arenillas L, Muntaniola A, Montoto S, Giné E, Colomer D, Beà S, Campo E, Montserrat E (2005) Diffuse large B-cell lymphoma: clinical and biological characterization and outcome according to the nodal or extranodal primary origin. *J Clin Oncol* 23(12):2797–2804. <https://doi.org/10.1200/JCO.2005.07.155>
92. Gao X, Li J, Wang Y, Liu S, Yue B (2018) Clinical characteristics and prognostic significance of EBER positivity in diffuse large B-cell lymphoma: a meta-analysis. *Dolcetti R, ed. PLoS One*;13(6):e0199398. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0199398>
93. Cheson BD, Fisher RI, Barrington SF, Cavalli F, Schwartz LH, Zucca E, Lister TA, Alliance, Australasian Leukaemia and Lymphoma Group, Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group, European Mantle Cell Lymphoma Consortium, Italian Lymphoma Foundation, European Organisation for Research, Treatment of Cancer/Dutch Hemato-Oncology Group, Grupo Español de Médula Ósea, German High-Grade Lymphoma Study Group, German Hodgkin's Study Group, Japanese Lymphoma Study Group, Lymphoma Study Association, NCIC Clinical Trials Group, Nordic Lymphoma Study Group, Southwest Oncology Group, United Kingdom National Cancer Research Institute (2014) Recommendations for initial evaluation, staging, and response assessment of Hodgkin and non-Hodgkin lymphoma: the Lugano classification. *J Clin Oncol* 32(27):3059–3067. <https://doi.org/10.1200/JCO.2013.54.8800>
94. Gutiérrez-García G, Cardesa-Salzmán T, Climent F et al (2011) Gene-expression profiling and not immunophenotypic algorithms predicts prognosis in patients with diffuse large B-cell lymphoma treated with immunochemotherapy. *Blood* 117(18):4836–4843. <https://doi.org/10.1182/blood-2010-12-322362>
95. Coutinho R, Clear AJ, Owen A, Wilson A, Matthews J, Lee A, Alvarez R, da Silva MG, Cabecadas J, Calaminici M, Gribben JG (2013) Poor concordance among nine immunohistochemistry classifiers of cell-of-origin for diffuse large b-cell lymphoma: implications for therapeutic strategies. *Clin Cancer Res* 19(24):6686–6695. <https://doi.org/10.1158/1078-0432.CCR-13-1482>
96. Munch-Petersen HD, Rasmussen PK, Coupland SE, Esmaeli B, Finger PT, Graue GF, Grossniklaus HE, Honavar SG, Khong JJ, McKelvie PA, Mulay K, Prause JU, Ralfkiaer E, Sjö LD, Sniegowski MC, Vemuganti GK, Heegaard S (2015) Ocular adnexal diffuse large b-cell lymphoma: a multicenter international study. *JAMA Ophthalmol* 133(2):165–173. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jamaophthalmol.2014.4644>
97. Attard AA, Praveen P, Dunn PJS, James GJ (2012) Epstein-Barr virus-positive mucocutaneous ulcer of the oral cavity: the importance of having a detailed clinical history to reach a correct diagnosis. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol* 114(2):e37–e39. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.oooo.2012.04.003>
98. Dojcinov SD, Venkataraman G, Raffeld M, Pittaluga S, Jaffe ES (2010) EBV positive mucocutaneous ulcer—a study of 26 cases associated with various sources of immunosuppression. *Am J Surg Pathol* 34(3):405–417. <https://doi.org/10.1097/PAS.0b013e3181cf8622>

99. McGinness JL, Spicknall KE, Mutasim DF (2012) Azathioprine-induced EBV-positive mucocutaneous ulcer. *J Cutan Pathol* 39(3): 377–381. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1600-0560.2011.01829.x>
100. Dojcinov SD, Venkataraman G, Pittaluga S, Wlodarska I, Schrager JA, Raffeld M, Hills RK, Jaffe ES (2011) Age-related EBV-associated lymphoproliferative disorders in the Western population: a spectrum of reactive lymphoid hyperplasia and lymphoma. *Blood* 117(18):4726–4735. <https://doi.org/10.1182/blood-2010-12-323238>
101. Di Napoli A, Giubettini M, Duranti E et al (2011) Iatrogenic EBV-positive lymphoproliferative disorder with features of EBV+ mucocutaneous ulcer: evidence for concomitant TCR γ /IGH rearrangements in the Hodgkin-like neoplastic cells. *Virchows Arch* 458(5):631–636. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00428-011-1064-3>
102. Hashizume H, Uchiyama I, Kawamura T, Suda T, Takigawa M, Tokura Y (2012) Epstein-Barr virus-positive mucocutaneous ulcers as a manifestation of methotrexate-associated B-cell lymphoproliferative disorders. *Acta Derm Venereol* 92(3):276–277. <https://doi.org/10.2340/00015555-1274>
103. Hernandez-Vargas H, Gruffat H, Cros MP, Diederichs A, Sirand C, Vargas-Ayala RC, Jay A, Durand G, le Calvez-Kelm F, Herceg Z, Manet E, Wild CP, Tommasino M, Accardi R (2017) Viral driven epigenetic events alter the expression of cancer-related genes in Epstein-Barr-virus naturally infected Burkitt lymphoma cell lines. *Sci Rep* 7(1):5852. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-017-05713-2>
104. Schmitz R, Young RM, Ceribelli M, Jhavar S, Xiao W, Zhang M, Wright G, Shaffer AL, Hodson DJ, Buras E, Liu X, Powell J, Yang Y, Xu W, Zhao H, Kohlhammer H, Rosenwald A, Kluijn P, Müller-Hermelink HK, Ott G, Gascoyne RD, Connors JM, Rimsza LM, Campo E, Jaffe ES, Delabie J, Smeland EB, Olgwang MD, Reynolds SJ, Fisher RI, Braziel RM, Tubbs RR, Cook JR, Weisenburger DD, Chan WC, Pittaluga S, Wilson W, Waldmann TA, Rowe M, Mbulaiteye SM, Rickinson AB, Staudt LM (2012) Burkitt lymphoma pathogenesis and therapeutic targets from structural and functional genomics. *Nature* 490(7418):116–120. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature11378>