PERSPECTIVES

- Toren, A., Amariglio, N. & Rechavi, G. Curable and noncurable malignancies: lessons from paediatric cancer
- Med. Oncol. 13, 15–21 (1996). Olivier, M. et al. The IARC TP53 database: new online mutation analysis and recommendations to users. Hum. Mutat. 19, 607-614 (2002).
- Sherr, C. J. Principles of tumor suppression. Cell 116, 235-246 (2004).
- Ohgaki, H., Vital, A., Kleihues, P. & Hainaut, P. in Pathology and Genetics of Tumours of the Nervous System (eds Kleihues, P. and Cavenee, W. K.) (International Agency for Research on Cancer, Lyon,
- France, 2000).
 Rajagopalan, H. & Lengauer, C. Aneuploidy and cancer. Nature 432, 338–341 (2004).
 Rasheed, B. K. et al. Alterations of the TP53 gene in
- human gliomas. Cancer Res. 54, 1324-1330 (1994).
- Bruder, E. et al. Morphologic and molecular characterization of renal cell carcinoma in children and young adults. Am. J. Surg. Pathol. 28, 1117-1132
- Dyer, M. & Bremner, R. A. The search for the retinoblastoma cell of origin. Nature Rev. Cancer 5, 91-
- Jiang, Z., Zacksenhaus, E., Gallie, B. L. & Phillips, R. A. The retinoblastoma gene family is differentially expressed during embryogenesis. *Oncogene* **14**, 1789–1797
- Weinberg, R. A. The retinoblastoma protein and cell cycle control. Cell 81, 323–330 (1995). Robanus-Maandag, E. et al. p107 is a suppressor of
- retinoblastoma development in pRb-deficient mice Genes Dev. 12, 1599–1609 (1998).
- Trinh, E., Denchi, E. L. & Helin, K. Naturally deathresistant precursor cells revealed as the origin of
- retinoblastoma. Cancer Cell 5, 513–515 (2004). Marino, S., Hoogervoorst, D., Brandner, S. & Berns, A. Rb and p107 are required for normal cerebella development and granule cell survival but not for Purkinje cell persistence. Development 130, 3359-3368 (2003).
- Chen, D. et al. Cell-specific effects of BB or BB/p107 loss on retinal development implicate an intrinsically death-resistant cell-of-origin in retinoblastoma. Cancer Cell 5, 539-551 (2004).
- Kaatsch, P., Rickert, C. H., Kuhl, J., Schuz, J. & Michaelis, J. Population-based epidemiological data on brain tumours in German children. Cancer 92, 3155-
- Hahn, H. et al. Mutations of the human homolog of Drosophila patched in the nevoid basal cell carcinoma syndrome. Cell 85, 841–851 (1996). Johnson, R. L. et al. Human homolog of patched, a
- candidate gene for the basal cell nevis syndrome Science 272, 1668–1671 (1996).
- Ruiz i Altaba, A., Stecca, B. & Sanchez, P. Hedgehog-Gli signaling in brain tumors: stem cells and paradevelopmental programs in cancer. Cancer Lett. 204, 145–157 (2004).
- Dahmane, N. & Ruiz-i-Altaba, A. Sonic hedgehog regulates the growth and patterning of the cerebellum. Development 126, 3089–3100 (1999).
- Wechsler-Reya, R. J. & Scott, M. P. Control of neuronal precursor proliferation in the cerebellum by sonic hedgehog. Neuron 22, 103-114 (1999). Taylor, M. D. et al. Mutations in SUFU predispose to
- medulloblastoma. Nature Genet. 31, 306–310 (2002). Gilbertson, R. J. Medulloblastoma: signalling a change in
- treatment. Lancet Oncol. 5, 209–218 (2004). Hamilton, S. R. et al. The molecular basis of Turcot's
- syndrome. N. Engl. J. Med. **332**, 839–847 (1995). Meng, X. et al. Suppressor of fused negatively regulates catenin signaling. J. Biol. Chem. 276, 40113-40119
- Berman, D. M. et al. Medulloblastoma growth inhibition by hedgehog pathway blockade. Science 297, 1559-561 (2002)
- Kalapurakal, J. A. et al. Management of Wilms' tumour: current practice and future goals. Lancet Oncol. 5, 37-46
- Call, K. M. et al. Isolation and characterization of a zinc finger polypeptide gene at the human chromosome 11 Wilms' tumor locus. *Cell* **60**, 509–520 (1990).
- Gessler, M. et al. Homozygous deletion in Wilms tumours of a zinc-finger gene identified by chromosome jumping. Nature 343, 774–778 (1990).

 Little, M., Holmes, G. & Walsh, P. WT1: what has the last
- decade told us? *Bioessays* 21, 191–202 (1999). Wagner, K. D., Wagner, N. & Schedl, A. The complex life
- of WT1. J. Cell Sci. 116, 1653–1658 (2003). Kreidberg, J. A. et al. WT-1 is required for early kidney
- development. Cell 74, 679–691 (1993).
 Davies, J. A. et al. Development of an siRNA-based
- method for repressing specific genes in renal organ culture and its use to show that the Wt1 tumour

- suppressor is required for nephron differentiation. Hum. Mol. Genet. 13, 235-246 (2004).
- Rose, E. A. et al. Complete physical map of the WAGR region of 11p13 localizes a candidate Wilms' tumor gene. Cell 60, 495-508 (1990).
- Coppes, M. J. et al. Inherited WT1 mutation in Denys Drash syndrome, Cancer Res. 52, 6125-6128 (1992).
- Armstrong, J. F., Pritchard-Jones, K., Bickmore, W. A. Hastie, N. D. & Bard, J. B. The expression of the Wilms tumour gene, WT1, in the developing mammalian embryo. Mech. Dev. 40, 85–97 (1993). Pelletier, J. et al. Germline mutations in the Wilms' tumor
- suppressor gene are associated with abnormal urogenital development in Denys-Drash syndrome. Cell 67, 437-447 (1991)
- Buendia, M. A. Genetic alterations in hepatoblastoma and hepatocellular carcinoma: common and distinctive aspects. Med. Pediatr. Oncol. 39, 530-535 (2002).
- Steenman, M., Westerveld, A. & Mannens, M. Genetics of Beckwith-Wiedemann syndrome-associated tumors: common genetic pathways. Genes Chromosom. Cancer 28, 1-13 (2000).
- Niles, R. M. Signaling pathways in retinoid chemoprevention and treatment of cancer. Mutat. Res. 555, 81–96 (2004).
- Taliman, M. S. Acute promyelocytic leukemia as a paradigm for targeted therapy. Semin. Hematol. 41,
- 27–32 (2004). Qualtrough, D., Buda, A., Gaffield, W., Williams, A. C. & Paraskeva, C. Hedgehog signalling in colorectal tumou cells: induction of apoptosis with cyclopamine treatment Int. J. Cancer 110, 831-837 (2004).
- Tabs, S. & Avoi, O. Induction of the differentiation and apoptosis of tumor cells in vivo with efficiency and selectivity. Eur. J. Dermatol. 14, 96-102 (2004).
- Singh, S. K. et al. Identification of human brain turnour
- initiating cells. Nature **432**, 396–401 (2004). Tamaki, S. et al. Engraftment of sorted/expanded human central nervous system stem cells from fetal brain J. Neurosci. Res. 69, 976–986 (2002).
- Little, J. Epidemiology of Childhood Cancer. International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) Scientific Publications No. 149 (IARC, Lyon, France, 1999)
- Parkin, D. M. et al. International Incidence of Childhood Cancer. International Agency for Research on Cancer (IACR) Scientific Publications No. 144 (IARC, Lyon,

- Raffel, C. et al. Sporadic medulloblastomas contain PTCH mutations. Cancer Res. 57, 842-845 (1997).
- Verloes, A. et al. Ondine-Hirschsprung syndrome (Haddad syndrome). Further delineation in two cases and review of the literature. Eur. J. Pediatr. 152, 75-77
- Trochet, D. et al. Germline mutations of the paired-like homeobox 2B (PHOX2B) gene in neuroblastoma. Am. J.
- Hum. Genet. 74, 761–764 (2004). Amiel, J. et al. Polyalanine expansion and frameshift mutations of the paired-like homeobox gene PHOX28 in congenital central hypoventilation syndrome. Nature Genet. 33, 459-461 (2003).
- Oosterhuis, J. W. & Looijenga, L. H. Testicular germ-cell turnours in a broader perspective. Nature Rev. Cancer 5, 210-222 (2005).

Acknowledgements P.J.S. and D.A.W. are supported by the Nottingham Children's Brain Tumour Research Centre. Thanks to J. Hewitt, B. Coyle, V. Sottile and R. Grundy for their constructive criticism of the manuscript. Thanks also to M. Hyatt for help with the production of figure 1 and J. Davies for figure 3

Competing interests statement
The authors declare no competing financial interests.

(Online links

The following terms in this article are linked online to: Entrez Gene: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.

α-fetoprotein | IGF2 | p107 | p53 | PTCH | RB | SHH | TIMP1 | WT1 WT2

National Cancer Institute: http://cancer.gov/ medulloblastoma | neuroblastoma | retinoblastoma | Wilms'

OMIM: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query. fcgi?db=OMIM

Gorlin's syndrome | Turcot's syndrome

SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION

See online article: S1 (table) Access to this interactive links box is free online

SCIENCE AND SOCIETY

The Nikolas Symposia and histiocytosis

Peter C. L. Beverley, R. Maarten Egeler, Robert J. Arceci and Ion Pritchard

Abstract | Histiocytoses are a group of rare diseases that involve histiocytes (literally tissue cells (Greek), but in reality tissueresident macrophages and dendritic cells), which are derived from bone-marrow stem cells. Histiocytoses pose problems similar to those of other rare diseases of childhood. Individual physicians see few cases, disease material is hard to collect and families suffer from lack of information and understanding. In this article, we describe how a series of 'think tank' meetings, the Nikolas Symposia, which have concentrated on Langerhans cell histiocytosis, have furthered our understanding of this enigmatic disease.

As a result of the rarity of diseases like the histiocytoses, the initial descriptions are usually reports of small numbers of cases in specialist medical journals. Therefore, recruitment of scientists with diverse research skills to work on the disease might not occur. The formation of medical societies with interests in particular rare diseases may alleviate the problem, but these organizations could have a narrow interest focussed on diagnosis and treatment. Similarly, patients and parents' groups are understandably often preoccupied with matters to do with treatment, outcome and family support. Drug companies are not interested in developing specific therapies because it is impossible to recover their development costs.

Box 1 | Classification of histiocytoses

Work carried out by the Histiocyte Society¹⁶ and the World Health Organization led to the following classification of histiocytic diseases. For further information, see the WHO International Classification of Diseases in the Online links box.

Disorders of varied biological behaviour

- Dendritic-cell-related disorders. For example, Langerhans cell.
- Secondary dendritic-cell processes. For example, juvenile xanthogranuloma and related disorders; and solitary histiocytomas of various dendritic-cell phenotypes.
- Macrophage-related disorders. For example, primary haemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis (familial and sporadic); secondary haemophagocytic syndromes (infection or malignancy related); Rosai-Dorfman disease (sinus histiocytosis with massive lymphadenopathy); and solitary histiocytoma with macrophage phenotype.

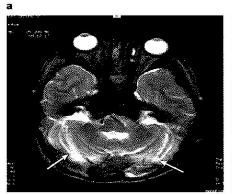
Malignant disorders

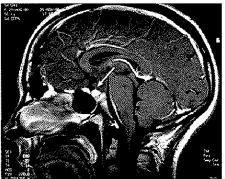
- Dendritic-cell-related histiocytic sarcomas. These involve specific dendritic cell types such as Langerhans cells, interdigitating cells and follicular dendritic cells.
- Monocyte-related disorders. For example, monocytic leukaemia; acute myelomonocytic leukaemia; chronic myelomonocytic leukaemia; extramedullary monocytic tumour or sarcoma; macrophage-related histiocytic sarcoma.

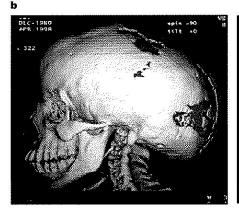
Funding bodies often prefer to devote their scarce resources to more common conditions with perceived greater societal impact. These features of rare conditions, with an incidence of between 1 and 7 cases per million of the population, have caused them to be named 'orphan' diseases.

Histiocytoses: the diseases

Histiocytoses derive from two main lineages: phagocytic monocytes and macrophages found in blood and tissues; and dendritic cells, the principal function of which is to act as professional antigen-presenting cells. The two forms of histiocytosis most often







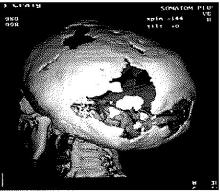


Figure 1 | Magnetic resonance imaging scans showing permanent damage to areas of the brain and bones of the skull. a | Horizontal and vertical sections through the brain. Arrows indicate areas of increased density in the cerebellium and pituitary. b | Several Langerhans cell histicocytosis bone lesions in the skull.

encountered in children are Langerhans cell histiocytosis (LCH) and haemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis (HLH), the first a disease of epidermal antigen-presenting dendritic cells called Langerhans cells (LCs), and the second of mononuclear phagocytes (BOX 1). In both conditions there may be accumulation of histiocytic cells in organs and tissues throughout the body. Both are rare, with an incidence for LCH of around 1:200,000 children per year', peaking at 1-3 years. In HLH, which has an incidence of about 1:1,000,000 per year, genetic factors have been identified in approximately half of cases2.3, whereas in LCH the role of specific genes is less clear cut. HLH still has a relatively poor prognosis, although bone-marrow transplantation has improved the outlook such that approximately 50% of patients now survive. By contrast, the overall mortality in LCH is lower (10-20%), but many survivors suffer severe long-term consequences of the disease and subsets of patients continue to have progressive disease that is refractory to current therapies.

LCH in children is very diverse. Approximately two-thirds of patients present with single-system disease, commonly in bone. Many of these patients require minimal treatment or the lesions resolve spontaneously, but even in these patients there may be permanent, mainly orthopaedic consequences4. At the other extreme and most often in young infants, the presentation is multisystem with organ failure, and among patients who do not respond to treatment within the first few weeks, mortality may be as high as 20% irrespective of treatment5. Between these extremes lie patients with multisystem disease without organ failure in whom the disease runs a fluctuating course and may eventually 'burn out', often leaving serious residual disabilities. Sequelae are common in patients with multisystem disease and include small stature because of growth-hormone deficiency, diabetes insipidus, cerebellar ataxia, deafness, orthodontic problems, lung fibrosis, liver cirrhosis and malabsorption due to gastrointestinal involvement6. As well as these late physical effects, neuropsychological problems can be a major problem. Central nervous system (CNS) damage is an especially distressing feature of LCH and the pathogenesis of this damage is obscure, but modern methods of imaging, in particular magnetic resonance imaging, and psychological assessment are important new tools for determining the extent of CNS disease7.8 (FIG. 1). Second malignancies, particularly T-cell acute lymphoblastic leukaemia (T-ALL), occur in LCH patients with a much higher than expected

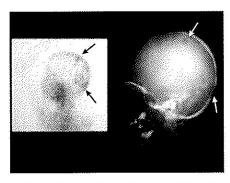


Figure 2 | Radiolabelled monoclonal antibody to CD1a localizing to active Langerhans cell histiocytosis lesions in the bones of the skull. Right panel shows a conventional skull X-ray of a child with Langerhans cell histiocytosis. The arrows indicate osteolytic bone lesions. Left panel shows a scan of the same child's skull following infusion of radiolabelled CD1a antibody. Arrows indicate the same bone lesions, which have concentrated the radiolabel.

frequency⁹. The association with clonal malignant diseases of early haematopoietic precursor cells indicates that there might be underlying genetic abnormalities in these cells in LCH, a finding that is in accord with the finding of a common immunoglobulin gene rearrangement in B cells and LCH cells of one patient¹⁰. However, later development

of acute non-lymphocytic leukaemia might be a treatment-related effect.

It is now clear that LCH occurs in adults as well as children. In fact, recent, preliminary figures from a national incidence survey in the United Kingdom indicate that there are just as many cases presenting in adult life as in childhood and that a similar spectrum of disease can be found in adults. Whether 'adult' cases are de novo in that age group or represent cases arising in childhood, but manifesting only in adult life, is intriguing but unknown, although a few patients who had LCH as children later developed pulmonary LCH. What is clear is that both active and (probably) passive smoking greatly increase the risk of pulmonary LCH in adult patients11,12.

The features of LCH, suggestive on the one hand of malignancy or on the other of an inflammatory process, have provided a rationale for therapy either with anticancer drugs or anti-inflammatory and immunosuppressive agents. The outcome of international trials of anticancer agents, sponsored by the Histiocyte Society, demonstrates that for multisystem disease this approach represents the most effective current therapy^{4,5}. However, whether and when to institute aggressive therapy, such as bone-marrow transplantation, remains a difficult question.

Recent developments have also resulted in more innovative forms of therapy, including the experimental testing of an antibody against CD1a for diagnostic immunolocalization and therapy of LCH13,14 (FIG. 2). These clinical investigations provide encouraging evidence that it might be possible to target LCH cells in patients, and development of a human CD1a antibody is continuing (G. Bechan, D. Lee and R.J.A., unpublished observations). The Nikolas Symposia have facilitated much of the progress outlined above. Specifically, the symposia have directly initiated or stimulated the investigative work and subsequent findings demonstrating the current lack of evidence for a viral aetiology; the clonality of the pathogenic Langerhans cell and the search for somatic mutations; the types and cellular origins of the cytokines in LCH lesions and how these cytokines can lead to the pathophysiology of the disease; the study of familial clustering and concordance in twins; the potential for targeted immunotherapy; and the link with and importance of chronic neurodegenerative CNS disease.

The Nikolas Symposia

A first step to progress with many disease groups is an accepted classification system, as this provides a firm foundation for physicians around the world to identify disease entities and compare the outcome of different treatments in homogenous groups of patients, however rare. In 1987, the Writing Group of the Histiocyte Society published the first widely accepted classification of histiocytic disorders, and firm diagnostic criteria based on clinical and histological features were established for these disorders15,16 (BOX 1). At the same time, Paul and Elizabeth Kontoyannis, whose son Nikolas had been diagnosed with histiocytosis X (BOX 2), wished to promote understanding of these enigmatic diseases and so came together with research-minded physicians to organize the first Nikolas Symposium. From the outset, the meetings deliberately set out to harness the motivation of parents to help the patients, the expertise of doctors who treat these diseases and share their experience through the Histiocyte Society, and the willingness of research scientists to attack novel problems.

The annual symposia — 15 so far — are funded by the parents of LCH patients and always involve parents support groups (TABLE 1). Practical aspects of disease management are regularly discussed at the symposia and illustrated by discussion of 'difficult cases' with the families' and/or

Box 2 | Who is Nikolas?

Nikolas is the first child of Paul and Elizabeth Kontoyannis. At birth, his parents noticed that his mouth looked 'different' to normal babies and that he had a nappy rash, which was difficult to treat. A dermatologist biopsied the rash and diagnosed Letterer–Siwe disease, confirmed as histiocytosis X by Jon Pritchard. Nikolas was treated with surgery to his mouth and a short course of low-dose corticosteroids. The skin and lung Langerhans cell histiocytosis (LCH) regressed and Nikolas became a happy, healthy baby, passing his developmental milestones normally 50.

Aged 2 years, Nikolas developed LCH scalp disease and lytic bone lesions. He was treated with topical nitrogen mustard and prednisone for 6 months. He improved but, aged 6–7 years, showed signs of cerebellar dysfunction, which was confirmed by a magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) scan (FIG. 1). He was treated with six courses of oral etoposide for 6 months, without improvement. At age 10 years, he developed raised intracranial pressure, due to stenosis of the aqueduct of Sylvius, which was relieved by creating a fistula between the third and fourth ventricles. The intracranial pressure normalized and cerebellar function stabilized. Nikolas underwent early puberty and suffered psychological difficulties, eventually stemmed by intensive counselling and support. His growth rate decreased and he was shown to be growth-hormone deficient. Growth-hormone therapy was given from 11 to 16 years when growth was completed. His remaining hypothalamic—pituitary axis (HPA) function was normal, but he has 'compensated' diabetes insipidus. After a fall and femoral fracture, osteoporosis was demonstrated. Nikolas also developed epilepsy, which is successfully managed by anticonvulsant drugs, without signs of cerebral cortical LCH or scarring.

Now, Mr Kontoyannis — aged 23 years — is a semi-independent adult with cerebellar ataxia, well-controlled HPA dysfunction and epilepsy, and who is on therapy for osteoporosis. He has a part-time office job, spending a much of his spare time working with computers. A lasting impression from everyone who meets 'Nik' is one of admiration and affection for this young man, with his outgoing and engaging personality. He is a worthy ambassador for the growing constituency of LCH survivors who are handicapped by this cunning and enigmatic disease.

Table 1 The Nikolas Sy	mposia	
Meeting	Year	Topic (outcome)
1 st Nikolas Symposium	1989	LCH – an immunological disease? (Identified avenues for future research and the importance of determining clonality ^{25,26,27,48} .)
2 nd Nikolas Symposium	1990	Viruses as a possible trigger in LCH – developing a strategy. (No evidence for viral aetiology ^{17,18} .)
3 rd Nikolas Symposium	1991	The role of cytokines in LCH. (Stimulated much work on cytokines ^{34,36} .)
4 th Nikolas Symposium	1992	The neuropathology and pharmacology of LCH. (Led to long-term studies of neurological and psychosocial aspects of the disease ^{7,8} .)
5 th Nikolas Symposium	1993	Langerhans cell histiocytosis therapeutics present and future. (Stimulated use of antibodies for localization and treatment of disease ^{13,14} .)
6 th Nikolas Symposium	1995	Cell biology and molecular biology in LCH. (Discussed dendritic-cell differentiation and cell survival and death.)
7 th Nikolas Symposium	1996	Apoptosis in LCH. (Stimulated work on the cell cycle and survival ^{32,33} .)
8th Nikolas Symposium	1997	Migration and <i>in vivo</i> interactions of immune cells. (Led to work on chemokines ³⁷ .)
9 th Nikolas Symposium	1998	Genetics and animal models of Langerhans Cell Histiocytosis (LCH). (Identified the need for animal models.)
10th Nikolas Symposium	1999	Dendritic cells and the brain in LCH.
Joint meeting of the Histiocyte Society and the Nikolas Symposium	2000	The molecular basis of LCH and the meaning of clonality.
11th Nikolas Symposium	2001	Acute and chronic cytokine networks leading to tissue damage.
12 th Nikolas Symposium	2002	Dendritic cell differentiation: Signals, signalling and functional consequences: Clues to possible therapy. (Analysis of the functional consequences of aberrant antigen expression ^{38,43,49}).
13 th Nikolas Symposium	2003	Langerhans cell histiocytosis: neoplasia or immune dysregulation?
14 th Nikolas Symposium	2004	Langerhans cell histiocytosis: Bystander cells, interactions, pathophysiology.
15th Nikolas Symposium	2005	Dendritic cell plasticity.

patients' consent, often in their presence. Although physicians are accustomed to wrestling with the problems of complex, distressing and chronic diseases, scientific participants are often much affected by this contact with parents and patients and might begin to pursue LCH-related projects. Conversely, clinicians are often inspired by their contact with diverse scientific experts to embark on new lines of research. Over the years, the symposia have continued to provide a forum to bring together these groups to discuss the problems of histiocytoses, to pinpoint research questions and stimulate clinicians and scientists to carry out the research, and they are now widely recognized to be a catalyst for research on LCH. Symposium organizers and participants interact, in turn, with parents, patients and other scientists around the world, and with the Histiocyte Society, which is a separate and much larger international collaboration between clinicians, scientists, pathologists and others (BOX 3).

The Nikolas Symposia and LCH

From the outset, the symposia entered into the major debates surrounding LCH, principal among these being the issue of what LCH is and what causes it. Two key areas were proposed for investigation at the outset. The first was the role of infectious agents either in transformation or as an initiating trigger. Although no viral agent has been identified so far^{17,18}, the remarkable finding that *Helicobacter pylori* is involved in mucosaassociated lymphoid tissue lymphoma¹⁹ and the discovery of several new human herpes

viruses over the past few years, one of which is clearly involved in the aetiology of Kaposi's sarcoma^{26,21}, indicate that the involvement of pathogens should not be discounted. Furthermore, it has become clear that pathogens can influence the phenotype of cells of the immune system^{22,23}, a finding of particular relevance to the view that LCH could be a disorder in which normal differentiation of Langerhans cells is blocked²⁴.

A second key debate to which the symposia have contributed is the question of whether LCH is a neoplasm. Discussion of the features of LCH, its variants and associated conditions (such as juvenile xanthogranuloma and the macrophageactivation syndromes) regularly takes place at the symposia to emphasize how varied the disorder can be and help to form a consensus as to the hallmarks that identify LCH itself. LCH lesions often consist of a mixed cellular infiltrate containing the diagnostic LCH cells, macrophages, eosinophils, T-cells and, frequently, multinucleate giant cells (FIG. 3). During the first few symposia, it was regarded as vital to determine whether any or all of the cellular components of the typical LCH 'granuloma' migrated into the tumour or actually proliferated there. Within a year, investigators in London had identified LCH as a 'proliferative' disorder of LCH cells by detecting nuclear antigens characteristic of dividing cells. The same publication showed that although LCH cells share many features with skin Langerhans cells, they also show abnormal features such as the expression of placental alkaline phosphatase25. However, most LCH lesions do not show the aberrant nuclear morphology that is characteristic of most malignant neoplasms. At the same time, prompted by this debate, two groups investigated the issue of the clonality of LCH cells by using the Humara assay to analyse polymorphisms in the human androgenreceptor gene. They found that most lesions in children are indeed clonal^{26,27}, demonstrating that LCH is a clonal proliferative disorder of an immature Langerhans cell with variable clinical behaviour. Although clonal proliferations of lymphocytes are sometimes observed in infectious diseases and in elderly normal individuals, these commonly consist of normal T lymphocytes clonally expanded by specific antigens^{28,29}. Clonality does not prove that LCH is a 'cancer,' but the results challenge laboratory-based scientists to try to identify relevant somatic mutations.

More recently, the arguments in favour of a non-neoplastic origin for LCH have been set out by Nezelof and Basset²⁴ and can be summarized as follows. Histologically, LCH

Box 3 Interactions of the Nikolas Symposia

Various groups exist throughout the world to promote an understanding of the histiocytosis-related diseases. These groups function either to promote basic and clinical research into the disease, such as the Histiocyte Society (http://www.histio.org/society/), or have been established as patient support and family support groups (http://greece.histiocytosis.info/, http://www.histiocytose.org/, http://www.histiocytosis.org/html/, http://www.histiocytose.org/, http://www.histiocytosis.org/html/, http://www.histio.nl/, http://www.histiocytos.se/). Other groups, such as the Histiocytosis Association of America (http://www.histio.org/association), the Histiocytosis Research Trust (http://www.hrtrust.org) and the Nikolas Symposium (http://www.niksym.org/) function to serve all three communities — patients and families, clinical researchers and basic researchers — in a combined effort to find a cure.

lesions are granulomatous and (even in 'late' disease) retain this granulomatous character rather than the cellular homogeneity of a malignant neoplasm. LCH cells characteristically resemble normal LCs rather than showing maturation arrest. The uniform distribution of LCH lesions, indicating orderly recruitment of the cells to tissues, is unlike the haphazard spread of malignant neoplasms. Regression of LCH lesions is frequent but rare in true malignancies. Finally, no cell line has been established from LCH cells either *in vitro* or by transfer into immunocompromised hosts.

Nevertheless, the symposia have continued to explore the view that LCH is a neoplasm with a spectrum of clinical manifestations varying from benign and spontaneously resolving to highly malignant and fatal. Several lines of evidence have contributed to this view. The first, already mentioned above, is the incidence of related second neoplasms, which is greater than would be expected by chance9. Moreover, there is evidence that up to 1% of probands have another first- or second-degree relative with the disease, and consanguineous parents have been associated with the disease", although this is a preliminary study requiring confirmation. These observations indicate the presence of a germline mutation (or mutations) in some individuals that predisposes to LCH and the associated malignancies. It would also be expected that genetic abnormalities would be detected in LCH lesions if these are transformed cells, and loss of heterozygosity has indeed been reported on chromosomes 1, 4, 6, 7, 9, 16, 17 and 22, detected by comparative genomic hybridization or microsatellite typing30,31. Although these data have been accrued independently of the symposia, another feature of tumour cells, their abnormal phenotype, has been documented by work stimulated by symposium discussions. Early on in histiocytosis research, the presence of placental alkaline phosphatase was demonstrated25, but, more convincingly, high expression of TP53 has been observed alongside other cell-cycle-related genes^{32,33}. These data are certainly suggestive of an oncogenic process and the hypothesis can be advanced that LCH represents a spectrum of tumours ranging from benign to highly malignant. There are likely to be predisposing 'LCH susceptibility' genes and, in addition, the tumours might acquire somatic genetic abnormalities as they evolve from benign to malignant. Whether there are specific triggers for this process, in addition to smoking in adults, remains to be resolved.

How does LCH cause pathology?

An important feature of LCH is the irreversible damage to several organs that often occurs, especially the pituitary, lungs, liver and CNS. Individual meetings have considered the role of cytokines, chemokines, apoptosis, and tissue fibrosis and repair in causing the various manifestations of LCH (TABLE 1). The symposia have also devoted several sessions to discussion of aspects of the disease process that might lead to new therapies, including those that might prevent or ameliorate tissue damage.

Langerhans ceils are the resident dendritic cells of the skin and are responsible for antigen uptake, processing and presentation. If inflammation occurs in the skin, the Langerhans cells become activated. They then take up and process antigens, and migrate to the draining lymph nodes, where they become interstitial dendritic cells and present antigen to T lymphocytes to initiate immune responses. These processes are controlled by cytokines and chemokines produced by basal keratinocytes, Langerhans cells themselves, endothelial cells and incoming inflammatory cells from the blood. The clinical signs and symptoms, as well as the morphology of LCH, indicate that disordered cytokine and chemokine production and responses are important in the pathogenesis of the disorder. The role of cytokines was discussed as early as the 3rd Nikolas Symposium34.

Subsequent experiments by symposium participants and others have amply confirmed that LCH is characterized by a lesional 'cytokine storm', a term referring to both the high level and diversity of cytokines produced locally 35,36. It is of special interest that the predominant source of haematopoietically relevant growth factors and regulatory and inflammatory cytokines in LCH lesions is actually the T cells. Up to 80% of the T cells in the LCH lesions prove to be memory helper T cells37. These express CD40 ligand (CD40L), a marker of activated T cells, whereas antigen-presenting cells express CD40. The CD40-CD40L interaction is known to activate T cells to produce cytokines, so it is likely that the interaction of CD40+ LCH cells and CD40L+ T cells in LCH potentiates the cytokine storm38. In any case, high levels of granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor (GM-CSF), tumour-necrosis factor-α (TNFα) and interleukin-3 (IL-3) are present in LCH and, together with other cytokines, function as chemoattractants to recruit eosinophils, neutrophils, macrophages and CD34+ Langerhans cell precursors into the lesions39.

This 'cytokine storm' in LCH lesions has several other consequences. First, even in the normal interaction of dendritic cells with T cells, cytokines secreted by dendritic cells after stimulation by pathogens40 have an important role in inducing cytokine production by the T cells. Whatever the trigger for cytokine production by LCH cells, the cytokines will have a similar effect and provide an ideal microenvironment to prolong the viability of the interacting inflammatory cells by creating autocrine and paracrine loops. A second role of cytokines is to affect the differentiation of precursor cells, and altered differentiation might explain the features of the bone lesions so commonly seen in LCH. Appropriate cytokines can stimulate the development of macrophages, Langerhans cells or other types of dendritic cell from CD34' stem cells or circulating peripheral-blood monocytes41,42. Moreover, recent studies indicate that receptor activator of nuclear factor-kB ligand (RANKL) and macrophage colony-stimulating factor (M-CSF) induce normal bone-marrow progenitors to differentiate into osteoclasts. Moreover, multinucleate giant cells with the appearance of osteoclasts are a prominent feature of LCH lesions (FIG. 3).

In LCH, cytokines known to influence osteoclastogenesis, such as IL-1, IL-6, TNFα, RANKL, GM-CSF and M-CSF, are highly expressed^{36,13}. LCH cells, and the T cells in close proximity to them, express RANKL. Moreover, LCH cells express

CHILA

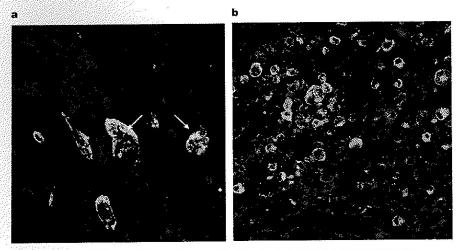


Figure 3 | Immunohistology of Langerhans cell histiocytosis. a | Section of Langerhans cell histiocytosis (LCH) tissue showing LCH cells stained with CD1a antibody in red and characteristic multinucleate giant cells (arrowed). Osteoclasts are stained in blue with antibody to cathepsin K.

b | Section of LCH tissue showing LCH cells stained with antibodies to CD1a in red, tumour-necrosis factor-α in green and receptor activator of nuclear factor-κB ligand in blue.

M-CSF, whereas normal LCs do not³⁷. Aberrant production of M-CSF by LCH cells together with RANKL-RANK interaction is therefore probably responsible for the large number of osteoclasts and the prominence of osteolysis in LCH³⁷ (FIG. 3). In addition, RANKL with GM-CSF generates dendritic cells, and the RANK-RANKL interaction provides a survival signal for these cells⁴²⁻⁴⁴, which perpetuates the survival of LCH cells.

The above results stimulated discussion at the symposia on another aspect of cellular behaviour mediated by secreted factors - the migration of LCs, which is largely controlled by chemokines and their receptors. Chemokine and chemokine-receptor expression patterns might explain the predeliction of LCH for particular sites and the cellular composition of the lesions. Maturation of LCs is associated with the coordinated downregulation of receptors for inflammatory chemokines, for example CCR6, and the upregulation of receptors for constitutive chemokines such as CCR7. In normal physiology, this results in increased responsiveness of these cells to lymphoid chemokines, causing the migration of mature LCs to draining lymph nodes, where they are effective at activating naive and central-memory T cells45,46. Remarkably, despite the presence in LCH lesions of various inflammatory stimuli, such as TNFa, which should induce maturation, LCH cells remain immature, continue to express CCR6 and other markers of immaturity and do not upregulate CCR7 (REF. 37).

Why do LCH cells remain immature? Ex vivo, lesional LCH cells have the intrinsic ability to differentiate fully and mature 47, indicating that the lesional microenvironment is crucial to maintenance of the phenotype of LCH cells. In vivo, LCH cells lack expression of the correct chemokine receptors, and therefore cannot leave their peripheral-tissue sites. They accumulate locally because they remain sensitive to the ligand CCL20 (also known as MIP3α)³⁷. In LCH, an autocrine loop appears to be established in which the LCH cells seem to be the main source of CCL20. They also express other inflammatory chemokines such as CCL5 and CXCL11 (also known as RANTES and I-TAC, respectively), resulting in attraction and accumulation of various other inflammatory cell types, especially T cells, into the lesions. The T cells use the same CCR6-CCL20 receptor-ligand pair, as well as CXCR3, the receptor for CXCL11.

Although the dendritic cells found in LCH lesions retain many features of normal skin LCs, such as expression of CD1a antigen, langerin and Birbeck granules, they are equally clearly abnormal25,33. Normally, cytokine production by LCs is triggered by pathogen-associated molecular patterns40, while the factors that trigger cytokine production by LCH cells remain unknown. Furthermore, the lesional cytokine storm would be expected to induce differentiation from an antigen-processing to an antigen-presenting cell and migration of LCs to the draining lymph nodes. This does not occur in LCH. Therefore, the failure of LCH cells to differentiate and migrate produces a self-sustaining lesion, providing a microenvironment in which many cell types

survive and precursors might differentiate to inappropriate effector cells and cause pathological damage.

Implications and future directions

The main difficulties in improving diagnosis and treatment of rare diseases are that governments and funding bodies often have other, higher priorities; individual doctors see too few patients to study the disease systematically. Collection of disease samples is also extremely difficult. For LCH, there are no known animal models and it has so far proved impossible to grow 'LCH cells' in short-term culture, much less produce any cell lines. Patients, relatives and doctors therefore suffer from relative 'scientific isolation'. The Nikolas Symposia have sought to overcome these problems by bringing together all these groups of individuals to discuss aspects of the disease more intensively and regularly than would otherwise be possible. The symposia have also attempted to avoid being just a 'talking shop'. On the last day of each meeting, an attempt is made to formulate key questions that have arisen from the discussion. Once they are back home, participants often attempt to resolve these questions by work funded from outside sources. These topics are also communicated directly to the Histiocyte Society and may be included in calls for proposals by that organization. At the last symposium, the question of how pathological Langerhans cells (LCH cells) differ from normal Langerhans cells was raised. Molecular methods for studying this at the level of the transcriptome (microarrays) and the genome need to be applied, and the meeting set in motion mechanisms to carry out this work. Recently, several patient support groups in Europe (Belgium, Greece and the United Kingdom) have joined forces to raise sufficient 'new' funds to initiate other substantive research projects. The first advertisment from the Histiocytosis Research Trust for the submission of research-grant proposals was placed in major scientific journals in autumn 2004.

Other 'rare disease' groups, notably the Dancing Eye (Opsomyoclonus) Syndrome Support Group and those dealing with disorders such as Fanconi anaemia, Blackfan-Diamond disease and severe aplastic anaemia, among other uncommon but chronic and debilitating diseases of young children, have also successfully used a model similar to that of the Nikolas Symposia, in which the formation of advocacy groups that foster scientific discovery and rational cures have been particularly effective. From

PERSPECTIVES

the point of view of scientific understanding, what has been achieved by the Nikolas Symposia? First, there is now a much better understanding of the clinical and pathological features of the disease than in 1989 (REF. 48). Second, scientists studying dendritic cells now realise that LCH is a human disease, which might help cast light on the functional and structural properties of normal Langerhans and associated cells. These insights might lead to a better understanding of the antigen-presenting arm of the immune system and to the best use of dendritic cells as weapons against other diseases, including cancer. Third, mechanisms of tissue damage in LCH are now better understood; this work will likely have relevance for understanding chronic inflammatory disorders49. However, LCH 'aficionados' realise that, even with the battery of powerful techniques now available to investigators, the underlying nature of LCH might be extremely difficult to pin down. These problems are regarded as a challenge by symposium contributors and increase their determination to pursue to its conclusion the Nikolas Symposium's logo, 'In Search of a Rational Cure'.

Peter C. L. Beverley is at the Jenner Institute, High Street, Compton, Bershire, RG20 7NN, UK.

> R. Maarten Egeler is at the Department of Paediatrics, Leiden University Medical Centre, Room J6-222, PO Box 9600 2300, RC Leiden, Netherlands.

Robert J. Arceci is at the Sidney Kimmel Comprehensive Cancer Centre, Department of Paediatrics and Oncology, Room 2M5, 1650 Orleans Street, Baltimore, Maryland 21231, USA.

> Jon Pritchard is at the Royal Hospital for Sick Children, Department of Oncology and Haematology, 9 Sciennes Road, Edinburgh, EH9 1LF, UK.

> > Correspondence to P.C.L.B. e-mail: peter.beverley@jenner.ac.uk

doi:10.1038/nrc1632

- Carstensen, H. & Ornvold, K. The epidemiology of Langerhans cell histiocytosis in children in Denmark, 1975–1989. Med. Pediatr. Oncol. 21, 387–388 (1993).
- Stepp, S. E. et al. Perforin gene defects in familial hemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis. Science 286, 1957–1959 (1999).
- Ohadi, M. et al. Localization of a gene for familial hemophagocytic lymphohisticoytosis at chromosome 9q21. 3-22 by homozygosity mapping. Am. J. Hum. Genet. 64, 165–171 (1999).
- Titgemeyer, C. et al. Pattern and course of single-system disease in Langerhans cell histicocytosis data from the DAL-HX 83- and 90-study. Med. Pediatr. Oncol. 37, 108–114 (2001).
- Minkov, M. et al. Treatment of multisystem Langerhans cell histiocytosis. Results of the DAL-HX 83 and DAL-HX 90 studies. DAL-HX Study Group. Klin. Padiatr. 212, 139–144 (2000).
 Haupt, R. et al. Permanent consequences in Langerhans
- Haupt, R. et al. Permanent consequences in Langerhans cell histiocytosis patients: a pilot study from the Histiocyte Society-Late Effects Study Group. Pediatr. Blood. Cancer. 42, 438–444 (2004).
- Grois, N., Tsunematsu, Y., Barkovich, J. & Favara, B. E. Central nervous system in Langerhans cell Histiocytosis. Br. J. Cancer 70, S24–S28 (1994).

- Nanduri, V. R. et al. Cognitive outcome of long-term survivors of multi-system Langerhans cell Histiocytosis: a single institution cross-sectional study. J. Clin. Oncol. 21, 2961–2967 (2003).
- Egeler, R. M. et al. The relation of Langerhans cell Histicoytosis to acute leukaemia, lymphorna and other solid tumours. Hematol. Oncol. Clin. North Am. 12, 359–378 (1998).
- Magni, M. et al. Identical rearrangement of immunoglobulin heavy chain gene in neoptastic Langerhans cells and B-lymphocytes: evidence for a common grecursor. Leuk. Res. 26, 1131–1133 (2002).
- common precursor. Leuk. Res. 26, 1131–1133 (2002).
 Arico, M. et al. Langerhans cell histicoytosis in adults.
 Report from the International Registry of the Histicoyte Society. Eur. J. Cancer. 39, 2341–2348 (2003).
- Malpas, J. S. & Norton, A. J. Langerhans cell histicoytosis in the adult. *Med. Pediatr. Oncol.* 27, 540–546 (1996).
- Pritchard, J., Gordon, I., Beverley, P. C. L. & Chu, A. C. CD1 antibody immunolocalisation in Langerhans' cell histiocytosis. *Lancet* 342, 367–368 (1993).
- Kelly, K. M. et al. Successful in vivo immunolocalisation of Langerhans cell histiocytosis with use of a monoclonal antibody, NA1/34. J. Pediatr. 125, 717–722 (1994).
- Writing Group of the Histiocyte Society et al. Histiocytosis syndromes in children. Lancet 2, 41–42 (1987).
- Favara, B. Contemporary classification of histiocytic disorders. The WHO Committee on Histiocytic/ Reticulum Cell Proliferations. Reclassification Working Group of the Histiocyte. Med. Paediatr. Oncol. 29, 157–166 (1997).
- McClain, K. & Weiss, R. A. Viruses and Langerhans cell histicoptosis: is there a link? Br. J. Cancer 23, S34–S36 (1994).
- McClain, K., Jin, H., Gresik, V. & Favara, B. Langerhans cell histiocytosis: lack of a viral etiology. Am. J. Hematol. 47, 16–20 (1994).
- Isaacson, P. G. & Du, M. Q. MALT lymphoma: from morphology to molecules. *Nature Rev. Cancer.* 4, 644–653 (2004).
- Dewhurst, S. Human herpesvirus type 6 and human herpesvirus type 7 infections of the central nervous system. Herpes 11, 105A-111A (2004).
 Pantanowitz, L. & Dezube, B. J. Advances in the
- Pantanowitz, L. & Dezube, B. J. Advances in the pathobiology and treatment of Kaposi sarcoma. Curr. Orio. Opcol. 16, 443–449 (2004).
- Opin. Oncol. 16, 443–449 (2004).
 Appay, V. et. al. Memory CDB: T cells vary in differentiation phenotype in different persistent virus infections. Nature Med. 8, 379–385 (2002).
- Kuijpers, T. W. et al. Frequencies of circulating cytolytic, CD45RA*CD27*, CD8*T lymphocytes depend on infection with CMV. J. Immunol. 170, 4342–4348 (2003).
- Nezelof, C. & Basset, F. An hypothesis Langerhans cell histicocytosis: the failure of the immune system to switch from an innate to an adaptive mode. *Pediatr. Blood Cancer* 42, 398–400 (2004).
- Hage, C., Willman, C. L., Favara, B. E. & Isaacson, P. G. Langerhans' Cell Histicotrosis (Histicotrosis X): immunophenotype and growth fraction. *Hum. Path.* 24, 840–845 (1993).
- Willman, C. L. et al. Langerhans'-Cell Histiocytosis (Histiocytosis X) — A clonal proliferative disease. N. Eng. J. Med. 331, 154–160 (1994).
- Yu, R. C., Chu, C. E., Buluwela, L. & Chu, A. C. Langerhans cell histicoytosis: a clonal proliferation of langerhans cells. *Lancet* 343, 767–768 (1994).
- Weiss, L. M., Wood, G. S. & Trela, M. Clonal T cell populations in lymphomatoid papulosis: evidnoe of a lymphoproliferative origin for clinically benign disease. N. Eng. J. Med. 315, 475-479 (1986).
- Posnett, D. N., Sinha, R., Kabak, S. & Russo, C. Clonal populations of T cells in normal elderly humans: the T cell equivalent to 'benign monoclonal gammopathy?' J. Exp. Med. 179, 609–618 (1994).
- Dacic, S., Trusky, C., Bakker, A., Finkelstein, S. D. & Yousem, S. A. Genotypic analysis of pulmonary Langerhans cell histiocytosis. *Hum. Pathol.* 34, 1345–1349 (2003).
- Murakami, I., Gogusev, J., Fournet, J. C., Glorion, C. & Jaubert, F. Detection of molecular cytogenetic aberrations in Langerhans cell histocytosis of bone. Hum. Pathol. 33, 555–560 (2002).
- Weintraub, M., Bhatla, K. G., Chandra, R. S., Magrath, I. T. & Ladisch, S. p53 expression in Langerhans cell histicoytosis. J. Pediatr. Hematol. Oncol. 20, 12–17 (1998).
- Schouten, B. et al. Expression of cell cycle-related gene products in Langerhans cell histiocytosis. J. Pediatr. Hematol. Oncol. 24, 727–732 (2002).
- Kannourakis, G. & Abbas, A. The role of cytokines in the pathogenesis of Langerhans Cell Histiocytosis. *Br. J. Cancer* 70, S37–S40 (1994).

- de Graaf, J. H., Tamminga, R. Y. J., Kamps, W. A. & Timens, W. Langerhans cell histiocytosis: expression of leukocyte cellular adhesion molecules suggests abnormal homing and differentiation. Am. J. Path. 144, 466–472 (1994)
- Egeler, M., Favara, B., van Meurs, M., Laman, J. D. & Claassen, E. Differential in situ cytokine profiles of Langerhans-like cells and T cells in Langerhans cell histiocytosis: abundant expression of cutokines relevant to disease and treatment. Blood 94, 4195– 4201 (1999).
- Annels, N. É. et al. Aberrant chemokine receptor expression and chemokine production by langerhans cells underlies the pathogenesis of langerhans cell histocytosis. J. Exp. Med. 197, 1385–1300 (2003)
- histiccytosis. J. Exp. Med. 197, 1385–1390 (2003). 38. Egeler, R. M., Favara, B. E., Laman, J. D. & Claassen, E. Abundant expression of CD40 and CD40-ligand (CD154) in paediatric Langerhans cell histiccytosis tesions. Eur. J. Can. 36, 2105–2110 (2000).
- Caux, C., Dezutter-Dambuyant, C., Schmitt, D. & Banchereau, J. GM-CSF and TNFα cooperate in the generation of dendritic Langerhans cells. Nature 360, 288–280 (1992)
- Medzhitov, R. & Janeway, C. A. Innate immunity: impact on the adaptive immune response. *Curr. Op. Immunol.* 9, 4–10 (1997).
 Paquette, R. L. *et al.* Interferon-α and granulocyte—
- Paquette, R. L. et al. Interferon-α and granulocytemacrophage colony-stimulating factor differentiate peripheral blood monocytes into potent antigenpresenting cells. J. Leuk. Biol. 64, 358–367 (1998).
- Servet-Delprat, C. et al. Fit3: macrophage precursors commit sequentially to osteoclasts, dendritic cells and microglia. BMC Immunol. 3, 15–25 (2002).
- da Costa, C. E. et al. Presence of osteoclast-like multinucleated giant cells in the bone and nonostotic lesions of Langerhans cell histiocytosis. J. Exp. Med. 201, 687–693 (2005).
- Cremer, I. et al. Long-lived immature dendritic cells mediated by TRANCE-RANK interaction. Blood 100, 3646–3655 (2002).
- Gunn, M. D. et al. A chemokine expressed in lymphoid high endothelial venules promotes the adhesion and chemotaxis of naïve T lymphocytes. Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA 95, 258–263 (1998).
- Banchereau, J. & Steinman, R. M. Dendritic cells and the control of immunity. *Nature* 392, 245–252 (1908)
- Geissmann, F. et al. Differentiation of Langerhans cells in Langerhans cell histiocytosis. Blood 97, 1241–1248 (2001)
- Pritchard, J. et al. The proceedings of the Nikolas Symposia on the histiocytoses 1989–1993. Br. J. Cancer 70, S1–S73 (1994).
- Laman, J. D., Leenen, P. J., Annels, N. E., Hogendoom, P. C. & Egeler, R. M. Langerhans-cell histiocytosis 'insight into DC biology'. *Trends Immunol.* 24, 190– 196 (2003).
- Broadbent, V. et al. Spontaneous remission of multisystem histiocytosis X. Lancet 1, 253–254 (1984).

Acknowledgements

The authors thank the entire Kontoyannis family, especially Elizabeth, Paul and Nikolas, for their undying enthusiasm and practical support for the Nikolas Symposia. They would also like to thank D. Moustaka for her dedication as the secretary of the symposium series.

Competing interests statement
The authors declare no competing financial interests.

(4) Online links

DATABASES

The following terms in this article are linked online to: Entrez Gene: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.

fcgi?db=gene CCR6|CCR7|CD40L|GM-CSF|IL-1|IL-3|IL-6|M-CSF| RANKL|TNFα|TP53

OMIM: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?db=OMIM

haemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis | Langerhans cell histiocytosis | Letterer-Siwe disease

FURTHER INFORMATION

Histiocyte Society: http://www.histio.org/society/ Nikolas Symposia: http://www.niksym.org/ WHO International Classification of Diseases: http://www. who.int/classifications/icd/en/

Access to this interactive links box is free online