

Plasma of Acute Lymphoblastic Leukemia Patients React to the Culture of a Mycovirus Containing *Aspergillus flavus*

Cameron K. Tebbi, MD,* Aruna Badiga, PhD,† Eva Sahakian, PhD,‡
Anshul I. Arora, PhD,† Sajitha Nair, PhD,† John J. Powers, BSc,‡
Alex N. Achille, BSc,‡ Michael V. Jaglal, MD,§ Saamil Patel, PharmD,||
and Felicia Migone, MS†

Summary: Acute lymphoblastic leukemia (ALL) is the most common cancer in children and is also seen in adults. Currently, no plasma-based test for the detection of ALL is available. We have cultured the home of a patient with ALL and isolated a mycovirus containing *Aspergillus flavus*. This culture was subjected to electron microscopy, purification, and mass spectrometry. Using enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay technique, plasma of patients with ALL and long-term survivors of this disease were tested for antibodies, utilizing supernatant of the culture of this organism. The results were compared with 3 groups of controls, including healthy individuals, patients with sickle cell disease, and solid tumors. Using electron microscopy, the isolated *A. flavus* contained mycovirus particles. In chemical analysis, this organism did not produce any aflatoxin. Using an enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay technique, the supernatant of the culture of the mycovirus containing *A. flavus* could differentiate ALL patients from each group of controls ($P < 0.001$). These studies provide a new technique for the detection of ALL and may add information for future research regarding leukemogenesis.

Key Words: acute lymphoblastic leukemia, *Aspergillus flavus*, mycovirus, ELISA test, leukemogenesis

(*J Pediatr Hematol Oncol* 2020;42:350–358)

Acute lymphoblastic leukemia (ALL), with an incidence of 3 to 4/100,000 pediatric population, constitutes the most common childhood cancer, accounting for ~20% of all

malignant disorders in this age group.¹ This disease also occurs in adults, albeit with a much lesser frequency.² Currently, the diagnosis of leukemia is based on cellular recognition of the disease, done mainly by obtaining bone marrow aspiration for pathology, flow cytometric examination, and cytogenetic analysis. No plasma-based diagnostic tool to screen for, or diagnose this disease is available.

We have isolated *Aspergillus flavus* from the home of a patient with ALL and have extensively evaluated this isolate which by electron microscopy evaluation contains mycovirus particles. The mycovirus particles were found within the body of the organism and culture supernatant. Chemical analysis of our isolated mycovirus containing *A. flavus* revealed no evidence of aflatoxin production. Fungi, as virus hosts, via a virus/virus and virus/host interactions, can block the production of aflatoxin which may be the case with our isolate. The studies described here reveal that indirect enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) technique, using the supernatant culture of this mycovirus containing *Aspergillus flavus* (SAF) can identify and distinguish plasma of ALL patients in full remission from normal individuals or patients with sickle cell disease (SCD) and those with solid tumors.

Fungi are widely distributed in the environment and their products can be carcinogenic. Prior reports of isolation of fungi in residences of individuals with leukemia are available but their carcinogenic effects were attributed to immunosuppression and aflatoxin exposure, not their direct effect as we have shown in our studies.

Currently, no known plasma-based techniques for identification of individuals with ALL or diffuse lymphomas in remission are available. These findings may have the potential for diagnosis of, or screening for, ALL. Furthermore, by extension, it may provide some information for future research on the pathogenesis of this disease.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Participants

For the performance of the plasma-based studies, according to an Institutional Review Board approved protocol, informed written consent from parents of patients under 18 and individuals over 18 years of age was obtained. Informed assent was also required for patients ages 12 to 17 years. As a protocol requirement, all participants had to have no history of fungal infection. The ALL patient population consisted of a group of 40 individuals with precursor B-cell ALL. No selection based on risk factors or prognosis was made. For controls, to assure specificity, 3 separate groups were utilized. The first group was that of 20 healthy blood donors without any disease. In this group, discarded blood from the blood bank was used. The second group of controls consisted of 26 patients with SCD undergoing manual

Received for publication March 29, 2019; accepted April 29, 2020.

From the *Florida Pediatric Hematology/Oncology and Children's Cancer Research Group Laboratory; †Children's Cancer Research Group Laboratory; ‡Moffitt Cancer Center and Research Institute; §Department of Medical Oncology, Moffitt Cancer Center and Research Institute; and ||Tampa General Hospital, Tampa, FL.

Under contracts, protein purification and mass spectrometry were performed by Dr Jinyi Zhu, of Protein Production Core facilities and Electron Microscopy by Amanda Garces of Advanced Imaging Core Laboratories at the University of South Florida.

Studies described are a part of patents registered in the United States, European Union, Japan, Russia, and elsewhere. C.K.T. is the patent holder.

C.K.T.: original idea, collection, and isolation of mycovirus containing *Aspergillus flavus*, design of the studies, preliminary laboratory work, supervision of the project and writing of the manuscript. A.B.: performed ELISA tests, coinoculation studies with EBV, FPLC separation, collection, and analysis of the data. E.S.: supervised confirmatory studies and assisted with the preparation of the manuscript. A.I.A.: assisted with the preparation of graphs and statistics. S.N.: performed confirmatory studies. J.J.P.: performed confirmatory studies and assisted with graphics. A.N.A.: assisted with confirmatory studies. M.V.J.: assisted with IRB approval for confirmatory studies. S.P.: assisted with the patient recruitment and preparation of samples for confirmatory studies. F.M.: performed the initial technical work. The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Reprints: Cameron K. Tebbi, MD, Children's Cancer Research Group Laboratory, 5747 Hoover Boulevard, Tampa, FL 33634 (e-mail: ctebbi@childrenscancerresearchgroup.org).

Copyright © 2020 Wolters Kluwer Health, Inc. All rights reserved.

partial exchange transfusion. Patients with SCD undergoing partial exchange transfusion were selected as a control group since some of these patients require periodical partial exchange transfusion thus providing an available source of blood. In this group, to avoid any mixture of patient and donor blood, only the first blood drawing was utilized. The third group of controls was 30 patients with a variety of nonlymphatic solid tumors. For the latter 2 groups of controls informed consents, as described above, were obtained. Approximately 15 to 20 mL of blood from each individual was collected in 500 U of preservative-free heparin. To obtain plasma, a portion of the collected blood was centrifuged at 2000 rpm for 12 minutes at 4°C. Collected plasma was used immediately or kept frozen at -80°C for future use. The remaining blood was used for cellular investigations.

A. flavus

As a part of surveillance of the home environment of a patient with ALL, parents were given a petri dish of Sabouraud Dextrose Agar media to open in the bedroom of the patient for 10 minutes and return it for fungal evaluation. The patient had ALL in remission and no prior history of fungal infection or other unique characteristics. Axenic culture was isolated from the plate. For the present study, only 1 culture containing growth of *A. flavus* was used throughout all the described experiments. The isolated *A. flavus* was cultured in a glass bottle with an underlayer of 1% solid agar and an overlayer of 3.5 g% Czapek-Dox broth (Difco; Becton Dickinson, Sparks, MD). The culture of this isolate was incubated at 37°C in air, with removal of the supernatant and replacement with Czapek-Dox broth approximately every 4 weeks. The supernatant of the culture of this mycovirus containing *A. flavus* was filtered through a 0.25 µm filter (Corning Inc., Corning, NY), stored at 4°C up to 4 weeks and concentrated before its utilization using Amicon Ultra-15 centrifugal filter units (EMD Millipore, Burlington, MA). The protein concentration of this filtrate was adjusted to ~3 mg/mL before its use.

To evaluate the *A. flavus* for mycoviruses, both the fungal growth and supernatant of the culture were analyzed for viral contents by electron microscopy. The grown organism was placed into resin blocks suitable for ultramicrotomy sectioning at 100 nm or less, collected on copper grids and contrast-enhanced with uranyl acetate before transmission electron microscopy observation.

To separate protein content of the supernatant of the culture of the mycovirus containing *A. flavus* mainly according to the size and charge, fast protein liquid chromatography (FPLC) (AKTA system; GE, Aurora, OH) with standard techniques was utilized. Supernatant of the culture of *A. flavus* alone, Epstein-Barr virus (EBV) alone, or their coculture was individually collected and analyzed using FPLC. Each resulting peak was collected and evaluated separately, and the results were compared.

For protein purification, SAF was buffer exchanged into 50 mM Tris (pH 8.0) containing 1 mM EDTA and 1 mM DTT via HiPrep 26/10 Desalting column (GE Healthcare, Uppsala, Sweden), before it was loaded onto a HiTrap Q HP column (GE Healthcare). Target protein was purified by a 20-column volume linear gradient of 0 to 500 mM NaCl. Fractions containing target protein were concentrated and loaded onto a Superdex 200 10/300 GL (GE Healthcare, Chicago, IL) which was equilibrated with 50 mM Tris (pH 7.5) containing 300 mM NaCl and 1 mM EDTA. Fractions were assessed by sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis and the corresponding band was confirmed by mass spectrometry.

To evaluate the possible effects of EBV, SAF culture alone or after coinoculation of *A. flavus* culture with EBV for 7 days, were used. The EBV source was a commercially available EBV, which was adjusted to 2×10^6 plaque-forming units/mL. As a control for EBV, avian leukosis virus (ALV) was obtained from commercial sources and used at 2×10^6 plaque-forming units/mL. ELISA tests in an identical fashion as described below, was performed in 10 ALL patients and controls using ALV substituting for EBV. This group of ALL patients included 5 male and 5 female patients, 6 of whom were white, 3 Hispanic and 1 black.

To detect antibodies in plasma samples, a qualitative indirect ELISA assay technique was performed using Corning 96 well plates. The plates were coated with filtered and concentrated SAF for a total volume of 100 µL in each well and incubated at 4°C for ~24 hours. Post concentration, the approximate protein content of SAF was adjusted to ~3 mg/mL. For negative controls, RPMI media was used. After incubation, the plates were washed thrice in blocking buffer (2% bovine serum albumin in phosphate-buffered saline) for 5 minutes and then incubated in blocking buffer for 2 hours at 37°C. In each well, 100 µL plasma samples of normal or ALL patients were added. The plates were incubated at room temperature for 2 hours. Goat anti-human secondary antibody conjugated with alkaline phosphatase (Promega, Madison, WI) was used in the dilution of 1:5000 in blocking buffer and 100 µL was added in each well and incubated at room temperature for 2 hours. The plates were washed 5 times with phosphate-buffered saline/0.1% Tween 20 (PBST), pH 7.4, for 3 minutes by placing the plate on low speed shaker after each step of incubation. After the washing steps of the secondary antibody, 100 µL of substrate 1 step pNPP (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Lafayette, CO) was added to each well and allowed to develop color for 30 minutes. The reaction was stopped by the addition of 50 µL of 2 N NaOH in all the wells. Absorbance was measured at 405 nm using Biotek Synergy 2 microplate reader. All tests were performed in triplicate.

Statistical Analysis

Statistical analysis was done using the Student *t* test. All ELISA results were expressed as state OD at 405 nm ± SD. A *P*-value ≤ 0.05 was considered as statistically significant.

RESULTS

All patients and controls had consented/assented to participate in the study. None of the patients participating in this study had a history of fungal infection.

The ALL patients' ages ranged from 5 to 23 years. This group consisted of 26 white, 9 Hispanic, 4 black, and 1 individual of Asian ancestry. ALL patients were in full remission, and all but 5 long-term survivors, were actively receiving chemotherapy. Plasma of 3 newly diagnosed patients had a reaction to the SAF similar to those in remission, but for uniformity of the data, only remission patients are included in this report. Off therapy patients had not received chemotherapy for periods ranging from 1 to 3 years.

The first group of controls consisted of 20 healthy blood donors. The second group was that of 26 Black patients with SCD with ages ranging from 9 to 16 years undergoing partial exchange transfusion. The third control group were 17 white, 9 Hispanic, and 4 black patients with a variety of solid tumors.

Electron microscopy of the *A. flavus* revealed the existence of virus-like particles within this organism. The sizes of the particles observed ranged between 30 and 50 nm and were found in

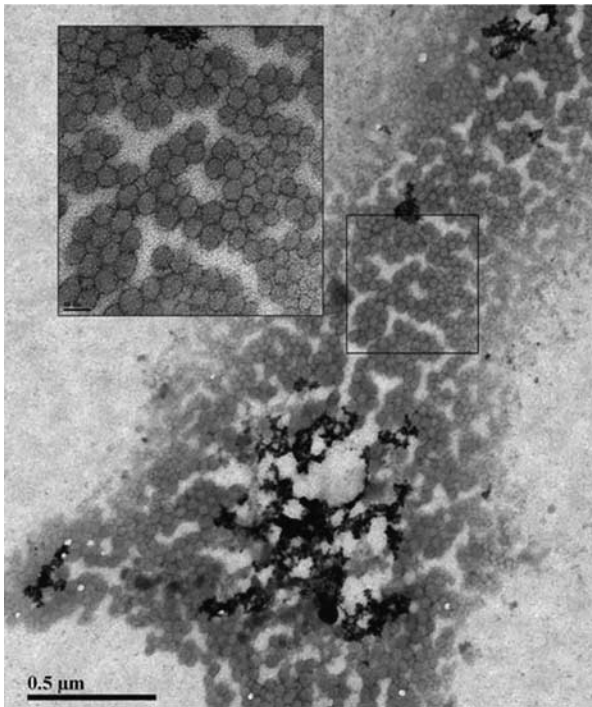


FIGURE 1. Virus-like particles collected from supernatant of glutaraldehyde-fixed suspension culture of *Aspergillus flavus*. The average diameter of particles in this micrograph is 34 nm which represents the most prevalent size seen. Inset (50 nm scale) shows enlarged detail of area in square. Transmission electron microscopy micrograph of formvar-coated copper grid preparation. Contrast-enhanced with aqueous uranyl acetate.

single or aggregate form, with or without patent dense cores. These particles were seen in both, the body of the organism and the culture supernatant (Fig. 1). Smaller and larger particles ranging from 20 and 25 nm and 60 and 80 nm containing dense cores were seen in the hyphae.

The FPLC separation of the supernatant of the culture of mycovirus containing *A. flavus* produced 3 separate peaks (Fig. 2). The FPLC evaluation of EBV revealed 2 peaks (Fig. 2). Combination of the culture of *A. flavus* and EBV produced a pattern which was different than that of FPLC analysis of each culture alone (Fig. 2).

The major probable constituents of the products of mycovirus containing *A. flavus* used in the experiments, as assessed by sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis and confirmed by mass spectrometry, were: dipeptidyl peptidase 5, catalase B, serotransferrin, glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase, acetylxylin esterase A, beta-glucosidase A, leucine aminopeptidase 2, beta-galactosidase A, dipeptidyl peptidase 4, glucan endo 1,3-beta-glucosidase C, glucoamylase, mannosyl-oligosaccharide alpha-1,2-mannosidase 1B, beta-glucosidase M, glucan endo 1,6-beta-glucosidase B, beta-glucosidase G, alpha-galactosidase A, and alpha-galactosidase C.

With the ELISA technique, using filtered unseparated SAF, there was a significant difference between plasma of patients with ALL, that is, 2.07 ± 0.26 SD versus controls including normal individuals (1.31 ± 0.11 SD, $P < 0.001$), or patients with SCD (1.43 ± 0.22 SD, $P < 0.001$), or solid tumors (1.33 ± 1.32 SD, $P < 0.001$) (Fig. 3). The finding was irrespective of time since the diagnosis of ALL and duration of the disease. These differences were not observed comparing the results from plasma of normal individuals to patients with SCD and those with solid tumors ($P > 0.05$). Thus, while SAF could differentiate plasma of patients with ALL from controls, it could not distinguish plasma of

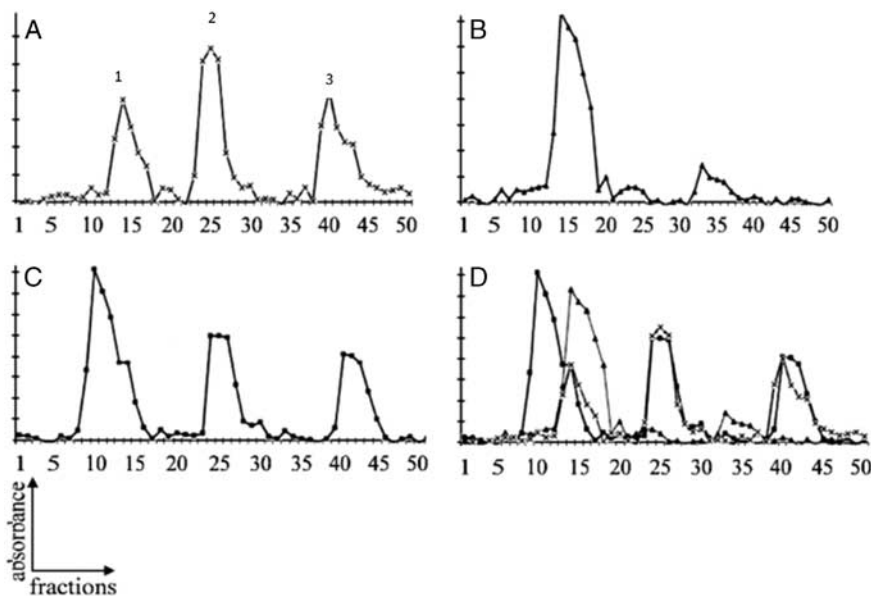


FIGURE 2. Fast protein liquid chromatography fractionation of (A) supernatant of the culture of a mycovirus containing *Aspergillus flavus*, isolated from the home of a patient with acute lymphoblastic leukemia, (B) Epstein-Barr virus (EBV). C, Supernatant of the culture of the mycovirus containing *A. flavus* cocultured with EBV. D, Superimposed peaks of A, B, and C. Peaks obtained with coculture of the supernatant of the culture of *A. flavus* with EBV are different than each organism cultured alone.

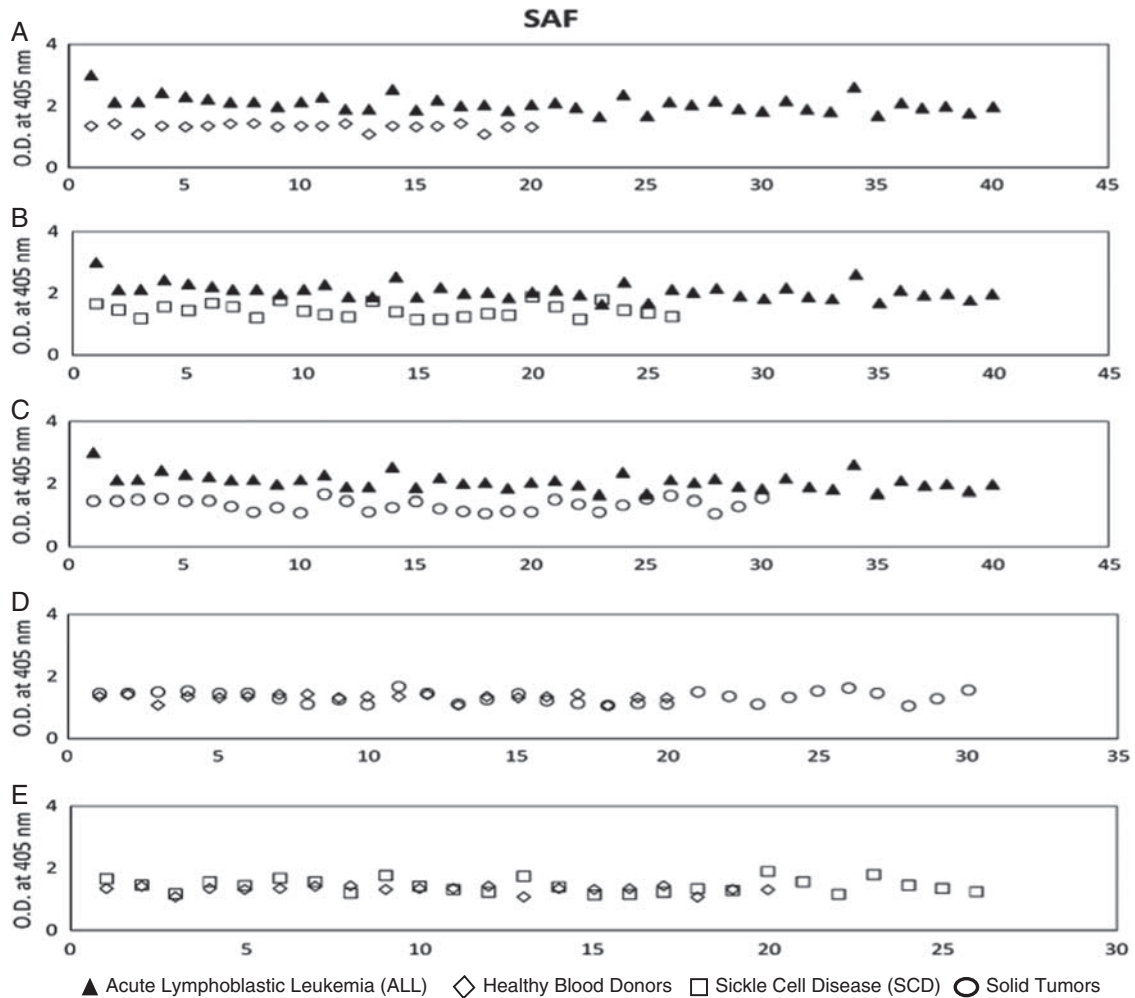


FIGURE 3. Reactivity of the supernatant of mycovirus containing *Aspergillus flavus* (SAF) using indirect enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay technique and plasma of patients with ALL as compared with normal blood donors ($P < 0.001$) (A), patients with SCD ($P < 0.001$) (B), and solid tumors ($P < 0.001$) (C). While SAF could differentiate plasma of patients with ALL from controls, it did not differentiate plasma of healthy blood donors from those with solid tumors (D) or with SCD (E) ($P > 0.05$).

healthy blood donors from those of patients with SCD or with solid tumors (Fig. 3). There were only a small number of blacks and Hispanics in the cohort of the patients tested, thus excluding meaningful statistical comparisons based on these parameters. However, no gross differences based on race and ethnic background were noted. EBV could differentiate ALL patients (2.04 ± 0.21 SD) from normal individuals (1.33 ± 0.07 SD, $P < 0.001$) and those with SCD (1.4 ± 0.13 , $P < 0.001$) or solid tumors (1.25 ± 0.10 , $P < 0.001$) (Fig. 4). However, addition of EBV to SAF did not enhance the activity of the unseparated supernatant of the culture of *A. flavus* (Fig. 5). The results for the combination of SAF+EBV for plasma of patients with ALL was 2.04 ± 0.15 SD as compared with 1.25 ± 0.15 SD for normal individuals ($P < 0.001$), 1.39 ± 0.15 SD for patients with SCD ($P < 0.001$), and 1.32 ± 0.17 SD for those with solid tumors ($P < 0.001$). These results are not statistically different than those seen by SAF or EBV alone. ALV, which was used as a control for EBV, failed to distinguish ALL patients from the control group including normal individuals, patients with SCD and nonlymphatic solid tumors ($P > 0.05$) (Fig. 6).

When peaks separated by FPLC were tested with indirect ELISA technique, using plasma of ALL patients as compared with controls, peak 1 proved to have the highest activity among the 3 separated peaks ($P \leq 0.001$) (Fig. 7). Indeed, the activity of peak 1 was superior to that of unseparated whole SAF. Peak 3 had a marginal effect. Peak 2 had no significant effect ($P > 0.05$). None of the peaks separated by FPLC reacted to the plasma of the normal individuals or those of SCD or solid tumor patients ($P > 0.05$) (Fig. 7).

DISCUSSION

ALL with an overall incidence of 1.7/100,000 population, occurs both, in adults and children.^{1,2} However, the incidence is much higher in the pediatric age group, amounting to 3.4/100,000 population.¹ The finding of an antibody present in patients with ALL, and not controls, may be of significance and may provide a plasma-based test for screening and diagnosis of ALL. Furthermore, it provides a consistent organism involved in this disease. Of note

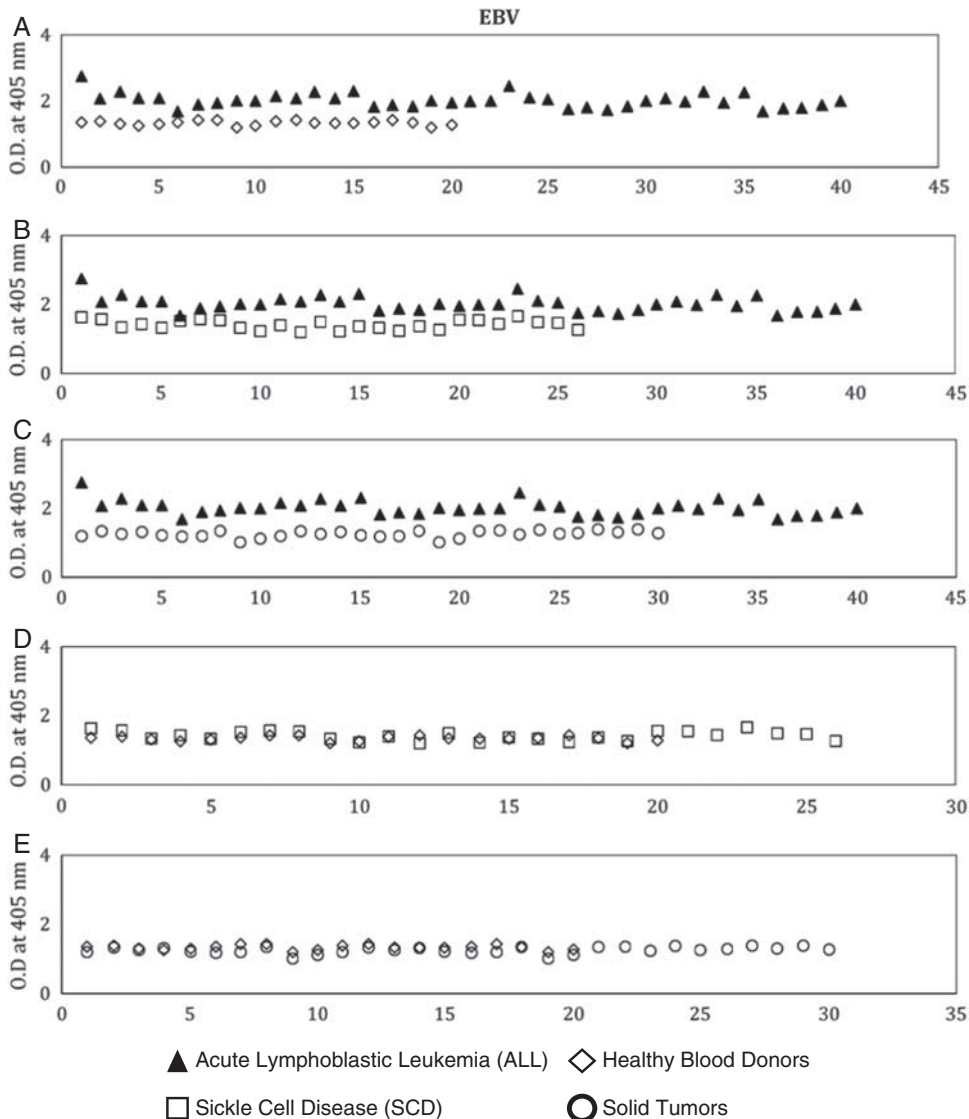


FIGURE 4. Reactivity of the supernatant of the mycovirus containing *Aspergillus Flavus* (SAF) incubated with Epstein-Barr virus (EBV) using indirect enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay technique and plasma of patients with ALL as compared with controls ie. A, Healthy blood donors ($P < 0.001$), (B) patients with SCD ($P < 0.001$), and (C) solid tumors ($P < 0.001$). The combination did not significantly alter the results obtained with SAF alone. While the combination could differentiate plasma of patients with ALL from controls, it did not differentiate plasma of healthy blood donors from those with solid tumors (D) or those with SCD (E) ($P > 0.05$).

is the presence of this antibody in the plasma of the patients regardless of the time of diagnosis and duration of the disease. The findings also may provide support for the recently proposed modified 2-hit theory.³ This theory concerns genetic factors as well as prenatal initiation lesion and abnormal immune response to 1 or more common infections as triggers for the development of ALL.³ While various genomic profiling, including genome-wide association studies, have revealed evidence of multiple gene variant involvement as risk factors for ALL,⁴⁻⁷ no specific group of infections so far has been identified.

Despite significant progress made in the treatment of ALL, the etiology of this disease is subject to speculation. Numerous factors contributing to the development of ALL have been suggested. These include genetic and epigenetic factors and defined medical disorders,⁸⁻¹⁶ exposure to

ionizing radiation,¹⁷⁻²⁰ magnetic fields,^{21,22} various parental, family and social factors,²³⁻²⁷ birth history,²⁸⁻³⁰ nutritional variables,³¹⁻³³ early exposure to infections and day care attendance,³⁴⁻³⁶ allergies or aberrant immune responses,^{37,38} exposure to chemicals,³⁹ preexisting conditions, genetic variations and disorders such as myelodysplastic syndrome.⁴⁰⁻⁴³ Socioeconomic factors and population mixing causing an increased in occurrence of ALL has been reported, but not uniformly accepted.^{44,45}

Generally, certain infectious agents, including viruses, bacteria, and parasites are reported to increase risk of cancer.⁴⁶⁻⁵⁰ Recent data reveals substantial microbial contribution to some types of cancer. Examination of the whole-genome and the whole transcriptome sequencing studies in Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) in untreated oncology patients has revealed unique microbial signatures

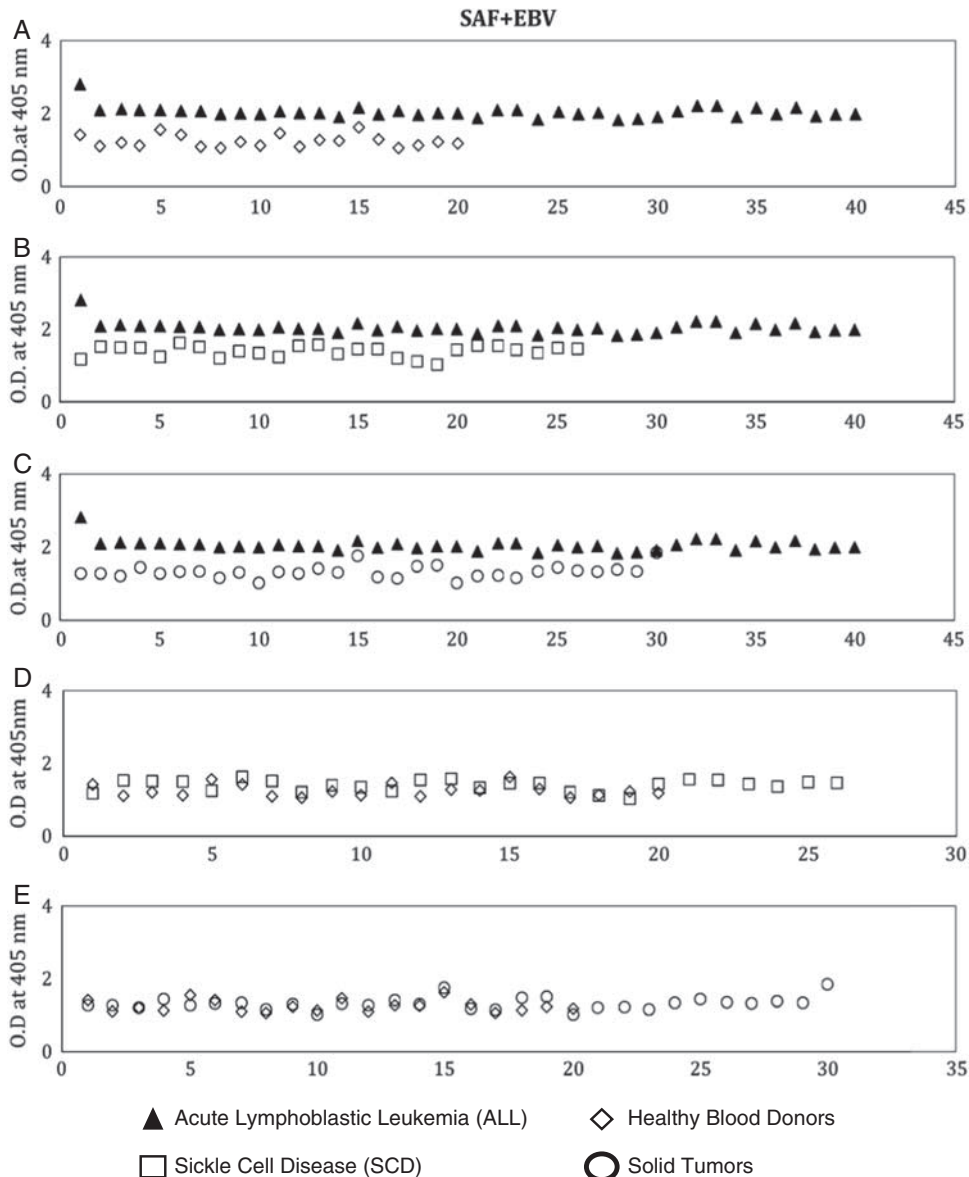


FIGURE 5. Reactivity of the supernatant of a mycovirus containing *Aspergillus flavus* (SAF) incubated with Epstein-Barr virus (EBV) to the plasma of patients with ALL using indirect enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay technique as compared with normal blood donors ($P < 0.001$) (A), patients with SCD ($P < 0.001$) (B), and solid tumors ($P < 0.001$) (C). While a coincubated SAF and EBV could differentiate plasma of patients with ALL from controls, it did not differentiate plasma of healthy blood donors from those with solid tumors (D) or with SCD (E) ($P > 0.05$).

in tissue and blood within and between most major types of cancer.⁵⁰ Infections have been suspected to have a role in the development of ALL, an assumption without the availability of a consistent agent.^{3,35,36,51-54} The association of EBV and Burkitt's lymphoma in the endemic area of Eastern Africa is well documented. However, lack of universal application of the finding, characteristic 8;14 chromosomal translocation resulting in constitutive activation of c-Myc oncogene, variation in viral gene expression in subgroups of patients, effects of EBV oncoproteins, p53 mutations and a host of other factors have complicated this association.⁵³ The effect of early exposure to EBV during the first 2 years of life, resulting in a serologic response, has been explored.⁵³ In our experiments, while EBV alone could

distinguish ALL patients from controls, its addition to SAF failed to change the effects of SAF in distinguishing ALL patients from controls. Of interest is that in FPLC analysis, the combination of the culture of *A. flavus* and EBV produced a pattern which was different from FPLC analysis of each culture alone. Substitution of ALV for EBV, which was used as a control, failed to distinguish ALL patients from controls or alter the results.

In FPLC-separated SAF, peak 1 had the most activity in ELISA test, differentiating ALL from controls. This significantly exceeded that of unseparated SAF. Therefore, this peak may have potential to be utilized as a reagent in ELISA test for screening or diagnosis of ALL.

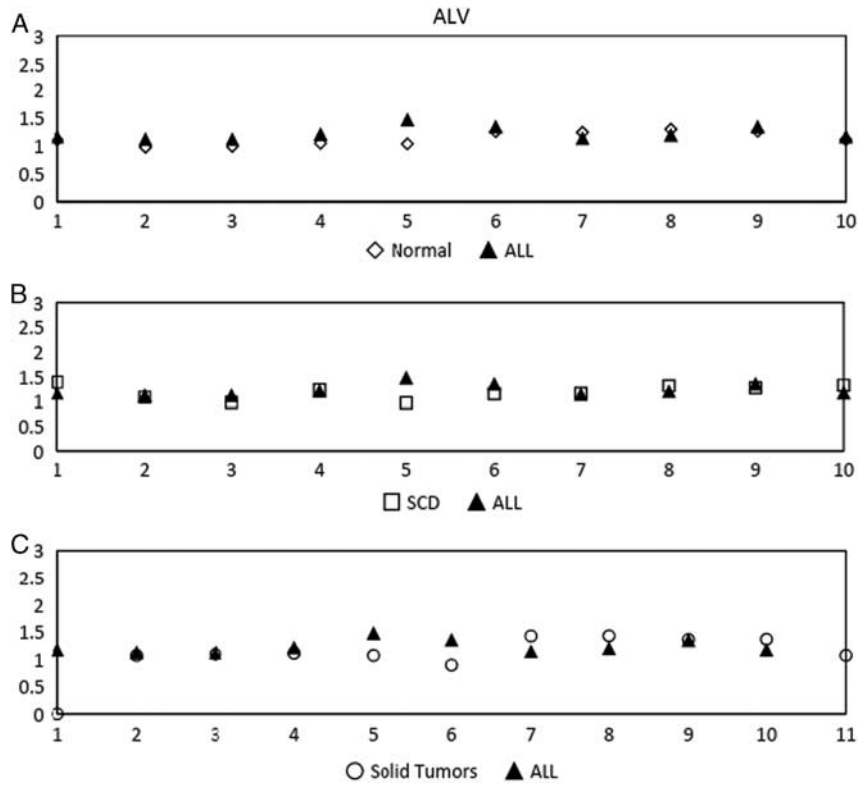


FIGURE 6. Reactivity of avian leukosis virus (ALV) in patients with acute lymphoblastic leukemia (ALL) as compared with (A) normal individuals ($P > 0.05$), (B) patients with sickle cell disease (SCD) ($P > 0.05$), and (C) patients solid tumors ($P > 0.05$) using enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay technique.

Our findings introduce supernatant of a mycovirus containing *A. flavus* as a test for possible screening and diagnostic test for ALL. The fact that plasma of patients with ALL reacted to this organism, as shown by ELISA technique, is of significance.

This along with our findings that exposure of the peripheral blood mononuclear cells of ALL patients in remission to SAF results in the genetic and ALL-like cell surface marker changes (C.K.T., A.B., E.S., J.J.P., A.N.A., S.P., F.M., Unpublished

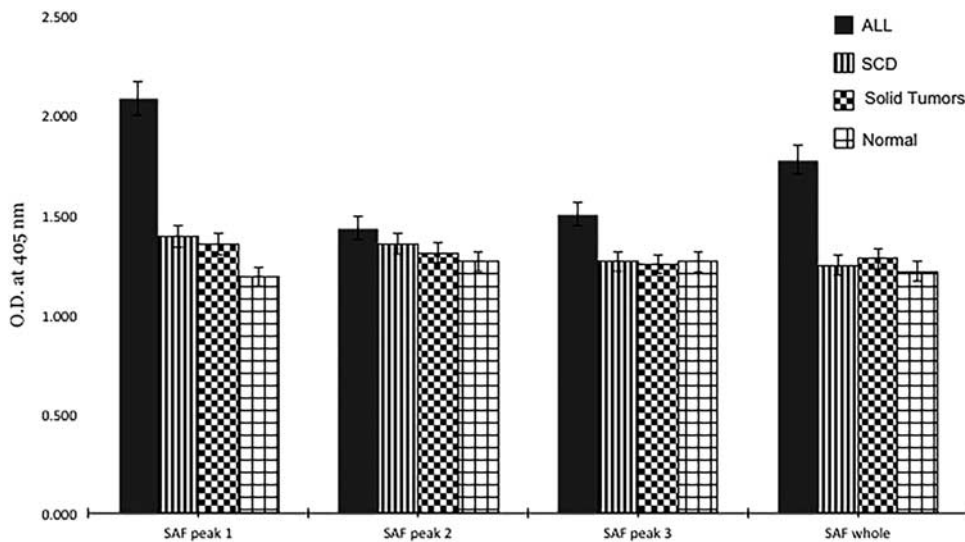


FIGURE 7. Reactivity of the whole supernatant of the culture of mycovirus containing *Aspergillus flavus* (SAF) and 3 peaks obtained by fast protein liquid chromatography, using an indirect enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay technique. Each individual peak is tested with the plasma of patients with acute lymphoblastic leukemia (ALL), sickle cell disease (SCD), solid tumors, and normal patients. SAF peak 1 showed the most reactivity with the ALL plasma using indirect enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay technique as compared with the SCD, individuals with solid tumors, and normal group ($P < 0.001$).

data) may provide mycovirus containing *A. flavus* as a consistent infection agent, with and without EBV, to be explored for future research in the process of leukemogenesis.

Fungal organisms in general, and *Aspergillus* species in particular, are widely distributed in the environment. Carcinogenic effects of fungi are well recognized⁵⁵ but the full mechanism of their action is not entirely clear. Mycotoxins, including aflatoxins, ochratoxin A, fumonisins, certain trichothecenes, and zearalenone, which are produced by fungal agents, are known to be carcinogens.⁵⁵ In the electron microscopy evaluation, the *A. flavus* used in our experiments proved to contain mycovirus particles. Double-stranded RNA infections are known to occur and remain in *Aspergillus* section *Flavi*, regardless of the length of being in culture as is the case in our isolate.⁵⁶ Chemical analysis of the culture of the mycovirus containing *A. flavus* used in our described experiments, revealed no evidence of aflatoxin production. Some studies have shown that fungi, as virus hosts, provide a unique platform for virus/virus and virus/host interactions⁵⁷ and can block the production of aflatoxin.^{58,59} This appears to be the case in the *A. flavus* utilized in our studies. Few reports of fungal isolation from residences of leukemic patients are published,^{60–63} but their carcinogenic impacts were attributed to immunosuppression,^{62,63} and aflatoxin exposure,⁶¹ not direct effect as we have shown in our studies. In one report, sera from 36 patients with cancer, 15 of whom had leukemia or lymphoid malignancy, utilizing a modified microimmunodiffusion technique, the supernatant of the culture of *Aspergillus* produced 30% precipitation in cancer patients versus 6% in controls.⁶² This was attributed to aflatoxin. As noted before, in multiple tests our mycovirus infected *A. flavus* did not produce any aflatoxin.

It is of interest that in the present study, mycovirus containing *A. flavus* was isolated from the home of a patient with ALL. With ELISA technique, it was possible to distinguish patients with ALL in remission from “normal” controls and those with solid tumors. These studies present a preliminary information for future research and for a plasma-based test for screening and diagnosis of ALL. A significant research and further evaluation to better understand the mechanism of action of SAF is needed.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors acknowledge contributions and work done on a contract basis by Dr Jinyi Zhu, of Protein Production Core facilities of the University of South Florida (USF), for protein purification and mass spectrometry; Amanda Garces of Advanced Imaging Core Laboratories at USF for electron microscopy evaluation and Robert Buzzeo-Hill of the Department of Cell Biology, Microbiology, and Molecular Biology at USF for microarray analysis.

REFERENCES

- Siegel DA, Henley SJ, Li J, et al. Rates and trends of pediatric acute lymphoblastic leukemia—United States, 2001–2014. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep*. 2017;66:950–95.
- Faderl S, O'Brien S, Pui CH, et al. Adult acute lymphoblastic leukemia: concepts and strategies. *Cancer*. 2010;116:1165–1176.
- Greaves M. A causal mechanism for childhood acute lymphoblastic leukaemia. *Nat Rev Cancer*. 2018;18:471–484.
- Mullighan CG. Molecular genetics of B-cell precursor acute lymphoblastic leukemia. *J Clin Invest*. 2012;122:3407–3415.
- Schwab CJ, Chilton L, Morrison H, et al. Genes commonly deleted in childhood B-cell precursor acute lymphoblastic leukemia: association with cytogenetics and clinical features. *Haematologica*. 2013;98:1081–1088.
- Vijayakrishnan J, Studd J, Broderick P, et al. Genome-wide association study identifies susceptibility loci for B-cell childhood acute lymphoblastic leukemia. *Nat Commun*. 2018;9:1340–1360.
- Vijayakrishnan J, Houlston RS. Candidate gene association studies and risk of childhood acute lymphoblastic leukemia: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Haematologica*. 2010;95:1405–1414.
- Mori H, Colman SM, Xiao Z, et al. Chromosome translocations and covert leukemic clones are generated during normal fetal development. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*. 2002;99:8242–8247.
- Wiemels JL, Leonard BC, Wang Y, et al. Site-specific translocation and evidence of postnatal origin of the t(1;19) E2A-PBX1 fusion in childhood acute lymphoblastic leukemia. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*. 2002;99:15101–15106.
- Greaves MF, Maia AT, Wiemels JL, Ford AM. Leukemia in twins: lessons in natural history. *Blood*. 2003;102:2321–2333.
- Kharazmi E, da Silva Filho MI, Pukkala E, et al. Familial risks for childhood acute lymphocytic leukaemia in Sweden and Finland: far exceeding the effects of known germline variants. *Br J Haematol*. 2012;159:585–588.
- Krajinovic M, Lamothe S, Labuda D, et al. Role of MTHFR genetic polymorphisms in the susceptibility to childhood acute lymphoblastic leukemia. *Blood*. 2004;103:252–257.
- Whitlock JA. Down syndrome and acute lymphoblastic leukaemia. *Br J Haematol*. 2006;135:595–602.
- Toledano SR, Lange BJ. Ataxia-telangiectasia and acute lymphoblastic leukemia. *Cancer*. 1980;45:1675–1678.
- Alter BP. Cancer in Fanconi anemia, 1927–2001. *Cancer*. 2003;97:425–440.
- Stiller CA, Chessells JM, Fitchett M. Neurofibromatosis and childhood leukaemia/lymphoma: a population-based UKCCSG study. *Br J Cancer*. 1994;70:969–972.
- Hsu AL, Preston DL, Soda M, et al. The Incidence of leukemia, lymphoma and multiple myeloma among atomic bomb survivors: 1950–2001. *Radiat Res*. 2013;179:361–382.
- Court-Brown WM, Doll R, Hill AB. Incidence of leukemia after exposure to diagnostic radiation in utero. *Br Med J*. 1960;2:1539–1545.
- Bartley K, Metayer C, Selvin S, et al. Diagnostic x-rays and risk of childhood leukaemia. *Int J Epidemiol*. 2010;39:1628–1637.
- Gardner MJ. Review of reported increases of childhood cancer rates in the vicinity of nuclear installations in the UK. *J R Stat Soc A Stat*. 1989;152:307–325.
- Linnet MS, Hatch EE, Kleinerman RA, et al. Residential exposure to magnetic fields and acute lymphoblastic leukemia in children. *N Engl J Med*. 1997;337:1–7.
- Brain JD, Kavet R, McCormich DL, et al. Childhood leukemia: electric and magnetic fields as possible risk factors. *Environ Health Perspect*. 2003;111:962–970.
- Bray I, Gunnell D, Smith GD. Advanced paternal age: how old is too old? *J Epidemiol Community Health*. 2006;60:851–853.
- Van Steensel-Moll HA, Valkenburg HA, Van Zanen GE. Childhood leukemia and parental occupation: a register-based case-control study. *Am J Epidemiol*. 1985;121:216–224.
- Shu XO, Ross J, Pendergrass T, et al. Parental alcohol consumption, cigarette smoking, and risk of infant leukemia: a Childrens Cancer Group study. *J Natl Cancer Inst*. 1996;88:24–31.
- Kuo Y, Yu CL, Liu CY, et al. A population-based, case-control study of green tea consumption and leukemia risk in southwestern Taiwan. *Cancer Causes Control*. 2009;20:57–65.
- Pang D, McNally R, Birch JM. Parental smoking and childhood cancer: results from the United Kingdom Childhood Cancer Study. *Br J Cancer*. 2003;88:373–381.
- Marcotte EL, Thomopoulos TP, Infante-Rivard C, et al. Caesarean delivery and risk of childhood leukaemia: a pooled analysis from the Childhood Leukemia International Consortium (CLIC). *Lancet Haematol*. 2016;3:e176–e185.
- Roman E, Lightfoot T, Smith AG, et al. Childhood acute lymphoblastic leukaemia and birthweight: insights from a pooled

- analysis of case-control data from Germany, the United Kingdom and the United States. *Eur J Cancer*. 2013;49:1437–1447.
30. Westergaard T, Frisch M, Pedersen JB, et al. Birth characteristics, sibling patterns, and acute leukemia risk in childhood: a population-based cohort study. *J Natl Cancer Inst*. 1997;89:939–947.
 31. Amita EL, Keinan-Boker L. Breastfeeding and childhood leukemia incidence: a meta-analysis and systematic review. *JAMA Pediatr*. 2015;169:e151025.
 32. Blot WJ, Henderson BE, Boice JD Jr. Childhood cancer in relation to cured meat intake: review of the epidemiological evidence. *Nutr Cancer*. 1999;34:111–118.
 33. Jensen CD, Block G, Buffler P, et al. Maternal dietary risk factors in childhood acute lymphoblastic leukemia (United States). *Cancer Causes Control*. 2004;15:559–570.
 34. Olszak T, An D, Zeissig S, et al. Microbial exposure during early life has persistent effects on natural killer T cell function. *Science*. 2012;336:489–493.
 35. Neglia JP, Linet MS, Shu XO, et al. Patterns of infection and day care utilization and risk factors of childhood acute lymphoblastic leukemia. *Br J Cancer*. 2000;82:234–240.
 36. Urayama KY, Buffler PA, Gallagher ER, et al. A meta-analysis of the association between day-care attendance and childhood acute lymphoblastic leukaemia. *Int J Epidemiol*. 2010;39:718–732.
 37. Spector L, Groves F, DeStefano F, et al. Vaccine Safety Datalink Project. Medically recorded allergies and the risk of childhood acute lymphoblastic leukemia. *Eur J Cancer*. 2004;40:579–584.
 38. Schuz J, Kaletsch U, Meinert R, et al. Association of childhood leukaemia with factors related to the immune system. *Br J Cancer*. 1999;80:585–590.
 39. Rinsky RA, Smith AB, Hornung R, et al. Benzene and leukemia. An epidemiologic risk assessment. *N Engl J Med*. 1987;316:1044–1050.
 40. Schütte P, Möricke A, Zimmermann M, et al. Preexisting conditions in pediatric ALL patients: spectrum, frequency and clinical impact. *Eur J Med Genet*. 2016;59:143–151.
 41. Moriyama T, Relling MV, Yang JJ. Inherited genetic variation in childhood acute lymphoblastic leukemia. *Blood*. 2015;125:3988–3995.
 42. Hunger SP, Mullighan CG. Redefining ALL classification: toward detecting high-risk ALL and implementing precision medicine. *Blood*. 2015;125:3977–3987.
 43. Sato N, Nakazato T, Kizaki M, et al. Transformation of myelodysplastic syndrome to acute lymphoblastic leukemia: a case report and review of the literature. *Int J Hematol*. 2004;79:147–151.
 44. Kinlen LJ, Clarke K, Hudson C. Evidence from population mixing in British New Towns 1946–85 of an infective basis for childhood leukaemia. *Lancet*. 1990;336:577–582.
 45. van Laar M, Stark DP, McKinney P, et al. Population mixing for leukaemia, lymphoma and CNS tumours in teenagers and young adults in England, 1996–2005. *BMC Cancer*. 2014;14:698–704.
 46. Jin C, Lagoudas GK, Zhao C, Bullman S, et al. Commensal microbiota promote lung cancer development via $\gamma\delta$ T cells. *Cell*. 2019;176:998–1013.
 47. Meisel M, Hinterleitner R, Pacis A, et al. Microbial signals drive pre-leukaemic myeloproliferation in a Tet2-deficient host. *Nature*. 2018;557:580–584.
 48. Shanmughapriya S, Senthilkumar G, Vinodhini K, et al. Viral and bacterial aetiologies of epithelial ovarian cancer. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis*. 2012;31:2311–2317.
 49. Uemura N, Okamoto S, Yamamoto S, et al. *Helicobacter pylori* infection and the development of gastric cancer. *N Engl J Med*. 2001;345:784–789.
 50. Poore GD, Kopylova E, Zhu Q, et al. Microbiome analyses of blood and tissues suggest cancer diagnostic approach. *Nature*. 2020;579:567–574.
 51. Greaves MF, Alexander FE. An infectious etiology for common acute lymphoblastic leukemia in childhood? *Leukemia*. 1993;7:349–360.
 52. Martin-Lorenzo A, Hauer J, Vicente-Duenas C, et al. Infection exposure is a causal factor in B-cell precursor acute lymphoblastic leukemia as a result of Pax5-inherited susceptibility. *Cancer Discov*. 2015;5:1328–1343.
 53. Rowe M, Fitzsimmons L, Bell AI. Epstein-Barr virus and Burkitt lymphoma. *Chin J Cancer*. 2014;33:609–619.
 54. Bartenhagen C, Fischer U, Korn K, et al. Infection as a cause of childhood leukemia-virus detection employing whole genome sequencing. *Haematologica*. 2017;102:e179–e183.
 55. Pitt JI. Toxigenic fungi: which are important? *Med Mycol*. 2010;38(suppl 1):17–22.
 56. Elias KS, Cotty PJ. Incidence and stability of infection by double-stranded RNA genetic elements in *Aspergillus* section *Flavi* and effects on aflatoxigenicity. *Can J Bot*. 1996;74:716–725.
 57. Hisano S, Zhang R, Faruk MI, et al. A neo-virus lifestyle exhibited by a (+) ssRNA virus hosted in an unrelated dsRNA virus: taxonomic and evolutionary considerations. *Virus Res*. 2018;244:75–83.
 58. Schmidt FR. The RNA interference-virus interplay: tools of nature for gene modulation, morphogenesis, evolution and a possible mean for aflatoxin control. *Appl Microbiol Biotechnol*. 2009;83:611–615.
 59. Kotta-Loizou I, Coutts RHA. Mycoviruses in Aspergilli: a comprehensive review. *Front Microbiol*. 2017;8:1699–1714.
 60. McPhedran P, Heath CW Jr. Multiple cases of leukemia associated with one house. *JAMA*. 1969;209:2021–2025.
 61. Wray BB, O'Steen KG. Mycotoxin-producing fungi from house associated with leukemia. *Arch Environ Health*. 1975;30:571–573.
 62. Wray BB, Harmon CA, Rushing EJ, et al. Precipitins to an aflatoxin-producing strain of aspergillus flavus in patients with malignancy. *J Cancer Res Clin Oncol*. 1982;103:181–185.
 63. Wray BB, Rushing EJ, Boyd RC, et al. Suppression of phytohemagglutinin response by fungi from a "leukemia" house. *Arch Environ Health*. 1979;34:350–353.