

Review Article

Pathogenesis of Acute Lymphoblastic Leukemia

Farhad Hajjalizadeh^{1, †}, Ali namjpour^{2, †}, Shahin Aghamiri^{3, †}, Shiva Bayat⁴, Soodeh Namjoo^{5, *}, Farhad Zaker^{6, *}

¹MD College of Veterinary Medicine of Urmia Branch of Islamic Azad University - College of Veterinary Medicine, Urmia Branch, Islamic Azad University, Urmia, Iran.

²Virology Division, Department of Pathobiology, School of Public Health, Tehran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran.

³Department of Medical Biotechnology, School of Advanced Technologies in Medicine, Tehran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran

⁴Department of genetic, School of Medicine, Tehran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran

⁵Department of Hematology and blood banking of Iran University of Medical Sciences - Allied Medical Sciences - Iran University of Medical Sciences - Tehran – Iran

⁶Cellular and Molecular Research Center, Iran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran

Received: 22 September, 2017; Accepted: 23 April, 2018

Abstract

Acute lymphoblastic leukemia (ALL) is a hematological malignant disease characterized by an enhanced self-renewal ability of precursor lymphoid cells whose cell division takes more time than their normal counterparts.

ALL occurs most between 2 to 5 years of age and during the sixth decade of life. There is a strong relationship between the time ALL occurrence in children and the genetic abnormalities which are identified by the rate of leukemic concordance between identical twins.

About 90% of ALL cases do not have a clear etiological mechanism. Genetic syndromes, polymorphic variants genes, germline mutations, and some environmental factors are responsible for less than 10% of ALL predisposition but the pathogenesis mechanism of ALL is not identified precisely.

Here we review the recent findings and earlier studies about the pathogenesis of acute lymphoblastic leukemia and its incidence. This article also summarizes the identification of predictive factors for ALL and options available to predict disease recurrence.

Keywords: Acute lymphoblastic leukemia, Genetic abnormalities, Incidence, Pathogenesis.

*Corresponding Author: Soodeh Namjoo E-mail: nsodeh@yahoo.com; Farhad Zaker E-mail: farhadz20@yahoo.co.uk.

† These authors contributed equally to this work.

Please cite this article as: Hajjalizadeh F, Namjpour A, Aghamiri Sh, Bayat Sh, Namjoo S, Zaker F. Pathogenesis of Acute Lymphoblastic Leukemia. Arch Med Lab Sci. 2018;4(1):41-45.

Introduction

Leukemia is one of the most important human challenges worldwide, which causes physical problems. Acute Lymphoblastic Leukemia (ALL) is a malignant disease on B- or T-cell lineage lymphoid progenitor (1, 2). Also, ALL can occur at any age in both children and adults, with the most incidence between the age of 2 to 5 years or in infants (3, 4). Pediatric ALL is an example of successful improvement in chemotherapy regimens and their

survival probability has increased from 77% in the three past decades (5), up to 90% (6). The occurrence of relapse in ALL is high in adults (7). Chromosomal abnormalities and imperfect genes are very important factors in the evaluation of leukemia. The four common chromosomal abnormalities in pediatric ALL including t(12;21)(p12;q22)/ETV6-RUNX1, t(1;19)(q23;p13)/TCF3-PBX1, t(9;22)(q34;q11)/BCR-ABL and t(4;11)(q21;q23)/MLL-AF4 (8) along with gene mutation in lymphoid differentiation regulator proteins e.g. Pax5 lead to promotion of ALL. The exact pathogenetic mechanisms in the development of acute

lymphoblastic leukemia are unknown. Only some cases are genetic syndromes, such as Down syndrome, Bloom's syndrome, ataxia-telangiectasia, and Nijmegen breakage syndrome (9). In ALL, extramedullary localizations in the central nervous system (CNS), lymph nodes, gonads, spleen or liver can occur (10).

The aim of this study is to review the pathogenesis, chromosomal abnormalities, and epidemiology of ALL in children and the rate of relapse in adults which can help improve its diagnosis and treatment in patients.

Incidence

ALL is the proliferation and accumulation of lymphoid progenitor cells in the bone marrow and other tissues (11). The number of new cases and deaths in ALL patients diagnosed each year from 2012 to 2015 increased in USA (12, 13). Patients, out of whom 60 % are people younger than 20 years of age, are mostly children. (3, 14-16). The pediatric oncology group has reported survival in 85% to 95% of low-risk ALL patients in 2006 to 2009 (17). The incidence of childhood ALL is about 4–5 cases per 100,000 children (18). In Mexico, the Popular Medical Insurance (PMI) reported an incidence of 62.5 cases per one million/year (19). B-cell acute lymphoblastic leukemia (B-ALL) is observed in 50% of patients (20), Philadelphia chromosome (Ph)-positive ALL in 50% to 60% of patients (21, 22), and T-cell acute lymphoblastic leukemia (T-ALL) in 50% to 60% of patients (23). Acute lymphoblastic leukemia report of

osteoporosis was observed in bone marrow more than 25% blasts and leukopenia (24). The two major skeletal complications of leukemia are osteoporosis and avascular necrosis (25). A bone mineral accumulation process happened during the period corresponding to the onset of most childhood ALLs (26). Among the complications, musculoskeletal pain, disturbed gait, fractures, kyphosis, lordosis, and growth failure have been described. Pathological fractures and vertebral collapses secondary to severe osteopenia (leukemic osteopathy) may occur (27). In the childhood cancer study, long-term had an incidence of 73% chronic health conditions and mortality that was 11 times (28-30). Cardiovascular toxicities, including cardiomyopathy, coronary artery disease, and arrhythmias are among the most common serious adverse events (31, 32). According to national cancer institute in Brazil, between 25% to 35% of all cancer types represent leukemia, and acute lymphoblastic leukemia is the most common between 0 to 14 years of age (33). The global estimated incidence of B-ALL is around 1 to 5 per 100,000 persons per year (34).

Risk factors

Genetic Syndromes

The precise pathogenetic events leading to the development of ALL are unknown. Down syndrome, Bloom syndrome, ataxia-telangiectasia mutated (ATM), and Nijmegen breakage syndrome is the genetic syndromes that may occur in ALL (35-38), an estimated frequency of specific genotypes of ALL in children and adults are shown in Table 1 (39). Down

Table1. Estimated Frequency of Specific Genotypes of ALL in Children and Adults

Abnormality	Children (%)	Adults (%)
Hyperdiploidy >50 chromosomes	25	7
Hypodiploidy <45 chromosomes	1	2
t(12;21) TEL-AML1	22	2
t(8;14),t(2;8), t(8;22) MYC	2	4
t(1;19) E2A-PBX1	5	3
t(9;22) BCR-ABL	3	25
t(4;11),t(11;19), t(9;11) MLL rearrangements	8	10
Others	22	23
HOX11L2 5q35*	2.5	1
LYL1 19p13*	1.5	2.5
TAL1 1p32*	7	12
HOX11 10q24*	0.7	8
MLL-ENL*	0.3	0.5

*Abnormalities T-cell ALL

syndrome is a heterogeneous disorder in ALL patients, including subtypes recognized with identical genetic abnormalities found in people, such as hyperdiploidy greater than 50 and [ETV6-RUNX1]t(12;21) (40, 41). CRLF2 dysregulation is found in approximately 60% of sporadic pediatric DS-ALL patients, which is an indicating factor in the development of DS subtype (42). The study showed that fusion and activation of P2RY8-CRLF2 with JAK mutations are observed in half of ALL patients with Down Syndrome (43, 44). Also, other genetic events including IKZF1 deletion have been found in ALL with Down syndrome (45-47). Patients of ATM (ataxia-telangiectasia mutated) of the specific T-cell phenotype are at greater risk of leukemia than lymphoma (48). Overall, pathogenetic disorders cause acute lymphoblastic leukemia in population.

Environmental factors

The environmental factors that cause ALL include ionizing radiation, utero exposure to ionizing radiation, postnatal exposure to ionizing radiation, nonionizing radiation, alcohol cigarette and illicit drug use.

Ionizing radiation. A case-control study has recognized that 1 percent of leukemia is a result of a slight increase in exposure to ionizing radiation (49, 50). Ionizing radiation is one of the few exposures for which the causal relationship with childhood leukemia has been established (51, 52). Ionizing radiation exposure can cause leukemia during preconception, pregnancy, or the postnatal period.

In Utero exposure to ionizing radiation. In utero exposure to diagnostic x-rays does not decrease the risk of ALL, although there is a positive correlation with the number of exposures(53). A lot of studies have attempted to determine the effect of radiation exposure in utero and development of leukemia related to the atomic bomb exposures at the end of World War two in Japan, the Chernobyl (Russia) accident. Increase in risk of childhood leukemia as a result of the atomic bomb has yet been shown (53, 54).

Postnatal exposure to ionizing radiation. In second world war, atomic bomb blasts increased the risk of childhood leukemia, similar to radiotherapy for benign diseases in postnatal exposure (55). Although to date, children who were exposed to Chernobyl

accident have shown no increased risk of leukemia (56, 57). The study found no significant risk of ALL, although three or more were exposed to radiation (58).

Nonionizing radiation. Many epidemiologic studies have been conducted to determine the link between an exposure to nonionizing Electromagnetic Fields (EMFs) and childhood leukemia (59-61). Moreover, research on animals with exposure to higher levels of EMFs than humans haven't shown increased hematopoietic neoplasm (62). Therefore, no significant increased risk of ALL was found based on EMF levels for mother during pregnancy (63).

Alcohol, cigarette, and illicit drug use. Studies have shown an increased risk of childhood leukemia, especially among young children, associated with maternal alcohol consumption during pregnancy (64, 65). Whether smoking before or during pregnancy is a risk factor for childhood leukemia is unknown (66). based on the children's cancer group, maternal use of marijuana before or during pregnancy has been associated with childhood ALL (67).

Conclusion

In conclusion, the review showed the pathogenesis of acute lymphoblastic leukemia and its incidence. Furthermore, important factors such as genetic disorders and environmental factors causing ALL are described. Also, the prevalence of the disease in patients with genetic defects around the world has been mentioned. Thus, important factors in the pathogenesis of acute lymphoblastic leukemia patients were identified to improve health.

Conflicts of interest

The Authors declare that there are no conflicts of interests.

References

1. Cobaleda C, Sánchez-García I. B-cell acute lymphoblastic leukaemia: towards understanding its cellular origin. *Bioessays*. 2009;31(6):600-9.
2. Campo E, Swerdlow SH, Harris NL, Pileri S, Stein H, Jaffe ES. The 2008 WHO classification of lymphoid neoplasms and beyond: evolving concepts and practical applications. *Blood*. 2011;117(19):5019-32.
3. Pui C-H, Robison LL, Look AT. Acute lymphoblastic leukaemia. *The Lancet*. 2008;371(9617):1030-43.

4. Zuckerman T, Rowe JM. Pathogenesis and prognostication in acute lymphoblastic leukemia. *F1000Prime Rep.* 2014;6(59):1-5.
5. Möricke A, Zimmermann M, Reiter A, Henze G, Schrauder A, Gadner H, et al. Long-term results of five consecutive trials in childhood acute lymphoblastic leukemia performed by the ALL-BFM study group from 1981 to 2000. *Leukemia.* 2010;24(2):265-84.
6. Conter V, Bartram CR, Valsecchi MG, Schrauder A, Panzer-Grümayer R, Möricke A, et al. Molecular response to treatment redefines all prognostic factors in children and adolescents with B-cell precursor acute lymphoblastic leukemia: results in 3184 patients of the AIEOP-BFM ALL 2000 study. *Blood.* 2010;115(16):3206-14.
7. Fielding AK, Richards SM, Chopra R, Lazarus HM, Litzow MR, Buck G, et al. Outcome of 609 adults after relapse of acute lymphoblastic leukemia (ALL); an MRC UKALL12/ECOG 2993 study. *Blood.* 2007;109(3):944-50.
8. Moorman AV, Ensor HM, Richards SM, Chilton L, Schwab C, Kinsey SE, et al. Prognostic effect of chromosomal abnormalities in childhood B-cell precursor acute lymphoblastic leukaemia: results from the UK Medical Research Council ALL97/99 randomised trial. *The lancet oncology.* 2010;11(5):429-38.
9. Hjalgrim LL, Westergaard T, Rostgaard K, Schmiegelow K, Melbye M, Hjalgrim H, et al. Birth weight as a risk factor for childhood leukemia: a meta-analysis of 18 epidemiologic studies. *American journal of epidemiology.* 2003;158(8):724-35.
10. Le Jeune C, Thomas X. Potential for bispecific T-cell engagers: role of blinatumomab in acute lymphoblastic leukemia. *Drug design, development and therapy.* 2016;10:757.
11. Jabbour E, O'Brien S, Konopleva M, Kantarjian H. New insights into the pathophysiology and therapy of adult acute lymphoblastic leukemia. *Cancer.* 2015;121(15):2517-28.
12. Siegel R, Naishadham D, Jemal A. *Cancer statistics, 2012.* CA: a cancer journal for clinicians. 2012;62(1):10-29.
13. Siegel RL, Miller KD, Jemal A. *Cancer statistics, 2015.* CA: a cancer journal for clinicians. 2015;65(1):5-29.
14. Stanulla M, Schrappe M, editors. *Treatment of childhood acute lymphoblastic leukemia.* Seminars in hematology; 2009: Elsevier.
15. Hunger SP, Lu X, Devidas M, Camitta BM, Gaynon PS, Winick NJ, et al. Improved survival for children and adolescents with acute lymphoblastic leukemia between 1990 and 2005: a report from the children's oncology group. *Journal of Clinical Oncology.* 2012;JCO. 2011.37. 8018.
16. Bassan R, Hoelzer D. Modern therapy of acute lymphoblastic leukemia. *Journal of clinical oncology.* 2011;29(5):532-43.
17. Hunger SP, Loh ML, Whitlock JA, Winick NJ, Carroll WL, Devidas M, et al. Children's Oncology Group's 2013 blueprint for research: acute lymphoblastic leukemia. *Pediatric blood & cancer.* 2013;60(6):957-63.
18. Kaatsch P. Epidemiology of childhood cancer. *Cancer treatment reviews.* 2010;36(4):277-85.
19. Rivera-Luna R, Correa-González C, Altamirano-Alvarez E, Sánchez-Zubieta F, Cárdenas-Cardós R, Escamilla-Asian G, et al. Incidence of childhood cancer among Mexican children registered under a public medical insurance program. *International Journal of Cancer.* 2013;132(7):1646-50.
20. Thomas DA, Kantarjian HM, Faderl S, Wierda WG, Cortes J, Burger JA, et al. Chemoimmunotherapy with a Modified Hyper-CVAD and Rituximab Regimen Improves Outcome for Patients with De Novo Philadelphia Negative Precursor B-Cell Acute Lymphoblastic Leukemia (ALL). *Blood.* 2009;114(22):836-.
21. Fielding AK, Rowe JM, Buck G, Foroni L, Gerrard G, Litzow MR, et al. UKALLXII/ECOG2993: addition of imatinib to a standard treatment regimen enhances long-term outcomes in Philadelphia positive acute lymphoblastic leukemia. *Blood.* 2014;123(6):843-50.
22. Ravandi F, O'Brien S, Thomas D, Faderl S, Jones D, Garris R, et al. First report of phase 2 study of dasatinib with hyper-CVAD for the frontline treatment of patients with Philadelphia chromosome-positive (Ph+) acute lymphoblastic leukemia. *Blood.* 2010;116(12):2070-7.
23. Jain P, Kantarjian H, Ravandi F, Thomas D, O'Brien S, Kadia T, et al. The combination of hyper-CVAD plus nelarabine as frontline therapy in adult T-cell acute lymphoblastic leukemia and T-lymphoblastic lymphoma: MD Anderson Cancer Center experience. *Leukemia.* 2014;28(4):973-5.
24. Salim H, Ariawati K, Suryawan WB, Arimbawa M. Osteoporosis resulting from acute lymphoblastic leukemia in a 7-year-old boy: a case report. *Journal of medical case reports.* 2014;8(1):1.
25. Strauss AJ, Su JT, Dalton VMK, Gelber RD, Sallan SE, Silverman LB. Bony morbidity in children treated for acute lymphoblastic leukemia. *Journal of Clinical Oncology.* 2001;19(12):3066-72.
26. Kaste S, Jones-Wallace D, Rose S, Boyett J, Lustig R, Rivera G, et al. Bone mineral decrements in survivors of childhood acute lymphoblastic leukemia: frequency of occurrence and risk factors for their development. *Leukemia.* 2001;15(5):728-34.
27. Smith OP, Hann IM. Clinical features and therapy of lymphoblastic leukemia. *Pediatric Hematology, Third Edition.* 2006:450-81.
28. Oeffinger KC, Mertens AC, Sklar CA, Kawashima T, Hudson MM, Meadows AT, et al. Chronic health conditions in adult survivors of childhood cancer. *New England Journal of Medicine.* 2006;355(15):1572-82.
29. Armstrong GT, Liu Q, Yasui Y, Neglia JP, Leisenring W, Robison LL, et al. Late mortality among 5-year survivors of childhood cancer: a summary from the Childhood Cancer Survivor Study. *Journal of Clinical Oncology.* 2009;27(14):2328-38.
30. Reulen RC, Winter DL, Frobisher C, Lancashire ER, Stiller CA, Jenney ME, et al. Long-term cause-specific mortality among survivors of childhood cancer. *Jama.* 2010;304(2):172-9.
31. Lipshultz SE, Colan SD, Gelber RD, Perez-Atayde AR, Sallan SE, Sanders SP. Late cardiac effects of doxorubicin therapy for acute lymphoblastic leukemia in childhood. *New England Journal of Medicine.* 1991;324(12):808-15.
32. Lipshultz SE, Lipsitz SR, Sallan SE, Dalton VM, Mone SM, Gelber RD, et al. Chronic progressive cardiac dysfunction years after doxorubicin therapy for childhood acute lymphoblastic leukemia. *Journal of clinical oncology : official journal of the American Society of Clinical Oncology.* 2005;23(12):2629-36.
33. de Andrade JM. Limitações para o sucesso do rastreamento do câncer de colo no Brasil. *Rev Bras Ginecol Obstet.* 2012;14049(34):900.
34. Loghavi S, Kutok JL, Jorgensen JL. B-acute lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoblastic lymphoma. *American journal of clinical pathology.* 2015;144(3):393-410.
35. Lee P, Bhansali R, Izraeli S, Hijjiya N, Crispino J. The biology, pathogenesis and clinical aspects of acute lymphoblastic leukemia in children with down syndrome. *Leukemia.* 2016.

36. Varon R, Reis A, Henze G, Einsiedel HG, Sperling K, Seeger K. Mutations in the Nijmegen Breakage Syndrome gene (NBS1) in childhood acute lymphoblastic leukemia (ALL). *Cancer research*. 2001;61(9):3570-2.
37. German J, Bloom D, Passarge E. Bloom's syndrome. V. Surveillance for cancer in affected families. *Clinical genetics*. 1977;12(3):162-8.
38. Boulwood J. Ataxia telangiectasia gene mutations in leukaemia and lymphoma. *Journal of clinical pathology*. 2001;54(7):512-6.
39. Pui C-H, Relling MV, Downing JR. Acute lymphoblastic leukemia. *New England Journal of Medicine*. 2004;350(15):1535-48.
40. Forestier E, Izraeli S, Beverloo B, Haas O, Pession A, Michalová K, et al. Cytogenetic features of acute lymphoblastic and myeloid leukemias in pediatric patients with Down syndrome: an iBFM-SG study. *Blood*. 2008;111(3):1575-83.
41. Izraeli S, Vora A, Zwaan CM, Whitlock J. How I treat ALL in Down's syndrome: pathobiology and management. *Blood*. 2014;123(1):35-40.
42. Izraeli S. Similar yet different. *Blood*. 2010;116(7):1019-20.
43. Mullighan CG, Zhang J, Harvey RC, Collins-Underwood JR, Schulman BA, Phillips LA, et al. JAK mutations in high-risk childhood acute lymphoblastic leukemia. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*. 2009;106(23):9414-8.
44. Mullighan CG, Collins-Underwood JR, Phillips LA, Loudin MG, Liu W, Zhang J, et al. Rearrangement of CRLF2 in B-progenitor- and Down syndrome-associated acute lymphoblastic leukemia. *Nature genetics*. 2009;41(11):1243-6.
45. Hertzberg L, Vendramini E, Ganmore I, Cazzaniga G, Schmitz M, Chalker J, et al. Down syndrome acute lymphoblastic leukemia, a highly heterogeneous disease in which aberrant expression of CRLF2 is associated with mutated JAK2: a report from the International BFM Study Group. *Blood*. 2010;115(5):1006-17.
46. Olsson L, Johansson B. Ikaros and leukaemia. *British journal of haematology*. 2015;169(4):479-91.
47. Asai D, Imamura T, Suenobu Si, Saito A, Hasegawa D, Deguchi T, et al. IKZF1 deletion is associated with a poor outcome in pediatric B-cell precursor acute lymphoblastic leukemia in Japan. *Cancer medicine*. 2013;2(3):412-9.
48. Liberzon E, Avigad S, Stark B, Zilberstein J, Freedman L, Gorfine M, et al. Germ-line ATM gene alterations are associated with susceptibility to sporadic T-cell acute lymphoblastic leukemia in children. *Genes, Chromosomes and Cancer*. 2004;39(2):161-6.
49. Draper G, Vincent T, Kroll ME, Swanson J. Childhood cancer in relation to distance from high voltage power lines in England and Wales: a case-control study. *Bmj*. 2005;330(7503):1290.
50. Sermage-Faure C, Demoury C, Rudant J, Goujon-Bellec S, Guyot-Goubin A, Deschamps F, et al. Childhood leukaemia close to high-voltage power lines—the Geocap study, 2002–2007. *British journal of cancer*. 2013;108(9):1899-906.
51. Mahoney MC, Moysich KB, McCarthy PL, McDonald RC, Stepanenko VF, Day RW, et al. The Chernobyl childhood leukemia study: background & lessons learned. *Environmental Health*. 2004;3(1):1.
52. Ron E. Ionizing radiation and cancer risk: evidence from epidemiology. *Radiation research*. 1998;150(5s):S30-S41.
53. Doll R, Wakeford R. Risk of childhood cancer from fetal irradiation. *The British journal of radiology*. 1997;70(830):130-9.
54. Neel JV, Schull WJ. The children of atomic bomb survivors: a genetic study. National Academies Press; 1991.
55. Boice JD. Cancer following irradiation in childhood and adolescence. *Medical and Pediatric Oncology*. 1996;27(S1):29-34.
56. Moysich KB, Menezes RJ, Michalek AM. Chernobyl-related ionising radiation exposure and cancer risk: an epidemiological review. *The Lancet Oncology*. 2002;3(5):269-79.
57. Parkin D, Clayton D, Black R, Masuyer E, Friedl H, Ivanov E, et al. Childhood leukaemia in Europe after Chernobyl: 5 year follow-up. *British journal of cancer*. 1996;73(8):1006.
58. Shu XO, Potter JD, Linet MS, Severson RK, Han D, Kersey JH, et al. Diagnostic X-rays and ultrasound exposure and risk of childhood acute lymphoblastic leukemia by immunophenotype. *Cancer Epidemiology Biomarkers & Prevention*. 2002;11(2):177-85.
59. Ahlbom A, Day N, Feychting M, Roman E, Skinner J, Dockerty J, et al. A pooled analysis of magnetic fields and childhood leukaemia. *British journal of cancer*. 2000;83(5):692.
60. Greenland S, Sheppard AR, Kaune WT, Poole C, Kelsh MA, Group CL-ES. A pooled analysis of magnetic fields, wire codes, and childhood leukemia. *Epidemiology*. 2000;11(6):624-34.
61. Infante-Rivard C, Deadman JE. Maternal occupational exposure to extremely low frequency magnetic fields during pregnancy and childhood leukemia. *Epidemiology*. 2003;14(4):437-41.
62. Brain JD, Kavet R, McCormick DL, Poole C, Silverman LB, Smith TJ, et al. Childhood leukemia: electric and magnetic fields as possible risk factors. *Environmental Health Perspectives*. 2003;111(7):962.
63. Linet MS, Hatch EE, Kleinerman RA, Robison LL, Kaune WT, Friedman DR, et al. Residential exposure to magnetic fields and acute lymphoblastic leukemia in children. *New England journal of medicine*. 1997;337(1):1-8.
64. Shu X-O, Ross JA, Pendergrass TW, Reaman GH, Lampkin B, Robison LL. Parental alcohol consumption, cigarette smoking, and risk of infant leukemia: a Childrens Cancer Group study. *Journal of the National Cancer Institute*. 1996;88(1):24-31.
65. van Duijn CM, van Steensel-Moll HA, Coebergh J, van Zanen GE. Risk factors for childhood acute non-lymphocytic leukemia: an association with maternal alcohol consumption during pregnancy? *Cancer Epidemiology Biomarkers & Prevention*. 1994;3(6):457-60.
66. Brondum J, Shu XO, Steinbuch M, Severson RK, Potter JD, Robison LL. Parental cigarette smoking and the risk of acute leukemia in children. *Cancer*. 1999;85(6):1380-8.
67. Robison LL, Buckley JD, Daigle AE, Wells R, Benjamin D, Arthur DC, et al. Maternal drug use and risk of childhood nonlymphoblastic leukemia among offspring. An epidemiologic investigation implicating marijuana (a report from the Childrens Cancer Study Group). *Cancer*. 1989;63(10):1904-11.