This reprint was reproduced with the permission of: Canadian Journal of Allergy & Clinical Immunology Volume 4, No 3, 1999

# **Common Allergenic Foods and Their Labelling in Canada - A Review**

Marion Zarkadas, MSc, Fraser W. Scott, PhD, John Salminen, BASc, Antony Ham Pong, MBBS, FRCPC

© Canadian Journal of Allergy & Clinical Immunology 1999; 4(3): 118-141.

# CONTENTS

18	Abstract
18	Introduction
19	Purpose
19	Scope
19	Consensus
19	History of "Allergen" Lists in Canada
19	Terminology
0	Clinical Manifestations of Allergic Reactions
	Incidence of Adverse Reactions to Foods
	Common Allergenic Foods
	Review of Foods Involved in Adverse Reactions
	Peanuts
	Tree nuts
	Seeds
	Soy
	Milk Mills all and
	Milk allergy Milk intolerance
	Lactose intolerance
	Eggs
	Fish
	Crustaceans and shellfish
	Cereals
	Wheat
	Corn
	Rice
	Gluten and celiac disease
	Sulphites
	Other foods
	Fruits and vegetables
	Oral allergy syndrome
	Favism
	Chocolate Monosodiurn glutamate
	Other food-related concerns
	Latex allergy
	∝-amylase
	Novel foods derived through genetic engineering
	Canada's Present Labelling Regulations
	Foods presently exempt from ingredient and component declarations
	Class names
	Unspecific common names
	Hydrolyzed plant proteins
	Modified starch
	Unexpected or Hidden Sources of Foods Causing Adverse Reactions
	National Allergy Alerts
	Precautionary Labelling
	Recommendations
	Conclusion
	References

# **Common Allergenic Foods and Their Labelling in Canada** — A Review

Marion Zarkadas, MSc, Fraser W. Scott, PhD, John Salminen, BASc, Antony Ham Pong, MBBS, FRCPC

#### ABSTRACT

*Objective:* To develop a scientifically based list of foods known to cause severe adverse reactions in hypersensitive individuals, which should always be declared on the labels of prepackaged foods.

*Options:* Consideration was given to those foods most commonly identified as causing medical problems that are seriously debilitating, life threatening, or are associated with increased risk of serious chronic disease.

*Outcomes:* Provision of more complete ingredient information on prepackaged foods for individuals with food sensitivities; reduction of food-related illness and possible fatalities; and a reduction in costs resulting from food recalls by food manufacturers and importers.

*Evidence:* A search of MEDLINE was conducted to identify studies on the foods most commonly involved in severe adverse reactions. Emphasis was placed on randomized, placebo-controlled clinical trials and case control studies, when available. International proceedings were reviewed. Articles were grouped according to the foods in question and the impact of labelling the proposed foods was examined.

*Values:* The working group (the authors) consisted of representatives of the Canadian Food Inspection Agency (CFIA), the Health Protection Branch, Health Canada, and a practicing pediatric allergist, in consultation with the Canadian Society of Allergy and Clinical Immunology, the Allergy/Asthma Information Association, the Canadian Celiac Association, and other experts in food allergies and sensitivities in Canada and the United States, and Canada's food industry. *Benefits, Harms, and Costs:* Implementation of the recommendations would enable individuals with food sensitivities to choose a wider variety of safe, prepackaged foods; there would be potential for lower health care costs, fewer allergy investigations, fewer costly food recalls, less time lost from work, and fewer liability suits against food manufacturers. Costs to industry would involve stricter manufacturing procedures and analytical controls, and more complete ingredient lists on the labels of prepackaged foods.

Recommendations: 1. The following foods and their derivatives, when added as ingredients or components of ingredients to prepackaged foods, should always be declared on food labels by their specific common names: peanuts, tree nuts (almonds, Brazil nuts, cashews, hazelnuts [filberts], macadamia nuts, pecans, pine nuts, pistachios, walnuts), sesame seeds, milk, eggs, fish, Crustacea (e.g., crab, crayfish, lobster, shrimp), and shellfish (e.g., clams, mussels, oysters, scallops), soy, wheat, sulphites. 2. The plant species should be identified in the common names on food labels of all forms of hydrolyzed plant proteins and starches and lecithin (e.g., hydrolyzed soy protein, modified wheat starch, soy lecithin). 3. Food manufacturers, importers, distributors, and food service establishments should develop an Allergen Prevention Plan to manage allergy risks.

Validation: These recommendations have been reviewed and fully endorsed by the Canadian Food Inspection Agency (CFIA), Health Canada, the Canadian Society of Allergy and Clinical Immunology, the Allergy/ Asthma Information Association, and the Canadian Celiac Association.

*Sponsors:* The Canadian Food Inspection Agency (CFIA) and Health Canada.

#### INTRODUCTION

The Canadian *Food and Drug Regulations* (Canada, Health and Welfare) require most prepackaged foods to have a complete list of ingredients. These regulations, however, exempt certain foods and food mixtures from an ingredient list, and others from a declaration of their components (ingredients of ingredients). Also certain common names, which are allowed to be used on food labels, do not require

M. Zarkadas — Policy and Legislation Officer, Canadian Food Inspection Agency; F.W. Scott — Research Scientist, Bureau of Nutritional Sciences, Health Canada; J. Salminen — Acting Chief, Bureau of Chemical Safety, Health Canada; A. Ham Pong — Consultant in Allergy and Immunology in private practice and at the Children's Hospital of Eastern Ontario; Clinical Lecturer in Pediatrics, University of Ottawa, Ottawa, Ontario.

Correspondence to: Marion Zarkadas, MSc, Canadian Food Inspection Agency, 59 Camelot Drive, Nepean, Ontario, K1A 0Y9, e-mail: «mzarkadas@em.agr.ca»

a declaration of the plant source, e.g., hydrolyzed plant protein. As a result of these regulations, certain prepackaged foods may contain undeclared ingredients or components that could cause severe adverse reactions in hypersensitive individuals. Cross-contamination before, during, and after manufacture is another major reason for antigenic ingredients being present, but undeclared, in prepackaged foods.

In 1993 Health Canada initiated a major review of the *Food and Drug Regulations*. During consultations with health agencies, consumers, industry, and government, numerous requests were made for more complete labelling of the foods most commonly involved in severe adverse reactions.

## THE PURPOSE OF THIS DOCUMENT IS THEREFORE:

- to identify, from the scientific literature, the most common foods causing severe adverse reactions in hypersensitive individuals;
- to clarify the impact of present *Food and Drug Regulations* on the labelling of the proposed list of foods;
- to recommend changes to the *Food and Drug Regulations* to improve labelling of food ingredients known to cause adverse reactions in Canadians.

# SCOPE OF THIS DOCUMENT

Consideration is given only to those foods most commonly identified as causing medical problems that are seriously debilitating, life threatening, or are associated with increased risk of serious chronic disease.

#### **CONSENSUS**

The recommendations of the working group were reviewed and fully endorsed by the Canadian Society of Allergy and Clinical Immunology. Full endorsement was also given by the Allergy/Asthma Information Association and the Canadian Celiac Association. The recommendations were also endorsed by involved government departments.

#### HISTORY OF "ALLERGEN" LISTS IN CANADA

Since its incorporation in 1970, the Allergy/Asthma Information Association has identified and provided information to Canadians about a variety of foods causing adverse reactions. In response to increased demands for information about possible "allergens" in restaurant foods, the Canadian Restaurant and Foodservices Association, in cooperation with the Department of Health and Welfare Canada, the Allergy/Asthma Information Association, and the Canadian Society of Allergy and Clinical Immunology, developed a list of foods commonly involved in adverse reactions.<sup>1</sup> In 1991, the Allergy Aware Program,<sup>2</sup> was launched in a number of Canadian restaurants, in which various "allergens" were identified in menu items (Table I).

In preparation for the introduction of an Allergy Beware Program in 1993, the then Grocery Product Manufacturers of Canada, in conjunction with the Allergy/Asthma Information Association and the Department of Health and Welfare Canada, developed a list of the most common foods causing anaphylaxis in Canada (Table I). This voluntary program was developed to make food production companies more aware of the impact of food allergens, and to develop strategies at the plant level to reduce the possibility of undeclared allergens being present in foods.<sup>3</sup>

In 1993, the Codex Committee on Food Labelling, of the international Codex Alimentarius Commission, discussed a proposal to amend the Codex General Standard for the Labelling of Prepackaged Foods, which included a proposed list of allergenic foods that should always be identified on food labels.<sup>4</sup> This list was subsequently revised and a draft list of the foods most commonly involved in severe adverse reactions was accepted in principle by the Codex Committee on Food Labelling in 1998.<sup>5</sup> The development of specific criteria for making additions/deletions to the Codex list of food allergens is in progress. Table I compares this proposed Codex list with others from Canada, the United Kingdom, and the United States.

#### TERMINOLOGY

The terminology surrounding adverse reactions to food has been very confusing.<sup>6</sup> The following terms, as used in this paper, are adapted from Anderson.<sup>7</sup>

Adverse Food Reaction (sensitivity): a general term that can be applied to a clinically abnormal response to an exposure to a food or food component. This term includes both food allergy and food intolerance.

*Food Intolerance:* a general term describing an abnormal physiologic response to an ingested food or food component. This reaction is not proved to be immunologic, and can include idiosyncratic, metabolic, or toxic responses to food or food components.

*Food Allergy (hypersensitivity):* an immunologic (usually IgE-related) reaction resulting from the ingestion and in some cases skin contact or inhalation of a food or food additive, and is unrelated to any physiologic effect of the food or food component. This term may include any food reaction known to involve an immune mechanism, e.g., celiac disease.

*Food Anaphylaxis:* severe, sometimes fatal, allergic reaction to food, in which the immunologic activity of IgE antibodies and the release of chemical mediators are involved.

Food Group	FAO/WHO	Canada				UK	USA
· · · · <b>r</b>	Codex Committee on Food Labelling (proposed) <sup>s</sup>	Allergy Aware <sup>2</sup>	Allergy Beware <sup>280</sup>	Canadian Paediatric Society <sup>56</sup>	Health Canada and CFIA (proposed) (1999)	Hide et al., 1994 <sup>281</sup>	USFDA <sup>282</sup>
cereals	cereals containing gluten i.e., wheat, rye, barley, oats, spelt, or their hybridized strains and products of these	corn, wheat, gluten			wheat	wheat	wheat
fish	Crustacea and products of these; fish and fish products	fish, seafood	fish, shellfish	fish, shellfish	fish, Crustacea, and shellfish		fish, Crustacea, mollusks
eggs	eggs and egg products	eggs	eggs	eggs	eggs	eggs	eggs
legumes, seeds	peanuts, soy beans and products of these; tree nuts and nut products	peanuts, soybeans, nuts and seeds	peanuts, nuts	peanuts, tree nuts soy	peanuts, tree nuts, sesame seeds, soy	peanuts, tree nuts, soy	peanuts tree nuts soy
milk	milk and milk products (lactose included)	dairy products, lactose		milk	milk	milk	milk
sulfites	sulfites >10 mg/kg	sulphites	sulphites		sulphites		
others		animal fats and oils MSG, tartrazine	S,				

# CLINICAL MANIFESTATIONS

OF ALLERGIC REACTIONS

Allergic reactions to foods usually involve the glycoprotein portion of a food,<sup>8</sup> and may be described as classical Type I IgE-mediated reactions. Such reactions can range in severity from a skin rash or slight itching of the mouth, to migraine headaches,<sup>9</sup> to anaphylactic shock and death.<sup>10</sup> The route of allergen administration, dosage, frequency of exposure, and genetic factors all determine the type and severity of an individual's allergic response.<sup>11</sup> Although a wide variety of foods have been reported to cause allergic reactions,<sup>12</sup> this paper deals with those foods most commonly reported.

Anaphylactic reactions to foods are unexpected and frequently occur within minutes of ingestion, but occasionally the initial reaction may delay as long as 4 hours. Reactions may be biphasic, with delayed symptoms appearing many hours after the initial reaction.<sup>13</sup> Except in a few cases, the reaction does not last more than 24 hours.<sup>14,15</sup> First observed symptoms may be on the lips, tongue, palate, and throat, and are often characterized by itching, hives, and/or swelling. Entry of the food into the stomach and intestine may cause cramping, nausea, pain, and diarrhea.<sup>16</sup> Subsequent systemic symptoms can involve almost every organ of the body, although the pulmonary and cardiovascular systems are the ones most commonly affected.<sup>10,17</sup> The most dangerous symptoms include breathing difficulties and a drop in blood pressure or shock.<sup>18</sup>

Exercise-induced anaphylaxis, sometimes triggered by the ingestion of wheat, shellfish, celery, and other foods, has been reported.<sup>17,19-22</sup> Exercise-induced anaphylaxis is discussed further under cereals.

Other adverse reactions to foods, although not IgE-mediated, can also be very severe. They may be chronic in nature and can seriously affect the quality of life. For example, consumption of wheat, rye, oats, barley, and triticale increases the risk of lymphoma and osteoporosis in individuals with celiac disease.<sup>23,24</sup> Intolerance to milk, which is a common form of adverse reaction in children, can result in failure to thrive, unless adequate substitutes are given.<sup>25</sup> Most reactions to sulphite are not IgE-mediated, but can be fatal.<sup>26</sup>

## **INCIDENCE OF ADVERSE REACTIONS TO FOODS**

Little precise information is available on the incidence of severe and fatal reactions to foods in Canada, the United States, or other countries, or on the costs associated with such reactions to foods.<sup>27</sup> However, a recent report from the United States indicated that food allergy is the cause of 33% of emergency visits for treatment of anaphylaxis, and peanuts and tree nuts are the foods most often associated with these severe reactions.<sup>28</sup> The severity of anaphylactic reactions varies greatly, and data on the prevalence of anaphylaxis and incidence of anaphylactic reactions are dependent on the inclusion criteria chosen.<sup>29-30</sup> As a result, widely differing incidence and prevalence data are reported.<sup>31</sup> In addition, until recently there has been no code for anaphylaxis in the International Classification of Diseases,<sup>15,32</sup> and because of this, fatalities from foodrelated anaphylaxis may sometimes be recorded as death from asthma or heart failure.33 A standard protocol for assessing these patients and a nationwide study of the incidence of food anaphylaxis are needed.12

Early incidence figures reported from Finland estimated the prevalence of food allergy at 19% at age one, which increased to 27% at three years, and dropped to 8% at six years of age.34 Much lower figures were reported in a prospective trial in the United States, which found that 8% of the children under three years of age had an adverse reaction to at least one food.35 Other authors estimate 2% to 3% of the pediatric population and 1% to 2% of the adult population in the United States suffer from allergic reactions to foods.8 A double-blind placebo-controlled food challenge (DBPCFC) study in the United Kingdom estimated that the prevalence of reactions to eight foods varied between 1.4% and 1.8%. The foods tested were cow milk, egg, wheat, soya, orange, prawns, nuts, and chocolate.36 It has been suggested that these figures may seriously underestimate the prevalence of adverse reactions to foods in the UK.37,38 A best-guess estimate of food allergy prevalence among children in the United Kingdom is less than 4% to 5%.<sup>39</sup> A report from the Netherlands estimated that food allergy and intolerance may affect 2.4% of the adult Dutch population.40 A recent survey of 33,100 individuals in France estimated the prevalence of food allergies at between 2.1% and 3.8%.<sup>41</sup>

It is widely recognized that atopic illness is increasing.<sup>42</sup> This may be partly due to greater awareness and better diagnosis, but additional explanations might include early exposure of infants to a wider variety of allergens, with possible sensitization of the fetus during pregnancy<sup>25,43,44</sup> and of the baby during breast-feeding.<sup>45,46</sup> Modifications to the allergenicity of foods during processing is also suggested as a possible reason for an increase in food allergies.<sup>47</sup> The value of allergen avoidance during pregnancy and lactation and by atopic children has been of interest for many years.<sup>48</sup> A recent prospective controlled study involving food allergy avoidance examined the development of atopy in 165 high-risk children. The treated group consisted of mothers who avoided cow milk, egg, and peanut during the last trimester of pregnancy and during breast-feeding. The children avoided cow milk to age one, egg to age two, and peanut and fish to age three. The controls consisted of mothers and infants who followed standard feeding practices. Despite a significant reduction in food allergy and milk sensitization prior to age two in the treated group, by the age of seven no differences were noted between treated children and controls with respect to food and aeroallergen sensitization, food allergies, atopic dermatitis, and asthma.<sup>49</sup>

Anaphylactic reactions to foods also appear to be increasing,<sup>15</sup> with an estimated minimum of 950 anaphylactic reactions occurring annually in the USA.<sup>32</sup> In Ontario, Canada, there were seven fatal anaphylactic reactions to foods between 1986 and 1991 in children of school age,<sup>50</sup> and others have occurred since. Numerous factors have been reported to contribute to the increase in anaphylaxis including: previous food anaphylaxis, asthma, lack of awareness of the seriousness of food allergy by the person with the allergy or by others, denial of symptoms, failure to inquire about ingredients in foods, inadequate labelling of foods, and inadequate early treatment with epinephrine.<sup>51</sup> The early introduction of antigens into the fetus from the mother's diet or via breast milk are suggested as other possible factors.<sup>25,44,52:54</sup>

Avoiding foods known to cause anaphylaxis is best, but if anaphylaxis does occur, epinephrine (adrenaline) followed by hospital emergency assessment and monitoring is the treatment of choice. Fatal outcomes are most often associated with either not using epinephrine or a delay in its use.<sup>55,56</sup> Most allergists recommend that individuals with anaphylaxis carry self-administered epinephrine in preloaded syringes (e.g., Ana-Kit, EpiPen). It should be noted that not all ambulances in Canada are currently equipped with epinephrine.

It has been predicted that as more protein substances, such as milk- and egg-based fat substitutes,<sup>15</sup> and unlabelled proteins such as milk protein<sup>57</sup> are added to foods, the incidence of anaphylaxis will continue to rise. The need for accurate labelling of foods<sup>57,58</sup> and more data on the incidence and changing patterns of food allergies and intolerances has been stressed.<sup>36,39</sup>

Until the early 1980s, the relationship between food and adverse reactions was based primarily on clinical observations and circumstantial evidence. Skin prick tests have been found to be of some help in diagnosing IgE-mediated reactions to foods, but they tend to result in a high rate of clinically insignificant positive skin tests and a small but significant rate of false negatives.<sup>59</sup> Radioallergosorbent testing (RAST), an in vitro assay for the detection of specific IgE antibodies, has a similar or slightly lower sensitivity than skin prick testing.<sup>60</sup> In 1983, the use of a DBPCFC categorically established the relationship between food and allergy. In this test neither the physician nor the patient knows which patient receives the antigen or the placebo. DBPCFC is now regarded as the "gold standard" by the American Academy of Allergy and Immunology for establishing the relationship between foods and adverse reactions to them.<sup>25</sup> However, DBPCFC is tedious, difficult to implement, should be carried out in a hospital or clinical research setting, and has been described as more of a bronze than a gold standard.<sup>39</sup>

It is interesting to note that individuals' perceptions of their allergies and those of their children often do not closely correspond with the allergies proven by DBPCFC.<sup>61-63</sup> Also of interest is a recent study which indicated that anaphylaxis is probably not linked to sudden infant death syndrome (SIDS).<sup>64</sup>

Strategies to prevent children with severe food allergies from being exposed to a variety of allergenic foods at school, especially peanuts, are being developed in Canada,<sup>65-67</sup> the United States,<sup>18,68-71</sup> and abroad.<sup>72</sup> The Canadian School Boards Association, representing almost 500 school boards in Canada, recently produced national guidelines to help protect school children from allergens such as peanut.<sup>66</sup>

#### **COMMON ALLERGENIC FOODS**

Food allergies are more common in children than in adults, probably because of a more immature gut which is more permeable to undigested proteins.<sup>10</sup> In infants and children, the majority of allergic reactions are to milk, peanuts, and eggs, and to a lesser extent soy and wheat.<sup>45</sup> Although most of these allergies, especially to egg, milk, soy, and wheat, usually disappear by three years of age, some individuals continue to have severe reactions to these foods into adulthood. The foods most commonly associated with allergic reactions in individuals over three years of age are peanuts, tree nuts, fish and shellfish, and eggs, and they are usually life long allergies.<sup>73</sup> It should be noted that severe allergic reactions to certain foods can also develop in adults who previously tolerated these foods well.<sup>74</sup>

Most of the DBPCFC data for food allergies in the United States have been for children. An analysis of the data in 1992 indicated that only seven foods accounted for nearly 95% of the reactions. In descending order of frequency they were: egg (25%), peanut (24%), milk (23%), tree nuts (10%), soy (6%), fish (3%), and wheat (2.5%).<sup>25</sup> In a 16-year study of 480 children with adverse reactions to foods, 11% had adverse reactions to more than one food.<sup>45</sup> In a report of seven fatal food reactions in older children and adults in the United States, the foods implicated were peanut, crustaceans, tree nuts, and fish.<sup>75</sup>

Although reactions to specific foods may vary to some extent from one country to another,<sup>39</sup> there are remarkable similarities among the most common foods reported to be causing severe adverse reactions in Canada, the USA, and the UK (Table I). Recent data from other countries indicate that: in Australia, most frequent food allergies among children are egg (3.2%), milk (2.0%), peanut (1.9%), and sesame (0.4%)<sup>42</sup>; in Britain, peanut allergy now affects approximately 1% of all preschoolers<sup>44</sup>; and in France, among children with food allergies, 40% had an allergy to egg, and 28% to peanut.<sup>41</sup>

The Canadian Pediatric Society has listed peanuts, tree nuts, soy, milk, eggs, fish, Crustacea, and shellfish as the foods most commonly involved in adverse reactions in children in Canada.<sup>56</sup> Following is a review of each of these foods, along with a discussion about other foods and food ingredients commonly reported to be involved in allergy and intolerance reactions.

# **REVIEW OF FOODS INVOLVED** IN ADVERSE REACTIONS

#### Peanuts

Peanuts belong to the legume family. Large quantities of peanuts are consumed both in Canada and the United States, with about half being in the form of peanut butter.<sup>76</sup> Peanut protein has been described as the most dangerous of all food allergens.<sup>11</sup> Yunginger et al.<sup>75</sup> reported on 7 fatal anaphylactic reactions, 4 of which resulted from peanut consumption. Sampson et al.15 described 6 fatal and 7 nearfatal cases of food-induced anaphylaxis. Four of the 13 cases resulted from peanuts, and 3 of them were fatal. Reactions to the smell of peanut butter have been reported in sensitive individuals.76 Peanut allergy is presenting earlier in life. It has been theorized that some babies may be sensitized to peanuts in utero,<sup>25,77</sup> and in some cases it is suspected that sensitization may occur from peanut protein in breast milk, as a result of peanut consumption by nursing mothers.<sup>46</sup> It appears that highly atopic infants are at special risk for sensitization to peanuts.78 Peanut and tree nuts were incriminated in the deaths of 6 out of 7 children who died of anaphylaxis in Ontario, Canada between 1986 and 1991.50

In a recent study from France, the following clinical features of peanut allergy were reported: atopic dermatitis (40%), angioedema (37%), asthma (14%), anaphylactic shock (6%), and digestive symptoms, including abdominal pain and vomiting (1.4%).<sup>79</sup> In an unpublished prospective study of 1081 food-allergic patients, it was found that 21% of all patients diagnosed with peanut allergy developed anaphylactic reactions.<sup>80</sup>

Peanut proteins have been classified as albumins, which are water soluble, and globulins, which are soluble

in saline solutions. The globulins, which comprise about 87% of the total seed proteins, are composed of two fractions, arachin and conarachin. Two purified subfractions of these proteins, *Ara h* I and *Ara h* II, have been reported to be highly allergenic.<sup>81,82</sup> These two fractions have been identified, characterized and partially sequenced. *Ara h* I, a vicilin-like storage protein,<sup>81</sup> has a mean molecular weight of 63.5 kDa and an isoelectric point of 4.55. *Ara h* II, has a mean molecular weight of 17 kDa and an isoelectric point of 5.2.<sup>82</sup> Both *Ara h* I and *Ara h* II have been shown to have multiple IgE binding domains.<sup>11,83</sup>

In a recent study, 14 peanut-allergic subjects were tested with a randomized DBPCFC using doses of peanut protein ranging from 10  $\mu$ g to 50 mg. The threshold dose varied among the study group, with as little as 100  $\mu$ g of peanut protein provoking subjective symptoms in one peanut-sensitive individual.<sup>44</sup> This study reveals that extreme care is needed by food manufacturers and restaurateurs to minimize the risk of cross contamination of foods with peanut protein.

A variety of methods for detecting peanut protein in food samples have been developed and others are presently under development. In 1996, using a peanut-specific polyclonal antibody, Health Canada scientists developed a quantitative immunoassay for peanut protein with a detection limit of 0.4 ppm.<sup>84</sup> The method was subsequently licensed and a commercial test kit is being developed. Canadian Food Inspection Agency (CFIA) laboratories are presently using a semi-quantitative ELISAtest kit (ELISA-TEK) for testing suspected food samples. This test kit is similar to the Health Canada immunoassay, with an estimated detection limit of 0.5 ppm. Another test kit based on the work of Hefle, is a sandwich ELISA with a sensitivity ranging from 2.5 to 25 ppm.<sup>85</sup> Another new test is a rapid dipstick ELISA immunoassay, recommended for detecting peanut contamination in raw materials, processes and products, with a reported detection capability of 100 ppm peanut protein in marzipan, and 1000 ppm in chocolate.86 A relatively low cost peanut method using rocket immunoelectrophoresis (RIA), capable of detecting 10 ppm in chocolate samples, has also been developed for use by food control agencies, and in routine quality control by industry.87

Peanut protein is very heat stable, but it does lose some of its allergenicity during roasting.<sup>88</sup> Peanut allergen has been reported to occur only in the seeds of this legume, and not in the stalks, leaves, roots, or flowers.<sup>89</sup> Refined peanut oil is generally thought to be free of allergenic protein,<sup>77,90</sup> however, the presence of peanut allergen in peanut oil has been reported.<sup>31,41,91,92</sup> It is not clear which processing techniques reduce the protein or alter the allergenic epitopes on peanut protein.<sup>93</sup> However, cold-pressed, expelled, extruded, or unprocessed peanut oils can contain significant amounts of peanut antigen,<sup>94,95</sup> as would oil in which peanuts were roasted.<sup>88</sup> Because of the possibility of the presence of peanut protein in cold-pressed peanut oils, and peanut oils in imported foods, Canada's *Food and Drug Regulations* now require that all forms of peanut oil, including modified, hydrogenated and partially hydrogenated, be identified by plant source on food labels.<sup>96</sup>

Of concern for peanut-allergic individuals are peanuts that have been pressed, deflavored, reflavored, and made to look like other nuts such as almonds, walnuts, pecans, etc. They have sometimes been identified as mandelona nuts, which is not an acceptable common name on food labels in Canada. It has been reported that such products retain their severe antigenicity.<sup>88</sup>

Some peanut-sensitive individuals may also be allergic to one or more tree nuts. One study has recently reported that 50% of those allergic to peanuts also reacted to almonds, 40% to cashews, 30% to pistachio nuts, 26% to Brazil nuts, and 21% to hazelnuts.<sup>41</sup> Cross-reactions with other legumes, including lentils, soy beans, green beans, kidney beans, navy beans, black-eye peas, green peas, and licorice (a member of the pea family),<sup>25</sup> and sweet lupine<sup>97</sup> have also been reported. However, this cross-reactivity is infrequent, with one study reporting only 2 out of 41 (5%) legume-reactive children being allergic to more than one legume.98 Reactions to specific foods may also vary to some extent from one country to another.<sup>39</sup> For this reason, instructions to avoid all foods in a food group should always be based on tested immunologic response and oral challenge, and not just botanical relationships of the foods in question.99

Apparent resolution of peanut allergy has been noted in a small number of young children affected by peanut allergy at a young age.<sup>53,100</sup> However, developing such a tolerance to peanut protein is rare, and most peanut-allergic individuals must avoid all traces of peanuts for life. This may not be as easy as it sounds. In a study of 32 children (1 to 14 years) who were allergic to peanuts, 75% accidentally ingested peanuts during the five years preceding re-evaluation, despite the efforts of all the children and their families.<sup>101</sup>

Attempts have been made to desensitize individuals with severe peanut allergy using rush immunotherapy. This procedure involves a series of injections of peanut extract, but the procedure must be done where highly trained intensive care staff and emergency equipment are available, since allergic reactions to peanut immunotherapy may occur.<sup>102</sup> Although injections of peanut extract have been shown to increase tolerance in some peanut anaphylactic patients, induced tolerance could not be maintained in very sensitive individuals, using the peanut extracts that are presently available.<sup>103</sup>

A novel form of immunotherapy using anti-IgE antibodies to inhibit IgE synthesis and function is being studied for the treatment of IgE-mediated disorders.<sup>104</sup> Whether this therapy can be successfully used to reduce peanut anaphylaxis remains to be seen.

#### **Tree Nuts**

Tree nuts are estimated to be responsible for 10% of all severe adverse reactions to foods in the United States.<sup>25</sup> The main tree nuts of concern include almonds, Brazil nuts, cashews, hazelnuts (filberts), macadamia nuts, pecans, pine nuts (pignolias), pistachio nuts, and walnuts.

In a study of 14 children with 19 DBPCFC proven reactions to nuts, the varieties of nuts involved were: walnut (7), cashew (6), pecan (3), pistachio (2), and filbert (1). In the group, one patient reacted to five varieties of nuts, one patient to two varieties and the others to only one variety each.<sup>101</sup> Of the seven fatalities from anaphylaxis reported by Yunginger, one resulted from ingestion of pecans.75 Of the six fatal and seven near-fatal anaphylactic reactions to food in children reported by Sampson, three fatalities resulted from peanut, and two from cashews. The near-fatal reactions included two from filbert, and one each from peanut, walnut, and Brazil nut. Five of the fatalities took place in public places, four at school, and one at a fair.<sup>15</sup> A death from hazelnut anaphylaxis resulting from 6 mg of hazelnut in a chocolate has been reported from Sweden.<sup>105</sup> A study from the UK has reported anaphylactic reactions to a variety of nuts. The worst reactions to nuts among 172 patients were caused by the following: Brazil nut (9), pistachio (4), walnut (3), almond (3), cashew (3), hazelnut (1). Among this group was one fatal reaction resulting from ingestion of walnut.<sup>31</sup>

Compared to peanuts, less research has been done on the allergens of tree nuts. A study of 12 people with Brazil nut allergy was reported.<sup>106</sup> Ten of these individuals were atopic and all of the patients had an allergic reaction within three minutes of exposure. None of the five patients, who were followed up for eight years, had lost sensitivity to Brazil nuts. Co-existing allergies with other nuts was noted in six patients: peanut (5), hazelnut (2), and walnut (1). Immunoblotting was used to isolate four important groups of proteins in Brazil nuts.

Pistachio nuts, which are a member of the *Anacardiaceae* family, are reported to contain several antigens with molecular weights ranging from >14.2 to 70 kDa. Other members of this plant family are poison ivy, cashew, and mango. Cross-reactivities among pistachio, cashew, and mango seed, but not mango pulp, have been reported.<sup>107</sup>

Pine nuts have also been reported to cause severe allergic reactions in a few individuals.<sup>108-112</sup> Increased allergenicity of pecans due to the formation of neo-allergens during heating and storage has been reported.<sup>113</sup> Certain amino acid sequences in walnuts are reported to be very similar to those of the vicilin group of seed storage proteins.<sup>95</sup> Like peanut allergy, the allergy to tree nuts is usually lifelong.<sup>114</sup>

#### Seeds

Severe reactions to sesame seeds<sup>50,105,115,116</sup> and sesame oil<sup>117</sup> have been reported. One death of an asthmatic child in Ontario was attributed to sesame seed anaphylaxis.<sup>50</sup> An early report<sup>118</sup> stressed the seriousness of sesame allergy, at a time when sesame oil was widely thought to be a safe vehicle for hormone and penicillin injections. Malish et al.115 reported IgE antibodies to sesame seed in three of four patients with suspected anaphylactic reactions to sesame seed and unrefined sesame oil. These authors determined the molecular weights of IgE-binding antigens, and found several antigenic components in sesame seed extract, ranging in molecular weight from <8 to >125 kDa, with the most active allergens in the range of 8 to 62 kDa. Researchers have reported that two proteins, a 14 kDa and a 25 kDa, are most commonly involved in sesame allergenicity.<sup>119</sup> A high degree of cross-reactivity has been reported among sesame seeds, poppy seeds, kiwi fruit, hazelnut, and rye grain.120

Reported symptoms to sesame seeds and oil include stinging of the lips, hives, asthma,<sup>121</sup> plus contact dermatitis from sesame oil, as well as anaphylactic shock to both oil and seeds.<sup>50,116,117</sup>

The incidence of sesame allergy appears to be increasing, likely as a result of sesame seeds and oil being used in a wider variety of foods.<sup>119</sup> In France, nine cases of individuals with proven sesame allergy were tested with DBPCFC using oral doses of sesame seed flour. The most sensitive patient developed hives and pharyngeal itching with 100 mg of sesame seed flour and 3 mL of sesame seed oil.122 Sesame seed has only recently been introduced as a common food in Australia, but is now the fourth most common cause of food allergy in Australian children, with a prevalence of 0.4%, compared to egg (3.2%), cow's milk (2.0%), and peanut (1.9%).<sup>42</sup> This figure represents a higher sensitization than to any one tree nut. It appeared that 60% of the children had been sensitized to sesame by two years of age, and one 11-month-old infant developed edema and hives when given his first taste of tahini, a food which his mother had reported eating during pregnancy and lactation.123

A patient with a serious sesame seed hypersensitivity, but with a negative skin test response and no demonstrable specific IgE antibodies in the serum, was reported.<sup>124</sup> One of 65 cases of food-related anaphylaxis in Sweden was due to sesame.<sup>105</sup> Nine systemic allergic reactions to sesame seeds were reported in Switzerland between 1978 and 1991.<sup>116</sup> Two cases of anaphylaxis to sesame were recently reported in England.<sup>31</sup> Criteria to be used for inclusion of foods in a priority list of allergens, using sesame seed as an example have been discussed.<sup>125</sup>

Severe systemic reactions to cottonseed protein have been reported in seven subjects who consumed a fiber bar containing cottonseed protein,<sup>126</sup> and one person consuming a whole grain bread containing cottonseed protein.<sup>127</sup>

#### Soy

Soybean allergy is considered to be the fourth most common childhood food allergy, after peanuts, cow's milk, and egg.<sup>128</sup> Soybeans, which belong to the legume family, have been used for infant feeding by the Chinese and Japanese for centuries. One report on severe reactions to foods that have been confirmed by DBPCFC in the United States indicated that 6% were caused by soy.<sup>25</sup> One fatal and one near-fatal anaphylactic reaction to soy in hamburger, and one fatal reaction to soy in meat kebabs have been reported in Sweden.<sup>105</sup> The children involved had severe asthma in combination with allergy to peanut. Soy cross-reactivity with peanuts, peas, and beans has been reported, but is not as frequent as was previously believed.<sup>99</sup> However, unlike peanut, an adverse reaction to soy is often lost spontaneously.<sup>129</sup>

An earlier report identified the Kunitz soybean trypsin inhibitor as a specific allergen in soybeans.<sup>130</sup> It now appears that soybean allergy involves several major allergens, and that soybean-allergic individuals might react to quite different soybean proteins.<sup>128</sup> An ELISA for measuring one of the major allergens in soy bean (*Gly m* Bd 30K) has been reported.<sup>131</sup> In preliminary results, the allergen was measured in a range of 5 to 500 ng. A commercial kit for detecting soy in food samples, with a detection limit of 0.5% to 1%, has been developed and is available from Cortecs Diagnostics, Deeside, UK. Another more sensitive immunoassay with a detection limit of 2 ppm has recently been developed for routine surveillance, by industry and regulatory agencies, of the presence of raw or cooked soy in a food matrix.<sup>132</sup>

There have been conflicting reports on the allergenicity of soy oil, with one report indicating detection of soy protein in soy lecithin, soy margarine, and occasionally soy oil,<sup>133</sup> and another reporting that soy oil is not allergenic to soy-sensitive individuals.<sup>134</sup> Soy lecithin has been reported to be an occupational allergen in bakers' asthma.<sup>135</sup> Of interest was a recent study that reported no detectable soy protein in the meat of chickens fed a diet containing 25% soy bean meal.<sup>136</sup>

Children who are allergic to cow milk are often given soy-based formulas. Like milk, large quantities of soy can result in a transient soy protein-induced gastroenteropathy with resultant chronic diarrhea and failure to thrive. Estimates of the number of children who have either IgE-mediated reactions or gastroenteropathy from both milk and soy, range from 10% to 30%.<sup>137</sup> Extensively hydrolyzed casein formulas are often recommended for these children.<sup>138</sup>

Soy bean products are widely used in formulated foods for their functional properties such as texturizing, emulsifying, etc., and are often not recognizable as soy.<sup>139</sup> For this reason it is very important that they always be identified on food labels.

#### Milk

Milk sensitivities are complex and are often not well understood. They are of three types: milk allergy, milk intolerance, and intolerance to lactose.<sup>25,140</sup> Unlike IgEmediated milk reactions, milk intolerance reactions can begin several hours or days after ingestion of moderate and large amounts of milk.<sup>42</sup>

Adverse reactions to milk are reported to be the most common food sensitivity observed by pediatricians in the United States, with a reported prevalence in children as high as 7.5%.<sup>25</sup> A conservative estimate of cow milk allergy among children in the UK was reported to be 2% to 3%.<sup>39</sup> Milk hypersensitivity in adults, occurring as gastrointestinal reactions, may be more common than previously thought.<sup>141</sup>

Milk allergy. Various protein allergens are contained in milk, with casein and beta-lactoglobulin reported to be the most allergenic in oral challenge and skin tests, followed by alpha-lactalbumin.<sup>142</sup> It has been reported that the predominant allergen in adults with IgE-mediated allergy to cow milk is casein.<sup>143</sup> Heat treatment can reduce the antigenicity of whey proteins, but has almost no effect on the antigenicity of casein.144 In a report on six milk-allergic children who had reacted to "non-dairy foods," an ELISA for the detection of casein with a detection limit of 10 ng/mL was used to confirm milk protein contaminants.57 Since then more sensitive test kits with a detection limit of 0.08 ng/mL for polyclonal antibody assay<sup>145</sup> and 0.002 ng/mL for monoclonal antibody assay146 have been developed. A report from Sweden has indicated that 10 mg of casein caused an allergic reaction requiring medication, and milk in a sausage, equivalent to 60 mg of casein, resulted in fatal anaphylaxis.105

IgE-mediated milk allergy develops more frequently in babies with atopic dermatitis and may be triggered by trace amounts of cow milk antigen, which may be passed to the baby through the mother's breast milk from dairy products she has consumed, or from feeding cow's milk to the baby.<sup>147</sup> A study of the cord blood of newborns indicated that allergen priming to a variety of milk proteins had occurred prenatally, but the relevance of this needs further study.<sup>148</sup>

Various milk proteins can cause an IgE-mediated reaction, which can result in hives, wheezing, asthma, and anaphylaxis. It has also been suggested that inadequate quantities of maternal IgAantibodies to food allergens may play a permissive role in the development of allergic disease in breast-fed infants.<sup>149</sup>

IgE-mediated milk allergy usually disappears by three years of age, but occasionally may persist into adulthood. Attempts have been made to prevent this allergic reaction in high risk, atopic babies, by placing breast-feeding mothers on milk-free diets, or feeding the babies highly hydrolyzed formulae. Both techniques may increase babies' thresholds for sensitization, but whether such sensitization has been avoided or simply deferred is in question. It has been reported that feeding whey hydrolysate formula to atopic children during the first six months of life postponed cow's milk allergy symptoms up to the age of 12 months, but once the diets of the subjects and controls were similar the incidence of atopy in the two groups was the same.<sup>150,151</sup>

Although highly hydrolyzed milk formulas are regarded as less allergenic, anaphylactic reactions to them have been reported.<sup>152,153</sup> Criteria for labelling infant formulas as "hypoallergenic" are discussed in a position statement from the Canadian Pediatric Society, Allergy Section.<sup>154</sup> An extensively hydrolyzed infant formula for children with multiple food protein intolerances has been reported to be well tolerated.<sup>155</sup> Feeding extensively hydrolyzed cow's milk formula to atopic children during the first 14 months of life can protect against the development of cow's milk allergy up to the age of four years. It has been suggested that this might be a prevention and not just a postponement of the onset of symptoms,<sup>156</sup> but more research is needed to verify this.

Of concern to milk-allergic individuals is the introduction of microparticulated proteins from milk into a variety of foods to serve as fat replacers.<sup>8</sup> The use of milkbased edible films and coatings<sup>157</sup> is also of concern. Clear labelling of foods containing such products is essential.

Cross-reactivity between certain cow milk and goat milk proteins has been reported, suggesting that goat milk may not be a safe alternative to cow milk for many children with cow milk allergy.<sup>158</sup> Occasionally, milk-allergic children may also develop a beef protein allergy.<sup>159</sup>

It should be noted that lactose, a sugar in milk that is a commonly used ingredient in manufactured foods, may contain traces of casein and whey proteins, and has been reported to cause adverse reactions in individuals sensitive to milk proteins.<sup>160</sup>

*Milk intolerance.* Milk protein-induced gastroenteropathy develops in some babies fed cow's milk. It is triggered by large amounts of cow milk antigen, and may cause gastrointestinal problems such as vomiting, diarrhea, colic,<sup>25</sup> and insomnia.<sup>161</sup> Mucosal abnormalities similar to the flattened villi of celiac disease are sometimes reported in such children.<sup>162</sup> Such reactions are not associated with cow milk-specific IgE antibodies or with anaphylactic reactions, and are better described as food intolerance rather than food allergy. Cow milk-induced pulmonary disease called Heiner's syndrome is a rare disorder associated with serum precipitins to milk proteins.<sup>26,163</sup> Symptoms include failure to thrive and chronic upper and lower respiratory symptoms due to pulmonary infiltrates and pulmonary hemosiderosis.

*Lactose intolerance*. Another common reaction to milk is an intolerance to lactose. Lactose, a sugar unique to milk, is converted in the small intestine by an enzyme called lactase into two readily absorbed sugars called glucose and galactose.<sup>164</sup> If there is not enough lactase present to digest the lactose, abdominal bloating, acid diarrhea, cramping, pain, and sometimes nausea and vomiting result, especially in infants.<sup>165</sup> Most people with lactose intolerance can tolerate 100 to 200 mL (i.e., 5 to 10 g lactose) in a single dose.<sup>166</sup>

In most mammalian species there is a decline in lactase activity at weaning, resulting in reduced tolerance to milk and milk products. It is widely recognized that lactose intolerance is the norm in most adult populations of the world.<sup>167</sup> Lactase deficiency ranges from 0% among the Dutch, to 32% among the French, 65% among African Americans, 72% in Southern Italians, 95% in North American Indians.<sup>164,165</sup> In a recent study of adult and elderly Asian Americans, no significant change in lactose tolerance was noted with increasing age in adulthood.<sup>168</sup>

#### Eggs

Eggs have been found to be responsible for 25% of the DBPCFC confirmed adverse reactions in children in the United States<sup>25</sup> and for 40% of all food allergy reactions among children in France,79 and can cause anaphylactic reactions.142 The three most allergenic proteins in eggs are present in the egg white. They are ovalbumin, ovomucoid, and conalbumin (ovotransferrin),<sup>25,169</sup> with ovomucoid being the most important allergen in the development of egg allergy.<sup>170</sup> Conalbumin tends to be destroyed on heating, but ovalbumin and ovomucoid are both quite heat stable, so that cooked eggs retain much of their allergenicity.<sup>25</sup> The death of a two-year-old girl from anaphylaxis from egg in a hamburger roll has been reported.<sup>15</sup> A severe allergic response to a food containing 0.02% (200 ppm) of ovalbumin has been reported.58 DBPCFC have confirmed that eczema in atopic babies can result from maternal intake of eggs while they are breast-feeding.171

The "bird-egg syndrome" describes a late onset allergy to egg proteins that develops as a result of respiratory exposure to avian proteins, e.g., bird feathers.<sup>172</sup> There have also been reports of allergic reactions to chicken meat without sensitization to egg protein,<sup>173,174</sup> and another report in which allergic reactions to chicken, quail, and turkey meat were associated with allergy to egg.<sup>175</sup> IgE-mediated inhalation allergy to egg white has also been reported.<sup>176</sup> Egg yolks contain proteins that may cross-react with egg white antigens.<sup>25</sup> Microparticulated egg protein, which is used in a fat replacer, could be a problem for individuals with egg sensitivity.<sup>8,157</sup> Like allergies to milk, severe allergic reactions to eggs are often outgrown by three years of age,<sup>114</sup> but a few individuals retain the allergy into adulthood. Lysozyme, an egg derived enzyme used in cheese manufacture in some countries, has been reported to cause sensitization in one out of three of patients with egg allergy.<sup>58,177</sup> Lysozyme is presently not allowed as an ingredient in cheese making in Canada, but if introduced, the required common name would be egg white lysozyme.

#### Fish

Many varieties of fish have been reported to cause allergic reactions in sensitized individuals. The prevalence of fish allergy is not known, but it is higher in countries where people consume large amounts of fish.<sup>178</sup> Most individuals who are fish sensitive are atopic, and skin prick testing is often used to determine specific varieties of fish to which they react.<sup>179</sup> It has been shown that some fish-sensitive individuals may react to only one variety of fish, while others may react to several varieties.<sup>180</sup> DBPCFC to different varieties of fish are regarded as the most reliable method of confirming specific fish allergies.<sup>179</sup>

Severe IgE-mediated and nonimmunologic reactions can occur both as a result of ingesting fish and inhaling fish vapors developed while fish is being cooked.<sup>181,182</sup> Itching and hives are the most common symptoms reported, followed by respiratory problems and shock.<sup>179</sup> Death from fish-related anaphylaxis has been reported from eating food cooked in oil in which fish had been fried.<sup>75</sup> It has been predicted that more fish allergies will be reported as fish is incorporated into a wider variety of products, e.g., surimi (reformed fish) in imitation crab, pizza toppings, etc.<sup>183</sup>

Of the allergens identified in foods the allergen from codfish, Gad c I, is probably the most extensively studied. Gad c I belongs to the parvalbumins, a group of vertebrate muscle calcium chelating proteins. It is very stable and it appears that its allergenicity is based on its amino acid sequence and not its configuration.<sup>179</sup> Of interest was a report that, in rare circumstances, heat denaturation of fish created new allergenic epitopes,184 and that allergenic proteins increased in cod during storage.185 Also of interest is the change in the allergens in surimi, which is made from non-water soluble proteins after small fish from a variety of species are washed extensively in water. It is postulated that these proteins polymerize to form new allergenic materials different from the original fish protein. In addition, surimi may contain other allergenic ingredients including egg white.186

Cross-reactivity with other fish, especially hake, carp, pike, and whiting, is likely a result of similar amino acid sequences in these fish varieties.<sup>179</sup> It has been reported that testing for cod allergy is useful in testing for other fish allergies, since 85% of the children tested were positive for one or more of 17 different fish species.<sup>187</sup> Tuna does not show much cross-reactivity with other species, because of

the lack of similar amino acid sequences,<sup>179</sup> or because of prolonged heating during processing,<sup>142</sup> or both. Many individuals with adverse fish reactions also report adverse reactions to certain Crustacea, especially shrimp.<sup>179</sup> In spite of evidence to the contrary in the literature, it has been reported that symptoms of fish allergy tend to disappear in many children by age six, possibly as a result of desensitization.<sup>34,181</sup> Desensitization by rush immunotherapy has been successfully used on a 39-month-old girl who was severely sensitive to fish.<sup>188</sup> However, the reviewer stressed that this is still a very risky technique.

#### **Crustaceans and Shellfish**

It has been estimated that 250,000 people in the United States have developed, or are at risk of developing, allergic reactions to crustaceans and mollusks.<sup>189</sup> Crustaceans are more frequently involved in allergy reactions than mollusks, but severe reactions to mollusks do occur.<sup>56,187</sup> Cross-reactivity among various species of crustaceans is high,<sup>190</sup> and some cross-reactivity has been found between certain crustaceans and mollusks.<sup>187</sup> Crustaceans commonly consumed in Canada include shrimp, prawns, lobster, crab, and crayfish. Commonly eaten shellfish include oysters, scallops, mussels, and clams.

The major allergen of brown shrimp is called *Pen a* 1 and has been identified as the muscle protein tropomyosin.<sup>191</sup> A sensitive ELISA has been developed to quantify *Pen a* 1.<sup>192</sup> Severe adverse symptoms from crustaceans and mollusks have been reported from ingestion, or from inhalation of vapors produced during cooking.<sup>193,194</sup>

#### Cereals

A variety of cereals have been implicated in both IgE-mediated allergic reactions and in gluten-induced enteropathy, with wheat being the most commonly reported.

*Wheat.* IgE-mediated allergies to wheat have been reported in children in the United Kingdom,<sup>39</sup> the United States,<sup>45</sup> and Finland.<sup>195</sup> Using immunoblotting analysis, some of the major allergens in wheat flour were found to have molecular weights in the 15, 17, and 47 kDa regions.<sup>196</sup> The 15 kDa wheat protein has been identified as an  $\alpha$ -amylase inhibitor, which is capable of sensitizing both by ingestion and by inhalation.<sup>197</sup> There are conflicting reports of crossreactivity among the various cereals. Some researchers have indicated strong associations between specific IgE levels to wheat flour and those of rye and barley,<sup>198</sup> while others have reported clinically insignificant cross-reactivity among cereal grains and grasses, and suggest that the elimination of all grains from the diet of an individual with a grain allergy is unwarranted.<sup>199</sup>

Of interest are reports of early sensitization of babies to cereal antigens, from breast milk<sup>52</sup> and through airborne exposure.<sup>200</sup>

Anaphylactic reactions to wheat, although not common, have been reported, and it is unclear whether this allergy will be outgrown.<sup>19</sup> More frequently reported is exercise-induced anaphylaxis after wheat ingestion. In one group of 19 patients with exercise-induced anaphylaxis, 12 had wheat sensitization.<sup>201</sup> The mechanism by which physical exertion promotes these reactions is still poorly understood.<sup>22</sup> In a recent study of five patients with cerealdependent exercise-induced anaphylaxis, the allergen in question was found to be wheat gliadin and the corresponding ethanol soluble prolamins of rye, barley, and oats. Treatment with a gluten-free diet was found to eliminate the incidence of anaphylaxis.<sup>202</sup>

*Corn.* Corn is not a common allergen. In one study involving 480 DBPCFC in the United States, most of them done on children, only one had a reaction to corn.<sup>35</sup> However, for those individuals with hypersensitivity to corn, it can be very difficult to avoid since corn is so ubiquitous in manufactured foods in North America. One case of exercise-induced anaphylaxis to corn has been reported.<sup>203</sup>

*Rice.* Another cereal allergy of interest is an allergy to rice, which is not common in North America but has been reported in Japan. The salt soluble globulin proteins were reported to be more allergenic than glutelin proteins.<sup>204</sup> Further studies isolated the salt soluble rice proteins containing albumins and globulins, and found that the albumin fraction contained several proteins with molecular weights in the range of 14 to 16 kDa. It was found that these allergenic proteins have a structure similar to that of  $\alpha$ -amylase/trypsin-inhibitors in other cereals and legumes.<sup>205</sup> A low incidence of rice allergy has been reported in a study from Australia and Asia.<sup>42</sup>

*Gluten and celiac disease.* A much more widely recognized adverse reaction to the specific proteins of wheat, rye, barley, and oats, which are frequently grouped under the general term "gluten," occurs among individuals with celiac disease, and a related skin condition called dermatitis herpetiformis. There is increasing evidence to support the view that both conditions are caused by T-cell mediated hypersensitivity to the storage proteins of wheat, rye, barley, and possibly oats.<sup>206</sup>

Wheat, rye, barley, oats, and their hybridized strains (e.g., triticale) contain storage proteins (prolamins) with peptide sequences, which trigger the destruction of the absorptive villous lining of the intestinal tract in celiac patients. The specific names of the offending prolamins are: gliadin (from wheat), hordein (from barley), secalin (from rye), and avenin (from oats). The proteins of corn (corn gluten) and of rice (including glutinous rice) are not toxic to individuals with celiac disease.<sup>207</sup> The safety of

oats for individuals with celiac disease has been a matter of debate,<sup>208</sup> and research is now underway to determine long-term effects of oat consumption by individuals with celiac disease.<sup>209</sup>

In some countries, the incidence of celiac disease appears to be increasing,<sup>210-212</sup> possibly due to better diagnosis.<sup>213</sup> Incidence at two years of age of about 1/300 in Sweden has been reported.<sup>210</sup> The prevalence of celiac disease in Canada has been estimated to be 1/2000, but many researchers regard this as an underestimation.<sup>214</sup> The prevalence of subclinical celiac disease in Italy is estimated at 328/1000 population, and this disease is regarded as the most common life-long debilitating disease in Italy.<sup>212</sup>

The only treatment for celiac disease is a gluten-free diet for life. If a gluten-free diet is not followed, serious malabsorption of many nutrients occurs, including iron, folic acid, calcium, fat soluble vitamins, and protein. Untreated celiac disease also results in a significant risk of lymphoma and other malignancies including cancer of the mouth, pharynx, and oesophagus.<sup>23,215</sup> Several researchers have recently reported that the incidence of cancer is decreased on a strict gluten-free diet, but not on a glutenreduced diet.<sup>23,216,217</sup> In an 11-year study of 210 subjects with celiac disease, it was shown that subjects who followed a strict gluten-free diet reduced their risk of developing cancer to that of the general population.<sup>23</sup> The results of a retrospective study of 487 patients with dermatitis herpetiformis also suggest that a strict gluten-free diet for this condition plays a protective role against lymphoma.<sup>218</sup>

Untreated celiac disease results in short stature in children<sup>219</sup> and also greatly increases the risk of osteoporosis in adults.<sup>24,220-224</sup> A strict gluten-free diet has been reported to remarkably improve bone mineralization in children with celiac disease and to maintain bone mass in adults.<sup>224</sup>

The question of whether there is a level of tolerance for gluten among individuals with celiac disease has been a daunting problem for various reasons, including the lack of a suitable animal model, and the difficulty of doing repeated intestinal biopsies on patients to evaluate gluten response. Several studies have reported that even small amounts of dietary gluten cause pathogenic changes to the mucosal cells, even if there are no obvious clinical symptoms or detectable changes in the serum levels of antigliadin antibodies.<sup>225,226</sup> Similar conclusions were drawn from a study of children with celiac disease on gluten-free diets who were challenged with gliadin (daily dose of 100 mg or 500 mg). The authors concluded that chronic ingestion of small amounts of gluten causes dose-dependent damage to the mucosa of the small intestine in children.<sup>227</sup> For these reasons, many researchers now stress the need for a strict gluten-free diet for life for celiac patients. 10,217,222,225-227

In 1995 the Canadian *Food and Drug Regulations* described a gluten-free food as one that does not contain

wheat, including spelt and kamut, or oats, barley, rye, or triticale, or any part thereof. By contrast, the Codex Alimentarius standard for gluten-free foods allows a maximum of 200 ppm of gluten to be present. The validity of this standard is now under review.

Unlike Canada, the United States, Australia, Italy, and several European countries allow the use of wheat starch as a basis for "gluten-free" baked goods. Studies have shown that wheat-based "gluten-free" products can cause persistent symptoms in many celiac patients using such products,<sup>217,228</sup> because it is very difficult to completely remove all traces of gluten during the manufacture of wheat starch.<sup>229</sup>

Of concern to individuals with celiac disease were gluten-based coatings for fruits and vegetables being developed in Europe.<sup>211</sup> Because of the serious consequences of small amounts of gluten in the diet of celiac patients, it is essential that all gluten sources be completely labelled.

#### **Sulphites**

The earliest report of sulphur dioxide causing asthma was in a child who ate dried fruit preserved with sulphur dioxide. Since then, more than 1000 cases of sulphite-related reactions to foods including 20 deaths, have been reported in the United States. In Canada, more than 100 sulphiterelated reactions and at least one death have been reported.26 A few individuals appear to have an IgE-mediated sensitivity to sulphite,<sup>26</sup> but a deficiency of sulphite oxidase, an enzyme responsible for oxidizing sulphite (SO<sub>3</sub>) to inactive sulphate (SO<sub>4</sub>), and hyperreactivity to inhaled sulphur dioxide are thought to be the causes in most sulphite-sensitive individuals.230 There have been reports of individuals hypersensitive to sulphites reacting to levels as low as 1 ppm by inhalation,<sup>231</sup> although levels below 10 ppm in a food matrix are believed to be tolerated by most sulphite-sensitive individuals.

Reactions vary depending on the form of the sulphite, the amount present, and the mechanism of sulphite sensitivity.<sup>32</sup> They range in severity from nausea, abdominal pain, diarrhea, to seizures, asthma, and anaphylactic shock.<sup>23</sup> Adverse reactions to sulphite in non-asthmatics are extremely rare, but it has been estimated that almost 4% of all asthmatic patients are at risk of a reaction to sulphites.<sup>234,235</sup> A recent report of asthma induced by pickled onions suggested that both the sulphite and the pH level were responsible for the asthmatic reactions in the study group.<sup>236</sup>

The use of sulphites in fresh and processed foods has been limited by regulation in the United States and other countries.<sup>237</sup> Regulations limiting sulphites in foods in Canada are currently in place and the publication of additional labelling regulations is anticipated in the near future.

#### **Other Foods**

*Fruits and vegetables.* Fruits and fruit juices, including orange, apple, and grape have been reported to cause skin rashes and diarrhea in young children. These reactions appear to be non-IgE-mediated and are often outgrown.<sup>35</sup> One study from Israel reported that among 112 patients with a history of immediate reactions after ingesting certain fruits and vegetables, their symptoms had started after 10 years of age.<sup>238</sup> It is possible that these reactions were the result of the oral allergy syndrome.

i) Oral Allergy Syndrome: Many IgE-mediated reactions to fruits, vegetables, and nuts do occur, and are frequently associated with pollen sensitivity. Such reactions occur more often among individuals allergic to birch pollen, but can also occur in individuals who are allergic to grass, ragweed, or mugwort pollens.<sup>239,240</sup> The name given to such reactions is the "oral allergy syndrome." Mugwort is a common plant in Europe and ragweed is more common in North America. The allergens in these plant pollens are profilins, which are proteins involved in disease resistance and fertilization in the plant, and which have structural similarities to those in a wide variety of fruits, vegetables, and nuts. Because of their wide distribution in a variety of plants they are sometimes called pan-allergens.<sup>241</sup> Allergic reactions associated with oral allergy syndrome can occur at any time of year, but are often worse during the pollen season involved. Unlike individuals with other food allergies, oral allergy patients are often allergic to a large number of foods, and the syndrome is usually lifelong.

The allergens contained in fruits and vegetables tend to be heat labile, therefore symptoms associated with the oral allergy syndrome usually occur only with raw foods.<sup>242</sup> Cooked, canned, and microwaved fruits and vegetables are usually well tolerated,<sup>243</sup> except for cooked celery, which has been reported to cause sometimes severe allergic reactions,<sup>244</sup> and rarely for cooked potato.<sup>245</sup> It is important to note that nuts also tend to retain their allergenicity after cooking. It has been reported that freshly picked fruits are sometimes less allergenic than they are after storage, and it has been reported that peach skins are more allergic than the flesh.<sup>246</sup> Further studies may clarify the reasons for such anomalies.

The oral allergy syndrome tends to occur in older children and adults, and is almost always preceded by hay fever. The symptoms usually occur within minutes of contact with the offending food, but delayed reactions sometimes occur.<sup>239</sup> The most common symptoms are usually mild and can include itching and burning of the lips, mouth and throat, watery itching eyes, runny nose, and sneezing. More serious symptoms may include hives, swelling of the mouth and pharynx, and in severe cases, bronchial asthma, vomiting, diarrhea, generalized hives, and occasionally anaphylactic shock.<sup>247</sup> Peeling or touching the foods involved may sometimes cause itching, swelling or rash where the juice touches the skin, necessitating the use of gloves during their preparation.<sup>239,248,249</sup>

Table II summarizes the most common foods associated with birch pollen allergy, and Table III summarizes the most common foods associated with grass, ragweed, and mugwort pollen allergy. Several similarities among the foods associated with the various pollen allergies will be noted.

Anaphylactic reactions to a variety of fruits and vegetables have been reported including kiwi fruit,<sup>250,251</sup> white potato,<sup>252</sup> celery,<sup>253</sup> parsley,<sup>244</sup> beans,<sup>254</sup> cumin,<sup>255</sup> hazelnut,<sup>241</sup> and garlic.<sup>256</sup> An excellent review entitled the *Oral Allergy Syndrome* has been published.<sup>257</sup>

ii) Favism: Adverse reactions to foods are sometimes genetic in nature. An example of this is favism, a disease which develops in predisposed individuals when they ingest broad beans or fava beans or inhale the flower pollen. The condition is not IgE-mediated, and is therefore regarded as a food intolerance. The condition is a result of a deficiency of glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase in the red blood cells, and of reduced glutathione, which is needed for red blood cell integrity. Fava beans contain substances that oxidize glutathione, which results in acute hemolytic anemia. Areas of the world most affected by this disease are the Mediterranean, Asia, Middle East, and Formosa. In the United States, favism is reported to affect 1% to 2% of Caucasian Americans and 10% to 15% African Americans.<sup>258</sup>

*Chocolate.* Historically, chocolate was believed to be a major allergenic food. However proven allergic reactions to chocolate are very rare.<sup>259</sup> Of 274 subjects in DBPCFC studies, only 8 were reported to have a reaction to chocolate.<sup>25</sup>

Phenylethylamine, a naturally occurring pharmacologic agent in chocolate which can mimic allergic reactions may be part of the explanation for so many suspected allergic reactions to chocolate.<sup>260</sup> Also, commercially made chocolate products often contain other allergenic substances such as nuts, milk, soy, etc. It is essential, therefore, that such products be completely and accurately labelled.

*Monosodium glutamate (MSG).* MSG is the sodium salt of glutamic acid. Because of its wide use as a flavor enhancer in Chinese food, the name "Chinese restaurant syndrome" has been used in the past to describe the reaction to this substance in sensitive individuals. MSG symptom complex has been suggested as a better name for this reaction.<sup>261</sup> This syndrome may be characterized by headache, muscle tightness, numbness and tingling, flushing, and general weakness.<sup>261</sup> There is no evidence that free glutamates present naturally in foods have a different effect on sensitive individuals than do manufactured salts of glutamic acid, such as monosodium glutamate. The cause of the MSG symptom complex is not understood, but it is not an IgE-mediated process.<sup>16</sup>

In a DBPCFC random study of individuals with a history of sensitivity to MSG, it was reported that the majority of individuals did not react. In those who did, the reactions were mild and the threshold dose reported was 2.5 g.<sup>261</sup> A major report on MSG by the U.S. Food and Drug Administration indicated that certain healthy individuals may respond, generally within one hour of exposure, to an oral intake of MSG of more than 3 g in the absence of food.262 This report also mentioned that there have been no scientific reports of adverse effects from ingesting protein hydrolysates from microbial, vegetable, or animal origin. A carefully controlled study of 12 subjects with clinically documented asthma and a perceived MSG-induced asthma recently reported that no asthma symptoms developed in these patients after doses of 1 g MSG and 5 g MSG, given in a single dose after an overnight fast.263

Canada's *Food and Drug Regulations* require glutamic acid and its salts, which include monosodium glutamate, to be declared by name as ingredients on the food label, both when they are added as ingredients and when they are present as components in food mixtures.

## **Other Food-Related Concerns**

*Latex allergy.* Immediate type I hypersensitivities to natural rubber latex are not uncommon. They are caused by water soluble proteins in latex sap.<sup>264</sup> Two cases of severe allergic reactions to latex from eating fast food prepared by handlers wearing latex gloves have been reported.<sup>265</sup> In addition many cross-reactivities between latex and banana, avocado, papaya, kiwi, peach, chestnut, and peanut have been reported.<sup>266-269</sup> Although these foods are from different botanical families, they appear to have common epitopes. Cross-reactivities appear to be independent of the molecular weight of the allergen.<sup>264</sup> Further study of these latex-fruit cross-activities is needed.<sup>270</sup>

 $\alpha$ -amylase.  $\alpha$ -amylase, a starch-cleaving enzyme added to wheat flour to improve its baking quality, is a major allergen for bakery workers, causing both allergic reactions and asthma in hypersensitive individuals. Heating reduces but does not destroy the allergenic activity of this enzyme.<sup>271</sup> Since  $\alpha$ -amylase can be present in fruits, vegetables, sugar, honey, etc., it should be considered when diagnosing food allergy.<sup>272</sup>

Table II Most common foods associated with birch pollen allergy		
Food Type	Specific Foods Involved	
Fruits	kiwi ( <b>apple family</b> ): apple, pear ( <b>plum family</b> ): plum, prune, peach, nectarine, apricot, cherry	
Vegetables	(parsley family): celery, carrot, parsnips, parsley, dill, anise, cumin, coriander, caraway, fennel (potato family): potato, tomato, green pepper (legumes): lentils, peas, beans, peanut	
Nuts	hazelnut, walnut, almond	
Seeds	sunflower	

*Novel foods derived through genetic engineering.* In a study involving a gene transfer from Brazil nut to soybeans, the researchers concluded that the genetically modified soybeans would be allergenic to individuals with Brazil nut allergy,<sup>273</sup> and the research was discontinued. Researchers have also expressed concern about the possibility of introducing or creating new allergenic epitopes when genetic modifications are being made to a food. In its evaluation of novel foods, Health Canada always takes their potential allergenicity into consideration.

The labelling of such foods is being widely discussed internationally. At a multi-sectorial workshop in Ottawa in November, 1994, it was agreed that when genes from a food known to cause severe adverse reactions are transferred into another food, the resulting food should be labelled to identify this.<sup>274</sup> Until adequate testing for potential allergens is available, many researchers have concluded that strict labelling must be mandatory.<sup>275</sup>

#### **CANADA'S PRESENT LABELLING REGULATIONS**

Canada's *Food and Drug Regulations* presently exempt certain ingredients and components (ingredients of ingredients) from being declared on food labels. In addition, they permit the use of certain class names and unspecific common names on food labels. Following is a discussion of the impact of these regulations on foods known to cause severe adverse reactions in Canadians.

#### Foods Presently Exempt From Ingredient and Component Declarations

Tables IV and V list ingredients and components that are presently exempt from being declared on food labels, under Canada's present *Food and Drug Regulations*. If a declaration of the foods known to cause adverse reactions were to be made mandatory, or if exemptions from component declarations for these foods were to be revoked, the typical components listed in these tables would have to be identified by name on food labels. Such ingredient declarations would provide more complete and accurate label

Table III Most common foods associated with other pollen allergies		
Pollen Type	Specific Foods Involved	
Ragweed	( <b>gourd family</b> ): watermelon, cantaloupe, honeydew, zucchini, cucumber banana	
Grass	melon, watermelon, tomato, orange, kiwi	
Mugwort	apple, celery, carrot, watermelon, melon	

information to Canadians with food hypersensitivities. Such labelling requirements would also make Canadian ingredient labelling requirements more closely harmonized with those of the United States.

## **Class Names**

"Flavor," "color," "seasoning," and "spices" are among a group of class names presently allowed on food labels by the *Food and Drug Regulations*. Such foods, particularly seasonings and flavors, often contain ingredients such as wheat, milk, egg derivatives, etc. (Table III). Administratively, the use of the class name "seasoning" is permitted if a seasoning mixture is added to a food at 2% or less of the weight of the final product. When the class name is used, the individual ingredients of the seasoning are not required to be identified on the label. Although such names may give flexibility to the manufacturer, they severely limit the choice of foods that can be purchased by individuals with adverse reactions, since many avoid all foods identifying only "seasoning" or "flavoring" on the label because of their desire to be safe rather than sorry.

#### **Unspecific Common Names**

Hydrolyzed plant proteins. The term "hydrolyzed plant protein" is presently allowed as a common name in the ingredient list for all hydrolyzed plant proteins, except for those manufactured by enzymatic hydrolysis which are required to include the plant source, e.g., "hydrolyzed soy protein." Hydrolyzed plant proteins in Canada are most commonly from soy, wheat, and corn, but they can also be made from peanut protein. The safety of such proteins for individuals with food sensitivities is in question. Testing the allergenicity of some of the hydrolyzed proteins presently available in Canada cannot ensure the safety of such products coming from abroad. Because the plant source of these proteins is not identified on food labels, many people with sensitivities to soy, wheat, and peanut tend to avoid all foods listing "hydrolyzed plant protein" on the label. This is unnecessarily restrictive for individuals with food allergies since these products are so widely used as flavoring agents.

Also of concern are partially hydrolyzed plant proteins, which are now being manufactured for addition to foods for both their flavor and texture modifying 
 Table IV
 Examples of food ingredients presently exempt from a component declaration under the *Food and Drug Regulations* [B.01.009(1)], and typical components

Ingredients exempt from a component declaration	Typical components exempt from being declared		
margarine	milk ingredients		
bread	up to 5% non-wheat flour (e.g., pea, soy, etc.)		
baking powder	starch		
glucose, glucose solids, glucose syrup icing sugar	sulphurous acid or its salts, e.g., sulphites starch		
relish	flour or starch		
prepared meat, fish, poultry if less than 10% of an unstandardized food	"fillers" may contain: flour, starch, gluten, milk, soy, etc. "binders" may contain: milk, egg, seasonings, etc.		

characteristics, and which do retain their antigenicity. If the plant source were included in the common name of all forms of hydrolyzed and partially hydrolyzed plant proteins, individuals with food sensitivities could select from a much wider variety of prepackaged foods. In addition this would bring Canadian labelling requirements into closer harmony with those of the United States,<sup>276</sup> which now require a declaration of the plant source in the common name of all hydrolyzed plant proteins.

*Modified starch.* Modified starches are usually from corn, but they may be made from wheat and other starches. It is very difficult to completely remove all traces of potentially allergenic protein from wheat during the manufacture of food grade starch,<sup>229</sup> and for this reason wheat starch is not allowed in gluten-free foods in Canada. Most individuals with sensitivities to wheat avoid all foods containing "modified starch" because the plant source is not identified. Specific labelling would allow consumers with hypersensitivities the necessary information to make safe choices from a wider choice of prepackaged foods.

# UNEXPECTED OR HIDDEN SOURCES OF FOODS CAUSING ADVERSE REACTIONS

It is widely recognized that full disclosure of all ingredients in prepackaged foods is desirable for consumers, especially those with food sensitivities. In addition to the impact of regulatory component exemptions on the labelling of foods, there are many reasons for incomplete or inaccurate ingredient listings on prepackaged foods. These include:

• carry-over of product through incomplete cleaning of food contact surfaces and utensils, sometimes because of poor equipment design;

**Table V** Food preparations used as ingredients which are presently exempted from a component declaration under the *Food and Drug Regulations* [B.01.009(2)], with examples of typical components

Mixtures exempt from an ingredient and component declaration	Typical components exempt from being declared
food color preparations	soy lecithin
natural and artificial flavoring preparations	malt wheat starch, wheat flour, wheat gluten enzyme-modified cheeses
spice mixtures	wheat flour, wheat starch sesame seeds
seasoning or herb mixtures	if <2% of product: HPsauce, Worcestershire sauce, soy sauce, ketchup, mustard, cheese powder skim milk powder wheat flour, wheat starch peanuts, tree nuts, seeds, fish, etc.
vitamin preparations	soybean oil wheat starch
food additive preparations	wheat starch wheat flour
compressed dry, active, or instant yeast preparations	starch

- inappropriate use of rework (recycled processed food) containing allergenic ingredients;
- ingredient changes, substitutions, or additions not reflected on the label;
- incorrect labels put onto products;
- incorrect or incomplete list of ingredients;
- unknown ingredients in raw materials;
- misrepresentation of common names to describe products/ingredients (e.g., mandelonas for reformed, reflavored peanut);
- labelling exemptions under the *Food and Drug Regulations*.

Numerous incidents of adverse reactions to hidden or unexpected foods, including fatal reactions, have been reported in the scientific literature and by Health Canada and Canadian Food Inspection Agency inspectors. Table VI summarizes some of the hidden food allergens reported in the scientific literature (which are identified by the source), and by our food inspectors. Also included in this chart are some alternative names that consumers with food hypersensitivities should be aware of for such foods.

Many of the severe reactions to foods reported in this table resulted from unlabelled foods eaten away from home, at school, in restaurants, etc., and some resulted from mislabelled foods and cross-contamination. A recent paper discusses hidden allergens primarily in processed foods.<sup>277</sup>

Food	Alternative Names or Components	Hidden Sources		
peanuts	goober nuts* goober peas* ground nuts* mandelonas* arachis oil (*These names are not allowed on food labels in Canada)	<ul> <li>almond icing<sup>283</sup></li> <li>deflavored, reflavored sold as walnuts, almonds, etc.<sup>88</sup></li> <li>chili<sup>51</sup></li> <li>peanut oil<sup>94</sup></li> <li>baby formula<sup>91</sup></li> <li>vegetable burger<sup>284</sup></li> <li>flavoring in dry soup mix<sup>285</sup></li> <li>chocolate from Europe</li> <li>peanut oil in enrichment vitamins added to milk</li> <li>gravy</li> <li>egg rolls</li> <li>hazelnut paste</li> </ul>		
tree nuts	nuts	<ul> <li>pesto sauce</li> <li>coffee grinders used to grind nut-flavored coffees</li> </ul>		
milk	casein sodium caseinate lactalbumin lactoglobulin whey curds lactose	<ul> <li>ice cream in sorbet<sup>286</sup></li> <li>lactose in seasoning and lactalbumin as natural flavor<sup>25</sup></li> <li>casein and whey protein in lactose<sup>287</sup></li> <li>fat substitute from milk<sup>8</sup></li> <li>seasoned potato chips<sup>287</sup></li> <li>milk in "non-dairy" hot dog and bologna<sup>57</sup></li> <li>milk glaze on bakery products</li> </ul>		
egg	albumin ovalbumin ovomucoid lysozyme	<ul> <li>fat substitute from egg<sup>®</sup></li> <li>glazes on baked goods</li> <li>lysozyme in cheese</li> </ul>		
soy	lecithin	<ul> <li>soy protein in soy lecithin and margarine<sup>133</sup></li> <li>milled corn<sup>288</sup></li> <li>soup stock cubes and Spanish sausage<sup>289</sup></li> <li>in bread crumbs</li> <li>canned tuna (in broth)</li> </ul>		

surimi in pizza<sup>179</sup>

icing sugar

 baking powder • paprika seasonings

anchovies in Worcestershire sauce

· wheat germ in black pepper

· binders and fillers in meat, poultry and fish products

Table VI Hidden sources and alternative names of foods causing adverse reactions recently reported in the scientific literature and by Canadian

#### **NATIONAL ALLERGY ALERTS**

surimi

spelt

kamut

kamaboko

fish

wheat

In 1991, to help overcome the possible consequences of incomplete or inaccurate labelling of foods known to cause adverse reactions, the Health Protection Branch (HPB) of Health Canada, instituted an Allergy Alert Program. From 1991 to 1996, 49 allergy alerts were issued, based on hidden allergens identified by consumers, industry, and federal inspectors. In September 1996, the responsibility for food recalls and national allergy alerts was transferred from Health Canada to Agriculture and Agri-Food Canada, and subsequently on April 1, 1997, to the newly formed

Canadian Food Inspection Agency (CFIA). From September 1, 1997 until August 31, 1998, the Agency has been involved in 229 food recalls, of which 60% were allergy related. During this one-year period, there were 53 national allergy alerts issued. The allergens involved were peanut (25), soy (11), egg (9), milk (6), tree nuts (5), sesame seed (1), and sulphite (1), with five alerts involving more than one undeclared allergen.

In addition to government initiatives in the area of adverse reactions to foods, many Canadian food manufacturers have also taken a lead role in educating food handlers in the prevention of cross-contamination of foods, and the need for accurate labelling.<sup>3,278</sup> Vigilance on the part of food manufacturers to help prevent adverse reactions to foods is essential.<sup>279</sup>

#### **PRECAUTIONARY LABELLING**

In 1994, the HPB of Health Canada established a policy allowing a "may contain" statement regarding the possible presence of allergens in foods, to be placed at the end of the list of ingredients on a food label, for example "may contain peanuts" and "may contain traces of peanuts." The policy indicated that such statements were voluntary and should not be used in lieu of adherence to "Good Manufacturing Practices." However, concern is now being voiced by many consumers about the proliferation of warning statements on food labels. Unnecessary use of such statements will greatly reduce the variety of prepared foods available for consumers with food hypersensitivities. It is essential, therefore, that such statements are true, that they reflect an increased risk to individuals with food allergies, and that manufacturers use such statements judiciously and only as a last option when it is impossible to assure the absence of allergens in a food product.

#### RECOMMENDATIONS

- 1. The following foods and their derivatives, when added as *ingredients or components of ingredients* to prepackaged foods, should always be declared on food labels by their specific common names: *peanuts, tree nuts* (almonds, Brazil nuts, cashews, hazelnuts [filberts] macadamia nuts, pecans, pine nuts, pistachios, walnuts), *sesame seeds, milk, eggs, fish, Crustacea* (e.g., crab, crayfish, lobster, shrimp), and *shellfish* (e.g., clams, mussels, oysters, scallops), *soy, wheat, sulphites*.
- 2. The plant species should be identified in the common names on food labels of all forms of hydrolyzed plant proteins and starches and lecithin (e.g., hydrolyzed soy protein, modified wheat starch, soy lecithin).
- Food manufacturers, importers, distributors, and food service establishments should develop an Allergen Prevention Plan to manage allergy risks.

#### CONCLUSION

Accurate labelling of ingredients causing adverse reactions in sensitive individuals is essential both in Canada and internationally. This document has identified a list of the most common foods causing serious IgE-mediated reactions. It has also identified the need for accurate labelling of those foods known to cause serious chronic disease, such as celiac disease. The development of international criteria for accurate labelling of foods causing either severe immediate reactions or serious chronic disease will enable all individuals with food sensitivities to choose a safer and wider variety of prepared foods in the marketplace.

Adverse reactions to foods occur for a variety of reasons, including incomplete labelling, and cross-contamination during transport, storage, and manufacture. In other cases they result from unlabelled foods consumed away from home. Therefore, increased safety of foods for sensitive individuals will only be possible with a concerted effort by food manufacturers, the food service industry, government regulators, and consumers. Those individuals with severe adverse reactions to certain foods must be vigilant, read labels carefully, and always avoid any questionable foods. The old but revised adage remains true for all: a milligram of prevention is worth a kilogram of cure.

#### References

- 1. Canadian Restaurant and Foodservices Association. Food Allergies and the Food Service Industry. Toronto, Ontario, 1989.
- 2. Kirkpatrick DC. The allergy aware program. Rapport 1992; 7: 4-5.
- FCPMC (Food and Consumer Products Manufacturers of Canada) Allergy Beware Program, Suite 301, 885 Don Mills Road, Don Mills, Ontario M3C 1V9.
- FAO/WHO. Consideration of potential allergens in foods. Joint FAO\WHO Food Standards Programme Codex Committee on Food Labelling, Report CX/FL 93/5; Food and Agriculture Organization/World Health Organization, Rome, 1993.
- FAO/WHO Codex Alimentarius Commission. Report of the Twenty-Sixth Session of the Codex Committee on Food Labelling. Ottawa, Canada, 26-29 May, 1998, ALINORM 99/22.
- Ferguson A. Definitions and diagnosis of food intolerance and food allergy: consensus and controversy. J Pediatr 1992; 121: S7-S11.
- Anderson JA. The establishment of common language concerning adverse reactions to foods and food additives. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1986; 78: 140-144.
- 8. Sampson HA, Cooke SK. Food allergy and the potential allergenicity-antigenicity of microparticulated egg and cow's milk proteins. J Am Coll Nutr 1990; 9: 410-417.
- Weber RW, Vaughan TR. Food and migraine headache. Immunology and Allergy Clinics of North America 1991; 11: 831-841.
- Sampson HA, Metcalfe DD. Food allergies. J Am Med Assoc 1992; 268: 2840-2844.
- 11. Burks AW, Cockrell G, Connaughton C, et al. Epitope specificity of the major peanut allergen, *Ara h* II. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1995; 95: 607-611.
- Yocum MW, Khan DA. Assessment of patients who have experienced anaphylaxis: a 3-year survey. Mayo Clin Proc 1994; 69: 16-23.
- Bochner BS, Lichtenstein LM. Anaphylaxis. N Engl J Med 1991; 324: 1785-1790.
- Stark BJ, Sullivan TJ. Biphasic and protracted anaphylaxis. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1986; 78: 76-83.
- Sampson HA, Mendelson L, Rosen JP. Fatal and near-fatal anaphylactic reactions to food in children and adolescents. N Engl J Med 1992; 327: 380-384.

- Rumsaeng V, Metcalfe DD. Food allergy. Semin Gastrointest Dis 1996; 7: 134-143.
- 17. Horan RF, Sheffer AL. Food-dependent exercise-induced anaphylaxis. Food Allergy 1991; 11: 757-766.
- AAAAI (American Academy of Allergy, Asthma and Immunology). Anaphylaxis in schools and other child-care settings. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1998; 102: 173-176.
- 19. Vichyanond P, Visitsuntorn N, Tuchinda M. Wheat-induced anaphylaxis. Asian Pacific Journal of Allergy and Immunology 1990; 8: 49-52.
- Dohi M, Suko M, Sugiyama H, et al. Food-dependent, exercise-induced anaphylaxis: a study on 11 Japanese cases. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1991; 87: 34-40.
- 21. Juji F, Suko M. Effectiveness of disodium cromoglycate in food-dependent, exercise-induced anaphylaxis: a case report. Ann Allergy 1994; 72: 452-454.
- 22. Romano A, Di Fonso M, Giuffreda F, et al. Diagnostic workup for food-dependent, exercise-induced anaphylaxis. Allergy 1995; 50: 817-824.
- Holmes GKT, Prior P, Lane MR, et al. Malignancy in coeliac disease — effect of a gluten-free diet. Gut 1989; 30: 333-338.
- Marsh MN. Bone disease and gluten sensitivity: time to act, to treat, and to prevent. Am J Gastroenterol 1994; 89: 2105-2107.
- 25. Schwartz RH. Allergy, intolerance, and other adverse reactions to foods. Pediatr Ann 1992; 21: 654-674.
- 26. Yang WH. Adverse reactions to food and food additives. Allergy 1989; 2: 7-20.
- 27. Finn R. Food allergy-fact or fiction: a review. Journal of the Royal Society of Medicine 1992; 85: 560-564.
- Plaut M. New directions in food allergy research. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1997; 100: 7-10.
- Klein JS, Yocum MW. Underreporting of anaphylaxis in a community emergency room. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1995; 95: 637-638.
- Loza C, Brostoff J. Peanut allergy. Clin Exp Allergy 1995; 25: 493-502.
- Pumphrey RSH, Stanworth SJ. The clinical spectrum of anaphylaxis in north-west England. Clin Exp Allergy 1996; 26: 1364-1370.
- Bock SA. The incidence of severe adverse reactions to food in Colorado. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1992; 90: 683-685.
- 33. Hide D. Fatal anaphylaxis due to food. Br Med J 1993; 307: 1427.
- 34. Kajosaari M. Food allergy in Finnish children aged 1 to 6 years. Acta Pediatr Scand 1982; 71: 815-819.
- 35. Bock SA. Prospective appraisal of complaints of adverse reactions to foods in children during the first 3 years of life. Pediatrics 1987; 79: 683-688.
- Young E, Stoneham MD, Petruckevitch A, et al. A population study of food intolerance. Lancet 1994; 343: 1127-1130.
- 37. Anthony HM, Birtwistle S, Brostoff J, et al. Food intolerance. Lancet 1994; 344: 136-137.
- Moneret-Vautrin DA, Kanny G. Food intolerance. Lancet 1994; 344: 137.
- Hide DW. Food allergy in children. Clin Exp Allergy 1994; 24: 1-2.
- Jansen JJN, Kardinaal AFM, Huijbers G, et al. Prevalence of food allergy and intolerance in the adult Dutch population. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1994; 93: 446-456.

- Moneret-Vautrin DA, Rance F, Kanny G, et al. Food allergy to peanuts in France — evaluation of 142 observations. Clin Exp Allergy 1998; 28: 1113-1119.
- 42. Hill DJ, Hosking CS, Zhie CY, et al. The frequency of food allergy in Australia and Asia. Environ Toxicol Pharmacol 1997; 4: 101-110.
- Burr ML, Merrett TG, Dunstan FDJ, Maguire MJ. The development of allergy in high-risk children. Clin Exp Allergy 1997; 27: 1247-1253.
- 44. Hourihane JO'B, Kilburn SA, Nordlee JA, et al. An evaluation of the sensitivity of subjects with peanut allergy to very low doses of peanut protein: a randomized, double-blind placebo-controlled food challenge study. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1997; 100: 596-600.
- Bock SA, Atkins FM. Patterns of food hypersensitivity during sixteen years of double-blind, placebo-controlled food challenges. J Pediatr 1990; 117: 561-567.
- 46. Hourihane JO'B, Dean TP, Warner JO. Peanut allergy in relation to heredity, maternal diet and other atopic diseases: results of a questionnaire survey, skin prick testing, and food challenges. BMJ 1996; 313: 518-521.
- 47. Moneret-Vautrin DA. Modifications of allergenicity linked to food technologies. Allerg Immunol 1998; 30: 9-13.
- 48. Gerrard JW. Allergy in breast fed babies to ingredients in breast milk. Ann Allergy 1979; 42: 69-72.
- Zeiger RS, Heller S. The development and prediction of atopy in high-risk children: follow-up at age seven years in a prospective randomized study of combined maternal and infant food allergen avoidance. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1995; 95: 1179-1190.
- Zimmerman B. The management of anaphylactic reactions to food allergens in children. Ontario Medical Review 1993; Oct.: 17-19.
- Yunginger JW, Squillace DL, Jones RT, Helm RM. Fatal anaphylactic reaction induced by peanuts. Allergy Proc 1989; 10: 249-253.
- Troncone R, Scarcella A, Donatiello A, et al. Passage of gliadin into human breast milk. Acta Pediatr Scand 1987; 76: 453-456.
- Tariq SM, Stevens M, Matthews S, et al. Cohort study of peanut and tree nut sensitisation by age of 4 years. Br Med J 1996; 313: 514-517.
- 54. Arshad SO. Development of allergic disease in children. Clin Exp Allergy 1997; 27: 1231- 1233.
- AAAI (American Academy of Allergy and Immunology). The use of epinephrine in the treatment of anaphylaxis. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1994; 94: 666-668.
- Canadian Paediatric Society, Allergy Section. Fatal anaphylactic reactions to food in children. Can Med Assoc J 1994; 150: 337-339.
- Gern JE, Yang E, Evrard HM, Sampson HA. Allergic reactions to milk-contaminated "nondairy" products. New Engl J Med 1991; 324: 976-979.
- Kjelkevik R, Edberg U, Malmheden Yman I. Labelling of potential allergens in foods. Environ Toxicol Pharmacol 1997; 4: 157-162.
- Sampson HA. Role of immediate food hypersensitivity in the pathogenesis of atopic dermatitis. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1983; 71: 473-480.
- Ownby DR. Allergy testing: in vivo versus in vitro. Pediatr Allergic Dis 1988; 35: 995-1009.

- Ferguson A. Food sensitivity or self-deception. N Engl J Med 1990; 323: 476-478.
- 62. Parker SL, Krondl M, Coleman P. Foods perceived by adults as causing adverse reactions. J Am Diet Assoc 1993; 93: 40-44.
- Chiaramonte LT, Altman DR. Consumer perception of food allergies (Abstract). J Allergy Clin Immunol 1994; 93(1Pt2): 278.
- 64. Hagan LL, Goetz DW, Revercomb CH, Garriott J. Sudden infant death syndrome: a search for allergen hypersensitivity. Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol 1998; 80: 227-231.
- 65. Gold M, Sussman G, Loubser M, Binkley K. Anaphylaxis in schools and other child care settings. The Canadian Society of Allergy and Clinical Immunology, Ontario Allergy Society, Allergy/Asthma Information Association 1995.
- Canadian School Boards Association. Anaphylaxis: a handbook for school boards. Supply and Services Canada 1996; H39-381/1996E.
- 67. AQAA (Association Québécoise des Allergies Alimentaires). Preventing food allergies at school and in day care centres. Les Mets Sage 1998; 9(S-2): 1-8.
- AAAI (American Academy of Allergy and Immunology). The treatment in school of children who have food allergies. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1991; 87: 749-751.
- AAP (American Academy of Pediatrics). Anaphylaxis at school: etiologic factors, prevalence, and treatment. Pediatrics 1993; 91: 516.
- Hay GH, Harper TB, Courson FH. Preparing school personnel to assist students with life-threatening food allergies. J Sch Health 1994; 64: 119-121.
- Schwartz HJ. Anaphylaxis: a potentially fatal, avoidable, and often ignored clinical problem. Mayo Clin Proc 1994; 69: 93.
- Vickers DW, Maynard L, Ewan PW. Management of children with potential anaphylactic reactions in the community: a training package and proposal for good practice. Clin Exp Allergy 1997; 27: 898-903.
- 73. Sampson HA. Epidemiology of food allergy. Pediatr Allergy Immunol 1996; Suppl 9: 42-50.
- Marks DR, Marks LM. Food allergy. Manifestations, evaluation, and management. Postgrad Med 1993; 93: 191-201.
- Yunginger JW, Sweeney KG, Sturner WQ, et al. Fatal foodinduced anaphylaxis. J Am Med Assoc 1988; 260: 1450-1452.
- Sampson HA. Peanut anaphylaxis. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1990; 86: 1-3.
- 77. Hourihane JO'B. Peanut allergy current status and future challenges. Clin Exp Allergy 1997; 27: 1240-1246.
- Zimmerman B, Forsyth S, Gold M. Highly atopic children: formation of IgE antibody to food protein, especially peanut. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1989; 83: 764-770.
- Moneret-Vautrin DA, Kanny G, Thévenin F. A population study of food allergy in France: a survey concerning 33,110 individuals (Abstract). J Allergy Clin Immunol 1998; 101: S87.
- Ham Pong A. Unpublished results: personal communication, 1998.
- Burks AW, Williams LW, Helm RM, et al. Identification of a major peanut allergen, *Ara h* I, in patients with atopic dermatitis and positive peanut challenges. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1991; 88: 172-179.

- 82. Burks AW, Williams LW, Connaughton C, et al. Identification and characterization of a second major peanut allergen, *Ara h* II, with use of the sera of patients with atopic dermatitis and positive peanut challenge. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1992; 90: 962-969.
- Burks AW, Cockrell G, Connaughton C, Helm RM. Epitope specificity and immunoaffinity purification of the major peanut allergen, *Ara h* I. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1994; 93: 743-750.
- Yeung JM, Collins PG. Enzyme immunoassay for determination of peanut proteins in food products. J AOAC Int 1996; 79: 1411-1416.
- Hefle SL, Bush RK, Yunginger JW, Chu FS. A sandwich enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) for the quantitation of selected peanut proteins in foods. J Food Prot 1994; 57: 419-423.
- Mills ENC, Potts A, Plumb GW, et al. Development of a rapid dipstick immunoassay for the detection of peanut contaminaion of food. Food and Agricultural Immunology 1997; 9: 37-50.
- Holzhauser T, Dehne LI, Hoffmann A, et al. Rocket immunoelectrophoresis (RIE) for determination of potentially allergenic peanut proteins in processed foods as a simple means for quality assurance and food safety. Z Lebensm Unters Forsch 1998; 206: 1-8.
- Keating MU, Jones RT, Worley NJ, et al. Immunoassay of peanut allergens in food-processing materials and finished foods. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1990; 86: 41-44.
- Uhlemann L, Becker WM, Schlaak M. Spatial and temporal formation of one major allergen in arachis hypogaea (peanut) (Abstract). J Allergy Clin Immunol 1994; 93(1Pt2): 291.
- Taylor SL, Busse WW, Sachs MI, et al. Peanut oil is not allergenic to peanut-sensitive individuals. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1981; 68: 372-375.
- 91. Moneret-Vautrin DA, Hatahet R, Kanny G, Ait-Djafer Z. Allergenic peanut oil in milk formulas. Lancet 1991; 338: 1149.
- De Montis G, Gendrel D, Chemillier-Truong M, Dupont C. Sensitisation to peanut and vitamin D oily preparations. Lancet 1993; 341: 1411.
- Teuber SS, Brown RL, Haapanen LAD. Allergenicity of gourmet nut oils processed by different methods. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1997; 99: 502-507.
- Hoffman DR, Collins-Williams C. Cold-pressed peanut oils may contain peanut allergen. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1994; 93: 801-802.
- Teuber SS, Dandekar AM, Peterson WR, Uratsu SL. Cloning and sequencing of a walnut (*Juglans regia*) food allergen and its sequence similarity with other seed storage proteins (Abstract). J Allergy Clin Immunol 1996; 97(1Pt3): 235.
- Canada, Health and Welfare. Departmental consolidation of the Food and Drugs Act and Regulations. Canada Communication Group H41-1-1990E, 1996.
- 97. Hefle SL, Lemanske RF, Bush RK. Adverse reaction to lupine-fortified pasta. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1994; 94: 167-172.
- Bernhisel-Broadbent J, Sampson HA. Cross-allergenicity in the legume botanical family in children with food hypersensitivity. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1989; 83: 435-440.

- Bernhisel-Broadbent J. Allergenic cross-reactivity of foods and characterization of food allergens and extracts. Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol 1995; 75: 295-303.
- 100. Hourihane JO'B, Roberts SA, Warner JO. Resolution of peanut allergy: case-control study. BMJ 1998; 316: 1271-1275.
- 101. Bock SA, Atkins FM. The natural history of peanut allergy. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1989; 83: 900-904.
- 102. Oppenheimer JJ, Nelson HS, Bock SA, et al. Treatment of peanut allergy with rush immunotherapy. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1992; 90: 256-262.
- 103. Nelson HS, Lahr J, Rule R, et al. Treatment of anaphylactic sensitivity to peanuts by immunotherapy with injections of aqueous peanut extract. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1997; 99: 744-751.
- 104. Davis FM, Fox J. Advanced research seminar: anti-IgE therapy for allergic diseases. American Academy of Allergy Asthma and Immunology meeting, San Francisco, CA, 1997.
- 105. Malmheden Yman I. Food-induced hypersensitivity reactions: a survey over the last five years. Allergologie 1995; 18: 403.
- Arshad SO, Malmberg E, Krapf K, Hide DW. Clinical and immunological characteristics of Brazil nut allergy. Clin Exp Allergy 1991; 21: 373-376.
- 107. Fernandez C, Fiandor A, Martinez-Garate A, Quesada JM. Allergy to pistachio: crossreactivity between pistachio nut and other *Anacardiaceae*. Clin Exp Allergy 1995; 25: 1254-1259.
- 108. Falliers CJ. Pine nut allergy in perspective. Ann Allergy 1989; 62: 186-189.
- Wiggins CA. Characteristics and etiology of 30 patients with anaphylaxis. Immunology and Allergy Practice 1991; 13: 313-316.
- 110. Nielsen NH. Systemic allergic reaction to pine nuts. Ann Allergy 1990; 64: 132-133.
- 111. Jansen A, Vermeulen A, Dieges PH, van Toorenenbergen AW. Allergy to pine nuts in a bird fancier. Allergy 1996; 51: 741-744.
- 112. Roux N, Hogendijk S, Hauser C. Severe anaphylaxis to pine nuts. Allergy 1998; 53: 213-214.
- Malanin K, Lundberg M, Johansson SGO. Anaphylactic reaction caused by neoallergens in heated pecan nut. Allergy 1995; 50: 988-991.
- 114. Bock SA. The natural history of adverse reactions to foods. New England and Regional Allergy Proceedings 1986; 7: 504-510.
- 115. Malish D, Glovsky MM, Hoffman DR, et al. Anaphylaxis after sesame seed ingestion. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1981; 67: 35-38.
- 116. Kagi MK, Wüthrich B. Falafel burger anaphylaxis due to sesame seed allergy. Ann Allergy 1993; 71: 127-129.
- 117. Chiu JT, Haydik IB. Sesame seed oil anaphylaxis. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1991; 88: 414-415.
- 118. Rubenstein L. Sensitivity to sesame seed and sesame oil. N Y State J Med 1950; 50: 343-344.
- 119. Kolopp-Sarda MN, Moneret-Vautrin DA, Gobert B, et al. Specific humoral immune responses in 12 cases of food sensitization to sesame seed. Clin Exp Allergy 1997; 27: 1285-1291.

- 120. Vocks E, Borga A, Szliska C, et al. Common allergenic structures in hazelnut, rye grain, sesame seeds, kiwi, and poppy seeds. Allergy (Denmark) 1993; 48: 168-172.
- Alday E, Curiel G, Lopez-Gil MJ, et al. Occupational hypersensitivity to sesame seeds. Eur J Allergy Clin Immunol 1996; 51: 69-70.
- 122. Kanny G, Hauteclocque C, Moneret-Vautrin DA. Sesame seed and sesame seed oil contain masked allergens of growing importance. Allergy 1996; 51: 952-957.
- 123. Sporik R, Hill D. Allergy to peanut, nuts, and sesame seed in Australian children. BMJ 1996; 313: 1477-1478.
- 124. Eberlein-König B, Rueff F, Przybilla B. Generalized urticaria caused by sesame seeds with negative prick test results and without demonstrable specific IgE antibodies. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1995; 96: 560-561.
- 125. Vadas P, Gold M. Criteria for development of a priority allergen list: application to sesame seed. Canadian Journal Allergy & Clinical Immunology 1998; 3: 174-176.
- 126. Atkins FM, Wilson M, Bock SA. Cottonseed hypersensitivity: new concerns over an old problem. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1988; 82: 242-250.
- 127. Malanin G, Kalimo K. Angioedema and urticaria caused by cottonseed protein in whole-grain bread. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1988; 82: 261-264.
- 128. Herian AM, Taylor SL, Bush RK. Identification of soybean allergens by immunoblotting with sera from soy-allergic adults. Int Arch Allergy Appl Immunol 1990; 92: 193-198.
- 129. Bock SA. Natural history of severe reactions to foods in young children. J Pediatr 1985; 107: 676-680.
- Moroz LA, Yang WH. Kunitz soybean trypsin inhibitor. N Engl J Med 1980; 302: 1126-1128.
- 131. Tsuji H, Bando N, Kimoto M, et al. Preparation and application of monoclonal antibodies for a sandwich enzymelinked immunosorbent assay of the major soybean allergen, *Gly m* Bd 30K. J Nutr Sci Vitaminol 1993; 39: 389-397.
- 132. Yeung JM, Collins PG. Determination of soy proteins in food products by enzyme immunoassay. Food Technology and Biotechnology 1997; 35: 209-214.
- 133. Porras O, Carlsson B, Fallström SP, Hanson LA. Detection of soy protein in soy lecithin, margarine, and occasionally soy oil. Int Arch Allergy Appl Immunol 1985; 78: 30- 32.
- 134. Bush RK, Taylor SL, Nordlee JA, Busse WW. Soybean oil is not allergenic to soybean-sensitive individuals. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1985; 76: 242-245.
- 135. Lavaud F, Perdu D, Prévost A, et al. Baker 's asthma related to soybean lecithin exposure. Allergy 1994; 49: 159-162.
- 136. Johansen S, Waldenstedt L, Elwinger K, et al. Chicken meat analyzed for potential presence of soy bean proteins emanating from the food (Abstract). J Allergy Clin Immunol 1995; 95(1Pt2): 303.
- 137. Visakorpi JK. Milk and soybean protein allergy. J Pediatr Gastroenterol Nutr 1983; 2: S293- S297.
- 138. Businco L, Bruno G, Giampietro PG, Cantani A. Allergenicity and nutritional adequacy of soy protein formulas. J Pediatr 1992; 121: S21-S28.
- 139. Lusas EW, Riaz MN. Soy protein products: processing and use. J Nutr 1995; 125: 573S- 580S.
- 140. Gerrard JW, Shenassa M. Food allergy: two common types as seen in breast and formula fed babies. Ann Allergy 1983; 50: 375-379.

- 141. Pelto L, Salminen S, Lilius E-M, et al. Milk hypersensitivity — key to poorly defined gastrointestinal symptoms in adults. Allergy 1998; 53: 307-310.
- 142. Yunginger JW. Anaphylaxis. Ann Allergy 1992; 69: 87-96.
- 143. Wüthrich B, Johansson SGO. Allergy to cheese produced from sheep's and goat's milk but not to cheese produced from cow's milk. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1995; 96: 270-273.
- 144. Lee Y-H. Food-processing approaches to altering allergenic potential of milk-based formula. J Pediatr 1992; 121: S47-S50.
- 145. Mariager B, Solve M, Eriksen H, Brogren C-H. Bovine βlactoglobulin in hypoallergenic and ordinary infant formulas measured by an indirect competitive ELISA using monoclonal and polyclonal antibodies. Food and Agricultural Immunology 1994; 6: 73-83.
- 146. Mäkinen-Kiljunen S, Palosuo T. A sensitive enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay for determination of bovine β-lactoglobulin in infant feeding formulas and in human milk. Allergy 1992; 47: 347-352.
- 147. Host A, Husby S, Osterballe O. A prospective study of cow's milk allergy in exclusively breast-fed infants. Acta Pediatr Scand 1988; 77: 663-670.
- 148. Szépfalusi Z, Nentwich I, Gerstmayr M, et al. Prenatal allergen contact with milk proteins. Clin Exp Allergy 1997; 27: 28-35.
- 149. Machtinger S, Moss R. Cow's milk allergy in breast-fed infants: the role of allergen and maternal secretory IgAantibody. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1986; 77: 341-347.
- 150. Vandenplas Y. Atopy at three years in high-risk infants fed whey hydrolysate or conventional formula. Lancet 1992; 339: 1118.
- 151. Host A, Halken S, Jacobsen HP, et al. Preventive effect of feeding high-risk infants breast milk and/or an extensively hydrolyzed formula on the incidence of food allergy until the age of 5 years (Abstract). J Allergy Clin Immunol 1995; 95(1Pt2): 645.
- 152. Businco L, Cantani A, Longhi A, Giampietro PG. Anaphylactic reactions to a cow's milk whey protein hydrolysate (Alfa-Ré, Nestlé) in infants with cow's milk allergy. Ann Allergy 1989; 62: 333-335.
- 153. Salmun LM, Schneider LC. Casein hydrolysate hypersensitivity (Abstract). J Allergy Clin Immunol 1994; 93(1Pt2): 281.
- 154. Canadian Paediatric Society, Allergy Section. Criteria for labelling infant formulas as "hypoallergenic." Can Med Assoc J 1994; 150: 883-884.
- 155. Hill DJ, Cameron DJS, Francis DEM, et al. Challenge confirmation of late-onset reactions to extensively hydrolyzed formulas in infants with multiple food protein intolerance. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1995; 96: 386-394.
- 156. Halken S, Host A. How hypoallergenic are hypoallergenic cow's milk-based formulas? Allergy 1997; 52: 1175-1183.
- 157. McHugh TH, Krochta JM. Milk-protein-based edible films and coatings. Food Technology 1994; 48: 97-103.
- 158. Hoffman KM, Ho D, Sampson HA. In vivo allergenic crossreactivity of cow milk and goat milk (Abstract). J Allergy Clin Immunol 1995; 95(1Pt2): 759.
- 159. Werfel SJ, Cooke SK, Sampson HA. Clinical reactivity to beef in children allergic to cow's milk. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1997; 99: 293-300.

- 160. Frémont S, Kanny G, Bieber S, Nicolas JP, Moneret-Vautrin DA. Identification of a masked allergen, α-lactalbumin, in baby-food cereal flour guaranteed free of cow's milk protein. Allergy 1996; 51: 749-754.
- 161. Kahn A, Mozin MJ, Rebuffat E, et al. Milk intolerance in children with persistent sleeplessness: a prospective doubleblind crossover evaluation. Pediatrics 1989; 84: 595-603.
- 162. Walker-Smith J. Cow's milk protein intolerance. Arch Dis Child 1975; 50: 347-350.
- 163. Torres MJ, Girón MD, Corzo JL, et al. Release of inflammatory mediators after cow's milk intake in a newborn with idiopathic pulmonary hemosiderosis. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1996; 98: 1120-1123.
- 164. Montgomery RK, Büller HA, Rings EHHM, Grand RJ. Lactose intolerance and the genetic regulation of intestinal lactase-phlorizin hydrolase. FASEB J 1991; 5: 2824-2832.
- 165. Johnson JD, Kretchmer N, Simoons FJ. Lactose malabsorption: its biology and history. In: Schulman I, ed. Advances in pediatrics. Chicago: Year Book Medical Publishers, Inc., 1974; 21: 197-237.
- 166. Tamm A. Management of lactose intolerance. Scand J Gastroenterol 1994; 29(Suppl 202): 55-63.
- 167. Kretchmer N. Memorial lecture: lactose and lactase an historical perspective. Gastroenterologia 1971; 61: 805-813.
- Suarez FL, Savaiano DA. Lactose digestion and tolerance in adult and elderly Asian-Americans. Am J Clin Nutr 1994; 59: 1021-1024.
- 169. Hoffman DR. Immunochemical identification of the allergens in egg white. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1983; 71: 481-486.
- 170. Urisu A, Ando H, Morita Y, et al. Allergenic activity of heated and ovomucoid-depleted egg white. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1997; 100: 171-176.
- 171. Cant AJ, Bailes JA, Marsden RA, Hewitt D. Effect of maternal dietary exclusion on breast fed infants with eczema: two controlled studies. Br Med J 1986; 293: 231-233.
- 172. Añíbarro B, García-Ara MC, Ojeda JA. Bird-egg syndrome in childhood. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1993; 92: 628-630.
- 173. Liccardi G, Szépfalusi Z, Noschese P, et al. Allergy to chicken meat without sensitization to egg proteins: a case report. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1997; 100: 577-579.
- 174. Vila L, Barbarin E, Sanz ML. Chicken meat induces oral allergy syndrome: a case report. Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol 1998; 80: 195-196.
- 175. Escribano MM, Serrano P, Muñoz-Bellido FJ, et al. Oral allergy syndrome to bird meat associated with egg intolerance. Allergy 1998; 53: 903-904.
- 176. Valero A, Lluch M, Amat P, et al. Occupational egg allergy in confectionary workers. Allergy 1996; 51: 588-592.
- 177. Frémont S, Kanny G, Latger V, et al. Prevalence of lysozyme sensitization in an egg allergic population (Abstract). J Allergy Clin Immunol 1995; 95(1Pt2): 652.
- 178. Pascual C, Esteban MM, Crespo JF. Fish allergy: evaluation of the importance of cross-reactivity. J Pediatr 1992; 121: S29-S34.
- 179. O'Neil C, Helbling AA, Lehrer SB. Allergic reactions to fish. Clin Rev Allergy 1993; 11: 183- 200.
- 180. Bernhisel-Broadbent J, Sampson HA. Oral challenge and in vitro study results in fish hypersensitive patients (Abstract). J Allergy Clin Immunol 1990; 85: 270.
- 181. Aas K. Studies of hypersensitivity to fish. Int Arch Allergy 1966; 29: 346-363.

- 182. Crespo JF, Pascual C, Dominguez C, et al. Allergic reactions associated with airborn fish particles in IgE-mediated fish hypersensitive patients. Allergy 1995; 50: 257-261.
- 183. Musmand JJ, Helbling A, Lehrer SB. Surimi: something fishy. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1996; 98: 697-699.
- 184. Strobel S. Dietary manipulation and induction of tolerance. J Pediatr 1992; 121: S74-S79.
- 185. Dory D, Chopin C, Aimone-Gastin I, et al. Recognition of an extensive range of IgE-reactive proteins in cod extract. Allergy 1998; 53: 42-50.
- 186. Mata E, Favier C, Moneret-Vautrin DA, et al. Surimi and native codfish contain a common allergen identified as a 63kDa protein. Allergy 1994; 49: 442-447.
- 187. de Martino M, Peruzzi M, de Luca M, et al. Fish allergy in children. Ann Allergy 1993; 71: 159-165.
- 188. Casimir G, Cuvelier P, Allard S, Duchateau J. Life-threatening fish allergy successfully treated with immunotherapy. Journal of Pediatric Allergy and Immunology 1997; 8: 103-105.
- Daul CB, Morgan JE, Lehrer SB. Hypersensitivity reactions to Crustacea and mollusks. Clin Rev Allergy 1993; 11: 201-222.
- 190. Waring NP, Daul CB, deShazo RD, et al. Hypersensitivity reactions to ingested Crustacea: clinical evaluation and diagnostic studies in shrimp-sensitive individuals. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1985; 76: 440-445.
- 191. Reese G, Tracey D, Slattery M, et al. IgE and mAb reactivities to peptides of the major shrimp allergen *Pen a* 1 (tropomyosin) (Abstract). J Allergy Clin Immunol 1995; 95(1Pt2): 764.
- 192. Byeoung-Ju J, Reese G, Hauck P, et al. Quantification of the major brown shrimp allergen *Pen a* 1 (tropomyosin) by a monoclonal antibody-based sandwich ELISA. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1997; 100: 229-234.
- 193. Cartier A, Malo J-L, Forest F, et al. Occupational asthma in snow crab-processing workers. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1984; 74: 261-269.
- 194. Desjardins A, Malo J-L, L'Archevêque J, et al. Occupational IgE-mediated sensitization and asthma caused by clam and shrimp. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1995; 96: 608-617.
- 195. Varjonen E, Savolainen J, Mattila L, Kalimos K. IgE-binding components of wheat, rye, barley, and oats recognized by immunoblotting analysis with sera from adult atopic dermatitis patients. Clin Exp Allergy 1994; 22: 481-489.
- 196. Pfeil T, Schwabl U, Ulmer WT, König W. Western blot analysis of water-soluble wheat flour (*Triticum vulgaris*) allergens. Int Arch Allergy Appl Immunol 1990; 91: 224-231.
- 197. James JM, Sixbey JP, Helm RM, et al. Wheat *a*-amylase inhibitor: a second route of allergic sensitization. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1997; 99: 239-244.
- 198. Sandiford CP, Tee RD, Newman-Taylor AJ. Identification of crossreacting wheat, rye, barley, and soya flour allergens using sera from individuals with wheat-induced asthma. Clin Exp Allergy 1995; 25: 340-349.
- 199. Jones SM, Magolfi CF, Cooke SK, Sampson HA. Immunologic cross-reactivity among cereal grains and grasses in children with food hypersensitivity. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1995; 96: 341-351.
- 200. Linna O. Specific IgE antibodies to uningested cereals. Allergy 1996; 51: 849-850.

- 201. Guinnepain M-T, Eloit C, Raffard M, et al. Exercise-induced anaphylaxis: useful screening of food sensitization. Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol 1996; 77: 491-496.
- 202. Varjonen E, Vainio E, Kalimo K. Life threatening, recurrent anaphylaxis caused by allergy to gliadin and exercise. Clin Exp Allergy 1997; 27: 162-166.
- 203. Pauls JD, Cross D. Food-dependent exercise-induced anaphylaxis to corn. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1998; 101: 853-854.
- 204. Shibasaki M, Shigeyoshi S, Nemoto H, Kuroume T. Allergenicity and lymphocyte-stimulating property of rice protein. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1979; 64: 259-265.
- 205. Matsuda T, Nakamura R. Molecular structure and immunological properties of food allergens. Trends in Food Science and Technology 1993; 4: 289-293.
- 206. Marsh MN. Gluten, major histocompatibility complex, and the small intestine. A molecular and immunobiologic approach to the spectrum of gluten sensitivity ("celiac sprue"). Gastroenterologia 1992; 102: 330-354.
- 207. Opper FH, Burakoff R. Food allergy and intolerance. Gastroenterologia 1993; 1: 211-220.
- 208. Branski D, Shine M. Oats in celiac disease. N Engl J Med 1996; 334: 865-866.
- 209. Janatuinen EK, Pikkarainen PH, Kemppainen TA, et al. A comparison of diets with and without oats in adults with celiac disease. N Engl J Med 1995; 333: 1033-1037.
- 210. Cavell B, Stenhammar L, Ascher H, et al. Increasing incidence of childhood disease in Sweden. Results of a national study. Acta Pediatr 1992; 81: 589-592.
- 211. Jansen TLThA, Köhler L, Karssen PHZ, et al. Gluten-based food coatings. Lancet 1992; 339: 1062.
- 212. Catassi C, Rätsch I-M, Fabiani E, et al. Coeliac disease in the year 2000: exploring the iceberg. Lancet 1994; 343: 200.
- 213. Unsworth DJ, Brown DL. Serological screening suggests that adult coeliac disease is underdiagnosed in the UK and increases the incidence by up to 12%. Gut 1994; 35: 61-64.
- 214. Davidson AGF, Hassall EG. Screening for celiac disease. Can Med Assoc J 1997: 137: 547-548.
- 215. Mathus-Vliegen EMH. Lymphoma in coeliac disease. J R Soc Med 1995; 88: 672-677.
- 216. McCarthy CF. Malignancy in coeliac disease. Eur J Gastroenterol Hepatol 1991; 3: 125-128.
- 217. Ciclitera PJ. Celiac sprue and related problems. In: Bayless, ed. Current therapy in gastroenterlogy and liver disease. New York: Mosby-Year Book Inc., 1994: 298-303.
- 218. Lewis HM, Renaula TL, Garioch JJ, et al. Protective effect of gluten-free diet against development of lymphoma in dermatitis herpetiformis. Br J Dermatol 1996; 135: 363-367.
- 219. Cacciari E, Salardi S, Lazzari R, et al. Short stature and celiac disease: a relationship to consider even in patients with no gastrointestinal tract symptoms. J Pediatr 1983; 103: 708-711.
- 220. Molteni N, Caraceni MP, Bardella MT, et al. Bone mineral density in adult celiac patients and the effect of a gluten-free diet from childhood. Am J Gastroenterol 1990; 85: 51-53.
- 221. Bodé S, Hassager C, Gudmand-Hoyer E, Christiansen C. Body composition and calcium metabolism in adult treated coeliac disease. Gut 1991; 32: 1342-1345.
- 222. Mora S, Weber G, Barera G, et al. Effect of a gluten-free diet on bone mineral content in growing patients with celiac disease. Am J Clin Nutr 1993; 57: 224-228.

- 223. Valdimarsson T, Ström M, Toss, Ross I. Bone mineral density in coeliac disease (Abstract). Scand J Gastroenterol 1993; 78: 76.
- 224. McFarlane XA, Bhalla AK, Reeves DE, et al. Osteoporosis in treated coeliac disease. Gut 1995; 36: 710-714.
- 225. Montgomery AMP, Goka AKJ, Kumar PJ, et al. Low gluten diet in the treatment of adult coeliac disease: effect on jejunal morphology and serum anti-gluten antibodies. Gut 1988; 29: 1564-1568.
- 226. Auricchio S, Troncone R. Effects of small amounts of gluten in the diet of coeliac patients. Panminerva Med 1991; 33: 83-85.
- 227. Catassi C, Rossini M, Rätsch I-M, et al. Dose dependent effects of protracted ingestion of small amounts of gliadin in coeliac disease in children: a clinical and jejunal morphometric study. Gut 1993; 34: 1515-1519.
- 228. Chartrand LJ, Russo PA, Duhaime AG, Seidman EG. Wheat starch intolerance in patients with celiac disease. J Am Diet Assoc 1997; 97: 612-618.
- 229. Hekkens WThJM, van Twist-de Graaf M. What is glutenfree — levels and tolerances in the gluten-free diet. Die Nahrung 1990; 34: 483-487.
- 230. Taylor SL, Dormedy ES. The role of flavoring substances in food allergy and intolerance. In: Taylor SL, ed. Advances in food and nutrition research, Vol. 42. San Diego: Academic Press, 1998: 1-43.
- 231. Simon RA. Sulfite sensitivity. Ann Allergy 1986; 56: 281-288.
- 232. Taylor SL, Bush RK, Selner JC, et al. Sensitivity to sulfited foods among sulfite-sensitive subjects with asthma. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1988; 81: 1159-1167.
- 233. Yang WH, Purchase ECR. Adverse reactions to sulfites. Can Med Assoc J 1985; 133: 865-867.
- 234. Bush RK, Taylor SL, Busse W. A critical evaluation of clinical trials in reactions to sulfites. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1986; 78: 191-202.
- 235. Bush RK, Taylor SL, Holden K, et al. Prevalence of sensitivity to sulfiting agents in asthmatic patients. Am J Med 1986; 81: 816-820.
- 236. Gastaminza G, Quirce S, Torre M, et al. Pickled onion induced asthma: a model of sulfite-sensitive asthma? Clin Exp Allergy 1995; 25: 698-703.
- 237. Anderson JA. Milestones marking the knowledge of adverse reactions to food in the decade of the 1980s. Ann Allergy 1994; 72: 143-154.
- 238. Kivity S, Dunner K, Marian Y. The pattern of food hypersensitivity in patients with onset after 10 years of age. Clin Exp Allergy 1994; 24: 19-22.
- 239. Ortolani C, Ispano M, Pastorello E, et al. The oral allergy syndrome. Ann Allergy 1988; 61: 47-52.
- 240. Helbling A, Lopez M, Schwartz HJ, Lehrer SB. Reactivity of carrot-specific IgE antibodies with celery, apiaceous spices, and birch pollen. Ann Allergy 1993; 70: 495-499.
- 241. Hirschwehr R, Valenta R, Ebner C, et al. Identification of common allergenic structures in hazel pollen and hazelnuts: a possible explanation for sensitivity to hazelnuts in patients allergic to tree pollen. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1992; 90: 927-936.
- 242. Dreborg S. Food allergy in pollen-sensitive patients. Ann Allergy 1988; 61: 41-46.
- 243. Oei HD, Tjiook SB, de Haas R. Does the allergenicity of apple disappear after microwave treatment (Abstract)? J Allergy Clin Immunol 1995; 95(1Pt2): 753.

- 244. Kauppinen K, Kousa M, Reunala T. Aromatic plants a cause of severe attacks of angio-edema and urticaria. Contact Dermatitis 1980; 6: 251-254.
- 245. Pearson B. Potato sensitivity, an occupational allergy in housewives. Acta Allergol 1966; 21: 507-514.
- 246. Lleonart R, Cisteró A, Carreira J, et al. Food allergy: identification of the major IgE-binding component of peach (*Prunus persica*). Ann Allergy 1992; 69: 128-130.
- 247. Ebner C, Hirschwehr R, Bauer L, et al. Allergens, IgE, mediators, inflammatory mechanisms. Identification of allergens in fruits and vegetables: IgE cross-reactivities with the important birch pollen allergens *Bet v* 1 and *Bet v* 2 (*birch profilin*). J Allergy Clin Immunol 1995; 95: 962-969.
- 248. Pastorello EA, Ortolani C, Farioli L, et al. Allergenic crossreactivity among peach, apricot, plum, and cherry in patients with oral allergy syndrome: an in vivo and in vitro study. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1994; 94: 699-707.
- 249. de Groot H, de Jong NW, Vuijk MH, Gerth van Wijk R. Birch pollinosis and atopy caused by apple, peach and hazelnut; comparison of three extraction procedures with two apple strains. Allergy 1996; 51: 712-718.
- 250. Gall H, Kalveram K-J, Forck G, Sterry W. Kiwi fruit allergy: a new birch pollen-associated food allergy. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1994; 94: 70-76.
- 251. Pastorello EA, Pravettoni V, Ispano M, et al. Identification of the allergenic components of kiwi fruit and evaluation of their cross-reactivity with timothy and birch pollens. J Allergy Clin Immunology 1996; 98: 601-610.
- 252. Castells MC, Pascual C, Esteban MM, Ojeda JA. Allergy to white potato. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1986; 78: 1110-1114.
- 253. Pauli G, Bessot JC, Braun PA, et al. Celery allergy: clinical and biological study of 20 cases. Ann Allergy 1988; 60: 243-246.
- 254. Zacharisen MC, Kurup V. Anaphylaxis to beans. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1998; 101: 556-557.
- 255. Boxer M, Roberts M, Grammar L. Cumin anaphylaxis: a case report. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1997; 99: 722-723.
- 256. Asero R, Mistrello G, Roncarolo D, et al. A case of garlic allergy. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1998; 101: 427-428.
- 257. Pastorello EA, Ortolani C. Oral allergy syndrome. In: Metcalfe DD, Sampson HA, Simon RA, eds. Adverse reactions to foods and food additives, 2nd ed. Malden, MA: Blackwell Science Ltd., 1996: 221-234.
- 258. Perkin JE. Food allergies and adverse reactions. Gaithersburg, MA: Aspen Publications Inc., 1990: 210.
- 259. Krummel D. Chocolate and food allergies: fact or fiction? Immunology and Allergy Practice 1992; 14: 306-312.
- 260. Wille J. Food allergies: how common are they? Iowa Med 1993; Dec.: 447-449.
- 261. Yang WH, Drouin MA, Herbert M, et al. The monosodium glutamate symptom complex: assessment in a double-blind, placebo-controlled, randomized study. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1997; 99: 757-62.
- 262. FASEB (Federation of American Societies for Experimental Biology). Analysis of adverse reactions to monosodium glutamate (MSG) report. Bethesda, MD: July 1995.
- 263. Woods RK, Weiner JM, Thien F, et al. The effects of monosodium glutamate in adults with asthma who perceive themselves to be monosodium glutamate-intolerant. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1998; 101: 762-771.
- 264. Möller M, Kayma M, Vieluf D, et al. Determination and characterization of cross-reacting allergens in latex, avocado, banana, and kiwi fruit. Allergy 1998; 53: 289-296.

- 265. Schwartz HJ. Latex: a potential hidden "food" allergen in fast food restaurants. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1995; 95: 139-140.
- 266. Hovanec-Burns D, Ordonez M, Corrao M, et al. Identification of another latex cross-reactive food allergen: peanut (Abstract). J Allergy Clin Immunol 1995; 95(1Pt2): 40.
- 267. Lavaud F, Prevost A, Cossart C, et al. Allergy to latex, avocado pear, and banana: evidence for a 30 kd antigen in immunoblotting. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1995; 95: 557-564.
- 268. Ahlroth M, Alenius H, Turjanmaa K, et al. Cross-reacting allergens in natural rubber latex and avocado. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1995; 96: 167-173.
- García Ortiz JC, Moyano JC, Alvarez M, Bellido J. Latex allergy in fruit-allergic patients. Allergy 1998; 53: 532-536.
- 270. ACAAI (American College of Allergy, Asthma & Immunology). Latex allergy — an emerging health care problem. Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol 1995; 75: 19-21.
- 271. Baur X, Posch A. Characterized allergens causing bakers' asthma. Allergy 1998; 53: 562-566.
- 272. Kanny G, Moneret-Vautrin D-A. α-Amylase contained in bread can induce food allergy. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1995; 95: 132-133.
- 273. Nordlee JA, Taylor SL, Townsend JA, et al. Identification of a brazil-nut allergen in transgenic soybeans. N Engl J Med 1996; 334: 688-692.
- 274. Campbell I. Labelling of novel foods derived through genetic engineering. Rapport 1995; 10: 5-6.
- 275. Bindslev-Jensen C, Poulsen LK. Hazards of unintentional/intentional introduction of allergens into foods. Allergy 1997; 52: 1184-1186.
- 276. USFDAFederal Register. Protein hydrolysates, Part 102.22. January 6, 1993.

- 277. Steinman HA. "Hidden" allergens in foods. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1996; 98: 241-250.
- 278. Deibel K, Trautman T, DeBoom T. A comprehensive approach to reducing the risk of allergens in foods. J Food Prot 1997; 60: 436-441.
- 279. Long BM. Preventing allergic reactions. Challenges to the food industry. Rapport 1992; 7: 4.
- 280. FCPMC (Food and Consumer Product Manufacturers of Canada). Allery Beware 1993.
- 281. Hide DW, Matthews S, Matthews L, et al. Effect of allergen avoidance in infancy on allergic manifestations at age two years. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1994; 93: 842-846.
- 282. USFDA Center for Food Safety and Applied Nutrition. Label declaration of allergenic substances in foods (Letter). June 10, 1996.
- Evans S, Skea D, Dolovich J. Fatal reaction to peanut antigen in almond icing. Can Med Assoc J 1988; 139: 231-232.
- 284. Donovan KL, Peters J. Vegetable-burger allergy: all was nut as it appeared. Br Med J 1990; 300: 1378.
- McKenna C, Klontz KC. Systemic allergic reaction following ingestion of undeclared peanut flour in a peanut-sensitive woman. Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol 1997; 79: 234-236.
- 286. Bristol P. What's in the box? Food in Canada, July/August, 1992: 5.
- 287. Watson,WTA, Becker ML, Simons FER, et al. Cow's milk protein in lactose (Abstract). J Allergy Clin Immunol 1995; 95(1Pt2): 650.
- 288. Taylor SL. Soybean contamination of dry milled corn products: a new concern for allergic consumers? Food Allergy News 1995; 4: 3, 7.
- Vidal C, Pérez-Carral C, Chomón B. Unsuspected sources of soybean exposure. Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol 1997; 79: 350-352.