

SoyConnection

Health & Nutrition News About Soy

Brought to you by the United Soybean Board and the Soy Nutrition Institute

FALL 2019 | VOLUME 27, NUMBER 4

Soy Consumption and Allergies

- 👉 Food Allergies: Prevalence, Types, and Diagnosis
 - 👉 Prevalence of Soy Allergy
- 👉 Soybean Oil Does Not Elicit Allergic Response

Access this bonus article online at soyconnection.com/healthprofessionals/newsletter.

Don't Miss Our Booth at FNCE®!

SoyConnection

Stop by for a free giveaway item and
the latest info on soy and health

Booth #837



Earn Free Credits. Visit our testing center at soyconnection.com

FOOD ALLERGIES: PREVALENCE, TYPES, AND DIAGNOSIS

By Carina Venter, PhD, RD

Introduction

Food allergies (FA) are commonly reported by children and adults. The true prevalence of FA is difficult to determine due to the heterogeneity of immunological presentations (symptoms) and foods involved. The diagnostic work-up also differs for each type of FA. No 2 studies of FA prevalence have used the same methodology. Food challenges or food reintroduction following a period of avoidance is the gold standard for the diagnosis of FA.¹ However, only a minority of studies reporting on FA prevalence have utilized this process as an outcome measure. A meta-analysis of 51 studies showed that self-reported FA varied between 3% and 35%, while confirmed FA ranged from 1% to 10.8% based on oral food challenges, including studies on both children and adults, across the world.² In addition to leading to incorrect prevalence rates, overreporting of FA has many negative effects on an individual and global level such as unnecessary dietary restrictions and labeling laws. Most importantly, however, overreporting of FA may cause some who are truly allergic to not be taken seriously.

Nomenclature

The National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases defines a FA as “an adverse health effect arising from a specific immune response that occurs reproducibly on exposure to a given food.”¹ This definition captures a range of food-related problems. If the production of immunoglobulin E (IgE) is involved, it is referred to as an IgE-mediated FA. An immune mediated reaction leading to an allergic reaction in the absence of IgE production is referred to as non-IgE-mediated FA. There are many diseases considered to be non-IgE-mediated gastrointestinal FA: food pro-

tein induced enterocolitis syndrome (FPIES), eosinophilic esophagitis (EoE), food protein induced allergic proctocolitis (FPAIP), food protein induced allergic enteropathy (FPIAE), and food protein induced dysmotility disorders (FPID) such as gastro-esophageal reflux disease (GERD) and constipation. Food-related symptoms that do not involve the immune system are referred to as food intolerances, e.g., lactose intolerance. There are currently no national or international allergy or gastrointestinal societies or associations that acknowledge or define the existence of food sensitivities—other than the reference to non-celiac gluten sensitivities.³

Prevalence

A systematic review by the University of Portsmouth in 2013 identified only 92 papers reporting on FA prevalence worldwide; and of these papers, food challenges were conducted in only 21.⁴ This observation implies that prevalence is often based on self-report even though it is known that such figures are much higher than challenge-proven prevalence figures.⁵

IGE-MEDIATED FOOD ALLERGIES

Diagnosis of IgE-Mediated Food Allergies

IgE-mediated FA typically involve the production of IgE to a specific food and occur minutes to hours (usually 2 hours) after consuming a food. A clinical history is important to understand the symptoms reported, timing between food ingestion, and the development of symptoms, as well as the possible food/food allergen implicated.⁶ Following this assessment, skin prick tests (SPT), specific IgE tests, and in some cases, component-resolved diagnostic tests (CRD) may be performed.⁷ If there is agreement between the clinical history and the test result, a clinical diagnosis is made. The sensitivity is greater than 90% for skin testing and 70–90% for serum food-specific IgE measurement. For example, if the skin test for the specific test is negative, one can be about 70–90% certain the child does not have a food allergy. However, the specificity is less than 50% for both tests, meaning a positive skin or blood test indicates that the individual has less than a 50% chance of being truly allergic to the food.^{8,9} Therefore, these tests cannot be used to make a diagnosis in the absence of a good clinical history.

In case of any disagreement between the patient history and test results, an unclear history, or when unequivocal diagnosis is required for research, either an open, single-blind, or double-blind, placebo-controlled food challenge may be performed. Challenge doses are usually based on the practical allergy (PRACTALL) guidelines¹⁰ or can be performed according to infant food challenge guidance for peanut.¹¹

Prevalence of IgE-Mediated Food Allergies

It is well-known that milk and egg allergy are most commonly seen in younger children. Peanut and tree nut allergies seem to occur later in childhood. Fish and shellfish allergies tend to develop in older children¹² and pollen-cross reactions

The Soy Connection, funded by farmer checkoff dollars, is produced by the United Soybean Board and the Soy Nutrition Institute. An electronic version of this newsletter can be found at www.soyconnection.com/healthprofessionals/newsletter.

Editorial Board

Mark Messina, PhD, MS, Chairman
Guy Johnson, PhD
Leah McGrath, RD, LDN
Beth Smolko, DMSc, PA

Editorial Staff

Sarah Alsager, Managing Editor
Steve Veile, Consulting Editor
Lori Pendleton, Editorial Assistant
Susan Ferber, Graphic Design

The Soy Connection

P.O. Box 237
Jefferson City, MO 65102
sarah@qjinc.co



are more often seen in teenagers and adults.¹³⁻¹⁶ FA also differ among different populations being studied. Prevalence of common FA are different in different countries and age groups.^{5,17-20}

The natural history of FA has been studied for only a few food allergens. Focusing on population based studies, Host et al.²¹ and Venter et al.⁵ reported remission rates of cow's milk allergy of 87% and 80% at 3 years, respectively. A more recent study from Europe reported that 66% of children developed tolerance to cow's milk between 2 and 3 years of age.¹⁹ Data from 2 tertiary centers^{22,23} confirm these tolerance rates, but 1 U.S. center showed lower tolerance rates of only 5% by 4 years.²⁴ Studies indicate that approximately 50% of egg-allergic children will be tolerant by the age of 3 years and 66% by the age of 5.^{25,26} Recent data from the Europrevall study indicated that about 50% of those diagnosed with egg allergy by 2 years of age developed tolerance by 3 years.

In contrast, U.S. data indicate that only a small proportion (20%) of children with peanut allergy outgrow their allergy by adolescence or early adult life, and very occasionally a relapse may also occur.²⁷ Data from the U.K. showed that only 7% of peanut-allergic children became tolerant over the course of 7 years.²⁸ There are very limited data on the natural history of soy allergy. In the U.S., Savage et al.²⁹ reported that based on a retrospective review in a tertiary center, resolution of soy allergy predicted in 25% of children by 4 years, 45% by 6 years, and 69% by 10 years.

NON-IGE-MEDIATED FOOD ALLERGIES

Diagnosis of non-IgE-mediated FA is a clinical challenge. A thorough history is the cornerstone of diagnosing non-IgE-mediated FA and the foods implicated. The clinical history involves questions regarding typical characteristic signs and symptoms, followed by improvement of symptoms after withdrawal of the suspected trigger food(s). This diagnosis should ideally be followed by a food challenge or food reintroduction.

Food Protein Induced Enterocolitis Syndrome (FPIES)

FPIES can be characterized by acute (e.g., profuse vomiting 1–4 hours after eating the food) or chronic (e.g., persisting diarrhea with continued consumption of small amounts of the food) symptoms.³⁰ The true prevalence of FPIES is not known. Data for year 2011 from Israel indicate that 34% of infants developed FPIES to milk over the first 2 years of life.³¹ Data from Australia indicated .0154% of new cases (age 0–2 years) per year to any food.³² There is currently insufficient data to indicate if the prevalence or incidence of FPIES is increasing. Foods triggering FPIES also differ according to the country studied, as summarized by Venter and Groetch.³³ The main foods triggering FPIES in the U.S. are milk, rice, soy, and oats, whereas little FPIES to soy has been reported in Australia and Italy, and none was reported in Israel.³³ The main eliciting foods in the U.K. are cow's milk, fish, egg, soy, and wheat.³⁴ Food challenge protocols for FPIES are different than those for IgE-mediated FA and are suggested in the FPIES guidelines. SPT, specific IgE, and CRD play no role in the diagnosis of FPIES, but can be useful to diagnose atypical FPIES, often indicating more persistent disease. Only 2 small studies tested the ability of the atopy patch test (APT) to identify trigger foods in FPIES and showed contrasting results.

Therefore, the FPIES guidelines made no recommendation regarding the use of this test.^{35,36}

Eosinophilic Esophagitis (EoE)

EoE is defined as a clinicopathologic condition that is likely immune or antigen driven and characterized clinically by symptoms of esophageal dysfunction and histologically by 15 or more eosinophils per high-power field (eos/hpf).³⁷ EoE has an estimated prevalence of .057% in the U.S.³⁸ The dietary management of EoE comprises 3 phases. First is the elimination phase, during which potential trigger foods are removed followed by esophagogastroduodenoscopy (EGD) and biopsies to ascertain resolution. Second is the food reintroduction or challenge phase followed by an endoscopy. Last is the maintenance phase, where definite problematic foods remain out of the diet. SPT or IgE testing is not recommended to identify trigger foods in EoE due to non-IgE-mediated mechanisms driving EoE, but can be used to identify other co-existing FA or identify those sensitized to foods who may convert to clinical IgE-mediated FA after a period of avoidance. The APT has also been investigated to identify trigger foods in EoE, but data about efficacy are conflicting. Recent guidelines do not recommend the use of SPT, specific IgE testing, or APT for the initiation of elimination diet in EoE.³⁹ The ability of Immunoglobulin G4 (IgG4) to identify trigger foods in EoE is currently being investigated, particularly in relation to α -lactalbumin and β -lactoglobulin.⁴⁰ These proteins are the main proteins in milk, a major trigger of EoE. As IgG4 is usually a marker of tolerance, there is currently no explanation when IgG4 levels are raised in a food that is not tolerated by those with EoE. Other main foods triggering EoE have been summarized by Cianferoni et al.⁴¹ and include egg, wheat, and soy in the U.S. and egg, wheat, and legumes in children in Spain.

Other Non-IgE-Mediated Food Allergies

Other forms of non-IgE-mediated FA include a range of gut and skin related symptoms. The prevalence of these other non-IgE-mediated FA are unclear, although milk is considered the main food allergen implicated. IgE testing is not recommended for other forms of non-IgE-mediated FA unless other co-existing allergic diseases are being considered.⁴² International guidelines do not recommend APT as a routine test for the diagnosis of non-IgE-mediated allergies.^{1,43} As with FPIES and EoE, suspected foods should be excluded and if symptoms improve, a clinical diagnosis can be made. However, reintroduction of food allergens with reoccurrence of symptoms is the preferred option to diagnose these non-IgE-mediated FA.^{44,45} Routine endoscopies are not recommended. Testing for IgG and IgG4 is also not recommended.⁴²

Food Sensitivities

“Food sensitivities” is not an official term acknowledged by allergy associations/societies and symptoms such as headaches, chronic abdominal pain, and chronic behavioral symptoms are unlikely to represent FA.⁴⁶ Yet, many commercial entities market products such as IgG/IgG4 testing, applied kinesiology, electrodermal testing, antigen leukocyte antibody testing, provocation-neutralization testing, and hair analysis for the diagnosis of food sensitivities. The use of these unproven tests has been discouraged by the Canadian Society of Allergy and Clinical Immunology, the American Academy

of Allergy, Asthma and Immunology, National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases, and various allergy experts.^{1,47-49}

These tests can artificially inflate reported prevalence rates of adverse reactions to foods and lead to unnecessary dietary avoidance and delayed introduction of food allergens in young infants. One test of particular concern in the U.S. is the LEAP Mediator Release Test (MRT). The manufacturers of this test classify adverse food reactions as FA, food-induced autoimmune disease, and food sensitivities. They claim that food sensitivities affect up to 30–40% of the population, without substantial evidence. The MRT measures volumetric changes in mediators (cytokines, leukotrienes, prostaglandins, etc.) released from various cells (lymphocytes, eosinophils, monocytes, neutrophils) in both the innate and adaptive immune system. This test causes confusion as IgG⁵⁰ and IgA⁵¹ (adaptive immune system) have been associated with tolerance development rather than adverse food reactions in numerous citations. There is also currently no evidence that the adaptive immune system can launch adverse reactions to repeated exposure of food allergens, i.e., the adaptive immune system is non-specific as claimed by the manufacturers.⁵²

Currently, only 1 study has evaluated the LEAP MRT. In 2004 at the meeting of the American College of Gastroenterology (ACG), Williams⁵³ reported improvements in patients with diarrhea prominent IBS. Within 1 month of avoiding foods identified by LEAP MRT, patients reported a decrease in diarrhea, less systemic symptoms, and an increase in their well-being. However, this study involved only 10 adults and was never published in full manuscript form.

Summary

In summary, FA is often reported, but there is a large discrepancy between reported and diagnosed FA. This discrepancy may be due to confusion in nomenclature and the differences in study methodologies. In children, the prevalence of FA depends on the food studied and the country involved. It is unclear if FA are increasing due to a lack of data studying the same food in the same population, using similar methodologies. A large number of foods are reported to cause symptoms of FA. Only 8 foods (e.g., milk, egg, peanut) form the core components of FA. If secondary food allergens (e.g., apple cross-reaction with birch pollen) are taken into account, the number/range of foods triggering allergic reactions increases dramatically. The number of foods triggering adverse reactions becomes even more inflated when foods identified by unvalidated tests are taken into account.

Registered dietitian nutritionists working in the field of FA should be aware of the nutritional pitfalls of unnecessary food avoidance. Overreporting of adverse reactions to food are a common occurrence, often driven by unvalidated tests. Foods should only be excluded from an individual's diet if advised by a physician (e.g., allergist, immunologist, gastroenterologist) with experience in FA. 🍌

REFERENCES

1. Boyce JA, Assa'a A, Burks AW, et al. Guidelines for the diagnosis and management of food allergy in the United States: Summary of the NIAID-Sponsored expert panel report. *Nutrition*. 2011;27(2):253–67.

2. Rona RJ, Keil T, Summers C, et al. The prevalence of food allergy: A meta-analysis. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2007;120(3):638–46.
3. Volta U, Caio G, Karunaratne TB, et al. Non-coeliac gluten/wheat sensitivity: advances in knowledge and relevant questions. *Expert Rev Gastroenterol Hepatol*. 2017;11(1):9–18.
4. Portsmouth Uo. Literature searches and reviews related to the prevalence of food allergy in Europe. *EFSA supporting publications*. 2013;10(13):343.
5. Venter C, Pereira B, Voigt K, et al. Prevalence and cumulative incidence of food hypersensitivity in the first 3 years of life. *Allergy*. 2008;63(3):354–9.
6. Skypala IJ, Venter C, Meyer R, et al. The development of a standardised diet history tool to support the diagnosis of food allergy. *Clin Transl Allergy*. 2015;57.
7. Sato S, Yanagida N, Ebisawa M. How to diagnose food allergy. *Curr Opin Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2018;18(3):214–21.
8. Sicherer SH, Sampson HA. 9. Food allergy. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2006;117(2 Suppl Mini-Primer):S470–5.
9. Sampson HA. Food allergy. Part 2: diagnosis and management. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 1999;103(6):981–9.
10. Sampson HA, Gerth van Wijk R, Bindslev-Jensen C, et al. Standardizing double-blind, placebo-controlled oral food challenges: American Academy of Allergy, Asthma & Immunology-European Academy of Allergy and Clinical Immunology PRACTALL consensus report. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2012;130(6):1260–74.
11. Bird JA, Groetch M, Allen KJ, et al. Conducting an oral food challenge to peanut in an infant. *J Allergy Clin Immunol Pract*. 2016.
12. Moonesinghe H, Mackenzie H, Venter C, et al. Prevalence of fish and shellfish allergy: A systematic review. *Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol*. 2016;117(3):264–72 e4.
13. Skypala IJ, Bull S, Deegan K, et al. The prevalence of PFS and prevalence and characteristics of reported food allergy; a survey of U.K. adults aged 18–75 incorporating a validated PFS diagnostic questionnaire. *Clin Exp Allergy*. 2013;43(8):928–40.
14. Brown CE, Katelaris CH. The prevalence of the oral allergy syndrome and pollen-food syndrome in an atopic paediatric population in south-west Sydney. *J Paediatr Child Health*. 2014;50(10):795–800.
15. Ludman S, Jafari-Mamaghani M, Ebling R, et al. Pollen food syndrome amongst children with seasonal allergic rhinitis attending allergy clinic. *Pediatr Allergy Immunol*. 2016;27(2):134–40.
16. Zuidmeer L, Goldhahn K, Rona RJ, et al. The prevalence of plant food allergies: a systematic review. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2008;121(5):1210–8 e4.
17. Xepapadaki P, Fiocchi A, Grabenhenrich L, et al. Incidence and natural history of hen's egg allergy in the first 2 years of life—the EuroPrevall birth cohort study. *Allergy*. 2016;71(3):350–7.
18. Gupta RS, Springston EE, Warrier MR, et al. The prevalence, severity, and distribution of childhood food allergy in the United States. *Pediatrics*. 2011;128(1):e9–17.
19. Schoemaker AA, Sprickelman AB, Grimshaw KE, et al. Incidence and natural history of challenge-proven cow's milk allergy in European children—EuroPrevall birth cohort. *Allergy*. 2015;70(8):963–72.
20. Osterballe M, Hansen TK, Mortz CG, et al. The prevalence of food hypersensitivity in an unselected population of children and adults. *Pediatr Allergy Immunol*. 2005;16(7):567–73.
21. Host A, Halken S. A prospective study of cow milk allergy in Danish infants during the first 3 years of life. Clinical course in relation to clinical and immunological type of hypersensitivity reaction. *Allergy*. 1990;45(8):587–96.
22. James JM, Sampson HA. Immunologic changes associated with the development of tolerance in children with cow milk allergy. *J Pediatr*. 1992;121(3):371–7.
23. Isolauri E, Suomalainen H, Kaila M, et al. Local immune response in patients with cow milk allergy: follow-up of patients retaining allergy or becoming tolerant. *J Pediatr*. 1992;120(1):9–15.
24. Skripak JM, Nash SD, Rowley H, et al. A randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled study of milk oral immunotherapy for cow's milk allergy. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2008;122(6):1154–60.
25. Boyano-Martinez T, Garcia-Ara C, Diaz-Pena JM, et al. Prediction of tolerance on the basis of quantification of egg white-specific IgE antibodies in children with egg allergy. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2002;110(2):304–9.
26. Hattevig G, Sigurs N, Kjellman B. Effects of maternal dietary avoidance during lactation on allergy in children at 10 years of age. *Acta Paediatr*. 1999;88(1):7–12.
27. Fleischer DM, Conover-Walker MK, Christie L, et al. Peanut allergy: Recurrence and its management. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2004;114(5):1195–201.
28. Venter C, Maslin K, Patil V, et al. The prevalence, natural history and time trends of peanut allergy over the first 10 years of life in two cohorts born in the same geographical location 12 years apart. *Pediatr Allergy Immunol*. 2016;27(8):804–11.
29. Savage JH, Kaeding AJ, Matsui EC, et al. The natural history of soy allergy. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2010;125(3):683–6.
30. Nowak-Wegrzyn A, Chehade M, Groetch M, et al. International consensus guidelines for the diagnosis and management of food protein-induced enterocolitis syndrome: Workgroup report of the Adverse Reactions to Foods committee, American Academy of Allergy, Asthma, and Immunology. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2017.
31. Katz Y, Goldberg MR, Rajuan N, et al. The prevalence and natural course of food protein-induced enterocolitis syndrome to cow's milk: a large-scale, prospective population-based study. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2011;127(3):647–53 e1–3.

PREVALENCE OF SOY ALLERGY

By Mark Messina, PhD, MS

Soy protein is widely used by the food industry for its functional benefits such as enhancing moisture retention. For this reason, considerable diligence is required by those who are allergic to soy protein because it is present in many commonly consumed foods. Fortunately, this diligence is required by relatively few individuals as overall, surveys indicate that the prevalence of soy allergy is lowest among the Big 8 food allergens.

Since 2004, the U.S. Food Allergy Labeling Consumer Protection Act has mandated that the label of a food that contains an ingredient that is protein or is a derived protein from a “major food allergen” must include language noting the allergen included. The 8 foods classified as major allergens are thought to be responsible for 90% of the food-related allergic reactions among Americans.

When the Big 8 was established, relatively little prevalence data were available. However, as discussed below, over the past 10 years large surveys have provided considerable insight into the prevalence of food allergies among Canadian and U.S. children and adults.

The first report in the scientific literature of soy allergy dates to 1934, although in this case the allergic response was the result of airborne transfer of soy allergens among workers in a plant that milled soybeans.¹ More than 30 potential soybean allergen sequences have been identified; 16 of which have been confirmed with some data to support sensitization and elicitation.² However, IgE binding assays using immunoglobulins from soybean sensitive individuals reveal that about 2/3 of the total allergenic response is caused by 1 allergen, P34 (Gly m Bd 30K).³⁻⁵

The amount of soy protein required to elicit allergic responses in soy-sensitive individuals is generally much higher than for other food allergens.⁶ In fact, it may be

more than an order of magnitude higher than observed for peanut allergy.⁷⁻⁹ Highly refined soybean oil is exempt from labeling because any residual trace amounts of protein that might be in soybean oil have been shown not to cause reactions in soy protein-sensitive individuals.¹⁰

Allergic reactions to soy are generally considered to be more moderate in comparison to other food allergens, although some cases of anaphylaxis have been reported in the literature. In 1999, Foucard et al.¹¹ concluded that soy allergy has probably been underestimated as a cause of food anaphylaxis. This conclusion was based on a review of medical records of all fatal and life-threatening reactions sent to them by physicians in Sweden over a 3-year period. It was determined that 4 individuals suffered fatal allergic reactions in response to soy protein. However, 1 year later, Sicherer et al.¹² suggested that these reactions were not caused by soy, per se, but instead because the soy-containing foods consumed were contaminated with trace quantities of peanut protein, lupine, or some other allergen. They noted that if these reactions were due to soy protein, Foucard et al.¹¹ would have identified more fatal soy-allergic reactions in a single country than have been reported in the rest of the world.

Generating accurate prevalence data is challenging because for the most part it relies on self-reported data, that is, survey respondents report whether they are allergic to specific foods. In some cases, respondents also indicate whether their allergy was diagnosed by a physician, although the method of physician diagnosis is not necessarily reported. It is generally recognized that self-reported data overestimate prevalence when compared to more rigorous diagnostic methods.¹³ In some cases, surveys can partially control for this discrepancy by assessing whether the report of allergy is consistent with patient history.

Despite the limitations, recent North American surveys provide considerable insight into the prevalence of soy allergy. As shown in the table, among U.S. and Canadian adults, surveys consistently show that the prevalence of soy allergy is lower than the prevalence of the other 7 foods in the Big 8. For example, the prevalence of milk/dairy allergy is between about 3 and 41 times greater than the prevalence of soy allergy. Estimates of the prevalence of soy allergy range from 1 to 6 per 1,000 adults.

The prevalence of food allergy is greater among children than adults, although recent data indicate that food allergies often begin in adulthood.¹⁴ As in adults, soy allergy prevalence among children is the lowest among the Big 8. Children tend to outgrow their allergies, although the rate and extent to which this outcome occurs

Self-Reported Prevalence of Food Allergy Reported by U.S. and Canadian Adults for Major Food Allergens (percent of population)

Food	U.S.-NHANES ¹⁸	U.S.-FDA ¹⁹		NIAID Adults ¹⁴	Canada (SCAAALAR) ²⁰
		Self-report (SR)	SR-doctor diagnosed		
Years data collected	2007–2010	2010		2015–2016	2008–2009
Sample size	20,686	4,568		40,443	7,469
Any food	9.72	9.8	4.6	10.8	8.34
Milk/dairy	2.64	4.1	2.0	1.9	1.89
Shellfish	2.04	3.6	1.6	2.9	1.91
Fish	0.46	1.7	0.8	0.9	0.60
Tree nuts	0.87	1.3	0.7	1.2	1.07
Wheat/gluten	0.63	1.3	0.9	0.8	0.86
Egg	0.51	1.0	0.5	0.8	0.67
Peanuts	0.89	0.9	0.6	1.8	0.78
Soy	0.35	0.1	0.1	0.6	0.16
Sesame	NA	NA	NA	0.2	0.07

Continued from pg. 4

32. Mehr S, Frith K, Barnes EH, et al. Food protein-induced enterocolitis syndrome in Australia: A population-based study, 2012–2014. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2017.
33. Venter C, Groetch M. Nutritional management of food protein-induced enterocolitis syndrome. *Curr Opin Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2014;14(3):255–62.
34. Ludman S, Harmon M, Whiting D, et al. Clinical presentation and referral characteristics of food protein-induced enterocolitis syndrome in the United Kingdom. *Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol.* 2014;113(3):290–4.
35. Fogg MI, Brown-Whitehorn TA, Pawlowski NA, et al. Atopy patch test for the diagnosis of food protein-induced enterocolitis syndrome. *Pediatr Allergy Immunol.* 2006;17(5):351–5.
36. Jarvinen KM, Caubet JC, Sickles L, et al. Poor utility of atopy patch test in predicting tolerance development in food protein-induced enterocolitis syndrome. *Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol.* 2012;109(3):221–2.
37. Liacouras CA, Furuta GT, Hirano I, et al. Eosinophilic esophagitis: Updated consensus recommendations for children and adults. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2011;128(1):3–20 e6; quiz 1–2.
38. Dellon ES, Jensen ET, Martin CF, et al. Prevalence of eosinophilic esophagitis in the United States. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol.* 2014;12(4):589–96 e1.
39. Spergel JM, Dellon ES, Liacouras CA, et al. Summary of the updated international consensus diagnostic criteria for eosinophilic esophagitis: AGREE conference. *Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol.* 2018;121(3):281–4.
40. Wilson JM, Schuyler AJ, Tripathi A, Erwin EA, Commins SP, Platts-Mills TAE. IgG4 component allergens are preferentially increased in eosinophilic esophagitis as compared to patients with milk anaphylaxis or galactose- α -1,3-galactose allergy. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2016; Presented AAAAI 2016.
41. Cianferoni A, Shuker M, Brown-Whitehorn T, et al. Food avoidance strategies in eosinophilic esophagitis. *Clin Exp Allergy.* 2019;49(3):269–84.
42. Meyer R, Chebar Lozinsky A, Fleischer DM, et al. Diagnosis and management of non-IgE gastrointestinal allergies in breastfed infants—an EAACI position paper. *Allergy.* 2019.
43. Muraro A, Werfel T, Hoffmann-Sommergruber K, et al. EAACI food allergy and anaphylaxis guidelines: Diagnosis and management of food allergy. *Allergy.* 2014;69(8):1008–25.
44. Venter C, Brown T, Shah N, et al. Diagnosis and management of non-IgE-mediated cow's milk allergy in infancy—a U.K. primary care practical guide. *Clinical and translational allergy.* 2013;3(1):23.
45. Venter C, Brown T, Meyer R, et al. Better recognition, diagnosis and management of non-IgE-mediated cow's milk allergy in infancy: IMAP—an international interpretation of the MAP (Milk Allergy in Primary Care) guideline. *Clin Transl Allergy.* 2017;7:26.
46. Abrams EM, Sicherer SH. Diagnosis and management of food allergy. *CMAJ.* 2016;188(15):1087–93.
47. Kelso JM. Unproven diagnostic tests for adverse reactions to foods. *J Allergy Clin Immunol Pract.* 2018;6(2):362–5.
48. Bock SA. AAAAI support of the EAACI position paper on IgG4. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2010;125(6):1410.
49. Carr S, Chan E, Lavine E, et al. CSACI position statement on the testing of food-specific IgG. *Allergy Asthma Clin Immunol.* 2012;8(1):12.
50. Vance GH, Grimshaw KE, Briggs R, et al. Serum ovalbumin-specific immunoglobulin G responses during pregnancy reflect maternal intake of dietary egg and relate to the development of allergy in early infancy. *Clin Exp Allergy.* 2004;34(12):1855–61.
51. Seppo AE, Savilahti EM, Berin MC, et al. Breast milk IgA to foods has different epitope specificity than serum IgA—Evidence for entero-mammary link for food-specific IgA? *Clinical & Experimental Allergy.* 2017;47(10):1275–84.
52. M P. The Patented Mediator Release Test (MRT): A comprehensive blood test for inflammation caused by food and food-chemical sensitivities. *Townsend Letter.* 2014.
53. Williams F. Use of the leap mediator release test to identify non-IgE mediated immunologic food reactions that trigger diarrhea predominant IBS symptoms results in marked improvement of symptoms through use of an elimination diet. *American College of Gastroenterology, Orlando.* 2004.

ABOUT THE AUTHOR Carina Venter, PhD, RD, is an Associate Professor of Pediatrics, Section of Allergy & Immunology, University of Colorado—Denver School of Medicine/Children's Hospital Colorado. She obtained her BSc Degree in Dietetics in South Africa and her PhD from the University of Southampton in the U.K. She has more than 100 publications in the field of allergy and immunology and she educates internationally.

Continued from pg. 5

varies.¹⁵ Estimates in the literature suggest 70% of children outgrow their soy allergy by age 10.^{15,16}

Finally, concerns about soy allergy appear to be 1 reason many products targeting flexitarians and vegetarians are now made with pea protein rather than soy protein. Although pea protein has not been studied as extensively, it does cause allergic reactions. In fact, concentrating the protein—as is the case for pea protein isolate and pea protein concentrate—may lead to enhanced allergenicity.¹⁷ Canadian researchers recently described 6 cases of severe allergic reactions to foods containing concentrated sources of pea protein.¹⁷ 🤔

REFERENCES

1. Duke WW. Soy bean as a possible important source of allergy. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 1934;5300–2.
2. Stevenson SE, Woods CA, Hong B, et al. Environmental effects on allergen levels in commercially grown non-genetically modified soybeans: Assessing variation across north america. *Front Plant Sci.* 2012;3:196.
3. Ogawa T, Tsuji H, Bando N, et al. Identification of the soybean allergenic protein, Gly m Bd 30K, with the soybean seed 34-kDa oil-body-associated protein. *Biosci Biotechnol Biochem.* 1993;57(6):1030–3.
4. Helm RM, Cockrell G, Connaughton C, et al. Mutational analysis of the IgE-binding epitopes of P34/Gly m Bd 30K. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2000;105(2 Pt 1):378–84.
5. Herman EM. Genetically modified soybeans and food allergies. *J Exp Bot.* 2003;54(386):1317–9.
6. Bindslev-Jensen C, Briggs D, Osterballe M. Can we determine a threshold level for allergenic foods by statistical analysis of published data in the literature? *Allergy.* 2002;57(8):741–6.
7. Ballmer-Weber BK, Holzhauser T, Scibilia J, et al. Clinical characteristics of soybean allergy in Europe: A double-blind, placebo-controlled food challenge study. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2007;119(6):1489–96.
8. Hourihane JB, 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(5):596–600.
9. Wensing M, Penninks AH, Hefle SL, et al. The distribution of individual threshold doses eliciting allergic reactions in a population with peanut allergy. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2002;110(6):915–20.
10. Bush RK, Taylor SL, Nordlee JA, et al. Soybean oil is not allergenic to soybean-sensitive individuals. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 1985;76(2 Pt 1):242–5.
11. Foucard T, Malmheden Yman I. A study on severe food reactions in Sweden—is soy protein an underestimated cause of food anaphylaxis? *Allergy.* 1999;54(3):261–5.
12. Sicherer SH, Sampson HA, Burks AW. Peanut and soy allergy: A clinical and therapeutic dilemma. *Allergy.* 2000;55(6):515–21.
13. Sicherer SH, Sampson HA. Food allergy: A review and update on epidemiology, pathogenesis, diagnosis, prevention, and management. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2018;141(1):41–58.
14. Gupta RS, Warren CM, Smith BM, et al. Prevalence and severity of food allergies among US adults. *JAMA Netw Open.* 2019;2(1):e185630.
15. Savage J, Sicherer S, Wood R. The natural history of food allergy. *The journal of allergy and clinical immunology in practice.* 2016;4(2):196–203; quiz 4.
16. Savage JH, Kaeding AJ, Matsui EC, et al. The natural history of soy allergy. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2010;125(3):683–6.
17. Lavine E, Ben-Shoshan M. Anaphylaxis to hidden pea protein: A Canadian pediatric case series. *The journal of allergy and clinical immunology in practice.* 2019.
18. McGowan EC, Peng RD, Salo PM, et al. Changes in food-specific IgE over time in the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES). *The journal of allergy and clinical immunology in practice.* 2016;4(4):713–20.
19. Verrill L, Bruns R, Luccioli S. Prevalence of self-reported food allergy in U.S. adults: 2001, 2006, and 2010. *Allergy Asthma Proc.* 2015;36(6):458–67.
20. Soller L, Ben-Shoshan M, Harrington DW, et al. Overall prevalence of self-reported food allergy in Canada. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2012;130(4):986–8.

ABOUT THE AUTHOR Mark Messina, PhD, MS, is the co-owner of Nutrition Matters, Inc., a nutrition consulting company, and is an adjunct professor at Loma Linda University. His research focuses on the health effects of soyfoods and soybean components. He is chairman of *The Soy Connection* Editorial Board and executive director of the Soy Nutrition Institute.

Follow *The Soy Connection* on your favorite site!



SoyConnection

SOYBEAN OIL CORNER



HIGHLY REFINED SOYBEAN OIL DOES NOT ELICIT ALLERGIC REACTIONS IN SOY PROTEIN-SENSITIVE INDIVIDUALS

By Mark Messina, PhD, MS

The U.S. Food Allergen Labeling & Consumer Protection Act (FALCPA) mandates labeling of all ingredients derived from commonly allergenic foods. In the U.S., 8 foods, commonly referred to as the Big 8, have been identified as the most frequent human food allergens; accounting for 90% of food allergic reactions among Americans. These foods are milk, eggs, fish, crustacea, wheat, peanuts, tree nuts, and soy.^{1,2} However, the prevalence of allergy for each of these foods varies markedly. North American surveys published over the past 10 years show that among the Big 8, the prevalence of soy allergy is lower than the prevalence of the other 7 foods.³⁻⁶

Importantly, the FALCPA exempts highly refined oils from these labeling provisions. Soybean oil is viewed similarly in

Europe, where soy protein is classified as one of the 14 most common foods that induce allergic reactions.⁷ The reason for these exceptions is that highly refined soybean, as well as peanut and sunflower seed, oils have been clinically documented to be safe for consumption by individuals allergic to the source food.⁸⁻¹¹ For example, Taylor et al.¹² tested the ability of a mixture of 4 soybean oils with the highest protein level from a group of 30 highly refined oils obtained from 30 different worldwide processors in a group of 28 soy protein-allergic individuals. Study participants consumed increasing doses of 1, 5, and 10g soybean oil (test material) and canola oil (control material) in a double-blind placebo-controlled food challenge. No untoward reactions were encountered to either soybean or canola oils.

Continued on pg. 8



The process of commercially refining soybean oil involves extraction with hot solvents, bleaching, and deodorization, which serve to eliminate almost all soy protein (and thus allergens) from the oil.¹³ It is, however, difficult to quantify the protein content of oil. Attempts to do so indicate that crude oils contain about 100–300mg/kg, whereas fully refined oils contain at least 100 times less.¹³ This difference explains the lack of reaction observed in response to ingesting highly refined oils, unlike ingesting unrefined or partially refined culinary oils, which have been found to elicit allergic reactions in sensitized individuals.¹⁴ While highly refined soybean oil does contain residual soy protein, the residue levels are extremely low—too low to elicit an allergic response in nearly all cases.^{13,15–17} Analytical data from Rigby et al.¹⁸ on cumulative threshold doses for soy protein suggest that even the most sensitive individuals would need to consume at least 50g of highly refined oil to experience subjective symptoms.¹⁸

There have been a few cases where soybean oil elicited an allergic response, but these cases followed intravenous infusion of an emulsion containing soybean oil, which seems far removed from typical consumption.^{16,19,20} There is also 1 unusual case of a possible soy oil-induced allergy after an infant was fed exclusively on an amino acid-based formula containing a soybean oil-based component.²¹ The circumstances of exposure in this exceptional case are unusual and the association with the soybean oil component of the formula was somewhat speculative.

In contrast to highly refined soybean oil, lecithin derived from soybeans does require labeling (a few exemptions have been granted) even though nearly all the protein is removed in the soy lecithin manufacturing process. According to Steve L. Taylor, PhD, and Joe L. Baumert, PhD, Food Allergy Research and Resource Program, University of Nebraska, soy lecithin does not contain sufficient soy protein residues to provoke allergic reactions in the majority of soy-allergic consumers.²²

On the other hand, these authors note there is “the possibility that some of the more sensitive soybean-allergic consumers might react to ingestion of soybean lecithin.” More research on the allergenicity of soy lecithin is warranted. 🍯

REFERENCES

1. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (1995) Report of the FAO Technical Consultation on Food Allergies. Rome, Italy.
2. Food Allergen Labeling and Consumer Protection Act of 2004 (Public Law 108–282, Title II). <http://www.fda.gov/Food/GuidanceRegulation/GuidanceDocuments-RegulatoryInformation/Allergens/ucm106187.htm>.
3. McGowan EC, Peng RD, Salo PM, et al. Changes in food-specific IgE over time in the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES). *The Journal of allergy and clinical immunology in practice*. 2016;4(4):713–20.
4. Verrill L, Bruns R, Luccioli S. Prevalence of self-reported food allergy in U.S. adults: 2001, 2006, and 2010. *Allergy Asthma Proc*. 2015;36(6):458–67.
5. Gupta RS, Warren CM, Smith BM, et al. Prevalence and severity of food allergies among US adults. *JAMA Netw Open*. 2019;2(1):e185630.
6. Soller L, Ben-Shoshan M, Harrington DW, et al. Overall prevalence of self-reported food allergy in Canada. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2012;130(4):986–8.
7. European Commission Directive 2007/68/EC of 27th November 2007.
8. Bush RK, Taylor SL, Nordlee JA, et al. Soybean oil is not allergenic to soybean-sensitive individuals. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 1985;76(2 Pt 1):242–5.
9. Halsey AB, Martin ME, Ruff ME, et al. Sunflower oil is not allergenic to sunflower seed-sensitive patients. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 1986;78(3 Pt 1):408–10.
10. Hourihane JO, Bedwani SJ, Dean TP, et al. Randomised, double blind, crossover challenge study of allergenicity of peanut oils in subjects allergic to peanuts. *BMJ*. 1997;314(7087):1084–8.
11. Martin-Hernandez C, Benet S, Obert L. Determination of proteins in refined and nonrefined oils. *J Agric Food Chem*. 2008;56(12):4348–51.
12. Taylor SL, Nordlee JA, Sicherer SH, et al. Soybean oil is not allergenic to soybean-allergic individuals. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2004;113(2):S99.
13. Crevel RW, Kerkhoff MA, Koning MM. Allergenicity of refined vegetable oils. *Food Chem Toxicol*. 2000;38(4):385–93.
14. Moneret-Vautrin DA, Kanny G. Update on threshold doses of food allergens: Implications for patients and the food industry. *Current opinion in allergy and clinical immunology*. 2004;4(3):215–9.
15. Errahali Y, Morisset M, Moneret-Vautrin DA, et al. Allergen in soy oils. *Allergy*. 2002;57(7):648–9.
16. Moneret-Vautrin DA, Morisset M, Flabbee J, et al. Unusual soy oil allergy. *Allergy*. 2002;57(3):266–7.
17. Renaud C, Cardiet C, Dupont C. Allergy to soy lecithin in a child. *J Pediatr Gastroenterol Nutr*. 1996;22(3):328–9.
18. Rigby NM, Sancho AI, Salt LJ, et al. Quantification and partial characterization of the residual protein in fully and partially refined commercial soybean oils. *J Agric Food Chem*. 2011;59(5):1752–9.
19. Andersen HL, Nissen I. [Presumed anaphylactic shock after infusion of Lipofundin]. *Ugeskr Laeger*. 1993;155(28):2210–1.
20. Hiyama DT, Griggs B, Mittman RJ, et al. Hypersensitivity following lipid emulsion infusion in an adult patient. *JPEN J Parenter Enteral Nutr*. 1989;13(3):318–20.
21. Palm M, Moneret-Vautrin DA, Kanny G, et al. Food allergy to egg and soy lecithins. *Allergy*. 1999;54(10):1116–7.
22. Taylor SL, Baumert JL. Allergenicity of soybean lecithin. Expert opinion statement Food Allergy Research & Resource Program University of Nebraska. 2017.

Editor’s note: Portions of this article are excerpts from a 2017 Soy Connection article.

ABOUT THE AUTHOR

Mark Messina, PhD, MS, is the co-owner of Nutrition Matters, Inc., a nutrition consulting company, and is an adjunct professor at Loma Linda University. His research focuses on the health effects of soyfoods and soybean components. He is chairman of *The Soy Connection* Editorial Board and executive director of the Soy Nutrition Institute.

www.soyconnection.com