

## White paper on peanut allergy – part 1: epidemiology, burden of disease, health economic aspects

Lars Lange, Ludger Klimek, Kirsten Beyer, Katharina Blümchen, Natalija Novak, Eckard Hamelmann, Andrea Bauer, Hans Merk, Uta Rabe, Kirsten Jung, Wolfgang Schlenter, Johannes Ring, Adam Chaker, Wolfgang Wehrmann, Sven Becker, Norbert Mülleneisen, Katja Nemat, Wolfgang Czech, Holger Wrede, Randolph Brehler, Thomas Fuchs, Thilo Jakob, Tobias Ankermann, Sebastian M. Schmidt, Michael Gerstlauer, Torsten Zuberbier, Thomas Spindler, Christian Vogelberg

### Angaben zur Veröffentlichung / Publication details:

Lange, Lars, Ludger Klimek, Kirsten Beyer, Katharina Blümchen, Natalija Novak, Eckard Hamelmann, Andrea Bauer, et al. 2021. "White paper on peanut allergy – part 1: epidemiology, burden of disease, health economic aspects." *Allergo Journal International* 30: 261–69. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40629-021-00189-z>.

Allergo J Int (2021) 30:261–269  
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s40629-021-00189-z>



# White paper on peanut allergy – part 1: Epidemiology, burden of disease, health economic aspects

**Lars Lange · Ludger Klimek · Kirsten Beyer · Katharina Blümchen · Natalija Novak · Eckard Hamelmann · Andrea Bauer · Hans Merk · Uta Rabe · Kirsten Jung · Wolfgang Schlenter · Johannes Ring · Adam Chaker · Wolfgang Wehrmann · Sven Becker · Norbert Mülleneisen · Katja Nemat · Wolfgang Czech · Holger Wrede · Randolph Brehler · Thomas Fuchs · Thilo Jakob · Tobias Ankermann · Sebastian M. Schmidt · Michael Gerstlauer · Torsten Zuberbier · Thomas Spindler · Christian Vogelberg**

Received: 19 April 2021 / Accepted: 21 June 2021 / Published online: 28 September 2021  
 © The Author(s) 2021

L. Lange  
 Department of Pediatrics, St. Marien-Hospital, GFO Clinics  
 Bonn, Bonn, Germany

L. Klimek  
 Center for Rhinology and Allergology Wiesbaden,  
 Wiesbaden, Germany

K. Beyer  
 Department of Pediatrics m.S. Pneumology, Immunology  
 and Intensive Care Medicine, Charité—Universitätsmedizin  
 Berlin, Berlin, Germany

K. Blümchen  
 Center of Pediatric and Adolescent Medicine, Focus on  
 Allergology, Pneumology and Cystic Fibrosis, University  
 Hospital Frankfurt, Goethe University Frankfurt, Frankfurt a.  
 M., Germany

N. Novak  
 Clinic and Polyclinic for Dermatology and Allergology,  
 University Hospital Bonn, Bonn, Germany

E. Hamelmann  
 Pediatric and Adolescent Medicine, Bethel Children's Center,  
 OWL University Hospital of Bielefeld University, Bielefeld,  
 Germany

A. Bauer  
 Clinic and Polyclinic for Dermatology, University  
 AllergyCenter, University Hospital Carl Gustav Carus,  
 Dresden University of Technology, Dresden, Germany

H. Merk  
 Department of Dermatology & Allergology, RWTH Aachen,  
 Aachen, Germany

U. Rabe  
 Clinic for Allergology, Johanniter-Krankenhaus im Fläming  
 Treuenbrietzen GmbH, Treuenbrietzen, Germany

K. Jung  
 Practice for Dermatology, Immunology and Allergology,  
 Erfurt, Germany

W. Schlenter  
 Medical Association of German Allergists, Dreieich,  
 Germany

J. Ring  
 Skin and Laser Center at the Opera, Munich, Germany

A. Chaker  
 Department of Otolaryngology, Klinikum rechts der Isar,  
 Technische Universität München, Munich, Germany  
 Center for Allergy and Environment (ZAUM), Klinikum  
 rechts der Isar, Technische Universität München, Munich,  
 Germany

W. Wehrmann  
 Wehrmann Dermatological Group Practice, Münster,  
 Germany

S. Becker  
 Department of Otolaryngology, University of Tübingen,  
 Tübingen, Germany

N. Mülleneisen  
 Asthma and Allergy Center Leverkusen, Leverkusen,  
 Germany

K. Nemat  
 Pediatric Pneumology/Allergology Practice, Kinderzentrum  
 Dresden (Kid), Dresden, Germany

W. Czech  
 Practice and clinic for allergology/dermatology,  
 Schwarzwald-Baar Klinikum, Villingen-Schwenningen,  
 Germany

H. Wrede  
 Practice and clinic for allergology/ear, nose and throat  
 specialist, Herford, Germany

R. Brehler  
 Clinic for Skin Diseases, Outpatient Clinic for Allergology,  
 Occupational Dermatology and Environmental Medicine,  
 Münster University Hospital, Münster, Germany

**Abstract** Peanuts are Leguminosae, commonly known as the legume or pea family, and peanut allergy is among the most common food allergies and the most common cause of fatal food reactions and anaphylaxis.

The prevalence of peanut allergy increased 3.5-fold over the past two decades reaching 1.4–2% in Europe and the United States. The reasons for this increase in prevalence are likely multifaceted. Sensitization via the skin appears to be associated with the development of peanut allergy and atopic eczema in infancy is associated with a high risk of developing peanut allergy.

Until recently, the only possible management strategy for peanut allergy was strict allergen avoidance and emergency treatment including adrenaline auto-injector in cases of accidental exposure and reaction. This paper discusses the various factors that impact the risks of peanut allergy and the burden of self-management on peanut-allergic children and their caregivers.

T. Fuchs

Department of Dermatology, Venereology and Allergology, University Hospital, Georg-August-University, Göttingen, Germany

T. Jakob

rd Clinic for Dermatology and Allergology University Hospital Giessen, UKGM Justus Liebig University Giessen, Giessen, Germany

T. Ankermann

th Clinic for Pediatric and Adolescent Medicine, Pneumology, Allergology, Neonatology, Intensive Care Medicine, Infectiology, University Hospital Schleswig-Holstein, Kiel, Germany

S. M. Schmidt

th Center for Pediatric and Adolescent Medicine, Clinic and Polyclinic for Pediatric and Adolescent Medicine, Greifswald University Medical Center, Greifswald, Germany

M. Gerstlauer

pediatric pneumologist/pediatric allergologist, II. clinic for children and adolescents, University Hospital Augsburg, Augsburg, Germany

T. Zuberbier

Clinic for Dermatology, Venereology and Allergology, Charité—Universitätsmedizin Berlin, Berlin, Germany

T. Spindler

Department of Pediatrics and Adolescent Medicine, Pediatric Pneumology, Allergology, Sports Medicine, Hochgebirgsklinik Davos, Davos-Wolfgang, Switzerland

Prof. Dr. C. Vogelberg (✉)

Klinik u. Poliklinik f. Kinder- u. Jugendmedizin, Fachbereich Kinderpneumologie/Allergologie, Universitätsklinikum Carl Gustav Carus, Dresden, Germany

Department of Pediatric Pneumology/Allergology, Clinic and Polyclinic for Pediatrics and Adolescent Medicine, University Hospital Carl Gustav Carus, Fetscher Street 74, 01307 Dresden, Germany  
christian.vogelberg@uniklinikum-dresden.de

**Keywords** Food allergy · Anaphylaxis · Oral immunotherapy · COVID-19 · Children

### Abbreviations

AGATE	Arbeitsgemeinschaft Anaphylaxie—Training und Edukation e.V.
Ara h	Allergens in peanuts ( <i>Arachis hypogaea</i> )
DAAB	Deutscher Allergie- und Asthmabund (German Allergy and Asthma Association)
DBPCFC	Double-blind placebo-controlled food challenge
IgE	Immunoglobulin E
LMIV	Lebensmittel-Informationsverordnung (European Food Information Regulation)
OIT	Oral immunotherapy

### Introduction

Peanuts belong to the botanical family Leguminosae, commonly known as the legume or pea family [1]. Peanut allergy is among the most common food allergies and now the most common cause of fatal food reactions [1, 2]. Peanuts are one of the food allergens most commonly associated with anaphylaxis, a sudden and potentially deadly allergic reaction that requires immediate attention and treatment. Although food allergy-related fatalities are rare, peanut allergy accounts for most of them, even in individuals with a history of mild reactions, making prediction difficult [3].

Most food allergies, for example, those to egg and milk, are often limited to infancy and are usually “outgrown” in childhood. This is only the case in less than 20% of children with peanut allergy [4–7]. Children with a low initial sensitization, i.e., a low initial peanut-specific Immunoglobulin E (IgE) level, and those with only cutaneous symptoms without other accompanying symptoms, are more likely to outgrow their peanut allergy. Outgrown peanut allergy also coincides with lower rates of atopic eczema and other comorbidities generally seen in peanut-allergic patients [7].

Until recently, the only possible management strategy for peanut allergy was limited to the combination of strict allergen avoidance along with an action plan, including having an adrenaline auto-injector (AAI) on hand in case of accidental exposure and reaction to peanut, which is sometimes referred to as an “avoidance management strategy.” This white paper discusses various factors related to the impact of the risks of peanut allergy and the burden of self-management on peanut-allergic children and their caregivers.

## Epidemiology

The prevalence of peanut allergy in the United States has been reported to have increased 3.5-fold over the past two decades, from 0.4% in 1997 to 0.8% in 2002 and 1.4% in 2008 [8–10]. Currently, 1–2% of children are affected in the Western world [11–13]. Although the trend in increased prevalence of peanut allergy is seen in most regions, it is also important to note that the variability of estimates is in part due to the different diagnostic methods, the age of the cohorts, and the populations studied [11–13]. The reasons for the increase in prevalence of peanut allergy are not known and are likely multifaceted; however, sensitization via the skin appears to be associated with the later development of peanut allergy [14] and atopic eczema in infancy is associated with a high risk of developing peanut allergy [15]. Several studies have shown that disturbances in cutaneous barrier function—e.g., with lower formation of filaggrin—may promote peanut sensitization [16, 17]. By contrast, early and regular consumption of peanut protein from infancy onward in relevant amounts promotes tolerance development, especially in at-risk children with atopic eczema or other food allergies [18–20].

Peanut and hazelnut allergies frequently occur at preschool age, in 55% of children by 2 years of age and in 92% by 7 years of age [21]. The later onset of clinical symptoms is usually explained by later first consumption. The development of primary allergy to peanut after previous problem-free consumption is a rarity. Approximately one third of patients are clinically allergic both to peanuts and to tree nuts [21]. In a recent prospective study of cross-allergy in peanut and nut allergic patients by Brough et al., approximately 30% of patients also reacted to cashew, 28% to walnut and pistachio, 22% to hazelnut, and 20% to pecan [22].

## Clinical symptoms and diagnostics

Allergies to peanut have a range of clinical presentations from cutaneous manifestations to life-threatening systemic reactions. Peanut allergy mostly manifests as isolated cutaneous symptoms (94%), or as respiratory tract (42%) and/or gastrointestinal system (33%) symptoms. An allergic response to peanuts usually occurs within minutes of exposure. In one study, 95% of patients reacted within 20 min [23]; in another study, the median onset of a reaction after oral challenge was as late as 55 min [24]. In large cohort studies, approximately one third of patients reacted with the clinical symptoms of anaphylaxis to accidental consumption [25, 26]. Some allergic patients react to very small (milligrams) amounts of peanut protein, but many react only to larger amounts equivalent to more than one peanut kernel [25–30]. In a survey of 669 peanut-allergic participants, the amount of food allergen triggering the accidental reaction was able to be estimated in 238 participants (35.5%). Median esti-

mated eliciting dose in real life was 125 mg (interquartile range: 34–177 mg) of peanut protein [25].

To better assess the different risk profiles, a whole series of peanut molecular antigens (allergen components) have been identified so far (Ara h 1–11; [31–33]). Of these, Ara h 1, 2, 3, and 6 are associated with higher-grade allergic/anaphylactic reactions after peanut protein exposure, and the majority of clinically relevant peanut-allergic patients produce antigen-specific IgE antibodies to these allergens [34–37]. Elevated serum IgE levels for the Ara h 2 component have been shown to be particularly relevant for diagnostics [38, 39]. Specific IgE against Ara h 8, a PR10 protein and Bev 1-homologous allergen, on the other hand, indicates a cross-allergy in the context of an existing birch pollen sensitization, with absent or only mild symptoms on peanut consumption, most likely in the context of an oral allergy syndrome.

Double-blind placebo-controlled oral allergen challenge (DBPCFC) is considered the gold standard for the diagnosis of food allergy, including peanut allergy [40]. However, in daily practice, a combination of a typical history of an allergic reaction and a positive skin prick test or the detection of serum-specific IgE antibodies against peanut, and especially against the peanut Ara h 2 storage protein, often confirms the diagnosis of a clinically relevant peanut allergy.

## Burden of disease and impact on quality of life

The daily burden due to peanut allergy can be substantial [41]. Peanut-allergic children have a poorer quality of life than children with diabetes mellitus [42], mainly due to the potential dangers in the everyday environment and the fear of fatal anaphylaxis [42]. A recent Europe-wide study shows that peanut allergy has a day-to-day impact on more than 80% of affected children and their parents/caregivers. In comparison, nearly 40% live with a high or extremely high level of stress, and a similar proportion of peanut-allergic individuals reported feeling frequently or very frequently frustrated because of their allergy [43]. In this regard, the processing strategies of families are very different [44]. A study from the United States showed that approximately 40% of patients had a good coping strategy characterized by high competence, with little anxiety and few restrictions in everyday life. Another about 45% of affected families have high competence, but also much fear of reactions and thus moderate limitations [44]. Only approximately 10% of families are paralyzed with anxiety. The cause of the fears and quality-of-life limitations is mainly the concern of severe allergic reactions due to accidental ingestion of peanut. In this regard, “trace” peanut, i.e., the unintentional introduction of allergen into processed foods, usually plays a role. Contamination by peanut proteins does occur [45, 46]. In the majority of cases of fatal and near-fatal reactions to peanut, patients were

unaware that the foods consumed contained peanut proteins, suggesting that attempts at consistent avoidance are not easily implemented [1, 47]. Parents often do not feel sufficiently understood and supported by the environment [41]. On the other hand, families with an affected child usually have good cohesion, which they perceive as strengthening [41].

The degree of anxiety of the families clearly depends on the given assessment of the situation and recommendations of the physicians in charge [25]. If rigorous allergen avoidance is recommended, the families' anxiety is greater. Often, these patients and their families avoid eating in restaurants because of the risk of food contamination with peanut, which is not apparent there [42, 48]. Shopping can be time-consuming (due to review of food labels), frustrating, and limited because a great many products are labeled "may contain peanut" even when it seems unlikely that they contain significant amounts [42, 48].

### Socioeconomic impact

The presence of peanut allergy leads to high costs for the healthcare system [49]. On the one hand, peanut allergy itself incurs costs due to prescription of emergency medication or planned and unplanned physician visits. On the other hand, many patients with peanut allergy also suffer from other atopic diseases such as bronchial asthma and atopic eczema, which causes additional high costs. A recent study in the United Kingdom demonstrated that compared to matched control groups (normal and with/without an atopic condition), patients with peanut allergy had a greater number of contacts (per person-year) with primary care providers, inpatient care, prescriptions, outpatient care, and accident and emergency admissions [50]. While many studies examining the socioeconomic impact of peanut allergy have limitations, the overall trend toward increased cost to the healthcare system is apparent.

### Management and therapeutic options

The standard of care to date has been to educate patients, caregivers, and families to avoid peanuts and peanut-containing products and to prescribe emergency medications (injectable intramuscular adrenaline/epinephrine, oral antihistamines, oral steroids, inhaled  $\beta_2$ -agonists) to be used as needed [51–53].

To ensure safe use, instructions on the application of emergency medications should be provided with the prescription, and the patient or, in the case of young children, their caregivers should be encouraged to attend AGATE (*Arbeitsgemeinschaft Anaphylaxie Training und Edukation*) anaphylaxis training sessions [54–56]. These training sessions explain in detail both the management of allergic reactions and allergen avoidance strategies.

Unfortunately, many families of peanut-allergic children know little about how to avoid food allergens, treat accidental food exposures, and use an epinephrine auto-injector [57]. This is compounded by nearly one third of nut-allergic children being unable to reliably identify the nuts to which they are allergic [58]. Furthermore, peanut avoidance is nearly impossible given that peanut has become a ubiquitous foodstuff, used in many different foods, and labeling may be inadequate or misinterpreted by families and caregivers [53, 59]. It is therefore not surprising that reactions after accidental ingestion are recurrent, especially in school settings [60] and at meals away from home, for example, in restaurants [61].

The risk of accidental exposure to peanut is still high among individuals with peanut allergy. Data on the annual incidence rate of reactions due to accidental exposures vary, likely due to variations in data collection, geographic regions, and time of study. An incidence of 15% has been reported in a group of 567 patients with nut allergy who were referred to an outpatient allergy clinic and followed up annually [62]; an incidence of 55% over 5 years in a cohort of 102 peanut-allergic children [23]; and a rate of 75% over a 14-year period [4]. In a recent pooled analysis of several studies, a rate of approximately 10% adverse reactions per capita per year was calculated [63].

A comprehensive education and management plan that includes verbal and written advice on nut avoidance and treatment of allergic reactions can effectively reduce both the severity and the number of future reactions [57, 62, 64]. In this regard, the AGATE training program is also recommended, as it explains in detail both the management of allergic reactions and allergen avoidance strategies [54, 56]. Moreover, AGATE training courses for caregivers given by patient advocacy groups like the DAAB (German Allergy and Asthma Association) also fulfill this purpose. In addition, caregivers and staff of daycare centers and schools should also be instructed and trained in the management of allergy and the use of the emergency medication.

### European precautionary allergen labeling

The European Union (EU) standardized food labeling regulation governs how packaged food must be labeled and what minimum information must appear on the packaging. The basis for this is the European Food Information Regulation (LMIV; EU) No. 1169/2011, which has applied to allergens since December 13, 2014. The EU regulation applies directly in all EU member states. It can be supplemented by member states national guidelines and regulations in certain cases.



**Table 1** Products with high risk of contamination with peanut allergens (according to [66])

Chocolate and candy bar
Cookies and biscuit
Muesli bar, fruit bar, protein bar
Nut mix, “Nibbles”
Bakery products (cakes, pastries, pies, rarely grain bread)
Confectionery products
Ice cream
Restaurant prepared food, especially Asian cuisine

### Allergen labeling regulations on packaged goods

The European Food Information Regulation (LMIV; EU) No. 1169/2011 requires that the 14 most important substances (including peanuts) that can trigger allergies or intolerances be listed on the ingredient label of packaged product. The 14 substances listed in Annex II of the Food Information Regulation (LMIV; EU) No. 1169/2011 are: cereals containing gluten, crustaceans, fish, soybeans, milk, eggs, nuts, celery, mustard, lupine, sesame seeds, mollusks, sulfites, and also peanuts and products derived from peanuts.

These substances must be highlighted in the list of ingredients, e.g., the font style (e.g., bold print) or the background color/shading. The labeling requirement also applies to all allergenic substances and excipients used in production. If there is no list of ingredients, the substances must be indicated with the additional note “contains”, for example, “contains peanuts.”

### Allergen labeling of loose goods

Information on the allergen content of food is also mandatory for unpackaged goods (e.g., at the service counter or in restaurants). This information may be provided in writing, electronically, or orally. In the case of oral information, written documentation must be readily available upon request. This can be done on the basis of the suggestions developed by the associations, e.g., as a leaflet, information sheet, recipe details, or similar. There must be a clear indication of this at the point of sale.

### “Trace identification”

While the labeling of allergen entries deliberately added to a prepared food due to the recipe is required by law, the declaration of unintentional allergen entries (“traces of”) is not required by law. Manufacturers are allowed to decide individually whether or not to include a corresponding note under the list of ingredients. Considering how contamination can occur, it is difficult to produce food that is guaranteed to be free of an allergen. This is possible for some large manufacturers who operate entire plants dedicated to peanut- and nut-free production for this purpose. However, it is not only in the factory that

allergens can be transferred through the shared use of a production line. All suppliers and source products must also be checked, and it should be possible to guarantee that no allergen input can have taken place. A study from the United States was able to show that large, internationally active food groups are more likely to have appropriate quality management in place, which reduces the risk of corresponding allergen entries [65].

The term “trace” does not at all mean that only small amounts of the allergen are present as unintentional contamination. In certain products such as mueslis, nut pastries, or chocolates, quantities in the range of whole peanut kernels can also occur as a “trace.”

Since the declaration is voluntary, smaller companies and manufacturers of loose goods in particular decide either not to provide any trace information at all or to provide information on all possible allergens “just to be on the safe side.” An extensive review paper by Brough et al. summarizes the recommendations on the basis of the available data in such a way [66] that in the case of highly sensitive patients, high-risk products in particular should be avoided, since contamination can occur here even without appropriate trace labeling (Table 1). Contamination with peanut protein in other products such as ready meals, on the other hand, occurs only rarely.

### Discussion

Peanut allergy is one of the most common food allergies in Western nations and is often a lifelong condition [1, 2]. Allergy to peanut is among the common causes of food-allergy-related anaphylaxis and emergency department admissions [1, 2]. The diagnosis of a patient with suspected peanut allergy may include a careful history taking, skin-prick testing, measurement of serum-specific IgE, and, possibly, an oral food challenge, all of which are discussed in Part 2 of this white paper (Blum et al. in this issue of *Allergo Journal*).

To date, management options for peanut allergy combined a strict allergen avoidance along with an action plan with emergency treatment in the case of reaction due to accidental exposure to peanut, as described in detail in the contribution by Reese et al. in Part 4 of this white paper (Reese et al. in this issue of *Allergo Journal*).

Although practical and well-established dietary regimens have been developed for this purpose [67], peanut allergy represents a considerable burden on the lives of affected individuals, their families, and caregivers.

The information received by parents and caregivers can impact strongly on their quality of life, sometimes much more than their actual experiences. Parents obtain information from various sources, often unfiltered from the Internet. The allergists in charge

should provide families with verified information and give a risk assessment based on the known individual influencing factors (such as the known individual reaction amount and severity, concomitant diseases, and many more). Unrealistic worries such as those about airborne transmission of peanut particles or severe reactions from skin contact should be taken away from patients. Patients should be encouraged in their ability to effectively treat allergic reactions with available emergency medications. In this way, an unduly severe reduction in quality of life can be avoided.

In the absence of a curative therapy, peanut allergy represents a lifelong burden for most patients. Considerations for the development of hypoallergenic foods [68] have not yet found their way into everyday practice. Recent investigations with allergen immunotherapy for the treatment of peanut allergy have been performed, with the aim of increasing patients' tolerability threshold. By desensitizing patients, the amount of peanut needed to trigger a reaction increases, and the possibility of patients reacting when accidentally exposed to peanut is thereby reduced.

The approach more widely studied in clinical trials and advanced in terms of clinical experience is oral immunotherapy (OIT), which undoubtedly reduces the likelihood of reacting to peanuts. A preparation for OIT to mitigate allergic reactions after accidental exposure to peanuts in individuals aged 4–17 years with a confirmed diagnosis of peanut allergy, “defatted powder of *Arachis hypogaea* L., semen (peanuts)” (previously known as AR101), was approved in December 2020. This is discussed in detail in the article by Blümchen et al. in Part 3 of this white paper on peanut allergy (Blümchen et al. in this issue of *Allergo Journal*).

It has been demonstrated that OIT for peanut allergy is efficacious and has a manageable safety profile with few severe adverse reactions (Blümchen et al. in this issue of *Allergo Journal*). Positive health economic outcomes can be achieved with OIT, but most importantly, quality of life improves in patients undergoing OIT, even in those not achieving sustained immune tolerance. If, however, the baseline quality of life is not impacted, it is possible that the regimented treatment and side effects may lead to a deterioration of the patient's quality of life while on treatment. Therefore, prior to treatment, a detailed discussion on the benefits and risks of immunotherapy, taking into account all specificities of each patient and family, is desirable. Additional data are needed to better understand the longer-term profile of the treatment and to answer questions such as which patients continue to be at risk of anaphylaxis and who must continue to practice avoidance of peanuts and carry an emergency kit.

In any case, good and qualified nutritional counselling with regard to the recognition of risk situations and, at present, training in the safe use of the emer-

gency kit for each patient remain the central components of therapy.

**Funding** Open Access funding enabled and organized by Projekt DEAL.

**Conflict of interest** L. Lange reports fees for consulting from Aimmune, DBV Technologies, and Nestlé. L. Lange reports fees for lectures from Aimmune, DBV Technologies, Nestlé und Nutricia. L. Klimek reports grants and/or personal fees from Allergopharma, MEDA/Mylan, HALAllergie, ALKAbelló, LETI Pharma, Stallergenes, Quintiles, Sanofi, ASIT biotech, Lofarma, Allergy Therapeut., AstraZeneca, GSK, Immunotek, Cassella med, and Novartis, outside the submitted work; and Membership: AeDA, DGHNO, Deutsche Akademie für Allergologie und klinische Immunologie, HNO-BV, GPA, EAACI. L. Klimek is the editor in chief of the *Allergo Journal* and *Allergo Journal International* in which this manuscript will be published. K. Beyer reports grants and/or personal fees from Danone/Nutricia/Milupa, DBV, Hipp, Hycor, Infectopharm, Jenapharma, Mylan/Meda, Nestle, Novartis, ThermoFisher, Aimmune, Bencard, and ALK, outside the submitted work. N. Novak reports grants and/or personal fees from Alk Abello, HALAllergy, Stallergenes Geer, Leti Pharma, Sanofi Genzyme, Novartis, Leo Pharma, Abbvie, and Blueprint, outside the submitted work. H. Merk reports personal fees and/or grants from Meda, Stallergenes, Sanofi, Bayer, BMS, and J&J, during the conduct of the study. T. Jakob reports grants, personal fees and/or non-financial support from Novartis, ALK-Abello, Allergy Therapeutics/Bencard, Allergopharma, and Thermo Fisher, outside the submitted work. T. Jakob is the coeditor in chief of the *Allergo Journal* and *Allergo Journal International* in which this manuscript will be published. T. Ankermann reports personal fees from Aimmune, during the conduct of the study. K. Blümchen, E. Hamelmann, A. Bauer, U. Rabe, K. Jung, W. Schlenter, J. Ring, A. Chaker, W. Wehrmann, S. Becker, N. Mülleneisen, K. Nemat, W. Czech, H. Wrede, R. Brehler, T. Fuchs, S.M. Schmidt, M. Gerstlauer, T. Zuberbier, T. Spindler and C. Vogelberg declare that they have no competing interests.

**Open Access** This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>.

## References

1. Bock SA, Muñoz-Furlong A, Sampson HA. Fatalities due to anaphylactic reactions to foods. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2001;107(1):191–3. <https://doi.org/10.1067/mai.2001.112031>.
2. Sampson HA, Mendelson L, Rosen JP. Fatal and near-fatal anaphylactic reactions to food in children and adolescents. *N Engl J Med.* 1992;327(6):380–4. <https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJM199208063270603>.

3. Pumphrey RSH, Gowland MH. Further fatal allergic reactions to food in the United Kingdom, 1999–2006. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2007;119(4):1018–9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaci.2007.01.021>.
4. Bock SA, Atkins FM. The natural history of peanut allergy. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 1989v;83(5):900–4.
5. Ho MHK, Wong WHS, Heine RG, Hosking CS, Hill DJ, Allen KJ. Early clinical predictors of remission of peanut allergy in children. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2008;121(3):731–6. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaci.2007.11.024>.
6. Hourihane JO, Roberts SA, Warner JO. Resolution of peanut allergy: case-control study. *BMJ.* 1998;316(7140):1271–5. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.316.7140.1271>.
7. Skolnick HS, Conover-Walker MK, Koerner CB, Sampson HA, Burks W, Wood RA. The natural history of peanut allergy. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2001;107(2):367–74. <https://doi.org/10.1067/mai.2001.112129>.
8. Sicherer SH, Muñoz-Furlong A, Burks AW, Sampson HA. Prevalence of peanut and tree nut allergy in the US determined by a random digit dial telephone survey. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 1999;103(4):559–62. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0091-6749\(99\)70224-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0091-6749(99)70224-1).
9. Sicherer SH, Muñoz-Furlong A, Godbold JH, Sampson HA. US prevalence of self-reported peanut, tree nut, and sesame allergy: 11-year follow-up. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2010;125(6):1322–6. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaci.2010.03.029>.
10. Sicherer SH, Muñoz-Furlong A, Sampson HA. Prevalence of peanut and tree nut allergy in the United States determined by means of a random digit dial telephone survey: a 5-year follow-up study. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2003;112(6):1203–7. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0091-6749\(03\)02026-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0091-6749(03)02026-8).
11. Hourihane JOB, Aiken R, Briggs R, Gudgeon LA, Grimshaw KEC, DunnGalvin A, et al. The impact of government advice to pregnant mothers regarding peanut avoidance on the prevalence of peanut allergy in United Kingdom children at school entry. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2007;119(5):1197–202. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaci.2006.12.670>.
12. Pereira B, Venter C, Grundy J, Clayton CB, Arshad SH, Dean T. Prevalence of sensitization to food allergens, reported adverse reaction to foods, food avoidance, and food hypersensitivity among teenagers. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2005;116(4):884–92. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaci.2005.05.047>.
13. Venter C, Hasan Arshad S, Grundy J, Pereira B, Bernie Clayton C, Voigt K, et al. Time trends in the prevalence of peanut allergy: three cohorts of children from the same geographical location in the UK. *Allergy.* 2010;65(1):103–8. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1398-9995.2009.02176.x>.
14. Lack G, Fox D, Northstone K, Golding J. Factors associated with the development of peanut allergy in childhood. *N Engl J Med.* 2003;348(11):977–85. <https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMoa013536>.
15. Du Toit G, Roberts G, Sayre PH, Plaut M, Bahnson HT, Mitchell H, et al. Identifying infants at high risk of peanut allergy: the Learning Early About Peanut Allergy (LEAP) screening study. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2013;131(1):135–43.e12. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaci.2012.09.015>.
16. Astolfi A, Cipriani F, Messelodi D, De Luca M, Indio V, Di Chiara C, et al. Filaggrin loss-of-function mutations are risk factors for severe food allergy in children with atopic dermatitis. *JCM.* 2021;10(2):233. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jcm10020233>.
17. Brough HA, Nadeau KC, Sindher SB, Alkotob SS, Chan S, Bahnson HT, et al. Epicutaneous sensitization in the development of food allergy: what is the evidence and how can this be prevented? *Allergy.* 2020;75(9):2185–205. <https://doi.org/10.1111/all.14304>.
18. Du Toit G, Katz Y, Sasieni P, Mesher D, Maleki SJ, Fisher HR, et al. Early consumption of peanuts in infancy is associated with a low prevalence of peanut allergy. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2008;122(5):984–91. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaci.2008.08.039>.
19. Du Toit G, Roberts G, Sayre PH, Bahnson HT, Radulovic S, Santos AF, et al. Randomized trial of peanut consumption in infants at risk for peanut allergy. *N Engl J Med.* 2015;372(9):803–13. <https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMoa1414850>.
20. Fox AT, Sasieni P, du Toit G, Syed H, Lack G. Household peanut consumption as a risk factor for the development of peanut allergy. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2009;123(2):417–23. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaci.2008.12.014>.
21. Ewan PW. Clinical study of peanut and nut allergy in 62 consecutive patients: new features and associations. *BMJ.* 1996;312(7038):1074–8. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.312.7038.1074>.
22. Brough HA, Caubet JC, Mazon A, Haddad D, Bergmann MM, Wassenberg J, et al. Defining challenge-proven coexistent nut and sesame seed allergy: a prospective multicenter European study. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2020;145(4):1231–9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaci.2019.09.036>.
23. Sicherer SH, Burks AW, Sampson HA. Clinical features of acute allergic reactions to peanut and tree nuts in children. *Pediatrics.* 1998;102(1):e6. <https://doi.org/10.1542/peds.102.1.e6>.
24. Blumchen K, Beder A, Beschorner J, Ahrens F, Gruebl A, Hamelmann E, et al. Modified oral food challenge used with sensitization biomarkers provides more real-life clinical thresholds for peanut allergy. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2014;134(2):390–8. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaci.2014.03.035>.
25. Deschildre A, Elegbédé CF, Just J, Bruyère O, Van der Brempt X, Papadopoulos A, et al. Peanut-allergic patients in the MIRABEL survey: characteristics, allergists' dietary advice and lessons from real life. *Clin Exp Allergy.* 2016;46(4):610–20. <https://doi.org/10.1111/cea.12681>.
26. Leickly FE, Kloepper KM, Slaven JE, Vitalpur G. Peanut allergy: an epidemiologic analysis of a large database. *J Pediatr.* 2017;192:223–228.e1. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jpeds.2017.09.026>.
27. Blom WM, Vlieg-Boerstra BJ, Kruizinga AG, van der Heide S, Houben GF, Dubois AEJ. Threshold dose distributions for 5 major allergenic foods in children. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2013;131(1):172–9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaci.2012.10.034>.
28. Hourihane JB, Kilburn SA, Nordlee JA, Hefle SL, Taylor SL, Warner JO. 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. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0091-6749\(97\)70161-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0091-6749(97)70161-1).
29. Taylor SL, Moneret-Vautrin DA, Crevel RWR, Sheffield D, Morisset M, Dumont P, et al. Threshold dose for peanut: risk characterization based upon diagnostic oral challenge of a series of 286 peanut-allergic individuals. *Food Chem Toxicol.* 2010;48(3):814–9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fct.2009.12.013>.
30. Wensing M, Penninks AH, Hefle SL, Koppelman SJ, Bruijnzeel-Koomen CAFM, Knulst AC. The distribution of individual threshold doses eliciting allergic reactions in



- a population with peanut allergy. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2002;110(6):915–20. <https://doi.org/10.1067/mai.2002.129235>.
31. Finkelman FD. Peanut allergy and anaphylaxis. *Curr Opin Immunol.* 2010;22(6):783–8. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.coi.2010.10.005>.
  32. Lange L, Beyer K, Kleine-Tebbe J. Benefits and limitations of molecular diagnostics in peanut allergy: Part 14 of the series molecular allergology. *Allergo J Int.* 2014;23(5):158–63. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40629-014-0019-z>.
  33. Trendelenburg V, Rohrbach A, Schulz G, Schwarz V, Beyer K. Molecular sIgE profile in infants and young children with peanut sensitization and eczema. *Allergo J Int.* 2014;23(5):152–7. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40629-014-0018-0>.
  34. Burks AW, Williams LW, Connaughton C, Cockrell G, O'Brien TJ, Helm RM. 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(6 Pt 1):962–9. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0091-6749\(92\)90469-i](https://doi.org/10.1016/0091-6749(92)90469-i).
  35. Burks AW, Williams LW, Helm RM, Connaughton C, Cockrell G, O'Brien TJ. Identification of a major peanut allergen, Ara h I, in patients with atopic dermatitis and positive peanut challenges. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 1991;88(2):172–9.
  36. de Leon MP, Rolland JM, O'Hehir RE. The peanut allergy epidemic: allergen molecular characterisation and prospects for specific therapy. *Expert Rev Mol Med.* 2007;9(1):1–18. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S1462399407000208>.
  37. Koppelman SJ, Wensing M, Ertmann M, Knulst AC, Knol EF. Relevance of Ara h1, Ara h2 and Ara h3 in peanut-allergic patients, as determined by immunoglobulin E Western blotting, basophil-histamine release and intracutaneous testing: Ara h2 is the most important peanut allergen. *Clin Exp Allergy.* 2004;34(4):583–90. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2222.2004.1923.x>.
  38. Lieberman JA, Glaumann S, Batelson S, Borres MP, Sampson HA, Nilsson C. The utility of peanut components in the diagnosis of IgE-mediated peanut allergy among distinct populations. *J Allergy Clin Immunol Pract.* 2013;1(1):75–82. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaip.2012.11.002>.
  39. Nicolaou N, Poorafshar M, Murray C, Simpson A, Winell H, Kerry G, et al. Allergy or tolerance in children sensitized to peanut: prevalence and differentiation using component-resolved diagnostics. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2010;125(1):191–197.e13. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaci.2009.10.008>.
  40. Sampson HA. Utility of food-specific IgE concentrations in predicting symptomatic food allergy. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2001;107(5):891–6. <https://doi.org/10.1067/mai.2001.114708>.
  41. Lange L. Quality of life in the setting of anaphylaxis and food allergy. *Allergo J Int.* 2014;23(7):252–60. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40629-014-0029-x>.
  42. Avery NJ, King RM, Knight S, Hourihane JOB. Assessment of quality of life in children with peanut allergy. *Pediatr Allergy Immunol.* 2003;14(5):378–82. <https://doi.org/10.1034/j.1399-3038.2003.00072.x>.
  43. Dunn Galvin A, Blumchen K, Timmermans F, Regent L, Schnadt S, Podestà M, et al. APPEAL-1: A multiple-country European survey assessing the psychosocial impact of peanut allergy. *Allergy.* 2020;75(11):2899–908. <https://doi.org/10.1111/all.14363>.
  44. Fedele DA, McQuaid EL, Faino A, Strand M, Cohen S, Robinson J, et al. Patterns of adaptation to children's food allergies. *Allergy.* 2016;71(4):505–13. <https://doi.org/10.1111/all.12825>.
  45. Schäppi GF, Konrad V, Imhof D, Etter R, Wüthrich B. Hidden peanut allergens detected in various foods: findings and legal measures. *Allergy.* 2001;56(12):1216–20. <https://doi.org/10.1034/j.1398-9995.2001.00280.x>.
  46. Vadas P, Perelman B. Presence of undeclared peanut protein in chocolate bars imported from Europe. *J Food Prot.* 2003;66(10):1932–4. <https://doi.org/10.4315/0362-028x-66.10.1932>.
  47. Buhl T, Kampmann H, Martinez J, Fuchs T. The European labelling law for foodstuffs contains life-threatening exemptions for food-allergic consumers. *Int Arch Allergy Immunol.* 2008;146(4):334–7. <https://doi.org/10.1159/000121467>.
  48. Primeau MN, Kagan R, Joseph L, Lim H, Dufresne C, Duffy C, et al. The psychological burden of peanut allergy as perceived by adults with peanut allergy and the parents of peanut-allergic children. *Clin Exp Allergy.* 2000;30(8):1135–43. <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-2222.2000.00889.x>.
  49. Blaiss MS, Meadows JA, Yu S, Robison DR, Hass SL, Norrett KE, et al. Economic burden of peanut allergy in pediatric patients with evidence of reactions to peanuts in the United States. *J Manag Care Spec Pharm.* 2021;27(4):516–27. <https://doi.org/10.18553/jmcp.2021.20389>.
  50. Scott LA, Berni TR, Berni ER, De Vries J, Currie CJ. Evaluation of the healthcare resource use and the related financial costs of managing peanut allergy in the United Kingdom. *Expert Rev Clin Immunol.* 2019;15(8):889–96. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1744666X.2019.1641406>.
  51. Klimek L, Worm M, Lange L, Beyer K, Rietschel E, Vogelberg C, et al. Management von Anaphylaxiegefährdeten Patienten während der Covid-19-Pandemie. *Allergo J.* 2020;29(7):16–26. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s15007-020-2618-y>.
  52. Sampson HA. Food allergy. Part 2: diagnosis and management. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 1999;103(6):981–9. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0091-6749\(99\)70167-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0091-6749(99)70167-3).
  53. Worm M, Reese I, Ballmer-Weber B, Beyer K, Bischoff SC, Classen M, et al. Guidelines on the management of IgE-mediated food allergies. *Allergo J Int.* 2015;24:256–93. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40629-015-0074-0>.
  54. Brockow K, Beyer K, Biedermann T, Fischer J, Gieler U, Giessler-Fichtner O, et al. Supportive care of patients with anaphylaxis—Options and shortcomings: an assessment on behalf of the working group on anaphylaxis training and education (AGATE), Germany. *Allergo J Int.* 2016;25(6):160–8. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40629-016-0128-y>.
  55. Ring J, Beyer K, Biedermann T, Bircher A, Fischer M, Fuchs T, et al. Guideline (S2k) on acute therapy and management of anaphylaxis: 2021 update. *Allergo J Int.* 2021;30(1):1–25. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40629-020-00158-y>.
  56. Ring J, Brockow K, Kugler C, Gebert N, Grando K, Götz D, et al. New aspects in allergy education with special emphasis on anaphylaxis. *Allergo J Int.* 2017;26(7):267–72. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40629-017-0032-0>.
  57. Kapoor S, Roberts G, Bynoe Y, Gaughan M, Habibi P, Lack G. Influence of a multidisciplinary paediatric allergy clinic on parental knowledge and rate of subsequent allergic reactions. *Allergy.* 2004;59(2):185–91. <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1398-9995.2003.00365.x>.
  58. Ferdman RM, Church JA. Mixed-up nuts: identification of peanuts and tree nuts by children. *Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol.* 2006;97(1):73–7. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1081-1206\(10\)61373-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1081-1206(10)61373-7).

59. Reese I, Holzhauser T, Schnadt S, Dölle S, Kleine-Tebbe J, Raithel M, et al. Allergen and allergy risk assessment, allergen management, and gaps in the European Food Information Regulation (FIR): are allergic consumers adequately protected by current statutory food safety and labelling regulations? *Allergo J Int.* 2015;24:180–4. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40629-015-0066-0>.
60. Reese I, Ahrens B, Ballmer-Weber B, Beyer K, Blümchen K, Doelle-Birke S, et al. Is the concept of “peanut-free schools” useful in the routine management of peanut-allergic children at risk of anaphylaxis? *Allergo J Int.* 2020;29(6):169–73. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40629-020-00138-2>.
61. Lefèvre S, Abitan L, Goetz C, Frey M, Ott M, de Blay E. Multicenter survey of restaurant staff’s knowledge of food allergy in eastern France. *Allergo J Int.* 2019;28(2):57–62. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40629-018-0062-2>.
62. Ewan PW, Clark AT. Long-term prospective observational study of patients with peanut and nut allergy after participation in a management plan. *Lancet.* 2001;357(9250):111–5. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0140-6736\(00\)03543-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0140-6736(00)03543-1).
63. Capucilli P, Wang KY, Spergel JM. Food reactions during avoidance: focus on peanut. *Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol.* 2020;124(5):459–65. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.anai.2020.01.008>.
64. Ewan PW, Clark AT. Efficacy of a management plan based on severity assessment in longitudinal and case-controlled studies of 747 children with nut allergy: proposal for good practice. *Clin Exp Allergy.* 2005;35(6):751–6. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2222.2005.02266.x>.
65. Ford LS, Taylor SL, Pacenza R, Niemann LM, Lambrecht DM, Sicherer SH. Food allergen advisory labeling and product contamination with egg, milk, and peanut. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2010;126(2):384–5. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaci.2010.05.034>.
66. Brough HA, Turner PJ, Wright T, Fox AT, Taylor SL, Warner JO, et al. Dietary management of peanut and tree nut allergy: what exactly should patients avoid? *Clin Exp Allergy.* 2015;45(5):859–71. <https://doi.org/10.1111/cea.12466>.
67. Eisenblaetter J, Bürklin S, Gschwend A, Relats C, Roduit C, Stalder K, et al. Development of a practice guideline for dietary counselling of children with IgE-mediated food allergy. *Allergo J Int.* 2020;29(5):155–64. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40629-020-00124-8>.
68. Mahler V. Definition and design of hypoallergenic foods. *Allergo J Int.* 2015;24(7):244–55. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40629-015-0073-1>.