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FOOD ALLERGY

INTOLERANCE

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FOOD ALLERGY AND INTOLERANCE

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Preface

As all who deal in the field will know, food allergy is an exciting, challenging, exasperating and sometimes controversial subject. Its study should be a clinical science with diagnosis based on a combination of clinical observations and scientific investigations.

The study of food allergy is incomplete without a fundamental knowledge of how food is processed by the body, in both normal and abnormal conditions, and of how the majority of us are tolerant from an immunological point of view of large quantities of foreign protein to which the body is exposed each day. This is a triumph of the body's adaptation to man's eating habits. It is when this tolerance is broken that maladaptation and disease occur.

The field of food allergy has generally been considered to be a clinical art rather than a laboratory science. There is more than an element of truth in this since clinical observations have often not been supported by reliable diagnostic tests or even laboratory data. This has led to scepticism of some of the clinical associations, especially when the mechanisms of any proposed food allergies are not understood.

Clinical pragmatism is accepted as fundamental in most of the major specialties, but food allergy seems to be an exception. Here there has been a strong tendency for the conventional physician to say that if the mechanism is not understood then food allergy does not exist, especially if the symptoms of the patient do not fit into a conventional diagnostic pigeonhole. This is of course unacceptable.

Clinical medicine is the practice of an art which combines clinical ability with sound judgement based on experience and an understanding of the scientific basis of the specialty. To make a diagnosis certainly requires clinical skill but does not necessarily need a complete understanding of the mechanisms underlying the disease process or an exact understanding of the aetiology. Clinical observation comes before scientific understanding and this is highlighted by many of the names that we give diseases such as Intrinsic Asthma, Essential Hypertension, Minimal Change Nephropathy, Nummular Eczema, and Irritable Bowel Syndrome. These are labels of ignorance and are hardly enlightening as to mechanism or cause.

In this book we have attempted to provide a scientific basis for the clinical observations of food allergy and intolerance. The importance attached to understanding the basic mechanisms underlying food allergy is, we hope, emphasized by a comprehensive review of the structure and function of the gut, its immune cells and secretions, the mechanisms of normal antigen handling, and the contribution that animal models can make to our understanding. This section also emphasizes the fact that, under normal conditions, processing of antigens in the gut may lead to protective effects at distant sites, especially with regard to secretory immunity and oral tolerance.

Certain food allergens have now been chemically characterized, and in the second section of the book the relevance of these in food allergic disease and as models for yet uncharacterized antigens or allergies is discussed.

A major part of the book is devoted to end-organ effects of food allergy or intolerance. Our objective has been to review the evidence for the involvement of

reactions to foods in the manifestation of disease at different sites and in different organs. We have brought together a group of scientists and clinicians whose main aim is to help us understand the immunopathological and other processes in our patients. Their points of view are diverse and some are considered unorthodox. There is no suggestion that, because we have invited particular authors to contribute to our book, we necessarily agree with their view. Occasionally the reverse is true! Differing views in clinical medicine are more the rule than the exception, but we hope that these chapters provide the link between clinical art and laboratory science.

A thread running through all these chapters and those in Parts IV and V is that the cornerstone of diagnosis of food intolerance is the removal of that food from the patient's diet with concomitant improvement (or not) of the patient's symptoms and their reappearance on adding that food back—preferably in a double-blind manner. At the clinical level, the effect of the manoeuvre is all that matters to the patient—the mechanism is irrelevant. However, the more that is understood about mechanisms the closer we come to diagnostic tests, and the value of in vivo or in vitro tests in diagnosis has been critically reviewed.

The objective of increased understanding of food allergic disease must be the application of this knowledge to the treatment and prevention of disease in the patient. Antigen avoidance, hyposensitization, the usefulness of drugs and immunological intervention are all discussed in the final section. The prevalence of food allergy in the population is unknown, but it is possible that it may be as high as that of classical atopy (about 15%). It should be one of the easiest diseases to treat (by avoidance), which should therefore obviate the need for treatment with drugs.

We hope that the emphasis placed in this book on the correct methods for the diagnosis of food allergy may result in fewer patients being classified as food allergic without good evidence; but in contrast we hope too that increased understanding of food allergy will make physicians more aware that at least some of their polysymptomatic patients may have an organic basis for their complaints.

For many of the reasons outlined above, we feel that this is an exciting book which we hope will be found useful, stimulating and challenging. Increased understanding of the mechanisms of antigen handling, more accurate clinical diagnosis and the rapid development of laboratory tests all suggest that the extent of the role of food allergy or intolerance in disease will become even clearer in the near future.

As a postscript we would like to refer our readers to the words of Sir Peter Medawar (see p. 1017) which encapsulate what we must all be striving for.





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There is something fascinating about science. One gets such wholesale return of conjecture out of such a trifling investment of fact.

Mark Twain

SYMPATHY FOR EDITORS

I note what you say about your aspiration to edit a magazine. I am sending to you by this mail a six-chambered revolver. Load it and fire every one into your head. You will thank me after you get to Hell and learn from other editors how dreadful their job was on earth.

H.L. Mencken

Letter to William Saroyan, January 25, 1936

Why do we Eat?

Although physiologists have described a number of possible mechanisms that can operate to drive an individual to seek food, it is doubtful if any of these are of much importance in the life of those living in affluent Western societies. Here, with a wide variety of attractive foods freely available, eating would seem to be governed by social custom rather than necessity. The characteristic pattern of three meals a day, interspersed with midmorning and afternoon coffee or tea (or 'coke') breaks, and possibly even a last nibble before bed, scarcely leaves any time for classical hunger to develop. Indeed, the fact that most individuals maintain a reasonably constant, albeit often excessive, weight despite the frequency of presentation of ample portions of attractive foods, directs attention to the reasons for a person desisting from eating further at a particular meal, i.e. the attainment of satiety.

Although the three meal pattern, as mentioned, would obviously preclude many of the classical hunger drive mechanisms, the matter may not be so simple. Many people working in the business and professional sectors adopt a rather different meal habit. Breakfast for them may consist merely of a cup of coffee, and so they go from their evening meal to the midday meal, a matter of some 17–18 hours, without significant food or concern about its absence. Such a prolonged abstinence should call into play classical hunger mechanisms, particularly as normal carbohydrate reserves should be exhausted. Clearly the particular eating habit and a metabolic adjustment can override the effect of the physiological stimuli to the hypothalamic hunger centres that would be expected in a person not accustomed to such an eating pattern.

In considering such mechanisms and their overriding, it is salutary to consider what drastic changes have taken place in the eating habits of the affluent in a relatively short time compared to the tens of thousands of years of existence wherein the dominant pattern of eating was firstly governed by the limits of hunter-gatherer societies and then by the greatly improved food situation provided by the larger agrarian societies. However, for the vast majority of mankind, even at best, food was usually in short supply, ranging from subsistence to the occasional modest surplus. This remains true today probably for the majority of the peoples of the earth. But for some hundreds of millions of people who now make up the burgeoning affluent society the situation is quite different. For them ample supplies of a wide variety of attractive foods are freely available. It needs to be appreciated that this situation is in reality a dramatically new development in human affairs. In fact its full flowering has only occurred during the past few decades, although the seeds were planted in the latter part of the eighteenth century, when the Industrial Revolution began. The first century of this was primarily concerned with the development of large-scale industries and thus the development of great wealth for relatively few. The welfare of the many was not considered a matter of importance by governments. In matters of nutrition, the factory workers, formerly farm workers, were in many areas markedly worse off. The twentieth century saw the shift in Western societies from a dominance of heavy industries to light industries and, of particular importance, an enormous expansion of the so-called service industries. This has produced an un-