

AN INVESTIGATIVE CASE STUDY ON ALLERGEN SPECTRUM AMONG PATIENTS IN WESTERN ROMANIA

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Abstract. Immunoglobulin E (IgE)-mediated allergy is the most common form of hypersensitivity disorder, affecting approximately 30% of the global population. In atopic individuals, exposure to even trace amounts of allergens can trigger the production of IgE antibodies. Seasonal allergies and asthma represent a significant global health concern. The allergy panels consisted of various allergens, categorized as follows: respiratory, food, and mixed (containing both food and respiratory allergens). Food allergy is defined as an adverse immunological response to a dietary protein. Respiratory allergic disorders, including allergic rhinitis and allergic asthma, constitute major public health concerns, with a rising global prevalence. These conditions typically emerge in the spring, coinciding with the airborne dispersion of plant pollen. Among the inhalant allergens tested, pollen emerged as the most frequent trigger, indicating its prominent role in respiratory allergic responses. These findings may serve as a valuable starting point for evaluating the regional burden of allergic diseases and their major impact on public health. To gain a more comprehensive understanding of sensitization patterns and contributing environmental factors, further large scale, population based studies are warranted. The present study aims to conduct a case analysis focusing on the spectrum of allergens identified in patients from the western region of Romania.

Keywords: IgE-mediated allergy, food allergy, respiratory allergy, monosensitization, polysensitization

INTRODUCTION

An allergen is defined as a protein or glycoprotein capable of binding to immunoglobulin E (IgE) (ALVAREZ-CUESTA ET AL., 2006). Exposure to trace amounts of an allergen may induce the production of IgE antibodies in atopic individuals. This phenomenon is known as allergic sensitization and typically occurs during early childhood (SHAMJI ET AL., 2021). The global prevalence of allergic diseases varies, affecting up to 30–40% of the population, with a marked increase observed among children and young adults (PAWANKAR, 2012).

IgE-mediated allergy is the most common form of hypersensitivity disorder, impacting approximately 30% of the population. Although IgE antibodies represent the least abundant immunoglobulin class in human serum, they possess the capacity to elicit strong inflammatory immune responses across various tissues and organs (ZELLWEGER & EGDEL, 2016). Repeated and subsequent exposures to the sensitizing allergen lead to increased levels of allergen-specific IgE (SHAMJI ET AL., 2021). Recent studies suggest that, in addition to the classical mechanisms of immediate hypersensitivity, complex immunological pathways are also involved, including specific T lymphocyte subtypes and pro-inflammatory cytokines (AKDIS, 2021).

The diagnosis of allergic conditions requires a thorough assessment of the patient's medical history alongside specific diagnostic tests. Once a diagnosis of food allergy is confirmed, complete elimination of the identified allergen is generally recommended. However, for certain allergies—such as those to cow's milk or eggs—consumption may be

tolerated if the foods are heat-processed (NOWAK-WĘGRZYN ET AL., 2016; WASERMAN ET AL., 2018). Over time, diagnostic test accuracy and reproducibility have significantly improved, enhancing both specificity and sensitivity (OZCAN ET AL., 2008).

The measurement of allergen-specific IgE antibodies can be conducted using either single-reactive systems (singleplex) or predefined panels encompassing multiple molecules tested simultaneously (multiplex) (LEE ET AL., 2009). Table 1 presents the key components involved in IgE antibody detection, as described by ANSOTEGUI ET AL. (2020).

Table 1

Testing process components	
Components	Description
Reaction situs	Carbohydrate-based allergosorbents (e.g., agarose) may be used in testing procedures. A major innovation in this field is the use of a hydrophilic polymer encapsulated with covalently bound allergen
Allergen containing reagent	This represents the most complex component of the test, significantly impacting preparation, quality control, and validation processes
Allergen nature	Allergens may consist of crude extracts or single molecules obtained through recombinant DNA technology or biochemical purification.
Human sample	Both serum and plasma samples are suitable for testing.
Human anti-IgE detection reagents	Typically, polyclonal antibodies of animal origin (e.g., rabbit, sheep, or horse) are used.
Antibody markers and detection methods	The sensitivity of the assay is enhanced by the use of specific substrates.
Calibrating system	The definition of IgE antibody levels and the generation of a calibration curve are essential for quantitative analysis.
Buffer solution	The buffer system serves to normalize pH and provides an appropriate protein matrix.
Control samples	Positive and negative controls are required to validate the assay.
Data processing software	Finally, proper data analysis and interpretation ensure accurate diagnostic outcomes.

Seasonal allergies and asthma represent a significant global health concern. Data suggest that the prevalence of asthma—including forms triggered by pollen, mold, and other allergenic substances—is on an upward trajectory (BOUSQUET ET AL., 2017).

Food allergy is defined as an adverse immune response to a dietary protein. Reactions following food ingestion are associated with a wide array of signs and symptoms, which can affect any system in the body (KUZMINSKI ET AL., 2020). Among adults, approximately 10% suffer from food allergies, while the sensitization rate among children ranges from 3% to 10% (SANTOS ET AL., 2023). Although any food can potentially trigger an allergic reaction, certain food categories contain proteins with higher antigenic potential (LEHRER ET AL., 2002).

Cross-reactivity reflects phylogenetic relationships between organisms and is based on immunological recognition. Two allergens are considered cross-reactive when a single antibody or T lymphocyte is capable of reacting with both (CIOBANU & IANOVICI, 2024). Oral allergy syndrome, or pollen-food allergy syndrome, is a hypersensitivity reaction to specific foods that occurs as a result of previous exposure to inhalant plant allergens. The term “oral allergy syndrome” was first introduced by AMLOT ET AL. in 1987.

The present paper aims to conduct a case study focused on the spectrum of allergens identified in patients from the western region of Romania.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Raw data was collected between January 4, 2021, and October 23, 2021. The primary material used was human serum, obtained by centrifuging whole blood at 4,000 revolutions per minute for 10 minutes. To obtain the raw data, an instrument employing Western blotting was used to detect IgE antibodies in the serum. The first step involved the preparation of solutions in five separate, sterilized glass containers, previously rinsed with distilled water. Following solution preparation, a work protocol was created using proprietary software integrated into the system connected to the analytical instrument. This protocol included the input of each serum code, the type of panel to be analyzed, and the corresponding panel code.

The allergy panels consisted of various allergens, categorized as follows: respiratory, food, and mixed (containing both food and respiratory allergens).

The studies presented in the speciality literature described a series of major importance allergens that can produce systemic reactions in patients. The following food allergens are known for causing hypersensitivity reactions: egg white (MINE, 2007), egg yolk (MINE & KOVACS-NOLAN, 2004), casein (RESTANI ET AL., 2009), wheat flour (MATSUO ET AL., 2004), gluten (BATTAIS F ET AL., 2005), strawberries (ANINOWSKI ET AL., 2020), rice (RICCARDO ET AL., 2007), soy (WANG ET AL., 2023), sesame seeds (ADATIA ET AL., 2017), peanuts (SICHERER & SAMPSON, 2007), cow's milk (ZEPEDA-ORTEGA ET AL., 2021), hazelnuts (CALLAMELI ET AL., 2021), pistachios (COSTA ET AL., 2019), apple (SIEKIERZYNSKA ET AL., 2021), UHT cow's milk (GEISELHART ET AL., 2021), tomato (FOETISCH ET AL., 2001), sunflower seeds (UKLEJA-SOKOŁOWSKA ET AL., 2016), pumpkin seeds (PATEL & BAHNA, 2016), cocoa (LOPES ET AL., 2019), green beans (PASTORELLO ET AL., 2010), banana (GROB ET AL., 2002), kiwi (FERNÁNDEZ-RIVAS, 2015), mulberries (PAPIA ET AL., 2020), beef and lamb (WILSON & PLATTS-MILLS, 2018), fig (CAIAFFA ET AL., 2003), orange (AHRAZEM ET AL., 2005), carrot (SCHIAPPOLI ET AL., 2002), potato (ANSARI & MU, 2018), peach (INOMATA ET AL., 2014), cherry (FUCHS ET AL., 2006), onion (ARMENTIA ET AL., 2020), olives (ESTEVE ET AL., 2012), mixed fish (SHARP & LOPATA, 2014), seafood (DAVIS ET AL., 2020), and chicken meat (HEMMER ET AL., 2016).

For the respiratory allergies, studies also suggest that the following allergens should be included: birch pollen (RAITH & SWOBODA, 2023), oak and cypress pollen (D'AMATO ET AL., 2007), olive pollen (CARNÉS ET AL., 2002), plane tree pollen (RODRÍGUEZ-RAJO ET AL., 2006), ash tree pollen (GASSNER ET AL., 2018), timothy grass (DE AMICI ET AL., 2010), ryegrass (RAWLS ET AL., 2020), wheat (CIANFERONI, 2016), meadow grass (HRABINA ET AL., 2008), cultivated rye (ŻUKIEWICZ-SOBCZAK ET AL., 2013), plantain (GADERMAIER ET AL., 2014), mugwort (TANG ET AL., 2015), wall pellitory (CIPRANDI ET AL., 2018), *Ambrosia elatior* (FLORINCESCU-GHEORGHE ET AL., 2019), cat dander and hair, dog hair (DÁVILA ET AL., 2018), rabbit dander (CHOI ET AL., 2007), *Aspergillus fumigatus* (SINGH ET AL., 2014), mold (TWAROCH ET AL., 2015), cockroach (POMES ET AL., 2017), *Dermatophagoides pteronyssinus* (VIDAL ET AL., 2016), *Dermatophagoides farinae* (AN ET AL., 2013), and flour mite (SUESIRISAWAD ET AL., 2015).

Both the food and respiratory allergens previously mentioned were analyzed in this study. They were contained in 3 different allergy panels, as following: food allergy panel, inhalatory panel and mixed panel. The mixed panel, including both food and respiratory allergens, contains: celery (BALLMER-WEBER ET AL., 2000), soy, peanuts, peas (BINDSLEV-JENSEN ET AL., 2004), wheat flour, shrimp (PASCAL ET AL., 2015), codfish (POULSEN ET AL., 2021), egg white, hazelnuts, kiwi, cow's milk, apple, olive pollen, birch pollen, plantain, cypress (CHARPIN ET AL., 2013), wall pellitory, oak, timothy grass, common ragweed, ash,

mugwort, cat dander, dog hair, *Aspergillus fumigatus*, mold, *Dermatophagoides pteronyssinus*, and *Dermatophagoides farinae*.

Each serum sample was numbered from 1 to 152, and patient gender and age were recorded. The protocol was then uploaded to the system, which interfaced with secondary software for component verification, integrity check, and protocol execution. Tests were considered valid if the control band changed color to black upon substrate exposure. After completion of the protocol, the strips were scanned and results were obtained, indicating the IgE antibody titers and corresponding clinical class.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The data was entered and processed using Microsoft Excel. In the first stage, the 152 patients were compiled into a centralized table. The table includes each patient's age, gender, the type of panel analyzed, each allergen tested, and the clinical classification based on IgE titers. A legend was then created to define the six possible antibody classes, the titer range for each, and its clinical interpretation. This legend is presented in Table 2. Of the 152 patients, 117 opted for the respiratory panel, 29 for the mixed panel, and 16 for the food panel.

Table 2

Legend		
Class	Value	Interpretation
Class 0	<0.35 kU/I	No specific antibodies detected
Class 1	0.36-0.70 kU/I	Very low specific antibodies titer detected. Mainly without clinical symptoms
Class 2	0.71-3.50 kU/I	Low titer of specific antibodies – Clinical symptoms possible, particularly as values approach the upper limit of the range.
Class 3	3.51-17.50 kU/I	Moderately increased titer of specific antibodies – Clinical symptoms usually present.
Class 4	17.51-50.00 kU/I	Elevated titer of specific antibodies – Clinical symptoms almost always present.
Class 5	50.00-100 kU/I	Very high titer of specific antibodies.
Class 6	>100 kU/I	Extremely high titer of specific antibodies.

In the following stage, the number of values corresponding to each class was centralized for each allergen of the three panels, along with the total number of positive and negative patients. For the inhalatory panel, pollen-type allergens were separated from other types.

Table 3

Pollen allergens from the inhalatory panel															
	Birch	Oak	Olive	Plane tree	Cypress	Ash	Timothy grass	Ryegrass	Wheat	Meadow grass	Cultivated rye	Plantain	Mugwort	<i>Parietaria officinalis</i>	<i>Ambrosia elatior</i>
Class 0	107	101	99	101	109	91	62	83	78	61	65	100	87	109	18
Class 1	4	4	4	5	4	10	6	4	11	4	13	5	9	3	11
Class 2	2	5	7	4	1	4	16	11	11	14	11	4	9	2	11
Class 3	1	5	4	5	3	8	14	13	9	10	9	6	4	2	22
Class 4	2	1	3	1	0	3	5	3	3	12	12	2	5	0	31
Class 5	0	1	0	1	0	1	10	3	5	15	6	0	3	1	24

Class 6	1	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
Total positive patients	10	16	18	16	8	26	55	34	39	56	52	17	30	8	99
Total negative patients	107	101	99	101	109	91	62	83	78	61	65	100	87	109	18

Table 3 presents the pollen-type allergens from the inhalatory panel. The highest number of positive values was recorded for *Ambrosia elatior* pollen, with 99 positive cases out of a total of 107. Of these, 31 patients fell into Class 4, 24 into Class 5, 22 into Class 3, and 11 patients each into Classes 1 and 2. No patients were classified in Class 6, and 18 were negative, being placed in Class 0. The next pollen type with a high number of sensitization reactions was *Poa pratensis*, with 56 positive cases: 15 in Class 5, 14 in Class 2, 12 in Class 4, 10 in Class 3, 4 in Class 1, and 1 in Class 6. A similarly high number of cases was found for *Phleum pratense* pollen, with 55 positive cases, the highest number being in Class 2. The most intense reactivity was recorded for *Ambrosia elatior*, with 31 patients in Class 5. Isolated sensitization cases were observed for *Cupressus sempervirens*, *Parietaria officinalis*, and *Betula pendula*.

Table 4

Inhalatory Panel Allergens									
	Cat dander and hair	Dog hair	Rabbit dander	<i>Aspergillus fumigatus</i>	Mold	Cockroach	<i>D. pteronyssinus</i>	<i>D. farinae</i>	Flour mite
Values of Class 0	93	113	117	115	104	109	87	84	105
Values of Class 1	2	0	0	1	4	5	2	4	5
Values of Class 2	6	0	0	0	3	0	5	4	5
Values of Class 3	7	0	0	1	5	1	8	7	1
Values of Class 4	8	3	0	0	1	1	8	7	1
Values of Class 5	1	1	0	0	0	1	7	8	0
Values of Class 6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0
Total positive patients	24	4	0	2	13	8	30	33	12
Total negative patients	93	113	117	115	104	109	87	84	105

Table 4 displays the non-pollen inhalatory allergens. A high reactivity was recorded for *Dermatophagoides farinae*, with 33 positive cases: 3 in Class 6, 8 in Class 5, 7 each in Classes 3 and 4, and 4 in Class 1. Isolated cases were observed for allergens such as dog dander and *Aspergillus fumigatus*.

Table 5

Food allergens from the mixed panel													
	Celery	Soy	Peanuts	Peas	Wheat flour	Shrimp	Codfish	Cow milk	Egg white	Hazelnuts	Kiwi	Apple	
Values of Class 0	20	25	23	25	23	26	29	27	24	24	28	25	
Values of Class 1	6	2	4	3	5	1	0	2	2	4	1	1	
Values of Class 2	3	2	1	1	1	2	0	0	1	0	0	2	
Values of Class 3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	
Values of Class 4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	
Values of Class 5	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Values of Class 6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Total positive patients	9	4	6	4	6	3	0	2	5	5	1	4	
Total negative patients	20	25	23	25	23	26	29	27	24	24	28	25	

Table 5 presents the food allergens included in the mixed panel. Except for codfish, which did not present any positive values, isolated sensitization cases were observed across all other food allergens.

Table 6

Respiratory allergens from the Mixed Panel																
	Birch	Olive	Oak	Ash	Cypress	Timothy grass	Platan	Ambrosia	Wormwood	<i>P. officinalis</i>	Cat dander and hair	Dog hair	<i>A. fumigatus</i>	<i>A. alternata</i>	<i>D. pterynossinus</i>	<i>D. farinae</i>
Values of Class 0	23	19	22	21	25	16	23	11	20	22	24	25	28	27	25	21
Values of Class 1	1	6	3	2	2	1	1	4	2	2	2	1	0	1	1	1
Values of Class 2	3	1	4	4	2	5	4	4	2	4	0	1	0	1	1	4
Values of Class 3	0	1	0	1	0	3	1	3	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	0
Values of Class 4	1	1	0	1	0	4	0	5	2	0	2	0	0	0	0	2
Values of Class 5	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	2	0	0	1	1
Values of Class 6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total positive patients	6	10	7	8	4	13	6	18	9	7	5	4	1	2	4	8
Total negative patients	23	19	22	21	25	16	23	11	20	22	24	25	28	27	25	21

Table 6 refers to aeroallergens from the mixed panel. As in the case of the respiratory panel, high reactivity was observed for Ambrosia, with 18 positive cases out of 29: 1 in Class 6, 1 in Class 5, 5 in Class 4, 3 in Class 3, 4 in Class 2, and 4 in Class 1. The next most reactive allergen was *Phleum pratense*, with 13 positive cases, most of which fell into Class 2.

Table 7

Selection of allergens with positive values contained in the Food Panel

	Egg white	UHT Cow milk	Sesame seeds	Peanuts	Apple	Carrot	Peach	Cherry	Seafood	Chicken meat
Values of Class 0	13	13	15	14	15	15	15	15	14	15
Values of Class 1	1	2	1	2	0	0	1	1	0	1
Values of Class 2	2	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	2	0
Values of Class 3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Values of Class 4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Values of Class 5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Values of Class 6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total positive patients	3	3	1	2	1	1	1	1	2	1
Total negative patients	13	13	15	14	15	15	15	15	14	15

Table 7 includes a selection of food allergens with positive values from the corresponding panel. A low level of reactivity was noted among food allergens, with a maximum of 3 positive patients for egg white and UHT cow's milk, all in Classes 1 and 2.

Out of the 152 patients analyzed, most were in the 31–40 age group, followed by the 1–10 and 21–30 groups. In terms of gender, 85 were male and 67 female. Sensitization was slightly more prevalent in women (95.50%) than in men (89.40%). Among sensitized patients, polysensitization was predominant in both genders—77.60% in males and 73.43% in females—while monosensitization accounted for 25.30% in males and 26.56% in females. Overall, 75.70% of all sensitized individuals were polysensitized. These findings are consistent with literature indicating a higher prevalence of polysensitization among patients with allergic diseases, reported in 50–80% of moderate-to-severe respiratory allergy cases (VALENTA ET AL., 2012). The predominance of *Ambrosia artemisiifolia* as a seasonal allergen, especially in Central and Eastern Europe, and the major role of house dust mites as perennial indoor allergens are well established (BUTERS ET AL., 2018; CASSET ET AL., 2023; SCHÜLKE & SCHÜLKE, 2022). These results reinforce the relevance of the current study's findings and contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of the allergen sensitization landscape in the western region of Romania.

CONCLUSIONS

The results of this study revealed a higher sensitization rate among female patients compared to males. Furthermore, polysensitization was more common than monosensitization, highlighting the complex nature of allergen exposure. Among the inhalant allergens tested, pollen emerged as the most frequent trigger, indicating its prominent role in respiratory allergic responses. These findings may serve as a valuable starting point for evaluating the regional burden of allergic diseases and their impact on public health. To gain a more comprehensive understanding of sensitization patterns and contributing environmental factors, further large-scale, population-based studies are warranted.

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