Check for updates

Received: 20 November 2022 | Revised: 27 January 2023 | Accepted: 17 February 2023

DOI: 10.1111/all.15687

Allergy EUROPEAN JOURNAL OF ALLERGY AND CLINICAL IMMUNOLOGY EAACI WILEY

REVIEW ARTICLE

The immune-supportive diet in allergy management: A narrative review and proposal

Berber Vlieg-Boerstra[1,2,3] | Marion Groetch[4] | Emilia Vassilopoulou[5] | Rosan Meyer[6,7] | Kirsi Laitinen[8] | Anne Swain[9] | Raquel Durban[10] | Olga Benjamin[1,11] | Rachelle Bottse[3] | Kate Grimshaw[12] | Merryn Netting[13,14,15] | Liam O'Mahony[16,17,18] | Nicolette de Jong[19,20] | Isabel J. Skypala[6,21]

[1]Department of Paediatrics, OLVG Hospital, Amsterdam, The Netherlands
[2]Rijnstate Allergy Centre, Rijnstate Hospital, Arnhem, The Netherlands
[3]Vlieg Dieticians, Private Practice for Dietary Management of Food Allergy, Arnhem, Amsterdam, The Netherlands
[4]Pediatric Allergy and Immunology, Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai, New York, New York, USA
[5]Department of Nutritional Sciences and Dietetics, International Hellenic University, Thessaloniki, Greece
[6]Department Paediatrics, Imperial College, London, UK
[7]Department Dietetics, Winchester University, Winchester, UK
[8]Institute of Biomedicine and Functional Foods Forum, University of Turku, Turku, Finland
[9]Allergy Unit, Royal Prince Alfred Hospital, Sydney, New South Wales, Australia
[10]Carolina Asthma and Allergy Center, Charlotte, North Carolina, USA
[11]Department of Paediatrics, Hospital Group Noord West, Location Alkmaar, Alkmaar, The Netherlands
[12]Salford Royal NHS Foundation Trust, Salford, UK
[13]Women and Kids Theme, South Australian Health and Medical Research Institute (SAHMRI), North Adelaide, South Australia, Australia
[14]Discipline of Paediatrics, Faculty of Health and Medical Sciences, The University of Adelaide, Adelaide, South Australia, Australia
[15]Department of Nutrition, Women's and Children's Hospital, North Adelaide, South Australia, Australia
[16]APC Microbiome Ireland, National University of Ireland, Cork, Ireland
[17]Department of Medicine, National University of Ireland, Cork, Ireland
[18]School of Microbiology, National University of Ireland, Cork, Ireland
[19]Internal Medicine, Allergology and Clinical Immunology, Paediatric Allergology, University Medical Centre Rotterdam, Rotterdam, The Netherlands
[20]Sophia Children Hospital Erasmus MC, University Medical Centre Rotterdam, Rotterdam, The Netherlands
[21]Royal Brompton and Harefield Hospitals, Part of Guys and St Thomas' NHS Foundation Trust, London, UK

Correspondence
Berber Vlieg-Boerstra, Department of Paediatrics, OLVG Hospital, PO Box 95500, 1090 HM Amsterdam, the Netherlands.
Email: b.vlieg-boerstra@olvg.nl

Abstract

The role of nutrition is increasingly recognized in the management of chronic immune diseases. However, the role of an immune-supportive diet as adjuvant therapy in the management of allergic disease has not been similarly explored. This review assesses the existing evidence for a relationship between nutrition, immune function, and allergic disease from a clinical perspective. In addition, the authors propose an immune-supportive diet to enhance dietary interventions and complementing other

The authors are all members of the International Network for Diet and Nutrition in Allergy (INDANA; www.indana-allergynetwork.org)

© 2023 European Academy of Allergy and Clinical Immunology and John Wiley & Sons Ltd.

therapeutic options for allergic disease from early life to adulthood. A narrative review of the literature was conducted, to determine the evidence of the relationship between nutrition and immune function, overall health, epithelial barrier function, and gut microbiome, particularly in relation to allergy. Studies on food supplements were excluded. The evidence was assessed and utilized to develop a sustainable immune-supportive diet to complement other therapies in allergic disease. The proposed diet consists of a highly diverse range of fresh, whole, and minimally processed plant-based and fermented foods supplemented with moderate amounts of nuts, omega-3-rich foods and animal-based products in proportional amounts of the EAT-Lancet diet, such as (fatty) fish, (fermented) milk products which may be full-fat and eggs, lean meat or poultry, which may be free-range or organic.

KEYWORDS
allergic disease, diet, immune health, immune-supportive diet, immunomodulatory

1 | INTRODUCTION

The prevalence of allergic diseases, such as asthma, eczema, allergic rhinitis (AR), and food allergy has risen dramatically over the last few decades, specifically in industrialized countries.[1,2] In parallel, there has been a rise in the incidence of chronic immune disorders (CIDs), such as rheumatoid arthritis, ulcerative colitis, and Crohn's disease (inflammatory bowel diseases or IBD), and diet-related chronic diseases, such as obesity, type 2 diabetes, and several cancers.[3] Diet is one of the modifiable lifestyle factors that can impact overall health.[4] Nutrition science has progressed from an early focus on individual nutrients, and the prevention of nutritional deficiencies to evaluate whether dietary components and healthy dietary patterns promote, prevent, or even treat non-communicable diseases, for example, in IBD[5] and rheumatoid arthritis.[6] Although there is some evidence from observational and, to a lesser extent intervention studies, regarding the effect of diet on the development of some allergic diseases, for example, asthma,[7] the dietary management of food allergy remains largely focused on the elimination of trigger foods, maintaining an age-appropriate intake of energy and nutrients, and ensuring optimal growth.[8] Less attention has been paid to the overall dietary composition as adjuvant therapy to support immune function, despite the recognition that nutrients and foods have immunomodulatory and pharmacological effects on immune function and gut permeability.[9,10]

Based on data published for other disorders and epidemiological links already identified, consideration should be given as to whether the effect of nutritional intake on immune function could improve the management of allergic disease. Immuno-nutrition is defined as the direct and indirect effects of macronutrients and micronutrients (vitamins, minerals, and trace elements) on development, functionality, and responsiveness of the immune system.[11] The aim of this article was to review the existing evidence for a relationship between nutrition, immune function, and allergic disease from a clinical perspective, and based on this evidence, propose an immune-supportive diet to enhance the dietary management of allergic disease. An overview of the method followed for the evidence of the proposed sustainable and immune-supportive diet is given in Figure 1.

2 | THE EFFECT OF INDIVIDUAL NUTRIENTS, DIETARY PATTERNS, AND FOOD PROCESSING ON IMMUNE FUNCTION

The human diet is required to sustain growth and development and maintain body composition, by providing both macronutrients (protein, carbohydrate, fiber, and fat) and micronutrients (vitamins and minerals). Dietary composition can affect immune function from the standpoint of both individual nutrients, such as fiber, vitamins, essential fatty acids, and from the diversity and variety of foods consumed. It has been proposed that an increase in the consumption of ultra-processed foods, rather than changes in carbohydrate and fat intakes, has been linked to the start of the obesity epidemic in the United States,[12] as well as to chronic disease.[2] The composition of the diet has changed rapidly in the last few decades, with ultra-processed foods now contributing 30%–60% of energy intakes.[13-15] Therefore, when considering the effect of the diet on the immune system, it is important to evaluate the contribution of individual nutrients, the synergy between nutrients in different dietary patterns, and the role of ultra-processed foods.

2.1 | Single nutrients

Nutrients and non-nutritive components, including vitamins A, D, C, selenium, zinc, iron, fiber, and flavonoids are prerequisite for optimal innate and adaptive immune function, gut microbiome, and for adequate resistance to viral or bacterial infections.[11,16-22] Nutrients

13989995, 0, Downloaded from https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/all.15687 by EVIDENCE AID - BELGIUM, Wiley Online Library on [11/04/2023]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/terms-and-conditions) on Wiley Online Library for rules of use; OA articles are governed by the applicable Creative Commons License

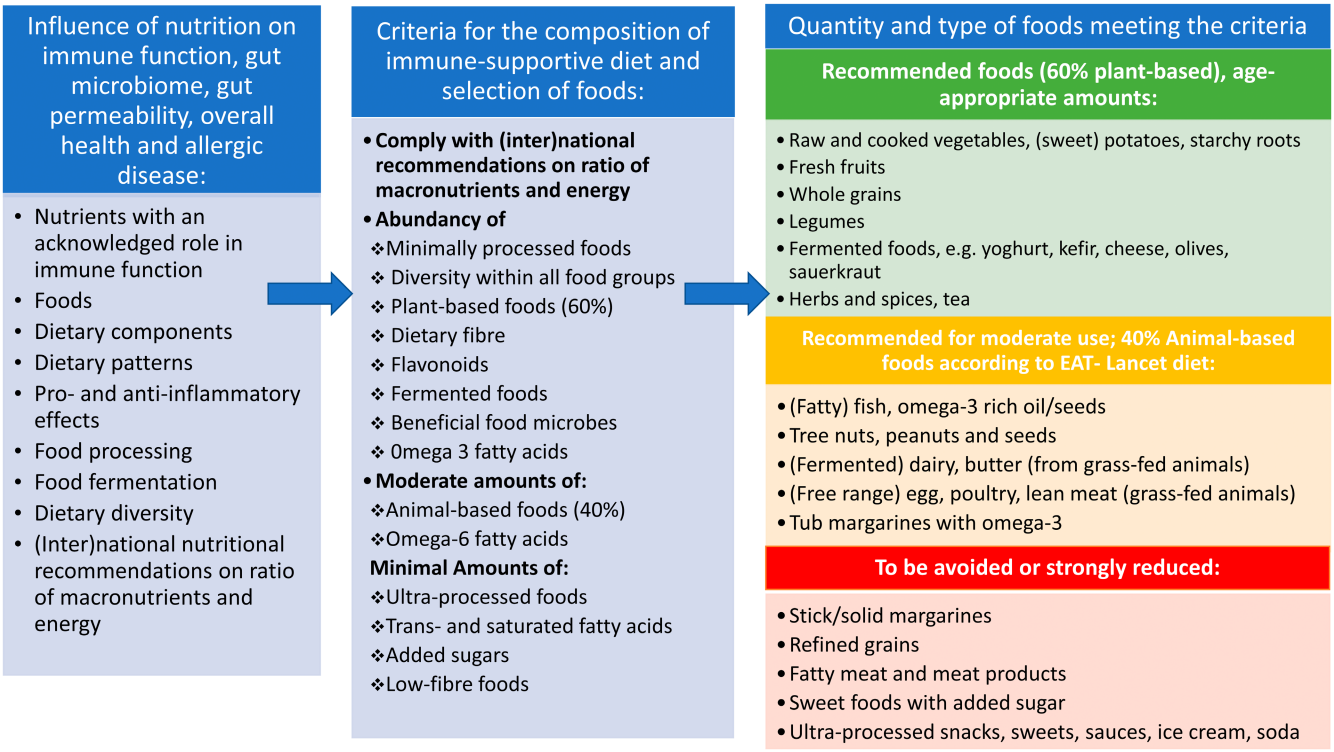


FIGURE 1 Structure of the evidence base for the immune-supportive diet.

also play a role in mucosal barrier function, induce immunomodulatory effects through interaction with the gut microbiota, and change in the intestinal microbiota composition[11] through epigenetic effects and interaction with (pharmacological) receptors[20] (Table 1). The latter leads to both anti-inflammatory and pro-inflammatory processes, depending on the nutrient–receptor complex and interactions (and quantity of nutritional components).[20] Although supplementation with individual nutrients can be beneficial in states of insufficiency, in healthy individuals they provide no overall benefit and may even provoke adverse effects.[16,17] A recent systematic review and meta-analysis reported that nutrient supplementation alone did not prevent respiratory viral infections.[18]

However, some single dietary nutrients could play a role in allergic disease. Essential long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs) and their metabolites are considered to have anti-inflammatory (omega-3) and pro-inflammatory (omega-6) properties in the pathogenesis of asthma and allergy through their impact on the production of pro- or anti-inflammatory prostaglandins and limiting neutrophil infiltration among others.[19] As omega-3 and omega-6 PUFAs compete for the same elongation and desaturation enzymes needed for conversion,[32] a low ratio of omega-6 to omega-3 intake is important to obtain anti-inflammatory effects. Evolutionary dietary models are characterized by a ratio of 1:1, whereas in the Western diet, this ratio may be as high as 16:1[31] due to the increased use of vegetable oil and changes in animal feed (grass to grains).[28,29,31,33] Milk, eggs, and meat from grass-fed animals contain higher amounts of omega-3 PUFAs, due to high grazing/forage-based diets.[28,29,33] Sources of omega-3 and -6 are given in Table 2.[30,34]

Naturally occurring trans-fatty acids may also offer protective health effects. Consumption of the ruminant milk trans-fatty acids, vaccenic acid (tVA), and conjugated linoleic acid (c9, t11-CLA) from grass-fed ruminants may reduce sensitization and allergic inflammation.[35-37] Conversely, trans-fatty acids derived by partial hydrogenation of vegetable oils are thought to have detrimental health effects.[19,38] Saturated fat is also considered to have pro-inflammatory effects, although this may only apply to saturated fatty acids derived from meat, and not from milk or milk products.[39,40] Moreover, emerging evidence suggests that dairy foods do not increase concentrations of the biomarkers of chronic systemic inflammation.[39,40] Additionally, some short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs) (e.g., in butter), especially butyrate, exert immunoregulatory effects via multiple mechanisms, including epigenetic modifications, beneficial effects on the gut microbiome, microbial barrier function, and immune homeostasis.[41,42]

2.2 | Synergistic effects of nutrients in dietary patterns

Although single nutrients have immunomodulatory effects, a combination of nutrients can have synergistic effects, meaning the whole diet has more impact than individual food constituents alone.[43,44] Food synergy, based on the proposition that the interrelations between constituents in foods are significant, has become increasingly accepted instead of studying single nutrients.[12] For example, nutrients are usually provided by different food sources, nutrients affect

13989995, 0, Downloaded from https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/all.15687 by EVIDENCE AID - BELGIUM, Wiley Online Library on [11/04/2023]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/terms-and-conditions) on Wiley Online Library for rules of use; OA articles are governed by the applicable Creative Commons License

TABLE 1 Nutrients with acknowledged immunomodulatory function.[11,16-20]

Nutrient(s)	Immunomodulatory function
Amino acids, vitamin C, omega-3 fatty acids	Innate immune function: reduce inflammation[11]
Vitamin D	Enhance macrophage and dendritic cell function[11]
Vitamins B, C, E minerals zinc, selenium, magnesium, copper	Adaptive immune function: regulate T- and B-cell function[11]
Vitamin A, iron, dietary fiber, and zinc	Maintenance of mucosal barrier integrity[21,23-25]
Dietary fiber, flavonoids, omega-3 fatty acids	Gut microbiota butyrate production[11,26,27]
Fatty acids	Production of pro- or anti-inflammatory lipid-derived mediators such as prostaglandins and leukotrienes[23,28-30]
Fatty acids, proteins, and multiple vitamins	Cofactors in cellular proliferation[23,31]
Copper, iron, folate, zinc, magnesium, and vitamins A, B12, and D	Cell division and gene expression[23,31]
Vitamin C and E, copper, zinc, iron and selenium	Protection against oxidative damage[23,31]
Folate	Cell division and homocysteine synthesis, and epigenetic effects[23,31]

each other's absorption, such as copper and zinc, and vitamin C and iron. In contrast, anti-nutrients such as phytate may decrease the absorption of minerals such as iron (16). The food synergy concept supports the idea of dietary variety and of selecting nutrient-rich foods as part of that diet.[16,26,43,45,46]

There is abundant evidence that the Western diet, rich in total fat, saturated fat, meat, refined sugars, and processed foods, is related to increased risk of mortality, low-grade inflammation, disturbed gut epithelial barrier function, and pro-inflammatory microbiome composition.[27,43,44,46-50] Specifically, a high intake of animal foods induce a pro-inflammatory composition of the gut microbiome, such as an increase in Firmicutes, *Ruminococcus* species and a reduction in *Bifidobacterium*, as well as endotoxin synthesis pathways.[46,50] The Western diet is characterized by low nutrient density, meaning that it has a relatively low content of significant nutrients (dietary fiber, essential fatty acids, minerals, and vitamins) per calorie, often referred as "empty calories". Low-nutrient dense foods often contain high levels of refined sugars, saturated fat, and sodium.[51] Diets high in empty calories result in a reduced intake of nutrients essential for an optimal innate and adaptive immune system, such as vitamins A, C, D, iron, zinc, selenium, magnesium, copper, and omega-3 fatty acids.[11,21,52] The high saturated fat content of the Western diet, typically in North American and Northern European dietary patterns,[23,53] directly activates the Toll-like receptor 4 (TLR4), which leads to a NF-κB-driven inflammatory cascade, inducing the production of inflammatory cytokines, chemokines, and adhesion molecules.[54]

Food patterns differ around the world, suggesting that a range of diet types confer beneficial health effects. In contrast to the Western dietary pattern, traditional diets consist of seasonal and local foods, prepared at home, and consumed by the family, with culinary methods, transferred from generation to generation.[27] Such diets are sustainable and increase social contact, which also have beneficial effects on health[55-57] (Table 3). Each country has its own guidance on healthy eating reflecting country-specific traditional diets, local availability, and recommendations on the intake of macro- and micronutrients to support health. The challenge is to establish which overall diet is best for health.[47,58] A comparison of the efficacy of seven dietary patterns found that a diet of minimally processed and predominantly plant-based foods is associated with positive health outcomes and increased life expectancy.[58] Fadnes et al. concluded that an optimal diet for prolonged life expectancy should include more whole grains, legumes, fish, fruits, vegetables, and some nuts, and less red meat, processed meats, sugar-sweetened beverages, and refined grains.[59] A dietary pattern rich in complex carbohydrates, plant-based proteins, and a limited intake of animal-based protein has also been shown to be beneficial for overall mortality.[60,61]

The traditional Mediterranean dietary pattern, which typically has a high ratio of monounsaturated fatty acid (MUFA) to saturated fatty acid (SFA) and omega-3 to omega-6 PUFAs and supplies an abundance of fruits, vegetables, legumes, and whole grains, is also protective against chronic disease and associated with a lower prevalence of allergic disease.[23,53,54] Other dietary patterns similar to the Mediterranean diet, which have also been shown to be beneficial include the Nordic diet,[62,63] the Japanese diet,[64,65] and the Atlantic diet (traditional in Spain and Portugal)[66,67] (Table 4).

2.3 | Pro- and anti-inflammatory properties of food patterns

Pro-inflammatory effects have been demonstrated for high-fat/high-sugar diets, micronutrient deficiencies (folate, manganese, and carotenoids) and obesity through epigenetic mechanisms.[68,69] In contrast, some anti-inflammatory effects resulting from caloric

13989995, 0, Downloaded from https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/all.15687 by EVIDENCE AID - BELGIUM, Wiley Online Library on [11/04/2023]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/terms-and-conditions) on Wiley Online Library for rules of use; OA articles are governed by the applicable Creative Commons License

TABLE 2 Sources of omega-3 and omega-6 fatty acids.[30,34]

Omega-3 rich sources[a]	Comment	Omega-6:omega-3 ratio
Good source of EPA[1] and DHA[2], which need no or little metabolic conversion[31]		
Fatty fish		0.1
Algae		0.0
Contain alpha-linoleic acid (ALA)		
Walnuts and Walnut oil	6.54 g/100 g ALA	0.0
Flax seed and flax seed oil	Flaxseed: 16.6 g/100 g ALA Flax seed oil: 49.8 g/100 g ALA	0.2 0.3
Chia seed	17.8 g/100 g ALA	0.3
Rape seed/canola oil	8.5 g/100 g ALA	2.3
Hemp seed	8.9 g/100 g ALA	2.3
Soy oil and olive oil		7.4
Tub margarine with omega-3		Approximately 3.0–4.0
Minor sources		
Olive oil	Predominantly contains omega-9 (mono-unsaturated fatty acid), very little omega-3 (0.9 g/100 mL) and little omega-6 (7.9 g/100 mL)	8.7
Milk from grass-fed animals	Milk from grass-fed animals contains higher amounts of omega-3 PUFAs, average + 57%, due to due to high grazing/forage-based diets.[28,29,33]	Milk has better omega-6:omega-3 PUFA (−71% on average) and linoleic acid (LA):ALA ratios (93% average)[28]
Meat from grass-fed animals and organically kept animals	Total PUFA and omega-3 PUFA are an estimated 23% (95% CI 11, 35) and 47% (95% CI 10, 84) higher in organic meat than in conventional meat respectively, due to high grazing/forage-based diets, although variability is large[28,29,33]	omega-6:omega-3 PUFA ratio 72% lower in grass-finished vs. maize silage-finished beef[28]
Omega-6-rich sources		
Tub margarine		Up to 18
Soy oil		57.2
Seed oils, e.g., Sunflower oil, sesame oil		321 238
Corn oil		57.2
Seeds and nuts:		
Sunflower seeds Pumpkin seeds		321 236

[a]Omega-3 most predominantly occurs in foods in the form of essential α-linolenic acid (ALA), which is converted through chain elongation and desaturation into eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA) and docosahexaenoic acid (DHA). Fatty fish contains EPA and DHA and requires no conversion. Omega-6 linoleic acid (LA) is converted into arachidonic acid (AA).

restriction, omega-3 PUFAs, fiber, Mediterranean diet, vitamin D, zinc, polyphenols (i.e., resveratrol, gallic acid, epicatechin, luteolin, curcumin) may also be epigenetically driven,[68,69] highlighting the importance of moderate energy intake among others. One proposed method of measuring the pro- and anti-inflammatory capacity of the total diet is the Dietary Inflammatory Index (DII), a validated measure of diet-associated inflammation.[44,70] The DII includes 45 pro- or anti-inflammatory foods, nutrients, or food components with the total inflammatory score of a diet based on the individual contribution of these components. IL-1β, IL-4, IL-6, IL-10, TNF-α, and C-reactive protein were chosen as inflammatory biomarkers.[44] This index proposes that the most pro-inflammatory food components are saturated fat,

13989995, 0, Downloaded from https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/all.15687 by EVIDENCE AID - BELGIUM, Wiley Online Library on [11/04/2023]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/terms-and-conditions) on Wiley Online Library for rules of use; OA articles are governed by the applicable Creative Commons License

	Traditional Mediterranean diet	Western diet
Based on the	Individual skills/knowledge/ practices/traditions ranging from the landscape of the cuisine	Contemporary trends, fashionable

TABLE 3 Social and cultural context of diet and nutrition—comparison between traditional Mediterranean diet and Western diet.[55-57]

Regional diets	Rich in	Low in
Nordic/Scandinavian diet[62,63]	High fiber plant foods (fruits, berries, vegetables, whole grains, nuts) rapeseed oil, fish, low-fat dairy products	Salt, added sugars, saturated fats
Japanese diet[64,65]	Soy products, fish, shellfish, vegetables, (pickles), seaweed, mushrooms, fruit, green tea	
Atlantic diet/South European[66,67]	Bread, cereals, (including whole grain), rice, pasta, potatoes, fruit, vegetables (including soup), olive oil, dairy products, nuts, fish, shellfish	Fatty meats, cured sausages, butter, margarine desserts, sweets pastries, cakes, ice cream
Mediterranean diet[23,53,54]	Vegetables, legumes, fruit, grains, nuts, olive oil, fish, shellfish, herbs	

TABLE 4 Regional dietary patterns that have been shown to be beneficial.

trans-fatty acids, and cholesterol from mammalian products. The best anti-inflammatory foods/food components are fruits, vegetables (especially garlic), thyme/oregano, whole grains, fatty fish, green and black tea, omega-3 fatty acids, flavonoids, and dietary fiber.[70] Studies suggest that following a healthy diet leads to a lower DII score.[44,48] A recent study showed that a higher energy-adjusted DII score during pregnancy, indicating a more pro-inflammatory diet, was associated with higher risk of asthma in offspring (OR: 1.35; 95% CI: 1.10, 1.65; per 1-SD score increment).[71]

2.4 | Adverse effects of food processing

The method and intensity of processing is also important. The NOVA food classification system, based on the nature, extent, and purpose of industrial food processing, classifies all foods into four groups (Table 5).[72,73] Group 4 consists of ultra-processed foods, which contain additives, including those that imitate or enhance the sensory qualities of foods and processed ingredients (i.e., hydrogenated fat). The processing and ingredients used in the manufacture of ultra-processed foods make them very convenient (ready-to-consume, almost imperishable) and palatable for consumers, and highly profitable (low-cost ingredients, long shelf life) for their manufacturers.[72] A report based on studies in 11 countries shows that frequent use of (ultra)-processed foods, classified according to the NOVA classification, is associated with a diet high in energy density, fat, sugar and/or salt content, and an increased risk of chronic disease.[73]

Ultra-processed foods also contain elevated levels of advanced glycation end products (AGEs).[74] These are formed due to the Maillard reaction, which occurs during the browning of animal proteins and fats at high temperatures, and also in the presence of a high concentration of sugars. Fast foods, fried meats, sweets, sugars, and microwaved foods are particularly high in AGEs. A high intake of AGEs and AGE-forming sugars could promote the development of food allergy due to the innate immune system misinterpreting a threat from dietary allergens and producing alarmins, which facilitate innate danger signals and immune responses.[74] Although a recent study showed that maternal intake of AGEs in pregnancy was not associated with asthma and allergy outcomes in their offspring,[75] a high intake of AGEs from fast food is associated with atopic dermatitis, and wheeze.[76,77] Also, a high intake of fast foods is linked to the development of allergic diseases in adolescents, possibly due to the AGE content of these foods.[78]

Processed foods also contain food additives; bread, margarine, ice cream, mayonnaise, and sweets may contain emulsifiers such as polysorbate 80 and carboxymethylcellulose. Studies in mice suggest these products may affect the gut epithelial mucous layer, alter gut microbial composition, and promote inflammation.[79] Carrageenan (E407), extracted from red and purple seaweeds, is commonly used as a thickening agent or emulsifier in dairy/soy products, infant formula and processed meats. Along with carboxymethylcelluloses, carrageenan has been shown to induce changes in the microbiome, increase intestinal epithelial permeability, inhibit proteins that provide protection against microorganisms, and trigger pro-inflammatory cytokines.[5,79-82] Glucose, salt, emulsifiers, organic solvents, gluten, microbial transglutaminase, and nanoparticles, used by the food industry, may increase intestinal permeability by breaching the integrity of tight junction paracellular transfer, resulting in entry of foreign immunogenic antigens and activation of the autoimmune cascade[83] Salt can also skew macrophages toward a pro-inflammatory phenotype characterized by the increased differentiation of naive $CD4^+$ T cells into highly inflammatory T helper (TH)-17 cells, and decreased expression and anti-inflammatory activity of T regulatory cells.[4,84] In addition, common ingredients in most ultra-processed foods such as isolated sugars and refined grains can cause increased oxidative stress, which in turn can impact the immune system.[4,85,86]

13989995, 0, Downloaded from https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/all.15687 by EVIDENCE AID - BELGIUM, Wiley Online Library on [11/04/2023]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/terms-and-conditions) on Wiley Online Library for rules of use; OA articles are governed by the applicable Creative Commons License

TABLE 5 Classification of processed NOVA foods.[72,73]

Group	Food type	Examples
Group 1	Unprocessed or natural foods, obtained directly from plants or minimally processed foods	Fresh vegetables, fruits, whole grains, dried pasta, eggs, unbranded and unsalted nuts, dried mushrooms and spices, tea, natural yoghurt
Group 2	Culinary ingredients extracted from natural foods or from nature by pressing, grinding, crushing, pulverizing, and refining	Oils, fats, salt, and sugar
Group 3	Manufactured foods using salt, sugar, oil or substances from group 2 to preserve or make foods more palatable	Canned foods, bacon, salted nuts, dried fish, freshly made unpacked bread of wheat flour, yeast, water, and salt
Group 4	Ultra-processed foods	Snacks, drinks, ready meals, and many other product types formulated mostly or entirely from substances extracted from foods, or derived from food constituents

2.5 | Beneficial effect of food fermentation

Sourdough fermentation may decrease the glycemic response of baked goods and improves the properties and bioavailability of dietary fiber complex and phytochemicals. In addition, the phytate in sourdough bread, which is known for its mineral-binding capacity, is degraded to a higher extent resulting in a related increase in free calcium, zinc, magnesium, and iron.[87,88] Fermented foods, such as kefir, yoghurt with live bacteria, cheese, sauerkraut, tempeh, kombucha tea, kimchi, and miso, have recently gained more attention as related to immune health.[89,90] There is evidence that fermented foods have beneficial probiotic-like health effects, including reinforcement of the epithelial barrier by increasing mucins, tight junction proteins, and Goblet and Paneth cells.[91] A recent study showed that consumption of fermented foods increases microbiome diversity and decreases large numbers of inflammation markers, while a fiber-rich diet did not.[26,92] In addition, fermented foods are a natural source of SCFAs.[42] Also, fresh and unheated foods, such as raw fruits and vegetables contribute to the total microbial exposure through diet and may therefore contribute to immunomodulatory effects in the gut.[93]

3 | THE WIDER ROLE OF NUTRITION IN THE IMMUNE SYSTEM

3.1 | Nutrition and the gut microbiome

The intestinal microbiome is in close and continuous contact with the immune system and influences pro-inflammatory and anti-inflammatory responses in the gut.[24-26,46,94-96] A healthy host–microbiome balance and diverse microbiota is required to optimally maintain the intestinal barrier and support immune functions, and consequently prevent disease development.[97,98] Many chronic diseases, including allergies, are characterized by a dysbiosis and reduced diversity of the microbiome.[99] Studies have convincingly shown that diet can not only alter microbiota composition rapidly, but also over the course of weeks and months.[100-103] In addition to modifying the number and composition of the gut bacteria, metabolites produced by the bacteria subsequently impact the structure and function of the epithelial barrier and eventually human metabolism, immune function, and health.[102] Dysbiosis and a reduction of gut microbial diversity in terms of phyla and genus has been observed, when the diet becomes Westernized, with an increased consumption of refined foods, high-fat foods, meat, and additives.[103] A systematic review by Singh et al. reported that high levels of animal protein, high total and saturated fat reduces the total abundance of bacteria in the gut, especially *Bifidobacteria*, *Lactobacillus*, *Eubacteria*, *and Bacteroides* species, while plant-based proteins and omega-3 PUFAs induce the opposite effect alongside increased abundance of *Prevotella*.[50] Dietary fiber increases gut microbiota diversity and generation of metabolites, such as SCFAs, which promote regulatory immune responses. High SCFA levels early in life are associated with protection from atopic sensitization as well as having an anti-inflammatory effect.[46,70,95-97,104-106] Further, evidence is accumulating to indicate the importance of dietary fat quality on gut microbiota.[107] In humans, a diet rich in saturated fat seems to associate with bacterial dysbiosis, such as *Proteobacteria*, while a PUFA intake, particularly that of omega-3 PUFA, has been associated with a decreased *Firmicutes* to *Bacteroidetes* ratio and an increased diversity.[108]

Nutrients and food components like phytochemicals are utilized by microbes residing in the gut to promote or inhibit their growth and with capability to extract energy to selected members of the gut microbial community, and also to produce metabolites including those with the immunomodulatory capacity.[102,109] It is also of note that the human diet is a source of microbes, including those formed during food manufacture (addition of

13989995, 0, Downloaded from https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/all.15687 by EVIDENCE AID - BELGIUM, Wiley Online Library on [11/04/2023]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/terms-and-conditions) on Wiley Online Library for rules of use; OA articles are governed by the applicable Creative Commons License

probiotics, fermented foods).[110] Experimental evidence is emerging that non-nutrient components of the diet including artificial sweeteners, additives (emulsifiers including lecithin, mono- and diglycerides of fatty acids), and sodium could alter gut microbiota, increase bacterial translocation across epithelia, and induce microbiota-mediated adverse effects in the host (e.g., glucose intolerance).[4,79,84,103,111,112] Based on the current evidence, diets high in fruits, vegetables, legumes, wholegrains, nuts, fatty fish as a source of omega-3 PUFA, and fermented dairy (buttermilk and yoghurt) have the potential to beneficially modify gut microbiota composition and function and prevent intestinal inflammatory processes at the core of many chronic diseases.[46,103]

3.2 | Nutrition and epithelial barrier function

It has been proposed that an increase in epithelial barrier-damaging agents due to industrialization, urbanization, and modern life underlies the rise in allergic, autoimmune, and other chronic conditions.[2] A defective epithelial barrier has been demonstrated in asthma, atopic dermatitis, AR, chronic rhinosinusitis, eosinophilic esophagitis, celiac disease, and inflammatory bowel disease.[2,113] Impaired intestinal permeability is also demonstrated in patients with adverse reactions to food.[114] Dietary factors may maintain or improve epithelial barrier structure and function, for example, omega-3 PUFAs, fiber, vitamins and minerals, fermented foods, and diets rich in polyphenols.[21,25,108,115,116] Food processing may have deleterious effects on intestinal epithelial barrier through AGE formation and additives like emulsifiers.[2,83,117] In a small study in adult patients with eosinophilic esophagitis, the intake of sunflower oil and/or stir fry oil, as well as the total amount of added fat, was unfavorably related to in vitro values of permeability, while the consumption of buttermilk/LGG yoghurt drink, milk products, and vitamin A were favorably related to mucosal permeability of the esophagus.[118]

4 | NUTRITION AND ALLERGIC DISEASE

4.1 | Food diversity

The effect of diet diversity, that is, the number of different foods or food groups consumed over a given reference period and dietary patterns in pregnancy, infancy, and childhood, was summarized in the review by Venter et al.[119] A diverse diet was recommended for at risk infants, but not before the age of 4 months due to an increased risk of atopic dermatitis at 2 and 6 years.[119] The PASTURE study reported that an increased dietary diversity within the first year of life might have a protective effect on asthma, food allergy, and food sensitization.[120] A study of adults aged 20–63 years found that a higher dietary diversity showed a significant inverse dose–response relationship with allergic diseases and AR in women, but not in men.[121] Most recently, 135/2251 infants with allergic disease had less food diversity at 6 and 12 months of age than infants without allergic disease, whereas those with the lowest risk of developing allergic disease had the greatest food diversity.[122] Increased diet diversity during the first year of life is associated with a decreased risk of asthma in the first year of life, and a reduced risk of atopic dermatitis at 2, 4, and 5 years of age.[120,123,124] It is assumed that the beneficial effects of food diversity induce tolerance induction through the effect on a more diverse microbiome, exposure to a larger range of potential allergens as well as beneficial nutrients.[119]

4.2 | Food allergy

A nested, case–control, within-cohort prospective study found that an infant diet consisting of high levels of fruits, vegetables, and home-prepared foods was associated with less food allergy by the age of 2 years.[125] A case–control study in Greece showed that components of a maternal Mediterranean diet may protect against the development of food protein-induced enterocolitis syndrome in the offspring, when traditional cooking methods are adopted and fish, fruit, and whole wheat products are consumed frequently during pregnancy and breastfeeding.[126] The allergenicity of raw (unprocessed) milk may be lower than pasteurized and processed milk. In an oral provocation pilot, up to 50 mL of raw milk was tolerated in cow's milk allergic children as compared to 8.6 ± 5.3 mL pasteurized milk suggesting that processing increases the allergenicity of milk.[127]

4.3 | Atopic dermatitis

Relatively few studies have evaluated the relationship between dietary patterns and atopic dermatitis.[128] A large study in Colombia of 6- to 7-year-old children showed that fresh fruit and pulses (peas, beans, lentils) consumed at least three times per week as part of a more traditional diet were inversely related to atopic dermatitis.[129] Unpasteurized mare's milk was associated with a decrease in atopic dermatitis symptoms, and yoghurt consumption in infancy in Japan was shown to be inversely associated with atopic dermatitis and food sensitization at 5 years of age.[130,131]

4.4 | Asthma

A systematic review on dietary interventions in asthma reported that 15/28 studies showed improvements in either asthma-related outcomes, immunological parameters, or both. Promising interventions included herbs, herbal mixtures/extracts, and omega-3 PUFAs.[132] Four systematic reviews found an inverse relationship between adherence to the Mediterranean diet and wheeze or asthma.[19,133-136] Additionally, a single-center controlled study evaluation of the efficacy of a Mediterranean diet supplemented with fatty fish twice weekly reported a significant positive effect for pulmonary function.[137] An overview of systematic reviews on asthma and dietary intake reported a negative association between asthma or wheeze

13989995, 0, Downloaded from https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/all.15687 by EVIDENCE AID - BELGIUM, Wiley Online Library on [11/04/2023]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/terms-and-conditions) on Wiley Online Library for rules of use; OA articles are governed by the applicable Creative Commons License

and dietary intake of vitamins C, E, and D, as well as intake of fruits and adherence to a Mediterranean diet.[7] However, a large survey of European adults found no association between fruit and vegetable intake and asthma.[138] Data from 9- to 10-year old Greek children showed an inverse association between lifetime asthma and the pro-antioxidant score of the diet (vegetables, fruits, fresh juice, fish), independent of other cofounders.[139] A larger study of younger children from 11 Latin American countries found a negative association between current wheeze and a higher fruit intake, and a positive association between fast food/burgers and wheeze in the older children.[129] A 6-month trial of a high-quality diet in adults with poorly controlled asthma resulted in decreased proinflammatory markers (IL-1β, TGF-α, and IL-6), and proteins associated with asthmatic conditions, that is, T-helper (Th) 2 and Th17-associated cytokines and growth factors.[140]

4.5 | Allergic rhinitis

Several observational studies have shown an association between dietary composition and the prevalence of AR. Cepeda et al.[129] found a negative association between fruit intake and AR in all children, and vegetable intake and AR in younger children. Fast food/burger intake was positively associated with AR in the older children.[129] The link with fruit and vegetable intake in childhood has been shown in other studies. A dietary pattern rich in vegetables and higher serum vitamin D level was related to a lower risk of mild and persistent AR in Korean children.[141] Also, flavonoids in fruits and vegetables have been associated with a lack of AR in Italian adults.[142] In a prospective study in 7-year-old Japanese school children, the prevalence of asthma, rhinitis, or any allergic symptoms at age 10 was significantly decreased in those with a high intake of fruit, as was the onset of any allergic symptoms during the study period.[143]

Studies also indicate that children regularly consuming high-carbohydrate foods, such as cereals, rice, and pasta, have a reduced risk of rhinoconjunctivitis, whereas the opposite was true for those consuming a diet high in fat and low in carbohydrates.[144,145] A regular consumption of sweets and animal fats was associated with reported rhinoconjunctivitis in children, and the same is true for high meat intakes in adults.[146] The consumption of processed and fast foods has also been linked to AR in children.[129,147] One dietary pattern linked to an increased risk of AR in Hong Kong school aged children was higher intakes of legumes, butter, nuts, and potatoes.[148]

5 | THE IMMUNE-SUPPORTIVE DIET IN THE MANAGEMENT OF ALLERGIC DISEASE

The evidence cited in this paper strongly supports the premise that the dietary management of allergic conditions should include consideration of total dietary composition and its effects on immune function, although far most evidence is based on observational studies.

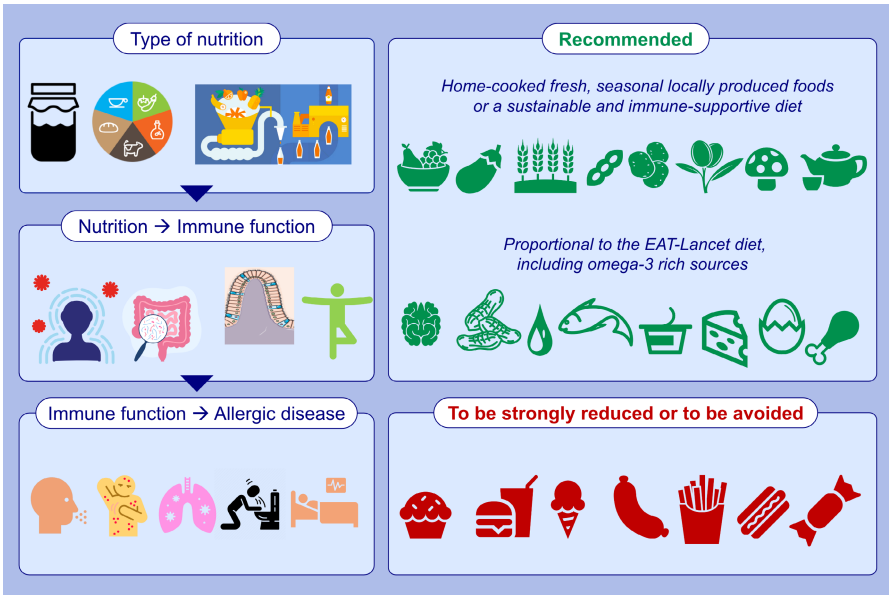


FIGURE 2 Nutrients, food components, foods and dietary patterns may have a beneficial effect on immune function and allergic disease, either directly or through the enhancement of the gut microbiota, epithelial barrier function and overall health. The origin of products and how they are processed contribute to their immunomodulatory effects. A sustainable and immune-supportive diet to complement other therapies in allergic disease was developed, consisting of a highly diverse range of fresh, whole and minimally processed foods including fruits, vegetables, grains, legumes, potatoes and starchy roots, fermented foods eg. olives, mushrooms, herbs, spices and tea, supplemented with moderate amounts of nuts, omega-3 rich foods and animal-based products in proportional amounts of the EAT-Lancet diet, such as (fatty) fish, (fermented) milk products, eggs and poultry or lean meat. Products to be strongly avoided include pastries & cake, fast food, ice cream, fatty meat(products), savory snacks, ultra processed foods, sweets.

13989995, 0, Downloaded from https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/all.15687 by EVIDENCE AID - BELGIUM, Wiley Online Library on [11/04/2023]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/terms-and-conditions) on Wiley Online Library for rules of use; OA articles are governed by the applicable Creative Commons License

TABLE 6 Rationale for the selection of foods that fit in an immune-supportive diet.

Criteria or recommended food choice	Rationale
Criteria	
• Comply with national and international balance and ratio of macronutrients and energy	Avoidance of high intake of fat and protein and sufficient complex carbohydrates is beneficial for overall health, low mortality, and microbiome[27,46,60,61,103]; Associated with higher threshold levels to peanut in peanut allergic children; Reduced risk of allergic rhinitis.[144,145]
• Total diet approach based on whole foods from NOVA classification 1–3[72,73]	Provide high levels of nutrients, dietary fiber and food microbes (see below); Beneficial relationship between a. nutrients, b. whole, fresh and minimally processed foods and c. unfavorable effect of Western diet and ultra-processed foods on 1. inflammation, health outcomes and overall mortality[4,7-11,14-18,20-25,38,47-49,51-54,58-64,66,67,74-85,94-97,150]; 2. microbiome[24-26,41-46,50,65-69,94-96,98-107,109,110]; 3. mucosal barrier function[2,79-84,108,113-118]; 4. food allergy[7,125,127]; 5. atopic dermatitis[129]; 6. asthma[7,19,129,132-140]; 7. allergic rhinitis.[129,142-148]
• Emphasis on home cooked, locally produced, and seasonal food	Sustainable diets; increased social contact impacting on health.[55-57,144-148]
• Aim to increase the number and diversity/range within food groups	Contributes to prevention of allergic disease, promotes a diverse microbiome development.[119-125]
• Plant-based foods	Associated with positive health outcomes and increased life expectancy[59]; beneficial for overall mortality[60,61]; increased abundance of *Prevotella*[50]; protect against chronic disease,[23,53,62-67,138,142] food allergy,[125] asthma,[7,19,132,133-136,139] and allergic rhinitis.[129,141-143]
• Foods rich in dietary fiber	Increases gut microbiota diversity and SCFAs. High SCFA levels early in life are associated with protection from atopic sensitization, as well as having an anti-inflammatory effect[41,42,46,70,95,96,98,104-106]; Maintain or improve epithelial barrier structure and function.[21,25,108]
• Foods rich in flavonoids	Prerequisite for optimal innate and adaptive immune function and for adequate resistance to viral or bacterial infections[11,16,20,22] anti-inflammatory effects[70]; Gut microbiota butyrate production.[11,26,27] See also plant-based foods.
• Fermented foods and foods naturally rich in beneficial food microbes	Beneficial effect on immune health and microbiome diversity[26,88-93] Beneficial effect on immune health and microbiome diversity[26,88-93]
• Omega-3 fatty acids and a beneficial ratio of omega-6 fatty acids:omega-3 fatty acids	Anti-inflammatory effects of omega-3 fatty acids[19,28,29,31-37]
Selection of foods	
Recommended foods in age-appropriate amounts:	**Beneficial for immune health when consumed in ample amounts**
• Raw and cooked vegetables; fresh fruits	Provide ample nutrients, food microbes (see below), dietary fiber, and polyphenols (see below) for the microbiome (see above); Reduces inflammation[44,48,71]; Improves health outcomes and reduces overall mortality[55-57]; Dietary patterns with ample plant-based foods/fruits/vegetables protect against chronic disease,[58-61,70,138] food allergy,[125] asthma,[7,19,132-136,139] and allergic rhinitis.[129,141-143]
• Whole grains (e.g., wheat, spelt, rye, barley, rice, corn, quinoa, buckwheat); • Potatoes, sweet potatoes, cassava and other starchy roots.	Provide carbohydrates, ample micronutrients and dietary fiber[26,41,43,44,46,50,88,103]; Improves health outcomes and reduces overall mortality[58-61,66,67]; Dietary patterns with ample plant-based foods protect against chronic disease[58-60,61,70,138]; Reduces inflammation.[70]
• Legumes (e.g., beans, lentils, peas, green beans)	Provide carbohydrates, dietary fiber, ample micronutrients and plant-based protein; Dietary patterns with ample plant-based foods protect against chronic disease.[58-61,70,138]
• Fermented foods e.g., sauerkraut, kimchi, olives, tofu, tempeh	Beneficial effect on immune health and microbiome diversity[26,88-93]
• Products rich in food microbes (raw vegetables and fruits, mushrooms, beansprouts)	Beneficial effect on immune health and microbiome diversity[26,88-93]
• Herbs and spices	Provide polyphenols with anti-inflammatory effects[70,115,132]
• Black and green tea	Provide polyphenols with anti-inflammatory effects[70,115,132]

13989995, 0, Downloaded from https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/all.15687 by EVIDENCE AID - BELGIUM, Wiley Online Library on [11/04/2023]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/terms-and-conditions) on Wiley Online Library for rules of use; OA articles are governed by the applicable Creative Commons License

TABLE 6 (Continued)

Recommended for moderate use	Beneficial for immune health when consumed in limited and age-appropriate amounts
• (Fatty) fish, and other omega-3 rich sources: walnuts, flax seed, linseed	Anti-inflammatory effects of omega-3 fatty acids[19,28,29,31-33,35-37]
• Omega-3 rich oils e.g., cold pressed/ raw olive oil, rapeseed/canola oil, walnut oil, flax seed oil	Anti-inflammatory effects of omega-3 fatty acids[19,28,29,31-33,35-37]
• Raw or roasted tree nuts, peanuts and seeds	Provide carbohydrates, dietary fiber, omega-3 and 6 fatty acids, plant-based protein, and ample micronutrients. Dietary patterns with ample plant-based foods protect against chronic disease[58-61,70,138]
• Dairy, predominantly fermented: yoghurt and cheese, butter (preferably from grass-fed cows) • Milk products may be low-fat or full-fat: to be individually determined based on age, nutritional needs, and other health considerations	Provides animal-based protein, ample nutrients; milk products from grass-fed animals contain more milk trans fatty acids[35-37] and omega-3 fatty acids[28,29,33] than dairy from grain fed animals. Fermented milk products are beneficial for immune health and microbiome diversity ([26,89-93]); Yoghurt is inversely related to atopic dermatitis.[131] Full-fat milk products contain more vitamin A than low-fat milk products, butter provides SCFAs such as butyrate.[41,127] Saturated fat from milk products is not inflammatory.[39,40]
• Eggs (especially free range)	Provides animal-based protein, ample nutrients; egg from grass-fed hens contain more omega-3 fatty acids[33] than egg from grain fed animals.
• Lean meat or poultry (especially free range)	Provides animal-based protein, ample nutrients; meat from grass-fed animals contain omega-3 fatty acids[28,33] than meat from grain fed animals.
• Tub margarines with omega-3 fatty acids without trans fatty acids	Contains emulsifiers with inadvertent effects on gut epithelial barrier[2,5,79-82,118] Although margarines belong to processed foods, the use of margarines with omega-3 fatty acids may be selected because of the presence of omega-3, vitamin A and vitamin D, for example by vegans, cow's milk allergic patients and as cheaper option for butter
To be strongly reduced or to be avoided	**Non-optimal for immune health when regularly consumed**
• Stick/solid margarines without omega-3 fatty acids or with high content of trans- or saturated fatty acids	Contains emulsifiers with inadvertent effects on gut epithelial barrier[2,5,79-82,118] and saturated fat with proinflammatory properties
• Refined grains	Low in nutrients and dietary fiber with an inadvertent effect on gut microbiome[103] and oxidative stress[4,84,85]
• Fatty meat and fatty meat products	Saturated fat from meat has pro-inflammatory effects[39,40] Western diet with high consumption of (processed) meat, refined sugars and processed foods is associated with mortality,[52] chronic disease,[27,43,44,46-49] pro-inflammatory microbiome,[50] and allergic disease.
• Foods containing large amounts of added sugar, such as sweets, biscuits, soda and lemonade	Ingredients of (ultra) processed foods,[4,81,82] promote the forming of AGEs, possibly increasing risk for atopic dermatitis and wheezing[74,76-78]
• Ultra-processed foods, such as savory snacks, fast food, instant foods and ready meals	Unfavorable effect of Western diet and ultra-processed foods on • inflammation, health outcomes and overall mortality • microbiome • mucosal barrier function • food allergy • atopic dermatitis • allergic rhinitis (see above)

Nutrients, foods and dietary patterns have a beneficial effect on immune function, either directly or through the enhancement of the gut microbiota, epithelial barrier, and overall health through metabolic, epigenetic, and antioxidant effects. Given the effects of processing and the immunomodulatory properties of specific foods, dietary advice and support should enable individuals with a food allergy change to more healthy dietary patterns in addition to excluding the trigger food(s). Such advice may be especially important in adults as aging is associated with progressive alteration of intestinal permeability, chronic low-grade inflammation, gastritis and a decreased ability to digest food, which often results in nutritional deficiencies including low levels vitamin D, zinc, and iron.[149] More emphasis should also be on achieving an immune-supportive diet, especially since it may support immune function to maintain or even achieve tolerance.[150] This active management is also warranted to counteract the unnecessary avoidance of foods, especially wheat and milk, which is an increasingly worldwide phenomenon,[151] and highly prevalent in individuals with allergic diseases, especially atopic dermatitis and/or food allergy.[152] Elimination of wheat and milk may lead to deficiencies in dietary fiber, B vitamins, minerals such as iodine, iron, and calcium, and vitamin B2.

13989995, 0, Downloaded from https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/all.15687 by EVIDENCE AID - BELGIUM, Wiley Online Library on [11/04/2023]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/terms-and-conditions) on Wiley Online Library for rules of use; OA articles are governed by the applicable Creative Commons License

TABLE 7 Immune-supportive sample menu for an adult[a]

Breakfast	Important beneficial nutrient sources[34]
Low- or full-fat yoghurt with oats or untoasted muesli without added sugar	Yoghurt: Protein, vitamins B2 and B12, vitamin A and fat (in full-fat yoghurt), calcium, iodine, phosphorus, food microbes. Oats/muesli: fiber, B vitamin, fiber, zinc, magnesium
Fresh fruit	Dietary fiber, carbohydrates (sugars), vitamin C, flavonoids, food microbes
Boiled, fried in or scrambled egg, prepared with cold pressed canola/rapeseed oil alternating with olive oil	Egg: Protein, fat, vitamins A, D, B2, B12 and folate, zinc, iron, selenium Canola oil: omega-3 and 6 fatty acids, vitamins E and K Olive oil: omega-9 fatty acids, vitamins E and K, flavonoids
Lunch	
Wholewheat yeasted or sourdough bread/ wholewheat crackers/wraps	Dietary fiber, carbohydrates, protein, B vitamins, iodine, iron, magnesium, phosphorus, food microbes
Small amount of butter or tub-margarine with omega-3 fatty acids	butter: fat, vitamin A, D, SCFA (butyrate) tub-margarine: omega-3 fatty acids, omega-6 fatty acids, vitamins A, D
Variety of low-fat or full-fat cheese/fresh cheese, fruit spread no added sugar, grilled vegetables, hummus or peanut butter or nut butter, sprouts	Cheese: Protein, fat, vitamins B2, B12 and A, calcium, food microbes Fruit spread: vitamin C, B vitamins Grilled vegetables: Dietary fiber, vitamins A (from carotenoids), C and folate, potassium, calcium, iron, flavonoids, nutrients from oil used.
Salad with dressing based on olive or oil and vinegar	Salad: Dietary fiber, vitamins A (from carotenoids), C, folate, potassium, calcium, iron, food microbes, flavonoids, Olive oil: omega-9 fatty acids, vitamins E and K, flavonoids
Fresh fruit	Dietary fiber, carbohydrates (sugars), vitamin C, food microbes, flavonoids
Main meal	
Potatoes, starchy roots, brown rice or whole grains, whole grain/multigrain pasta	Potatoes: Dietary fiber, carbohydrates, vitamins B1, B6 and C, Whole grains: Dietary fiber, carbohydrates, protein, B vitamins, iodine, iron, magnesium calcium, potassium, phosphorus, magnesium, zinc.
A variety of vegetables: raw or cooked	Dietary fiber, vitamins A (from carotenoids), C, folate, potassium, calcium, iron, food microbes (in raw vegetables), flavonoids
Legumes (beans, peas, lentils), nuts or alternately oily fish, white fish, chicken, lean meat, cheese or egg	Legumes: Dietary fiber, protein, carbohydrates, B vitamins, iron, magnesium, potassium Nuts: Dietary fiber, protein, omega-6 fatty acids, omega-3 fatty acids (walnuts), B vitamins, iron, magnesium, potassium, selenium (brazil nuts), food microbes, flavonoids Oily fish: protein, omega-3 fatty acids, vitamins A, D, B2, B6 and B12, iodine, phosphorus, selenium Lean fish: protein, vitamins A, D, B2, B6 and B12, iodine, phosphorus, selenium
Cold pressed canola/rapeseed oil alternating with olive oil, small amount of flaxseed oil[b]	Canola oil/flaxseed oil: omega-3 and 6 fatty acids, vitamins E and K
Wide variety of herbs, spices	Flavonoids
Snacks/drinks	
Water, tea, coffee with milk, kombucha	tea: flavonoids kochumba: food microbes
Whole grain biscuits	Dietary fiber, carbohydrates, B vitamins
Fresh fruit or snack vegetables	Fresh fruit: Dietary fiber, carbohydrates (sugars), vitamin C, food microbes, flavonoids Fresh vegetable: Dietary fiber, vitamins A (from carotenoids), C, folate, potassium, calcium, iron, food microbes, flavonoids
(Unroasted) and unsalted nuts/seeds or dried fruits	Nuts/seeds: Dietary fiber, protein, omega-6 fatty acids, omega-3 fatty acids (walnuts), B vitamins, iron, magnesium, potassium, selenium (brazil nuts), food microbes, flavonoids Dried fruits: Dietary fiber, vitamins B1, B6 and folate, potassium, iron
Fresh olives	

Note: Based on the individual clinical history of the patient this sample menu should be personalised and adapted by the health care professional. This sample menu may not be suitable for patients who are overweight or suffer from diseases such as diabetes or cardiovascular diseases where individual or disease-specific adaptations are required. If the amount of animal products included in this sample menu are proportional to the amount included in the sustainable, planetary proof and healthy EAT-Lancet diet[153] (250 g of full-fat milk or equivalent per day and per week 100 g lean meat, 2×100 g chicken, 2×100 g fatty or lean fish) and the energy intake (1970 kCal/day) for adults from plant-based and animal-based foods is met, this sample menu consists of 72 g protein of which 58.7% plant-based and 41.4% animal-based proteins. Animal-based products are preferably derived from grass-fed animals. This sample menu (based on full-fat milk products and butter and without tub margarine) contains 34% fat of which 9.7% of saturated fat, an omega-6:3 ratio of 2.8:1, meets the Dutch Dietary Recommendations for adults (25–70 years), except for vitamin D (22%) and vitamin B2 (68% for females/males). A slight increase in e.g. yeast or yeast extract, flaxseed, soy, almonds, egg, dairy or vegetables such as mushrooms, avocado and broccoli will cover the recommendation for vitamin B2. Recommendations for calcium (94% for males/females), iron (89% for females), vitamin B12 (85% for females/males) are just about met, all the other nutrient intakes are higher than the recommendations.

[a]Based on the individual clinical history and age of the patient this sample menu should be personalized and individually adapted.

[b]Cold pressed oil may have health benefits above refined oil, due to its preserved fatty acid profile and bioactive compounds such as tocopherols, phytosterols, and carotenoids.[154]

13989995, 0, Downloaded from https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/all.15687 by EVIDENCE AID - BELGIUM, Wiley Online Library on [11/04/2023]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/terms-and-conditions) on Wiley Online Library for rules of use; OA articles are governed by the applicable Creative Commons License

In addition, as nutrition works through interaction with (pharmacological) receptors,[20] an immune-supportive diet could be integrated in a more holistic management of allergic diseases to enhance the efficacy of allergen immunotherapy, biologicals or other drugs.

An immune-supportive and sustainable diet also ensures that the amount of animal proteins are proportionate to the amounts included in the sustainable, healthy, and planetary-proof EAT-Lancet diet.[153]

Based on the available evidence as outlined in this paper, in addition to tailoring the diet to meet individual nutritional needs, an immune-supportive diet and selected foods should meet the following criteria (Figures 1 and 2; Table 6):

- Complies with national and international balance and ratio of macronutrients and energy
- Contain an abundancy of fresh, whole or minimally processed foods (NOVA)-classification 1–3, home cooked, locally produced, and seasonal food, a high diversity of foods taken from all food groups, plant-based foods, foods rich in dietary fiber, foods rich in flavonoids, fermented foods, and foods naturally rich in beneficial food microbes and omega-3 fatty acids
- Contains moderate amounts of animal-based foods proportionate to the EAT- Lancet diet and omega-6 fatty acids
- Contains minimal amounts of ultra-processed foods, foods high in trans/saturated fatty acids, foods high in added sugars, and low in dietary fiber.

Based on these criteria the following foods are selected:

- Recommended foods in age-appropriate amounts are raw and cooked vegetables, (sweet) potatoes and starchy roots, fresh fruits, whole grains, legumes, fermented foods, and foods naturally rich in beneficial food microbes (e.g., kimchi, sauerkraut, kefir, yoghurt, raw fruits, and vegetables), herbs and spices, and black and green tea
- Recommended for moderate use, according to the sustainable, planetary proof and healthy EAT-Lancet diet are oily fish, walnuts, flax seed, omega-3 PUFA-rich oils, and raw or roasted unsalted nuts and seeds will help to achieve a decreased omega-6:omega-3 ratio. Omega-3 containing tub margarines which, although highly processed, may be included depending on individual preferences. Aside from oily fish, other sources of animal protein, for example, eggs, white fish, shellfish, unprocessed poultry, and lean meat, can still be included in the diet but in lesser amounts. The same applies to milk and milk products such as yoghurt, butter, and cheese, with intake proportionate to the nutritional needs, especially during infancy and childhood, and preferably from grass-fed animals
- Finally, an immune-supportive diet should reduce or exclude stick margarines, refined grains, fatty meat and meat products, and ultra-processed foods, for example, sweets, biscuits/cakes, savory snacks, fast food, sugary drinks, and ready meals due to the presence of trans-fatty acids, AGEs, emulsifiers, and so on.

A detailed outline and rationale of an immune-supportive diet is given in Table 7. Such a diet can achieve individual dietary requirements, while also ensuring the components of an immune-supportive diet are met. A caveat to any dietary advice is that the impact of nutritional manipulation on the immune system may vary on an individual basis. Based on the individual clinical history and age of the patient, this sample menu should be personalized and individually adapted.

6 | CONCLUSIONS

Nutrients, foods, and dietary patterns may have a beneficial effect on immune function, either directly or through the enhancement of the gut microbiota, epithelial barrier, and overall health through metabolic, epigenetic, and antioxidant effects. In addition, the origin of products and how they are processed contribute to their immunomodulatory effects. Although there is an emerging evidence that healthy food choices play a meaningful role in the treatment of allergic disease beyond elimination of the causative allergen(s), the role of an immune-supportive diet as adjuvant therapy has not been adequately explored. Observational studies in humans suggest that higher food diversity and higher intakes of healthy foods such as

BOX 1 Unanswered questions and research needs

- What is the effect of an immune-supportive diet on clinical symptoms of the individual allergic diseases i.e. food allergy (e.g. threshold levels, severity of symptoms), atopic dermatitis, allergic asthma, allergic rhinitis, eosinophilic esophagitis?
- Which dietary components contribute (most) to immunomodulatory effects and symptom reduction?
- How do nutritional components interact to obtain immunomodulatory effects and symptom reduction?
- Which immunological (anti-inflammatory) pathways are induced by the immune-supportive diet and its components?
- Which changes in microbiome and permeability of the gut, lung and skin are obtained by the immune-supportive diet?
- How is the feasibility of the diet and the adherence to the diet by the different patient groups, including children?
- What are the extra costs of the immune-supportive diet?
- What is the overlap with immune-supportive diets in other chronic immune disorders such as IBD?
- Is the proposed immune-supportive diet applicable to the general population to prevent the development of allergic disease and other chronic immune diseases?

13989995, 0, Downloaded from https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/all.15687 by EVIDENCE AID - BELGIUM, Wiley Online Library on [11/04/2023]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/terms-and-conditions) on Wiley Online Library for rules of use; OA articles are governed by the applicable Creative Commons License

fruits, vegetables, and complex carbohydrates, and lower intakes of animal products, sugars, and fast food are associated with improved outcomes of asthma, atopic dermatitis, and AR. Future intervention studies testing the efficacy of an immune-supportive diet on clinical symptoms, inflammatory markers, and in the treatment of allergic disease are needed. Many open questions are still unanswered and many research needs are to be addressed, including inter-individual effects (Box 1). There is currently insufficient evidence to actively promote the use of an immune-supportive diet to complement other therapies in the management of allergic disease. However, such a diet meets dietary guidelines, is sustainable and high in nutritional quality, so we should take this opportunity to support patients by active dietary management which may also have immune-modulatory effects.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

None.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

BVB developed the concept. BVB and IS wrote the manuscript, All the authors approved the concept and actively reviewed and commented on the paper. NdJ drafted the graphical abstract.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

The authors declare no conflict of interest in relation to this work.

ORCID

Berber Vlieg-Boerstra https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7962-5406
Rosan Meyer https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5710-5570
Kirsi Laitinen https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5245-8118
Rachelle Bottse https://orcid.org/0009-0000-4383-6543
Liam O'Mahony https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4705-3583
Isabel J. Skypala https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3629-4293

REFERENCES

1. Adkis C. Global Atlas of Allergy. European Academy of Allergy & Clinical Immunology. Accessed April 19, 2022. https://medialibrary.eaaci.org/mediatheque/media.aspx?mediaId=60228&channel=8518
2. Akdis CA. Does the epithelial barrier hypothesis explain the increase in allergy, autoimmunity and other chronic conditions? *Nat Rev Immunol*. 2021;21:739-751.
3. Mozaffarian D. Dietary and policy priorities for cardiovascular disease, diabetes, and obesity: a comprehensive review. *Circulation*. 2016;133:187-225.
4. Furman D, Campisi J, Verdin E, et al. Chronic inflammation in the etiology of disease across the life span. *Nat Med*. 2019;25:1822-1832.
5. Campmans-Kuijpers MJE, Dijkstra G. Food and food groups in inflammatory bowel disease (IBD): the Design of the Groningen Anti-Inflammatory Diet (GrAID). *Nutrients*. 2021;13:1067.
6. Walrabenstein W, van der Leeden M, Weijs P, et al. The effect of a multidisciplinary lifestyle program for patients with rheumatoid arthritis, an increased risk for rheumatoid arthritis or with metabolic syndrome-associated osteoarthritis: the "plants for joints" randomized controlled trial protocol. *Trials*. 2021;22:715.
7. Garcia-Larsen V, Del Giacco SR, Moreira A, et al. Asthma and dietary intake: an overview of systematic reviews. *Allergy*. 2016;71:433-442.
8. Durban R, Groetch M, Meyer R, et al. Dietary management of food allergy. *Immunol Allergy Clin North Am*. 2021;41(2):233-270.
9. Laitinen K, Isolauri E. Management of food allergy: vitamins, fatty acids or probiotics? *Eur J Gastroenterol Hepatol*. 2005;17(12):1305-1311.
10. Laitinen K, Isolauri E. Allergic infants: growth and implications while on exclusion diets. *Nestle Nutr Workshop Ser Pediatr Program*. 2007;60:157-169.
11. Venter C, O'Mahony L. Immunonutrition: the importance of a new European Academy of Allergy and Clinical Immunology working group addressing a significant burden and unmet need. *Allergy*. 2021;76(7):2303-2305.
12. Temple NJ. The origins of the obesity epidemic in the USA-lessons for today. *Nutrients*. 2022;14(20):4253.
13. Coyle DH, Huang L, Shahid M, et al. Socio-economic difference in purchases of ultra-processed foods in Australia: an analysis of a nationally representative household grocery purchasing panel. *Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act*. 2022;19(1):148.
14. Bertoni Maluf VA, Bucher Della Torre S, Jotterand Chaparro C, et al. Description of ultra-processed food intake in a Swiss population-based sample of adults aged 18 to 75 years. *Nutrients*. 2022;14(21):4486.
15. Baraldi LG, Martinez Steele E, Canella DS, Monteiro CA. Consumption of ultra-processed foods and associated sociodemographic factors in the USA between 2007 and 2012: evidence from a nationally representative cross-sectional study. *BMJ Open*. 2018;8(3):e020574.
16. Jacobs DR Jr, Gross MD, Tapsell LC. Food synergy: an operational concept for understanding nutrition. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2009;89(5):1543S-1548S.
17. NIH State-of-the-Science Panel. National Institutes of Health state-of-the-science conference statement: multivitamin/mineral supplements and chronic disease prevention. *Ann Intern Med*. 2006;145(5):364-371.
18. Vlieg-Boerstra B, de Jong N, Meyer R, et al. Nutrient supplementation for prevention of viral respiratory tract infections in healthy subjects: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Allergy*. 2022;77(5):1373-1388.
19. Venter C, Meyer RW, Nwaru BI, et al. EAACI position paper: influence of dietary fatty acids on asthma, food allergy, and atopic dermatitis. *Allergy*. 2019;74(8):1429-1444.
20. van Daal MT, Folkerts G, Garssen J, Braber S. Pharmacological modulation of immune responses by nutritional components. *Pharmacol Rev*. 2021;73(4):198-232.
21. EFSA Panel on Dietetic Products, Nutrition and Allergies (NDA), Turck D, Bresson JL, Burlingame B, et al. Scientific and technical guidance for the preparation and presentation of a health claim application (revision 2). *EFSA J*. 2017;15(1):e04680.
22. Molendijk I, van der Marel S, Maljaars PW. Towards a food pharmacy: immunologic modulation through diet. *Nutrients*. 2019;11(6):1239.
23. Galbete C, Schwingshackl L, Schwedhelm C, Boeing H, Schulze MB. Evaluating Mediterranean diet and risk of chronic disease in cohort studies: an umbrella review of meta-analyses. *Eur J Epidemiol*. 2018;33(10):909-931.
24. Spencer SP, Belkaid Y. Dietary and commensal derived nutrients: shaping mucosal and systemic immunity. *Curr Opin Immunol*. 2012;24(4):379-384.
25. Dawson DR 3rd, Branch-Mays G, Gonzalez OA, Ebersole JL. Dietary modulation of the inflammatory cascade. *Periodontol 2000*. 2014;64(1):161-197.
26. Wastyk HC, Fragiadakis GK, Perelman D, et al. Gut-microbiota-targeted diets modulate human immune status. *Cell*. 2021;184(16):4137-4153.
27. Sproesser G, Ruby MB, Arbit N, et al. Understanding traditional and modern eating: the TEP10 framework. *BMC Public Health*. 2019;19(1):1606.

13989995, 0, Downloaded from https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/all.15687 by EVIDENCE AID - BELGIUM, Wiley Online Library on [11/04/2023]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/terms-and-conditions) on Wiley Online Library for rules of use; OA articles are governed by the applicable Creative Commons License

28. Średnicka-Tober D, Barański M, Seal C, et al. Composition differences between organic and conventional meat: a systematic literature review and meta-analysis. *Br J Nutr*. 2016;115(6):994-1011.
29. Średnicka-Tober D, Barański M, Seal CJ, et al. Higher PUFA and n-3 PUFA, conjugated linoleic acid, α-tocopherol and iron, but lower iodine and selenium concentrations in organic milk: a systematic literature review and meta- and redundancy analyses. *Br J Nutr*. 2016;115(6):1043-1060.
30. NIH Office of Dietary Supplements Fact Sheets for Health Care Professionals? https://ods.od.nih.gov/factsheets/Omega3FattyAcids-HealthProfessional
31. Simopoulos AP, DiNicolantonio JJ. The importance of a balanced omega-6 to omega-3 ratio in the prevention and management of obesity. *Open Heart*. 2016;3(2):e000385.
32. Hoppenbrouwers T, Cvejić Hogervorst JH, Garssen J, Wichers HJ, Willemsen LEM. Long chain polyunsaturated fatty acids (LCPUFAs) in the prevention of food allergy. *Front Immunol*. 2019;10:1118.
33. Prache S, Lebret B, Baéza E, et al. Review: quality and authentication of organic animal products in Europe. *Animal*. 2022;16(Suppl 1):100405.
34. Online dutch food composition table. https://nevo-online.rivm.nl
35. Thijs C, Müller A, Rist L, et al. Fatty acids in breast milk and development of atopic eczema and allergic sensitisation in infancy. *Allergy*. 2011;66(1):58-67.
36. Jaudszus A, Krokowski M, Möckel P, et al. Cis-9, trans-11-conjugated linoleic acid inhibits allergic sensitization and airway inflammation via a PPARgamma-related mechanism in mice. *J Nutr*. 2008;138(7):1336-1342.
37. O'Shea M, Bassaganya-Riera J, Mohede IC. Immunomodulatory properties of conjugated linoleic acid. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2004;79(6 Suppl):1199S-1206S.
38. Dhaka V, Gulia N, Ahlawat KS, Khatkar BS. Trans fats-sources, health risks and alternative approach – a review. *J Food Sci Technol*. 2011;48(5):534-541.
39. Bordoni A, Danesi F, Dardevet D, et al. Dairy products and inflammation: a review of the clinical evidence. *Crit Rev Food Sci Nutr*. 2017;57(12):2497-2525.
40. Hess JM, Stephensen CB, Kratz M, Bolling BW. Exploring the links between diet and inflammation: dairy foods as case studies. *Adv Nutr*. 2021;12(Suppl 1):1S-13S.
41. Roduit C, Frei R, Ferstl R, et al. High levels of butyrate and propionate in early life are associated with protection against atopy. *Allergy*. 2019;74(4):799-809.
42. Gill PA, Bogatyrev A, van Zelm MC, Gibson PR, Muir JG. Delivery of acetate to the peripheral blood after consumption of foods high in short-chain fatty acids. *Mol Nutr Food Res*. 2021;65(4):e2000953.
43. Minihane AM, Vinoy S, Russell WR, et al. Low-grade inflammation, diet composition and health: current research evidence and its translation. *Br J Nutr*. 2015;114(7):999-1012.
44. Phillips CM, Chen LW, Heude B, et al. Dietary inflammatory index and non-communicable disease risk: a narrative review. *Nutrients*. 2019;11(8):1873.
45. Harvard School of Public Health, The Nutrition Source. What Should I Eat? Accessed 19 April 2022. https://www.hsph.harvard.edu/nutritionsource/what-should-you-eat/
46. Bolte LA, Vich Vila A, Imhann F, et al. Long-term dietary patterns are associated with pro-inflammatory and anti-inflammatory features of the gut microbiome. *Gut*. 2021;70(7):1287-1298.
47. O'Keefe JH, Torres-Acosta N, O'Keefe EL, et al. A Pesco-Mediterranean diet with intermittent fasting: JACC review topic of the week. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2020;76(12):1484-1493.
48. Calder PC, Ahluwalia N, Brouns F, et al. Dietary factors and low-grade inflammation in relation to overweight and obesity. *Br J Nutr*. 2011;106(Suppl 3):S5-S78.
49. Lee JH, Duster M, Roberts T, Devinsky O. United States dietary trends since 1800: lack of association between saturated fatty acid consumption and non-communicable diseases. *Front Nutr*. 2022;8:748-847.
50. Singh RK, Chang HW, Yan D, et al. Influence of diet on the gut microbiome and implications for human health. *J Transl Med*. 2017;15(1):73.
51. Drenowski A, Fulgoni VL 3rd. Nutrient density: principles and evaluation tools. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2014;99(5 Suppl):1223S-1228S.
52. Calder PC. Nutrition, immunity and COVID-19. *BMJ Nutr Prev Health*. 2020;3(1):74-92.
53. Galland L. Diet and inflammation. *Nutr Clin Pract*. 2010;25(6):634-640.
54. Vassilopoulou E, Guibas GV, Papadopoulos NG. Mediterranean-type diets as a protective factor for asthma and atopy. *Nutrients*. 2022;14(9):1825.
55. Deaconu A, Ekomer, Mercille G, Batal M. Promoting traditional foods for human and environmental health: lessons from agro-ecology and indigenous communities in Ecuador. *BMC Nutr*. 2021;7:1.
56. Safe and healthy food in traditional food markets in the WHO European region. WHO/EURO 2021-1854-41605-56825. https://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/handle/10665/340954/WHO-EURO-2021-1854-41605-56825-eng.pdf
57. Laiou E, Rapti I, Markozannes G, et al. Social support, adherence to Mediterranean diet and physical activity in adults: results from a community-based cross-sectional study. *J Nutr Sci*. 2020;9:e53.
58. Katz DL, Meller S. Can we say what diet is best for health? *Annu Rev Public Health*. 2014;35:83-103.
59. Fadnes LT, Økland JM, Haaland ØA, Johansson KA. Estimating impact of food choices on life expectancy: a modeling study. *PLoS Med*. 2022;19(2):e1003889 Erratum in: *PLoS Med*. 2022 Mar;19(3):e1003962.
60. Seidelmann SB, Claggett B, Cheng S, et al. Dietary carbohydrate intake and mortality: a prospective cohort study and meta-analysis. *Lancet Public Health*. 2018;3(9):e419-e428.
61. Levine ME, Suarez JA, Brandhorst S, et al. Low protein intake is associated with a major reduction in IGF-1, cancer, and overall mortality in the 65 and younger but not older population. *Cell Metab*. 2014;19(3):407-417.
62. Lankinen M, Uusitupa M, Schwab U. Nordic diet and inflammation-a review of observational and intervention studies. *Nutrients*. 2019;11(6):1369.
63. Christensen JJ, Ulven SM, Thoresen M, Westerman K, Holven KB, Andersen LF. Associations between dietary patterns and gene expression pattern in peripheral blood mononuclear cells: a cross-sectional study. *Nutr Metab Cardiovasc Dis*. 2020;30(11):2111-2122.
64. Tanisawa K, Ito T, Kawakami R, et al. Association between dietary patterns and different metabolic phenotypes in Japanese adults: WASEDA'S health study. *Front Nutr*. 2022;9:779967.
65. Seura T, Fukuwatari T. Japanese diet score is associated with gut microbiota composition in young Japanese adults. *J Nutr Sci Vitaminol*. 2019;65(5):414-420.
66. Klonizakis M, Bugg A, Hunt B, Theodoridis X, Bogdanos DP, Grammatikopoulou MG. Assessing the physiological effects of traditional regional diets targeting the prevention of cardiovascular disease: a systematic review of randomized controlled trials implementing Mediterranean, new Nordic, Japanese, Atlantic, Persian and Mexican dietary interventions. *Nutrients*. 2021;13(9):3034.
67. Calvo-Malvar M, Benítez-Estévez AJ, Sánchez-Castro J, Leis R, Gude F. Effects of a community-based behavioral intervention with a traditional Atlantic diet on Cardiometabolic risk markers: a cluster randomized controlled trial ("the GALIAT study"). *Nutrients*. 2021;13(4):1211.
68. Ramos-Lopez O, Milagro FI, Riezu-Boj JI, Martinez JA. Epigenetic signatures underlying inflammation: an interplay of nutrition,

13989995, 0, Downloaded from https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/all.15687 by EVIDENCE AID - BELGIUM, Wiley Online Library on [11/04/2023]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/terms-and-conditions) on Wiley Online Library for rules of use; OA articles are governed by the applicable Creative Commons License

physical activity, metabolic diseases, and environmental factors for personalized nutrition. *Inflamm Res*. 2021;70(1):29-49.
69. Ali A, Hamzaid NH, Ismail NAS. The interplay of Nutriepigenomics, personalized nutrition and clinical practice in managing food allergy. *Life (Basel)*. 2021;11(11):1275.
70. Shivappa N, Steck SE, Hurley TG, Hussey JR, Hébert JR. Designing and developing a literature-derived, population-based dietary inflammatory index. *Public Health Nutr*. 2014;17(8):1689-1696.
71. Chen LW, Lyons B, Navarro P, et al. Maternal dietary inflammatory potential and quality are associated with offspring asthma risk over 10-year follow-up: the lifeways cross-generation cohort study. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2020;111(2):440-447. Erratum in: *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2020;111(4):921.
72. Monteiro CA, Levy RB, Claro RM, Castro IR, Cannon G. A new classification of foods based on the extent and purpose of their processing. *Cad Saude Publica*. 2010;26(11):2039-2049.
73. Monteiro CA, Cannon G, Lawrence M, Costa Louzada ML, Pereira Machado P. *Ultra-Processed Foods, Diet Quality, and Health Using the NOVA Classification System*. FAO; 2019.
74. Smith PK, Masilamani M, Li XM, Sampson HA. The false alarm hypothesis: food allergy is associated with high dietary advanced glycation end-products and proglycating dietary sugars that mimic alarmins. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2017;139(2):429-437.
75. Venter C, Pickett K, Starling A, et al. Advanced glycation end product intake during pregnancy and offspring allergy outcomes: a prospective cohort study. *Clin Exp Allergy*. 2021;51(11):1459-1470.
76. Levin ME, Botha M, Basera W, et al. Environmental factors associated with allergy in urban and rural children from the south African food allergy (SAFFA) cohort. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2020;145(1):415-426.
77. Wang JG, Liu B, Kroll F, et al. Increased advanced glycation end product and meat consumption is associated with childhood wheeze: analysis of the National Health and nutrition examination survey. *Thorax*. 2021;76(3):292-294.
78. Ellwood P, Asher MI, Garcia-Marcos L, et al. Do fast foods cause asthma, rhinoconjunctivitis and eczema? Global findings from the international study of asthma and allergies in childhood (ISAAC) phase three. *Thorax*. 2013;68(4):351-360.
79. Chassaing B, van de Wiele T, De Bodt J, Marzorati M, Gewirtz AT. Dietary emulsifiers directly alter human microbiota composition and gene expression ex vivo potentiating intestinal inflammation. *Gut*. 2017;66(8):1414-1427.
80. Miclotte L, De Paepe K, Rymenans L, et al. Dietary emulsifiers Alter composition and activity of the human gut microbiota in vitro, irrespective of chemical or natural emulsifier origin. *Front Microbiol*. 2020;11:577474.
81. Bhattacharyya S, Dudeja PK, Tobacman JK. Tumor necrosis factor alpha-induced inflammation is increased but apoptosis is inhibited by common food additive carrageenan. *J Biol Chem*. 2010;285(50):39511-39522.
82. Martino JV, Van Limbergen J, Cahill LE. The role of carrageenan and Carboxymethylcellulose in the development of intestinal inflammation. *Front Pediatr*. 2017;5:96.
83. Lerner A, Matthias T. Changes in intestinal tight junction permeability associated with industrial food additives explain the rising incidence of autoimmune disease. *Autoimmun Rev*. 2015;14(6):479-489.
84. Müller DN, Wilck N, Haase S, Kleinewietfeld M, Linker RA. Sodium in the microenvironment regulates immune responses and tissue homeostasis. *Nat Rev Immunol*. 2019;19(4):243-254.
85. Dickinson S, Hancock DP, Petocz P, Ceriello A, Brand-Miller J. High-glycemic index carbohydrate increases nuclear factor-kappaB activation in mononuclear cells of young, lean healthy subjects. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2008;87(5):1188-1193.
86. Immunowell. Accessed April 19, 2022. www.immunowell.nl
87. Gobbetti M, Rizzello CG, Di Cagno R, De Angelis M. How the sourdough may affect the functional features of leavened baked goods. *Food Microbiol*. 2014;37:30-40.
88. Brouns F. Phytic acid and whole grains for health controversy. *Nutrients*. 2021;14(1):25.
89. Marco ML, Heeney D, Binda S, et al. Health benefits of fermented foods: microbiota and beyond. *Curr Opin Biotechnol*. 2017;44:94-102.
90. Plé C, Breton J, Daniel C, Foligné B. Maintaining gut ecosystems for health: are transitory food bugs stowaways or part of the crew? *Int J Food Microbiol*. 2015;213:139-143.
91. Maldonado Galdeano C, Cazorla SI, Lemme Dumit JM, Vélez E, Perdigón G. Beneficial effects of probiotic consumption on the immune system. *Ann Nutr Metab*. 2019;74(2):115-124.
92. Dimidi E, Cox SR, Rossi M, Whelan K. Fermented foods: definitions and characteristics, impact on the gut microbiota and effects on gastrointestinal health and disease. *Nutrients*. 2019;11(8):1806.
93. Adams MR, Moss MO. *Food Microbiology*. 3rd ed. RSC Publishing; 2008.
94. Walker AW, Lawley TD. Therapeutic modulation of intestinal dysbiosis. *Pharmacol Res*. 2013;69(1):75-86.
95. Alexander M, Turnbaugh PJ. Deconstructing mechanisms of diet-microbiome-immune interactions. *Immunity*. 2020;53(2):264-276.
96. Lunjani N, Satitsuksanoa P, Lukasik Z, Sokolowska M, Eiwegger T, O'Mahony L. Recent developments and highlights in mechanisms of allergic diseases: microbiome. *Allergy*. 2018;73(12):2314-2327.
97. van den Berg DF, Te Velde AA. Severe COVID-19: NLRP3 Inflammasome dysregulated. *Front Immunol*. 2020;11:1580.
98. Breiteneder H, Diamant Z, Eiwegger T, et al. Future research trends in understanding the mechanisms underlying allergic diseases for improved patient care. *Allergy*. 2019;74(12):2293-2311.
99. Huang YJ, Marsland BJ, Bunyavanich S, et al. The microbiome in allergic disease: current understanding and future opportunities-2017 PRACTALL document of the American Academy of Allergy, Asthma & Immunology and the European academy of allergy and clinical immunology. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2017;139(4):1099-1110.
100. David LA, Maurice CF, Carmody RN, et al. Linking long-term dietary patterns with gut microbial enterotypes. *Science*. 2011;334(6052):105-108.
101. Attaye I, Warmbrunn MV, Boot ANAF, et al. A systematic review and meta-analysis of dietary interventions modulating gut microbiota and cardiometabolic diseases - striving for new standards in microbiome studies. *Gastroenterology*. 2022;162:1911-1932.
102. Zmora N, Suez J, Elinav E. You are what you eat: diet, health and the gut microbiota. *Nat Rev Gastroenterol Hepatol*. 2019;16(1):35-56.
103. Rinninella E, Cintoni M, Raoul P, et al. Food components and dietary habits: keys for a healthy gut microbiota composition. *Nutrients*. 2019;11(10):2393.
104. Gentile CL, Weir TL. The gut microbiota at the intersection of diet and human health. *Science*. 2018;362(6416):776-780.
105. Sonnenburg ED, Smits SA, Tikhonov M, Higginbottom SK, Wingreen NS, Sonnenburg JL. Diet-induced extinctions in the gut microbiota compound over generations. *Nature*. 2016;529(7585):212-215.
106. Roduit C, Frei R, Ferstl R, et al. PASTURE/EFRAIM study group. High levels of butyrate and propionate in early life are associated with protection against atopy. *Allergy*. 2019;74(4):799-809.
107. Mokkala K, Houttu N, Cansev T, Laitinen K. Interactions of dietary fat with the gut microbiota: evaluation of mechanisms and metabolic consequences. *Clin Nutr*. 2020;39(4):994-1018.
108. Mokkala K, Röytiö H, Munukka E, et al. Gut microbiota richness and composition and dietary intake of overweight pregnant women are related to serum Zonulin concentration, a marker for intestinal permeability. *J Nutr*. 2016;146(9):1694-1700.

13989995, 0, Downloaded from https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/all.15687 by EVIDENCE AID - BELGIUM, Wiley Online Library on [11/04/2023]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/terms-and-conditions) on Wiley Online Library for rules of use; OA articles are governed by the applicable Creative Commons License

109. Shortt C, Hasselwander O, Meynier A, et al. Systematic review of the effects of the intestinal microbiota on selected nutrients and non-nutrients. *Eur J Nutr*. 2018;57(1):25-49.
110. Josephs-Spaulding J, Beeler E, Singh OV. Human microbiome versus food-borne pathogens: friend or foe. *Appl Microbiol Biotechnol*. 2016;100(11):4845-4863.
111. Spencer M, Gupta A, Dam LV, Shannon C, Menees S, Chey WD. Artificial sweeteners: a systematic review and primer for gastroenterologists. *J Neurogastroenterol Motil*. 2016;22(2):168-180.
112. Suez J, Korem T, Zeevi D, et al. Artificial sweeteners induce glucose intolerance by altering the gut microbiota. *Nature*. 2014;514(7521):181-186.
113. Samadi N, Klems M, Untersmayr E. The role of gastrointestinal permeability in food allergy. *Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol*. 2018;121(2):168-173.
114. Ventura MT, Polimeno L, Amoruso AC, et al. Intestinal permeability in patients with adverse reactions to food. *Dig Liver Dis*. 2006;38(10):732-736.
115. Del Bo' C, Bernardi S, Cherubini A, et al. A polyphenol-rich dietary pattern improves intestinal permeability, evaluated as serum zonulin levels, in older subjects: the MaPLE randomised controlled trial. *Clin Nutr*. 2021;40(5):3006-3018.
116. Pražnikar ZJ, Kenig S, Vardjan T, Bizjak MČ, Petelin A. Effects of kefir or milk supplementation on zonulin in overweight subjects. *J Dairy Sci*. 2020;103(5):3961-3970.
117. Roberts CL, Keita AV, Duncan SH, et al. Translocation of Crohn's disease Escherichia coli across M- cells contrasting effects of soluble plant fibers and emulsifiers. *Gut*. 2010;59:1331-1339.
118. de Kroon MLA, Warners MJ, van Ampting MTJ, et al. The relationship of habitual diet with esophageal inflammation and integrity in eosinophilic esophagitis. *Allergy*. 2019;74(5):1005-1009.
119. Venter C, Greenhawt M, Meyer RW, et al. EAACI position paper on diet diversity in pregnancy, infancy and childhood: novel concepts and implications for studies in allergy and asthma. *Allergy*. 2020;75(3):497-523.
120. Roduit C, Frei R, Depner M, et al. PASTURE study group. Increased food diversity in the first year of life is inversely associated with allergic diseases. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2014;133(4):1056-1064.
121. Nakamoto M, Omine M, Yun Y, et al. Associations of dietary diversity with allergic diseases in Japanese workers: a cross-sectional study. *Asia Pac J Clin Nutr*. 2019;28(4):857-869.
122. Zhong C, Guo J, Tan T, et al. Increased food diversity in the first year of life is inversely associated with allergic outcomes in the second year. *Pediatr Allergy Immunol*. 2022;33(1):e13707.
123. Turati F, Bertuccio P, Galeone C, et al. HYGIENE study group. Early weaning is beneficial to prevent atopic dermatitis occurrence in young children. *Allergy*. 2016;71(6):878-888.
124. Nwaru BI, Takkinen HM, Kaila M, et al. Food diversity in infancy and the risk of childhood asthma and allergies. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2014;133(4):1084-1091.
125. Grimshaw KE, Maskell J, Oliver EM, et al. Diet and food allergy development during infancy: birth cohort study findings using prospective food diary data. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2014;133(2):511-519.
126. Vassilopoulou E, Feketea G, Konstantinou GN, et al. Food protein-induced allergic Proctocolitis: the effect of maternal diet during pregnancy and breastfeeding in a Mediterranean population. *Front Nutr*. 2022;9:843437.
127. Abbring S, Kusche D, Roos TC, et al. Milk processing increases the allergenicity of cow's milk-preclinical evidence supported by a human proof-of-concept provocation pilot. *Clin Exp Allergy*. 2019;49(7):1013-1025.
128. Nankervis H, Thomas KS, Delamere FM, et al. What is the evidence base for atopic eczema treatments? A summary of published randomized controlled trials. *Br J Dermatol*. 2017;176(4):910-927.
129. Cepeda AM, Del Giacco SR, Villalba S, et al. A traditional diet is associated with a reduced risk of eczema and wheeze in Colombian children. *Nutrients*. 2015;7(7):5098-5110.
130. Foekel C, Schubert R, Kaatz M. Dietetic effects of oral intervention with mare's milk on the severity scoring of atopic dermatitis, on faecal microbiota and on immunological parameters in patients with atopic dermatitis. *Int J Food Sci Nutr*. 2009;60(Suppl 7):41-52.
131. Shoda T, Futamura M, Yang L, Narita M, Saito H, Ohya Y. Yogurt consumption in infancy is inversely associated with atopic dermatitis and food sensitization at 5 years of age: a hospital-based birth cohort study. *J Dermatol Sci*. 2017;86(2):90-96.
132. van Brakel L, Mensink RP, Wesseling G, Plat J. Nutritional interventions to improve asthma-related outcomes through immunomodulation: a systematic review. *Nutrients*. 2020;12(12):3839.
133. Garcia-Marcos L, Robertson CF, Ross Anderson H, et al. Does migration affect asthma, rhinoconjunctivitis and eczema prevalence? Global findings from the international study of asthma and allergies in childhood. *Int J Epidemiol*. 2014;43(6):1846-1854.
134. Nurmatov U, Devereux G, Sheikh A. Nutrients and foods for the primary prevention of asthma and allergy: systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2011;127(3):724-733.
135. Papamichael MM, Itsiopoulos C, Susanto NH, Erbas B. Does adherence to the Mediterranean dietary pattern reduce asthma symptoms in children? A systematic review of observational studies. *Public Health Nutr*. 2017;20(15):2722-2734.
136. Lv N, Xiao L, Ma J. Dietary pattern and asthma: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Asthma Allergy*. 2014;7:105-121.
137. Papamichael MM, Katsardis C, Lambert K, et al. Efficacy of a Mediterranean diet supplemented with fatty fish in ameliorating inflammation in paediatric asthma: a randomised controlled trial. *J Hum Nutr Diet*. 2019;32(2):185-197.
138. Garcia-Larsen V, Arthur R, Potts JF, et al. Is fruit and vegetable intake associated with asthma or chronic rhino-sinusitis in European adults? Results from the global allergy and asthma network of excellence (GA2LEN) survey. *Clin Transl Allergy*. 2017;7:3.
139. Papadopoulou A, Panagiotakos DB, Hatziagorou E, et al. Antioxidant foods consumption and childhood asthma and other allergic diseases: the Greek cohorts of the ISAAC II survey. *Allergol Immunopathol (Madr)*. 2015;43(4):353-360.
140. Nygaard UC, Xiao L, Nadeau KC, et al. Improved diet quality is associated with decreased concentrations of inflammatory markers in adults with uncontrolled asthma. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2021;114(3):1012-1027.
141. Oh HY, Lee SY, Yoon J, et al. Vegetable dietary pattern may protect mild and persistent allergic rhinitis phenotype depending on genetic risk in school children. *Pediatr Allergy Immunol*. 2020;31(8):920-929.
142. Mattioli V, Zanolin ME, Cazzoletti L, et al. Dietary flavonoids and respiratory diseases: a population-based multi-case-control study in Italian adults. *Public Health Nutr*. 2020;23(14):2548-2556.
143. Kusunoki T, Takeuchi J, Morimoto T, et al. Fruit intake reduces the onset of respiratory allergic symptoms in schoolchildren. *Pediatr Allergy Immunol*. 2017;28(8):793-800.
144. Tamay Z, Akcay A, Ergin A, Güler N. Dietary habits and prevalence of allergic rhinitis in 6 to 7-year-old schoolchildren in Turkey. *Allergol Int*. 2014;63(4):553-562.
145. Kim SY, Sim S, Park B, Kim JH, Choi HG. High-fat and Low-carbohydrate diets are associated with allergic rhinitis but not asthma or atopic dermatitis in children. *PLoS One*. 2016;11(2):e0150202.
146. Miyake Y, Tanaka K, Okubo H, Sasaki S, Arakawa M. Dietary meat and fat intake and prevalence of rhinoconjunctivitis in pregnant Japanese women: baseline data from the Kyushu Okinawa maternal and child health study. *Nutr J*. 2012;11:19.
147. Wright CY, Nkosi V, Wichmann J. Respiratory health symptoms among schoolchildren in relation to possible food-related risk and protective factors. *Int J Environ Res Public Health*. 2018;15(3):502.

13989995, 0, Downloaded from https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/all.15687 by EVIDENCE AID - BELGIUM, Wiley Online Library on [11/04/2023]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/terms-and-conditions) on Wiley Online Library for rules of use; OA articles are governed by the applicable Creative Commons License

148. Liu X, Wong CC, Yu IT, et al. Dietary patterns and the risk of rhinitis in primary school children: a prospective cohort study. *Sci Rep*. 2017;7:44610.
149. Spolidoro GCI, Azzolino D, Cesari M, Agostoni C. Diet diversity through the life-course as an opportunity toward food allergy prevention. *Front Allergy*. 2021;2:711945.
150. Molendijk I, van der Marel S, Maljaars PW. Towards a food pharmacy: immunologic modulation through diet. *Nutrients*. 2019;11(6):1239.
151. Nachshon L, Goldberg MR, Elizur A, Appel MY, Levy MB, Katz Y. Food allergy to previously tolerated foods: course and patient characteristics. *Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol*. 2018;121(1):77-81.
152. Low DW, Jamil A, Md Nor N, Kader Ibrahim SB, Poh BK. Food restriction, nutrition status, and growth in toddlers with atopic dermatitis. *Pediatr Dermatol*. 2020;37(1):69-77.
153. Willett W, Rockström J, Loken B, et al. Food in the Anthropocene: the EAT-lancet commission on healthy diets from sustainable food systems. *Lancet*. 2019;393(10170):447-492.
154. Chew SC. Cold-pressed rapeseed (*Brassica napus*) oil: chemistry and functionality. *Food Res Int*. 2020;131:108997.

How to cite this article: Vlieg-Boerstra B, Groetch M, Vassilopoulou E, et al. The immune-supportive diet in allergy management: A narrative review and proposal. *Allergy*. 2023;00:1-18. doi:10.1111/all.15687

13989995, 0, Downloaded from https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/all.15687 by EVIDENCE AID - BELGIUM, Wiley Online Library on [11/04/2023]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/terms-and-conditions) on Wiley Online Library for rules of use; OA articles are governed by the applicable Creative Commons License