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# **Structural modelling of food allergen knowledge, attitude and practices among consumers in Malaysia**

## **Abstract**

The aim of this study was to assess food allergen knowledge, attitude and self-reported practices among consumers in Malaysia. An online survey was conducted and data were analysed using descriptive statistics and exploratory factor analysis. A model linking food allergen knowledge and attitude and their direct effects on practices were confirmed using structural equation modelling (SEM). Consumers demonstrated moderate food allergen knowledge in this study but scored highly in their attitude towards food allergens. Although participants scored moderately in food allergen knowledge, this does not necessarily translate into practices. There is a possibility that an increase in food allergen knowledge can increase optimistic bias or a sense of over-confidence to manage allergen risks. Consumers' attitude towards food allergens have a positive and significant influence on practices. A positive attitude represents personal beliefs and reflects the level of motivation and care required to manage food allergens effectively. There was insignificant relationship between food allergen knowledge and attitude. This demonstrates a need to tailor targeted risk communication and learning strategies to influence consumers' practices.

## **Highlights**

- Consumers have moderate level of food allergen knowledge but rank high in attitude scores.
- Food allergen knowledge has a negative relationship with food allergen handling practices.
- Attitude has a positive and significant relationship with food allergen handling practices.
- Attitude and knowledge independently influenced practices.

Keywords: cross contamination; food allergens; hygiene; structural equation modelling

## **Introduction**

The prevalence of food allergy is increasing in a number of developed nations. Meanwhile, data from developing and less developed countries are scarce hence creating a perception of lower prevalence in food allergy (Boye, 2012; Yadav & Naidu, 2015). In fact, some developing nations in Asia has reported cow's milk allergy (Ngamphaiboon, Chatchatee, & Thongkaew, 2008) and shrimp allergy (Lao-araya & Trakultivakorn, 2012) in Thailand, shellfish (Shek et al., 2010) and fish allergy in Philippines (Connett *et al.*, 2012), egg, cow's milk, shrimp and fish allergy in China (Chen, Hu, Allen, Ho, & Li, 2011; Chen *et al.*, 2012). In other more affluent Asian countries, Chiang *et al.* (2007) reported egg, shellfish and peanut as among the most common sensitising food allergen in young atopic children in Singapore, whilst hen's eggs, cow's milk and wheat were the most frequent causative foods in Japan (Ebisawa *et al.*, 2017). Similarly, hen's eggs, cow's milk and peanuts/nuts

39 were the leading cause of food allergic reactions among Korean infants (Kim, Chang, Han, Ahn, &  
40 Lee, 2011). Wu *et al.* (2012) reported seafood (i.e. shrimp, crab, mollusc and fish) as the most  
41 common food allergen in Taiwan.

42  
43 In Malaysia, food and food ingredients such as cereal containing gluten (including wheat, rye, barley  
44 and oat), nut and nut products including peanut, soybean, fish and fish products, milk and milk  
45 products (including lactose) and egg and egg products are known to cause hypersensitivity and must  
46 be declared on labels (MOH, n.d.). Yadav and Naidu (2015) reported a higher sensitisation towards  
47 egg white and cow's milk in children less than 2 years in Malaysia. Prawn was the most common food  
48 allergen in children up to 12 years (Gendeh, Mujahid, Murad, & Rizal, 2004) and in adults with allergic  
49 rhinitis in Malaysia (Wan Majdiah, Nurul Khaiza, Suzina, Che Maraina, & Norr Suryani, 2016). Other  
50 studies related to food allergens involved the survey of knowledge and practices of food allergen  
51 management. For example, Ajala *et al.* (2010) evaluated food handlers' knowledge on food allergy  
52 management while Ahuja and Sicherer (2007) investigated the factors that affect the provision of  
53 allergen-safe meals. Similarly, Dupuis *et al.* (2017) and Lee and Sozen (2016) assessed restaurant  
54 workers' and food handlers' knowledge, attitude, and training in food allergy management.  
55 Awareness and understanding of food allergen management in Thai food companies were conducted  
56 by Waisarayutt *et al.* (2014) whilst Dzwolak (2017) evaluated compliance of food allergen  
57 management in small food facilities in Poland. In Malaysia, similar studies among food handlers  
58 (Shafie & Azman, 2015), hospitality students (Din, Rashid, & Ramli, 2015), medical science students  
59 (Redhwan, Low, Mustafa, Robert, & Ali, 2011) had been carried out. A nationwide survey carried out  
60 by the Malaysian Society of Allergy and Immunology (MSAI) and Universiti Putra Malaysia reported  
61 that there is still a big gap between awareness of food allergies and its implications on health  
62 (Murugappan, 2016).

63  
64 A number of food safety knowledge, attitudes and practices (KAP) of food handlers' studies had been  
65 carried out in developing countries (Zanin, da Cunha, de Rosso, Capriles, & Stedefeldt, 2017)  
66 including Malaysia (Abdul Mutalib *et al.*, 2012; Abdullah Sani & Siow, 2014; Siow & Abdullah Sani,  
67 2011; Tan, Bakar, Karim, Lee, & Mahyuddin, 2013). Structural equation modelling is used as a  
68 confirmatory technique to determine model validity and had been used in a number of food safety  
69 studies (Baser, Ture, Abubakirova, Sanlier, & Cil, 2017; Chen, 2017; Lagerkvist & Okello, 2016; Lim,  
70 Chye, Sulaiman, Mohd Suki, & Lee, 2016), HACCP practices (Ko, 2013), eliminating pesticide residues  
71 (Wang, Tao, Yang, Chu, & Lam, 2017) and checking expiry dates (Shah & Hall-Phillips, 2017). There  
72 is currently lack of food allergen KAP studies among consumers that utilise the SEM technique. Based  
73 on the literature and the limited study on consumers' knowledge, attitude and practices towards food  
74 allergen it is crucial to explore the current understanding of food allergen handling among general  
75 consumers. In this study, the author postulates Figure 1 based on the relationship as suggested by

76 Baser *et al.* (2017), Lim *et al.* (2016), Schwartz (1975) and Shafie and Azman (2015). Figure 1  
77 represents the following hypotheses:

78

79 H1: Food allergen knowledge directly affects food allergen handling practices

80 H2: Attitude towards food allergen directly affects food allergen handling practices

81 H3: Food allergen knowledge and attitude are correlated.

82

83 Insert Figure 1 here

84

85 A number of studies on food allergen management among food handlers had been conducted.

86 Although it is crucial to understand the implementation of food allergen management among food

87 handlers, consumers too have the responsibility to ensure food safety and safe food allergen

88 management. Hence, this study utilises structural equation modelling (SEM) to examine the

89 relationship between knowledge, attitude and the self-reported practices of food allergen handling

90 among consumers in a developing country.

91

## 92 **Materials and Methods**

### 93 Questionnaire development

94 The questionnaire was constructed and divided into 5 sections: (i) demographics (6 questions); (ii)

95 purchasing habits (4 questions); (iii) knowledge (10 questions); (iv) attitudes (10 questions); and (v)

96 practices (10 questions). The questions were developed based on Choi and Choi (2016), Marchisotto

97 *et al.* (2016) and Shafie and Azman (2015). In the food allergen knowledge section, participants were

98 provided with optional answers of "yes", "no" or "uncertain" to prevent participants from selecting the

99 correct answer by chance. Each correct answer received 1 point, while incorrect or uncertain answers

100 were not allocated any points. The attitude and practices sections allow participants to rate on a 5-

101 point Likert scale of strongly disagree/never to strongly agree/always. Participants were invited to

102 complete all sections. The questionnaire was provided in both English and Malay languages. A pilot

103 study was conducted among 20 participants who were not included in the actual study to evaluate

104 the language, clarity and suitability of wording.

105

### 106 Data collection

107 The questionnaire was uploaded onto an online survey system (Survey Monkey) and sent to 560

108 consumers (adults) all around Malaysia between June – August 2017. The subjects were targeted

109 based on the author's personal contacts where they were invited through email and social media that

110 contain the link to direct the consumers to the survey. Participants experiencing food allergies or are

111 caring for family members with food allergies were encouraged to post the link in their own social

112 media page to generate more responses via the snowballing technique. Snowball sampling is

113 particularly useful in identifying potential hidden subjects (e.g. food allergic subjects) where subjects

114 are hard to locate (Ali, Guo, Sherwani, & Ali, 2017). Although food allergic subjects can be invited to  
115 participate from support groups, currently, there is no allergy support group in Malaysia. The  
116 Malaysian Society of Allergy and Immunology is hoping to initiate such groups (Lim, 2012). Survey is  
117 a useful tool to obtain a high volume of information from a large number of people in a short period  
118 of time (MacLeod 2014). A total of 325 questionnaires were returned. Of this, 285 surveys were valid  
119 resulting in a successful response rate of 50.89%. This is similar to other studies carried out by New  
120 *et al.* (2017) and Lee and Lee (2005), but lower than the food safety survey in Saudi Arabia (66.08%)  
121 (Al-Shabib, Husain, & Khan 2017) and Republic of Ireland (76.8%) (Moreb, Priyardashini, & Jaiswal,  
122 2017).

123

#### 124 Statistical analysis

125 Descriptive and Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was conducted using Statistical Package for Social  
126 Science (SPSS) 22.0 software. EFA was performed to extract valid items for knowledge, attitude and  
127 practices. This is based on factor loadings of the scale items greater than 0.40 (Baser *et al.*, 2017).  
128 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was performed using Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) and  
129 confidence level was set at 95%.

130

### 131 **Results and Discussion**

132 Female makes up three quarter of the respondents. Almost 90% of the respondents are within the 18  
133 – 25 and 26 -35 years group and exposed to higher education. This is similar to other research that  
134 found a larger proportion of respondents were female (Achon, Serrano, Garcia-Gonzalez, Alonso-  
135 Aperte, & Varela-Moreiras, 2017; Lake *et al.*, 2006) and more educated people are more likely to  
136 participate in surveys (Curtin, Presser, & Singer, 2000). This is largely attributable to the survey  
137 subject matter. It is highly likely that females dominate the food purchasing and preparation role  
138 (Lake et al., 2006). Although more than half of the respondents had not experienced food allergic  
139 reactions before, a large proportion of them (60%) reported that their family members have had  
140 experienced the symptoms of food allergies or potentially intolerances. Crustaceans (n=150) were  
141 reported as the most common causative agent of food allergies, followed by peanuts (n=38) and tree  
142 nuts (n=30) (Table 1).

143

144 Insert Table 1 here

145

146 This coincides with other studies that shellfish is a major sensitising food source in Asian children  
147 (Chiang *et al.*, 2007; Shek *et al.*, 2010; Wu *et al.*, 2012). The abundance of seafood in this region  
148 (Boye, 2012; Lee, Thalayasningam, & Lee, 2013) and exposure to insects (e.g. cockroaches, dust  
149 mite) also increases the likelihood of shellfish sensitisation (Chiang *et al.*, 2007). Respondents also  
150 reported reactions to other type of food products such as alcohol, bird's nest, pineapple, turmeric,  
151 monosodium glutamate, mango, chicken, *rambutan* (tropical, hairy fruit native to Southeast Asia),

152 coconut, coconut milk and kiwifruit. Anaphylactic reactions to exotic food such as sago worms (Yew &  
153 Kok (2012) and bird's nest from swiftlets (de Bruyne & Lee, 2004) had been reported. Participants  
154 who had experienced food allergic reactions (including those with family members who experienced  
155 food allergies) were more likely to look for food allergen information on the labelling ( $t[282] = 2.14, p$   
156  $< 0.05$ ). Both groups rated that they seldom purchase food products that are labelled in a language  
157 they are not familiar with and even less so if the label contains precautionary statements (Table 2).  
158 This is in contrast with Hefle *et al.* (2007), Marchisotto *et al.* (2017) and Mills, Wang and Kattan  
159 (2016) who reported that consumers choose to ignore precautionary statements and purchased food  
160 products bearing advisory statements.

161

162 Insert Table 2

163

164 More than 90% of the respondents were aware that food allergies are not common but can be  
165 serious and the only way to prevent food allergic reactions is to avoid the food allergen (Table 3).  
166 More than half did not know that food allergens are protein-based and hands that had been in  
167 contact with food allergens can cross contaminate other surfaces. When it comes to cleaning  
168 effectively before meal preparation, more than 80% consumers were aware that effective cleaning  
169 could help to prevent cross contamination. However, when probed further, there is a possibility that  
170 consumers were not aware of the correct procedures in cleaning as only 30% disagreed that rinsing  
171 utensils with water alone are sufficient to remove food allergens. However, consumers scored highly  
172 on the question about using separate cooking oil for allergen-free meals to prevent cross  
173 contamination. According to MOH (n.d.), monosodium glutamate (MSG) is not considered as food  
174 causing hypersensitivity of which slightly more than 60% of the respondents were correct. However,  
175 in some populations particularly among those with asthma or atopy, MSG can cause 'Chinese  
176 Restaurant Syndrome' characterised by palpitations, general weakness and numbness (Geha *et al.*,  
177 2000; Rangan & Barcelouz, 2009). According to Murugappan (2016) Malaysians were aware of  
178 common food allergens such as seafood (89.9%), tree nuts (47%) and soy (44.3%). There was also  
179 lower awareness among Malaysians about cow's milk as a food allergen (8.3%). No comparison was  
180 made between different age groups due to the high number of participants categorised as millennials  
181 (i.e. born in 1996 and onwards). According to Leal, Ruth, Rumble, and Simonne (2017), the  
182 millennials or younger generation were identified as having the least amount of food safety  
183 knowledge and mostly learned about food safety from their parents.

184

185 Insert Table 3 here

186

187 Respondents mostly agreed with the statements in Table 4. With the exception of A9, the mean  
188 scores ranged positively from 4.00 – 4.56. A9 scored lowest among the statements and represented a  
189 general disagreement among the respondents in diluting the food allergen with water. Table 5

190 suggested a good level of self-reported food allergen handling practices. This is evident in P4 where  
191 the consumers seldom use the same dish cloth for all purposes. Having separate dish cloth for  
192 different activities (e.g. cleaning, drying) and for different meals (e.g. conventional and allergen  
193 meals) can help to prevent cross contamination. This is similar to the principle of utilising different  
194 utensils for raw or cooked meat and fresh produce. Similarly, in P9, consumers often wash their  
195 hands prior to preparing allergen free meals. Although consumers strongly agreed that if a person is  
196 suffering from food allergic reactions, he or she should get immediate treatments, however, a  
197 majority of the respondents were not confident when it comes to handling an emergency situation  
198 (due to food allergic reactions) at home or when eating out.

199

200 Insert Tables 4 and 5 here

201

202 EFA was applied in factor analysis to extract the items for knowledge, attitude and practices. The  
203 score of > 0.40 is used to select items (Baser *et al.* 2017). A total of one item each from attitude and  
204 practices were removed. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling value for food allergen  
205 knowledge, attitude and practices were 0.647, 0.886 and 0.874 respectively. These values fulfil Hair,  
206 Black, Babin, Anderson, and Tatham (2010) who stated that the criterion of validity should be > 0.60.

207

208 Insert Figure 2 here

209

210 Insert Table 6 here

211

212 The relationship between food allergen knowledge, attitude towards food allergens and food allergen  
213 handling practices is shown in Figure 2. In order to evaluate the model fit, Hair, Anderson, Tatham  
214 and Black (1998) recommended observing more than one indicator. The indices such as Comparative  
215 Fit Index (CFI) was estimated at 0.905 and indicates a good fit (Table 6). CFI is commonly used as a  
216 fit index as it is least affected by sample size (Fan, Thompson, & Wang, 1999). Both the Goodness of  
217 Fit (GFI) and Normed Fit Index (NFI) measured slightly below the accepted values but were  
218 comparable to Baser *et al.* (2017) and Wang *et al.* (2017). The Root Mean Square Error of  
219 Approximation (RMSEA) was measured below 0.10 (MacCallum, Browne, & Sugawara, 1996) and is  
220 considered a good fit if below 0.06 (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Based on the indices and comparison with  
221 other studies, the hypothesised model had an acceptable fit.

222

223 Insert Table 7 here

224

225 Figure 2 and Table 7 demonstrate the magnitude and direction of relationship of the model. Food  
226 allergen knowledge has a negative relationship ( $\beta_1 = -0.271$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) with food allergen handling  
227 practices hence supporting H1. One could draw the theoretical interpretation from Figure 2 that food

228 allergen handling practices will decrease 0.27 unit with each incremental unit in knowledge. This does  
229 not indicate a direct linear relationship between knowledge and practices but the possibility that  
230 having good food allergen knowledge does not translate into good practices. Previous studies  
231 indicated similar results where Baser *et al.* (2017) and Ko (2013) revealed that food safety knowledge  
232 has a negative relationship with food safety behaviour. Vo, Le, Le, Minh and Nuorti (2015) reported  
233 that although there were positive effects of training on knowledge, however, knowledge alone was  
234 insufficient to change food safety practices. Studies of trained food handlers (Rahman, Arif, Bakar, &  
235 Tambi, 2012) and insufficiently trained food handlers (Garayoa, Vitas, Diez-Leturia, & Garcia-Jalon,  
236 2011) found that knowledge was not translated into good practices. There is a possibility that  
237 increasing knowledge can increase optimistic bias (OB) (Miles, Braxton, & Frewer, 1999). OB occurs  
238 when individuals felt shielded against risks or negative effects or 'why it won't happen to me'  
239 perception (Weinstein, 1984). Training or education based only on scientific communication may not  
240 encourage changes in behaviour or practices (Green *et al.*, 2005; Park, Kwak, & Chang, 2012).  
241 According to Bandura (2001), people are able to learn new knowledge, skills, rules, beliefs and  
242 attitudes in social systems. Although food safety education on allergens can be provided – this does  
243 not necessarily translate into practices. Hence, one way to approach food allergen education is  
244 through the social cognitive theory which emphasises enactive or vicarious learning from the social  
245 environment (Schunk, 2012a; Schunk and Usher, 2012). Enactive learning occurs through the  
246 consequences of performing actions e.g. accidental cross contamination of utensils with food allergen  
247 may result in allergic reactions hence leading to increased awareness in future food preparation.  
248 Enactive learning is useful as an informative indicator to repeat or not repeat a behaviour (Schunk,  
249 2012a). Meanwhile, vicarious learning occurs by observing other people, non-human characters,  
250 electronic or print (Schunk 2012b).

251

252 The second hypothesis postulates that attitude affects practices and H2 is sustained based on Table  
253 7. Attitude has a positive and significant relationship with food allergen practices ( $\beta_1 = 0.43$ ,  
254  $p < 0.05$ ). Figure 2 indicates that good practice increases by 0.43 unit with each unit increase in  
255 attitude. A positive attitude reflects the level of motivation and care required to manage food  
256 allergens effectively. Lim *et al.* (2016) also found food safety attitude as the most important factor in  
257 influencing consumers' food safety behaviour. Attitude represents beliefs and can serve as a mediator  
258 between knowledge and practices. Dudeja, Singh, Sahni, Kaur and Goel (2017) found that food  
259 handlers in hospital settings with positive attitude helped to improve food safety practices whilst  
260 Abdul-Mutalib *et al.* (2012) reported that positive attitude among food handlers resulted in safe food  
261 storage practices. In addition to knowledge and attitudes, other factors such as experience, values  
262 and emotions can influence individuals' thinking and judgement about the severity and acceptability  
263 of risks. Risk perceptions can motivate consumers to take action to avoid, prevent, adapt to or even  
264 ignore the risks (Wachinger, Renn, Begg, & Kuhlicke, 2013). Studies of risk perceptions towards food  
265 safety had been conducted. Parra, Kim, Shapiro, Gravani, & Bradley (2014) found that home food



266 safety practices among Mexican-Americans were associated with perceptions and awareness of risks  
267 whilst Tiozzo, Mari, Ruzza, Crovato and Ravarotto (2017) reported that there was a sense of  
268 incomplete control due to lack of information on recognising and preventing food risks among  
269 consumers in northeast Italy. This highlights the paradox of risk perceptions as different personal  
270 (e.g. age, gender, education level, profession, personal experience) and contextual factors (e.g. area  
271 of living, economy, country) can be important determinants of risk perceptions.

272

273 There is an insignificant relationship between food allergen knowledge and attitude in this study. In  
274 other words, knowledge and attitude independently influenced practices. Zanin and Stedefeldt (2017)  
275 provided an excellent review of past KAP studies and how knowledge and attitude influenced food  
276 safety practices. However, most studies were focused on food handlers. As food handlers, they are  
277 likely to be in contact with food or food contact surfaces and may be involved in preparation of raw  
278 materials, cooking, serving and cleaning (Dudeja & Singh, 2017), hence it is crucial to understand  
279 how training, education and personal beliefs affect food handlers' practices. Other studies involving  
280 food safety KAP among consumers were also conducted. For example, Samapundo, Cam Thanh,  
281 Xhaferi and Devlieghere (2017) conducted a study among consumers in Vietnam and found adequate  
282 attitude levels whilst consumers of street food in Haiti exhibited average attitude levels towards food  
283 safety (Samapundo, Climat, Xhaferi, & Devlieghere, 2017). Tan *et al.* (2013) found weak correlations  
284 between knowledge and hand hygiene attitudes among food handlers in Malaysia including practices.  
285 KAP of food allergens among consumers are scarce in comparison. KAP can be combined with the  
286 Theory of Planned Behaviour to further understand how attitude, perceived behavioural control and  
287 social norms affect food allergen management practices. The current food allergen knowledge –  
288 attitudes – practices model can be expanded to include trust particularly if one is studying consumers'  
289 behaviour while eating out (Begen *et al.*, 2016; Begen *et al.*, 2018). Furthermore, it is worth  
290 categorising and studying the specific measured variable in detail i.e. purchasing and understanding  
291 food labels, meal preparation and prevention of cross contamination and whilst eating out.

292

293 The only current method to prevent food allergy is complete avoidance of the trigger food. This  
294 requires vigilance from both consumers and food business operations. Food businesses are  
295 encouraged to provide clear written or verbal allergen information to consumers. In the UK,  
296 signposting of allergen information helps to ensure customers know where to find the information  
297 (FSA, 2015). Begen *et al.* (2017) also recommended that food allergic individuals should make  
298 allergen enquiries when eating out. This is particularly important in Malaysia as the provision of food  
299 allergen information is currently not a legal requirement. Food handlers in Malaysia are required to  
300 attend the Food Handlers Training programme as specified in Food Hygiene Regulations (2009). The  
301 topics focused on food safety topics such as personal hygiene, good hygiene/manufacturing practices,  
302 risk of food poisoning and food laws and regulations. Although some food safety training providers  
303 voluntarily incorporate food allergen management in the module, it is strongly recommended that all

304 food handlers should be made aware of the importance of food allergen management and the risk of  
305 food allergic reactions.

306

### 307 **Conclusion**

308 In general, the consumers in this study demonstrates moderate knowledge of food allergen and  
309 highly positive attitudes and self-reported practices. Within SEM, it is found that although the  
310 consumers are moderately knowledgeable, this does not translate into practices. However, an  
311 increase in personal beliefs can help to boost good practices. Understanding consumers' risk  
312 perceptions towards food allergen – particularly among consumers with food allergic reactions or  
313 those caring for individuals with food allergic reactions can narrow the attitudinal – good food  
314 allergen practices (GAP). A number of food safety research had been conducted but food allergen  
315 studies remain sparse in Malaysia. The main limitations of this study were the small sample size and  
316 the findings cannot be generalised outside the study sample. Although the present study was  
317 conducted with a small sample size, this can be considered a pilot study to understand consumers'  
318 knowledge, attitude and practices in managing food allergens. Understanding how consumers think  
319 about and respond to risks (i.e. respond to food allergens and impact of cross contamination) will aid  
320 risk mitigation strategies. Food allergy creates a significant health burden and can further impact  
321 upon consumer's social and quality of life. National and international efforts should focus on food  
322 safety and appropriate food allergen management practices. More importantly, correct food allergen  
323 labelling is crucial to inform consumers of the presence of allergens.

324

325

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