**Environmental data do not improve a clinical asthma prediction tool for children**

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**Conflict of interest**

None

**Capsule summary**

Available asthma prediction tools perform only moderately well. We expanded the Childhood Asthma Risk Assessment tool (CARAT) to include environmental and socioeconomic information, and found that its performance was not improved. [31/35]

**Key words**

Wheeze, cough, children, prediction, persistence, longitudinal, cohort study, socioeconomic factors

**To the Editor:**

Many preschool children present to their doctor with respiratory symptoms, but not all of them develop asthma. Prediction tools can help distinguish children with a high risk of developing asthma from children whose risk is low. A good prediction tool selects children who need therapeutic intervention, and reassures parents whose children have transient problems.

Five tools to predict school-age asthma in symptomatic preschool children are currently available. All predict only moderately well (Youden index ≤0.43 or area under receiver operating characteristics curve [AUC] ≤0.74).[1-5](#_ENREF_1) They include the asthma predictive index[4](#_ENREF_4), the PIAMA prediction tool[3](#_ENREF_3) and the Childhood Asthma Risk Assessment Tool (CARAT)[2](#_ENREF_2), which we developed previously. The latter consists of 10 clinical predictors, including current respiratory symptoms. To develop the CARAT, we deliberately included only predictors that can be easily assessed clinically. Thus, we considered neither physiological measurements, nor environmental or socioeconomic factors. These factors might not be generalizable to other populations.

Nonetheless, environmental and socioeconomic factors have been associated with respiratory symptoms in children, such as second hand tobacco smoke or house pets.[6](#_ENREF_6), [7](#_ENREF_7) Some asthma prediction tools for children and young adults do include such exposures, namely maternal smoking or parental education.[3](#_ENREF_3), [5](#_ENREF_5) In this study, we test the addition of environmental exposures and socioeconomic factors to see if they improve the predictive performance of the CARAT.

Our study population was the same that we used to develop the CARAT. We used questionnaire data from a population-based cohort from Leicestershire, United Kingdom, described in detail elsewhere.[8](#_ENREF_8) We included children aged 1-3 years at baseline (in 1998) with parent-reported wheeze or chronic cough (cough without colds, or cough at night), who visited their doctor for wheeze or cough at least once during the past 12 months. The outcome “any asthma” was assessed five years later, at the age of 6-8 years. “Any asthma” was defined as current wheeze plus use of asthma medication within the past 12 months. For each child, we calculated the CARAT risk score for developing asthma (range of score: 0-15).[2](#_ENREF_2) We then investigated if the following environmental and socioeconomic factors, assessed at baseline, improved the accuracy of the score’s prediction: nursery care, number of older siblings, heating or cooking with gas, pet ownership (cat, dog, other furry pets, bird), mother smoking during pregnancy, exposure to environmental tobacco smoke (mother or other persons in the household smoking), duration of breastfeeding, ethnicity (white vs. South Asian), crowding, single parenthood, parental education, Townsend deprivation index[9](#_ENREF_9), living in an urban area, and self-reported traffic density at home address.

As when we developed the CARAT, we used least absolute shrinkage and selection operator (LASSO)-penalized logistic regression to identify important predictors without over-fitting the data.[10](#_ENREF_10) The penalty for the regression coefficients is set using the penalization parameter λ. For large values of λ, no predictors enter the model. With decreasing λ, more predictors enter the model, in order of their added predictive value. For our main model, we set λ to a value that maximized the AUC of resulting predictions in 10-fold cross validation.

We varied λ, to explore the order in which predictors entered the final model. We also used conventional logistic regression without penalization to estimate univariable associations of each potential predictor with later asthma, to see how estimates changed when adjusted for the CARAT score, and when adjusted for all potential predictors. Methodological details are in the online repository.

We had baseline data from 6808 children, of whom 2444 reported respiratory symptoms and a visit to the doctor due to their symptoms. We had outcome data at age 6-8 years for 1226/2444 children (50%), of whom 28% (345/1226) had asthma.

Those with school-age asthma differed little from those without in respect to environmental exposures and socioeconomic factors, with few exceptions (maternal smoking, cooking fuel). (Table I)

Of 31 potential predictors that entered variable selection, the CARAT score was the only variable that remained in the final model (maximal AUC of 10-fold cross validations = 0.783; λ=0.083).

When we reduced λ of our main model by 70%, absence of nursery care entered the model as a second predictor (AUC=0.780). When λ was lowered by 79%, maternal smoking (AUC=0.780) and absence of crowding entered as well (AUC=0.781).

In the regression models without penalization, few potential predictors showed an association with asthma (p<0.05) (Table S1). In multivariable logistic regressions, adjusted for the score and all potential predictors, only absence of nursery care was associated with later asthma.

This study found no evidence that addition of environmental and socioeconomic data improves the predictive performance of the CARAT.

The CARAT already contains rather detailed information on respiratory symptoms. Environmental stimuli (air pollution, allergens, infections) do directly affect prevalence of these symptoms in toddlers. It is conceivable that they don’t have an additional effect on persistence of symptoms (i.e. prediction of later asthma). One might even hypothesize that toddlers who wheeze and cough a lot because of increased exposure to infectious agents (nursery care, crowding) will tend to have a better prognosis compared to peers who have these symptoms in the absence of exposure. This might explain the trend towards a poorer prognosis in children who were not in nursery care and did not live in crowded households, which was seen in some of the models with reduced penalization.

Our findings contrast with those reported by Balemans et al, who found that maternal smoking while children were toddlers predicted asthma in young adults in their cohort.[5](#_ENREF_5) Balemans only included a few symptoms as potential predictors and used stepwise logistic regression to derive the final model, which might explain why maternal smoking was a better predictor in their model than in ours. In our cohort, maternal smoking was one of the first predictors joining the CARAT score when we lowered the penalization, but it did not improve the predictive performance of CARAT.

The strength of our study lies in its large sample size and clinically relevant population. We used an objective approach for variable selection that minimized over-fitting the data. A limitation common to other tools is that symptoms and exposures are parent-reported. This reflects the situation in clinical practice, where many decisions are based on medical history taken from parents. Future research should evaluate if such tools can be improved by including results from clinical tests.

In summary, the asthma risk assessment tool CARAT, which uses detailed clinical data, performs moderately well. Adding information on environmental and socioeconomic exposures did not improve the CARAT’s predictive performance.

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| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Table I. Characteristics of the study population** (children seeing a doctor for wheeze or cough at age 1-3years, by asthma outcome at age 6-8 ; N=1226) | | | | | | | |
|  | |  | 5 yrs later: | | 5 yrs later: | |  |
|  | |  | Asthma  (n=345) | | No asthma  (n=881) | |  |
|  | |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | |  | n | (%) | n | (%) | p-value‖ |
| **Demographic factors** | |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Male | |  | 224 | (64.9) | 454 | (51.5) | <0.001 |
| Age (years) | | 1 | 85 | (24.6) | 251 | (28.5) | 0.388 |
|  | | 2 | 204 | (59.1) | 498 | (56.5) |  |
|  | | 3 | 56 | (16.2) | 132 | (15.0) |  |
| Ethnicity | | White | 267 | (77.4) | 643 | (73.0) | 0.127 |
|  | | South Asian | 78 | (22.6) | 238 | (27.0) |  |
|  | |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| **Current wheeze and total asthma prediction score** | | |  |  |  |  |  |
| Current wheeze |  | | 272 | (78.8) | 425 | (48.2) | <0.001 |
| CARAT score (mean [SD])\* |  | | 6.7 | (3.2) | 3.7 | (2.3) | <0.001 |
|  |  | |  |  |  |  |  |
| **Environmental exposures** |  | |  |  |  |  |  |
| Nursery care |  | | 164 | (47.5) | 451 | (51.2) | 0.254 |
| Older siblings | 0 | | 106 | (30.7) | 281 | (31.9) | 0.548 |
|  | 1 or 2 | | 202 | (58.6) | 523 | (59.4) |  |
|  | >2 | | 37 | (10.7) | 77 | (8.7) |  |
| Heating | central heating only | | 245 | (71.0) | 638 | (72.4) | 0.621 |
|  | gas, coal, other | | 100 | (29.0) | 243 | (27.6) |  |
| Cooking fuel | electrical stove only | | 102 | (29.6) | 197 | (22.4) | 0.010 |
|  | gas, other | | 243 | (70.4) | 684 | (77.6) |  |
| Pet ownership | cat | | 63 | (18.3) | 161 | (18.3) | 1.000 |
|  | dog | | 66 | (19.1) | 153 | (17.4) | 0.507 |
|  | other furry pet | | 43 | (12.5) | 78 | (8.9) | 0.070 |
|  | bird | | 13 | (3.8) | 38 | (4.3) | 0.752 |
| Mother smoking during pregnancy |  | | 53 | (15.4) | 121 | (13.7) | 0.467 |
| Mother smoking (number of cigarettes /day) | 1 to 10 | | 39 | (11.3) | 90 | (10.2) | 0.045 |
|  | >10 | | 40 | (11.6) | 65 | (7.4) |  |
| Other person smoking in household (number of cigarettes /day) | 1 to 10 | | 38 | (11.0) | 131 | (14.9) | 0.201 |
|  | >10 | | 37 | (10.7) | 87 | (9.9) |  |
| Breastfed (months) | <1 | | 39 | (11.3) | 89 | (10.1) | 0.320 |
|  | 1 to 3 | | 54 | (15.7) | 164 | (18.6) |  |
|  | 4 to 6 | | 40 | (11.6) | 120 | (13.6) |  |
|  | > 6 | | 57 | (16.5) | 162 | (18.4) |  |
| Self-reported traffic density (at home) | low | | 142 | (41.2) | 343 | (38.9) | 0.384 |
|  | moderate | | 176 | (51.0) | 447 | (50.7) |  |
|  | high | | 27 | (7.8) | 91 | (10.3) |  |
|  |  | |  |  |  |  |  |
| **Socioeconomic factors** |  | |  |  |  |  |  |
| Crowding (persons/room) | ≤1 | | 277 | (80.3) | 676 | (76.7) | 0.353 |
|  | 1.1 to 1.5 | | 53 | (15.4) | 152 | (17.3) |  |
|  | >1.5 | | 15 | (4.3) | 53 | (6.0) |  |
| Single parents |  | | 42 | (12.2) | 84 | (9.5) | 0.175 |
| Higher parental education† |  | | 200 | (58.0) | 506 | (57.4) | 0.898 |
| Townsend deprivation index‡ | more affluent | | 71 | (20.6) | 172 | (19.5) | 0.695 |
|  | affluent | | 73 | (21.2) | 168 | (19.1) |  |
|  | average | | 74 | (21.4) | 187 | (21.2) |  |
|  | deprived | | 59 | (17.1) | 181 | (20.5) |  |
|  | more deprived | | 68 | (19.7) | 173 | (19.6) |  |
| Living in an urban area§ |  | | 178 | (51.6) | 461 | (52.3) | 0.849 |
| \*Range: 0 to 15 points, 0 represents low risk for having asthma 5 years later, 15 high risk1 | | | | | | | |
| †Age at the end of education is >16 years | | | | | | | |
| ‡The categories cover the following Townsend Deprivation Index intervals: [-5.522, -2.981], [-2.886, -1.264], [-1.250, 0.908], [0.909, 4.403], [4.418, 11.072] | | | | | | | |
| §Living in Leicester post code areas LE1 to LE5 | | | | | | | |
| ‖Fisher's exact test | | | | | | | |