

Minerva Access is the Institutional Repository of The University of Melbourne

Author/s:

Zhang, J;Lodge, CJ;Walters, H;Chang, AB;Bui, DS;Lowe, AJ;Hamilton, GS;Thomas, PS;Senaratna, CV;James, AL;Thompson, BR;Erbas, B;Abramson, MJ;Perret, JL;Dharmage, SC

Title:

Association of novel adult cough subclasses with clinical characteristics and lung function across six decades of life in a prospective, community-based cohort in Australia: an analysis of the Tasmanian Longitudinal Health Study (TAHS)

Date:

2024-02

Citation:

Zhang, J., Lodge, C. J., Walters, H., Chang, A. B., Bui, D. S., Lowe, A. J., Hamilton, G. S., Thomas, P. S., Senaratna, C. V., James, A. L., Thompson, B. R., Erbas, B., Abramson, M. J., Perret, J. L. & Dharmage, S. C. (2024). Association of novel adult cough subclasses with clinical characteristics and lung function across six decades of life in a prospective, community-based cohort in Australia: an analysis of the Tasmanian Longitudinal Health Study (TAHS). *The Lancet Respiratory Medicine*, 12 (2), pp.129-140. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2213-2600\(23\)00340-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2213-2600(23)00340-5).

Persistent Link:

<https://hdl.handle.net/11343/340287>

Association of novel adult cough subclasses with six decades of clinical characteristics and lung function in a prospective cohort (TAHS)

Authors:

Jingwen Zhang (MPH)¹, Caroline J. Lodge (PhD)¹, E. Haydn Walters (DM, Prof)^{1,2}, Anne B. Chang (PhD, Prof)^{3,4}, Dinh S. Bui (PhD)¹, Adrian J. Lowe (PhD, Prof)^{1,5}, Garun S. Hamilton (PhD, Prof)^{6,7}, Paul S. Thomas (PhD, Prof)⁸, Chamara V. Senaranta (PhD)¹, Alan L. James (PhD, Prof)^{9,10}, Bruce R. Thompson (PhD, Prof)¹¹, Bircan Erbas (PhD, Prof)¹², Michael J. Abramson (PhD, Prof)¹³, Jennifer L. Perret (PhD)^{1,14*}, Shyamali C. Dharmage (PhD, Prof)^{1*}

Affiliations:

¹Allergy and Lung Health Unit, Centre for Epidemiology and Biostatistics, Melbourne School of Population and Global Health, The University of Melbourne, VIC, Australia.

²School of Medicine, University of Tasmania, TAS, Australia

³Australian Centre for Health Services Innovation, Queensland University of Technology, QLD, Australia

⁴Child Health Division, Menzies School of Health Research, NT, Australia

⁵Murdoch Children's Research Institute

⁶Monash Lung, Sleep, Allergy & Immunology, Monash Health, VIC, Australia

⁷School of Clinical Sciences, Monash University, VIC, Australia

⁸Prince of Wales' Clinical School UNSW and Respiratory Medicine, Prince of Wales' Hospital, Randwick, NSW 2031 Australia

⁹Department of Pulmonary Physiology and Sleep Medicine, Sir Charles Gairdner Hospital, Nedlands, WA, Australia

¹⁰ School of Medicine and Pharmacology, University of Western Australia, Perth, WA, Australia

¹¹Melbourne School of Health Sciences, The University of Melbourne, VIC, Australia

¹²School of Psychology and Public Health, La Trobe University, Melbourne, VIC, Australia

¹³School of Public Health & Preventive Medicine, Monash University, Melbourne, VIC, Australia

¹⁴Institute for Breathing and Sleep, Heidelberg, VIC, Australia

*Equal Senior authors

Corresponding Author:

Professor Shyamali Dharmage, Allergy and Lung Health Unit, Centre for Epidemiology and Biostatistics, Melbourne School of Population and Global Health, The University of Melbourne, 207 Bouverie Street, Carlton, VIC 3053, Australia.

Tel: +61 3 83440737, Fax: +61 3 9349 5815

E-mail: s.dharmage@unimelb.edu.au

1 **Panel: Research in context**

2 **Evidence before this study**

3 Cough is a heterogenous condition. Yet, little is known about cough phenotypes. In clinical practice,
4 cough phenotype is determined by its duration as well as the underlying diseases causing the cough.
5 Conversely, in adults with chronic cough, a concept of cough hypersensitivity syndrome (CHS) has
6 been proposed to encompass chronic cough featuring a hypersensitive cough reflex, regardless of the
7 underlying diseases. However, the clinical presentations, especially responses to treatments, within
8 each cough phenotype (or CHS) are still heterogeneous. We hypothesised cough phenotypes or
9 subclasses identified from community settings would further elucidate such heterogeneity, as cough
10 is most commonly seen in the community, while only a small group of people visit specialists
11 because of their cough. We searched PubMed up to 2023, for articles on adult chronic cough
12 phenotypes using the search terms “chronic cough” and “phenotype”. Most studies have been
13 conducted in specialist clinical settings. Only two studies investigated cough phenotypes among
14 community-based samples, and neither had data on lung function trajectories, nor longitudinal
15 clinical characteristics since childhood.

16 **Added value of this study**

17 This is the first study to describe the longitudinal clinical characteristics of adult cough subclasses in
18 a community-based cohort. We identified six mutually exclusive subclasses in middle-aged adults
19 and have characterised them comprehensively by their history of respiratory symptoms, life-course
20 lung function trajectories, and comorbidities. The two subclasses that featured “chronic productive”
21 and “intermittent productive” cough had disadvantaged lung function trajectories, and a higher
22 lifetime prevalence of productive cough, asthma, and allergies from as early as seven years of age.
23 However, the “chronic dry cough” and “cough with allergies” subclasses showed such changes only
24 in the mid-forties to fifties. These descriptions are a substantial advance of the current framework for
25 understanding and managing chronic cough.

26 **Implications of all the available evidence**

27 For adults aged in their fifties, which is when the prevalence of chronic cough peaks, multiple
28 subclasses of cough exist; each has distinct clinical features going back to childhood. Usual cough is
29 common, and understanding the risk factors and comorbidity profiles specific to a cough subclass
30 could inform personalised management focused on the patients’ “treatable traits”. Individuals

31 belonging to the more severe cough subclasses associated with phlegm, often have coughed from
32 childhood, so vigilance by clinicians and closer monitoring for potential lung function impairment
33 could provide opportunities for early intervention/prevention. Lung function should be routinely
34 undertaken when evaluating and /or managing adults with productive cough including in primary
35 care. This clinically relevant classification based on symptoms and objective lung function, and
36 derived from a large general population cohort provides a platform for future studies to investigate
37 the burden and optimal management of adults with chronic cough in the community.

38 ABSTRACT

39 **Background:** Cough is a common yet heterogeneous condition with poor understanding in general
40 populations. We aimed to investigate cough subclasses, their lifetime characteristics, and treatable
41 traits in a general population.

42 **Methods:** Using data collected by the Tasmanian Longitudinal Health Study (TAHS), we
43 distinguished cough subclasses among current coughers at age 53 years, using latent class analysis of
44 cough symptoms. Longitudinal changes and/or trajectories of cough, asthma, smoking, and
45 spirometry from age 7 to 53 years for each subclass were documented and compared with the
46 reference.

47 **Findings:** Six distinct cough subclasses were identified and labelled as “minimal cough” (n=206,
48 9%; the reference), “cough with colds only” (n=1189, 54%), “cough with allergies” (n=305, 14%),
49 “intermittent productive cough” (n=213, 10%), “chronic dry cough” (n=147, 6%), and “chronic
50 productive cough” (n=153, 7%). Compared to “minimal cough”, the “chronic productive” and
51 “intermittent productive” cough subclasses had worse lung function trajectories, and a higher
52 prevalence of cough, asthma and allergies from ages 7 to 53 years. These differences were observed
53 in other subclasses, but were evident only after their mid-forties in the groups with “chronic dry
54 cough” and “cough with allergies” subclasses, and not until age 53 in the “cough with colds only”
55 subclass.

56 **Interpretation:** Potential treatable traits were identified for different cough subclasses. Productive
57 cough may require different management in primary care (i.e., routine spirometry) than dry cough, if
58 our findings are confirmed by other studies. Future population-based studies could apply this
59 framework to better address the heterogeneity and complexity of cough in the community.

60 **Funding:** National Health and Medical Research Council (NHMRC) of Australia; The University of
61 Melbourne; Clifford Craig Medical Research Trust of Tasmania; Victorian, Queensland &
62 Tasmanian Asthma Foundations; Royal Hobart Hospital; Helen MacPherson Smith Trust;
63 GlaxoSmithKline, and China Scholarship Council (CSC).

64 INTRODUCTION

65 Cough is a common but difficult-to-treat condition;¹ yet it has substantial physical, mental, and
66 economic impacts on patients, and the healthcare system.² Chronic cough in adults, defined as a daily
67 cough for more than eight weeks, affects between 5% and 10% of the population globally.³
68 Furthermore, studies have shown that chronic cough is an independent risk factor for cardiovascular
69 disease and premature death.⁴

70 Cough is a heterogenous condition.¹ From a neurobiological perspective, multiple central and
71 peripheral pathways are involved in the regulation of cough.⁵ In clinical practice, cough can be
72 caused by multiple underlying pulmonary and extrapulmonary diseases, and presentations of cough
73 vary between diseases, and between patients with the same diseases.¹ The CHEST guidelines for
74 adult cough recommend managing cough by diagnosing and treating underlying diseases, by firstly
75 assessing the duration of the cough (i.e., whether it is acute, subacute, or chronic).⁶ Earlier studies
76 found that other features of cough (e.g., phlegm production, sound, timing) provide little guidance to
77 diagnose underlying diseases.^{7,8} Asthma, gastro-oesophageal reflux disease (GORD), and upper
78 airway cough syndrome (UACS) are common underlying diseases causing chronic cough.^{3,6}
79 However, many patients with these diseases do not present with chronic cough.^{1,3,6} In addition,
80 treating these diseases does not necessarily resolve the cough.^{1,3,6} Over 63% of people with chronic
81 cough have two or more of these diseases, but 15% of them have no identified underlying diseases to
82 explain the cough.⁹ Furthermore, some of these underlying diseases are poorly defined in the first
83 place (e.g., UACS).³ Cough hypersensitivity syndrome has recently been proposed as an umbrella
84 term to explain the mechanisms of chronic cough, regardless of underlying diseases. However, not
85 all unexplained cough can be attributed just to hypersensitivity.¹ Together, these findings suggest
86 that chronic cough is a complex and heterogeneous condition that cannot be fully explained by the
87 “underlying diseases” or cough hypersensitivity.¹

88 The “treatable trait”, model of care where a patient undergoes a multidimensional assessment to
89 identify clinically important and treatable problems (traits), has recently been introduced to the
90 management of chronic airway diseases.¹⁰ This approach emphasises using phenotypes and/or
91 endotypes, instead of diagnostic labels, to guide individualised treatment.¹⁰ However, little is known
92 about adult cough phenotypes or endotypes in the general population. While few studies on adult
93 cough phenotypes have been undertaken and they were mainly performed in specialist centres with

94 highly-selected patients,¹¹⁻¹³ even though cough is the most common reason people present to
95 primary healthcare.¹⁴ Furthermore, cough is very common in the community, but over 70% of all
96 people with chronic cough have never consulted a doctor.¹⁵ Only two studies have investigated adult
97 cough phenotypes/subclasses in community settings,^{9,16} but neither has linked these subclasses to
98 potential treatable traits using longitudinal clinical characteristics.

99 Therefore, we aimed to explore cough subclasses in the general adult population, and to identify
100 potentially treatable traits of the identified subclasses by describing their clinical characteristics from
101 childhood to adulthood.

102 **METHODS**

103 **Study Design and Data Collection**

104 We used data from the Tasmanian Longitudinal Health Study (TAHS), a prospective community-
105 based cohort study, following participants from ages 7 to 53 years (Figure 1). These individuals have
106 been followed up at ages 13, 18, 31, 43, and 53 years with questionnaires and clinical examinations.
107 Details about the study design and follow-up studies were published previously.¹⁷

108 During the most recent follow-up study in 2012-2016 (mean age 53 years), all surviving participants
109 were traced and invited (n=6128). And 3609 (58.9%) of these returned a postal questionnaire. The
110 questionnaire included nine cough-related questions (Table S1, supplements pp 2). Participants who
111 answered “Yes” to at least one question were defined as “current coughers” at age 53 years, and;
112 those who answered “No” to all nine questions were defined as “non-coughers”.

113 Demographic and clinical characteristics of participants including asthma, smoking, and symptoms
114 of cough (“current productive cough” and “ever chronic productive cough”) have been collected via
115 questionnaire from ages 7 to 53 years and the detailed definitions were harmonised and listed in
116 Table S2 (supplements pp 3).

117 Pre-bronchodilator spirometry was performed at ages 7, 13, 18, 31, 45 and 53 years (Figure 1),
118 according to the American Thoracic Society and European Respiratory Society guidelines.¹⁸
119 Trajectories were developed previously (Appendix 1, supplements pp 11),²⁰ based on spirometry z-
120 scores, which were derived from Global Lung Function Initiative (GLI) reference equations that have
121 been validated in an Australian population.¹⁹

122 **Statistical Analysis**

123 The nine cough-related questions were included in latent class analysis (LCA) models as indicator
124 variables among the “current coughers” (Table S1, supplements pp 2). The LCA estimated two sets
125 of values: conditional probabilities (i.e., probability of having each of the nine cough and/or phlegm
126 symptoms within a known class), and posterior probabilities (i.e., probability of belonging to each
127 class for a given participant). Models were repeatedly fitted with a stepwise increase in the number
128 of classes from 2 to 9. The LCA models with maximum likelihood estimation allowed for the
129 handling of missing data for indicator variables, which were treated as missing at random. The
130 Bayesian information criterion (BIC) and clinical interpretability of models were used as major
131 criteria to determine the optimal number of classes. Class size, entropy and other statistics were also
132 considered.²¹ A single cough subclass was assigned to each participant based on the highest posterior
133 probability for that participant from the six-class model and the mean posterior probability was used
134 to assess model adequacy (Appendix 2, supplements pp 12-13; Figure S1, supplements pp 14).

135 Demographic and clinical characteristics of participants at age 53 years were described for each
136 cough subclass and compared with the reference (defined as the “minimal cough” derived from the
137 LCA), using χ^2 , Fisher’s exact tests, or independent t-tests where appropriate. Prevalence (p) and
138 logit-transformed 95% confidence intervals ($95\%CI = \text{expit} \{ \text{logit}(p) \pm 1.96 \times \text{standard error} / [p \times (1 -$
139 $p)] \}$) of relevant clinical characteristics (cough, asthma, smoking, asthma and allergy trajectories,²²
140 lung function trajectories²⁰) were plotted from age 7 to age 53 years whenever data were available
141 and compared with the “minimal cough” using χ^2 tests (or Fisher’s exact tests). “Non-coughers”
142 were compared with all identified cough subclasses. The above analyses were repeated using
143 standard cough definitions (chronic cough [CC] as cough > three months regardless of the presence
144 of phlegm; and chronic bronchitis [CB] as cough with phlegm > three months for two consecutive
145 years). All analyses were done using Stata version 16 (Stata Corp, College Station, TX) with an LCA
146 plug-in.²³

147 **Ethics**

148 The study was approved by Human Review Committees at all participating institutions. Written
149 informed consent was obtained from all participants.

150 **Role of the funding source**

151 The sponsors of the study had no role in study design, data collection, data analysis, data
152 interpretation, writing of the report, or the decision to submit. The corresponding author had full
153 access to all the data in the study and the final responsibility to submit for publication.

154 **RESULTS**

155 Among the 3609 participants of the most recent TAHS follow-up (mean age 53 years, Figure 1), 361
156 (10·0%) had standard definition CC, and 109 (3·0%) had standard definition CB. Altogether, 2213
157 (61·3%) participants were considered "current coughers" by having any kind of cough listed in Table
158 S1 (supplements pp 2), and they were assigned to cough subclasses identified using latent class
159 analysis (LCA). Based on model selection criteria, the six-class model was optimal (Appendix 2,
160 supplements pp 12-13). The mean posterior probability of the six-class model was 0·9 suggesting
161 good model adequacy in class assignment (Table S3, supplements pp 4). Conditional probabilities of
162 having each cough and/or phlegm symptoms were presented in a Heatmap and used to label the six
163 cough subclasses (Figure 2).

164 Characteristics of each cough subclass at age 53 years are summarised in Table 1. Participants with
165 "minimal cough" (n=206, 9·3% of 2213 current coughers) had some cough with colds, but otherwise
166 the lowest probabilities of all symptoms overall, and therefore comprised the reference group for the
167 main analysis. The "cough with colds only" (n=1189, 53·7%) had moderate to high probabilities of
168 symptoms related to colds/chest illness and the highest prevalence of recent respiratory infections.
169 The "cough with allergies" (n=305, 13·8%) was predominantly female (66·9%), and had the highest
170 probabilities of allergic symptoms and lowest prevalence of smoking. The "intermittent productive
171 cough" (n=213, 9·6%) had moderate to high probabilities for symptoms with or without colds,
172 productive cough of intermittent duration, and the highest mean BMI. The three major diseases
173 related to chronic cough (asthma, GORD, chronic rhinosinusitis [CRS]) were most prevalent in the
174 two chronic cough subclasses, namely "chronic dry cough" (n=147, 6·6%) and "chronic productive
175 cough" (n=153, 6·9%). The "chronic productive cough" subclasses also had the highest prevalence
176 of smoking, COPD, anxiety, and depression (Table 1, Figure 2).

177 The longitudinal clinical characteristics of 2213 current coughers from age 7 to 53 years were
178 described and compared in Figures 3-5, Figure S2 (supplements pp15), and Tables S4-S5
179 (supplements pp 5-6). At age 7 years, the overall prevalence of current productive cough was 47·0%
180 and similar across each subclass (Figure 3A). It reduced to 9·7% at age 13 years. From age 13 years
181 onward, the prevalence of current productive cough was highest for the “chronic productive cough”,
182 followed by “intermittent productive” and “cough with allergies”; all of which were significantly
183 higher than “minimal cough” over time. The prevalence of current productive cough in the “cough
184 with colds only” was only slightly higher than “minimal cough” from age 7 to age 43 years; but there
185 was a dramatic increase at age 53 years (Figure 3A; Table S4, supplements pp 5). The “chronic
186 productive cough” had the highest prevalence of ever chronic productive cough at all times, followed
187 by the “intermittent productive” and “chronic dry” cough subclasses (Figure 3B; Table S4
188 supplements pp 5).

189 We investigated the distributions of previously published longitudinal lung function trajectories for
190 FEV₁, FVC, and FEV₁/FVC (data collected at six time-points at ages 7, 13, 18, 45, 50, and 53 years,
191 Appendix 1, supplements pp 11),^{20,24} within each current adult cough subclass (Figure 4; Table S5,
192 supplements pp 6). Compared to “minimal cough”, the two productive cough subclasses (“chronic
193 productive” and “intermittent productive”) had worse FEV₁ and FEV₁/FVC trajectories. The “early
194 below average, accelerated decline” FEV₁ trajectory was only present in 1·5% of participants
195 belonging to “minimal cough”, while the proportions were 14·2% and 9·7% for the two productive
196 cough subclasses. In contrast, “good” trajectories with high lung function and catch-up features were
197 less common in the two productive cough subclasses. For example, the “early low accelerated
198 growth, normal decline” FEV₁ trajectory made up 8·5% of the “minimal cough”, but only 1·1% of
199 the “chronic productive cough”. While such proportions for the “early high-normal decline”
200 FEV₁/FVC trajectory were 19·1% for “minimal cough” and 8·7% for “chronic productive cough”
201 (Table S5, supplements pp 6).

202 Similar patterns were seen for lifetime prevalence of asthma and allergy. Compared to “minimal
203 cough”, the prevalence of current asthma from age 7 to 53 years was higher for participants
204 belonging to all other cough subclasses, but the difference was minimal for those belonging to
205 “cough with colds only” (Table S4, supplements pp 5; Figure S2 supplements pp 15). Longitudinal
206 trajectories for asthma and allergies were also distributed differently across cough subclasses.
207 Participants belonging to the “cough with allergies” had the highest proportion of late-onset asthma,

208 hay fever and allergies trajectories; and those belonging to the “chronic productive cough” had the
209 highest proportion of early-onset asthma and allergies trajectories (Table S6, supplements pp 6;
210 Figure S3, supplements pp 15).

211 As for smoking, the prevalence of smoking and second-hand smoking (SHS) decreased over time in
212 the study population. However, the “chronic productive cough” had the highest prevalence of active
213 smoking during middle age while both “chronic productive” and “intermittent productive” cough
214 subclasses had the highest prevalence of SHS at all times (Figure S4; Table S4, supplements pp16-
215 19).

216 In our sensitivity analysis, we compared cough subclasses to standard definitions of chronic cough
217 (CC, cough > three months, with or without phlegm) and chronic bronchitis (CB, cough with
218 phlegm >three months in two consecutive years). The clinical features of participants with standard
219 CB were essentially the same as those with our “chronic productive cough” subclass. The clinical
220 features of participants with standard CC sat in between “chronic dry cough” and “chronic
221 productive cough” cough. This is expected as CB by definition was a subset of CC (Tables S8-10,
222 supplements pp 8-10 Figure S5, supplements pp 17-19).

223 As for “non-coughers”, they were mostly comparable to the “minimal cough”, except non-coughers
224 had lower smoking rates at all times. Consequently, in comparison with other adult cough subclasses,
225 we observed similar findings for both “minimal cough” and “non-coughers” (Tables S4-S7,
226 supplements pp 5-7).

227 **DISCUSSION**

228 Within a long-term prospective population-based cohort study, we observed that 10% of middle-aged
229 participants had “standard” chronic cough (cough > 3 months) while 61% of them reported some
230 degree of cough, including colds that travelled to the chest. Using a data-driven technique, we
231 identified six distinct cough subclasses, based on classic cough-related symptoms at age 53 years, the
232 peak age of cough presentations to healthcare providers.³ Furthermore, we related these six
233 subclasses to comorbidities at the same age, as well as longitudinal asthma and allergy histories,
234 smoking exposures, lung function trajectories, and cough symptoms since childhood. The two most
235 clinically important subclasses were “chronic productive” and “intermittent productive” cough as

236 they are associated with the worst lifetime lung function trajectories. Participants belonging to these
237 productive cough subclasses had increased lifetime prevalence of productive cough, asthma, and
238 allergies from as early as seven years of age, compared with the “minimal cough” (reference group),
239 highlighting the early life origins of adult cough. This contrasts with participants belonging to the
240 “chronic dry cough” and “cough with allergies”, whose symptoms and worsening of lung function
241 commenced later in life (from mid-forties), and the “cough with colds only”, who had reduced lung
242 function (lower FEV₁/FVC ratios) and higher prevalence of asthma and cough only by the mid-
243 fifties. We suggest that future studies may explore the roles of early-life factors (asthma and
244 allergies, productive cough, and active/passive smoking) as potential longitudinal treatable traits for
245 primary prevention of future cough.

246 Only two studies have previously investigated cough phenotypes/subclasses in general
247 populations,^{9,16} but neither had comprehensive longitudinal data, especially over six decades. One
248 study manually classified cough phenotypes among people with chronic cough, from their
249 underlying diagnoses (i.e., asthma, GORD, smoking, etc.).⁹ We used LCA, a more complex and
250 holistic approach to objectively classify symptom profiles. The other study also used a data-driven
251 method, K-means cluster analysis, to identify cough clusters among coughers,¹⁶ but did not have data
252 to link these clusters to longitudinal clinical characteristics.

253 “Chronic productive cough” was the most clinically impactful subclass in our study. It was
254 associated with the highest prevalence of comorbidities including COPD, asthma, CRS, obstructive
255 sleep apnea (OSA), anxiety, and depression; and the worst spirometry measurements at age 53 years.
256 It was also associated with the worst FEV₁ and FEV₁/FVC trajectories: those with persistently low
257 and/or rapid declines from childhood to mid-fifties. This subclass had the highest prevalence of
258 asthma since age seven and the highest prevalence of productive cough since age 13 years. By
259 definition, “chronic productive cough” resembled the standard definition of chronic bronchitis (CB),
260 and we have shown that they had similar clinical characteristics. CB is a bronchial condition
261 featuring mucus hypersecretion that is often caused by smoking.²⁵ Accordingly, we found that those
262 belonging to the “chronic productive cough” subclass had the highest exposure to active and passive
263 smoking at all ages (Figure S4, supplements pp16). These findings suggested that both smoking and
264 early-life airway diseases (e.g., asthma) may contribute to the impaired lung function in the “chronic
265 productive cough”, and potentially to the development of COPD in later life. However, further
266 analysis would be required to draw conclusions here and is beyond the scope of the current study.

267 Compared to the “chronic productive cough”, participants belonging to the “intermittent productive
268 cough” subclass had less exposure to active smoking, and shorter duration of cough, but otherwise
269 similar risk profiles. These included low and rapid-decline FEV₁ and FEV₁/FVC trajectories, a high
270 prevalence of asthma since childhood, and multiple comorbidities in middle age. This subclass was
271 also associated with productive cough from an early age. These similarities between chronic and
272 intermittent productive cough subclasses suggest a distinct pathophysiological airway mechanism,
273 potentially involving airway chronic infection, inflammation, epithelial activation and wall
274 remodelling, leading to subsequent progressive airflow narrowing and ultimately COPD.²⁶ Chronic
275 productive cough (and/or CB), has been linked to the development of COPD, and future mortality,
276 independent of smoking and lung function.²⁷ Our findings have added further evidence that
277 intermittent productive cough may also be a risk factor for such adverse outcomes. These findings
278 suggest that routine spirometry should be considered when managing productive cough.

279 In contrast, for the “chronic dry cough” and “cough with allergies”, associated risks were less and
280 presented at a later age (i.e., productive cough at age 43, lung function decline at 53 years) and to a
281 lesser extent. Participants belonging to the “chronic dry cough” had better lung function than the
282 productive cough subclasses, but the prevalence of comorbidities at age 53 years including GORD,
283 anxiety, and depression was still high. The “cough with allergies” was associated with a higher
284 prevalence of asthma and allergies since early life. This potentially led to the low lifetime smoking
285 exposure due to avoidance, as well as the declined FEV₁/FVC ratios. This “cough with allergies”
286 may be related to eosinophilic airway inflammation or cough hypersensitivity, as a previous study
287 has found links between persistent cough in the pollen season and serum specific levels.²⁸ Future
288 studies should explore the potential of allergy/serum IgE as a treatable trait of such cough, by
289 assessing treatment responsiveness to nasal and/or inhaled corticosteroids. The “cough with colds
290 only” subclass may represent a predominantly post-infective cough, suggested by the high
291 prevalence of recent respiratory infections and similar clinical characteristics to “minimal cough”.

292 Our study substantially advanced the current understanding of the heterogeneity of cough symptoms,
293 especially among general populations. Our symptom-based framework is informative and easy to
294 apply in primary healthcare settings but its relevance should be investigated for patients referred to
295 cough clinics and/or recruited to clinical trials.^{1,5} For instance, we found that the presence of phlegm
296 is a distinguishing feature between adult cough subclasses. However, the importance of phlegm is
297 currently only mentioned in the paediatric cough guidelines,^{28,29} not the adult cough guidelines.^{3,6}

298 Current adult guidelines recommend phenotyping firstly by cough duration and then by aetiology
299 (underlying diagnoses).^{3,6} This is because earlier studies recruiting cough patients from tertiary
300 hospitals found that the duration of cough was a reliable predictor of the underlying diagnoses, while
301 other features (phlegm, timing, and sound of the cough) were not.^{7,8} While our findings may not be
302 applicable to the highly-selected patients seen in specialised cough clinics, there are important
303 implications at least for primary/secondary healthcare providers and further research in that context.
304 Our data suggest that productive cough, even with a short duration, could be a marker of potentially
305 worsening lung function and other comorbidities. Therefore, routine lung function tests in the
306 diagnostic work-up of patients with productive cough are warranted, regardless of their smoking
307 status and/or persistence of cough, with consideration for further investigations and/or specialist
308 referrals from the treating primary care clinician. This is especially important considering that cough
309 is mostly managed in primary care settings, where there is limited access to tests such as fractional
310 concentration of exhaled nitric oxide (FeNO) or CT scans.³⁰ Furthermore, our data also suggested
311 that performing spirometry on patients with a productive cough in primary care could help identify
312 patients with COPD at an early stage.

313 Future studies should also consider measuring and analysing the co-presence of phlegm with cough,
314 which is not reflected by the current definitions of cough hypersensitivity and/or refractory chronic
315 cough. Studies in clinical settings with complete data on lung function and the presence of phlegm
316 (dry or productive cough) are needed to further inform the management of dry/productive cough in
317 specialized cough clinics.

318 To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study to describe the longitudinal history of cough
319 especially in relation to other clinical characteristics, from childhood to mid-fifties in a general
320 population. Our study was unique for several reasons: firstly, we used cough data at age 53 years, an
321 age when the prevalence of chronic cough is known to peak.³ Secondly, we applied LCA, a data-
322 driven method, which allowed us to group cough-related symptoms into a specific subclass as
323 participants often had more than one cough-related symptom. Thirdly, it was longitudinal with
324 comprehensive data collected from age 7 to 53 years, so we could relate our cough subclasses to life
325 course lung function trajectories.

326 There are some limitations. We did not have specific details on cough severity, measurements of
327 cough hypersensitivity, healthcare utilisation or quality of life as measured by validated
328 questionnaires. This is mainly because these definitions and questionnaires were developed for

329 clinical settings in recent times,^{3,5} when our longitudinal study was already set up. We also used
330 three months to define chronic cough as asked in the historical respiratory questionnaire, rather than
331 the current eight-weeks definition. But the questionnaire we used has been validated, and been
332 widely used in other epidemiological studies.^{31,32} Data on ACE inhibitor use, GORD, and CRS were
333 only collected once at age 53 years. “Current productive cough” was defined differently in childhood
334 and adulthood, but the agreement between different definitions was high. Attrition was also
335 inevitable as participants were followed over six decades. Not all statistics (i.e., BICs of the 3-class
336 and 6-class models) may support our final LCA model as the optimal model, but this model has
337 acceptable values for all statistics and more importantly, a plausible clinical interpretation (see
338 Appendix-2 in supplement pp13-14). Inevitably, we may not have controlled for all known and
339 unknown confounders as this is an exploratory analysis modelled for associations, not causation. The
340 TAHS population is almost exclusively Caucasian and was born and mostly living in the State of
341 Tasmania, so the findings should be generalised to other ethnicities and geographic locations with
342 caution, and ideally validated in such cohorts when they become available.

343 In conclusion, we have described the heterogeneity of real-world cough by identifying six novel
344 adult cough subclasses in a general middle-aged population. Each subclass had distinct clinical and
345 spirometric characteristics over six decades. In the community and/or primary health care, our
346 evidence indicates that productive cough should be managed proactively including by routine/regular
347 measurement of lung function. Our study also highlights potential opportunities for early prevention
348 and screening of other chronic airway diseases, such as asthma and COPD, through the early
349 identification of high-risk cough subclasses. These LCA-defined cough subclasses are a substantial
350 refinement of the current epidemiological definition of chronic cough, addressing the heterogeneity
351 and complexity of cough. This framework could be applied to the management of cough in the
352 community and to guide future therapeutic studies to understand varying treatment responses. It may
353 also be expanded by adding risk factors, comorbidities, and demographic features once their
354 associations are established to map out the heterogeneity of cough beyond symptoms. Future studies,
355 including clinical trials, should measure features of cough (i.e., dry or productive cough) at baseline
356 and take them into account in the analysis. Investigations into potential treatable traits of different
357 cough subclasses are also indicated for future research, including early-life factors (airway
358 conditions and active/passive smoking) and asthma/allergies.

359 **AUTHOR'S CONTRIBUTIONS**

360 Study concept and design: SCD, EHW, ABC, CJL, JLP, JZ; Acquisition of data: SCD, EHW, GSH,
361 PST, MJA, ALJ, BE; Analysis and interpretation of data: JZ, DSB, SCD, JLP, CJL, ABC, EHW,
362 CVS, AJL; Statistical analysis: JZ, DSB, CJL, SCD, JLP; Drafting of the manuscript: JZ, ABC,
363 EHW, SCD, JLP, CJL; Supervision: SCD, JLP, CJL; Critical revision of the manuscript for
364 important intellectual content: all authors; Decisions to submit the manuscript: all authors; Obtained
365 funding: SCD, EHW, GSH, PST, MJA; JZ and SCD had directly accessed and verified the
366 underlying data reported in the manuscript.

367 **CONFLICTS OF INTEREST**

368 SCD, CJL, AJL, DSB, MJA and JLP hold investigator-initiated grants from GlaxoSmithKline for
369 unrelated research. SCD, AJL, and MJA hold investigator-initiated grants from Sanofi for unrelated
370 research. AJL received non-financial support from Primus Pharmaceuticals for unrelated research.
371 ABC hold investigator-initiated grants from NHMRC and Australian Medical Research Future Fund
372 for unrelated research. JLP and SCD hold an investigator-initiated grant from AstraZeneca for
373 unrelated research, received personal payment for Up-To-Date for chapters on cough and
374 bronchiectasis, and payment to institutions for BMJ evidence for asthma. ABC also is a member of
375 DSMB for unlicensed vaccines, and had roles in NHMRC Health Impact Committee, NHMRC
376 Women in Science and ERS Guideline Committee without payments. MJA hold investigator-
377 initiated grants from Pfizer and Boehringer-Ingelheim for unrelated research, has undertaken an
378 unrelated consultancy for Sanofi and received a speaker's fee from GSK, and is an honorary member
379 of Independent Data Monitoring committee for NHMRC funded VCAPS4 trial through Woolcock
380 Institute. All other authors declare no competing interests.

381 **DATA SHARING**

382 Individual participant data can be provided on request to anyone with a suitable proposal. The
383 proposal will be considered by the Tasmanian Longitudinal Health Study (TAHS) steering
384 committee, Requests can be directed to SCD (who is the principal investigator of TAHS and the
385 corresponding author of this paper). Data for all TAHS participants can be provided.

386 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

387 We acknowledge the TAHS study participants and previous investigators. We also acknowledge all
388 the respiratory scientists who collected data in the lung function laboratories of Tasmania, Victoria,
389 Queensland, Western Australia and New South Wales; the research interviewers, data entry operators
390 and research officers. Finally, we thank the Archives Office of Tasmania for providing data from the
391 1968 TAHS questionnaire. TAHS was supported by the National Health and Medical Research
392 Council (NHMRC) of Australia under NHMRC project grant schemes (299901, 1021275); The
393 University of Melbourne; Clifford Craig Medical Research Trust of Tasmania; the Victorian,
394 Queensland & Tasmanian Asthma Foundations; The Royal Hobart Hospital; the Helen MacPherson
395 Smith Trust; and GlaxoSmithKline. SCD, JLP, CJL, DSB and ABC are supported by the NHMRC of
396 Australia. JLP is supported by Asthma Foundation, Craig Clifford Medical Trust, Helen McPherson
397 Trust, and GlaxoSmithKline. JZ is supported by the University of Melbourne and the China
398 scholarship council (CSC) joint PhD scholarship.

399 **References**

- 400 1. Mazzone SB, Chung KF, McGarvey L. The heterogeneity of chronic cough: a case for
401 endotypes of cough hypersensitivity. *The Lancet Respiratory medicine* 2018; **6**(8): 636-46.
- 402 2. Chung KF, Pavord ID. Prevalence, pathogenesis, and causes of chronic cough. *The Lancet*
403 2008; **371**(9621): 1364-74.
- 404 3. Morice AH, Millqvist E, Bieksiene K, et al. ERS guidelines on the diagnosis and treatment of
405 chronic cough in adults and children. *European Respiratory Journal* 2020; **55**(1).
- 406 4. Feng W, Zhang Z, Liu Y, et al. Association of chronic respiratory symptoms with incident
407 cardiovascular disease and all-cause mortality: findings from the Coronary Artery Risk Development
408 in Young Adults Study. *Chest* 2021. Apr 1; **161**(4):1036-45.
- 409 5. Chung KF, McGarvey L, Song WJ, et al. Cough hypersensitivity and chronic cough. *Nature*
410 *reviews Disease primers* 2022; **8**(1): 45.
- 411 6. Irwin RS, French CL, Chang AB, et al. Classification of cough as a symptom in adults and
412 management algorithms: CHEST guideline and expert panel report. *CHEST*
413 2018; **153**(1): 196-209.
- 414 7. Mello CJ, Irwin RS, Curley FJ. Predictive Values of the Character, Timing, and
415 Complications of Chronic Cough in Diagnosing Its Cause. *Archives of Internal Medicine* 1996;
416 **156**(9): 997-1003.
- 417 8. Smyrnios NA, Irwin RS, Curley FJ. Chronic cough with a history of excessive sputum
418 production. The spectrum and frequency of causes, key components of the diagnostic evaluation, and
419 outcome of specific therapy. *Chest* 1995; **108**(4): 991-7.
- 420 9. Abozid H, Baxter CA, Hartl S, et al. Distribution of chronic cough phenotypes in the general
421 population: A cross-sectional analysis of the LEAD cohort in Austria. *Respir Med* 2021; **192**:
422 106726.
- 423 10. Agusti A, Bel E, Thomas M, et al. Treatable traits: toward precision medicine of chronic
424 airway diseases. *The European respiratory journal* 2016; **47**(2): 410-9.
- 425 11. Sadeghi MH, Wright CE, Hart S, Crooks M, Morice A. Phenotyping patients with chronic
426 cough: Evaluating the ability to predict the response to anti-inflammatory therapy. *Annals of allergy,*
427 *asthma & immunology : official publication of the American College of Allergy, Asthma, &*
428 *Immunology* 2018; **120**(3): 285-91.

- 429 12. Kang J, Moon JY, Kim DK, Kim JW, Jang SH, Koo HK. Cough Characteristics and Their
430 Association Patterns According to Cough Etiology: A Network Analysis. *Journal of clinical*
431 *medicine* 2023; **12**(16).
- 432 13. Kang J, Seo WJ, Kang J, et al. Clinical phenotypes of chronic cough categorised by cluster
433 analysis. *PloS one* 2023; **18**(3): e0283352.
- 434 14. Irwin RS, Boulet L-P, Cloutier MM, et al. Managing Cough as a Defense Mechanism and as
435 a Symptom: A Consensus Panel Report of the American College of Chest Physicians. *Chest* 1998;
436 **114**(2, Supplement): 133S-81S.
- 437 15. Kaulamo JT, Lähti AM, Koskela HO. Healthcare-Seeking Behaviour Due to Cough in Finnish
438 Elderly: Too Much and Too Little. *Lung* 2023: 1-10.
- 439 16. Koskela HO, Selander TA, Lähti AM. Cluster analysis in 975 patients with current cough
440 identifies a phenotype with several cough triggers, many background disorders, and low quality of
441 life. *Respir Res* 2020; **21**(1): 1-9.
- 442 17. Matheson MC, Abramson MJ, Allen K, et al. Cohort profile: the Tasmanian longitudinal
443 health study (TAHS). *Int J Epidemiol* 2017; **46**(2): 407-8i.
- 444 18. Miller MR, Hankinson J, Brusasco V, et al. Standardisation of spirometry. *The European*
445 *respiratory journal* 2005; **26**(2): 319-38.
- 446 19. Hall GL, Thompson BR, Stanojevic S, et al. The Global Lung Initiative 2012 reference
447 values reflect contemporary Australasian spirometry. *Respirology (Carlton, Vic)* 2012; **17**(7): 1150-
448 1.
- 449 20. Dharmage SC, Bui DS, Walters EH, et al. Lifetime spirometry patterns of obstruction and
450 restriction, and their risk factors and outcomes: a prospective cohort study. *The Lancet Respiratory*
451 *medicine* 2022. Mar 1;11(3):273-82.21. Weller BE, Bowen NK, Faubert SJ. Latent Class
452 Analysis: A Guide to Best Practice. *Journal of Black Psychology* 2020; **46**(4): 287-311.
- 453 22. Bui DS, Lodge CJ, Perret JL, et al. Trajectories of asthma and allergies from 7 years to 53
454 years and associations with lung function and extrapulmonary comorbidity profiles: a prospective
455 cohort study. *The Lancet Respiratory medicine* 2021; **9**(4): 387-96.
- 456 23. Lanza ST, Dziak JJ, Huang L, Wagner AT, Collins LM, University Park: The Methodology
457 Center, Penn State. LCA Stata plugin users' guide (Version 1.2). 2015. Available from
458 methodology.psu.edu.
- 459 24. Bui DS, Agusti A, Walters H, et al. Lung function trajectory and biomarkers in the
460 Tasmanian Longitudinal Health Study. *ERJ Open Res* 2021; **7**(3).

- 461 25. Oswald NC, Medvei VC. Chronic bronchitis; the effect of cigarette-smoking. *Lancet*
462 (*London, England*) 1955; **269**(6895): 843-4.
- 463 26. Hughes R, Rapsomaniki E, Janson C, et al. Frequent productive cough: Symptom burden and
464 future exacerbation risk among patients with asthma and/or COPD in the NOVELTY study. *Respir*
465 *Med* 2022; 200: 106921.
- 466 27. Satia I, Mayhew AJ, Sohel N, et al. Impact of productive and dry chronic cough on mortality
467 in the Canadian Longitudinal Study on Aging (CLSA). *J Thorac Dis* 2022; **14**(12): 5087-96.
- 468 28. Matsumoto H, Izuhara Y, Niimi A, et al. Risks and cough-aggravating factors in prolonged
469 cough epidemiological observations from the Nagahama Cohort Study. *Annals of the American*
470 *Thoracic Society* 2017; 14(5): 698-705.
- 471 29. Chang AB, Oppenheimer JJ, Irwin RS, et al. Managing chronic cough as a symptom in
472 children and management algorithms: chest guideline and expert panel report. *CHEST* 2020; **158**(1):
473 303-29.
- 474 30. Ringus DL, Li SH, Vu TT, et al. Management and referral patterns for new-onset chronic
475 cough in primary care patients. *Allergy and asthma proceedings* 2022; **43**(6): e72-e9.
- 476 31. Burney P, Luczynska C, Chinn S, Jarvis D. The European Community Respiratory Health
477 Survey. *European Respiratory Journal* 1994; **7**: 954-60.
- 478 32. Flexeder C, Zock JP, Jarvis D, et al. Second-hand smoke exposure in adulthood and lower
479 respiratory health during 20 year follow up in the European Community Respiratory Health Survey.
480 *Respir Res* 2019; **20**(1): 3

Table 1 Demographic and clinical characteristics of participants across the six cough subclasses at age 53 years identified by latent class analysis.

Cough subclasses	1. Minimal cough (reference)	2. Cough with colds only	3. Cough with allergies	4. Intermittent productive cough	5. Chronic dry cough	6. Chronic productive cough
N (%)	206 (9.3%)	1189 (53.7%)	305 (13.8%)	213 (9.6%)	147 (6.6%)	153 (6.9%)
Australian-born [†]	200 (97.1%)	1147 (96.5%) 0.90	291 (95.4%) 0.34	205 (96.2%) 0.63	141 (95.9%) 0.48	148 (96.7%) 0.85
Female	105 (51.0%)	596 (50.1%) 0.82	204 (66.9%) <0.001	93 (43.7%) 0.13	76 (51.7%) 0.89	74 (48.4%) 0.63
Education		0.43	0.42	0.021	0.64	0.19
< 12 years	69 (34.0%)	375 (31.8%)	88 (29.1%)	93 (44.3%)	46 (31.9%)	66 (43.4%)
=12 years	92 (45.3%)	511 (43.3%)	140 (46.4%)	92 (43.8%)	62 (43.1%)	60 (39.5%)
≥University	42 (20.7%)	294 (24.9%)	74 (24.5%)	25 (11.9%)	36 (25.0%)	26 (17.1%)
Smoking		0.063	<0.001	0.61	0.53	<0.001
Never	79 (38.9%)	480 (40.9%)	149 (49.3%)	75 (35.4%)	59 (41.0%)	39 (26.2%)
Past	72 (35.5%)	476 (40.5%)	118 (39.1%)	74 (34.9%)	43 (29.9%)	35 (23.5%)
Current	52 (25.6%)	219 (18.6%)	35 (11.6%)	63 (29.7%)	42 (29.2%)	75 (50.3%)
SHS exposure	36 (17.7%)	238 (20.3%) 0.41	42 (13.9%) 0.24	65 (31.7%) 0.001	33 (22.6%) 0.26	47 (31.3%) 0.003
BMI (kg/m²)	27.8 (5.1)	28.7 (5.4) 0.019	29.3 (6.3) 0.004 [§]	29.8 (6.3) <0.001	29.5 (5.7) 0.005 [§]	28.8 (6.3%) 0.12 [§]
Obesity	64 (31.5%)	395 (33.6%) 0.57	115 (37.8%) 0.15	83 (39.7%) 0.083	53 (37.1%) 0.28	54 (35.8%) 0.40
Pneumonia	29 (14.1%)	255 (21.6%) 0.014	78 (25.9%) 0.001	53 (24.9%) 0.005	33 (22.5%) 0.042	37 (24.2%) 0.015
GORD	18 (8.8%)	148 (12.5%) 0.12	48 (15.8%) 0.020	31 (14.6%) 0.063	23 (15.9%) 0.042	23 (15.0%) 0.064
Current COPD	5 (3.4%)	56 (6.5%) 0.15	22 (8.5%) 0.050	23 (15.2%) <0.001	13 (11.6%) 0.011	28 (26.9%) <0.001
Current CRS	8 (3.9%)	60 (5.1%) 0.477	38 (12.5%), 0.001	28 (13.2%) 0.001	16 (10.9%) 0.010	24 (15.8%) <0.001
Current asthma	31 (15.1%)	298 (25.1%) 0.002	134 (43.9%) <0.001	113 (53.3%) <0.001	72 (49.0%) <0.001	97 (63.4%) <0.001
Respiratory infection in the last 3 wks	5 (3.2%)	100 (11.1%) 0.003	21 (7.9%) 0.055	10 (6.4%) 0.19	7 (5.9%) 0.28	10 (9.1%) 0.042
ACE inhibitor use in the last 72 hrs	17 (11.2%)	76 (8.6%) 0.30	29 (11.0%) 0.95	21 (13.6%) 0.53	16 (13.8%) 0.52	10 (9.2%) 0.60
Current hay fever	74 (35.9%)	431 (36.3%) 0.91	220 (72.1%) <0.001	101 (47.4%) 0.017	81 (55.1%) <0.001	90 (58.8%) <0.001
Current eczema	10 (4.9%)	98 (8.3%), 0.093	32 (10.5%), 0.024	26 (12.3%), 0.007	22 (15.1%), 0.001	17 (11.1%), 0.027
Current food allergy	15 (7.4%)	152 (12.9%), 0.025	74 (24.5%), <0.001	26 (12.4%), 0.084	28 (19.4%), 0.001	24 (16.0%), 0.010
OSA Berlin risk	58 (30.7%)	433 (38.6%) 0.038	110 (39.0%) 0.065	96 (48.2%) <0.001	70 (51.1%) <0.001	74 (54.4%) <0.001
OSA STOP-Bang		0.031	0.035	0.010	0.059	0.023
Low risk	67 (42.7%)	302 (33.0%)	103 (40.6%)	48 (28.1%)	36 (29.0%)	29 (26.4%)
Moderate risk	42 (26.8%)	329 (36.0%)	96 (37.8%)	47 (27.5%)	39 (31.5%)	36 (32.7%)
High risk	48 (30.6%)	283 (31.0%)	55 (21.7%)	76 (44.4%)	49 (39.5%)	45 (40.9%)
Current anxiety (GAD≥10)	11 (5.5%)	113 (9.7%) 0.058	32 (10.7%) 0.043	36 (17.1%) <0.001	23 (15.7%) 0.002	31 (20.7%) <0.001
Current depression (PHQ≥10)	13 (6.6%)	86 (7.4%) 0.71	25 (8.5%) 0.46	28 (13.8%) 0.019	18 (12.3%) 0.070	23 (13.9%) 0.006

Data are shown as n (%), n/N (%), or mean (SD), P values. P values compared with the “Minimal cough” subclass using Chi-Square tests or independent t-tests. § Welch’s test with the Satterthwaite approximation was taken due to unequal variance.

‡ Country of birth: Australia / other countries. Detailed definitions of each variable were shown in Table S2 (supplements, pp3).

Abbreviations: ACE: angiotensin-converting enzyme. BMI: body mass index; COPD: chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, defined as post-bronchodilator FEV₁/FVC <0.7, CRS: chronic rhinosinusitis, GAD-7, 7-item anxiety scale for generalised anxiety disorder, GORD: Gastro-oesophageal Reflux disease, OSA: obstructive sleep apnea, PHQ-9: the patient health questionnaire, depression model; SHS: second-hand smoking, STOP-Bang: snoring, tiredness, observed apnea, high blood pressure, BMI, age, neck circumference and male sex questionnaire.

Missing data (n): ACE inhibitor (530), education (22), smoking (33), BMI (26), COPD (574), respiratory infection (504), asthma (7), GORD (13), pneumonia (11), current asthma (2), CRS (6), current eczema (9), current anxiety (44), current depression (61), food allergy (26), hay fever (3), OSA risks (148).