

International Journal of Epidemiology, 2023, 1231–1242 https://doi.org/10.1093/ije/dyad040 Advance Access Publication Date: 5 April 2023 Original article

Miscellaneous

The influence of early-life animal exposure on the risk of childhood atopic dermatitis, asthma and allergic rhinoconjunctivitis: findings from the Danish National Birth Cohort

Angela Pinot De Moira (), ^{1,2}* Neil Pearce (), ³ Marie Pedersen, ¹ and Anne-Marie Nybo Andersen¹

¹Section of Epidemiology, Department of Public Health, University of Copenhagen, Copenhagen, Denmark, ²National Heart and Lung Institute, Imperial College London, London, UK and ³Department of Medical Statistics, London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine, London, UK

*Corresponding author. National Heart and Lung Institute, Imperial College London, Sir Alexander Fleming Building, South Kensington Campus, London SW7 2AZ, UK. E-mail: acr219@ic.ac.uk

Received 22 September 2022; Editorial decision 27 February 2023; Accepted 16 March 2023

Abstract

Background: Early-life animal exposure has been associated with both protective and harmful effects on asthma and allergic disease. We aimed to explore factors that may modify associations of early-life animal exposure with asthma and allergic disease, so as to better understand these differences in findings.

Methods: We used data from \leq 84478 children from the Danish National Birth Cohort recruited during pregnancy between 1996 and 2002, and linked registry data up to the child's 13th birthday. Adjusted Cox models were used to examine associations of early-life cat, dog, rabbit, rodent, bird and livestock exposure with atopic dermatitis, asthma and allergic rhinoconjunctivitis overall, and by source of exposure (domestic or occupation), parental history of asthma or allergy, maternal education level and timing of exposure.

Results: Overall, associations between animal exposure and the three outcomes of interest were weak. However, dog exposure was associated with marginally lower risk of atopic dermatitis and asthma [adjusted hazard ratio (aHR) = 0.81, 95% CI: 0.70–0.94 and 0.88, 95% CI: 0.82–0.94, respectively], whereas prenatal domestic bird exposure was associated with slightly increased risk of asthma (aHR = 1.18, 95% CI: 1.05–1.32). Source of exposure, parental history of asthma or allergy and timing of exposure modified associations. Early-life animal exposure did not appear to increase the risk of allergic rhinoconjunctivitis (aHR range = 0.88, 95% CI: 0.81–0.95 to 1.00, 95% CI: 0.91–1.10).

Conclusions: The overall weak associations observed between animal exposure and atopic dermatitis, asthma and allergic rhinoconjunctivitis were modified by type of animal, source of exposure, parental history of asthma or allergy and timing of exposure,

This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/), which permits unrestricted reuse, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

1231

suggesting that these factors should be considered when assessing the risks associated with early-life animal exposure.

Key words: Lifecourse epidemiology, pets, animals, atopic dermatitis, asthma, allergic rhinoconjunctivitis, allergic disease, Danish National Birth Cohort, children

Key Messages

- We used data from a large prospective birth cohort to examine associations of early-life animal exposure with childhood atopic dermatitis, asthma and allergic rhinoconjunctivitis, including potential modifying factors.
- Overall, associations between animal exposure and the three outcomes of interest were weak.
- Early-life dog exposure was associated with marginally lower risk of atopic dermatitis and asthma, whilst early-life bird exposure was associated with marginally increased risk of asthma.
- There was no evidence of early-life animal exposure increasing the risk of allergic rhinoconjunctivitis.
- Source of exposure, parental history of asthma or allergy and timing of exposure were observed to modify
 associations, suggesting that these factors should be considered when assessing the risks associated with early-life
 animal exposure.

Introduction

Atopic dermatitis (AD), asthma and allergic rhinoconjunctivitis (AR) are complex, multifactorial diseases that commonly co-exist as multiple morbidities¹ and share similar, although not identical, risk factors.² The prevalence of these diseases has increased in recent decades and continues to increase in many countries.^{3–5} These increases are thought to be in part driven by changes in lifestyle and environmental exposures resulting in reduced or delayed exposure to microorganisms.⁶

Studies have shown that exposure to animals can increase the diversity of the gut microbiome^{7,8} and thus it has been suggested that early-life animal exposure could support the development of the immune system^{9,10} and protect against immune dysregulatory diseases such as AD, asthma and AR. However, findings from studies investigating the influence of early-life animal exposure on later risk of asthma and allergic disease have been inconsistent.^{11–13} Several factors that have been found to modify associations of early-life animal exposure with these disease outcomes could explain observed inconsistencies. These include the development of allergic sensitization,¹⁴ the prevalence of animal keeping in a community¹⁵ and duration and timing of exposure.^{16–18}

Although most studies have focused on the risks associated with cats and dogs or 'furry pets' as a single entity, it is also likely that associated risks will vary depending on the type of animal. For example, animals such as rabbits, rodents and birds are less popular as pets (and therefore less prevalent),¹⁹ have different associated allergens²⁰ and differ with respect to pet-keeping practices and their lifespan. Further possible sources of variation include, but are not limited to, the extent of animal contact outside the home²¹ and the tendency for families with asthma or allergy to actively avoid pets, which could bias results.²²

The aim of the current study was to comprehensively examine associations of early-life animal exposure with later risk of AD, asthma and AR, including potential modifying factors, in a large prospective birth cohort. We specifically examine: (i) overall associations between prenatal species-specific animal exposure and risk of AD, asthma and AR; (ii) whether associations vary by source of exposure; (iii) the possibility of reverse causation; and (iv) the relative influence of prenatal vs early-childhood exposure.

Methods

Study population

The Danish National Birth Cohort (DNBC) is a nationwide birth cohort study that was established between 1996 and 2002.²³ Danish-speaking women who intended to carry their pregnancy to term were enrolled into the study by informed consent during their first antenatal visit with their general practitioner (GP). Approximately 100 000 expectant mothers were recruited into the study; ~60% of all women were invited by their GP and 30% of eligible pregnancies. Mothers were invited to participate in two pre-natal telephone interviews, with further follow-ups conducted when children were 6 and 18 months, and 7, 11, 14 and 18 years.



Figure 1 Flow chart illustrating participants included in each analysis. AD, atopic dermatitis; AR, allergic rhinoconjunctivitis

The current study includes all live-born singleton children participating in the DNBC with information on maternal animal exposure during pregnancy and relevant covariates (Figure 1). Participants included in analyses were comparable to those in the original study population (Supplementary Table S1, available as Supplementary data at *IJE* online).

Outcomes: AD, asthma and AR

Children with AD, asthma and AR were identified using linked hospital episode (inpatient and ambulatory) and/or prescription data held in the Danish National Patient Register²⁴ and the Danish National Prescription Registry,²⁵ respectively. Children were identified as having AD if they had an AD-specific record in the Danish National Patient Register according to the International Classification of Diseases code, 10th revision (ICD-10 code L20), as previously validated in the Danish population.²⁶ Asthma and AR were based on ICD-10 codes or at least two disease-specific prescriptions dispensed within a 12-month period and selected exclusion criteria, following algorithms validated in the Danish population (detailed in Supplementary Information Part 1, available as Supplementary data at IJE online).^{27,28}

In sensitivity analyses, we used the following outcome definitions based on parental-reported symptoms and/or disease outcomes obtained from questionnaires: AD derived from a validated algorithm created for DNBC at 18 months;²⁹ current asthma at 7 years according to the MeDALL (Mechanisms of the Development of Allergy) definition;³⁰ AR determined by using the International Study of Asthma and Allergies in Childhood-based question: 'Has [child's name] ever suffered from sneezing/running or blocked nose, even though [child's name] did not have a cold or influenza?', asked at the 11-year follow-up. Further details are provided in Supplementary Table S2 (available as Supplementary data at *IJE* online).

Exposures

Information on mothers' animal exposure was obtained during the first prenatal telephone interview, at ~ 16 weeks' gestation, where mothers were asked about their domestic (pet), occupational and farm-related contact with animals, including type of animal (questions are provided in Supplementary Information Part 2, available as Supplementary data at *IJE* online).

These data were used to create six binary variables (yes/ no) capturing combined domestic, occupational or farmrelated prenatal exposure to dogs, cats, rabbits, rodents, birds and livestock. Six categorical variables were also created detailing source of exposure for each animal group [none/farm or domestic (pet)/occupation for livestock, and none/domestic (pet)/other (occupation or farm) for all other animal groups].

Information on the index child's exposure to animals in the first 2 years of life was obtained during the 18-month telephone interview, in which mothers were asked to name any animals the child was in contact with (detailed in Supplementary Information Part 2, available as Supplementary data at *IJE* online). These data were combined with information on prenatal animal exposure to create categorical variables relating to the timing of cat, dog, rabbit, rodent and bird exposure (never/prenatal only/ early-childhood only/both prenatal and early-childhood).

Covariates

Potential confounders were identified based on the literature and the causal model represented in a directed acyclic (Supplementary Figure graph **S1**, available as Supplementary data at *IJE* online). Potential confounders included: (i) maternal asthma (yes/no); (ii) maternal inhalant allergy (yes/no); (iii) paternal asthma (yes/no); (iv) paternal allergy (yes/no); (v) maternal education (low/ medium/high); (vi) quartiles of equivalized disposable household income the year prior to the child's birth; (vii) maternal age at birth; (viii) number of children living in the home (0/1/>2); (ix) household crowding (<0.5/>0.5-1/>1person per room); (x) smoking during pregnancy (yes/no); (xi) living in Copenhagen at birth (yes/no); (xii) sex.

Information on maternal and paternal asthma and allergy, the number of children living in the home, household crowding and maternal smoking were obtained from prenatal telephone interviews conducted at ~ 16 and ~ 31 weeks' gestation. Only information on any allergy as opposed to specifically inhalant allergy was available for fathers. Maternal education was based on the mother's highest completed educational level recorded in the Danish Population's Education Register³¹ at the time of the child's birth, categorized into three groups according to the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) 2011: low (ISCED 0–2), medium (ISCED 3–4) and high (ISCED 5–8).³² Equivalized disposable household income was obtained from the Income Statistics register³³ and categorized into year-specific quartiles. Maternal age at birth was obtained from the Danish Medical Birth Registry.³⁴ Finally, the Population Statistics Register was used to identify mothers living in the municipality of Copenhagen (code 101), the most urbanized region of Denmark.

Statistical analyses

Associations between animal exposures and AD, asthma and AR were examined separately using Cox proportional hazard models, using age as the underlying timescale. Due to differences in the age these conditions first occur or can be diagnosed, the start dates of follow-up varied according to the outcome (Figure 2). For AD, children were followed from birth until: (i) first occurrence of AD; (ii) migration; (iii) death; (iv) their 13th birthday. For asthma and AR, children were followed from their sixth birthday until: (i) first occurrence of asthma or AR; (ii) migration; (iii) death; (iv) their 13th birthday.

Date of disease debut was defined as the first date of either a specific ICD-10 code or of a dispensed prescription.

We performed analyses first with minimal adjustment for age and sex only, then with additional adjustment for



Figure 2 Lexis diagram displaying the start and end of follow-up for each analysis. AR, allergic rhinoconjunctivitis; AD, atopic dermatitis

the confounders detailed above and mutual adjustment for other animal exposures. We included age and sex in minimally adjusted models due to their wide association with most health outcomes, thus enabling more informative comparisons after adjusting for other covariates. We assessed collinearity between exposures and covariates by examining changes in mean squared errors;³⁵ no strong collinearity was observed. To assess the possibility of reverse causation, we examined effect modification by parental history of asthma or allergy and maternal education. In order to determine whether associations differed between girls and boys, we also stratified analyses by sex. Finally, because AD, asthma and AR tend to be associated^{2,36} and share similar risk factors,² we performed an interaction analysis to determine whether the presence of AD modified associations of animal exposure with asthma and AR.

The validity of the proportional hazards assumption was assessed by plotting Kaplan–Meier curves and log–log plots, and calculating scaled Schoenfeld residuals to test the independence between residuals and time. Where the proportional hazards assumption was violated, stratified Cox models were used to adjust for covariates with nonproportional hazards. Robust standard errors were calculated to allow for within-family dependency.

All analyses were conducted in Stata version 14.2.

Sensitivity analyses

In sensitivity analyses, we explored the sensitivity of findings to the applied definition of AD, asthma and AR. For these analyses, questionnaire-derived and register-based outcomes were analysed using logistic regression, restricted to the same children (detailed in Supplementary Table S2, available as Supplementary data at *IJE* online).

Results

Selected characteristics of singletons included in the DNBC with information on prenatal animal exposure are displayed in Table 1, overall and by animal exposure. Children with pre-natal animal exposure tended to have a lower household income, lower maternal education and lower prevalence of parental allergy than children without exposure. Exposed children were more likely to live in a household with at least two children and less likely to live in Copenhagen. Other characteristics varied depending on the type of animal exposure. For example, mothers of children exposed to cats, dogs, rodents or birds were more likely to smoke during pregnancy, whereas those of children exposed to rabbits, rodents, birds or livestock were more likely to be multiparous (Table 1).

Associations of prenatal animal exposure with AD, asthma and AR

Overall, effect estimates were relatively small for all prenatal animal exposures (Table 2). Prenatal exposure to dogs was associated with a marginally lower risk of AD and asthma [adjusted hazard ratio (aHR)=0.81, 95% CI: 0.70-0.94 and 0.88, 95% CI: 0.82-0.94, respectively], whereas prenatal bird exposure was associated with a marginally higher risk of asthma (aHR = 1.12, 95% CI: 1.00– 1.24). Associations of prenatal animal exposure with AR indicated either no change or a very slightly protective effect (Table 2). Findings were similar for girls and boys (Supplementary Table S3, available as Supplementary data at IJE online). Interestingly, any protective effect of animal exposure on asthma or AR was negated if the child developed AD (Supplementary Table S4, available as Supplementary data at IJE online). In some instances risks were elevated, notably for associations of early-life rabbit or livestock exposure with asthma (aHR = 1.71, 95% CI: 1.10-2.66 and 1.69, 95% CI: 1.03-2.76, respectively) (Supplementary Table S4, available as Supplementary data at IIE online).

In sensitivity analyses, results were largely consistent for reported and register-based outcomes (Supplementary Table S2, available as Supplementary data at *IJE* online).

Source of animal exposure and risk of AD, asthma and AR

Associations were mainly unchanged when analyses were restricted to domestic (pet) exposures (Table 3), which is reflective of pets being the predominant source of exposure (Table 1). The only exception was for associations of prenatal bird exposure and asthma, which strengthened. Occupational and farm-related bird exposures were not associated with AD or asthma, but were associated with slightly lower risk of AR (Table 3).

Exploring reverse causation

Since evidence suggests that families with asthma or allergies may avoid pets²² and children with a family history of asthma or allergy are also at increased risk of asthma, avoidance of pets may result in an apparent protective effect of pets in the whole population. To explore this potential for reverse causation, we examined whether associations were modified by parental history of asthma or allergy. Except for associations of rodent exposure with AD and AR, and of livestock exposure with AD, there was a weak overall tendency of lower hazard ratios (HR) among children with parental history of asthma or allergy

Table 1	Characteristics	of the study p	opulation, overa	all and by prena	tal animal exposure
---------	-----------------	----------------	------------------	------------------	---------------------

	All ^a	Cat	Dog	Rabbit	Rodent	Bird	Livestock
	N = 86614	N = 20199	N = 19388	N = 3872	N = 2063	N = 6101	N = 5313
Atopic dermatitis $[n(\%)]$	1258 (1.5)	255 (1.3)	233 (1.2)	59 (1.5)	33 (1.6)	76 (1.3)	54(10)
Missing	223 (0.3)	44 (0 2)	44 (0.2)	13(0.3)	11 (0.5)	24(0.4)	7 (0 1)
Asthma $[n (\%)]$	5796 (6.7)	1251 (6.2)	1169 (6.0)	275(7.1)	145(7.0)	442(72)	317 (6.0)
Missing	1499 (1.7)	241 (1 2)	214 (1 1)	47 (1.2)	36 (1.8)	68 (1 1)	53 (1.0)
Allergic rhinoconjunctivitis $[n(\%)]$	19 581 (22 6)	4371 (21.6)	4144 (21.4)	724 (18.7)	437 (21.2)	1263 (20.7)	1016 (19.1)
Missing	1396 (1.6)	235(12)	200 (1.0)	46 (1 2)	33 (1.6)	66 (1 1)	52 (1 0)
Female $[n (\%)]$	42 217 (48 7)	9833 (48.7)	9447 (48 7)	1818 (47.0)	976 (47 3)	2897 (47.5)	2600 (48.9)
Parents' characteristics	12217 (1017)	2000 (1017)	> (101./)	1010 (17.0)	<i>y</i> (17.3)	2007 (17.3)	2000 (10.5)
Maternal age at hirth [mean (SD)]	$30(4\ 3)$	30 (4 5)	30(45)	31 (4 7)	30(5,3)	30(47)	30(44)
Multiparous $[n (\%)]$	45 681 (52 7)	10716 (53.1)	10 585 (54 6)	3051 (78.8)	1422 (68.9)	3859 (63-3)	3409 (64 2)
Education $[n (\%)]$	15 001 (52.7)	10/10(33.1)	10303 (31.0)	5051 (70.0)	1122 (00.7)	5057 (05.57	5107 (01.2)
	11 387 (13 2)	3326 (16.5)	3456 (17.8)	766 (19.8)	568 (27 5)	1227 (20.1)	787 (14.8)
Medium	41 172 (47 5)	10 328 (51 1)	10 5 50 (54 4)	1906 (49.2)	927(44.9)	2916(47.8)	2709 (51.0)
High	33 733 (39 0)	6493 (32.2)	5336 (27.5)	1100(47.2) 1192(30.8)	561 (27.2)	2910(47.0) 1933(31.7)	1806(34.0)
Missing	322 (0.4)	52 (0.3)	A6 (0 2)	8 (0.2)	7(0.3)	25 (0.4)	11 (0 2)
Simpled in program $[u(9/)]$	322(0.7)	52(0.3)	5827 (20.1)	3(0.2)	7(0.3)	1951(0.7)	11(0.2) 1207(22.7)
Missing	23 141 (20.7)	94 (0.5)	100 (0.5)	1112(20.7)	11 (0.5)	1031(30.3)	1207(22.7)
Maternal history of acthma [4 (8/)]	7528 (8.7)	24 (0.3)	100 (0.3)	32(0.8)	11(0.3)	589 (0.3)	23(0.4)
Maternal history of asthina $[n (76)]$	/328 (8.7)	5 (0.02)	1098 (0.8)	552 (9.1)	203 (9.9)	589 (9.7)	569 (7.5)
Missing	28 (0.03)	5 (0.02)	< 3	< 3	< 3	< 3	< 3
Maternal history of allergy $[n(7_0)]$	269/2 (31.1)	3693 (28.2)	3397 (28.9)	1208 (31.2)	627 (30.4)	1939 (31.8)	1433 (27.4)
Missing	185 (0.2)	47 (0.2)	39 (0.2)	12(0.3)	< 3	13(0.3)	9 (0.2)
Maternal history of inhalent allergy $[n(\%)]$	14 300 (16./)	2/69 (13./)	2901 (15.0)	635 (16.4)	306 (14.8)	993 (16.3)	/11 (13.4)
Missing	266 (0.3)	68 (0.3)	37 (0.3)	15 (0.4)	< 5	16(0.3)	12 (0.2)
Maternal history of animal allergy $[n(\%)]$	4349 (5.0)	363 (2.8)	/24 (3./)	166 (4.3)	100 (4.9)	296 (4.9)	1/3 (3.3)
	266 (0.3)	68 (0.3)	57 (0.3)	15 (0.4)	<5	16 (0.3)	12 (0.2)
Paternal history of asthma $[n (\%)]$	/095 (8.2)	1385 (6.9)	1538 (7.9)	312 (8.1)	183 (8.9)	535 (8.8)	336 (6.3)
Missing	619 (0.7)	174 (0.9)	125 (0.6)	15 (0.4)	21 (1.0)	43 (0.7)	27 (0.5)
Paternal history of allergy $[n(\%)]$	20227 (23.4)	3705 (18.3)	3812 (19.7)	811 (21.0)	439 (21.3)	1258 (20.6)	878 (16.5)
Missing	8 (0.01)	<5	<5	0	0	0	<5
Home characteristics							
Household income $[n(\%)]$							
1 'Quintile 1 (low)'	21162 (24.4)	5525 (27.4)	5046 (26.0)	1239 (32.0)	858 (41.6)	1980 (32.5)	2084 (39.2)
4 'Quintile 4 (high)'	21 644 (25.0)	4015 (19.9)	3792 (19.6)	522 (13.5)	271 (13.1)	926 (15.2)	819 (15.4)
Missing	78 (0.1)	7 (0.03)	8 (0.04)	<5	<5	<5	<5
Number of children in HH $[n(\%)]$							
≥ 2	14 039 (16.2)	3988 (19.7)	3875 (20.0)	1701 (43.9)	797 (38.6)	1794 (29.4)	1620 (30.5)
Missing	46 (0.1)	10 (0.05)	7 (0.04)	<5	<5	0	<5
Crowding (persons/room) $[n (\%)]$							
≤ 0.5	27 411 (31.7)	7507 (37.2)	8066 (41.6)	879 (22.7)	419 (20.3)	1904 (31.2)	2516 (47.4)
>1	3911 (4.5)	828 (4.1)	723 (3.7)	258 (6.7)	180 (8.7)	369 (6.1)	229 (4.3)
Missing	142 (0.2)	42 (0.2)	33 (0.2)	6 (0.2)	<5	10 (0.2)	13 (0.2)
Copenhagen [n (%)]	8406 (9.7)	1139 (5.6)	377 (1.9)	145 (3.7)	109 (5.3)	261 (4.3)	12 (0.2)
Missing	77 (0.1)	7 (0.03)	8 (0.04)	<5	<5	<5	12 (0.1)
Source of exposure $[n (\%)]$							
Domestic (pet) ^b		20 034 (99.2)	19314 (99.6)	3771 (97.4)	1983 (96.1)	4059 (66.5)	5179 (97.5)
Other ^c		165 (0.8)	74 (0.4)	101 (2.6)	80 (3.9)	2042 (33.5)	134 (2.5)
Timing of exposure $[n (\%)]$							
Prenatal only		3181 (15.8)	1622 (8.4)	1975 (51.0)	850 (41.2)	2873 (47.1)	
Prenatal and early-childhood		11 669 (57.8)	12 527 (64.6)	886 (22.9)	608 (29.5)	1594 (26.1)	
Missing		5349 (26.5)	5239 (27.0)	1011 (26.1)	605 (29.3)	1634 (26.8)	

Values are *n* (percent) or mean (standard deviation). SD, standard deviation; HH, household.

^aAll live-born, singleton children with information on prenatal animal exposure.

^bDomestic or farm for livestock-related exposures.

^cOccupation (livestock), and occupation and farm exposures (all other animal groups).

Table 2 Associations of prenatal animal exposure with atopic dermatitis, asthma and allergic rhinoconjunctivitis

		Atopic dermatitis				Asthma	1	Allergic rhinoconjunctivitis			
		Cases	Minimally adjusted ^a HR (95% CI)	Adjusted ^b HR (95% CI)	Cases	Minimally adjusted ^a HR (95% CI)	Adjusted ^b HR (95% CI)	Cases	Minimally adjusted ^a HR (95% CI)	Adjusted ^b HR (95% CI)	
Cat	No	974	_	_	4435	_	_	14 902	_	_	
	Yes	251	0.84 (0.73,0.97)	0.93 (0.80,1.07)	1219	0.89 (0.84,0.95)	0.94 (0.88,1.01)	4272	0.92 (0.89,0.96)	0.97 (0.93,1.00)	
Dog	No	1000	-	-	4509	-	-	15 102	-	-	
	Yes	225	0.77 (0.67,0.89)	0.81 (0.70,0.94)	1145	0.86 (0.81,0.92)	0.88 (0.82,0.94)	4072	0.91 (0.88,0.94)	0.93 (0.90,0.97)	
Rabbits	No	1168	-	-	5389	-	-	18 465	-	-	
	Yes	57	1.04 (0.79,1.36)	1.16 (0.88,1.52)	265	1.03 (0.91,1.17)	1.10 (0.96,1.24)	709	0.79 (0.73,0.85)	0.88 (0.81,0.95)	
Rodents	No	1193	-	-	5513	-	-	18747	-	-	
	Yes	32	1.10 (0.77,1.56)	1.17 (0.82,1.67)	141	1.05 (0.89,1.24)	1.06 (0.90,1.26)	427	$0.92\ (0.84, 1.02)$	1.00 (0.91,1.10)	
Birds	No	1152	-	-	5220	-	-	17938	-	-	
	Yes	73	0.83 (0.65,1.05)	$0.90\ (0.70, 1.14)$	434	1.09 (0.98,1.20)	1.12 (1.00,1.24)	1236	0.88 (0.83,0.94)	0.95 (0.90,1.01)	
Livestock	No	1174	-	-	5342	-	-	18 169	-	-	
_	Yes	51	0.65 (0.49,0.87)	0.79 (0.59,1.06)	312	0.88 (0.78,0.98)	1.00 (0.88,1.13)	1005	0.82 (0.77,0.87)	0.93 (0.87,0.99)	

HR, hazard ratio.

^aAdjusted for age (underlying time scale) and sex.

^bAdditionally adjusted for maternal asthma, maternal inhalant allergy, paternal asthma, paternal allergy, maternal education, equivalized disposable household income, maternal age at birth, number of children living in the home, household crowding, smoking during pregnancy and living in Copenhagen, plus mutually adjusted for other animal exposures.

Table 3	Influence	of	source	of	exposure c	on	associations	of	animal	exposure	with	atopic	dermatitis,	asthma	and	allergio
rhinocor	njunctivitis	;														

		Atopic d	ermatitis	Ast	hma	Allergic rhinoconjunctivitis		
		Minimally adjusted ^a HR (95% CI)	Adjusted ^b HR (95% CI)	Minimally adjusted ^a HR (95% CI)	Adjusted ^b HR (95% CI)	Minimally adjusted ^a HR (95% CI)	Adjusted ^b HR (95% CI)	
Cat	No exposure	_	_	_	_	_	_	
	Domestic	0.84 (0.73,0.97)	0.92 (0.80,1.06)	0.89 (0.83,0.95)	0.95 (0.89,1.01)	0.92 (0.89,0.96)	0.97 (0.94,1.00)	
	Other ^c	NA	NA	1.23 (0.71,2.12)	1.36 (0.76,2.43)	0.90 (0.65,1.26)	1.20 (0.84,1.70)	
Dog	No exposure	-	-	-	-	-	_	
0	Domestic	0.77 (0.67,0.89)	0.81 (0.69,0.94)	0.86 (0.81,0.92)	0.88 (0.82,0.95)	0.91 (0.88,0.94)	0.93 (0.90,0.97)	
	Other ^c	NA	NA	NA	NA	0.40 (0.19,0.84)	0.42 (0.19,0.92)	
Rabbit	No exposure	-	-	-	-	-	-	
	Domestic	1.04 (0.79,1.37)	1.16 (0.88,1.53)	1.03 (0.91,1.17)	1.09 (0.96,1.24)	0.79 (0.73,0.85)	0.88 (0.81,0.95)	
	Other ^c	NA	NA	1.05 (0.50,2.23)	1.28 (0.58,2.82)	0.69 (0.42,1.14)	0.90 (0.54,1.47)	
Rodent	No exposure	-	-	-	-	-	-	
	Domestic	1.07 (0.75,1.54)	1.13 (0.78,1.63)	1.05 (0.89,1.24)	1.06 (0.89,1.26)	0.93 (0.84,1.02)	1.00 (0.90,1.10)	
	Other ^c	NA	NA	0.94 (0.39,2.26)	0.96 (0.39,2.38)	0.84 (0.51,1.41)	1.04 (0.61,1.76)	
Birds	No exposure	-	-	-	-	-	-	
	Domestic	0.86 (0.64,1.14)	0.85 (0.64,1.13)	1.19 (1.06,1.34)	1.18 (1.05,1.32)	0.97 (0.91,1.04)	1.00 (0.93,1.07)	
	Other ^c	0.78 (0.51,1.17)	0.99 (0.64,1.54)	0.88 (0.73,1.05)	0.95 (0.78,1.16)	0.72 (0.65,0.80)	0.83 (0.74,0.93)	
Livestock	No exposure	-	-	-	-	-	-	
	Domestic and farm	0.66 (0.50,0.87)	0.78 (0.58,1.06)	0.86 (0.77,0.97)	1.01 (0.88,1.15)	0.81 (0.76,0.87)	0.95 (0.88,1.02)	
	Other ^d	NA	NA	1.43 (0.81,2.52)	1.52 (0.86,2.69)	0.95 (0.64,1.40)	1.02 (0.69,1.50)	

HR, hazard ratio; NA, effect estimates not available due to risk of disclosure.

^aAdjusted for age (underlying time scale) and sex.

^bAdditionally adjusted for maternal asthma, maternal inhalant allergy, paternal asthma, paternal allergy, maternal education, equivalized disposable household income, maternal age at birth, number of children living in the home, household crowding, smoking during pregnancy and living in Copenhagen, plus mutually adjusted for other animal exposures.

^cFarm- and occupation-related exposure.

^dOccupation-related exposure.

	Ato	pic dermatitis, edª HR (95% CI)	Asth H	ma, adjusted ^a R (95% CI)		Allergic rhinoconjunctivitis, adjusted ^a HR (95% CI)			
	No family history	Family history	Pinteraction	No family history	Family history	Pinteraction	No family history	Family history	Pinteraction
Cat	0.97 (0.80,1.19)	0.85 (0.69,1.04)	0.33	1.01 (0.92,1.10)	0.86 (0.78,0.94)	0.02	0.99 (0.95,1.04)	0.92 (0.87,0.97)	0.03
Dog	0.84 (0.68,1.04)	0.78 (0.63,0.96)	0.59	0.94 (0.85,1.04)	0.83 (0.76,0.91)	0.06	0.95 (0.90,1.00)	0.90 (0.86,0.95)	0.17
Rabbit	1.60 (1.13,2.25)	0.78 (0.50,1.23)	0.01	1.23 (1.03,1.47)	0.98 (0.82,1.17)	0.07	0.90 (0.81,0.99)	0.85 (0.76,0.96)	0.53
Rodent	1.01 (0.58,1.74)	1.30 (0.82,2.07)	0.48	1.10 (0.86,1.41)	1.03 (0.82,1.30)	0.70	0.98 (0.86,1.12)	1.02 (0.88,1.17)	0.75
Bird	1.14 (0.83,1.57)	0.70 (0.49,1.01)	0.05	1.18 (1.02,1.37)	1.09 (0.95,1.25)	0.43	0.98 (0.91,1.07)	0.92 (0.84,1.00)	0.25
Livestock	0.73 (0.49,1.09)	0.85 (0.56,1.28)	0.60	1.01 (0.86,1.19)	0.96 (0.80,1.15)	0.65	0.94 (0.86,1.03)	0.90 (0.81,1.00)	0.51

Table 4 Associations of prenatal animal exposure with atopic dermatitis, asthma and allergic rhinoconjunctivitis by reported family history of asthma or allergy

HR, hazard ratio.

^aAdjusted for age (underlying timescale), sex, maternal education, equivalized disposable household income, maternal age at birth, number of children living in the home, household crowding, smoking during pregnancy and living in Copenhagen, plus mutually adjusted for other animal exposures.

compared with children without (Table 4). This tendency was slightly stronger for associations of cat and dog exposure with asthma, of rabbit exposure with AD and asthma, and of bird exposure with AD (Table 4). In the case of rabbits and birds, exposure was associated with slightly higher rates of AD and asthma among children without parental history of asthma or allergy but there was no association among children with parental history (Table 4). A slightly lower proportion of poultry-related exposures were reported for children with parental history of asthma or allergy compared with those without but otherwise the types of birds children were prenatally exposed to were largely similar for these two groups (Supplementary Table S5, available as Supplementary data at *IJE* online).

We explored the potential for reverse causation further by examining whether maternal education modified associations. Knowledge acquired through education may affect receptiveness to medical advice,³⁷ meaning that mothers with a higher level of education may be more likely to avoid pets if they or their children are at increased risk of asthma or allergies. However, we observed no evidence that maternal education modified associations ($P_{interaction} > 0.10$) (Supplementary Table S6, available as Supplementary data at *IJE* online).

Timing of animal exposure and risk of asthma and AR

In a subset of children with information on both prenatal and early-childhood animal exposure ($n = 61\,290$, Figure 1), we examined whether the life stage in which exposure occurs influences the risk of asthma and AR (Table 5). For cats and dogs, the majority of exposures occurred both prenatally and in early childhood (Table 1). Exposure to cats or dogs only in prenatal life was not associated with asthma or AR, but exposure during early childhood only or continuously in early life was associated with slightly reduced risk.

For rabbits, rodents and birds, the majority of exposures occurred prenatally only (Table 1). This possibly reflects the wording of the 18-month interview whereby mothers were specifically asked about pets the child was in contact with (Supplementary Information Part 2, available as Supplementary data at *IJE* online) and also the large proportion of farm and occupationally related prenatal bird exposures (Table 1). The influence of timing of exposure on the risk of asthma or AR was less clear for these animals but there was some indication of an association between prenatal bird exposure and asthma (Table 5).

Discussion

In this study of \leq 84 537 children from the DNBC, we used detailed information on early-life animal exposure, including type of animal, source and timing of exposure, and linked population-based register data to examine how early-life animal exposure influences the risk of AD, asthma and AR. Overall, effect estimates for animal exposure were relatively small. We did, however, observe evidence that early-life exposure to dogs may offer some slight protection against AD and asthma, but that prenatal exposure to birds may slightly increase the risk of asthma. We also observed evidence that source of exposure, parental history of asthma or allergy and timing of exposure may modify associations. Associations with AR were weak but did not indicate any harmful effect of early-life animal exposure.

The strengths of this study include its large size, prospective design and detailed information on prenatal animal exposures, encompassing domestic, occupational and

			Asthma		Allergic rhinoconjunctivitis				
		Cases	Minimally adjusted ^a HR (95% CI)	Adjusted ^b HR (95% CI)	Cases	Minimally adjusted ^a HR (95% CI)	Adjusted ^b HR (95% CI)		
Cat	Never	3112	_	_	10540	_	_		
	Pregnancy only	207	0.96 (0.83,1.10)	0.99 (0.85,1.14)	683	0.93 (0.86,1.01)	0.99 (0.91,1.07)		
	Early-childhood only	124	0.80 (0.67,0.96)	0.85 (0.71,1.02)	424	0.79 (0.72,0.88)	0.85 (0.77,0.94)		
	Pregnancy and early-childhood	701	0.88 (0.81,0.95)	0.94 (0.86,1.02)	2501	0.92 (0.88,0.96)	0.95 (0.91,1.00)		
Dog	Never	3198	-	-	10861	-	-		
	Pregnancy only	114	1.03 (0.86,1.25)	1.06 (0.88,1.29)	377	1.01 (0.92,1.12)	1.06 (0.95,1.17)		
	Early-childhood only	107	0.94 (0.78,1.14)	0.96 (0.79,1.17)	299	0.75 (0.67,0.84)	0.78 (0.69,0.87)		
	Pregnancy and early-childhood	725	0.84 (0.78,0.91)	0.87 (0.80,0.94)	2611	0.88 (0.85,0.92)	0.89 (0.85,0.93)		
Rabbit	Never	3883	-	-	13 324	-	-		
	Pregnancy only	132	1.00 (0.84,1.19)	1.07 (0.90,1.28)	364	0.79 (0.71,0.87)	0.89 (0.80,0.99)		
	Early-childhood only	69	0.72 (0.57,0.91)	0.76 (0.60,0.97)	301	0.91 (0.81,1.02)	1.01 (0.90,1.14)		
	Pregnancy and early-childhood	60	1.00 (0.78,1.30)	1.07 (0.83,1.39)	159	0.76 (0.65,0.89)	0.84 (0.71,0.98)		
Rodent	Never	3987	-	-	13655	-	-		
	Pregnancy only	51	0.91 (0.69,1.20)	0.96 (0.72,1.26)	182	0.96 (0.82,1.11)	1.07 (0.92,1.24)		
	Early-childhood only	55	0.86 (0.66,1.12)	0.91 (0.70,1.19)	172	0.76 (0.65,0.88)	0.84 (0.72,0.98)		
	Pregnancy and early-childhood	51	1.28 (0.97,1.69)	1.30 (0.98,1.73)	139	1.01 (0.85,1.19)	1.07 (0.91,1.27)		
Bird	Never	3761	-	-	12 996	-	-		
	Pregnancy only	202	1.07 (0.93,1.23)	1.12 (0.97,1.30)	564	0.84 (0.77,0.91)	0.92 (0.84,1.00)		
	Early-childhood only	70	0.90 (0.71,1.14)	0.92 (0.72,1.16)	251	0.93 (0.82,1.05)	0.98 (0.86,1.11)		
	Pregnancy and early-childhood	111	1.07 (0.88,1.29)	1.07 (0.89,1.30)	337	0.93 (0.83,1.04)	0.97 (0.87,1.08)		

Table 5 Influence of timing of exposure on associations of animal exposure with asthma and allergic rhinoconjunctivitis

HR, hazard ratio.

^aAdjusted for age (underlying timescale) and sex.

^bAdditionally adjusted for maternal asthma, maternal inhalant allergy, paternal asthma, paternal allergy, maternal education, equivalized disposable household income, maternal age at birth, number of children living in the home, household crowding, smoking during pregnancy and living in Copenhagen, plus mutually adjusted for other animal exposures.

farm-related exposures, as well as exposure to animals other than cats and dogs, which have been less studied. We based our outcome measures on linked hospital episode and/or disease-specific prescription data, which allowed complete follow-up, thereby minimizing selection bias due to non-participation. Using registry-based outcomes likely increased the specificity of our outcome measures, ³⁸ particularly for AD, which is often confused with other eczemas such as contact eczema by caregivers. Linkage with registry data also allowed us to obtain accurate measures of socioeconomic background, which, due to their sensitive nature, are prone to information bias when self-reported. We were also able to adjust for a number of other confounders using interview or linked registry data.

However, our study also has several limitations. First, our register-based AR outcome will lack sensitivity to identify milder cases of the disease that can be treated using over-the-counter medication. This may explain the small effect estimates observed for AR. Similarly, due to the lack of specificity of medication used to treat AD, we based our definition of AD solely on ICD-10 codes and will have missed milder cases of AD. Nonetheless, effect estimates for AD were similar to those obtained using caregiver-reported symptoms in sensitivity analyses. We also did not consider different disease phenotypes in our analyses, which may have different environmental associations.^{39,40} In addition, we lacked data on pet-keeping practices and allergic sensitization status, both of which may modify associations of animal exposure on asthma and allergic disease.¹⁴ Finally, since our study was only conducted in the Danish population, within a relatively homogenous study population, our results may not be generalizable to other populations.

The literature regarding the influence of early-life animal exposure on later risk of asthma and allergic disease is conflicting.^{11,12,41-44} Studies generally point towards early-life cat and dog exposure having no or a slightly protective effect on AD, asthma and AR,^{41,44-46} as did our findings, but also that the prevalence of cat or dog keeping in a community^{15,45,47} and the development of allergic sensitization¹⁴ may modify associations. Specifically, evidence suggests that lower prevalence of pet keeping or the development of pet-specific allergic sensitization increases the risks associated with pet keeping.^{14,15,45,47}

The literature regarding the effects of early-life exposure to rabbits, rodents and birds on the risk of asthma and allergic disease is sparser. A meta-analysis of European birth cohort data found no association between rodent or bird exposure and school-age asthma or AR.44 whereas a UK birth cohort study observed associations between rabbit and rodent, but not bird, ownership and increased odds of nonatopic asthma⁴³ and persistent wheeze.¹³ Other studies have observed evidence that childhood bird ownership may increase the odds of adult wheeze⁴⁷ but others that early-life poultry exposure may have a protective effect against allergic sensitization⁴⁸ and AD.⁴⁹ We did not observe evidence of a protective effect of birds against AD but did observe evidence of a positive association between early-life bird exposure and asthma. This might relate to avian antigens found in feathers, bloom, serum and droppings, which have been associated with respiratory symptoms, including hypersensitivity pneumonitis⁵⁰ and asthma.⁵¹ Associations of rabbit and rodent exposure pointed towards either no or a positive association with AD and asthma, and no or an inverse association with AR. This contrasts slightly with our findings for cat and dog exposure, possibly reflecting the lower prevalence of ownership for these pets.¹⁵ Associations of animal exposure also differed among children who developed AD compared with those who did not; a possible explanation for this could be the disrupted skin barrier and sustained Thelper 2 inflammation associated with AD increasing the risk of developing allergic sensitization to animal-associated allergens.52

The tendency we observed for animal exposure to be associated with lower rates of AD, asthma and AR among children with parental history of asthma or allergy compared with children without could be consistent with reverse causation, namely the avoidance of pets by families with pet allergies,²² or differences in the types of pets owned and petkeeping practices between these two groups. The latter of these could affect allergen and microbial exposures, particularly if pets are kept outside.53 Indeed, occupational bird exposures, which occur outside the home, were not associated with asthma, but domestic bird exposures were positively associated with asthma. Unfortunately, we did not have data on pet avoidance due to asthma or allergies or petkeeping practices to verify this. Findings from the International Study of Asthma and Allergies in Childhood, though, provide evidence against reverse causation for associations of cat exposure with wheeze.⁵⁴ We also did not

observe evidence of maternal education modifying associations. An alternative explanation for our findings is gene–environment interactions. For instance, exposure to cats or dogs in early life has been associated with reduced risk of asthma⁵⁵ and allergic sensitization⁵⁶ among children with polymorphisms in the 17q12–21 region and filaggrin gene, respectively. These polymorphisms are otherwise respectively associated with early-onset asthma and impaired skin barrier, eczema and allergic sensitization.

In conclusion, whereas overall our findings do not indicate a strong role for early-life animal exposure in the development of AD and asthma, they do point towards early-life dog exposure offering some slight protection against AD and asthma, and bird exposure increasing the risk of asthma. Source of exposure, parental history of asthma or allergy and timing of exposure may also modify risks. Our results were more consistent for AR and did not suggest an increased risk with early-life animal exposure.

Ethics approval

The DNBC is approved by the Danish Data Protection Agency and the Committee on Health Research Ethics. The DNBC participants were enrolled by informed consent. This study received approval from University of Copenhagen Faculty of Health and Medical Sciences under case number 514–0538/20–3000.

Data availability

The code used in this study is available on Github (https://github. com/angelapinotdemoira/DNBC_animals_asthma_allergy.git). Due to restrictions in Danish law, the confidential healthcare data used in this study can only be accessed through Statistics Denmark, the state organization holding the rights to the data. Danish scientific organizations can be authorized to work with data within Statistics Denmark and can provide access to individual scientists inside and outside of Denmark. Data are available via the Research Service Department at Statistics Denmark (www.dst.dk/da/TilSalg/ Forskningsservice) for researchers who meet the criteria for access to confidential data. The authors of this study had no special access privileges that others would not have.

Supplementary data

Supplementary data are available at IJE online.

Author contributions

A.P. and A.-M.N.A. conceived the study. A.P. designed the study, arranged data linkage, created the variables required for the analysis, performed the analysis and wrote the manuscript. N.P. reviewed the analysis plan, provided analytical support and reviewed the manuscript. M.P. reviewed the analysis plan and manuscript. As well as conceiving the study with A.P., A.-M.N.A. collected and maintained DNBC data, and reviewed the analysis plan and manuscript.

Funding

A.P. is funded by a Lundbeck Foundation fellowship (R264-2017– 3099). M.P. holds a grant from the Health Effects Institute (HEI), an organization jointly funded by the US Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) (Assistance Award No. CR-83590201) and certain motor vehicle and engine manufacturers. The contents of this article do not reflect the views of HEI or its sponsors, nor do they reflect the views and policies of the EPA or motor vehicle and engine manufacturers. A.-M.N.A. receives part funding from the EU's Horizon 2020 research and innovation programme (Grant Agreement No. 733206 LifeCycle and Grant Agreement No. 824989 EUCAN-Connect).

Acknowledgements

The DNBC was established with a significant grant from the Danish National Research Foundation. Additional support was obtained from the Danish Regional Committees, the Pharmacy Foundation, the Egmont Foundation, the March of Dimes Birth Defects Foundation, the Health Foundation and other minor grants. The DNBC Biobank has been supported by the Novo Nordisk Foundation and the Lundbeck Foundation. Follow-up of mothers and children has been supported by the Danish Medical Research Council (SSVF 0646, 271-08-0839/06-066023, O602-01042B, 0602-02738B), the Lundbeck Foundation (195/04, R100-A9193), the Innovation Fund Denmark 0603-00294B (09-067124), the Nordea Foundation (02-2013-2014), Aarhus Ideas (AU R9-A959-13-S804), University of Copenhagen Strategic Grant (IFSV 2012) and the Danish Council for Independent Research (DFF-4183-00594 and DFF-4183-00152). The authors would like to thank the participants, the first Principal Investigator of DNBC Prof. Jørn Olsen, the scientific managerial team and DNBC secretariat for being, establishing, developing and consolidating the Danish National Birth Cohort.

Conflict of interest

None declared.

References

- Custovic A, Custovic D, Kljaic Bukvic B, Fontanella S, Haider S. Atopic phenotypes and their implication in the atopic march. *Expert Rev Clin Immunol* 2020;16:873–81.
- Rutter CE, Silverwood RJ, Asher MI *et al.* Comparison of individual-level and population-level risk factors for rhinoconjunctivitis, asthma, and eczema in the International Study of Asthma and Allergies in Childhood (ISAAC) Phase Three. *World Allergy Organ J* 2020;13:100123.
- Asher MI, Montefort S, Bjorksten B *et al.*; ISAAC Phase Three Study Group. Worldwide time trends in the prevalence of symptoms of asthma, allergic rhinoconjunctivitis, and eczema in childhood: ISAAC Phases One and Three repeat multicountry cross-sectional surveys. *Lancet* 2006;368:733–43.
- Asher MI, Rutter CE, Bissell K *et al.*; Global Asthma Network Phase I Study Group. Worldwide trends in the burden of asthma symptoms in school-aged children: Global Asthma Network Phase I cross-sectional study. *Lancet* 2021;398:1569–80.
- 5. Strachan DP, Rutter CE, Asher MI *et al.* Worldwide time trends in prevalence of symptoms of rhinoconjunctivitis in children:

Global Asthma Network Phase I. Pediatr Allergy Immunol 2022;33:e13656.

- 6. Rook GA. 99th Dahlem conference on infection, inflammation and chronic inflammatory disorders: Darwinian medicine and the 'hygiene' or 'old friends' hypothesis. *Clin Exp Immunol* 2010;**160**:70–79.
- Azad MB, Konya T, Maughan H *et al*. Infant gut microbiota and the hygiene hypothesis of allergic disease: impact of household pets and siblings on microbiota composition and diversity. *Allergy Asthma Clin Immunol* 2013;9:15.
- Tun HM, Konya T, Takaro TK *et al.*; The CHILD Study Investigators. Exposure to household furry pets influences the gut microbiota of infant at 3-4 months following various birth scenarios. *Microbiome* 2017;5:40.
- Pfefferle PI, Buchele G, Blumer N *et al.* Cord blood cytokines are modulated by maternal farming activities and consumption of farm dairy products during pregnancy: the PASTURE Study. J Allergy Clin Immunol 2010;125:108–15.e1-3.
- Schaub B, Liu J, Hoppler S *et al.* Maternal farm exposure modulates neonatal immune mechanisms through regulatory T cells. J Allergy Clin Immunol 2009;123:774–82.e5.
- Lodge CJ, Allen KJ, Lowe AJ *et al.* Perinatal cat and dog exposure and the risk of asthma and allergy in the urban environment: a systematic review of longitudinal studies. *Clin Dev Immunol* 2012;2012:1.
- Roduit C, Wohlgensinger J, Frei R *et al.* Prenatal animal contact and gene expression of innate immunity receptors at birth are associated with atopic dermatitis. *J Allergy Clin Immunol* 2011; 127:179–85.e1.
- Collin SM, Granell R, Westgarth C et al. Associations of pet ownership with wheezing and lung function in childhood: findings from a UK birth cohort. PLoS ONE 2015;10: e0127756.
- 14. Pinot de Moira A, Strandberg-Larsen K, Bishop T *et al.* Associations of early-life pet ownership with asthma and allergic sensitization: a meta-analysis of more than 77,000 children from the EU Child Cohort Network. *J Allergy Clin Immunol* 2022; 150:82–92.
- Brunekreef B, Von Mutius E, Wong G *et al.* Exposure to cats and dogs, and symptoms of asthma, rhinoconjunctivitis, and eczema. *Epidemiology* 2012;23:742–50.
- Douwes J, Cheng S, Travier N *et al.* Farm exposure in utero may protect against asthma, hay fever and eczema. *Eur Respir J* 2008;32:603–11.
- Douwes J, Travier N, Huang K *et al.* Lifelong farm exposure may strongly reduce the risk of asthma in adults. *Allergy* 2007; 62:1158–65.
- Sozańska B, Błaszczyk M, Pearce N, Cullinan P. Atopy and allergic respiratory disease in rural Poland before and after accession to the European Union. *J Allergy Clin Immunol* 2014;133: 1347–53.
- Westgarth C, Heron J, Ness AR *et al.* Family pet ownership during childhood: findings from a UK birth cohort and implications for public health research. *IJERPH* 2010;7:3704–29.
- 20. Zahradnik E, Raulf M. Animal allergens and their presence in the environment. *Front Immunol* 2014;5:76.
- 21. Liccardi G, Salzillo A, Calzetta L, Piccolo A, Rogliani P. Assessment of pet exposure by questionnaires in epidemiological

studies (but also in clinical practice!): why the questions should be simplified? *J Asthma* 2016;**53**:879–81.

- Svanes C, Zock JP, Anto J *et al.* Do asthma and allergy influence subsequent pet keeping? An analysis of childhood and adulthood. *J Allergy Clin Immunol* 2006;118:691–98.
- Olsen J, Melbye M, Olsen SF *et al.* The Danish National Birth Cohort—its background, structure and aim. *Scand J Public Health* 2001;29:300–07.
- Andersen TF, Madsen M, Jorgensen J, Mellemkjoer L, Olsen JH. The Danish National Hospital Register: a valuable source of data for modern health sciences. *Dan Med Bull* 1999;46: 263–68.
- 25. Kildemoes HW, Sorensen HT, Hallas J. The Danish National Prescription Registry. *Scand J Public Health* 2011;**39**:38–41.
- 26. Andersen YMF, Egeberg A, Skov L, Thyssen JP. Demographics, healthcare utilization and drug use in children and adults with atopic dermatitis in Denmark: a population-based cross-sectional study. *J Eur Acad Dermatol Venereol* 2019;33:1133–42.
- Henriksen L, Simonsen J, Haerskjold A *et al.* Incidence rates of atopic dermatitis, asthma, and allergic rhinoconjunctivitis in Danish and Swedish children. *J Allergy Clin Immunol* 2015;136: 360–66.e2.
- Stensballe LG, Klanso L, Jensen A, Haerskjold A, Thomsen SF, Simonsen J. The validity of register data to identify children with atopic dermatitis, asthma or allergic rhinoconjunctivitis. *Pediatr Allergy Immunol* 2017;28:535–42.
- Benn CS, Benfeldt E, Andersen PK, Olesen AB, Melbye M, Björkstén B. Atopic dermatitis in young children: diagnostic criteria for use in epidemiological studies based on telephone interviews. *Acta Derm Venereol* 2003;83:347–50.
- Pinart M, Benet M, Annesi-Maesano I *et al.* Comorbidity of eczema, rhinitis, and asthma in IgE-sensitised and non-IgEsensitised children in MeDALL: a population-based cohort study. *Lancet Respir Med* 2014;2:131–40.
- Jensen VM, Rasmussen AW. Danish education registers. Scand J Public Health 2011;39:91–94.
- Schneider S. The International Standard Classification of Education 2011. Comparative Social Research 2013;30:365–79.
- 33. Baadsgaard M, Quitzau J. Danish registers on personal income and transfer payments. *Scand J Public Health* 2011;**39**:103–05.
- Bliddal M, Broe A, Pottegard A, Olsen J, Langhoff-Roos J. The Danish Medical Birth Register. *Eur J Epidemiol* 2018;33:27–36.
- Greenland S, Daniel R, Pearce N. Outcome modelling strategies in epidemiology: traditional methods and basic alternatives. *Int J Epidemiol* 2016;45:565–75.
- 36. Garcia-Marcos L, Asher MI, Pearce N *et al.* The burden of asthma, hay fever and eczema in children in 25 countries: GAN Phase I study. *Eur Respir J* 2022;60:2102866.
- Galobardes B, Shaw M, Lawlor DA, Lynch JW, Davey Smith G. Indicators of socioeconomic position (part 1). J Epidemiol Community Health 2006;60:7–12.
- Hansen S, Strøm M, Maslova E, Mortensen EL, Granström C, Olsen SF. A comparison of three methods to measure asthma in epidemiologic studies: results from the Danish National Birth Cohort. *PLoS One* 2012;7:e36328.
- 39. Roduit C, Frei R, Depner M *et al.*; and the PASTURE Study Group. Phenotypes of atopic dermatitis depending on the timing

of onset and progression in childhood. *JAMA Pediatr* 2017;171: 655–62.

- 40. Pavord ID, Beasley R, Agusti A *et al*. After asthma: redefining airways diseases. *Lancet* 2018;**391**:350–400.
- Pelucchi C, Galeone C, Bach JF, Vecchia CL, Chatenoud L. Pet exposure and risk of atopic dermatitis at the pediatric age: a meta-analysis of birth cohort studies. J Allergy Clin Immunol 2013;132:616–22.e7.
- 42. Chen CM, Tischer C, Schnappinger M, Heinrich J. The role of cats and dogs in asthma and allergy: a systematic review. *Int J Hyg Environ Health* 2010;213:1–31.
- 43. Collin SM, Granell R, Westgarth C *et al.* Pet ownership is associated with increased risk of non-atopic asthma and reduced risk of atopy in childhood: findings from a UK birth cohort. *Clin Exp Allergy* 2015;45:200–10.
- 44. Lodrup Carlsen KC, Roll S, Carlsen KH *et al.*; GALEN WP 1.5 'Birth Cohorts' Working Group. Does pet ownership in infancy lead to asthma or allergy at school age? Pooled analysis of individual participant data from 11 European birth cohorts. *PLoS One* 2012;7:e43214.
- 45. Takkouche B, Gonzalez-Barcala FJ, Etminan M, Fitzgerald M. Exposure to furry pets and the risk of asthma and allergic rhinitis: a meta-analysis. *Allergy* 2008;63:857–64.
- 46. Ojwang V, Nwaru BI, Takkinen HM *et al.* Early exposure to cats, dogs and farm animals and the risk of childhood asthma and allergy. *Pediatr Allergy Immunol* 2020;**31**:265–72.
- Svanes C, Heinrich J, Jarvis D *et al*. Pet-keeping in childhood and adult asthma and hay fever: European community respiratory health survey. *J Allergy Clin Immunol* 2003;112:289–300.
- von Mutius E. Environmental factors influencing the development and progression of pediatric asthma. J Allergy Clin Immunol 2002;109:S525–32.
- Steiman CA, Evans MD, Lee KE *et al.* Patterns of farm exposure are associated with reduced incidence of atopic dermatitis in early life. *J Allergy Clin Immunol* 2020;**146**:1379–86.e6.
- 50. Barnes H, Jones K, Blanc P. The hidden history of hypersensitivity pneumonitis. *Eur Respir J* 2022;**59**:2100252.
- Tauer-Reich I, Fruhmann G, Czuppon AB, Baur X. Allergens causing bird fancier's asthma. *Allergy* 1994;49:448–53.
- Paller AS, Spergel JM, Mina-Osorio P, Irvine AD. The atopic march and atopic multimorbidity: many trajectories, many pathways. J Allergy Clin Immunol 2019;143:46–55.
- Nicholas C, Wegienka G, Havstad S, Zoratti E, Ownby D, Johnson CC. Dog characteristics and allergen levels in the home. *Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol* 2010;105:228–33.
- 54. Silverwood RJ, Rutter CE, Mitchell EA et al.; The ISAAC Phase Three Study Group. Are environmental risk factors for current wheeze in the International Study of Asthma and Allergies in Childhood (ISAAC) phase three due to reverse causation? Clin Exp Allergy 2019;49:430–41.
- 55. Stokholm J, Chawes BL, Vissing N, Bonnelykke K, Bisgaard H. Cat exposure in early life decreases asthma risk from the 17q21 high-risk variant. J Allergy Clin Immunol 2018;141:1598–606.
- 56. Simpson A, Brough HA, Haider S, Belgrave D, Murray CS, Custovic A. Early-life inhalant allergen exposure, filaggrin genotype, and the development of sensitization from infancy to adolescence. J Allergy Clin Immunol 2020;145:993–1001.