

Rhinitis associated with asthma is distinct from rhinitis alone: The ARIA-MeDALL hypothesis

J. Bousquet^{1,2,3,4} | E. Melén^{5,6} | T. Haahtela⁷ | G. H. Koppelman⁸ | A. Togias⁹ | R. Valenta¹⁰ | C. A. Akdis¹¹ | W. Czarlewski^{12,13} | M. Rothenberg¹⁴ | A. Valiulis^{15,16} | M. Wickman¹⁷ | M. Akdis¹¹ | D. Aguilar¹⁸ | A. Bedbrook^{13,19} | C. Bindslev-Jensen^{20,21} | S. Bosnic-Anticevich^{22,23,24} | L. P. Boulet²⁵ | C. E. Brightling²⁶ | L. Brussino^{27,28} | E. Burte^{4,29} | M. Bustamante^{30,31,32} | G. W. Canonica^{33,34} | L. Cecchi³⁵ | J. C. Celedon³⁶ | C. Chaves Loureiro³⁷ | E. Costa³⁸ | A. A. Cruz³⁹ | M. Erhola⁴⁰ | B. Gemiciglu⁴¹ | W. J. Fokkens⁴² | J. Garcia-Aymerich^{30,31} | S. Guerra⁴³ | J. Heinrich⁴⁴ | J. C. Ivancevich⁴⁵ | T. Keil^{46,47,48} | L. Klimek^{49,50} | P. Kuna⁵¹ | M. Kupczyk⁵¹ | V. Kvedariene^{52,53} | D. E. Larenas-Linnemann⁵⁴ | N. Lemonnier⁵⁵ | K. C. Lodrup Carlsen⁵⁶ | R. Louis^{57,58} | M. Makela⁷ | M. Makris⁵⁹ | M. Maurer^{1,2} | I. Momas^{60,61} | M. Morais-Almeida⁶² | J. Mullol^{63,64} | R. N. Naclerio⁶⁵ | K. Nadeau⁶⁶ | R. Nadif^{4,29} | M. Niedozytko⁶⁷ | Y. Okamoto^{68,69} | M. Ollert^{20,21,70} | N. G. Papadopoulos⁷¹ | G. Passalacqua⁷² | V. Patella^{73,74,75} | R. Pawankar⁷⁶ | N. Pham-Thi^{77,78,79} | O. Pfaar⁸⁰ | F. S. Regateiro^{81,82,83} | J. Ring^{84,85} | P. W. Rouadi^{86,87} | B. Samolinski⁸⁸ | J. Sastre⁸⁹ | M. Sauré^{4,29,90} | N. Scichilone⁹¹ | M. H. Shamji^{92,93} | A. Sheikh⁹⁴ | V. Siroux⁹⁵ | B. Sousa-Pinto^{96,97} | M. Standl^{98,99} | J. Sunyer^{30,31,32,100} | L. Taborda-Barata^{101,102} | S. Toppila-Salmi⁷ | M. J. Torres¹⁰³ | I. Tsiligianni^{104,105} | E. Valovirta¹⁰⁶ | O. Vandenas^{107,108} | M. T. Ventura^{109,110} | S. Weiss¹¹¹ | A. Yorgancioglu¹¹² | L. Zhang¹¹³ | A. H. Abdul Latiff¹¹⁴ | W. Aberer¹¹⁵ | I. Agache¹¹⁶ | M. Al-Ahmad¹¹⁷ | I. Alobid^{118,119} | I. J. Ansotegui¹²⁰ | S. H. Arshad^{121,122} | E. Asayag¹²³

Abbreviations: A + AR, Asthma and allergic rhinitis multimorbidity; A + R + AD, Asthma, rhinitis and atopic dermatitis multimorbidity; A + R, Asthma and rhinitis multimorbidity; A, Asthma; AD, Atopic dermatitis; APC, Antigen presenting cell; AR, Allergic rhinitis; ARIA, Allergic Rhinitis and its Impact on Asthma; BAMSE, Barn/Children, Allergy/Asthma, Milieu, Stockholm; CAPS, Childhood Asthma Prevention Study; CD, Cluster Differentiation; CpG, Dinucleotide CpG; CRS w NP, CRS with nasal polyposis; CRS, Chronic rhinosinusitis; DC, Dendritic cells; DEP, Diesel exhaust particulates; Der p, *Dermatophagoides pteronyssinus*; ECRHS, European Community Respiratory Health Survey; EGEA, Epidemiological study on the Genetics and Environment of Asthma; EoE, Eosinophilic esophagitis; EVA-PR, Asthma and Epigenetic Variation in Puerto Rican Children; Foxp3, Forkhead box P3; GSDMB, Gasdermin B; GWAS, Genome Wide Association Study; HDM, House dust mite; HLA, Human leukocyte antigen; HNEC, Human nasal epithelial cell; IgE, Immunoglobulin E; IL, Interleukin; ILC2, Innate lymphoid cells type 2; IoW, Isle of Wight cohort; Lol p1, *Lolium perenne* antigen 1; MAAS, Manchester Asthma and Allergy Study; MAS, German Multicentre Allergy study; MeDALL, Mechanisms of the Development of ALLergy; MHC, Major Histocompatibility Complex; MyD88, Myeloid differentiation primary response gene 88; NF-κB, Nuclear factor-kappa B; ORMDL3, ORM1 (yeast)-like protein 3; QOL, Quality-of-life; R, Rhinitis; RSV, respiratory syncytial virus; RWD, Real-world data; *S aureus*, *Staphylococcus aureus*; SNP, Single nucleotide polymorphism; ST2, Interleukin 1 Receptor Like 1; T2, Type 2; TLR, Toll-like receptor; TRIF, Toll/IL-1R domain-containing adaptor-inducing IFN-γ; TSLP, Thymic stromal lymphopoietin; VAS, Visual analogue scale; WHEALS, Wayne County Health, Environment, Allergy and Asthma Longitudinal Study.

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C. Barbara¹²⁴ ^{id} | A. Baharudin¹²⁵ ^{id} | L. Battur¹²⁶ ^{id} | K. S. Bennoor¹²⁷ ^{id} |
 E. C. Berghea¹²⁸ ^{id} | K. C. Bergmann^{1,2} ^{id} | D. Bernstein¹²⁹ | M. Bewick¹³⁰ | H. Blain¹³¹ ^{id} |
 M. Bonini^{132,133,134} ^{id} | F. Braido^{135,136} ^{id} | R. Buhl¹³⁷ ^{id} | R. S. Bumbacea¹³⁸ ^{id} |
 A. Bush¹³⁹ ^{id} | M. Calderon¹⁴⁰ ^{id} | M. Calvo-Gil¹⁴¹ ^{id} | P. Camargos¹⁴² ^{id} |
 L. Caraballo¹⁴³ ^{id} | V. Cardona^{144,145} ^{id} | W. Carr¹⁴⁶ ^{id} | P. Carreiro-Martins^{147,148} ^{id} |
 T. Casale¹⁴⁹ ^{id} | A. M. Cepeda Sarabia^{150,151} ^{id} | R. Chandrasekharan¹⁵² ^{id} |
 D. Charpin¹⁵³ ^{id} | Y. Z. Chen¹⁵⁴ | I. Cherrez-Ojeda^{155,156} ^{id} | T. Chivato¹⁵⁷ ^{id} |
 E. Chkhartishvili¹⁵⁸ ^{id} | G. Christoff¹⁵⁹ ^{id} | D. K. Chu¹⁶⁰ ^{id} | C. Cingi¹⁶¹ ^{id} |
 J. Correia de Sousa¹⁶² ^{id} | C. Corrigan¹⁶³ ^{id} | A. Custovic¹⁶⁴ ^{id} | G. D'Amato¹⁶⁵ ^{id} |
 S. Del Giacco¹⁶⁶ ^{id} | F. De Blay^{167,168} ^{id} | P. Devillier¹⁶⁹ ^{id} | A. Didier¹⁷⁰ ^{id} |
 M. do Ceu Teixeira^{171,172} ^{id} | D. Dokic¹⁷³ ^{id} | H. Douagui¹⁷⁴ ^{id} | M. Doulaptsi¹⁷⁵ ^{id} |
 S. Durham¹⁷⁶ ^{id} | M. Dykewicz¹⁷⁷ ^{id} | T. Eiwegger¹⁷⁸ ^{id} | Z. A. El-Sayed¹⁷⁹ ^{id} |
 R. Emuzyte¹⁸⁰ ^{id} | A. Fiocchi¹⁸¹ ^{id} | N. Fyhrquist¹⁸² ^{id} | R. M. Gomez¹⁸³ ^{id} |
 M. Gotua¹⁸⁴ ^{id} | M. A. Guzman¹⁸⁵ ^{id} | J. Hagemann⁴⁹ ^{id} | S. Hamamah¹⁸⁶ ^{id} |
 S. Halken¹⁸⁷ ^{id} | D. M. G. Halpin¹⁸⁸ ^{id} | M. Hofmann^{1,189} ^{id} | E. Hossny¹⁹⁰ ^{id} |
 M. Hrubisko¹⁹¹ ^{id} | C. Irani¹⁹² ^{id} | Z. Ispayeva¹⁹³ ^{id} | E. Jares¹⁹⁴ ^{id} | T. Jartti¹⁹⁵ ^{id} |
 E. Jassem¹⁹⁶ ^{id} | K. Julge¹⁹⁷ ^{id} | J. Just¹⁹⁸ ^{id} | M. Jutel^{199,200} ^{id} | I. Kaidashev²⁰¹ ^{id} |
 O. Kalayci²⁰² ^{id} | A. F. Kalyoncu²⁰³ ^{id} | P. Kardas²⁰⁴ ^{id} | B. Kirenga²⁰⁵ ^{id} |
 H. Kraxner²⁰⁶ ^{id} | I. Kull^{5,6} ^{id} | M. Kulus²⁰⁷ ^{id} | S. La Grutta²⁰⁸ ^{id} | S. Lau²⁰⁹ ^{id} |
 L. Le Tuyet Thi²¹⁰ ^{id} | M. Levin²¹¹ ^{id} | B. Lipworth²¹² ^{id} | O. Lourenço²¹³ ^{id} |
 B. Mahboub²¹⁴ ^{id} | E. Martinez-Infante²¹⁵ | P. Matricardi²¹⁶ ^{id} | N. Miculinic²¹⁷ ^{id} |
 N. Miguères¹⁶⁷ ^{id} | F. Mihaltan²¹⁸ ^{id} | Y. Mohammad^{219,220} ^{id} | M. Moniuszko²²¹ ^{id} |
 S. Montefort²²² ^{id} | H. Neffen²²³ ^{id} | K. Nekam²²⁴ ^{id} | E. Nunes²²⁵ ^{id} |
 D. Nyembue Tshipukane²²⁶ ^{id} | R. O'Hehir²²⁷ ^{id} | I. Ogulur¹¹ ^{id} | K. Ohta²²⁸ ^{id} |
 K. Okubo²²⁹ ^{id} | S. Ouedraogo²³⁰ ^{id} | H. Olze^{231,232} ^{id} | I. Pali-Schöll²³³ ^{id} |
 O. Palomares²³⁴ ^{id} | K. Palosuo²³⁵ ^{id} | C. Panaitescu²³⁶ ^{id} | P. Panzner²³⁷ ^{id} |
 H. S. Park²³⁸ ^{id} | C. Pitsios²³⁹ ^{id} | D. Plavec^{240,241} ^{id} | T. A. Popov²⁴² ^{id} |
 F. Puggioni²⁴³ ^{id} | S. Quirce²⁴⁴ ^{id} | M. Recto²⁴⁵ ^{id} | M. S. Repka-Ramirez²⁴⁶ ^{id} |
 C. Robalo Cordeiro²⁴⁷ ^{id} | N. Roche^{248,249} ^{id} | M. Rodriguez-Gonzalez²⁵⁰ ^{id} |
 J. Romantowski⁶⁷ ^{id} | N. Rosario Filho²⁵¹ ^{id} | M. Rottem²⁵² ^{id} | H. Sagara²⁵³ ^{id} |
 F. S. Serpa²⁵⁴ ^{id} | Z. Sayah²⁵⁵ ^{id} | S. Scheire²⁵⁶ ^{id} | P. Schmid-Grendelmeier²⁵⁷ ^{id} |
 J. C. Sisul²⁵⁸ ^{id} | D. Sole²⁵⁹ ^{id} | M. Soto-Martinez²⁶⁰ ^{id} | M. Sova²⁶¹ ^{id} | A. Sperl⁵⁰ ^{id} |
 O. Spranger²⁶² ^{id} | R. Stelmach²⁶³ ^{id} | C. Suppli Ulrik^{264,265} ^{id} | M. Thomas²⁶⁶ ^{id} |
 T. To²⁶⁷ ^{id} | A. Todo-Bom²⁶⁸ ^{id} | P. V. Tomazic²⁶⁹ ^{id} | M. Urrutia-Pereira²⁷⁰ ^{id} |
 M. Valentin-Rostan²⁷¹ ^{id} | E. Van Ganse²⁷² ^{id} | M. van Hage^{273,274} ^{id} |
 T. Vasankari^{275,276} ^{id} | P. Vichyanond²⁷⁷ ^{id} | G. Viegi²⁷⁸ ^{id} | D. Wallace²⁷⁹ ^{id} |
 D. Y. Wang²⁸⁰ ^{id} | S. Williams²⁸¹ ^{id} | M. Worm²⁸² ^{id} | P. Yiallourous²⁸³ ^{id} | O. Yusuf²⁸⁴ ^{id} |
 F. Zaitoun²⁸⁵ ^{id} | M. Zernotti²⁸⁶ ^{id} | M. Zidarn^{287,288} ^{id} | J. Zuberbier^{231,232} ^{id} |
 J. A. Fonseca^{96,97} ^{id} | T. Zuberbier^{1,2} ^{id} | J. M. Anto^{30,31,32} ^{id}

- ¹Institute of Allergology, Charité – Universitätsmedizin Berlin, Corporate Member of Freie Universität Berlin and Humboldt-Universität zu Berlin, Berlin, Germany
- ²Allergology and Immunology, Fraunhofer Institute for Translational Medicine and Pharmacology ITMP, Berlin, Germany
- ³University Hospital Montpellier, Montpellier, France
- ⁴Inserm, Equipe d'Epidémiologie Respiratoire Intégrative, CESP, Villejuif, France
- ⁵Department of Clinical Science and Education, Södersjukhuset, Karolinska Institutet, Stockholm, Sweden
- ⁶Sach's Children and Youth Hospital, Södersjukhuset, Stockholm, Sweden
- ⁷Skin and Allergy Hospital, Helsinki University Hospital, and University of Helsinki, Helsinki, Finland
- ⁸Department of Pediatric Pulmonology and Pediatric Allergology, GRIAC Research Institute, University Medical Center Groningen, Beatrix Children's Hospital, University of Groningen, Groningen, the Netherlands
- ⁹Division of Allergy, Immunology, and Transplantation (DAIT), National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases, NIH, Bethesda, Maryland, USA
- ¹⁰Division of Immunopathology, Department of Pathophysiology and Allergy Research, Center for Pathophysiology, Infectiology and Immunology, Medical University of Vienna, Vienna, Austria
- ¹¹Swiss Institute of Allergy and Asthma Research (SIAF), University of Zurich, Davos, Switzerland
- ¹²Medical Consulting Czarlewski, Levallois, France
- ¹³MASK-air, Montpellier, France
- ¹⁴Division of Allergy and Immunology, Department of Pediatrics, Cincinnati Children's Hospital Medical Center, Cincinnati, Ohio, USA
- ¹⁵Institute of Clinical Medicine and Institute of Health Sciences, Vilnius, Lithuania
- ¹⁶Medical Faculty of Vilnius University, Vilnius, Lithuania
- ¹⁷Institute of Environmental medicine, Karolinska Institutet, Stockholm, Sweden
- ¹⁸AM Data Mining, Barcelona, Spain
- ¹⁹ARIA, Montpellier, France
- ²⁰Department of Dermatology and Allergy Centre, Odense University Hospital, Odense, Denmark
- ²¹Odense Research Center for Anaphylaxis « ORCA », Odense, Denmark
- ²²Quality Use of Respiratory Medicines Group, Woolcock Institute of Medical Research, Sydney, NSW, Australia
- ²³Sydney Local Health District, Sydney, NSW, Australia
- ²⁴Sydney Pharmacy School, The University of Sydney, Sydney, NSW, Australia
- ²⁵Quebec Heart and Lung Institute, Laval University, Quebec City, Quebec, Canada
- ²⁶Institute of Lung Health, NIHR Biomedical Research Centre, Department of Respiratory and Infection Sciences, University of Leicester, Leicester, UK
- ²⁷Department of Medical Sciences, University of Torino, Torino, Italy
- ²⁸Allergy and Clinical Immunology Unit, Mauriziano Hospital, Torino, Italy
- ²⁹Université Paris-Saclay, UVSQ, UnivParis-Sud, Villejuif, France
- ³⁰Universitat Pompeu Fabra (UPF), Barcelona, Spain
- ³¹ISGlobal, Barcelona Institute for Global Health, Barcelona, Spain
- ³²CIBER Epidemiología y Salud Pública (CIBERESP), Barcelona, Spain
- ³³Department of Biomedical Sciences, Humanitas University, Pieve Emanuele, Milan, Italy
- ³⁴Personalized medicine, Asthma and Allergy, IRCCS Humanitas Research Hospital, Rozzano, Milan, Italy
- ³⁵SOS Allergology and Clinical Immunology, USL Toscana Centro, Prato, Italy
- ³⁶Division of Pediatric Pulmonary Medicine, UPMC Children's Hospital of Pittsburgh, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, USA
- ³⁷Pneumology Unit, Hospitais da Universidade de Coimbra, Centro Hospitalar e Universitário de Coimbra, Coimbra, Portugal
- ³⁸UCIBIO, REQUINTE, Faculty of Pharmacy and Competence Center on Active and Healthy Ageing of University of Porto (Porto4Ageing), Porto, Portugal
- ³⁹Fundação ProAR, Federal University of Bahia and GARD/WHO Planning Group, Salvador, Bahia, Brazil
- ⁴⁰Pirkanmaa Welfare district, Tampere, Finland
- ⁴¹Department of Pulmonary Diseases, Cerrahpaşa Faculty of Medicine, Istanbul University-Cerrahpaşa, Istanbul, Turkey
- ⁴²Department of Otorhinolaryngology, Amsterdam University Medical Centres, Amsterdam, the Netherlands
- ⁴³Asthma and Airway Disease Research Center, University of Arizona, Tucson, Arizona, USA
- ⁴⁴Ludwig Maximilians University Munich, University Hospital Munich - Institute and Outpatient Clinic for Occupational, Social and Environmental Medicine, Munich, Germany
- ⁴⁵Servicio de Alergia e Inmunología, Clínica Santa Isabel, Buenos Aires, Argentina
- ⁴⁶Institute of Social Medicine, Epidemiology and Health Economics, Charité – Universitätsmedizin Berlin, Berlin, Germany
- ⁴⁷Institute for Clinical Epidemiology and Biometry, University of Wuerzburg, Wuerzburg, Germany
- ⁴⁸State Institute of Health, Bavarian Health and Food Safety Authority, Erlangen, Germany
- ⁴⁹Department of Otolaryngology, Head and Neck Surgery, Universitätsmedizin Mainz, Mainz, Germany
- ⁵⁰Center for Rhinology and Allergology, Wiesbaden, Germany

- ⁵¹Division of Internal Medicine, Asthma and Allergy, Barlicki University Hospital, Medical University of Lodz, Lodz, Poland
- ⁵²Institute of Clinical Medicine, Clinic of Chest Diseases and Allergology, Faculty of Medicine, Vilnius University, Vilnius, Lithuania
- ⁵³Institute of Biomedical Sciences, Department of Pathology, Faculty of Medicine, Vilnius University, Vilnius, Lithuania
- ⁵⁴Center of Excellence in Asthma and Allergy, Médica Sur Clinical Foundation and Hospital, México City, Mexico
- ⁵⁵Institute for Advanced Biosciences, UGA - INSERM U1209 - CNRS UMR5309, Site Santé, La Tronche, France
- ⁵⁶Department of Paediatrics, Oslo University Hospital, Oslo, Norway
- ⁵⁷Department of Pulmonary Medicine, CHU Liège, Liège, Belgium
- ⁵⁸GIGA I3 Research Group, University of Liège, Liège, Belgium
- ⁵⁹Allergy Unit "D Kalogeromitros", 2nd Department of Dermatology and Venereology, National & Kapodistrian University of Athens, "Attikon" University Hospital, Athens, Greece
- ⁶⁰Department of Public Health and Health Products, Paris Descartes University-Sorbonne Paris Cité, EA 4064, Paris, France
- ⁶¹Paris Municipal Department of Social Action, Childhood, and Health, Paris, France
- ⁶²Allergy Center, CUF Descobertas Hospital, Lisbon, Portugal
- ⁶³ENT Department, Rhinology Unit & Smell Clinic, Hospital Clínic, Barcelona, Spain
- ⁶⁴Clinical & Experimental Respiratory Immunoallergy, IDIBAPS, CIBERES, University of Barcelona, Barcelona, Spain
- ⁶⁵Department of Otolaryngology - Head and Neck Surgery, Johns Hopkins School of Medicine, Baltimore, Maryland, USA
- ⁶⁶Sean N. Parker Center for Allergy and Asthma Research, Stanford University School of Medicine, Stanford, California, USA
- ⁶⁷Department of Allergology, Medical University of Gdańsk, Gdansk, Poland
- ⁶⁸Chiba Rosai Hospital, Chiba, Japan
- ⁶⁹Chiba University Hospital, Chiba, Japan
- ⁷⁰Department of Infection and Immunity, Luxembourg Institute of Health, Esch-sur-Alzette, Luxembourg
- ⁷¹Allergy Department, 2nd Pediatric Clinic, University of Athens, Athens, Greece
- ⁷²Allergy and Respiratory Diseases, IRCCS Policlinico San Martino - University of Genoa, Genoa, Italy
- ⁷³Division of Allergy and Clinical Immunology, Department of Medicine, "Santa Maria della Speranza" Hospital, Battipaglia, Salerno, Italy
- ⁷⁴Agency of Health ASL, Salerno, Italy
- ⁷⁵Postgraduate Programme in Allergy and Clinical Immunology, University of Naples Federico II, Naples, Italy
- ⁷⁶Department of Pediatrics, Nippon Medical School, Tokyo, Japan
- ⁷⁷Ecole Polytechnique de Palaiseau, Palaiseau, France
- ⁷⁸IRBA (Institut de Recherche Bio-Médicale des Armées), Brétigny sur Orge, France
- ⁷⁹Université Paris Cité, Paris, France
- ⁸⁰Section of Rhinology and Allergy, Department of Otorhinolaryngology, Head and Neck Surgery, University Hospital Marburg, Philipps-Universität Marburg, Marburg, Germany
- ⁸¹Allergy and Clinical Immunology Unit, Centro Hospitalar e Universitário de Coimbra, Coimbra, Portugal
- ⁸²Coimbra Institute for Clinical and Biomedical Research (ICBR), Faculty of Medicine, University of Coimbra, Coimbra, Portugal
- ⁸³Institute of Immunology, Faculty of Medicine, University of Coimbra, Coimbra, Portugal
- ⁸⁴Department of Dermatology and Allergy Biederstein, School of Medicine, Technical University of Munich, Munich, Germany
- ⁸⁵Christine Kühne Center for Allergy Research and Education (CK-Care), Davos, Switzerland
- ⁸⁶Department of Otolaryngology-Head and Neck Surgery, Eye and Ear University Hospital, Beirut, Lebanon
- ⁸⁷Department of Otorhinolaryngology-Head and Neck Surgery, Dar Al Shifa Hospital, Salmiya, Kuwait
- ⁸⁸Department of Prevention of Environmental Hazards, Allergology and Immunology, Medical University of Warsaw, Warsaw, Poland
- ⁸⁹Allergy Service, Fundacion Jimenez Diaz, Autonoma University of Madrid, CIBERES-ISCIII, Madrid, Spain
- ⁹⁰French Environment and Energy Management Agency, Angers, France
- ⁹¹PROMISE Department, University of Palermo, Palermo, Italy
- ⁹²National Heart and Lung Institute, Imperial College, London, UK
- ⁹³NIHR Imperial Biomedical Research Centre, London, UK
- ⁹⁴Usher Institute, The University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, UK
- ⁹⁵INSERM, Université Grenoble Alpes, IAB, U 1209, Team of Environmental Epidemiology applied to Reproduction and Respiratory Health, Université Joseph Fourier, Grenoble, France
- ⁹⁶MEDCIDS - Department of Community Medicine, Information and Health Decision Sciences; Faculty of Medicine, University of Porto, Porto, Portugal
- ⁹⁷CINTESIS@RISE- Health Research Network, Faculty of Medicine, University of Porto, Porto, Portugal
- ⁹⁸Institute of Epidemiology, Helmholtz Zentrum München - German Research Center for Environmental Health, Neuherberg, Germany
- ⁹⁹German Center of Lung Research (DZL), Munich, Germany
- ¹⁰⁰IMIM (Hospital del Mar Medical Research Institute), Barcelona, Spain
- ¹⁰¹Department of Immunoallergology, Cova da Beira University Hospital Centre, Covilhã, Portugal

- ¹⁰²UBIAir - Clinical & Experimental Lung Centre and CICS-UBI Health Sciences Research Centre, University of Beira Interior, Covilhã, Portugal
- ¹⁰³Allergy Unit, Málaga Regional University Hospital of Málaga, Malaga University, ARADyAL, Malaga, Spain
- ¹⁰⁴International Primary Care Respiratory Group IPCRG, Aberdeen, Scotland
- ¹⁰⁵Health Planning Unit, Department of Social Medicine, Faculty of Medicine, University of Crete, Heraklion, Greece
- ¹⁰⁶Department of Lung Diseases and Clinical Allergology, University of Turku, Turku, Finland
- ¹⁰⁷Department of Chest Medicine, Centre Hospitalier Universitaire UCL, Namur, Belgium
- ¹⁰⁸Université Catholique de Louvain, Yvoir, Belgium
- ¹⁰⁹Unit of Geriatric Immunoallergology, University of Bari Medical School, Bari, Italy
- ¹¹⁰Institute of Sciences of Food Production, National Research Council (ISPA-CNR), Bari, Italy
- ¹¹¹Harvard Medical School and Channing Division of Network Medicine, Boston, USA
- ¹¹²Department of Pulmonary Diseases, Celal Bayar University, Faculty of Medicine, Manisa, Turkey
- ¹¹³Department of Otolaryngology Head and Neck Surgery, Beijing TongRen Hospital and Beijing Institute of Otolaryngology, Beijing, China
- ¹¹⁴Allergy & Immunology Centre, Pantai Hospital Kuala Lumpur, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia
- ¹¹⁵Department of Dermatology, Medical University of Graz, Graz, Austria
- ¹¹⁶Faculty of Medicine, Transylvania University of Brasov, Brasov, Romania
- ¹¹⁷Microbiology Department, College of Medicine, Kuwait University, Kuwait City, Kuwait
- ¹¹⁸Institut d'Investigacions Biomèdiques August Pi i Sunyer (IDIBAPS), Barcelona, Spain
- ¹¹⁹Centro Médico Teknon, Barcelona, Spain
- ¹²⁰Department of Allergy and Immunology, Hospital Quironsalud Bizkaia, Bilbao, Spain
- ¹²¹Clinical and Experimental Sciences, Faculty of Medicine, University of Southampton, Southampton, UK
- ¹²²David Hide Asthma and Allergy Research Centre, Isle of Wight, UK
- ¹²³Argentine Society of Allergy and Immunopathology, Buenos Aires, Argentina
- ¹²⁴Portuguese National Programme for Respiratory Diseases, Direção -Geral da Saúde, Faculdade de Medicina de Lisboa, Instituto de Saúde Ambiental, Lisbon, Portugal
- ¹²⁵Department of Otorhinolaryngology, Head and Neck, School of Medical Sciences, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Kelantan, Malaysia
- ¹²⁶Mongolian Association of Hospital Managers, Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia
- ¹²⁷Department of Respiratory Medicine, National Institute of Diseases of the Chest and Hospital, Dhaka, Bangladesh
- ¹²⁸Department of Pediatrics, Carol Davila University of Medicine and Pharmacy, Bucharest, Romania
- ¹²⁹Division of Immunology, Allergy and Rheumatology, Department of Medicine, University of Cincinnati College of Medicine, Cincinnati, Ohio, USA
- ¹³⁰University of Central Lancashire Medical School, Preston, UK
- ¹³¹Department of Geriatrics, Montpellier University Hospital, MUSE, Montpellier, France
- ¹³²Department of Cardiovascular and Respiratory Sciences, Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore, Rome, Italy
- ¹³³Department of Neurological, ENT and Thoracic Sciences, Fondazione Policlinico Universitario A Gemelli - IRCCS, Rome, Italy
- ¹³⁴National Heart and Lung Institute (NHLI), Imperial College London, London, UK
- ¹³⁵Respiratory Clinic, Department of Internal Medicine, University of Genoa, Genoa, Italy
- ¹³⁶IRCCS Ospedale Policlinico San Martino, Genoa, Italy
- ¹³⁷Department of Pulmonary Medicine, Mainz University Hospital, Mainz, Germany
- ¹³⁸Department of Allergy, "Carol Davila" University of Medicine and Pharmacy Bucharest, Bucharest, Romania
- ¹³⁹Imperial College and Royal Brompton Hospital, London, UK
- ¹⁴⁰Imperial College and National Heart and Lung Institute, London, UK
- ¹⁴¹Pediatrics Department, Universidad Austral de Chile, Valdivia, Chile
- ¹⁴²Department of Pediatrics, Medical School, Federal University of Minas Gerais, Belo Horizonte, Brazil
- ¹⁴³Institute for Immunological Research, University of Cartagena, Campus de Zaragocilla, Edificio Biblioteca Primer piso, Cartagena, Colombia
- ¹⁴⁴Allergy Section, Department of Internal Medicine, Hospital Vall d'Hebron, Barcelona, Spain
- ¹⁴⁵ARADyAL Research Network, Barcelona, Spain
- ¹⁴⁶Allergy & Asthma Associates of Southern California, A Medical Group, Southern California Research, Mission Viejo, California, USA
- ¹⁴⁷NOVA Medical School/Comprehensive Health Research Centre (CHRC), Lisbon, Portugal
- ¹⁴⁸Serviço de Imunoalergologia, Hospital de Dona Estefânia, Centro Hospitalar Universitário de Lisboa Central, Lisbon, Portugal
- ¹⁴⁹Division of Allergy/Immunology, University of South Florida, Tampa, Florida, USA
- ¹⁵⁰Allergy and Immunology Laboratory, Metropolitan University, Simon Bolivar University, Barranquilla, Colombia
- ¹⁵¹SLaai, Sociedad Latinoamericana de Alergia, Asma e Immunologia, Barranquilla, Columbia
- ¹⁵²Department of ENT, Badr al Samaa Hospital, Salalah, Sultanate of Oman
- ¹⁵³Clinique des Bronches, Allergie et Sommeil, Hôpital Nord, Marseille, France

- ¹⁵⁴The Capital Institute of Pediatrics, Chaoyang district, Beijing, China
- ¹⁵⁵Universidad Espíritu Santo, Samborondón, Ecuador
- ¹⁵⁶Respiralab Research Group, Guayaquil, Guayas, Ecuador
- ¹⁵⁷School of Medicine, University CEU San Pablo, Madrid, Spain
- ¹⁵⁸David Tatishvili Medical Center; David Tvildiani Medical University-AIETI Medical School, Tbilisi, Georgia
- ¹⁵⁹Faculty of Public Health, Medical University – Sofia, Sofia, Bulgaria
- ¹⁶⁰Department of Health Research Methods, Evidence, and Impact & Department of Medicine, McMaster University, Hamilton, Ontario, Canada
- ¹⁶¹Medical Faculty, ENT Department, Eskisehir Osmangazi University, Eskisehir, Turkey
- ¹⁶²School of Medicine, Life and Health Sciences Research Institute (ICVS), University of Minho, Braga, Portugal
- ¹⁶³Division of Asthma, Allergy & Lung Biology, MRC & Asthma UK Centre in Allergic Mechanisms of Asthma, King's College London, London, UK
- ¹⁶⁴National Heart and Lung Institute, Imperial College London, London, UK
- ¹⁶⁵Division of Respiratory and Allergic Diseases, Hospital 'A Cardarelli', University of Naples Federico II, Naples, Italy
- ¹⁶⁶Department of Medical Sciences and Public Health and Unit of Allergy and Clinical Immunology, University Hospital "Duilio Casula", University of Cagliari, Cagliari, Italy
- ¹⁶⁷Allergy Division, Chest Disease Department, University Hospital of Strasbourg, Strasbourg, France
- ¹⁶⁸Federation of Translational Medicine, University of Strasbourg, Strasbourg, France
- ¹⁶⁹VIM Suresnes, UMR 0892, Pôle des Maladies des Voies Respiratoires, Hôpital Foch, Université Paris-Saclay, Suresnes, France
- ¹⁷⁰Department of Respiratory Diseases, Larrey Hospital, Toulouse University Hospital, Toulouse, France
- ¹⁷¹Dr Agostinho Neto University hospital, Praia, Cape Verde
- ¹⁷²Immunology, Faculty of Medicine, Cabo Verde University, Praia, Cape Verde
- ¹⁷³Medical Faculty Skopje, University Clinic of Pulmonology and Allergy, Skopje, Republic of Macedonia
- ¹⁷⁴Service de Pneumo-Allergologie, Centre Hospitalo-Universitaire de Béni-Messous, Algiers, Algeria
- ¹⁷⁵Department of Otorhinolaryngology Head and Neck Surgery, University Hospital of Crete, Heraklion, Crete, Greece
- ¹⁷⁶Allergy and Clinical Immunology, National Heart and Lung Institute, Imperial College London, London, UK
- ¹⁷⁷Section of Allergy and Immunology, Saint Louis University School of Medicine, Saint Louis, Missouri, USA
- ¹⁷⁸The Hospital for Sick Children, Department of Paediatrics, Division of Clinical Immunology and Allergy, Food allergy and Anaphylaxis Program, The University of Toronto, Toronto, Ontario, Canada
- ¹⁷⁹Pediatric Allergy, Immunology and Rheumatology Unit, Children's Hospital, Ain Shams University, Cairo, Egypt
- ¹⁸⁰Clinic of Children's Diseases, Institute of Clinical Medicine, Faculty of Medicine, Vilnius University, Vilnius, Lithuania
- ¹⁸¹Allergy, Bambino Gesù Children's Hospital, Istituto di Ricovero e Cura a Carattere Scientifico, Rome, Italy
- ¹⁸²Institute of Environmental Medicine, Karolinska Institutet, Stockholm, Sweden
- ¹⁸³School of Health Sciences, Catholic University of Salta, Salta, Argentina
- ¹⁸⁴Center of Allergy and Immunology, David Tvildiani Medical University, Tbilisi, Georgia
- ¹⁸⁵Immunology and Allergy Division, Clinical Hospital, University of Chile, Santiago, Chile
- ¹⁸⁶Biology of Reproduction department, INSERM 1203, University hospital, Montpellier, France
- ¹⁸⁷Hans Christian Andersen Children's Hospital, Odense University Hospital, Odense, Denmark
- ¹⁸⁸University of Exeter Medical School, College of Medicine and Health, University of Exeter, Exeter, Devon, UK
- ¹⁸⁹Berlin Institute of Health, Berlin, Germany
- ¹⁹⁰Pediatric Allergy, Immunology and Rheumatology Unit, Children's Hospital, Ain Shams University, Cairo, Egypt
- ¹⁹¹Department of Clinical Immunology and Allergy, Oncology Institute of St Elisabeth, Bratislava, Slovakia
- ¹⁹²Department of Internal Medicine and Infectious Diseases, St Joseph University, Hotel Dieu de France Hospital, Beirut, Lebanon
- ¹⁹³Kazakhstan Association of Allergology and Clinical Immunology, Department of Allergology and Clinical Immunology of the Kazakh National Medical University, Almaty, Kazakhstan
- ¹⁹⁴Servicio de Alergia, Consultorios Médicos Privados, Buenos Aires, Argentina
- ¹⁹⁵EDEGO Research Unit, University of Oulu, Oulu, Finland
- ¹⁹⁶Department of Pneumology, Medical University of Gdańsk, Gdansk, Poland
- ¹⁹⁷Tartu University Institute of Clinical Medicine, Children's Clinic, Tartu, Estonia
- ¹⁹⁸Sorbonne université, Hôpital américain de Paris, Neuilly, France
- ¹⁹⁹Department of Clinical Immunology, Wrocław Medical University, Wrocław, Poland
- ²⁰⁰ALL-MED Medical Research Institute, Wrocław, Poland
- ²⁰¹Poltava State Medical University, Poltava, Ukraine
- ²⁰²Pediatric Allergy and Asthma Unit, Hacettepe University School of Medicine, Ankara, Turkey
- ²⁰³School of Medicine, Department of Chest Diseases, Immunology and Allergy Division, Hacettepe University, Ankara, Turkey
- ²⁰⁴Department of Family Medicine, Medical University of Lodz, Lodz, Poland

- ²⁰⁵Makerere University Lung Institute, Kampala, Uganda
- ²⁰⁶Department of Otorhinolaryngology, Head and Neck Surgery, Semmelweis University, Budapest, Hungary
- ²⁰⁷Department of Pediatric Respiratory Diseases and Allergology, Medical University of Warsaw, Warsaw, Poland
- ²⁰⁸Institute of Translational Pharmacology, National Research Council, Palermo, Italy
- ²⁰⁹Department of Paediatric Respiratory Medicine, Immunology and Critical Care Medicine, Charité Universitätsmedizin, Berlin, Germany
- ²¹⁰University of Medicine and Pharmacy, Hochiminh City, Vietnam
- ²¹¹Division Paediatric Allergology, University of Cape Town, Cape Town, South Africa
- ²¹²Scottish Centre for Respiratory Research, Cardiovascular & Diabetes Medicine, Medical Research Institute, Ninewells Hospital, University of Dundee, Dundee, UK
- ²¹³Faculty of Health Sciences and CICS – UBI, Health Sciences Research Centre, University of Beira Interior, Covilhã, Portugal
- ²¹⁴Department of Pulmonary Medicine, Rashid Hospital, Dubai, UAE
- ²¹⁵Hospital San Luca, Oaxaca, Mexico
- ²¹⁶Pediatric Pulmonology, Immunology and Intensive Care Medicine, Charité Universitätsmedizin Berlin, Berlin, Germany
- ²¹⁷Croatian Pulmonary Society, Zagreb, Croatia
- ²¹⁸National Institute of Pneumology M Nasta, Bucharest, Romania
- ²¹⁹National Center for Research in Chronic Respiratory Diseases, Tishreen University School of Medicine, Latakia, Syria
- ²²⁰Syrian Private University, Damascus, Syria
- ²²¹Department of Regenerative Medicine and Immune Regulation, Medical University of Bialystok, Bialystok, Poland
- ²²²Department of Medicine, Faculty of Medicine and Surgery, University of Malta, Msida, Malta
- ²²³Center of Allergy, Immunology and Respiratory Diseases, Santa Fe, Argentina
- ²²⁴Hungarian Allergy Association, Budapest, Hungary
- ²²⁵Faculty of Medicine, Eduardo Mondlane University, Maputo, Mozambique
- ²²⁶ENT Department, University Hospital of Kinshasa, Kinshasa, Congo
- ²²⁷Allergy, Asthma and Clinical Immunology, Alfred Health and Department of Immunology, Central Clinical School, Monash University, Melbourne, Victoria, Australia
- ²²⁸Japan Anti-Tuberculosis Association (JATA), Fukujuji Hospital, Tokyo, Japan
- ²²⁹Department of Otolaryngology, Nippon Medical School, Tokyo, Japan
- ²³⁰Centre Hospitalier Universitaire Pédiatrique Charles de Gaulle, Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso
- ²³¹Department of Otorhinolaryngology, Charité-Universitätsmedizin Berlin, Berlin, Germany
- ²³²Berlin Institute of Health, Berlin, Germany
- ²³³Department of Comparative Medicine, Messerli Research Institute of the University of Veterinary Medicine, Medical University, and University of Vienna, Vienna, Austria
- ²³⁴Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, School of Chemistry, Complutense University of Madrid, Madrid, Spain
- ²³⁵Department of Dermatology, University of Helsinki and Hospital for Skin and Allergic Diseases, Helsinki, Finland
- ²³⁶OncoGen Center, County Clinical Emergency Hospital "Pius Branzu," and University of Medicine and Pharmacy V Babes, Timisoara, Romania
- ²³⁷Department of Immunology and Allergology, Faculty of Medicine and Faculty Hospital in Pilsen, Charles University in Prague, Pilsen, Czech Republic
- ²³⁸Department of Allergy and Clinical Immunology, Ajou University School of Medicine, Suwon, South Korea
- ²³⁹Medical School, University of Cyprus, Nicosia, Cyprus
- ²⁴⁰Srebrnjak Children's Hospital, Zagreb, Croatia
- ²⁴¹Medical Faculty, University JJ Strossmayer of Osijek, Osijek, Croatia
- ²⁴²Clinic of Occupational Diseases, University Hospital Sveti Ivan Rilski, Sofia, Bulgaria
- ²⁴³Personalized medicine Asthma & Allergy, Rozzano, IRCCS Humanitas Research Center, Milan, Italy
- ²⁴⁴Department of Allergy, Hospital La Paz Institute for Health Research (IdiPAZ), Madrid, Spain
- ²⁴⁵Division of Adult and Pediatric Allergy and Immunology, University of the Philippines- Philippines General Hospital, Manila, Philippines
- ²⁴⁶Division of Allergy, Asthma and Immunology, Clinics Hospital, San Lorenzo, Paraguay
- ²⁴⁷Pneumology Unit, Hospitais da Universidade de Coimbra, Centro Hospitalar e Universitário de Coimbra, Coimbra, Portugal
- ²⁴⁸Pneumologie, AP-HP Centre, Université de Paris Cité, Hôpital Cochin, Paris, France
- ²⁴⁹UMR 1016, Institut Cochin, Paris, France
- ²⁵⁰Pediatric Allergy and Clinical Immunology, Hospital Espanol de Mexico, Mexico City, Mexico
- ²⁵¹Department of Pediatrics, Federal University of Parana, Curitiba, Brazil
- ²⁵²Division of Allergy, Asthma and Clinical Immunology, Emek Medical Center, Afula, Israel
- ²⁵³Department of Medicine, Division of Respiratory Medicine and Allergology, Showa University School of Medicine, Tokyo, Japan
- ²⁵⁴Asthma Reference Center - School of Medicine of Santa Casa de Misericórdia of Vitória, Espírito Santo, Brazil
- ²⁵⁵SMAIC Société Marocaine d' Allergologie et Immunologie Clinique, Rabat, Morocco

- ²⁵⁶Pharmaceutical Care Unit, Faculty of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Ghent University, Ghent, Belgium
- ²⁵⁷Allergy Unit, Department of Dermatology, University Hospital of Zurich, Zürich, Switzerland
- ²⁵⁸Allergy & Asthma, Clínica SISUL, FACAAL, SPAAL, Asuncion, Paraguay
- ²⁵⁹Division of Allergy, Clinical Immunology and Rheumatology, Department of Pediatrics, Federal University of São Paulo, São Paulo, Brazil
- ²⁶⁰Division of Respiratory Medicine, Department of Pediatrics, Hospital Nacional de Niños, Universidad de Costa Rica, San Jose, Costa Rica
- ²⁶¹Department of Respiratory Medicine and Tuberculosis, University Hospital, Brno, Czech Republic
- ²⁶²Global Allergy and Airways Patient Platform GAAPP, Vienna, Austria
- ²⁶³Pulmonary Division, Heart Institute (InCor), Hospital da Clinicas da Faculdade de Medicina da Universidade de Sao Paulo, Sao Paulo, Brazil
- ²⁶⁴Department of Respiratory Medicine, Copenhagen University Hospital-Hvidovre, Copenhagen, Denmark
- ²⁶⁵Institute of Clinical Medicine, University of Copenhagen, Copenhagen, Denmark
- ²⁶⁶University of Southampton, Southampton, UK
- ²⁶⁷The Hospital for Sick Children, Dalla Lana School of Public Health, University of Toronto, Toronto, Canada
- ²⁶⁸Imunoalergologia, Centro Hospitalar Universitário de Coimbra, Faculty of Medicine, University of Coimbra, Coimbra, Portugal
- ²⁶⁹Department of General ORL, H&NS, Medical University of Graz, ENT-University Hospital Graz, Graz, Austria
- ²⁷⁰Universidade Federal dos Pampa, Uruguiana, Brazil
- ²⁷¹Allergist, Montevideo, Uruguay
- ²⁷²Research on Healthcare Performance (RESHAPE), INSERM U1290, Université Claude Bernard Lyon1, Lyon, France
- ²⁷³Division of Immunology and Allergy, Department of Medicine Solna, Karolinska Institute, Stockholm, Sweden
- ²⁷⁴Department of Clinical Immunology and Transfusion Medicine, Karolinska University Hospital, Stockholm, Sweden
- ²⁷⁵FILHA, Finnish Lung Health Association, Helsinki, Finland
- ²⁷⁶Department of Clinical Medicine, Pulmonary Diseases and Clinical Allergology, University of Turku, Turku, Finland
- ²⁷⁷Division of Allergy and Immunology, Department of Pediatrics, Siriraj Hospital, Mahidol University Faculty of Medicine, Bangkok, Thailand
- ²⁷⁸Pulmonary Environmental Epidemiology Unit, CNR Institute of Clinical Physiology, Pisa, Italy
- ²⁷⁹College of Allopathic Medicine, Nova Southeastern University, Fort Lauderdale, Florida, USA
- ²⁸⁰Department of Otolaryngology, Yong Loo Lin School of Medicine, National University of Singapore, Singapore, Singapore
- ²⁸¹International Primary Care Respiratory Group IPCRG, Aberdeen, UK
- ²⁸²Division of Allergy and Immunology Department of Dermatology, Allergy and Venerology, Charité Universitätsmedizin Berlin, Berlin, Germany
- ²⁸³Medical School, University of Cyprus, Nicosia, Cyprus
- ²⁸⁴The Allergy and Asthma Institute, Islamabad, Pakistan
- ²⁸⁵Lebanese-American University, Clemenceau Medical Center DHCC, Dubai, UAE
- ²⁸⁶Universidad Católica de Córdoba, Universidad Nacional de Villa Maria, Villa Maria, Argentina
- ²⁸⁷University Clinic of Respiratory and Allergic Diseases, Golnik, Slovenia
- ²⁸⁸Faculty of Medicine, University of Ljubljana, Ljubljana, Slovenia

Correspondence

J. Bousquet, Institute of Allergology,
Charité – Universitätsmedizin Berlin,
Corporate Member of Freie Universität
Berlin and Humboldt-Universität zu Berlin,
Berlin, Germany.
Email: jean.bousquet@orange.fr

Abstract

Asthma, rhinitis, and atopic dermatitis (AD) are interrelated clinical phenotypes that partly overlap in the human interactome. The concept of “one-airway-one-disease,” coined over 20 years ago, is a simplistic approach of the links between upper- and lower-airway allergic diseases. With new data, it is time to reassess the concept. This article reviews (i) the clinical observations that led to Allergic Rhinitis and its Impact on Asthma (ARIA), (ii) new insights into polysensitization and multimorbidity, (iii) advances in mHealth for novel phenotype definitions, (iv) confirmation in canonical epidemiologic studies, (v) genomic findings, (vi) treatment approaches, and (vii) novel concepts on the onset of rhinitis and multimorbidity. One recent concept, bringing together upper- and lower-airway allergic diseases with skin, gut, and neuropsychiatric multimorbidities, is the “Epithelial Barrier Hypothesis.” This review determined that the “one-airway-one-disease” concept does not always hold true and that several phenotypes of disease can be defined. These phenotypes include an extreme “allergic” (asthma) phenotype combining asthma, rhinitis, and conjunctivitis. Rhinitis alone

and rhinitis and asthma multimorbidity represent two distinct diseases with the following differences: (i) genomic and transcriptomic background (Toll-Like Receptors and IL-17 for rhinitis alone as a local disease; IL-33 and IL-5 for allergic and non-allergic multimorbidity as a systemic disease), (ii) allergen sensitization patterns (mono- or pauci-sensitization versus polysensitization), (iii) severity of symptoms, and (iv) treatment response. In conclusion, rhinitis alone (local disease) and rhinitis with asthma multimorbidity (systemic disease) should be considered as two distinct diseases, possibly modulated by the microbiome, and may be a model for understanding the epidemics of chronic and autoimmune diseases.

KEYWORDS

asthma, IL-33, multimorbidity, rhinitis, Toll-like receptors

1 | INTRODUCTION

Allergic diseases [asthma: A, rhinitis: R, and atopic dermatitis: AD] are complex. They are associated with allergen-specific IgE and non-allergic mechanisms that may coexist. In addition, these diseases tend to cluster, and patients present concomitant or consecutive diseases (multimorbidity). Important clinical and immunological differences exist between mono- and polysensitized subjects.^{1,2} Complex genetic and epigenetic mechanisms interact with the environment to determine disease expression. They lead to distinct and frequently co-existing phenotypes.² Immunological mechanisms related to these diseases include Type 2 (T2) inflammatory patterns (IgE-mediated and independent),^{3,4} IL-17,^{5,6} and CCL17 (CC chemokine ligand 17).⁷ In addition, epithelial barrier defects and microbial dysbiosis are of importance.^{8,9}

Asthma, rhinitis, and AD tend to cluster in multimorbidity, partly overlapping in the human interactome.¹⁰ Their relationship should be understood in a multimorbidity framework, rather than through the atopic march.¹¹ Additional multimorbidities due to ocular, cognitive, autism spectrum, thyroid, and bowel diseases need to be understood.¹²⁻¹⁴ Asthma, rhinitis, and AD are clinical phenotypes that are interrelated. The molecular pathways (as measured by genes, transcripts, metabolites, and/or epigenetics) underlying multimorbidity can be measured to determine their common and divergent biology as shown in psychiatric diseases,¹⁵ but such integrated studies looking at the overlapping of genes and pathways between related conditions have not yet been carried out for asthma, rhinitis, and AD in samples of sufficient size.

The concept of “one-airway-one-disease,” coined over 20 years ago,¹⁶ may be a simplistic approach,¹⁷ and requires reassessment (Table 1). This article will review (i) the clinical observations that led to Allergic Rhinitis and its Impact on Asthma (ARIA), (ii) new insights

into the links between polysensitization and multimorbidity, (iii) advances in mHealth supporting the definition of novel phenotypes, (iv) confirmation in canonical epidemiologic studies, (v) genomic findings, (vi) treatment approaches, (vii) novel concepts on the onset of rhinitis and multimorbidity, and (viii) the putative impact of the microbiome.

Terminology used

Multimorbidity and comorbidity are used in several studies. “In 1970, Feinstein first coined the term ‘comorbidity’ to describe ‘Any distinct additional entity that has existed or may occur during the clinical course of a patient who has the index disease under study.’ In 1996, van den Akker et al. suggested that comorbidity should be defined according to Feinstein’s definition, and multimorbidity as “the co-occurrence of multiple chronic or acute diseases and medical conditions within one person.” In 2010, Boyd and Fortin provided a more simple definition of multimorbidity¹⁸: “the co-existence of two or more chronic conditions, where one is not necessarily more central than the others.” We therefore selected the term “multimorbidity.”

In this paper, the term “allergic multimorbidity” will be used primarily for asthma, rhinitis, and AD. However, it will also include conjunctivitis, food allergy, and the rare manifestation of eosinophilic esophagitis (EoE), although non-allergic mechanisms may coexist, predominate, or even be the only mechanisms in some diseases of the so-called “allergic multimorbidity” (e.g., non-allergic asthma, non-allergic rhinitis, or chronic rhinosinusitis).^{19,20}

Polysensitization to different pollen species is often based on IgE cross-reactivities to the pan-allergens (e.g., profilins, polcalcins, or cyclophilins) present in pollens or plant foods (e.g., birch pollen and apple) or in *Dermatophagoides* and shrimp. Patients are also polysensitized to unrelated allergens. In the present paper, polysensitization will refer to unrelated non-cross-reacting allergens.

TABLE 1 Stepwise accomplishments and plans for the further understanding of allergy multimorbidities used by ARIA and MeDALL members.

Mechanistic²⁷⁸ and epidemiologic studies (European Community Respiratory Health Survey: ECRHS, Framework Programme, FP2)³⁰ to better understand the links between asthma and rhinitis that led to ARIA.¹⁰

EU network of excellence (GA²LEN, Global Allergy and Asthma European Network, FP6)²⁷⁹ to better understand sensitization patterns.²⁸⁰

FP7 EU grant (MeDALL, Mechanisms of the Development of Allergy, FP7)^{1,2} to understand the mechanisms underlying the complex interactions between multimorbidity and polysensitization (epidemiologic, genomic, and epigenomic studies).²⁸⁰

Development of mHealth (mobile health) to capture real-world data (direct patients' data) and to obtain further insights into the complex interactions informed by MeDALL.²⁸¹

Canonical epidemiologic studies to confirm mHealth observational studies which are only hypothesis generating.⁶⁸

Genomic approaches to test hypotheses on unique and/or shared pathogenesis.¹¹⁸

Identification of an extreme allergy phenotype (multimorbidity, polysensitization) confirmed by canonical epidemiologic studies.

Testing new hypotheses by assessing therapeutic responses based on multimorbidity vs. single diseases.

A new iteration focusing on asthma has been initiated in mHealth observational studies to provide novel insights and to confirm the conclusions raised by the previous data.

2 | FROM CLINICAL OBSERVATIONS TO ARIA GUIDELINES (1980–2000)

2.1 | Mono- and polysensitization

IgE sensitization is heterogeneous.^{21–23} When comparing polysensitized and monosensitized subjects: (i) Monosensitization is associated with lower total and specific IgE levels²¹; (ii) patients with monosensitization recognize fewer epitopes of individual allergens^{22,23}; (iii) there is a lower level of IL-4 release by peripheral blood in monosensitization, suggesting stronger T2 immune response in polysensitization²⁴; and (iv) patients sensitized in adulthood for cypress^{25,26} or Betulaceae pollen allergy were often monosensitized.²⁷

2.2 | From one-airway-one-disease to ARIA and beyond

In the early 1990s, asthma and rhinitis were considered as independent diseases linked by IgE-sensitization.^{28,29} In the European Community Respiratory Health Survey (ECRHS), rhinitis was found to be an independent risk factor for asthma in allergic or non-allergic subjects.^{30,31}

In nasal and bronchial biopsies, T2-inflammation was similar in the nose and bronchi of asthmatic patients.^{32,33} An interaction between nasal and bronchial T2-inflammation was further confirmed by nasal

and bronchial allergen challenges.^{34–36} Nasal allergen challenge induced a T2-inflammation in the lower airways, and vice versa.

These studies, consistent with the concept of one-airway-one-disease,¹⁶ led to the development of ARIA (Allergic Rhinitis and its Impact on Asthma) that designed multimorbidity guidelines combining asthma and rhinitis for the first time.¹⁰

However, clinically, two distinct allergic rhinitis (AR) phenotypes are identified: (i) rhinitis alone, affecting around 70–80% of patients with AR, and (ii) AR+asthma multimorbidity (AR+A), affecting 20–30%.¹⁷ On the contrary, most patients with asthma have rhinitis.³⁷ These data suggest common pathways in AR+A, and rhinitis-specific pathways.³⁸

1. Mono- and polysensitization appear to be independent.
2. There are additive effects of asthma and rhinitis multimorbidity on quality-of-life (QOL).
3. Epidemiological studies have shown that the links between asthma and rhinitis exist independently of IgE sensitization.
4. Bronchial biopsies and allergen challenges show that nasal and bronchial inflammations are similar.
5. Airway remodeling, a characteristic of asthma, does not exist in rhinitis.
6. The concept of one-airway-one-disease is an over-simplification.

3 | POLYSENSITIZATION AND ALLERGIC MULTIMORBIDITIES IN BIRTH COHORTS

3.1 | Polysensitization

In birth or child cohorts, depending on sensitization patterns (mono- or polysensitization), several features and phenotypes have been identified (Table 2).

7. Mono- and polysensitization to different allergens represent expressions of distinct diseases. Compared to monosensitization, polysensitization was linked to stronger global IgE response, disease phenotypes (A and/or R), symptoms, and trajectories.

3.2 | Allergic multimorbidities

MeDALL disentangled multimorbidity.^{1,2} The coexistence of eczema, rhinitis, and asthma in the same child is more common than expected by chance alone—both in the presence and absence of IgE sensitization—suggesting that these diseases share causal mechanisms. Although IgE sensitization is independently associated with an excess comorbidity of eczema, rhinitis, and asthma, its presence accounted for only 38% of comorbidity. This suggests that IgE sensitization cannot be considered as the dominant causal mechanism of multimorbidity.^{39,40}

8. Multimorbidity is partly independent of IgE sensitization, suggesting distinct causal (genomic) pathways.

TABLE 2 Differences between mono- and polysensitization.

	Cohort	Findings	
Cross-sectional analyses			
Specific IgE	BAMSE-MeDALL	Birch pollen: Bet-v1 IgE levels increased according to the number of IgE-reactive PR-10 proteins. Cat/dog: IgE levels to cat/dog molecules higher in polysensitized than monosensitized children.	108,282
Current symptoms	BAMSE-MeDALL	Birch pollen: PR-10 polysensitized children had more severe AR than monosensitized. Cat/dog: Children polysensitized to cat/dog molecules had more frequent AR symptoms to cat and dog than those monosensitized.	282 108
	WHEALS	"Highly"-sensitized infants (2 years) were at risk for a diagnosis of asthma.	283
Rhinitis/asthma phenotypes in longitudinal studies			
A, R, and AD Prediction of symptoms over time and trajectories	BAMSE-MeDALL	Birch pollen: Increased risk of R incidence, persistence and severity up to age 16 years with increasing levels of Bet v 1-specific IgE or increasing numbers of IgE-reactive PR-10 proteins at 4 years. Cat/dog: Polysensitization to 3 allergen molecules at 4–8 years is a better predictor of cat or dog symptoms at 16 years than monosensitization. Grass pollen and peanut: The likelihood of later symptoms increased with the number of allergen molecules at the age of 4 or 8 years.	48,282,284
	MeDALL (BAMSE-MAS)	IgE reactivity to a few allergen molecules at 4 years identified children with a high risk of A and/or R at 16 years, in particular for A+R multimorbidity.	110
	Paris	Early polysensitization was associated with later development of allergic multimorbidity in PARIS birth cohort infants.	105,285
	MAAS	The latent class analysis revealed 3 grass-sensitization trajectories. The early-onset trajectory was associated with A and diminished lung function. The late-onset trajectory was associated with R. 4 trajectories emerged for mite sensitization. Children in the complete mite sensitization trajectory had the highest A prevalence and were the only group significantly associated with multimorbid A, AD, R. 3 trajectories were found using latent clusters. One was a high-risk atopic cluster with polysensitization, and increased propensity for allergic diseases throughout childhood.	286,287
	MAS	The evolution and predictive value of IgE responses towards a comprehensive panel of house dust mite (HDM) allergens were tested up to 20 years.	288
		Polysensitization status at ages 6 mths, 18 mths, 4 years and 6 years was associated with increased risk of asthma at age 13.	75
	CAPS	The strongest association of AD, particularly for A (and AR), was with the mixed food and inhalant sensitization phenotype.	289
	WHEALS	Children sensitized to 4 or more food and inhalant allergens at age 2 had the highest risk of current asthma at 10 years.	290
	MAAS + IoW	Polysensitization early in life is associated with asthma.	291
Meta-analysis	Polysensitization is a risk factor predicting persistence of early wheezing through school age.	292	

Abbreviations: A, asthma; AD, atopic dermatitis; R, rhinitis.

3.3 | Links between polysensitization and allergic multimorbidity

MeDALL refined the identification of the polysensitized multimorbid phenotype of allergic diseases.^{19,41} Polysensitized children were at a higher risk than monosensitized ones of developing asthma and rhinitis.⁴² In three US studies of inner-city asthmatic children, rhinitis and polysensitization were associated with severe asthma.^{43–45}

"Molecular spreading," sensitization to several proteins of one allergen, has been associated with more severe disease (rhinitis or asthma), and/or multimorbidity.⁴⁶

9. There is an association between IgE polysensitization and multimorbidity including age of onset, number of allergic multimorbidities (conjunctivitis and AD), severity of disease, eosinophil levels, and total IgE levels.

3.4 | Food allergy

Food allergy starting early in life is associated with other allergic diseases. Food allergic patients may be monosensitized to a single molecule⁴⁷ or polysensitized. Pre-school children sensitized to several peanut proteins develop symptoms more commonly later in life than those sensitized to a single protein.⁴⁸ This may differ in adults.⁴⁹ Severity⁴⁷ and persistence of symptoms may also depend on sensitization patterns.^{50,51}

3.5 | The atopic march

The atopic march is usually interpreted as the sequential development of symptoms, from AD in infancy to asthma and then AR.¹¹ However, only a small percentage of children follow the conventional atopic march.^{52,53} Furthermore, disease co-occurrence does not prove any specific relationship between them, certainly not a progressive or causal one.⁵⁴

In the trajectories of AD, children with persistent AD have more moderate/severe AD, polysensitization, and current wheeze at 3 years.⁵⁵ In the CHILD cohort, AD children polysensitized to foods at an early age had the greatest risk of developing other allergic diseases.⁵⁶ On the contrary, AD without concomitant allergic sensitization was not associated with an increased risk of asthma.

4 | PERI-EPITHELIAL INFLAMMATION, LEAKY EPITHELIAL BARRIERS, AND MULTIMORBIDITIES

Allergic multimorbidity is sometimes associated with autoimmune, metabolic, and neuropsychiatric multimorbidities, suggesting common molecular mechanisms. Allergic multimorbidities and many chronic non-communicable diseases have increased in prevalence during the past decades.^{12,57–61} This trend cannot be explained only by genetical factors. In the first group of the multimorbid phenotype, the local epithelial tissue of the affected organ is inflamed (e.g., asthma, chronic rhinosinusitis (CRS), AD, AR, EoE, inflammatory bowel, and celiac diseases). A second group consists of metabolic and autoimmune diseases such as obesity, diabetes mellitus, rheumatoid arthritis, multiple sclerosis, fatty liver, autoimmune hepatitis, systemic lupus erythematosus, and ankylosing spondylitis. It is associated with gut or lung epithelial barrier defect.⁵⁷ Intestinal barrier defects and microbiota changes have been associated with many neuropsychiatric disorders (e.g., Parkinson's disease, Alzheimer's disease, autism spectrum disorders, and chronic depression).⁵⁷

The pathogenesis of the diseases of both groups was associated with damage to the epithelial barrier and peri-epithelial inflammation.

There are genetic causes such as filaggrin mutations and claudin polymorphisms, epidermal proliferation and differentiation (OVOL1), epithelial-derived alarmins (IL-33), particularly T2 response (IL-4 and IL-13 regulation), and sphingolipid synthesis (ORMDL3).^{62,63} In addition, epigenetic regulation plays a major role in epithelial barrier integrity, and all mucosal surfaces may be exposed with the same type of environmental factor.^{64,65} These genetic defects influence the barrier integrity of the skin and different mucosal tissues. In our studies within MeDALL, and concomitantly by the exposure of other research groups to particulate matter, diesel exhaust, cigarette smoke, laundry detergents, household cleaners, microplastics, nanoparticles, food emulsifiers, and other unidentified hazardous substances can cause epithelial barrier damage (Figure 1).⁶⁶

10. The damage of the epithelial barrier may predispose to allergic and non-allergic multimorbidity.

5 | DISCOVERY OF NOVEL MULTIMORBID ALLERGIC PHENOTYPES USING DIRECT PATIENT MHEALTH DATA

Very few apps can provide information on rhinitis and asthma multimorbidity and also include medications.⁶⁷ Daily multimorbidity was assessed by MASK-air®, an mHealth app for allergic diseases and asthma.⁶⁸ In a prospective observational cross-over study (4210 users in 19 countries),⁶⁹ rhinitis and rhinoconjunctivitis appeared to be two distinct diseases. A specific group (“extreme” allergy phenotype) combined rhinitis “High” (VAS > 50/100) patterns—asthma “High”—conjunctivitis “High” and was identified in 2.9% of the days. This previously unknown extreme pattern of multimorbidity had the greatest impact on uncontrolled symptoms and work productivity.

In two recent cluster analyses (Sousa-Pinto, submitted)—a cross-sectional analysis based on asthma patterns (over 8000 patients and 267,000 days), and a longitudinal one based on rhinitis patterns (over 2500 patients and 297,000 days)—the extreme “asthma” and “allergy” phenotypes were confirmed in days (asthma) and patients (rhinitis). These data also suggest that conjunctivitis should be considered as a separate disease in AR or A+AR.

11. There is an extreme allergy phenotype (asthma + AR + Conjunctivitis) with a greater impact on symptoms and work productivity than on the individual diseases.

6 | CANONICAL EPIDEMIOLOGY CONFIRMING MHEALTH DATA

The results of mHealth apps are hypothesis generating and need to be confirmed in classical epidemiologic studies.

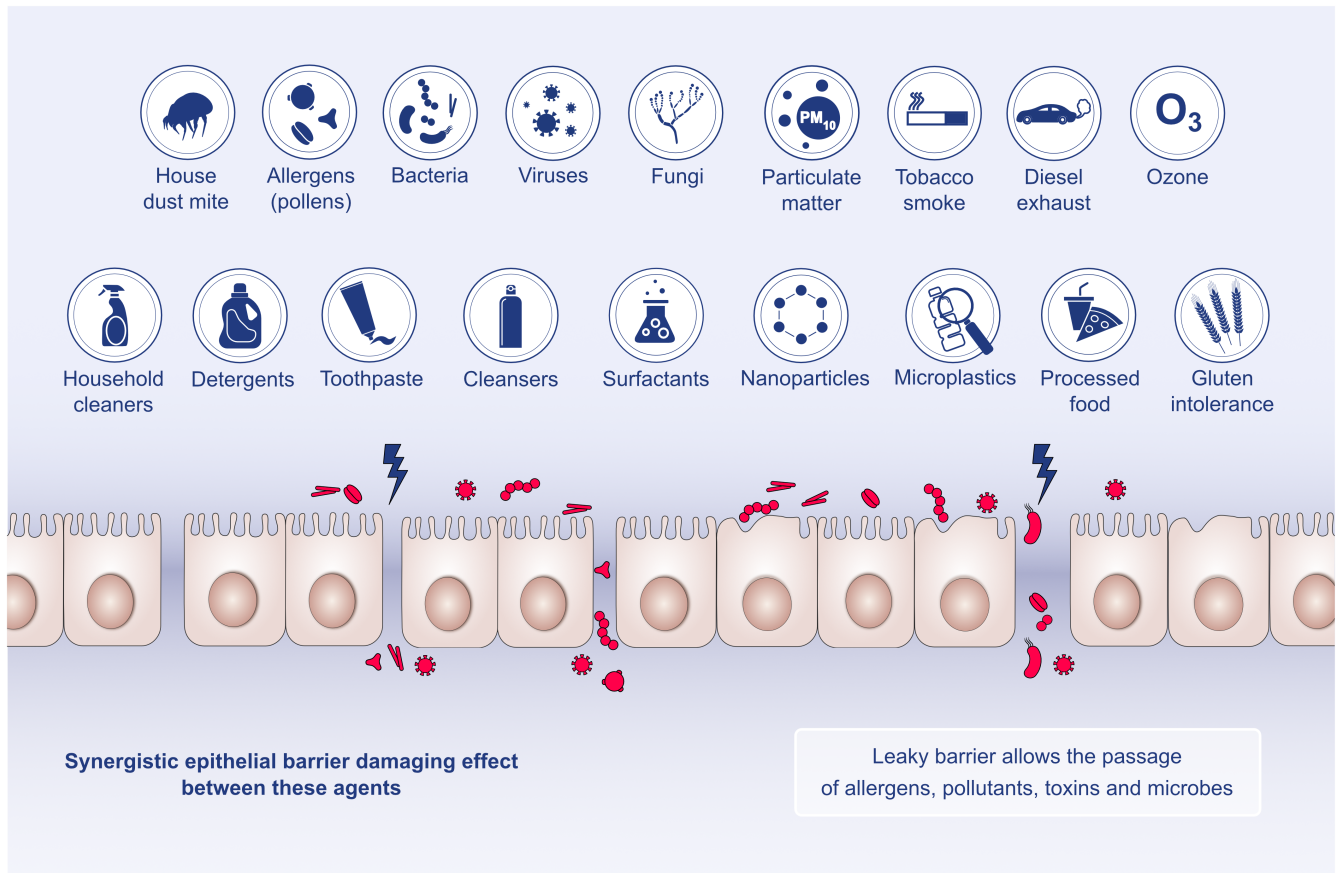


FIGURE 1 Importance of the epithelial barrier in multimorbidity.

TABLE 3 Results of the EGEA study (from Refs 70 and 71).

	No A, No R	R	A	A + R
Age	46.8 ± 16.3	45.2 ± 16.3	40.8 ± 17.1	38.4 ± 16.0
Age onset Rhinitis		25.1 ± 15.0		14.2 ± 12.2
Nasal symptoms	0	87.3	0	90.7
Ocular symptoms	0	76.6		80.4
Persistence nasal symptoms (score) ^a		17.1		32
Atopic dermatitis	22.7	35.3	38.5	52.7
Bronchial hyperreactivity	23.7	29.8	55.8	67.8
Eosinophils	149 ± 106	191 ± 123	196 ± 129	253 ± 192
Total IgE	33.6	79.43	72.77	164.8
Number of IgE reactive molecules ⁷¹	0 (0–0)	2 (0–6)	1 (0–7)	7 (3–12)
Level of sIgE (ISU) ⁷¹	1.3 (0.5–3.5)	5.7 (3.3–10.5)	3.2 (1.5–6.5)	5.5 (2.9–10.0)

Abbreviations: A, asthma; R, rhinitis.

^aScore adding symptoms.

6.1 | Rhinitis and asthma phenotypes in adolescents and adults

The extreme allergy phenotype was not clearly identified before the availability of MASK-air® results.^{70,71} In EGEA, a French case-control and family study,⁷² AR and A+AR differed in terms of disease phenotype and polysensitization (Table 3).^{70,71} Patients

with rhinitis alone displayed fewer sensitizations than those with A+AR. These findings were reproduced in BAMSE (Barn/Children, Allergy/Asthma, Milieu, Stockholm). Overall, A+AR is associated with polysensitization in Europe,^{73–80} New Zealand,⁸¹ Brazil,⁸² and China.^{83,84}

Patients monosensitized to cat or dog showed IgE patterns dominated by Fel d 1 (>90%) or Can f 5 (67%).^{85–87} By

contrast, cat- or dog-induced A+AR symptoms were associated with polysensitization.^{85,86}

6.2 | Conjunctivitis is an independent contributing disease to multimorbidity

Differences between AR alone or AR associated with conjunctivitis had already been identified before the MASK-air® study.^{70,88} However, new studies following MASK-air® data have shown that ocular symptoms (i) are more common in A+AR than in rhinitis alone,⁸⁹ (ii) are associated with the severity of nasal symptoms,^{76,90} and (iii) are important to consider in severe asthma.⁹⁰ In EGEA⁷¹ and a Danish cohort,⁹¹ patients with rhinitis alone had fewer IgE sensitizations than those with rhinitis and conjunctivitis, independently of asthma.

6.3 | Number of allergic multimorbidities

The risk of adult-onset asthma increases with the number of allergic multimorbidities, and decreases with age.⁷⁹ Severe asthma is associated with multimorbidity.⁹²

12. Rhinitis and rhino-conjunctivitis are separate diseases.

13. The extreme allergy phenotype including asthma, conjunctivitis, and rhinitis has been confirmed.

14. For all parameters studied, multimorbidity differs from asthma or rhinitis alone.

6.4 | Eosinophilic esophagitis

EoE is a late manifestation of the atopic march.⁹³ An extremely high eosinophil group of EoE patients has been described, which interestingly also displays increased allergic multimorbidities.⁹⁴

6.5 | Differences between multimorbid and single disease phenotypes

6.5.1 | Nasal physiology and reactivity

The nasal reactivity to allergen and nonspecific stimuli (cold air) of people with A+AR may be greater than in rhinitis alone.^{95,96} The capacity of the nose to humidify air may be reduced in A+AR, compared to AR alone.⁹⁷

6.5.2 | Age of onset

In the EGEA study, the age of onset^{70,71} of rhinitis or asthma was around 10 years earlier in A+AR than in single diseases.

6.5.3 | Parental allergy

An allergic family history was a stronger predictor of A+AR from childhood to adulthood than single allergic entities.^{98,99}

Polysensitized children more often have a parental history of allergy than monosensitized ones.¹⁰⁰

6.5.4 | Differential influence of puberty

Allergy prevalence in childhood is higher in boys than in girls, but this imbalance changes after puberty. In MeDALL, the gender shift at puberty was seen for A+R (allergic or non-allergic) and not for single diseases.¹⁰¹ These data have been confirmed by a meta-analysis¹⁰² and a canonical epidemiologic study showing that girls have fewer allergic multimorbid phenotypes before puberty.¹⁰³

15. Age of onset and parental allergy suggest that multimorbidity behaves differently to rhinitis or asthma alone.

16. The role of sex hormones at puberty is mostly marked by multimorbidity.

17. These data confirm that multimorbidity behaves differently with respect to R or A alone.

6.6 | Trajectories of allergic diseases

6.6.1 | Development of asthma in rhinitis patients

Allergic rhinitis is strongly associated with the risk of asthma.¹⁰⁴ However, few studies have assessed the impact of polysensitization. Early polysensitization is associated with allergic multimorbidity in PARIS birth cohort infants.¹⁰⁵ Allergic rhinitis is a predictor for the onset of wheezing in school-age children, independently of IgE sensitization.¹⁰⁶ In ECRHS, in adults, the 8.8-year cumulative incidence of asthma was 2.2%.¹⁰⁷ Only AR with sensitization to house dust mite was associated with an increased risk of asthma independently of other allergens, and AR patients with polysensitization more commonly developed asthma.

6.6.2 | Trajectories of IgE sensitization

Trajectories of IgE sensitization from infancy to childhood show an increase of polysensitization.^{48,108-110} However, once the disease is fully established (adolescents), IgE sensitization remains stable, as do the sensitization clusters.¹¹¹

18. Although rhinitis is strongly associated with the risk of asthma, the role of polysensitization requires further studies.

19. Sensitization does not usually change when established in adolescents, suggesting a stable phenotype.

7 | OMICS FOCUSING ON ALLERGIC MULTIMORBIDITIES AND POLYSENSITIZATION

7.1 | Computational analysis of allergic multimorbidity

Multimorbidity mechanisms were investigated at a molecular level by identifying proteins and cellular processes using data mining with an in silico analysis of the topology of the human interactome.^{112,113} A+R+AD share a larger number of associated proteins than expected by chance, with a significant degree of interconnectedness in the interaction network. In eosinophils, T2-signaling pathways represent a relevant multimorbidity mechanism including IL-4 and TSLP (thymic stromal lymphopoietin) as well as IL1R1- and GATA3-related pathways. In non-eosinophilic cell types,¹¹³ *IL-13*, *LRRC32/C11orf30*, and *PLA2G7* were associated with A+AR+AD. However, in eosinophils and non-eosinophilic cell types, *IL-33* was associated with asthma and AD but not with AR alone.

7.2 | IL-33, a cornerstone of multimorbid allergic diseases

To our knowledge, before MeDALL, no study had ever assessed the genomics of allergic diseases using the multimorbid approach, although some had combined asthma and rhinitis in their analyses.¹¹⁴⁻¹¹⁷

In MeDALL, an integrated transcriptomic analysis in peripheral blood was conducted in 786 children from three European birth cohorts.¹¹⁸ Fifty-four genes were differentially expressed in allergic diseases, 27 associated with rhinitis alone, and none to asthma or AD alone. Eight genes were retrieved in multimorbidity. Eosinophil-associated genes were highly expressed in A+AR+AD. RT-qPCR validated transcriptomic data. A replication phase using data from an independent cohort (EVA-PR, $n = 447$)^{119,120} and RNA-Sequencing confirmed the MeDALL study. A signature of eight genes (*IL5/JAK/STAT* and *IL33/ST2/IRAK/TRAF*¹²¹) was identified in A+R+AD.

20. Three methods (transcriptomics, RT-PCR, and RNA sequencing) yielded the same results in 2 different cohorts (MeDALL and EVA-PR): Multimorbidity is associated with genes of T2 signaling: *IL-5* (eosinophils) and *IL-33* (polysensitization and eosinophilia).

21. 27 genes were identified for R alone.

22. No specific genes could be identified in A or AD alone in MeDALL (children and adolescents).

7.3 | Rhinitis alone is not directly associated with T2 but with IL-17 and several TLR pathways

In the MeDALL gene expression study, participants with rhinitis alone did not express genes associated with multimorbidity, but 27 rhinitis-only genes.¹¹⁸ Functional analysis on these genes (using

OmicsNet), considering the presence of miRNAs and other non-protein-coding genes, found that they are mostly related to Toll-like receptor (TLR)-mediated signaling pathways, IL-17, and MyD88 (myeloid differentiation primary response gene 88)¹²² pathways (Figure 2).

23. Rhinitis-specific genes have been identified. These genes are mostly associated with TLR signaling pathways and IL-17.

7.4 | Genetic polymorphisms

A total of 267 asthma- and/or AR-associated loci were found from 31 GWAS studies and 170 protein coding GWAS-level risk genes.¹²³

IL33/IL1RL1, *TSLP*, *IL-13-RAD50*, *C11orf30/LRRC32*, and genes of allergic sensitization appear to be important for A+AR.^{124,125} The *C11orf30-LRRC32* region is involved in the regulation of IgE,¹²⁶ polysensitization,¹²⁷ eosinophilic inflammation,¹²⁸ and A+AR.^{129,130} *TSLP* is associated with A+AR in children.¹³¹ However, *IL-33* is not associated with rhinitis alone.¹³⁰ *TSLP*, *C11orf30/LRRC32*, *IL33*, and *IL1RL1* are also genetically linked to EoE.¹³²⁻¹³⁴

The 17q12-21 locus includes several genes linked to asthma susceptibility¹³⁵ and wheezing trajectories,^{136,137} but not to AR alone (e.g., ORM1 (yeast)-like protein 3¹³⁸ and gasdermin B (*GSDMB*)).^{139,140} Several loci were identified in AR but not in asthma.¹⁴¹ Among them were the T allele of rs7927894, a common variant on chromosome 11q13.5,¹⁴² and *IL7R*.¹⁴³ T- and B-cell receptors for cellular activation by *TSLP*^{130,143} or *TYRO3* can regulate TLR signaling.¹⁴⁴

24. Genetic polymorphism studies support the multimorbidity results.

7.5 | HLA associations with allergen sensitization

HLA genes are involved in the control of the IgE response to allergens,^{145,146} but genetic regulation may differ in mono- and polysensitized patients. Associations between HLA haplotypes or HLA-DQ/DR molecules and allergen sensitivity were confirmed only in low IgE responders (low total serum IgE levels or monosensitized).¹⁴⁷⁻¹⁵²

In EGEA,¹⁵³ the most significant associations between HLA class-II alleles and IgE sensitization were observed for pollens. Some HLA class-II alleles were associated with sensitization to allergens from different families, suggesting that some alleles may favor the development of polysensitization above cross-reacting allergens. In food allergy, among the 10 HLA risk alleles associated with peanut allergy, 3 were significantly but weakly associated with asthma, 3 with AR, and one with A+AR.¹⁵⁴

25. The association between HLA class-II alleles and allergens is stronger in low IgE responders.

26. A novel pathway of polysensitization was proposed by EGEA, suggesting that the same HLA class-II allele may be associated with different allergen families.

Transcriptomics - MeDALL (N=785)

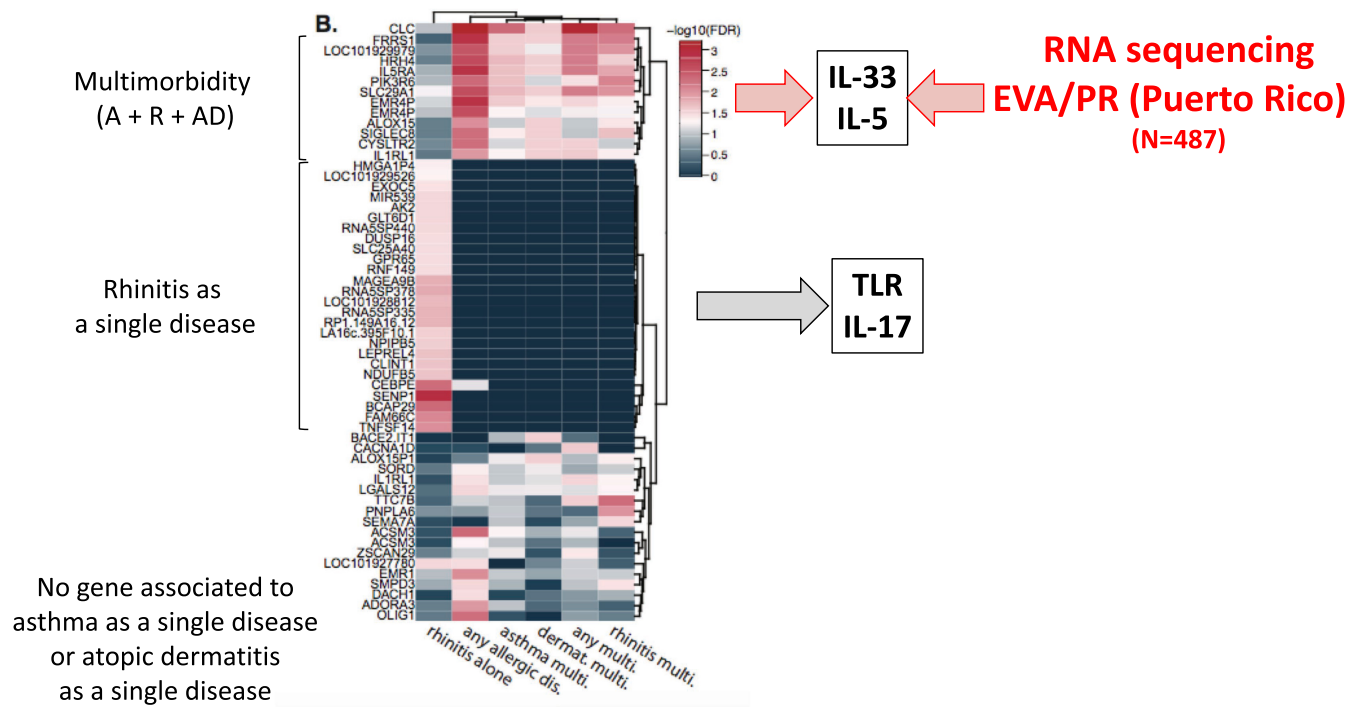


FIGURE 2 Putative differences in mechanisms underlying multimorbidity and single diseases in children and adolescents using blood transcriptomics (from Ref 118).

7.6 | Epigenetics in multimorbidity

In MeDALL, DNA methylation signatures were studied in blood in childhood asthma.¹⁵⁵ Using a discovery and replication approach in around 5000 children, 14 CpGs across several chromosomes were strongly associated with asthma. They were linked to eosinophils and cytotoxic T-cell activation. Twenty-one CpGs were differentially methylated and shared between A + AR + AD. None of them were associated with single disease (A, AR or AD).¹⁵⁶ One of the top genes, *ACOT7* (Acyl-CoA Thioesterase 7), has been linked to allergic sensitization.^{157,158} In nasal brushed cells in childhood, strong DNA-methylation signatures were shared by the A + R phenotype,¹⁵⁹ confirming previous findings in blood. Defective epithelial barriers in the bronchus are epigenetically regulated and are an outcome of the T2 immunity, particularly IL-13.⁶⁵ Increased histone deacetylase activity causes defective epithelial barriers.⁶⁴

A differentially methylated CpG site was found within the melatonin receptor 1A (*MTNR1A*) gene, mediating the effect of a paternally-transmitted genetic variant on A + AR.¹⁶⁰

To our knowledge, multimorbidity has not been addressed in other epigenetic studies. Also, gene–environment interaction effects, including multi-omics analyses, should be considered in allergic multimorbidity.¹⁶¹

27. There are shared epigenetic patterns of allergic multimorbidities.

8 | THERAPEUTIC IMPACT ON MULTIMORBIDITY

In the French general population epidemiologic study Constances, participants with A + R had more severe symptoms than those with rhinitis alone.¹⁶² Moreover, they more often reported a treatment with intranasal corticosteroids, and oral antihistamines were associated with poor control.¹⁶³ In MASK-air, a co-medication pattern was associated with a poorer rhinitis control than in monotherapy.^{164,165} In the combined symptom-medication score, the distinction between rhinitis and A + R was clear, with large effect sizes (submitted).

28. Patients with rhinitis and asthma used more co-medication for rhinitis than those with rhinitis alone. Co-medication is associated with uncontrolled rhinitis.

29. These findings were observed in a general population cohort.

30. These findings were reproduced in two direct patient mHealth studies, one assessing rhinitis and the other asthma.

9 | PHENOTYPES AND TRAJECTORIES OF IGE-MEDIATED DISEASES ACROSS THE LIFE CYCLE: THE ARIA-MEDALL HYPOTHESIS

As proposed in MeDALL, seven trajectories of allergic disease may be hypothesized (Figure 3).¹⁹ An eighth one has been added to the initial paper.

9.1 | The atopic march: persistence of T2 signaling at birth

In the small proportion of infants following the atopic march, a persistence of fetal T2 signaling may be proposed.¹⁶⁶ IL-33 and IL-9, often associated with early atopic sensitization, are upregulated in AD infants.¹⁶⁷

9.2 | Early sensitization with very high allergen exposure

High levels of neonatal birch pollen exposure were found to induce birch pollen allergy in some¹⁶⁸⁻¹⁷¹ but not all studies.¹⁷² The effect was also reported with other allergens.¹⁷¹ The window of allergic risk may be around 3 months after birth.

9.3 | Re-occurrence or expansion of T2 signaling in early childhood

The re-occurrence or expansion of T2 signaling may be associated with several mechanisms in which IL-33 appears to play a significant role (Figure 4). Many new chemicals and air pollutants can disrupt the epithelial barriers.⁶⁶

Air pollutants

Diesel exhaust particles (DEPs) may increase allergy prevalence,¹⁷³ particularly through IL-33.¹⁷⁴ In nasal biopsies, air pollution-related particulate matter (PM) acts on epithelial barrier function and epithelial barrier tight junction (TJ), and can lead to GM-CSF and IL-33 responses.¹⁷⁵

Viruses

The neonatal lung immune system is functionally immature, and the T1/T2 imbalance may predispose rhinovirus-infected neonates to a later asthma development.^{176,177} Rhinovirus C infection induces

innate lymphoid cells type 2 (ILC2) expansion and eosinophilic airway inflammation.¹⁷⁸ Influenza A can break tolerance to inhaled allergens and lead to an asthma phenotype in adulthood. IL-33¹⁷⁹⁻¹⁸¹ and IL-17¹⁸² can be involved.

Skin barrier dysfunction

Skin barrier dysfunction predisposes to epicutaneous sensitization to food and aeroallergens.¹⁸³⁻¹⁸⁶ The role of IL-33 is now emerging in skin barrier dysfunction.^{183,187} *S. aureus* is the dominant infective trigger of AD,¹⁸⁸ and its sensitization may lead to multimorbidity and polysensitization in adolescence¹⁸⁹ through IL-33.¹⁹⁰

House dust mites

The non-IgE-mediated effect of several house dust mite allergens (in addition to the well-known proteases) on the respiratory epithelium induces the production of IL-33.¹⁹¹

9.4 | Onset of rhinitis alone

Rhinitis alone is not associated with T2 genes but to rhinitis-specific genes often associated with TLRs and IL-17. Allergens can activate TLRs which in turn activate ILC2 though the myeloid differentiation primary response gene 88 (MyD88) pathways.¹⁹² Few allergens are recognized in these patients, suggesting a specific response to allergens in line with an MHC Class II allergen-specific sensitization.

9.5 | Puberty

In asthmatic patients, blood ILC2 number is increased in women compared to men.¹⁹³ Androgens negatively regulate ILC2 homeostasis, limiting their capacity to expand in response to IL-33.¹⁹⁴ Estrogen signaling increases allergen-induced IL-33 release, ILC2 cytokine production, and airway inflammation.¹⁹⁵ Androgen receptor signaling reduces IL-33 release from bronchial epithelial cells, suggesting a negative regulator of allergic airway inflammation. These

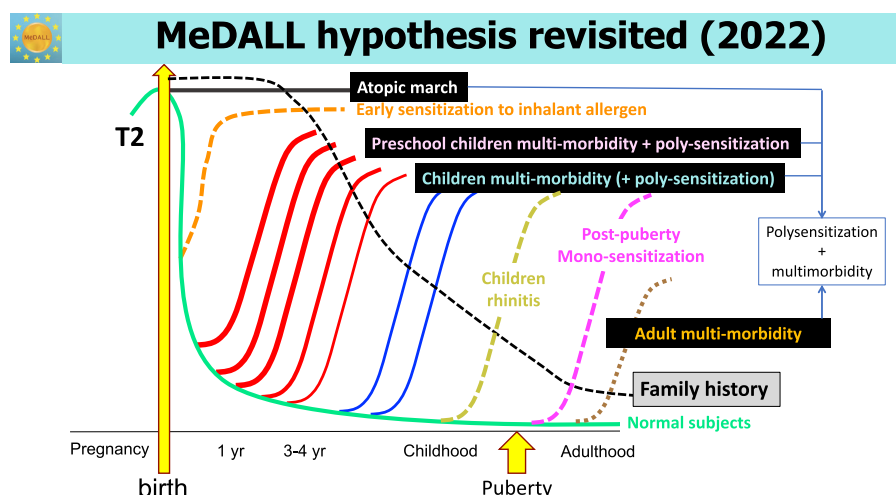


FIGURE 3 Phenotypes of IgE-mediated allergic diseases across the life cycle (adapted from Ref 19).

Re-occurrence of T2 signalling

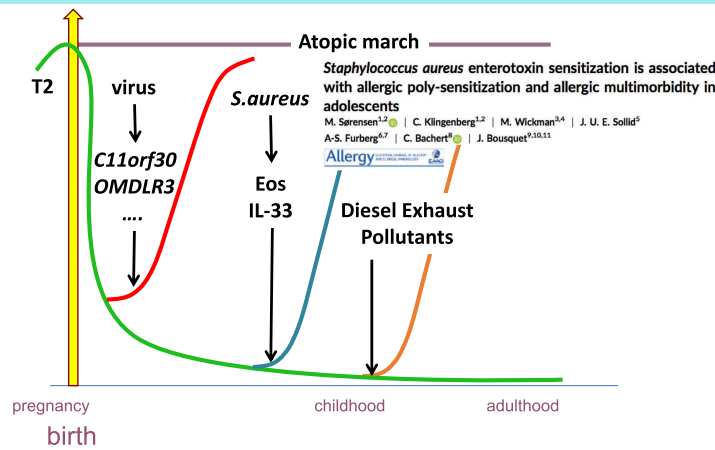


FIGURE 4 Possible mechanisms explaining the re-occurrence of Type 2 signaling.

two mechanisms may explain the post-pubertal female predilection of multimorbidity.¹⁹⁶

9.6 | Rhinitis and asthma alone in adults

Allergic diseases can develop in adults. IgE sensitization may also be associated with co-factors such as DEP.¹⁹⁷ This is the case for tree pollens (cypress,^{26,198} birch¹⁹⁹) or new pollens (ragweed in Northern Italy).¹⁹⁹ There is not usually any family history.^{25,200} In pollen allergy (e.g., cypress), adults are usually monosensitized and often suffer from rhinitis alone.^{25,200} However, newer studies in the same area suggest that adults become polysensitized and suffer from asthma.²⁰¹ In soybean allergy, patients have severe exacerbations of asthma,²⁰² possibly associated with mast cell activation.²⁰³ The association observed for the *DRB1*13* gene was stronger in individuals with low total IgE.¹⁵⁰

9.7 | Chronic rhinosinusitis with nasal polyposis (CRSwNP) and late-onset asthma associated with polyclonal IgE response due to *Staphylococcus aureus*

Chronic rhinosinusitis (CRS) with nasal polyps (CRSwNP) is well characterized by T2 inflammation and eosinophilia in Western countries. However, neutrophils appear to participate in the inflammation with eosinophils.^{204,205} Many patients with late-onset asthma have co-existing CRS with/without demonstrable allergic sensitization.²⁰⁶ IgE expression is mostly polyclonal, with specific IgE to inhalant allergens low or below detection levels.^{207,208} *S. aureus* enterotoxin-IgE is associated with severe asthma.²⁰⁹ *S. aureus* manipulates airway mucosal immunology at various levels,²¹⁰ but IL-33 release from the respiratory epithelium and the activation of ILC2 via its receptor ST2 represent a major mechanism.²¹¹ IL-17 has also been implicated in CRS.^{205,212} In a recent Chinese cluster analysis in a relatively small sample, (i) IL-33, IL-5, and, to a lesser extent, IL-17 have been implicated in patients with nasal polyposis and uncontrolled asthma,

and (ii) IL-17 but not IL-33 or IL-5 have been implicated in patients without nasal polyps and partly-controlled asthma.²¹³

9.8 | NSAID-exacerbated respiratory disease (N-ERD)

N-ERD usually includes a triad of CRSwNP, asthma, and hypersensitivity to aspirin and/or other NSAIDs. N-ERD is a complex inflammatory disorder largely driven by the innate immune system with a cellular dysregulation involving eosinophils, basophils, mast cells, and ICL2. N-ERD may be a self-perpetuating vicious circle in which mediators are produced by a differentiated activated epithelial layer, such as IL-25, IL-33, and TSLP.²¹⁴

10 | "ONE-AIRWAY-ONE-DISEASE" DISENTANGLED, REFINED, AND BEYOND

Although many pathways may be involved in differentiating rhinitis alone versus A+AR, we focused our hypothesis around the first signals that are involved when people encounter allergens.

10.1 | Rhinitis alone and rhinitis + asthma multimorbidity represent two distinct diseases

Clinical data, epidemiologic studies, mHealth-based studies, and genomic approaches confirm the existence of two distinct diseases: Rhinitis alone and Rhinitis + Asthma (disentangling). However, both diseases need to be refined as conjunctivitis and (in children) food allergy and AD may be considered as independent multimorbidities. Thus, the concept "multimorbid allergic disease" is more appropriate than "one-airway-one-disease." In a meta-analysis, AD was strongly associated with allergic and non-allergic rhinitis, but not with rhinitis and asthma.²¹⁵ Asthma alone may also be associated with non-T2 mechanisms that are not considered in this paper.

10.2 | Multimorbidity: Systemic disease associated with MyD88-dependent IL-33 signaling

Different mechanisms for polysensitization probably exist including T-cell superantigens of *S aureus* enterotoxin B (SEB).²¹⁶ *S aureus* skin infection in infants and children is associated with a prominent and clinically relevant IgE response against food and inhalant allergens¹⁸⁹ whereas, in adults, *S aureus* nasal infection induces a weak polyclonal response to inhalant allergens, with little or no clinical relevance.²⁰⁹ *S. aureus* can directly induce IL-33, TSLP, IL-5, and IL-13 in nasal polyp tissue, but not in healthy inferior turbinate tissue.²¹⁷ A Staphylococcus-dominant microbiome in the first 6 months of life was associated with increased risk of asthma and early onset of allergic sensitization.²¹⁸

Atopic dermatitis lesional skin has a defective skin barrier and a T2-dominated local immune response with an increased expression of IL-33, TSLP, and IL-25.²¹⁹ Skin inflammatory molecules, such as eosinophil peroxidase, can promote sensitization to bystander antigens,²²⁰ and therefore lead to polysensitization.

Allergens, viruses, and pollutants can directly elaborate TSLP, IL-25, and IL-33 from the lungs.²²¹ On the contrary, rhinoviruses probably act differently, inducing IL-33 release from nasal epithelium,^{222,223} but they are not superantigens. IL-33 activates dendritic cells during antigen presentation,²²¹ and drives a T2 response.

10.3 | Allergic rhinitis alone: Local disease associated with TLR signaling and IL-17

In MeDALL, several TLR-associated pathways dependent on MyD88 have been found. IL-17 was closely associated with TLRs and MyD88, and is likely to play a role.

The nasal epithelium expresses all known TLRs.²²⁴ Variations in the 10 TLR genes have been associated with AR in several candidate gene studies and three large GWASs. A significant excess of rare variants in rhinitis patients was detected in *TLR1*, *TLR5*, *TLR7*, *TLR9*, and *TLR10*²²⁵ but not in *TLR8*.²²⁶ Children carrying a minor rs1927911 (*TLR4*) allele may be at a higher AR risk.²²⁷

The number of neutrophils increases in the nose during the allergy season, and there is a large absolute cell number in comparison with eosinophils.²²⁸ In a cluster study in children with rhinitis monosensitized to grass pollen, one of the 3 clusters was associated with IL-17, neutrophilia, and intermediate levels of eosinophils.²²⁹

IL-23 is implicated in airway inflammation mediated by T2 and T17 cytokines. Anti-IL-23 monoclonal antibody does not improve severe asthma.²³⁰ Possibly, the T17 pathways are less prominent in the asthma paradigm, but more related to rhinitis.

10.4 | The microbiome at the center of the interplay between IL-17 and IL-33

An Amish environment protects against asthma by shaping the innate immune response in which MyD88 plays a central role.²³¹

Early-life exposures to TLR-enriched environments in farms protect against the development of IgE-mediated diseases,¹⁷¹ including eosinophilic asthma.^{232,233}

In the Karelia study of allergy in school children, sensitization in Russia is mostly associated with monosensitization (e.g., *Dermatophagoides*) without clinical symptoms.²³⁴ In Finland, polysensitization is common with a high occurrence of symptoms.²³⁵ Birch pollen allergy is 10 times more common in Finland than in Russia, where food allergy is also rare. The genotype differences between the Finnish and Russian populations did not explain the allergy gap.²³⁶ The network of skin and nasal microbiota and gene expression was richer and more diverse in the Russian subjects.^{236,237} The microbiota disparity paralleled the gene expression differences. High-total IgE was associated with enhanced antiviral response in the Finnish subjects. In birch-pollen-allergic subjects, the activated innate immune networks seem to be partly similar to those activated during viral infections.²³⁸ In Russian teenagers, long-non-coding RNA is upregulated, obviously mediating the gene-environment and gene-microbiota interactions.²³⁹ Furthermore, high *Acinetobacter* abundance in the Russians correlated with suppression of innate immune response.²³⁶ The Russians are more capable of differentiating between danger and non-danger, and between self and non-self. Overall, the rich gene-microbe network in the Russians seems to support a balanced innate immunity and low allergy prevalence.

These studies suggest that protection against multimorbidity may be related to the influence of the microbiome on the immune system.²³⁶ IL-33 interacts with gut and respiratory microbiome but, depending on the physiological context, it may be host-protective or pathogenic.^{240,241} MyD88 is potently influenced by the microbiome,^{122,235,242-244} and may be an important mechanism explaining distinct diseases. Multimorbidity may be centered around IL-33 and MyD88 (Figure 5). IL-33 and IL1RL1 are among the most highly replicated susceptibility loci for asthma.²⁴⁵ Other alarmins acting through MyD88 are also potential candidates.

IL-17 expression is limited to barrier surface tissues (intestine, gingiva, conjunctiva, vaginal mucosa, skin). IL-17 is produced at low amounts in response to the beneficial resident microbiota, and induces production of antimicrobial peptides by the epithelium to maintain a healthy bacterial and fungal population.^{246,247} High proteobacterial diversity was connected to low IL-17A level. There is a delicate balance between IL-17 and microbiota. Dysbiosis drives enhanced Th17 activation and IL-17 production to restore the balance. Dysregulation of healthy microbiota populations contributes to the pathogenesis of several chronic inflammatory or autoimmune diseases, partly by disrupting the balance of T17 responses in the gut that then influences systemic Th17 activation.^{246,247}

IL-33 is a negative regulator of T17 cell differentiation, and inhibits IL-17 protective immunity in the gut.²⁴⁸

Urbanization in western countries has been associated with changes in the gut microbiome and intestinal diversity reduction.²⁴⁹⁻²⁵³ Before the turn of the 19th century, allergic diseases existed but were uncommon. One of the first cases of rhinitis (with multimorbidity) described in 1819 was in the UK where

industrialization had started.²⁵⁴ It is possible that, depending on microbiota changes, IL-17 can be protective or harmful (rhinitis alone) or replaced by IL-33 (multimorbidity) in genetically predisposed individuals exposed to environmental triggers. In the case of ancestral microbiota, IL-17 has a protective role. When microbiota diversity is reduced, a harmful IL-17 predominates and, with a further reduction, IL-33 becomes the predominant pathway (Figure 6). These findings may explain some of the epidemic trends in allergic diseases.

Two studies performed in Montpellier (France) on cypress pollen-allergic patients may support this hypothesis.^{26,201} A double-blinded placebo-controlled study showed that daily exposure to microbial biodiversity is associated with immune modulation in children with an increase in IL-10 and a decrease in IL-17 in peripheral blood.²⁵⁵

The ARIA-MeDALL hypothesis

In allergic and airway diseases

- The hypothesis is centered around IL-17, IL-33, and their interactions with the microbiome and co-factors.
- Depending on the genetic background (TLR, IL-33, others), environmental exposure, and other (un)defined factors, the relationship between the cytokines and the microbiome differs.
- In ancestral microbiome, IL-17 plays its normal protective function. As an example, short-chain fatty acids present in ancestral microbiome have multiple activities, and are potent regulators of IL-17 and IL-33.^{256,257}
- When the complexity of the microbiome decreases, IL-17 becomes pathogenic, and interacts with TLRs (local disease) and other mechanisms. In the case of rhinitis, there is a production of IgE to a relatively small number of allergens. It is likely that co-factors (e.g., viral infections) may play a role in the onset of the disease. The disease usually occurs after childhood.
- When the complexity of the microbiome decreases further, the IL-33 pathway is activated and, in genetically susceptible individuals, there is multimorbidity and polysensitization. This activation may occur just after birth (atopic march) or later in early childhood (re-occurrence of T2 signaling) associated with viruses, *Staphylococcus aureus*, pollutants or non-allergenic components of allergens.
- IL-33 may decrease the IL-17 pathways.

In other noncommunicable diseases and autoimmunity, the hypothesis is similarly centered around IL-17, IL-33 (or other pivotal cytokines) and their interactions with the microbiome.

10.5 | Beyond rhinitis and asthma

10.5.1 | Eosinophilic esophagitis

Most but not all EoE patients present multimorbid diseases including mainly rhinitis and asthma, and, less often, AD.²⁵⁸ An extreme EoE phenotype combines very high eosinophils with allergic multimorbidities and some of the genes found in asthma, rhinitis, and AD multimorbidities.⁹⁴

10.5.2 | Chronic diseases, autoimmunity, and mental health

The IL-33-IL-17 interplay in rhinitis and asthma may be extended to other diseases. IL-17 is a driver of immunopathology in asthma,²⁵⁹ COPD,²⁶⁰ neurodegenerative diseases,²⁶¹ autoimmune diseases,²⁶²⁻²⁶⁴ or infertility.^{265,266} IL-33 has also been involved in some of these diseases, but often in animal models.^{262,267,268}

It is possible that changes in the microbiome are modifying the protective effects of IL-17 or its interaction with IL-33, and that genetic variations of *IL33* or *IL17* genes associated with environmental influences may confer protective or susceptibility risk in the onset of the disease. It would be of major interest to study whether IL-17-associated COPD or asthma are local diseases by comparison to multimorbid COPD or asthma and rhinitis multimorbidity.

10.6 | Clinical significance of this novel hypothesis

Combining the data of this hypothesis, rhinitis alone and rhinitis and asthma multimorbidity represent two distinct diseases in terms of genomics, but also with important clinical implications. Overall,

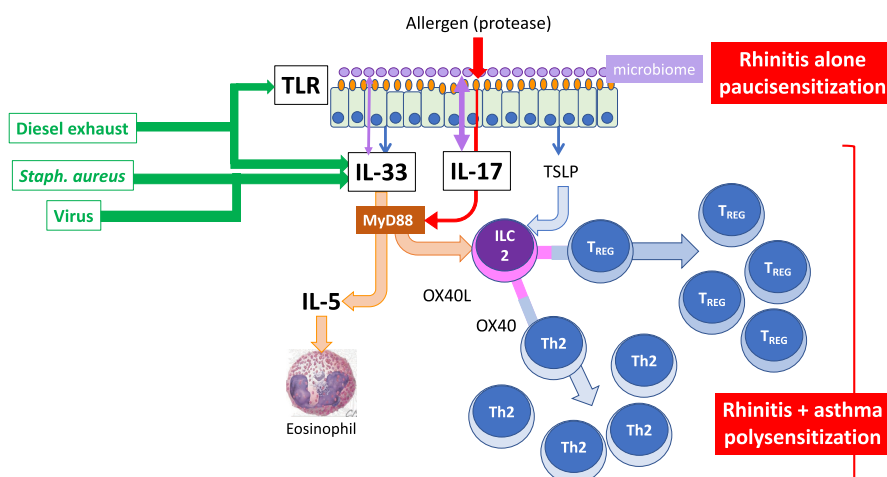


FIGURE 5 Putative mechanisms of rhinitis and rhinitis and asthma multimorbidity.

patients with rhinitis alone have a better control of nasal symptoms than those with rhinitis and asthma. Moreover, differences in treatment appear to be significant. The impact of conjunctivitis requires further information. These results will need to be embedded in the novel ARIA classification, and reflected in the guideline generation.

11 | LIMITATIONS OF THE ARIA-MEDALL HYPOTHESIS

Several limitations should be considered in the hypothesis. In general, some observations may not fit this hypothesis, and more in-depth analysis is required to assess how these observations should be generalized.

Many clinical, epidemiological, and mHealth sections are based on the research done by the authors, who have been investigating the multimorbidity-polysensitization concept for decades. Fewer studies on multimorbidity have been carried out by other authors. We have included all of the studies that we came across using an extensive literature search, but a systematic review is required.

Most of the cohort studies have been carried out using questionnaires, as this is a standard method. A physician's assessment may be useful in future studies.

Some key studies (e.g., MeDALL) were carried out only on children, and new data need be generated to assess (i) whether the proposed hypothesis can be generalized for adult asthma and rhinitis, and (ii) the impact of age, as mechanisms may differ between children and adults. Moreover, we focused the study on T2-asthma, and other endotypes need to be investigated.²⁶⁹ As an example, studies on CRS indicate the presence of T1 or T17 inflammation in a group of patients,²⁷⁰⁻²⁷² and studies on asthma propose a role of IL-17 in asthma multimorbidity.²⁷³ However, these multimorbid patterns need to be approached in more detail. We did not investigate non-allergic multimorbidities that increase in prevalence with age,²⁷⁴ or the links between chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) and asthma.²⁷⁵

The hypothesis is based on the microbiome, but other mechanisms are of importance and should be considered. As an example, intestinal mucus layer erosion contributing to barrier disruption by foods, chemicals, and other triggers may have a relevant role.^{276,277}

12 | OPPORTUNITIES FOR RESEARCH

12.1 | Conclusions

Based on (i) new insights into polysensitization and multimorbidity, (ii) advances in mHealth for the definition of novel phenotypes, (iii) confirmation in canonical epidemiologic studies, (iv) genomic findings, and (v) therapeutic studies, we propose novel concepts on the onset of rhinitis and multimorbidity (Table 4). Our main hypothesis is that rhinitis alone and rhinitis and asthma multimorbidity represent two distinct diseases with differences in genetic background,

allergen sensitization patterns, severity of symptoms, and treatment response. For mechanistic, biologic, genetic, and clinical studies, the two diseases need to be studied separately. The microbiome appears to play a key role in the onset of the two diseases. This study in rhinitis and rhinitis+asthma may be used to understand some of the aspects of the epidemics of chronic and autoimmune diseases. It is clear that other pathways exist. Further research is, however, required to further explore the solidity of this concept.

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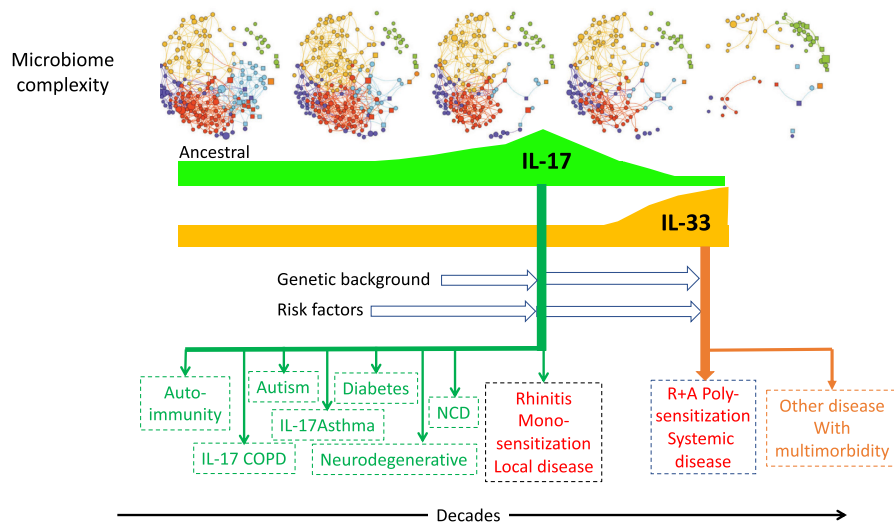


FIGURE 6 Putative interactions with the microbiome.

TABLE 4 Opportunities for research.

Systematic reviews on the different topics of the paper.

Confirmation of the hypotheses in various settings: for example, the IL-33/IL-17-TLR hypothesis should be studied in settings with low allergen/rich microbiome exposures such as Karelia²⁹³ or birth on an animal farm.

Further understanding of the role of the microbiome and biodiversity, and bringing the microbiome back to an ancestral or preindustrial state.²⁹⁴

Food allergy: Relationships to multimorbidity and polysensitization need to be investigated with regards to the onset, severity and resolution of symptoms.

Cell types involved including epithelium: The epithelial barrier hypothesis may explain the increase in allergy, autoimmunity, and other chronic conditions, and should be tested.⁹ Other cell types linked to innate immunity should also be considered.

Differences in the efficacy of biologics depending on multimorbidity diseases.

Innate versus adaptive immunity in polysensitization: Polysensitization and multimorbidity may be a primary event stemming from (i) differences in innate immunity associated with altered adaptive immunity in some patients or (ii) persisting alterations in innate immunity in others.

Differences between allergy and parasites: IL-33 signaling plays a pathological and protective role in parasitic infections.^{295,296} Control of inflammation induced by parasites by IL-17 is also possible for efficient host protection.²⁹⁷⁻²⁹⁹

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












































































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Dr. Alkis Togias' co-authorship of this publication does not constitute endorsement by the National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases, the National Institutes of Health or any other agency of the United States Government.

ORCID

- J. Bousquet  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4061-4766>
 E. Melén  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8248-0663>
 T. Haahtela  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4757-2156>
 G. H. Koppelman  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8567-3252>
 A. Togias  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9009-5717>
 R. Valenta  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5944-3365>
 C. A. Akdis  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8020-019X>
 W. Czarlewski  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-6180-3232>
 M. Rothenberg  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9790-6332>
 A. Valiulis  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0287-9915>
 M. Wickman  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2710-8620>
 M. Akdis  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0554-9943>

- D. Aguilar  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5399-3278>
- A. Bedbrook  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9226-7762>
- C. Bindslev-Jensen  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8940-038X>
- S. Bosnic-Anticevich  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5077-8329>
- L. P. Boulet  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3485-9393>
- C. E. Brightling  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9345-4903>
- L. Brussino  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7249-7616>
- E. Burte  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3341-5352>
- M. Bustamante  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0127-2860>
- G. W. Canonica  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8467-2557>
- L. Cecchi  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0658-2449>
- J. C. Celedon  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7676-4478>
- C. Chaves Loureiro  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0438-6126>
- E. Costa  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1158-1480>
- A. A. Cruz  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7403-3871>
- M. Erhola  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1364-9023>
- B. Gemicoglu  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5953-4881>
- W. J. Fokkens  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4852-229X>
- J. Garcia-Aymerich  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7097-4586>
- S. Guerra  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7218-3246>
- J. Heinrich  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9620-1629>
- J. C. Ivancevich  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8713-6258>
- T. Keil  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9108-3360>
- L. Klimek  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2455-0192>
- P. Kuna  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2401-0070>
- M. Kupczyk  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0800-7867>
- V. Kvedariene  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-6119-211X>
- D. E. Larenas-Linnemann  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5713-5331>
- N. Lemonnier  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3994-8697>
- K. C. Lodrup Carlsen  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9257-1198>
- R. Louis  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4737-9084>
- M. Makela  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2933-3111>
- M. Makris  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2713-2380>
- M. Maurer  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4121-481X>
- I. Momas  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4344-3787>
- M. Morais-Almeida  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1837-2980>
- J. Mullol  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3463-5007>
- R. N. Naclerio  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4016-9030>
- K. Nadeau  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2146-2955>
- R. Nadif  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4938-9339>
- M. Niedoszytko  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1089-1911>
- Y. Okamoto  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9352-1582>
- M. Ollert  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8055-0103>
- N. G. Papadopoulos  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4448-3468>
- G. Passalacqua  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5139-3604>
- V. Patella  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5640-6446>
- R. Pawankar  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3091-7237>
- N. Pham-Thi  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4730-2941>
- O. Pfaar  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4374-9639>
- F. S. Regateiro  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-6332-3056>
- J. Ring  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8236-3152>
- P. W. Rouadi  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5365-9568>
- B. Samolinski  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4043-7747>
- J. Sastre  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4689-6837>
- M. Savouré  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3220-8175>
- N. Scichilone  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6400-6573>
- M. H. Shamji  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3425-3463>
- A. Sheikh  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7022-3056>
- V. Siroux  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7329-7237>
- B. Sousa-Pinto  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1277-3401>
- M. Standl  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5345-2049>
- J. Sunyer  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2602-4110>
- L. Taborda-Barata  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6649-8890>
- S. Toppila-Salmi  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0890-6686>
- M. J. Torres  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2988-6055>
- I. Tsiligianni  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7922-7491>
- E. Valovirta  <https://orcid.org/0009-0003-5285-8316>
- O. Vandenplas  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4608-3310>
- M. T. Ventura  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2637-4583>
- S. Weiss  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7196-303X>
- A. Yorgancioglu  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4032-0944>
- L. Zhang  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0910-9884>
- A. H. Abdul Latiff  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-6304-0494>
- W. Aberer  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6431-658X>
- I. Agache  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7994-364X>
- M. Al-Ahmad  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2950-5363>
- I. Alobid  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0273-3422>
- I. J. Ansotegui  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-6942-1511>
- S. H. Arshad  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5988-235X>
- E. Asayag  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9261-4103>
- C. Barbara  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0915-4105>
- A. Baharudin  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9138-9215>
- L. Battur  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4505-8786>
- K. S. Bennoor  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9973-6784>
- E. C. Bergheda  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9522-8363>
- K. C. Bergmann  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0306-9922>
- H. Blain  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0177-2470>
- M. Bonini  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3042-0765>
- F. Braido  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2460-4709>
- R. Buhl  <https://orcid.org/0009-0001-5695-5899>
- R. S. Bumbacea  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9339-1159>
- A. Bush  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6756-9822>
- M. Calderon  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5020-8454>
- M. Calvo-Gil  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8947-7256>
- P. Camargos  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4731-291X>
- L. Caraballo  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5204-1109>
- V. Cardona  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2197-9767>
- W. Carr  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-6519-5860>
- P. Carreiro-Martins  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4129-133X>
- T. Casale  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3149-7377>
- A. M. Cepeda Sarabia  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3117-1243>
- R. Chandrasekharan  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6791-039X>
- D. Charpin  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4493-4756>
- I. Cherrez-Ojeda  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1610-239X>
- T. Chivato  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7929-2605>

- E. Chkhartishvili  <https://orcid.org/0009-0006-6199-2017>
- G. Christoff  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4549-7711>
- D. K. Chu  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8269-4496>
- C. Cingi  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3934-5092>
- J. Correia de Sousa  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6459-7908>
- C. Corrigan  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0706-6534>
- A. Custovic  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5218-7071>
- G. D'Amato  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0503-9428>
- S. Del Giacco  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4517-1749>
- F. De Blay  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5678-2214>
- P. Devillier  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6054-1886>
- A. Didier  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6230-9706>
- M. do Ceu Teixeira  <https://orcid.org/0009-0002-0345-078X>
- D. Dokic  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6950-5291>
- H. Douagui  <https://orcid.org/0009-0001-5521-1548>
- M. Doulaptsi  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9011-0315>
- S. Durham  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5264-6207>
- M. Dykewicz  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9145-7636>
- T. Eiwegger  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2914-7829>
- Z. A. El-Sayed  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3442-7606>
- R. Emuzyte  <https://orcid.org/0009-0006-8930-0334>
- A. Fiocchi  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2549-0523>
- N. Fyhrquist  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5408-0005>
- R. M. Gomez  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6898-186X>
- M. Gotua  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2497-4128>
- M. A. Guzman  <https://orcid.org/0009-0003-6750-7519>
- J. Hagemann  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9846-7850>
- S. Hamamah  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7357-285X>
- S. Halken  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0161-8278>
- D. M. G. Halpin  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2009-4406>
- M. Hofmann  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3859-234X>
- E. Hossny  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6876-6318>
- M. Hrubisko  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3954-7172>
- C. Irani  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7706-3910>
- Z. Ispayeva  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0708-779X>
- E. Jares  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9411-0582>
- T. Jartti  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2748-5362>
- E. Jassem  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4239-4776>
- K. Julge  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2307-9343>
- J. Just  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5646-2429>
- M. Jutel  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1555-9379>
- I. Kaidashev  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4708-0859>
- O. Kalayci  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8715-5694>
- A. F. Kalyoncu  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7475-3775>
- P. Kardas  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-6078-2628>
- B. Kirenga  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2023-2840>
- H. Kraxner  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0331-5345>
- I. Kull  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6096-3771>
- M. Kulus  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5360-4372>
- S. La Grutta  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8026-0715>
- S. Lau  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5189-4265>
- L. Le Tuyet Thi  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8899-1096>
- M. Levin  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2439-7981>
- B. Lipworth  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8140-2014>
- O. Lourenço  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8401-5976>
- B. Mahboub  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-6089-438X>
- P. Matricardi  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5485-0324>
- N. Miculinic  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3515-8057>
- N. Miguere  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3923-8505>
- F. Mihaltan  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5936-9545>
- Y. Mohammad  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9969-0018>
- M. Moniuszko  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7183-3120>
- S. Montefort  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3993-9002>
- H. Neffen  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7362-6405>
- K. Nekam  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-6947-4269>
- E. Nunes  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1736-1473>
- D. Nyembue Tshipukane  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7179-3883>
- R. O'Hehir  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3489-7595>
- I. Ogulur  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8282-7762>
- K. Ohta  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9734-4579>
- K. Okubo  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9900-4284>
- S. Ouedraogo  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5204-0280>
- H. Olze  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9987-6392>
- I. Pali-Schöll  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2089-6011>
- O. Palomares  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4516-0369>
- K. Palosuo  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4357-0439>
- C. Panaitescu  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8749-9972>
- P. Panzner  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1291-450X>
- H. S. Park  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2614-0303>
- C. Pitsios  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8935-278X>
- D. Plavec  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2020-8119>
- T. A. Popov  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5052-5866>
- F. Puggioni  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6638-5626>
- S. Quirce  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8086-0921>
- M. Recto  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6818-8888>
- M. S. Repka-Ramirez  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9570-1277>
- C. Robalo Cordeiro  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8264-3856>
- N. Roche  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3162-5033>
- M. Rodriguez-Gonzalez  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9149-1137>
- J. Romantowski  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0487-0957>
- N. Rosario Filho  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8550-8051>
- M. Rottem  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9915-0273>
- H. Sagara  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2376-1606>
- F. S. Serpa  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5703-4370>
- Z. Sayah  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4436-5178>
- S. Scheire  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9623-4458>
- P. Schmid-Grendelmeier  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3215-3370>
- J. C. Sisul  <https://orcid.org/0009-0001-6478-812X>
- D. Sole  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3579-0861>
- M. Soto-Martinez  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5509-6164>
- M. Sova  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8542-7841>
- A. Sperl  <https://orcid.org/0009-0004-4384-6599>
- O. Spranger  <https://orcid.org/0009-0003-3749-2782>
- R. Stelmach  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5132-1934>
- C. Suppli Ulrik  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8689-3695>
- M. Thomas  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5939-1155>

- T. To  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7463-3423>
- A. Todo-Bom  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1850-6689>
- P. V. Tomazic  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6445-4800>
- M. Urrutia-Pereira  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6575-7897>
- M. Valentin-Rostan  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0782-9386>
- E. Van Ganse  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7463-9187>
- M. van Hage  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3091-1596>
- T. Vasankari  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1413-8970>
- P. Vichyanond  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5103-2916>
- G. Viegi  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1855-4410>
- D. Wallace  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6772-5602>
- D. Y. Wang  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0909-2963>
- S. Williams  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0527-2254>
- M. Worm  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3449-1245>
- P. Yiallourous  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8339-9285>
- O. Yusuf  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8067-1204>
- F. Zaitoun  <https://orcid.org/0009-0006-4877-7937>
- M. Zernotti  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4288-2809>
- M. Zidarn  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0515-5207>
- J. Zuberbier  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9106-9123>
- J. A. Fonseca  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3223-7163>
- T. Zuberbier  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1466-8875>
- J. M. Anto  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4736-8529>

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