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60 the interpretation of data and content of the Conclusions section, and reviewed and  
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67 submission. DR participated in drafting the Introduction and Conclusions sections,  
68 interpretation of the results, and reviewed and provided final approval for the  
69 submission. JF participated in the design of the main study, supervised the cleaning and  
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78 At A Glance Commentary:

79 Scientific Knowledge on the Subject: There is a paucity of data on children's patterns of  
80 asthma controller medication adherence and variations in adherence, particularly in the  
81 Latino sub-groups, which may help explain the asthma health disparities observed  
82 between Mexican and Puerto Rican children.

83 What This Study Adds to the Field: This is the first study to show that unique ethnicity  
84 *within* Latino populations may be associated with different levels of controller medication  
85 non-adherence risk and the relationship of these patterns to acute healthcare utilization.  
86 These results add to our emerging evidence on children's patterns of ICS medication  
87 adherence and suggest a need for clinical monitoring of ICS medication use and  
88 development of targeted interventions to address suboptimal treatment patterns.

89 Conflict of Interest: All authors declare no conflicts of interest, financial or otherwise.

## 90 **Abstract**

### 91 **Rationale**

92 Researchers tend to study Latinos as a single group but recent asthma research  
93 confirmed differences among Latino subgroups. Variations in controller medication  
94 adherence may be a factor in the observed health disparities between Mexican and  
95 Puerto Rican children. Adherence is not a stable phenomenon, however, there is a  
96 paucity of data on patterns of adherence, sociodemographic predictors of patterns, and  
97 variations in asthma-related acute healthcare utilization by adherence pattern among  
98 Latino sub-groups.

### 99 **Objectives**

100 Identify patterns of inhaled corticosteroid medication adherence over twelve months  
101 among Mexican and Puerto Rican children with persistent asthma; examine socio-  
102 demographic predictors of adherence patterns by ethnicity; and investigate asthma-  
103 related acute healthcare utilization based on these patterns.

### 104 **Methods and Measures**

105 We analyzed controller medication Doser data from Mexican and Puerto Rican children  
106 ( $n=123$ ; ages 5-12 years) with persistent asthma who participated with their caregivers  
107 in a longitudinal, non-intervention study (Phoenix, AZ and Bronx, NY). Interview and  
108 medical record data were collected at enrollment, 3, 6, 9, and 12 months post-  
109 enrollment.

### 110 **Main Results**

111 23%-32% of children had poor adherence (<50%) over each of the follow-up periods  
112 (cross-sectional). Children with lowest adherence were Puerto Rican, from non-poor  
113 families, or female. Longitudinal latent class analysis yielded 4 adherence classes: poor;  
114 moderate; declining adherence; and increasing adherence. Puerto Rican children had  
115 significantly higher odds of “Decreasing” ( $OR=2.86$ ) and “Poor” ( $OR=5.62$ ) adherence  
116 compared to Mexican children. Females had significantly greater odds of “Decreasing”  
117 ( $OR=4.80$ ) and “Poor” ( $OR=5.20$ ) adherence group membership compared to Males.  
118 The “Decreasing” adherence group was comprised of only poor children. Children in the  
119 “Poor” adherence class had the highest mean number of acute visits and ED  
120 visits/hospitalizations across all assessment periods.

## 121 **Conclusions**

122 This study demonstrated that unique ethnicity *within* Latino populations may be  
123 associated with different risk levels for suboptimal controller medication adherence  
124 which may be a factor in the observed asthma health disparities between Mexican and  
125 Puerto Rican children. Increased understanding of and attention to children’s controller  
126 medication adherence patterns will provide evidence needed to identify children at  
127 highest risk for acute healthcare utilization and offer more intensive intervention using  
128 less-intensive approaches for those at low risk.

129 Word count: 350

130

**131 Introduction**

132 Despite evidence-based guidelines for asthma management and control (1), low asthma  
133 controller medication adherence in children persists, with minority children at greater  
134 risk of non-adherence and poor outcomes than non-minority children (2-6). Adherence  
135 to controller medications is critical and can significantly reduce exacerbations and  
136 improve asthma control (2, 7, 8). Researchers have tended to study Latinos as a single  
137 group but recent descriptive asthma research has confirmed significant heterogeneity  
138 among Latino subgroups (particularly between Mexicans and Puerto Ricans) regarding  
139 prevalence, mortality and morbidity, illness beliefs, and asthma healthcare practices (9-  
140 13). Puerto Rican children exhibit the highest rates of asthma prevalence and mortality  
141 among all ethnic groups while Mexican children have the lowest rates (9, 12). Genetic,  
142 environmental, healthcare system, and provider factors (13-15) cannot totally explain  
143 the differences between these two groups.

144

145 There is growing evidence about factors leading to non-adherence and interventions  
146 focused on improving adherence. Although an evidence-based cut-off value for good  
147 adherence (16) has not been established, rates >80% are traditionally considered  
148 acceptable (16, 17). The majority of adherence interventions primarily target children  
149 with controller medication adherence <80% assuming that children >80% at initial  
150 assessment will remain adherent. There is evidence that adherence is not a stable  
151 phenomenon (17-20), although there is a paucity of data on patterns of adherence  
152 among individuals with asthma and none within sub-groups of Latino children (21).  
153 Souverein et al. (17) examined longitudinal patterns of inhaled corticosteroid (ICS)



154 medication initiation (21) among a sample of long term care patients ( $n=13,922$ ). The  
155 results identified periods of non-adherence alternating with periods of regular ICS use.  
156 LaForest et al. (20) examined ICS adherence over 12 months among children and  
157 adults selectively recruited for high initial adherence. The investigators noted  
158 fragmented episodes of ICS use which typically lasted several months even though all  
159 individuals were adherent at baseline (20). A better understanding of controller  
160 medication adherence patterns in children will provide evidence needed to identify  
161 individuals at highest risk for non-adherence and acute healthcare utilization and offer a  
162 more intensive intervention while using less-intensive approaches for those at low risk  
163 preventing waste of precious healthcare resources.

164  
165 A literature review revealed no studies directly examining controller medication  
166 adherence between Mexican and Puerto Rican children; thus these analyses fill a  
167 critical gap in our knowledge and offer insights to factors leading to asthma health  
168 disparities between these Latino sub-groups. The objectives of these secondary  
169 analyses were to: 1) identify patterns of children's ICS medication adherence over a 12  
170 month assessment period in a sample of Mexican and Puerto Rican children with  
171 persistent asthma; 2) examine sociodemographic and seasonal predictors of adherence  
172 patterns and; 3) investigate asthma-related acute healthcare utilization based on these  
173 patterns. To the best of our knowledge, this was the first study to examine objectively  
174 measured longitudinal patterns of ICS medication adherence in children, explore  
175 heterogeneity in adherence patterns within a sample of Latino children, and link those  
176 patterns to clinical outcomes.

177

178 **Methods**

179 We analyzed ICS medication data from a sample of Mexican and Puerto Rican children  
180 with persistent asthma requiring daily controller medications (ages 5-12 years) who  
181 participated with their caregivers in a longitudinal, non-intervention study (Phoenix, AZ  
182 and Bronx, NY). The main study tested an explanatory, integrated multi-factorial model  
183 investigating the interaction of individual characteristics, cultural and experiential and  
184 healthcare system factors, and social-environmental context that lead to disparities  
185 between these two Latino sub-groups. Children and caregivers were recruited from two  
186 school-based health clinics and the Breathmobile in Phoenix, Arizona and two inner-city  
187 hospital asthma clinics in Bronx, New York. A total of 267 child/caregiver dyads were  
188 enrolled in the main study. Structured interviews were administered to caregivers and  
189 shorter interviews and spirometry assessments conducted with children at enrollment  
190 and 3, 6, 9, and 12 months post-enrollment. A retrospective review of children's medical  
191 records was completed. Objective measures of children's ICS medication adherence  
192 were assessed by Doser devices (MediTrack Products, Hudson, MA) attached to the  
193 top of the ICS canister at baseline. Data were downloaded at each follow-up visit  
194 yielding 12 months of adherence measures. Due to differences in treatment regimen  
195 adherence between inhaled and oral and combination ICS/LABA controller medications,  
196 all children with use of oral and/or combination ICS/LABA medications were excluded  
197 ( $n=73$ ) from these analyses. Two children had no record of controller or quick relief  
198 medication prescriptions. We had Doser data on a subsample of 123 of 192 children  
199 (64.1%) prescribed inhaled corticosteroids. The study was approved by the Institutional

200 Review Boards of the Arizona State University, Phoenix Children's Hospital, Scottsdale  
201 Healthcare and Albert Einstein College of Medicine.

202

203 *Sociodemographic Characteristics.* All enrolled participants self-identified as Mexican or  
204 Puerto Rican. We obtained child's sex, age, and asthma duration (number of months  
205 since diagnosis); family perception of poverty; caregiver's marital status and education;  
206 and season of interview. Due to the socio-legal climate in Phoenix, we did not ask for  
207 annual income demonstrating sensitivity to the challenges these families were facing.  
208 To assess caregivers' perception of poverty, a measure adapted by Gore et al. (22)  
209 asked "What best describes your family's standard of living?" Response choices ranged  
210 from 1=*Very well off* to 6=*Poor* and was dichotomized as *Poor=Nearly Poor* or *Poor*. All  
211 enrolled children/caregiver dyads were Medicaid/Medicaid-eligible and received their  
212 asthma medications free from the participating clinics.

213

214 *Seasonality.* Using each interview date, we created the season that baseline and follow-  
215 up interviews were conducted, adherence data captured, and acute asthma-related  
216 healthcare utilization occurred. Seasons were defined as: Spring=March-May;  
217 Summer=June-August; Fall=September-November; Winter=December-February.

218

219 *Clinician-rated Asthma Severity.* Clinician ratings of children's asthma severity were  
220 conducted per clinical guidelines (1). The ratings were based on clinicians' assessment  
221 of impairment given the caregivers' and children's responses to structured questions

222 regarding daytime and nocturnal symptoms, activity limitations, short-acting  $\beta$ 2 agonist  
223 use for the 2-4 week period prior to the interview, spirometry, and risk of adverse  
224 events. All ratings were completed by pediatric pulmonologists.

225 *Adherence.* Doser devices were attached to the child's ICS canister at the baseline visit.  
226 Doser data were downloaded at each assessment period (M3=baseline-month 3;  
227 M6=month 3-month 6; M9=month 6-month 9, and M12=month 9-month 12) yielding 12  
228 months of adherence data. The Doser devices recorded the number of actuations each  
229 day for the prior 30 days. For medications where we could not attach the Doser due to  
230 built-in counters, we captured the counter data at each visit. Adherence data were  
231 cleaned per procedures outlined by McQuaid, Kopel, Klein & Fritz (23). Adherence was  
232 calculated as the # doses taken per day/# prescribed doses per day x 100. Daily  
233 adherence was truncated to 100% to account for accidental actuations (e.g., bumping in  
234 a backpack) or intentional actuations due to trying to make up for missed doses the  
235 previous day. Average adherence and adherence categories were created  
236 (<50%=Poor, 50-80%=Moderate, >80%=Good) at each time period (24).

237 *Acute Healthcare Utilization.* Children's medical records from the recruitment site were  
238 reviewed for 12 months prior to enrollment and the 12 month study period to obtain  
239 counts of acute and ED asthma visits and hospitalizations. Asthma-related ED visits and  
240 hospitalizations were combined due to the low frequency. Because asthma-related  
241 healthcare visits may have occurred outside the child's medical home, caregiver reports  
242 were checked against the medical record based on visit date (+/- one month to account  
243 for recall errors). In cases where the medical record and caregiver dates were  
244 congruent, medical record data were used. Where there was a caregiver report but no

245 medical record visit for that date, caregiver report was used. If a visit was recorded in  
246 the medical record but not reported by the caregiver, medical record data were used.

247 *Statistical Analyses.* Only data for children prescribed an ICS medication and who had  
248 at least 2 adherence data points were analyzed. Cross-sectional descriptive chi-square  
249 analyses examined adherence by ethnicity, child sex and age, poverty, and season.  
250 Structural equation modeling and longitudinal latent class analysis (LLCA) explored  
251 patterns of adherence over time and acute healthcare utilization by adherence class.  
252 The LLCA also examined sociodemographic characteristics (ethnicity, marital status,  
253 poverty, caregiver education, child's age, sex, and asthma duration, and number of  
254 family members with asthma) to identify predictors of class membership. Interaction  
255 effects for ethnicity with caregiver marital status, education, poverty, and child sex were  
256 examined. Reference groups were Puerto Rican, female, non-poor, summer, and  
257 "Moderate" adherence group. Model selection was based on the log likelihood,  
258 Bayesian Information Criteria (BIC), and entropy. Models specifying 2, 3, and 4 classes  
259 were run and fit statistics compared to determine the best fitting model (25, 26).  
260 Statistical significance was set at  $p < .10$ , the convention for structural equation modeling  
261 and LLCA.

262

## 263 **Results**

264 A total of 267 child/caregiver dyads enrolled and completed baseline measures and  
265 assessments. We had adherence data for 123/192 children prescribed non-combination  
266 ICS medications (64.1%). Analyses were conducted (data not shown) to examine

267 whether children who were missing adherence data were different from those who had  
268 adherence data based on ethnicity; recruitment site; number of family members with  
269 asthma; caregivers' marital status, education, perception of poverty, reported use of  
270 controller medication in the past month, age and sex; and child's sex, age, asthma  
271 duration and severity. Children who were missing adherence data were more likely to  
272 not have used controller medications in the past month, had mild or severe persistent  
273 asthma, and had caregivers who were older and high school graduates. There were no  
274 differences by ethnicity.

275

276 Table 1 presents the sample characteristics by ethnic group. Puerto Rican caregivers  
277 were less likely to be married or poor and more likely to have graduated from high  
278 school. Puerto Rican children were younger, had higher clinician ratings of severe  
279 persistent asthma, and lower likelihood of caregiver-reported controller medication use  
280 in the past month compared to Mexican children.

281 **Cross-sectional Analyses.** Figure 1 illustrates cross-sectional adherence by time.  
282 Good adherence (>80%) at each time period was low (7%-12%) with the largest  
283 proportion of children demonstrating poor adherence (23%-32%). Puerto Rican children  
284 had the highest proportion of poor adherence at each time period (63%-80%) compared  
285 to Mexican children (40%-49%)(Figure 2). Although a higher proportion of Mexican  
286 (19%-23%) compared to Puerto Rican children (0%-21%) had good adherence, overall,  
287 these proportions are quite low. Because all of the Puerto Rican children were enrolled  
288 at the Bronx hospital clinics, we conducted additional analyses to investigate whether  
289 adherence differences were due to ethnicity or clinic setting. A sub-group analysis was

290 conducted comparing adherence for Mexican and Puerto Rican children enrolled at the  
291 Bronx hospital clinic sites. More Puerto Rican children in the hospital clinics had poor  
292 adherence at every time period (71%-80%) compared to Mexican children from the  
293 same clinic (33%-63%). Additionally, we examined adherence by site to determine  
294 whether adherence was lowest at the hospital-based clinics in the Bronx compared to  
295 the other sites. The school-based health centers in Phoenix actually had the lowest  
296 adherence across all assessment periods (range 10%-31%) followed by the hospital-  
297 based clinics (range 34%-38%) with the Breathmobile consistently having the highest  
298 adherence (range 50%-56%). These findings support our conclusion of ethnic  
299 differences unrelated to clinic site. Good adherence was low for both sexes ranging  
300 from 5% to 23% (Figure 3). Across all time periods, females demonstrated the highest  
301 proportions of poor adherence (55%-75%). At M3 and M6, more non-poor children  
302 demonstrated poor adherence compared to poor children. These differences dissipated  
303 over time (Figure 4). There were no seasonal differences in adherence at any time  
304 period (Figure 5). Similar adherence proportions were observed for younger and older  
305 children with the majority having poor adherence across all time periods (data not  
306 shown).

307 **Longitudinal Latent Class Analysis:** We tested 2, 3 and 4 class models examining  
308 adherence patterns from baseline through 12 months. Multiple imputation was used to  
309 impute missing data for the 123 children that had adherence data for at least 2 time  
310 periods. The LLCA revealed that the four class solution was the best of the three  
311 models tested. These classes of adherence are: poor (47%); moderate (31%); declining  
312 adherence (good or moderate adherence transitioning to poor adherence) (7%); and

313 increasing adherence (poor adherence shifting to moderate or good adherence) (15%)  
314 (Figure 6). Table 2 presents the results for significant predictors of adherence class  
315 membership; ethnicity, child sex, and poverty. No differences were observed for marital  
316 status, caregiver's education, child's age, asthma duration, or number of family  
317 members with asthma. Puerto Rican children had significantly higher odds of being in  
318 the "Decreasing" and "Poor" adherence groups compared to Mexican children. Females  
319 had significantly greater odds of being in the "Decreasing" and "Poor" adherence groups  
320 compared to Males; no females were in the "Improving" adherence class. The  
321 "Decreasing" adherence class was comprised of only poor children and these children  
322 also had lower odds of being in the "Improving" adherence class. No interaction effects  
323 of ethnicity with caregiver marital status, education, poverty, or child sex were observed  
324 (data not shown).

325

326 Differences in asthma-related healthcare utilization (i.e., acute care visits and ED  
327 visits/hospitalizations) were examined by adherence class and modeled by assessment  
328 period across 12 months. Because of small class sizes and low frequency of healthcare  
329 visits, we examined effect sizes to ascertain *clinically meaningful* (effect size  $\geq .30$ )  
330 differences between classes for acute care visits and ED visits/hospitalizations in  
331 addition to *statistically significant* differences (Table 3). Figures 7 and 8 plot the mean  
332 number of acute visits and ED visits/hospitalizations, respectively, at each assessment  
333 period by adherence class. For acute visits, clinically meaningful differences were  
334 observed between all adherence classes across all assessment periods except for M12  
335 poor vs. moderate. The "Moderate" adherence class had the lowest acute visits through



336 M9 but demonstrated a large increase from M9 to M12. The “Decreasing” adherence  
337 class initially had the highest acute visits which decreased through M9 and plateaued at  
338 M12. At M3, the “Increasing” adherence class had low acute visits which peaked at M6  
339 and then declined through M9 and M12. With the exception of M9, the “Poor” adherence  
340 class had the highest acute visits.

341

342 A different pattern emerged for ED visits/hospitalizations. At M3, all four classes had  
343 equivalent ED visits/hospitalizations. At M6, the “Poor” adherence class had significantly  
344 greater ED visits/hospitalizations compared to the remaining classes, a finding which  
345 held across M9 and M12. The “Moderate” adherence class had the lowest ED  
346 visits/hospitalizations at M6 but demonstrated steadily increasing visits through M9 and  
347 M12. The “Increasing” adherence class exhibited steady declines in ED  
348 visits/hospitalizations from baseline through M9 which then dramatically increased at  
349 M12. The “Decreasing” adherence class had relatively stable ED visits/hospitalizations  
350 across the 12 month assessment period. Examination of the between class differences  
351 revealed clinically meaningful differences for almost all contrasts (excluding M6  
352 increasing vs. decreasing adherence and M12 increasing vs. poor adherence) from M3  
353 through M12 months.

354

## 355 **Discussion**

356 These results add to our emerging evidence on patterns of ICS medication adherence  
357 in children. Notably, in our cross-sectional analyses, few children had adherence rates

358 consistently >80% and less than one third were classified as having moderate  
359 adherence (50%-80%). Our LLCA identified four classes of adherence with the majority  
360 (78%) classified as poor or moderate. This finding supports the tendency to focus  
361 interventions on individuals with adherence <80% using a risk/benefit approach. These  
362 results revealed that acute healthcare utilization differed by adherence class. Children in  
363 the "Poor" adherence class had the highest utilization across the entire 12 month period  
364 but there was an unexplained drop in acute visits between M6 and M9 which was not  
365 explained by season. The "Decreasing" adherence group had steadily declining acute  
366 visits and relatively stable ED visits/hospitalizations over the 12 month assessment  
367 period which may be due to caregivers stepping down therapy or stopping therapy when  
368 the child has been asymptomatic for a period of time. Several studies have reported that  
369 caregivers have a strong desire for their children to be medication-free and thus,  
370 discontinue using controller medications when the child no longer "has asthma" (27, 28).  
371 As we anticipated, children in the "Moderate" adherence group also had the lowest  
372 number of acute visits through M9. An unexpected finding was a dramatic increase in  
373 acute visits between M9 and M12, similar to what we observed for the poor adherence  
374 class. Again, this was not due to seasonal effects. When the "Improving" adherence  
375 class emerged, given that this was not an intervention study, we hypothesized that  
376 possibly an ED visit or hospitalization was the "trigger" for getting back on track with the  
377 prescribed regimen and this group of caregivers intervened early enough to prevent ED  
378 visits and hospitalizations. There is some support for this as evidenced by declining  
379 acute visits from M3 through M12 and slightly declining ED visits/hospitalizations  
380 through M9. However, this group had a substantial increase in ED visits/hospitalizations

381 from M9 to M12 months almost equaling the poor adherence class. Once more, this  
382 increase was not associated with season.

383

384 It is worth noting that evidence from prior research suggests that adherence in Latino  
385 children is strongly affected by children's and caregiver's symptom perception which is  
386 not highly accurate (29-31) and differs between Puerto Rican and other Latino sub-  
387 groups (32, 33); cultural beliefs about asthma and medication use (27, 28); and other  
388 socio-economic factors. This suggests close clinical monitoring of ICS medication use  
389 and development of targeted interventions to address inaccurate symptom perception  
390 and sub-optimal treatment patterns in this at-risk population. Given that pediatric  
391 adherence is heavily influenced by parental involvement, effective intervention may  
392 require tailoring to specific cultural needs at both adult (parent, grandparent) and child  
393 level.

394

395 Our study also is the first study showing that unique ethnic identity *within* Latino  
396 populations may be associated with different risk levels and highlights the role of  
397 socioeconomic factors. We demonstrated that Puerto Rican children were at  
398 substantially greater risk of poor adherence compared to Mexican children and that poor  
399 adherence led to the highest acute healthcare utilization across time. This supports our  
400 notion that adherence patterns may be a factor in Latino children's asthma health  
401 disparities. Our findings are pertinent in addressing the differences in asthma burden  
402 between Mexican and Puerto Rican children. Puerto Rican children, on average, were

403 half as adherent as Mexican children. Lack of adherence to ICS medications in our  
404 study highlights the role of these medications in the lack of bronchodilator  
405 responsiveness observed to a higher extent among Puerto Rican compared to Mexican  
406 children (36). It is unsurprising that poverty adversely affects adherence. Lack of  
407 adherence to medications in poor families is likely multifactorial. For many of these  
408 families lacking sufficient resources, purchasing controller medications may be a lower  
409 priority when there are competing demands for limited resources. Although Puerto  
410 Ricans perceived themselves as less poor than Mexicans and all study children  
411 received their ICS medications for free, they had lower adherence suggesting that  
412 factors other than poverty contributed to their lack of adherence. Higher asthma burden  
413 has been reported among female children compared to male (4, 37) and our findings  
414 confirm that with females exhibiting greater odds of decreasing and poor adherence.  
415 One explanation may be that as girls get older there is social pressure to look and act a  
416 certain way and using an inhaler may make them feel “different.”

417

418 **Limitations.** There are several important limitations. Objective measures of adherence  
419 were based on Doser tracking devices attached to the child’s ICS canister. The devices  
420 we used were capable of only storing the most recent 30 days of usage. Thus, we were  
421 unable to examine adherence continuously across the 12 month assessment period.  
422 Only 64% of the children had valid adherence data, thus, poor medication adherence  
423 may actually be under-estimated because this sub-sample may represent those  
424 individuals who were reliable enough to bring the medications to the visits. We did not

425 have pharmacy fill/refill data to compute the medication possession ratio or controller to  
426 total medication ratio as additional measures of adherence.

427

428 **Implications and Future Research.** Our findings suggest medication adherence is a  
429 major contributor to disease burden and acute healthcare utilization among urban Latino  
430 children. To the best of our knowledge, this was the first study which characterized  
431 longitudinal patterns of children's asthma ICS medication adherence and demonstrated  
432 differing risk levels for non-adherence based on ethnicity *within* the Latino population.  
433 Future research should further explore these patterns and risk factors among more  
434 heterogeneous Latino samples to inform targeted adherence intervention strategies.  
435 Health technology and wearable sensors are transforming our ability to monitor  
436 adherence beyond simply counting device actuations to assessing inhaler technique  
437 and capturing clinically meaningful data such as exhaled nitrous oxide, cough rate, and  
438 respiration patterns which can seamlessly upload data through wireless connectivity  
439 and Smartphone apps (38). Given that a significant proportion of children did not have  
440 adherence data and our Dosers could not continuously monitor adherence, future  
441 studies should incorporate these monitoring devices to more precisely examine the  
442 intra- and inter-person variability longitudinally and minimize missing adherence data.  
443 This technology could support adherence interventions that can be tailored to different  
444 ethnic sub-groups.

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446 their time and commitment to this study. We also thank our participating clinics and staff

447 for their ongoing collaboration as we continue to target children's asthma health  
448 disparities.

449

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- 558
- 559

560 Table 1. Sample Baseline Characteristics (*n*=123)

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Mexican (N=89) N (%)</b>	<b>Puerto Rican (N=34) N (%)</b>
Recruitment Site		
Hospital Clinic (NY)	17 (19.10)	34 (100)
Breathmobile (AZ)	61 (68.54)	0
School-based Health Center (AZ)	11 (12.36)	0
Season of Baseline Interview		
Summer	25 (28.09)	8 (23.53)
Fall	21 (23.60)	12 (35.29)
Winter	26 (29.21)	8 (23.53)
Spring	17 (19.10)	6 (17.65)
<b>Child:</b>	<b>N (%)</b>	<b>N (%)</b>
Child Sex (% Female)	31 (34.8)	15 (44.1)
Clinician-rated Asthma Severity		
Mild intermittent	9 (10.34)	3 (9.68)
Mild persistent	27 (31.03)	5 (16.13)
Moderate persistent	47 (54.02)	18 (58.06)
Severe persistent	4 (4.06)	5 (16.13)
Any Controller Medication Use in the Past Month (% Yes)	78 (87.64)	27 (79.41)
	<b>Mean (SD)</b>	<b>Mean (SD)</b>
Study Child's Age (Years)	9.53 (2.14)	8.64 (1.97)
Asthma Duration (# months since diagnosis)	68.28 (36.22)	82.21 (33.21)
% Adherent: Month 3	47.51 (30.05)	35.65 (28.91)
% Adherent: Month 6	53.47 (31.47)	35.44 (37.86)
% Adherent: Month 9	51.27 (28.68)	29.94 (27.57)
% Adherent: Month 12	53.09 (29.39)	26.41 (29.29)
<b>Caregiver</b>	<b>N (%)</b>	<b>N (%)</b>
Married (% Yes)	45 (50.56)	9 (26.47)
Poor (% Yes)	59 (66.29)	10 (29.41)
High School Graduate (% Yes)	34 (38.20)	19 (55.88)
Caregiver Sex (% Female)	85 (95.51)	32 (94.12)
	<b>Mean (SD)</b>	<b>Mean (SD)</b>
Caregiver's Age	34.57 (6.41)	36.00 (9.39)
# Family Members w/Asthma	1.17 (0.73)	0.82 (1.11)

561

562

563 Table 2. Sociodemographic Predictors of Controller Medication Adherence Class Membership

Variable	Model $\chi^2$	Improving Adherence		Moderate Adherence		Decreasing Adherence		Poor Adherence	
		Prob (SE)	Odds Ratio	Prob (SE)	Odds Ratio	Prob (SE)	Odds Ratio	Prob (SE)	Odds Ratio
Ethnicity	9.15****								
Mexican		.90		.87		.70		.54	
Puerto Rican		.10 (.11)	.73	.13 (.07)	REF	.30 (.15)	2.86	.46 (.09)	5.62
Child Sex	85.07*								
Male		1.0		.78		.42		.40	
Female		0 (0)	0	.22 (.08)	REF	.58 (.19)	4.80	.60 (.08)	5.20
Poverty	99.49****								
Non-Poor		.63		.41		0		.49	
Poor		.38 (.15)	.41	.59 (.10)	REF	1.0 (0)	0	.51 (.08)	.74

564 \*  $p < .05$ , \*\*  $p < .0001$

565 Prob=Probability

566 SE=Standard error

567

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568 Table 3. Latent Class Membership and Healthcare Utilization by Time Period

	Acute Care Visits		ED Visits+Hospitalizations	
	Mean Difference (95% CI)	Cohen's <i>d</i>	Mean Difference (95% CI)	Cohen's <i>d</i>
Month 3				
Poor Adherence				
vs. Decreasing Adherence	0.07 (-.115, .255)	.32	0.01 (-.107, .127)	.07
vs. Moderate Adherence	0.23 (.139, .321)	1.13	0.03 (-.033, .093)	.20
vs. Increasing Adherence	0.15 (.020, .281)	.73	0.01 (-.078, .098)	.06
Decreasing Adherence				
vs. Moderate Adherence	0.30 (.218, .383)	2.35	0.02 (-.067, .107)	.18
vs. Increasing Adherence	0.22 (.116, .324)	1.67	0.02 (-.088, .128)	.16
Moderate Adherence				
vs. Increasing Adherence	0.08 (.021, .139)	.76	0.04 (-.033, .113)	.31
Month 6				
Poor Adherence				
vs. Decreasing Adherence	0.45 (-.107, 1.007)	.76	0.12 (-.003, .243)	.84
vs. Moderate Adherence	0.55 (.281, .819)	.93	0.23 (.173, .291)	1.80
vs. Increasing Adherence	0.36 (-.034, .754)	.60	0.13 (.043, .217)	.93
Decreasing Adherence				
vs. Moderate Adherence	0.10 (.017, .184)	.87	0.11 (.077, .147)	1.67
vs. Increasing Adherence	0.09 (-.047, .227)	.59	0.01 (-.060, .080)	.12
Moderate Adherence				
vs. Increasing Adherence	0.19 (.112, .268)	1.27	0.10 (.073, .131)	1.69
Month 9				
Poor Adherence				
vs. Decreasing Adherence	.012 (.011, .229)	.97	0.06 (-.051, .171)	.44
vs. Moderate Adherence	0.09 (.034, .146)	.71	0.17 (.116, .224)	1.41
vs. Increasing Adherence	0.02 (-.062, .102)	.14	0.14 (.060, .220)	1.05
Decreasing Adherence				
vs. Moderate Adherence	0.03 (-.029, .089)	.40	0.11 (.057, .163)	1.24
vs. Increasing Adherence	0.14 (.050, .230)	1.43	0.08 (-.007, .167)	.76
Moderate Adherence				
vs. Increasing Adherence	0.11 (.056, .164)	1.08	0.03 (-.013, .073)	.36
Month 12				
Poor Adherence				
vs. Decreasing Adherence	0.27 (.101, .439)	1.44	0.10 (-.056, .256)	.57
vs. Moderate Adherence	0.01 (-.089, .109)	.04	0.06 (-.018, .138)	.34
vs. Increasing Adherence	0.23 (.108, .352)	1.17	0.02 (-.093, .133)	.11
Decreasing Adherence				
vs. Moderate Adherence	0.26 (.108, .412)	1.55	0.04 (-.027, .107)	.44
vs. Increasing Adherence	0.04 (-.054, .134)	.38	0.08 (-.014, .174)	.75
Moderate Adherence				
vs. Increasing Adherence	0.22 (.109, .331)	1.24	0.04 (-.018, .098)	.38

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570

## 571 Figure Legend

- 572 Figure 1. Categorical Cross-Sectional Adherence
- 573 Figure 2. Categorical Cross-Sectional Adherence by Ethnicity
- 574 Figure 3. Categorical Cross-Sectional Adherence by Child Sex
- 575 Figure 4. Categorical Cross-Sectional Adherence by Poverty Status
- 576 Figure 5. Categorical Cross-Sectional Adherence by Season
- 577 Figure 6. Longitudinal Latent Class Analysis: 4 Class Solution
- 578 Figure 7. Longitudinal Latent Class Analysis for Acute Visits by Adherence Class
- 579 Figure 8. Longitudinal Latent Class Analysis for ED Visits/Hospitalizations by  
580 Adherence Class
- 581