

Work-Related Asthma

Athena T. Jolly, MD, MPH, Julia E. Klees, MD, MPH, Karin A. Pacheco, MD, MSPH, Tee L. Guidotti, MD, MPH, DABT, Howard M. Kipen, MD, MPH, Jeremy J. Biggs, MD, MSPH, Mark H. Hyman, MD, Bruce K. Bohnker, MD, MPH, Matthew S. Thiese, PhD, MSPH, Kurt T. Hegmann, MD, MPH, and Philip Harber, MD, MPH

Objective: Summarize developed evidence-based diagnostic and treatment guidelines for work-related asthma (WRA). **Methods:** Comprehensive literature reviews conducted with article critiquing and grading. Guidelines developed by a multidisciplinary expert panel and peer-reviewed. **Results:** Evidence supports spirometric testing as an essential early test. Serial peak expiratory flow rates measurement is moderately recommended for employees diagnosed with asthma to establish work-relatedness. Bronchial provocation testing is moderately recommended. IgE and skin prick testing for specific high-molecular weight (HMW) antigens are highly recommended. IgG testing for HMW antigens, IgE testing for low-molecular weight antigens, and nitric oxide testing for diagnosis are not recommended. Removal from exposure is associated with the highest probability of improvement, but may not lead to complete recovery. **Conclusion:** Quality evidence supports these clinical practice recommendations. The guidelines may be useful to providers who diagnose and/or treat WRA.

INTRODUCTION

Asthma is a common, chronic disorder of the airways that involves a complex interaction of airflow obstruction, bronchial hyperresponsiveness, and underlying inflammation with increased airway responsiveness to a variety of stimuli being typical.^{1–5} Work-related asthma (WRA) includes both asthma of an occupational origin (occupational asthma [OA]) and work-exacerbated asthma (WEA). OA

includes sensitizer-induced asthma, resulting from sensitization to an antigen in the workplace, and irritant-induced asthma, induced by workplace exposures to irritants (Table 1). Each condition has the potential for considerable acute morbidity, long-term disability, and adverse impact on income and quality of life.^{6–12}

The most common form of occupational lung disease in many industrialized countries, with approximately 10% to 15% of all prevalent adult cases attributed to occupational factors,^{6–8,10,12–14} OA is further classified into OA with latency or OA without latency. OA without latency is less common, and is believed to represent 5% to 15% of all OA cases.^{1,15} The percentage of new-onset adult asthma attributable to occupational causes is considered to be much higher, up to a third of all cases.^{16,17} The frequency of WEA, defined as preexisting reactive airways disease that is made temporarily or permanently worse due to occupational exposures, is substantially more common than OA.¹⁸

The predisposing factors for developing OA with latency are not well known. Atopy is the primary established risk factor, operating largely with respect to high molecular weight (HMW) antigens such as animal proteins. It has been proposed that human leukocyte antigen class-2 alleles may be a risk factor for the development of OA resulting from low molecular weight agents.^{11,19,20} Medical management and compensation decisions require a thorough assessment of suspected OA, which may be mistaken for non-OA unless a detailed history, including occupational history, and appropriate medical tests are performed to support an association with work.²¹

GUIDELINE FOCUS/TARGET POPULATION

The American College of Occupational and Environmental Medicine (ACOEM) created its evidence-based Work-related Asthma Guideline to primarily address diagnostic options to help determine whether an employee has asthma, and whether the asthma is related to workplace exposures (Fig. 1). It was designed to present health care providers—who are the primary target users—with evidence-based guidance on the evaluation and treatment of WRA. This report summarizes findings from that Guideline (138 pages, 497 references) and addresses the following

questions developed by the Evidence-based Work-related Asthma Panel:

1. Is there evidence on how to identify workers who are at higher risk of developing occupational asthma?
2. What evidence is there for the diagnosis of occupational asthma?
3. Is there evidence that different diagnostic modalities are needed for workers with new onset of symptoms or worsening of previous asthma symptoms?
4. Are there diagnostic tests that can assist in differentiating occupationally related asthma from nonoccupational asthma?
5. Is there evidence on treatment options that differ for occupationally related asthma from nonoccupational asthma?
6. What management options are available for occupational asthma?
7. Is removal from work necessary in all cases of occupationally related asthma?

The primary target population is working-age adults, although the literature searches included articles addressing all adults. Thus, it is recognized that the principles may apply more broadly.

GUIDELINE DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

A detailed methodology document specified evidence selection, scoring, incorporation of cost considerations, and formulation of recommendations.^{22,23} The aim was to identify the highest quality evidence on any given topic. Guidance was drafted using tables that abstracted the evidence and which were forwarded to the multidisciplinary Panel that reviewed the evidence and finalized the text and recommendations.

EVIDENCE REVIEW AND GRADING

All evidence related to WRA in searching four databases (*PubMed*, *EBSCO*, *Cochrane Library*, and *Scopus*) was included in this guideline. The comprehensive searches for evidence were performed through September 2012 for diagnostic studies and February 2014 for management studies to help ensure complete study capture. The search strategies retrieved a total of 10,598 articles that were screened, with all potentially appropriate study abstracts reviewed and evaluated against specified inclusion and

The ACOEM Practice Guidelines, including the Work-related Asthma Guideline, is published by Reed Group, Ltd. Excerpts from the ACOEM Work-related Asthma Guideline, MDGuidelines, reproduced with permission from Reed Group, Ltd. All rights reserved. The Evidence-based Practice Work-related Asthma Panel and the Research Team have complete editorial independence from ACOEM and Reed Group, neither of which have influenced the recommendations contained in this guideline.

Excerpts from the ACOEM Work-related Asthma Guideline, MDGuidelines, reproduced with permission from Reed Group, Ltd. All rights reserved.

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

Address correspondence to: Kurt T. Hegmann, MD, MPH, University of Utah Rocky Mountain Center for Occupational and Environmental Health, 391 Chipeta Way, Suite C, Salt Lake City, UT 84108-1294 (Kurt.Hegmann@hsc.utah.edu).

Copyright © 2015 American College of Occupational and Environmental Medicine
DOI: 10.1097/JOM.0000000000000572

TABLE 1. Types of Work-Related Asthma

Nomenclature	Term	Defining Features
Sensitizer-induced OA	OA with latency of allergic or presumed immunological mechanism: not necessarily IgE	Immunological/hypersensitivity component and diagnostic tests include measures of specific sensitization (eg, skin-prick test, serum specific IgE, circulating IgC against the antigen or skin sensitization)
Irritant-induced OA	OA without latency	No allergic component and worker is not sensitized to an agent; rather, the agent causes inflammatory responses through irritant mechanisms
WEA or aggravated asthma	WEA or aggravated asthma (no latency period)	Worker has prior or concurrent history of asthma not induced by that workplace. The worker is not sensitized to an agent at work, but is irritated by a “non-massive” exposure (eg, cold, exercise, non-sensitizing dust, fumes, or sprays) that provokes an asthmatic reaction

IgE, immunoglobulin E; OA, occupational asthma; WEA, work-exacerbated asthma. Adapted from the American College of Chest Physicians.

exclusion criteria. Searches were supplemented with articles from personal files and reference reviews. A total of 497 articles were retrieved of which 157 met the inclusion criteria. Of those, 114 were included as high- or moderate-quality studies in evidence-based guideline development. The remaining 43 studies were deemed low-quality and excluded.

All included studies were scored for quality. Recommendations were graded from (A) to (C) in favor and against the specific diagnostic test or treatment, with (A) level recommendations having the highest quality body of literature. Quality evidence was developed into evidence-based recommendations. Expert consensus was employed for insufficient evidence (I) to develop consensus guidance. Recommendations and evidence tables were reviewed and amended by the multidisciplinary Panel. This guideline achieved 100% Panel agreement for all developed guidance.

COMMENTS AND MODIFICATION

Guidance was developed with sufficient detail to facilitate assessment of compliance (Institute of Medicine [IOM]) and auditing/monitoring (Appraisal of Guidelines for Research and Evaluation),^{24,25} Alternative options to manage conditions are provided in other ACOEM guidelines when comparative trials are available. The only Appraisal of Guidelines for Research and Evaluation²⁵ and IOM criterion²⁴ not followed was incorporation of the views of the target population. In accordance with the IOM's *Trustworthy Guidelines*, this guideline underwent external peer review by four external reviewers, and subsequent revisions to the guidance, and detailed records of the peer-review processes have been kept, including responses to external peer reviewers.²⁴

This guideline is updated at least every 3 years or more frequently should evidence require it. All treatment recommendations are guidance based on

synthesis of the evidence plus expert consensus. These recommendations are for practitioners, and decisions to adopt a particular course of action must be made by trained practitioners on the basis of available resources and the particular circumstances presented by the individual patient.

CLINICAL RECOMMENDATIONS

Sixteen diagnostic recommendations were formulated for diagnostic testing, of which 11 were ultimately recommended and five were not recommended (Table 2). There were nine recommendations formulated for the management of WRA, of which five were recommended and four were not (Table 3).

SPIROMETRY TESTING

Spirometry, performed alone or in conjunction with pre- and postbronchodilator testing, is an important component of the evaluation and management of persons with possible WRA.^{26–32} Spirometry with bronchodilator administration has three distinct potential roles when WRA is a concern:

1. Determining whether asthma is present;
2. If asthma is present, helping inform the conclusion about whether the asthma is work related; and
3. Monitoring response to therapy and possible return to work.

Spirometry with bronchodilator is not invasive, has few adverse effects, and is low-to-moderate cost and high in yield for complications and other respiratory problems. As its value lies in correlation with clinical information and observation, spirometry with bronchodilator is a recommended integral part of the evaluation of WRA.

PEAK EXPIRATORY FLOW RATES

Serial peak expiratory flow rate monitoring is moderately recommended (evidence level B) to diagnose WRA in patients already diagnosed with asthma

by other methods. Six moderate-quality studies support the use of peak expiratory flow rate for the diagnosis of OA and WRA; however, peak expiratory flow rate is heavily dependent upon the worker's efforts and assumes worker honesty in performing and recording the test results.^{33–40}

NONSPECIFIC BRONCHIAL PROVOCATION TESTING

Nonspecific bronchial provocation testing has been evaluated in quality studies that utilized methacholine, histamine, and mannitol as provocative testing agents. Four high-quality and 12 moderate-quality studies were used in formulating recommendations of nonspecific bronchial provocation testing as an investigational tool for the diagnoses of OA and WRA.^{41–57} Nonspecific bronchial provocation testing is strongly recommended (evidence level A) to diagnose general asthma, and moderately recommended (evidence level B) to diagnose WRA. The Panel supports the American Thoracic Society's guideline for interpreting the methacholine dose that would result in a positive test.⁵⁸

SPECIFIC IMMUNOLOGICAL TESTING

Specific immunological testing was evaluated separately for HMW and low molecular weight antigens. There were six high- and 12 moderate-quality studies used in the formulation of recommendations for specific immunological testing.^{50,51,57,59–73} The Panel evaluated the difference between immunoglobulin E (IgE) and IgG tests. IgE testing for HMW antigens is strongly recommended (evidence level A) when specific testing reagents have been validated and are commercially available. Testing of IgG for HMW antigens is not recommended (evidence level C) for use as a diagnostic tool; however, this test may be efficacious as a marker for exposure to the antigen. IgE testing to low molecular weight antigens is not recommended (evidence level I).

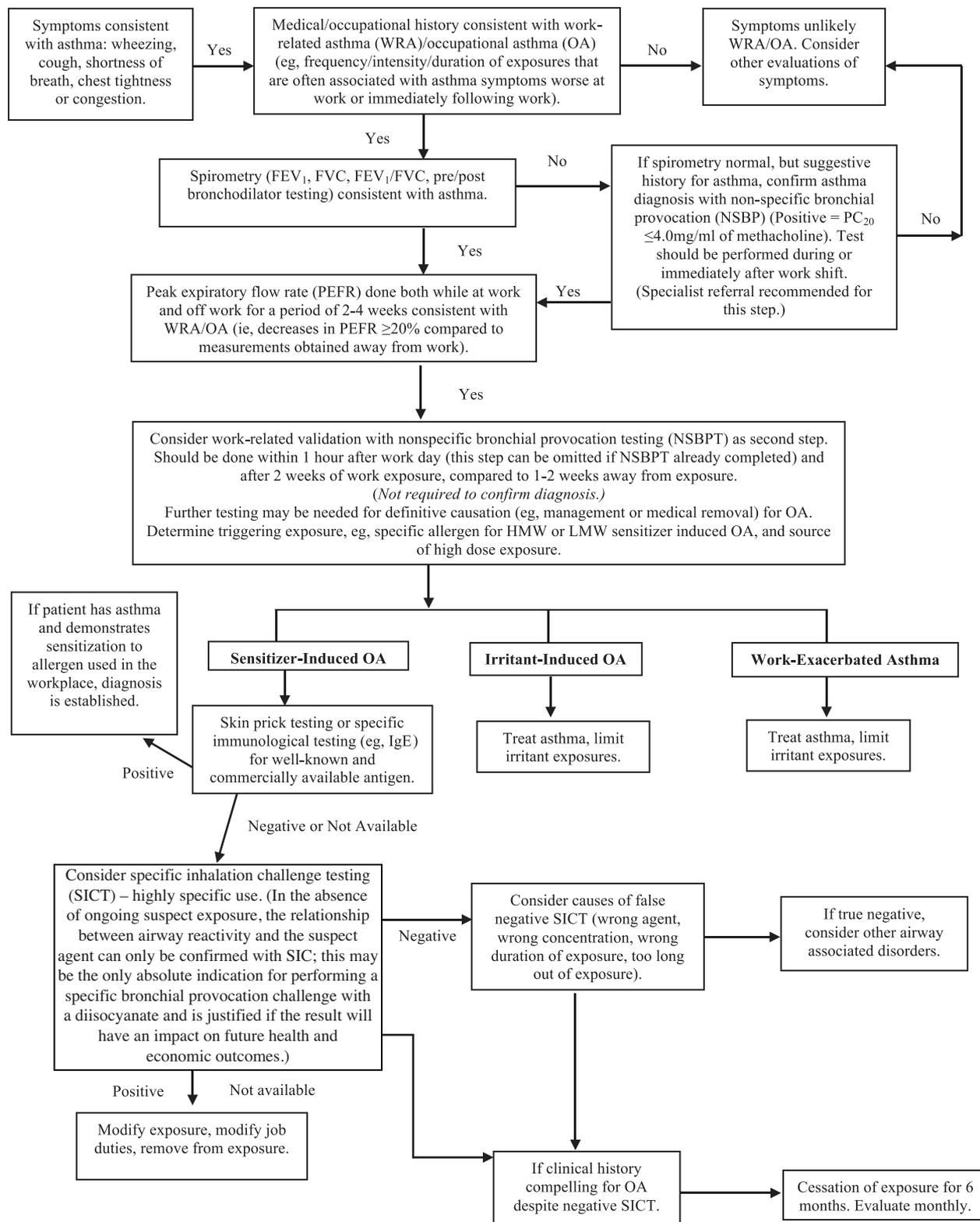


FIGURE 1. Diagnostic evaluation of occupational asthma with continuing exposure.

SKIN-PRICK TESTING

Skin-prick testing (SPT) was evaluated separately for HMW and low molecular weight allergens. There were eight

high- and 12 moderate-quality studies used to formulate recommendations for SPT.^{50,51,53,62,73–88} SPT for HMW allergens is strongly recommended (evidence

level A) for allergens that are commercially available and validated. Current commercially available validated extracts include some for natural rubber latex, wheat flour,

TABLE 2. Summary of Recommendations for Diagnostic Testing for Asthma

Test	Recommendation(s)
Peak expiratory flow rates	Serial peak expiratory flow measurements as an initial evaluation method for diagnosing work-related asthma, in patients already diagnosed with asthma by other methods—Moderately Recommended, Evidence (B)
Nonspecific bronchial provocation testing	Nonspecific bronchial provocation testing (eg, methacholine) for use in diagnosing asthma, if the clinical history is compelling, and other tests (spirometry and bronchodilator responsiveness) are unhelpful—Strongly Recommended, Evidence (A) Nonspecific bronchial provocation testing (eg, methacholine) for use in diagnosing WRA, as other steps are required to establish the work-relatedness of the asthma—Moderately Recommended, Evidence (B) Mannitol bronchial provocation testing for use in diagnosing WRA; other steps are required to establish the work-relatedness of the asthma—Recommended, Evidence (C)
Specific immunological testing	Specific immunological testing (IgE) for workers with symptoms consistent with OA to certain HMW specific allergens and when standardized antigens and assay protocols exist—Strongly Recommended, Evidence (A) Specific immunological testing (IgG) as a diagnostic tool for select workers with symptoms consistent with OA to HMW specific allergens—Not Recommended, Evidence (C) Specific immunological testing (IgE) for workers with symptoms consistent with OA to low molecular weight specific allergens due to low sensitivity and specificity and lack of method validation—Not Recommended, Insufficient Evidence (I)
Skin-prick testing	Skin-prick testing for HMW allergens for select workers with symptoms consistent with OA to specific allergens and where validated, commercial skin testing extracts are available—Strongly Recommended, Evidence (A) Skin prick testing for low molecular weight allergens for select workers with symptoms consistent with OA to specific allergens, and where skin testing extracts are available—Moderately Recommended, Evidence (B) Skin-prick testing for allergens not covered above—Not Recommended, Insufficient Evidence (I)
Specific inhalation challenge testing	Specific inhalation challenge testing for use in diagnosing WRA with latency for highly select cases, where the diagnosis of OA is highly suspected, but has not been established by less invasive means—Recommended, Evidence (C)
Nitric oxide testing	Nitric oxide testing for the diagnosis of OA, as it cannot differentiate between, eg, OA and other eosinophilic lung inflammatory conditions—Not Recommended, Insufficient Evidence (I) Exhaled nitric oxide testing for establishing a diagnosis of asthma when more objective evidence is needed such as in litigated cases—Recommended, Evidence (C) Exhaled nitric oxide testing for selective use in monitoring airway inflammation in patients with moderate and severe asthma—Moderately Recommended, Evidence (B)
Nasal lavage testing	Nasal lavage for select workers with symptoms consistent with occupational airways allergy to specific allergens—Recommended, Evidence (C) Nasal lavage fluid analysis after challenge with the allergen for the diagnosis of OA—Not Recommended, Insufficient Evidence (I)

IgE, immunoglobulin E; HMW, high molecular weight; OA, occupational asthma; WRA, work-related asthma.

rye flour, grain dust, alpha-amylase, bovine danders, and other animal antigens. SPT to low molecular weight antigens is moderately recommended (evidence level B) for allergens that have a commercially available validated test including some available for reactive dyes, halogenated platinum salts, and trimellitic anhydride. All other SPT for allergens not specifically mentioned are not recommended (evidence level I).

SPECIFIC INHALATIONAL CHALLENGE TESTING

Specific inhalational challenge testing is often considered the gold standard test for diagnosing sensitizer-induced OA and is used when other methods have failed to establish the diagnosis. It is also used as a reference standard, as there is no other definitive diagnostic test. Four high- and 16 moderate-quality studies were used to formulate this recommendation.^{11,42,46–50,62,63,89–99} However, specific inhalational challenge testing is highly technical and costly and has potential for severe adverse effects, including

fatalities. Facilities must have the technological equipment and ability to control exposures, as well as monitor and resuscitate patients, and few such facilities exist. Thus, specific inhalational challenge testing is recommended only under highly select circumstances at appropriately equipped facilities that include direct medical supervision throughout the testing. The highly limited availability of facilities as well as adverse effects caused the Panel to reduce this recommendation from strongly recommended (evidence level A) to recommended (evidence level C).

NITRIC OXIDE TESTING

Nitric oxide testing—also known as fractional exhaled nitric oxide (FENO)—was evaluated as a diagnostic tool for all asthma including OA, and for selective monitoring of asthma treatment and progression. Two high- and 20 moderate-quality studies were used to formulate recommendations for FENO.^{45,100–119} FENO is not recommended to diagnose OA (evidence level I) as it cannot differentiate between asthma and other

conditions such as eosinophilic inflammatory conditions. FENO is recommended (evidence level C) for diagnosis when more objective evidence is needed such as in litigated cases. FENO is recommended (evidence level B) in monitoring airway inflammation in patients with moderate and severe asthma as evidence indicates it correlates with the disease activity.^{104,107,115} Additional guidance regarding criteria for clinically meaningful change and timing for FENO was abstracted from the evidence.^{102,118,120–122} It is recommended that a change of 20% in the value is clinically significant and should be measured every 2 to 4 weeks while the treatment plan is being modified and finalized.^{104,122,123}

NASAL LAVAGE TESTING

Eight moderate-quality studies were used in formulating recommendations for nasal lavage.^{63,93,124–129} Nasal lavage is recommended (evidence level C) for select workers with symptoms consistent with occupational upper airway allergy to specific allergens. The testing supports a diagnosis of occupational allergy, but

TABLE 3. Summary of Recommendations for Management of Work-Related Asthma

Recommended	Not Recommended
<p>Patients, physicians, and employers be informed that persistence of exposure to the causal agent is likely to result in deterioration of asthma symptoms and airway obstruction. (I)</p> <p>Patients and their physicians be made aware that complete avoidance of exposure is associated with the highest probability of improvement, but may not lead to a complete recovery from asthma. (I)</p> <p>For irritant-induced asthma, exposure reduction to the lowest levels possible and careful medical monitoring should be performed to ensure early identification of worsening asthma. (I)</p> <p>Pharmacological treatment of WRA follows general recommendations for asthma (C). Current ERS/ATS recommendations for treatment of severe asthma should be followed.</p> <p>Immunotherapy may be considered in settings where OA due to a specific HMW allergen has been established, when only one or a few allergens have been linked clinically to disease, when there is a standardized commercial allergen extract available for treatment, good control with pharmacotherapy cannot be established and the causative agent cannot be completely avoided for economic, professional, or other reasons. (I)</p>	<p>Reduction of exposure as a strategy for certain low molecular weight asthmagens (diisocyanates). (I) As an alternative to complete elimination of exposure, continued low-level exposure with use of personal protective equipment has been associated with adverse health outcomes including reports of death.</p> <p>Reducing exposure to the causal agent as a strategy in the management of sensitizer-induced asthma, as available evidence indicates that most asthma will worsen in continued exposure. (I) However, it is recognized that some workers will insist on remaining in their jobs for social, economic, and professional reasons, despite counseling on the adverse health consequences. Continued exposure, even at low levels, may result in worsening asthma. If such patients remain in exposure, documentation of the recommendation regarding removal is recommended. (I) Required close and careful monitoring of such patients is recommended (I) to ensure early identification of worsening asthma. Reducing exposure to the causal agent in addition to providing immunotherapy and other asthma management, where applicable, may be recommended (I), and will depend on the asthmagen, level of exposure, severity of asthma, and the clinical judgment of the physician.</p> <p>Use of respiratory protective devices as a safe approach for managing asthma, especially in the long-term and in patients with severe asthma. (I)</p> <p>Anti-asthma medications as a reasonable alternative to environmental interventions such as exposure reduction or medical removal. (I)</p>

HMW, high molecular weight; ERS/ATS, European Respiratory Society/American Thoracic Society; OA, occupational asthma; WRA, work-related asthma.

other tests are required to establish a diagnosis of WRA; however, nasal lavage following nasal provocation testing is not recommended (evidence level I) for diagnosing OA.

MANAGEMENT OF WORK-RELATED ASTHMA

This guideline addresses management of WRA once it is diagnosed (Table 3). There are 11 studies incorporated into this analysis,^{1,12,43,81,130–137} although none met high- or moderate-quality criteria. Thus, the panel reached the following conclusions regarding management of WRA on the basis of consensus.

Early diagnosis and early avoidance of further exposure, either by relocating the worker or substituting the hazard, offer the best chance of complete recovery. Patients with sensitizer-induced OA should be removed from further exposure to the causative agent in addition to providing other asthma management,¹² and it is recommended to educate all parties that complete avoidance of exposure to the identified antigen is preferred; however, complete removal is not always possible, for example, because of economic constraints of job change or loss, as well as patient preferences to continue in the same occupation. In that instance, the Panel recommends transfer to low levels of exposure to the asthmagen and frequent monitoring with questionnaire and spirometry

surveillance to detect asthma deterioration. Reducing exposure to the causal agent in addition to providing immunotherapy and other asthma management, where applicable, depends on the asthmagen, level of exposure, severity of asthma (Table 4), and the clinical judgment of the physician. If disease progression is documented, then removal from the exposure is strongly recommended. An exception is isocyanate-induced OA. This requires removing the worker from exposure, as there have been reported deaths in patients on medication and using respiratory protection.^{138–143} Studies have found that continued toluene diisocyanate exposure has been associated with increasingly persistent and severe respiratory symptoms.^{137,144–146} Personal protective equipment is not recommended as the only treatment option for managing OA.

Very few studies have specifically examined pharmacologic treatment in the management of WRA. The pharmacologic treatment of OA and WEA does not differ from the treatment of asthma that is not work related¹²; it relies on a stepwise approach according to the severity of asthma and asthma control. Treatment for patients with a diagnosis of severe asthma has been recommended by the European Respiratory Society and the American Thoracic Society, but these recommendations did not exclude or specifically address OA or WEA.¹⁴⁷ The effectiveness

of anti-asthma medications in patients who remain exposed to the causal agent has not been specifically addressed in previously published guidelines,^{12,131} or in the Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality systematic review.¹

SUMMARY

This is the first WRA guideline to be published that is based on IOM-compliant criteria including systematic literature reviews, literature grading, expert panel consensus, and peer-review.²⁴ It is designed to be a resource for primary care providers, occupational medicine specialists, and pulmonary/allergy specialists who diagnose and manage occupationally related asthma.

RESEARCH RECOMMENDATIONS

Research into primary and secondary prevention is indicated to reduce the incidence of WRA. Also recommended is investigation to improve diagnostic methodology leading to earlier detection of sensitizer-induced OA, before progression to permanent asthma, and preventing further cases of sensitizer-induced OA. Management with pharmacological treatment options should be studied to identify treatments specific to OA and WEA, and to more specifically evaluate pharmacotherapy for different agents, for example, HMW versus low molecular weight antigens.

TABLE 4. Medical Removal Considerations

Workplace Exposure*	Low Severity OA [†]	Moderately Severe OA [†]	Severe OA [†]
Low	Remove worker or reduce exposure; frequent surveillance with symptom questionnaire and spirometry. Remove worker if progression of disease	Remove worker. Selectively consider low exposure, with monthly surveillance with symptom questionnaire and spirometry. Remove if progression	Remove worker
Medium	Remove worker or reduce exposure; frequent surveillance with symptom questionnaire and spirometry. Remove worker if progression of disease	Remove worker	Remove worker
High	Removal of worker best option as exposure predicts progression	Remove worker	Remove worker

OA, occupational asthma.

*Workplace exposure is defined as follows:

(1) Low exposure—when regular airborne exposure to the causative agent is not expected.

(2) Moderate exposure—when airborne exposures at or below the level of the occupational exposure limit (OEL) of the causative agent are expected.

(3) High exposure—when airborne exposures above the level of the OEL of the causative agent are expected.

(4) The OEL selected should be a recent, scientifically reviewed, widely used guideline designed for use by industrial hygienists in making decisions regarding safe levels of exposure to various chemical substances and physical agents found in the workplace, such as the American Conference of Governmental Industrial Hygienists Threshold Limit Values.¹⁶

[†]Asthma severity is defined as follows:

(1) Severe—having abnormal FEV₁ (<70%) and requiring use of high-dose inhaled corticosteroids and long-acting inhaled beta-agonists for symptom control.

(2) Moderately severe—having abnormal FEV₁ (<70%) and symptoms that are well-controlled with low dose inhaled corticosteroids and long-acting inhaled beta-agonists.

(3) Low severity—having normal FEV₁ and symptom control by as-needed beta-agonist rescue or with low-intensity controller treatment such as low-dose inhaled corticosteroids, leukotriene receptor antagonists, or cromoglycates.

APPLICABILITY AND IMPLEMENTATION ISSUES

The strengths of this guideline include the following: (1) comprehensive literature search; (2) a large database of studies from which to base recommendations; (3) the methodological literature abstraction and grading; and (4) the expert medical panel and expert external review processes. The main weaknesses stem from a general lack of high-quality diagnostic studies that are specific to WRA. Further rigorous study needs to be conducted in occupational settings for both diagnosis and management of WRA.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The Evidence-based Practice Work-Related Asthma Panel recognizes the considerable work of the managing editors: Marianne Dreger, MA (Production) and Julie A. Ording, MPH (Research). The Panel also appreciates the work of the guideline research team: Jeremy J. Biggs, MD, MSPH, Kurt T. Hegmann, MD, MPH, Matthew A. Hughes, MD, MPH, Matthew S. Thiese, PhD, MSPH, Ulrike Ott, PhD, MSPH, Atim C. Effiong, MPH, Leslie M. Cepeda-Echeverria, Tessa Langley, Deborah G. Passey, MS, William Caughey, MS, Kylee Fon Tokita, BS, Riann Robbins, BS, Alzina Koric, MPP, and Jeremiah L. Dortch, BS.

REFERENCES

1. Beach J, Rowe BH, Blitz S, et al. Diagnosis and management of work-related asthma. *Evid Rep Technol Assess (Summ)*. 2005;129:1–8.
2. Dykewicz MS. Occupational asthma: current concepts in pathogenesis, diagnosis, and management. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2009;123:519–528.
3. Venables KM, Chan-Yeung M. Occupational asthma. *Lancet*. 1997;349:1465–1469.
4. American Thoracic Society. Guidelines for assessing and managing asthma risk at work, school, and recreation. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 2004;169:873–169881.
5. National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute, National Asthma Education and Prevention Program. Expert Panel report 3: guidelines for the diagnosis and management of asthma. Washington, DC: US Department of Health and Human Services; 2007. Available at: <http://www.nhlbi.nih.gov/guidelines/asthma/asthgdln.htm>. Accessed June 23, 2015.
6. Beach J, Russell K, Blitz S, et al. A systematic review of the diagnosis of occupational asthma. *Chest*. 2007;131:569–578.
7. Boulet LP, Lemiere C, Gauthrin D, Cartier A. New insights into occupational asthma. *Curr Opin Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2007;7:96–101.
8. Chan-Yeung M. Assessment of asthma in the workplace. ACCP consensus statement. American College of Chest Physicians. *Chest*. 1995;108:1084–1117.
9. Jeebhay MF, Quirce S. Occupational asthma in the developing and industrialised world: a review. *Int J Tuberculosis Lung Disease*. 2007;11:122–133.
10. Lombardo LJ, Balmes JR. Occupational asthma: a review. *Environ Health Perspect*. 2000;108:4697–4704.
11. Malo JL, Lemiere C, Gauthrin D, Labrecque M. Occupational asthma. *Curr Opin Pulm Med*. 2004;10:57–61.
12. Tarlo SM, Balmes J, Balkissoon R, et al. Diagnosis and management of work-related asthma: American College of Chest Physicians Consensus Statement. *Chest*. 2008;134(suppl 3):1S–41S.
13. Gauthrin D, Malo JL. Risk factors, predictors, and markers for work-related asthma and rhinitis. *Curr Allergy Asthma Rep*. 2010;10:365–372.
14. Cowl CT. Occupational asthma: review of assessment, treatment, and compensation. *Chest*. 2011;139:674–681.
15. Brooks SM, Weiss MA, Bernstein IL. Reactive airways dysfunction syndrome (RADS). Persistent asthma syndrome after high level irritant exposures. *Chest*. 1985;88:376–384.
16. Sama SR, Milton DK, Hunt PR, Houseman EA, Henneberger PK, Rosiello RA. Case-by-case assessment of adult-onset asthma attributable to occupational exposures among members of a health maintenance organization. *J Occup Environ Med*. 2006;48:400–407.
17. Vollmer WM, Heumann MA, Breen VR, et al. Incidence of work-related asthma in members of a health maintenance organization. *J Occup Environ Med*. 2005;47:1292–1297.
18. Henneberger PK, Stanbury MJ, Trimbath LS, Kipen HM. The use of portable peak flowmeters in the surveillance of occupational asthma. *Chest*. 1991;100:1515–1521.
19. Jones SM, Burks AW, Spencer HJ, et al. Occupational asthma symptoms and respiratory function among aerial pesticide applicators. *Am J Ind Med*. 2003;43:407–417.
20. Newman Taylor AJ, Cullinan P, Lympny PA, Harris JM, Dowdeswell RJ, du Bois RM. Interaction of HLA phenotype and exposure intensity in sensitization to complex platinum salts. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 1999;160:435–438.
21. Tarlo SM, Liss GM. Diisocyanate-induced asthma: diagnosis, prognosis, and effects of medical surveillance measures. *Appl Occup Environ Hyg*. 2002;17:902–908.
22. American College of Occupational and Environmental Medicine. Methodology for the Update of the Occupational Medicine Practice Guidelines [online]. 2006. Available

- at: www.acoem.org/uploadedFiles/Knowledge_Centers/Practice_Guidelines/ACOEM%20Practice%20Guidelines%20Methodology.pdf. Accessed June 23, 2015.
23. Harris JS, Sinnott PL, Holland JP, et al. Methodology to update the practice recommendations in the American College of Occupational and Environmental Medicine's Occupational Medicine Practice Guidelines, second edition. *J Occup Environ Med*. 2008;50:282–295.
 24. Institute of Medicine. Clinical practice guidelines we can trust: standards for developing trustworthy clinical practice guidelines [online]. 2011. Available at: <http://www.ioe.edu/~media/Files/Report%20Files/2011/Clinical-Practice-Guidelines-We-Can-Trust/Clinical-Practice-Guidelines%202011%20Insrt.pdf>. Accessed June 23, 2015.
 25. The AGREE Research Trust. Appraisal of Guidelines for Research and Evaluation II (AGREE II) Instrument. Hamilton, Ontario, Canada: McMaster University; 2009.
 26. Bonini M, Lapucci G, Petrelli G, et al. Predictive value of allergy and pulmonary function tests for the diagnosis of asthma in elite athletes. *Allergy*. 2007;62:1166–1170.
 27. Hegewald MJ, Townsend RG, Abbott JT, Crapo RO. Bronchodilator response in patients with normal baseline spirometry. *Respir Care*. 2012;57:1564–1570.
 28. Hunter CJ, Brightling CE, Woltmann G, Wardlaw AJ, Pavord ID. A comparison of the validity of different diagnostic tests in adults with asthma. *Chest*. 2002;121:1051–1057.
 29. Keatings VM, Evans DJ, O'Connor BJ, Barnes PJ. Cellular profiles in asthmatic airways: a comparison of induced sputum, bronchial washings, and bronchoalveolar lavage fluid. *Thorax*. 1997;52:372–374.
 30. Lehmann S, Bakke PS, Eide GE, Gulsvik A. Clinical data discriminating between adults with positive and negative results on bronchodilator testing. *Int J Tuberc Lung Dis*. 2008;12:205–213.
 31. Schneider A, Gindner L, Tilemann L, et al. Diagnostic accuracy of spirometry in primary care. *BMC Pulm Med*. 2009;9:31.
 32. Smith HR, Irvin CG, Cherniack RM. The utility of spirometry in the diagnosis of reversible airways obstruction. *Chest*. 1992;101: 1577–1581.
 33. Anees W, Gannon PF, Huggins V, Pantin CF, Burge PS. Effect of peak expiratory flow data quantity on diagnostic sensitivity and specificity in occupational asthma. *Eur Respir J*. 2004;23:730–734.
 34. Burge CB, Moore VC, Pantin CF, Robertson AS, Burge PS. Diagnosis of occupational asthma from time point differences in serial PEF measurements. *Thorax*. 2009;64:1032–1036.
 35. Moore VC, Cullinan P, Sadhra S, Burge PS. Peak expiratory flow analysis in workers exposed to detergent enzymes. *Occup Med (Lond)*. 2009;59:418–423.
 36. Moore VC, Jaakkola MS, Burge CB, et al. PEF analysis requiring shorter records for occupational asthma diagnosis. *Occup Med (Lond)*. 2009;59:413–417.
 37. Moore VC, Jaakkola MS, Burge CB, et al. A new diagnostic score for occupational asthma: the area between the curves (ABC score) of peak expiratory flow on days at and away from work. *Chest*. 2009;135:307–314.
 38. Moore VC, Parsons NR, Jaakkola MS, et al. Serial lung function variability using four portable logging meters. *J Asthma*. 2009;46: 961–966.
 39. Park D, Moore VC, Burge CB, Jaakkola MS, Robertson AS, Burge PS. Serial PEF measurement is superior to cross-shift change in diagnosing occupational asthma. *Eur Respir J*. 2009;34:574–578.
 40. Perrin B, Lagier F, L'Archeveque J, et al. Occupational asthma: validity of monitoring of peak expiratory flow rates and non-allergic bronchial responsiveness as compared to specific inhalation challenge. *Eur Respir J*. 1992;5:40–48.
 41. Dellabianca A, Omodeo P, Colli MC, Bianchi P, Scibilia J, Moscato G. Bronchial responsiveness to ultrasonic "fog" in occupational asthma due to low molecular weight chemicals. *Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol*. 1996; 77:378–384.
 42. Munoz X, Cruz MJ, Orriols R, Torres F, Espuga M, Morell F. Validation of specific inhalation challenge for the diagnosis of occupational asthma due to persulfate salts. *Occup Environ Med*. 2004;61:861–866.
 43. Paggiaro PL, Vagaggini B, Bacci E, et al. Prognosis of occupational asthma. *Eur Respir J*. 1994;7:761–767.
 44. Karol MH, Tollerud DJ, Campbell TP, et al. Predictive value of airways hyperresponsiveness and circulating IgE for identifying types of responses to toluene diisocyanate inhalation challenge. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 1994;149:611–615.
 45. Miedinger D, Chhajed PN, Tamm M, Stolz D, Surber C, Leuppi JD. Diagnostic tests for asthma in firefighters. *Chest*. 2007;131: 1760–1767.
 46. Sastre J, Fernandez-Nieto M, Novalbos A, De Las Heras M, Cuesta J, Quirce S. Need for monitoring nonspecific bronchial hyperresponsiveness before and after isocyanate inhalation challenge. *Chest*. 2003;123:1276–1279.
 47. Vogelmeier C, Baur X, Fruhmant G. Isocyanate-induced asthma: results of inhalation tests with TDI, MDI and methacholine. *Int Arch Occup Environ Health*. 1991;63:9–13.
 48. Moller DR, Brooks SM, McKay RT, Cassidy K, Kopp S, Bernstein IL. Chronic asthma due to toluene diisocyanate. *Chest*. 1986;90:494–499.
 49. Cote J, Kennedy S, Chan-Yeung M. Outcome of patients with cedar asthma with continuous exposure. *Am Rev Respir Dis*. 1990;141:373–376.
 50. Koskela H, Taivainen A, Tukiainen H, Chan HK. Inhalation challenge with bovine dander allergens: who needs it? *Chest*. 2003;124: 383–391.
 51. Koskela HO, Hyvarinen L, Brannan JD, Chan HK, Anderson SD. Responsiveness to three bronchial provocation tests in patients with asthma. *Chest*. 2003;124:2171–2177.
 52. O'Brien IM, Harries MG, Burge PS, Pepys J. Toluene diisocyanate-induced asthma. I. Reactions to TDI, MDI, HDI and histamine. *Clin Allergy*. 1979;9:1–6.
 53. Vandenplas O, Binard-Van Cangh F, Brumagne A, Chida K, Nakamura H, Taniguchi M. Occupational asthma in symptomatic workers exposed to natural rubber latex: evaluation of diagnostic procedures. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2001;107:542–547.
 54. Shirai T, Reshad K, Yoshitomi A, Chida K, Nakamura H, Taniguchi M. Green tea-induced asthma: relationship between immunological reactivity, specific and non-specific bronchial responsiveness. *Clin Exp Allergy*. 2003; 33:1252–1255.
 55. Lemiere C, Miedinger D, Jacob V, Chabouillez S, Tremblay C, Brannan JD. Comparison of methacholine and mannitol bronchial provocation tests in workers with occupational asthma. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2012;129: 555–556.
 56. Lam S, Wong R, Yeung M. Nonspecific bronchial reactivity in occupational asthma. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 1979;63:28–34.
 57. Park HS, Kim YJ, Lee MK, Hong CS. Occupational asthma and IgE antibodies to reactive dyes. *Yonsei Med J*. 1989;30:298–304.
 58. Crapo RO, Casaburi R, Coates AL, et al. Guidelines for methacholine and exercise challenge testing-1999. This official statement of the American Thoracic Society was adopted by the ATS Board of Directors, July 1999. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 2000; 161:309–329.
 59. Bernstein DI, Cartier A, Cote J, et al. Diisocyanate antigen-stimulated monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 synthesis has greater test efficiency than specific antibodies for identification of diisocyanate asthma. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 2002;166:445–450.
 60. Cartier A, Grammer L, Malo JL, et al. Specific serum antibodies against isocyanates: association with occupational asthma. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 1989;84(pt 1):507–514.
 61. Tee RD, Cullinan P, Welch J, Burge PS, Newman-Taylor AJ. Specific IgE to isocyanates: a useful diagnostic role in occupational asthma. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 1998;101: 709–715.
 62. van Kampen V, Rabstein S, Sander I, Palczynski C. Prediction of challenge test results by flour-specific IgE and skin prick test in symptomatic bakers. *Allergy*. 2008;63:897–902.
 63. Walusiak J, Wiszniewska M, Krawczyk-Adamus P, Palczynski C. Occupational allergy to wheat flour. Nasal response to specific inhalative challenge in asthma and rhinitis vs. isolated rhinitis: a comparative study. *Int J Occup Med Environ Health*. 2004;17:433–440.
 64. Crimi E, Voltolini S, Minale P, Falagiani P. Value of immunoglobulin E density in predicting nasal and bronchial response to inhaled allergens in rhinitic and asthmatic subjects with multiple sensitizations. *Clin Exp Allergy*. 1999;29:1663–1670.
 65. Doekes G, Kamminga N, Helweggen L, Heederik D. Occupational IgE sensitisation to phytase, a phosphatase derived from *Aspergillus niger*. *Occup Environ Med*. 1999;56:454–459.
 66. Douglas JD, McSharry C, Blaikie L, Morrow T, Miles S, Franklin D. Occupational asthma caused by automated salmon processing. *Lancet*. 1995;346:737–740.
 67. Kim YK, Son JW, Kim HY, et al. New occupational allergen in citrus farmers: citrus red mite (*Panonychus citri*). *Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol*. 1999;82:223–228.
 68. Pezzini A, Riviera A, Paggiaro P, et al. Specific IgE antibodies in twenty-eight workers with diisocyanate-induced bronchial asthma. *Clin Allergy*. 1984;14:453–461.
 69. Platts-Mills TA, Longbottom J, Edwards J, Cockroft A, Wilkins S. Occupational asthma and rhinitis related to laboratory rats: serum IgG and IgE antibodies to the rat urinary allergen. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 1987;79: 505–515.
 70. Tiikkainen U, Klockars M. Clinical significance of IgG subclass antibodies to wheat flour antigens in bakers. *Allergy*. 1990;45: 497–504.

71. Wisniewski AV. Developments in laboratory diagnostics for isocyanate asthma. *Curr Opin Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2007;7:138–145.
72. Park HS, Lee MK, Kim BO, et al. Clinical and immunologic evaluations of reactive dye-exposed workers. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 1991;87:639–649.
73. Park JW, Kim CW, Kim KS, et al. Role of skin prick test and serological measurement of specific IgE in the diagnosis of occupational asthma resulting from exposure to vinyl sulphone reactive dyes. *Occup Environ Med*. 2001;58:411–416.
74. van der Meer V, Bakker MJ, van den Hout WB, et al. Internet-based self-management plus education compared with usual care in asthma: a randomized trial. *Ann Intern Med*. 2009;151:110–120.
75. Calverley AE, Rees D, Dowdeswell RJ, Linnett PJ, Kielkowsky D. Platinum salt sensitivity in refinery workers: incidence and effects of smoking and exposure. *Occup Environ Med*. 1995;52:661–666.
76. Niezborala M, Garnier R. Allergy to complex platinum salts: a historical prospective cohort study. *Occup Environ Med*. 1996;53:252–257.
77. Acero S, Alvarez MJ, Garcia BE, Echechipia S, Olaguibel JM, Tabar AI. Occupational asthma from natural rubber latex. Specific inhalation challenge test and evolution. *J Investig Allergol Clin Immunol*. 2003;13:155–161.
78. Bernstein JA, Ghosh D, Sublett WJ, Wells H, Levin L. Is trimellitic anhydride skin testing a sufficient screening tool for selectively identifying TMA-exposed workers with TMA-specific serum IgE antibodies? *J Occup Environ Med*. 2011;53:1122–1127.
79. Brisman J, Lillienberg L, Belin L, Ahman M, Jarvholm B. Sensitisation to occupational allergens in bakers' asthma and rhinitis: a case-referent study. *Int Arch Occup Environ Health*. 2003;76:167–170.
80. Merget R, Kulzer R, Dierkes-Globisch A, et al. Exposure-effect relationship of platinum salt allergy in a catalyst production plant: conclusions from a 5-year prospective cohort study. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2000;105:364–370.
81. Merget R, Schulte A, Gebler A, et al. Outcome of occupational asthma due to platinum salts after transferral to low-exposure areas. *Int Arch Occup Environ Health*. 1999;72:33–39.
82. Park HS, Nahm DH, Suh CH, et al. Occupational asthma and IgE sensitization to grain dust. *J Korean Med Sci*. 1998;13:275–280.
83. Sharma HP, Wood RA, Bravo AR, Matsui EC. A comparison of skin prick tests, intradermal skin tests, and specific IgE in the diagnosis of mouse allergy. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2008;121:933–939.
84. Suarathana E, Malo JL, Heederik D, Ghezzi H, L'Archeveque J, Gautrin D. Which tools best predict the incidence of work-related sensitisation and symptoms. *Occup Environ Med*. 2009;66:111–117.
85. Walusiak J, Hanke W, Gorski P, Palczynski C. Respiratory allergy in apprentice bakers: do occupational allergies follow the allergic march? *Allergy*. 2004;59:442–450.
86. Sander I, Merget R, Degens PO, Goldscheid N, Bruning T, Raulf-Heimsoth M. Comparison of wheat and rye flour skin prick test solutions for diagnosis of baker's asthma. *Allergy*. 2004;59:95–98.
87. Wiszniewska M, Nowakowska-Swirta E, Palczynski C, Walusiak-Skorupa J. Diagnosing of bakers' respiratory allergy: is specific inhalation challenge test essential? *Allergy Asthma Proc*. 2011;32:111–118.
88. Schmid K, Jungert B, Hager M, Drexler H. Is there a need for special preventive medical check-ups in employees exposed to experimental animal dust? *Int Arch Occup Environ Health*. 2009;82:319–327.
89. Frigas E, Filley WV, Reed CE. Bronchial challenge with formaldehyde gas: lack of bronchoconstriction in 13 patients suspected of having formaldehyde-induced asthma. *Mayo Clin Proc*. 1984;59:295–299.
90. Rasanen L, Kuusisto P, Penttila M, Nieminen M, Savolainen J, Lehto M. Comparison of immunologic tests in the diagnosis of occupational asthma and rhinitis. *Allergy*. 1994;49:342–347.
91. Burge PS. Recent developments in occupational asthma. *Swiss Med Wkly*. 2010;140:128–132.
92. Vanhanen M, Tuomi T, Tupasela O, et al. Cellulase allergy and challenge tests with cellulase using immunologic assessment. *Scand J Work Environ Health*. 2000;26:250–256.
93. Palczynski C, Walusiak J, Ruta U, Gorski P. Nasal provocation test in the diagnosis of natural rubber latex allergy. *Allergy*. 2000;55:34–41.
94. Lam S, Tan F, Chan H, Chan-Yeung M. Relationship between types of asthmatic reaction, nonspecific bronchial reactivity, and specific IgE antibodies in patients with red cedar asthma. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 1983;72:134–139.
95. Schwaiblmair M, Vogelmeier C, Fruhmarm G. Occupational asthma in hairdressers: results of inhalation tests with bleaching powder. *Int Arch Occup Environ Health*. 1997;70:419–423.
96. Harries MG, Burge PS, O'Brien IM. Occupational type bronchial provocation tests: testing with soluble antigens by inhalation. *Br J Ind Med*. 1980;37:248–252.
97. Mapp CE, Boschetto P, Dal Vecchio L, Maestrelli P, Fabbri LM. Occupational asthma due to isocyanates. *Eur Respir J*. 1988;1:273–279.
98. Nordman H, Keskinen H, Tuppurainen M. Formaldehyde asthma: rare or overlooked? *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 1985;75:91–99.
99. Obtulowicz K, Laczowska T, Kolarzyk E, Hudzik A. Obstruction of the small airways in the spirometric diagnosis of occupational bronchial asthma. *J Investig Allergol Clin Immunol*. 1998;8:300–303.
100. Allmers H, Chen Z, Barbinova L, Marczynski B, Kirschmann V, Baur X. Challenge from methacholine, natural rubber latex, or 4,4-diphenylmethane diisocyanate in workers with suspected sensitization affects exhaled nitric oxide [change in exhaled NO levels after allergen challenges]. *Int Arch Occup Environ Health*. 2000;73:181–186.
101. Berlyne GS, Parameswaran K, Kamada D, Efthimiadis A, Hargreave FE. A comparison of exhaled nitric oxide and induced sputum as markers of airway inflammation. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2000;106:638–644.
102. Demange V, Bohadana A, Massin N, Wild P. Exhaled nitric oxide and airway hyperresponsiveness in workers: a preliminary study in lifeguards. *BMC Pulm Med*. 2009;9:53.
103. Dupont LJ, Demedts MG, Verleden GM. Prospective evaluation of the validity of exhaled nitric oxide for the diagnosis of asthma. *Chest*. 2003;123:751–756.
104. Dweik RA, Boggs PB, Erzurum SC, et al. An official ATS clinical practice guideline: interpretation of exhaled nitric oxide levels (FENO) for clinical applications. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 2011;184:602–615.
105. Ferrazzoni S, Scarpa MC, Guarnieri G, Corradi M, Mutti A, Maestrelli P. Exhaled nitric oxide and breath condensate pH in asthmatic reactions induced by isocyanates. *Chest*. 2009;136:155–162.
106. Fortuna AM, Feixas T, Gonzalez M, Casan P. Diagnostic utility of inflammatory biomarkers in asthma: exhaled nitric oxide and induced sputum eosinophil count. *Respir Med*. 2007;101:2416–2421.
107. Fukuhara A, Saito J, Sato S, et al. Validation study of asthma screening criteria based on subjective symptoms and fractional exhaled nitric oxide. *Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol*. 2011;107:480–486.
108. Gelb AF, Flynn Taylor C, Shinar CM, Gutierrez C, Zamel N. Role of spirometry and exhaled nitric oxide to predict exacerbations in treated asthmatics. *Chest*. 2006;129:1492–1499.
109. Jang AS, Choi IS. Nitric oxide metabolites in patients with asthma: induced sputum versus blood. *Respir Med*. 1999;93:912–918.
110. Koksai N, Yildirim Z, Gokirmak M, Hasanoglu HC, Mehmet N, Avci H. The role of nitric oxide and cytokines in asthma-like syndrome induced by sulfur dioxide exposure in agricultural environment. *Clin Chim Acta*. 2003;336:115–122.
111. Kostikas K, Papaioannou AI, Tanou K, Koutsokera A, Papala M, Gourgoulis KI. Portable exhaled nitric oxide as a screening tool for asthma in young adults during pollen season. *Chest*. 2008;133:906–913.
112. Lemiere C, D'Alpaos V, Chaboillez S, et al. Investigation of occupational asthma: sputum cell counts or exhaled nitric oxide? *Chest*. 2010;137:617–622.
113. Menzies D, Nair A, Lipworth BJ. Portable exhaled nitric oxide measurement: comparison with the "gold standard" technique. *Chest*. 2007;131:410–414.
114. Miedinger D, Mosimann N, Meier R, et al. Asthma tests in the assessment of military conscripts. *Clin Exp Allergy*. 2010;40:224–231.
115. Moore VC, Anees W, Jaakkola MS, Burge CB, Robertson AS, Burge PS. Two variants of occupational asthma separable by exhaled breath nitric oxide level. *Respir Med*. 2010;104:873–879.
116. Olin AC, Rosengren A, Thelle DS, Lissner L, Toren K. Increased fraction of exhaled nitric oxide predicts new-onset wheeze in a general population. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 2010;181:324–327.
117. Pedrosa M, Cancelliere N, Barranco P, Lopez-Carrasco V, Quirce S. Usefulness of exhaled nitric oxide for diagnosing asthma. *J Asthma*. 2010;47:817–821.
118. Perez-de-Llano LA, Carballada F, Castro Anon O, et al. Exhaled nitric oxide predicts control in patients with difficult-to-treat asthma. *Eur Respir J*. 2010;35:1221–1227.
119. Smith AD, Cowan JO, Filsell S, et al. Diagnosing asthma: comparisons between exhaled nitric oxide measurements and conventional tests. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 2004;169:473–478.

120. Dressel H, de la Motte D, Reichert J, et al. Exhaled nitric oxide: independent effects of atopy, smoking, respiratory tract infection, gender and height. *Respir Med*. 2008;102:962–969.
121. Kowal K, Bodzenta-Lukaszyk A, Zukowski S. Exhaled nitric oxide in evaluation of young adults with chronic cough. *J Asthma*. 2009;46:692–698.
122. Smit LA, Heederik D, Doekes G, Wouters IM. Exhaled nitric oxide in endotoxin-exposed adults: effect modification by smoking and atopy. *Occup Environ Med*. 2009;66:251–255.
123. Kharitonov SA, Barnes PJ. Nitric oxide, nitrotyrosine, and nitric oxide modulators in asthma and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *Curr Allergy Asthma Rep*. 2003;3:121–129.
124. Gorski P, Krakowiak A, Pazdrak K, Palczynski C, Ruta U, Walusiak J. Nasal challenge test in the diagnosis of allergic respiratory diseases in subjects occupationally exposed to a high molecular allergen (flour). *Occup Med (Lond)*. 1998;48:91–97.
125. Obata H, Ditttrick M, Chan H, Chan-Yeung M. Sputum eosinophils and exhaled nitric oxide during late asthmatic reaction in patients with western red cedar asthma. *Eur Respir J*. 1999;13:489–495.
126. Palczynski C, Walusiak J, Krakowiak A, et al. Nasal lavage fluid examination in diagnostics of occupational allergy to chloramine. *Int J Occup Med Environ Health*. 2003;16:231–240.
127. Palczynski C, Walusiak J, Ruta U, Gorski P. Occupational asthma and rhinitis due to glutaraldehyde: changes in nasal lavage fluid after specific inhalatory challenge test. *Allergy*. 2001;56:1186–1191.
128. Sigsgaard T, Bonfeld-Jorgensen EC, Kjaergaard SK, Mamas S, Pedersen OF. Cytokine release from the nasal mucosa and whole blood after experimental exposures to organic dusts. *Eur Respir J*. 2000;16:140–145.
129. Krakowiak A, Ruta U, Gorski P, Kowalska S, Palczynski C. Nasal lavage fluid examination and rhinomanometry in the diagnostics of occupational airway allergy to laboratory animals. *Int J Occup Med Environ Health*. 2003;16:125–132.
130. Fishwick D, Bradshaw L, Henson M, et al. Occupational asthma: an assessment of diagnostic agreement between physicians. *Occup Environ Med*. 2007;64:185–190.
131. Nicholson PJ, Cullinan P, Taylor AJ, Burge PS, Boyle C. Evidence based guidelines for the prevention, identification, and management of occupational asthma. *Occup Environ Med*. 2005;62:290–299.
132. Vandenplas O, Dressel H, Nowak D, Jamart J. What is the optimal management option for occupational asthma? *Eur Respir Rev*. 2012;21:97–104.
133. Anees W, Moore VC, Burge PS. FEV₁ decline in occupational asthma. *Thorax*. 2006;61:751–755.
134. de Groene GJ, Pal TM, Beach J, et al. Workplace interventions for treatment of occupational asthma: a Cochrane systematic review. *Occup Environ Med*. 2012;69:373–374.
135. Vandenplas O, Jamart J, Delwiche JP, Evrard G, Larbanois A. Occupational asthma caused by natural rubber latex: outcome according to cessation or reduction of exposure. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2002;109:125–130.
136. Banks DE, Rando RJ, Barkman Jr HW. Persistence of toluene diisocyanate-induced asthma despite negligible workplace exposures. *Chest*. 1990;97:121–125.
137. Paggiaro PL, Loi AM, Rossi O, et al. Follow-up study of patients with respiratory disease due to toluene diisocyanate (TDI). *Clin Allergy*. 1984;14:463–469.
138. Anonymous. Incident reports: car paint death. *Toxic Subst Bull*. 1985;4.
139. Carino M, Aliani M, Licitra C, Sarno N, Ioli F. Death due to asthma at workplace in a diphenylmethane diisocyanate-sensitized subject. *Respiration*. 1997;64:111–113.
140. Chester DA, Hanna EA, Pickelman BG, Rosenman KD. Asthma death after spraying polyurethane truck bedliner. *Am J Ind Med*. 2005;48:78–84.
141. Fabbri LM, Danieli D, Crescioli S, et al. Fatal asthma in a subject sensitized to toluene diisocyanate. *Am Rev Respir Dis*. 1988;137:1494–1498.
142. Lee SM, Koh D. Lessons from an isocyanate tragedy. *Singapore Med J*. 2008;49:372–375.
143. Ortega HG, Kreiss K, Schill DP, Weissman DN. Fatal asthma from powdering shark cartilage and review of fatal occupational asthma literature. *Am J Ind Med*. 2002;42:50–54.
144. Pisati G, Baruffini A, Zedda S. Toluene diisocyanate induced asthma: outcome according to persistence or cessation of exposure. *Br J Ind Med*. 1993;50:60–64.
145. Rosenberg N, Garnier R, Rousselin X, Mertz R, Gervais P. Clinical and socio-professional fate of isocyanate-induced asthma. *Clin Allergy*. 1987;17:55–61.
146. Tarlo SM, Liss GM, Dias C, Banks DE. Assessment of the relationship between isocyanate exposure levels and occupational asthma. *Am J Ind Med*. 1997;32:517–521.
147. Chung KF, Wenzel SE, Brozek JL, et al. International ERS/ATS guidelines on definition, evaluation and treatment of severe asthma. *Eur Respir J*. 2014;43:343–373.