

commonly larvae of *Ascaris* species (roundworm). Symptoms are generally self-limited and may include dyspnea, cough, wheeze, and hemoptysis. Löffler syndrome may also occur in response to hookworm infection with *Ancylostoma duodenale* or *Necator americanus*. Chronic *Strongyloides stercoralis* infection can lead to recurrent respiratory symptoms with peripheral eosinophilia between flares. In immunocompromised hosts, including patients on glucocorticoids, a severe, potentially fatal, hyperinfection syndrome can result from *Strongyloides* infection. Paragonimiasis, filariasis, and visceral larval migrans can all cause pulmonary eosinophilia as well.

DRUGS AND TOXINS

A host of medications are associated with the development of pulmonary infiltrates with peripheral eosinophilia. Therefore, drug reaction must always be included in the differential diagnosis of pulmonary eosinophilia. Although the list of medications associated with pulmonary eosinophilia is ever expanding, common culprits include nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory medications and systemic antibiotics, most specifically nitrofurantoin. Additionally, various and diverse environmental exposures such as particulate metals, scorpion stings, and inhalational drugs of abuse may also cause pulmonary eosinophilia. Radiation therapy for breast cancer has been linked with eosinophilic pulmonary infiltration as well. The mainstay of treatment is removal of the offending exposure, although glucocorticoids may be necessary if respiratory symptoms are severe.

GLOBAL CONSIDERATIONS



In the United States, drug-induced eosinophilic pneumonias are the most common cause of eosinophilic pulmonary infiltrates. A travel history or evidence of recent immigration should prompt the consideration of parasite-associated disorders. Tropical eosinophilia is usually caused by filarial infection; however, eosinophilic pneumonias also occur with other parasites such as *Ascaris* spp., *Ancylostoma* spp., *Toxocara* spp., and *Strongyloides stercoralis*. Tropical eosinophilia due to *Wuchereria bancrofti* or *Wuchereria malayi* occurs most commonly in southern Asia, Africa, and South America and is treated successfully with diethylcarbamazine. In the United States, *Strongyloides* is endemic to the southeastern and Appalachian regions.

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311 Occupational and Environmental Lung Disease

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Occupational and environmental lung diseases are difficult to distinguish from those of nonenvironmental origin. Virtually all major categories of pulmonary disease can be caused by environmental agents, and environmentally related disease usually presents clinically in a manner indistinguishable from that of disease not caused by such agents. In addition, the etiology of many diseases may be multifactorial; occupational and environmental factors may interact with other factors (such as smoking and genetic risk). It is often only after a careful exposure history is taken that the underlying workplace or general environmental exposure is uncovered.

Why is knowledge of occupational or environmental etiology so important? Patient management and prognosis are affected significantly by such knowledge. For example, patients with occupational

asthma or hypersensitivity pneumonitis often cannot be managed adequately without cessation of exposure to the offending agent. Establishment of cause may have significant legal and financial implications for a patient who no longer can work in his or her usual job. Other exposed people may be identified as having the disease or prevented from getting it. In addition, new associations between exposure and disease may be identified (e.g., nylon flock worker's lung disease and diacetyl-induced bronchiolitis obliterans).

Although the exact proportion of lung disease due to occupational and environmental factors is unknown, a large number of individuals are at risk. For example, 15–20% of the burden of adult asthma and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) has been estimated to be due to occupational factors.

HISTORY AND EXPOSURE ASSESSMENT

The patient's history is of paramount importance in assessing any potential occupational or environmental exposure. Inquiry into specific work practices should include questions about the specific contaminants involved, the presence of visible dusts, chemical odors, the size and ventilation of workspaces, the use of respiratory protective equipment, and whether co-workers have similar complaints. The temporal association of exposure at work and symptoms may provide clues to occupation-related disease. In addition, the patient must be questioned about alternative sources of exposure to potentially toxic agents, including hobbies, home characteristics, exposure to secondhand smoke, and proximity to traffic or industrial facilities. Short-term and long-term exposures to potential toxic agents in the distant past also must be considered.

Workers in the United States have the right to know about potential hazards in their workplaces under federal Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA) regulations. Employers must provide specific information about potential hazardous agents in products being used through Material Safety Data Sheets as well as training in personal protective equipment and environmental control procedures. However, the introduction of new processes and/or new chemical compounds may change exposure significantly, and often only the employee on the production line is aware of the change. For the physician caring for a patient with a suspected work-related illness, a visit to the work site can be very instructive. Alternatively, an affected worker can request an inspection by OSHA. If reliable environmental sampling data are available, that information should be used in assessing a patient's exposure. Because many of the chronic diseases result from exposure over many years, current environmental measurements should be combined with work histories to arrive at estimates of past exposure.

PULMONARY FUNCTION TESTS AND CHEST IMAGING

Exposures to inorganic and organic dusts can cause interstitial lung disease that presents with a restrictive pattern and a decreased diffusing capacity (Chap. 306e). Similarly, exposures to a number of organic dusts or chemical agents may result in occupational asthma or COPD that is characterized by airway obstruction. Measurement of change in forced expiratory volume (FEV₁) before and after a working shift can be used to detect an acute bronchoconstrictive response.

The chest radiograph is useful in detecting and monitoring the pulmonary response to mineral dusts, certain metals, and organic dusts capable of inducing hypersensitivity pneumonitis. The International Labour Organisation (ILO) International Classification of Radiographs of Pneumoconioses classifies chest radiographs by the nature and size of opacities seen and the extent of involvement of the parenchyma. In general, small rounded opacities are seen in silicosis or coal worker's pneumoconiosis, and small linear opacities are seen in asbestosis. Although useful for epidemiologic studies and screening large numbers of workers, the ILO system can be problematic when applied to an individual worker's chest radiograph. With dusts causing rounded opacities, the degree of involvement on the chest radiograph may be extensive, whereas pulmonary function may be only minimally impaired. In contrast, in pneumoconiosis causing linear, irregular opacities like those seen in asbestosis, the radiograph may lead to