

Diagnosis and Treatment of Urticaria and Angioedema: A Worldwide Perspective

Mario Sánchez-Borges, MD,¹ Riccardo Asero, MD,² Ignacio J. Ansotegui, MD,³ Ilaria Baiardini, MD,⁴ Jonathan A Bernstein, MD,⁵ G. Walter Canonica, MD,⁴ Richard Gower, MD,⁶ David A Kahn, MD,⁷ Allen P Kaplan, MD,⁸ Connie Katelaris, MD,⁹ Marcus Maurer, MD,¹⁰ Hae Sim Park, MD,¹¹ Paul Potter, MD,¹² Sarbjit Saini, MD,¹³ Paolo Tassinari, MD,¹⁴ Alberto Tedeschi, MD,¹⁵ Young Min Ye, MD,¹¹ Torsten Zuberbier MD,¹⁰ and the WAO Scientific and Clinical Issues Council

Abstract: Urticaria and angioedema are common clinical conditions representing a major concern for physicians and patients alike. The World Allergy Organization (WAO), recognizing the importance of these diseases, has contributed to previous guidelines for the diagnosis and management of urticaria. The Scientific and Clinical Issues Council of WAO proposed the development of this global Position Paper to further enhance the clinical management of these disorders through the participation of renowned experts from all WAO regions of the world. Sections on definition

and classification, prevalence, etiology and pathogenesis, diagnosis, treatment, and prognosis are based on the best scientific evidence presently available. Additional sections devoted to urticaria and angioedema in children and pregnant women, quality of life and patient-reported outcomes, and physical urticarias have been incorporated into this document. It is expected that this article will supplement recent international guidelines with the contribution of an expert panel designated by the WAO, increasing awareness of the importance of urticaria and angioedema in medical practice and will become a useful source of information for optimum patient management worldwide.

Key Words: urticaria, angioedema

(*WAO Journal* 2012; 5:125–147)

RATIFICATION BY VOTING MEMBER SOCIETIES OF THE WORLD ALLERGY ORGANIZATION OCTOBER 2012

Albanian Society of Allergology and Clinical Immunology
American Academy of Allergy, Asthma and Immunology
American College of Allergy, Asthma and Immunology
Argentine Association of Allergy and Clinical Immunology
Argentine Society of Allergy and Immunopathology
Australasian Society of Clinical Immunology and Allergy
Austrian Society of Allergology and Immunology
Azerbaijan Society for Asthma, Allergy and Clinical Immunology
Brazilian Society of Allergy and Immunopathology
British Society for Allergy and Clinical Immunology
Bulgarian National Society of Allergology
Canadian Society of Allergy and Clinical Immunology
Colombian Allergy, Asthma, and Immunology Association
Croatian Society of Allergology and Clinical Immunology
Cuban Society of Allergology
Czech Society of Allergology and Clinical Immunology
Danish Society for Allergology
Dutch Society of Allergology
Egyptian Society of Allergy and Clinical Immunology
Egyptian Society of Pediatric Allergy and Immunology
Finnish Society of Allergology and Clinical Immunology

From the ¹Department of Allergy and Clinical Immunology, Centro Médico- Docente La Trinidad, Caracas, Venezuela; ²Ambulatorio di Allergologia, Clinica San Carlo, Paderno-Dugnano, Milan, Italy; ³Department of Allergy and Immunology, Hospital Quirón Bizkaia, Bilbao, Spain; ⁴Allergy and Respiratory Disease Clinic, University of Genova, Ospedale S.Martino di Genova, Genoa, Italy; ⁵Department of Internal Medicine, Division of Immunology/Allergy Section University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, OH; ⁶Department of Medicine, University of Washington, Spokane, WA; ⁷Division of Allergy and Immunology, Department of Internal Medicine, University of Texas Southwestern Medical Center, Dallas, TX; ⁸Division of Pulmonary and Critical Care Medicine and Allergy and Immunology, Department of Medicine, Medical University of South Carolina, Charleston, SC; ⁹Department of Allergy and Immunology, University of Western Sydney and Campbelltown Hospital, Sydney, Australia; ¹⁰Universitätsmedizin Berlin, Allergie-Centrum-Charité, Berlin, Germany; ¹¹Department of Allergy and Clinical Immunology, Ajou University School of Medicine, Suwon, South Korea; ¹²Allergy Diagnostic & Clinical Research Unit, University of Cape Town Lung Institute, Groote Schuur, South Africa; ¹³Division of Allergy and Clinical Immunology, Department of Medicine, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, MD; ¹⁴Immunology Institute, Faculty of Medicine, Universidad Central de Venezuela, Caracas, Venezuela; ¹⁵U.O. Allergologia e Immunologia Clinica, Fondazione IRCCS Ca' Granda, Ospedale Maggiore Policlinico, Milano, Italy.

All authors reviewed and approved this manuscript. *Abstract, Introduction, WAO Global Position Papers, Methods, Prevalence, Dissemination and implementation of the Position Paper, Summary:* M. Sánchez-Borges. *Definition and Classification:* P. Tassinari. *Etiology and Pathogenesis:* A. P. Kaplan and S. Saini. *Diagnostic Approach:* H. S. Park, Y. M. Ye, and I. Treatment: A. R. Asero, J. A. Bernstein, D. A. Khan, and A. Tedeschi. *Prognosis:* R. Gower. *Urticaria and Angioedema in Children:* P. Potter. *Urticaria and Pregnancy:* C. Katelaris. *Quality of Life and Patient's Reported Outcomes:* I. Baiardini and G. W. Canonica. *Special Considerations of Physical Urticarias:* M. Maurer and T. Zuberbier.

Correspondence to: Mario Sánchez-Borges, BD, Carretera La Trinidad-El Hatillo, Estado Miranda, Caracas, Miranda 1070, Venezuela.
Telephone: +58-212-2615284. Fax: +58-212-2615284. E-mail: sanchezbmario@gmail.com.

Copyright © 2012 by World Allergy Organization

German Society for Allergology and Clinical Immunology
 Honduran Society of Allergy and Clinical Immunology
 Hong Kong Institute of Allergy
 Hungarian Society of Allergology and Clinical Immunology
 Icelandic Society of Allergy and Immunology
 Indian College of Allergy, Asthma and Applied Immunology
 Indonesian Society for Allergy and Immunology
 Israel Association of Allergy and Clinical Immunology
 Italian Society for Allergology and Clinical Immunology
 Japanese Society of Allergology
 Jordanian Society for Allergy and Clinical Immunology
 Korean Academy of Allergy, Asthma and Clinical Immunology
 Kuwait Society of Allergy and Clinical Immunology
 Latvian Association of Allergists
 Lebanese Society of Allergy and Immunology
 Malaysian Society of Allergy and Immunology
 Mexican College of Pediatricians Specialized in Allergy and Clinical Immunology
 Mongolian Society of Allergology
 Norwegian Society of Allergology and Immunopathology
 Panamanian Association of Allergology and Clinical Immunology.
 Philippine Society of Allergy, Asthma and Immunology
 Polish Society of Allergology
 Romanian Society of Allergology and Clinical Immunology
 Russian Association of Allergology and Clinical Immunology (Singapore)
 Allergy and Clinical Immunology Society of Singapore
 Slovenian Association for Allergology and Clinical Immunology
 (South Africa) Allergy Society of South Africa
 Spanish Society of Allergology and Clinical Immunology
 (Sri Lanka) Allergy and Immunology Society of Sri Lanka
 Swiss Society of Allergology and Immunology
 (Thailand) Allergy, Asthma and Immunology Society of Thailand
 Turkish National Society of Allergy and Clinical Immunology
 Uruguayan Society of Allergology
 Venezuelan Society of Allergy and Immunology

Contributing Regional Member Societies

American Academy of Allergy, Asthma and Immunology
 American College of Allergy, Asthma and Immunology
 Asia Pacific Association of Allergy, Asthma and Clinical Immunology
 European Academy of Allergy and Clinical Immunology
 Latin American Society of Allergy and Immunology

INTRODUCTION

Urticaria is a highly prevalent condition resulting in large numbers of medical consultations worldwide. Its prevalence ranges between 0.3 and 11.3% depending on the study population (see Prevalence section), and in recent years, an increase in the rate of hospitalizations due to urticaria and angioedema has been observed in some countries.¹ It has been estimated that approximately 20% of the population will experience an episode of acute urticaria (AU) at some point in their lifetime.

Although urticaria has a tremendous impact on patient's quality of life, it is often disregarded as a trivial disease by

many physicians.² Therefore, patients are not adequately educated on the nature of their condition and its proper management, which involves not only pharmacological treatment but also the implementation of preventive measures to reduce the effects of various precipitating and aggravating factors.

This position paper provides updates on recent advances in the understanding of etiologic factors, pathogenic mechanisms, diagnostic methods, and medical management of acute and chronic urticaria (CU) and angioedema.

WORLD ALLERGY ORGANIZATION GLOBAL POSITION PAPERS

The World Allergy Organization (WAO) is an international federation of 89 regional and national allergy and clinical immunology societies dedicated to raising awareness and advancing excellence in clinical care, research, education, and training in allergy and clinical immunology. This WAO position paper on the diagnosis and treatment of urticaria and angioedema was developed as a document presenting a worldwide perspective encompassing the participation and input of leaders from all WAO regional member societies.

This position paper includes sections on the definition, prevalence, classification, mechanisms, diagnosis, treatment, and prognosis of urticaria and angioedema. In addition, special chapters dealing with particularly important issues have been included to review physical urticarias, urticaria in childhood, urticaria and pregnancy, and quality of life and patient-reported outcomes (PROs). The concept of disease control for CU, similar to other chronic allergic diseases such as asthma and rhinitis, is highlighted and the importance of patient education on the possible mechanisms, causes, prognosis, and treatment of acute and CU is emphasized.

National and regional guidelines for the diagnosis and treatment of urticaria and angioedema have been previously published.³⁻⁵ Because urticaria and angioedema are a frequent cause for consultation not only in allergology clinics but also in general practitioners' offices, and these diseases are often underestimated by physicians, it was important to provide useful orientations for the management of these vexing conditions.

The objectives of this WAO position paper on urticaria and angioedema are to provide updated information on the assessment and treatment that should be applied in health care settings worldwide to obtain a better symptom control, improve patients' quality of life, contribute to patient education, and enhance accessibility to more effective therapies. This information is designed for use by both allergy and immunology specialists as well as physicians in general practices who daily observe patients with urticaria and angioedema.

METHODS

This position paper was developed by a special steering committee of internationally recognized experts appointed by the WAO Scientific and Clinical Issues Council.

Recommendations are based on the best evidence presently available. Urticaria and angioedema guidelines previously published in indexed peer-reviewed journals were reviewed.

Drafts were developed through e-mail correspondence among authors, distributed to all members of WAO Board of Directors for comment, and then circulated to WAO Member Societies for review, comments, and approval. In all, more than 50 allergy and immunology specialists on 5 continents contributed to the development of this position paper.

DEFINITION AND CLASSIFICATION

Urticaria is characterized by the sudden appearance of wheals and/or angioedema, defining wheals as a cutaneous swelling of variable size, almost invariably surrounded by a reflex erythema, with associated itching or, sometimes, a burning sensation, and of transient nature, with the skin returning to its normal appearance in usually 1 to 24 hours.

Angioedema can be defined as a sudden and pronounced swelling of the deep dermis and subcutaneous tissue or mucous membranes, with a painful rather than an itching sensation and a slower resolution than for wheals that can take up to 72 hours.^{4,6}

Classification

Urticaria can be classified on the basis of its duration and in the presence or absence of inducing factors (induced vs spontaneous).

Duration

AU is characterized by the occurrence of hives and/or angioedema for <6 weeks, whereas episodes lasting longer than 6 weeks are regarded as CU.⁷ This somewhat arbitrary distinction of 6 weeks becomes important in regard to potential mechanisms, approaches to evaluation, and options for treatment. The classification of urticaria is presented in Table 1.

Urticaria pigmentosa (cutaneous mastocytosis), urticarial vasculitis, familial cold urticaria, and nonhistaminergic angioedema (eg, hereditary or acquired C1 esterase inhibitor

deficiency) are no longer considered as subtypes of urticaria, due to their distinctly different pathomechanisms.⁴

Finally, there are syndromes that can be associated with wheals:

- Muckle–Wells syndrome: a combination of wheals, deafness, and amyloidosis, characterized by sensorineural deafness, recurrent urticaria, fever, and arthritis.⁸
- Schnitzler syndrome: chronic wheals and monoclonal gammopathy (usually IgM) associated with at least 2 of the following components: fever, arthralgia, or arthritis, bone pain, hepatomegaly or splenomegaly or hepatosplenomegaly, lymphadenopathy, elevated erythrocyte sedimentation rate, leukocytosis, and/or abnormal findings on bone morphological investigations.⁹
- Gleich syndrome: episodic angioedema with eosinophilia.¹⁰
- Well syndrome or eosinophilic cellulitis: granulomatous dermatitis with eosinophilia.¹¹

PREVALENCE

The prevalence of urticaria and angioedema varies according to the population under investigation. Lifetime prevalence rates of 8.8% have been reported, with a 1.8% rate for CU.¹² Approximately 10 to 20% of the population will experience an episode of AU at some point in their lifetime, and 0.1% will develop chronic spontaneous urticaria.¹³

In a study carried out in Spain, the prevalence of urticaria in the past 12 months was 0.8%, and the prevalence of CU was 0.6%. Urticaria was present more often in female patients among the 35 to 60 years age-group (mean age, 40 years). Duration of the disease was 1 to 5 years in 8.7% of the patients and more than 5 years in 11.3%.¹⁴

Autoimmune disturbances are present in 40 to 45% of patients with chronic spontaneous urticaria.¹⁵ Angioedema is present in 40 to 50% of cases of chronic spontaneous urticaria,

TABLE 1. Classification of Urticaria Subtypes (Presenting With Wheals and/or Angioedema) Based on the Different Eliciting Stimuli

Types	Subtypes	Definition
Spontaneous urticaria	Acute spontaneous urticaria	Spontaneous wheals and/or angioedema <6 wk
	Chronic spontaneous urticaria	Spontaneous wheals and/or angioedema >6 wk
Urticarias induced by physical agents	Cold contact urticaria	Eliciting factor: cold objects/air/fluids/wind
	Delayed pressure urticaria	Eliciting factor: vertical pressure (wheals arising with a 3–12 h latency)
	Heat contact urticaria	Eliciting factor: localized heat
	Solar urticaria	Eliciting factor: UV and/or visible light
	Urticaria factitia/dermographic urticaria	Eliciting factor: mechanical shearing forces (wheals arising after 1–5 min)
Other inducible urticarias	Vibratory urticaria/angioedema	Eliciting factor: vibratory forces, e.g. pneumatic hammer
	Aquagenic urticaria	Eliciting factor: water
	Cholinergic urticaria	Elicitation by increase of body core temperature due to physical exercises, spicy food
	Contact urticaria	Elicitation by contact with urticariogenic substance
	Exercise-induced anaphylaxis/urticaria	Eliciting factor: physical exercise

Modified with permission from Zuberbier et al.⁴ Copyright 2009 John Wiley & Sons.

10% of patients experience only angioedema without hives and 40% exhibit wheals alone.^{6,13,16} Recently, an increase in the rate of hospital admissions for angioedema (3.0% per year), and urticaria (5.7% per year) has been observed in Australia. Admissions for urticaria were 3 times higher in children aged 0 to 4 years. The greatest increase in hospitalizations for urticaria was present in those aged 5 to 34 years (7.8% per year), and for angioedema, it was higher in patients 65 years and older.¹ It is not known if this increase has occurred in other countries.

ETIOLOGY AND PATHOGENESIS

Symptoms of chronic spontaneous urticaria appear seemingly spontaneously, that is, in most patients, there is no identifiable exogenous stimulus for hive production. In some patients, however, nonspecific exogenous triggers for the development of wheals and/or angioedema, such as exercise, environmental changes, and stress are present. We now consider this group to be chronic "spontaneous" urticaria^{4,17}; thus, if an etiology is to be found, it is likely to be endogenous, leading to the resultant cutaneous inflammation that is expressed as a hive.

Psychosomatic Factors

For decades, theories regarding etiology would appear and disappear, but none proved to be credible. In the 1950s and 1960s, many considered chronic spontaneous urticaria to be an anxiety disorder, and even now, there is some limited data to suggest worsening of symptoms with anxiety. It is now generally accepted that mental illnesses, such as depression and anxiety, influence the quality of life of chronic spontaneous urticaria patients and those are important comorbidities in such patients. However, it cannot be considered to be a cause, and a clear distinction between less tolerance of symptoms and actual worsening of skin inflammation has not been made.

Type 1 Food Allergy

The relation between food allergy/pseudoallergy and CU is controversial because some experts do not recommend elimination diets for such condition, whereas others have observed the improvement of symptoms by means of pseudoallergen-free diets in about one third of patients with chronic spontaneous urticaria.¹⁸

Autoreactivity and Autoimmunity

Autoreactivity (see below) represents one major approach to elucidating the initiating stimulus for persisting hive formation. It is clear that cutaneous mast cell degranulation induces hive formation and on biopsy, a nonnecrotizing perivascular infiltration of cells is seen, which resembles a cutaneous late phase reaction.¹⁹⁻²¹ There is infiltration with granulocytes (neutrophils, eosinophils, and basophils), although the magnitude can vary considerably. T cells are very prominent; most are CD4⁺ with a mixture of TH1 and TH2 subtypes.²¹ There are also monocytes, but very few, if any B lymphocytes. A similar

infiltration of cells can be seen when serum of patients is injected intradermally into their own skin, with a resultant wheal and flare reaction termed autoreactivity.²² This is seen in 30% of patients and led to considerations of autoimmune (ie, immunoglobulin) mechanisms for the initiation of mast cell degranulation. At first, 5 to 10% of patients were found to have circulating IgG anti-IgE, which is functional,²³ and subsequently, 30 to 40% of patients were found to have IgG antibody to the α subunit of the IgE receptor.²⁴ The thesis is that cross-linking IgE receptors or occasionally IgE itself could activate skin mast cells in a selective fashion. Most commonly, human basophils were employed as an alternative to cutaneous mast cells and worked well to identify what has been termed chronic autoimmune urticaria. Serum-evoked basophil histamine release (HR), although time consuming, is the most quantitative assay, but upregulation of CD63 or CD203 assessed by fluorescence-activated cell sorter analysis can also be employed.

The remaining 55 to 60% of patients lacking such autoimmunity are considered to have chronic nonautoimmune or idiopathic (but nevertheless spontaneous) urticaria. In vitro studies support antireceptor antibody binding to the α subunit of the IgE receptor to activate the classical complement pathway with release of C5a, which further activates basophils and mast cells and contributes to recruitment of granulocytes and monocytes by its chemotactic activity.²⁵ Marked reduction in serum complement levels or complement deposition in lesion biopsies have not been demonstrated in subjects with serum autoimmunity.

The presence of these antibodies does not prove causality, although their role as a pathogenic mechanism is debated with evidence pro and con.^{26,27} Clearly, more than half of the patient population with chronic spontaneous urticaria lacks these anti-Fc ϵ RI autoantibodies. However, in vitro HR can be blocked completely by saturating IgE receptors with an IgE myeloma protein so that antireceptor antibodies are sterically prevented from binding,²⁸ although an occasional exception is noted.²⁹ Soluble α subunit can be added to serum to bind the antireceptor antibody so that HR is prevented.^{24,30} In most cases studied, isolation of IgG has reproduced basophil activation based on HR, although the IgG depleted serum is negative.

There are also publications suggesting the presence of vasoactive factors in IgG-depleted serum of patients with CU,³¹ but no factor has been isolated or identified, and the assay employed for detection is more typically the autologous skin test rather than basophil HR. Plasmapheresis can be used to stop the urticaria acutely indicating that removal of a critical plasma factor can potentially stop symptoms in select cases.³²

Possible Role of Immunoglobulin E

Finally, it was theorized that anti-IgE therapy with omalizumab might be effective in patients with hives. The thesis was that as IgE levels decrease toward zero, IgE receptors are downregulated, and if the spacing and surface density is sufficiently low, the IgG anti- α subunit cannot cross-link receptors and activation of basophil and mast cell would not occur. In practice, the IgE receptor reduction via omalizumab occurs rapidly for blood basophils and much more

slowly on skin mast cells, yet omalizumab does not eliminate either cell's capacity to respond to a cross-linking stimulus.^{33–35} Thus far, therapy with this monoclonal antibody has been extremely successful,^{36–38} and phase 3 studies of its efficacy and safety are ongoing currently. The mechanism of its effect is not clear because some patients respond dramatically in 2 to 3 days; so fast that receptors could not be significantly down-regulated, and there is evidence of efficacy even in the non-autoimmune urticaria population.^{39,40} Thus, it is likely that some unknown role for IgE is operative in all these patients, whereas receptor downregulation is superimposed some weeks later. There is precedent for synthesis of IgE that is either intrinsically abnormal or perhaps reactive with an unknown autoantigen; for example, it has been shown that isolated monomeric IgE of some patients with cold urticaria can passively transfer the disease,⁴¹ that is, the IgE binds to normal mast cells of a recipient and renders them “cold sensitive” so that mast cells then degranulate upon a change in temperature. The abnormality resides with the IgE not the mast cell. There is also evidence for heightened skin mast cell release in active CU subjects^{42–44}; furthermore, a recent publication reports the presence of a nonimmunoglobulin factor in patient's sera capable of activating cultured mast cells *in vitro*.⁴⁵

Additional Observations on the Pathogenesis of Urticaria

There are additional observations regarding chronic spontaneous urticaria possibly related to pathogenesis. Early on, an association with Hashimoto thyroiditis, and more specifically, with the presence of autoantibodies was reported,^{46,47} including antiperoxidase and antithyroglobulin antibodies. Although IgE antithyroid antibodies could have pathogenic significance, most patients have only IgG antibodies, and their presence is thought to represent a proclivity to autoimmune phenomena and a possible marker for the presence of anti-IgE receptor antibody.⁴⁸ C-reactive protein is elevated in the group when compared with normals, suggesting systemic recognition of cutaneous inflammation. Matrix metalloproteinase levels are increased in the blood plasma perhaps originating from skin inflammation.⁴⁹ The extrinsic coagulation cascade is activated based on elevated prothrombin fragments 1 and 2 and D-dimer levels but without any abnormal coagulopathy.^{50,51} Tissue factor, although produced by activated endothelial cells (stimulated, for example, by histamine or leukotriene C4), nevertheless seems to be secreted by eosinophils within the tissue.⁵² It has been theorized that thrombin might activate mast cells; however, active thrombin has not been found; most demonstrations of thrombin-induced HR have employed rodent mast cells, and it is not clear that the thrombin dose needed is physiologic.^{53,54} Leukotriene C4, cytokines, and growth factors have also been found to be elevated in plasma of patients with CU, and cellular adhesion molecules are upregulated.^{55–57} It is not clear whether these inflammatory stigmata are produced by activated cells in blood or these are found to having been produced in the skin.

Another approach to understanding chronic spontaneous urticaria, whether associated with autoantibodies, is to focus on possible abnormalities within the cell, and the

basophil is a prime candidate. A hallmark of CU is the unique relationship of disease activity to altered blood basophil phenotypes.⁵⁸ Since the 1970s, many groups have found that blood basophils from active chronic spontaneous urticarial (CSU) subjects have reduced IgE receptor-mediated HR but not in the HR induced via IgE receptor-independent pathways (ionophore, 48/80, N-formyl-methionyl-leucin-phenylalanine (fMLP), bradykinin and monocyte chemoattractant protein 1 (MCP-1), indicating a specific defect in the FcεRI pathway.^{59–62} CSU subjects can be segregated based on the bimodal distribution of their basophil FcεRI-induced HR profiles, a feature that is stable during active disease.^{60,63} Fifty percent of CSU subjects have significant reductions in their blood basophil IgE receptor-induced HR (<10% of total histamine content) and are defined as nonresponders. The remaining CSU subjects have >10% basophil FcεRI-induced HR and are called responders.⁶⁴ These basophil subgroups also have altered protein levels of signaling molecule expression that reflects their IgE receptor functional classification. Blood basopenia is also unique to CSU and is correlated with disease activity.^{65,66} Furthermore, basophils are found in both lesional and nonlesional skin biopsies of CSU subjects, suggesting that basopenia is related to the recruitment of basophils to skin tissues.⁶⁷ Systemic corticosteroid therapy, which leads to an increase in blood basophil numbers and reduces skin symptoms in CSU, is known to inhibit basophil recruitment to the skin.^{66,68,69} In CSU subjects who enter remission, basophils shift toward normalization of basophil IgE receptor-mediated HR and correction of basopenia.^{60,63}

DIAGNOSTIC APPROACH TO URTICARIA

The goal of diagnostic measures is to (1) identify urticaria type and subtype and (2) identify underlying causes (in long-standing or severe chronic spontaneous urticaria only). Urticaria of either acute or chronic type is a common disease that manifests with heterogeneous phenotypes. It poses a high socioeconomic burden for patients.⁷⁰ In general, a limited initial workup is indicated, unless the clinical history dictates otherwise.

AU is more common than the chronic form and is associated with a rapid recovery, but the identification of its etiology can be helpful to prevent recurrence especially when allergy is suspected to be the cause. Although chronic spontaneous urticaria has various etiologies and subtypes, routine patient evaluation comprising the careful acquisition of patient history, physical examination, and ruling out of systemic diseases should be considered. Specific provocation and laboratory tests are needed to confirm the underlying causes whenever the clinical history is supportive. These extensive diagnostic procedures should be considered on an individual basis in patients with long-standing, severe, or persistent urticaria.

Diagnostic Approach for Patients With Acute Spontaneous Urticaria

Although both a detailed history and physical examination remain essential, the etiology of acute spontaneous urticaria can be suggested by a patient's history. Upper

respiratory tract and viral infections are the most common etiology in children. Foods and drugs such as antibiotics and nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs)⁷¹ can be considered for both adults and children. In general, diagnostic workup is indicated only when type I allergy is suspected to be the underlying cause of acute spontaneous urticaria.

Diagnostic Approach in Patients With CSU

In patients with CSU, it is necessary to obtain a thorough history, including all possible eliciting factors, and to identify the significant aspects of the disease. This initial assessment is helpful in the identification of the subtype of urticaria (acute vs chronic, spontaneous vs induced). The overall duration of CSU is likely to be longer in patients with high disease severity, angioedema, positive autologous serum skin test (ASST) results, or comorbidity with physical urticaria. Next, the impact of the disease on the patient and the disease activity should be evaluated using the urticaria activity score and the CU quality of life questionnaire (see Quality of Life and Patient-Reported Outcomes). The patient should be asked about the time of onset; frequency and duration of wheals; presence of diurnal variation; shape, size, and distribution of wheals; associated angioedema; family and personal history of urticaria; atopy; medications (NSAIDs, hormones, laxatives, immunizations); and observed correlation with food and stress. The first step is to exclude major comorbid disorders and physical urticaria, and the second step is to identify the underlying cause. Patient questioning together with physical examination and laboratory and provocation tests may be useful to identify associated diseases and comorbidities, and in some cases, the underlying cause. Routine laboratory testing in the absence of a clinical history is rarely helpful in determining an etiology for patients with CSU.^{72,73} Nevertheless, expert opinion differs in regards to the number and type of testing appropriate for patients with CSU.

Routine hematological tests, including complete blood count and liver function tests, the determination of erythrocyte sedimentation rate, and C-reactive protein levels may be considered. The role for infectious agents such as *Helicobacter pylori* in the causation of chronic urticarial is controversial, and the evidence is weak and conflicting.⁷⁴ Screening for thyroid autoimmunity may be considered. Although type I allergies are a very rare cause of CSU, the IgE-mediated mechanism may be considered in patients with intermittent symptoms. For differential diagnosis from patients with angioedema alone without wheals, the measurement of C4 and C1 esterase inhibitor levels may be necessary. About one third of CSU patients have aspirin/NSAID hypersensitivity, and oral provocation tests with aspirin are available to confirm this if needed.⁷¹ Some CSU patients improve with a food-additive-free diet, and challenge tests with food additives may be necessary.¹⁸ The ASST is the only generally available test to screen for autoantibodies against either IgE or the high-affinity IgE receptor. Autoimmune urticaria responds poorly to H1 antihistamines and often manifests as severe CSU. However, some studies have demonstrated low sensitivity of the ASST

with a high false-positive rate. The basophil HR test is more refined but is also insufficiently sensitive to be applied routinely. The diagnostic workup should include physical stimulation tests if physical urticaria is suspected. Ice cube or cold water tests are used widely for cold urticaria, and exercise challenge tests are used for cholinergic and exercise-induced urticaria. To improve outcomes for CSU patients, quality of life and psychiatric comorbidity should be considered. A skin biopsy may be needed to confirm urticarial vasculitis and Schnitzler syndrome.

TREATMENT

Antihistamines

Second-Generation Antihistamines at Licensed Doses

Second-generation antihistamines (azelastine, bilastine, cetirizine, desloratadine, ebastine, fexofenadine, levocetirizine, loratadine, mizolastine, and rupatadine) at licensed doses represent the mainstay of treatment for urticaria. A number of high-quality, randomized, controlled trials have been carried out with these drugs in patients with mild/moderate urticaria.^{3,5,75} Evidence of their effectiveness is very high. They are also safe and well-tolerated.

Comparative Efficacy of Second-Generation Antihistamines

The higher efficacy of cetirizine (10 mg) over fexofenadine (180 mg) has been shown in a randomized, double-blind study.⁷⁶ In another multicenter, randomized, double-blind study, levocetirizine was more effective than desloratadine.⁷⁷ Bilastine and levocetirizine have been recently compared in a randomized double-blind study and showed a similar effectiveness.⁷⁸

Finally, in a series of in vivo comparative studies assessing suppression of histamine-induced wheal and flare responses of different second-generation antihistamines, cetirizine and its derivative levocetirizine were always superior to other nonsedating antihistamines in terms of efficacy.^{79–81} However, a new study did not demonstrate significant differences between overall inhibition of wheal or flare by 20 mg of bilastine and 10 mg of cetirizine.⁸² The correlation of these in vivo comparisons with clinical efficacy is unknown. Randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trials have not found relevant differences in sedation and impaired psychomotor function between levocetirizine, cetirizine, and loratadine.⁸³ Some clinical trials and postmarketing surveillance studies found that the sedative effect of cetirizine was greater than that of fexofenadine or loratadine.⁸⁴

First-Generation Antihistamines

Double-blind placebo-controlled studies have demonstrated efficacy for several first-generation antihistamines in CU with overall similar efficacy to second-generation antihistamines.^{85–87} First-generation antihistamines have been recommended as add-on therapy to CU patients who have had inadequate control on second-generation antihistamines; however, studies to demonstrate efficacy of this approach are

lacking.²⁸ Sedation and cognitive/psychomotor function impairment are side effects of first-generation antihistamines, but the degree of these side effects varies between individuals.⁸⁸ Therefore, sedating antihistamines are typically recommended to be dosed as a single nocturnal dose to reduce daytime impairment.⁸⁹ Studies have shown that tolerance to performance impairment improves while taking first-generation antihistamines after 3 to 5 days of treatment.^{85,90} Based on the availability, cost-effectiveness, and safety of second-generation antihistamines, first-generation antihistamines are being now less frequently recommended as first-line agents.^{3,4,75,91,92} In other words, first-generation antihistamines do not provide additional benefits to those obtained with nonsedating antihistamines.

Dosing of Second-Generation Antihistamines at Higher Than Licensed Recommendations

Many patients with CU may not respond adequately to the recommended doses of second-generation antihistamines. Limited data are available on dosing second-generation antihistamines at higher than the recommended amounts.^{93–96} An open-label study of cetirizine⁹³ and a double-blind, controlled study of desloratadine in patients with cold urticaria⁹⁶ demonstrated that increased dosages of these second-generation antihistamines had greater therapeutic benefits without increased side effects. Subsequently, a double-blind multicenter study in CU patients using desloratadine and levocetirizine was published showing improved effectiveness with higher dosing up to 4 times the recommended amount.⁹⁷ Although a double-blind placebo-controlled study did not show differences in efficacy between a 10 mg or 20 mg daily dose of rupatadine in CU,⁹⁸ a recent study showed that higher doses of this drug are more effective than standard doses.⁹⁹ Similar studies have not been performed or verified with other second-generation antihistamines. In patients with CSU, up dosing of nonsedating antihistamines increases the rate of response from about 45% to more than 60%. Due to their good tolerability and safety present, recommendation for patients who do not respond to standard doses of nonsedating antihistamines is to use higher doses instead of corticosteroids as second-line treatment.

H2-Antagonists

Most studies demonstrating efficacy of H2-antagonists added to H1-antagonists in CU have been performed with cimetidine.^{100–102} Studies evaluating the combination of H1-antagonists and ranitidine in CU have yielded conflicting results.^{103,104} Cimetidine's effectiveness is believed to be due to its ability to inhibit a number of cytochrome p450 isoenzymes involved with the metabolism of first-generation antihistamines, resulting in an increased plasma concentrations of antihistamines like hydroxyzine.^{105,106} These additive effects have not been seen with the combination of cimetidine and cetirizine, and studies evaluating the combination of H1-antagonists and ranitidine or famotidine have yielded conflicting results.^{103,104} Thus, altogether the quality of evidence for the use of H2 receptor antagonists in association with H1 antihistamines is low, and such association does not seem to produce any advantage over the use of anti-H1 antihistamines

alone; however, other experts consider the combination to be safe and affordable, sometimes effective, and preferable in its risk–benefit profile to other second-line treatment options.¹⁰⁶

Leukotriene Receptor Antagonists

The effectiveness of these drugs has been reported in several relatively small, randomized, double-blind studies,^{108–112} but the results have been inconsistent.¹¹³ A recent review on this issue concluded that leukotriene receptor antagonists might be effective in subsets of patients with CSU associated with aspirin or food additive intolerance or positive on ASST but not in other patients with chronic spontaneous urticaria,¹¹⁴ although other studies do not seem to support this view.¹¹⁵ Altogether, existing evidence of their effectiveness is limited, and the grade of recommendation for their use is low. Nonetheless, these drugs may be tried in patients unresponsive to antihistamines in view of their excellent safety profile.

Corticosteroids

Although it is clinically recognized that oral corticosteroids are effective for H1-antihistamine-resistant CU, controlled studies are lacking.¹¹⁷ In view of the potentially severe side effects associated with long-term treatment, oral corticosteroids should be used for short periods and at the minimally effective dose necessary to achieve control. There is no consensus on the dose and duration of oral corticosteroids for the management of CU, but some recommended approaches about short-term therapy have been published.¹¹⁷ Attempts should be made to find alternative agents to control urticaria to avoid long-term corticosteroid use. In rare patients, long-term corticosteroid use may be justified; however, patients should be monitored closely for adverse effects of corticosteroid therapy.

One published protocol suggests using prednisone 15 mg daily (preferably 10 mg) and decrease by 1 mg (using 1-mg tablets) each week. Considerable efficacy can be achieved, and subsequent responsiveness to other modalities can be enhanced. If higher doses are needed to significantly lessen symptoms, the drug should not be used.^{15,117} In conclusion, corticosteroids should be used sparingly only when all other therapies failed, until other controller therapies can be found that control the hives.

Anti-Inflammatory Agents

Although the evidence for efficacy in the treatment of CU for many of the following anti-inflammatory agents is limited, the favorable cost and relatively safe side effect profiles warrant their consideration before using more expensive or more toxic agents.

Dapsone

Case reports and case series have found dapsone to be effective in the treatment of CU, idiopathic angioedema, delayed pressure urticaria, and urticarial vasculitis.^{118–124} A recent randomized, unblinded study of 65 CU patients compared dapsone and desloratadine with desloratadine alone

over a 3-month treatment period followed by a 3-month post-treatment observational period.¹²⁵ The dapsone-treated group had similar reductions in urticaria scores compared with the desloratadine monotherapy group, but 9 dapsone-treated patients experienced complete responses, whereas none of the control subjects did. Five of 9 responders remained urticaria free 3 months after discontinuing dapsone. Dapsone is usually well-tolerated but has predictable side effects including dose-related anemia. Less common adverse effects include peripheral neuropathy, rash, gastrointestinal complaints, hepatotoxicity, and rarely methemoglobinemia, blood dyscrasias, or the syndrome of drug rash with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms.¹²⁶ Before the initiation of dapsone therapy, glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase levels should be normal as the risk of severe hemolysis is increased in glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase-deficient patients. Laboratory monitoring for anemia and hepatotoxicity is recommended for patients on dapsone.¹²⁷

Sulfasalazine

Case reports and case series have suggested that sulfasalazine is efficacious in patients with CU and delayed pressure urticaria.^{128–130} A retrospective observational study of 19 CIU patients demonstrated significant improvement in 14 of 19 patients with more modest benefit in 4 additional patients.¹³¹ Therapeutic response occurred within 1 month, and doses above 2 g/day had no additional benefit. As stated, most references to sulfasalazine use in CU are case reports or uncontrolled studies.

The most common side effects include nausea, vomiting, dyspepsia, anorexia, and headache.¹³² These symptoms typically occur early in therapy and are more common in patients taking >4 g/day, which is beyond the dose recommended for the treatment of CU. Slow-dosing escalation regimens over several days may reduce the gastrointestinal effects. Hematologic abnormalities, proteinuria, and hepatotoxicity are uncommon, but laboratory monitoring for these adverse effects is recommended.¹³³

Hydroxychloroquine

Limited data are available on the use of hydroxychloroquine in CU. A case report suggested efficacy in a patient with hypocomplementemic urticarial vasculitis.¹³⁴ A randomized, blinded, placebo-controlled study of 21 CU subjects demonstrated significant improvement in the quality of life but only trends toward improvement in urticaria activity scores or reduction in other medications.¹³⁵ Hydroxychloroquine is generally well-tolerated with the most worrisome adverse effect being retinopathy. The risk of retinopathy from hydroxychloroquine is exceedingly rare.¹³⁶ Almost all cases have occurred in high-risk individuals who have used the drug >5 years. The most recent American Academy of Ophthalmology¹³⁷ guidelines recommend that all patients have a baseline ophthalmologic examination within the first year of starting the drug and annual screening after 5 years or a cumulative dose of >1000 g. For higher risk patients including the elderly and patients with kidney/liver dysfunction, retinal disease, or maculopathy, annual eye examinations are recommended.

Colchicine

CU patients with neutrophilic inflammation responded to colchicine,¹³⁸ and case reports suggest its efficacy in patients with urticarial vasculitis.^{139–141} Colchicine is generally well-tolerated with the most frequent adverse effect being diarrhea. High doses can cause bone marrow suppression, and long-term use can rarely cause myopathy and neuropathy.

Immunosuppressive Agents

Calcineurin Inhibitors

Case reports and case series have described benefit of cyclosporine to patients with CU unresponsive to antihistamines.^{142–144} There are 4 published randomized, double-blinded, controlled trials investigating the therapeutic utility of cyclosporine for patients with CU/angioedema who had failed second-generation antihistamines.^{145–148} Although the results of these studies show favorable effects, the side effects of this agent may outweigh its benefits. Further research is necessary to determine the effect of cyclosporine in the treatment of more well-defined refractory CU patients. The optimal dose of cyclosporine has not been adequately delineated. Investigators have initiated therapy using both higher doses (eg, 3–5 mg/kg per day) versus lower doses (200 mg/day). During the treatment period, blood pressure, kidney function, and liver function should be regularly monitored. In a follow-up study after stopping cyclosporine, complete remission lasted up to 9 months in about 50% of patients and a decreased number of flare-ups and a restored response to antihistamine treatment was observed in some subjects.¹⁴⁸ Recently, a low-dose, long-term maintenance therapy for up to 2 years has been suggested for those who show a marked propensity to relapse after discontinuation.¹⁴⁹

Tacrolimus, another calcineurin inhibitor, has been reported in an observational study to be effective in CU patients unresponsive to antihistamines, one of which was also unresponsive to cyclosporine.¹⁵⁰

Other Immunosuppressive Agents

Several other immunosuppressive drugs, including methotrexate, cyclophosphamide, azathioprine, sirolimus, and mycophenolate mofetil, have been used to treat H1-antihistamine-resistant CU. However, most experience relies on case reports or single-center uncontrolled studies. Two recent retrospective studies have been published showing that methotrexate at a weekly mean dosage of 15 mg is effective and safe in the majority of CU patients who are not responsive to conventional therapy.^{151,152} According to Perez et al,¹⁵¹ methotrexate exerts anti-inflammatory and immunosuppressive effects and may therefore benefit CU independently of the pathogenic mechanism, whether associated with autoantibodies. The efficacy of intravenous and oral cyclophosphamide^{153,154} and azathioprine¹⁵⁵ has been demonstrated in case reports who had antihistamine-resistant CU and were positive on ASST. Both drugs have been successfully employed in the treatment of urticarial vasculitis.¹⁵⁶ Mycophenolate mofetil seems to be a useful treatment option for patients with CU who do not respond to antihistamines and/or corticosteroids with experience limited to observational studies.^{157,158}

Biological Agents

Omalizumab

Recently, a growing number of studies evaluating the effectiveness of omalizumab (humanized monoclonal anti-IgE antibodies) in different subsets of antihistamine unresponsive CU/angioedema patients have been reported.^{36,39,159–166} Although the current experience with omalizumab in the treatment of CU is encouraging, rare cases of omalizumab failure have been reported.¹⁶⁷ Several multicenter, randomized, placebo-controlled, dosing studies are still in progress to assess the role of this agent, but some have very recently appeared in the literature.^{38,40} Efficacy and side effect profile potentially make omalizumab the future drug of choice for refractory chronic spontaneous urticaria. The main limitations of omalizumab treatment include limited availability, high-cost, and long-term clinical benefits.

Intravenous Immunoglobulin

Success in CU was first reported in an open-label trial of 10 CU patients with positive ASST and basophil HR tests who failed other therapies at a dose of 0.4 g/kg per day for 5 consecutive days¹⁶⁸; 9 of 10 patients improved with 3 patients experiencing prolonged remission after a 3-year follow-up. Other case reports and case series have found intravenous immunoglobulin (IVIG) to be effective,^{169,170} whereas others have not.^{171,172} IVIG can be dosed in several ways, but the optimal dose, number of infusions, and frequency are not fully delineated. One study using low-dose IVIG (0.15 g/kg every 4 weeks) resulted in an improvement in 26 of 29 patients including 19 who experienced complete remission.¹⁷³ IVIG may be effective for delayed pressure urticaria and angioedema,¹⁷⁴ solar urticaria,¹⁷⁵ and urticarial vasculitis.¹⁷⁶ IVIG is relatively safe with predictable infusion-related adverse reactions including headache, myalgias, and nausea and rarely anaphylaxis, aseptic meningitis, or renal failure. In general, IVIG should be reserved for patients refractory to other alternative therapies.

Other Therapies

Anticoagulants have recently been found to be effective in patients with refractory CU.^{50–52,177–180} One recent study reported that low-molecular weight heparin was effective in a subset of refractory CU patients with elevated D-dimer levels.¹⁸¹ Despite this increasing evidence, anticoagulant therapy cannot be presently recommended as a routine treatment for CU.

Other therapies have been reported as cases or case series for the treatment of CU, and very little information is known about their effectiveness and therefore is not recommended for routine use. These treatments include theophylline, androgens, β -agonists, nonsteroidal antiinflammatory drugs, tumor necrosis factor- α inhibitors, calcium channel blockers, gold, plasmapheresis,³² phototherapy, and autohemotherapy.

NOTE ABOUT THE QUALITY OF EVIDENCE AND STRENGTH OF RECOMMENDATION GRADING

All existing systems to grade the quality of evidence and the strength of recommendations have their own weaknesses. In the present article, the GRADE system¹⁸² has been adopted. One of the problems of this system is that in its original form, it has only 2 strengths of recommendation, that is, weak or strong. Thus, to indicate which “weak recommendations” are stronger than others (ie, have a recommendation in between weak and strong or in other words “moderate”) the special notation “**” has been adopted (see Table 2).

THE PROGNOSIS OF URTICARIA AND ANGIOEDEMA

The prognosis of AU is excellent, with most cases resolving within days; however, the prognosis of CU is variable. If angioedema is present, the prognosis is worsened (see below). CU is more common in adults and unusual in children.

Acute Urticaria

Few studies are available on the prognosis of AU.^{183,184} Two studies indicated that 20 to 30% of young children with AU are at the risk of chronic or recurrent urticaria.^{185–187} More concerning than repeated episodes of AU is the progression of the disease to CU.^{188,189}

Hospital admissions for urticaria were approximately 3 times higher in children aged 0 to 4 years than for other ages. Between 1993–1994 and 2004–2005, there were significant increases in the rate of hospital admissions for urticaria in all ages.¹

In adults, longer disease duration is an important risk for poorer prognosis.¹⁹⁰ AU causes discomfort, but not mortality, unless associated with angioedema of the upper airways.^{191–193} Morbidity depends on severity and duration. One study found urticaria patients can have as much psychological, social, and occupational distress as patients awaiting triple coronary artery bypass surgery.¹⁹⁴ If a patient continues to be exposed to a trigger, urticaria may become chronic.

Chronic Urticaria

Studies in multiple countries report complete resolution in approximately one third of patients with idiopathic CU for more than 1 to 5 years and partial improvement in another third.¹⁹⁵

Spontaneous remission occurs in 30 to 50% of patients within 1 year, and another 20% within 5 years. Nearly 20% of patients still have symptoms after 5 years. Almost half of patients with CU lasting 6 months are likely to have wheals 10 years later.¹⁹⁶ Those with more severe symptoms may have longer lasting disease. A retrospective study of 372 patients with severe urticaria described resolution of symptoms in 29% of patients after 5 years and 44% after 10 years.^{197,198}

Patients younger than 30 years with more severe symptoms, or symptoms with physical causes, fared less well.¹⁹⁵ For those with physical urticarias, their condition may be better measured in decades, rather than years, but can typically be controlled.¹⁹⁹

TABLE 2. Quality of Evidence and Strength of Recommendation for Use of Intervention Based on the GRADE System¹⁸² (Updated to August, 2011)

Drug	Quality of Evidence	Strength of Recommendation
Second-generation antihistamines (at licensed doses)	High	Strong (+)
First-generation antihistamines	High	Strong (-)
Second-generation antihistamines (at higher than licensed doses)	Moderate	Weak (+)
Anti-H2-antihistamines as add-on therapy	Moderate	Weak (+)
Oral corticosteroids (short course)	Low	Weak (+)
Oral corticosteroids	Very low	Strong (-)
Leukotriene receptor antagonists (as add-on therapy)	Low	Weak (+)
Anti-inflammatory agents (dapsone, sulfasalazine, hydroxychloroquine, colchicines, mycophenolate mofetil)	Low-very low	Weak (+)
Immunosuppressive agents		
Cyclosporine	Moderate	Weak (+)*
Methotrexate	Very low	Weak (+)
Cyclophosphamide	Very low	Weak (+)
Biologic agents		
Omalizumab, IVIG	Moderate	Weak (+)*
	Low	Weak (+)

(+), recommendation for medication; (-), recommendation against medication.

*Although the recommendation is "weak" according to the GRADE approach, it is stronger than in other cases based on the quality of existing evidence.

In an Amsterdam prospective study of 220 patients with CU and angioedema,²⁰⁰ 35% of patients had complete resolution of symptoms 1 year after enrollment. Resolution rates ranged from a high of 59.6% in patients with idiopathic urticaria-angioedema to a low of 16.4% in patients who had urticaria with a physical cause.¹⁹⁵ In a Netherlands retrospective study, 544 cases with CU and angioedema identified the mean age at presentation to be 35 years, and patients had been symptomatic an average of 5 years.²⁰¹

A prospective study published in 2004 found that duration of urticaria was longer in patients who had associated angioedema or positive anti-IgE receptor antibody.²⁰² Disease duration is likely to be longer in cases of angioedema, a combination with physical urticaria, positivity in the ASST (autoreactivity), and a high disease severity.^{6,203}

Malignancy has been linked with urticaria and may suggest a relapse of the malignancy. There is no strong evidence to confirm an association between malignancy and uncomplicated CU, except occasionally in urticarial vasculitis and, more frequently, in acquired C1 esterase inhibitor deficiency.^{204,205} Although mortality may occur because of laryngeal edema, death is more likely due to complications of the associated disorder.²⁰⁶

Angioedema

In cases involving recurrent angioedema without urticaria, hereditary and acquired angioedema must be differentiated. Acquired angioedema includes, among other etiologies, ACE inhibitor-induced angioedema and angioedema due to acquired C1-inhibitor deficiency. Much like CU, the majority of cases involving acquired angioedema, with some exceptions such as

ACE-inhibitor angioedema, can be adequately controlled with daily doses of nonsedating antihistamines.²⁰⁷ Angioedema of the upper airway can be life threatening. In rare cases, angioedema may develop into anaphylaxis.²⁰⁸

In Australia, over an 8-year period, there were 106 deaths associated with anaphylaxis or angioedema. According to this study, there was a continuous increase in the rate of hospital admissions for angioedema (3.0% per year) and urticaria (5.7% per year). The rate of hospitalization for angioedema was highest in persons aged 65 years and older and lowest in children between 5 and 14 years. Although the rate of hospital admissions for angioedema remained relatively constant for most age groups between 1993–1994 and 2004–2005, the rate in persons aged 65 years and older doubled from 10 to 20 per 100,000 population. This represented an average annual increase of 5.6% in the rate of admissions for angioedema in this older age group. For those aged 15 to 34 years, the average annual increase was 4.3%. There was no significant change in the rate of hospital admissions for angioedema in those younger than 15 years or from 35 to 64 years. Among older persons, angioedema is becoming an increasing problem.¹

The prognosis for patients with acquired angioedema associated with C1 inhibitor deficiency is variable and depends on control of the underlying disorder. Even with appropriate treatment of the underlying disease, patients may only temporarily be free of symptoms. In several small studies, patients with acquired angioedema associated with C1 inhibitor deficiency had approximately 20% incidence of non-Hodgkin lymphoma.²⁰⁶

In summary, the prognosis of urticaria and angioedema is improved with prompt and proper treatment. Using available medications, the condition is usually manageable.

URTICARIA AND ANGIOEDEMA IN CHILDREN

Prevalence

There is little published information on the prevalence, diagnosis, or management of urticaria in children. Even in the current EAACI/GA2LEN/EDF/WAO and BSACI guidelines on the diagnosis and management of urticaria,^{3,4} the section on paediatrics is small.

A very recent review on urticaria in children was published by Church et al,²⁰⁹ which compared published studies of prevalence of urticaria in adults and in children and noted that CU in children appears to be less common.²¹⁰ In the United Kingdom, the incidence of childhood urticaria was around 3.4%,¹⁸⁸ in Germany 4.4%,¹⁴⁷ and in Denmark about 5.4%.²¹¹ In children, most episodes of urticaria appear to be acute, and CU has been reported to affect only 0.1 to 0.3% of children in the United Kingdom.²¹² By comparison, 13% of Thai children with a diagnosis of urticaria have been reported to have CU.²¹³

Etiology

For AU, infections appear to play a more significant role in infants²¹⁴ and children.²¹⁵

Food Allergy and Parasite Allergy

In a recent study in 80 children with CU, dietician supervised elimination diets of all candidate food allergies suspected by the history and specific IgE levels did not result in any participants reducing or eliminating their requirement for ongoing antihistamine medication, suggesting that food allergy is not an important etiological factor in CU in childhood.²¹⁶

Antibodies to the IgE Epsilon Receptor

Three independent studies have shown that CSU in children can be caused by autoreactivity as assessed by use of the ASST.²¹⁶⁻²¹⁸

Food Additives

In 1 pediatric study of children between 3 and 17 years, 12 of 16 (75%) were diagnosed with additive-induced urticaria, occurring mainly in response to coloring agents, preservatives, monosodium glutamate, and sweeteners, in the absence of atopy.²¹⁹

Infections

Although some authors suggest that urinary tract infections followed by *Chlamydia pneumoniae* and *H. pylori*²²⁰ were associated with chronic spontaneous urticaria in children, others believe that chronic infection is unlikely to have a significant role in urticaria in children.^{188,217} Wedi et al²²¹ has suggested that in children recurrent upper respiratory infection, pharyngitis, tonsillitis, and sinusitis with streptococci and staphylococci is associated with CU, and remission of urticarial symptoms has been noted with antibiotic therapy.

Other Immune Diseases

Although thyroid autoimmunity occurs as a comorbidity in between 14 and 33% of adults with chronic spontaneous

urticaria,²⁰⁹ it has been reported to be much lower in children (about 4.3%).²²² A small association between CU and celiac disease was also reported in 5% of children with CU.²²³

Natural History of the Disease

In the cohort of pediatric patients with chronic spontaneous urticaria followed for 3 years by Du Toit et al,²¹⁶ no clear predictions of disease remission were established; 25% experienced remission in the 3-year period, and this was unrelated to the presence or absence of associated autoimmunity to the IgE Fcε receptor.

By contrast, 58% of children became free of urticarial symptoms in a study of 94 children, of whom 29 were considered “idiopathic” after 16 months, whereas the remaining 42% continued to have recurrent symptoms.²²⁴ A very recent study by Sahiner et al²²⁵ in 2011 found that recovery was observed in 50% of children at 60 months.

Treatment

In view of the marked adverse effects on the quality of life, ability to play, and school attendance, treatment is necessary in nearly all children with chronic spontaneous urticaria. CU negatively affects school performance. First-generation antihistamines, although effective, are no longer recommended for the management of children with chronic spontaneous urticaria.²⁰⁹

Second-generation antihistamines are the treatment of choice. In a study of antihistamine treatment given to infants with atopic dermatitis,²²⁶ continuous treatment with levocetirizine significantly reduced exacerbations of concomitant urticaria in this cohort (5.8% vs 16.2% in a placebo group). A follow-up study with levocetirizine showed a 60% reduction in the number of urticarial episodes.²²⁷

Pediatric suspensions of desloratadine, fexofenadine, rupatadine, and loratadine are available, but pediatric studies on these second-generation H1 antihistamines, which are effective in adult urticaria particularly at standard and higher than standard doses, are still to be performed.

In the follow-up study by Du Toit et al,²¹⁶ all children responded well to daily treatment with cetirizine, and very few required a short course of prednisone to control symptoms, irrespective of whether they had autoantibodies to the IgE receptor or not.

There are no pediatric studies on the use of leukotriene receptor antagonists, H2 antihistamines, cyclosporine, or omalizumab for the treatment of urticaria. Experience with cyclosporine in children with severe resistant chronic spontaneous urticaria is similar to that reported in adults. It has been found to be safe and highly effective when indicated.²²⁸

There is no evidence in the literature that children with persistent spontaneous urticaria, who do not go into spontaneous remission within a few years, go on to develop other autoimmune diseases. Long-term follow-up studies (more than 10 years) of urticaria in children are awaited.

URTICARIA AND PREGNANCY

Urticaria may occur in pregnancy as a result of any of the causes seen in nonpregnant women. In women with preexisting CU, the condition may worsen in some patients and appears to improve in others.²²⁹

New-Onset Urticaria

Urticaria occurring only in pregnancy is rare, but when it occurs, it suggests that sensitivity to hormones may be the basis of the condition. It may recur with each pregnancy in a predisposed woman. Gestational urticaria must be distinguished from other pruritic dermatoses of pregnancy, such as prurigo of pregnancy, PUPPP, PEP, or autoimmune progesterone dermatitis of pregnancy.

Prurigo of Pregnancy (Prurigo Gestationis of Besnier)

This condition is relatively common occurring in approximately 1 in 300 pregnancies. Characteristically, it begins in the second or third trimester. Patients usually present with marked excoriations with erythematous nodules or papules on the extensor surfaces of the limbs and the trunk. Usually total remission occurs immediately postpartum. Management is usually with topical corticosteroids.²³⁰

PUPPP (Pruritic Urticarial Plaques and Papules of Pregnancy) or PEP (Polymorphic Eruption of Pregnancy)

PUPPP occurs in 1 in 160 to 1 in 300 pregnancies and usually presents in the third trimester.^{231,232} It is seen most commonly in first pregnancies and with multiple births.²³³ It presents typically with erythematous papules within the striae and these spread to extremities but spare the face, palms, and soles. Lesions may coalesce to form urticarial plaques. This condition causes extremely severe pruritus. Most commonly, it resolves within 2 weeks of delivery but may resolve beforehand. Occasionally, it may worsen postpartum. Management consists in relieving the distressing symptoms. Topical steroids and antihistamines are initially used; some patients require systemic corticosteroids because of severe pruritus.

Autoimmune Progesterone Dermatitis of Pregnancy

This condition is similar to the rare autoimmune progesterone urticaria that occurs in a cyclical pattern in nonpregnant women. In pregnancy, it is characterized by a papulopustular eruption, transient arthritis, eosinophilia, and delayed hypersensitivity to intradermal progesterone. It may be associated with spontaneous abortion.²³⁴⁻²³⁶

Management

Pregnant women with urticaria should be treated with the least amount of medication possible. Most patients can be

treated with H1 antihistamines alone, with occasional short courses of oral glucocorticosteroids (GCS) for severe flares.

Antihistamine treatment is the mainstay of management in urticaria. The intense itch experienced by patients demands relief, whereas soothing baths and emollients offer minor comfort; most patients require symptomatic relief with an antihistamine.

There are no oral antihistamines with a category A listing for pregnancy. Categories are based on the results of animal studies, human data, and whether the use of the drug has a positive risk-benefit ratio in pregnancy. Category "B" drugs possess reassuring animal data, but there are no controlled clinical human trials.

A number of studies²³⁷⁻²⁴⁰ have evaluated the safety of antihistamines in pregnant women. Most women who require regular antihistamines for control of CU will prefer treatment with second generation, nonsedating drugs.

Chlorpheniramine, loratadine, cetirizine, and levocetirizine have all been assigned category B by the US Food and Drugs Administration. As with any medication use, antihistamines should only be used if clearly needed and when the benefits outweigh the potential risk to the fetus. Use of the lowest dose that gives relief is advisable. There are several thousand reports of chlorpheniramine use in pregnancy with no evidence of increased incidence of congenital abnormality. No rate of increased congenital defects was reported in prospectively collected data from 1769 women exposed to loratadine. Small sample size studies are available for cetirizine, and there is a meta-analysis available for loratadine.^{237,238} Hydroxyzine is the only antihistamine specifically contraindicated in pregnancy in the product literature.

The second-generation antihistamines of choice in pregnancy are loratadine 10 mg daily or cetirizine 10 mg daily because there is a body of evidence of their use in pregnancy with reassuring safety profiles.²⁴⁰

In special cases where a sedative effect is required along with an antihistaminic effect, chlorpheniramine is the first-generation antihistamine of choice. Recommended dosing is 4 mg 3 to 4 times a day. Diphenhydramine shows higher efficacy and can be used as an alternative to chlorpheniramine if the use of a first-generation antihistamine is being considered.

Antihistamines and Breast-feeding

Significant amounts of some antihistamines are detected in breast milk. Again, antihistamines should only be used during lactation when the benefit outweighs the potential harm to the infant, and in this circumstance, give the lowest dose possible for the shortest duration to give relief from symptoms. Loratadine and cetirizine appear safer than others with very low levels recorded in breast milk.^{241,242}

Corticosteroids

Systemic corticosteroids may be required periodically to gain temporary control of symptoms during severe exacerbations of urticaria that significantly impair the quality of life. These rescue courses are generally added to the medications the patient is already taking.

The optimal dose and duration of GCS used for urticarial exacerbations has not been systematically studied, and recommendations vary among specialists. In addition, patients differ in their responsiveness to GCS in both the dose and duration of treatment required to control symptoms. Because of their importance in the treatment of a variety of inflammatory conditions, systemic GCS have been used fairly extensively during pregnancy.

Three potential areas of concern have been raised: congenital malformations (primarily cleft palate), neonatal adrenal insufficiency, and low birth weight.²⁴³ The combined results of 5 large studies (2 surveillance and 3 case-control studies) found that the risk of oral clefts is approximately doubled.^{244–248} However, the absolute risk is low. Because palatal closure is usually complete by the 12th week of pregnancy, the risk is limited to administration during the first trimester.

Neonatal adrenal insufficiency following maternal administration of steroids is unusual. The rapid maternal metabolism of prednisolone binding to serum proteins and conversion to inactive metabolites by placental 11 beta-hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase results in relatively low fetal compared with maternal concentrations.²⁴⁹ As a result, the fetal pituitary is rarely suppressed in mothers taking GCS.²⁴⁸ However, long-term high doses will suppress the fetal adrenal glands.

Multiple studies have observed low birth weight in offspring of animals given GCS during pregnancy. However, this association has been rarely reported in humans.²⁴³ It is difficult to draw conclusions regarding the effects of GCS on fetal growth because of variability in the dose, duration, and type of steroid and the confounding effects of the underlying maternal disease on the pregnancy. GCS have the potential for exacerbating pregnancy-induced hypertension, gestational diabetes, and preterm delivery from premature rupture of membranes.²⁵⁰ Thus, women at risk should be appropriately monitored.

Corticosteroids and Breast-feeding

Low levels of prednisone and prednisolone can be measured in breast milk. A nursing infant of a mother consuming a daily dose of 80 mg of prednisolone would ingest <0.1%, which is equivalent to <10% of endogenous cortisol production.²⁴⁹ As a result, although it may be reasonable to delay breast-feeding for several hours after ingesting prednisone, it appears to be safe during breast-feeding.²⁵¹

QUALITY OF LIFE AND PATIENT-REPORTED OUTCOMES

During the past 20 years, relevant progresses have been made in defining and evaluating PROs, with growing recognition of their importance in health outcomes research. The expression PROs refers to all health-related reports coming from the patient, without involvement or interpretation by a physician or others²⁵² [ie, health-related quality of life (HRQoL), symptoms, illness perception, satisfaction, well-being, perceived disease control].

PROs have recently gained great attention in clinical research and by regulatory bodies due to their relevance in the overall treatment efficacy assessment.^{253–255} A critical aspect in the management of CU is its impact on the patient's daily experience. The classical symptoms (pruritus, wheals, angioedema) may affect sleep and concentration, interfere with life activities, and cause embarrassment. Furthermore, because of the presence of exacerbations, the unpredictability of attacks, the need to take medication, and change habits and lifestyle, CU patients may experience anxiety, tension, and irritability. Although CU represents a problem that interferes with subjective well-being and daily life, its evaluation has usually focused on clinical end points. As recently underlined,²⁵⁶ the literature data about CU from a subjective viewpoint remain poor, and most available articles consider mainly 2 PROs: HRQoL and symptoms.

HRQoL and CU

HRQoL Assessment

HRQoL in CU has been assessed by generic, dermatologic-specific, and disease-specific tools. Several generic tools have been used to compare HRQoL of CU patients and healthy subjects—Medical Outcomes Study, SF-36,^{257,258} World Health Organization QOL-Brief (WHOQoL-BRIEF)²⁵⁹—and CU patients and patients with other diseases—Nottingham Health Profile.¹⁹⁴ Although generic instruments permit comparison across different health conditions, they are less suitable for the assessment within a specific disease.

The available questionnaires aimed at assessing HRQoL in skin diseases, the Dermatology Quality of Life Index,²⁶⁰ and the SKINDEX²⁶¹ allow comparisons between different dermatological conditions but are not specifically developed for CU.

The Chronic Urticaria Quality of Life Questionnaire is the only validated specific instrument for CSU and was originally developed in Italian,²⁶² German,²⁶³ Spanish,²⁶⁴ Polish,²⁶⁵ and Turkish.²⁶⁶ Sixteen validated versions are now available.

Impact of CU on HRQoL

Available data show that from a subjective viewpoint, CU is more than an annoying disease. CU subjects report lower HRQoL when compared with healthy subjects or with patients suffering from other medical conditions. A pioneer study by O'Donnell et al¹⁶⁸ compared HRQoL of CU subjects and patients suffering from coronary artery disease. Surprisingly, although patients with ischemic heart disease referred more limitation in mobility, CU patients reported more severe sleep problems. Energy, social isolation, and emotional reactions scores showed similar results between the 2 groups.

Furthermore, HRQoL levels in patients with chronic spontaneous urticaria are lower than in healthy subjects and in patients with respiratory allergy.²⁵⁷ A study by Poon et al²⁶⁷ focused on the extent and nature of disability extent and nature in different types of urticaria, showing a large variation in HRQoL scores within different urticarial subsets. In particular, subjects with delayed pressure and cholinergic urticaria

showed HRQoL impact comparable with severe atopic dermatitis patients and higher than patients with psoriasis, acne, and vitiligo.

More recently, an article by Staubach et al²⁶⁸ showed that when compared with healthy subjects, CU patients reported markedly reduced HRQoL. This occurred regardless of age, sex, duration of the disease, and the presence or absence of angioedema. The presence and the severity of psychiatric comorbidities were associated with a more pronounced reduction of HRQoL. Recent studies conducted both in the general population and in outpatients in different countries confirmed that CU impacts HRQoL significantly.^{12,269}

As yet, the effect of treatment on HRQoL of CU patients has been explored only in 11 trials.^{77,78,97,111,270–276} The results of these studies, although different in respect to the drug evaluated, study design, population characteristics, and questionnaire used, indicate an improvement in HRQoL after treatment.

CU and Symptoms

CU symptoms can be specifically evaluated with the Urticaria Activity Score.²⁷⁷ This is the unique validated instrument for measuring and monitoring disease activity in CU. The use of Urticaria Activity Score in clinical practice, trials, and therapy effectiveness analyses⁴ is recommended by the current EAACI/GA2LEN/EDF guidelines.

Actions To Be Taken

Although PROs evaluation is relevant for a more global comprehension of a disease and its treatment, the available literature on CU is still poor. The following unexplored areas should be further investigated:

- Other PROs besides HRQoL and symptoms
- CU impact on caregivers and partners
- Impact of treatment on HRQoL by a specific questionnaire
- Relationships among different PROs and between PROs and psychological variables
- Relation of PROs with other clinical measures of health impact.

SPECIAL CONSIDERATIONS OF PHYSICAL URTICARIAS

According to the current international EAACI/GA2LEN/EDF/WAO guidelines on urticaria,^{4,5} physical urticaria is defined as a special group of urticaria subtypes, where wheals and/or angioedema are elicited by external physical stimuli.

Physical urticaria needs to be distinguished from both spontaneous urticaria and other inducible urticaria types, such as aquagenic urticaria or cholinergic urticaria, where wheal formation is not induced by a physical stimulus. Physical urticarias usually have a chronic course, but patients can be free of symptoms for weeks or months when the physical stimulus is avoidable and avoided. This is a clear-cut difference to chronic spontaneous urticaria. One point of confusion in the past has

been between physical urticaria and cholinergic urticaria. Cholinergic urticaria symptoms can be elicited through a hot shower or bath. The underlying mechanism in cholinergic urticaria, however, is not the external stimulus but the increase in body core temperature; cholinergic urticaria can also be elicited by exercise or emotional distress and is, therefore, included in the urticaria subgroup “other inducible urticarias.”

Table 1 (see section Definition and Classification) shows a summary of the physical urticaria subtypes and eliciting factors.

Diagnosis in Physical Urticaria

Although the current international guidelines on the classification, definition, and diagnosis of urticaria give general recommendations, more detailed recommendations for diagnostic testing in physical urticaria are published in the “European guideline definition and diagnostic testing of physical and cholinergic urticarias—EAACI/GA2LEN/EDF/UNEV consensus panel recommendations.”²⁷⁸

A general principle in the diagnosis of physical urticaria is to mimic the physical stimulus, which leads to the formation of wheals and angioedema and at the same time if possible determine the threshold. Threshold measurements are important because they can help to give the patient practical advice on how to avoid or reduce above threshold stimulus exposure. Threshold testing also allows for the objective evaluation and monitoring of patients who receive treatment. Figure 1 shows the recommended provocation tests for physical urticaria (modified from Magerl et al²⁷⁸).

When performing provocation tests in patients with physical urticaria, it is recommended to have the same standard of emergency treatment available as for other kinds of allergy skin testing because rare cases of systemic anaphylactic reactions, especially in cold urticaria, have been described.

Severity of Disease and PROs

Physical urticaria can vary considerably in severity between individuals. In a number of patients, signs of physical urticaria only occur with unusually strong external stimulation of the skin, for example, very cold, windy, winter days in cold urticaria, and depending on the usual geographic location and everyday living habits, the required strength of the stimulus to elicit symptoms is not usually reached. However, in other cold urticaria patients, the eliciting temperature of the skin can be as high as 28°C, a temperature which is easily reached in usual daily activities in moderate climates, and even in warm climates, if there is a mild wind because wind chill temperature increases the cooling effect on the skin. In cold urticaria, systemic reactions have been described in the case of a rapid change of skin temperature, for example, when patients jumped into cold water. Another risk factor in cold urticaria is the rapid ingestion of cold food such as ice cream or cold beverages, which may lead to swellings of the upper airways and in the esophagus and to systemic histamine liberation and subsequent anaphylactic reactions.

A

Patient information Name: Date of birth:	Instructions: Perform testing as indicated and document presence (+) or absence (-) of weal (W), erythema (E), pruritus (P) and/or angioedema (A) as well as date / time of testing and who performed the test.
--	--

1. Symptomatic Dermographism (Urticaria factitia)
 Testsite: Upper back / Volar forearm
 Test: Moderate stroking of the skin with a blunt smooth object (e. g. closed ballpoint pen tip, wooden spatula) /dermographometer (36 g/mm²)
 Reading time: 10 minutes after testing

<table border="1" style="display: inline-table; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;">W</td><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;">P</td></tr> <tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"> </td><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"> </td></tr> </table>	W	P			Date / Time _____ Test done by _____
W	P				

If weal and pruritus: Test threshold with dermographometer →

2. Cold contact urticaria
 Testsite: Volar forearm / abdomen
 Test: Melting ice cube in thin plastic bag/TempTest (4°C) for 5 minutes
 Reading times: 10 minutes after testing

<table border="1" style="display: inline-table; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;">W</td><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;">P</td></tr> <tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"> </td><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"> </td></tr> </table>	W	P			Date / Time _____ Test done by _____
W	P				

If weal: Test cold stimulation time or temperature threshold →

3. Heat contact urticaria
 Testsite: Volar forearm
 Test: Heat source/TempTest (45°C) for 5 minutes
 Reading times: 10 minutes after testing

<table border="1" style="display: inline-table; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;">W</td><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;">P</td></tr> <tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"> </td><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"> </td></tr> </table>	W	P			Date / Time _____ Test done by _____
W	P				

If weal: Test cold stimulation time or temperature threshold →

4. Delayed pressure urticaria
 Testsite: Shoulder/Upper Back/Thighs/Volar forearm
 Test: Suspension of weights over shoulder (7 kg, shoulder strap width: 3 cm) for 15 min or weighted rods (1.5 cm diameter: 2.5 kg; or 6.5 cm diameter: 5 kg) for 15 min. Dermographometer at 100 g/mm² for 70 sec
 Reading times: ≈6 hours after testing

<table border="1" style="display: inline-table; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;">A</td><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;">E</td></tr> <tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"> </td><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"> </td></tr> </table>	A	E			Date / Time _____ Test done by _____
A	E				

If angioedema: Test threshold →

5. Solar urticaria
 Testsite: Buttocks
 Test: UVA 6 J/cm² & UVB 60 mJ/cm² irradiation (e. g. Saalmann Multitester SBC LT 400) Visible light (projector)
 Reading times: 10 minutes after testing

<table border="1" style="display: inline-table; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"> </td><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;">W</td><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;">P</td></tr> <tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;">UVA</td><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"> </td><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"> </td></tr> <tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;">UVB</td><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"> </td><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"> </td></tr> <tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;">Visible light</td><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"> </td><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"> </td></tr> </table>		W	P	UVA			UVB			Visible light			Date / Time _____ Test done by _____
	W	P											
UVA													
UVB													
Visible light													

If weal: Test threshold →

6. Vibratory urticaria/angioedema
 Testsite: Volar forearm
 Test: Vortex vibrator for 10 minutes, 1000 rpm
 Reading times: 10 minutes after testing

<table border="1" style="display: inline-table; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;">A</td><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;">P</td></tr> <tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"> </td><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"> </td></tr> </table>	A	P			Date / Time _____ Test done by _____
A	P				

FIGURE 1. A, Provocation testing for physical and cholinergic urticaria. B, Treshold testing for physical urticaria.

Physical urticaria can also have an impact on occupation. It has been recognized as an occupational disease (eg, vibratory urticaria/angioedema can be the reason for disability in construction workers).

Management of Physical Urticaria

A general principle of the international urticaria guidelines on the management of urticaria is the identification and elimination of the underlying cause and/or trigger.⁵ Although in the majority of physical urticarias, the underlying cause is unknown and cannot, therefore, be eliminated, avoidance of a known trigger can be very useful.

With the exception of cold contact urticaria where in rare cases infectious diseases, such as hepatitis, have been described as an underlying cause, it is not recommended to invest too many resources into the investigation of causes. In physical urticaria, the routine diagnostic program should be limited at the most to differential blood count and the determination of

erythrocyte sedimentation rate. However, with the identification of the eliciting trigger, it is in many cases easy to help the patient by in detail explanation of the possibilities for avoidance. For example, pressure is defined as force per area and simply increasing the size of a handle of a bag may help in patients with pressure urticaria to avoid symptoms.

The treatment in physical urticaria is aimed at the prevention and reduction of symptoms. This follows in general the algorithm, which has been published for urticaria in the international consensus guidelines (Fig. 2).

The level of evidence for first-line treatment with nonsedating antihistamines is very good both in chronic spontaneous urticaria and physical urticaria. The up dosing of nonsedating antihistamines has been widely studied in physical urticaria.

Thus, the level of evidence to use higher than standard doses as the preferred second-line treatment is very high in this group of urticarias. Siebenhaar et al²⁷⁹ studied the impact of increasing the dose of desloratadine from 5 mg up to 20 mg

B Threshold testings

1. Symptomatic dermographism (Urticaria factitia)

Testsite: Upper back
 Test: Moderate stroking of the skin with a dermatographometer
 Reading time: 10 minutes after testing

g/mm ²	20	36	60
P			
W			

Date / Time _____

Test done by _____

2. Cold contact urticaria

Testsite: Volar forearm
 Test: TempTest®/water bath for 5 minutes, or melting ice cube
 Reading times: 10 minutes after end of testing

Ice cube, stimulation time threshold testing

	30 sec	1 min	2 min	5 min
P				
W				

Date / Time _____

Test done by _____

TempTest®, temperature threshold testing

°C:	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
P																
W																

°C:	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35
P																
W																

3. Heat contact urticaria

Testsite: Volar forearm
 Test: Heat source/TempTest®, 5 minutes
 Reading times: 10 minutes after testing

°C:	45	44	43	42	41	40	39	38	37	36
P										
W										

Date / Time _____

Test done by _____

4. Delayed pressure urticaria

Testsite: Volar forearm (rod), upper back (dermatographometer)
 Test: Weighted rods (6.5 cm diameter) for 15 min or Dermatographometer at 100g/mm²
 Reading times: ≈6 hours after testing

Weighted rod

kg:	1	2	3	4	5
A					
E					

Date / Time _____

Test done by _____

Dermatographometer 100g/mm²

sec:	20	30	40	50	60
A					
E					

5. Solar urticaria

Testsite: Buttocks
 Test: UVA & UVB irradiation (e. g. Saalmann Multitestester SBC LT 400)
 Reading times: 10 minutes after testing

UVA J/cm ²	P	W
2,4		
3,3		
4,2		

Date / Time _____

Test done by _____

UVB mJ/cm ²	P	W
24		
33		
42		

FIGURE 1. Continued.

in cold urticaria and showed a clear dose-dependent response, which supports the recommendation to increase the antihistamine dosage in those patients who do not show sufficient responses to standard doses.

In general, however, the level of antihistamine treatment required may be different from day to day depending on the strength of the external stimuli and patients' needs to be very thoroughly counseled on the daily use of the drug treatment.

Alternative treatments in physical urticaria have only been scarcely studied and knowledge needs to be

extrapolated from what we know from chronic spontaneous urticaria. However, physical urticarias are distinct from other urticaria subtypes in that it is possible to achieve a reduction of repetitive mast cell responses to the specific physical stimulus by long-term controlled exposure to the stimulus. For example, in cold contact urticaria, the occurrence of symptoms can be prevented by administering daily cold baths, and for solar urticaria, UV light treatment can raise UV tolerance. However, this kind of treatment is time consuming for the patient and in the case of cold bath is not always very

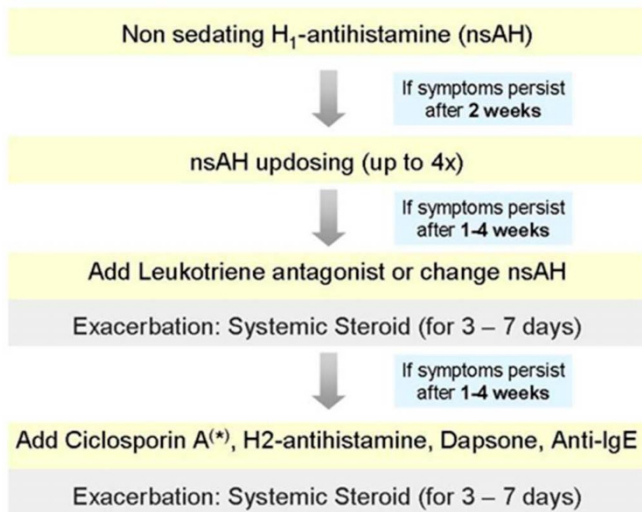


FIGURE 2. Algorithm for the treatment of chronic urticaria.

well liked. Furthermore, it is recommended to start at the threshold level and increase slowly the strength of the physical stimulus because generalized reactions may occur.

DISSEMINATION AND IMPLEMENTATION OF THE POSITION PAPER

The WAO urticaria and angioedema position paper is being published in the *World Allergy Organization Journal* (WAO Journal) at www.WAOJournal.org to facilitate rapid access by all 3000 WAO members. The WAO Member Societies are encouraged to contribute with the dissemination of this position paper through discussion at national and international meetings, and translation and publication in national allergy society journals.

SUMMARY

This Position Paper presents recommendations for the proper diagnosis and treatment of urticaria and angioedema, highly prevalent diseases in all areas of the world. Although there have recently been important advances in the elucidation of the pathogenesis, allowing the implementation of innovative diagnostic and therapeutic procedures for patients suffering urticaria, the basic mechanisms remain elusive.

Second-generation nonsedating antihistamines at usual or increased doses are presently recommended as first-line therapy for patients with acute and chronic spontaneous urticaria and angioedema. Alternative treatments include H₂-antagonists, corticosteroids, leukotriene receptor antagonists, other anti-inflammatory drugs, immunosuppressants, omalizumab, and intravenous immunoglobulins.

About one third of patients with CU will continue to experience symptoms after 5 years of follow-up. Consequently, it is important to provide early treatment to improve patient's quality of life. Reduction of the exposure to

precipitating and aggravating factors is also important, especially in patients with physical urticarias.

REFERENCES

- Poulos LM, Waters AM, Pop Hth GD, Correll PK, Loblay RH, Marks GB. Trends in hospitalizations for anaphylaxis, angioedema and urticaria in Australia, 1993-1994 to 2004-2005. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2007;120:878-884.
- Weller K, Altrichter S, Ardelean E, Krause K, Magerl M, et al. Chronic urticaria: prevalence, course, prognostic factors and impact. *Hautarzt.* 2010;61:750-757.
- Powell RJ, Du Toit GL, Siddique N, Leech SC, Dixon TA, et al; British Society for Allergy and Clinical Immunology (BSACI). BSACI guidelines for the management of chronic urticaria and angio-oedema. *Clin Exp Allergy.* 2007;37:631-650.
- Zuberbier T, Asero R, Bindslev-Jensen C, Canonica GW, Church MK, et al; Dermatology Section of the European Academy of Allergology and Clinical Immunology; Global Allergy and Asthma European Network; European Dermatology Forum; World Allergy Organization. EAACI/GA(2)LEN/EDF/WAO guideline: definition, classification and diagnosis of urticaria. *Allergy.* 2009;64:1417-1426.
- Zuberbier T, Asero R, Bindslev-Jensen C, Canonica GW, Church MK, et al; Dermatology Section of the European Academy of Allergology and Clinical Immunology; Global Allergy and Asthma European Network; European Dermatology Forum; World Allergy Organization. EAACI/GA(2)LEN/EDF/WAO guideline: management of urticaria. *Allergy.* 2009;64:1427-1443.
- Kaplan A. Clinical practice. Chronic urticaria and angioedema. *N Engl J Med.* 2002;346:175-179.
- Greaves M. Chronic urticaria. *N Engl J Med.* 1995;332:1767-1772.
- Weegerink N, Schraders M, Leijendeckers J, Slieker K, Hoygen PL, et al. Audiometric characteristics of a Dutch family with Muckle-Wells syndrome. *Hear Res.* 2011;282:243-251.
- Larocca C, McEvoy J, Ellis C, Junkins-Hopkins J, Kolb T, et al. Schnitzler's syndrome associated with pancreatitis: a disease of IL-1 dysregulation. *Clin Rheumatol.* 2012;31:169-174.
- Banerji A, Welle P, Sheikh J. Cytokine-associated angioedema syndromes including episodic angioedema with eosinophilia (Gleich's Syndrome). *Immunol Allergy Clin North Am.* 2006;26:769-781.
- Ferrelli C, Pinna A, Atzori L, Aste N. Eosinophilic cellulitis (Well's syndrome): a new case description. *J Eur Acad Dermatol Venereol.* 1999;13:41-45.
- Zuberbier T, Balke M, Worm M, Edenharter G, Maurer M. Epidemiology of urticaria: a representative cross-sectional population survey. *Clin Exp Dermatol.* 2010;35:869-873.
- Greaves M. Chronic urticaria. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2000;105:664-672.
- Gaig P, Olona M, Muñoz Lejarazu D, Caballero MT, Dominguez FS, et al. Epidemiology of urticaria in Spain. *J Investig Allergol Clin Immunol.* 2004;14:214-220.
- Kaplan AP. What the first 10,000 patients with chronic urticaria have taught me. A personal journey. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2009;123:713-717.
- Grattan CE. The urticarial spectrum: recognition of clinical patterns can help management. *Clin Exp Dermatol.* 2004;29:217-221.
- Maurer M, Weller K, Bindslev-Jensen C, Giménez-Arnau A, Bousquet J, et al. Unmet clinical needs in chronic spontaneous urticaria. A Galen task force report. *Allergy.* 2010;66:317-330.
- Magerl M, Pisurevokaja D, Scheufele R, Zuberbier T, Manner M. Effects of a pseudoallergen diet on chronic spontaneous urticaria: a prospective trial. *Allergy.* 2010;65:78-83.
- Elias J, Buss E, Kaplan A. Studies of the cellular infiltrate of chronic idiopathic urticaria: prominence of T lymphocytes, monocytes, and mast cells. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 1999;103:484-493.
- Sabroe R, Poon E, Orchard G, Lane D, Francis DM, et al. Cutaneous inflammatory cell infiltration on chronic idiopathic urticaria: comparison of patients with or without anti-Fc epsilon RI or anti IgE antibodies. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 1999;103:484-493.
- Ying S, Kikuchi Y, Meng Q, Kay AB, Kaplan AP. TH1/TH2 cytokines and inflammatory cells in skin biopsy specimens from patients with chronic idiopathic urticaria: comparison with the allergen-induced

- late-phase cutaneous reaction. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2002;109:694–700.
22. Grattan C, Wallington T, Warin R, Kennedy C, Bradfield J. A serological mediator in chronic idiopathic urticaria—a clinical, immunological, and histological evaluation. *Br J Dermatol.* 1986;114:583–590.
 23. Gruber B, Baeza M, Marchese M, Agnello V, Kaplan AP. Prevalence and functional role of anti-IgE autoantibodies in urticarial syndromes. *J Invest Dermatol.* 1988;90:213–217.
 24. Hide M, Francis D, Grattan C, Hakimi J, Kochan J, Greaves M. Autoantibodies against the high-affinity IgE receptor as a cause of histamine release in chronic urticaria. *N Eng J Med.* 1993;328:1599–1604.
 25. Kikuchi Y, Kaplan A. A role for C5a in augmenting IgG-dependent histamine release from basophils in chronic urticaria. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2002;109:114–118.
 26. Brodell LA, Beck LA, Saini SS. Pathophysiology of chronic urticaria. *Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol.* 2008;100:291–297.
 27. Sabroe RA, Greaves MW. Chronic idiopathic urticaria with functional autoantibodies: 12 years on. *Br J Dermatol.* 2006;154:813–819.
 28. Kaplan AP. Chronic urticaria: pathogenesis and treatment. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2004;114:465–474.
 29. Sabroe RA, Fiebiger E, Francis DM, Maurer D, Seed PT, Grattan CE, et al. Classification of anti-FcεpsilonRI and anti-IgE autoantibodies in chronic idiopathic urticaria and correlation with disease severity. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2002;110:492–499.
 30. Kikuchi Y, Kaplan A. Mechanisms of autoimmune activation of basophils in chronic urticaria. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2001;107:1056–1062.
 31. Fagiolo U, Kricek F, Ruf C, Peserico A, Amadori A, Cancian M. Effects of complement inactivation on IgG depletion on skin reactivity to autologous serum in chronic idiopathic urticaria. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2000;106:567–572.
 32. Grattan C, Francis D, Slater N, Barlow R, Greaves M. Plasmaphoresis for severe, unremitting chronic urticaria. *Lancet.* 1992;339:1078–1080.
 33. Beck LA, Marcotte GV, MacGlashan D, Togias A, Saini S. Omalizumab-induced reductions in mast cell FcεpsilonRI expression and function. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2004;114:527–530.
 34. Eckman JA, Sterba PM, Kelly D, Alexander V, Liu MC, et al. Effects of omalizumab on basophil and mast cell responses using an intranasal cat allergen challenge. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2010;125:889–895.
 35. Zaidi AK, Saini SS, MacGlashan DW Jr. Regulation of Syk kinase and FcRβ expression in human basophils during treatment with omalizumab. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2010;125:902–908 e907.
 36. Kaplan A, Joseph K, Maykut R, Zeldin R. Treatment of chronic autoimmune urticaria with omalizumab. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2009;123:713–717.
 37. Gober LM, Sterba PM, Eckman JA, Saini SS. Effect of anti-IgE (Omalizumab) in chronic idiopathic urticaria (CIU) patients. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2008;121(suppl):S147.
 38. Maurer M, Altrichter S, Bieber T, Biedermann T, Bräutigam M, et al. Efficacy and safety of omalizumab in patients with chronic urticaria who exhibit IgE against thyroperoxidase. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2011;128:202–209.
 39. Ferrer M, Gamboa P, Sanz ML, Goicoetxea MJ, Cabrera-Freitaq P, et al. Omalizumab is effective in non-autoimmune urticaria. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2011;127:1300–1302.
 40. Saini S, Rosen KE, Hsieh HJ, Wong DA, Conner E, et al. A randomized, placebo-controlled, dose-ranging study of single-dose omalizumab in patients with H(1)-antihistamine-refractory chronic idiopathic urticaria. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2011;128:567–573.
 41. Garofalo J, Hauber T, Kaplan AP. Idiopathic cold urticaria: in vitro demonstration of histamine release upon challenge of skin biopsies. *N Eng J Med.* 1981;305:1074–1077.
 42. Kaplan AP, Horakova Z, Katz SI. Assessment of tissue fluid histamine level in patients with urticaria. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 1978;61:350–354.
 43. Jacques P, Lavoie A, Bedard PM, Brunet C, Hebert J. Chronic idiopathic urticaria: profiles of skin mast cell histamine release during active disease and remission. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 1992;89:1139–1143.
 44. Saini SS, Paterniti M, Vasagar K, Gibbons SP Jr, Sterba PM, et al. Cultured peripheral blood mast cells from chronic idiopathic urticaria patients spontaneously degranulate upon IgE sensitization: Relationship to expression of Syk and SHIP-2. *Clin Immunol.* 2009;132:342–348.
 45. Bossi F, Frossi B, Radillo O, Cugno M, Tedeschi A, et al. Mast cells are critically involved in serum-mediated vascular leakage in chronic urticaria beyond high-affinity IgE receptor stimulation. *Allergy.* 2011;66:1538–1545.
 46. Leznoff A, Josse R, Denburg J, Dolovich J. Association of chronic urticaria and angioedema with thyroid autoimmunity. *Arch Dermatol.* 1983;119:636–640.
 47. Leznoff A, Sussman G. Syndrome of idiopathic chronic urticaria and angioedema with thyroid autoimmunity: a study of 90 patients. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 1989;84:66–71.
 48. Kikuchi Y, Fann T, Kaplan A. Antithyroid antibodies in chronic urticaria and angioedema. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2003;112:218.
 49. Kessel A, Bishara A, Amital E, Bamberger E, Sabo E, Grushko G, Toubi E. Increased plasma levels of matrix metalloproteinase-9 are associated with the severity of chronic urticaria. *Clin Exp Allergy.* 2005;35:221–225.
 50. Asero R, Tedeschi A, Coppola R, Griffini S, Paparella P, et al. Activation of the tissue factor pathway of blood coagulation in patients with chronic urticaria. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2007;119:705–710.
 51. Asero R, Tedeschi A, Riboldi P, Griffini S, Bonanni E, Cugno M. Severe chronic urticaria is associated with elevated plasma levels of D-dimer. *Allergy.* 2007;63:176–180.
 52. Cugno M, Marzano AV, Tedeschi A, Fanoni D, Venegoni L, Asero R. Expression of tissue factor by eosinophils in patients with chronic urticaria. *Int Arch Allergy Immunol.* 2009;148:170–174.
 53. Raxin E, Marx G. Thrombin-induced degranulation of cultured bone marrow-derived mast cells. *J Immunol.* 1984;133:3282–3285.
 54. Asero R, Tedeschi A, Riboldi P, Cugno M. Plasma of patients with chronic urticaria show signs of thrombin generation, and its intradermal injection causes wheal-and-flare reactions much more frequently than autologous serum. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2006;117:1113–1117.
 55. La K, Kim J, Kung D, Choi Y, Lee W, Ro J. Increased expression of endothelial cell adhesion molecules due to mediator release from human foreskin mast cells stimulated by autoantibodies in chronic urticaria sera. *J Invest Dermatol.* 2002;118:658–663.
 56. Ferrer M, Luguin E, Sanchez-Ibarrola A, Moreno C, Sanz M, Kaplan A. Secretion of cytokines, histamine, and leukotrienes in chronic urticaria. *Int Arch Allergy Immunol.* 2002;129:254–260.
 57. Tedeschi A, Asero R, Marzano AV, Lorini M, Fanoni D, Berti E, Cugno M. Plasma levels and skin eosinophils expression of vascular endothelial growth factor in patients with chronic urticaria. *Allergy.* 2009;64:1616–1622.
 58. Vonakis BM, Saini SS. New concepts in chronic urticaria. *Curr Opin Immunol.* 2008;20:709–716.
 59. Greaves MW, Plummer VM, McLaughlan P, Stanworth DR. Serum and cell bound IgE in chronic urticaria. *Clin Allergy.* 1974;4:265–271.
 60. Kern F, Lichtenstein LM. Defective histamine release in chronic urticaria. *J Clin Invest.* 1976;57:1369–1377.
 61. Luquin E, Kaplan AP, Ferrer M. Increased responsiveness of basophils of patients with chronic urticaria to sera but hypo-responsiveness to other stimuli. *Clin Exp Allergy.* 2005;35:456–460.
 62. Sabroe RA, Francis DM, Barr RM, Black AK, Greaves MW. Anti-Fc(ε)RI auto antibodies and basophil histamine releasability in chronic idiopathic urticaria. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 1998;102:651–658.
 63. Eckman J, Hamilton RG, Gober LM, Sterba PM, Saini SS. Basophil phenotypes in chronic idiopathic urticaria in relation to disease activity and autoantibodies. *J Invest Dermatol.* 2008;128:1956–1963.
 64. Vonakis BM, Vasagar K, Gibbons J, Gober SCL, Sterba P, et al. Basophil FcεRI histamine release parallels expression of Src-homology2-containing inositol phosphatases in chronic idiopathic urticaria. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2007;119:441–448.
 65. Grattan CE. Basophils in chronic urticaria. *J Invest Dermatol Symp Proc.* 2001;6:139–140.
 66. Grattan CE, Dawn G, Gibbs S, Francis DM. Blood basophil numbers in chronic ordinary urticaria and healthy controls: diurnal variation, influence of loratadine and prednisolone and relationship to disease activity. *Clin Exp Allergy.* 2003;33:337–341.
 67. Caproni M, Giomi B, Volpi W, Melani L, Schincaglia E, et al. Chronic idiopathic urticaria: infiltrating cells and related cytokines in autologous serum-induced wheals. *Clin Immunol.* 2005;114:284–292.
 68. Yamaguchi M, Hirai K, Nakajima K, Ohtoshi T, Takaiishi T, et al. Dexamethasone inhibits basophil migration. *Allergy.* 1994;49:371–375.
 69. Charlesworth EN, Kagey-Sobotka A, Schleimer RP, Norman PS, Lichtenstein LM. Prednisone inhibits the appearance of inflammatory

- mediators and the influx of eosinophils and basophils associated with the cutaneous late-phase response to allergen. *J Immunol*. 1991;146:671–676.
70. DeLong LK, Culler SD, Saini SS, Beck LA, Chen SC. Annual direct and indirect health care costs of chronic idiopathic urticaria: A cost analysis of 50 nonimmunosuppressed patients. *Arch Dermatol*. 2008;144:35–39.
 71. Kowalski ML, Makowska JS, Blanca M, Bavbek S, Bochenek G, et al. Hypersensitivity to nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs)- classification, diagnosis and management: review of the EAACI/ENDA and GA2LEN/HANNA. *Allergy*. 2011;66:818–829.
 72. Kozel MM, Bossuyt PM, Mekkes JR, Bos JD. Laboratory tests and identified diagnoses in patients with physical and chronic urticaria and angioedema: a systematic review. *J Am Acad Dermatol*. 2003;48:409–416.
 73. Tarbox JA, Gutta RC, Radojicic C, Lang DM. Utility of routine laboratory testing in management of chronic urticaria/angioedema. *Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol*. 2011;107:239–243.
 74. Shakouori A, Compalati E, Lang DM, Khan DA. Effectiveness of Helicobacter pylori eradication in chronic Urticaria: evidence-based analysis using the grading of recommendations assessment, development, and evaluation system. *Curr Opin Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2010;10:362–369.
 75. Wedi B, Kapp A. Chronic urticaria: assessment of current treatment. *Expert Rev Clin Immunol*. 2005;1:459–473.
 76. Handa S, Dogra S, Kumar B. Comparative efficacy of cetirizine and fexofenadine in the treatment of chronic idiopathic urticaria. *J Dermatolog Treat*. 2004;15:55–57.
 77. Potter PC, Kapp A, Maurer M, Guillet G, Jian AM, Hauptmann P, Finlay AY. Comparison of the efficacy of levocetirizine 5 mg and desloratadine 5 mg in chronic idiopathic urticaria patients. *Allergy*. 2009;64:596–604.
 78. Zuberbier T, Oanta A, Bogacka E, Medina I, Wesel F, et al. Comparison of the efficacy and safety of bilastine 20 mg vs levocetirizine 5 mg for the treatment of chronic idiopathic urticaria: a multi-centre, double-blind, randomized, placebo-controlled study. *Allergy*. 2010;65:516–528.
 79. Clough GF, Boutsiouki P, Church MK. Comparison of the effects of levocetirizine and loratadine on histamine-induced wheal, flare, and itch in human skin. *Allergy*. 2001;56:985–988.
 80. Grant JA, Riethuisen JM, Moulart B, DeVos C. A double-blind, randomized, single-dose, crossover comparison of levocetirizine with ebastine, fexofenadine, loratadine, mizolastine, and placebo: suppression of histamine-induced wheal-and-flare response during 24 hours in healthy male subjects. *Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol*. 2002;88:190–197.
 81. Popov TA, Dumitrascu D, Bachvarova A, Boecsan C, Dimitrov V, Church MK. A comparison of levocetirizine and desloratadine in the histamine-induced wheal and flare response in human skin in vivo. *Inflamm Res*. 2006;55:241–244.
 82. Church MK. Comparative inhibition by bilastine and cetirizine of histamine-induced wheal and flare responses in humans. *Inflamm Res*. 2011 [pub ahead of print].
 83. Hindmarch I, Johnson S, Meadows R, Kirkpatrick T, Shamsi Z. The acute and sub-chronic effects of levocetirizine, cetirizine, loratadine, promethazine and placebo on cognitive function, psychomotor performance, and wheal and flare. *Curr Med Res Opin*. 2001;17:241–255.
 84. Curran MP, Scott LJ, Perry CM. Cetirizine: a review of its use in allergic disorders. *Drugs*. 2004;15:55–57.
 85. Grant JA, Bernstein DI, Buckley CE, Chu T, Fox RW, et al. Double-blind comparison of terfenadine, chlorpheniramine, and placebo in the treatment of chronic idiopathic urticaria. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 1998;81:574–579.
 86. Monroe EW. Relative efficacy and safety of loratadine, hydroxyzine, and placebo in chronic idiopathic urticaria. *Clin Ther*. 1992;14:17–21.
 87. Breneman DL. Cetirizine versus hydroxyzine and placebo in chronic idiopathic urticaria. *Ann Pharmacother*. 1996;30:1075–1079.
 88. Shamsi Z, Hindmarch I. Sedation and antihistamines: a review of inter-drug differences using proportional impairment ratios. *Hum Psychopharmacol*. 2000;15(suppl 1):S3–S30.
 89. Zuberbier T, Greaves MW, Juhlin L, Merk H, Stingl G, Henz BM. Management of urticaria: a consensus report. *J Invest Dermatol Symp Proc*. 2001;6:128–131.
 90. Schweitzer PK, Muehlbach MJ, Walsh JK. Sleepiness and performance during three-day administration of cetirizine or diphenhydramine. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 1994;94:716–724.
 91. Hindmarch I, Johnson S, Meadows R, Kirkpatrick T, Shamsi Z. The acute and sub-chronic effects of levocetirizine, cetirizine, loratadine, promethazine and placebo on cognitive function, psychomotor performance, and wheal and flare. *Curr Med Res Opin*. 2001;17:241–255.
 92. Verster JC, de Weert AM, Bijtjes SI, Aarab M, van Oosterwijck AW, et al. Driving ability after acute and sub-chronic administration of levocetirizine and diphenhydramine: a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. *Psychopharmacology (Berl)*. 2003;169:84–90.
 93. Kameyoshi Y, Tanaka T, Mihara S, Takahagi S, Niimi N, Hide M. Increasing the dose of cetirizine may lead to better control of chronic idiopathic urticaria: an open study of 21 patients. *Br J Dermatol*. 2007;157:803–804.
 94. Asero R. Chronic unremitting urticaria: is the use of antihistamines above the licensed dose effective? A preliminary study of cetirizine at licensed and above-licensed doses. *Clin Exp Dermatol*. 2007;32:34–38.
 95. Nelson HS, Reynolds R, Mason J. Fexofenadine HCl is safe and effective for treatment of chronic idiopathic urticaria. *Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol*. 2000;84:517–522.
 96. Siebenhaar F, Degener F, Zuberbier T, Martus P, Maurer M. High-dose desloratadine decreases wheal volume and improves cold provocation thresholds compared with standard-dose treatment in patients with acquired cold urticaria: a randomized, placebo-controlled, crossover study. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2009;123:672–679.
 97. Staevska M, Popov TA, Kralimarkova T, Lazarova C, Kraeva S, et al. The effectiveness of levocetirizine and desloratadine in up to 4 times conventional doses in difficult-to-treat urticaria. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2010;125:676–682.
 98. Gimenez-Arnau A, Pujol RM, Ianosi S, Malbran A, Poop G, et al. Rupatadine in the treatment of chronic idiopathic urticaria: a double-blind, randomized, placebo-controlled multicentre study. *Allergy*. 2007;62:539–546.
 99. Gimenez-Arnau A, Izquierdo I, Maurer M. The use of a responder analysis to identify clinically meaningful differences in chronic urticarial patients following placebo-controlled treatment with rupatadine 10 and 20 mg. *J Eur Acad Dermatol Venereol*. 2009;23:1088–1091.
 100. Harvey PR, Wegs J, Shocket AL. A controlled trial of therapy in chronic urticaria. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 1981;68:262–266.
 101. Monroe EW, Cohen SH, Kalbfleisch J, Schulz CI. Combined H1 and H2 antihistamine therapy in chronic urticaria. *Arch Dermatol*. 1981;117:404–407.
 102. Bleehen SS, Thomas SE, Greaves MW, Newton J, Kennedy CT, et al. Cimetidine and chlorpheniramine in the treatment of chronic idiopathic urticaria: a multi-centre randomized double-blind study. *Br J Dermatol*. 1987;117:81–88.
 103. Paul E, Bodeker RH. Treatment of chronic urticaria with terfenadine and ranitidine. A randomized double-blind study in 45 patients. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol*. 1986;31:277–280.
 104. Sharpe GR, Shuster R. In dermatographic urticaria H2 receptor antagonists have a small but therapeutically irrelevant additional effect compared with H1 antagonists alone. *Br J Dermatol*. 1993;129:575–579.
 105. Salo OP, Kauppinen K, Männistö PT. Cimetidine increases the plasma concentration of hydroxyzine. *Acta Derm Venereol*. 1986;66:349–350.
 106. Simons FE, Sussman GL, Simons KJ. Effect of the H2-antagonist cimetidine on the pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics of the H2 antagonists hydroxyzine and cetirizine in patients with chronic urticaria. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 1995;95:685–693.
 107. Wan KS. Efficacy of leukotriene receptor antagonist with an anti-H1 receptor antagonist for treatment of chronic idiopathic urticaria. *J Dermatolog Treat*. 2009;20:194–197.
 108. Tedeschi A, Airaghi L, Lorini M, Asero R. Chronic urticaria. A role for newer immunomodulatory drugs? *Am J Clin Dermatol*. 2003;4:297–305.
 109. Bagenstose SE, Levin L, Bernstein JA. The addition of zafirlukast to cetirizine improves the treatment of chronic urticaria in patients with positive autologous serum skin test results. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2004;113:134–140.
 110. Di Lorenzo G, Pacor ML, Mansueto P, Esposito Pellateri M, Lo Bianco C, et al. Randomized placebo-controlled trial comparing desloratadine and montelukast in monotherapy and desloratadine plus

- montelukast in combined therapy for chronic idiopathic urticaria. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2004;114:619–625.
111. Nettis E, Colanardi MC, Paradiso MT, Ferrannini A. Desloratadine in combination with montelukast in the treatment of chronic urticaria: a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled study. *Clin Exp Allergy.* 2004;34:1401–1407.
 112. Erbagci Z. The leukotriene receptor antagonist montelukast in the treatment of chronic idiopathic urticaria: a single-blind, placebo-controlled, crossover clinical study. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2002;110:484–488.
 113. Pacor ML, Di Lorenzo G, Corrocher R. Efficacy of leukotriene receptor antagonist in chronic urticaria. A double-blind, placebo-controlled comparison of treatment with montelukast and cetirizine in patients with chronic urticaria with intolerance to food additive and/or acetylsalicylic acid. *Clin Exp Allergy.* 2001;31:1607–1614.
 114. Reimers A, Pichler C, Helbling A, Pichler WJ, Yawalkar N. Zafirlukast has no beneficial effects in the treatment of chronic urticaria. *Clin Exp Allergy.* 2002;32:1763–1768.
 115. Di Lorenzo G, D'Alcamo A, Rizzo M, Leto-Barone MS, Bianco CL, et al. Leukotriene receptor antagonists in monotherapy or in combination with antihistamines in the treatment of chronic urticaria: a systematic review. *J Asthma Allergy.* 2008;9:9–16.
 116. Asero R, Tedeschi A, Lorini M. Leukotriene receptor antagonists in chronic urticaria. *Allergy.* 2001;56:456–457.
 117. Asero R, Tedeschi A. Usefulness of a short course of oral prednisone in antihistamine-resistant chronic urticaria: a retrospective analysis. *J Invest Allergol Clin Immunol.* 2010;20:386–390.
 118. Muramatsu C, Tanabe E. Urticarial vasculitis: response to dapsone and colchicine. *J Am Acad Dermatol.* 1985;13:1055.
 119. Fortson JS, Zone JJ, Hammond ME, Groggel GC. Hypocomplementemic urticarial vasculitis syndrome responsive to dapsone. *J Am Acad Dermatol.* 1986;15:1137–1142.
 120. Eiser AR, Singh P, Shanies HM. Sustained dapsone-induced remission of hypocomplementemic urticarial vasculitis—a case report. *Angiology.* 1997;48:1019–1022.
 121. Boehm I, Bauer R, Bieber T. Urticaria treated with dapsone. *Allergy.* 1999;54:765–766.
 122. Cassano N, D'Argento V, Filotico R, Vena GA. Low-dose dapsone in chronic idiopathic urticaria: preliminary results of an open study. *Acta Derm Venereol.* 2005;85:254–255.
 123. González P, Soriano V, Caballero T, Niveiro E. Idiopathic angioedema treated with dapsone. *Allergol Immunopathol (Madr).* 2005;33:545–546.
 124. Grundmann SA, Kiefer S, Luger TA, Brehler R. Delayed pressure urticaria—dapsone heading for first-line therapy? *J Disch Dermatol Ges.* 2011 doi:10.1111/j.1610-0387.2011.07749.x [epub ahead of print].
 125. Engin B, Ozdemir M. Prospective randomized non-blinded clinical trial on the use of dapsone plus antihistamine vs. antihistamine in patients with chronic idiopathic urticaria. *J Eur Acad Dermatol Venereol.* 2008;22:481–486.
 126. Orion E, Matz H, Wolf R. The life-threatening complications of dermatologic therapies. *Clin Dermatol.* 2005;23:182–192.
 127. Wolverson SE, Remlinger K. Suggested guidelines for patient monitoring: hepatic and hematologic toxicity attributable to systemic dermatologic drugs. *Dermatol Clin.* 1997;25:195–205.
 128. Jaffer AM. Sulfasalazine in the treatment of corticosteroid-dependent chronic idiopathic urticaria. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 1991;88:964–965.
 129. Engler RJ, Squire E, Benson P. Chronic sulfasalazine therapy in the treatment of delayed pressure urticaria and angioedema. *Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol.* 1995;74:155–159.
 130. Hartmann K, Hani N, Hinrichs R, Hunzelmann N, Scharffetter-Kochanek K. Successful sulfasalazine treatment of severe chronic idiopathic urticaria associated with pressure urticaria. *Acta Derm Venereol.* 2001;81:71.
 131. McGirt LY, Vasagar K, Gober LM, Saini SS, Beck LA. Successful treatment of recalcitrant chronic idiopathic urticaria with sulfasalazine. *Arch Dermatol.* 2006;142:1337–1342.
 132. Ardizzone S, Bianchi Porro G. Comparative tolerability of therapies for ulcerative colitis. *Drug Saf.* 2002;25:561–582.
 133. Chakravarty K, McDonald H, Pullar T, Taggart A, Chalmers R, et al. BSR/BHPR guideline for disease-modifying anti-rheumatic drug (DMARD) therapy in consultation with the British Association of Dermatologists. *Rheumatology.* 2008;47:924–925.
 134. Lopez LR, Davis KC, Kohler PF, Shocket AL. The hypocomplementemic urticarial-vasculitis syndrome: therapeutic response to hydroxychloroquine. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 1984;73:600–603.
 135. Reeves GE, Boyle MJ, Bonfield J, Dobson P, Loewenthal M. Impact of hydroxychloroquine therapy on chronic urticaria: chronic autoimmune urticaria study and evaluation. *Intern Med J.* 2004;34:182–186.
 136. Marmor MF, Carr RE, Easterbrook M, Farjo AA, Mieler WF; American Academy of Ophthalmology. Recommendations on screening for chloroquine and hydroxychloroquine retinopathy: a report by the American Academy of Ophthalmology. *Ophthalmology.* 2002;109:1377–1382.
 137. Marmor MF, Kellner U, Lai TY, Lyons JS, Mieler WF; American Academy of Ophthalmology. Revised recommendations on screening for chloroquine and hydroxychloroquine retinopathy. *Ophthalmology.* 2011;118:415–422.
 138. Criado RF, Criado PR, Martins JE, Valente NY, Michalany NS, Vasconcellos C. Urticaria unresponsive to antihistaminic treatment: an open study of therapeutic options based on histopathologic features. *J Dermatolog Treat.* 2008;19:92–96.
 139. Wiles JC, Hansen RC, Lynch PJ. Urticarial vasculitis treated with colchicine. *Arch Dermatol.* 1985;121:80280–80285.
 140. Asherson RA, Buchanan N, Kenwright S, Fletcher CM, Hughes GR. The normocomplementemic urticarial vasculitis syndrome—report of a case and response to colchicine. *Clin Exp Dermatol.* 1991;16:424–427.
 141. Lee JS, Loh TH, Seow SC, Tan SH. Prolonged urticaria with purpura: the spectrum of clinical and histopathologic features in a prospective series of 22 patients exhibiting the clinical features of urticarial vasculitis. *J Am Acad Dermatol.* 2007;56:994–1005.
 142. Toubi E, Blant A, Kessel A, Golan TD. Low-dose cyclosporin A in the treatment of severe chronic idiopathic urticaria. *Allergy.* 1997;52:312–316.
 143. Serhat Inaloz H, Ozturk S, Akcali C, Kirtak N, Tarakcioglu M. Low-dose and short-term cyclosporine treatment in patients with chronic idiopathic urticaria: a clinical and immunological evaluation. *J Dermatol.* 2008;35:276–282.
 144. Fradin MS, Ellis CN, Goldfarb MT, Voorhees JJ. Oral cyclosporine for severe chronic idiopathic urticaria and angioedema. *J Am Acad Dermatol.* 1991;25:1065–1067.
 145. Baskan EB, Tunali S, Turker T, Saricaoglu H. Comparison of short- and long-term cyclosporine A therapy in chronic idiopathic urticaria. *J Dermatolog Treat.* 2004;15:164–168.
 146. Vena GA, Cassano N, Colombo D, Peruzzi E, Pigatto P; Neo-I-30 Study Group. Cyclosporine in chronic idiopathic urticaria: a double-blind, randomized, placebo-controlled trial. *J Am Acad Dermatol.* 2006;55:705–709.
 147. Grattan CE, O'Donnell BF, Francis DM, Niimi N, Barlow RJ, et al. Randomized double-blind study of cyclosporin in chronic 'idiopathic' urticaria. *Br J Dermatol.* 2000;143:365–372.
 148. Di Gioacchino M, Di Stefano F, Cavallucci E, Verna N, Ramondo S, et al. Treatment of chronic idiopathic urticaria and positive autologous serum skin test with cyclosporine: clinical and immunological evaluation. *Allergy Asthma Proc.* 2003;24:285–290.
 149. Kessel A, Toubi E. Cyclosporine-A in severe chronic urticaria: the option for long-term therapy. *Allergy.* 2010;65:1478–1482.
 150. Kessel A, Bamberger E, Toubi E. Tacrolimus in the treatment of severe chronic idiopathic urticaria: an open-label prospective study. *J Am Acad Dermatol.* 2005;52:145–148.
 151. Perez A, Woods A, Grattan CE. Methotrexate: a useful steroid-sparing agent in recalcitrant chronic urticaria. *Br J Dermatol.* 2010;162:191–194.
 152. Sagi L, Solomon M, Baum S, Lyakhovitsky A, Trau H, Barzilai A. Evidence for methotrexate as a useful treatment for steroid-dependent chronic urticaria. *Acta Derm Venereol.* 2011;91:303–306.
 153. Bernstein JA, Garramone SM, Lower EG. Successful treatment of autoimmune chronic idiopathic urticaria with intravenous cyclophosphamide. *Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol.* 2002;89:212–214.
 154. Asero R. Oral cyclophosphamide in a case of cyclosporin and steroid-resistant chronic urticaria showing autoreactivity on autologous serum skin testing. *Clin Exp Dermatol.* 2005;30:582–583.

155. Tedeschi A. Paradoxical exacerbation of chronic urticaria by H1-antihistamines and montelukast. *Eur Ann Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2009;41:187–189.
156. Venzor J, Lee WL, Huston DP. Urticarial vasculitis. *Clin Rev Allergy Immunol.* 2002;23:201–216.
157. Shahar E, Bergman R, Guttman-Yassky E, Pollack S. Treatment of severe chronic idiopathic urticaria with oral mycophenolate mofetil in patients not responding to antihistamines and/or corticosteroids. *Int J Dermatol.* 2006;45:1224–1227.
158. Zimmerman AB, Berger EM, Elmariam SB, Soter NA. The use of mycophenolate mofetil for the treatment of autoimmune and chronic idiopathic urticaria: Experience in 19 patients. *J Am Acad Dermatol.* 2011 [epub ahead of print].
159. Boyce JA. Successful treatment of cold-induced urticaria/anaphylaxis with anti-IgE. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2006;117:1415–1418.
160. Spector SL, Tan RA. Effect of omalizumab on patients with chronic urticaria. *Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol.* 2007;99:190–193.
161. Sands MF, Blume JW, Schwartz SA. Successful treatment of 3 patients with recurrent idiopathic angioedema with omalizumab. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2007;120:979–981.
162. Dreyfus DH. Observations on the mechanism of omalizumab as a steroid-sparing agent in autoimmune or chronic idiopathic urticaria and angioedema. *Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol.* 2008;100:624–625.
163. Godse KV. Omalizumab in severe chronic urticaria. *Indian J Dermatol Leprol Venereol.* 2008;74:157–158.
164. Waibel KH, Reese DA, Hamilton RG, Devillez RL. Partial improvement of solar urticaria after omalizumab. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2009;125:490–491.
165. Vestergaard C, Deleuran M. Two cases of severe refractory chronic idiopathic urticaria treated with omalizumab. *Acta Derm Venereol.* 2010;90:443–444.
166. Krause K, Ardelean E, Kessler B, Magerl M, Metz M, et al. Antihistamine-resistant urticaria factitia successfully treated with anti-immunoglobulin E therapy. *Allergy.* 2010;65:1494–1495.
167. Sabroe RA. Failure of omalizumab in cholinergic urticaria. *Clin Exp Dermatol.* 2010;35:127–129.
168. O'Donnell BF, Barr RM, Kobza Black A, Francis DM, Kermani F, et al. Intravenous immunoglobulin in autoimmune chronic urticaria. *Br J Dermatol.* 1998;138:101–106.
169. Klote MM, Nelson MR, Engler RJ. Autoimmune urticaria response to high-dose intravenous immunoglobulin. *Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol.* 2005;94:307–308.
170. Wetter DA, Davis MD, Yiannias JA, Gibson LE, Dahl MV, et al. Effectiveness of intravenous immunoglobulin therapy for skin disease other than toxic epidermal necrolysis: a retrospective review of Mayo Clinic experience. *Mayo Clin Proc.* 2005;80:41–47.
171. Asero R. Are IVIG for chronic unremitting urticaria effective? *Allergy.* 2000;55:1099–1100.
172. Borcea A, Greaves MW. Methotrexate-induced exacerbation of urticarial vasculitis: an unusual adverse reaction. *Br J Dermatol.* 2000;43:203–204.
173. Pereira C, Tavares B, Carrapatoso I, Loureiro G, Faria E, Machado D, Chieira C. Low-dose intravenous gammaglobulin in the treatment of severe autoimmune urticaria. *Eur Ann Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2007;39:237–242.
174. Dawn G, Urcelay M, Ah-Weng A, O'Neill SM, Douglas WS. Effect of high-dose intravenous immunoglobulin in delayed pressure urticaria. *Br J Dermatol.* 2003;149:836–840.
175. Puech-Plottova I, Michel JL, Rouchouse B, Perrot JL, Dzviga C, Cambazard F. Solar urticaria: one case treated by intravenous immunoglobulin. *Ann Dermatol Venereol.* 2000;127:831–835.
176. Staubach-Renz P, von Stebut E, Bräuninger W, Maurer M, Steinbrink K. [Hypocomplementemic urticarial vasculitis syndrome. Successful therapy with intravenous immunoglobulins] *Hautarzt.* 2007;58:693–697.
177. Asero R, Tedeschi A, Riboldi P, Cugno M. Plasma of patients with chronic urticaria shows signs of thrombin generation, and its intradermal injection causes wheal-and-flare reactions much more frequently than autologous serum. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2006;117:1113–1117.
178. Takeda T, Sakurai Y, Takahagi S, Kato J, Yoshida K, et al. Increase of coagulation potential in chronic spontaneous urticaria. *Allergy.* 2011;66:428–433.
179. Parslew R, Pryce D, Ashworth J, Friedmann PS. Warfarin treatment of chronic idiopathic urticaria and angio-oedema. *Clin Exp Allergy.* 2000;30:1161–1165.
180. Chua SL, Gibbs S. Chronic urticaria responding to subcutaneous heparin sodium. *Br J Dermatol.* 2005;153:216–217.
181. Asero R, Tedeschi A, Cugno M. Heparin and tranexamic acid therapy may be effective in treatment-resistant chronic urticaria with elevated d-dimer: a pilot study. *Int Arch Allergy Immunol.* 2010;152:384–389.
182. Guyatt GH, Oxman AD, Vist GE, Kunz R, Falck-Ytter Y, et al. GRADE: an emerging consensus on rating quality of evidence and strength of recommendations. *Br Med J.* 2008;336:924–926.
183. Léauté-Labrèze C. Childhood versus adult urticaria. *Dermatology from young to old.* Presented at: Symposium June 12–15, 2003; Rotterdam: Isala.
184. Léauté-Labrèze C, Mortureux P, Taieb A. *Urticaria and Serum Sickness.* Oxford, United Kingdom: Blackwell Science; 2000.
185. Legrain V, Taieb A, Sage T, Maleville J. Urticaria in infants: a study of forty patients. *Pediatr Dermatol.* 1990;7:101–107.
186. Mortureux P, Léauté-Labrèze C, Legrain-Lifermann V, Lamireau T, Sarlangue J, Taieb A. Acute urticaria in infancy and early childhood: a prospective study. *Arch Dermatol.* 1998;134:319–323.
187. Zuberbier Z, Ifflander J, Semmler C, Czarnetzki BM. Acute urticaria—clinical aspects and therapeutic responsiveness. *Acta Derm Venereol.* 1996;76:295–297.
188. Greaves MW. Chronic urticaria in childhood. *Allergy.* 2000;55:309–320.
189. Haas N, Birkle-Berlinger W, Henz BM. Prognosis of acute urticaria in children. *Acta Derm Venereol.* 2005;85:74–75.
190. Wong H. Acute urticaria. *World Allergy Org J.* November 2007:S162.
191. Beltrani VS. Urticaria and angioedema. *Dermatol Clin.* 1996;14:171–198.
192. Soter NA. Acute and chronic urticaria and angioedema. *J Am Acad Dermatol.* 1991;25(1 pt 2):146–154.
193. Varadarajulu S. Urticaria and angioedema. Controlling acute episodes, coping with chronic cases. *Postgrad Med.* 2005;117:25–31.
194. O'Donnell BF, Lawlor F, Simpson J, Morgan M, Greaves MW. The impact of chronic urticaria on the quality of life. *Br J Dermatol.* 1997;136:197–201.
195. Engstrom J, Neher J. What is the prognosis for patients with chronic urticaria? *J Fam Pract.* 2011;60:168a–168b.
196. Kapp A, Wedi B. Chronic urticaria: clinical aspects and focus on a new antihistamine, levocetirizine. *J Drugs Dermatol.* 2004;3:632–639.
197. van der Valk PG, Moret G, Kiemeny LA. The natural history of chronic urticaria and angioedema in patients visiting a tertiary referral centre. *Br J Dermatol.* 2002;146:110–113.
198. Habif TP. Urticaria and angioedema. In: *Clinical Dermatology: A Color Guide to Diagnosis and Therapy.* 4th ed. New York, NY: Mosby; 2004:129–161.
199. Khan D. Chronic urticaria: diagnosis and management. *Allergy Asthma Proc.* 2008;29:439–446.
200. Kozel MM. Natural course of physical and chronic urticaria and angioedema in 220 patients. *J Am Acad Dermatol.* 2001;45:387–391.
201. van der Valk PG, Moret G. The natural history of chronic urticaria and angioedema in patients visiting a tertiary referral centre. *Br J Dermatol.* 2003;146:110–113.
202. Toubi E, Kessel A, Avshovich N, Bamberger E, Sabo E, Nussem D, Panasoff J. Clinical and laboratory parameters in predicting chronic urticaria duration: a prospective study of 139 patients. *Allergy.* 2004;59:869–873.
203. Weller K, Altrichter S, Ardelean E, Krause K, Magerl M, et al. Chronic urticaria. Prevalence, course, prognostic factors and impact. *Hautarzt.* 2010;61:750–757.
204. Lindelöf B, Sigurgeirsson B, Wahlgren CF, Eklund G. Chronic urticaria and cancer: an epidemiological study of 1155 patients. *Br J Dermatol.* 1990;123:453–456.
205. Söderberg KC, Hagmar L, Schwartzbaum J, Feychting M. Allergic conditions and risk of hematological malignancies in adults: a cohort study. *BMC Public Health.* 2004;4:51.
206. Banerji A, Sheffer AL. The spectrum of chronic angioedema. *Allergy Asthma Proc.* 2009;30:11–16.
207. Epocrates Online. Urticaria and angioedema. Available at: <https://online.epocrates.com/u/2951844/Urticaria+and+angioedema/FollowUp/Overview>. Accessed August 30, 2011.
208. Zuraw BL. Urticaria, angioedema, and autoimmunity. *Clin Lab Med.* 1997;17:559–569.

209. Church MK, Weller K, Stock P, Mauwer M. Chronic spontaneous urticaria in children: itching for insight. *Paediatr Allergy Immunol*. 2011;22:1–8.
210. Hamel-Teillac D. Chronic urticaria in children. *Ann Dermatology Venereol*. 2003;1:1569–1572.
211. Kjaer HF, Eller E, Host A, Andersen KE, Bendslev-Jensen C. The prevalence of allergic diseases in an unselected group of 6 year old children. The DARC birth cohort study. *Paed Allergy Immunol*. 2008;19:737–745.
212. Khakoo G, Sofianou-Katsoulis A, Perkin MR, Lack G. Clinical features and natural history of physical urticaria in children. *Pediatr Allergy Immunol*. 2008;19:363–366.
213. Tuchinda M, Srimuruta N, Abanananda S, Vareenil J, Assatherawatts A. Urticaria in Thai children. *Asian Pac J Allergy Immunol*. 1986;4:41–45.
214. Legrain V, Taieb A, Sage T, Maleville J. Urticaria in infants: a study of 40 patients. *Paediatric Dermatol*. 1990;7:101–107.
215. Lara-Corrales I, Balma Mena A, Pope E. Chronic urticaria in children. *Clin Pediatr (Phila)*. 2009;48:351–355.
216. Du Toit G, Prescott R, Lawrence P, Johar A, Brown G, et al. Autoantibodies to the high affinity IgE receptor in children with chronic urticaria. *Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol*. 2006;96:341–344.
217. Godse KV. Autologous serum skin test in children. *Indian J Dermatol*. 2008;53:61–63.
218. Brunetti L, Francarilla R, Minello VL. High prevalence of autoimmune urticaria in children with chronic urticaria. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2004;114:922–927.
219. Ehlers I, Niggeman B, Binde V, Zuberbier T. Role of non allergic hypersensitivity reactions in children with chronic urticaria. *Allergy*. 1998;53:1074–1077.
220. Sackesen C, Sekerel BE, Orhan F, Kocabos CN, Turner A, Adalioğlu G. The aetiology of different forms of urticaria in childhood. *Pediatr Dermatol*. 2004;21:102–108.
221. Wedi B, Raap U, Wiczorek D, Kapp A. Urticaria and infections. *Ann Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2009;5:10.
222. Levy Y, Segal N, Weintob N, Danon YL. Chronic urticaria: associated with thyroid auto immunity. *Arch Dis Childhood*. 2003;88:517–519.
223. Caminiti L, Passalacqua G, Magazza G. Chronic urticaria and associated coeliac disease in children: a case control study. *Paediatr Allergy Immunol*. 2005;16:428–432.
224. Harris A, Twarog FJ, Geha RS. Chronic urticaria in childhood: natural course and aetiology. *Ann Allergy*. 1983;51(2 pt 1):161–165.
225. Sahiner UM, Civelek E, Tuncer A, Yavuz ST, Carabulut E, Sackesen C, Sekerel BE. Chronic urticaria aetiology and natural course in children. *Int Arch Allergy Immunol*. 2011;136:224–230.
226. Simons FE. Prevention of acute urticaria in young children with atopic dermatitis. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2001;107:703–706.
227. Simons FE. H1 antihistamine treatment in young atopic children: effect on urticaria. *Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol*. 2007;99:261–266.
228. Doshi DR, Weinberger MM. Experience with cyclosporine in children with chronic idiopathic urticaria. *Pediatr Dermatol*. 2009;26:409–413.
229. Schatz M, Petitti D. Antihistamines and pregnancy. *Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol*. 1997;78:157–159.
230. Nurse DS. Prurigo of pregnancy. *Australas J Dermatol*. 1968;9:258–267.
231. Vaughan Jones SA, Black MM. Pregnancy dermatoses. *J Am Acad Dermatol*. 1999;40:233–241.
232. Aronson IK, Bond S, Fiedler VC, Vomvouras S, Gruber D, Ruiz C. Pruritic urticarial papules and plaques of pregnancy: clinical and immunopathologic observations in 57 patients. *J Am Acad Dermatol*. 1998;39:933–939.
233. Elling SV, McKenna P, Powell FC. Pruritic urticarial papules and plaques of pregnancy in twin and triplet pregnancies. *J Eur Acad Dermatol Venereol*. 2000;14:378–381.
234. Kroumpouzos G, Cohen LM. Specific dermatoses of pregnancy: an evidence-based systematic review. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 2003;188:1083–1092.
235. Herzberg AJ, Strohmeier CR, Cirillo-Hyland VA. Autoimmune progesterone dermatitis. *J Am Acad Dermatol*. 1995;32:333–338.
236. Vasconcelos C, Xavier P, Vieira AP, Martinho M, Rodrigues J, et al. Autoimmune progesterone urticaria. *Gynecol Endocrinol*. 2000;14:245–247.
237. Diav-Citrin O, Shechtman S, Aharonovich A, Moerman L, Arnon J, Wajnberg R, Ornov A. Pregnancy outcome after gestational exposure to loratadine or antihistamines: a prospective controlled cohort study. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2003;111:1239–1243.
238. Moretti ME, Caprara D, Coutinho CJ, Bar-Oz B, Berkovitch M, et al. Fetal safety of loratadine use in the first trimester of pregnancy: a multicenter study. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2003;111:479–483.
239. Gilbert C, Mazzotta P, Loebstein R, Koren G. Fetal safety of drugs used in the treatment of allergic rhinitis: a critical review. *Drug Saf*. 2005;28:707–719.
240. Källén B. Use of antihistamine drugs in early pregnancy and delivery outcome. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med*. 2002;11:146–152.
241. Hilbert J, Radwanski E, Affrime MB, Perentesis G, Symchowicz S, Zampagnone N. Excretion of loratadine in human breast milk. *J Clin Pharmacol*. 1988;28:234–239.
242. Briggs GB, Freeman RK, Yaffe SJ. *Drugs in Pregnancy and Lactation*. 6th Edn. Hagerstown, MD: Lippincott Williams & Wilkins; 2001.
243. Reinisch JM, Simon NG, Karow WG, Gandelman R. Prenatal exposure to prednisone in humans and animals retards intrauterine growth. *Science*. 1978;202:436–438.
244. Carmichael SL, Shaw GM. Maternal corticosteroid use and risk of selected congenital anomalies. *Am J Med Genet*. 1999;86:242–244.
245. Robert E, Vollset SE, Botto L. Malformation surveillance and maternal drug exposure: the MADRE project. *Risk Safety Med*. 1994;6:75.
246. Pradat P, Robert-Gnansia E, Di Tanna GL, Rosario A, Lisi A, Mastroiacovo P, Contributors to the MADRE Database. First trimester exposure to corticosteroids and oral clefts. *Birth Defects Res A Clin Mol Teratol*. 2003;67:968–970.
247. Rodríguez-Pinilla E, Martínez-Frías ML. Corticosteroids during pregnancy and oral clefts: a case-control study. *Teratology*. 1998;58:2–5.
248. Czeizel AE, Rockenbauer M. Population-based case-control study of teratogenic potential of corticosteroids. *Teratology*. 1997;56:335–340.
249. Yang K. Placental 11 beta-hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase: barrier to maternal glucocorticoids. *Rev Reprod*. 1997;2:129–132.
250. Effect of corticosteroids for fetal maturation on perinatal outcomes. NIH Consensus Development Panel on the Effect of Corticosteroids for Fetal Maturation on Perinatal Outcomes. *JAMA*. 1995;273:413–418.
251. Ost L, Wettrell G, Björkhem I, Rane A. Prednisolone excretion in human milk. *J Pediatr*. 1985;106:1008–1011.
252. Patrick DL, Burke LB, Powers JH, Scott JA, Rock EP, et al. Patient-reported outcomes to support medical product labeling claims: FDA perspective. *Value Health*. 2007;10:125–137.
253. Baiardini I, Bousquet PJ, Brzoza Z, Canonica GW, Compalati E, et al. Recommendations for assessing patient-reported outcomes and health-related quality of life in clinical trials on allergy: a GA(2)LEN taskforce position paper. *Allergy*. 2010;65:290–295.
254. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services FDA Center for Drug Evaluation and Research, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services FDA Center for Biologics Evaluation and Research and U.S. Department of Health and Human Services FDA Center for Devices and Radiological Health. Guidance for Industry: patient reported outcome measures: use in medical product development to support labeling claims: draft guidance. *Health Qual Life Outcomes*. 2006;4:79.
255. European Medicines Agency. Committee for medicinal products for human use (CHMP). Reflection paper on the regulatory guidance for the use of health-related quality of life (HRQL) measures in the evaluation of medicinal products. *European Medicines Agency Web site*. 2005. Available at: <http://www.emea.europa.eu/pdfs/human/ewp/13939104en.pdf>. Accessed August 30, 2011.
256. Baiardini I, Braidò F, Bindslev-Jensen C, Bousquet PJ, Brzoza Z, et al. Recommendations for assessing patient-reported outcomes and health-related quality of life in patients with urticaria: a GA(2) LEN taskforce position paper. *Allergy*. 2011;66:840–844.
257. Baiardini I, Giardini A, Pasquali M, Dignetti P, Guerra L, et al. Quality of life and patients' satisfaction in chronic urticaria and respiratory allergy. *Allergy*. 2003;58:621–623.
258. Ozkan M, Oflaz SB, Kocaman D, Ozseker F, Gelincik A, et al. Psychiatric morbidity and quality of life in patients with chronic idiopathic urticaria. *Ann Allergy Asthma*. 2007;99:29–33.
259. Engin B, Uguz F, Yilmaz E, et al. The levels of depression, anxiety and quality of life in patients with chronic idiopathic urticaria. *J Eur Acad Dermatol Venereol*. 2008;22:36–40.

260. Finlay A, Khan GK. Dermatology life quality index (DLQI)—a simple practical measure for routine in clinical use. *Clin Exp Dermatol*. 1994;19:210–216.
261. Chren MM, Lasek RJ, Flocke SA, Zysanski SJ, et al. Improved discriminative and evaluative capability of a refined version of Skindex, a quality-of-life instrument for patients with skin diseases. *Arch Dermatol*. 1997;133:1433–1440.
262. Baiardini I, Pasquali M, Braido F, Fumagalli F, Guerra L, et al. A new tool to evaluate the impact of chronic urticaria on quality of life: chronic urticaria quality of life questionnaire. *Allergy*. 2005;60:1073–1078.
263. Mlynek A, Magerl M, Hanna M, Lhachimi S, Baiardini I, et al. The German version of the chronic urticaria quality-of-life questionnaire: factor analysis, validation, and initial clinical findings. *Allergy*. 2009;64:927–936.
264. Valero A, Herdman M, Bartra J, Ferrer M, Jáuregui I, et al. Adaptation and validation of the Spanish version of the chronic urticaria quality of life questionnaire (CU-Q2oL). *J Investig Allergol Clin Immunol*. 2008;18:426–432.
265. Brzoza Z, Badura-Brzoza K, Mlynek A, Magerl M, Baiardini I, et al. Adaptation and initial results of the Polish version of the GA(2)LEN chronic urticaria quality of life questionnaire (CU-Q(2)oL). *J Dermatol Sci*. 2011;62:36–41.
266. Kocatürk E, Weller K, Martus P, Aktas A, Kavala M, et al. The Turkish version of the chronic urticaria quality-of-life questionnaire: cultural adaptation, assessment of reliability and validity. *Acta Derm Venereol*. 2012;92:419–425.
267. Poon E, Seed PT, Greaves MW, Kobza-Black A. The extent and nature of disability in different urticarial conditions. *Br J Dermatol*. 1999;140:667–671.
268. Staubach P, Eckhardt-Henn A, Dechene M, Vonend A, Metz M, et al. Quality of life in patients with chronic urticaria is differentially impaired and determined by psychiatric comorbidity. *Br J Dermatol*. 2006;154:294–298.
269. Kang MJ, Kim HS, Kim HO, Park YM. The impact of chronic idiopathic urticaria on quality of life in Korean patients. *Ann Dermatol*. 2009;21:226–229.
270. Grob JJ, Auquier P, Dreyfus I, Ortonne JP. How to prescribe antihistamines for chronic idiopathic urticaria: desloratadine daily vs PRN and quality of life. *Allergy*. 2009;64:605–612.
271. Grob JJ, Auquier P, Dreyfus I, Ortonne JP. Quality of life in adults with chronic idiopathic urticaria receiving desloratadine: a randomized, double-blind, multicentre, placebo-controlled study. *J Eur Acad Dermatol Venereol*. 2008;22:87–93.
272. Spector SL, Shikier R, Harding G, Meeves S, Leahy MJ. The effect of fexofenadine hydrochloride on productivity and quality of life in patients with chronic idiopathic urticaria. *Cutis*. 2007;79:157–162.
273. Nettis E, Colanardi MC, Barra L, Ferrannini A, Vacca A, Tursi A. Levocetirizine in the treatment of chronic idiopathic urticaria: a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled study. *Br J Dermatol*. 2006;154:533–538.
274. Kapp A, Pichler WJ. Levocetirizine is an effective treatment in patients suffering from chronic idiopathic urticaria: a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled, parallel, multicenter study. *Int J Dermatol*. 2006;45:469–474.
275. Camarasa JM, Aliaga A, Fernández-Vozmediano JM, Fonseca E, Iglesias L, Tagarro I. Azelastine tablets in the treatment of chronic idiopathic urticaria. Phase III, randomised, double-blind, placebo and active controlled multicentric clinical trial. *Skin Pharmacol Appl Skin Physiol*. 2001;14:77–86.
276. Thompson AK, Finn AF, Schoenwetter WF. Effect of 60 mg twice-daily fexofenadine HCl on quality of life, work and classroom productivity, and regular activity in patients with chronic idiopathic urticaria. *J Am Acad Dermatol*. 2000;43:24–30.
277. Mlynek A, Zalewska-Janowska A, Martus P, Staubach P, Zuberbier T, Maurer M. How to assess disease activity in patients with chronic urticaria? *Allergy*. 2008;63:777–780.
278. Magerl M, Borzova E, Gimenez-Arnau A, Grattan CE, Lawlor F, et al. The definition and diagnostic testing of physical and cholinergic urticarias—EAACI/GA2LEN/EDF/UNEV consensus panel recommendations. *Allergy*. 2009;64:1715–1721.
279. Siebenhaar F, Degener F, Zuberbier T, Martus P, Maurer M. High-dose desloratadine decreases wheal volume and improves cold provocation thresholds compared with standard-dose treatment in patients with acquired cold urticaria: a randomized, placebo-controlled, crossover study. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2009;123:672–679.