

Atopic Dermatitis

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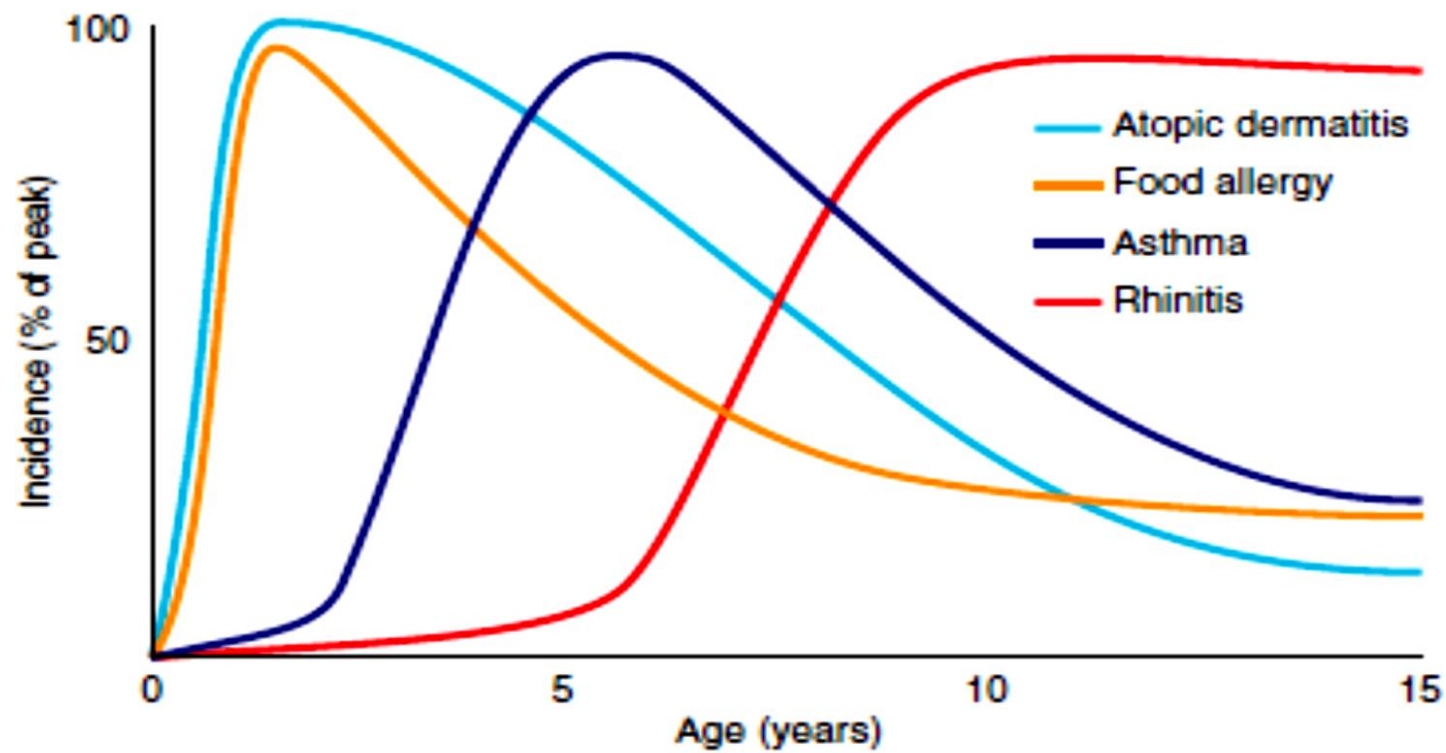
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- **the most common chronic inflammatory skin Disease.**
- pruritus and a chronic or chronically relapsing course, usually beginning during infancy (early onset) but occasionally first developing in adulthood (late onset).
- a complex genetic disease and is often accompanied by other atopic disorders such as *allergic rhinoconjunctivitis* , *asthma*, *food allergies*, and less often *eosinophilic esophagitis*. These conditions may appear simultaneously or develop in succession.
- **AD** and **food allergy** have a predilection for **infants** and **young children**, while **asthma** favors **older children** and **rhinoconjunctivitis** predominates in **adolescents**.
- This characteristic age-dependent sequence is referred to as the **“atopic march”** .
- Given that atopic disease progression starts with AD, management should not be concentrated solely on **the treatment of acute flares**, but also be directed towards **ameliorating the underlying genetically determined epidermal barrier dysfunction and preventing active dermatitis via maintenance therapy**. Such an approach could potentially block the sensitizations and ongoing inflammation that drive the atopic march!!





- The term “atopy” originates from the Greek word atopos meaning **strange** or **unusual**.
- The association of **AD** with **allergic rhinitis** and **asthma** was recognized by Besnier in **1892**.
- ATOPY was first applied to this triad in the **1920s**.



PATHOGENESIS

The pathogenesis of AD can be divided into three major categories:

(1) epidermal barrier dysfunction

(2) immune dysregulation

(3) alteration of the microbiome

Each of these can be modulated by **genetic** and **environmental** factors.



Genetic Factors

- Genetic factors account for **~90%** of susceptibility to **early-onset AD**, with a significantly higher concordance rate in monozygotic twins **(77%)** compared to dizygotic twins **(15%)**.
- Although the entities in the atopic triad cluster together in families, a **parental history of AD** is a stronger risk factor for the development of AD than either asthma or allergic rhinitis, supporting the existence of genes specific to AD susceptibility.
- AD is a complex genetic disease, and both **gene – gene** and **gene–environment** interactions have important roles.



Candidate gene(s)	Defective protein(s)
<i>Genes encoding epidermal proteins</i>	
<i>FLG</i>	Filaggrin (loss-of-function variants; see text)
<i>FLG2</i>	Filaggrin family member 2
<i>SPINK5</i>	Serine protease inhibitor LETKI
<i>KLK5/SCTE, KLK7/SCCE</i>	Kallikrein-related peptidases 5 & 7/stratum comeum tryptic & chymotryptic enzymes
<i>CLDN1</i>	Claudin-1
<i>SPRR3</i>	Small proline-rich protein 3
<i>TMEM79</i>	Transmembrane protein 79 (matttrin)

<i>Genes encoding immunologic proteins</i>	
<i>FCER1A</i>	Fc fragment of high-affinity IgE receptor I, α chain
<i>TLR2, 4, 6, 9</i>	Toll-like receptor-2, -4, -6, and -9
<i>IRF2</i>	Interferon regulatory factor 2
<i>IL4, 5, 12B, 13, 18, 31</i>	Interleukin-4, -5, -12B, -13, -18, and -31
<i>IL4RA, IL5RA, IL13RA</i>	Interleukin-4, -5, and -13 receptors, α subunits
<i>GM-CSF</i>	Granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor
<i>CD14</i>	Monocyte differentiation antigen CD14
<i>DEFB1</i>	β -defensin 1
<i>GSTP1</i>	Glutathione S-transferase P1
<i>CMA1</i>	Mast cell chymase
<i>CCL5/RANTES</i>	Chemokine (C-C motif) ligand 5/RANTES
<i>TSLP</i>	Thymic stromal lymphopoietin
<i>MIF</i>	Macrophage migration inhibitory factor
<i>VDR</i>	Vitamin D receptor
<i>CYP27A1, CYP2R1</i>	Cytochrome p450 family members 27A1 and 2R1



Epidermal Barrier Dysfunction

- A defective epidermal permeability barrier represents **a consistent feature** of AD and is evident in the **nonlesional** as well as **lesional** skin of affected individuals.
- A higher level of TEWL, **an indicator of barrier dysfunction**, on day 2 of life predicts an increased risk of AD at 1 year of age.
- the level of TEWL in the **nonlesional skin of children with AD** correlates with **disease severity**.
- Epidermal barrier dysfunction permits an easier entry for irritants, allergens and microbes, which trigger immune responses that include the release of proinflammatory cytokines.
- In infants, **greater TEWL** is associated with an increased likelihood of **epicutaneous sensitization to aeroallergens**, which could potentially play a role in the development of **asthma** and **allergic rhinoconjunctivitis**.



Factors that contribute to the impaired cutaneous barrier in AD



Filaggrin and other structural proteins

Filaggrin is a keratin filament-aggregating protein that serves as a major structural component of the stratum corneum. Loss-of-function FLG mutation represent **the strongest known genetic risk factor** for AD and are also responsible for ichthyosis vulgaris.

Approximately **20–50%** of European and Asian children with **moderate-to-severe** AD have at least one FLG mutation.

the penetrance of AD is **~40%** for one and **~90%** for two mutant alleles.

This implicates epidermal barrier dysfunction in the initiation of AD with subsequent development of Th2-biased immune responses.

Of note, filaggrin expression is also affected by **intragenic copy number variation** and reduced by **increased local pH, protease activity**, and **Th2 cytokine levels**.



- FLG mutations are associated with **early-onset AD**, **greater disease severity**, and **persistence into adulthood** as well as **enhanced epicutaneous sensitization** and an increased risk of **irritant contact dermatitis**, **hand eczema**, **herpes simplex virus (HSV) infections**, and **food allergy**.
- FLG mutations have also been linked to an increased risk for the development of **asthma** and **greater asthma severity**; however, these effects are only seen in patients with **pre-existing AD**.
- Since filaggrin is not found in the gastrointestinal or bronchial mucosa, the association of FLG mutations with food allergy and asthma strongly suggests that **epicutaneous sensitization and/or cutaneous inflammation** can contribute to the development of systemic atopic disease.



- Filaggrin breakdown products such as **histidine** contribute to **epidermal hydration, acid mantle formation, lipid processing, and barrier function.**
- Gene expression profiling and immunohistochemical analysis of lesional and nonlesional skin from AD patients have shown broad defects in terminal differentiation, with down-regulation of other epidermal barrier proteins such as **loricrin, corneodesmosin, involucrin, small proline rich proteins 3/4, claudin-1, and late cornified envelope protein 2B.**



Stratum corneum lipids

- The **composition**, **organization**, and **biochemical processing** of stratum corneum lipids are critical determinants of epidermal permeability barrier function .
- In AD, a filaggrin-deficient cytoskeletal scaffold contributes to **abnormal loading** and **secretion of lamellar bodies**, with subsequent defects in **post-secretory lipid organization** and **processing**.
- Disruption of the **skin's acidic mantle** leads to reduced activity of lipid-processing enzymes such as **β -glucocerebrosidase** and **acid sphingomyelinase**.
- Th2 cytokines also **negatively** affect generation of stratum corneum lipid components.



Proteases and protease inhibitors

- Lesional AD skin demonstrates **elevated levels** of **endogenous serine proteases**, e.g. kallikrein 5 and 7 (KLK5/7), due to an imbalance in the activities of these proteolytic enzymes and protease inhibitors such as the lymphoepithelial Kazal-type trypsin inhibitor (LEKTI) encoded by SPINK5.
- **Biallelic loss-of-function SPINK5** mutations underlies **Netherton syndrome**, which features **profoundly compromised barrier function** and **atopy**.
- Other factors that enhance proteolysis include **increased skin surface pH** and **exogenous proteases from allergens** (e.g. house dust mites, pollens), **Staphylococcus aureus**, and **Malassezia**.



- The **LEKTI deficiency** results in excessive degradation of the **corneodesmosomal component desmoglein-1 (Dsg1)**, causing abnormal stratum corneum detachment and thereby disrupting the epidermal barrier.
- The **S. aureus extracellular V8 protease**, which has a sequence similar to those of **S. aureus exfoliative toxins**, is also thought to degrade **Dsg1**.
- In addition, unrestrained protease activity leads to **degradation of lipid-processing enzymes** and **antimicrobial peptides** as well as **activation of proinflammatory cytokines**.



Immune Dysregulation

- The **innate** and **adaptive** immune systems play dynamic interrelated roles in the pathogenesis of AD.
- Acute AD lesions have a predominance of **Th2 cytokines**, but there is subsequent evolution to a chronic phase characterized by **Th1** and **Th22 cytokine profiles**, as well as **variable levels of Th17 cytokines in both acute and chronic AD**.
- The **acute phase** features **IL-4, IL-5, and IL-13; activation of eosinophils and mast cells; and production of allergen-specific IgE**.
- Keratinocyte-derived cytokines including **IL-1, thymic stromal lymphopoietin (TSLP), IL-25(IL-17E), and IL-33** promote a Th2 immune response.
- Th2 cytokines inhibit expression of major terminal differentiation proteins such as **loricrin, filaggrin, and involucrin** as well as **β -defensin-2/3 antimicrobial peptides**.



Thymic stromal lymphopoietin (TSLP)

- TSLP is an **IL-7-like cytokine** that is known as the “**master-switch of allergic inflammation**” due to its central role in evoking a Th2 response via dendritic cell activation.
- Exposure to **allergens, viral infections, trauma**, and **other cytokines (e.g. IL-1 β , TNF)** can trigger TSLP production by **keratinocytes, fibroblasts**, and **mast cells**.
- TSLP is highly expressed in **acute** and **chronic** lesions of AD, but not in the **nonlesional** skin of patients with AD or in **unaffected individuals**.



IL-4 and IL-13

- IL-4 has a key role in driving **Th2 cell differentiation**, **IgE production**, and **eosinophil recruitment**.
- Transgenic mice overexpressing IL-4 in their epidermis develop **atopic dermatitis-like lesions**, **pruritus**, **an altered microbiome**, and **elevated IgE levels**.
- The heterodimeric receptors for IL-4 and IL-13 both contain the IL-4 receptor α subunit and activate signal transducer and activator of transcription 6 (STAT6), which promotes the differentiation of **naïve T cells** into **Th2 effector cells**. Although IL-4 and IL-13 share 25% sequence homology and effector functions, studies in human subjects and human keratinocyte cell lines support an independent role for IL-13 in AD pathogenesis.
- **Anti-IL-4/13 therapy with dupilumab**, a monoclonal antibody that targets the IL-4R α , is FDA-approved **for the treatment of AD**.



Other cytokines

- Th17 cells are important in the regulation of **innate immunity**, in particular **neutrophil recruitment**, and have also been implicated in **allergic disorders**.
- Th17 cells are found in **acute** as well as **chronic** AD lesions, and production of **IL-17** and **IL-19** is especially characteristic of **new-onset pediatric AD**.
- IL-31 is a **Th2 cytokine** that is highly expressed in lesions of **AD** and other pruritic skin disorders such as **prurigo nodularis**.
- Cutaneous exposure to staphylococcal super antigen rapidly induces IL-31 expression in atopic individuals, establishing a link between staphylococcal colonization of the skin and pruritus. The heterodimeric receptor for IL-31 is expressed by **keratinocytes**, **eosinophils**, **activated macrophages**, **cutaneous C nerve fibers**, and **dorsal root ganglia**.
- A randomized, placebo-controlled study showed that **nemolizumab**, a humanized monoclonal antibody against the IL-31 receptor A subunit, can significantly reduce pruritus in patients with moderate to severe AD.
- IL-33, **a member of the IL-1 cytokine family**, protects against helminth infection by promoting a Th2-type immune response. IL-33 expression is increased in **AD lesions** compared to **the skin of unaffected individuals**.



Innate lymphoid cells

- The innate lymphoid cell (ILC) family includes **natural killer cells** and three groups of **non-cytotoxic ILCs** that orchestrate **immunity**, **inflammation**, and **homeostasis** in multiple tissues.
- The group 2 ILC (ILC2) population is expanded in AD lesions and stimulated by **TSLP**, **IL-25 (IL-17E)**, and **IL-33**.
- ILC2s interact with other immune cells (e.g. **mast cells**, **eosinophils**) in the skin to promote **Th2-type inflammation** in a **T-cell independent manner**.



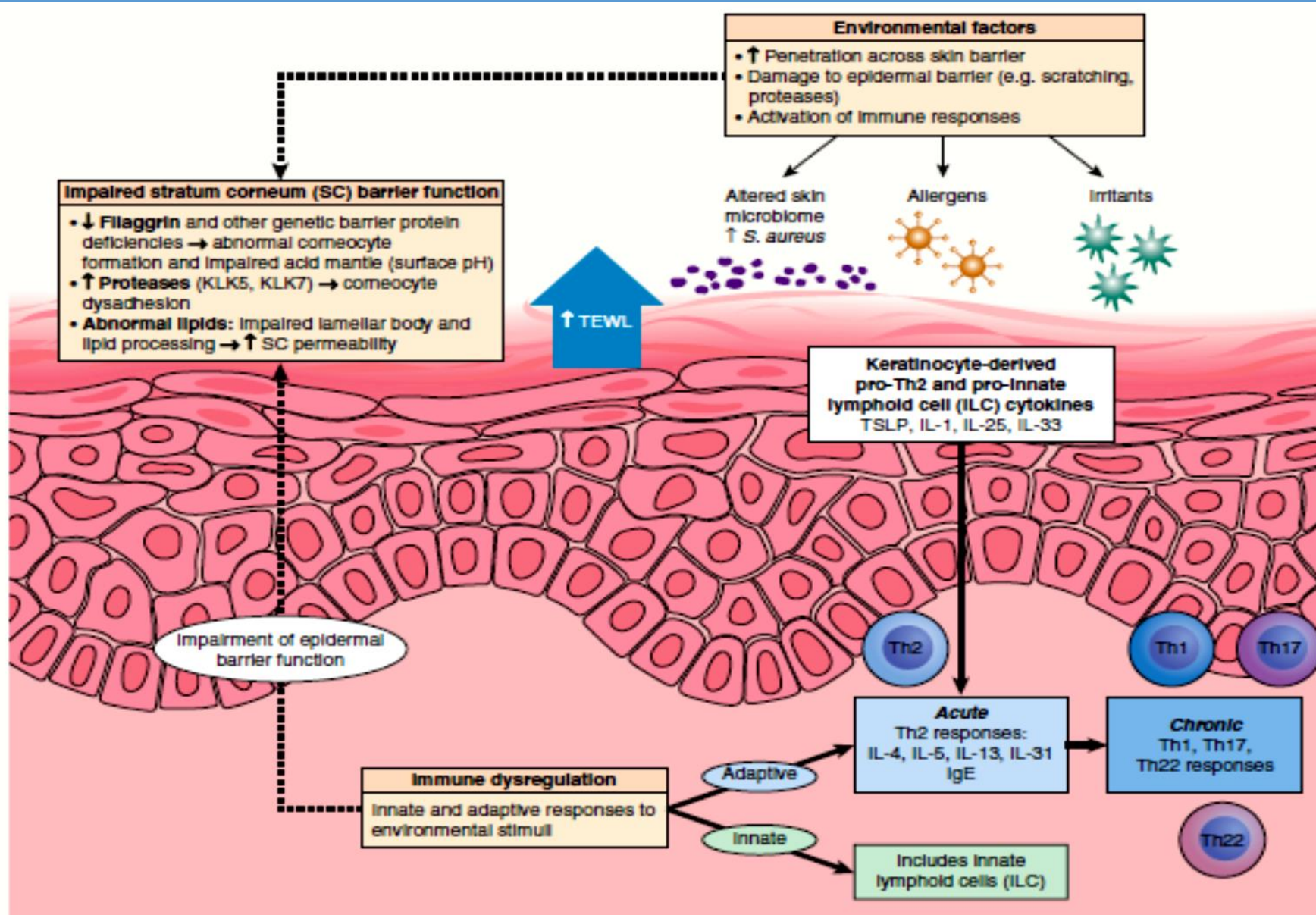
The Cutaneous Microbiome

- More than **90% of patients with AD** have skin colonized with *S. aureus*, compared to about **5% of unaffected individuals**, presumably reflecting the **disrupted acid mantle**, **decreased antimicrobial peptides** (e.g. cathelicidins, defensins), and **altered cytokine milieu** of AD skin.
- During AD flares, bacterial diversity **decreases** and the proportion of the microbiome accounted for by *Staphylococcus* spp. **increases** from ~35% to ~90%. Superantigens can promote the development of a Th2 immune response, and **exotoxins** with **superantigenic properties** are produced by up to 65% of the *S. aureus* strains that colonize AD patients.



- In addition, the **S. aureus δ -toxin** stimulates **mast cell degranulation** and **Th2 inflammation**.
- Filaggrin deficiency also increases the susceptibility of keratinocytes to S. aureus **α -toxin-induced cytotoxicity**.
- Alterations in the skin microbiome of AD patients related to the use of **cleansers** and topical **immunomodulatory** or **antimicrobial** agents may have potential effects on cutaneous inflammation and barrier function.
- In addition, topical administration of coagulase negative Staphylococcus strains with antimicrobial activity has been shown to markedly reduce S. aureus colonization in AD patients, providing the basis for **bacteriotherapy** as a potential AD treatment.







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