

Atopic Dermatitis Pathophysiology

- Atopic dermatitis (AD) has a **complex and multifactorial etiology** that includes a strong genetic component and multiple environmental risk factors^{1,2}
- Gene mutations resulting in loss of function in the structural epidermis protein **filaggrin (FLG)** are the most consistently reported gene variants in patients with AD^{1,3,4}
- Several **environmental components** are considered risk factors for developing AD, such as household hygiene products and exposure to air pollution, extreme temperatures, and ultraviolet radiation^{3,5}



Functional disruption in the skin barrier is attributed to FLG loss-of-function mutations, inflammation, and physical damage induced by scratching¹

20% to 40%

20% to 40% of patients with AD carry the *FLG* loss-of-function mutation¹

up to 5x

Individuals with a loss-of-function mutation in the *FLG* gene have a **3- to 5-times** greater risk of developing AD compared with individuals who do not carry the mutation¹



AD has a complex etiology that involves interactions between damaged epidermal barrier, skin microbiome abnormalities, inflammation, and neuronal dysregulation^{1,3,6-11}

In AD, there is aberrant neuroimmune communication between sensory neurons, keratinocytes, and inflammatory cytokines, resulting in itch, inflammation, and epithelial dysfunction that contribute to the disease pathogenesis^{1,9-11}



Keratinocytes



Sensory neurons



Inflammatory mediators

AD is associated with skin microbiome abnormalities, with ***STAPHYLOCOCCUS AUREUS*** being the dominant pathogen and microbial colonizer⁷

In AD, there is a *Staphylococcus aureus* colonization rate of **70%** on lesioned skin, compared with **39%** on nonlesional skin⁷

Nerve sensitization:

Neuroimmune cytokines, including IL-31, induce distinct transcription programs in sensory neurons that result in nerve elongation and branching. The increased neuronal network density contributes to neuronal sensitization and increased sensitivity to minimal stimuli and continuous itch¹²



Itch is one of the main components of AD pathophysiology. There are 2 pathways resulting in itch in patients with AD



Inflammation:

Keratinocytes, mast cells, immune cells, and small sensory-nerve fibers in the skin release pruritogens, including IL-4, IL-13, and IL-31, inducing itch sensation in the epidermal layers of the skin³

Activated T cells and overactivation of the inflammatory response result in the release of inflammatory mediators, including IL-4, IL-13, and IL-31, into the skin, which activate downstream Janus kinase (JAK) pathways and contribute significantly to the pathogenesis of the disease^{3,8}

AD Treatment Options

There are multiple factors affecting treatment selection for AD³:

- ✓ Clinical stage of the disease (mild to severe)
- ✓ Extent of body surface area affected
- ✓ Age of the patient
- ✓ Comorbidities
- ✓ Medications used
- ✓ Severity of itch
- ✓ Quality of life of the patient
- ✓ Patient goals

Use of emollients and avoidance of trigger factors and infections are advised for all disease stages³

Use of topical immuno-suppressants is often the first approach to managing AD³

Ultraviolet (UV) therapy may be used for moderate cases of AD in adults only and not in children and young adults, as long-term exposure to UV light is associated with increased risk of skin cancer development³

Systemic immuno-suppressants, including glucocorticoids, methotrexate, and cyclosporine, have been used for the treatment of moderate to severe AD^{3,*}

Novel therapies, including biologics and JAK inhibitors, can be considered for the treatment of AD³

**These agents do not target the immunological pathway of the disease, and long-term use can cause serious side effects, including kidney and liver dysfunction.³*

Unmet Need

The currently available systemic treatments for AD show improvements in symptoms, but there are still many patients who do not achieve symptom relief¹³⁻¹⁵

Conventional therapies, such as topical agents and phototherapy, can be effective in treating AD for the short term but have not been able to fully meet the needs of patients suffering from moderate to severe AD^{1,13,16}

Targeting aberrant mediators and cytokines involved in the underlying pathophysiology of disease may be a promising path to treat AD³

References:

1. Langan SM, Irvine AD, Weidinger S. Atopic dermatitis. *Lancet*. 2020;396(10247):345-360. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(20)31286-1
2. Thomsen SF. Atopic dermatitis: natural history, diagnosis, and treatment. *Int Sch Res Notices*. 2014;2014:354250. doi:10.1155/2014/354250
3. Ständer S. Atopic dermatitis. *N Engl J Med*. 2021;384(12):1136-1143. doi:10.1056/NEJMra2023911
4. Palmer CN, Irvine AD, Terron-Kwiatkowski A, et al. Common loss-of-function variants of the epidermal barrier protein filaggrin are a major predisposing factor for atopic dermatitis. *Nat Genet*. 2006;38(4):441-446. doi:10.1038/ng1767
5. Patella V, Florio G, Palmieri M, et al. Atopic dermatitis severity during exposure to air pollutants and weather changes with an Artificial Neural Network (ANN) analysis. *Pediatr Allergy Immunol*. 2020;31(8):938-945. doi:10.1111/pai.13314
6. Seidenari S, Giusti G. Objective assessment of the skin of children affected by atopic dermatitis: a study of pH, capacitance and TEWL in eczematous and clinically uninvolved skin. *Acta Derm Venereol*. 1995;75(6):429-433. doi:10.2340/000155575429433
7. Totté JE, van der Feltz WT, Hennekam M, van Belkum A, van Zuuren EJ, Pasmans SG. Prevalence and odds of *Staphylococcus aureus* carriage in atopic dermatitis: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Br J Dermatol*. 2016;175(4):687-695. doi:10.1111/bjd.1456
8. Boothe WD, Tarbox JA, Tarbox MB. Atopic dermatitis: pathophysiology. *Adv Exp Med Biol*. 2017;1027:21-37. doi:10.1007/978-3-319-64804-0_3
9. Kim J, Kim B, Leung D. Pathophysiology of atopic dermatitis: clinical implications. *Allergy Asthma Proc*. 2019;40(2):84-92. doi:10.2500/aap.2019.40.4202
10. Oetjen LK, Mack MR, Feng J, et al. Sensory neurons co-opt classical immune signaling pathways to mediate chronic itch. *Cell*. 2017;171(1):217-228. doi:10.1016/j.cell.2017.08.006
11. Mack MR, Kim BS. The itch-scratch cycle: a neuroimmune perspective. *Trends Immunol*. 2018;39(12):980-991. doi:10.1016/j.it.2018.10.001
12. Feld M, Garcia R, Buddenkotte J, et al. The pruritus- and TH2-associated cytokine IL-31 promotes growth of sensory nerves. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2016;138(2):500-508.e24. doi:10.1016/j.jaci.2016.02.020
13. Sidbury R, Davis DM, Cohen DE, et al. Guidelines of care for the management of atopic dermatitis: section 3. Management and treatment with phototherapy and systemic agents. *J Am Acad Dermatol*. 2014;71(2):327-349. doi:10.1016/j.jaad.2014.03.030
14. Simpson EL, Bieber T, Guttman-Yassky E, et al. Two phase 3 trials of dupilumab versus placebo in atopic dermatitis. *N Engl J Med*. 2016;375(24):2335-2348. doi:10.1056/NEJMoa1610020
15. Nezamololama N, Fieldhouse K, Metzger K, Gooderham M. Emerging systemic JAK inhibitors in the treatment of atopic dermatitis: a review of abrocitinib, baricitinib, and upadacitinib. *Drugs Context*. 2020;9:2020-8-5. doi:10.7573/dic.2020-8-5
16. Katoh N, Ohya Y, Ikeda M, et al. Clinical practice guidelines for the management of atopic dermatitis 2018. *J Dermatol*. 2019;46(12):1053-1101. doi:10.1111/1346-8138.15090

GALDERMA

For healthcare professionals only.

©2022 Galderma Holding SA. All Rights Reserved.
All trademarks are the property of their respective owners.

GL-NAD-2200047 August 2022