



Relationship between Serum 25-Hydroxyvitamin D₃ Level and Severity of Atopic Dermatitis

Thesis

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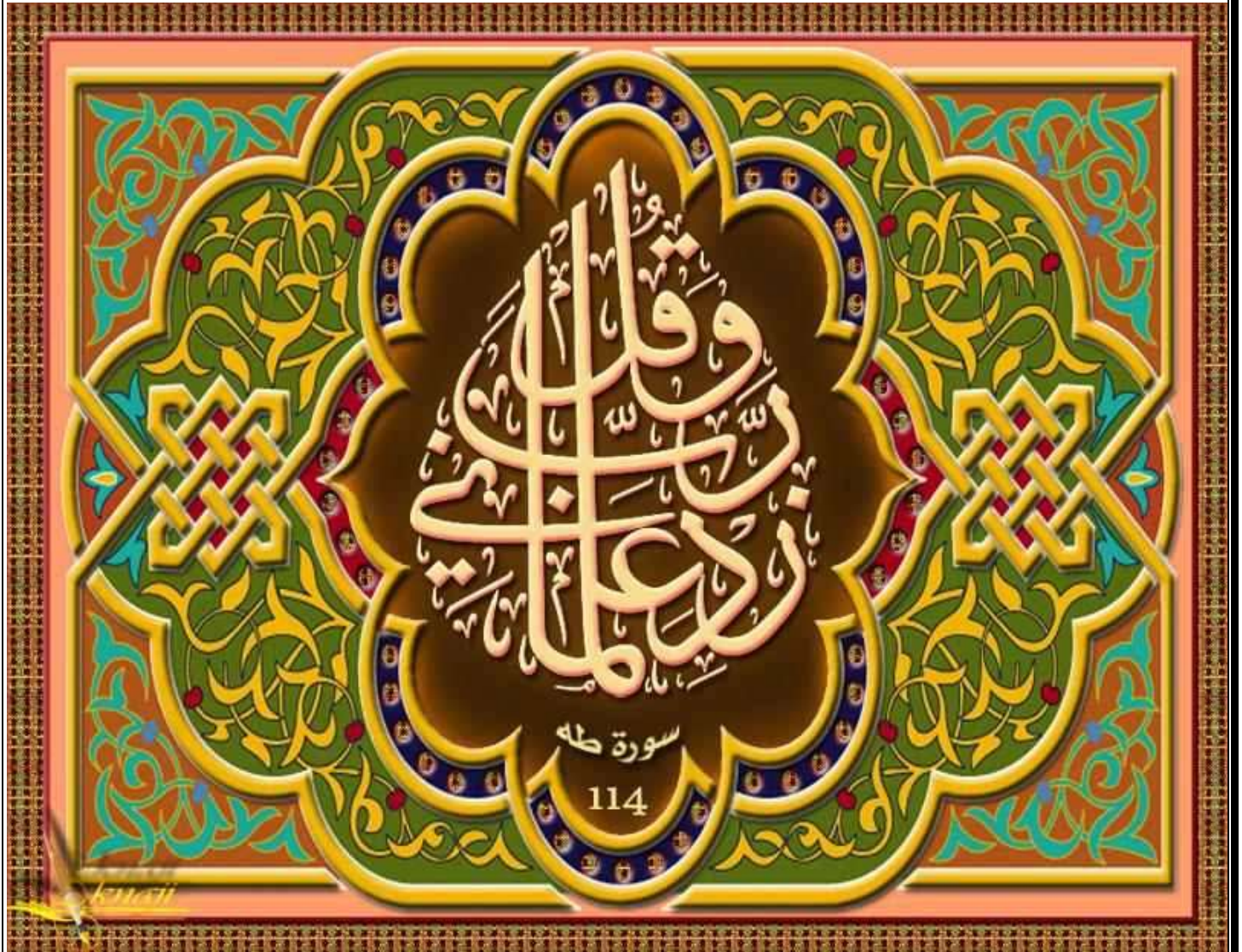
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ABBREVIATIONS

7 DHC: 7 dehydrocholesterol

[1,25(OH)₂ D₃]: 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D₃

AD: atopic dermatitis

ADASI score: Atopic Dermatitis Area and Severity Index score

ALP: alkaline phosphatase

AMP: anti-microbial peptides.

ANOVA: Analysis of Variance

AR: allergic rhinitis

AT: atopic triad

BA: bronchial asthma

BCSS score: Basic Clinical Scoring System

CCL: chemokines ligands

CCR: chemokine receptor

CD: cluster of differentiation

CLA: cutaneous lymphocyte-associated antigen

CPDs: cyclobutane pyrimidine dimers

CYP27B1 gene: cytochrome P450, family 27, subfamily B, polypeptide 1

DCs: dendritic cells

DNA: Deoxyribonucleic acid

DRIs: Dietary Reference Intakes

FLG: filaggrin gene

FNB: Food and Nutrition Board

GM-CSF: granulocyte-macrophage colony stimulating factor

HBD2: human β -defensin-2

HPLC: high performance liquid chromatography

HSV: herpes simplex virus

ICAM: intercellular adhesion molecule

IDEC: inflammatory dendritic epidermal cells.

IFN- γ : interferon- γ
IgE: immunoglobulin E
IUs: International Units
LC-MS: liquid chromatography-mass spectroscopy
LCs: Langerhans cells
Mcg: micrograms
MCs: mast cells
MDC: macrophage-derived chemokine
NESS score: Nottingham eczema severity score
NF- κ B: necrosis factor kappa beta.
Ng/mL: Nano gram per milliliter
NKc: natural killer cell
NO: nitric oxide
PBMCs: peripheral blood mononuclear cells
PDGF: platelet derived growth factor
PTH parathyroid hormone
QOL: Quality of Life
RANTES: regulated and normal T cell expressed and secreted.
RASTs: radio-allergo-immunosorbent tests
RDA: Recommended Dietary Allowance
S. aureus: Staph aureus
Sag: superantigen
SC: stratum corneum
SCORAD: SCORing Atopic Dermatitis
s-ECP: surface eosinophilic cationic proteins
sIL-2R: soluble IL-2 receptor
SPSS: Statistical Package for social science
TARC: thymus and activation-regulated chemokine
TCIs: topical calcineurin inhibitors
TGF- β : tumour growth factor- β

Th: T helper

TIS score: Three Item Severity Score

TLRs: toll like receptors

TMB: tetramethylbenzidine

TNF- α : tumor necrosis factor- α

Tr1: T-regulatory type 1

Treg: Regulatory T cells

TSLP: thymic stromal lymphopoietin

UVA: ultraviolet A radiation

UVB: ultraviolet B radiation

VCAM: vascular cell adhesion molecule

VDBP: vitamin D binding protein

VDRs: vitamin D receptors

VV: vaccinia virus

1. Introduction

Atopic dermatitis (AD) is a highly pruritic disease that usually starts in early infancy, though an adult-onset variant is recognized. Usually it is the first disease to present in a series of atopic triad allergic diseases which include bronchial asthma, and allergic rhinitis (hay fever) as well as AD in order has given rise to the “atopic march” theory, which suggests that AD is part of a progression that may lead to subsequent allergic disease at other epithelial barrier surfaces (*Carlsten et al., 2013*).

The immune dysregulation of AD involves a complex of immunological cascade, including disruption of the epidermal barrier, immunoglobulin E (IgE) dysregulation and a defect in the cutaneous cell mediated immune response (*Hoare et al., 2000*).

The role of vitamin D in calcium homeostasis has been well recognized. Recently, studies have identified additional influences of vitamin D on the immune system and several lines of evidence suggest a possible influence of vitamin D on prevalence of allergic diseases even though results are still conflicting (*Miller and Gallo, 2010*).

Vitamin D metabolism begins both through absorption in the skin as vitamin D₃ (cholecalciferol) and absorption through the gut as either vitamin D₂ (ergocalciferol) or vitamin D₃. Cholecalciferol and ergocalciferol are then metabolized in the liver to 25-hydroxyvitamin-D [25(OH) D], which the vitamin D pro-hormone is usually used to measure vitamin D levels clinically (*Thacher and Clarke, 2011*).

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Vitamin D plays key roles in innate and adaptive immunity through the stimulation of Toll-like receptors, increasing pro-inflammatory cytokine production, and possibly enhancing T helper type 2 responses (*Benson et al., 2012*).

These mechanisms may explain the growing body of evidence connecting vitamin D to allergic diseases, including asthma, food allergies, and allergic rhinitis. The data relating vitamins D to allergic skin diseases are equivocal with studies linking both high and low vitamin D levels to an increased risk of developing AD (*Benson et al., 2012*).

Keratinocytes possess the enzymatic apparatus to produce calcitriol, the active compound of vitamin D, from the precursor 7-dehydrocholesterol under the influence of ultraviolet (UVB) radiation. In in vitro studies, vitamin D3 (calcitriol) has been shown to induce cathelicidin expression in keratinocytes that enhances antimicrobial activity against *S. aureus* and selectively reduces cutaneous lymphocyte-associated antigen expression (*Schauber et al., 2006*).

It has been shown that cathelicidin does not influence lymphocyte migration patterns to other tissues, thus specifically decreasing T-lymphocyte homing into the skin. Oral administration of vitamin D3 induces production of cathelicidin in atopic individuals, while UVB radiation induces the expression of antimicrobial peptides in human keratinocytes in vivo, and a recent experiment confirmed improved AD among Norwegian children who were randomly selected to stay on a subtropical island for 1 month as compared with staying in Norway (*Yamanaka et al., 2010*).

Back et al. (2010) have demonstrated that a higher vitamin D3 intake during the first year of life was significantly correlated to atopic manifestations at 6 years of age.

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However, it has also been shown that infants born from mothers with low vitamin D intake or low fish consumption during pregnancy present an increased prevalence of atopic dermatitis (AD) (*Myalil and Thomas, 2010*).

Moreover, cross-sectional studies have shown a greater risk of AD in infants born in autumn and winter compared with those born in spring and summer; in addition, there is a latitude effect on the prevalence of AD in children (*Weiland et al., 2004*).

Also five-fold increase in the likelihood of AD was found in patients with vitamin D deficiency compared with their counterparts (*Oren et al., 2008*).

Furthermore, *Sidbury et al. (2008)* reported beneficial effects on AD from oral supplementation with vitamin D in a small sample size of children with winter-related worsening of AD.

2.Aim of the work

The aim of the study was to estimate the serum level of 25-hydroxyvitamin D₃ in patients with atopic dermatitis and its relationship with the severity of the disease which was assessed by SCORAD index.

3.1. Vitamin D

3.1.1. Physiology of vitamin D

Vitamin D includes D₃ (Cholecalciferol) and D₂ (Ergocalciferol) collectively known as Calciferol. Vitamin D₃ is formed in the skin by the action of UVB on 7 dehydrocholesterol (7DHC) or is ingested. Vitamin D₂ mainly comes from plant sources. Vitamin D₃ and D₂ are hydroxylated in the liver by 25-hydroxylase to 25-hydroxyvitamin D (25-OHD) or calcidiol. This is the major circulating form of vitamin D and is the target for assays measuring vitamin D status. Calcidiol is further hydroxylated in the kidneys and other tissues to the active hormone 1 α , 25-dihydroxyvitamin D [1 α , 25(OH)₂ D] or calcitriol. Renal production of calcitriol is regulated by parathyroid hormone (PTH), hypophosphataemia, hypocalcaemia and growth hormone (*Benson et al., 2012*).

Vitamin D from the diet or dermal synthesis is biologically inactive and requires enzymatic conversion to active metabolites. Vitamin D is converted to 25-hydroxyvitamin D, the major circulating form of vitamin D, and then to 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D, the active form of vitamin D, by enzymes in the liver and kidney. 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D binds to the intracellular vitamin D receptor to activate vitamin D response elements within target genes. The half-life of 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D is four to six hours, compared with two to three weeks for 25-hydroxyvitamin D and 24 hours for parent vitamin D (*Pearce and Cheeetham, 2010*).

3.1.2. Sources of vitamin D

The major natural source of vitamin D is sun exposure, with a small amount coming from the diet (Table 1). For white populations 20-30 minutes of