



## Management of Infections in Psoriatic Patients Treated with Systemic Therapies: A Lesson from the Immunopathogenesis of Psoriasis

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**ABSTRACT** Modern treatments continue to be developed based on identifying targets within the innate and adaptive immune pathways associated with psoriasis. Whilst there is a sound biologic rationale for increased risk of infection following treatment with immunomodulators, the clinical evidence is confounded by these agents being used in patients affected with several comorbidities. In an era characterized by an ever greater and growing risk of infections, it is necessary to always be updated on this risk. In this mini-review, we will discuss recent updates in psoriasis immunopathogenesis as a rationale for systemic therapy, outline the risk of infections linked to the disease itself and systemic therapy as well, and provide an overview of the prevention and management of infections.

## Introduction

In the last decade, our understanding of psoriasis pathogenesis made significant steps forwards leading to the development of multiple game-changer therapies [1]. Although we can confidently say that the horizon is now a little brighter, we cannot argue that “the whole job” has been done. The advent of therapies targeting specific components of the immune response has highlighted the possible association of infections with psoriasis. Whilst there is a sound biologic rationale for increased risk of infection following treatment with immunomodulators, the clinical evidence is confounded by these agents being used in moderate-to-severe psoriasis in association with several comorbidities. In this article, we summarize the available information on the risk of infections, including the respiratory ones, linked to psoriasis and immunomodulators as well. Lastly, we provide an overview of the prevention and management of infections in psoriatic patients on immunomodulatory therapies.

### Immunopathogenesis of Psoriasis: An Update

Psoriasis has been primarily defined as an autoimmune, T-cell-mediated disease with dysregulated inflammatory response that is composed of both innate and adaptive immunity [1-4]. Other factors such as environmental ones and genetic susceptibility are also involved [4,5]. Several gene loci are associated with psoriasis, such as HLA-Cw6 and PSORS1-9, providing initial evidence of a possibly (auto) immune component [6,7]. However, ~ 60 loci identified contain genes involved in the immune system at large and the interleukin (IL)-23/T helper (Th)17 pathway in particular [8,9]. IL-17A is the most studied cytokine of the psoriatic IL-23/Th17 cell pathogenic axis and is claimed to be directly responsible for the development of the psoriatic lesion [10,11]. It does not act as a single cytokine but exerts its function in a complex cytokine network which includes IL-19, IL-22, IL-23, tumor necrosis factor (TNF)- $\alpha$  and several IL-1 family members [12-15]. IL-17A is not exclusively produced by Th17 cells in the lesion, but possibly also by several other cells: such as  $\gamma\delta$  T cells, type 3 innate lymphoid cells (ILC3s) and invariant natural killer (iNK)T cells, and other thymus-independent cells, including mast cells and neutrophils [16-19]. Besides IL-17A, the immune-derived IL-17F, the epithelial-derived IL-17C and IL-17E, have all been shown to independently participate in psoriasiform inflammation in murine models [20-22]. Interestingly, the inhibition of the IL-17A/IL-23 axis might potentially lead to the enhancement of other IL-17 cytokine members, particularly the epithelial-derived cytokines. A better assessment of the different sources and the possible IL-17 substitute cytokines is critical to better understand the mechanism of action of

the current IL-23/IL-17-targeted therapies, possibly helping to explain unwanted effects or secondary loss of efficacy.

### Psoriasis and Skin Infection

Psoriatic lesions show a disturbed skin barrier function, similar to the affected skin of patients with atopic dermatitis (AD) [23-24]. This altered epidermal barrier facilitates the penetration of bacteria and viruses into the skin and should lead to an increased incidence of cutaneous infections. However, the frequency of skin infections is impressively under-represented in patients with psoriasis [25, 26]. The main reason for this clinical observation is the specific increase in the levels of antimicrobial peptides (AMPs) and antiviral peptides (AVPs) within the epidermis of psoriatic lesions [14, 27-29]. Correspondingly, the enhancement of AMPs and AVPs in the affected skin of AD patients is only minimal and these patients often suffer from bacterial and viral skin infections. The mostly up-regulated AMPs in psoriatic skin are human  $\beta$ -defensin (HBD)-2, S100A7 (psoriasin) and to a lesser extent HBD-3, S100A8 (calgranulin A), S100A9 (calgranulin B), and lipocalin (LCN)-2 [27, 30-32]. The spectrum of affected microbes differs among the diverse AMPs. For example, S100A7 is primarily an *E. coli*-killing antimicrobial peptide, whereas HBD-3 exhibits a broad spectrum of antimicrobial activity against various Gram-negative and Gram-positive bacteria as well as fungi [33]. AMPs inhibit propagation and kill microbes through various mechanisms such as destabilization of their membrane or sequestering metal ions [33, 34]. Most of the AMPs are constitutively expressed at low levels in keratinocytes and might be strongly up-regulated by cytokines under inflammatory conditions. The powerful inducers of AMPs in epithelial cells are IL-17 and IL-22 [31, 35]. However, the synergistic action of both cytokines is essential for the strong induction of AMPs in keratinocytes [36, 37]. In psoriatic lesions, this effect might be amplified by TNF- $\alpha$ , interferon (IFN)- $\gamma$ , IL-19, and IL-36s [15, 37-39]. Interestingly, the joint action of IL-22 and TNF- $\alpha$  seems to be relevant for the maintenance of epidermal integrity during infection with *Candida albicans* [38]. The up-regulated AVPs in psoriatic lesions comprise OAS2, BST2 (tetherin), MX1, and ISG15 [29]. The main driver for this increase is IL-29, a member of the IL-10-IFN family of cytokines [40]. In psoriatic lesions, IL-29 is produced by Th17 cells [29]. It directly acts on keratinocytes via the transmembrane receptor complex composed of IL-28R1 and IL-10R2 and activates intracellular JAK-STAT signaling. Interestingly, IL-10R2 is also a part of the IL-22 receptor complex [41]. The AVP-inducing effect of IL-29 can be only minimally amplified by IFN- $\gamma$  in keratinocytes [40]. An overview of the main psoriasis signature cytokines and their effects on infections is shown in Table 1.

**Table 1. Psoriasis signature cytokines and their effects on infections.**

Cytokines	Cellular sources	Findings
IL-12	DCs, monocytes, macrophages, neutrophils, B cells and KCs	Enhances HBD-2 production in KCs, and the antimicrobial activity of macrophages
IL-17A	Th17 cells, ILC3s, mast cells, neutrophils, CD8+ T cells, $\gamma\delta$ T cells, NK cells, iNKT cells, and LTi cells	Induces the production of AMPs (HBD-2, LL-37, LCN-2, and S100A7-9) in KCs, neutrophil recruitment, and immunity to extracellular pathogens
IL-17C	Prostate and fetal kidney cells, KCs, colonic epithelial cells, and lung epithelial cells	Enhances epithelial host defense (HBD-2/-3, and S100A7-9) in an autocrine/paracrine manner
IL-17E	Intraepithelial lymphocytes, lung epithelial cells, alveolar macrophages, eosinophils, basophils, NKT cells, Th2 cells, mast cells, and cells of the gastrointestinal tract and uterus	Promotes innate cell recruitment and activation. Provides immunity to extracellular pathogens
IL-17F	Th17 cells, mast cells, neutrophils, CD8+ T cells, $\gamma\delta$ T cells, NK cells, NKT cells, and LTi cells	Synergistically cooperates with IL-17A and IL-22 for the induction of AMPs in KCs. Provides immunity to extracellular pathogens and is involved in neutrophil recruitment
IL-19	Monocytes, DCs and KCs	Increases the production of AMPs (S100A7-9) in KCs and amplifies IL-17A activity.
IL-21	Th17 cells, Th1* cells, Th2 cells, CD8+ T cells, and NKT cells	Enhances the antimicrobial activity of macrophages, and maintains the CD8+ T cell effector activity during the infection
IL-22	Th22 cells, Th17 cells, Th1 cells, CD8+ T cells, $\gamma\delta$ T cells, ILC3s, NKT cells, LTi cells, alveolar macrophages*, and neutrophils*	Increases the expression of HBD-2/-3, and S100A7-9 in KCs, and reinforces TNF- $\alpha$ activity
IL-23	DCs, macrophages, and psoriatic KCs	Induces HBD-2 expression in KCs, and optimizes the antimicrobial activity of macrophages
IL-26	Th17 cells, Th1 cells, epithelial cells, NK cells, alveolar macrophages, and macrophage-like synoviocytes	Exerts antiviral and antimicrobial actions, as well as regulates the expression of HBD-2/-3
IL-29 (alternative name INF $\lambda$ )	Th17 cells, DCs, macrophages, mast cells, and alveolar cells	Induces the production of antiviral proteins (MX1, BST2, ISG15, and OAS2) in KCs
IL-36s	KCs, macrophages, monocytes, DCs, and lymphocytes	Promote viral resistance, and the production of AMPs in KCs
TNF- $\alpha$	Macrophages, monocytes, DCs, NK cells, T cells, B cells, and KCs	Induces the production of S100A7 and HBD-2/-3, as well as antimicrobial chemokines CXCL-9/-10/-11 in KCs

\*Controversial among researchers. AMPs antimicrobial peptides, DCs dendritic cells, ILC3s type 3 innate lymphoid cells, KCs keratinocytes, LTi lymphoid tissue inducer, iNKT invariant natural killer T cells, Th T helper. Data from multiple sources [12-15, 20-22, 29, 31, 35-41, 81-98]

## Psoriasis and Respiratory Infections

Lower respiratory tract infections including pneumonia are the most frequent types of serious infections among psoriasis patients as documented by numerous registries [42, 43]. The incidence of pneumonia seems to be even increased among psoriasis patients compared to those without psoriasis [44,45]. However, it is not definitely clear to what extent this increase is related, either to psoriasis itself, its concomitant disorders, or its treatment [44]. In fact, psoriasis patients frequently suffer from diabetes mellitus, hyperlipidemia, and

hypertension, are smokers, and have elevated body mass index (BMI), which can make them vulnerable to infectious diseases [25,46].

### Systemic Therapies and Infection Risk, Including SARS-CoV-2

The conventional systemic therapies for plaque psoriasis include cyclosporine, methotrexate, and oral retinoids [47]. Cyclosporine is a calcineurin inhibitor broadly suppressing T cells; methotrexate, and retinoids have multiple effects on several immune cells. More recently, 2 small-molecule drugs

have been approved for the treatment of plaque psoriasis: apremilast, an oral phosphodiesterase (PDE)-4 inhibitor, and dimethyl fumarate [48,49]. Both molecules impact the NF- $\kappa$ B complex and have broad functions on the immune system. Modern biological therapies, such as anti-TNF- $\alpha$ , anti-IL-12/23, anti-IL-17, and anti-IL-23 antibodies, are designed to block specific molecular steps important in the pathogenesis of psoriasis. Namely, anti-TNF- $\alpha$  agents neutralize TNF- $\alpha$  which has a dual role as an upstream mediator of T cell differentiation into Th1, Th17 and Th22 cells, as well as a pro-inflammatory mediator synergistic with IL-17A, IL-17F, and IL-22 [50]. The anti-IL-12/23 agent targets the P40 subunit shared by IL-12 and IL-23 preventing their interaction with the receptor and thereby blocking Th1/Th17 immunity [1,50]. This was further developed into biologics neutralizing only IL-23 via the p19 subunit, thereby only blocking Th17 immunity [1]. Finally, direct interaction with IL-17A and/or other members of the IL-17 family is a successful strategy realized through IL-17A, IL-17RA, or bispecific IL-17A/F targeting.

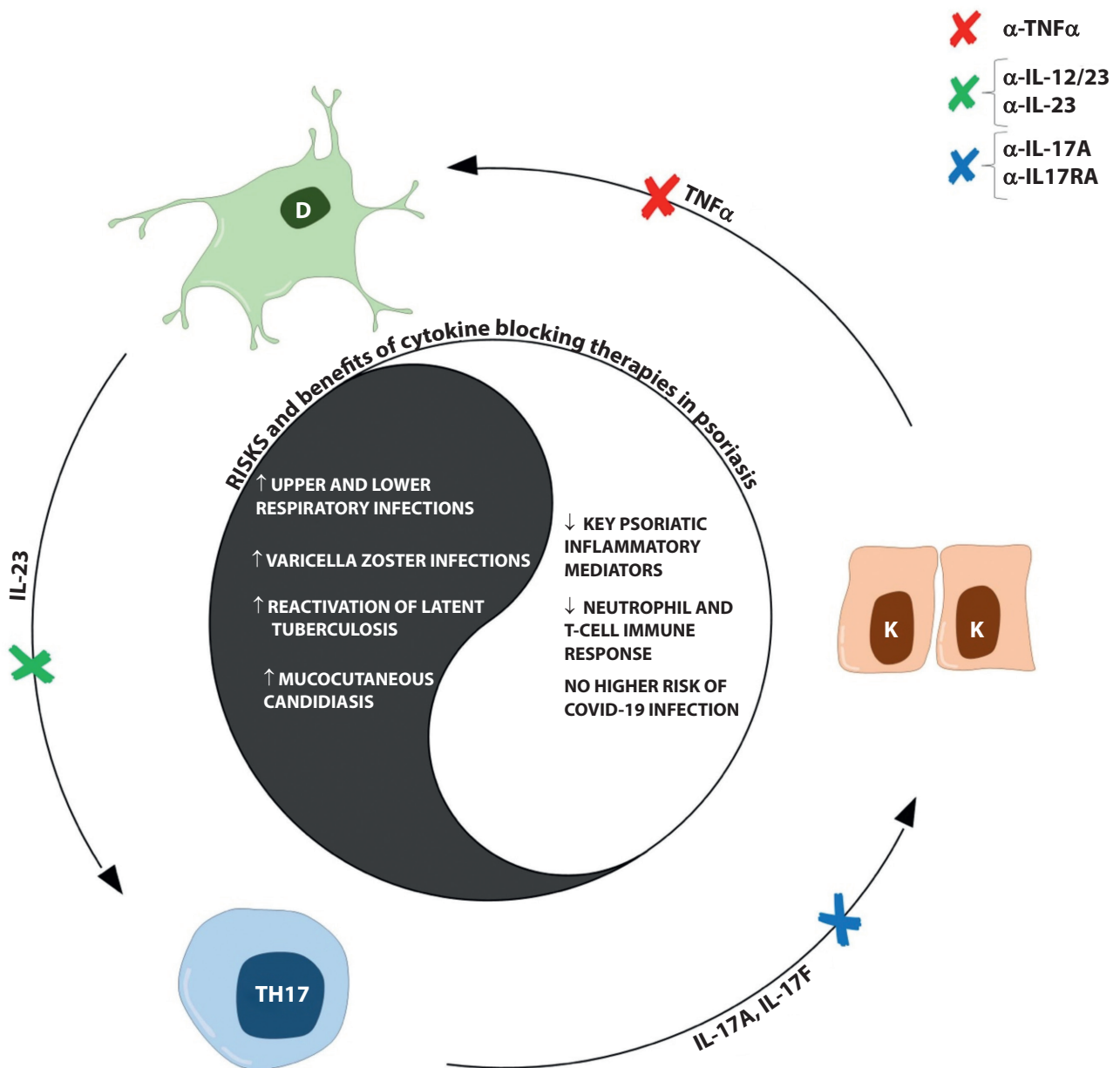
However, analysis of the population-based electronic medical record database from the UK on approximately 200,000 patients with psoriasis indicates that patients with moderate-to-severe disease that receive immunosuppressive therapies do have an increased risk for opportunistic infections and reactivation of varicella-zoster virus [51]. Furthermore, analyzing data from psoriasis patients treated with biologic (n=2258) or non-biologic systemic agents (n=3631) demonstrated that systemic therapies with biologics significantly increase the overall risk for serious infection [52]. The extent of impairment and the type of infection are related to the mode of action of individual drugs or drug groups [1]. For instance, TNF- $\alpha$  antagonists can lead to the reactivation of latent tuberculosis and IL-17 neutralization may result in mucocutaneous candidiasis [1]. However, it should be noted, there is no signal for increased risk of invasive fungal disease due to anti-IL-17 therapy [53]. Cases of opportunistic infections like atypical histoplasmosis or toxoplasmosis have been mainly reported in connection with blocking TNF- $\alpha$  or IL-12/IL-23 p40 [53,54]. Accordingly, the evaluation of registry data primarily notes the association of the use of infliximab, a chimeric monoclonal anti-TNF- $\alpha$  antibody, with increased incidence of pneumonia [44,45]. Furthermore, while neutralizing TNF- $\alpha$  or IL-17 has been associated with such a risk, there is no evidence that blocking IL-23 increases the risk of respiratory tract infections [55]. Despite the relevant concomitant disorders such as obesity, hypertension, and diabetes, recent data accumulated during the Covid-19 pandemic indicate that patients with psoriasis with or without systemic treatment are neither at higher risk for infection with SARS-CoV-2 nor show more severe symptoms [56]. This might be caused by the fact that cytokines,

such as IL-1 $\beta$  and IL-6, which may play a pathogenic role in the severe/fatal course of Covid-19 infection are only moderately expressed in psoriatic lesions and do not play an important role in psoriasis pathogenesis compared to other inflammatory skin diseases [57,58]. Importantly, the incidence of Covid-19 infection, Covid-19-related hospitalization, and Covid-19-related death do not seem to be elevated among psoriasis patients treated with biologics [60,61]. The disease course in most patients with biological treatment was even milder, indicating that the anti-cytokine therapy may be beneficial in preventing a severe cytokine storm [59,62]. A schematization of the risks and benefits of cytokine-blocking therapies in psoriasis is displayed in Figure 1.

### Prevention and Management of Infections in Psoriatic Patients Treated With Systemic Therapies

As any patient with moderate to severe psoriasis may progress to immunomodulatory therapies, it is important that their immunizations are up to date. Two general strategies have been suggested: screening for infection prior to therapy initiation as well as providing protection through vaccination. As for the first strategy, guidelines suggest tuberculosis screening before starting all biological therapies [63,64]. However, data from clinical trials and post-marketing surveillance with IL-23 and IL-17 inhibitors suggest that they are not crucial to tuberculosis reactivation [65]. Furthermore, screening for *Candida* infections, hepatitis, human immunodeficiency virus (HIV), and other chronic infections is generally recommended. As for the latter, vaccination is a proven strategy to reduce infections. In view of this, dermatologists can play an important role in educating patients about immunizations. To prevent severe infections, it is suggested that psoriatic patients receive their complete recommended vaccinations (especially live vaccines) before initiating biological therapy [66]. In short, the medical board of the National Psoriasis Foundation recommends that all patients with moderate-to-severe psoriasis have an assessment of their immunization status, including immunization or disease history for varicella zoster, *Haemophilus influenzae*, tetanus, pertussis, hepatitis A and B, human papillomavirus (HPV), influenza, *Neisseria meningitidis*, and *Streptococcus pneumoniae* during initial workup [67]. Notably, vaccines such as *Mycobacterium vaccae*, live attenuated varicella zoster virus and *Leishmania amastigotes* have been reported to be effective during psoriasis treatment [68-70] even though these data need to be confirmed in larger and controlled clinical trials. Lastly, vaccination against SARS-CoV-2 is recommended in patients with psoriasis, even in those under biological therapy [71].

Hence, it is clear now that immune pathways involved in psoriasis pathogenesis contribute to host defense against certain pathogens, thus a possible consequence is represented



**Figure 1.** Schematization of risks and benefits of cytokine blocking therapies in psoriasis. *D* dendritic cell, *IL* interleukin, *K* keratinocyte, *Th* T helper, *TNF* tumor necrosis factor.

by the fact that a selective inhibition might predispose to specific infections. Nevertheless, some biologic agents and novel small molecule drugs (i.e., apremilast) appeared to be safer or at least not associated with significant increases in the risk of serious infections, compared to conventional nonbiologic systemic compounds [72]. Mild to moderate infections (i.e., upper respiratory tract infections) or minor surgery (i.e., skin surgery, dental procedures) do not usually cause treatment discontinuation where it would otherwise be continued. Delayed starting or interruption of immunomodulatory therapies is recommended in case of clinically meaningful active infection (severe signs and symptoms requiring systemic oral or intramuscular antibiotic, antiviral, or antifungal therapy) or serious infection requiring hospitalization or intravenous

antibiotic, antiviral, or antifungal therapy. Evaluating the risk-benefit ratio for recurrent serious infections, therapy can be restarted once infection has been fully resolved, empirically after 2-4 weeks from the resolution of the infectious event [73]. Analogous therapeutic management during the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic has been suggested [74,75]. In the event of SARS-CoV-2 infection, psoriasis treatments should be suspended and resumed after complete resolution of COVID-19 symptoms and SARS-CoV-2 negativization. On the contrary, in those asymptomatic SARS-CoV-2+ patients with high-need-to-treat psoriasis, as well as in psoriasis patients who have had a severe hospital course or the persistence of 1 or more symptoms of COVID-19, beyond the acute phase of the illness, the decision to restart treatment



**Table 2. Infectious diseases to consider for selecting biological and new small-molecule therapies.**

Class of agents	Drug	HCV	HBV	HIV	Latent TB	CMCC
Anti-TNF- $\alpha$	Etanercept Adalimumab Infliximab Certolizumab Golimumab	Preferred	Not preferred	Preferred	Not preferred	Preferred
Anti-IL-12/23	Ustekinumab	Preferred	Preferred	Preferred	Preferred	Preferred
Anti-IL-17A	Secukinumab Ixekizumab	Preferred	Likely safe/Not enough data	Likely safe/Not enough data	Preferred	Not preferred
Anti-IL-17RA	Brodalumab	Preferred	Likely safe/Not enough data	Likely safe/Not enough data	Preferred	Not preferred
Anti-IL-23	Guselkumab Tildrakizumab Risankizumab	Preferred	Not enough data	Not enough data	Preferred	Preferred
Oral novel small molecule	Apremilast	Preferred	Not enough data	Not enough data	Preferred	Preferred

CMCC chronic mucocutaneous candidiasis, HBV hepatitis B virus, HCV hepatitis C virus, HIV human immunodeficiency virus, IL interleukin, RA receptor A, TB tuberculosis, TNF tumor necrosis factor. Data from several sources [99-101].

should be taken on a case-by-case basis [76,77]. Similar to active serious infections, in case of major surgery (i.e., under general anesthesia with exposure of large body areas, internal organ surgery), guidelines recommend treatment interruption, evaluating case-by-case patient characteristics, the risk of infection, the risk of psoriasis worsening and consultation with the surgeon [78]. Therapy restart can be considered after full recovery. Nevertheless, real-life data on perioperative management are limited and do not provide strong evidence of peri- or post-operative complications due to continuous treatment with biologic agents or apremilast [78-80]. Infectious diseases to consider for selecting biological and new small-molecule therapies are listed in Table 2.

## Conclusion

In an era characterized by an ever greater and growing risk of infections, but at the same time by increasingly specific and advanced immune-mediated therapies, it is necessary to always be updated on the risk of such infections and on the ability to manage them. Currently, we are witnessing a revolution in the treatment of psoriasis where the starting point is the translational approach, and we firmly believe that by following this path we can reach a wider knowledge that will help us in preventing and treating properly infections associated with psoriasis.

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