MINI-REVIEW

Pruritus in Cutaneous T-cell Lymphomas: Frequent, Often Severe and Difficult to Treat

Nicolas MEYER¹, Carle PAUL¹ and Laurent MISERY^{2,3}

¹Service de Dermatologie, Université Paul Sabatier-Toulouse III et CHU Toulouse, Toulouse, ²Faculté de Médecine et des Sciences de la Santé, Université de Brest, and ³Service de Dermatologie, CHU Brest, Brest, France

Pruritus has a well-known association with Hodgkin's disease and other nodal lymphomas; indeed it often reveals the disease. Pruritus is also an important symptom of cutaneous T-cell lymphomas. Lymphoma-associated itch is thus both frequent and severe, but its pathophysiology remains unclear. Few studies have evaluated the efficacy of therapeutic agents in the management of cutaneous T-cell lymphoma-related pruritus. The main objective of treatment remains disease control. Pruritus management is generally based on the physician's experience. Treatment is very difficult, especially in Sézary syndrome. We present here management strategies for cutaneous lymphoma-associated pruritus. *Key words: lymphoma; T-cell; cutaneous; pruritus; therapeutics; pathophysiology.*

(Accepted October 13, 2009.)

Acta Derm Venereol 2010; 90: 12-17.

Nicolas Meyer, UA d'oncodermatologie des services de Dermatologie du CHU de Toulouse, Hôpital Larrey, 24 Chemin de Pouvourville, FR-31059 Toulouse Cedex 9, France. E-mail: meyer.n@chu-toulouse.fr

Pruritus (itch) can be defined as an unpleasant cutaneous sensation associated with the immediate desire to scratch. It most commonly occurs in skin disorders, and might be an important dermatological clue to the presence of an underlying systemic disease (1, 2). Pruritus can be initiated during inflammation, cancer, metabolic diseases, infection, psychiatric diseases, drug application and stress (3).

Cutaneous T-cell lymphomas (CTCL) refers to a group of lymphoproliferative disorders characterized by a clonal accumulation of neoplastic memory T lymphocytes in the skin (4). CTCL are the most common primary cutaneous lymphomas. In USA, their incidence has increased from 5 cases per 1,000,000 population in the 1980s to 12.7 cases per 1,000,000 in the 2000s (5). Mycosis fungoides (MF) is the most common variant of CTCL. Typically, patients initially present with erythematous patches in sun-protected areas, which may progress to plaques and possibly skin tumours. Sézary syndrome is a more aggressive form of CTCL, characterized by the association of an exfoliative erythroderma with the presence of atypical mononuclear cells in the skin and the peripheral blood (Sézary cells). Patients with early-stage CTCL have a good prognosis, whereas the prognosis is poorer for patients with late-stage disease (6, 7). CTCL can cause significant morbidity, and adversely affect patients' quality of life (8–10), in part owing to the fact that CTCL are highly associated with pruritus (10). CTCL have multiple subtypes (7). The folliculotropic form of CTCL, Sézary syndrome and erythrodermic form of MF are extremely itchy compared with patch stages of MF: in a case-control study of 43 patients with the folliculotropic form of CTCL, 68% had severe pruritus requiring separate treatment aside from the lymphoma (11). In a phase II trial of oral vorinostat in 33 patients with refractory CTCL, 93% had symptomatic pruritus (12).

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY OF PRURITUS

Pruritus originates within the cutaneous skin's free nerve endings. Among the group of mecano-insensitive C-afferents, pruritus-specific C-fibres (pruriceptors) have been discovered, confirming that there is a specific pathway for itch. The polymodal type of C-fibres (the most common) is insensitive to histamine (13), whereas pruriceptors respond to histamine in parallel with the itch of the subjects. Pruriceptors are characterized by a low conduction velocity, large innervations territories, mechanical unresponsiveness, and high transcutaneous thresholds (13). The sensation of pruritus is transmitted through C-fibres to the dorsal horn of the spinal cord and to the cerebral cortex via the spinothalamic tract (3, 14). Activation of specific areas in the central nervous system results in perception of itch, leading to a scratch response (3, 15). By a direct axon reflex mechanism, sensory nerve endings release neuropeptides, which may aggravate the itch response by stimulating release of pruritic mediators (kinins, prostanoids, and cytokines) from mast cells, immune cells epithelial cells and endothelial cells (3).

The case of cutaneous lymphoma

There is little data regarding the exact pathophysiology of CTCL-related pruritus, but cutaneous inflammation is probably involved. The association between chronic inflammatory conditions of the skin and risk of CTCL is still a matter of debate, since epidemiological studies have shown contradictory results (16–22). It has been proposed that CTCL may originate from inflammatory conditions of the skin transforming into neoplastic conditions (23, 24). Several data support the fact that inflammatory processes are of importance in CTCL:

- Sezary syndrome T-cell clones produce IL-3, IL-4, IL-5, IL-6 and IL-10, thus displaying a Th2 cytokine-secretion profile (24).
- IL-2 and IL-6 have been proposed as histamineindependent itch mediators. Single dose of IL-2 (10 MU/ml) delivered to the epidermis of healthy volunteer triggers itching. Intradermal injection of 20 μ g of IL-2 in the dermis of atopic dermatitis patients or healthy subjects was associated with a low-intensity local itch and erythema (25, 26). In patients with uraemic pruritus, serum levels of IL-6 were found to be significantly increased compared with patients without uraemic pruritus (27). The role of other cytokines, such as IL-31 (28), as histamineindependent itch mediators has also been evoked, but there is no data regarding the role of these cytokines in the pathogenesis of CTCL.
- IL-7 induces lymphoid inflammation in mice (29) and is produced by human keratinocytes (30).
- IL-7 induces proliferation of human T-cell clones with a synergic effect on IL-2 in T-cell clones of CTCL (31).

Regardless of its cause, pruritus is often exacerbated by skin inflammation and vasodilatation (32).

Other pruritogenic factors

It has been reported that mast cells and histamine may play a role in MF, particularly in advanced stages of the disease (33). Histamine, which is released by mast cells, is classically associated with pruritus. Other mast-cell mediators appear to be of clinical importance: serotonin is a neuromediator involved in the pruritus associated with several diseases, including lymphomas (15). Serotonin and histamine may have tumour growthpromotion and immunomodulating properties: the use of serotonin antagonists inhibits in vitro the mitogenesis of normal lymphocytes and promotes the proliferation of transformed lymphocytes (34). In 1996, Vermeer & Willemze (35) reported 2 patients with MF who had an exacerbation of their disease shortly after starting fluoxetine, a specific serotonin uptake inhibitor used as antidepressant. Antihistamines were reported to be associated with the development of atypical lymphoid infiltrates in the skin (36). The role of anti-histamines and serotonin antagonists in tumour progression of CTCL has not been investigated.

Proteases, such as kallikreins and cathepsin, contribute to the integrity and protective barrier function of the skin (37). Protease regulation is altered in inflammatory skin conditions. In atopic dermatitis, psoriasis, exfoliative dermatitis excessive protease activation was shown to contribute to skin barrier function damage (37). Kallikrein and the resulting peptide fragments (bradykinin) can induce itch by activating histamine-sensitive C-fibres (13). Investigating the activity of proteases in the skin of patients with CTCL may be important to understand the pathophysiology of CTCL-related pruritus.

PRURITUS AS A SYMPTOM OF CUTANEOUS LYMPHOMAS

In patients with CTCL, pruritus is frequent (5, 38), severe, and unrelieved by emollients, topical steroids, or oral antihistamines. In CTCL, pruritus is permanent and aggravated in the evening or by heat. It interferes with sleep. Most of the patients report diffuse pruritus, but pruritus may also be localized on specific lesions. As in systemic haematological malignancies, CTCL-related pruritus may be worsened by water. In the advanced stages, patients commonly report an ill-defined, severe, and diffuse pruritus that may turn into "burning pain". This pruritus displays similarities with neuropathic pain (39). In a large survey from the USA evaluating 309 patients with CTCL, Demierre et al. (10) reported that a large majority of them (88%) were bothered by itching, and 41% of them reported some pain. Pruritus may be a presenting feature in patients with CTCL, and can occur without skin lesions, making the diagnosis of CTCL difficult (5, 40). Pruritus is the most frequent and the earliest symptom of CTCL (41). In the early stages, pruritus may be relieved by topical corticosteroids. This seemingly well-controlled dermatitis may delay the correct diagnosis (42). Moreover, for several patients the diagnosis of CTCL is difficult to obtain, since gathering histological findings and molecular evidence of the Tcell receptor clonality may take years (41).

We consider that, in case of atypical pruritus (severe pruritus and/or chronic and/or permanent pruritus without systemic explanation, and/or pruritus that interferes with sleep, and or topical steroid-resistant pruritus, and/or pruritus associated with atypical dermatitis), at least three pathological examinations of the skin and one assessment of T-cell clonality in the skin should be performed over a period of one year.

THERAPEUTICS

Management of pruritus should be directed at the underlying cause. CTCL are chronic diseases, and multiple therapies are available, each with varying efficacy and side-effects profiles. The main outcome of CTCL treatment remains disease control, and few studies have been designed to evaluate the efficacy of therapeutics in the management of CTCL-related pruritus. Most practices are based on the treating physician's experience.

Topical agents

The efficacy of high potency topical corticosteroids in early-stage CTCL is well known (43, 44). Topical corticosteroids have been shown rapidly to decrease histamine-induced itch (45). In the early stages of the disease, CTCL-related pruritus can be efficiently diminished by topical steroids (40). High potency topical steroids should remain the treatment of first choice at these stages (46). It has been reported recently that the use of wet dressing in association with topical steroids may be an interesting option for the management of pruritic skin diseases other than atopic dermatitis (47). The authors report a retrospective uncontrolled study on 331 patients with pruritic skin diseases recalcitrant to previous therapies (topical steroids, antihistamines, and emollients). Among them, 12 patients with CTCL were improved after treatment with the association of topical steroids and wet dressing. This association may be an interesting option for the management of intense flares of itching in patients with CTCL.

Systemic agents

Although their antipruritic effect in CTCL has not been formally evaluated, oral corticosteroids may also be used to reduce CTCL-related pruritus. In our experience, doses of 10–30 mg/day may significantly improve pruritus in patients with CTCL. However, numerous side-effects are associated with long-term use of oral steroids. Anti-histamines can be associated with topical therapy to diminish pruritus in CTCL, and with other specific topical or systemic drugs aimed at controlling the tumour activity. Naltrexone, an opioid-receptor antagonist, has been reported to be efficient in CTCL-related pruritus (48). However, this study was open-labelled, and the use of naltrexone for the treatment of pruritus in CTCL should be evaluated further.

Phototherapy

Second-line treatments of CTCL-related pruritus are not well defined. CTCL is one of the major dermatological conditions for which phototherapy continues to be a valuable treatment modality (49). The most documented treatment for the management of pruritus in CTCL is psoralen plus ultraviolet A (PUVA). It has been used for decades in the management of CTCL and is effective in early-stage CTCL (44–46, 51). In early-stage CTCL, PUVA induces significant clinical improvement and long-lasting disease-free intervals (reviewed in 49). Its efficacy can further be improved when used in conjunction with other treatment modalities, such as interferon- α (52) or retinoids (53, 54). The efficacy of narrow-band UVB phototherapy on pruritus is also well established (55, 56). Patients may be treated with a starting dose of 70% of the UVB-minimal erythematous dose. The dose may be increased by 10–15% per session as tolerated. Sessions will be performed 3 times weekly until regression of the lesions, and then pursued once to twice weekly in case of successful response. In the first 2 weeks of treatment with phototherapy, itch may be worsened. Patients can be maintained on topical steroids or antihistamines treatment during phototherapy. Phototherapy should be preferred to topical steroids when the pruritus is diffuse or intense or interferes with sleep.

Treatment of underlying disease

A significant reduction in CTCL-related pruritus has been reported with the use of drugs aimed at controlling the disease. The effects of denileukin diftitox (an IL-2 receptor targeted fusion protein) on quality of life and pruritus of 71 patients with CTCL have been evaluated as part of a multicentre phase III trial (57, 58). Pruritus severity (assessed on a 10-cm visual analogue scale) were improved significantly after 6 months of treatment compared with baseline evaluation. Alemtuzumab, a monoclonal anti-CD52 antibody, has been evaluated in the treatment of CTCL (phase II study, 22 patients) (59). In this study, a reduction of 6 points in the median pruritus score (self-assessed visual analogue scale) at the end of the treatment was reported. Most recently, a significant reduction of the pruritus has been reported with the use of vorinostat (suberoylanilide hydroxamic acid) for refractory CTCL: 45% of the patients had a reduction of at least 3 points for at least 4 weeks compared with baseline evaluation of pruritus (12). In 2005, Brightman & Demierre (60) reported on the use of thalidomide in one patient with MF, with a reduction in pruritus assessment score. Thalidomide is known to be effective on several pruritic skin diseases (61, 62), and may be an interesting option for the management of patients with refractory pruritic CTCL. Low-dose methotrexate has been used to treat CTCL for many years (50, 63). However, the effects of low-dose methotrexate on CTCL-related pruritus are poorly documented. In our experience, patients treated with methotrexate for a CTCL may have significant pruritus improvement. Further studies should be conducted to evaluate antipruritic effects of methotrexate in CTCL.

Demierre & Taverna (64) have reported their experience on the use of gabapentin (an anticonvulsivant) and mirtazapine (an antidepressant) to manage severe pruritus associated with advanced-stage CTCL. Both gabapentin and mirtazapine have been reported as effective in the treatment of pruritus (65, 66). The authors recommended a starting dose of gabapentin of 300 mg at night, titrated upward, without exceeding 2400 mg daily. For patients who did not respond, the authors recommend progressively substituting gabapentin with a low dose of mirtazapine (7.5–15 mg daily in the evening).

Recently, Sepmeyer et al. (67) reported an open-label study of combination therapy with rosiglitazone and bexarotene for CTCL, with interesting effects on pruritus: 3 of the 4 patients had relieved pruritus after 16 weeks of a regimen comprising bexarotene (190-425 mg/m² daily) and rosiglitazone (4–8 mg daily). Rosiglitazone is a PPAR (peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor) agonist. PPAR are transcription factors that heterodimerize with retinoid X receptors (RXR) and bind to peroxisome proliferator response elements in the promoter region of target genes. Interestingly, RXRs are the targets of bexarotene. Bexarotene transactivates PPAR-alpha target genes in a PPAR-alpha dependent manner (68). PPAR agonists may improve the therapeutic response to RXR agonists and may help to reduce CTCL-related pruritus through better control of the disease. The role of PPAR agonists in CTCL should be further explored.

For the particular case of Sézary syndrome, extracorporeal photochemotherapy (ECP) can be considered as an interesting therapeutic option to reduce both disease activity and pruritus. ECP has been reported to induce long-term remissions of Sézary syndrome (69–71) and has been reported to reduce pruritus, not only in Sézary syndrome, but also in atopic dermatitis (72). ECPs sessions have to be performed twice monthly until remission of the disease. Finally, a dramatic improvement was noted in 3 patients with Sézary syndrome suffering from severe and uncontrolled pruritus after treatment with aprepitant, which is an antagonist of natural killer (NK) 1 receptor for substance P (73).

CONCLUSION

In patients with CTCL, pruritus is frequent and often severe. A pruritus without skin lesions, or associated with mild dermatitis, rarely leads to a diagnosis of CTCL. This symptom negatively affects quality of life of patients. The management of severe pruritus is not supported by solid clinical evidence but is based on individual expert opinion. First-line treatment recommendation should be topical steroids or phototherapy, sometimes in combination with disease-modifying treatment, such as interferon or retinoids. In case of insufficient response, anticonvulsivants or antidepressants can be used. A possible alternative is provided by NK1 antagonists.

REFERENCES

- 1. Misery L, Ständer S. Itch. In: Misery L, Ständer S, editors. Pruritus. London: Springer; 2009.
- Ständer S, Weisshaar E, Mettang T, Szepietowski JC, Carstens E, Ikoma A, et al. Clinical classification of itch: a

position paper of the International Forum for the Study of Itch. Acta Derm Venereol 2007; 87: 291–294.

- Steinhoff M, Bienenstock J, Schmelz M, Maurer M, Wei E, Biro T. Neurophysiological, Neuroimmunological, and neuroendocrine basis of pruritus. J Invest Dermatol 2006; 126: 1705–1718.
- Girardi M, Heald PW, Wilson LD. The pathogenesis of mycosis fungoides. N Engl J Med 2004; 350: 1978–1988.
- Bradford PT, Devesa SS, Anderson WF, Toro JR. Cutaneous lymphoma incidence patterns in the United States: a population-based study of 3884 cases. Blood 2009; 113: 5064–5073.
- Klemke CD, Mansmann U, Poenitz N, Dippel E, Goerdt S. Prognostic factors and prediction of prognosis by the CTCL severity index in mycosis fungoides and sezary syndrome. Br J Dermatol 2005; 153: 118–124.
- Willemze R, Jaffe ES, Burg G, Cerroni L, Berti E, Swerdlow SH, et al. WHO-EORTC classification for cutaneous lymphomas. Blood 2005; 105: 3768–3785.
- Demierre MF, Kim YH, Zackheim HS. Prognosis, clinical outcomes and quality of life issues in cutaneous T-cell lymphoma. Hematol Oncol Clin North Am 2003; 17: 1485–1507.
- 9. Demierre MF, Tien A, Miller D. Health-related quality of life assessment in patients with cutaneous T-cell lymphoma. Arch Dermatol 2005; 141: 325–330.
- Demierre MF, Gan S, Jones J, Miller DR. Significant impact of cutaneous T-cell lymphoma on patients' quality of life. Cancer 2006; 107: 2504–2511.
- Gerami P, Rosen S, Kuzel T, Boone SL, Guitart J. Folliculotropic mycosis fungoides. Arch Dermatol 2008; 144: 738–746.
- Duvic M, Talpur R, Ni X, Zhang C, Hazarika P, Kelly C, et al. Phase 2 trial of oral vorinostat (suberoylanilide hydroxamic acid, SAHA) for refractory cutaneous T-cell lymphoma (CTCL). Blood 2007; 109: 31–39.
- Schmelz M, Schmidt R, Weidner C, Hilliges M, Torebjork HE, Handwerker HO. Chemical response pattern of different classes of C-nociceptors to pruritogens and algogens. J Neurophysiol 2003; 89: 2441–2448.
- Parker F. Structure and function of skin. In Goldma L, Bennett JC, editors. Cecil Textbook of Medicine. 21st edn. Philadelphia: Saunders; 2000, p. 2266.
- Krajnik M, Zylicz Z. Understanding pruritus in systemic disease. J Pain Symptom Manage 2001; 21: 151–168.
- Mc Whorter WP. Allergy and risk of cancer: a prospective study using NHANESI follow up data. Cancer 1988; 62: 451–455.
- 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.
- Eriksson NE, Holmen A, Hogstedt B, Mikoczy Z, Hagmar L. A prospective study of cancer incidenc in a prospective sohort examined for allergy. Allergy 1995; 50: 718–722.
- Talbot-Smith A, Fritschi L, Divitini ML, Mallon DF, Knuiman MW. Allergy, atopy and cancer: a prospective study of the 1981 Busselton cohort. Am J Epidemiol 2003; 157: 606–612.
- Cartwright RA, McKinney PA, O'Brien C, Richards ID, Roberts B, Richards ID, et al. Non-Hodgkin's lymphoma: case-control epidemiological study in Yorkshire. Leuk Res 1988; 12: 81–88.
- Mehrany K, El-Azhary RA, Bouwhuis SA, Pittelkow MR. Cutaneous T-cell lymphoma and atopy: is there an association? Br J Dermatol 2003; 149: 1013–1017.
- 22. Meyer N, Mazereeuw-Hautier J, Launay F, Lamant L, Paul C. Cutaneous T cell lymphoma complicating severe atopic

dermatitis. Is making a diagnosis the main challenge? Dermatology 2009; 218: 168–171.

- 23. Rubegni P, De Aloe G, Di Renzo M, Pompella G, Pasqui AL, Auteri A, et al. Cytokine production profile of peripheral blood mononuclear cells in patients with large-plaque parapsoriasis. Arch Dermatol 2001; 137: 966–967.
- 24. Dummer R, Heald PW, Nestle FO, Ludwig E, Laine E, Hemmi S, et al. Sezary syndrome T-cells clones display T-helper2 cytokines and express the accessory factor-1 (interferon gamma receptor beta-chain). Blood 1996; 88: 1383–1389.
- 25. Wahlgren CF, Tengvall Linder M, Hägermark O, Scheynius A. Itch and inflammation induced by intradermally injected interleukin-2 in atopic dermatitis patients and healthy subjects. Arch Dermatol Res 1995; 287: 572–580.
- Darsow U, Scharein E, Bromm B, Ring J. Skin Testing of the pruritogenic activity of histamine and cytokines (interleukin 2 and tumour necrosis factor-alpha) at the dermal epidermal junction. Br J Dermatol 1997; 137: 415–417.
- 27. Kimmel M, Alscher DM, Dunst R, Braun N, Machleidt C, Kiefer T, et al. The role of micro-inflammation in the pathogenesis of uraemic pruritus in haemodialysis patients. Nephrol Dial Transplant 2006; 21: 749–755.
- Sonkoly E, Muller A, Lauerma AI, Pivarcsi A, Soto H, Kemeny L, et al. IL-31: a new link between T cells and pruritus in atopic skin inflammation. J Allergy Clin Immunol 2006; 117: 411–417.
- 29. Rich BE, Campos-Torres J, Tepper RI, Moreadith RW, Leder P. Cutaneous Lymphoproliferation and lymphomas in interleukin 7 transgenic mice. J Exp Med 1993; 177: 305–316.
- Heufler C, Topar G, Grasseger A, Stanzl U, Koch F, Romani N, et al. Interleukin 7 is produced by murine and human keratinocytes. J Exp Med 1993; 178: 1109–1114.
- Dalloul A, Laroche L, Bagot M, Mossalayi MD, Fourcade C, Thacker DJ, et al. Interleukin-7 is a growth factor for Sezary lymphoma cells. J Clin Invest 1992; 90: 1054.
- 32. Shellow WV. Evaluation of pruritus. In Goroll AH, Mulley AG Jr, editors. Primary care medicine: office evaluation and management of the adult patient. 4th edn. Philadelphia: Lippincott Williams & Wilkins; 2000, p. 1001–1004.
- Yamamoto T, Katayama I, Nishioka N. Role of mast cell and stem cell factor in hyperpigmented mycosis fungoides. Blood 1997; 90: 1338–1340.
- Brandes LJ, La Bella FS, Warrington FC. Increased therapeutic index of antineoplastic drugs in combination with intracellular histamine antagonist. J Natl Cancer Inst 1991; 83: 1329–1336.
- Vermeer MH, Willemze R. Is Mycosis Fungoides exacerbated by fluoxetine? J Am Acad Dermatol 1996; 35: 635–636.
- Magro CM, Crowson AN. Drugs with antihistaminic properties as a cause of atypical cutaneous lymphoid hyperplasia. J Am Acad Dermatol 1995; 32: 419–428.
- Meyer-Hoffert U. Reddish, scaly, and itchy: how proteases and their inhibitors contribute to inflammatory skin diseases. Arch Immunol Ther Exp 2009; 57: 345–354.
- Moses S. Pruritus. Am Fam Physician 2003; 68: 1135–1142, 1145–1146.
- Namaka M, Gramlich CR, Ruhlen D, Melanson M, Sutton I, Major J. A treatment algorithm for neuropathic pain. Clin Ther 2004; 26: 951–979.
- Elmer KB, George RM. Cutaneous T-cell lymphoma presenting as benign dermatoses. Am Fam Physician 1999; 59: 2809–2813.
- 41. D'incan M. Souteyran P. Mycosis fongoïde et formes apparentées. In: Saurat JH, Lachapelle JM, Lipsker D, Thomas

L, editors. Dermatologie et infections sexuellement transmissibles, 5e édition. Paris: Masson; 2008.

- 42. Hope RT, Wood GS, Abel EA. Mycosis fungoides and the Sezary syndrome: pathology, staging, and treatment. Curr Probl Cancer 1990; 14: 293–371.
- Zackheim HS, Kashani-Sabet M, Amin S. Topical corticosteroids for mycosis fungoides. Experience in 79 patients. Arch Dermatol 1998; 134: 949–954.
- Zackheim HS. Treatment of mycosis fungoides/Sezary syndrome: the University of California, San Francisco (UCSF) approach. Int J Dermatol 2003; 4: 53–56.
- 45. Yosipovitch G, Szolar C, Hui XY, Maibach H. High-potency topical corticosteroid rapidly decrease histamine-induced itch but not thermal sensation and pain in human beings. J Am Acad Dermatol 1996; 35: 118–120.
- 46. Trautinger F, Knobler R, Willemze R, Peris K, Stadler R, Laroche L, et al. EORTC consensus recommendations for the treatment of mycosis fungoides/Sézary syndrome. Eur J Cancer 2006; 42: 1014–1030.
- 47. Bingham LG, Noble JW, Davis MD. Wet dressing used with topical corticosteroids for pruritic dermatoses: a sretrospective study. J Am Acad Dermatol 2009; 60: 792–800.
- Brune A, Metze D, Luger TA, Ständer S. Antipruritic therapy with the oral opioid receptor antagonist naltrexone. Open, non placebo controlled administration in 133 patients. Hautarzt 2004; 55: 1130–1136.
- 49. Baron ED, Stevens SR. Phototherapy for cutaneous T-cell lymphoma. Dermatol Ther 2003; 16: 303–310.
- Zackheim HS, Kashani-Sabet M, McMillan A. Low-dose methotrexate to treat mycosis fungoides: a retrospective study in 69 patients. J Am Acad Dermatol 2003; 49: 873–878.
- 51. Gamblicher T, Breuckmann F, Boms S, Altmeyer P, Kreuter A. Narrowband phototherapy in skin conditions beyond psoriasis. J Am Acad Dermatol 2005; 52: 660–670.
- Mostow E, Neckel S, Oberhelman L, Anderson T. Complete remissions in psoralen and UV-A (PUVA)-refractory mycosis fungoides-type cutaneous T-cell lymphoma with combined interferon alpha and PUVA. Arch Dermatol 1993; 129: 747–752.
- 53. Papadavid E, Antoniou C, Nikolaou V, Siakantaris M, Vassilakopolous TP, Stratigos A, et al. Safety and efficacy of low-dose bexarotene and PUVA in the treatment of patients with mycosis fungoides. Am J Clin Dermatol 2008; 9: 169–173.
- 54. Gniadecki R, Assaf C, Bagot M, Dummer R, Duvic M, Knobler R, et al. The optimal use of bexarotene in cutaneous T-cell lymphoma. Br J Dermatol 2007; 157: 433–440.
- 55. Rivard J, Henry WL. Ultraviolet phototherapy for pruritus. Dermatol Ther 2005; 18: 344–354.
- Yashar SS, Gielczyk R, Scherschun L, Lim HW. Narrowband ultraviolet B for vitiligo, pruritus, and inflammatory dermatoses. Photodermatol Photoimmunol Photomed 2003; 19: 164–168.
- 57. Duvic M, Kuzel TM, Olsen EA, Martin AG, Foss FM, Kim YH, et al. Quality of life improvements in cutaneous T-cell lymphoma patients treated with denileukin diftitox (ONTAK). Clin Lymphoma 2002; 43: 121–126.
- Olsen EA, Duvic M, Frankel A, Kim Y, Martin A, Vonderheid E, et al. Pivotal phase III trial of two dose levels of denileukin diftitox for the treatment of cutaneous T-cell lymphoma. J Clin Oncol 2001; 19: 376–388.
- 59. Lundin J, Hagberg H, Repp R, Cavallin-Stahl E, Freden S, Juliusson G, et al. Phase 2 study of alemtuzumab (anti-CD52 monoclonal antibody) in patients with advanced mycosis fungoides/Sezary syndrome. Blood 2003; 101: 4267–4272.

- 60. Brightman L, Demierre MF. Thalidomide in mycosis fungoides. J Am Acad Dermatol 2005; 52: 1100–1101.
- 61. Summey BT, Yosipovitch G. Pharmacologic advances in the systemic treatment of itch. Dermatol Ther 2005; 18: 328–332.
- 62. Yosipovitch G, Fleischer A. Itch associated with skin diseases: advances in pathophysiology and emerging therapies. Am J Clin Dermatol 2003; 4: 617–622.
- Zackheim HS, Kashani-Sabet M, Hwang ST. Low-dose methotrexate to treat erythrodermic cutaneous T-cell lymphoma: results in twenty-nine patients. J Am Acad Dermatol 1996; 34: 626–631.
- 64. Demierre MF, Taverna J. Mirtazapine and gabapentin for reducing pruritus in cutaneous T-cell lymphoma. J Am Acad Dermatol 2006; 55: 543–544.
- 65. Bigata X, Sais G, Soler F. Severe chronic urticaria: response to mirtazapine. J Am Acad Dermatol 2005; 53: 916–917.
- Yesudian PD, Wilson NJE. Efficacy of gabapentin in the management of pruritus of unkown origin. Arch Dermatol 2005; 141: 1507–1509.
- 67. Sepmeyer JA, Greer JP, Koyama T, Zic JA. Open-label pilot study of combination therapy with rosiglitazone and

bexarotene in the treatment of cutaneous T-cell Lymphoma. J Am Acad Dermatol 2007; 56: 584–587.

- 68. Martin PG, Lasserre F, Calleja C, Van Es A, Roulet A, Concordet D, et al. Transcriptional modulations by RXR agonists are only partially subordinated to PPARalpha signaling and attest additional, organ-specific, molecular cross-talks. Gene Expr 2005; 12: 177–192.
- 69. Zic JA. The treatment of cutaneous T-Cell lymphoma with photopheresis. Dermatol Ther 2003; 16: 337–346.
- Zic JA, Stricklin GP, Greer JP, Kinney MC, Shyr Y, Wilson DC, King LE Jr. Long-term follow-up of patients with cutaneous T-cell lymphoma treated with extracorporeal photochemotherapy. J Am Acad Dermatol 1996; 35: 935–945
- 71. Scarisbrick JJ, Taylor P, Holtick U, Makar Y, Douglas K, Berlin G, et al. Photopheresis expert group. U.K. consensus statement on the use of extracorporeal photopheresis for treatment of cutaneous T-cell lymphoma and chronic graftversus-host disease. Br J Dermatol 2008; 158: 659–678.
- Bouwhuis SA, McEvoy MT, Davis MD. Sustained remission of Sezary syndrome. Eur J Dermatol 2002; 12: 287–290.
- Duval A, Dubertret L. Aprepitant as an antipruritic agent? N Engl J Med 2009; 361: 1415–1416.