Are the Skin and Gastrointestinal Microbiomes Related to Skin Disease?

Malshi Premaratne

4th year medical student, University of Otago
prema457@student.otago.ac.nz

Word Count: 1999 (excluding title page & references)

Introduction to Microbiomes

As humans we are home to trillions of microorganisms that live both on and inside us. This entire community is referred to as the human microbiome. Before the 21st century, culture methods were predominantly used to identify these organisms; contributing to an underestimated and inaccurate picture of our microbiome¹. The development of molecular sequencing methods have allowed researchers to now more accurately describe the microbiome and the functional roles of its metagenome¹. Through such methods we can begin to understand how our microbiome contributes to both health and disease.

Figure 1: Dominant skin microorganisms by location

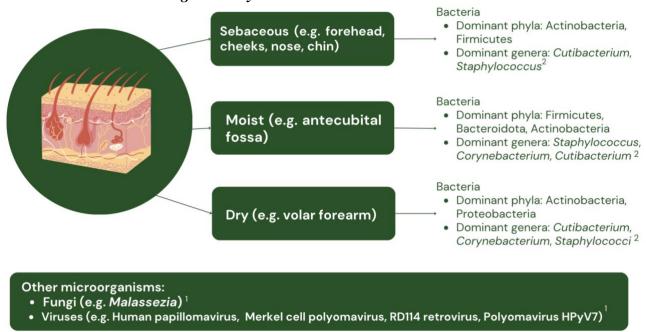
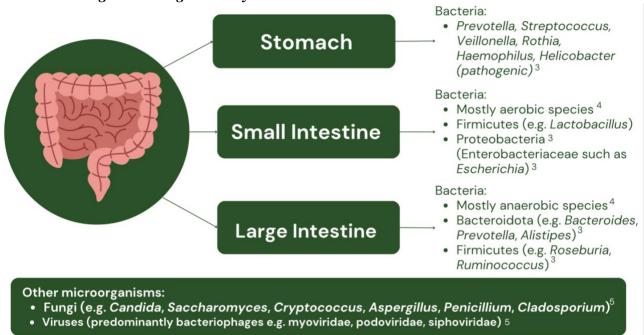


Figure 2: Dominant gut microorganisms by location



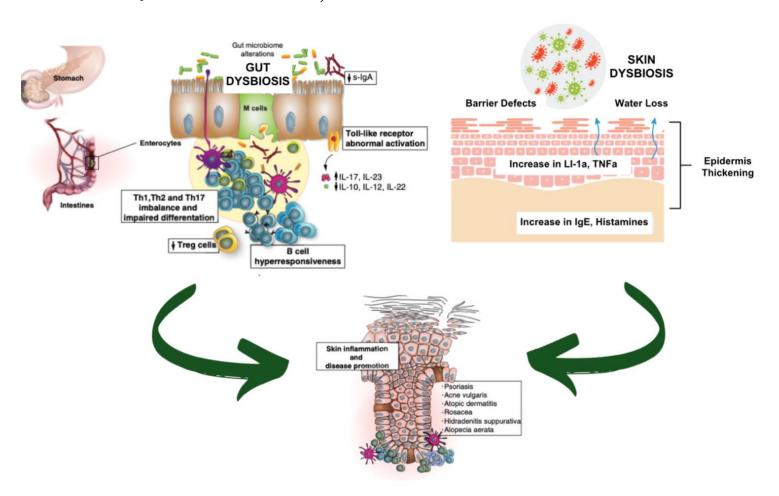
How Skin & Gut Microbiomes Relate to Skin Disease

Skin is our largest organ and one visible to the outside world – meaning its disease can be extensive and affect patients biopsychosocially. The skin is also first line of defense against pathogenic microbial invasion. Tight connections between corneccytes form a physical barrier, and antimicrobial peptides and lipids secreted by keratinocytes and glands provide a chemical barrier⁶.

In eubiosis, the skin microbiome contributes towards health. Commensals help maintain the barrier function and prevent colonization of pathogens by utilizing space and resources, as well as producing antimicrobial compounds². A eubiotic microbiome also contributes to proper regulation of the immune system as well as environmental factors such as skin pH^{2,7}. In dysbiosis, these beneficial commensals are reduced whilst pathogens increase⁷. This can lead to a decrease in the skin's protective functions, and modifications in immune system reactivity that leads to the development of inflammatory disease⁸.

In a similar way, dysbiosis of the gut microbiome can lead to skin disease⁸. This mechanism is termed the gutskin axis and is one of the reasons there are cutaneous manifestations for many gastrointestinal conditions⁹. A healthy functioning gut microbiome prevents the passage of noxious substances across the gut mucosal surface¹⁰. Dysbiosis can lead to such substances and pathogens crossing the mucosal barrier and entering the bloodstream - allowing them to travel to peripheral sites such as the skin¹⁰.

Figure 3: Mechanisms by which dysbiosis can lead to skin disease (adapted from Polkowska-Pruszynska et al. 11 and blis.co.nz/health-areas/skin-health 12).



Evidence & Potential Mechanisms

Atopic Dermatitis

Atopic dermatitis (AD) is the commonest skin disease worldwide, and is characterised by dry skin and itchy, scaly rashes¹³. Factors contributing to AD are epidermal barrier impairment, immune activation and microbiome dysbiosis¹.

Skin-Microbiome Relation

Longitudinal studies have shown that the relative abundance of *S. aureus* increases during an AD flare up compared to the post-flare state¹. Increased *S. aureus* is also directly correlated with increased disease severity^{14,15,16}. The relationship between this microbe and AD is further highlighted with the success of bleach baths¹⁷ – an intervention that improves disease severity by decreasing the prevalence of *S. aureus*.

Two skin areas that are commonly affected in AD are the inner elbow and popliteal regions. These areas have been shown to have decreased microbial diversity in AD patients relative to the same skin area in healthy controls¹⁵. Therefore, a decrease in microbial diversity may also contribute to AD development.

Gut-Microbiome Relation

Antibiotic use during pregnancy and C-section delivery is associated with a higher risk of AD development in children¹¹. These factors lead to impaired bacterial colonisation of the gut in neonates, which is the likely mechanism behind this association. This is in line with the hygiene hypothesis⁷ which states that a lack of microbial exposure leads to poor immune tolerance – causing increased sensitisation and allergy. As AD is part of the atopic triad, it is likely such microbiome interferences contribute to its development. Further supporting this theory is the finding that children supplemented with probiotics were found to be at a lower risk of developing AD¹¹.

Psoriasis

Psoriasis is a T-cell mediated inflammatory skin disease characterised by well demarcated, erythematous, scaly plaques¹⁸.

Skin-Microbiome Relation

Most studies report that psoriatic lesions are characterised by higher relative abundances of Firmicutes and lower relative abundances of Actinobacteria compared to controls¹⁸. At the genus level, lesional samples contain more *Streptococcus*, *Staphylococcus*, and *Corynebacterium* compared to controls, as well as decreased *Cutibacterium*¹⁸. A decrease in alpha diversity is also characteristic of psoriatic lesions¹⁸.

Gut-Microbiome Relation

Numerous studies have highlighted a difference in beta diversity between the gut microbiome of psoriasis patients and healthy controls¹⁹. Bacteroidota are found to be decreased in psoriasis patients and Firmicutes and Actinobacteria increased²⁰. The mechanism by which such changes may contribute to psoriasis has been investigated using experimental models. These models demonstrated that gut dysbiosis aids Th17-mediated skin inflammation^{21,22}. They showed that dysbiosis affects metabolite production and induces immune cell activation through the IL-23/IL-17 signalling pathway – resulting in keratinocyte hyperproliferation⁴.

Acne Vulgaris

Acne is a chronic condition which affects the pilosebaceous unit. It is highly prevalent in adolescents, affecting 85% of 16 to 18-year-olds²³.

Skin-Microbiome Relation

It has long been thought that *C. acnes* is the acne causing culprit. Despite its abundance in acne affected skin, it does not however fulfil all Koch's postulates – with increasing evidence that *C. acnes* is equally abundant in unaffected skin²⁴. It has now been found that an imbalance between certain *C. acnes* phylotypes (instead of *C. acnes* presence overall), is what contributes to acne development²⁴.

A metagenomic study highlighted that *C. acnes* strains associated with disease contain several virulence-associated gene elements²⁵. For example, a CRISPR/Cas locus is present in health-associated strains and absent in acne-related strains²⁴. CRISPR is an immune mechanism bacteria have against foreign DNA, and its presence in *C. acnes* may prevent the acquisition of genetic elements that promote acne pathogenesis²⁴. Emphasising this was the finding of a novel plasmid present in acne-associated *C. acnes* strains which contained a tight adhesion locus – this is essential for biofilm formation, colonisation and virulence^{26,27}.

Biofilm formation is an important virulence mechanism, as polymicrobial biofilms containing *C. acnes*, *Staphylococcus* and *Malassezia* were reported to be more frequent in the follicles of acne lesions compared to controls²⁸. These biofilms can act as a glue in the pilosebaceous unit and restrict the passage of sebum into the infundibulum. This leads to comedo formation and accumulation of corneocytes in the lumen – ultimately resulting in a keratinaceous plug and comedone development²⁹.

Gut-Microbiome Relation

In a study analysing the faecal bacterial diversity in acne patients versus controls, distinct differences in microbial diversity were found between the two groups³⁰. Acne patients' gut microbiome was less diverse and had a higher ratio of Bacteroidetes to Firmicutes³⁰. They also had decreased *Clostridia*, *Ruminococcaceae*, *Bifidobacterium*, *Coprobacillus* and *Lactobacillus* compared to healthy controls^{30,31}. Those with moderate to severe disease have been found to have a decrease in gut Actinobacteria and an increase in Proteobacteria^{31,32}.

There is also an increased prevalence of hypochlorhydria amongst acne patients³³. This can cause gut dysbiosis and small intestinal bacterial overgrowth (SIBO) leading to skin inflammation³³.

Rosacea

Rosacea is a chronic inflammatory skin disease, characterised by recurrent episodes of facial flushing, erythema, pustules and telangiectasia³⁴.

Skin-Microbiome Relation

The skin of rosacea patients has increased densities of mites (specifically *D. brevis* and *D. folliculorum*) compared to healthy controls³⁴. An association between *D. folliculorum* and raised inflammatory markers has also been shown, suggesting the mite may have a role in activating the immune system pathologically³⁵. Cytokines activated in *D. folliculorum* associated inflammation include IL-8 and TNF-a. These cytokines promote angiogenesis, so may be a cause of the telangiectasis which is present in rosacea³⁴.

S. epidermidis is another microorganism which may have a role in rosacea. When comparing skin affected by rosacea and adjacent unaffected skin, researchers observed a significant increase in *S. epidermidis* in the affected areas³⁶. Abundant levels of *S. epidermidis* have also been detected in pustular lesions of rosacea patients³⁷. In addition to this, it has been shown that in rosacea patients there is increased cutaneous blood flow to the face which leads to an elevated detectable temperature. At these higher temperatures, *S. epidermidis* produces proteins that may act as virulence factors – proteins that aren't found in healthy controls³⁷.

Gut-Microbiome Relation

SIBO is suspected to be related to rosacea, with one study finding that patients with rosacea were 13 times more likely to have SIBO compared to controls³⁴. Administration of rifaximin to eradicate SIBO in these patients lead to significant regression of skin lesions in almost all patients³⁴ and persisted in the majority for over 3 years. It was concluded that SIBO, and not antibiotic, was responsible for rosacea clearance, as in rosacea patients without SIBO antibiotic therapy did not lead to regression of lesions. In another study, 51% of rosacea patients had SIBO, whilst only 23% of rosacea-free individuals had SIBO³⁴.

A mechanism underlying the relation of the gut microbiome to rosacea may be the activation of the plasma kallikrein-kinin system (PKKS). These pathways are significantly activated in patients with intestinal inflammation and dysbiosis, and also in patients with rosacea when compared to controls³⁴.

Hidradenitis Suppurativa

Hidradenitis suppurativa (HS) is an autoinflammatory skin condition that affects skin in the axilla, groin and under the breasts³⁸. It is characterised by persisting boil-like nodules and abscesses that result in purulent discharge, sinuses, and scarring³⁸.

Skin-Microbiome Relation

It has been found that the skin microbiome in HS is significantly different from healthy controls in both lesional and non-lesional skin areas³⁹. This includes a significant loss of variety in HS patients' skin microbiome and increased anaerobe presence in lesional skin⁴⁰. Microorganisms found to be abundant in HS skin compared to healthy skin include *Porphyromonas*, *Peptoniphilus*, *Prevotella* and *Fusobacteria*⁴⁰. Interestingly, *Cutibacterium* are commonly decreased in HS patients³⁹. As *Cutibacterium* are an abundant commensal that contributes to skin health via its bactericidal properties, its reduction may be involved in the pathogenesis of HS.

Gut-Microbiome Relation

A recent systematic review included 5 meta-genomic sequencing studies investigating the gut microbiota in patients with HS⁴⁰. These studies collectively highlighted that HS is associated with alterations in the gut microbiome composition – with both reduced overall diversity and changes in specific bacterial species. *Robinsoniella*, *Bilophila*, *Holdemania* and *Ruminococcus* were commonly present in HS samples compared to healthy controls, suggesting they might have a role in the pathogenesis of the disease⁴⁰.

Malignant Diseases

Melanoma is the third most common cancer in New Zealand and accounts for 80% of deaths from skin cancer⁴¹. A study looking at the relationship between the gut microbiome and melanoma found that alpha diversity was higher in healthy controls compared to those with melanoma⁴². Alpha diversity was also decreased in melanoma patients with late-stage disease compared to those at early stages. This suggests that a loss of gut microbiome diversity is related to both disease state and disease progression in melanoma.

There is also a compelling causal link between the presence of the oncovirus called Merkel Cell Polyomavirus and the rare but aggressive neuroendocrine skin cancer termed Merkel Cell Carcinoma (MCC)⁴³. This oncovirus develops in hair follicles beneath the skin and can be found in 80% of MCCs⁴³.

Conclusions & Future Implications

The skin and gut microbiomes are related to skin disease, with dysbiosis and decreased microbial diversity being common hallmarks. Whilst this relationship exists, there is uncertainty around its mechanisms. Studies often cannot conclude whether its the microbiome changes causing disease, or disease causing the microbiome changes. It is important that more in depth investigations are done to figure out the intricacies of this relationship. Future studies will need to rigorously account for a number of factors (e.g. sex, ethnicity, antibiotic use, comorbidities, family history, neuroendocrine involvement), as many variables have the potential to influence the microbiome.

In saying that, this report highlights how specific patterns of microbiome composition are associated with particular skin diseases. Understanding these patterns and the mechanisms underlying their pathogenicity has the potential to both aid in diagnosis (e.g. microbiome based biomarkers for certain conditions) as well as therapeutically (correcting the dysbiosis). In today's world there is rising public concern over treatment such as topical steroids, making investing into producing effective pre/probiotic treatment methods especially worthwhile. The changing climate and the environmental effects of global warming are also impacting our microbiomes⁴⁴. We must understand this relationship between microbiomes and disease and utilise it to maximise health.

References

- 1. Byrd AL, Belkaid Y, Segre JA. The human skin microbiome. *Nature Reviews Microbiology*. 2018;16(3):143-155. doi:https://doi.org/10.1038/nrmicro.2017.157
- 2. Nørreslet LB, Agner T, Clausen ML. The Skin Microbiome in Inflammatory Skin Diseases. *Current Dermatology Reports*. 2020;9(2):141-151. doi:https://doi.org/10.1007/s13671-020-00297-
- 3. Rinninella E, Raoul P, Cintoni M, et al. What is the Healthy Gut Microbiota composition? A Changing Ecosystem across age, environment, diet, and Diseases. *Microorganisms*. 2019;7(1):14. doi:https://doi.org/10.3390/microorganisms7010014
- 4. Thye AYK, Bah YR, Law JWF, et al. Gut–Skin Axis: Unravelling the Connection between the Gut Microbiome and Psoriasis. *Biomedicines*. 2022;10(5):1037. doi:https://doi.org/10.3390/biomedicines10051037
- 5. Matijašić M, Meštrović T, Čipčić Paljetak H, Perić M, Barešić A, Verbanac D. Gut Microbiota beyond Bacteria—Mycobiome, Virome, Archaeome, and Eukaryotic Parasites in IBD. *International Journal of Molecular Sciences*. 2020;21(8):2668. doi:https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms21082668
- 6. Edslev S, Agner T, Andersen P. Skin Microbiome in Atopic Dermatitis. *Acta Dermato Venereologica*. 2020;100(12):adv00164. doi:https://doi.o
- 7. Sinha S, Lin G, Ferenczi K. The skin microbiome and the gut-skin axis. *Clinics in Dermatology*. 2021;39(5). doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.clindermatol.2021.08.021
- 8. Balato A, Cacciapuoti S, Di Caprio R, et al. Human Microbiome: Composition and Role in Inflammatory Skin Diseases. *Archivum Immunologiae Et Therapiae Experimentalis*. 2019;67(1):1-18. doi:https://doi.org/10.1007/s00005-018-0528-4
- 9. O'Neill CA, Monteleone G, McLaughlin JT, Paus R. The gut-skin axis in health and disease: A paradigm with therapeutic implications. *BioEssays*. 2016;38(11):1167-1176. doi:https://doi.org/10.1002/bies.201600008
- 10. Searle T, Ali FR, Carolides S, Al-Niaimi F. Rosacea and the gastrointestinal system. *Australasian Journal of Dermatology*. 2020;61(4):307-311. doi:https://doi.org/10.1111/ajd.13401
- 11. Polkowska-Pruszyńska B, Gerkowicz A, Krasowska D. The gut microbiome alterations in allergic and inflammatory skin diseases an update. *Journal of the European Academy of Dermatology and Venereology*. 2019;34(3):455-464. doi:https://doi.org/10.1111/jdv.15951
- 12. Skin Health. BLIS Technologies probiotic manufacturers. Published 2023. Accessed October 25, 2023. https://blis.co.nz/health-areas/skin-health/
- 13. Stanley A, Jarrett P. Atopic dermatitis | DermNet NZ. dermnetnz.org. Published February 2021. https://dermnetnz.org/topics/atopic-dermatitis
- 14. Elazab N, Mendy A, Gasana J, Vieira ER, Quizon A, Forno E. Probiotic Administration in Early Life, Atopy, and Asthma: A Meta-analysis of Clinical Trials. *PEDIATRICS*. 2013;132(3):e666-e676. doi:https://doi.org/10.1542/peds.2013-0246
- 15. Kong HH, Oh J, Deming C, et al. Temporal shifts in the skin microbiome associated with disease flares and treatment in children with atopic dermatitis. *Genome Research*. 2012;22(5):850-859. doi:https://doi.org/10.1101/gr.131029.111
- 16. Byrd AL, Deming C, Cassidy SKB, et al. Staphylococcus aureus and Staphylococcus epidermidis strain diversity underlying pediatric atopic dermatitis. *Science Translational Medicine*. 2017;9(397):eaal4651. doi:https://doi.org/10.1126/scitranslmed.aal4651
- 17. Chopra R, Vakharia PP, Sacotte R, Silverberg JI. Efficacy of bleach baths in reducing severity of atopic dermatitis: A systematic review and meta-analysis. Annals of Allergy, Asthma & Damping 19, 2017;119(5):435–40. doi:10.1016/j.anai.2017.08.289
- 18. Yerushalmi M, Ofir Elalouf, Anderson M, Chandran V. The skin microbiome in psoriatic disease: A systematic review and critical appraisal. *Journal of translational autoimmunity*. 2019;2:100009-100009. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jtauto.2019.100009
- 19. Sikora M, Stec A, Chrabaszcz M, et al. Gut Microbiome in Psoriasis: An Updated Review. *Pathogens*. 2020;9(6). doi:https://doi.org/10.3390/pathogens9060463
- 20. Todberg T, Kaiser H, Zachariae C, Egeberg A, Halling A, Skov L. Characterization of Oral and Gut Microbiota in Patients with Psoriatic Diseases: A Systematic Review. *Acta Dermato Venereologica*. 2021;101(adv00512):0. doi:https://doi.org/10.2340/00015555-3882
- 21. Zákostelská Z, Málková J, Klimešová K, et al. Intestinal Microbiota Promotes Psoriasis-Like Skin Inflammation by Enhancing Th17 Response. *PLoS ONE*. 2016;11(7). doi:https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0159539
- 22. Stehlikova Z, Kostovcikova K, Kverka M, et al. Crucial Role of Microbiota in Experimental Psoriasis Revealed by a Gnotobiotic Mouse Model. *Frontiers in Microbiology*. 2019;10. doi:https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2019.00236
- 23. Oakley A. Acne | DermNet NZ. dermnetnz.org. Published 2014. https://dermnetnz.org/topics/acne
- 24. O'Neill AM, Gallo RL. Host-microbiome interactions and recent progress into understanding the biology of acne vulgaris. *Microbiome*. 2018;6(1). doi:https://doi.org/10.1186/s40168-018-0558-5

- 25. Barnard E, Shi B, Kang D, Craft N, Li H. The balance of metagenomic elements shapes the skin microbiome in acne and health. *Scientific Reports*. 2016;6(1). doi:https://doi.org/10.1038/srep39491
- 26. Kasimatis G, Sorel Fitz-Gibbon, Shuta Tomida, Wong M, Li H. Analysis of Complete Genomes of *Propionibacterium acnes* Reveals a Novel Plasmid and Increased Pseudogenes in an Acne Associated Strain. *BioMed Research International*. 2013;2013:1-11. doi:https://doi.org/10.1155/2013/918320
- Schreiner HC, Sinatra K, Kaplan JB, et al. Tight-adherence genes of Actinobacillus actinomycetemcomitans are required for virulence in a rat model. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*. 2003;100(12):7295-7300. doi:https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1237223100
- 28. Jahns AC, Lundskog B, Ganceviciene R, et al. An increased incidence of Propionibacterium acnes biofilms in acne vulgaris: a case-control study. *British Journal of Dermatology*. 2012;167(1):50-58. doi:https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2133.2012.10897.x
- 29. Burkhart CG, Burkhart CN. Expanding the microcomedone theory and acne therapeutics: Propionibacterium acnes biofilm produces biological glue that holds corneocytes together to form plug. *Journal of the American Academy of Dermatology*. 2007;57(4):722-724. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaad.2007.05.013
- 30. Deng Y, Wang H, Zhou J, Mou Y, Wang G, Xiong X. Patients with Acne Vulgaris Have a Distinct Gut Microbiota in Comparison with Healthy Controls. *Acta Dermato Venereologica*. 2018;98(8):783-790. doi:https://doi.org/10.2340/00015555-2968
- 31. Yan HM, Zhao HJ, Guo DY, Zhu PQ, Zhang CL, Jiang W. Gut microbiota alterations in moderate to severe acne vulgaris patients. *The Journal of Dermatology*. 2018;45(10):1166-1171. doi:https://doi.org/10.1111/1346-8138.14586
- 32. Dréno B, Dagnelie MA, Khammari A, Corvec S. The Skin Microbiome: A New Actor in Inflammatory Acne. *American Journal of Clinical Dermatology*. 2020;21(1). doi:https://doi.org/10.1007/s40257-020-00531-1
- 33. Siddiqui R, Makhlouf Z, Khan NA. The increasing importance of the gut microbiome in acne vulgaris. *Folia Microbiologica*. 2022;67. doi:https://doi.org/10.1007/s12223-022-00982-5
- 34. Daou H, Paradiso M, Hennessy K, Seminario-Vidal L. Rosacea and the Microbiome: A Systematic Review. *Dermatology and Therapy*. 2020;11(1):1-12. doi:https://doi.org/10.1007/s13555-020-00460-1
- 35. Casas C, Paul C, Lahfa M, et al. Quantification of *Demodex folliculorum* by PCR in rosacea and its relationship to skin innate immune activation. *Experimental Dermatology*. 2012;21(12):906-910. doi:https://doi.org/10.1111/exd.12030
- 36. Whitfeld M, Gunasingam N, Leow LJ, Shirato K, Preda V. Staphylococcus epidermidis: A possible role in the pustules of rosacea. *Journal of the American Academy of Dermatology*. 2011;64(1):49-52. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaad.2009.12.036
- 37. Holmes AD. Potential role of microorganisms in the pathogenesis of rosacea. *Journal of the American Academy of Dermatology*. 2013;69(6):1025-1032. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaad.2013.08.006
- 38. Ngan V, Oakley A. Hidradenitis Suppurativa (Acne Inversa): A Complete Picture DermNet. dermnetnz.org. Published 2015. https://dermnetnz.org/topics/hidradenitis-suppurativa
- 39. Hans Christian Ring, Thorsen J, Ditte Marie Saunte, et al. The Follicular Skin Microbiome in Patients With Hidradenitis Suppurativa and Healthy Controls. *JAMA Dermatology*. 2017;153(9):897-897. doi:https://doi.org/10.1001/jamadermatol.2017.0904
- 40. Lelonek E, Dorra Bouazzi, Gregor, Szepietowski JC. Skin and Gut Microbiome in Hidradenitis Suppurativa: A Systematic Review. *Biomedicines*. 2023;11(8):2277-2277. doi:https://doi.org/10.3390/biomedicines11082277
- 41. Facts and risk factors. Melanoma NZ. Published 2022. https://melanoma.org.nz/all-about-melanoma/facts-and-risk-factors/
- 42. Witt RG, Cass S, Tran T, et al. Gut Microbiome in Patients With Early-Stage and Late-Stage Melanoma. *JAMA Dermatology*. 2023;159(10):1076-1076. doi:https://doi.org/10.1001/jamadermatol.2023.2955
- 43. Feng H, Shuda M, Chang Y, Moore PS. Clonal Integration of a Polyomavirus in Human Merkel Cell Carcinoma. *Science* (*New York, NY*). 2008;319(5866):1096-1100. doi:https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1152586
- 44. Isler MF, Coates SJ, Boos MD. Climate change, the cutaneous microbiome and skin disease: implications for a warming world. *International Journal of Dermatology*. 2022;62(3):337-345. doi:https://doi.org/10.1111/ijd.16297