Clinical Journal of Gastroenterology (2019) 12:501–510
https://doi.org/10.1007/s12328-019-00958-y

CLINICAL REVIEW

Current clinical issue of skin lesions in patients with inflammatory bowel disease

Tomoya Iida[1] · Tokimasa Hida[2] · Minoru Matsuura[3] · Hisashi Uhara[2] · Hiroshi Nakase[1]

Received: 11 January 2019 / Accepted: 28 February 2019 / Published online: 5 March 2019

Abstract

Inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) is associated with a number of extraintestinal complications, including skin lesions. Most reports have shown that skin lesions are found in 10–15% of IBD cases, although this depends on the definition of skin lesions. The representative skin lesions in patients with IBD are erythema nodosum, pyoderma gangrenosum, Sweet's syndrome, and so on. These lesions are often associated with IBD progression, and intestinal lesions in particular require appropriate treatment. Recently, another clinical issue regarding skin lesions in patients with IBD, a so-called paradoxical reaction, during the treatment with anti-tumor necrosis factor (TNF)-α agents has emerged. These reactions are termed paradoxical reactions because the skin lesions sometimes resemble psoriasis, although the anti-TNF-α agents have been historically used to treat psoriasis. Paradoxical reactions are reportedly found in approximately 5–10% of patients using anti-TNF-α agents and are no longer rare. Now that the use of biologics is at its culmination, reports regarding paradoxical reactions are predicted to increase in number; thus, we must recognize skin lesions with IBD patients including this type of adverse events and manage them appropriately while consulting with dermatologists.

Keywords Inflammatory bowel disease · Extraintestinal · Skin lesion · Paradoxical reaction · Anti-tumor necrosis factor

Introduction

Inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) is a chronic inflammatory disease involving idiopathic inflammation, mainly in the gastrointestinal tract; defined more specifically, it comprises ulcerative colitis (UC) and Crohn's disease (CD). Both are characterized by onset at a young age, and the number of affected patients has risen sharply in recent years in Europe and the United States, as well as in Japan [1]. IBD is associated with a number of complications in the extraintestinal organs such as the eyes [2–5], joint [6–8], skin, and so on. Some of these manifestations appear to be related to the activity of the underlying gut inflammation [9, 10]. Recently, it was also reported that presence of extraintestinal manifestations was significantly associated with the increased disability [11], and the occurrence of IBD drug-related adverse events that necessitated treatment cessation [12]. Therefore, the management of extraintestinal manifestations is important for patients with IBD.

Recently, another clinical issue regarding skin lesions in patients with IBD, a so-called paradoxical reaction, during the treatment with anti-tumor necrosis factor (TNF)-α agents has emerged [13]. Despite recognition of anti-TNF-α agents as safe, potential side effects include allergic reactions [14, 15] and opportunistic infections such as reactivation of tuberculosis [16, 17]. In addition, anti-TNF-α agents can cause psoriasiform skin lesions in a subgroup of anti-TNF-α-treated patients with IBD [13]. This review deals with the skin lesions related to patients with IBD including paradoxical reaction as adverse events associated with anti-TNF-α therapies.

✉ Hiroshi Nakase
hiropynakase@gmail.com

[1] Department of Gastroenterology and Hepatology, Sapporo Medical University School of Medicine, Sapporo, Japan

[2] Department of Dermatology, Sapporo Medical University School of Medicine, Sapporo, Japan

[3] Department of Gastroenterology and Hepatology, Kyoto University Graduate School of Medicine, Kyoto, Japan

The skin lesions in patients with IBD

Extraintestinal lesions are reportedly found in 6–47% of IBD cases [8–10, 18–24], while skin lesions are found in 10–15% of IBD, depending on the definition of skin lesions [8, 18]. Other reports stated that lesions occur at a higher rate [25, 26]. It was reported that the skin lesions in patients with IBD were more common in CD than UC [22, 23]. In addition, HLA-B*27 is associated with skin lesions in patients with IBD [22]. The representative skin lesions in patients with IBD are erythema nodosum (EN), pyoderma gangrenosum (PG), Sweet's syndrome (SS), paradoxical reaction, and so on. The skin lesions found in patients with IBD are described below in order.

Erythema nodosum (EN)

Erythema nodosum is the most common skin manifestation of IBD. Its prevalence varies depending on the study population and the type of study. It is reported in 3–10% of patients with UC and 6–15% of patients with CD [8, 9, 18]. Many studies indicated a marked female preponderance with a female to male ratio of about 5:1, but reasons for this gender-specific difference remain unclear [27, 28]. In the cases of 85% or more, EN appears after the diagnosis of IBD [9]. Furthermore, EN is frequently associated with eye and joint involvement, isolated colonic involvement, and PG [28]. In some cases, EN may be symptoms of underlying diseases such as sarcoidosis [29] or Behçet's disease [30]. EN also develops secondary to upper respiratory infections and gastrointestinal infections [31]. The causes of EN are often unknown, but it is sometimes comorbid with IBD and is correlated with its activity. However, EN severity does not always correspond to disease activity of IBD [32].

EN consists of painful tender raised erythematous nodules (Fig. 1). They are found predominantly on the extensor surfaces, nearly always in the pretibial region. Diagnosis is based on typical clinical presentation. In most cases, EN can be easily recognized as symmetrical, raised, tender, red, or violet subcutaneous nodules of 1–5 cm in diameter [9]. Although the inflammation of subcutaneous adipose tissue causes EN, the pathogenic mechanisms involved in EN remain unclear. Histopathologically, infiltration of neutrophils, lymphocytes, and histiocytes can be found in the septum of subcutaneous adipose tissue.

Symptomatic relief is the therapeutic goal. The prognosis of EN is good, and the disease is largely self limiting and heals without scars [20]. The most important thing in the therapy of EN is to treat gastrointestinal lesions. The representative supportive care is leg elevation, analgesics, potassium iodide, and compression stockings [9, 33]. For severe cases of EN, non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) and/or steroids are required [34]. Ideally, NSAIDs should be avoided because of the risk of worsening the bowel disease. However, some patients may require NSAIDs, which usually provide effective relief of pain. Occasionally, anti-TNF-α agents are used in cases in which the aforementioned treatment was poorly effective [35, 36], and a report based on a cohort study previously showed that the treatment was effective in 80% (8/10) of cases [37]. Repeated recurrence is believed to occur in approximately 30% of patients, but the lesions heal without leaving scars.

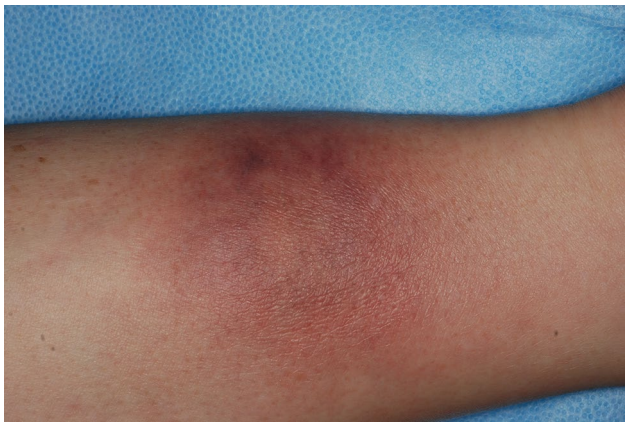

Fig. 1 The skin lesion of erythema nodosum. Tender erythematous plaques developed in the lower extremities of a middle-aged woman with ulcerative colitis. The eruptions healed in 4 weeks without specific treatments

Pyoderma gangrenosum (PG)

Pyoderma gangrenosum is a less common but more troublesome skin manifestation associated with IBD [38]. It is present in between 0.5 and 2% of both UC and CD patients and it may be more common in UC and in female [27, 39, 40]. IBD precedes the appearance of PG and less than 15% of PG cases appear before the diagnosis of IBD [9]. PG is associated with pancolitis as initial IBD location, permanent stoma, eye involvement, and EN [28]. In addition, PG is known to develop mostly in patients with some kind of underlying diseases; as a matter of fact, it is comorbid with IBD in 36–50% of affected patients [41] and with rheumatoid arthritis [42] or Takayasu disease [43] in others. The presence of abnormal neutrophils and T cells leads to immune dysregulation, leading to lesions of PG. Increased levels of inflammatory mediators including IL-1β, IL-8, IL-17, and TNF-α contribute to the development of the disease but there are still several unknown factors [44]. PG is often related to the disease activity, and in some cases PG is

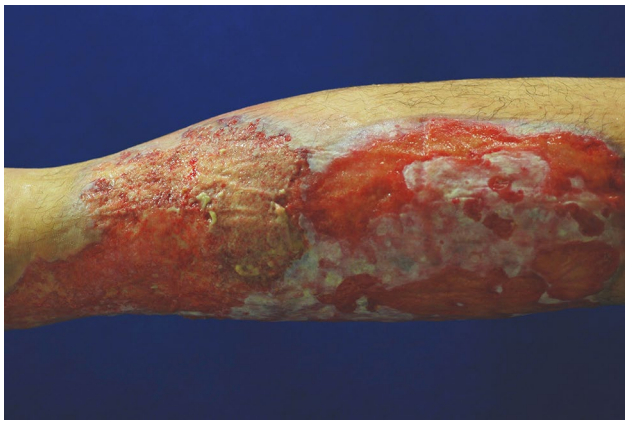

Fig. 2 The skin lesion of pyoderma gangrenosum. A middle-aged man had a 3-month history of refractory skin ulcers on his lower legs after a minor trauma. The ulcers gradually enlarged, forming purpuric borders, vegetative granulation tissues, aseptic skin abscess and necrosis. After clinical workup, comorbid ulcerative colitis was diagnosed

associated with severe relapse of IBD. However, some cases of PG are not correlated with IBD disease severity.

The rash presents in various aspects and can be roughly classified into four different types: ulcerative, pustular, bullous, and vegetative [45]. Among these types, the clinical symptoms of ulcerative PG are pathognomonic; the lesions have dike-shaped bulging margins and are often penetrating [46] (Fig. 2). Regarding pathological findings, abnormal neutrophil function and impaired cellular immunity may play an important role in PG [47]. A skin biopsy is not essential for diagnosis but can be useful for ruling out other diseases. Further, CD patients with PG are reportedly more often anti-neutrophil cytoplasmic antibody positive and anti-*Saccharomyces cerevisiae* antibody negative than CD patients without PG; these serological characteristics can sometimes help with the diagnosis [48].

The most important target in the therapy of PG is gastrointestinal lesion as with the therapy for EN. However, what is different from treatment for EN is that medical treatments including steroids, calcineurin inhibitors, and anti-TNF-α agents are often required for PG. Local treatment consisting of topical steroids and tacrolimus can be effective in patients with moderately severe disease [9, 44, 45, 49, 50]; however, when the disease is more severe, treatments for refractory IBD should be considered, namely the systemic administration of steroids, combined use of azathioprine and methotrexate [9, 33, 44, 45], oral administration of tacrolimus [51], intravenous injections of cyclosporine [52, 53], or use of anti-TNF-α agents [54–58]. In addition, there have been some cases treated with granulocyte and monocyte adsorption apheresis in patients with PG accompanied with IBD [59, 60]. The lesions may last for many months, and more than 25% of patients will have recurrent episodes [27]. Finally, new ulcers reportedly form atop healed ulcers; as a result, the disease leaves scars.

Sweet's syndrome (SS)

Sweet's syndrome was first reported by Sweet in 1964 [61], and because it was histopathologically characterized by a dense neutrophilic infiltration in the dermis, it is often classified as a neutrophilic dermatosis [62]. Depending on its etiopathology, SS can be classified into three categories: classical or idiopathic, malignancy-associated, and drug-induced SS. The association between IBD and SS was first described in 1989 [63]. SS is a rare extraintestinal manifestation of IBD and precise incidence is lacking. However, it has been considered as third skin lesion related to IBD [38]. SS is more common in CD (70%) and in female (87%). SS is associated with active IBD in 67–80%, but precedes the onset of intestinal symptoms in 21%. It is noted that all SS cases with IBD presented with colonic involvement [64–67]. The pathophysiological basis of the relationship between SS and IBD remains mostly unclear, but since they are more commonly found in women, the roles of genetic factors and hormonal involvement have been suggested. Interestingly, there have been reports of SS that developed as a result of the administration of granulocyte colony-stimulating factor [68, 69]. In addition, a patient with SS experienced improvement of her skin lesion after receiving granulocyte and monocyte adsorption apheresis [70]; these reports indicated a strong association between neutrophils and the pathophysiology of SS.

Regarding clinical symptoms, the condition develops suddenly with a fever of 38–40 °C. The rash consists of painful

Fig. 3 The skin lesion of Sweet's syndrome. Multiple edematous plaques suddenly developed on the upper extremities of a middle-aged woman who had a 14-year history of ulcerative colitis. The lesions were composed of round or annular erythematous edematous plaques and papules, some of which had small ulcers in the center of the plaques. The eruptions were accompanied by pyrexia

elevated erythematous lesions that develop more commonly on the face and extremities (Fig. 3). In some cases, a large number of pustules are found on the erythema. The condition is also commonly accompanied by joint pain and stomatitis. Histopathologically, the upper and middle layers of the dermis show edema and an extensive infiltration of a large number of inflammatory cells, primarily neutrophils. Blood test results lack specificity and show only elevated C-reactive protein levels and leukocytosis with a neutrophil predominance [9].

Similarly to EN and PG, treating gastrointestinal lesions is most important part of SS treatment. First-line treatment of SS is systemic steroids. High-potency topical steroids or intralesional glucocorticoids may be used for localized disease [23]. For refractory cases, cyclosporines are indicated [71]; the use of vedolizumab was also recently reported [72]. The lesions do not leave scars upon healing.

Stomatitis aphthosa (SA)

Stomatitis aphthosa is believed to be found in 4% of UC cases and approximately 10% of CD cases [8, 73]. SA tends to develop mostly when intestinal lesions are severe and tends to be associated with the activity of the underlying disease, but it can also be found during the remission phase [9, 23]. In 25% of patients, SA develops before IBD is diagnosed [9]. In addition, a study showed that a majority of patients with multiple SA had underlying IBD [74].

Compared to common aphthosa, SA that develops as a complication tends to be larger, more numerous, and persist longer; SA is painful and develops throughout the oral cavity from the buccal mucous membrane to the peritonsillar area. Reddening can be found at the lesion margins, while a yellow pseudomembrane-like deposit is seen at the bottom of the lesions [33].

Controlling intestinal inflammation is important in the treatment; the application of topical steroids and local anesthetics is recommended. Systemic steroids are used for severe or refractory cases [33, 75]. It was also reported that the response rate of anti-TNF agents in IBD patients with SA was 78.1% (25/32) [37].

Metastatic Crohn's disease (MCD)

Metastatic Crohn's disease is a rare skin lesions of patients with CD and is defined as granulomatous lesions that are non-contiguous with the gastrointestinal tract [25, 76]. The exact incidence of MCD has not been reported thus far. In adults, the diagnosis of MCD is most commonly established after the patient is diagnosed with CD; however, in children, MCD is believed to be diagnosed before CD in 50–86% of cases [76]. MCD is reportedly associated with colon lesions but not disease progression [77, 78].

Representative skin lesions are erythema, induration and ulcerations, abscess-like lesions, skin tags, isolated lymphedema, and so on. These are found mainly in the lower extremities and intertriginous areas. Also, genital lesions have been reported especially in children [79]. Pathologically, many of its features overlap with those of the gastrointestinal lesions related to CD. However, a diffuse infiltrative pattern, paucity of acute inflammatory cells, and presence of multinucleated giant cells are typical in lesions of MCD while absent in GI lesions of CD [80].

While compiled therapeutic methods are extremely few, treatment can be broadly classified as local versus systemic. A prospective evaluation of the therapeutic effect of topical tacrolimus in four cases of MCD showed that the treatment was effective in three cases [50]; however, all other reports are case reports of topical steroids [81]. Virtually all studies on systemic treatment are case reports of steroids [78], azathioprine [82], cyclosporines [83], and anti-TNF-α agents [84, 85]. Another report showed that surgical resection and debridement was effective in four of five cases, but the efficacy of surgical treatment is limited [86].

Hidradenitis suppurativa (HS)

Hidradenitis suppurativa is a chronic inflammatory recurrent and debilitating follicular skin disease with an average age at onset of 23 years and 3:1 predilection in women versus men [87, 88]. The incidence of HS in patients with IBD and without IBD was 3.3–23% and 0.1–1.0%, respectively [89–91]. HS is reportedly more likely to be comorbid with CD than with UC [91, 92]. In addition, the development of HS in patients with IBD was recently reported to be associated with smoking, obesity, small intestinal lesions, and anal lesions [93].

The pathophysiology of HS consists of: (1) a fragility of the hair follicle infundibulum and the formation of an epidermal cyst; and (2) an excessive innate immune response to non-infectious stimuli. Abnormalities of the Notch signal are reportedly involved in the etiopathology of IBD [94], and the same abnormalities are reportedly involved in the etiopathology of HS [95]. Notch signal abnormalities cause a differentiation abnormality of the outer root sheath cells and lead to the formation of keratin-rich epidermal cysts. When the epidermal cyst is destroyed, keratin is released into the dermis, which induces macrophage activation via Toll-like receptors; as a result, inflammatory cytokines such as IL-1β and TNF-α are released and stimulate dendritic cells. In turn, the IL-23 released from dendritic cells causes inflammation by inducing Th-17 cells. Furthermore, mutations of γ-secretase, which is involved in the cleavage of Notch receptors, have also attracted attention as a cause of HS [96]. The incidence of squamous cell carcinoma is reportedly as high as 3.2% in HS patients [97].

Deteriorated quality of life (QOL) is often found in IBD patients [98, 99]; however, patients with HS also have a low QOL [87]. The goal of treatment is to improve and maintain patient QOL; to achieve this goal, surgical resection, topical clindamycin, and oral tetracycline antibiotics can be considered. Multiple randomized controlled trials have shown that adalimumab, which has also been used to treat IBD, was also beneficial for the treatment of refractory cases [100–102].

Paradoxical reaction

The indications of anti-TNF-α agents have been extended to various refractory diseases such as UC, CD, psoriasis, and Behçet's disease; they are now widely used. To date, various adverse events affecting the skin, such as skin infections, lupus-like rashes, erythema multiforme, and vasculitis, have reportedly developed as side effects related to anti-TNF-α agent treatment [103]. Previous reports from other countries have shown that the overall incidence of skin adverse events resulting from the use of anti-TNF-α agents in IBD patients was approximately 20.5–29%, which was considered extremely high [104, 105]. Adverse events consisting of a psoriasis-like eruption developing during treatment with anti-TNF-α agents have recently been focused. The reaction was first reported in 2004 [106], and it was called a paradoxical reaction [107] because TNF inhibitors had originally been used to treat psoriasis [108, 109]. Paradoxical reactions have been observed with an underlying disease, including rheumatoid arthritis, ankylosing spondylitis, IBD and Behçet's disease, and can appear anytime during the administration of anti-TNF-α agents. A report of 573 patients with IBD previously revealed that psoriasis-like eruptions had an occurrence rate of 10.1% [104]; a similar study of 917 patients showed an occurrence rate of 8.9% [105]. In addition, an extremely recent study conducted on 732 IBD patients reported an occurrence rate of psoriasis-like eruptions of 5.3% [110], while a nationwide population-based cohort study showed that in IBD patients who had received anti-TNF-α agents for 6 months or longer, the incidence of psoriasis had a hazard ratio of 2.357 and a 95% confidence interval of 1.668–3.331 compared with anti-TNF-α agent-naïve patients [111]. From these results, this paradoxical reaction can no longer be considered rare. Further, previous reports have shown that psoriasis-like eruptions increased with treatment duration of anti-TNF-α agents and that their cumulative occurrence rate was 1.1% at 1 year, 6.75% at 5 years, and 28.9% at 10 years; this suggested that the differences between the reports may have been due to differences in treatment course and follow-up duration [104]. Regarding the difference of frequency of paradoxical reaction in anti-TNF-α agents, Afzali et al. reported that it was 1.3%, 4.1%, and 6.4% in 1004 IBD patients treated with infliximab (IFX), adalimumab (ADA), and certolizumab, respectively [112]. In addition, the risk factors associated with the development of this psoriasis-like rash include age (40s), female sex, tobacco smoking, elevated body mass index, history of introduction of treatment using antibody preparations at a young age, and a family history of psoriasis or atopic dermatitis. The inhibitory factors include the combination use of thiopurines [104, 113–117].

The rash develops throughout the body, including on the arms and legs, hair-covered areas, flexor surfaces of the limbs, axillary regions, and genital region [113, 118]. When the rash develops at infrequent locations such as the flexor surfaces of the limbs, the axilla, inguinal region, and gluteal clefts, the condition is called inverse psoriasis [113]. These eruptions are of the pustular (56%), plaque (50%), and guttate (12%) types; combinations of multiple disease types have also been reported in 15% of cases; most cases of pustular-type rash presented clinically as palmoplantar pustulosis [114]. We experienced this type of paradoxical reaction during ADA treatment in a patient with CD (Fig. 4a, b).

Further, in recent years, several other paradoxical reactions due to the use of anti-TNF-α agents have been reported; typical cases include sarcoidosis [119–121], synovitis–acne–pustulosis–hyperostosis–osteitis (SAPHO) syndrome [122], and amicrobial pustulosis of the folds [123].

Fig. 4 **a, b** The skin lesion of paradoxical reaction. Ill-defined erythemas with desquamation and small erosions suddenly developed in the palmoplantar areas of a middle-aged woman who had a 27-year history of Crohn's disease. These skin lesions appeared 18 months after she was first administered adalimumab

Others

Other skin lesions that are believed to be associated with IBD are less frequent but have been reported in multiple instances. Such skin lesions include lichen planus [124, 125], vasculitis [126, 127], acquired epidermolysis bullosa [128, 129], and linear IgA bullous dermatosis [130, 131].

What is the exact mechanism of paradoxical reaction?

Genetics

Some have suggested that paradoxical reaction may represent a genetic pre-disposition towards psoriasis given the known overlap in risk loci between various immune-mediated diseases. In the study by Rahier et al., 12.9% of the IBD patients with psoriasiform skin lesions had a positive family history of psoriasis [113], that supports the hypothesis of common susceptibility genes shared with psoriasis. Genetic analysis data demonstrated that the mean psoriasis genetic burden score using the cumulative sum of odds ratios was higher in those who developed psoriasis compared to those who did not. Additional analysis showed two SNPs [allele (A) rs28998802 (*NOS2*), allele (G) rs3802826 (*ETS1*)] as genetic polymorphisms pre-disposing towards psoriasis [132]. ETS1 is a transcription factor that is important for CD8 T-cell differentiation in the thymus, which may have a potential role in immune regulation by inducing expression of matrix metalloproteases, defensins, chemokines, and cytokines [133]. *NOS2* encodes inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS) which is expressed by TNF-α-producing dendritic cells in psoriatic lesions. Generally, NOS2 expression, which Th1 cytokines induce, is absent in normal skin but is upregulated in PS lesions [134].

It was reported that none of *IL23R* variants was over represented in IBD patients with psoriasiform skin lesions and no significant differences in the minor allele frequencies of *IL12B* and *IL23A* variants was observed. On the contrary, all patients with severe psoriasiform skin lesions and/or anti-TNF-α-induced alopecia, requiring ustekinumab (UST) therapy, were G/G wild-type carriers for the rare coding *IL23R* variant rs1120926 (p.Arg381Gln) [116].

Immune mechanism

The exact mechanism of anti-TNF-α-associated psoriasis is unclear despite the proposal of several hypotheses. Widely accepted hypothesis for the development of anti-TNF-α-associated psoriasis is as reduction in TNF-α in conjunction with an increase in interferon (IFN)-α produced by plasmacytoid dendritic cells [135]. It was demonstrated that the TNF-induced skin lesions are characterized by infiltrating IFN-γ-expressing Th1 lymphocytes and by increased numbers of interleukin (IL)-17A/IL-22-expressing Th17 cells. It is important to note that in addition to binding with their Fab (antigen-binding region) fragment to TNF, IFX and ADA also bind with their Fc (crystallizable fragment) region to the Fc receptors CD64 (Fc-gamma receptor I (FcγRI)) and CD16/32 [Fc-gamma receptor III/II (FcγRIII/II)] expressed by monocytes and macrophages. The activation of the Fc receptors may lead to the paradoxical secretion of proinflammatory cytokines, such as IL-12 and IL-23 [116, 136]. However, this is unlikely to completely explain the development of paradoxical skin lesions.

How to manage the paradoxical reaction

If you encountered IBD patients with anti-TNF-associated psoriasiform skin lesions, how will you treat them? Collamer et al. reported their treatment algorithm for psoriasis-like eruptions as follows: if the rash affects < 5% of the body surface area, local treatment using steroids, vitamin D analogs, or phototherapy should be administered; if the rash affects ≥ 5% of the body surface area, the local treatment should be combined with the systemic administration of methotrexate, retinoid, cyclosporin A, or other agents [137]. Regarding the issue of whether to continue administering anti-TNF-α agents, one report argued that since most skin symptoms can be improved by medication, discontinuing anti-TNF-α agents would not provide much advantage [115]; meanwhile, Rahier et al. also reported that anti-TNF-α agents had to be discontinued in 40% of cases (25/62) and that complete remission was achieved in 96% of those who discontinued anti-TNF-α therapy (24/25) [113]. However, due to IBD symptoms, discontinuation of anti-TNF-α agents can sometimes be difficult; in such cases, shifting the treatment to other anti-TNF-α agents or other types of biologics that have therapeutic effects in both IBD and psoriasiform skin lesions should be considered. The efficacy rate of switching between IFX and ADA was reported 28.6% [104], although it was not high. Recently, the efficacy of UST in IFX-induced psoriasis and arthritis associated with CD was reported [138]. It was reported that ADA-induced paradoxical HS was improved by switching to UST in a patient with CD [139]. Also in CD patients treated with IFX at our facility, shifting the treatment to UST improved the skin symptoms without exacerbating the intestinal lesions. However, we should keep in mind that UST itself might lead to paradoxical reaction [140, 141].

Regarding the re-administration of treatment after discontinuing anti-TNF-α agents, a previous report showed that IFX was reintroduced in 33% (6/18) of IBD patients after the remission of a psoriasis-like eruption but that no

recurrence occurred in any of the patients [142]. It was also reported that concomitant use of thiopurine decreased the risk of skin lesions in analysis of 500 IBD patients receiving anti-TNF-α agents [143]. We consider adding thiopurine in cases with anti-TNF-α therapy alone or keeping thiopurine alone in IBD patients treated with combination therapy if these patients have clinical and endoscopic remission. In addition, we must consider to ask dermatologists for exact diagnosis and treatment.

Summary

Since IBD patients have various complications that are often associated with its progression, treating intestinal inflammation properly is the bottom line. Anti-TNF-α agents have become essential in the treatment of IBD; on the other hand, adverse events including paradoxical reactions mentioned in this review will increase in number in the future. Therefore, we always keep in mind such adverse events and appropriately handle them.

Funding This work was partly supported by Health and Labour Sciences Research Grants for research on intractable diseases from the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare of Japan (Investigation and Research for intractable Inflammatory Bowel Disease) (to H.N.), and Japan Society for the Promotion of Science (JSPS) Grants-in-Aid for Scientific Research (KAKENHI) Grant Number JP17J02428 (to T.I.) and JP18H02799 (to H.N.). The funders of the study had no role in the study design, data collection, data analysis, data interpretation, or writing of the report.

Compliance with ethical standards

Conflict of interest The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Human rights statement All procedures followed have been performed in accordance with the ethical standards laid down in the 1964 Declaration of Helsinki and its later amendments.

Informed consent Informed consent was obtained from all patients for being included in the study.

References

1. Molodecky NA, Soon IS, Rabi DM, et al. Increasing incidence and prevalence of the inflammatory bowel diseases with time, based on systematic review. Gastroenterology. 2012;142:46–54.
2. Ottaviano G, Salvatore S, Salvatoni A, et al. Ocular manifestations of paediatric inflammatory bowel disease: a systematic review and meta-analysis. J Crohns Colitis. 2018;12:870–9.
3. Fine S, Nee J, Thakuria P, et al. Ocular, auricular, and oral manifestations of inflammatory bowel disease. Dig Dis Sci. 2017;62:3269–79.
4. Troncoso LL, Biancardi AL, de Moraes HV Jr, et al. Ophthalmic manifestations in patients with inflammatory bowel disease: a review. World J Gastroenterol. 2017;23:5836–48.
5. Lee HJ, Song HJ, Jeong JH, et al. Ophthalmologic manifestations in patients with inflammatory bowel disease. Intest Res. 2017;15:380–7.
6. Hammoudeh M, Elsayed E, Al-Kaabi S, et al. Rheumatic manifestations of inflammatory bowel diseases: a study from the Middle East. J Int Med Res. 2018;46:3837–47.
7. Pouillon L, Bossuyt P, Vanderstukken J, et al. Management of patients with inflammatory bowel disease and spondyloarthritis. Expert Rev Clin Pharmacol. 2017;10:1363–74.
8. Vavricka SR, Brun L, Ballabeni P, et al. Frequency and risk factors for extraintestinal manifestations in the Swiss inflammatory bowel disease cohort. Am J Gastroenterol. 2011;106:110–9.
9. Vavricka SR, Schoepfer A, Scharl M, et al. Extraintestinal manifestations of inflammatory bowel disease. Inflamm Bowel Dis. 2015;21:1982–92.
10. Monsén U, Sorstad J, Hellers G, et al. Extracolonic diagnoses in ulcerative colitis: an epidemiological study. Am J Gastroenterol. 1990;85:711–6.
11. Lo B, Julsgaard M, Vester-Andersen MK, et al. Disease activity, steroid use and extraintestinal manifestation are associated with increased disability in patients with inflammatory bowel disease using the inflammatory bowel disease disability index: a cross-sectional multicentre cohort study. Eur J Gastroenterol Hepatol. 2018;30:1130–6.
12. Godat S, Fournier N, Safroneeva E, et al. Frequency and type of drug-related side effects necessitating treatment discontinuation in the Swiss Inflammatory Bowel Disease Cohort. Eur J Gastroenterol Hepatol. 2018;30:612–20.
13. Cleynen I, Vermeire S. Paradoxical inflammation induced by anti-TNF agents in patients with IBD. Nat Rev Gastroenterol Hepatol. 2012;9:496–503.
14. Lichtenstein L, Ron Y, Kivity S, et al. Infliximab-related infusion reactions: systematic review. J Crohns Colitis. 2015;9:806–15.
15. Duron C, Goutte M, Pereira B, et al. Factors influencing acute infusion reactions in inflammatory bowel disease patients treated with infliximab in the era of scheduled maintenance therapy. Eur J Gastroenterol Hepatol. 2015;27:705–11.
16. Keane J, Gershon S, Wise RP, et al. Tuberculosis associated with infliximab, a tumor necrosis factor alpha-neutralizing agent. N Engl J Med. 2001;345:1098–104.
17. Park DI, Hisamatsu T, Chen M, et al. Asian Organization for Crohn's and Colitis and Asian Pacific Association of Gastroenterology consensus on tuberculosis infection in patients with inflammatory bowel disease receiving anti-tumor necrosis factor treatment. Part 1: risk assessment. J Gastroenterol Hepatol. 2018;33:20–9.
18. Greenstein AJ, Janowitz HD, Sachar DB. The extra-intestinal complications of Crohn's disease and ulcerative colitis: a study of 700 patients. Medicine. 1976;55:401–12.
19. Rankin GB, Watts HD, Melnyk CS, et al. National Cooperative Crohn's Disease Study: extraintestinal manifestations and perianal complications. Gastroenterology. 1979;77:914–20.
20. Veloso FT, Carvalho J, Magro F. Immune-related systemic manifestations of inflammatory bowel disease. A prospective study of 792 patients. J Clin Gastroenterol. 1996;23:29–34.
21. Jose FA, Garnett EA, Vittinghoff E, et al. Development of extraintestinal manifestations in pediatric patients with inflammatory bowel disease. Inflamm Bowel Dis. 2009;15:63–8.
22. Ott C, Schölmerich J. Extraintestinal manifestations and complications in IBD. Nat Rev Gastroenterol Hepatol. 2013;10:585–95.
23. Marzano AV, Borghi A, Stadnicki A, et al. Cutaneous manifestations in patients with inflammatory bowel diseases:

pathophysiology, clinical features, and therapy. Inflamm Bowel Dis. 2014;20:213–27.
24. Alreheili KM, Alsaleem KA, Almehaidib AI. Natural history and outcome of inflammatory bowel diseases in children in Saudi Arabia: a single-center experience. Saudi J Gastroenterol. 2018;24:171–6.
25. Burgdorf W. Cutaneous manifestations of Crohn's disease. J Am Acad Dermatol. 1981;5:689–95.
26. Palamaras I, El-Jabbour J, Pietropaolo N, et al. Metastatic Crohn's disease: a review. J Eur Acad Dermatol Venereol. 2008;22:1033–43.
27. Freeman HJ. Erythema nodosum and pyoderma gangrenosum in 50 patients with Crohn's disease. Can J Gastroenterol. 2005;19:603–6.
28. Farhi D, Cosnes J, Zizi N, et al. Significance of erythema nodosum and pyoderma gangrenosum in inflammatory bowel diseases: a cohort study of 2402 patients. Medicine. 2008;87:281–93.
29. Saltman AP, Kuriya B. Löfgren syndrome in acute sarcoidosis. CMAJ. 2017;189:E1230.
30. Davatchi F, Chams-Davatchi C, Shams H, et al. Adult Behcet's disease in Iran: analysis of 6075 patients. Int J Rheum Dis. 2016;19:95–103.
31. Passarini B, Infusino SD. Erythema nodosum. G Ital Dermatol Venereol. 2013;148:413–7.
32. Apgar JT. Newer aspects of inflammatory bowel disease and its cutaneous manifestations: a selective review. Semin Dermatol. 1991;10:138–47.
33. Timani S, Mutasim DF. Skin manifestations of inflammatory bowel disease. Clin Dermatol. 2008;26:265–73.
34. Lakatos PL, Lakatos L, Kiss LS, et al. Treatment of extraintestinal manifestations in inflammatory bowel disease. Digestion. 2012;86:28–35.
35. Clayton TH, Walker BP, Stables GI. Treatment of chronic erythema nodosum with infliximab. Clin Exp Dermatol. 2006;31:823–4.
36. Quin A, Kane S, Ulitsky O. A case of fistulizing Crohn's disease and erythema nodosum managed with adalimumab. Nat Clin Pract Gastroenterol Hepatol. 2008;5:278–81.
37. Vavricka SR, Gubler M, Gantenbein C, et al. Anti-TNF treatment for extraintestinal manifestations of inflammatory bowel disease in the Swiss IBD Cohort Study. Inflamm Bowel Dis. 2017;23:1174–81.
38. Greuter T, Navarini A, Vavricka SR. Skin manifestations of inflammatory bowel disease. Clin Rev Allergy Immunol. 2017;53:413–27.
39. Polcz M, Gu J, Florin T. Pyoderma gangrenosum in inflammatory bowel disease: the experience at Mater Health Services' Adult Hospital 1998–2009. J Crohns Colitis. 2011;5:148–51.
40. Bennett ML, Jackson JM, Jorizzo JL, et al. Pyoderma gangrenosum. A comparison of typical and atypical forms with an emphasis on time to remission. Case review of 86 patients from 2 institutions. Medicine (Baltimore). 2000;79:37–46.
41. Powell FC, Su WP, Perry HO. Pyoderma gangrenosum: classification and management. J Am Acad Dermatol. 1996;34:395–409.
42. Lora V, Cerroni L, Cota C. Skin manifestations of rheumatoid arthritis. G Ital Dermatol Venereol. 2018;153:243–55.
43. Chasset F, Francès C. Cutaneous manifestations of medium- and large-vessel vasculitis. Clin Rev Allergy Immunol. 2017;53:452–68.
44. Ahn C, Negus D, Huang W. Pyoderma gangrenosum: a review of pathogenesis and treatment. Expert Rev Clin Immunol. 2018;14:225–33.
45. Callen JP. Pyoderma gangrenosum. Lancet. 1998;351:581–5.
46. Rothfuss KS, Stange EF, Herrlinger KR. Extraintestinal manifestations and complications in inflammatory bowel diseases. World J Gastroenterol. 2006;12:4819–31.
47. Huang W, McNeely MC. Neutrophilic tissue reactions. Adv Dermatol. 1997;13:33–64.
48. Weizman A, Huang B, Berel D, et al. Clinical, serologic, and genetic factors associated with pyoderma gangrenosum and erythema nodosum in inflammatory bowel disease patients. Inflamm Bowel Dis. 2014;20:525–33.
49. Thomas KS, Ormerod AD, Craig FE, et al. UK Dermatology Clinical Trials Network's STOP GAP Team. Clinical outcomes and response of patients applying topical therapy for pyoderma gangrenosum: a prospective cohort study. J Am Acad Dermatol. 2016;75:940–9.
50. Rice SA, Woo PN, El-Omar E, et al. Topical tacrolimus 0.1% ointment for treatment of cutaneous Crohn's disease. BMC Res Notes. 2013;6:19.
51. Jolles S, Niclasse S, Benson E. Combination oral and topical tacrolimus in therapy-resistant pyoderma gangrenosum. Br J Dermatol. 1999;140:564–5.
52. Friedman S, Marion JF, Scherl E, et al. Intravenous cyclosporine in refractory pyoderma gangrenosum complicating inflammatory bowel disease. Inflamm Bowel Dis. 2001;7:1–7.
53. Carp JM, Onuma E, Das K, et al. Intravenous cyclosporine therapy in the treatment of pyoderma gangrenosum secondary to Crohn's disease. Cutis. 1997;60:135–8.
54. Sapienza MS, Cohen S, Dimarino AJ. Treatment of pyoderma gangrenosum with infliximab in Crohn's disease. Dig Dis Sci. 2004;49:1454–7.
55. Brooklyn TN, Dunnill MG, Shetty A, et al. Infliximab for the treatment of pyoderma gangrenosum: a randomised, double blind, placebo controlled trial. Gut. 2006;55:505–9.
56. Vavricka SR, Scharl M, Gubler M, et al. Biologics for extraintestinal manifestations of IBD. Curr Drug Targets. 2014;15:1064–73.
57. Hurabielle C, Schneider P, Baudry C, et al. Certolizumab pegol - A new therapeutic option for refractory disseminated pyoderma gangrenosum associated with Crohn's disease. J Dermatolog Treat. 2016;27:67–9.
58. Afifi L, Sanchez IM, Wallace MM, et al. Diagnosis and management of peristomal pyoderma gangrenosum: a systematic review. J Am Acad Dermatol. 2018;78:1195–204.e1.
59. Ohmori T, Yamagiwa A, Nakamura I, et al. Treatment of pyoderma gangrenosum associated with Crohn's disease. Am J Gastroenterol. 2003;98:2101–2.
60. Ohno M, Koyama S, Ohara M, et al. Pyoderma gangrenosum with ulcerative colitis successfully treated by the combination of granulocyte and monocyte adsorption apheresis and corticosteroids. Intern Med. 2016;55:25–30.
61. Sweet D. An acute febrile neutrophilic dermatosis. Br J Dermatol. 1964;76:350–6.
62. Salmon P, Rademaker M, Edwards L. A continuum of neutrophilic disease occurring in a patient with ulcerative colitis. Australas J Dermatol. 1998;39:116–8.
63. Becuwe C, Delaporte E, Colombel JF, et al. Sweet's syndrome associated with Crohn's disease. Acta Derm Venereol. 1989;69:444–5.
64. Travis S, Innes N, Davies MG, et al. Sweet's syndrome: an unusual cutaneous feature of Crohn's disease or ulcerative colitis. Eur J Gastroenterol Hepatol. 1997;9:715–20.
65. Ali M, Duerksen DR. Ulcerative colitis and Sweet's syndrome: a case report and review of the literature. Can J Gastroenterol. 2008;22:296–8.
66. Shin OR, Lee Y, Bak S, et al. Gastroenterology: sweet's syndrome in a patient with acutely exacerbated ulcerative colitis. J Gastroenterol Hepatol. 2015;30:965.

67. Lopes CR, Soares M, Cardoso C, et al. Sweet's syndrome complicating ulcerative colitis: a rare association. BMJ Case Rep. 2016;2016:pii: bcr2015212990.
68. Calixto R, Menezes Y, Ostronoff M, et al. Favorable outcome of severe, extensive, granulocyte colony-stimulating factor-induced, corticosteroid-resistant Sweet's syndrome treated with high-dose intravenous immunoglobulin. J Clin Oncol. 2014;32:e1–2.
69. Fukutoku M, Shimizu S, Ogawa Y, et al. Sweet's syndrome during therapy with granulocyte colony-stimulating factor in a patient with aplastic anaemia. Br J Haematol. 1994;86:645–8.
70. Fujii A, Mizutani Y, Hattori Y, et al. Sweet's syndrome successfully treated with granulocyte and monocyte adsorption apheresis. Case Rep Dermatol. 2017;9:13–8.
71. Yasuda F, Fujio Y, Kakuta R, et al. Use of cyclosporin A for successful management of steroid-resistant Sweet's syndrome patient with possible myelodysplastic syndrome. J Dermatol. 2014;41:465–6.
72. Martínez Andrés B, Sastre Lozano V, Sánchez Melgarejo JF. Sweet syndrome after treatment with vedolizumab in a patient with Crohn's disease. Rev Esp Enferm Dig. 2018;110:530.
73. Maeda K, Okada M, Yao T, et al. Intestinal and extraintestinal complications of Crohn's disease: predictors and cumulative probability of complications. J Gastroenterol. 1994;29:577–82.
74. Letsinger JA, McCarty MA, Jorizzo JL. Complex aphthosis: a large case series with evaluation algorithm and therapeutic ladder from topicals to thalidomide. J Am Acad Dermatol. 2005;52:500–8.
75. Basu MK, Asquith P. Oral manifestations of inflammatory bowel disease. Clin Gastroenterol. 1980;9:307–21.
76. Kurtzman DJ, Jones T, Lian F, et al. Metastatic Crohn's disease: a review and approach to therapy. J Am Acad Dermatol. 2014;71:804–13.
77. Guest GD, Fink RL. Metastatic Crohn's disease: case report of an unusual variant and review of the literature. Dis Colon Rectum. 2000;43:1764–6.
78. Marotta PJ, Reynolds RP. Metastatic Crohn's disease. Am J Gastroenterol. 1996;9:373–5.
79. Sabbadini C, Banzato C, Schena D, et al. Metastatic Crohn's disease in childhood. J Dtsch Dermatol Ges. 2016;14:431–4.
80. Siroy A, Wasman J. Metastatic Crohn disease: a rare cutaneous entity. Arch Pathol Lab Med. 2012;136:329–32.
81. Chiba M, Iizuka M, Horie Y, et al. Metastatic Crohn's disease involving the penis. J Gastroenterol. 1997;32:817–21.
82. Albuquerque A, Magro F, Rodrigues S, et al. Metastatic cutaneous Crohn's disease of the face: a case report and review of the literature. Eur J Gastroenterol Hepatol. 2011;23:954–6.
83. Carranza DC, Young L. Successful treatment of metastatic Crohn's disease with cyclosporine. J Drugs Dermatol. 2008;7:789–91.
84. Kiuru M, Camp B, Adhami K, et al. Treatment of metastatic cutaneous Crohn disease with certolizumab. Dermatol Online J. 2015;21.
85. Wylomanski S, Bouquin R, Dréno B, et al. Spectacular response of metastatic vulval Crohn's disease to infliximab treatment. Int J Dermatol. 2016;55:1146–8.
86. Williams N, Scott NA, Watson JS, et al. Surgical management of perineal and metastatic cutaneous Crohn's disease. Br J Surg. 1993;80:1596–8.
87. Zouboulis CC, Desai N, Emtestam L, et al. European S1 guideline for the treatment of hidradenitis suppurativa/acne inversa. J Eur Acad Dermatol Venereol. 2015;29:619–44.
88. Zouboulis CC, Del Marmol V, Mrowietz U, et al. Hidradenitis suppurativa/acne inversa: criteria for diagnosis, severity assessment, classification and disease evaluation. Dermatology. 2015;231:184–90.
89. van der Zee HH, de Winter K, van der Woude CJ, et al. The prevalence of hidradenitis suppurativa in 1093 patients with inflammatory bowel disease. Br J Dermatol. 2014;171:673–5.
90. Yadav S, Singh S, Edakkanambeth Varayil J, et al. Hidradenitis suppurativa in patients with inflammatory bowel disease: a population-based cohort study in Olmsted County, Minnesota. Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol. 2016;14:65–70.
91. van der Zee HH, van der Woude CJ, Florencia EF, et al. Hidradenitis suppurativa and inflammatory bowel disease: are they associated? Results of a pilot study. Br J Dermatol. 2010;162:195–7.
92. Deckers IE, Benhadou F, Koldijk MJ, et al. Inflammatory bowel disease is associated with hidradenitis suppurativa: Results from a multicenter cross-sectional study. J Am Acad Dermatol. 2017;76:49–53.
93. Lukach AJ, Saul MI, Ferris LK, et al. Risk factors for hidradenitis suppurativa in patients with inflammatory bowel disease. Dig Dis Sci. 2018;63:755–60.
94. Ortiz-Masiá D, Cosín-Roger J, Calatayud S, et al. M1 Macrophages activate notch signalling in epithelial cells: relevance in Crohn's disease. J Crohns Colitis. 2016;10:582–92.
95. Schlapbach C, Hänni T, Yawalkar N, et al. Expression of the IL-23/Th17 pathway in lesions of hidradenitis suppurativa. J Am Acad Dermatol. 2011;65:790–8.
96. Ingram JR. The genetics of hidradenitis suppurativa. Dermatol Clin. 2016;34:23–8.
97. Alikhan A, Lynch PJ, Eisen DB. Hidradenitis suppurativa: a comprehensive review. J Am Acad Dermatol. 2009;60:539–61 **(quiz 562–3)**.
98. Knowles SR, Graff LA, Wilding H, et al. Quality of life in inflammatory bowel disease: a systematic review and meta-analyses—part I. Inflamm Bowel Dis. 2018;24:742–51.
99. Knowles SR, Graff LA, Wilding H, et al. Quality of life in inflammatory bowel disease: a systematic review and meta-analyses—part II. Inflamm Bowel Dis. 2018;24:966–76.
100. Kimball AB, Kerdel F, Adams D, et al. Adalimumab for the treatment of moderate to severe Hidradenitis suppurativa: a parallel randomized trial. Ann Intern Med. 2012;157:846–55.
101. Gottlieb A, Menter A, Armstrong A, et al. Adalimumab treatment in women with moderate-to-severe hidradenitis suppurativa from the placebo-controlled portion of a phase 2, randomized, double-blind study. J Drugs Dermatol. 2016;15:1192–6.
102. Kimball AB, Okun MM, Williams DA, et al. Two phase 3 trials of adalimumab for hidradenitis suppurativa. N Engl J Med. 2016;375:422–34.
103. Kerbleski JF, Gottlieb AB. Dermatological complications and safety of anti-TNF treatments. Gut. 2009;58:1033–9.
104. Fréling E, Baumann C, Cunty JF, et al. Cumulative incidence of, risk factors for, and outcome of dermatological complications of anti-TNF therapy in inflammatory bowel disease: a 14-year experience. Am J Gastroenterol. 2015;110:1186–96.
105. Cleynen I, Moerkercke WV, Billiet T, et al. Characteristics of skin lesions associated with anti-tumor necrosis factor therapy in patients with inflammatory bowel disease. Ann Intern Med. 2016;164:10–22.
106. Verea MM, Del Pozo J, Yebra-Pimental MT, et al. Psoriasiform eruption induced by infliximab. Ann Pharmacother. 2004;38:54–5.
107. Sfikakis PP, Ilipoulos A, Elezoglou A, et al. Psoriasis induced by anti-tumor necrosis factor therapy: a paradoxical adverse reaction. Arthritis Rheum. 2005;52:2513–8.
108. Gottlieb AB, Evans R, Li S, et al. Infliximab induction therapy for patients with severe plaque-type psoriasis: a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. J Am Acad Dermatol. 2004;51:534–42.
109. Asahina A, Nakagawa H, Etoh T, Adalimumab M04-688 Study Group, et al. Adalimumab in Japanese patients with moderate

to severe chronic plaque psoriasis: efficacy and safety results from a Phase II/III randomized controlled study. J Dermatol. 2010;37:299–310.
110. Andrade P, Lopes S, Gaspar R, et al. Anti-tumor necrosis factor-α-induced dermatological complications in a large cohort of inflammatory bowel disease patients. Dig Dis Sci. 2018;63:746–54.
111. Bae JM, Lee HH, Lee BI, et al. Incidence of psoriasiform diseases secondary to tumour necrosis factor antagonists in patients with inflammatory bowel disease: a nationwide population-based cohort study. Aliment Pharmacol Ther. 2018;48:196–205.
112. Afzali A, Wheat CL, Hu JK, Olerud JE, Lee SD. The association of psoriasiform rash with anti-tumor necrosis factor (anti-TNF) therapy in inflammatory bowel disease: a single academic center case series. J Crohns Colitis. 2014;8:480–8.
113. Rahier JF, Buche S, Peyrin-Biroulet L, et al. Groupe d'Etude Thérapeutique des Affections Inflammatoires du Tube Digestif (GETAID). Severe skin lesions cause patients with inflammatory bowel disease to discontinue anti-tumor necrosis factor therapy. Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol. 2010;8:1048–55.
114. Collamer AN, Battafarano DF. Psoriatic skin lesions induced by tumor necrosis factor antagonist therapy: clinical features and possible immunopathogenesis. Semin Arthritis Rheum. 2010;40:233–40.
115. Shmidt E, Wetter DA, Ferguson SB, et al. Psoriasis and palmoplantar pustulosis associated with tumor necrosis factor-α inhibitors: the Mayo Clinic experience, 1998 to 2010. J Am Acad Dermatol. 2012;67:e179-85.
116. Tillack C, Ehmann LM, Friedrich M, et al. Anti-TNF antibody-induced psoriasiform skin lesions in patients with inflammatory bowel disease are characterized by interferon-γ expressing Th1 cells and IL-17A/IL-22-expressing Th17 cells and respond to anti-IL-12/IL-23 antibody treatment. Gut. 2014;63:567–77.
117. Pugliese D, Guldi L, Ferraro PM, et al. Paradoxical psoriasis in a large cohort of patients with inflammatory bowel disease receiving treatment with anti-TNF alpha: 5-year follow-up study. Aliment Pharmacol Ther. 2015;42:880–8.
118. Ko JM, Gottlieb AB, Kerbleski JF. Induction and exacerbation of psoriasis with TNF-blockade therapy: a review and analysis of 127 cases. J Dermatolog Treat. 2009;20:100–8.
119. Numakura T, Tamada T, Nara M, et al. Simultaneous development of sarcoidosis and cutaneous vasculitis in a patient with refractory Crohn's disease during infliximab therapy. BMC Pulm Med. 2016;16:30.
120. Gîlcă GE, Diaconescu S, Bălan GG, et al. Sarcoidosis associated with infliximab therapy in ulcerative colitis: a case report. Medicine (Baltimore). 2017;96:e6156.
121. Decock A, Van Assche G, Vermeire S, et al. Sarcoidosis-like lesions: another paradoxical reaction to anti-TNF therapy? J Crohns Colitis. 2017;11:378–83.
122. Amano H, Matsuda R, Shibata T, et al. Paradoxical SAPHO syndrome observed during anti-TNFα therapy for Crohn's disease. Biologics. 2017;11:65–9.
123. Marzano AV, Tavecchio S, Berti E, et al. Paradoxical autoinflammatory skin reaction to tumor necrosis factor alpha blockers manifesting as amicrobial pustulosis of the folds in patients with inflammatory bowel diseases. Medicine (Baltimore). 2015;94:e1818.
124. Keohane SG, Hayes PC, Hunter JA. Lichen planus and Crohn's disease. Acta Derm Venereol. 1997;77:488.
125. Kumar KM, Nachiammai N, Madhushankari GS. Association of oral manifestations in ulcerative colitis: a pilot study. J Oral Maxillofac Pathol. 2018;22:199–203.
126. Alice Sy N, Khalidi N, Dehghan, et al. Vasculitis in patients with inflammatory bowel diseases: a study of 32 patients and systematic review of the literature. Semin Arthritis Rheum. 2016;45:475–82.
127. Humbert S, Guilpain P, Puéchal X, et al. Inflammatory bowel diseases in anti-neutrophil cytoplasmic antibody-associated vasculitides: 11 retrospective cases from the French Vasculitis Study Group. Rheumatology. 2015;54:1970–5.
128. Reddy H, Shipman AR, Wojnarowska F. Epidermolysis bullosa acquisita and inflammatory bowel disease: a review of the literature. Clin Exp Dermatol. 2013;38:225–9 **(quiz 229–30)**.
129. Raab B, Fretzin DF, Bronson DM, et al. Epidermolysis bullosa acquisita and inflammatory bowel disease. JAMA. 1983;250:1746–8.
130. Fernández-Guarino M, Sáez EM, Gijón RC, et al. Linear IGA dermatosis associated with ulcerative colitis. Eur J Dermatol. 2006;16:692–3.
131. Taniguchi T, Maejima H, Saito N, et al. Case of linear IgA bullous dermatosis-involved ulcerative colitis. Inflamm Bowel Dis. 2009;15:1284–5.
132. Vedak P, Kroshinsky D, St John J, et al. Genetic basis of TNF-α antagonist associated psoriasis in inflammatory bowel diseases: a genotype-phenotype analysis. Aliment Pharmacol Ther. 2016;43:697–704.
133. Glimcher LH, Townsend MJ, Sullivan BM, et al. Recent developments in the transcriptional regulation of cytolytic effector cells. Nat Rev Immunol. 2004;4:900–11.
134. Rácz E, Prens EP. Molecular pathophysiology of psoriasis and molecular targets of antipsoriatic therapy. Expert Rev Mol Med. 2009;11:e38.
135. Nestle FO, Gilliet M. Defining upstream elements of psoriasis pathogenesis: an emerging role for interferon alpha. J Investig Dermatol. 2005;125:xiv–xv.
136. Niess JH, Danese S. Anti-TNF and skin inflammation in IBD: a new paradox in gastroenterology? Gut. 2014;63:533–5.
137. Collamer AN, Guerrero KT, Henning JS, et al. Psoriatic skin lesions induced by tumor necrosis factor antagonist therapy: a literature review and potential mechanisms of action. Arthritis Rheum. 2008;59:996–1001.
138. Matsumoto S, Mashima H. Efficacy of ustekinumab against infliximab-induced psoriasis and arthritis associated with Crohn's disease. Biologics. 2018;12:69–73.
139. Delobeau M, Abdou A, Puzenat E, et al. Observational case series on adalimumab-induced paradoxical hidradenitis suppurativa. J Dermatolog Treat. 2016;27:251–3.
140. Benzaquen M, Flachaire B, Rouby F, et al. Paradoxical pustular psoriasis induced by ustekinumab in a patient with Crohn's disease-associated spondyloarthropathy. Rheumatol Int. 2018;38:1297–9.
141. Lee HY, Woo CH, Haw S. Paradoxical Flare of Psoriasis after Ustekinumab Therapy. Ann Dermatol. 2017;29:794–5.
142. Fiorino G, Allez M, Malesci A, et al. Review article: anti TNF-alpha induced psoriasis in patients with inflammatory bowel disease. Aliment Pharmacol Ther. 2009;29:921–7.
143. Soh JS, Yun WJ, Kim KJ, et al. Concomitant use of azathioprine/6-mercaptopurine decreases the risk of anti-TNF-induced skin lesions. Inflamm Bowel Dis. 2015;21:832–9.