Seborrheic dermatitis and its relationship with *Malassezia* spp

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Abstract

Seborrheic dermatitis (SD) is a chronic inflammatory disease that is difficult to manage and with a high impact on the individual’s quality of life. Besides, it is a multifactorial entity that typically occurs as an inflammatory response to *Malassezia* species, along with specific triggers that contribute to its pathophysiology. Since the primary underlying pathogenic mechanisms include *Malassezia* proliferation and skin inflammation, the most common treatment includes topical antifungal keratolytics and anti-inflammatory agents. However, the consequences of eliminating the yeast population from the skin, the resistance profiles of *Malassezia* spp. and the effectivity among different groups of medications are unknown. Thus, in this review, we summarize the current knowledge on the disease’s pathophysiology and the role of *Malassezia* sp. on it, as well as, the different antifungal treatment alternatives, including topical and oral treatment in the management of SD.

Key words: seborrheic dermatitis, *Malassezia*, pathogenic role, treatment.

Introduction

Seborrheic dermatitis (SD) is a chronic and recurrent inflammatory skin condition with a preference for areas rich in sebaceous glands. The disease is characterized by poorly defined scales and erythematous plaques, with high variability in amplitude and morphology, depending on the location of the lesions. Areas as the scalp, facial region, especially nasolabial folds and lines and the supraciliary region, external auditory canals, anterior auricular areas, and genitalia are affected. Itching is a symptom referred by 80% of patients, especially those whose scalp is affected. Dandruff is referred to a mild condition of SD, characterized by itchy, flaking skin without inflammation.

According to the age group, four principal variants of SD are recognized: SD in adults, infants, SD associated with HIV (Human Immunodeficiency Virus) and seborrhea type dermatitis associated with medications. On the other hand, the spectrum of the clinical variants in adults include blepharitis, 

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exfoliative dermatitis, pityriasisiform SD, flexural SD, folliculitis and pityriasis capitis. In the infant, the variants include SD of the scalp, Leiner’s disease and pityriasis amiantacea. Even though, *Malassezia* spp. role in the pathogenesis of seborrheic dermatitis remains controversial, fungal eradication showed a strong association with the remission of the clinical presentation. Therefor host and yeast factors involved in the transition of *Malassezia* from commensal to pathogen are matter of studies. Besides, consequences of removing the yeast population from the skin, the resistance profiles of *Malassezia* spp. and the side effects on different groups of medications are little known. Here, we are presenting a revision of the pathophysiology of SD, the role of *Malassezia* spp. and alternatives for both topical and oral antifungal treatment in the management of the disease.

**Materials and methods**

A bibliographic search of review articles or management guidelines was carried out between December 1, 2018, and May 31, 2019, in the databases: MEDLINE-PUBMED, EMBASE, and SCOPUS, as follows: Title or type of publication: Review OR update. Title/Abstract: «dermatitis, seborrheic» [MeSH Terms] AND treatment [MeSH Term] AND guidelines [MeSH Terms]. We only included papers in English. The articles found were evaluated in terms of their content, feasibility, completeness, consistency, and the quality of the evidence.

**The disease and Malassezia**

The etiology of the disease is multifactorial and it is associated with the presence of *Malassezia* yeast, hormonal factors, levels of sebum secretion, immune response, neurogenic factors, and external factors. The three main etiological factors correlated to incidence of SD are: presence of *Malassezia* spp., sebaceous secretion and the individual susceptibility to develop the pathology. Immune system plays an essential role in develop of symptoms, being asymptomatic in immunocompetent individuals.

*Malassezia* species appear to contribute by triggering the skin innate immunity through complex interactions between fungal cells and virulence factors. This ends up in increasing the production of lipases, inducing an inflammatory response by releasing oleic acid and arachidonic acid, and producing bioactive components from sebum lipids. Released unsaturated fatty acids and metabolites have direct irritant and scaling effects on keratinocytes, while triggering an increased inflammatory response secondary to loss of the epidermal barrier function. Also, the arachidonic acid, metabolized by cyclooxygenase, serves as a source of pro-inflammatory eicosanoids, as well as prostaglandins, which contribute to the damage in the corneum stratum. Simultaneously, the keratinocytes produce pro-inflammatory cytokines, IL-1α, IL-6, IL-8, and TNF-α, which increase and maintain the inflammatory response, thus establishing the chronicity of the infection.

**Epidemiology**

Prevalence of SD is highly variable, between 3 to 10% of the general population, and it is more frequent in men than in women. Some studies reported a high incidence in adolescents, reaching up to 11%\(^6\). Other studies estimate that this condition affects between 2 and 5% of the population, with no racial bias\(^5\). Regarding the age of presentation, a higher frequency of cases has been demonstrated in children, especially among those younger than three months, with the cradle cap presentation, affecting from 11.6% to 70.0% in some cohorts, and also in adults between 30 and 60 years old, with an epidemiological peak between the third and fourth decade of life\(^11\).

The main host’s risk factors described are the genetic predisposition, hyperhidrosis, malnutrition, immune deficiencies, using systemic corticosteroids and contraceptives, as well as environmental conditions such as high temperature, humidity, and the occurrence of dysbiosis processes of the microbiota, especially of the genera *Cutibacterium* (*Propionibacterium*)\(^9,15\), *Staphylococcus* and *Malassezia*\(^13\).

SD is one of the most common dermatoses in individuals infected with HIV, especially those with a CD4 T lymphocyte count below 400 cells/mm\(^3\)\(^14\). In Colombia, Rincón et al. reported the isolation of *Malassezia* spp. from lesions of patients with different dermatological entities, *M. globosa* was the predominant species in HIV-positive SD patients\(^15\). In subsequent studies on HIV-positive SD patients, the predominant species were *M. restricta* and *M. furfur*, whereas in patients HIV-negative was *M. sympodialis*\(^16\).

Other medical conditions associated with an increased incidence of SD are parkinsonism, neuroleptic-induced Parkinson-plus, familial amyloidosis, Down’s syndrome, and patients with psychiatric conditions being treated with haloperidol, lithium, buspiron, and chlorpromazine\(^9\).

**Malassezia and its pathogenicity**

The yeast of the *Malassezia* genus (formerly called *Pityrosporum*) belongs to the phylum Basidiomycota, sub-phylum Ustilaginomycotina, class *Malasseziomycetes*\(^17\). It is characterized to be lipid-dependent and lipophilic and for being capable of metabolizing the fatty components of sebum\(^18\). This last ability influences its preferential distribution on body areas rich in sebaceous glands. *Malassezia* has been recognized, for more than a century, as a normal resident of the human skin microbiota but, in recent times, also as a potential pathogen, because it is isolated from the skin in individuals affected by SD, as well as for the therapeutic response to the use of antifungals\(^19\).

The *Malassezia* genus has been subject to multiple taxonomic reviews. However, in recent decades, the introduction of molecular techniques has allowed to describe the presence of at
least 18 species\textsuperscript{17,18} (Table 1). Two species, \textit{Malassezia restricta} and \textit{M. globosa}, are considered the most important species in the development of SD. However, some studies have also involved \textit{M. furfur}, \textit{M. sympodialis}, \textit{M. obtusa} and \textit{M. slooffiae} \textsuperscript{20,21}. Due to the lipid requirements of this yeast, their identification and characterization can be performed using phenotypic characteristics such as the production of catalase and β-glucosidase, as well as with lipid assimilation profiles (TWEEN)\textsuperscript{22}. Genotypic characteristics based on the sequencing of ribosomal RNA subunits (rRNA) is the gold standard for their identification\textsuperscript{17}. However, these techniques are not conducted in the routine diagnosis.

There are different hypotheses regarding the pathophysiological mechanisms of \textit{Malassezia} causing disease\textsuperscript{23}. \textit{Malassezia} yeast is found mainly in the infundibulum of the sebaceous glands, where the freely available lipids constitute their primary source of energy. On the skin, \textit{Malassezia} can establish two kinds of relationships with its host. The first is a commensalism, where the yeasts and the skin are in a state of equilibrium, and the yeast is managing to evade the local immune response. The second is a pathogenic relationship, where \textit{Malassezia} proliferate without producing inflammation, as happens in pityriasis versicolor, or it can increase widely and produce swelling, as in the cases of SD, atopic dermatitis, and psoriasis\textsuperscript{23}.

In an inflammation scenario, \textit{Malassezia} can generate the process associated with its overgrowth by three main mechanisms. First, causing evident damage to the epidermal barrier through the production of lipases and phospholipases. On a healthy skin, this yeast uses the essential nutrients for its growth without causing disease. However, when the epidermal barrier is disturbed, the yeast adapts and modifies the expression of enzymes involved in the acquisition of energy, such as lipases and phospholipases. At the same time, they synthesize bioactive indols (ligands) that act on the aryl-hydrocarbon (AhR) receptor, expressed in most of the epidermic cells\textsuperscript{24}.

Lipases hydrolyze triglycerides present in human sebum, producing the release of free unsaturated fatty acids, such as oleic acid and arachidonic acid, which are capable of crossing the epidermal barrier. These metabolites play a crucial role in the initiation of the inflammatory response, causing hyperproliferation and aberrant differentiation of keratinocytes, resulting in abnormalities in the corneum stratum such as parakeratosis, intracellular lipid droplets and abnormal development of stratum corneum cells\textsuperscript{25}. Susceptibility to toxic metabolites, and therefore the development or not of SD, depends on innate differences in individuals. In turn, this innate susceptibility is given depending on the barrier of the corneum stratum, the permeability of the skin, as well as the immune response of the individual. Variations in these characteristics make an individual more susceptible or not to the epithelial barrier disruption induced by unsaturated fatty acids (Figure 1)\textsuperscript{6,9}.

At the cellular level, inflammatory activity is evidenced by the infiltration of leukocytes in the affected skin, including lymphocytes, NK cells, and neutrophils\textsuperscript{11}. Finally, the AhR receptor ligands (malassezina, indirubin, indol [3,2-b] carbazole, formyl-indo [3,2-b] carbazole) produce a down-regulation of the respiratory burst of human neutrophils, as well as a decreased ability of dendritic cells to mature and present antigens upon stimulation of the TLR receptor (toll-like receptor)\textsuperscript{25}.

Secondly, an increase in the local immune response is evidenced through the production of different pro-inflammatory cytokines by the keratinocytes, such as IL-1α, IL-6, IL-8, and TNF-α, thus prolonging the inflammatory response triggered by these yeasts. Furthermore, arachidonic acid is a source of prostaglandins, which are pro-inflammatory mediators that can cause inflammation through neutrophil recruitment and vasodilation\textsuperscript{6,11}.

Thirdly, a sensitization to cross-reactive allergens produced by \textit{Malassezia} can be evidenced. According to this model, there is an increased inflammatory response against the exposure to \textit{Malassezia spp}. by the action of allergens released by the microorganism (e.g., Mala s1, 7-9, cyclophilin, thioredoxin). \textit{M. sympodialis} secretes nano-vesicles containing allergens capable of inducing the release of inflammatory cytokines, mainly IL-4, which generate type IV hypersensitivity reactions, especially under conditions of a pH more alkaline than usual, both in healthy individuals as in individuals with atopic dermatitis and SD\textsuperscript{26}.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Malassezia species</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>\textit{M. globosa}*</td>
<td>Microbiota of human skin\textsuperscript{17,18}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\textit{M. restricta}*</td>
<td>Important agents in the development of SD \textsuperscript{17,20}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\textit{M. sympodialis}*</td>
<td>Colonize the skin of animals \textsuperscript{21}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\textit{M. furfur} *</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\textit{M. yamatoensis}</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\textit{M. arunaloeki sp. Nov}</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\textit{M. obtusa} *</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\textit{M. slooffiae} *</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\textit{M. dermatis}</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\textit{M. japonica}</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>\textit{M. pachydermatis}</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\textit{M. nana}</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>\textit{M. caprae}</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>\textit{M. equina}</td>
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<tr>
<td>\textit{M. cuniculi}</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>\textit{M. brasiliensis sp. Nov}</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\textit{M. psittaci sp. Nov}</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\textit{M. vespertilionis sp. Nov}</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Malassezia and the host response**

In the process of the interaction between two organisms, there are determinants specific of the immune response type established to the antigenic exposure. In the case of *Malassezia spp.*, the maturation of dendritic cells derived from the monocytic line is the main cellular component that is responsible for the antigenic presentation and induction of a predominantly Th$_2$-type lymphocytic response. An alternative mechanism described, which contributes with the increase in the immune response against this microorganism, is the interaction of dendritic cells with NK and NKT cells in the skin for the removal of phagocytic cells with incorporated fungal antigens$^{27}$. Recognition by PRR (Pattern Recognition Receptors) has also been reported, with the β-glucans being the PAMP (Pathogen-Associated Molecular Patterns) identified for *Malassezia spp.*, which are recognized by the human type 1-dectins$^{28}$. Some studies have also proposed chitin as a probable PAMP in the initial recognition of *Malassezia spp*$^{29}$.

Regarding the characteristic itching in SD, the recognition of zymosan by the TLR-2 receptors has been established as the probable mechanism, with activation of second messengers (MyD88) and cross-reactivity with the high-affinity receptor for IgE (FceRI) on mast cells, triggering the release of histamine, proteases, chemotactic factors, IL-6 and arachidonic acid metabolites, all responsible for the characteristic itching$^{30}$.

In this scenario, the diversity of the interaction mechanisms still to be characterized represent an arsenal of opportunities as therapeutic targets for the prevention and treatment of dermatological pathologies associated with *Malassezia spp.*

**Treatment**

Therapy focuses on the control of acute episodes, as well as long-term maintenance without symptoms. The goals of the treatment are to eliminate lesions, prevent skin infections, as well as reduce the inflammation and associated itching. Treatment includes eliminating the cause of the disease (antifungal treatment or suppression of sebum secretion) and controlling cell proliferation and inflammation$^4$. The first-line treatment has traditionally been the combination of an antifungal agent, usually topical, and a corticosteroid$^{31}$.

**Topical use compounds**

Among the compounds of topical used in the treatment of SD, we find antifungals (azoles, Ciclopirox, Octopirox, Bifonazole, Allylamines [Terbinaine]), coal tar, corticosteroids, Metronidazole, zinc pyrithione, selenium sulfide and immunomodulators (Pimecrolimus and Tacrolimus) (Table 2).

**Antifungals**

Ketoconazole is an antifungal compound of the imidazole group. It produces a disruption of the synthesis of ergosterol in fungi through its inhibitory action on one of the microsomal cytochrome P-450 enzymes, 14-α-sterol demethylase, and the inhibition of the synthesis of 5-lipoxygenase, which blocks the synthesis of the B$_2$ leukotriene, thereby conferring its anti-inflammatory properties$^{32}$. For the treatment of SD, ketoconazole comes in four presentations: cream 2%, gel 2%, foam 2%, and shampoo 1-2%$^{33}$. Shampoo with 2% ketoconazole is the most widely used form for the initial management of SD.

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*Figure 1. Role of Malassezia spp. lipid metabolism and their relation with the physiology of seborrheic dermatitis (DS). This figure was created using images from Servier Medical Art Commons Attribution 3.0 Unported License (http://smart.servier.com).*
Seven double-blind, randomized controlled clinical trials using ketoconazole cream and shampoo with populations of up to 1162 individuals, showed a clinical recovery of up to 88% of the treated individuals. A double-blind clinical trial included 1162 individuals, presenting mild to severe SD compromising multiple body regions. In this study, the treatment produced the complete resolution of symptoms and lesions, within the fourth week of treatment, in 56% of patients receiving ketoconazole 2% cream twice daily as compared to 42% of patients receiving placebo (p<0.001). A clinical trial, of 459 individuals with a moderate to severe SD and multiregional compromise, showed the complete remission of lesions in 25% of patients receiving ketoconazole, compared to 14% in the placebo group on day 28 of treatment (p=0.001). Ciclopirox, or cyclosporine, is a synthetic antifungal derived from hydroxypyridone and has been shown to have antifungal, antibacterial, and anti-inflammatory properties. This medication works by inhibiting the absorption of essential components and altering cell permeability, disrupting the DNA, RNA, and protein synthesis. In addition, ciclopirox chelates metal ions, restricting the availability of iron to the fungal cell and, in consequence, inhibiting the iron-dependent enzymes responsible for the degradation of peroxides within the fungal cell. The antifungal properties of ciclopirox, together with its tolerability and low rate of toxic effects, make it an ideal alternative for both the treatment and prophylaxis of SD. A multicenter, randomized, double-blind clinical trial with 1000 patients with scaly erythematous lesions on the scalp found a total remission of the lesions within four weeks of administration in 45% of patients with one-week application and 58% of patients with two weekly applications, compared to the placebo group with a 32% reduction (p<0.001). Other studies have shown ciclopirox effectiveness against a placebo, specifically in the concentration of 1%. In the same group, the octopirox (Piroctone olamine), an hydroxamic acid, is a topical agent that inhibits ergosterol synthesis. In the presentation of shampoo at 0.5-1%, has demonstrated reduction in the erythema and pruritus with excellent results.

Terbinafine interferes with the fungal biosynthesis of sterols by inhibiting the squalene epoxidase enzyme, which leads to the intracellular accumulation of squalene. In addition to its antifungal properties, terbinafine for the topical application also has anti-inflammatory activity. One study compared the efficiency of terbinafine 1% cream against the efficacy of ketoconazole 2% cream and placebo. A randomized, double-blind study included 90 patients with facial SD, performed a score of perceived symptoms, it found that the mean of total decrease of symptoms (erythema, itching, and exfoliation) went from 5.04 to 1.78 in the group receiving terbinafine, from 5.04 to 1.81 in the group receiving ketoconazole, and from 4.97 to 3.73 in the placebo group (p=0.003). However, when comparing terbinafine with ketoconazole, there is no significant difference (p>0.05). Another study suggested that terbinafine may be a useful alternative in infections with a low response to azoles.

Zinc pyrithione is an ionophore, which facilitates the transport of zinc through the membranes. This drug inhibits fungal growth through the increase of the cellular levels of copper, an ion responsible for altering sulfurous iron proteins, essential for fungal growth. A randomized, double-blind study with 53 patients, presenting mild to moderate scalp SD, demonstrated the effectiveness of the active ingredient when compared to placebo (p<0.05). Furthermore, it was evidenced that the high deposit zinc pyrithione shampoo was significantly superior when compared to the very low deposit shampoo, in terms of both improving the severity of scaling and reducing the levels of M. furfur. As to the effectiveness of zinc pyrithione compared to ketoconazole, several trials have shown a decreased effectiveness. However, a satisfactory effect is obtained when used in combination with ketoconazole.

**Corticosteroids**

Topical corticosteroids are used for short periods and on a limited body area, to control the erythema and itching of acute episodes. These medications have anti-inflammatory properties and are active in rapidly eliminating visible signs and symptoms.
associated symptoms. Their long-term use should be avoided due to their well-known side effects such as skin atrophy, telangiectasias, hypertrichosis, and periordal dermatitis66.

Different randomized clinical trials have compared several topical corticosteroids used for short term periods, including hydrocortisone, betamethasone dipropionate, clobetasol 17-butyrate and clobetasol dipropionate with topical antifungals 47. A recent study comparing the effectiveness of sertaconazole 2% cream with hydrocortisone 1% cream reported a 90% satisfaction in patients receiving sertaconazole and 83.3% in the group with hydrocortisone, the difference was not statistically significant68. A randomized, controlled clinical trial found that regimens containing clobetasol propionate were significantly more effective in ultimately reducing the severity of the disease than those receiving only ketoconazole (p<0.05)69. Despite this, so far, the evidence is limited to establish whether the combination of topical corticosteroids and topical antifungal agents confers a more significant benefit than a single-agent therapy1.

Additionally, a significant association has been described in the increase of the values of the minimum inhibitory concentration for fluconazole and terbinafine secondary to the previous use of topical corticosteroids22.

**Immunomodulators - Calcineurin inhibitors**
Pimecrolimus 1% cream and tacrolimus 0.03 and 0.1% ointment are part of the topical calcineurin inhibitors, which suppress the inflammatory activity associated with SD and prevent the side effects of steroids60. In addition to its traditional mechanism of action, both tacrolimus and pimecrolimus have been shown to have fungicidal activity60. Calcineurin inhibitors selectively inhibit the transcription and release of pro-inflammatory cytokines by T cells, by binding to a cytosolic receptor, the macrophillin-12 immunophilin61. The pimecrolimus-macrophillin complex inhibits the calcineurin protein, which results in the blocking of signal transduction pathways in T cells and the inhibition of the synthesis of inflammatory cytokines, specifically the Th1 and Th2 type cytokines, such as IL-2, IL-4, IFN-γ, and TNF-α62.

A randomized, double-blind study demonstrated that topical therapy with pimecrolimus 1% cream was effective and well-tolerated in the treatment of facial SD. Another randomized, double-blind clinical trial showed that 83% of the patients achieved complete elimination of symptoms after two weeks of application of pimecrolimus 1% cream53. Pimecrolimus has also been used for the treatment of SD in patients infected with HIV54.

In respect to tacrolimus, a clinical trial reported its effectiveness as the betamethasone 17-valerate lotion or the zinc pyrithione shampoo55. Otherwise, a randomized clinical trial found a higher level of satisfaction in patients who received sertaconazole (90%) compared to the group receiving tacrolimus (83.3%); non-statistically significant results56.

**Metronidazole**
This drug has antibacterial and antiparasitic activity. At the same time, it has a direct anti-inflammatory effect, which could be the key to its efficacy in different dermatological diseases57. A clinical trial found that metronidazole 1% gel was significantly more effective than placebo, with improvement after two weeks of starting treatment60. Other studies demonstrated the superiority of metronidazole when compared to placebo59,60.

Fifty-one studies and 9052 participants were included in a systematic review conducted by Cochrane in 2015. It assessed the effect of different topical agents (ketoconazole, steroids, pimecrolimus, zinc pyrithione, ciclopirox, climbazole, metronidazole, lithium and herbal medicines) in comparison with placebo for the treatment of SD of the scalp and face in adolescents and adults61. The failure rate in itch resolution was found to be much lower in patients treated with ketoconazole 2% than with placebo (31% less risk of failure). Additionally, the resolution of erythema and scaling was better in ketoconazole treated versus placebo treated patients. On the other hand, ketoconazole and steroids were found to have similar effects in improving itching, erythema, and scaling, as well as in the rates of remission. However, the occurrence of side effects was 44% lower in the ketoconazole group of patients than in the steroids group. The study suggests that ketoconazole and ciclopirox are more effective than placebo and that, despite limited evidence, these two antifungals are more effective than any other agent in the same class.

Other topical therapies that should be considered are salicylic acid, selenium sulfide, sulfacetamide, glycercin, benzyol peroxide, aloe vera and phototherapy.52 Another topical alternative is the coal tar, compound that has been used traditionally worldwide for the treatment of Dandruff. Nevertheless, there is a concern about its potential carcinogenicity, reason why it’s use has decreased. Also some studies have demonstrated that non tar shampoos (piroctone olamine, salicylic acid and elubiol), produce significantly better reduction of symptoms compared with de coal tar shampoos 63.

**Oral use compounds**
Oral antifungal therapy is indicated when multiple anatomic sites are involved, for patients who do not respond to traditional topical treatments, and patients with a severe development of SD54.

Itraconazole is a member of the group of imidazoles, which shares the mechanism of action discussed for ketoconazole. Its use has significantly increased in the last decade, been the most studied antifungal in oral therapy. One of the main recommendations for its use is the inadequate response to topical corticosteroid treatments. In a systematic revision 6 clinical trials were found44. The treatment regimen, length, severity of the infection as well as the clinical and microbiological remission of each of the studies are represented in Table 3.
A double-blind, randomized controlled trial was conducted in 2016 on the effects of the itraconazole therapy on the quality of life of patients with a moderate to severe seborrheic dermatitis, an aspect that had not been evaluated in previous clinical trials. The impact of oral therapy with itraconazole versus placebo was assessed at the same time. The Dermatology Life Quality Index was implemented for the evaluation of the quality of life before and after treatment. It was found that itraconazole was superior compared to placebo, both in disease resolution and in the quality of life ($p = 0.001$), with a 93.8% clinical improvement after two weeks, 87.5% after one month and 93.1% after four months. At the same time, the relapse rates were significantly lower with itraconazole. The last study, of longitudinal type and shorter treatment (6 weeks), was carried out in 2019 and showed an acceptable response.

As for ketoconazole, one randomized controlled clinical trial and six case series support its use in SD. Ford et al. conducted a clinical trial with a 200 mg/day regimen of ketoconazole versus placebo. They found a more significant reduction in the severity of symptoms and the number of yeasts per field on direct examination, despite the absence of clinical or microbiological remission. Nevertheless, in 2013 the FDA issued warnings against it clinical use due to the risk of liver injury, reason why it was withdrawn in Europe and Canada.

On the other hand, fluconazole showed that the decrease in the severity rate had no significant difference with the placebo group. Another study compared the response to the fluconazole 200 mg regimen with placebo once a week and found a clinical and microbiological remission in the four patients studied.

For terbinafine, two single-blind controlled randomized clinical trials and one open, noncomparative trial have been carried out (Table 4). The in-vitro activity of the terbinafine against Malassezia has been estimated in comparison to itraconazole and ketoconazole, showing that it has the least inhibitory effect on growth in contrast to the other two compounds.

In recent years, the use of low doses of isotretinoin, a widely used drug for the management of acne, has been suggested. Its application has not been approved for seborrheic dermatitis. This drug contributes to a decreased sebum secretion by reducing the size of the sebaceous glands, curbing cell proliferation, and stimulating the apoptosis of sebum cells. Furthermore, anti-inflammatory properties have been demonstrated with the reduction of pro-inflammatory cytokines. This can be considered as a therapeutic option in patients with a moderate to severe SD, with facial and scalp involvement, however, more studies are required.

### Table 3. Evidence of oral Itraconazole in the treatment of seborrheic dermatitis (DS)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Authors, year of publication (Type of study) (reference)</th>
<th>Regime</th>
<th>Treatment duration</th>
<th>DS severity</th>
<th>Clinical remission</th>
<th>Microbiological remission</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Caputo et al., 2002 (CT)</td>
<td>200 mg / day for 7 days</td>
<td>One week</td>
<td>Not evaluated</td>
<td>93% a month after starting treatment</td>
<td>67% a month after starting treatment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baysal et al., 2004 (CT)</td>
<td>200 mg/day for seven days followed by 400 mg each month in two doses</td>
<td>12 months</td>
<td>No response to topical corticosteroid treatment</td>
<td>89.3% 12 months after starting treatment</td>
<td>79% 12 months after starting treatment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kose et al., 2005 (CT)</td>
<td>200 mg/day for seven days followed by 400 mg each month in two doses</td>
<td>Three months</td>
<td>Severe without response to topical corticosteroid treatment</td>
<td>58.6% three months after starting treatment</td>
<td>86% three months after starting treatment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shemer et al., 2008 (CT)</td>
<td>200 mg/day for 7 days followed by 200 mg every two weeks for 14 six</td>
<td>6 months</td>
<td>Moderate to severe</td>
<td>91.6% 24 weeks after starting treatment</td>
<td>40% 24 weeks after starting treatment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Das et al., 2011 (CT)</td>
<td>200 mg/day for seven days followed by 400 mg each month in two weeks</td>
<td>3 months</td>
<td>Severe without response to topical corticosteroid treatment</td>
<td>83.3% 3 months after starting treatment</td>
<td>Not reported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khondker et al., 2011 (CT)</td>
<td>200 mg / day for seven days in the first month, followed by 200 mg / day for two days the following 11 months</td>
<td>12 months</td>
<td>Not specified</td>
<td>88.46% good response at 12 weeks of treatment</td>
<td>Not reported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abbas, Gholei &amp; Abedeni, 2016 (CT)</td>
<td>200 mg / day for seven days followed by 200mg two days the following three months</td>
<td>Three months</td>
<td>Moderate to severe</td>
<td>73.7% one month after starting treatment</td>
<td>Not reported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Van, T., et al., 2019 (longitudinal)</td>
<td>200 mg / day for 14 days, followed by 200mg weekly for four weeks</td>
<td>Six months</td>
<td>Not specified</td>
<td>6.7% at two weeks, 63.4% upon completion of treatment</td>
<td>Not reported</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** CT: Clinical Trial  
Made by the authors
Finally, cases of systemic SD recalcitrant to the above-outlined management have been described in patients with comorbidities such as HIV and Parkinson’s disease. Apremilast, a 4-phosphodiesterase inhibitor used to treat psoriasis, has been effectively used in 3 case reports of recalcitrant SD.

Conclusions
Seborrheic dermatitis is a clinical condition that affects a significant group of people, causing a high emotional and economic impact on individuals with this disease. Its etiology is not completely understood and it is considered to have a multifactorial origin. However, the dysbiosis processes seem to have a significant effect on the clinical presentation of the disease. The treatment of these conditions is equally diverse, with the use of antifungals for long periods, both topical and systemic, aspect that can also induce resistance in Malassezia as has been revealed recently. For this reason, it is essential to search for new therapeutic alternatives that favor the homeostasis of microorganisms in regard to host conditions. Besides, it is crucial to understand what is the role of this yeast in the interaction with other microorganisms, the host, and the SD.

Ethical disclosures
Protection of human and animal subjects. The authors declare that no experiments were performed on humans or animals for this investigation.

Confidentiality of data. The authors declare that no patient data appears in this article.

Right to privacy and informed consent. The authors declare that no data that enables identification of the patients appears in this article.

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Conflict of interest. The authors declare that the revision was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

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Table 4. Clinical trials with oral terbinafine in the treatment of seborrheic dermatitis (DS)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study (reference)</th>
<th>Regime</th>
<th>Treatment duration</th>
<th>SD severity</th>
<th>Clinical remission</th>
<th>Microbiological remission</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Scaparro et al., 2001</td>
<td>250mg / daily</td>
<td>Four weeks + 8 weeks of follow-up</td>
<td>Moderate to severe</td>
<td>68% four weeks after starting treatment</td>
<td>12% four weeks after starting treatment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vena et al., 2005</td>
<td>250mg / daily</td>
<td>Six weeks + 4 weeks follow-up</td>
<td>Moderate to severe</td>
<td>70% of the terbinafine group vs. 45.4% of the placebo group</td>
<td>Not reported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cassano et al., 2002</td>
<td>250mg / daily for 12 days each month</td>
<td>Three months + 1-month follow-up</td>
<td>Moderate to severe with no response to topical corticosteroid treatment</td>
<td>22.2% three months after starting treatment</td>
<td>32% three months after starting treatment</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


References


