

2nd
Edn

Compendium of Dermatology *for Examinations*



Editors

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Contents

Preface to the Second Edition

vii

Preface to the First Edition

ix

List of Contributors

xi

Long and Short Cases

xix

1. Acne Rosacea	1	Differential Diagnosis 33	
Introduction 1		Investigations 33	
Epidemiology 1		Treatment of Pemphigus 37	
Pathogenesis 1		Subepidermal Immunobullous Diseases 44	
Clinical Features and Differential Diagnosis 2		Bullous Pemphigoid 44	
Other Variants 3		Mucous Membrane Pemphigoid 57	
Diagnosis 4		Linear IgA Disease 59	
Treatment 5		Anti-p200 Pemphigoid 61	
Prognosis 5		Epidermolysis Bullosa Acquisita 62	
2. Amyloidosis	7	Pemphigoid Gestationis (Herpes Gestationis) 63	
Definition and Types 7		Bullous SLE 64	
Types of Cutaneous Amyloidosis 7		Duhring-Brocq Disease 66	
Epidemiology 7			
Predisposing Factors 9		5. Autoimmune Connective Tissue Diseases	72
Pathogenesis 9		Antinuclear Antibody (ANA) 72	
Clinical Features 9		Chronic Cutaneous LE (CCLE/DLE) 77	
Differential Diagnosis 10		Subacute Cutaneous LE (SCLE) 84	
Complications 10		Systemic Lupus Erythematosus (SLE) 86	
Diagnosis 11		What is New? 99	
Treatment 12		Systemic Sclerosis 101	
3. Annular (Figurate) Erythema	13	Dermatomyositis 116	
Annular Erythemas 13		Definition 116	
4. Autoimmune Bullous Diseases	17	MCTD/Overlap Syndrome/Sharp Syndrome 124	
Pemphigus 17		6. Cutaneous Mosaicism	126
Pemphigus Vulgaris (PV) 21		History 126	
Pemphigus Vegetans 25		Introduction 127	
Pemphigus Foliaceus (PF) 26		Definition 127	
Pemphigus Erythematosus (PE) 27		Classification of Mosaic Abnormalities of Skin 129	
Endemic Pemphigus Foliaceus 28		Clinical Assessment 132	
Pemphigus Herpetiformis 28		Investigations 133	
Paraneoplastic Pemphigus 28		Treatment 135	
IgA Pemphigus 30			
Induced Pemphigus 31			

7. **Dermatitis** 137
 - Phytopodermatitis 137
 - Parthenium Dermatitis (PD) 138
 - Clinical Features 139
 - Diagnosis 140
 - Treatment 141
 - Airborne Contact Dermatitis (ABCD) 141
 - Epidemiology 141
 - Etiopathogenesis 141
 - Clinical Features 143
 - Classical 143
 - Diagnosis 144
 - Differential Diagnosis 144
 - Treatment 145
8. **Erythroderma** 147
 - Epidemiology 147
 - Etiopathogenesis 147
 - Clinical Features 148
 - Investigations 152
 - Complications and Comorbidities 152
 - Course and Prognosis 152
 - Management 154
9. **Follicular Disorders** 155
 - Classification 155
 - Keratosis Pilaris (KP) 155
 - Clinical Presentation 155
 - Associations of Keratosis Pilaris 160
 - Treatment 160
 - Lichen Spinulosus 161
 - Treatment 162
 - Phrynoderma 162
10. **Genetic Skin Disorders** 164
 - Introduction 164
 - Ehlers-Danlos Syndrome (EDS) 164
 - Osteogenesis Imperfecta (OI) 169
 - Cutis Laxa, Hereditary Generalized 171
 - Marfan Syndrome 173
 - Infantile Stiff Skin Syndromes 174
 - Lipoid Proteinosis (Hyalinosis Cutis et Mucosae, Urbach-Wiethe Disease) 176
 - Pseudoxanthoma Elasticum 178
 - Focal Dermal Hypoplasia (Goltz Syndrome, Goltz-Gorlin Syndrome) 180
 - Ichthyosis 182
 - Classification 182
 - Non-syndromic Variants 186
 - Neurocutaneous/Hamartoneoplastic Syndromes 203
 - RASopathies 203
 - Neurofibromatosis (NF) 204
 - NF1 (Von Recklinghausen's Disease) 204
 - Neurofibromatosis, Segmental 209
 - NF2 (Bilateral Acoustic Schwannomas) 209
 - Tuberous Sclerosis Complex (TSC) 210
 - Porphyria 215
 - Porphyria Cutanea Tarda 217
 - Congenital Erythropoietic Porphyria (Gunther's Disease) 219
 - Erythropoietic Protoporphyrria 220
 - Palmoplantar Keratoderma 222
 - Premature Aging Syndrome 231
 - Progeria 231
 - Werner Syndrome (Pangeria) 234
 - Bloom Syndrome (Congenital Telangiectatic Erythema) 235
 - DNA Repair Disorders 237
 - Xeroderma Pigmentosum (XP) 237
 - Dyskeratotic-Acantholytic Disorders 245
 - Darier Disease (DD) 245
 - Hailey-Hailey Disease 249
 - Epidermolysis Bullosa (EB) 252
 - Diagnosis 259
 - Treatment of EB 262
 - Ectodermal Dysplasia 263
11. **Hair Disorders** 269
 - Introduction 269
 - Alopecia Areata 269
 - Trichotillomania 278
 - Cicatricial Alopecia 281
 - Follicular Lichen Panus 283
 - Central Centrifugal Cicatricial Alopecia (CCCA) 290
 - Folliculitis Decalvans 291
 - Hair Shaft Disorders 293
12. **Hemangioma and Vascular Malformations** 300
 - Hemangioma 300
 - Infantile Hemangiomas 300
 - Congenital Hemangioma 309
 - Vascular Malformations 311
 - Capillary Malformation (Port-Wine Stain, Nevus Flammeus) 311
 - Venous Malformations 317
 - Lymphatic Malformations 320
 - Lymphedema 322
 - Arteriovenous Malformations (AVMS) 322
 - Other Vascular Disorders 324

13. **Hidradenitis Suppurativa** 327
 - Epidemiology 327
 - Predisposing Factors 327
 - Pathogenesis 328
 - Clinical Features 328
 - Clinical Variants 330
 - Differential Diagnosis 330
 - Investigations 330
 - Severity Scoring 331
 - Complications 331
 - Course and Prognosis 331
 - Treatment 331
14. **Infections** 335
 - Bacterial and Mycobacterial Infections 335
 - Actinomycosis 335
 - Nocardiosis 339
 - Corynebacterial Cutaneous Infections 342
 - Erythrasma 342
 - Trichomycosis Axillaris/Trichomycosis Nodosa 343
 - Pitted Keratolysis 344
 - Cutaneous TB 346
 - Tuberculous Chancre 348
 - Lupus Vulgaris 349
 - Scrofuloderma 352
 - Warty Tuberculosis (Tuberculosis Verrucosa Cutis/TBVC) 355
 - Tuberculids 357
 - Erythema Induratum of Bazin 362
 - Atypical Mycobacterial Infections 365
 - Fungal Infections 370
 - Introduction 370
 - Superficial Mycoses 371
 - Pityriasis Versicolor 371
 - Dermatophytoses 372
 - Tinea Capitis 372
 - Tinea Pedis 378
 - Onychomycosis 380
 - Subcutaneous Mycoses 380
 - Sporotrichosis 380
 - Mycetoma 385
 - Chromoblastomycosis 393
 - Phaeohyphomycosis 398
 - Lobomycosis 400
 - Rhinosporidiosis 400
 - Viral Infections 403
 - Molluscum Contagiosum 403
 - Pityriasis Rosea (PR) 404
 - Herpes Zoster (HZ) 408
 - Hand, Foot and Mouth Disease (HFMD) 410
 - Gianotti-Crosti Syndrome (GCS) (Papular Acrodermatitis of Childhood) 411
 - Cutaneous Warts 413
 - Epidermodysplasia Verruciformis (EV) (Treeman Syndrome) 420
 - Dengue (Flavivirus) and Chikungunya (Togavirus) Fevers 421
 - Cutaneous Leishmaniasis and Post-Kala-Azar Dermal Leishmaniasis (PKDL) 424
 - Scabies 440
 - Pediculosis 446
 - Pediculosis Capitis 447
 - Pediculosis Corporis 453
 - Pediculosis Pubis (Phthiriasis Pubis) 455
15. **Leprosy** 461
 - History of Leprosy 461
 - Epidemiology 462
 - Transmission of Leprosy 463
 - Natural Course of Disease 463
 - Microbiology 463
 - Pathology 467
 - Clinical Features 471
 - Leprosy Reactions 483
 - Investigations 487
 - Treatment of Leprosy 491
 - Drug-resistant Leprosy 496
 - Treatment of Reactions 498
 - Relapse in Leprosy 501
 - Disability and Nerve Testing 505
 - Sensory Testing using Graded Monofilaments 510
 - Questions and Answers in Leprosy 513
16. **Lichen Planus and Lichenoid Disorders** 522
 - Lichen Planus (LP) 522
 - Epidemiology 522
 - Genetic Factors 522
 - Environmental Factors 522
 - Pathophysiology 522
 - Clinical Features and Types of LP 524
 - Differential Diagnosis 529
 - Complications 529
 - Investigations 530
 - Management 530
 - Management of Other Variants of LP 533

- Lichen Planus Pigmentosus (LPP) 534
 Lichen Nitidus (LN) 535
 Differential Diagnosis 537
 Treatment 537
 Lichen Striatus 537
 Epidemiology 537
 Clinical Features 537
 Differential Diagnosis 537
 Treatment 537
17. **Mastocytosis** 539
 Introduction 539
 Epidemiology 540
 Predisposing Factors 540
 Pathogenesis 540
 Clinical Features of Cutaneous Mastocytosis 540
 Diagnosis 540
 Differential Diagnosis 544
 Clinical Course and Prognosis 545
 Treatment 545
18. **Morphea and Lichen Sclerosus** 548
 Morphea 548
 Epidemiology 548
 Classification 548
 Predisposing and Triggering Factors 548
 Pathogenesis 549
 Clinical Features 550
 Scoring 556
 Investigations 556
 Differential Diagnosis 559
 Treatment 559
 Course and Prognosis 561
 Lichen Sclerosus (LS and Balanitis Xerotica Obliterans) 563
 Epidemiology 563
 Clinical Features (Extragenital) (LS) 563
 Clinical Features (Genital) (LS) 564
 Differential Diagnosis 564
 Histopathology 565
 Treatment 565
19. **Nail Disorders** 567
 Trachyonychia 567
 Etiology 567
 Clinical Features 568
 Treatment 569
 Onychomycosis 570
 Epidemiology 570
 Pathogenesis 570
 Clinical Patterns and Clinical Types/Variants 571
 Treatment 573
 Nail Psoriasis 577
 Epidemiology 577
 Pathogenesis 577
 Clinical Features 578
 Management 581
 Differential Diagnosis of Nail Psoriasis 581
 Nail Lichen Planus 583
 Clinical Features 583
 Differential Diagnosis 584
 Treatment 584
 Melanonychia Striata 586
 Causes 586
 Treatment 588
 Prognosis 588
20. **Necrobiotic Disorders** 592
 Granuloma Annulare [GA] 592
 Annular Elastolytic Giant Cell Granuloma (AEGCG, Actinic Granuloma of O'Brien, and Atypical Facial NLD) 596
 Interstitial Granulomatous Dermatitis and Arthritis (IGDA) and Palisaded Neutrophilic Granulomatous Dermatitis (PNGD) 597
 Necrobiosis Lipoidica 598
21. **Neutrophilic Dermatoses** 602
 Sweet Syndrome 602
 Associated Syndromes 602
 Clinical Features 603
 Clinical Variants 604
 Differential Diagnosis 605
 Complications and Comorbidities 606
 Disease Course and Prognosis 606
 Treatment 606
 Pyoderma Gangrenosum (PG) 607
 Pathogenesis 607
 Clinical Features 607
 Diagnosis 609
 Treatment 609
 Behçet Disease 611
 Epidemiology 611
 Pathogenesis 611
 Clinical Features 611
 Histopathology 611
 Treatment 611

22. **Nevi** **613**
 Congenital Epidermal Nevi (CEN) 615
 Becker Nevus 616
 Verrucous Epidermal Nevus (VEN) 618
 Inflammatory Linear Verrucous Epidermal Nevus (ILVEN) 620
 Nevus Sebaceus of Jadassohn 622
 Comedo Nevus 624
 Nevus Spilus 626
 Linear and Whorled Nevoid Hyperpigmentation (LWNH) 628
 Nevus Depigmentosus 629
 Nevus Anemicus 630
 Congenital Melanocytic Nevi 631
 Halo Nevus 633
23. **Panniculitis** **636**
 Classification of the Panniculitides 636
 Erythema Nodosum 637
 Clinical Features 638
 Histology 638
 Treatment 639
24. **Perforating Dermatoses** **640**
 Introduction 640
 TEE (Transepidermal Elimination) 640
 Epidemiology 641
 Clinical Features 641
 Treatment 643
25. **Pigmentary Disorders** **645**
 Disorders of Hyperpigmentation 645
 Pigmentary Demarcation Lines 647
 Acquired Disorders of Hyperpigmentation 649
 Facial Melanosis 649
 Melasma 649
 Riehl's Melanosis/Pigmented Contact Dermatitis 653
 Lichen Planus Pigmentosus 656
 Erythema Dyschromicum Perstans (EDP) and Ashy Dermatitis 657
 Nevus of Ota and Ito 659
 Disorders of Hypopigmentation 663
 Introduction 663
 Genetic Disorders of Hypopigmentation 664
 Hypomelanosis of Ito 666
 Incontinentia Pigmenti (IP) 667
 Acquired Disorders of Hypopigmentation 672
 Idiopathic Guttate Hypomelanosis 672
 Progressive Macular Hypomelanosis 675
 Vitiligo 676
 Chemical Vitiligo/Contact Leukoderma 683
 Reticulate Pigmentary Disorders 684
26. **Pityriasis Rubra Pilaris** **695**
 Epidemiology 695
 Etiopathogenesis 695
 Clinical Features 695
 Pathology 698
 Differential Diagnosis 698
 Complications and Comorbidities 698
 Disease Course and Prognosis 698
 Investigations 698
 Management 698
 Treatment Ladder 698
27. **Psoriasis** **700**
 Types of Psoriasis 700
 Plaque Psoriasis 700
 Epidemiology 700
 Predisposing and Triggering Factors 701
 Clinical Features 701
 Based on Age/Aggravating Factor 701
 Comorbidities with Psoriasis 705
 Diagnosis 705
 Severity Scales of Psoriasis 706
 Disease Course 706
 Treatment 706
 Biologics in Psoriasis 709
 Biosimilars in Psoriasis 709
 Therapy of Types and Special Scenarios 712
 Pustular Psoriasis 714
 Generalized Pustular Psoriasis 714
 Epidemiology 714
 Predisposing Factors 714
 Clinical Features 714
 Differential Diagnosis 716
 Complications 716
 Diagnosis 717
 Disease Course and Prognosis 717
 Treatment 717
 Localized Pustular Psoriasis 718
 Palmoplantar Pustulosis (PPP) 718
 Treatment 719
 Acrodermatitis Continua of Hallopeau 719
 Psoriatic Arthritis (PsA) 720
 Epidemiology 720

Predisposing Factors and Triggers	721	
Associated Diseases	721	
Differential Diagnosis	721	
Diagnosis	721	
Treatment	721	
28. Reactive Arthritis (Reiter Disease)	724	
Definitions	724	
Epidemiology	724	
Etiopathogenesis	724	
Pathogens	725	
Clinical Features	725	
Diagnosis	725	
Differential Diagnosis	725	
Investigations	728	
Treatment	730	
Prognosis	730	
29. Sarcoidosis	732	
Pathogenesis	732	
Clinical Features	732	
Histopathology	735	
Differential Diagnosis	735	
Investigations	735	
Treatment	736	
30. Sexually Transmitted Diseases	739	
Introduction	739	
Approach to a Patient with STD	739	
Genital Ulcer Disease	742	
Urethral Discharge	746	
Vaginal/Cervical Discharge	748	
Inguinal Swelling (Chancroid, LGV)	751	
Scrotal Swelling	752	
Genitoulcerative Disease (GUD)	753	
Genital Herpes (HPG)	753	
Special Situations with HPG	762	
Syphilis	766	
Diagnosis of Syphilis	775	
Chancroid	791	
Donovanosis (Granuloma Inguinale/ Granuloma Venereum/Ulcerating Granuloma of Pudenda)	795	
Lymphogranuloma Venereum (Tropical/ Climatic Bubo, Durand-Nicolas-Favre Disease)	798	
Urethritis	802	
Gonococcal Urethritis	803	
Non-gonococcal Urethritis	815	
Persistent and Recurrent NGU	817	
Vaginal Discharge and PID	821	
Anogenital Warts	831	
Conclusion	838	
Syndromic Approach	839	
High Yield Aspects on STD	846	
31. Tumors: Benign Appendageal, Malignant and Premalignant Tumors	850	
Appendageal Tumors	850	
Introduction	850	
Syringoma	853	
Trichoepithelioma	855	
Pilomatricoma	857	
Sebaceous Hyperplasia	861	
Paget Disease of the Nipple	862	
Extramammary Paget Disease	863	
Malignant Tumors	864	
Basal Cell Carcinoma (BCC)	864	
Squamous Cell Carcinoma (SCC)	871	
Malignant Melanoma	875	
Premalignant Tumors	882	
Actinic Keratoses (AK)	882	
Disseminated Superficial Actinic Porokeratosis (DSAP)	884	
Bowen Disease (BD)	887	
32. Xanthomas and Hyperlipoproteinemia	891	
Overview of Lipoprotein Transport	891	
Clinical Types, Pathogenesis and Treatment of Hyperlipoproteinemias	892	
Clinical Features	892	
Investigations	892	
Treatment	892	
33. Dermatopathology Image Bank	898	
<i>Bibliography</i>	<i>915</i>	
<i>Index</i>	<i>917</i>	

Acne Rosacea

Pooja Arora Mrig

Introduction

Rosacea is a centrofacial skin disease characterized by flushing, erythema, telangiectasias and papulopustular lesions on the cheeks and nose. The clinical spectrum varies from mild involvement with erythema to severe disfiguring variants.

Epidemiology

- It is more common in fair skin types.
- It usually affects the middle aged and elderly with an age of onset between 30 and 50 years.
- Rosacea can rarely occur in children. Children more commonly present with rosacea-like conditions like perioral dermatitis.
- Gender predilection varies between different populations.

Pathogenesis

Pathogenesis of rosacea is multifactorial with interplay of several factors.

Genetics: Association found with polymorphisms nearby the BPTK316 as well as signals in the MHC class II molecules.

Environmental factors: Temperature changes, caffeine, hot and spicy foods, alcohol, sunlight, exercise, psychological stress, menstruation, demodex mites and certain medications. Role of *H. pylori* is not clear.

Toll-like receptors, cytokines and anti-microbial peptides: Toll-like receptor 2 (TLR2) and Toll-like receptor 4 (TLR4) found to be over-expressed in rosacea skin. AMPs are also increased.

Immune cells: T cells (especially Th1/Th17—polarized immune cells), macrophages, mast cells and neutrophils play an important role in pathogenesis. Reactive oxygen species (ROS) and other proteases are produced by inflammatory cells that lead to inflammation, angiogenesis, and telangiectasias. Recently, an involvement of B cells in the pathogenesis of rosacea was shown as well.

Blood vessels: Papillary dermal vessels are dilated resulted in erythema.

Nerves: Sensory nerve endings are activated to release vasoactive peptides that cause flushing and erythema.

Clinical Features and Differential Diagnosis

The most commonly used classification categorizes rosacea into various types based on clinical features. There is overlap in the clinical manifestations and one patient can have more than one subtype, though the various classic manifestations are depicted in **Fig. 1.1**. **Table 1.1** gives the classification with common differential diagnoses of the subtypes.

Table 1.1: Classification of rosacea with differential diagnosis		
Subtype	Clinical features	Differential diagnosis
I. Erythematotelangiectatic rosacea (ETTR)	• Transient (flushing) or persistent erythema over centrofacial area (Fig. 1.2) • Edema • Telangiectasia • Skin sensitivity	• Other causes of flushing (physiological—menopause, anxiety, pathological—carcinoid tumors) • Actinic damage (telangiectatic photoaging) • Seborrheic dermatitis • Photoallergic or phototoxic reactions • Lupus erythematosus • Heliotrope rash of DM
II. Papulopustular rosacea (PPR)	• Persistent erythema (post-inflammatory, telangiectasia, vasodilation) • Erythematous papules/papulopustular that appear singly or in crops over centrofacial area • No residual scarring	• Papulopustular acne • Steroid-induced rosacea • Perioral dermatitis • Allergic dermatitis • Tinea incognito, candidiasis • Lupus miliaris disseminatus faciei • Cutaneous sarcoidosis • Gram-negative folliculitis • Eosinophilic folliculitis • Demodicosis
III. Phymatous rosacea	• Hyperplastic sebaceous glands along with fibrosis over nose and other facial regions seen as thickened nodular skin with prominent pores • Various types based on site involved: – Rhinophyma: Nose – Gnathophyma: Chin – Metophyma: Forehead – Otophyma: Ears – Blepharophyma: Eyelids	• Lupus pernio (sarcoidosis) • DLE • Cutaneous TB (lupus vulgaris) • Chilblain lupus • Neoplasms (angiosarcoma) • Eosinophilic granuloma
IV. Ocular rosacea	• Ocular changes may or may not be accompanied by cutaneous rosacea • Eye changes more common with subtypes I and II – Dry, gritty sensation, tearing, pruritus – Conjunctivitis – Keratitis – Blepharitis, scaling at eyelid margins, conical dandruff – Scleritis, episcleritis, iritis – Chalazia, hordeola	• Seborrheic dermatitis • Drug-induced ocular rosacea (eye drops) • Bacterial and viral conjunctivitis • Allergic conjunctivitis • Infectious keratitis

TREATMENT OF PEMPHIGUS

Principles of Treatment

The agents that are used are either targeted to the specific cells (T/B cells) or to the antibodies released. In essence, the use of steroids and ISA have a broad range of effects and hence have more side effects and thus the focus is on agents that are specific to the targets.

Published guidelines for pemphigus therapy mostly rely on expert consensus, given the paucity of randomized clinical trials with large sample sizes and rigorous randomization methods. The modalities of treatment of pemphigus foliaceus and vulgaris are similar. We shall briefly discuss some of the important therapeutic modalities in the following section.

The phases of therapy are given in **Table 4.10**, while an overview of the agents is given in **Table 4.11**; details of treatment follow in the text below.

Systemic CS (Boxes 4.5 and 4.6)

- **Osteoporosis** counselling should be provided if corticosteroid treatment is anticipated to last ≥ 3 months. Pneumocystis prophylaxis and tuberculosis screening should be considered for patients who will receive high doses of corticosteroids together with another immunosuppressive drug for >1 month.
- At the end of the consolidation phase of therapy, most clinicians begin to taper steroids. Approximately half of patients will relapse during steroid taper, whereas half will achieve complete remission off therapy after a mean treatment duration of 3 years.

Immunosuppressive Agents (ISA)

- Mycophenolate mofetil and azathioprine demonstrate approximately comparable safety and efficacy.
- Mycophenolate mofetil has shown faster and more durable treatment responses than placebo when added to prednisolone regimens.
- Azathioprine is generally preferred for patients with renal failure.

Disease Outcome Parameters

Some useful terms that help to stratify the disease response are given below.

- **Control of disease activity** (disease control)—time interval from baseline to the time at which new lesions cease to form and established lesions begin to heal.
- **End of the consolidation phase**—no new lesions $\times 2$ weeks and the majority (approximately 80%) of established lesions have healed. Tapering of corticosteroid doses at this point.
- **Complete remission on therapy**—absence of new or established lesions while the patient is receiving minimal therapy (<10 mg/day of prednisone (or equivalent) and/or minimal adjuvant therapy $\times 2$ months).

Table 4.10: Phases of treatment of pemphigus

Control	Intensive therapy is given until no new lesions appear for 2 weeks
Consolidation	Treatment is continued until the lesions completely clear
Maintenance	Lowest dose of the drug is given to prevent the appearance of any new lesions
Follow-up	During this period, the patients are advised for regular follow-up without any treatment

Table 4.11: Topical and systemic therapy**Topical**

- Good oral hygiene
- Clobetasol propionate (mild pemphigus). Potent topical or intralesional steroids may reduce the requirement for oral steroids
- Anticholinergic gel (pilocarpine) for oral erosions
- Tacrolimus and cyclosporine
- Intralesional triamcinolone acetonide (2.5–5 mg/ml) for intractable oral ulcers

Systemic

1. Steroids: The details of steroids and DCP are explained in **Boxes 4.5** and **4.6**

2. Immunosuppressives:

Cyclophosphamide	Cyclophosphamide is a potent anti-B cell agent. Dose: 1–3 mg/kg/day
Azathioprine	Dose: 2–3 mg/kg/day
Mycophenolate mofetil	An anti-metabolite that inhibits <i>de novo</i> pathway of purine synthesis in T and B cells. Dose: 1–3 g/day
Methotrexate	Dose: 10–50 mg/week
Cyclosporine	Dose: 2.5–5 mg/kg/day

3. Anti-inflammatory

Dapsone	Pemphigus herpetiformis
Acitretin	With prednisolone in pemphigus vegetans
Gold	May have modest effect in pemphigus, though toxic effects limit its utility
Tetracycline, Nicotinamide	Tetracycline and/or nicotinamide in combination with prednisolone may be useful in mild disease.

4. Biologics and IVIG

IVIG	Unclear mechanism, may have a dilutional effect on pathogenic autoantibodies plus anti-idiotypic effects. Dose: 2 g/kg split over 3–5 days
Rituximab	Chimeric monoclonal antibody against CD20. Dose: 375 mg/m ² weekly for 4 weeks or two infusions of 1g, 2 weeks apart (see Box 4.7 for details)

5. Desmoglein-specific immunoadsorption

Extracorporeal photophoresis, plasmapheresis, immunoadsorption
IVIG

6. Desmoglein-specific B cell depletion

Desmoglein 3 chimeric autoantibody receptor T cells (CAARTs) specifically bind to and kill anti-desmoglein 3 B cells, leading to disease remission in a pemphigus mouse model without immunosuppression

- **Complete remission off therapy**—no new and/or established lesions off all systemic therapy × 2 months
- **Relapse/flare**—3 or more new lesions a month that do not heal spontaneously within 1 week, or the extension of established lesions, in a patient who has achieved disease control.
- **Failure of therapy**—failure to control disease activity (i.e. relapse/flare) with full therapeutic doses of systemic treatments.

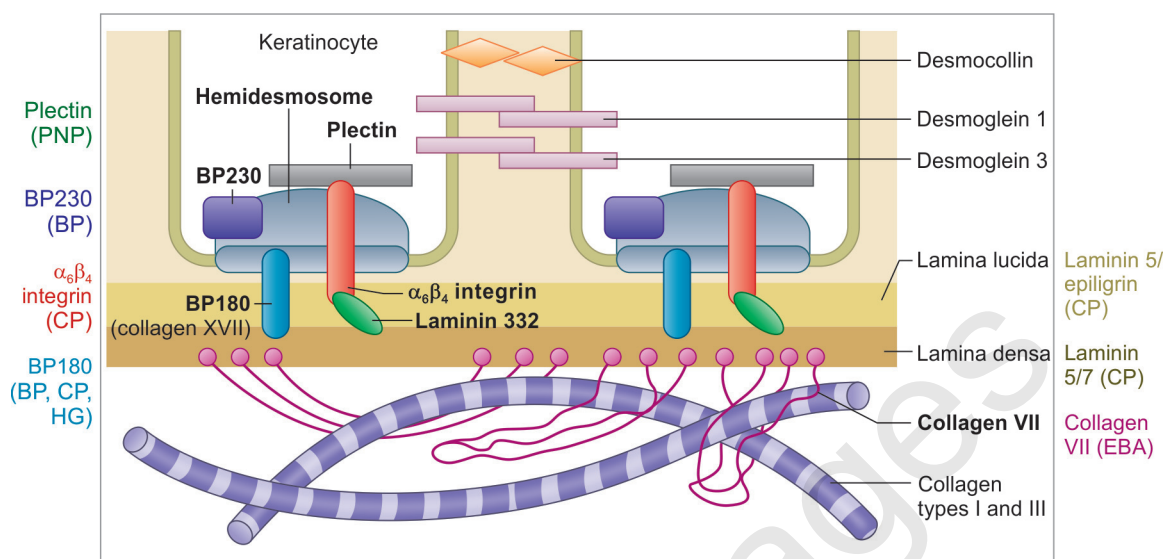


Fig. 4.10: A depiction of the hemidesmosome and BMZ with emphasis on the target antigens in the various structures of the BMZ. The major disorders are listed in brackets with the target antigen

Pathogenesis

Antigens:

BP180/type XVII collagen/BPAG2 (in 75–90%) and BP230/BPAG1 (in 50–70%)

- Immunodominant region of BP180—**extracellular portion of the 16th non-collagenous domain (NC16A)** located directly adjacent to the cellular membrane.

(explains why antibodies to both BP180 and BP230 can be seen in a significant portion of the population without blister formation as these are not against the critical NC16A region of BP180)

- BP230 (BPAG1): 230 kDa cytoplasmic plaque protein belonging to plakin family; not the primary mediator of BP → antibodies are formed as secondary phenomenon (epitope spreading)

Antibodies: IgG4, IgG1, also IgE and IgA

- Autoreactive T cells in BP patients produced a Th1/Th2 mixed cytokine profile. Th2 type cytokines are important in human BP. Th17 also plays a role.

- **IgE-anti-BP180 NC16A antibodies**—associated with severe disease, longer time-to-remission and need for more intensive therapy (Kamata A).

- **Complement activation and mast cell activation**—**crucial** for neutrophil and macrophage chemotaxis at the DEJ.

- The summary of pathogenesis of BP is depicted in **Fig. 4.11** (see **Box 4.9** for key).

Predisposing Factors

- Trauma, burns, skin grafting, radiotherapy
- UV radiation—sunlight, PUVA, PDT
- Influenza vaccination—doubtful role
- Drugs—**furosemide, spironolactone, phenothiazines**, other loop diuretics, penicillin, ampicillin, penicillamine, ciprofloxacin, potassium iodide, ACE inhibitors, antidiabetics

Follicular Disorders

Ananta Khurana

- A group of disorders presenting with small papules localized around follicles and appendages.
- **True follicular disorders:** Present clinically with keratotic papules or papules with prominent spine and follicular plugging on histopathology (**Sardana K**).
- Typically, follicular lesions do not have a tendency to coalesce.

Classification

An approach to the diagnosis of the follicular disorder is given in the **Flowchart 9.1**. These are conveniently divided into 3 broad types—keratotic papules, lichenoid papules and the Id eruptions. A regional classification is given in **Flowchart 9.2**. **Table 9.1** gives an etiological classification of the common follicular disorders.

The details of the common disorders seen are listed in **Table 9.2** and some are discussed in the text that follows.

KERATOSIS PILARIS (KP)

Etiopathogenesis: Not well understood but many factors, including histopathologic findings, the tendency to improve during adolescence, the association with filaggrin mutations and 18p monosomy, the effects of androgen and insulin dysregulation, and reduced prevalence in patients with acne vulgaris, support KP as a disorder of the sebaceous gland, which disrupts the permeability barrier of the SC and causes aberrant keratinization and hair abnormalities.

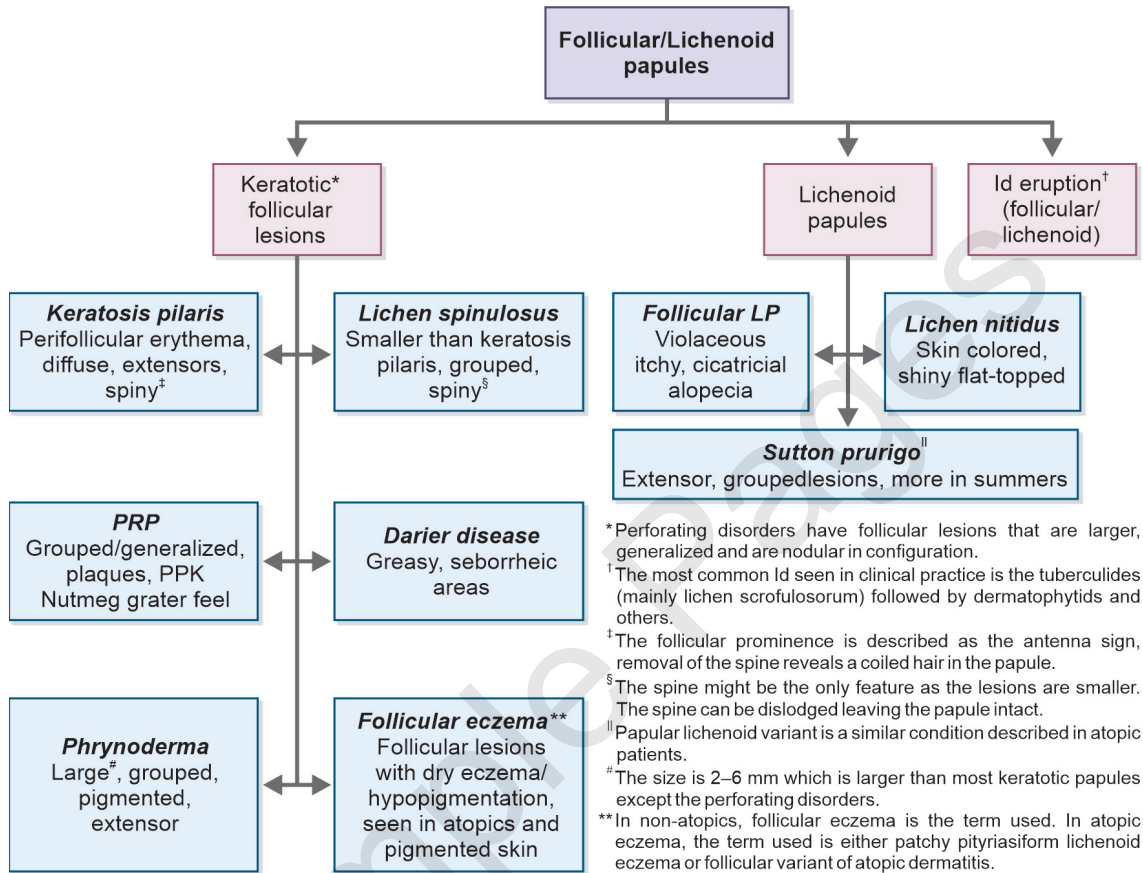
Onset: First two decades of life (peak at puberty)

Family history: Positive in 39%

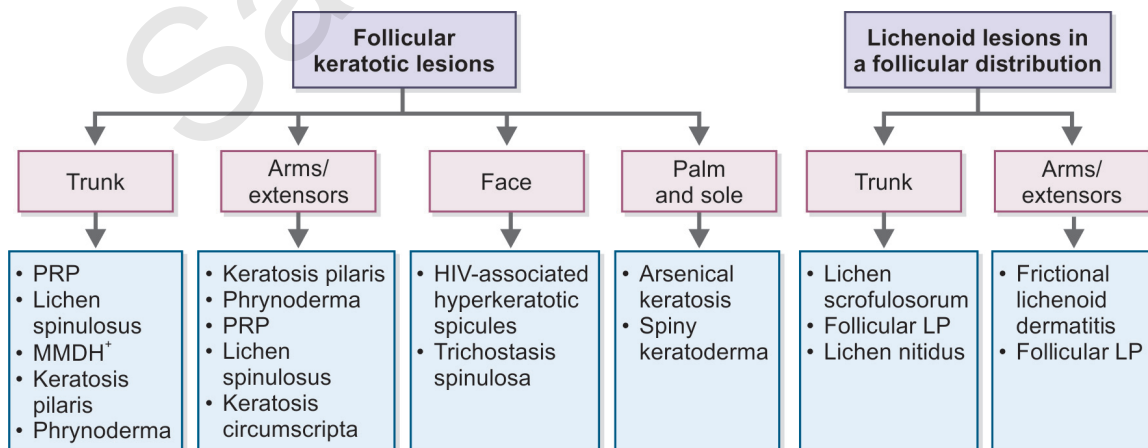
Clinical Presentation

- ‘Chicken skin,’ appearance.
- Keratotic papules in a folliculocentric distribution; ‘**antenna sign**’ positive (**Fig. 9.1a**).
- Distributed on the extensor surfaces of the proximal extremities.
- Variable amount of perifollicular erythema—present.
- Mild KP may have coiled or twisted vellus hairs, either single or in groups of 2–3, surrounded by peripilar casts.

Flowchart 9.1: An overview of the common follicular disorders based on the prominent morphology



Flowchart 9.2: A regional classification of follicular disorders



PRP= Pityriasis Rubra Pilaris; LP= Lichen Planus

MMDH^{*}= Multiple Minute Digitate Hyperkeratoses (typically non-follicular)

DNA REPAIR DISORDERS

The human genome is made up of about 3 billion DNA base pairs containing an estimated 30,000 protein-encoding genes. This DNA is continually being damaged by a variety of endogenous sources (such as reactive oxygen species) and exogenous sources (such as ultraviolet and ionizing radiation). There are multiple elaborate mechanisms to avoid this damage and defects in these DNA repair pathways result in a number of disorders (**Table 10.17**).

Table 10.17: DNA repair disorders

Nucleotide excision repair	• Xeroderma pigmentosum • Cockayne syndrome • Trichothiodystrophy
Recombination Q helicase	• Rothmund-Thomson syndrome • Bloom syndrome • Werner's syndrome
Double strand break repair	Ataxia telangiectasia
Interstrand cross-link repair	Fanconi anemia
Mismatch repair	Muir-Torre syndrome

Note: Those in bold are important for examinees.

XERODERMA PIGMENTOSUM (XP)

The term xeroderma pigmentosum, means “pigmented dry skin”.

In Indian and Middle Eastern areas, the incidence is quoted at one per 10,000–30,000.

Defect and Clinical Correlates

- AR disorder due to mutations in XPA to XPG genes (as well as variant XPV gene)—each gene encodes a protein important in the nucleotide excision repair pathway:

The defect is in the nucleotide excision repair (NER) pathways and is of two types: (**Fig. 10.43**)

- a. Global genome nucleotide excision repair (GG-NER) in which damage to DNA not undergoing transcription is repaired.
 - b. Transcription-coupled nucleotide excision repair (TC-NER) in which damage in transcribed regions of DNA is rapidly repaired.
- GG-NER can globally repair lesions in the genome, whereas TC-NER will only repair lesions on actively transcribed genes. The **subtypes** (7 complementation groups) of XP (XPA to XPG) correspond to the affected genes **either of nucleotide excision repair (NER) (XPA-XPG) or translesion synthesis (XPV)**.
1. Steps unique to **GG-NER involve XPC and XPE**. Patients with defects in XPC and XPE show evidence of **freckling** but generally do **not** have an abnormal **sunburn reaction**. **However, they have highest increased risk of skin cancer**, which is thought to be at least partly attributable to the fact they do not have the adverse reaction to sun-light that would lead them to avoid sun exposure.

Patients in the XPC complementation group have also recently been observed to have high sensitivity to ocular damage.

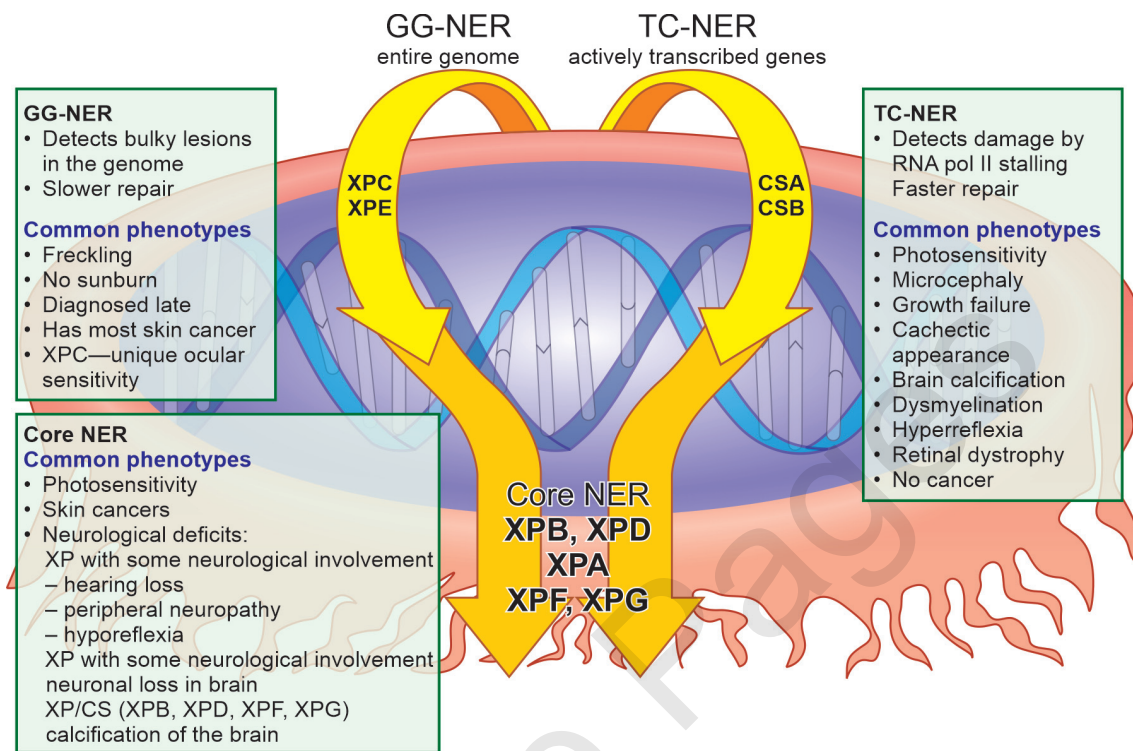


Fig. 10.43: Correlation of phenotypes with molecular deficits in xeroderma pigmentosum (XP). The two types of nucleotide excision repair (NER), global genome NER (GG-NER) and transcription-coupled NER (TC-NER), are shown. After initial recognition of the DNA damage, GG-NER and TC-NER both utilize a common pathway with core NER proteins for excision and repair

- Steps unique to **TC-NER** involve two genes (CSA, CSB) involved in Cockayne syndrome (CS).
- The **core NER proteins**, are utilized by both GG-NER and TC-NER, include **XPA, XPB, XPD, XPF and XPG**.
Clinical features are of both GG-NER and TC-NER phenotypes, both skin cancer and neurological abnormalities.
- XPV group have mutations in polymerase: Similarly to patients with XP who have mutations in proteins involved in the initial steps of GG-NER (XPC, XPE), patients in the XPV group do not present with abnormal sun-burn reactions and also show high susceptibility to developing skin cancer, albeit later in life.
- A summary is given below:
 - Most common subtypes in the United States are XPA and XPC; XPA is most common subtype in Japan.
 - Broad range of neurological involvement in XP, including XP with some neurological features, XP with severe neurological features (which can be associated with mutations in XPA), and those with XP/CS complex common in Japan.
 - De Sanctis-Cacchione syndrome: Rare XP phenotype with severe neurologic deficits (severe mental retardation, deafness, ataxia and paralysis). This term is no longer in general use as it is now appreciated that XP can be associated with neurological problems of widely varying severity.

CORYNEBACTERIAL CUTANEOUS INFECTIONS

ERYTHRASMA

Cause

C. minutissimum.

Epidemiology

- More in diabetics
- Although clinically most common on groin and axillae, Wood's lamp evidence suggests maximum in toe clefts.

Predisposing Factors

- Warm humid climate
- Diabetes mellitus

Clinical Features (Fig. 14.6a)

- Sites—groin, axillae, submammary, intergluteal
- Sharply margined irregular red smooth patches → brown scaly later

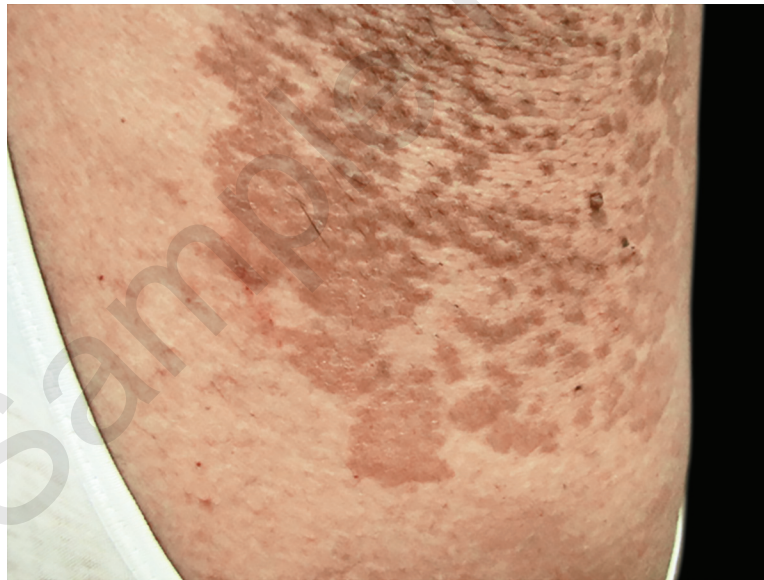


Fig. 14.6a: Erythematous 'relatively' non-itchy lesion of erythrasma

Diagnosis

- **Bedside tests**
 - Wood's lamp—coral-red/pink fluorescence (coproporphyrin III by coryneforms).

Differential Diagnosis (Box 14.1b)

- Pityriasis versicolor—occurs on upper trunk, smaller lesions, not erythematous.
- Tinea cruris—inflammations +, active raised border, satellite lesions absent.

Diagnosis

- **Bedside tests**
 - KOH mount
 - Gram stain
 - Culture—in blood agar

Differential Diagnosis

- Pediculosis pubis—matting of pubic hair, no concretions, lice can be visualized by dermoscopy.
- Piedra—scalp and beard more common, KOH mount shows hyphae.

Treatment (Fig 14.7b)

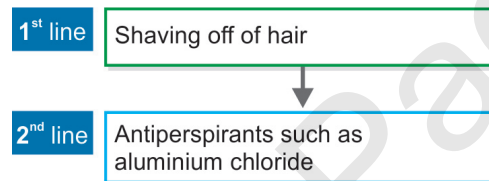


Fig. 14.7b: Treatment of trichomycosis axillaris

PITTED KERATOLYSIS

Cause

Corynebacterium spp, *Actinomyces keratolytica*, *Dermatophilus congolensis*, *Kytococcus sedentarius*, etc.

Predisposing Factors

- Warm humid climate
- Hyperhidrosis

Clinical Features

- Sites on soles—pressure-bearing/friction areas (**Fig. 14.8a**)
- Conspicuous, discrete, shallow, circular, punched out superficial erosions, coalescing at places to form irregular erosions.

Diagnosis

- **Bedside tests**
 - Gram stained smears
 - Culture on brain heart infusion agar

Lichen Planus and Lichenoid Disorders

Surabhi Sinha, Kabir Sardana, Snigdha Saxena

LICHEN PLANUS (LP)

Epidemiology

- Cutaneous LP occurs in 0.2–1% adult population and mucosal LP in 1–4%
- Onset between fifth and sixth decade.
- Classically does not occur in infants and elderly.

Genetic Factors

Genetic susceptibility to idiopathic LP is known. HLA-A3 and HLA-A5, TNF- α gene polymorphism have been reported.

Environmental Factors

- **Postulated associated microorganisms:** Hepatitis C virus, hepatitis B virus, human herpes virus-6, human herpes virus-7, varicella zoster, hepatitis B vaccine (usually after second dose, associated with oral LP, and bullous LP in children). Hepatitis C: Strongly implicated in subset of oral (ulcerative/erosive) LP.
- **Drugs**—anti-microbials, anti-hypertensives, anti-malarials, anti-depressants, anti-convulsants, diuretics, metals, NSAIDs, imatinib, IVIg, etanercept and adalimumab.
- **Dental amalgam (mercury)**
 - Associated with oral LP
 - 95%/improve with removal of sensitizing metal
 - Even with negative patch test, 75% clear when metal is removed
- Betel nut
- Radiotherapy
- Anxiety, stress and depression (might be the cause or may result from LP).

Pathophysiology

T cell-mediated autoimmune disease targeting the basal keratinocytes, triggered by a variety of situations, including viruses, drugs and contact allergens.

The various steps of pathogenesis are elucidated in **Box 16.1** and are shown in **Fig. 16.1**. The varied theories encompass three major stages—antigen recognition, lymphocyte activation, and keratinocyte apoptosis and have firm data, but the most relevant to clinicians-resolution, is a new and emerging topic that awaits more data.

Box 16.1: Overview of pathogenesis of LP

- Earliest change—increased numbers of LC.
- CD8 cells predominate in epidermis and CD4 in dermis.
 1. Initiation phase: Damage to keratinocytes results in stimulation of pDCs and release of IFN- α .
 2. Stimulated mDC present CD4-Th cells with the antigen (unknown as yet).
 3. LCs and other APCs in epithelium present Ag (currently unknown) via MHC-II to CD4 cells, while basal cells present Ag via MHC I to CD8 cells → activate CD8 cells.
- CD4 cells secrete IL-2 and IFN- γ → activate CD8 cells.
- Activated CD8+ T cells induce keratinocyte apoptosis through 1 of 3 mechanisms—secretion of tumor necrosis factor (TNF)- α , secretion of granzyme B, or Fas-Fas ligand interactions.
- Activated CD8+ T cells produce chemokines—IL-2, 4, 6, TNF- α , IFN- γ —that attract additional inflammatory cells, thereby promoting continued inflammation.
- Chemokines released by CD8 cells interact with keratinocytes and cause apoptosis.
- Mast cells sustain the inflammation and secrete MMP/Chymase/Tryptase → basement membrane damage.
- **Cytokines:** IFN- γ , IL-6, granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor (GM-CSF), and tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF- α).
- **Major kill signals:** TNF- α , granzyme, and perforin. Fas and Fas ligand (Fas-L) are expressed on both keratinocytes and lymphocytes and causes apoptosis as well as disease resolution.

LC: Langerhans cells; CTL: Cytotoxic T lymphocyte; MDC: Myeloid dendritic cells; pDC: Plasmacytoid dendritic cells

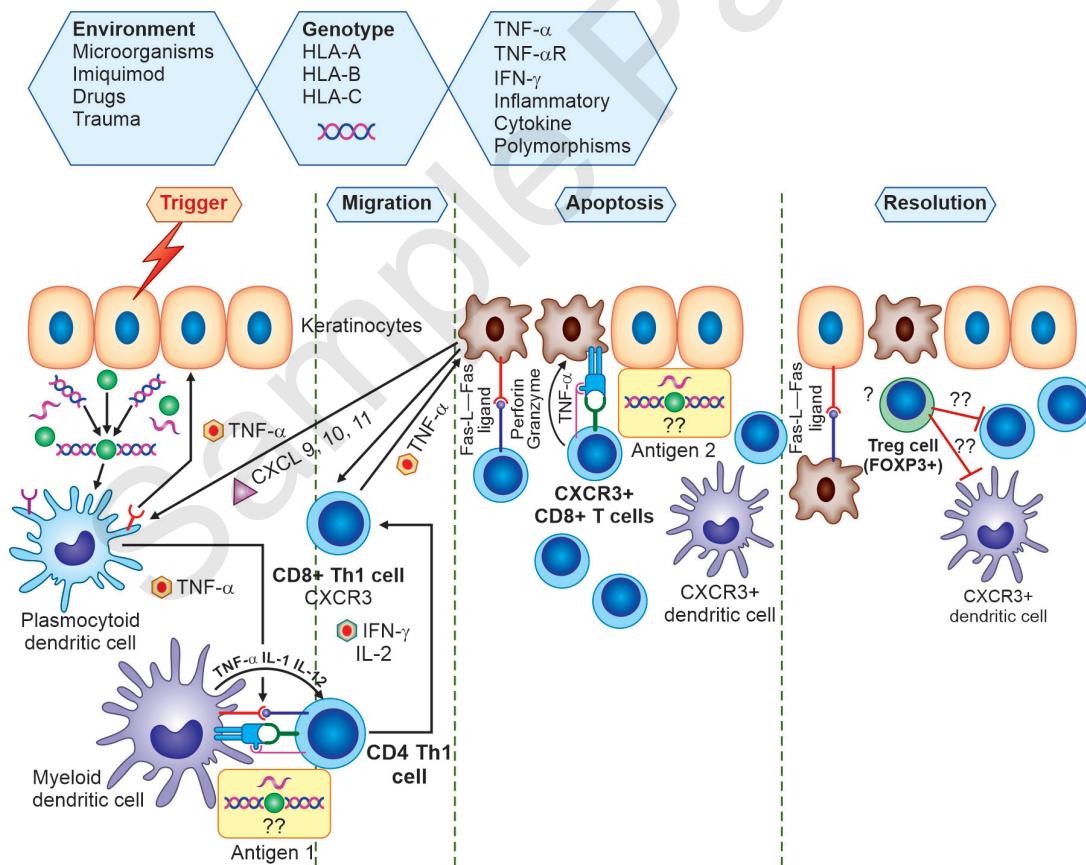


Fig. 16.1: Pathogenesis of LP: Numerous trigger factors have been implicated. The initiation phase leads to stimulation of plasmacytoid dendritic cells (pDC) with release of IFN- α . This leads to stimulation of CD4-T cells which in turn stimulate CD8-T cells which damage keratinocytes and can induce apoptosis

Reactive Arthritis (Reiter Disease)

Surabhi Sinha, Bhawuk Dhir

Reactive arthritis (ReA), previously known as Reiter disease, is a part of the spectrum of the spondyloarthropathies (usually RA factor seronegative).

It refers to an infection-induced systemic illness, characterized by a triad of urethritis, conjunctivitis/iritis, and arthritis (sterile synovitis) ("can't see, can't pee, can't climb a tree") occurring in a genetically predisposed individual, secondary to a bacterial infection localized in a distant organ/system, usually in the genitourinary (GU) or/and gastrointestinal (GI) tract.

Definitions

Reactive arthritis: Aseptic inflammatory arthritis, triggered by infection at a distant site, in genetically susceptible people.

Reiter syndrome (classic definition): A triad of urethritis, conjunctivitis, and arthritis secondary to an infectious dysentery.

Reiter syndrome (ACR definition): Episode of peripheral arthritis of more than one month's duration occurring in association with urethritis or cervicitis.

Uroarthritis: Reactive arthritis secondary to a urinary tract infection.

Sexually acquired reactive arthritis (SARA): Reactive arthritis associated with a recent sexually transmitted infection.

Epidemiology

ReA usually manifests itself as arthritis 2–4 weeks following GU or GI infections, sometimes up to 6 months, often with HLA-B27 positivity.

ReA is more frequent in males under 40 years old.

Etiopathogenesis

The relationship between bacteria and genetics is well-illustrated in ReA.

The exact role of action of **HLA-B27** in spondyloarthropathies is not known; 30 to 40% of patients with ReA are positive for this antigen; one theory postulates that HLA-B27 presents arthritogenic bacterial peptides to T cells, stimulating an autoimmune response (molecular

mimicry). Another theory is that HLA-B27 cells may act as an autoantigen that is targeted by the immune system. There also appears to be molecular mimicry between the infective organisms and a region of the HLA-B27 α -I helix. The risk of developing ReA is 50 times higher in a HLA-B27 positive individual.

Toll-like receptors: TLR-4 can recognize lipopolysaccharides and could have a role in ReA. TLR-2 has also been associated with ReA.

Pathogens

A long list of bacteria has been described as triggers of ReA that can reach the joints through intestinal or genitourinary infections; these bacteria may reach the joints as a complete form or as fragments (**Table 28.1**). Most are intracellular organisms. *Chlamydia trachomatis* is proposed to be the most common cause of ReA (genitourinary transmission); *Ureaplasma urealyticum* and occasionally *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* have been described.

Clinical Features

Classified as acute (<6 months) and chronic (>6 months). Further subdivided into articular and extra-articular (**Table 28.2**).

Diagnosis

The consensus diagnostic criteria as per Third International Workshop on Reactive Arthritis, 1995 are given in **Box 28.1**.

Differential Diagnosis

The commonest differential diagnosis is psoriatic arthritis (PsA). Though there are many similarities between the various types of SpA and even RA, **Table 28.3** lists some differentiating features and **Fig. 28.2** shows a diagnostic algorithm of reactive arthritis and spondyloarthropathy.

Table 28.1: Arthritogenic agents associated with the development of reactive arthritis

Enteric infections	Urogenital infections	Respiratory infections	Others
Probable • <i>Shigella flexneri</i>, <i>S. dysenteriae</i>, <i>S. sonnei</i> • <i>Yersinia enterocolitica</i>, <i>Y. pseudotuberculosis</i> • <i>Campylobacter jejuni</i>, <i>C. coli</i> • <i>Salmonella enteritidis</i>, <i>S. typhimurium</i> Possible • <i>Clostridium difficile</i> • <i>Escherichia coli</i> • <i>Bacillus cereus</i> • <i>Cryptosporidium</i>, <i>Giardia lamblia</i> • <i>Helicobacter pylori</i>, <i>H. cinaeli</i> • <i>Strongyloides</i> spp. • <i>Tropheryma whipplei</i>	Probable • <i>Chlamydia trachomatis</i>* Possible • <i>Ureaplasma urealyticum</i> • <i>Mycoplasma genitalium</i> • <i>Neisseria gonorrhoeae</i>	Possible • <i>Chlamydia pneumoniae</i> • Group A beta-hemolytic <i>Streptococcus</i>	• HIV • B-19 parvovirus • <i>Borrelia burgdorferi</i> • <i>Brucella abortus</i> • Bacillus Calmette-Guerin • Chikungunya virus

*Most commonly implicated urogenital pathogen causing ReA

Xanthomas and Hyperlipoproteinemia

Kabir Sardana, Surabhi Sinha, Sweta Singh

Hyperlipoproteinemias are clinically characterized by subcutaneous lipid deposits (xanthomas).

Overview of Lipoprotein Transport

- Lipoprotein transport plasma lipids to peripheral cells. **Figure 32.1** depicts the transport and metabolism of triglycerides (TG).

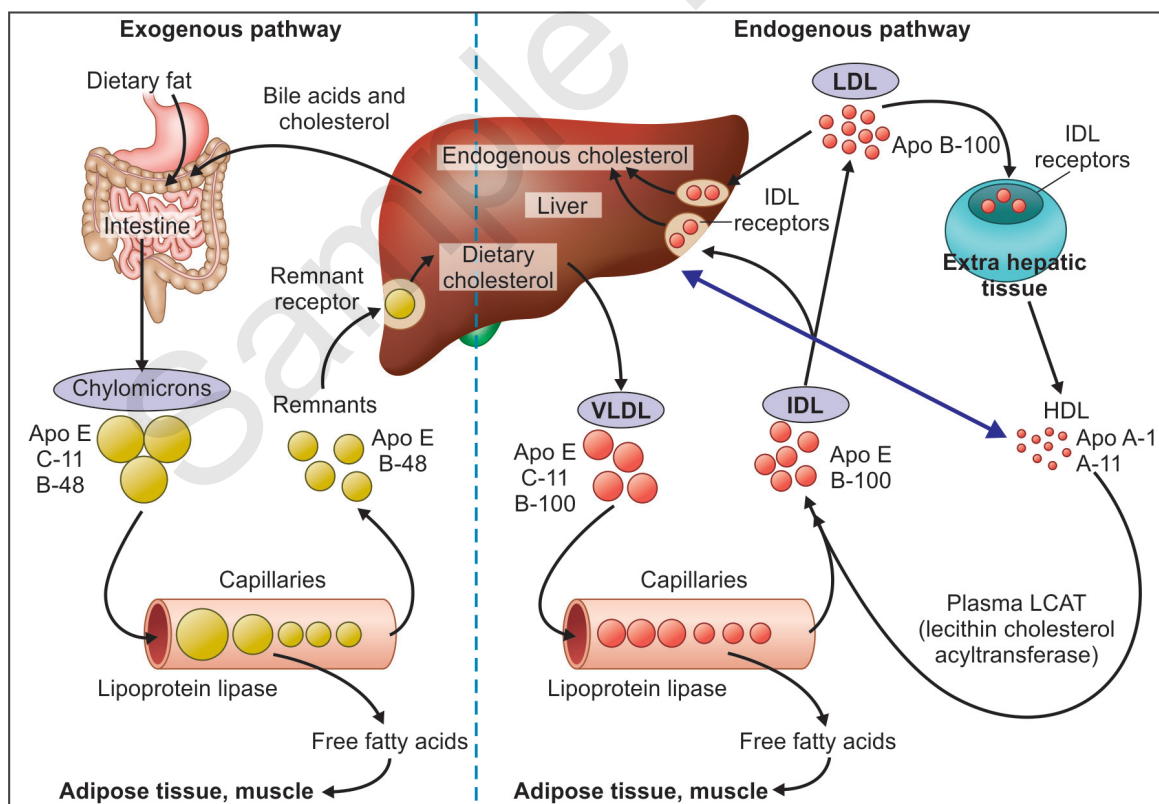


Fig. 32.1: Overview of lipoprotein metabolism and transport

- Types of lipoproteins:
 - i. **Chylomicrons:** Mainly *exogenous production*
Central core of mainly triglycerides; outer shell contains various apoproteins (B-48, E, A-I, A-II, and C-II).
Becomes *chylomicron remnant* after most of the triglyceride content is hydrolyzed.
 - ii. **VLDL:** Mainly *endogenous production* in liver.
Central core of mainly triglycerides; outer shell contains B-100, E and C-II. C-II needed for lipoprotein lipase activation.
 - iii. **IDL:** Remnant of VLDL after hydrolysis of most of the triglycerides by lipoprotein lipase
 - iv. **LDL:** Product of further triglyceride hydrolysis of IDL (now mainly cholesterol ester core and B-100 on surface).
Uptake into *hepatocytes* by apo B-100/E.
 - v. **HDL:** *Removes cholesterol* from tissues. Free cholesterol esterified by lecithin: Cholesterol acyltransferase. Requires apoprotein A-I on HDL (**Fig. 32.1**).

Clinical Types, Pathogenesis and Treatment of Hyperlipoproteinemias

An overview of the **hyperlipoproteinemias** is listed in **Table 32.1**.

Clinical Features

The clinical features can be localized to the skin or systemic and are listed in **Table 32.1**. As xanthomas are an obvious clinical marker, a detailed overview and the possible disorders are listed in **Table 32.2** and depicted in **Figs 32.2** and **32.3**.

Investigations

I—**plasma chylomicrons, triglycerides markedly ↑**; cholesterol normal; very low-density lipoprotein (VLDL), high-density lipoprotein (HDL), low-density lipoprotein (LDL) normal or decreased; enzyme assay for lipoprotein lipase/apo C-II activity; **creamy top layer** on standing at 4°C for 18 hours.

II—**plasma LDL, cholesterol markedly ↑**; LDL receptor assay; **turbid plasma**.

III—**plasma cholesterol, triglycerides ↑**; presence of beta-VLDL on lipoprotein electrophoresis; apoE phenotyping; **turbid plasma**.

IV—**plasma VLDL, triglycerides markedly ↑**; turbid plasma.

V—**plasma chylomicrons, triglycerides, VLDL markedly ↑**; cholesterol increased; **creamy top layer**.

Treatment

1. Close routine care by primary physician—screen children with family history of early infarcts, hyperlipoproteinemia
2. Nutritional management:
 - I, V—restriction of fat intake/medium-chain triglyceride diet
 - II—low-fat, low-cholesterol diet with reduction of saturated fats, increase in polyunsaturated and monounsaturated fats
 - III—low-calorie/cholesterol/saturated-fat diet
 - IV—low-calorie, low-carbohydrate diet
3. Plasmapheresis, liver transplantation (II)
4. Medical therapy: Lipid lowering agents including HMG-CoA reductase inhibitors, nicotinic acid, gemfibrozil, cholestyramine (II, III, IV, V).
5. Treatment of diabetes, hypothyroidism, obesity (III, IV, V).

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