Contents lists available at ScienceDirect





High-risk drug rashes



Sasha A. Alvarado, DO; Diana Muñoz-Mendoza, MD; Sami L. Bahna, MD, DrPH

Allergy and Immunology Section, Louisiana State University Health Sciences Center, Shreveport, Louisiana

Key Messages

- Drug rashes are common and mostly benign, but some carry high risk of morbidity and mortality.
- Early diagnosis and prompt management are essential in cases of Stevens-Johnson syndrome, toxic epidermal necrolysis, drug reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms syndrome, multiple drug hypersensitivity syndrome, acute generalized exanthematous pustulosis, and drug-induced bullous pemphigoid.
- The lack of reliable routine tests for identification of the causative agent imposes difficulty in patients receiving multiple medications.
- In addition to immediate discontinuation of use of the suspected drug(s), management is basically monitoring of vital organ functions and individualized supportive treatment.
- Immunomodulatory and/or immunosuppressant agents may be judicially used as guided by published studies.

ARTICLE INFO

ABSTRACT

Article history:

Received for publication February 14, 2018. Received in revised form May 14, 2018. Accepted for publication May 17, 2018. **Objective:** To provide a brief overview of the clinical presentation, common offending agents, management, prognosis, and mortality of 6 selected high-risk drug rashes, namely, Stevens-Johnson syndrome (SJS), toxic epidermal necrolysis (TEN), drug reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms (DRESS) syndrome, multiple drug hypersensitivity (MDH) syndrome, acute generalized exanthematous pustulosis (AGEP), and drug-induced bullous pemphigoid (DIBP).

Data Sources: A review of the published literature was performed with PubMed and supplemented with our clinical experience.

Study Selections: The most recent clinically relevant studies and older seminal works were selected.

Results: Most of the published data on these uncommon rashes were based on small observational series or case reports. SJS and TEN have specific genotypes association with certain drugs, have high morbidity and mortality, and require aggressive management by a team of multiple specialists. DRESS syndrome is a severe, prolonged multiorgan reaction, yet it has a better prognosis than TEN. MDH is a syndrome of repeated reactions to unrelated drugs that often imposes diagnostic and management difficulties. AGEP consists of generalized sterile small pustules, usually mistaken for infection with subsequent inappropriate treatment. Bullous pemphigoid presents with tense pruritic bullae and characteristic linear basement membrane deposition of IgG and C3. DIBP has much better prognosis than the autoimmune variety.

Conclusion: In such high-risk drug rashes, early recognition, immediate withdrawal of the suspected drug(s), prompt individualized management, and monitoring of vital organs function are mandatory for reducing morbidity and mortality. The lack of reliable tests for identification of the causative agent imposes difficulty, particularly in patients receiving multiple medications.

© 2018 American College of Allergy, Asthma & Immunology. Published by Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved.

Reprints: Sami L. Bahna, MD, DrPH, Allergy and Immunology Section, Louisiana State University Health Sciences Center, 1501 Kings Hwy, Shreveport, LA 71130-3832. E-mail: sbahna@lsuhsc.edu.

Disclosures: Authors have nothing to disclose.

Disclaimer: This paper was presented in part by Dr Bahna as the Alain de Weck Keynote Lecture at the XI World Congress on COPD, Asthma & Immunopathology; October 5-8, 2017; Moscow, Russia.

Introduction

The skin is the most commonly involved organ in adverse drug reactions. Most drug-induced rashes are benign and self-limited, but certain ones are signs of serious drug reactions that carry high risk of morbidity and mortality. They should be recognized early and managed promptly. This article provides a brief overview of the clinical presentation, common offending agents, management, prognosis, and mortality of 6 selected drug-induced rashes, namely, Stevens-Johnson syndrome (SJS), toxic epidermal necrolysis (TEN), drug reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms (DRESS) syndrome, multiple drug hypersensitivity (MDH) syndrome, acute generalized exanthematous pustulosis (AGEP), and drug-induced bullous pemphigoid (DIBP).

SJS and TEN

SJS and TEN are overlapping conditions and, for simplification, will be addressed together.

Clinical Presentation

In the past, erythema multiforme (EM) was believed to be a common precedent to SJS/TEN, but now these conditions are clinically and immunopathologically considered separate entities.^{1,2} EM primarily presents as targetlike skin lesions with dark necrotic centers surrounded with erythema; bullous lesions may occur as well. EM is mostly secondary to infection, particularly to human herpesvirus (HHV), whereas SJS and TEN are vastly related to drugs.³ In general, EM is a benign condition, whereas SJS (Fig 1) and TEN (Fig 2) can be associated with serious morbidities and high mortality.

In a longitudinal observational study in the United Kingdom,⁴ the estimated overall incidence of SJS/TEN was 5.76 cases per million person-years, with a peak of 8.97 in children 7 to 9 years old and another of 8.75 in elderly people (\geq 80 years old). No difference by sex was found, but there was a tendency of higher incidence in blacks and Asians compared with whites.

SJS and TEN symptoms usually begin within 1 to 3 weeks of drug introduction,^{5,6} presenting as epidermal detachment with bullae and erosions, and mucous membrane involvement. The classification as SJS or TEN is based on the percentage of body surface area with epidermal detachment: SJS involves less than 10%, TEN involves more than 30%, and SJS/TEN overlap involves 10% to 30%.⁷ Gentle rubbing of the skin close to bullae causes separation (sloughing) of the superficial layer of the skin (Nikolsky sign). The mucosal lesions are most frequently oral, conjunctival, and sometimes genital.⁵ Genitourinary involvement usually causes dysuria.⁶

Common Offending Agents

The most common inciting drugs in SJS/TEN are antibiotics, antiepileptic drugs, nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs, and allopurinol.^{6,8-10}



Figure 2. Toxic epidermal necrolysis with extensive epidermal detachment and mucosal involvement in a young girl after taking phenytoin.



Figure 1. Stevens-Johnson syndrome in a 4-year-old girl after receiving thiabendazole showing extensive skin involvement with typical targetlike lesions (dark necrotic center and erythematous outer ring) and multiple bullae. She also had conjunctival involvement (not shown).

Offending antibiotics include trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole, cephalosporins, penicillins, carbapenems, and vancomycin.^{6,11}

We previously reported the case of 5 siblings (2-7 years old) who simultaneously received thiabendazole, 3 of whom developed severe generalized rashes (EM in 2 and SJS in 1).¹² HLA genotypes have been associated with adverse reactions to specific drugs. SJS/TEN reactions to carbamazepine are strongly correlated with HLA-B*15:02 in Thai, Han Chinese, Malay, and Indian populations.¹³⁻¹⁸ The US Food and Drug Administration recommends screening patients with Asian ancestry for HLA-B*15:02 before starting carbamazepine because of the risk of SJS/TEN.¹⁹ Oxicams (eg, meloxicam) and sulfonamides have been associated with TEN in Europeans with HLA-B*12.²⁰ Allopurinol-induced SJS/TEN has been associated with HLA-B*58:01 in Thai and Chinese patients.^{21,22}

Pathogenesis

The mechanism of SJS/TEN is most compatible with a delayed hypersensitivity reaction. The drug or a drug-peptide complex is recognized by T-cell receptors, leading to cytotoxic T-cell and natural killer cell–mediated cytotoxicity (possibly through granulysin, Fas-Fas ligand interactions, perforin, and granzyme B) and cytokine expression, including tumor necrosis factor α (TNF- α) and interferon γ (IFN- γ).²³ An in vitro study of carbamazepine-specific cytotoxic T lymphocytes from patients with HLA-B*15:02 and carbamazepine-induced SJS/TEN found that HLA-B*15:02 presented carbamazepine to cytotoxic T lymphocytes without intracellular antigen processing.²⁴

Histologic analysis of EM major and early SJS/TEN found scattered necrotic keratinocytes in the lower layer of the epidermis with vacuolization at the epidermal-dermal junction. EM major involves the basal layer with prominent dermal infiltration and extravasation of erythrocytes, while displaying less epidermal necrosis than SJS/TEN. Established SJS/TEN shows extensive full-thickness keratinocyte necrosis and subepidermal bullae.²⁵

Management

Supportive care is the mainstay of treatment in addition to immediate withdrawal of the suspected offending medication(s). Support fluids should maintain a urinary output of 0.5 to 1.0 mL/kg per hour. Supplemental nasogastric tube feeding may be helpful to maintain adequate calorie and protein intake, especially in patients with mucosal involvement.⁹ Patients should ideally be treated in a burn unit. Ocular or genitourinary involvement should prompt consultation of appropriate specialists to reduce long-term sequelae.²³ Ocular complications may occur in more than one-third of patients and include symblepharon and corneal ulceration.⁹

Corticosteroid therapy has produced conflicting results.^{7,26-28} Intravenous immunoglobulin (IVIG) therapy is used with varying degrees of success.^{7,29-31} The rarity of SJS/TEN makes randomized clinical trials difficult, so most data come from observational studies on small series. The combination of a corticosteroid and IVIG for 5 days seems to be associated with better survival rate than corticosteroids alone.³² According to a retrospective medical record review, cyclosporine was associated with decreased mortality, but the number of patients was small.³³ Plasmapheresis was successful in some cases,³⁴ particularly in combination with cyclosporine.³⁵ TNF- α inhibitors, such as infliximab and etanercept, have produced promising results.^{36,37} In a report on 3 severe cases, umbilical cord mesenchymal stem cell transplantation resulted in survival in all.³⁸ According to a meta-analysis of 96 studies on SJS/TEN treatment with various immunomodulators, corticosteroids and cyclosporine seemed to be associated with the best outcome.²⁸ A major limitation of such comparisons, however, is the variation among reported series regarding sample size, age, causative drug, severity of reaction, duration between onset and treatment initiation, dosage, duration, and comorbid conditions.

Prognosis and Mortality

Morbidity and mortality of patients with SJS/TEN vary widely and are much higher in patients with TEN. In a recent review of patients hospitalized with SJS/TEN,⁹ recovered cases showed desquamation and healing of the skin within 2 to 3 weeks (Fig 3). Nearly half of all cases had respiratory failure, leading to intubation and mechanical ventilation, and almost one-fifth had shock that required vasoactive drugs. Approximately 60% had infectious complications, including pneumonia, bacteremia, and urinary tract infections. The most common pathogenic organisms were *Pseudomonas, Staphylococcus*, and *Acinetobacter*. An analysis of US inpatients with SJS/TEN found that 14% required mechanical ventilation, 9% had dialysis, and 9% received artificial nutrition.³⁹

Long-term sequelae among survivors can be disabling, particularly ocular complications, such as visual impairment, chronic photophobia, and dry eyes. Association with nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs may be a risk for chronic ocular complications, such as conjunctival hyperemia, decreased tear volume, limbal deficiency, and symblepharon.⁸ In cases with severe eye involvement, amniotic membrane graft can be sight-saving.^{40,41} Oral sequelae include sicca syndrome, synechiae affecting mouth mobility, recurrent ulcers, and depapillation of the tongue. Children may have dental growth abnormalities. Airway epithelial injury can result in bronchiolitis obliterans. Pulmonary function testing may reveal alveolar diffusion impairment. Months after an acute phase that involves genital lesions, some patients develop urogenital adhesions and strictures. Esophageal strictures may also develop; more rarely, intestinal ulcerations may



Figure 3. Desquamation in the healing stage of Stevens-Johnson syndrome.

Table 1

Score for Predicting Mortality Risk in Stevens-Johnson Syndrome/Toxic Epidermal Necrolysis (SCORTEN)^a

SCORTEN total	Mortality rate, %	Mortality odds ratio
0-1	3.2	1
2	12.1	4.1
3	35.3	14.6
4	58.3	42.0
≥5	90	270.0

^aModified from Bastuji-Garin et al.⁴³ Variables (each 1 point) included the following: age of 40 years or older, heart rate of 120/min or higher, concomitant malignant tumor, epidermal detachment at presentation greater than 10% of body surface area, serum blood urea nitrogen concentration greater than 10 mmol/L (>28 mg/dL), serum bicarbonate concentration less than 20 mmol/L (<20 mEq/L), and serum glucose concentration greater than 14 mmol/L (>250 mg/dL).

cause diarrhea and malabsorption. Vanishing bile duct syndrome (loss of >50% of interlobular bile ducts) can cause chronic cholestasis. Cutaneous complications include hyperpigmentation or hypopigmentation (especially in children), hypertrophic and keloid scars, shedding of nails, chronic pruritus, photosensitivity, hyperhidrosis, and heterotopic ossification.⁴²

The overall mortality rate for SJS is approximately 5%, whereas TEN mortality is much higher at approximately 15% to 30%.^{11,31,39} Risk factors for mortality in the United States include older age, higher number of chronic conditions, hematologic malignancy, renal failure, septicemia, pneumonia, and tuberculosis.³⁹ SJS/TEN caused by allopurinol also has a higher mortality.⁹ A validated tool (Table 1) is used to predict mortality and the severity of illness score for TEN (SCORTEN).⁴³

DRESS Syndrome

DRESS syndrome is a severe multiorgan adverse drug reaction of delayed onset that may involve lymphocyte activation, eosinophilia, and reactivation of HHV.⁴⁴

Clinical Presentation

Fever, widespread skin lesions, and internal organ involvement appear 2 to 8 weeks after introduction of the offending drug. The first sign is typically high fever, which is present in 80% to 90% of patients.^{44,45} The rash is usually pruritic and involves more than half of the body surface area. Facial edema occurs in approximately threequarters of patients.⁴⁴ Lesions are usually polymorphous and maculopapular (Fig 4). Less common manifestations are pustules followed by purpura, infiltrated plaques, blisters, targetlike lesions, urticaria, exfoliation, eczema, and, rarely, lichenoid lesions.^{44,45} More than half of cases involve the mucosa, usually the oral cavity and lips.⁴⁴ Lymphadenopathy is found in approximately 30% to 50% of adult patients and approximately 75% of pediatric patients.^{5,44,46}

Almost all cases have hematologic abnormalities. Eosinophilia is present in 50% to 95%,^{44–46} but its absence does not exclude the diagnosis; hence, some experts prefer the term drug hypersensitivity syndrome to DRESS syndrome. Most patients have leukocytosis, with atypical lymphocytes in approximately one-fourth to two-thirds of cases.^{44,45} Lymphopenia may be present in up to half of cases, and thrombocytopenia has been observed in up to 25% of patients.^{45,46}

Liver injury occurs in 75% to 95% of patients.^{5,45,46} Nearly 10% of patients may present with liver injury even before skin involvement.⁴⁷ Kidney injury occurs in 15% to 40% of patients^{5,45,46} and is more prevalent in allopurinol-triggered DRESS syndrome at 60% to 80%.^{45,48} Lung involvement occurs in up to one-third of patients^{5,46} and is more common in cases related to abacavir, nevirapine, and minocycline.⁴⁸ Cardiac involvement is rare overall but relatively frequent in DRESS syndrome triggered by minocycline and nevirapine.⁴⁸



Figure 4. Facial edema and diffuse erythema in a young woman with drug reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms syndrome.

The clinical course of DRESS syndrome is prolonged and may include sequential reactivation of various HHVs, particularly HHV-6 and HHV-7, but Epstein-Barr virus and cytomegalovirus infections are seen less frequently.⁴⁹⁻⁵¹

Common Offending Agents

The most frequently associated drugs include carbamazepine, allopurinol, phenytoin, nevirapine, sulfamethoxazole-trimethoprim, sulfasalazine, dapsone, penicillin, nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs, lamotrigine, vancomycin, minocycline, and isoniazid.^{44–46} In Han Chinese patients, carbamazepine-induced DRESS syndrome has been linked to HLA-A*31:01 and HLA-B*51:01,¹⁴ and allopurinol-induced DRESS syndrome has been associated with HLA-B*58:01.⁵¹ The time to onset of allopurinol-induced DRESS syndrome is approximately 30 days, longer than with other drugs.⁴⁵ Coadministration of omeprazole and phenytoin seems to be a risk factor for DRESS syndrome.⁵²

Pathogenesis

DRESS syndrome is a delayed immunologic reaction to a drug in susceptible individuals, including those with a genetic predisposition.⁵¹ Reduced activity of certain metabolizing enzymes may lead to accumulation of the drug or its metabolites, which then elicit an immune response. They may bind to endogenous proteins and then be processed and presented by antigen-presenting cells. Another possibility is that the drugs or metabolites bind to major histocompatibility complex (MHC) proteins or T-cell receptors independently of peptides. Direct binding of the drug or metabolite to the binding groove of MHC proteins could change the peptide specificity of MHC binding. Interleukin (IL) 5, perforin, granzyme B, fatty acid synthase ligand, and IFN- γ have been found in skin biopsy specimens. Viral reactivation may result from drug or metabolite effects directly or from an immunocompromised state in the early stage of DRESS syndrome. Autoimmune sequelae may develop months or years after the resolution of DRESS syndrome because of dysfunction of regulatory T cells.

The histopathologic features of DRESS syndrome are heterogenous and may include nonspecific spongiosis, basal vacuolization, necrotic keratinocytes, dermal-epidermal infiltrates with lymphocytic exocytosis, dermal edema, and superficial perivascular infiltrates of mostly lymphocytes with or without eosinophils.²⁵ The presence of apoptotic keratinocytes has been associated with hepatic and renal complications.

Management

The inciting drug must be withdrawn. Establishing causality can be difficult when multiple drugs were taken. Patch testing and delayed intradermal testing can be useful.⁵³ A recent prospective controlled trial of patients with antibiotic-associated severe cutaneous adverse reactions found that a combination of skin testing (delayed intradermal or patch) and blood testing can be very useful in identifying the culprit. Patients' peripheral blood mononuclear cells were stimulated with a range of implicated antibiotics to measure IFN- γ release from helper and cytotoxic T cells via an enzyme-linked immunoSpot assay.⁵⁴ This test had a sensitivity of 52% and specificity of 100%. Combination with skin testing identified the culprit antibiotic in 79% of patients.

Systemic corticosteroids with a gradual tapering during approximately 2 months are the usual treatment, especially for severe cases. A typical starting dose can be oral prednisone, 0.5 mg/kg daily,⁴⁹ intravenous methylprednisolone, 40 to 120 mg/d, or oral prednisolone, 30-60 mg/d.⁴⁶ In mild cases, potent topical steroids alone, such as betamethasone or clobetasol, may be adequate.⁴⁹

Treatment with IVIG has produced inconsistent results. A recently published series of pediatric patients reported rapid improvement in 24 to 48 hours after administration of IVIG at a dose of 1 to 2 g/kg.⁵⁵ However, a prospective study on adult patients treated with IVIG 200 mg/kg daily for 5 days was stopped prematurely because of a high rate of adverse effects.⁵⁶ Cyclosporine has been used successfully in 2 cases, with rapid and sustained improvement after a 3- to 7-day course.⁵⁷ In a case of steroid-dependent DRESS syndrome, the concomitant administration of anti–IL-5 (mepolizumab, 100 mg every 4 weeks) resulted in disappearance of eosinophilia within a few days and improvement in the rash within 1 week. It allowed the tapering and discontinued use of both drugs by 3 months, without recurrence.⁵⁸

Prognosis and Mortality

DRESS syndrome tends to have a waxing- and waning course, with multiple flares. The skin eruptions typically last 3 to 4 weeks.⁵⁰ Approximately 20% of patients still have signs and symptoms 90 days after the disease onset. Internal organs typically recover, but certain patients have required long-term hemodialysis.⁴⁶ Mortality is 4% to 10%, mostly from multiorgan failure.^{45,46} Acute necrotizing eosino-philic myocarditis has been reported 3 to 4 months after onset of DRESS syndrome, despite apparent improvement in other symptoms.⁵⁹

Long-term autoimmune sequelae include thyroiditis, diabetes type 1, lupus, rheumatoid arthritis, reactive arthritis, alopecia, and vitiligo.⁶⁰ Thyroiditis was noted in approximately 5% of survivors in a series from Japan and Taiwan.⁶⁰ Autoimmune thyroiditis was also noted within a year after diagnosing DRESS syndrome in European patients, in whom it appeared to be associated with HHV-6 reactivation.⁶¹ Approximately 3% of survivors in the series from Japan and Taiwan developed fulminant type 1 diabetes mellitus within months after resolution of DRESS syndrome.⁶⁰ Another Japanese study found a frequency of 0.5% of type 1 diabetes mellitus among DRESS syndrome survivors, which is approximately 50 times higher than in the general Japanese population and associated with HLA-B*62 and HHV-6 reactivation.⁶²

MDH Syndrome

MDH is a syndrome of long-lasting reactions to 2 or more structurally unrelated drugs. It often has different manifestations over the course of weeks, months, or even years.⁶³

Clinical Presentation

Most patients with MDH syndrome have had a severe reaction to at least one drug.⁶⁴ The initial manifestation can be in the form of DRESS syndrome, although clinical studies suggest that half of patients may have severe exanthema with eosinophilia and elevated liver enzyme levels but without DRESS criteria.^{65,66} SJS/TEN is unlikely to be a first reaction.⁶⁷

After administration of unrelated drugs, the patient reacts with symptoms that differ from the first presentation. The manifestations may change to exanthema, erythroderma, AGEP, isolated drug-induced liver dysfunction, exanthema with arthralgia, or any other organ involvement (such as nephritis or pancreatitis).^{63,67,68} Agranulocytosis has also been reported.⁶⁹ MDH syndrome should be distinguished from flare-up reactions in which patients develop rapid reappearance of similar symptoms after another drug is given. Flare-up reactions occur within a few hours after taking the new drug, and viral reactivation contributes to the clinical presentation.^{63,64}

Common Offending Agents

The culprit drugs are chemically unrelated and have no evidence of cross-reactivity.⁷⁰ Gex-Collet et al⁶⁵ proposed 2 subtypes of MDH syndrome: simultaneous, which develops against different drugs given at the same time, and sequential, in which the sensitizations develop during a long time, sometimes years, apart. Antibiotics are the most commonly involved agents, followed by antiepileptics and antituberculous drugs.^{68,70-72} Simultaneous reactivity to 2 drugs in combination therapy is common, for example, sulfamethoxazole and trimethoprim, piperacillin and tazobactam, or amoxicillin and clavulanic acid.⁶³ Risk factors for the development of MDH syndrome are high drug concentration and long duration of exposure (usually > 10-20 days).⁶³

Pathogenesis

MDH reactions are mostly T-cell mediated. Massive T-cell stimulation with circulating lymphoblasts typically lasts for weeks to months after the acute reaction. However, drug reactive T cells in a preactivated state can last for longer durations, which may lead to a lower threshold to react to different drugs.⁷⁰ No functional deficiency of Tregulatory cells or specific association between MDH and HLA have been noted.⁶³

Management

Systemic steroids to suppress the immune reactivity are the primary treatment of MDH syndrome during the reactions.⁶⁴ The administration of further drugs should be minimized, and when the addition of a drug is necessary, the lowest effective dose should be given. A drug-free period of days to weeks may also be beneficial.⁶³ Concomitant administration of a moderate dose of corticosteroids for a few days may reduce the risk of introducing new drugs.⁶⁴

Prognosis and Mortality

The prognosis of patients with MDH syndrome depends on the clinical presentation. Approximately 15% of patients with DRESS syndrome may relapse after the introduction of structurally unrelated drugs.⁶⁷ To the best of our knowledge, no information on fatalities attributable to MDH has been reported.

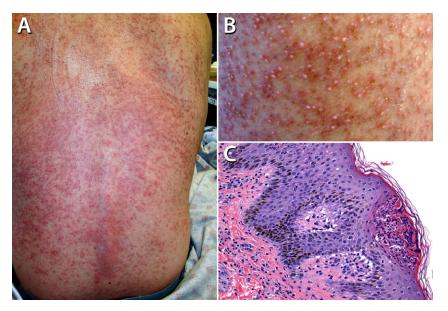


Figure 5. Acute generalized exanthematous pustulosis with magnification of the pinhead-sized pustules and the biopsy specimen showing a subcorneal pustule of neutrophils and eosinophils.

AGEP

AGEP is a severe rash characterized by the rapid formation of sterile pustules. Most cases are attributed to drugs.⁷³

Clinical Presentation

Symptoms typically appear within 48 hours of drug exposure. Antibiotic-triggered reactions have a median latency of 24 hours.⁷⁴ Patients with AGEP have a rapid onset of dozens to hundreds pinhead-size pustules on a base of erythematous and edematous skin (Fig 5). Lesions usually start in the intertriginous areas or on the face, often with burning or itching sensation.⁷⁵ Within a few hours, the rash spreads to the trunk and extremities. Mucosal involvement occurs in approximately one-quarter of patients and is usually limited to a single site. An atypical form of AGEP in which lesions are localized to one specific area is called acute localized exanthematous pustulosis.⁷⁶

In the acute phase, patients exhibit signs of systemic inflammation, such as fever, leukocytosis, neutrophilia, and elevated C-reactive protein level. Eosinophilia is present in approximately 30% of patients.^{77,78} Approximately 85% of patients have neutrophilia with some correlation with systemic involvement.^{77,78} Multiorgan involvement is present in approximately 20% of patients and includes lymphadenopathy, hepatic dysfunction, nephritis, respiratory failure, or neutropenia attributable to bone marrow involvement.^{73,77}

Early diagnosis can be facilitated by dermoscopy, which is skin examination with a magnifier and polarized light. This auxiliary tool may demonstrate the presence of minute pustules in an early stage that grossly appear as diffuse erythema.⁷⁹ Biopsy reveals intracorneal, subcorneal, and/or intraepidermal pustules and a dermal infiltrate, mainly consisting of neutrophils and eosinophils (Fig 5). Epidermal changes also include spongiosis with exocytosis of neutrophils and necrotic keratinocytes.^{74,79}

Common Offending Agents

Frequently cited causative drugs are aminopenicillins, pristinamycin, sulfonamides, quinolones, hydroxychloroquine, terbinafine, and diltiazem.⁸⁰ AGEP may also be associated with infections such as parvovirus B19, cytomegalovirus, coxsackie B4, *Mycoplasma pneumoniae*, and Epstein-Barr virus.^{80,81}

Pathogenesis

AGEP is a T-cell–related neutrophilic inflammatory response in which drug-specific cytotoxic T cells use granzyme B and perforin to induce apoptosis of keratinocytes within the epidermis, leading to tissue destruction and vesicle formation.⁷³ During initial stages, the vesicles are composed of CD4⁺ T cells and keratinocytes. These cells release CXCL8/IL-8 for neutrophil recruitment into the vesicles.⁷⁴

Management

In addition to discontinuation of use of the suspected causative agent(s), topical corticosteroids and disinfectant solutions can be used during the pustular phase.⁸² Rehydrating lotions are useful during the desquamative phase.⁷³ Systemic steroids may be used in severe cases, but there is no evidence that they reduce the disease duration.^{75,83} If the suspected medications are multiple, patch testing after resolution often identifies the culprit drug by eliciting small localized pustules.⁷³

Prognosis and Mortality

Skin lesions usually spontaneously resolve within 2 weeks. However, some patients with severe disease may require management in an intensive care unit.⁷⁷ The pustules progress to characteristic desquamation with a narrow rim of loosened keratin overhanging the periphery of the lesion (described as collarette shaped). Superinfection of the skin can be life-threatening in patients with poor general condition,⁷⁵ and the overall estimated mortality is less than 5%.⁷³

DIBP

Bullous pemphigoid is primarily an autoimmune disorder that affects elderly individuals and causes subepidermal blistering.⁸⁴ The drug-induced variant follows oral or topical administration of a drug and can be difficult to differentiate clinically from the classic autoimmune form.⁸⁵

Clinical Presentation

Pruritic lesions may appear several months after initiating use of the offending drug.⁸⁵ Tense bullae are located on the face, trunk, and



Figure 6. Tense bullae characteristic of bullous pemphigoid.

limbs, particularly the lower legs (Fig 6). The surrounding skin typically appears normal but can display erythema or urticaria in rare cases. Target lesions may appear on the palms and soles. DIBP generally presents in younger patients than those affected by the spontaneous autoimmune form. Mucosal involvement is mild and not always present. Eosinophilia is often present.⁸⁶

Common Offending Agents

In many reported cases, the patients were receiving multiple drugs, making identification of the culprit difficult. Literature from recent years has identified several new groups of medications associated with the appearance of DIBP.⁸⁵⁻⁸⁹ Frequently cited triggers are angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors, diuretics, antibiotics, non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs, neuroleptics, antidiabetics, and antiarrhythmics. Vaccines and topical agents have also been implicated. Some cases were even caused by TNF- α inhibitors that have been used to treat bullous pemphigoid.⁸⁵

Table 2

Characteristics of Selected High-Risk Drug Rashes

Pathogenesis

Theories on the pathogenesis of DIBP include inactivation of endogenous regulatory processes, molecular mimicry (drugs are mistaken for microbial antigens), and the possibility that drugs directly interact with the basement membrane and change its antigenic properties.⁸⁵ The typical histologic finding is subepidermal blisters with eosinophils, intraepidermal vesicles, and necrotic keratinocytes.⁸⁴ Direct immunofluorescence demonstrates the characteristic linear deposition of IgG and C3 along the basement membrane, similar to classic bullous pemphigoid.⁸⁵

Management

In addition to discontinuation of use of the suspected offending agent(s), systemic corticosteroid therapy can enhance recovery. Mild cases may respond to a high-potency topical corticosteroid, such as clobetasol propionate. Oral prednisolone at 0.5 mg/kg daily is typically used for moderate to severe disease.⁹⁰ Oral steroids should be tapered gradually based on the clinical course of the disease.⁸⁵ Immunosuppression with mycophenolate mofetil (2-3 g/d), azathioprine (1.5-2.5 mg/kg daily), or, less commonly, methotrexate (10-50 mg/wk) is indicated in resistant cases.^{90,91}

Prognosis and Mortality

Most cases of DIBP achieve complete remission within 6 weeks of starting treatment and, unlike the autoimmune variety, rarely relapse.⁸⁵ Fatalities are rare but secondary infection of the skin prolongs the course to recovery.

Conclusion

Certain rashes reflect serious drug reactions such as SJS, TEN, DRESS, MDH syndrome, AGEP, and DIBP. They should be recognized early (Table 2). Prompt management includes immediate discontinuation of the suspected drug(s) and personalized symptomatic therapy. With the lack of reliable tests, identification of the culprit drug can be difficult in patients receiving multiple medications. To

Disease	Morphologic findings	Latency	Symptoms	Systemic involvement	Laboratory findings	Histology	Duration
SJS TEN	Epidermal necrosis <10% BSA Epidermal necrosis	1-3 wk	Malaise, skin pain, headache, eye pain, pharyngitis,	Infections (ie, pneumo- nia, bacteremia), respiratory failure,	Possibly leukocytosis, increased CRP concen- tration and ESR	Full-thickness keratino- cyte necrosis and sub- epidermal bullae	2-3 wk
	>30% BSA	BSA	myalgia	shock			
DRESS	Polymorphous, mac- ulopapular rash on >50% BSA	2-8 wk	Fever, lymphade- nopathy, pruritus	Liver and kidney injury	Eosinophilia in 50%-95%, atypical lymphocytes	Heterogenous nonspe- cific, lymphocytic infiltrate	3-4 wk with waxing and waning
MDH	Each reaction is var- iable but often similar to DRESS	>3 d to years after initial reaction	Variable depending on manifestation of reaction	Liver failure, nephritis, pancreatitis	Elevated liver enzyme concentrations, eosin- ophilia, lymphocyto- sis, agranulocytosis	Variable, depending on manifestation of reaction	Variable
AGEP	Pinhead-sized pus- tules on erythem- atous, edematous base	Within 48 h	Burning sensation or pruritus	Lymphadenopathy, liver injury, kidney injury, respiratory failure, neutropenia	Leukocytosis, neutro- philia, eosinophilia, increased CRP concentration	Intracorneal, subcorneal and/or intraepidermal pustules	<2 wk
DIBP	Tense bullae on skin appearing normal or inflamed, tar- get lesions on palms and soles	Up to 3 mo	Intense pruritus	Uncommon	Eosinophilia	Subepidermal blisters, intraepidermal vesicles, necrotic ker- atinocytes; linear IgG and C3 along base- ment membrane	<6 wk

Abbreviations: AGEP, acute generalized exanthematous pustulosis; BSA, body surface area; CRP, C-reactive protein; DIBP, drug-induced bullous pemphigoid; DRESS, drug reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms; ESR, erythrocyte sedimentation rate; MDH, multiple drug hypersensitivity syndrome; SJS, Stevens-Johnson syndrome; TEN, toxic epidermal necrolysis

minimize the risks of morbidity and mortality, close monitoring of the vital organs function is of great importance and management requires team collaboration by various medical specialists.

Acknowledgment

We thank Betty Tucker, MSLS, for her editorial assistance.

References

- Sousa-Pinto B, Araújo L, Freitas A, Correia O, Delgado L. Stevens-Johnson syndrome/toxic epidermal necrolysis and erythema multiforme drug-related hospitalisations in a national administrative database. *Clin Transl Allergy*. 2018;8:2.
- [2] Iwai S, Sueki H, Watanabe H, Sasaki Y, Suzuki T, Iijima M. Distinguishing between erythema multiforme major and Stevens-Johnson syndrome/toxic epidermal necrolysis immunopathologically. J Dermatol. 2012;39:781–786.
- [3] Auquier-Dunant A, Mockenhaupt M, Naldi L, Correia O, Schroder W, Roujeau JC. Correlations between clinical patterns and causes of erythema multiforme majus, Stevens-Johnson syndrome, and toxic epidermal necrolysis: results of an international prospective study. Arch Dermatol. 2002;138:1019–1024.
- [4] Frey N, Jossi J, Bodmer M, et al. The Epidemiology of Stevens-Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis in the UK. J Invest Dermatol. 2017;137:1240–1247.
- [5] Dibek Misirlioglu E, Guvenir H, Bahceci S, et al. Severe cutaneous adverse drug reactions in pediatric patients: A multicenter study. J Allergy Clin Immunol Pract. 2017;5:757-763.
- [6] Yamane Y, Matsukura S, Watanabe Y, et al. Retrospective analysis of Stevens-Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis in 87 Japanese patients-Treatment and outcome. *Allergol Int.* 2016;65:74–81.
- [7] White KD, Abe R, Ardern-Jones M, et al. SJS/TEN 2017: Building multidisciplinary networks to drive science and translation. J Allergy Clin Immunol Pract. 2018;6:38–69.
- [8] Lee HK, Yoon KC, Seo KY, Ueta M, Kim MK. Chronic ocular complications of Stevens-Johnson syndrome associated with causative medications in Korea. J Allergy Clin Immunol Pract. 2018;6:700–702. e2.
- [9] McCullough M, Burg M, Lin E, Peng D, Garner W. Steven Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis in a burn unit: a 15-year experience. *Burns*. 2017;43:200–205.
- [10] Chen J, Wang B, Zeng Y, Xu H. High-dose intravenous immunoglobulins in the treatment of Stevens-Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis in Chinese patients: a retrospective study of 82 cases. *Eur J Dermatol.* 2010;20:743–747.
- [11] Miliszewski MA, Kirchhof MG, Sikora S, Papp A, Dutz JP. Stevens-Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis: An analysis of triggers and implications for improving prevention. *Am J Med.* 2016;129:1221–1225.
- [12] Johnson-Reagan L, Bahna SL. Severe drug rashes in three siblings simultaneously. Allergy. 2003;58:445–447.
- [13] Godhwani N, Bahna SL. Antiepilepsy drugs and the immune system. Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol. 2016;117:634–640.
- [14] Hsiao YH, Hui RC, Wu T, et al. Genotype-phenotype association between HLA and carbamazepine-induced hypersensitivity reactions: strength and clinical correlations. J Dermatol Sci. 2014;73:101–109.
- [15] Tassaneeyakul W, Tiamkao S, Jantararoungtong T, et al. Association between HLA-B*1502 and carbamazepine-induced severe cutaneous adverse drug reactions in a Thai population. *Epilepsia*, 2010;51:926–930.
- [16] Chang CC, Too CL, Murad S, Hussein SH. Association of HLA-B*1502 allele with carbamazepine-induced toxic epidermal necrolysis and Stevens-Johnson syndrome in the multi-ethnic Malaysian population. Int J Dermatol. 2011;50:221– 224.
- [17] Aggarwal R, Sharma M, Modi M, Garg VK, Salaria M. HLA-B* 1502 is associated with carbamazepine induced Stevens-Johnson syndrome in North Indian population. *Hum Immunol*. 2014;75:1120–1122.
- [18] Khor AH, Lim KS, Tan CT, Wong SM, Ng CC. HLA-B*15:02 association with carbamazepine-induced Stevens-Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis in an Indian population: a pooled-data analysis and meta-analysis. *Epilepsia*. 2014;55:e120–e124.
- [19] Ferrell PB, McLeod HL. Carbamazepine, HLA-B*1502 and risk of Stevens-Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis: US FDA recommendations. *Pharmaco-genomics*. 2008;9:1543–1546.
- [20] Roujeau JC, Huynh TN, Bracq C, Guillaume JC, Revuz J, Touraine R. Genetic susceptibility to toxic epidermal necrolysis. Arch Dermatol. 1987;123:1171–1173.
- [21] Saksit N, Tassaneeyakul W, Nakkam N, et al. Risk factors of allopurinol-induced severe cutaneous adverse reactions in a Thai population. *Pharmacogenet Geno*mics. 2017;27:255–263.
- [22] Hung SI, Chung WH, Liou LB, et al. HLA-B*5801 allele as a genetic marker for severe cutaneous adverse reactions caused by allopurinol. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2005;102:4134–4139.
- [23] Schneider JA, Cohen PR. Stevens-Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis: a concise review with a comprehensive summary of therapeutic interventions emphasizing supportive measures. Adv Ther. 2017;34:1235–1244.
- [24] Wei CY, Chung WH, Huang HW, Chen YT, Hung SI. Direct interaction between HLA-B and carbamazepine activates T cells in patients with Stevens-Johnson syndrome. J Allergy Clin Immunol. 2012;129:1562–1569. e1565.
- [25] Orime M. Immunohistopathological findings of severe cutaneous adverse drug reactions. J Immunol Res. 2017;2017:6928363.

- [26] Aihara M, Kano Y, Fujita H, et al. Efficacy of additional i.v. immunoglobulin to steroid therapy in Stevens-Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis. J Dermatol. 2015;42:768–777.
- [27] Liu W, Nie X, Zhang L. A retrospective analysis of Stevens-Johnson syndrome/ toxic epidermal necrolysis treated with corticosteroids. *Int J Dermatol.* 2016;55:1408–1413.
- [28] Zimmermann S, Sekula P, Venhoff M, et al. Systemic immunomodulating therapies for stevens-johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis: a systematic review and meta-analysis. JAMA Dermatol. 2017;153:514–522.
- [29] Schneck J, Fagot JP, Sekula P, Sassolas B, Roujeau JC, Mockenhaupt M. Effects of treatments on the mortality of Stevens-Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis: a retrospective study on patients included in the prospective Euro-SCAR Study. J Am Acad Dermatol. 2008;58:33–40.
- [30] Lee HY, Lim YL, Thirumoorthy T, Pang SM. The role of intravenous immunoglobulin in toxic epidermal necrolysis: a retrospective analysis of 64 patients managed in a specialized centre. *Br J Dermatol*. 2013;169:1304–1309.
- [31] Sekula P, Dunant A, Mockenhaupt M, et al. Comprehensive survival analysis of a cohort of patients with Stevens-Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis. J Invest Dermatol. 2013;133:1197–1204.
- [32] Zhu QY, Ma L, Luo XQ, Huang HY. Toxic epidermal necrolysis: performance of SCORTEN and the score-based comparison of the efficacy of corticosteroid therapy and intravenous immunoglobulin combined therapy in China. J Burn Care Res. 2012;33:e295–e308.
- [33] Kirchhof MG, Miliszewski MA, Sikora S, Papp A, Dutz JP. Retrospective review of Stevens-Johnson syndrome/toxic epidermal necrolysis treatment comparing intravenous immunoglobulin with cyclosporine. J Am Acad Dermatol. 2014;71:941–947.
- [34] Han F, Zhang J, Guo Q, et al. Successful treatment of toxic epidermal necrolysis using plasmapheresis: A prospective observational study. J Crit Care. 2017;42:65– 68.
- [35] Giudice G, Maggio G, Bufano L, Memeo G, Vestita M. Management of toxic epidermal necrolysis with plasmapheresis and cyclosporine A: our 10 years' experience. *Plast Reconstr Surg Glob Open*. 2017;5:e1221.
- [36] Paradisi A, Abeni D, Bergamo F, Ricci F, Didona D, Didona B. Etanercept therapy for toxic epidermal necrolysis. J Am Acad Dermatol. 2014;71:278–283.
- [37] Wang CW, Yang LY, Chen CB, et al. Randomized, controlled trial of TNF-α antagonist in CTL-mediated severe cutaneous adverse reactions. J Clin Invest. 2018;128:985–996.
- [38] Li X, Wang D, Lu Z, Chen J, Zhang H, Sun L. Umbilical cord mesenchymal stem cell transplantation in drug-induced Stevens-Johnson syndrome. J Eur Acad Dermatol Venereol. 2013;27:659–661.
- [39] Hsu DY, Brieva J, Silverberg NB, Silverberg JI. Morbidity and mortality of Stevens-Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis in United States adults. *J Invest Dermatol*. 2016;136:1387–1397.
- [40] Gregory DG. New grading system and treatment guidelines for the acute ocular manifestations of Stevens-Johnson syndrome. *Ophthalmology*. 2016;123:1653– 1658.
- [41] Sharma N, Thenarasun SA, Kaur M, et al. Adjuvant role of amniotic membrane transplantation in acute ocular Stevens-Johnson syndrome: a randomized control trial. *Ophthalmology*. 2016;123:484–491.
- [42] Lee HY, Walsh SA, Creamer D. Long-term complications of Stevens-Johnson syndrome/toxic epidermal necrolysis (SJS/TEN): the spectrum of chronic problems in patients who survive an episode of SJS/TEN necessitates multidisciplinary followup. Br J Dermatol. 2017;177:924–935.
- [43] Bastuji-Garin S, Fouchard N, Bertocchi M, Roujeau JC, Revuz J, Wolkenstein P. SCORTEN: a severity-of-illness score for toxic epidermal necrolysis. J Invest Dermatol. 2000;115:149–153.
- [44] Kardaun SH, Sekula P, Valeyrie-Allanore L, et al. Drug reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms (DRESS): an original multisystem adverse drug reaction: results from the prospective RegiSCAR study. Br J Dermatol. 2013;169:1071– 1080.
- [45] Hiransuthikul A, Rattananupong T, Klaewsongkram J, Rerknimitr P, Pongprutthipan M, Ruxrungtham K. Drug-induced hypersensitivity syndrome/drug reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms (DIHS/DRESS): 11 years retrospective study in Thailand. *Allergol Int*. 2016;65:432–438.
- [46] Chen YC, Chiu HC, Chu CY. Drug reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms: a retrospective study of 60 cases. Arch Dermatol. 2010;146:1373–1379.
- [47] Lin IC, Yang HC, Strong C, et al. Liver injury in patients with DRESS: A clinical study of 72 cases. J Am Acad Dermatol. 2015;72:984–991.
- [48] Peyrière H, Dereure O, Breton H, et al. Variability in the clinical pattern of cutaneous side-effects of drugs with systemic symptoms: does a DRESS syndrome really exist? Br J Dermatol. 2006;155:422–428.
- [49] Funck-Brentano E, Duong TA, Bouvresse S, et al. Therapeutic management of DRESS: a retrospective study of 38 cases. *J Am Acad Dermatol*. 2015;72:246–252.
- [50] Tetart F, Picard D, Janela B, Joly P, Musette P. Prolonged evolution of drug reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms: clinical, virologic, and biological features. JAMA Dermatol. 2014;150:206–207.
- [51] Cho YT, Yang CW, Chu CY. Drug reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms (DRESS): an interplay among drugs, viruses, and immune system. Int J Mol Sci. 2017;18:1243.
- [52] Yampayon K, Sukasem C, Limwongse C, et al. Influence of genetic and non-genetic factors on phenytoin-induced severe cutaneous adverse drug reactions. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol.* 2017;73:855–865.
- [53] Trubiano JA, Stone CA, Grayson ML, et al. The 3 Cs of antibiotic allergy-classification, cross-reactivity, and collaboration. J Allergy Clin Immunol Pract. 2017;5: 1532–1542.

- [54] Trubiano JA, Strautins K, Redwood AJ, et al. The combined utility of ex vivo IFN-γ release enzyme-linked ImmunoSpot assay and In vivo skin testing in patients with antibiotic-associated severe cutaneous adverse reactions [published online October 31, 2017]. J Allergy Clin Immunol Pract. doi:10.1016/j.jaip.2017.09.004
- [55] Marcus N, Smuel K, Almog M, et al. Successful intravenous immunoglobulin treatment in pediatric severe DRESS syndrome [published online November 30, 2017]. *J Allergy Clin Immunol Pract.* doi:10.1016/j.jaip.2017.10.016
- [56] Joly P, Janela B, Tetart F, et al. Poor benefit/risk balance of intravenous immunoglobulins in DRESS. Arch Dermatol. 2012;148:543–544.
- [57] Kirchhof MG, Wong A, Dutz JP. Cyclosporine treatment of drug-induced hypersensitivity syndrome. JAMA Dermatol. 2016;152:1254–1257.
- [58] Ange N, Alley S, Fernando SL, Coyle L, Yun J. Drug reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms (DRESS) syndrome successfully treated with mepolizumab [published online November 10, 2017]. J Allergy Clin Immunol Pract. doi:10.1016/j. jaip.2017.10.020
- [59] Bourgeois GP, Cafardi JA, Groysman V, et al. Fulminant myocarditis as a late sequela of DRESS: two cases. J Am Acad Dermatol. 2011;65:889–890.
- [60] Kano Y, Tohyama M, Aihara M, et al. Sequelae in 145 patients with drug-induced hypersensitivity syndrome/drug reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms: survey conducted by the Asian Research Committee on Severe Cutaneous Adverse Reactions (ASCAR). J Dermatol. 2015;42:276–282.
- [61] Descamps V. Drug reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms and thyroiditis: human herpesvirus-6, the possible common link. *Br J Dermatol.* 2013;169:952.
- [62] Onuma H, Tohyama M, Imagawa A, et al. High frequency of HLA B62 in fulminant type 1 diabetes with the drug-induced hypersensitivity syndrome. J Clin Endocrinol Metab. 2012;97:E2277–E2281.
- [63] Pichler WJ, Srinoulprasert Y, Yun J, Hausmann O. Multiple drug hypersensitivity. Int Arch Allergy Immunol. 2017;172:129–138.
- [64] Pichler WJ, Daubner B, Kawabata T. Drug hypersensitivity: flare-up reactions, crossreactivity and multiple drug hypersensitivity. J Dermatol. 2011;38:216–221.
- [65] Gex-Collet C, Helbling A, Pichler WJ. Multiple drug hypersensitivity-proof of multiple drug hypersensitivity by patch and lymphocyte transformation tests. J Investig Allergol Clin Immunol. 2005;15:293–296.
- [66] Neukomm CB, Yawalkar N, Helbling A, Pichler WJ. T-cell reactions to drugs in distinct clinical manifestations of drug allergy. J Investig Allergol Clin Immunol. 2001;11:275–284.
- [67] Picard D, Vellar M, Janela B, Roussel A, Joly P, Musette P. Recurrence of druginduced reactions in DRESS patients. J Eur Acad Dermatol Venereol. 2015;29:801– 804.
- [68] Ogawa K, Morito H, Kobayashi N, Fukumoto T, Asada H. Case of drug-induced hypersensitivity syndrome involving multiple-drug hypersensitivity. J Dermatol. 2012;39:945–946.
- [69] Wendland T, Daubner B, Pichler WJ. Ceftobiprole associated agranulocytosis after drug rash with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms induced by vancomycin and rifampicin. Br J Clin Pharmacol. 2011;71:297–300.
- [70] Daubner B, Groux-Keller M, Hausmann OV, et al. Multiple drug hypersensitivity: normal Treg cell function but enhanced in vivo activation of drug-specific T cells. *Allergy*. 2012;67:58–66.
- [71] Sekine A, Saito T, Ito S, et al. Two cases of tuberculosis with multiple drug hypersensitivity after drug-induced hypersensitivity syndrome. *Respir Investig.* 2012;50:70–75.

- [72] Tan SC, Chan GY. Relapsing drug-induced hypersensitivity syndrome. Curr Opin Allergy Clin Immunol. 2016;16:333–338.
- [73] Feldmeyer I, Heidemeyer K, Yawalkar N. Acute generalized exanthematous pustulosis: pathogenesis, genetic background, clinical variants and therapy. Int J Mol Sci. 2016;17:1214.
- [74] Szatkowski J, Schwartz RA. Acute generalized exanthematous pustulosis (AGEP): A review and update. J Am Acad Dermatol. 2015;73:843–848.
- [75] Sidoroff A, Halevy S, Bavinck JN, Vaillant L, Roujeau JC. Acute generalized exanthematous pustulosis (AGEP)–a clinical reaction pattern. J Cutan Pathol. 2001;28:113–119.
- [76] Villani A, Baldo A, De Fata Salvatores G, Desiato V, Ayala F, Donadio C. Acute localized exanthematous pustulosis (ALEP): review of literature with report of case caused by amoxicillin-clavulanic acid. *Dermatol Ther (Heidelb)*. 2017;7:563–570.
- [77] Hotz C, Valeyrie-Allanore L, Haddad C, et al. Systemic involvement of acute generalized exanthematous pustulosis: a retrospective study on 58 patients. Br J Dermatol. 2013;169:1223–1232.
- [78] Lee HY, Chou D, Pang SM, Thirumoorthy T. Acute generalized exanthematous pustulosis: analysis of cases managed in a tertiary hospital in Singapore. Int J Dermatol. 2010;49:507–512.
- [79] Errichetti E, Pegolo E, Stinco G. Dermoscopy as an auxiliary tool in the early differential diagnosis of acute generalized exanthematous pustulosis (AGEP) and exanthematous (morbilliform) drug eruption. J Am Acad Dermatol. 2016;74:e29– e31.
- [80] Sidoroff A, Dunant A, Viboud C, et al. Risk factors for acute generalized exanthematous pustulosis (AGEP): results of a multinational case-control study (EuroSCAR). *Br J Dermatol*. 2007;157:989–996.
- [81] Ropars N, Darrieux L, Tisseau L, Safa G. Acute generalized exanthematous pustulosis associated with primary Epstein-Barr virus infection. JAAD Case Rep. 2015;1:9– 11.
- [82] Kley C, Murer C, Maul JT, Meier B, Anzengruber F, Navarini AA. Rapid involution of pustules during topical steroid treatment of acute generalized exanthematous pustulosis. *Case Rep Dermatol*. 2017;9:135–139.
- [83] Thienvibul C, Vachiramon V, Chanprapaph K. Five-year retrospective review of acute generalized exanthematous pustulosis. *Dermatol Res Pract.* 2015;2015 :260928.
- [84] Kershenovich R, Hodak E, Mimouni D. Diagnosis and classification of pemphigus and bullous pemphigoid. Autoimmun Rev. 2014;13:477–481.
- [85] Stavropoulos PG, Soura E, Antoniou C. Drug-induced pemphigoid: a review of the literature. J Eur Acad Dermatol Venereol. 2014;28:1133–1140.
- [86] Kanahara SM, Agrawal A. Drug-induced bullous pemphigoid. J Gen Intern Med. 2016;31:1393–1394.
- [87] Tan CW, Pang Y, Sim B, Thirumoorthy T, Pang SM, Lee HY. The association between drugs and bullous pemphigoid. *Br J Dermatol*. 2017;176:549–551.
- [88] Bene J, Jacobsoone A, Coupe P, et al. Bullous pemphigoid induced by vildagliptin: a report of three cases. Fundam Clin Pharmacol. 2015;29:112–114.
- [89] Moitra S, Sen S, Banerjee I, Sikder A, Das P. Metronidazole-induced bullous pemphigoid: a case report. J Clin Diagn Res. 2015;9. FD01-03.
- [90] Amber KT, Murrell DF, Schmidt E, Joly P, Borradori L. Autoimmune subepidermal bullous diseases of the skin and mucosae: clinical features, diagnosis, and management. *Clin Rev Allergy Immunol.* 2018;54:26–51.
- [91] Meurer M. Immunosuppressive therapy for autoimmune bullous diseases. Clin Dermatol. 2012;30:78–83.