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## Nocturnal Movements in Children with Atopic Dermatitis have a Timing Pattern: A Case Control Study

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### To The Editor

Nocturnal atopic dermatitis (AD) flares affect over 60% of children with AD, and are associated with sleep disturbance.<sup>1,2</sup> Little is known about the underlying rhythm of these highly pruritic flares, and whether treatment with sedating antihistamines alters nocturnal motor activity due to itch.<sup>1,3</sup> We hypothesized that nighttime scratching in AD has a rhythm.

To evaluate our hypothesis, we performed a case-control study with children aged 6-17 years with moderate/severe AD and healthy age/gender matched controls. Demographic details of the study population have been published.<sup>4</sup> Participants were 65% male, mean age±standard deviation (SD) 11.0±3.2 years in AD (n=20) versus controls (n=20) 11.5±3.3 (p=0.68). Moderate/severe AD was defined by a SCORing Atopic Dermatitis (SCORAD) score >25, our patients ranged from 28-92,  $\mu\pm SD=42\pm 17$ . Disease severity (SCORAD) correlated with Wake After Sleep Onset (WASO),  $r$  (spearman) =0.61,  $p<0.01$ ,  $n=19$ . Nocturnal movements

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and sleep were assessed in 19 AD patients and 19 controls via home activity monitor, actigraphy (Actiwatch Spectrum, Philips Respironics, Bend, OR) and sleep diary for 3-7 nights. Data were analyzed using Philips Actiware 6 software (Philips Respironics, Bend, OR).

Activity counts, recorded as total movement count (raw data output summed from the watch over 30 minute bins) were averaged across nights. Sleep onset was set as time zero to standardize assessments between children of different ages. Data were averaged across subjects in AD versus control groups Generalized least squares models, with cubic splines for smoothing, were fit to the data. Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) was used to identify the most suitable correlation structure for the model. All analyses were performed using the R package 'rms.

Nocturnal activity bouts were increased in AD versus controls between 1-6 hours after sleep onset ( $p < 0.001$ ). Peak non-dominant wrist movements clustered 3 hours after sleep onset, with an average activity count difference between AD and control patients of 1488 (95% Confidence Interval 1085-1892) (Fig 1).

Although patients were instructed to avoid oral antihistamine use during the study, seven patients deviated from the study protocol (Table I). Five patients took antihistamine on some nights, allowing a comparison of nights with ( $n=10$ ) versus without antihistamine ( $n=22$ ) within the same subject. This demonstrated no difference with respect to total movement ( $p=0.82$ ). The interaction between group and time was not significant ( $p=0.77$ ). This small sub analysis suggests that antihistamine treatment may not affect nocturnal scratch rhythm.

Limitations included the small size of the cohort and number of patients taking antihistamine. Nighttime movements likely represented scratching, but this could not be confirmed.

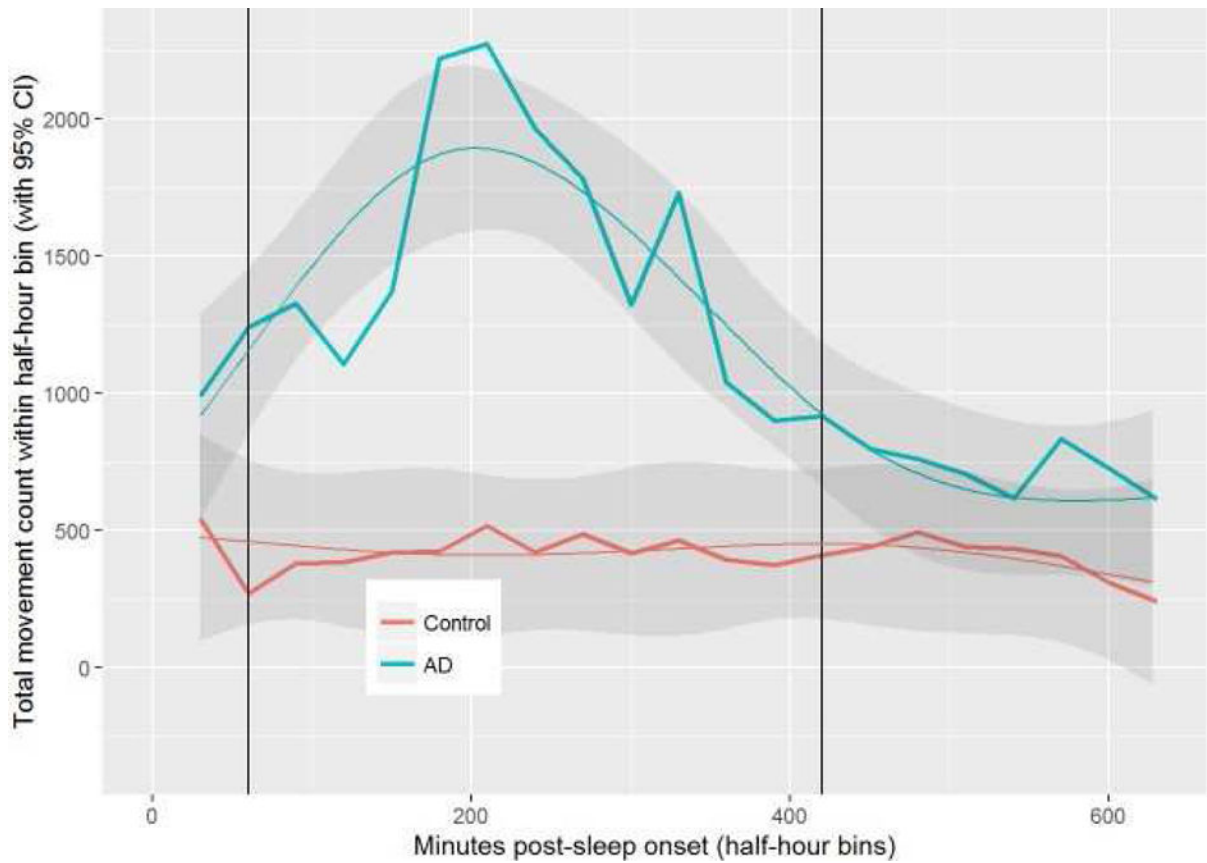
Most nocturnal scratch behavior in AD occurs 1-6 hours after sleep onset, not in the first hour and peaking at 3 hours. This timing suggests a pattern to scratching, which could potentially be targeted for treatment. This pattern might not be attenuated by antihistamine. Consistent with our data, sedating antihistamines are often used to induce sleep but are not thought to affect itch.<sup>5</sup> Timing of nocturnal AD flares could be related to sleep physiology, circadian rhythms of skin barrier, and/or circadian immunology.<sup>1</sup> Further understanding of these mechanisms and implementing timed treatments could allow for the development of personalized AD therapeutics.

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**Figure 1. Total Movement Counts Peak Three Hours After Sleep Onset In Atopic Dermatitis**  
 Average total movement count is plotted on the Y-axis, with minutes post-sleep onset on the X-axis. Plot of mean observed and model predicted values (smoothed lines) with 95% confidence intervals as the shaded region in AD (n=19) versus controls (n=19). Groups are significantly different in the region between the vertical lines. AD and control patients differ ( $p < 0.001$ ). The interaction between group and time is significant ( $p < 0.001$ ). There is also a significant time effect and it is not linear.

Table 1

Characteristics of Patients taking antihistamines (n=7).

Patient Number	name of antihistamine used	nights on antihistamine	nights off antihistamine	mean WASO on antihistamine	mean WASO off antihistamine	P-value*	mean Sleep onset Latency on antihistamine	mean Sleep onset Latency off antihistamine	P-value*
Patient1	cetirizine	1	5	129.5	154.4	0.80	0.0	52.6	0.14
Patient2	diphenhydramine	2	3	66.0	106.7	0.08	28.0	45.2	0.25
Patient3	cetirizine	2	5	158.5	106.2	0.44	22.5	2.4	<b>0.03</b>
Patient4	hydroxyzine	7	0	154.9			1.8		
Patient5	hydroxyzine	1	6	74.5	67.6	0.78	5.0	2.6	0.27
Patient6	hydroxyzine	7	0	295.7			0 <sup>††</sup>		
Patient7	one night levocetirizine, other nights hydroxyzine	4	3	86.1	95.0	0.48	1.8	3.2	0.59

\* Mann-Whitney U test

<sup>††</sup> Severely fragmented sleep and sleep onset latency was computed as 0 minutes for all nights

Patients on antihistamines tended towards having more severe disease (SCORAD  $\mu=70.4\pm 19.7$  (n=7 subjects) v.  $50.7\pm 20.3$  (n=12), p=0.06). Sleep onset latency tended to be shorter on antihistamine versus non-antihistamine nights ( $\mu=5.2\pm 3.8$  minutes (n=24 nights) v.  $15.6\pm 1.9$  (n=97), p=0.07). Minutes of Wake After Sleep Onset (WASO) were higher on the nights of antihistamine use ( $\mu=173.0\pm 11.1$  minutes (n=24 nights) v.  $88.2\pm 5.5$  (n=97), p<0.01); it is possible that antihistamines were used intermittently because of increased AD severity.