



Advancements in Research on Lichen Planopilaris and Frontal Fibrosing Alopecia: Exploring Pathobiological Developments and Translational Prospects

Madeha Al-Kelani*, Kutlwano Molema and Sincengile Ntshingila

Hair and Skin Research Laboratory, Division of Dermatology, Department of Medicine Faculty of Health Sciences, University of Cape Town, Anzio Road, Observatory, Cape Town, South Africa.

Article Info

Received: August 01, 2024

Accepted: August 08, 2024

Published: August 12, 2024

***Corresponding author:** Madeha Al-Kelani, Hair and Skin Research Laboratory, Division of Dermatology, Department of Medicine Faculty of Health Sciences, University of Cape Town, Anzio Road, Observatory, Cape Town, South Africa.

Citation: Madeha Al-Kelani, Kutlwano Molema and Sincengile Ntshingila. (2024) "Advancements in Research on Lichen Planopilaris and Frontal Fibrosing Alopecia: Exploring Pathobiological Developments and Translational Prospects." *Journal of Dermatology and Venereology*, 2(1); DOI: DOI: 10.61148/JDV/010

Copyright: © 2024 Madeha Al-Kelani. This is an open access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Abstract:

Frontal fibrosing alopecia (FFA) and lichen planopilaris (LPP) are primary lymphocytic hair loss disorders predominantly affecting perimenopausal and postmenopausal women. FFA is often regarded as a variant of LPP due to similar histological findings, including perifollicular lymphohistiocytic infiltrate with a lichenoid pattern. Despite an increase in the prevalence of FFA and LPP over the past decade, their etiology and pathophysiology remain unclear.

This review highlights recent findings on the pathogenesis of FFA and LPP, focusing on immunomodulation, neurogenic inflammation, and genetic factors. A prolonged inflammatory response and collapse of immune privilege trigger the loss of epithelial hair follicle stem cells (eHFSCs) and epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT), leading to the replacement of healthy hair follicles with fibrous tissue. Familial reports and genome-wide association studies suggest a genetic or epigenetic basis for FFA development.

Current therapeutic options are limited, underscoring the need for further research and cohort studies to elucidate the etiology and improve treatment strategies for these conditions.

Keywords: frontal fibrosing alopecia; lichen planopilaris; lymphocytic hair loss; perifollicular lymphohistiocytic infiltrate; lichenoid pattern; immune privilege (ip) collapse.

1. Introduction:

Frontal fibrosing alopecia (FFA) and Lichen planopilaris (LPP) are inflammatory scarring hair loss disorders primarily affecting premenopausal and postmenopausal women. These forms of primary cicatricial alopecias (PCAs) lead to disfiguring hair loss, significant scalp symptoms, secondary cutaneous morbidity, and severely reduced quality of life (QOL), imposing a substantial psychosocial burden on patients. [1]

FFA is an irreversible primary lymphocytic scarring alopecia first described by Kossard in 1994. [2] Prevalence has increased globally since its initial report. [3] Pathogenesis remains unclear, with proposed factors including hormones (oestrogens, androgens, thyroid hormones); [4] environmental factors (cosmetic products, allergens, chemical exposure, or food); [5,6] UV filters, [7] smoking, [8] neurogenic inflammation, [9] peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor- γ PPAR- γ dysfunction, [10] promoting epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition and fibrosis; and genetic predisposition, [11] as evidenced by frequent familial segregation (Figure 1). [12]

Clinically, FFA presents with frontal hairline recession seen in 100% of cases. However, the disease may affect both the occipital and temporal areas,

with scarring occurring in up to 96% of individuals. [13-15] Signs of scarring include loss of follicular ostia, local inflammation with perifollicular erythema and scaling, [16] skin pallor accompanied by itching or burning, occasional smooth and lighter than the chronically-sun-exposed forehead, and the lonely hair sign. Scarred hair loss areas on the scalp are pale and show local atrophy with depression of the frontal veins. [17-19] FFA can also involve the eyebrows in up to 50% - 95% of patients and is the primary form of presentation in up to 39% of cases. [20-22] The eyelashes may be affected in 3% of patients, and while other areas, such as the underarms, pubis, and limbs, have a wide range of prevalence ranging from 0 to 77 %. [2,23]

LPP is a prototypical lymphocytic scarring alopecia occurring at the isthmus level and affecting the hair follicle bulge. [24] First described by Pringle in 1895, [25] LPP is considered a follicular variant of lichen planus. [26] It accounts for 40% of primary scarring alopecia. While predominantly affecting women, men can also be affected. [27] The exact cause remains unknown, though Peroxisome Proliferator-Activated Receptor-Gamma (PPAR- γ) dysfunction has been implicated in its pathogenesis (PPAR- γ supposedly deletes hair follicle stem cells causing a similar inflammatory reaction that leads to EMT and fibrosis. [28,29] Clinically, LPP predominantly affects the scalp, particularly the vertex, with variable presentation. LPP typically presents with patchy or diffuse hair loss, accompanied by inflammation and scaling around hair follicles, perifollicular erythema and scaling (keratotic spines). The condition progresses to atrophic cicatricial alopecia with loss of follicular ostia. [4] Extracutaneous lichen planus skin lesions may occur in about 50% of cases. [13]

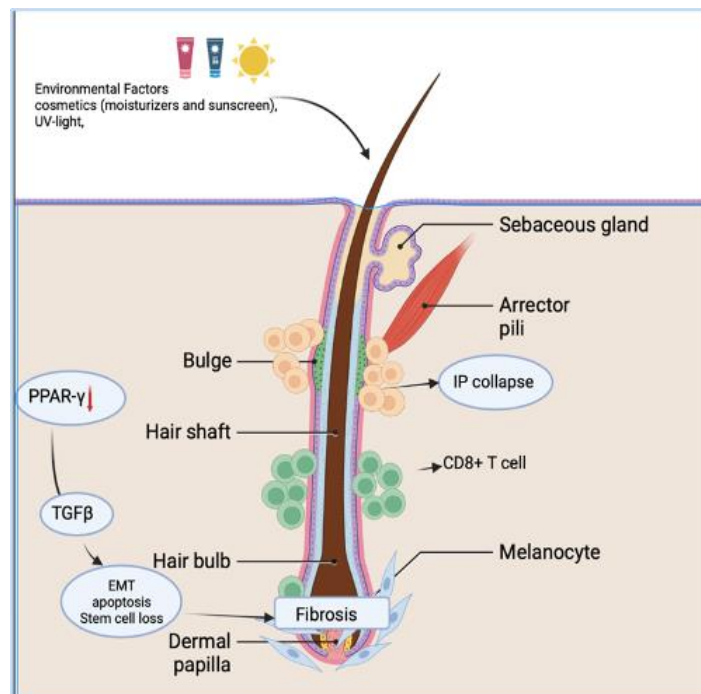


Figure 1: Different hypothetical triggers, such as cosmetics, sunscreen, or stressful conditions, can cause FFA in potentially genetically susceptible individuals. PPAR- γ /TGF- β pathway plays an essential role in EMT and fibrosis. mTOR signalling works as a modulator of PPAR- γ activity and lipid homeostasis.

2.Pathogenesis:

2.1.Immunomodulation:

Mounting evidence suggests that immune system dysfunction and inflammatory processes contribute to the development of FFA and LPP. [30] Several key immune-mediated pathways and inflammatory signals are likely involved.

2.2. Immune privilege collapse and inflammation in FFA and LPP:

Hair follicles (HFs) have a unique microenvironment with a degree of immune privilege (IP) that protects epithelial hair follicle stem cells (eHFSCs) from immune attack. This IP is maintained by mechanisms like the suppression of MHC class I and II pathways and the expression of immunosuppressive molecules like TGF- β 2 and CD200.[31-33] However, in FFA and LPP, histological evidence suggests a breakdown of this immune privilege. Studies have shown reduced expression of key IP-maintaining factors like TGF- β 2 and CD200 in affected HFs, while markers of immune activation (MHC class I and II) are increased. This disruption creates a pro-inflammatory state, with infiltration of immune cells like CD8+ cytotoxic T cells and plasmacytoid dendritic cells. The exact trigger for this immune privilege collapse remains unclear, and further research is needed to elucidate the sequence of events and identify the underlying cause of the inflammatory processes observed in FFA and LPP. [30,34,35]

2.3. Epithelial-to- mesenchymal transition (EMT) and Fibrosis:

Epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition (EMT) is a natural process involved in embryonic development, wound healing, and tissue repair. However, it can also contribute to pathological conditions like cancer and fibrosis.[36,37] Scarring and fibrosis are hallmarks of FFA and LPP. [38,39] Simple depletion of epithelial stem cells through apoptosis wouldn't explain this fibrosis, as it would lead to tissue loss, not scarring. Studies suggest EMT might play a role in the development of FFA and LPP fibrosis. Elevated levels of EMT markers such as Snail1, Vimentin, and Fibronectin have been observed in affected hair follicles. [40-42] Researchers have also induced EMT in human hair follicles in the lab using specific growth factors, suggesting EMT may contribute to the conversion of epithelial stem cells into scar-forming fibroblasts in FFA and LPP. [28,43,44]

2.4. Peroxisome Proliferator-Activated Receptor γ (PPAR γ) and its Potential Role:

PPAR γ is involved in fat metabolism and the health of hair follicle oil glands (sebocytes). [45] Reduced PPAR γ activity has been linked to fibrosis. [46] Emerging evidence suggests PPAR γ may play a significant role in FFA and LPP development. Changes in fat metabolism and reduced activity in hair follicle structures called peroxisomes have been observed in LPP. [29] These changes might contribute to inflammation by allowing the buildup of pro-inflammatory fats within the follicle. Treatment with pioglitazone, a drug that activates PPAR γ , has shown promise in managing LPP. Reduced PPAR γ activity has been noted in both affected and

unaffected areas of the LPP scalp, suggesting a broader role for this pathway. [26,45,47-49]

The mTOR signalling pathway, which influences hair follicle growth and immune function, is also linked to PPAR γ activity. Reduced expression of mTOR pathway proteins has been observed in scalp samples from FFA/LPP patients. More research is needed to identify how the mTOR and PPAR γ pathways contribute to FFA and LPP pathogenesis. [50,51] A recent investigation demonstrated that the PPAR-/mTOR signalling pathway in microglia suppresses the expression of tumour necrosis factor (TNF) and interleukin (IL). [52] Additionally, immunohistochemical evaluation of scalp samples from FFA/LPP patients revealed that the expression of all mTOR signalling pathway proteins was reduced in the lesional epidermis of patients. [50] More research is needed to identify how the mTOR and PPAR- pathways, either alone or in combination, contribute to FFA and LPP pathogenesis.

PPAR γ activation has been shown to suppress a process called epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition (EMT), which is thought to contribute to scarring in FFA. [28,48] PPAR γ agonists may help prevent or reverse EMT, potentially reducing fibrosis. [53-56] Studies have shown that PPAR- γ activation in TGF- β transgenic mice suppresses the TGF-STAT3 and TGF-EGR1 transcriptional activation pathways in various fibrotic disorders, lending credence to the PPAR- γ /TGF- pathway's significance in FFA. [57]

2.5. Genetic and family background:

While the exact genetic cause of FFA and LPP remains unclear, [19,58] there's growing evidence suggesting a genetic predisposition in some cases. [59,60] FFA has been reported in siblings and families, with estimates suggesting a positive family history in 5-8% of cases. Studies have also identified potential links between FFA and specific human leukocyte antigen (HLA) variations.[61-63] This suggests a possible autosomal dominant inheritance pattern with incomplete penetrance, meaning the genetic mutation isn't always expressed in carriers. [64] LPP appears to have a stronger familial link compared to FFA, with documented cases in children and a more even gender distribution. [65,66] Epigenetic factors, which influence gene expression without altering the DNA code itself, might also play a role. [67] Understanding the interplay of genetics and epigenetics in FFA and LPP may provide insights into other hair follicle stem cell disorders. [68]

2.6. Hormonal and neurogenic factors:

While androgens and other hormones are crucial for hair growth, their exact role in FFA and LPP remains uncertain. [69-71] The higher prevalence in postmenopausal women and occasional overlap with androgenetic alopecia (AGA) suggest a possible link to androgens, but evidence is inconclusive. [72,73] The use of 5-

alpha reductase inhibitors (5ARIs) has shown mixed benefits. [74-77] Further research is Recent studies suggest a potential role for neurogenic inflammation in FFA. Some patients exhibited increased scalp sweating, and anti-sweat treatments offered temporary relief. However, more research is required to determine if sweating is a cause or consequence of the inflammatory process. [78] However, more research is required to determine if sweating is a cause or consequence of the inflammatory process.

2.7. Environmental Triggers Suspected:

Several factors suggest a possible environmental link to FFA and LPP. [79] The first documented cases of LPP involved follicular spinous eruptions on the scalp associated with generalized lichen planus. Isolated cases link scalp conditions similar to LPP to exposure to chemicals and medications. An increase in reported FFA cases and the location of hair loss on areas exposed to personal care products (PCPs) have led researchers to investigate a connection between FFA and PCPs. [80-82,83] Studies suggest FFA patients may use certain personal care products (PCPs) have led researchers to investigate a connection between FFA and PCPs. [84] Studies suggest FFA patients may use certain PCPs more frequently and might be more sensitive to fragrance ingredients, potentially leading to an immune response. [85,86] Smoking may also be a risk factor for FFA. [87,88] However, more research is needed to confirm these links. Interestingly, the increase in published research on FFA mirrors the rise in reported cases, while LPP research has remained steadier, suggesting a potential role for environmental factors in FFA specifically.

3.Clinical Features:

FFA and LPP, both causing scarring alopecia, can be distinguished by their clinical features. FFA primarily affects postmenopausal women but can also occur in younger individuals and men. [2,3] Similarly, LPP affects both men and women, with a higher prevalence in women. [27] The location of hair loss is a key differentiating factor. FFA typically presents with a receding frontal hairline, potentially extending to the occipital and temporal scalp regions. [13-15] In contrast, LPP manifests as patchy or diffuse hair loss centred on the scalp vertex. [4] Early stages of both conditions may show redness and scaling around remaining hairs. FFA is known for "perifollicular erythema and scaling", [16] while LPP features similar inflammation with "keratotic spines". [4] As the diseases progress, the scalp can become smooth and pale with loss of hair follicles in FFA, and scarring becomes more prominent. [8-10] Eyebrow involvement is common in FFA, affecting up to 95% of patients and sometimes serving as the initial presentation. [21,22] LPP, in its advanced stages, can lead to permanent loss of hair follicles and a smooth, atrophic scalp due to scarring. [13] (Figure 2).

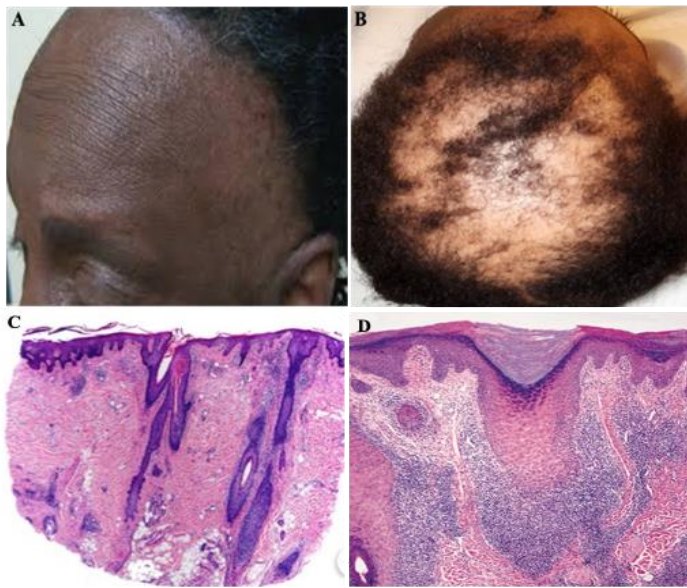


Figure 2: Scarring alopecia: (A) presents FFA with a distinctive clinical pattern of progressive frontotemporal band-like hairline recession and eyebrow loss, (B) presents LPP occurring at the mid-frontal and vertex area of the scalp, (C) FFA histopathology shows perifollicular fibrosis with a moderately dense perifollicular lymphoid cell infiltrate involving several hair follicles. [89] (D) LPP histopathology shows Follicular plugging, hypergranulosis, and dense, band-like perifollicular lymphocytic infiltrate that obscures the infundibular epithelium. [90]

4.Histopathology of FFA and LPP:

FFA exhibits distinct histopathological features depending on the disease progression. The early stages show an inflammatory infiltrate containing lymphocytes and histiocytes surrounding the outer root sheath, accompanied by mild perifollicular fibrosis. As the disease progresses, pilosebaceous units are replaced by scar tissue, leading to decreased hair density and significant perifollicular fibrosis. [19] A key diagnostic feature in the early stages is the presence of a "follicular triad" consisting of vellus, intermediate, and terminal hairs in various growth phases. [18] This triad results from the inflammatory infiltrate preferentially targeting vellus and intermediate hairs, which are more abundant in the frontal hairline and might express specific antigens that attract the inflammatory cells. [17]

Distinguishing FFA from LPP solely based on histological features remains a challenge. While some studies report potential distinguishing factors like eosinophilic necrosis of the outer root sheath and spared interfollicular epidermis in FFA, [21,91] others haven't found consistent differences. [6,21] Similarly, direct immunofluorescence, a technique helpful in diagnosing LPP, hasn't proven reliable for FFA diagnosis due to variable patterns. [22,23] Consequently, current histological evaluation suggests FFA and LPP might be variants within a larger spectrum of lichenoid alopecia. [91] However, despite these similarities, there are notable differences in demographics, clinical presentation, and potentially underlying pathology between FFA and LPP (Table 1)

Feature	FFA	LPP	Ref
Epidemiology	Common in Postmenopausal women (>60 years). 85% of cases reported are Caucasians.	Adults Women > men	92,93
Clinical manifestation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Involves vellus, intermediate, and terminal hairs Yellowish facial papules and pigmented skin patches Primarily affects eyebrows Special manifestations: lonely hair sign, eyelash loss, red or gray dots in eyebrows, depression of frontal veins, pigmented facial macules, limb hair loss, side beard hair loss in males, hypopigmentation under wood lamp Rarely associated with other cutaneous LP variants Associated with androgen deficiency Band-like distribution around the frontal hairline 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Involves terminal hairs Patchy or diffuse alopecia Affects middle-aged population Rarely involves eyebrows Involves skin, mucosal, and nails Associated with androgen excess Located at frontal hairline or central scalp Peri-follicle erythema; non-scalp areas may be affected Activity at the edge of alopecia Itchy 	5,94-103,8-4,8-10,13,15-17
Pathology	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> More necrotic keratinocytes and less inflammatory in comparison with LPP. FFA may have inflammation extending below the isthmus in comparison with LPP. - Hypertrophic sebaceous glands with no associated vellus hair follicles. - More frequent terminal catagen-telogen hairs. -Increased Langerhans cells in the infundibuloisthmic region compared to LPP. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> More severe inflammatory and less apoptosis, Concentric lamellar fibroplasia - Presence of perivascular infiltrates in the dermis and colloid bodies. - More basilar layer and interfollicular epidermal damage. Increased melanocyte counts in the upper hair follicle. - Increased CD68+ macrophage 	6,7,91,96,104

		polarization and upregulated CD163 and IL-4.	
Diagnostic Challenges	Histopathological similarities, such as increased perifollicular lymphocytic infiltration and thick fibrotic tracts, make distinguishing between the two disorders difficult Variability in pathologist's expertise and biopsy sample location can result in inconsistent interpretation of biopsy findings	Initial phases can manifest with subtle symptoms, leading to misdiagnosis or delayed diagnosis	
Treatments	Topical Therapies High-potency corticosteroids Intralesional corticosteroids (e.g., triamcinolone acetonide) with lower concentrations to minimize skin atrophy risks Calcineurin inhibitors Systemic Treatments: 5-alpha-reductase inhibitors (Finasteride, Dutasteride) Hydroxychloroquine Retinoids Tetracyclines Methotrexate Pioglitazone Naltrexone JAK inhibitors (Tofacitinib) Additional and Emerging Treatments: Naltrexone and other immunosuppressive agents for refractory cases Diode laser therapy Hair transplant surgery to improve quality of life Treatment Challenges: A retrospective study highlighted that 42.9% of patients required multiple drug classes and 11.3% did not achieve a complete response, underscoring the need for effective therapeutic strategies	Intralesional and topical corticosteroids Triamcinolone acetonide (10 mg/mL) every 4 to 6 weeks for localized lesions High-potency topical corticosteroids like clobetasol propionate Oral corticosteroids (Prednisone 1 mg/kg/day) for extensive, symptomatic, or rapidly progressing cases Significant risks of recurrence and adverse effects Hydroxychloroquine Methotrexate Immunomodulators: Cyclosporine Naltrexone JAK inhibitors (Tofacitinib) Refractory LPP Treatments: Systemic retinoids Tetracyclines Thalidomide Dapsone Pioglitazone Topical calcineurin inhibitors Griseofulvin Janus kinase inhibitors Oral minoxidil	105-112

Table 1: Clinical and pathological differences between FFA and LPP.

5. Bridging Gaps in Treatment Guidelines: Pathobiology Insights for LPP and FFA:

Despite considerable research efforts, the evidence-based foundation necessary for developing treatment guidelines and predicting outcomes remains insufficient. Critical areas needing further investigation include the exact prevalence and demographic distribution of these disorders, reliable biomarkers for disease activity and therapeutic response, and the roles of genetic,

environmental, microbial, cosmetic, and nutritional factors. [113-115]

To overcome these limitations, it is essential to refocus research efforts on the underlying shared and distinct pathobiological mechanisms of LPP and FFA. This approach holds the greatest potential for developing targeted and effective therapeutic interventions. Additionally, it will enable the creation of management strategies tailored to each patient's specific

pathobiology constellation and biomarker expression profile. This review synthesizes recent progress in LPP and FFA pathobiology and proposes concrete avenues for developing more effective treatments.

6. Proteomics Sheds Light on Disease Mechanisms:

Proteomic analysis has provided valuable insights into FFA and LPP, revealing distinct protein patterns in each condition but also some overlap.

In FFA, increased levels of inflammatory markers like interleukin-6 (IL-6) and tumour necrosis factor-alpha (TNF- α) suggest a strong inflammatory response. Additionally, proteins involved in extracellular matrix remodelling, such as matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs), are elevated, indicating tissue breakdown and rebuilding. Immune response proteins like HLA-DR and CD68 highlight the involvement of both the body's adaptive and innate immune systems in FFA. [96]

LPP studies identified increased levels of stress-related proteins like heat shock proteins (HSPs) in keratinocytes, suggesting cellular stress as a key factor. The presence of elevated autoantigens and autoantibodies points towards an autoimmune component, with immune system proteins like IgG and complement factors playing a role. Proteins involved in fibrosis, like TGF- β and collagen, are also increased, indicating involvement of scarring processes in LPP hair follicle destruction. [116]

While both FFA and LPP share inflammatory and fibrotic features, they also have unique protein profiles. These distinctions are crucial for developing targeted treatments.

6.1. Proteomics: A Stepping Stone to Personalized Medicine:

By identifying proteins involved in inflammation, immune response, cellular stress, and fibrosis, proteomics has offered potential therapeutic targets. This knowledge is essential for developing more effective and personalized treatments for FFA and LPP. Addressing these areas can pave the way for improved patient quality of life through personalized treatment strategies.

7. Future Directions in FFA and LPP Research:

Despite significant progress in understanding FFA and LPP, critical knowledge gaps remain. Future research efforts should focus on several key areas to improve patient outcomes:

1. Unveiling the Triggers:

- **Environmental Factors:** Identifying specific environmental triggers, such as chemical exposures or microbial imbalances, could lead to preventive strategies and targeted therapies.
- **Hormonal Influences:** Elucidating the role of hormones, particularly androgens and their metabolites, in the development and progression of both conditions is crucial. This knowledge could inform the use of hormonal therapies or modulators.

2. Unravelling the Genetics:

- **Genetic Predisposition:** Conducting large-scale genetic studies can help identify susceptibility genes and understand their interaction with environmental factors. This could lead to the development of genetic screening tools and potentially personalized medicine approaches.

3. Targeting the Underlying Mechanisms:

- **Leveraging Proteomic Insights:** The distinct protein profiles revealed by proteomics offer a wealth of potential therapeutic targets. Developing drugs that target these specific proteins could lead to more effective and personalized treatments for FFA and LPP.

4. Investigating Neurogenic Inflammation in FFA:

- **Understanding the Connection:** Further research is needed to determine whether increased sweating in FFA is a cause or consequence of the inflammatory process. This knowledge could inform the development of new treatment strategies, such as topical anti-inflammatory or anti-sweating agents.

8. Conclusion: Unveiling the Complexity and Paving the Way for Personalized Medicine:

Frontal fibrosing alopecia and lichen planopilaris are challenging hair loss disorders. Recent research highlights the roles of immune dysfunction, neurogenic inflammation, potential hormonal influences, and genetic predisposition in FFA and LPP development. Epithelial hair follicle stem cell destruction and epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition are central events driven by chronic inflammation and immune privilege breakdown within the hair follicle.

Proteomic analysis has revealed distinct protein profiles for each condition, offering insights into their molecular landscapes and potential therapeutic targets. Understanding these complex mechanisms is crucial for developing targeted and effective treatment strategies. Future research should focus on:

- Understanding specific triggers (environmental/hormonal)
- Delineating the role of genetics
- Developing targeted therapies based on distinct protein profiles
- Investigating the role of neurogenic inflammation in FFA

By addressing these areas, researchers can move closer to personalized treatment approaches that improve outcomes and quality of life for patients with FFA and LPP.

References:

1. Fertig RM, Hu S, Maddy AJ, et al. Medical comorbidities in patients with lichen planopilaris, a retrospective case-control study. *International journal of dermatology* 2018;57(7):804-809.
2. Kossard S, Lee M-S, Wilkinson B. Postmenopausal frontal

- fibrosing alopecia: a frontal variant of lichen planopilaris. *Journal of the American Academy of Dermatology* 1997;36(1):59-66.
3. Kossard S. Postmenopausal frontal fibrosing alopecia: scarring alopecia in a pattern distribution. *Archives of dermatology* 1994;130(6):770-774.
 4. Mobini N, Tam S, Kamino H. Possible role of the bulge region in the pathogenesis of inflammatory scarring alopecia: lichen planopilaris as the prototype. *Journal of cutaneous pathology* 2005;32(10):675-679.
 5. Vañó-Galván S, Molina-Ruiz AM, Serrano-Falcón C, et al. Frontal fibrosing alopecia: a multicenter review of 355 patients. *Journal of the American Academy of Dermatology* 2014;70(4):670-678.
 6. Wong D, Goldberg LJ. The depth of inflammation in frontal fibrosing alopecia and lichen planopilaris: A potential distinguishing feature. *Journal of the American Academy of Dermatology* 2017;76(6):1183-1184.
 7. Pedrosa AF, Duarte AF, Haneke E, Correia O. Yellow facial papules associated with frontal fibrosing alopecia: A distinct histologic pattern and response to isotretinoin. *Journal of the American Academy of Dermatology* 2017;77(4):764-766.
 8. Weiss A, Kwon EJ, Kreidel M, et al. Two Unusual Cases of Discoid Lupus Erythematosus Associated With Xanthomatized Macrophages. *The American Journal of Dermatopathology* 2020;42(2):129-132.
 9. Callen JP. Chronic cutaneous lupus erythematosus: clinical, laboratory, therapeutic, and prognostic examination of 62 patients. *Archives of dermatology* 1982;118(6):412-416.
 10. Estrada BD, Tamler C, Sodr e CT, Barcaui CB, Pereira FBC. Dermoscopy patterns of cicatricial alopecia resulting from discoid lupus erythematosus and lichen planopilaris. *Anais brasileiros de dermatologia* 2010;85(2):179-183.
 11. Ross EK, Tan E, Shapiro J. Update on primary cicatricial alopecias. *Journal of the American Academy of Dermatology* 2005;53(1):1-37.
 12. Subash J, Alexander T, Beamer V, McMichael A. A proposed mechanism for central centrifugal cicatricial alopecia. *Experimental dermatology* 2018.
 13. LoPresti P, Papa CM, Kligman AM. Hot comb alopecia. *Archives of dermatology* 1968;98(3):234-238.
 14. Callender VD, Wright DR, Davis EC, Sperling LC. Hair breakage as a presenting sign of early or occult central centrifugal cicatricial alopecia: clinicopathologic findings in 9 patients. *Archives of dermatology* 2012;148(9):1047-1052.
 15. Miteva M, Tosti A. Central centrifugal cicatricial alopecia presenting with irregular patchy alopecia on the lateral and posterior scalp. *Skin appendage disorders* 2015;1(1):1-5.
 16. McDonald WH, Yates 3rd JR. Shotgun proteomics: integrating technologies to answer biological questions. *Current opinion in molecular therapeutics* 2003;5(3):302-309.
 17. Tosti A, Piraccini BM, Iorizzo M, Misciali C. Frontal fibrosing alopecia in postmenopausal women. *Journal of the American Academy of Dermatology* 2005;52(1):55-60.
 18. Miteva M, Tosti A. The follicular triad: a pathological clue to the diagnosis of early frontal fibrosing alopecia. *British Journal of Dermatology* 2012;166(2):440-442.
 19. Iorizzo M, Tosti A. Frontal fibrosing alopecia: an update on pathogenesis, diagnosis, and treatment. *American journal of clinical dermatology* 2019;1-12.
 20. Hinneburg H, Korać P, Schirmeister F, et al. Unlocking cancer glycomes from histopathological formalin-fixed and paraffin-embedded (FFPE) tissue microdissections. *Molecular & cellular proteomics* 2017;16(4):524-536.
 21. Poblet E, Jiménez F, Pascual A, Piqué E. Frontal fibrosing alopecia versus lichen planopilaris: a clinicopathological study. *International journal of dermatology* 2006;45(4):375-380.
 22. Donati A, Gupta AK, Jacob C, Cavelier-Balloy B, Reygagne P. The use of direct immunofluorescence in frontal fibrosing alopecia. *Skin appendage disorders* 2017;3(3):125-128.
 23. Trachsler S, Trüeb RM. Value of direct immunofluorescence for differential diagnosis of cicatricial alopecia. *Dermatology* 2005;211(2):98-102.
 24. Kang H, Alzolibani AA, Otberg N, Shapiro J. Lichen planopilaris. *Dermatologic therapy* 2008;21(4):249-256.
 25. Assouly P, Reygagne P. Lichen planopilaris: update on diagnosis and treatment. *Seminars in cutaneous medicine and surgery: No longer published by Elsevier*; 2009:3-10.
 26. Babahosseini H, Tavakolpour S, Mahmoudi H, et al. Lichen planopilaris: retrospective study on the characteristics and treatment of 291 patients. *Journal of Dermatological Treatment* 2019;30(6):598-604.
 27. Soares VC, Mulinari-Brenner F, Souza TEd. Lichen planopilaris epidemiology: a retrospective study of 80 cases. *Anais brasileiros de dermatologia* 2015;90(5):666-670.
 28. Imanishi H, Ansell DM, Chéret J, et al. Epithelial-to-mesenchymal stem cell transition in a human organ: lessons from lichen planopilaris. *Journal of Investigative Dermatology* 2018;138(3):511-519.
 29. Karnik P, Tekeste Z, McCormick TS, et al. Hair follicle stem cell-specific PPAR γ deletion causes scarring alopecia. *Journal of Investigative Dermatology* 2009;129(5):1243-1257.
 30. Harries MJ, Meyer K, Chaudhry I, et al. Lichen planopilaris is characterized by immune privilege collapse of the hair follicle's epithelial stem cell niche. *The Journal of pathology* 2013;231(2):236-247.
 31. Jordaan H. An approach to the diagnosis and management of patchy, non-scarring hair loss. *South African Family Practice* 2007;49(7):26-29.
 32. Christoph T, Müller-Röver S, Audring H, et al. The human hair follicle immune system: cellular composition and immune privilege. *British Journal of Dermatology* 2000;142(5):862-873.
 33. Ito T, Ito N, Saatoff M, et al. Maintenance of hair follicle immune privilege is linked to prevention of NK cell attack. *Journal of Investigative Dermatology* 2008;128(5):1196-1206.
 34. Meyer K, Klatte J, Dinh H, et al. Evidence that the bulge region is a site of relative immune privilege in human hair follicles. *British Journal of Dermatology* 2008;159(5):1077-1085.
 35. Lyle S, Christofidou-Solomidou M, Liu Y, Elder DE, Albelda S, Cotsarelis G. The C8/144B monoclonal antibody recognizes cytokeratin 15 and defines the location of human hair follicle stem cells. *Journal of cell science* 1998;111(21):3179-3188.
 36. Nieto MA, Huang RY-J, Jackson RA, Thiery JP. EMT: 2016.

- Cell 2016;166(1):21-45.
37. Stone RC, Pastar I, Ojeh N, et al. Epithelial-mesenchymal transition in tissue repair and fibrosis. *Cell and tissue research* 2016;365:495-506.
 38. Ocampo-Garza SS, Orizaga-y-Quiroga TL, Olvera-Rodríguez V, et al. Frontal fibrosing alopecia: is there a link in relatives? *Skin Appendage Disorders* 2021;7(3):206-211.
 39. Doche I, Wilcox GL, Ericson M, et al. Evidence for neurogenic inflammation in lichen planopilaris and frontal fibrosing alopecia pathogenic mechanism. *Experimental dermatology* 2020;29(3):282-285.
 40. Ito M, Liu Y, Yang Z, et al. Stem cells in the hair follicle bulge contribute to wound repair but not to homeostasis of the epidermis. *Nature medicine* 2005;11(12):1351-1354.
 41. Nakamura M, Tokura Y. Expression of Snail1 in the fibrotic dermis of postmenopausal frontal fibrosing alopecia: possible involvement of an epithelial–mesenchymal transition and a review of the Japanese patients. *British Journal of Dermatology* 2010;162(5):1152-1154.
 42. Nakamura M, Tokura Y. Epithelial–mesenchymal transition in the skin. *Journal of dermatological science* 2011;61(1):7-13.
 43. Metzstein MM, Stanfield GM, Horvitz HR. Genetics of programmed cell death in *C. elegans*: past, present and future. *Trends in genetics* 1998;14(10):410-416.
 44. Chéret J, Piccini I, Hardman-Smart J, et al. Preclinical evidence that the PPAR γ modulator, N-Acetyl-GED-0507-34-Levo, may protect human hair follicle epithelial stem cells against lichen planopilaris-associated damage. *Journal of the European Academy of Dermatology and Venereology* 2020;34(4):e195.
 45. Harnchoowong S, Suchonwanit P. PPAR- γ agonists and their role in primary cicatricial alopecia. *PPAR research* 2017;2017.
 46. Harries M, Trueb R, Tosti A, et al. How not to get scar (r) ed: pointers to the correct diagnosis in patients with suspected primary cicatricial alopecia. *British Journal of Dermatology* 2009;160(3):482-501.
 47. Mesinkovska NA, Tellez A, Dawes D, Piliang M, Bergfeld W. The use of oral pioglitazone in the treatment of lichen planopilaris. *Journal of the American Academy of Dermatology* 2015;72(2):355-356.
 48. Harries MJ, Jimenez F, Izeta A, et al. Lichen planopilaris and frontal fibrosing alopecia as model epithelial stem cell diseases. *Trends in molecular medicine* 2018;24(5):435-448.
 49. Ramot Y, Mastrofrancesco A, Camera E, Desreumaux P, Paus R, Picardo M. The role of PPAR γ -mediated signalling in skin biology and pathology: new targets and opportunities for clinical dermatology. *Experimental dermatology* 2015;24(4):245-251.
 50. Dicle O, Celik-Ozenci C, Sahin P, et al. Differential expression of mTOR signaling pathway proteins in lichen planopilaris and frontal fibrosing alopecia. *Acta histochemica* 2018;120(8):837-845.
 51. Blanchard P-G, Festuccia WT, Houde VP, et al. Major involvement of mTOR in the PPAR γ -induced stimulation of adipose tissue lipid uptake and fat accretion [S]. *Journal of lipid research* 2012;53(6):1117-1125.
 52. Zhao JL, Wei C, Xiao X, et al. Expression of TNF- α and IL- β can be suppressed via the PPAR- γ /mTOR signaling pathway in BV-2 microglia: A potential anti-inflammation mechanism. *Molecular Medicine Reports* 2020;22(4):3559-3565.
 53. Ghosh AK, Bhattacharyya S, Wei J, et al. Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor- γ abrogates Smad-dependent collagen stimulation by targeting the p300 transcriptional coactivator. *The FASEB Journal* 2009;23(9):2968.
 54. Wu M, Melichian DS, Chang E, Warner-Blankenship M, Ghosh AK, Varga J. Rosiglitazone abrogates bleomycin-induced scleroderma and blocks profibrotic responses through peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor- γ . *The American journal of pathology* 2009;174(2):519-533.
 55. Gonzalez EG, Selvi E, Balistreri E, et al. Synthetic cannabinoid ajulemic acid exerts potent antifibrotic effects in experimental models of systemic sclerosis. *Annals of the rheumatic diseases* 2012;71(9):1545-1551.
 56. Piccini I, Brunken L, Chéret J, et al. Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor- γ signalling protects hair follicle stem cells from chemotherapy-induced apoptosis and epithelial–mesenchymal transition. *British Journal of Dermatology* 2022;186(1):129-141.
 57. Németh Á, Mózes MM, Calvier L, Hansmann G, Kökény G. The PPAR γ agonist pioglitazone prevents TGF- β induced renal fibrosis by repressing EGR-1 and STAT3. *BMC nephrology* 2019;20:1-9.
 58. Photiou L, Nixon RL, Tam M, Green J, Yip L. An update of the pathogenesis of frontal fibrosing alopecia: What does the current evidence tell us? *Australasian Journal of Dermatology* 2019;60(2):99-104.
 59. Dlova N, Goh CL, Tosti A. Familial frontal fibrosing alopecia. *British Journal of Dermatology* 2013;168(1):220-222.
 60. Misiak-Galazka M, Olszewska M, Rudnicka L. Lichen planopilaris in three generations: grandmother, mother, and daughter—a genetic link? *International journal of dermatology* 2016;55(8):913.
 61. Chan DV, Flynn J, Ziegler R, Wong HK. HLA-DR1 in familial frontal fibrosing alopecia. *Journal of the American Academy of Dermatology* 2015;73(1):e39.
 62. Rivas MMO, Antolín SC, Sambucety PS, González ES, de Morales JMGR, Prieto MÁR. Frontal fibrosing alopecia and lichen planopilaris in HLA-identical mother and daughter. *Indian Journal of Dermatology, Venereology, and Leprology* 2015;81(2):162.
 63. Chan DV, Kartono F, Ziegler R, et al. Absence of HLA-DR1 positivity in 2 familial cases of frontal fibrosing alopecia. *Journal of the American Academy of Dermatology* 2014;71(5):e208-e210.
 64. Tziotzios C, Fenton DA, Stefanato CM, McGrath JA. Familial frontal fibrosing alopecia. *Journal of the American Academy of Dermatology* 2015;73(1):e37.
 65. Atarguine H, Hocar O, Hamdaoui A, Akhdari N, Amal S. Frontal fibrosing alopecia: Report on three pediatric cases. *Archives de Pédiatrie: Organe Officiel de la Société Française de Pédiatrie* 2016;23(8):832-835.
 66. Christensen KN, Lehman JS, Tollefson MM. Pediatric lichen planopilaris: clinicopathologic study of four new cases and a review of the literature. *Pediatric Dermatology* 2015;32(5):621-627.
 67. Tziotzios C, Ainali C, Holmes S, et al. Tissue and Circulating MicroRNA Co-expression Analysis Shows Potential Involvement of miRNAs in the Pathobiology of Frontal

- Fibrosing Alopecia. *The Journal of investigative dermatology* 2017;137(11):2440.
68. Tziotzios C, Petridis C, Dand N, et al. Genome-wide association study in frontal fibrosing alopecia identifies four susceptibility loci including HLA-B* 07: 02. *Nature communications* 2019;10(1):1-9.
69. Inui S, Itami S. Androgen actions on the human hair follicle: perspectives. *Experimental dermatology* 2013;22(3):168-171.
70. Ohnemus U, Uenal M, Inzunza J, Gustafsson J-A, Paus R. The hair follicle as an estrogen target and source. *Endocrine reviews* 2006;27(6):677-706.
71. Ramot Y, Böhm M, Paus R. Translational neuroendocrinology of human skin: concepts and perspectives. *Trends in molecular medicine* 2021;27(1):60-74.
72. Dawn G, Holmes S, Moffat D, Munro C. Post-menopausal frontal fibrosing alopecia. *Clinical and experimental dermatology* 2003;28(1):43-45.
73. Ranasinghe GC, Piliang MP, Bergfeld WF. Prevalence of hormonal and endocrine dysfunction in patients with lichen planopilaris (LPP): a retrospective data analysis of 168 patients. *Journal of the American Academy of Dermatology* 2017;76(2):314-320.
74. Lobato-Berezo A, March-Rodríguez A, Deza G, Bertolín-Colilla M, Pujol R. Frontal fibrosing alopecia after antiandrogen hormonal therapy in a male patient. *Journal of the European Academy of Dermatology and Venereology* 2018;32(7):e291-e292.
75. Jerjen R, Pinczewski J, Sinclair R, Bhojru B. Clinicopathological characteristics and treatment outcomes of fibrosing alopecia in a pattern distribution: a retrospective cohort study. *Journal of the European Academy of Dermatology and Venereology* 2021;35(12):2440-2447.
76. Panchaprateep R, Ruxrungtham P, Chancheewa B, Asawanonda P. Clinical characteristics, trichoscopy, histopathology and treatment outcomes of frontal fibrosing alopecia in an Asian population: a retro-prospective cohort study. *The Journal of Dermatology* 2020;47(11):1301-1311.
77. Pindado-Ortega C, Saceda-Corrado D, Moreno-Arrones OM, et al. Effectiveness of dutasteride in a large series of patients with frontal fibrosing alopecia in real clinical practice. *Journal of the American Academy of Dermatology* 2021;84(5):1285-1294.
78. Harries MJ, Wong S, Farrant P. Frontal fibrosing alopecia and increased scalp sweating: Is neurogenic inflammation the common link. *Skin appendage disorders* 2015;1(4):179-184.
79. Tavakolpour S, Mahmoudi H, Abedini R, Hesari KK, Kiani A, Daneshpazhooh M. Frontal fibrosing alopecia: an update on the hypothesis of pathogenesis and treatment. *International journal of women's dermatology* 2019;5(2):116-123.
80. Little E. Folliculitis decalvans et atrophicans: report of a case. *Br J Dermatol* 1915;27:183-185.
81. Pringle J. Case of a Lichenous Eruption for Diagnosis (Pityriasis Rubra Pilaris). SAGE Publications; 1915.
82. Peters ADK, Brain R. Lichen pilaris seu spinulosus. SAGE Publications; 1939.
83. Marks DH, Hagigeorges D, Manatis-Lornell AJ, Foreman RK, Senna MM. Development of lichen planopilaris-like alopecia following occupational exposure to trichloroethylene and tetrachloroethylene. *Skin Appendage Disorders* 2019;5(6):374-378.
84. Mirmirani P, Tosti A, Goldberg L, Whiting D, Sotoodian B. Frontal fibrosing alopecia: an emerging epidemic. *Skin appendage disorders* 2019;5(2):90-93.
85. Aldoori N, Dobson K, Holden C, McDonagh A, Harries M, Messenger A. Frontal fibrosing alopecia: possible association with leave-on facial skin care products and sunscreens; a questionnaire study. *British Journal of Dermatology* 2016;175(4):762-767.
86. Rocha V, Donati A, Contin L, et al. Photopatch and patch testing in 63 patients with frontal fibrosing alopecia: a case series. *The British journal of dermatology* 2018;179(6):1402.
87. Donati A. Frontal fibrosing alopecia and sunscreens: cause or consequence? *British Journal of Dermatology* 2016;175(4):675-676.
88. Fonda-Pascual P, Saceda-Corrado D, Moreno-Arrones O, Alegre-Sanchez A, Vaño-Galván S. Frontal fibrosing alopecia and environment: may tobacco be protective? *Journal of the European Academy of Dermatology and Venereology* 2017;31(2):e98-e99.
89. Esteban-Lucía L, Molina-Ruiz A, Requena L. Update on frontal fibrosing alopecia. *Actas Dermo-Sifiliográficas (English Edition)* 2017;108(4):293-304.
90. Tandon YK, Somani N, Cevasco NC, Bergfeld WF. A histologic review of 27 patients with lichen planopilaris. *Journal of the American Academy of Dermatology* 2008;59(1):91-98.
91. Gálvez-Canseco A, Sperling L. Lichen planopilaris and frontal fibrosing alopecia cannot be differentiated by histopathology. *Journal of cutaneous pathology* 2018;45(5):313-317.
92. Backar S. Frontal fibrosing alopecia: An overview. *Journal of Skin and Sexually Transmitted Diseases* 2021:1-7.
93. Valesky EM, Maier MD, Kippenberger S, Kaufmann R, Meissner M. Frontal fibrosing alopecia—review of recent case reports and case series in PubMed. *JDDG: Journal der Deutschen Dermatologischen Gesellschaft* 2018;16(8):992-999.
94. Bolduc C, Sperling LC, Shapiro J. Primary cicatricial alopecia: Other lymphocytic primary cicatricial alopecias and neutrophilic and mixed primary cicatricial alopecias. *Journal of the American Academy of Dermatology* 2016;75(6):1101-1117.
95. Stefanato CM. Histopathology of alopecia: a clinicopathological approach to diagnosis. *Histopathology* 2010;56(1):24-38.
96. Harries M, Hardman J, Chaudhry I, Poblet E, Paus R. Profiling the human hair follicle immune system in lichen planopilaris and frontal fibrosing alopecia: can macrophage polarization differentiate these two conditions microscopically? *British Journal of Dermatology* 2020;183(3):537-547.
97. Sperling LC, Nguyen JV. Commentary: treatment of lichen planopilaris: some progress, but a long way to go. *Journal of the American Academy of Dermatology* 2010;62(3):398-401.
98. Tan E, Martinka M, Ball N, Shapiro J. Primary cicatricial alopecias: clinicopathology of 112 cases. *Journal of the American Academy of Dermatology* 2004;50(1):25-32.
99. Takeda K, Kaisho T, Akira S. Toll-like receptors. *Annual review of immunology* 2003;21(1):335-376.
100. Vaño-Galván S, Villodres E, Pigem R, et al. Hair transplant in

- frontal fibrosing alopecia: a multicenter review of 51 patients. *Journal of the American Academy of Dermatology* 2019;81(3):865-866.
101. Marmor MF, Kellner U, Lai TY, Melles RB, Mieler WF. Recommendations on screening for chloroquine and hydroxychloroquine retinopathy (2016 revision). *Ophthalmology* 2016;123(6):1386-1394.
102. Naeini FF, Saber M, Asilian A, Hosseini SM. Clinical efficacy and safety of methotrexate versus hydroxychloroquine in preventing lichen planopilaris progress: a randomized clinical trial. *International Journal of Preventive Medicine* 2017;8(1):37.
103. Vañó-Galván S, de Carvalho LT, Saceda-Corralo D, et al. Oral minoxidil improves background hair thickness in lichen planopilaris. *Journal of the American Academy of Dermatology* 2021;84(6):1684-1686.
104. Katoulis A, Diamanti K, Damaskou V, et al. Decreased melanocyte counts in the upper hair follicle in frontal fibrosing alopecia compared to lichen planopilaris: A retrospective histopathologic study. *Journal of the European Academy of Dermatology and Venereology* 2021;35(5):e343-e345.
105. Ho A, Shapiro J. Medical therapy for frontal fibrosing alopecia: A review and clinical approach. *Journal of the American Academy of Dermatology* 2019;81(2):568-580.
106. Banka N, Mubki T, Bunagan MJK, McElwee K, Shapiro J. Frontal fibrosing alopecia: a retrospective clinical review of 62 patients with treatment outcome and long-term follow-up. *International journal of dermatology* 2014;53(11):1324-1330.
107. Donovan J, Samrao A, Ruben B, Price V. Eyebrow regrowth in patients with frontal fibrosing alopecia treated with intralesional triamcinolone acetonide. *British Journal of Dermatology* 2010;163(5):1142-1144.
108. MacDonald A, Clark C, Holmes S. Frontal fibrosing alopecia: a review of 60 cases. *Journal of the American Academy of Dermatology* 2012;67(5):955-961.
109. Vañó-Galván S, Saceda-Corral D, Alonso-Castro L, Urech M, Espada J. Antiandrogenic drugs, a therapeutic option for frontal fibrosing alopecia patients. *Journal of the American Academy of Dermatology* 2016;74(4):e77.
110. Samrao A, Chew AL, Price V. Frontal fibrosing alopecia: a clinical review of 36 patients. *British Journal of Dermatology* 2010;163(6):1296-1300.
111. Pirmez R, Duque-Estrada B, Barreto T, Quintella DC, Cuzzi T. Successful treatment of facial papules in frontal fibrosing alopecia with oral isotretinoin. *Skin appendage disorders* 2017;3(2):111-113.
112. Vañó-Galván S, Saceda-Corralo D, Blume-Peytavi U, et al. Frequency of the types of alopecia at twenty-two specialist hair clinics: a multicenter study. *Skin Appendage Disorders* 2019;5(5):309-315.
113. Dadkhahfar S, Araghi F, Tabary M, Moravvej H. Considerations of managing lichen planopilaris with hydroxychloroquine during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Journal of drugs in dermatology: JDD* 2020;19(6):679-680.
114. Naeini FF, Mohaghegh F, Jelvan M, Asilian A, Saber M. Cyclosporine or methotrexate, which one is more promising in the treatment of lichen planopilaris?; A comparative clinical trial. *International Immunopharmacology* 2020;86:106765.
115. Peterson EL, Gutierrez D, Brinster NK, KI LS, Shapiro J. Response of lichen planopilaris to pioglitazone hydrochloride. *Journal of Drugs in Dermatology: JDD* 2019;18(12):1276-1279.
116. Chen C-L, Huang W-Y, Wang EHC, Tai K-Y, Lin S-J. Functional complexity of hair follicle stem cell niche and therapeutic targeting of niche dysfunction for hair regeneration. *Journal of biomedical science* 2020;27:1-11.