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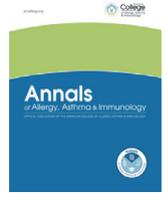
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Review

Interleukin-31 targeting and other novel drugs in itch

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Key Messages

- Itch represents the most significant quality-of-life burden in a range of chronic inflammatory skin conditions.
- Biological therapies have offered increasingly effective targeted interventions for the treatment of chronic pruritus in recent years.
- Although Janus kinase inhibitors generally offer faster itch relief than biologicals, their broader effects and safety profiles may pose clinical challenges.
- The targeted blockage of interleukin-31 thus offers a promising avenue of rapid itch relief combined with broader safety margins.

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ABSTRACT

Chronic pruritus is a debilitating symptom of several inflammatory skin conditions, presenting severe quality-of-life decreasing effects and major clinical challenges in terms of disease management. In the past decade, novel biological therapies have offered increasingly effective targeted interventions for the treatment of chronic pruritus, in which traditional approaches were often lacking or presented suboptimal safety profiles. However, recent advancements in the molecular characterization of sensory neuronal subsets helped to shed light on specific mechanisms of pruriception and thus have furthered our understanding of the peripheral nervous system and disease-relevant neuroimmune crosstalk. These developments have highlighted the targeting of interleukin-31, a major pruritus-associated cytokine, as a highly promising therapeutic target for chronic pruritus in inflammatory skin conditions. In this review, we therefore provide a focused overview of inflammatory conditions in which pruritus represents the major burden, the fundamental immune pathways, and sensory circuits involved, alongside the efficacies and safety profiles of novel therapies addressing chronic pruritus.

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Introduction

Pruritus (or itch) is an evolutionarily vital, unpleasant sensation that provokes the specific behavior of scratching or rubbing the affected area. According to the 2025 Delphi consensus, itch can be defined as “(...) an unpleasant sensation of the skin and/or neighboring mucous membranes commonly triggering an urge to scratch,” which “(...) can be triggered, worsened or improved by a broad variety of external and internal factors.”¹ Indeed, it

can be caused by many factors, including the following: dry skin, allergic reactions, insect bites, or chronic inflammatory skin diseases, such as atopic dermatitis (AD), prurigo nodularis (PN), bullous pemphigoid, lichen planus (LP), or psoriasis; or systemic issues such as liver or kidney disease.^{2,3} Uncovering the neural pathways of itch has led to its definite distinction from pain.⁴ The International Forum for the Study of Itch (IFSI) has established etiologic categories for itch, which comprise the following: dermatologic, systemic, neurologic, psychiatric diseases and mixed causes, and “other causes.”^{5,6} Furthermore, the IFSI distinguishes pruritus into acute and chronic based on duration: itch lasting less than 6 weeks is acute, whereas that lasting 6 weeks or more is defined as chronic pruritus.⁷ The IFSI had developed a clinical

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classification specifically for chronic pruritus, subdividing it into 3 groups based on the condition of the skin at the onset of itching:

- IFSI I: Chronic pruritus on primarily lesional (inflamed or diseased) skin, meaning the itch occurs on skin already affected by a skin disease.
- IFSI II: Chronic pruritus on primarily nonlesional (normal-looking) skin, in which itch occurs without initial skin changes.
- IFSI III: Chronic pruritus with severe chronic scratch lesions, such as chronic prurigo or lichen simplex, in which the presence of extensive scratching damage makes classification into the above-mentioned groups not possible.

This classification helps guide diagnosis and treatment by identifying whether itch occurs on diseased skin or not and/or if scratching has caused secondary skin changes.

The global prevalence of pruritus is approximately 39.8% according to a large international study conducted across 20 countries in 2023.⁸ The prevalence is highest among people aged 65 years and older, reaching approximately 43.3% in this group. Women tend to experience pruritus slightly more than men (40.7% vs 38.9%). The prevalence also varies geographically, being lower in Europe (35.9%) compared with North America (41.2%) and higher in Africa (45.7%). There are no significant differences between ethnic groups. In BRICS countries, the prevalence is somewhat higher than in developed countries (40.3% vs 38.7%).^{8,9}

The Evolutionary Significance of Itch Sensation

Itching primarily serves as a protective mechanism that helps organisms detect and respond to potentially harmful environmental threats such as parasites, insects, and skin irritants. Itch triggers the urge to scratch, which can physically remove or dislodge irritants, toxins, venoms, or parasites from the skin surface.¹⁰

Moreover, scratching initiates an inflammatory response that activates the immune system locally to fight off potential infections. Mice studies have revealed that scratching increases inflammation and immune cell activity at the site of itching and helps to ward off bacterial infections, including *Staphylococcus aureus*.¹¹ This suggests that the pleasurable feeling associated with scratching has been evolutionarily preserved because it positively enforces this protective behavior. Itch and scratching evolved to help maintain skin homeostasis, remove harmful irritants, and boost local immune defense against infections and parasites. Although this mechanism has clear survival benefits across multiple species, the modern human environment has drastically altered its original context.^{9,10}

Chronic Pruritus in Common Inflammatory Skin Diseases

Although itch is a frequent symptom associated with chronic inflammatory skin diseases, qualitative and quantitative differences exist. In fact, pruritus represents the most burdensome symptom in patients with AD or PN, 2 diseases presenting a prominent type 2 inflammatory response element.

Hence, chronic pruritus is the disease-defining symptom of AD, affecting most of patients. Peak pruritus Numerical Rating Scale (ppNRS) scores approximately 7.3 to 7.6 are recorded in recently studied large adult cohorts.^{12,13} PN is defined by a mixture of type 2 (T_H2 driven) and type 3 (mainly T_H17 driven) inflammatory signatures.^{14,15} Here, itching typically establishes a vicious itch-scratch cycle mediated by neuroimmune interactions which promote continuous scratching behavior that further damages the skin barrier and amplifies pruritogenic signaling.¹⁶ The pathomechanism involves bidirectional communication between activated immune cells including eosinophils, mast cells, T_H2 cells, and peripheral sensory

neurons that contribute to neuronal hyperplasia and neural sensitization in the skin (Fig 1).^{16–18} This neuroimmune feedback loop is sustained by pruritogens and elevated expression of cytokine receptors including interleukin-4 receptor alpha (IL-4R α) and IL-31R α in cutaneous nerve endings, maintaining chronic pruritus and driving the formation of characteristic hyperkeratotic nodular lesions.^{17,19} Across the above-mentioned dermatoses, chronic pruritus leads to significant sleep disturbances and impaired quality of life (QoL), with nocturnal itch contributing to difficulty falling and staying asleep.^{20,21}

Considering the modalities of neuroimmune interactions in inflammatory skin diseases, itch is the most burdensome symptom in most diseases with a strong type 2 element, with profound QoL effects in severe cases. Furthermore, AD and PN represent patient populations with significantly more diverse molecular backgrounds than, for example, psoriasis.^{22,23} This highlights the need for not only more personalized approaches but also precision targeting of the dominant pruritus-associated pathways in a diverse patient cohort. Here, we will focus on novel and approved systemic therapeutic targeting approaches to control chronic itch in the 2 most important pruritic inflammatory skin diseases, AD and PN.

Peripheral and Central Pathways of Itch Signaling

Itch can be broadly classified into 2 subtypes based on the initiating substance, histaminergic and nonhistaminergic (Fig 1). The former, initiated by the activation of the H_1 and H_4 histamine receptors, is characteristic of acute pruritus.²⁴ Nonhistaminergic itch, provoked by a multitude of exogenous or endogenous stimuli (such as microbial products, proteases, cytokines, and chemokines), lies in the background of a major proportion of chronic pruritic skin conditions, in which antihistamines consequentially demonstrate very limited efficacy.²⁴

Tracing the neural pathways of itch poses several challenges, ranging from the heterogeneity of sensory neurons to the complex integration of signals at the level of the central nervous system (CNS). Briefly, activated peripheral neurons will transmit impulses to the spinal cord, in which gastrin-releasing peptide receptor-expressing excitatory interneurons in the superficial dorsal horn represent a key central relay for itch transmission, with genetic ablation of these neurons almost completely abolishing scratching behavior, while leaving pain responses intact.^{25,26} In the CNS, spinothalamic and spinoparabrachial pathways for itch converge as spinal projection neurons transmit pruritic signals to both the thalamus and parabrachial nucleus, integrating sensory-discriminative and affective-motivational itch processing within supraspinal circuits^{25,27} (Fig 1). The peripheral and central itch pathways may exhibit plasticity and sensitization in chronic conditions; however, due to the complexity and highly interconnected nature of central pathways, the periphery remains the main target of intervention and, in essence, provides the “battleground” in which chronic pruritus may be defeated.²⁸

At this crucial, initial level represented by nerve endings, itch sensation commences in specialized peripheral sensory neurons, primarily unmyelinated C-fibers and thinly myelinated A δ nerve fibers, which function as pruriceptors that detect and transduce pruritogenic stimuli into electrical signals transmitted to the CNS.^{29,30} Two distinct subpopulations of C-fibers mediate different types of pruritus: mechanically insensitive C-fibers that respond to histamine through histamine receptor-1 activation and subsequent sensitization of transient receptor potential vanilloid-1 channels and polymodal mechanically sensitive C-fibers that are activated by nonhistaminergic pruritogens through a variety of receptors, including cytokine (eg, IL-31R α , IL-13R1, and thymic stromal lymphopoietin receptor) and G-protein-coupled receptors (eg, protease-activated receptor-2 and mas-related G-protein coupled receptor member X2) leading to subsequent transient receptor potential vanilloid-1/transient receptor potential ankyrin-1 activation^{30,31} (Fig 1). Furthermore, prostaglandins

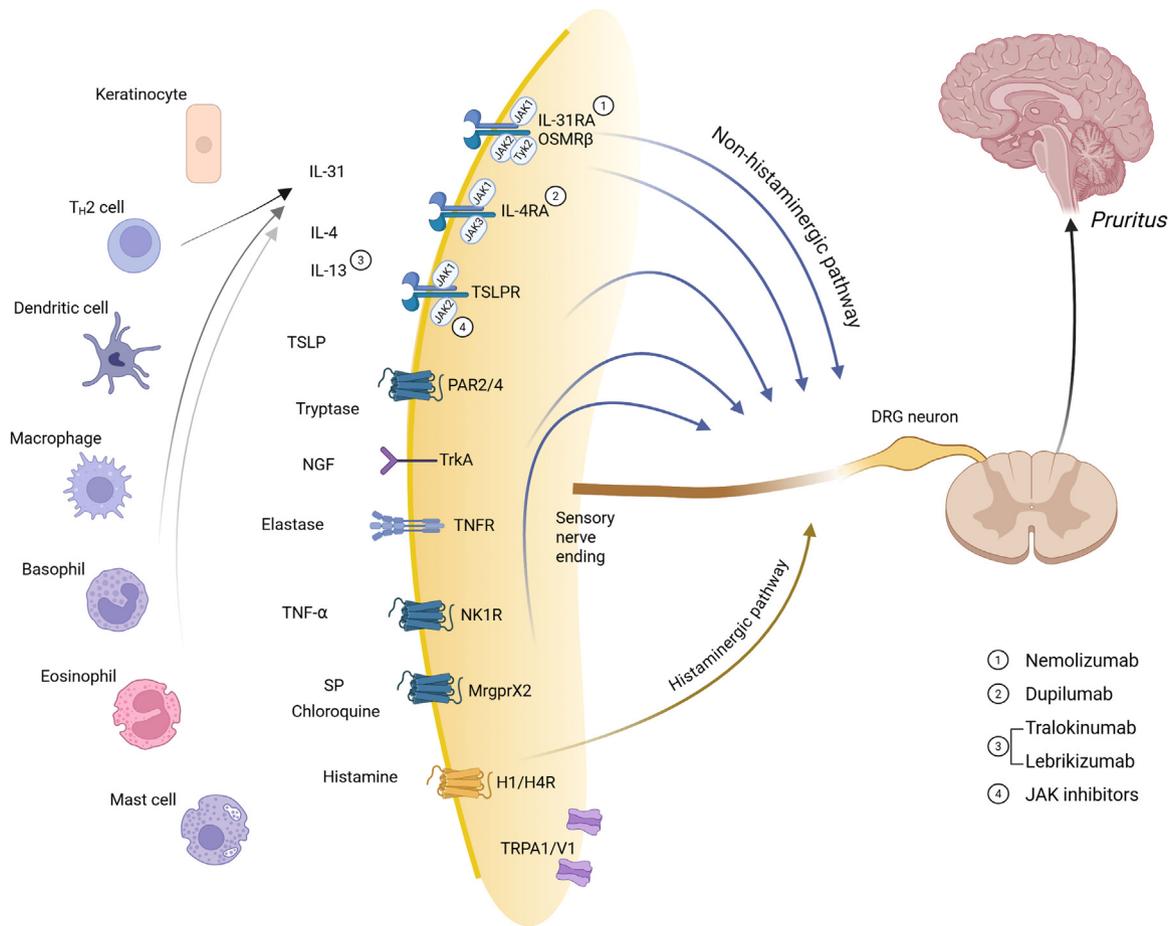


Figure 1. Schematic overview of key pruritus pathways and interventions of the monoclonal antibody and JAK inhibitor classes. DRG, dorsal root ganglion; IL, interleukin; JAK, Janus kinase; OSMR β , oncostatin M receptor beta; PAR-2, protease-activated receptor 2; TRPA1, transient receptor potential ankyrin-1; TRPV1, transient receptor potential vanilloid-1; TSLP, thymic stromal lymphopoietin.

have been found to sensitize nerve endings and lower the threshold for common pruritogens, thereby exacerbating symptoms.^{32–34} Arachidonic acid–derived mediators such as cysteinyl leukotrienes also demonstrate elevated levels in type 2 inflammation and may serve as direct pruritogens in the lesional micromilieu.^{35,36} Importantly, recent single-cell sequencing studies of various mammalian dorsal root ganglion neurons have identified pruritogen receptor-enriched subsets, with the most prominent being the “non-peptidergic 3” (NP3) sensory neuronal subset, but also including the NP2 cluster.³⁷ It has to be noted that a clear human nomenclature for pruriceptive neuronal subsets is still pending. Moreover, molecular classification studies from, for example, mice need to be thoroughly scrutinized in terms of their applicability to human dorsal root ganglion neurons.^{37–39} Despite the challenges of nomenclature and data harmonization, the NP3/NP2 subsets represent distinct populations critical for mediating itch, with a unique expression profile including IL-31R α , oncostatin M receptor beta (OSMR β), and brain natriuretic peptide.^{37,40,41} NP3 neurons are functionally specialized for pruriception and are directly involved in itch signal transduction, making them a central node in neuroimmune crosstalk and a promising therapeutic target for pruritic skin diseases.⁴⁰

Importantly, although IL-31 is a key cytokine able to directly activate pruriceptive neurons,^{42–44} the inflammatory cytokine milieu significantly sensitizes these subsets to other pruritogens, amplifying itch signaling by lowering the excitability thresholds.^{45,46}

Taking into account the interactions of the NP3 itch-conducting neuronal subset and the type 2/type 3 inflammatory cytokine milieu, IL-31 fills a unique position among the T_H2 cytokines perpetuating pruritic conditions, bridging the gap between the immune and

peripheral nervous systems.⁴⁷ Although the primary cellular sources of IL-31 in the skin are CD4+ T_H2 cells, additional sources include basophils,⁴⁸ eosinophils,⁴⁹ even mast cells,⁵⁰ and, under specific conditions such as wound healing, dermal dendritic cells,⁵¹ indicating that IL-31 production is coordinated across both adaptive and innate immune compartments in cutaneous inflammation (Fig 1). In subsequent texts, we describe the major developments in modulating this key pathway and place it in the broader context of recently developed targeted therapies in pruritic skin inflammation.

Therapeutic Targeting of Pruritic Type 2 Inflammation

In the past decade, biological therapies have fundamentally transformed the management of type 2 inflammatory skin diseases by offering highly effective, targeted interventions that significantly improve both disease control and patient QoL in which traditional treatments often fell short. Key landmarks in this process were the Food and Drug Administration approval of dupilumab for adults with moderate-to-severe AD in 2017 and PN in 2022, tralokinumab from age 12 years in AD in 2021, and the successive Food and Drug Administration approvals of nemolizumab for PN (adults) and AD (aged 12 years) in 2024. In subsequent texts, we summarize the mechanisms of action and comparative efficacy and safety profiles.

Nemolizumab

Nemolizumab is a humanized monoclonal IgG2 antibody that selectively inhibits IL-31 signaling by blocking the IL-31R α subunit,

thereby preventing the formation of the IL-31R α /oncostatin M receptor beta (OSMR β) complex that mediates pruritogenic signaling through Janus kinase (JAK)/Signal transducer and activator of transcription, mitogen-activated protein kinase, and phosphoinositide-3-kinase/protein kinase B pathways.^{47,52} IL-31 receptors are abundantly expressed in the dorsal root ganglia of cutaneous sensory nerves and keratinocytes, making this pathway a critical target for chronic pruritus as IL-31 directly activates unmyelinated C fibers and promotes sustained neuronal outgrowth that contributes to persistent itch sensation.^{53–55} In the landmark phase IIb study, nemolizumab demonstrated dose-dependent efficacy with the 0.5 mg/kg every 4 weeks group having the greatest pruritus improvement from baseline at week 12 (–46.8% vs –21.4% with placebo, $P < .001$), establishing proof-of-concept for IL-31 receptor antagonism in AD-associated pruritus.⁵⁶ Importantly, the onset of antipruritic action was rapid, with significant improvements in pruritus scores observed as early as day 2 after the first injection in multiple phase 2 and 3 trials, demonstrating the immediate neuronal response to IL-31 pathway blockade.^{57,58} Long-term extension studies revealed sustained and progressive improvements, with pruritus reductions reaching –65.9% at week 68 compared with –45.6% at week 16 in patients continuing nemolizumab therapy, indicating durable efficacy without development of tachyphylaxis.⁵⁶ In the phase III OLYMPIA 1 trial for PN, nemolizumab monotherapy achieved significantly higher rates of more than or equal to 4-point reduction in ppNRS compared with placebo at week 16 (58.4% vs 16.7%, difference 40.1%, $P < .001$), with response rates maintained at 58.3% vs 20.4% at week 24.⁵⁹ The complementary OLYMPIA 2 study in PN patients demonstrated even more pronounced efficacy, with nemolizumab 30 mg and 60 mg groups achieving –61.1% and –56.0% reductions in ppNRS, respectively, vs –18.6% with placebo at week 16 ($P < .0001$ for both doses).⁶⁰ In the phase III adolescent and adult AD studies, nemolizumab with topical therapy (Topical corticosteroid/topical calcineurin inhibitor) demonstrated superior antipruritic efficacy compared with placebo plus topical therapy, with more than or equal to 4-point ppNRS improvement achieved in 53% to 60% of patients vs 15% to 25% with placebo across different dosing regimens.⁶¹ A comprehensive systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials confirmed nemolizumab's consistent efficacy, revealing significant reductions in pruritus scores (weighted mean difference –18.86, 95% CI: –27.57 to –10.15, $P < .001$) across multiple studies with no significant heterogeneity in response patterns.⁶² Summaries from pooled results of the original trials are provided in Table 1. The safety profile of nemolizumab is generally favorable across all age groups, with treatment-emergent adverse events occurring in 71.7% to 89% of patients but being predominantly mild to moderate in severity, with the most common events being nasopharyngitis, upper respiratory tract infection, and

injection site reactions occurring in 2.2% to 8.7% of patients.^{56,63} In pediatric patients aged 6 to 12 years, the safety profile was comparable to older patients, with 73.9% experiencing adverse events vs 65.1% with placebo, and notably, no adverse events led to treatment discontinuation, demonstrating acceptable tolerability across the age spectrum.⁶⁴ Long-term safety data extending to 68 weeks reveal no new safety concerns, with most treatment-emergent adverse events remaining mild and similar to those reported in shorter duration studies, overall supporting the rapid and sustained antipruritic action of nemolizumab alongside its long-term safety.⁶⁵

Dupilumab

Dupilumab is a fully human monoclonal antibody that specifically binds to the IL-4R α subunit, thereby blocking signaling of both IL-4 and IL-13 cytokines, key drivers of type 2 inflammation.^{66,67} The dual blockade of IL-4 and IL-13 signaling pathways through their shared receptor subunit is advantageous, as these cytokines have both redundant and distinct roles in mediating pruritogenic inflammatory cascades.⁶⁷ The SOLO 1 and SOLO 2 phase III monotherapy trials revealed that 41% and 36% of adult patients, respectively, achieved a clinically meaningful more than or equal to 4-point improvement in ppNRS at week 16, compared with only 12% and 10% in the placebo group.⁶⁸ For PN, the LIBERTY-PN PRIME and PRIME2 phase III trials demonstrated that 60.0% and 37.2% of patients, respectively, achieved more than or equal to 4-point reduction in ppNRS at their primary end points (week 12 and 24), significantly exceeding placebo response rates of 18.4% and 22.0%⁶⁹ (pooled results in Table 1). A systematic literature review of patients with chronic prurigo and chronic idiopathic pruritus treated with dupilumab revealed mean time to first improvement of 5.18 ± 3.13 weeks for chronic prurigo and 2 ± 0 weeks for chronic idiopathic pruritus, with 83% of patients with chronic prurigo noticing improvement before 4 weeks of therapy.⁷⁰ Complete improvement of pruritus (time-final) occurred at a mean of 13.6 ± 12.0 weeks for patients with chronic prurigo and 14.6 ± 10.0 weeks for patients with chronic idiopathic pruritus, with 89% and 100% of patients, respectively, achieving more than 4-point NRS reduction.⁷⁰ Real-world evidence supports clinical trial findings, with up to 98% of patients achieving improvement in at least 1 AD domain including pruritus reduction at week 16, demonstrating robust effectiveness across diverse patient populations.⁷¹ The safety profile of dupilumab in pruritus trials is generally favorable, with the most common adverse events being conjunctivitis (8.4%–22.1% vs 2.1%–11.1% with placebo), injection site reactions, and nasopharyngitis, with most conjunctivitis cases being manageable with topical treatments.^{72,73} Long-term safety data extending up to 4 years reveal

Table 1
Systemic Anti-Pruritic Therapies of the Monoclonal Antibody and JAK Inhibitor Class, Alongside General Efficacy in Atopic Dermatitis and Prurigo Nodularis

Drug	Target	Disease	Study	≥ 4 Point improvement in ppNRS/wiNRS at week 16 [treatment % (placebo %)]
Nemolizumab	IL-31R α	Atopic dermatitis	ARCADIA 1 and 2	43.5 (19.8)
		Prurigo nodularis	OLYMPIA 1 and 2	57.4 (18.7)
Dupilumab	IL-4R α	Atopic dermatitis	LIBERTY-AD SOLO 1 and 2	38.5 (11)
		Prurigo nodularis	LIBERTY-PRIME 1 and 2	58.8 (19) (week 24)
Lebrikizumab	IL-13	Atopic dermatitis	ADvocate 1 and 2	42.58 (7.25)
Tralokinumab	IL-13	Atopic dermatitis	ECZTRA 1 and 2	22.5 (9.9)
Baricitinib	JAK1/2	Atopic dermatitis	BREEZE-AD 1 and 2	52.5 (15.4)
Abrocitinib	JAK1	Atopic dermatitis	JADE COMPARE	49.1 (13.8) (week 2)
Upadacitinib	JAK1	Atopic dermatitis	Measure-UP 1 and 2	63.7 (3.7)

Abbreviations: IL-13, interleukin-13; IL-31R α , interleukin-31 receptor alpha; IL-4R α , interleukin-4 receptor alpha; JAK, Janus kinase; JADE, JAK1 Atopic Dermatitis Efficacy and Safety; ppNRS, peak pruritus Numerical Rating Scale; wiNRS, worst itch Numerical Rating Scale.

that exposure-adjusted incidence rates of conjunctivitis decrease over time (15.66 per 100 patient-years), with treatment discontinuation due to adverse events being rare.⁷² The consistent efficacy and acceptable safety profile across multiple clinical trials have established dupilumab as an effective therapeutic option for patients with chronic pruritus associated with various inflammatory dermatoses.⁷⁴

Tralokinumab

Tralokinumab is a fully human IgG4 λ monoclonal antibody that specifically binds to IL-13 with high affinity, competitively blocking IL-13 interaction with both IL-13R α 1 and IL-13R α 2 receptor chains.^{75,76} During phase IIb trials, tralokinumab 300 mg every 2 weeks demonstrated significant improvements in ppNRS scores compared with placebo, with patients having greater reductions in 7-day mean pruritus NRS at week 12, establishing early evidence of antipruritic efficacy.⁷⁷ The phase III ECZTRA 1 and ECZTRA 2 trials confirmed robust antipruritic effects, with significantly greater proportions of patients achieving more than or equal to 4-point reduction in weekly average worst daily pruritus NRS at week 16 compared with placebo (ECZTRA 1: 41.1% vs 17.7%, $P < .001$; ECZTRA 2: 45.8% vs 14.9%, $P < .001$).⁷⁸ Significant differences in ppNRS vs placebo were observed as early as week 2 in both ECZTRA trials, and sustained improvements were maintained to week 52 in patients continuing tralokinumab therapy.^{78,79} In the adolescent phase III ECZTRA 6 trial, tralokinumab 150 mg and 300 mg every 2 weeks achieved significantly higher rates of more than or equal to 4-point reduction in ppNRS compared with placebo (23.2% and 25.0% vs 3.3%, respectively; $p < .001$ for both doses, summary in Table 1), with efficacy maintained in more than 50% of responders at week 52.⁸⁰ Real-world evidence demonstrates that patients with higher baseline pruritus scores (NRS ≥ 8) are more likely to achieve rapid therapeutic response, with clinical improvement typically observed within 4 to 6 weeks of treatment initiation, and stable disease control defined as worst daily pruritus NRS less than 3 being predictive of successful dose reduction to every 4 weeks of maintenance dosing.^{81,82} Regarding the safety profile, conjunctivitis is the most common adverse event occurring in 5.4% of patients vs 1.9% with placebo, though these events are typically mild to moderate in severity and resolve during treatment, with rates potentially lower than those observed with dual IL-4/IL-13 inhibition.⁸³ Long-term safety data up to 2 years reveal no increase in adverse event rates with continued treatment. Real-world studies report ocular adverse events in approximately 25% of patients, but these rarely lead to treatment discontinuation, with many patients who experienced conjunctivitis with dupilumab having no recurrence or milder symptoms when switched to tralokinumab.^{83,84}

Lebrikizumab

Lebrikizumab is a high-affinity IgG4 monoclonal antibody that selectively neutralizes IL-13 with slow off-rate kinetics, thereby blocking the downstream effects of IL-13 signaling with high potency and preventing the formation of the IL-4R α /IL-13R α 1 heterodimer receptor complex.^{85,86} In the phase IIb clinical trial, lebrikizumab demonstrated antipruritic efficacy with a ppNRS improvement of more than or equal to 4 points observed as early as day 2 in some of the high-dose patients vs placebo (15.3% vs 4.5%, respectively), with dose-dependent improvements maintained to week 16.⁸⁷ The phase III ADvocate1 and ADvocate2 trials confirmed these findings, revealing significant point reduction in NRS scores compared with baseline, with lebrikizumab-treated patients achieving 53.3% and 46.3% improvements respectively vs 21.4% and 18.0% with placebo at week 16^{88,89} (summary in Table 1). At week 16, significantly more patients treated with lebrikizumab vs placebo achieved more than or equal to

3-point improvement in pruritus NRS from baseline, with response rates of 54.6% vs 19.2% for ADvocate1 and 49.4% vs 14.0% for ADvocate2 ($P < .001$ for both trials).⁸⁸ Long-term efficacy data from maintenance studies reveal that patients who achieved response criteria at week 16 maintained stable antipruritic effects, with 66.1% and 62.7% of patients continuing lebrikizumab every 2 weeks and every 4 weeks, respectively, maintaining more than or equal to 4-point pruritus NRS improvement with minimal fluctuations to week 52.⁹⁰ The safety profile of lebrikizumab is favorable, with adverse events being mostly nonserious and mild to moderate in severity, with conjunctivitis being the most frequently reported adverse event in lebrikizumab-treated patients (8.5%) compared with placebo (2.5%).⁹⁰ Injection site reactions occurred at low rates (2.6% lebrikizumab vs 1.5% placebo), and adverse events leading to treatment discontinuation were infrequent (2.3% lebrikizumab vs 1.4% placebo).⁹⁰ Two-year safety data demonstrate that skin and itch outcomes are maintained in prolonged treatment periods.⁹¹

Janus Kinase Inhibitors

Besides the rapid development of biologicals in the past decade, JAK inhibitors have also emerged as effective options for chronic pruritus. Both topical and oral JAK inhibitors have demonstrated rapid itch relief in clinical trials, with topical ruxolitinib reducing NRS itch scores by approximately 3 to 4 points within days of application.⁹² Among oral agents, the selective JAK1 inhibitors upadacitinib and abrocitinib have yielded higher itch response rates and faster onset of action compared with the JAK1/2 inhibitor baricitinib, suggesting that JAK1 selectivity enhances antipruritic efficacy.^{92–94} Upadacitinib achieved significant itch reduction as early as day 2 in phase II trials, and abrocitinib demonstrated sustained itch relief in 12 weeks.^{95–97} Baricitinib has also been effective in reducing pruritus of unknown origin, with a recent case series reporting marked itch decrease in patients with chronic pruritus of unknown origin after 8 weeks of therapy.^{98–100} Recent mechanistic studies have further elucidated that JAK1-selective inhibitors demonstrate superior antipruritic efficacy through preferential inhibition of type 2 cytokine signaling pathways, including IL-4, IL-13, and IL-31^{101–103} (Table 1).

JAK inhibitors have demonstrated benefit beyond AD, including refractory pruritus in PN^{100,104,105} and LP,^{106,107} in which both oral and topical formulations achieved substantial itch resolution. The safety profile of JAK inhibitors in patients with pruritic skin diseases is generally acceptable but, in general, less favorable than biologicals. The most common adverse events are nasopharyngitis, acne, and transient laboratory abnormalities. Real-world evidence from dermatology-specific cohorts indicates that the cardiovascular risk profile of JAK inhibitors may be more favorable than initially suggested by studies of patients with rheumatological diseases, particularly in younger patients without extensive cardiovascular comorbidities.^{108,109} Long-term monitoring requirements include regular assessment of cardiovascular risk factors, hematologic parameters, and lipid profiles, with topical formulations demonstrating minimal systemic absorption and reduced risk of systemic adverse events compared with oral agents.^{110,111}

Itch Improvement During Janus Kinase Inhibition vs Biological Therapy

A direct, head-to-head comparison of phase III clinical trials between antipruritic treatments is complicated by several practical aspects, such as end points, inclusion criteria, and rescue medications, and allowed concomitant therapies vary even between CONSORT-standardized studies. However, from both clinical experience and the evaluation of matching end points between published clinical trials, it is established that JAK inhibitors typically achieve a more than or equal to 4-point improvement in itch NRS

by weeks 2 to 4 in both AD and PN, with some trials revealing significant relief as early as the first week.^{99,104,112,113} Dupilumab generally reaches this threshold by week 4 in AD and by weeks 4 to 5 in PN, with maximal response rates observed at 12 to 24 weeks.^{72,74,112} Head-to-head studies in AD demonstrate that JAK inhibitors upadacitinib and abrocitinib provide superior and more rapid itch relief compared with dupilumab, with a larger proportion of patients achieving early itch relief at 2 weeks and sustained advantages to 12 to 16 weeks.¹¹⁴ In the Heads Up phase IIIb trial, upadacitinib achieved significantly greater improvements in itch NRS compared with dupilumab as early as week 1 (32.0% vs 8.9%, $P < .001$) and at week 16 (67.8% vs 49.6%, $P < .001$), with 56.1% vs 36.4% of patients achieving more than or equal to 4-point itch improvement.¹¹² However, JAK inhibitors are associated with greater risk of infections (including herpes zoster and nasal and respiratory infections), acneiform eruptions, and laboratory abnormalities,^{110,111} whereas dupilumab's safety profile is dominated by conjunctivitis, local injection site reactions, and mild joint complaints, with lower risk of serious infections or systemic immunosuppression.^{70,72,73} In the context of itch as the most significant burden in AD and PN, precision targeting of IL-31 signaling provides the benefit of shorter time until maximal itch NRS response rates are achieved, alongside the generally more favorable safety profile of monoclonal antibodies vs JAK inhibitors. As evidenced by the rapid decrease in ppNRS during the first week of nemolizumab administration,^{56,65} blockade of IL31-RA and specific modulation of the NP3 sensory neuronal subset presents a powerful alternative for a significant percentage of patients. The exploration of combination therapies and patient subtype-specific approaches thus represents key areas of interest in the optimal future management of patients with severe, QoL-affecting pruritus.

Conclusion

The management of chronic pruritus presents a complex challenge. Experimental modeling of the involved sensory circuits can only be partial and heavily reliant on animal models, whereas in vivo data on disease status often need to rely on subjective self-reported measures. The advent of biological therapies, and specifically the targeting of key multifaceted molecules and their downstream pathways, has opened new avenues in the past decade. The blockade of the highly itch-related cytokine IL-31 provides an effective novel targeted therapy. However, due to the heterogeneity of molecular backgrounds within type 2 inflammation, the characterization of specific, unresponsive subpopulations still poses an ongoing challenge. Open questions remain on how the unique neuroanatomy of the epidermis—including the density, distribution, and dynamic remodeling of intraepidermal nerve fibers—contributes to the initiation and persistence of chronic pruritic states. It is yet unclear how impaired epidermal barriers might expose nerve endings to pruritogens, but also how cytokines sensitize nerves during chronic inflammation. In addition, the interplay between neuroimmune signaling and the adaptive structure of nerve endings in the skin may hold key insights into why pruritus becomes chronic and refractory, especially in T_H2 -polarized inflammatory conditions. Nevertheless, recent therapeutic developments in targeting pruritic inflammation have resulted in a dramatic improvement of the QoL of patients with AD and PN.

Disclosures

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