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1 **Effect of oral eicosapentaenoic acid on epidermal Langerhans cell numbers and PGD₂**
2 **production in UVR-exposed human skin: a randomised controlled study**

3

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11

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15

16 Keywords: Photoimmunosuppression, dendritic cells, prostaglandin D₂, omega-3 fatty acids;
17 systemic photoprotection

18 This study was registered at <http://www.clinicaltrials.gov> as NCT01032343.

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28 **Abstract**

29 Langerhans cells (LC) are sentinels of skin's immune system, their loss from epidermis
30 contributing to UVR-suppression of cell mediated immunity (CMI). Omega-3 polyunsaturated
31 fatty acids can show potential to abrogate UVR-suppression of CMI in mice and humans,
32 potentially through modulation of LC migration. Our objectives were to examine if
33 eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA) ingestion influences UV-mediated effects on epidermal LC
34 numbers and levels of immunomodulatory mediators including prostaglandin (PG)₂, which
35 is expressed by LC.

36 In a double-blind randomised controlled study, healthy individuals took 5g EPA-rich
37 (n=40) or control (n=33) lipid for 12-weeks; UVR exposed and unexposed skin samples were
38 taken pre- and post-supplementation. Epidermal LC numbers were assessed by
39 immunofluorescence for CD1a, and skin blister fluid PG and cytokines quantified by LC-
40 MS/MS and Luminex assay, respectively. Pre-supplementation, UVR reduced mean (SEM)
41 LC number/mm² from 913 (28) to 322 (40) ($p<0.001$), and mean PGD₂ level by 37% from 8.1
42 (11.6) to 5.1 (5.6) pg/μl; ($p<0.001$), while IL-8 level increased ($p<0.001$). Despite confirmation
43 of EPA bioavailability in red blood cells and skin in the active group, no between-group effect
44 of EPA was found on UVR-modulation of LC numbers, PGD₂ or cytokine levels post-
45 supplementation.

46 Thus no evidence was found for EPA abrogation of photoimmunosuppression
47 through an impact on epidermal LC numbers. Intriguingly, UVR-exposure substantially
48 reduced cutaneous PGD₂ levels in humans, starkly contrasting with reported effects of UVR
49 on other skin PG. Lowered PGD₂ levels could reflect LC loss from the epidermis and/or
50 altered dendritic cell activity, and may be relevant for phototherapy of skin disease.

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52

53 **Introduction**

54 Ultraviolet radiation (UVR) suppresses cutaneous immunity (photoimmunosuppression) and
55 this is believed to be an important contributor to the development of skin cancers [1]. In
56 addition to the mutagenic effects of UVR on DNA which initiate carcinogenesis, inhibition of
57 cell mediated immunity (CMI) can allow cancerous cells to escape destruction by cytotoxic
58 lymphocytes, facilitating tumour progression. This has been elegantly demonstrated in
59 mouse models where antigenic tumour cells were transplanted into UVR-exposed mice
60 where they were able to progress [2]. Moreover, immunosuppressed patients have a higher
61 incidence of skin malignancies [3].

62 Dendritic cells, including epidermal Langerhans cells (LC) and dermal dendritic cells
63 (DC), are antigen presenting cells (APC) and are amongst the first line of defence in the skin
64 where they facilitate innate and adaptive immunity and promote antigenic tolerance [4, 5].
65 The LC reside above the basal layer of the epidermis and monitor the skin microenvironment
66 for danger signals including pathogens, chemicals and tumour peptides. On capturing
67 antigenic material they travel along the afferent lymphatics to the skin-draining lymph nodes
68 (DLN) and activate differentiation of naïve T cells (Th-0) into T helper (Th)-1, Th-2, Th17,
69 Th22 or Treg cells [5]. Following UVR-exposure LC migrate away from the epidermis [6], and
70 their behaviour is altered, favouring activation of Th-2 immune responses and Treg cells
71 over Th-1 driven CMI [7-10]; these changes are believed to contribute to UVR-induced
72 suppression of skin immunity [11]. This can be observed clinically by diminished skin contact
73 hypersensitivity (CHS) and delayed type hypersensitivity responses to allergens following
74 UVR-exposure [12].

75 The response of LC and other dendritic cells to antigen are strongly influenced by
76 signals in the skin microenvironment. Cytokines TNF- α and IL-1 β stimulate LC migration
77 from the epidermis after exposure to antigen [13, 14], and both are upregulated in the skin in
78 response to UVR-exposure. UVR also upregulates further cytokines possessing pro-
79 inflammatory (including IL-8, IL-6 and IFN- γ) and immunosuppressive (including IL-4 and IL-

80 10) properties [15, 16]. Moreover, prostaglandins (PG) produced in the skin are reported to
81 regulate dendritic cell activity. PGE₂ can modulate LC migration and maturation in mice [17]
82 and reduces the ability of bone marrow derived dendritic cells to stimulate a CMI responses
83 following UVR-exposure [18], indicating a potential influence on antigen presenting activity
84 during photoimmunosuppression. Interestingly, it has also been reported that human LC and
85 dermal dendritic cells express hematopoietic PGD synthase (hPGDS) supporting these cells
86 as a source of PGD₂ in the skin, alongside mast cells and keratinocytes [19]. A role for PGD₂
87 in photoimmunosuppression has not been explored but in murine skin and lung epithelia
88 PGD₂ inhibits dendritic cell migration and stimulation of T cell responses [20, 21].

89 The omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty acid (n-3 PUFA) eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA)
90 reduces UVR-suppression of CMI *in vivo*; in mice, both topical and systemic EPA-rich lipids
91 reduced UVR-suppression of chemically induced CHS responses by up to 90% [22, 23].
92 Further, we recently observed in a randomised controlled trial (RCT) in humans that oral
93 EPA supplementation showed potential to reduce ~~UVR-~~ UVR-suppression of nickel CHS
94 [24]. While the mean group difference for the 3 solar simulated radiation (SSR) doses we
95 employed showed no statistically significant protection by EPA, ~50% reduction of
96 photoimmunosuppression was noted with UVR dosing equivalent to brief exposure to
97 summer sunlight (post-hoc analysis p<0.05) [24]. EPA exhibits a range of activities that may
98 contribute to protective profile, including transcriptional activation of cytokine genes and
99 modulation of PG synthesis [25]. EPA competes with the n-6 PUFA arachidonic acid (AA) for
100 metabolism by cyclooxygenase (COX) enzymes, and this can reduce the levels of AA-
101 derived PG [26].

102 In a double-blind RCT in 79 females, the objective of the current study was to explore
103 the impact of dietary EPA on epidermal LC numbers as a potential mechanism of abrogation
104 of photoimmunosuppression, and to examine for influence on levels of immunomodulatory
105 mediators. Cutaneous samples were taken from UVR-exposed and unexposed skin pre- and
106 post- a 12-week course of supplementation, with immunofluorescence assessment of
107 CD1a+ cells in epidermal sheets and quantification of PG and cytokines in blister fluid.

108 **Materials and Methods**

109 **Participants**

110 Seventy-nine healthy female volunteers were recruited from the contact dermatitis
111 investigation unit at Salford Royal Hospital, Manchester, UK and by open advertisement
112 between 2008 and 2010. Inclusion criteria: age 18-60 years, female, Fitzpatrick sun-
113 reactive skin type I or II, allergic to nickel (required for the clinical photo-
114 immunosuppression study, reported elsewhere [24]). Exclusion criteria: taking n-3 PUFA
115 supplements or photoactive medication, pregnancy or breast feeding, sunbathing or sun
116 bed use in the prior 3 months, history of photosensitivity, skin cancer or atopy. They did not
117 have active contact dermatitis at the time of the study. Written informed consent was
118 provided by all volunteers before study inclusion. Ethical approval was granted by North
119 Manchester local research ethics committee (08/H1006/30) and the study was performed
120 in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki principles (revised Seoul 2008).

121

122 **Study Design and Intervention**

123 The double-blind randomised (1:1) controlled parallel-group study took place in the
124 Photobiology Unit, Dermatology Centre, Salford Royal Hospital (Manchester, UK).
125 Treatment allocation sequence was permuted block design (mixed blocks of 4 to 6) and
126 produced by the study biostatistician using statistical software (v2.7.7; StatsDirect Ltd,
127 Altrincham, UK). Encapsulated active and control lipid supplements, identical in
128 appearance, were packaged and labeled according to the allocation sequence by GP
129 solutions Ltd (Manchester, UK), and the code held by the study biostatistician until study
130 completion. All volunteers and researchers were blinded and volunteers were assigned the
131 intervention on study enrolment and concurrently randomised to have either suction blister
132 fluid sampled for analysis of eicosanoids and cytokines or skin punch biopsies taken for
133 assessment of epidermal LC. Skin sampling was performed on both unexposed and UVR-
134 exposed skin. All volunteers provided blood samples pre- and post-supplementation and

135 compliance with supplementation was confirmed through measurement of red blood cell
136 (RBC) EPA levels (reported in [24]). The parameters assessed here were secondary
137 outcome measures in a larger clinical trial of oral EPA supplementation that primarily
138 assessed impact on clinical photoimmunosuppression (nickel CHS; reported in [24]).
139 Procedures in the different studies involved UVR-exposure to small skin areas only, at
140 separate body sites and times, with the CHS study performed post-supplementation after
141 completion of the current study. The n-3 PUFA supplements were 1g gelatine capsules
142 containing Incroomega E7010 SR ethyl ester (~70% EPA and 10% DHA; Croda Chemicals
143 Leek Ltd, Staffordshire, UK). Control supplements comprised 1g gelatine capsules of
144 identical appearance containing glyceryl tricoprylate coprate (GTCC; Croda Chemicals
145 Leek Ltd), a medium chain triglyceride found in coconut oil, and previously used as control
146 oil in human supplement studies [27-29]. Both supplements were taken 5 capsules daily
147 with breakfast for 12 weeks.

148

149 **UVR-exposure and Skin Sampling**

150 All volunteers were exposed to broadband UVR (270-400nm, peak 310nm; 44% UVB, 56%
151 UVA, 1% UVC; TL12, Philips GmbH, Hamburg, Germany or UV21, Waldmann Co., VS-
152 Schwenningen, Germany). Lamp irradiance was monitored during each exposure using
153 radiometers (Medical Physics Department, Dryburn Hospital and Waldmann IL730A,
154 International Light, Newburyport, USA) traceable to the UK National Physical Laboratory.
155 The individual's minimal erythemal dose (MED) was determined on study enrolment. Pre
156 and post-supplementation, upper buttock sites were exposed to 4x the individual's MED.
157 After 24h, skin suction blistering and skin punch biopsy were performed from UVR-
158 exposed and unexposed sites (methods as described in [30]). The 4x MED dose was
159 chosen to provide a sufficient challenge to produce quantifiable increases in cytokine and
160 eicosanoid expression in human skin *in vivo* [31, 32].

161

162

163 **Epidermal Langerhans Cell Counting**

164 Skin punch biopsies (5mm) from unexposed and UVR-exposed sites were immediately
165 placed in 0.02M ethylene diamine tetra acetic acid (EDTA) in phosphate-buffered saline
166 (PBS). After 2h incubation at 37°C, epidermis was carefully peeled from dermis using
167 forceps. Epidermal sheets were washed in PBS, fixed in ice-cold acetone (20 minutes) and
168 re-washed in PBS, prior to incubation with mouse CD1a monoclonal primary antibody
169 (clone NA1/34; IgG2a (Dako, Stockport, UK)) diluted to 10µg/ml in PBS (0.1 % bovine
170 serum albumin (BSA; Sigma-Aldrich, MO, USA) and with fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC)
171 conjugated goat anti-mouse secondary antibody (Dako; 1/100 in PBS (0.1% BSA)), before
172 mounting in Citifluor media (Citifluor, London, UK). LCs were counted using an Olympus
173 Bx50 fluorescence microscope fitted with an eyepiece graticule at 40x magnification. Fifty
174 fields per graticule were counted for each epidermal sheet.

175

176 **Suction Blister Fluid Prostaglandin Measurement**

177 Lipidomic analysis by mass spectrometry was performed as described previously [33, 34].
178 In summary, blister fluid eicosanoids (50-200µl) were extracted in methanol-water (15%
179 wt/wt) and internal standard PGB₂-d₄ (40ng) (Cayman Chemicals, Ann Arbor, MI, USA)
180 was added. The extract was acidified to pH3.0 and applied to preconditioned solid-phase
181 extraction (SPE) cartridge (C18-E 500 mg, 6 mL) (Phenomenex, Macclesfield, UK) and
182 eluted with methyl formate. Chromatographic analysis was performed on a C18 column
183 (Luna, 5µm, 2.0mm, Phenomenex, Macclesfield, UK) using HPLC (Alliance 2695, Waters,
184 Elstree, Hertfordshire, UK) coupled to a triple quadrupole mass spectrometer with
185 electrospray ionisation (ESI) (Quattro Ultima, Waters). Multiple reaction monitoring
186 transitions were used to assay for the presence of PGD₂ (*m/z* 351 >271) and its
187 metabolites PGJ₂, Δ¹²-PGJ₂ (*m/z* 333 >271) and 15-deoxy-^Δ^{12,14} PGJ₂ (*m/z* 315 >271).
188 Results are expressed as pg/µl of blister fluid, based on calibration lines constructed from
189 commercially available standards (Cayman Chemicals).

190

191 Suction Blister Fluid Cytokine Measurement

192 A panel of cytokines (IL-8, IFN- γ , TNF- α , IL-1 β , IL-4, IL-10, IL-23 and IL-17) was
193 simultaneously quantified in suction blister fluid using the Bio-Plex™ cytokine array system
194 (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA, USA) in accordance with manufacturer's instructions,
195 as described previously [35].

196 Statistical analysis

197 The study was powered to detect a difference in clinical photoimmunosuppression
198 responses between EPA and control supplemented groups, as previously detailed [24].
199 Statistical analysis was performed in SPSS 20.0. Non-normally distributed data was
200 transformed using natural log. ANCOVA analyses compared EPA and control groups post-
201 supplementation with baseline (pre-supplementation) data as the covariate. Paired t-tests
202 were performed to make within-group comparisons between unexposed and UVR-exposed
203 skin. A *p* value of <0.05 was considered statistically significant.

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218 **Results**

219 **Volunteers and compliance**

220 Seventy-nine volunteers were recruited and randomised to the oral intervention: 6 did not
221 proceed to take supplements and discontinued the study for personal reasons; no data was
222 collected from them. Of the 73 who took supplements, 33 were randomised to control and
223 40 to EPA; baseline characteristics are shown (Table 1). Baseline dietary intake assessed
224 by food frequency questionnaire was below current UK recommendations of 450mg/day total
225 long chain n-3 PUFA [36, 37]. The EPA supplement was bioavailable in both RBC and skin
226 ($p<0.001$) as previously reported [30]. Three volunteers in the EPA group (all suction blister
227 subgroup) who showed no increase in RBC EPA levels post-supplementation were excluded
228 from analyses for poor compliance (Fig 1). One individual in the EPA group declined
229 biopsies post-supplementation and data was excluded from analyses. Of the remaining 69
230 volunteers, 33 were in the control and 36 in the EPA group (Fig 1). No adverse effects were
231 reported for either supplement.

232

233 **Langerhans cells**

234 To assess the effect of UVR exposure on epidermal LC density pre-supplementation,
235 baseline data of the two supplement groups was combined. UVR challenge produced a
236 reduction of ~65% in mean (SEM) LC number in the epidermis at 24 hours post-exposure,
237 from 920 (28) to 318 (39) per mm^2 ($p<0.001$) (Fig 2A). Following supplementation, the UVR-
238 induced reduction in LC number was similar to baseline for both control (881 (46) to 218 (44)
239 cells per mm^2 ; $p<0.001$) and EPA group (856 (55) to 191 (26) cells per mm^2 ; $p<0.001$),
240 decreases of 75% and 78%, respectively (Fig 2A). There was no significant difference in
241 epidermal LC numbers between control and EPA groups post-supplementation, in
242 unexposed or UVR-exposed skin. Visualisation of LC in epidermal sheets revealed that
243 following UVR the majority of LC lost their dendritic projections and appeared in a more
244 rounded, migratory form. There was no apparent effect of EPA on LC morphology (Fig 2B) in
245 unexposed or UVR-exposed skin.

246

247 Prostaglandin production

248 PGD₂ and its metabolites PGJ₂, Δ¹²-PGJ₂ and 15-deoxy-Δ^{12,14} PGJ₂ were measured in skin
249 blister fluid to explore impact of UVR and EPA; Δ¹²-PGJ₂ was detected but below the limit of
250 quantitation and 15-deoxy-Δ^{12,14} PGJ₂ was below limit of detection. At baseline, data from
251 both supplement groups was combined to examine effect of UVR exposure.

252

253 *PGD₂*: At baseline, median (IQR) PGD₂ was decreased in UVR-exposed versus unexposed
254 skin (from 8.1 (11.6) pg/μl to 5.1 (5.6) pg/μl; *p*<0.001) (Fig 3A). Post-supplementation,
255 control group PGD₂ level was similarly decreased in UVR-exposed versus unexposed skin
256 (from 8.6 (6.3) to 4.1 (4.7) pg/μl; *p*<0.01). In contrast in the EPA group post-
257 supplementation, no statistically significant reduction in PGD₂ occurred post-UVR.
258 Comparison of groups post-supplementation revealed that in unexposed skin PGD₂ was
259 ~40% lower in the EPA-unexposed versus control group (5.2 (4.8) vs 8.6 (6.3) non-
260 significant), while in UVR-exposed skin, levels were similar (4.0 (5.3) vs 4.1 (4.7) pg/μl in
261 control group).

262

263 *PGJ₂*: At baseline, PGJ₂ was significantly increased in UVR-exposed versus unexposed skin
264 (from 1.2 (1.3) to 2.1 (2.0); *p*<0.05) (Fig 3B). Post-supplementation small apparent increases
265 in PGJ₂ were seen in UVR-exposed skin in control and EPA groups (non-significant). There
266 were no significant differences in PGJ₂ levels between control and EPA groups post-
267 supplementation.

268

269 Cytokine expression

270 Of the panel of cytokines assessed, IL-10, TNFα and IL-8 were quantifiable. Whilst IFN-γ
271 was detected, levels were below the limit of quantitation, and IL-1β, IL-4, IL-17 and IL-23
272 were not detected. Due to low blister fluid volumes, five individuals (two in EPA group and
273 three in control group) were excluded from cytokine analyses, resulting in n=16 for the

274 control and n=15 for the EPA group. IL-10 levels for two individuals in the control group were
275 out of range and excluded, resulting in n=14 in the control group. Baseline data for EPA and
276 control groups were combined to assess effect of UVR on cytokine levels pre-
277 supplementation.

278

279 *IL-8*: At baseline, median (IQR) IL-8 increased in UVR-exposed versus unexposed skin
280 (791.9 (798.9) vs 238.1 (314) pg/ml; $p < 0.001$; Fig 3D). Similarly, post-supplementation, a
281 statistically significant UVR-induced rise in IL-8 was seen in the control group (from 162.3
282 (304.2) to 827.1 (443) pg/ml; $p < 0.001$) and EPA group (from 244.5 (277.3) to 591.7 (970.9)
283 pg/ml; $p < 0.01$). There was no significant difference in IL-8 concentration in unexposed or
284 UVR-exposed skin in control versus treatment groups post-supplementation.

285

286 *IL-10*: At baseline, median (IQR) IL-10 concentration apparently increased following UVR
287 exposure, but this was not statistically significant (82 (153) vs 68.3 (142) pg/ml; Fig 3E).
288 Similarly post-supplementation, there was an apparent increase in IL-10 concentration post-
289 UVR in the control (90.3 (142) vs 79.6 (98) pg/ml) and EPA groups (95.8 (148) vs 70 (115)
290 pg/ml). There was no significant difference in IL-10 concentration in unexposed or UVR-
291 exposed skin when comparing control and EPA groups post-supplementation.

292

293 *TNF α* : At baseline, median (IQR) TNF α concentration was not significantly altered in UVR-
294 exposed versus unexposed skin (67.2 (98.5) pg/ml vs 57.7 (101.8) pg/ml) at baseline (Fig
295 3F). Post-supplementation, there were apparent rises in TNF α in UVR-exposed versus
296 unexposed skin, in control (84.8 (107.2) vs 54.7 (139.7)) and EPA (88.1 (149.9) vs 36.6
297 (66.2)) groups (both non-significant). There was no significant difference in TNF α
298 concentration in unexposed or UVR-exposed skin when comparing control and EPA groups
299 post-supplementation.

300

301 Discussion

302 In this study UVR exposure of human skin *in vivo* at baseline (pre-supplementation)
303 significantly reduced epidermal LC density and altered the morphology of remaining LC, in
304 association with a notable reduction in PGD₂. This significant UVR impact on PGD₂
305 production (Fig 3A) is in stark contrast to the well-described increase in skin PGE₂ and other
306 eicosanoids examined following UVR-exposure to humans *in vivo* [30, 31], and this could
307 have implications for health, including during sun-exposure and for the phototherapy of skin
308 disorders. The subsequent investigation of the impact of 12 weeks EPA supplementation
309 employed a robust study design and adequate sample size, and importantly, oral EPA
310 compliance and skin bioavailability was demonstrated in these volunteers [24, 30]. No
311 impact of EPA supplementation versus control was found on epidermal LC numbers, either
312 in unexposed or UVR-exposed skin, and hence we found no evidence that EPA abrogates
313 UVR-suppression of skin immunity through this mechanism in humans.

314 UVR induced loss of LC from the epidermis contributes to local UVR-induced
315 immunosuppression of the skin, which is partially mediated through induction of T-reg [11].
316 Langerhans cell loss from the epidermis can be stimulated by a range of UVR doses, with
317 LC cell density and size reduction occurring in a UVR-dose dependent manner [38, 39]. We
318 observed a notable reduction in epidermal LC number of ~65% following a pro-inflammatory
319 (4xMED) UVR exposure. This magnitude of response is in line with a previous report in
320 human skin, where LC apoptosis in the epidermis was barely detectable after a very high
321 (6xMED) UVR challenge, while migration was observed [6], supporting that the UVR-induced
322 epidermal loss of LC observed in our study could be due to migration. The current study
323 provides substantially the largest dataset to-date examining UVR-induced reduction in LC
324 number in human epidermis. Consistent with previous observations [40, 41], notable inter-
325 subject variation was seen in LC numbers under all treatment conditions.

326 While most skin blister fluid cytokines assessed in our study were below the assay
327 detection limit, the chemokine IL-8 showed a large induction in response to UVR-exposure,
328 in keeping with previous studies [16, 32]. TNF- α and IL- β are key cytokines involved in LC

329 mobilisation following exposure to UVR [13, 42], however, IL-1 β was not detected and while
330 TNF- α was present, no significant UVR-induced increase was found in blister fluid. A major
331 source of UVR-induced TNF- α is purported to be basal keratinocytes [43], where UVR-
332 induced nuclear DNA damage may stimulate its release [44]. The dermal neutrophil infiltrate,
333 which is reported to peak from 14 hours post-UVR may also contribute to TNF α increase
334 [45]. The immunosuppressive cytokine IL-10 inhibits dendritic cell IFN- γ production and
335 initiation of CMI responses and induces tolerance [46-48]. In UVR-irradiated human skin, IL-
336 10 is reported to be preferentially induced in infiltrating CD11b+ macrophages which peak in
337 the dermis during the first 24 hours and in epidermis at 72 hours [49]; as blister fluid is
338 primarily of epidermal origin [34] this might contribute to lack of significant IL-10 increase
339 observed in this study. No effect of EPA on cytokine levels was observed. A 24 hour post-
340 UVR time point was selected as the most appropriate for assessing cytokines and
341 prostaglandins simultaneously [16, 31], however, other time points might reveal differences.

342 We previously reported the skin PGE₂ level in this group of individuals was
343 augmented at 24 hours post UVR challenge [30]. PGE₂ stimulates IL-10 production in mouse
344 and human model systems, favouring a Th2 response, Treg activation and immune-
345 suppression [15, 50, 51]. In contrast to the 127% rise in PGE₂, we found skin PGD₂ levels in
346 the same volunteers were significantly reduced by 37% after UVR-exposure (Fig 3C). PGD₂
347 is associated with allergic inflammatory disorders in the respiratory tract [52] and skin [53],
348 including mast cell disorders [54] and atopic dermatitis [55, 56], and has potential relevance
349 to the novel treatment of other conditions featuring raised cutaneous PGD₂, including hair-
350 loss [57]. PGD₂ differentially regulates T cell responses via two receptors; the DP1 receptor
351 mediates inhibition of Th1 functions, while the DP2 (CRTH2) receptor promotes Th2 activity
352 [58]. In inflammatory skin disorders the contrasting effect of acute UVR exposure on PGD₂
353 and PGE₂ may contribute to the therapeutic effects of phototherapy. Increased levels of the
354 PGD₂ dehydration product, PGJ₂, in UVR-exposed skin is also interestingly, as J ring

355 metabolites, in particular 15-deoxy- $\Delta^{12,14}$ -PGJ₂, reportedly exert anti-inflammatory effects
356 [59]. Further assessment of these metabolites in cutaneous inflammation could be valuable.

357 In human skin, LC, mast cells and dermal dendritic cells are primary sources of PGD₂
358 [19]. Post UVR-exposure of human skin, mast cell infiltration and degranulation occurs as
359 early as 4 hours post-challenge, but by 24 hours mast cell numbers and activity have
360 returned to normal [60], while epidermal LC are depleted. We propose that the UVR-
361 reduction in cutaneous PGD₂ could partially reflect loss of LC from the epidermis. This is
362 supported by our observation of no UVR-induced PGD₂ reduction in human primary
363 keratinocytes and fibroblasts (unpublished data), or in the dermal fraction of human skin [61].
364 In mice ageing-associated increases in local PGD₂ correlate with impaired migration of
365 respiratory DC, and antagonism of the DP1 receptor restores migration [16]. Constitutive
366 levels of PGD₂ may provide an inhibitory signal to migration which can be downregulated by
367 UVR. While we did not find an effect of EPA on PGD₂ levels in UVR-exposed skin, an
368 apparent fall in unexposed skin compared to control (Fig 3A) was consistent with *in vitro*
369 findings of EPA reduction of PGD₂ production in niacin-stimulated human LC [62].

370 Our recently reported assessment of a clinical CHS end-point in the same volunteers
371 suggested that 12 weeks oral EPA supplementation has the potential to reduce UVR-
372 suppression of nickel CHS [24]. However, we have found EPA to have no impact on LC
373 number in unexposed and UVR-exposed skin when compared to the control group, when
374 using a high UVR-dose sufficient to produce a measurable increase in PG [30, 31] Thus, our
375 study did not support the mediation of immune-protective effects of EPA by changes in the
376 numbers of epidermal LC, although it is conceivable there may still have been changes in LC
377 activity. EPA may potentially exhibit greater protection with UVR at lower doses or different
378 spectra. This could be addressed in future studies, alongside examination of impact on other
379 DC subsets as understanding of their significance in human skin immunity becomes better
380 understood.

381 In conclusion, our double blind RCT did not find evidence for an impact of oral EPA
382 on UVR-induced reduction of epidermal LC. The significant UVR-induced fall in PGD₂ level

383 may have an immunomodulatory effect of relevance to the phototherapy of skin disease, and
384 warrants further investigation.

385

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393 supplying the active and control lipid supplements and GP solutions Ltd for packaging the
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395

396 Conflict of Interests

397 The authors have no conflicts of interest.

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583 **Table 1. Baseline characteristics of participants.**

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Characteristic	Control	EPA
Age (yrs) (median (range))	45 (22-60)	43 (21-60)
BMI ¹ (Kg/m ²) (mean (SD))	25.9 (4.4)	27.8 (5.3)
Skin type ² (no./total (%))		
<i>I</i>	2/33 (6)	6/40 (15)
<i>II</i>	31/33 (94)	34/40 (85)
HRT/OCP ³ (no./total (%))	2/33 (6)	6/40 (15)

585 ¹ BMI data from n=31 in the EPA group and n=31 in the control group586 ² Fitzpatrick skin type classification: *I*- always burns, never tans, *II*- usually burns, tans with
587 difficulty588 ³ Hormone replacement therapy/ oral contraceptive pill

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592 **Figure legends**

593

594 **Fig 1. Flow diagram of study design and participants.**

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596 **Fig 2. UVR induces LC loss from epidermis but EPA supplementation has no impact**

597 **on epidermal LC numbers.** (A) LC count (mean) per mm² of epidermis and (B) images of

598 CD1a positive LC in epidermal sheets in unexposed (open circles) and UVR-exposed skin

599 (closed circles) at baseline (n=30) and post-supplementation (control n=12, EPA n=18);

600 *** $p < 0.001$ (scale bar 50 μ m).

601

602 **Fig 3. UVR reduces PGD₂ and increases IL-8 level in skin blister fluid.**

603 Concentration (median) of (A) PGD₂, and (B) its metabolite PGJ₂ in skin blister fluid taken

604 from unexposed (open circles) and UVR-exposed (closed circles) skin at baseline (n=36)

605 and post-supplementation (control n=19, EPA n=17); * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$. (C) % change in

606 PGD₂ in UVR-exposed skin in comparison with UVR-induced % change in PGE₂ [24], in skin

607 blister fluid at baseline (n=36). Concentration of (D) IL-8, (E) IL-10 and (F) TNF- α in skin

608 blister fluid taken from unexposed (open circles) and UVR-exposed (closed circles) skin at

609 baseline (n=31) and post-supplementation (control n=16 (IL-10 n=14), EPA n=15); * $p < 0.05$,

610 ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$.

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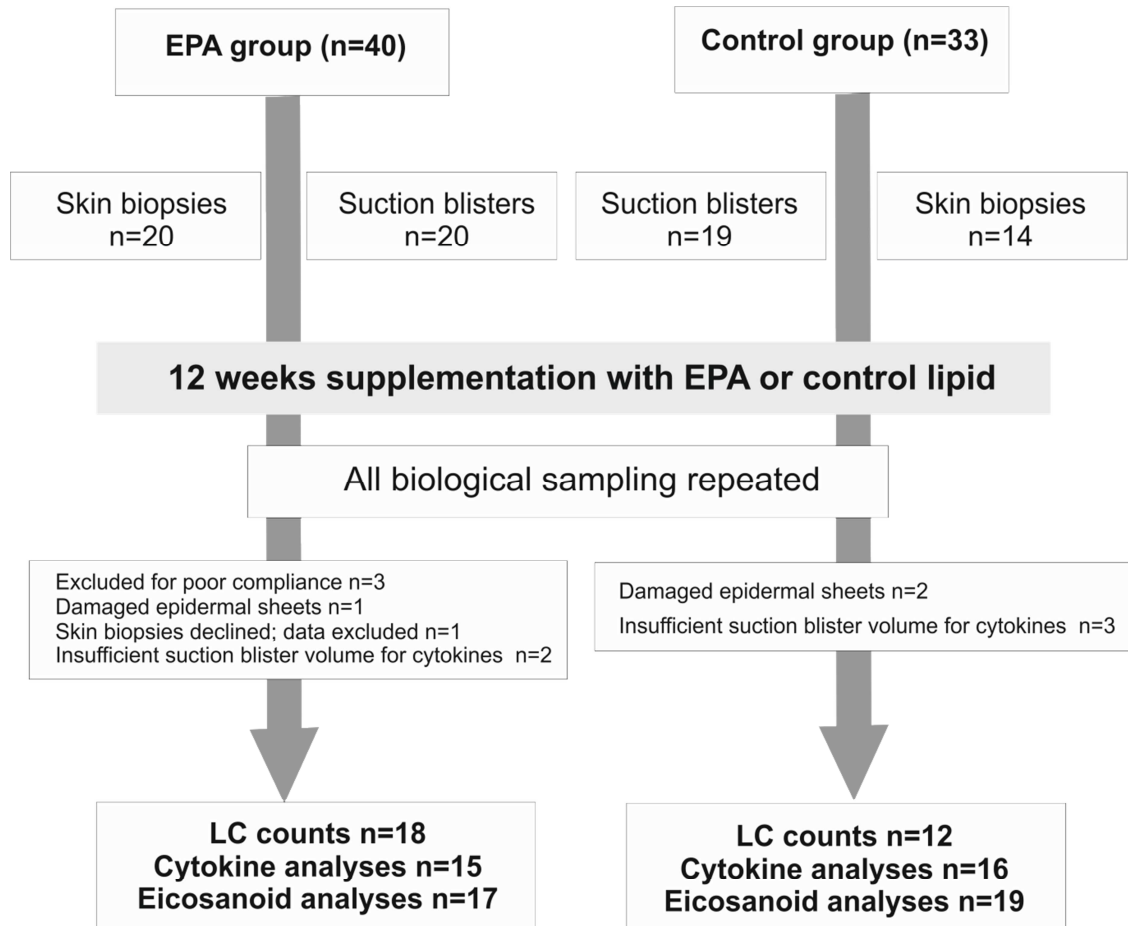
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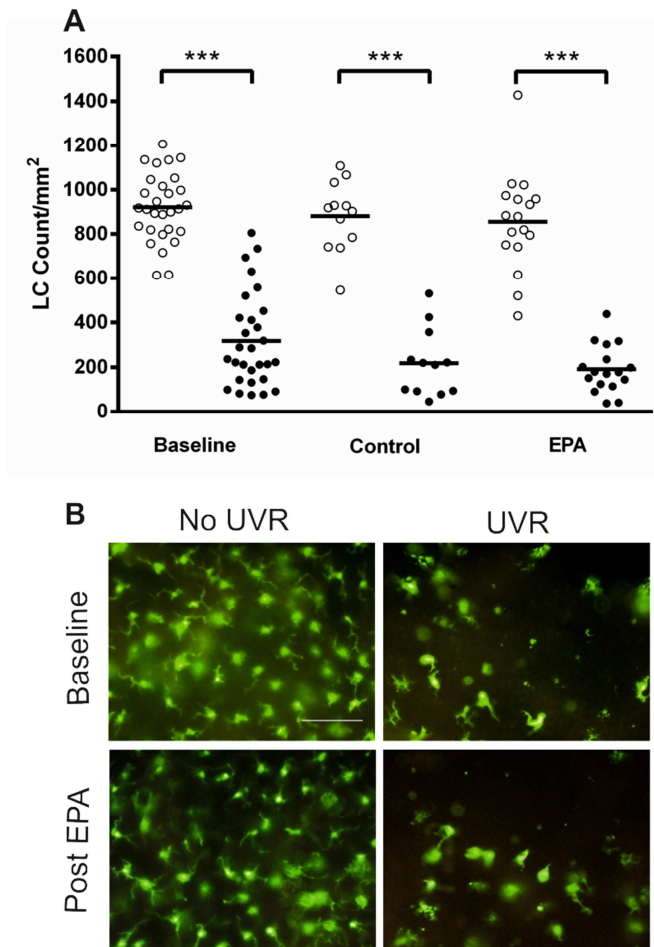
620 **Fig 1.**

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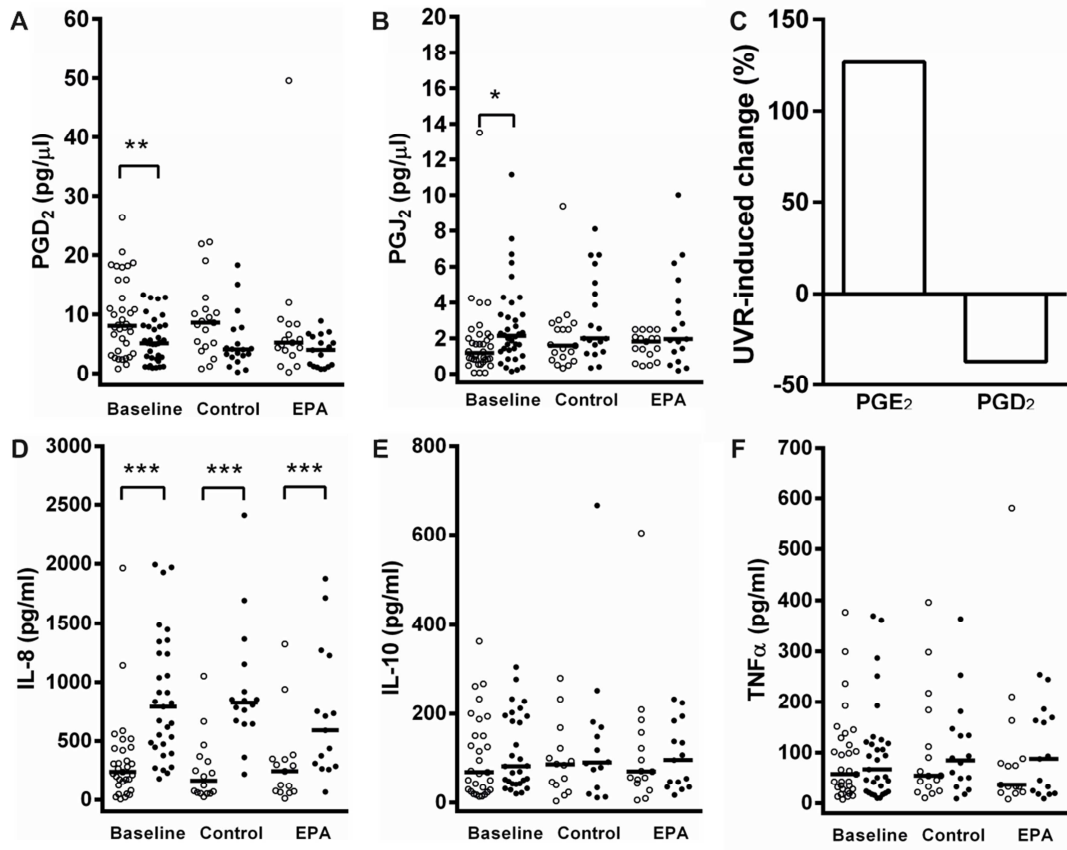
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641 **Fig 2.**
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664 **Fig 3.**
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