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1 Newborn and elderly skin: two fragile skins at higher risk of

2 pressure injury

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15 ABSTRACT

- Skin is a key organ maintaining internal homeostasis by performing many functions such as
- water loss prevention, body temperature regulation and protection from noxious substance
- absorption, microorganism intrusion and physical trauma. Skin ageing has been well studied
- and it is well known that physiological changes in the elderly result in higher skin fragility
- favouring the onset of skin diseases. For example, prolonged and/or high-intensity pressure
- 21 may suppress local blood flow more easily, disturbing cell metabolism and inducing pressure
- injury (PI) formation. Pressure injuries (PIs) represent a significant problem worldwide and
- their prevalence remains too high. A higher PI prevalence is correlated with an elderly
- 24 population. Newborn skin evolution has been less studied, but some data also report a higher

PI prevalence in this population compared to older children, and several authors also consider

this skin as physiologically fragile. In this review, we compare the characteristics of newborn and elderly skin in order to determine common features that may explain their fragility, especially regarding PI risk. We show that, despite differences in appearance, they share many common features leading to higher fragility to shear and pressure forces, not only at the structural level but also at the cellular and molecular level and in terms of physiology. Both newborn and elderly skin have: (1) a thinner epidermis; (2) a thinner dermis containing a lessresistant collagen network, a higher collagen III:collagen I ratio and less elastin; (3) a flatter dermal-epidermal junction (DEJ) with lower anchoring systems; and (4) a thinner hypodermis, resulting in lower mechanical resistance to skin damage when pressure or shear forces are applied. At the molecular level, reduced expression of transforming growth factor β (TGFβ) and its receptor TGFβ receptor II (TβRII) is involved in the decreased production and/or increased degradation of various dermal extracellular matrix (ECM) components. Epidermal fragility also involves a higher skin pH which decreases the activity of key enzymes inducing ceramide deficiency and reduced barrier protection. This seems to be correlated with higher PI prevalence in some situations. Some data also suggest that stratum corneum (SC) dryness, which may disturb cell metabolism, also increases the risk of PI formation. Besides this structural fragility, several skin functions are also less efficient. Low applied pressures induce skin vessel vasodilation via a mechanism called pressure-induced vasodilation (PIV). Individuals lacking a normal PIV response show an early decrease in cutaneous blood flow in response to the application of very low pressures, reflecting vascular fragility of the skin that increases the risk of ulceration. Due to changes in endothelial function, skin PIV ability decreases during skin ageing, putting it at higher risk of PI formation. In newborns, some data lead us to hypothesize that the nitric oxide (NO) pathway is not fully functional at birth, which may partly explain the higher risk of PI formation in

newborns. In the elderly, a lower PIV ability results from impaired functionality of skin innervation, in particular that of C-fibres which are involved in both touch and pain sensation and the PIV mechanism. In newborns, skin sensitivity differs from adults due to nerve system immaturity, but the role of this in PIV remains to be determined. Key words: pressure injury, pressure ulcer, newborn skin, elderly skin, skin ageing, fragile skin, skin integrity. **CONTENTS** I. Introduction II. Common structural features of newborn and elderly skin (1) Infant and elderly skin: thickness and fragility (2) Infant and elderly skin: a respectively immature and altered dermal–epidermal junction (DEJ) (a) Features of the DEJ in infant and elderly skin (b) A specific molecular network in the DEJ of infant and elderly skin (3) Dermal cells and extracellular matrix (ECM) (a) Dermis thickness (b) Fibroblast and ECM evolution (i) Fibroblast evolution over time (ii) A more fragile collagen network (iii) Lower skin elasticity (c) A key role of transforming growth factor beta (TGFβ) signalling (4) Infant and elderly skin vasculature

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88	I. INTRODUCTION
89	Skin is a dynamic and complex organ forming the interface between the body and the exter
90	environment. Its main function is to maintain internal homeostasis by preventing water loss
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Skin is a dynamic and complex organ forming the interface between the body and the external environment. Its main function is to maintain internal homeostasis by preventing water loss or regulating body temperature and to provide protection from noxious substance absorption, microorganism intrusion and physical trauma. It also mediates the sense of touch and plays a role in hormone production and social communication (Rittié & Fisher, 2015).

Many extrinsic factors can disrupt skin homeostasis, including the application of prolonged and/or high-intensity pressure which may induce pressure ulcers (PUs), recently redefined and renamed pressure injuries (PIs) by the National Pressure Injury Advisory Panel (NPIAP) (Edsberg *et al.*, 2016; Gefen *et al.*, 2020).

Despite increased attention and a focus on prevention, PI prevalence remains very high, in

particular in intensive care units (ICUs), representing a significant problem worldwide. A

recent study involving 13,254 adult patients in 1,117 ICUs from 90 countries revealed a total prevalence of 26.6%, ranging from 13.8 to 28.9% depending on the continent, with an ICUacquired prevalence of 16.2%, ranging from 9.1% to 22.8% (Labeau et al., 2021). To our knowledge, no such comprehensive study has been conducted in the paediatric population and data for this age group remain scarce. However, a systematic review, including 21 studies concerning subjects aged <21 years old, recently reported a hospital-acquired prevalence ranging from 0.47% to 31.2% with a pooled prevalence and cumulative incidence respectively estimated at 7% and 14.9% (Triantafyllou et al., 2021). Although these data cannot be compared because ICU patients are at greater risk of developing PIs than other hospital patients, they show that PIs can affect people of all ages. PIs are often correlated with advanced age and many studies concerning adult populations identified age as a factor increasing PI prevalence (Amlung, Miller & Bosley, 2001; Manzano et al., 2010; Cox, 2011; O'Brien et al., 2014; Nassaji, Askari & Ghorbani, 2014; Tayyib, Coler & Lewis, 2016; Labeau et al., 2021). Fewer data are available for the paediatric population (Bernabe, 2012; Luton et al., 2017; Triantafyllou et al., 2021) and they show highly variable results depending on the study (Jackson et al., 2019; Triantafyllou et al., 2021), although some data suggest that PI prevalence is age dependent with the observed prevalence higher for the youngest children. For example, Fujii et al. (2010) reported a prevalence of 16% for children under 1 month old, also called newborns or neonates according to the National Library of Medicine, versus 2.5% for all ages in Japanese hospitals. Schlüer, Halfens & Schols (2012) found in paediatric ICUs (PICUs) a prevalence of 43% for children under 1 year old, also called infants, versus 31% for children of more than 12 years and Triantafyllou et al. (2021) reported an estimated pooled prevalence of 27% among neonates, 19.2% among infants and 12.3% for children older than 1 year. In neonatal ICUs (NICUs), incidence and severity are inversely proportional to birth weight and gestational age

(Fischer et al., 2010). However, many factors (lack of mobility, nutritional status, length of hospitalization, care practices, medical devices used, etc.) may vary among populations or among hospitals that could modulate PI incidence (August et al., 2014; NPUAP, EPUAP & PPIAP, 2014; Edsberg et al., 2016; EPUAP, NPIAP & PPIAP, 2019; Gefen et al., 2020), meaning that comparisons must be made with caution. Overall, the data do suggest that elderly people among the adult population and newborns among the paediatric population are more at risk of PI formation. PIs are thought to be formed when blood and lymphatic vessels collapse under external pressure (Graff, Bryant & Beinlich, 2000; Grey, Harding & Enoch, 2006; Coleman et al., 2014). This reduces cell nutrition, oxygenation and waste elimination, leading to a gradual progression of damage. Moreover, during the unloading reperfusion phase, the release of harmful oxygen free radicals may exacerbate such damage (Coleman et al., 2014; EPUAP, NPIAP & PPIAP, 2019). More recent studies have revealed that high and sudden pressure leading to sudden cell and tissue deformation can also contribute directly to rapid deterioration, both in skin (or mucosa) and underlying tissues (Coleman et al., 2014; Oomens et al., 2015; EPUAP, NPIAP & PPIAP, 2019). These different injury mechanisms can interact to induce various impacts. Cell deformation, inflammation and/or ischemia and reperfusion damage can form a vicious circle as described by Gefen (2018) and Gefen & Soppi (2020). This leads to PI formation beginning either at the skin or mucosa level or in deeper tissues (Loerakker et al., 2011; Oomens et al., 2015; EPUAP, NPIAP & PPIAP, 2019). From the most recent EPUAP/NPIAP/PPPIAP guideline (EPUAP, NPIAP & PPIAP, 2019), PI is defined as "a localized damage to the skin and/or underlying tissue" that appears "as a result of intense and/or prolonged pressure or pressure in combination with shear" and that PIs "usually occur over a bony prominence but may also be related to a medical device or other object." (EPUAP, NPIAP & PPPIAP, 2019, p. 16; Kottner et al., 2019). Thus, PI

formation and severity depend both on the mechanical load characteristics (pressure or pressure and shear duration, intensity, etc.) and the tolerance/resistance of the soft tissue (Coleman et al., 2014). A lack of mobility and activity, often observed in preterm neonates or very old people and correlated with poor sensory perception in some cases, increases pressure duration and hence the risk of PI formation. The use of some medical devices, often used in ICUs and exerting locally high and/or prolonged pressures, is also well known to increase the risk of PI formation (NPUAP, EPUAP & PPIAP, 2014; Edsberg et al., 2016; EPUAP, NPIAP & PPIAP, 2019; Gefen et al., 2020). PI formation also depends on tissue tolerance modulated by many extrinsic and intrinsic factors such as skin moisture, nutrition, perfusion and cell oxygenation (Braden & Bergstrom 1987; Coleman et al., 2014; Schlüer, Schols & Halfens, 2014; EPUAP, NPIAP & PPIAP, 2019), microclimate, temperature, or comorbidities (Coleman et al., 2014; EPUAP, NPIAP & PPIAP, 2019). These factors exert an effect on the structure and/or the properties of the skin and underlying tissues, thus modulating their ability to resist pressure and repair damage (Braden & Bergstrom, 1987; Coleman et al., 2014). Obviously, intrinsic factors such as age or genetic background also define tissue mechanical properties and physiology, influencing the risk of PI formation (Coleman et al., 2014; EPUAP, NPIAP & PPIAP, 2019). Given the higher prevalence of PIs in both elderly and newborn skin, we can speculate whether there are common skin characteristics that could explain a lower resistance to pressure in these two skin types. This review compares the structure of the different parts of newborn and elderly skin, taking into account their evolution over time, and some biological mechanisms directly or indirectly involved in skin resistance to pressure and shear. As PIs are mainly formed in areas not exposed to the sun (Labeau et al., 2021), we only considered intrinsic ageing. We

also focused on the skin and PIs that begin at the skin level, not on deep tissue injuries initiated below skin level.

II. COMMON STRUCTURAL FEATURES OF NEWBORN AND ELDERLY SKIN

The protective function of the skin is based on the existence of three layers: epidermis, dermis and hypodermis. Table 1 provides a comparison of skin structure and barrier functionality in the skin of newborns, young adults and the elderly.

(1) Infant and elderly skin: thickness and fragility

The exterior of the epidermis mainly consists of keratinocytes which proliferate in the deepest layer (basal layer) and differentiate progressively while migrating upwards through the stratum spinosum, the stratum granulosum and the stratum corneum (SC) (Fig. 1). The SC consists of metabolically inactive and protein-enriched keratinocytes, called corneocytes, tightly linked by corneodesmosomes and embedded in a lipid-rich extracellular matrix (Elias, Goerke & Friend, 1977; Proksch, Brandner & Jensen, 2008). Despite its thinness (7–35 µm) (Telofski et al., 2012), the SC constitutes the main physical barrier of the skin, preventing water loss and noxious substance or microorganism entry (Proksch et al., 2008; Elias et al., 2010; Blume-Peytavi et al., 2016). Melanocytes, which produce melanin which protects skin against ultraviolet (UV) radiation, and dendritic cells, which participate actively in the immune response, are also present. The epidermis does not contain blood vessels and therefore depends on the dermis for its nutrition. The skin barrier appears in utero. From weeks 22–24, a stratified and keratinized epithelium is formed (Coolen et al., 2010) and a thick and well-developed epidermis emerges at 34 weeks of gestation with a functional SC and dermal-epidermal junction (DEJ) undulations (Evans & Rutter, 1986; Telofski et al., 2012; Visscher et al., 2015). SC development seems to

reach complete maturity between 30 and 37 weeks of pregnancy (Fluhr et al., 2010; Telofski et al., 2012). It allows little or no drug percutaneous absorption in full-term infants (Harpin & Rutter, 1983) and prevents full-term neonate dehydration at birth as demonstrated by transepidermal water loss (TEWL) analysis. Indeed, increased or decreased TEWL is respectively associated with skin barrier dysfunction or an intact skin barrier. Although many factors can modulate TEWL, a systematic review concluded that full-term newborn TEWL is either similar to or lower than in adults, depending on skin area (Ludriksone et al., 2014). For this reason, some authors consider infant skin as fully mature at birth. Nevertheless, several studies revealed a continuous maturation of the skin after birth. Pulsed ultrasound was used to show a linear increase in skin thickness up to the age of 20 years (Tan et al., 1982) and a progressive increase of epidermis thickness after birth (Evans & Rutter, 1986). A comparison of infant skin (3–24 months of age) with that of their mother (25–43 years of age) found the thickness of the infant epidermis and SC to be 20% and 30% thinner, respectively, than in adults (Stamatas et al., 2010). This finding is consistent with the slight increase in the number of SC layers reported for back and cheek skin between birth and adulthood (Ya Xian, Suetaki & Tagami, 1999). A recent in vivo study used high-frequency ultrasound imaging to identify a lower epidermal thickness (mean of 0.081 mm for extended forearm; 0.083 mm for thigh) in <24 h-old newborns (Przybysz et al., 2021) than in adults (0.132 mm for inner forearm; 0.147 mm for outer forearm; 0.125 mm for cheek; 0.143 mm for chin) (Mlosek et al., 2011, 2013). These values were obtained by the same researchers with the same methods and for similar Caucasian populations, while another study recorded a thickness of 0.108 mm or 0.090 mm for an adult forearm depending on the arm position (90° flexion or 180° extension, respectively) using optical coherence tomography (Maiti et al., 2016). Such data indeed suggest that newborn epidermis is thinner than adult epidermis.

At the cellular level and considering the cell surface area, infant cornecytes were found to be 20% and granular cells 10% smaller than those of adults indicating a more rapid cell turnover (Stamatas et al., 2010) which is highlighted in vivo by greater desquamation (Hoeger & Enzman, 2002). According to Michel et al. (1996, 1997) this may be correlated with a higher stem cell number. Taking into account current knowledge concerning stem cell evolution during skin ageing (Giangreco et al., 2008, 2010; Charruyer et al., 2009; Keyes et al., 2013), we can also hypothesize a higher proliferative ability of those stem cells which may explain the well-known more rapid amplification of human newborn primary keratinocytes observed in 2D cultures. Infant cornecytes have also been shown to be thicker (in height) than those of adults and detailed three-dimensional morphometry using atomic force microscopy highlighted that although adult corneceytes are flatter than in infants, the total volume remains statistically similar between the two groups (Kashibuchi et al., 2002). Another study performed in Japan using confocal laser scanning microscopy reported a decrease in SC thickness over the 3 months after birth and an increase of epidermis thickness during the first month after birth. This study identified no difference between adult skin and infants older than 3 months (Miyauchi et al., 2016). Despite newborn epidermis being thinner than in young adults, a recent systematic study using histological data highlighted the paucity of data, significant differences between sampling sites, and technical problems that limit data reliability (de Souza et al., 2019). As contradictions among results may be linked to inaccurate measurements, skin anatomical region or ethnic origin, further investigations using precise measurement tools, large sample sizes and including various skin anatomical regions and subjects of recorded ethnic origins are needed. This would allow us to describe and understand skin modifications better, the underlying mechanisms that take place after birth, and would enable a more accurate assessment of newborn skin fragility.

For preterm babies, skin immaturity is highlighted by a transparent, reddish and gelatinous appearance (Razmus, Lewis & Wilson, 2008). The epidermis is significantly thinner (Razmus et al., 2008; Przybysz et al., 2021) than in young adults. The SC and the underlying epidermal layers change during pregnancy: there is virtually no SC at 23–24 weeks gestational age (GA), 2–3 layers at 30 weeks (Razmus et al., 2008) and 16 layers in young adults (Fairley & Rasmussen, 1983; Holbrook, 2000). Evans & Rutter (1986) reported a mean \pm SD of 2.9 \pm 0.5 cell layers from the epidermal basal layer to the granular layer in preterm neonates compared with 4.3±0.7 cell layers in full-term neonates. It takes 2–8 weeks for preterm neonates to develop a functional epidermis similar to that of full-term infants, depending on their degree of prematurity (Fox, 2011). Recent studies have correlated epidermis thickness to both gestational age and body mass (Przybysz et al., 2021) and have even proposed epidermis thickness as a marker of gestational age to assess prematurity (Vitral et al., 2018). This poor epidermal barrier makes preterm infants susceptible to increased water loss, higher permeability to exogenous materials and a higher risk of skin damage and infection during the first weeks following birth (Harpin & Rutter, 1983; Evans & Rutter, 1986; Neidig, Kleier & Oppliger, 1989; Cartlidge, 2000; Lund & Osborne, 2004; Fox, 2011; Blume-Peytavi et al., 2012). During human skin ageing, thinning of the skin is observed, with a linear decrease in skin thickness in vivo with age (Tan et al., 1982). Clinically, chronologically aged skin appears thin, dry, and finely wrinkled (Rittié & Fisher, 2015). Ex vivo studies have confirmed this thinning: Xu et al. (2017) reviewed 16 studies of epidermal thickness by mean age and found an average of 75.03 µm for ages 0-60 compared to 45.56 µm for ages 60 and older. This thinning is due to a decrease in epidermal turnover which has been correlated by some authors to reduced cell proliferation and stem cell number (Kligman, 1979; Michel et al., 1997; Stamatas et al., 2006). However, this remains controversial as other studies have reported a

decreased proliferative capacity but a constant stem cell number in mouse skin until the end of life (Giangreco *et al.*, 2008; Charruyer *et al.*, 2009; Keyes *et al.*, 2013). According to Giangreco *et al.* (2010), the cell density in the epidermal basal layer also decreases during human skin ageing. Moreover, expression levels of two stem cell markers of human interfollicular epidermis – β1 integrin and melanoma chondroitin sulfate proteoglycan (MCSP) – are lower in people >60 years old (Giangreco *et al.*, 2010). This implies either a decrease in stem cell number or a reduction in the activation or proliferation potential of stem cells, but further studies are needed. The SC remains functional (Kligman, 1979; Lavker, Zheng & Dong, 1989; Lavker, 1995; Newton *et al.*, 2017), allowing maintenance of a TEWL similar to or lower than that of young adults (Akdeniz *et al.*, 2018*a*). Its thickness has been reported to be similar or slightly higher than in young adults, depending on body area and study (Waller & Maibach, 2005; Rawlings, 2017) (Fig. 1, Table 1).

(2) Infant and elderly skin: a respectively immature and altered dermal-epidermal

junction (DEJ)

The DEJ is a specific zone forming more or less marked undulations and where the epidermis is tightly associated to the dermis due to the hemidesmosomes of basal keratinocytes, the anchoring filaments linking the hemidesmosomes to the basement membrane, and the anchoring fibrils connecting the basement membrane to the underlying dermis (Ellison & Garrod, 1984; Villone *et al.*, 2008). This structure plays an important part in skin cohesion, resistance and homeostasis. The DEJ also prevents direct contact between the dermis and epidermis or epidermal migration into the dermis and therefore controls the numerous exchanges between the dermis and epidermis (including nutrients and signalling molecules) (Amano, 2016). Moreover, the DEJ maintains the proliferative state of the basal layer and determines the polarity of the epidermis (Amano, 2016).

(a) Features of the DEJ in infant and elderly skin

A weakly undulating DEJ with flat rete ridges and few fibrils in the epidermal basal layer characterizes the skin of the newborn (Evans & Rutter, 1986; Razmus et al., 2008). It was also reported that dermal papillae were not present in neonatal skin but appeared gradually over the first 3 months following birth (Miyauchi et al., 2016). DEJ undulations, cell attachments and epidermal cellularity increase gradually in neonates and young infants during skin maturation (Evans & Rutter, 1986; Cartlidge, 2000; Miyauchi et al., 2016). Consequently, newborn skin is more susceptible to traction and shear forces. The DEJ is flat before 34 weeks GA in preterm neonates (Cartlidge, 2000) and there are fewer anchoring structures with wide spaces between connecting points (Holbrook, 1982), leading to increased fragility of the skin (Fig. 1, Table 1). DEJ flattening with shorter rete ridges and dermal papillae rarefaction and reduction is also a well-known characteristic of intrinsic skin ageing (Lavker et al., 1987, 1989; Moragas, Castells & Sans, 1993; Desai, 1997; Giangreco et al., 2010; Farage et al., 2013; Newton et al., 2017). It is associated with a reduction of anchoring molecules such as $\beta 1$ integrins, transmembrane proteins of basal keratinocytes involved in their anchoring to the DEJ, and a decrease in basal cell proliferation ability (Giangreco et al., 2010). These modifications are thought to reduce skin resistance to shearing forces (Layker et al., 1987, 1989; Desai, 1997; Farage et al., 2013; Hatje et al., 2015), the area of the exchange surface for epidermis nutrition (Farage et al., 2013) and the proliferative capacity of epidermal cells (Lavker et al., 1987; Giangreco et al., 2010). This results in higher skin fragility with an increased risk of skin rupture (Farage et al., 2013). There is also likely to be a decrease in waste elimination which might alter the epidermal cellular environment, but this remains to be investigated (Fig. 1, Table 1).

The flatter DEJ observed in both newborn and elderly skin is significantly associated with higher susceptibility to traction and shear forces. In addition, it may limit cell nutrition and waste elimination, favouring cell alterations under pressure or shear force conditions. Consequently, a higher risk of PI formation may be hypothesized although the underlying mechanisms require investigation. (b) A specific molecular network in the DEJ of infant and elderly skin At the molecular level, the DEJ contains a well-organized network of various proteins including laminin 332 (also called laminin V), types IV and VII collagens, heparan sulfate proteoglycan (perlecan) and nidogens. Laminin 332, a ligand of basal keratinocyte integrins, is essential for epidermal attachment in mice and humans (Rousselle et al., 1991, 1997; Nakano et al., 2002; Rousselle & Beck, 2013; Tayem et al., 2021). It has been reported to enhance hemidesmosome formation and reinforce the DEJ in skin-equivalent models (Amano, Nishiyama & Burgeson, 1999), but also to regulate the differentiation of mouse and human interfollicular epidermal stem cells which themselves produce laminin 332 (Yamada et al., 2018; Tayem et al., 2021), to inhibit sensory mechanotransduction and thereby decrease pain sensitivity in mice, and to control sensory axon branching behaviour (Chiang et al., 2011)

During human skin ageing, the expression level of a laminin 332 subunit (Lamb3) has been shown to decrease (Yamada *et al.*, 2018), as well as the number of interfollicular epidermal stem cells and/or their activation potential which is thought to be one of the main causes of epidermal dysfunction such as delayed cell turnover (Giangreco *et al.*, 2010; Akamatsu *et al.*, 2016; Yamada *et al.*, 2018). As laminin 332 has been shown to regulate the proper differentiation of human interfollicular epidermis stem cells (Yamada *et al.*, 2018), this

decrease in laminin 332 expression probably leads to slower epidermal renewal, contributing to the thinner and more fragile skin observed in the elderly.

Perlecan is well known to have many functions such as regulating the molecular assembly of the extracellular matrix (ECM), stabilizing the ECM molecular network and binding and transporting growth factors to cells (Lord *et al.*, 2018). Perlecan has also been reported to promote epidermal renewal *in vitro* (Dos Santos *et al.*, 2016). As levels of perlecan decrease in the elderly, a role in epidermal thinning during skin ageing has been suggested.

Very few data focusing on the DEJ of infant skin DEJ at the molecular level are available. To our knowledge, there are no data concerning perlecan. One study reported similar expression of laminin 332 and decreased expression of laminins 511 (= laminin 10) and 521 (= laminin 11) in adult skin compared to infant skin (Pouliot, Saunders & Kaur, 2002). As laminins 511 and 521 seem to facilitate keratinocyte adhesion and to stimulate their proliferation, this might explain the high proliferative ability of infant skin. We hypothesize that skin maturation during infancy involves deep modifications of the DEJ molecular network, but further studies will be needed to understand the underlying mechanisms better.

(3) Dermal cells and extracellular matrix (ECM)

Thicker than the epidermis, the dermis mainly contains fibroblasts embedded in ECM composed of collagen, elastin and glycosaminoglycans respectively involved in resistance, elasticity and hydration of the skin. The dermal layer also includes skin appendages (hair follicles, sebaceous glands, sweat glands and nails), capillary beds that feed the skin, and various nerve endings responsible for skin sensitivity.

(a) Dermis thickness

In humans, dermis thickness depends greatly on body area, genetic factors (Vitral *et al.*, 2018) and age. After a slight decrease during the first 7 days following birth (Reed, Johnson & Nie, 2021) it has been found to increase over time (Tan *et al.*, 1982). The thickness of outer forearm dermis was found to be close to 0.722 mm for a newborn (<24 h old), regardless of sex (Przybysz *et al.*, 2021) *versus* 1.187 mm in adults (Mlosek *et al.*, 2011). For adults, higher values were reported for males than in females (Van Mülder *et al.*, 2017). Intrinsic ageing also induces a thinner dermis in contrast to photoageing (Shuster, Black & McVitie, 1975; Giangreco *et al.*, 2010) (Fig. 1, Table 1).

(b) Fibroblast and ECM evolution

As fibroblasts produce various ECM components including collagen and elastin, but also enzymes able to degrade those components, ECM composition is highly dependent on fibroblast state and metabolism.

(i) Fibroblast evolution over time

Fibroblasts are the most characteristic cells of the dermis. Less mature than adult fibroblasts, human newborn fibroblasts (<16 days) can maintain keratinocyte immaturity and avoid scar formation (Živicová *et al.*, 2017). In newborn mice, as for keratinocytes, a higher proliferation level of fibroblasts has been observed compared to adult skin (Pablos *et al.*, 1997). In elderly humans, fibroblast motility decreases *in vitro* (Pienta & Coffey, 1990), as well as fibroblast number *in vivo* (Sgonc & Gruber, 2013) and a correlation with increased cellular senescence is observed *in vitro* and *in vivo* (Dimri *et al.*, 1995).

Overall, fibroblast immaturity in newborns and fibroblast senescence in the elderly leads to

reduced ECM production at both ages, resulting in higher skin fragility (Table 1).

(ii) A more fragile collagen network

The dermal collagen network allows skin resistance to rupture. ECM contains various collagen types of which the main ones are collagen I (85–90% in human adult skin) and collagen III (8–11% in human adult skin) (Smith, Holbrook & Madri, 1986). Collagen fibre volume has been shown to increase progressively from less than 1 year to 30 years in human papillary dermis as well as in reticular dermis of the trunk and limbs (Vitellaro-Zuccarello et al., 1994). Collagen fibrils were even smaller in preterm neonates (Holbrook, 1982). Moreover, the collagen bundles of the upper reticular dermis, normally thicker than in papillary dermis, are less thick in newborns and infants. This leads to a more gradual transition between the papillary and reticular dermis (Vitellaro-Zuccarello et al., 1994; Holbrook, 1982; Stamatas et al., 2010; Przybysz et al., 2021). Collagen 1 synthesis was found to increase in a gender-specific manner despite no observable differences between males and females at birth. Women aged 15–93 years were reported to have a thinner dermis with a lower collagen density compared to men of the same age (Shuster et al., 1975). A study on mice found an increase in collagen 1 synthesis until 30 days of age with higher values in males older than 16 days correlated with testosterone production (Arai et al., 2017). In young adult skin, collagen is abundant, tightly packed and well organized, whereas it progressively becomes less dense, fragmented and coarsely distributed in aged skin (Shuster et al., 1975; Shin et al., 2019). With skin ageing, collagen I is progressively degraded and over time accumulates around fibroblasts. The surface area of fibroblasts, and their contact points with the surrounding matrix decrease with age in humans (Varani et al., 2001). Consequently, the strength of the matrix and the mechanical forces within resident fibroblasts both decrease. This stimulates reactive oxygen species (ROS) production, synthesis of metalloproteinases (MMPs) and decreased collagen levels (Rittié & Fisher, 2015; Fisher et al., 2016), which might explain the higher sensitivity of elderly skin to shear forces (Table 1).

The changes in collagen synthesis and degradation with age lead to an evolution of the ratio between collagen I and collagen III over time. This ratio is much lower in foetal skin than in adult humans (Epstein, 1974; Cheng *et al.*, 2011), as well as in guinea pigs (Shuttleworth & Forest, 1975), and decreases from age 65 years onwards (Lovell *et al.*, 1987). A lower ratio in skin has been correlated with a lower ratio in the abdominal wall fascia of hernia patients (Peeters *et al.*, 2014), leading us to hypothesize that this ratio may also be involved in newborn and elderly skin fragility, but further investigations are required to confirm this (Table 1).

(iii) Lower skin elasticity

Skin elasticity arises from elastin. Elastin is composed of fibrillin microfibrils (Sakai, Keene & Engvall, 1986) together with an amorphous component (Rosenbloom, Abrams & Mechams, 1993) synthesized by fibroblasts and vascular smooth muscle cells. Skin elastin synthesis occurs at high rates during late gestation and in early life before decreasing progressively with age. In newborns, elastin mainly appears as thin bundles of microfibrils, which gradually enlarge and evolve, to appear mostly as amorphous elastin surrounded by a few fibrils in adolescents. Thus, the volume density of the elastin network increases from birth, reaching approximately 2–4% of the tissue volume at sexual maturity, with variations depending on dermis area and subject (Swee, Parks & Pierce, 1995; Pasquali-Ronchetti & Baccarani-Contri, 1997). Thereafter, elastin synthesis is drastically reduced (Swee *et al.*, 1995; Shin *et al.*, 2019). This has been correlated with decreased levels of lysyl oxidase (LOX) and lysyl oxidase-like (LOXL), which are both responsible for elastin crosslinking (Cenizo *et al.*, 2006). As elastin has a very high physiological stability with an estimated half-life of 74 years in humans (Shapiro *et al.*, 1991), modifications are mainly due to elastin degradation which mostly occurs in the elderly and are correlated with a higher level of

elastase activity (Shin *et al.*, 2019). This leads to a decrease in elastin level during intrinsic ageing (Braverman & Fonferko, 1982; Lavker *et al.*, 1989; Shin *et al.*, 2019) which has also been correlated with a decrease in fibulin-5 deposition (Kadoya *et al.*, 2005).

Given its synthesis mainly at the beginning of life and increased degradation at the end of life, skin elasticity is lower in both newborn and aged skin. As a result, the ability of the skin to return to its original shape after a deformation is lower in both cases and we hypothesize that this makes it more difficult or slower for skin cells and tissues to return to a normal physiological state with appropriate nutrition after a traumatic deformation. Further investigations would therefore be of great interest to evaluate better the involvement of lower elasticity in newborn and elderly skin fragility (Table 1).

(c) A key role of transforming growth factor beta ($TGF\beta$) signalling

Transforming growth factor β (TGF β)/ Suppressor of mothers against decapentaplegic (Smad) signalling plays a key role in ECM formation. Long known to stimulate collagen synthesis (Gessin *et al.*, 1993), it also enhances the expression of multiple collagens, fibronectin, decorin and versican and controls the expression of matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs) and

their inhibitors (TIMPs) which are respectively down-regulated and up-regulated by TGF-

β/Smad signalling (Quan & Fisher, 2015) (Fig. 2).

During skin ageing, ROS generation decreases TGF β receptor II (T β RII) production and impairs TGF β signalling thus increasing MMP activity and leading to collagen fragmentation, a coarser distribution and decreased production (Quan & Fisher, 2015; Shin *et al.*, 2019). These alterations to TGF β signalling lead to modifications of proteoglycans such as decorin and versican and to decreases in their levels. Decorin interacts with collagen and is involved in collagen fibrogenesis, wound repair, angiogenesis while versican is a component of the

elastic fibres and is involved in elastogenesis, ECM remodelling, cell phenotype,

proliferation, adhesion and migration (Ruiz Martinez et al., 2020). Changes to these proteoglycan functions could lead to higher skin fragility during ageing (Fig. 2). Activation of the TGFB pathway is higher in human adults compared to newborns (Zhang et al., 2019), as is the expression of TβRII (Živicová et al., 2017) and collagen I production (Zhang et al., 2019). Thus, we hypothesize that TGFβ is involved in the progressive maturation of the dermis after birth via increasing the levels and progressive maturation of collagen but also probably of ECM proteins such as decorin or versican. This probably contributes to the higher fragility of newborn skin, although further investigations will be needed to determine the precise evolution of the dermal matrix after birth, the underlying mechanisms and the role of TGFβ (Fig. 2). TGFβ is also involved in various processes including epidermis differentiation (Barbollat-Boutran et al., 2017; Kahata, Dadras & Moustakas, 2018), wound healing (Liarte, Bernabé-Garciá & Nicolás, 2020), skin-resident immune cell maintenance and cell fate determination (Kel et al., 2010; Mohammed et al., 2016; Mani et al., 2019). Thus, the lower levels of TGFB in newborn and elderly skin may be involved in many ways in the increased fragility of the skin at these ages.

(4) Infant and elderly skin vasculature

Preserving skin homeostasis requires the maintenance of the cutaneous blood circulation allowing cell nourishment. Human skin circulation is organized into two plexuses located in the upper dermis just below the DEJ and at the dermal—subdermal junction. Most vessels are in the upper plexus which is composed of terminal arterioles, papillary loops and postcapillary venules. The deeper plexus gives rise to ascending arterioles connecting to the upper plexus and lateral vessels feeding pilosebaceous units and sweat glands. Mainly in glabrous skin,

richly innervated arteriovenous anastomoses (AVAs) allow blood to bypass the high resistance of the papillary loops (Johnson, Minson & Kellogg, 2014).

The microvasculature in the skin of newborns presents a horizontal plexus with a capillary

network that is not yet organized (Fig. 1, Table 1). At birth, capillary loops are observable only on the nail beds, palms and soles. They become evident in all anatomical sites at 14–17 weeks of age (Perera, Kurban & Ryan, 1970). A recent study confirmed these observations *in vivo*, also associating capillary loop establishment with that of dermal papillae (Miyauchi *et al.*, 2016). Preterm newborns have a lower capillary density which remains lower during childhood (Bonamy *et al.*, 2007). Interestingly, one study reported an increase in capillary density after blood transfusion in preterm newborns (Genzel-Boroviczény, Christ & Glas, 2004).

Human skin ageing is also associated with a reduced number and size of blood vessels, especially in the upper dermis, and a reduced number of pericyte-covered blood vessels (Kligman, 1979; Kelly *et al.*, 1995; Chung *et al.*, 2002; Betsholtz *et al.*, 2005; Helmbold *et al.*, 2006).

We hypothesize that a lower organization and blood vessel number can lead to a less-efficient or less finely regulated response following pressure application and therefore to reduced skin resistance to pressure and shear forces, but further investigations are needed.

(5) Infant and elderly skin hypodermis

Under the dermis, the hypodermis, also called subcutaneous adipose tissue (SAT), is mainly composed of adipocytes which may allow attenuation of shocks applied to the skin surface. In mice, SAT has been shown to contribute to thermal insulation, energy storage, thermogenesis (Kasza *et al.*, 2014), hair follicle regeneration (Festa *et al.*, 2011), wound healing (Plikus *et*

al., 2017; Schmidt & Horsley, 2013), skin fibrosis (Marangoni et al., 2015) and protection

against infection (Zhang et al., 2015). In humans, SAT appears progressively during foetal development. Fat lobules are visible from 28 weeks GA (Orsso et al., 2020), with an important increase in lipid accumulation reported from 28 to 40 weeks GA (Berger-Kulemann et al., 2012; Orsso et al., 2020) before a rapid decrease at birth, followed by a dramatic increase until 3 months of age, with a subsequent decrease after 6 months (Breij et al., 2017; Orsso et al., 2020). Nevertheless, the hypodermis thickness of newborns, children and adolescents, is significantly lower than that of adults: mean abdominal SAT thickness was reported to be 2 and 2.2 mm respectively for boys and girls 7–28 days old (Ferreira et al., 2014), 4.3 mm and 4.4 mm for babies 3–6 months old (Breij et al., 2017), 2.6 and 2.7 mm for boys and girls 15–18 years old (Rahmani et al., 2018), 15.2 mm for healthy men 25–26 years old (Grunnet et al., 2019) and 17.8 mm for healthy women 18-39 years old (Perin et al., 2000). Data for the body locations most at risk of PI formation are missing, but we hypothesize that similar age-dependent values apply, with newborns more likely to have the thinnest hypodermis, although further investigations are needed to confirm this. During skin ageing, a redistribution of fat resulting in SAT atrophy has been reported (Palmer & Kirkland, 2016; Wollina et al., 2017), in particular for men (Levakov et al., 2012), and this has been associated with a reduced subcutaneous/visceral fat ratio (Rittié & Fisher 2015). Consequently, SAT function allowing attenuation of shocks is likely to be lowest both in newborns and in the elderly. SAT is known to undergo significant changes with ageing, including a decrease in functional adipocyte cell number, an alteration of endocrine signalling with higher insulin resistance, metabolic dysfunction, inflammation and impaired regenerative capacity (Rittié & Fisher, 2015; Palmer & Kirkland, 2016). Interestingly, despite a thicker SAT, similar changes are

observed in obese people (Palmer & Kirkland, 2016) while epidemiological studies suggest either a protective effect of obesity against PI formation or, on the contrary, a higher risk despite thicker SAT (Compher et al., 2007; EPUAP, NPIAP & PPPIAP, 2019). As no clear relationship between obesity and PI formation has been established (EPUAP, NPIAP & PPPIAP, 2019), the involvement of SAT modifications in PI prevalence remains to be defined. We cannot exclude that SAT characteristics other than thickness are involved in a higher risk of PI formation. While additional data are needed to clarify the evolution of SAT thickness, organization and functionality over the lifetime and in various body areas, the available data do suggest that the ability of the hypodermis to attenuate shocks and reduce the likelihood of skin damage is lower in newborns and the elderly compared to young adults, putting the skin at higher risk of PI formation (Table 1). Moreover, the risk may be particularly high for preterm infants as subcutaneous fat is very thin or even absent until 32 weeks GA (Fox, 2011; Orsso et al., 2020). In addition, a recent study reported that a subcutaneous oedema was present in all healthy newborns studied (Przybysz et al., 2021), which presumably impacts responses to pressure application or shear forces, either by providing a protective cushioning effect or by favouring skin detachment from subcutaneous tissues and associated damage. These effects

III. FUNCTIONAL FEATURES OF NEWBORN AND ELDERLY SKIN FAVOURING

PI FORMATION

remain to be investigated.

(1) A higher pH impairing SC barrier function

The pH of human adult skin ranges from 4.1 to 5.8 depending on body location and results from many factors, including filaggrin degradation, lamellar body exocytosis, fatty acid content and ionization, Na⁺/H⁺ exchanger activation and melanosome release (Ali &

Yosipovitch, 2013; Proksch, 2018). An acidic skin pH is necessary for effective functioning

of enzymes involved in SC formation, SC cell cohesion, healthy skin microbiota homeostasis and protection against pathogens (Yosipovitch et al., 2000; Fluhr et al., 2001). At birth, skin pH is high, with a mean of 6.34 or 7.08 (Lund et al., 1999; Yosipovitch et al., 2000) and ranging from 6.11 to 7.5 across different body regions (Yosipovitch et al., 2000; Ludriksone et al., 2014). Skin pH decreases rapidly during the first week and more gradually during the next 3 weeks, for both premature and full-term newborns (Fox, Nelson & Wareham 1998; Ludriksone et al., 2014). This higher pH of newborn skin allows increased activity of serine protease (kallikrein 5 and 7) leading to higher corneodesmosome and lipidprocessing enzyme degradation (Hachem et al., 2005). Moreover, a higher pH reduces the activity of key enzymes such as β-glucocerebrosidase and acidic sphingomyelinase involved in the synthesis of ceramides (Ali & Yosipovitch, 2013). This potentially puts newborn skin at higher risk of chemical or mechanical trauma, invasion of microorganisms and infections (Fig. 3). In the diapered area where skin is subject to strong alkalinizing agents (urine, faeces), skin fragility is increased. In preterm babies less than 28 weeks GA, the vernix caseosa which normally decreases skin pH is absent, potentially leading to higher skin fragility (Visscher et al., 2011a,b). Interestingly, maintaining the vernix caseosa instead of removing it immediately after birth in full-term deliveries has been shown to be beneficial for acid skin surface development (Visscher et al., 2005). During human skin ageing, an increase in ceramidase activity and a decrease in eccrine sweat gland (ESG) function result in ceramide deficiency. This is correlated to an increased pH, for example on the forehead, forearm or temple (Man et al., 2009; Schreml et al., 2012; Ali & Yosipovitch, 2013; Rittié & Fisher, 2015). This higher pH leads to a higher fragility and

susceptibility to diseases which could be treated by using acidic treatments and appropriate buffers (Hachem *et al.*, 2010; Proksch, 2018; Kilic *et al.*, 2019).

As for babies, skin fragility in the aged is increased in diapered areas containing urine and faeces. Well known to increase incontinence-associated dermatitis, a high pH has also been suggested to increase PI prevalence, as a treatment including pH-balanced cleansers decreased PI incidence (Park & Kim, 2014; Avşar & Karadağ, 2018). In skin care, it is of great importance to consider skin pH and to take into account all factors that might modulate it. A significant effect of the skin pH alone on PI formation remains to be demonstrated.

(2) Skin hydration and external humidity

Skin hydration influences barrier function, percutaneous absorption, reactivity to irritants and the skin's mechanical properties (Giusti *et al.*, 2001). It may be modulated by external humidity and temperature as well as body site, diaper occlusion (Giusti *et al.*, 2001) and fluid intake (Akdeniz *et al.*, 2018*b*). The term 'skin hydration' can cover different concepts depending on the author. *In vivo*, this parameter is often assessed either by considering the clinical symptoms of dryness on the skin surface or at the SC level using non-invasive methods. But skin hydration may also correspond to the hydration level in the underlying living skin layers.

Several studies have reported lower SC hydration in 0–5-day-old newborns compared to young adults on the forehead, back, abdomen (Yosipovitch *et al.*, 2000), forearm and dorsa of the hand and foot (Saijo & Tagami, 1991) or forearm and thigh (Chittock *et al.*, 2016). SC hydration increases during the first weeks after birth in or close to the diapered area (Visscher *et al.*, 2000) as well as on the forearm (Saijo & Tagami, 1991; Hoeger & Enzmann, 2002), forehead, cheek or gluteal surface (Hoeger & Enzmann, 2002). Infant SC hydration becomes higher than that of adults at least on the forearm of 1–6 or 3–24-months-old children (Saijo &

Tagami, 1991; Giusti et al., 2001), the buttocks of 3–24-months-old children (Giusti et al., 2001), and the upper ventral and lower dorsal arm of 3–12-months-old infants (Nikolovski et al., 2008). No significant differences were observed between male and female newborns (Hoeger & Enzmann, 2002), infants less than 3 months old (Hoeger & Enzmann, 2002) or 8-24-months-old children (Giusti et al., 2001). Overall, SC hydration of young newborns seems to be lower than that of adults before increasing during the neonatal period. This has been correlated to the dry and rough skin surface of young newborns and the progressive smoothing of the skin surface observed during the first 4 weeks (Hoeger & Enzmann, 2002). The skin of elderly people tends to become progressively dry and rough, especially in winter with a low relative humidity (Kligman, 1979; Tagami, 2008). During skin ageing, a decrease in SC hydration has often been reported, but is not always the case. A decrease on the forehead and forearm, to a greater extent in women than in men, was reported in a Chinese population aged >70 years (Man et al., 2009), while a significant decrease was also observed in German men aged 60–70 years on the forehead, cheek and neck, but not on the forearm or hand compared with a 20–29-years-old group (Luebberding, Krueger & Kerscher, 2014). Thus, elderly skin dryness observed on the surface is not necessarily correlated with low SC hydration. Moreover, there is no correlation with dermis water content as elderly skin dermis contains more water than young adult skin (Kligman, 1979; Nakagawa, Matsumoto & Sakai, 2010, Téllez-Soto et al., 2021). Skin hydration depends on lipid production (Kligman, 1979; Picardo et al., 2009), ESG activity (Emery et al., 1991; Saijo & Tagami, 1991; Shiohara et al., 2018) and the concentrations of a mix of amino acids, ions, organic acids and sugar that together form natural moisturizing factor (NMF) (Verdier-Sévrain & Bonté, 2007). On its surface, skin is covered by a mix of lipids secreted by keratinocytes and sebaceous glands. Dysfunction of the sebaceous glands may lead to skin dryness (Picardo et al., 2009).

In the elderly a decrease in sebum production has been associated with progressive skin dryness (at least for women) (Pochi, Strauss & Downing, 1979; Luebberding, Krueger & Kerscher, 2013; Farage et al., 2013). For newborns, few data are available. Some studies suggest that sebum production is slightly lower in young newborns, compared to young adults and progressively decreases during infancy, remaining at a low level until puberty (Agache et al., 1980; Henderson, Taylor & Cunliffe, 2000). Consequently, the likely correlation between decreased sebum production and skin dryness in the elderly is unlikely to apply to the skin of young newborns. ESGs are known to be involved in body temperature regulation. But they also produce water and natural moisturizers (lactate and urea) which help to prevent skin dryness (Shiohara et al., 2018). As they are not fully mature at birth, a correlation between gradual ESG maturation allowing improved activity and progressive hydration of the newborn skin surface has been suggested, at least for the first weeks after birth for full-term newborns (Foster, Hey & Katz, 1969; Saijo & Tagami, 1991; Emery et al., 1991). For preterm births of less than 36 weeks GA, no sweating has been detected at birth highlighting ESG immaturity (Harpin & Rutter, 1982; Fluhr et al., 2010; Kutlubay et al., 2017). During skin ageing, a progressive decrease in ESG function has also been observed, suggesting possible involvement of ESGs in elderly skin dryness (Rittié & Fisher, 2015). NMF mainly results from filaggrin proteolysis occurring during the corneccyte maturation process (Caspers et al., 2001; Bouwstra et al., 2008). For newborns, NMF also depends on the amount of vernix caseosa present at birth which increases NMF level and maintains skin surface hydration for a few hours (Visscher et al., 2005). NMF level seems to be correlated with SC hydration. Chittock et al. (2016) measured low NMF levels in <72 h newborns, a significantly higher level at 4 weeks, and a significant decrease in healthy adults on the forearm and the thigh. A recent study also reported an increase in NMF levels between young

(<48 h) and older newborns (>48 h) on the cheek, nose tip and elbow flexure (McAleer et al., 2018). A lower level of NMF was reported in 3–12-months-old infants compared to young adults in the top 28 µm of the arm skin (Nikolovski et al., 2008), highlighting that additional data are needed to understand the link between NMF level and SC hydration. For post-term newborns more than 41 weeks GA, the amount of vernix progressively decreases in utero after term: the NMF increase due to the presence of vernix is therefore lower and the NMF produced by keratinocytes is partly removed by the amniotic fluid. These effects may explain the dryer post-term newborn skin (Visscher et al., 2005, 2015). During skin ageing, data concerning changes in NMF levels remain controversial (Rawlings, 2017) and its involvement in elderly skin dryness requires additional studies. Overall, some data suggest that both young newborn and elderly skin can be considered as 'dry skin' given their SC hydration. This influences skin barrier function as SC hydration level regulates the activity of hydrolytic enzymes involved in SC maturation and cornecyte desquamation (Telofski et al., 2012). Nevertheless, this relative dryness depends on body location and is not true for older newborns and infants. Moreover, SC hydration depends on many factors such as NMF level, lipid production and ESG activity which do not evolve in the same way over time. The relationships between all these factors are complex and remain unclear. A better understanding of this phenomenon and a possible correlation with skin fragility will need further investigations (Table 1). Maintaining a higher humidity in the external environment, for example in diapered areas or with inappropriate dressings, cannot help to maintain skin hydration. On the contrary, it leads to a decrease in skin barrier competence highlighted by an increased TEWL (Fluhr et al., 2010; Giusti et al., 2001). Excess moisture and maceration is well known to enhance skin rupture during PI formation (Mervis & Phillips, 2019) and special care to avoid this situation is needed.

(3) Lower endothelial functionality might explain a lower resistance to pressure in newborn and elderly skin

Blood flow through the loops of the skin plexus is controlled in humans by highly innervated arterioles which comprise an internal layer of longitudinally arranged endothelial cells surrounded by vascular smooth cells in a helicoidal arrangement (Johnson et al., 2014). Endothelial cells produce various signalling molecules such as nitric oxide (NO) and prostaglandin PGE2 which induce smooth muscle cell relaxation and blood vessel vasodilation thus reducing vessel resistance and increasing blood flow (Warren, 1994; Coffman, 1994; Medow, Glover & Stewart, 2008). This phenomenon occurs for example after local thermal stimulation or UVB exposure (Warren, 1994; Sokolnicki et al., 2009; Jan et al., 2009; Fromy et al., 2010). It can increase nutritional exchanges with surrounding cells, immune cell arrival and assists body temperature regulation. When healthy human skin is locally subjected to low pressure (<20 kPa), a specific mechanism called pressure-induced vasodilation (PIV) allows the skin to maintain an appropriate blood flow and tissue oxygenation (Fromy, Abraham & Saumet, 1998). PIV results from the interaction of primary afferent nerves with the vascular endothelium of skin vessels (reviewed in Fouchard et al., 2019). In some disorders in which there is impairment of skin vasodilation ability due to endothelial dysfunction or peripheral nerve alteration. PIV is altered leading to a reduced blood flow in response to local low pressure and consequently an increased incidence of PI (Fromy et al., 2010, 2012; Vouillarmet et al., 2019).

(a) Functionality of the NO pathway

Besides vessel network modifications, a reduction in skin vasomotor capacity, especially with regard to skin vasodilation, has been observed in ageing skin and is strongly

correlated with endothelial dysfunction highlighted by a decrease in NO and prostaglandin levels and an increase in endothelium-derived hyperpolarizing factor (EDHF) involvement in humans (Algotsson, Nordberg & Winblad, 1995; Rossi *et al.*, 2002; Tao *et al.*, 2004; Holowatz *et al.*, 2005; James *et al.*, 2006; Jan *et al.*, 2009; Fromy *et al.*, 2010), rats (Muller-Delp *et al.*, 2002) and mice (Gaubert *et al.*, 2007) (Fig. 4).

The early postnatal period is associated with remarkable changes in the morphology

and functioning of arterial and capillary endothelium correlated with a progressive increase in microvascular pressure and network blood flow (Boegehold, 2010) in sheep (Abman et al., 1991), piglets (Zellers & Vanhoutte, 1991), rats (Kobayashi & Sakai, 1994) and mice (Flavahan et al., 2013; Flavahan & Flavahan, 2014). During this period, various molecules [e.g. cyclooxygenase products, hydrogen peroxide, carbon monoxide, NO, endothelin 1 (ET-1)] were shown to regulate vasomotricity, depending on the species and the organ, but also on neonate age. Shifts from one pathway to another were also found. For example, in mice immediately after birth, endothelial cells lining central arteries express high levels of ET-1 peptides and rapidly release ET-1 and initiate ET-1-mediated endothelium-dependent constriction in response to stimulation by endothelial secretagogues. Endothelial cells also show a markedly reduced ability to initiate endothelial NO-mediated dilation. During the following days, the ET-1 pathway is progressively inhibited, probably due to increased responsiveness to the NO pathway which inhibits both ET-1 production and secretion. Owing to this change, the same endothelial secretagogues which induce vasoconstriction immediately after birth become able to induce vasodilatation a few days later (Chang, Flavahan & Flavahan, 2016). The contribution of NO to endothelium-dependent dilation has been reported to increase in the lung, cerebral cortex and skeletal muscle, but to decrease in the intestine (Abman et al., 1991; Zellers & Vanhoutte, 1991; Kobayashi & Sakai, 1994;

Boegehold, 2010; Flavahan et al., 2013; Flavahan & Flavahan, 2014).

There are few data available concerning human skin, especially for newborns.

Nevertheless, the size of the newborn head (length and circumference) and birth weight have been shown to be positively associated with skin vessel vasodilation induced by acetylcholine which is also inversely proportional to maternal hypertension during pregnancy; no significant correlation was observed for sodium nitroprusside (SNP)-induced vasodilatation, except with gestational age (Touwslager *et al.*, 2012; Martin, Gazelius & Norman, 2000).

Low birth weight has been correlated to cardiometabolic disease in adult life (Gluckman *et al.*, 2008) as well as a lower capillary density both in newborn and adult skin (Lewandowski *et al.*, 2015). For human adults, endothelial dysfunction measured in the skin vasculature was also found to correlate with cardiovascular disease risk (Ijzerman *et al.*, 2003). Altogether, these data suggest an important role of the NO signalling pathway in the skin vasodilation control of newborns and therefore the local resistance of skin to pressure, but also in baby growth, blood pressure and cardiovascular health.

Many studies on various mammals have reported a succession of pathways regulating vasodilation in the early postnatal period. This may explain a lower induced vasodilation and we suggest that the NO pathway is not fully functional at birth in human skin (Fig. 4). This might result in a greater sensitivity of skin to pressure and a higher risk of PI, especially in preterm neonates. Further studies would be of great interest, especially in terms of PI prevention and treatment.

Further studies should investigate (1) the exact pathways involved in newborn skin vasodilation, (2) endothelial cell maturation of newborn skin, (3) interindividual variability and associated factors, (4) the impact of GA as we can expect lower maturity in premature neonates, and (5) how to prevent and/or treat newborn PIs.

(b) Higher expression of thrombospondin-1 (TSP1)

The matricellular protein thrombospondin-1 (TSP1) and its receptor CD47, which are expressed in normal skin, limit the ability of NO to relax blood vessels by exerting vasopressor activity as shown in mice (Isenberg et al., 2009). Consequently, blood vessel vasodilation depends on the balance between NO and TSP1. In wild-type murine skin, TSP1 and CD47 were reported to increase with ageing and this was suggested to decrease cutaneous NO signalling and therefore skin blood flow. Interestingly, targeting CD47 was shown to enhance skin blood flow (Rogers, Roberts & Isenberg, 2013). UV exposure was also shown to increase TSP1 expression in human skin dermis and dermal fibroblasts (Seo et al., 2010). One study suggests that human endothelial cells produce a matrix, of which a major component is TSP1, in newborn skin whereas this molecule is almost absent in the matrix produced by adult endothelial cells (Kramer et al., 1985). This suggests higher TSP1 production in newborn skin. We hypothesize that a higher proportion of TSP1 and CD47 in human newborn and elderly skin reduces the effect of NO and vessel vasodilation ability (Fig. 4). If further investigations confirm this hypothesis, we could consider treating PIs by targeting those molecules, thus

(4) Newborn and elderly skin innervation

improving wound healing and blood flow.

The ability of skin to respond to light pressure with the PIV mechanism depends not only on endothelial function but also on sensory fibre functionality (Tew *et al.*, 2011). This mechanism begins with the activation of acid-sensing ion channel 3 (ASIC3), a neuronal mechanoreceptor largely expressed in sensory neurons (Fromy *et al.*, 2012), which induces the release of various vasodilatory neuropeptides inducing nitric oxide synthase (NOS) and cyclooxygenase (COX) stimulation (reviewed in Fouchard *et al.*, 2019).

Skin innervation includes (1) sensory nerves allowing detection of temperature, touch and pain whose axonal ends terminate in the dorsal horn of the spinal cord (DHSC) and (2) efferent nerves coming from the DHSC and modulating for example AVAs and arteriole vasodilation or vasoconstriction by releasing various molecules such as norepinephrine, acetylcholine, neuropeptide Y, atrial naturetic peptide, calcitonin gene-related peptide (CGRP), vasoactive intestinal polypeptide (VIP), peptide histidine methionine (PHL) and pituitary adenylyl cyclase activating peptide (PACAP) into the skin (Johnson *et al.*, 2014; Fouchard *et al.*, 2019). The release of these molecules depends on both stimulation by the sensory nerves and activity of spinal cord interneurons which are able to inhibit efferent nerve stimulation.

Cutaneous sensory nerves include highly myelinated Aα fibres, moderately myelinated Aβ

fibres, thinly myelinated $A\Delta$ fibres and unmyelinated C fibres. C fibres represent 45% of the fibres and are present in both the dermis and epidermis (Johnson *et al.*, 2014). The fibre endings are either free (for sensing temperature, touch and pain) or are linked to specific receptors such as the Merkel cell neurite complex and Meissner's, Pacini's or Rufini's corpuscles (various touch sensations). As cutaneous sensory nerves are linked to the spinal cord, skin sensitivity not only depends on the sensitive fibre endings, but also on the sensory neuron's ability to conduct the signal and connectivity to other neurons at the spinal cord level.

(a) Sensory nerve function in elderly skin

Human skin ageing is associated with decreased sensory perception correlated to a reduced number of Meissner's corpuscules, Merkel cell neurite complexes (Garcia-Piqueras *et al.*, 2019) and nerve fibre endings in the dermis and epidermis, including mechano-sensitive C-fibres (Panoutsopoulou *et al.*, 2009; Fromy *et al.*, 2010; Namer, 2010; Tew *et al.*, 2011;

Bowden & McNulty, 2013). A recent study also found a correlation between sensory perception degradation and skin structural changes such as dermis thinning and DEJ flattening (Jobanputra *et al.*, 2020). Correlated reductions in nerve myelination and nerve conduction speed were also reported in mice (Canta *et al.*, 2016) (Table 1). As a result, tactile, thermal and mechanical perception decrease, thermal-induced vasodilation is slowed down (Tew *et al.*, 2011) and PIV is progressively impaired (Fromy *et al.*, 2010) putting elderly skin at higher risk of skin damage and PIs (Fig. 4).

(b) Sensory nerve function in newborn skin

At birth, skin sensitivity exists in humans and the newborn nerve apparatus has been reported to be similar to that of adults with one superficial and one deep plexus containing nerve fibres parallel to the skin surface, densely interconnected and ending more or less deeply in the dermis (Feito *et al.*, 2018).

Nevertheless, the skin sensory system remains immature at some levels. Human Pacini's and Meissner's corpuscles undergo structural modifications until 4 and 8 months of life, respectively (Feito *et al.*, 2018). In mice, the proportion of mechanically and heat-sensitive C fibres was shown to increase in the first two weeks after birth compared to mechanically sensitive heat-insensitive C fibres (Jankowski *et al.*, 2014). In rats, a lower withdrawal threshold to mechanical stimulation was observed in 2-week-old rats compared to older ones (Ririe & Eisenach, 2006). Nerve conduction and myelination extent were reported in mice and humans to increase until adulthood, especially during infancy for humans (Canta *et al.*, 2016; Jenny, Lütschg & Broser, 2020). Neural growth factor (NGF) is needed for the proper maturation of AΔ nociceptors (Ritter *et al.*, 1991; Ritter, Lewin & Mendell, 1993) as well as C-fibres (Lewin & Mendell, 1994). Postnatal rearrangement and refinement of synaptic connections occurs in the dorsal horn (Fitzgerald & McKelvey, 2016) and it seems that C-

fibre activity is also needed to stimulate the maturation of some interneurons releasing glycine which inhibit efferent nerves. In mice, it has been shown that during the first 2 weeks after birth, this phenomenon explains the striking sensitivity of newborns to tactile and noxious mechanical stimulation of the skin and their lower sensory thresholds and greater amplitude and duration reflexes (Koch et al., 2012). Although pain sensitivity exists at birth, nerve injury occurring during infancy or childhood does not induce chronic pain sensitivity unlike in adults. This probably results from a 'default' neuroimmune response skewed in an anti-inflammatory direction, suppressing the excitation of dorsal horn neurons during childhood, whereas in adolescents and adults it is biased in a pro-inflammatory direction (Fitzgerald & McKelvey, 2016). Overall, newborn sensitivity is very different from that of adults. As peripheral injury during this period seems to alter sensory function and prevent the appropriate development of spinal dorsal horn circuits (Jankowski et al., 2014), special care in newborn pain treatment is needed. Further investigations are required to understand better (1) how immature fibre endings react when pressure or shear forces are applied, (2) to what extent they can induce PIV and protect newborn skin against PI formation, and (3) whether a neuroimmune response

IV. CONCLUSIONS

(1) Although highly different in appearance, newborn and elderly skin share common features responsible for their physiological fragility and resulting in a higher risk of skin damage or PI formation.

different from that of adults results in variations concerning PI aetiology.

(2) At the structural level, they share: (a) a thinner epidermis; (b) a thinner dermis containing a less-resistant collagen network, a higher collagen III:collagen I ratio and less elastin; (c) a flatter DEJ with weaker anchoring systems; and (d) a thinner hypodermis. These

characteristics induce lower mechanical resistance to skin damage under pressure or shear

forces. (3) At the epidermis level, a higher pH increases serine protease activity (kallikrein 5 and 7). This leads to corneodesmosome and lipid-processing enzyme degradation, and a lower activity of key enzymes such as β-glucocerebrosidase and acidic sphingomyelinase involved in the synthesis of ceramides. Consequently, the cohesion of corneceytes is decreased and the lipid-rich extracellular matrix is altered, putting the SC barrier at higher risk of disruption under shear forces, chemical trauma, invasion of microorganisms and infections, all of which may induce PI formation or prevent wound healing. (4) Correlated with immature ESGs and lower ESG activity in young newborn skin and a progressive decrease of ESG function and lipid production in aged skin, some data suggest that SC hydration is lower in both age groups. In the newborn, skin surface dehydration is more significant when vernix caseosa is missing (preterm and post-term newborns). (5) Flattening of the DEJ not only decreases mechanical resistance but also the nutritional exchanges and signalling between the dermis and epidermis. Moreover, the protein network is modulated and this may have an effect not only on the mechanical characteristics of the DEJ, but also on (a) the number of interfollicular epidermal stem cells or their activation potential and therefore on epidermis turnover, or (b) pain sensitivity and the control of sensory axon branching behaviour. Further studies are needed to understand these effects in detail. (6) At the dermis level, TGFβ/Smad signalling plays a key role in ECM formation as it stimulates the synthesis of several key structural molecules such as collagen, fibronectin, decorin and versican. It also inhibits matrix-degrading MMPs and stimulates their inhibitors. As TGFβ signalling and the production of its receptor TβRII is lower in both newborns and the elderly, we speculate that this may be a key reason why dermal ECM is mechanically more fragile in both cases. In addition, as structural molecules including decorin and versican

are also involved in various physiological processes such as collagenesis and elastogenesis but also in wound repair, angiogenesis, and in cell proliferation, adhesion and migration, we also speculate that PI formation may result from a decrease of the skin's ability to repair damage induced by pressure or friction.

- (7) The microvasculature of newborn skin presents a horizontal plexus with a capillary network that is not yet organized into capillary loops compared to adult skin, whereas ageing skin is associated with a reduced number and size of blood vessels. We speculate that this lower-level organization will lead to less-efficient or less finely regulated responses following pressure or shear force application.
- (8) Concerning the PIV mechanisms which allow the skin to resist light pressures, a decrease in responsiveness to NO and prostaglandin signalling pathways and an increase in responsiveness to TSP1, which limits the ability of NO to relax blood vessels, are correlated with skin ageing, explaining the observed decrease in the PIV response in the elderly correlated to a higher PI prevalence. Although we have few data for newborns, several observations suggest that the NO pathway is not directly or fully functional at birth in human skin and that TSP1 is more abundant around the endothelial cells of the newborn. This may result in a greater sensitivity of skin to pressure and a higher risk of PI, especially in preterm neonates.
- (9) Sensory perception and PIV induction are both significantly decreased during skin ageing with a reduced number of Meissner's corpuscles, Merkel cell neurite complexes and nerve fibre endings and reduced nerve myelination and conduction. At birth, skin sensitivity is also different and is less finely controlled compared to that of adults, due to immature sensory receptors, sensory fibres, connections between neurons and a drastically different neuroimmune response. The ability of the nervous system to induce PIV remains to be investigated.

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Figure legends

Fig. 1. Comparison of skin structure in newborn, adult and elderly skin. BL, basal layer; CL, capillary loop; DEJ, dermal–epidermal junction; ECM, extracellular matrix; ESG, eccrine sweat gland; GL, granular layer; SC, stratum corneum; SL, spinous layer.

Fig. 2. The key role of transforming growth factor beta (TGF β) signalling in skin. This pathway is not fully functional in newborn skin and is impaired during skin ageing. MMP, metalloproteinase; ROS, reactive oxygen species; Smad, suppressor of mothers against decapentaplegic; T β RII, TGF β receptor II; TIMP, metalloproteinase inhibitor.

Fig. 3. Effects of a higher pH on skin barrier function.

Fig. 4. Comparison of the pressure-induced vasodilation (PIV) mechanism in young adult and ageing skin. ASIC3, acid-sensing ion channel 3; CGRP, calcitonin gene-related peptide; EDHF, endothelium-derived hyperpolarizing factor; NO, nitric oxide; PACAP, pituitary adenylyl cyclase activating peptide; PGE2, prostaglandin E2; ROS, reactive oxygen species; TSP1, thrombospondin-1; VIP, vasoactive intestinal peptide.

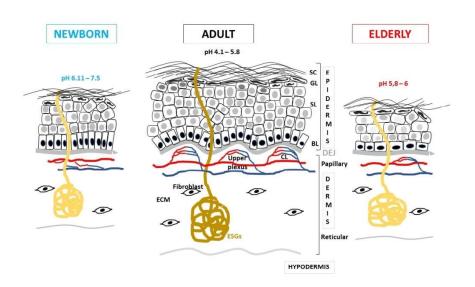


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Table 1. Comparison of skin structure and barrier functionality in newborn, young adult and elderly skin. Text entries for newborn and elderly skin are compared with that of young adults. BMI, body mass index; coll, collagen; DEJ, dermal—epidermal junction; ESG, eccrine sweat gland; NMF, natural moisturizing factor; PIV, pressure-induced vasodilation; SC, stratum corneum.

NEWBORN	YOUNG ADULT	ELDERLY
Thin SC (-30%) (Ya Xian et al., 1999; Stamatas et al., 2010) Very thin SC for preterm (Razmus et al., 2008) Thin epidermis (-20%)	Thick SC (Fairley & Rasmussen, 1983; Holbrook, 2000)	SC thickness similar to young adult or thicker depending on anatomical region (Waller & Maibach, 2005; Newton et al., 2017; Rawlings, 2017) Thin epidermis (-10 to -50%)
(Evans & Rutter, 1986; Stamatas et al., 2010; Przybysz et al., 2021) Very thin epidermis for preterm (Razmus et al., 2008)	(Mlosek <i>et al.</i> , 2011)	(Xu et al., 2017)
Very high cell proliferation and stem cell number and/or activation potential (Michel et al., 1997; Hoeger & Enzmann, 2002; Stamatas et al., 2010)	High cell proliferation	Low cell proliferation and stem cell number and/or activation potential (Kligman, 1979; Moragas et al., 1993; Lavker, 1995; Michel et al., 1997; Stamatas et al., 2006; Giangreco et al., 2008, 2010; Charruyer et al., 2009; Keyes et al., 2013)
pH 6.11–7.5 => Lower skin barrier function (Yosipovitch et al., 2000; Ludriksone et al., 2014)	pH 4.1–5.8 => High barrier function (Yosipovitch et al., 2000; Fluhr et al., 2001; Ali & Yosipovitch, 2013; Proksch, 2018)	Higher pH, increasing with age > Lower skin barrier function (Man et al., 2009; Schreml et al., 2012; Ali & Yosipovitch, 2013; Rittié & Fisher, 2015; Kilic et al., 2019)
Low SC hydration and dry and rough skin surface (0–2 weeks of age) (Saijo & Tagami, 1991; Visscher et al., 2000; Giusti et al., 2001; Yosipovitch et al., 2000; Hoeger & Enzmann, 2002; Nikolovski et al., 2008; Chittock et al., 2016) Missing vernix caseosa (preterm or post-term) => higher dehydration and impaired skin barrier function (Visscher et al., 2005; Telofski et al., 2012)	High SC hydration and smooth surface	Low SC hydration (at least for some anatomical regions) and dry and rough skin surface (Kligman, 1979; Tagami, 2008; Man et al., 2009; Luebberding et al., 2014)
Immature ESGs, low sebum production and less NMF (Foster et al., 1969; Agache et al., 1980; Saijo & Tagami, 1991; Emery et al., 1991; Henderson et al., 2000; Chittock et al., 2016; McAleer et al., 2018) No sweating for premature <36GA (Harpin & Rutter, 1982)	Functional ESGs and high sebum production => Well-hydrated skin (surface and SC)	Decreased activity of ESGs, low sebum production and less NMF (Pochi et al., 1979; Man et al., 2009; Luebberding et al., 2013; Farage et al., 2013; Rittié & Fisher, 2015)

Less-undulating DEJ with fewer	Undulating DEJ	Less-undulating DEJ
anchoring fibrils		=> Reduced nutritional exchanges and
=> Reduced nutritional exchanges and	=> Normal	higher mechanical fragility
higher mechanical fragility	nutritional	(Lavker <i>et al.</i> , 1987, 1989; Moragas <i>et</i>
(Evans & Rutter, 1986; Cartlidge, 2000;	exchanges	al., 1993; Desai, 1997; Giangreco et al.,
Razmus et al., 2008; Miyauchi et al.,		2010; Farage <i>et al.</i> , 2013; Hatje <i>et al.</i> ,
2016)		2015; Newton et al., 2017)
Flat DEJ for preterm babies		, ,
(Holbrook, 1982; Cartlidge, 2000)		
Thin dermis with gradual transition	Thick dermis with	Thin dermis (except in sun-exposed
between papillary and reticular	clear separation	area) with clear transition between
dermis	between papillary	papillary and reticular dermis
(Holbrook, 1982; Tan <i>et al.</i> , 1982;	and reticular dermis	(Shuster <i>et al.</i> , 1975; Giangreco <i>et al.</i> ,
Vitellaro-Zuccarello <i>et al.</i> , 1994;	(Mlosek <i>et al.</i> , 2011)	2010)
Stamatas et al., 2010; Przybysz et al.,	(141103CK ci ui., 2011)	2010)
2021; Reed <i>et al.</i> , 2021)		
Low fibroblast density	High fibroblast	Low fibroblast density
Immature and highly proliferative,	density	High senescence and low motility
	Mature and	(Pienta & Coffey, 1990; Dimri <i>et al.</i> ,
they maintain keratinocyte immaturity	proliferative	1995; Sgonc & Gruber, 2013)
(Pablos <i>et al.</i> , 1997; Živicová <i>et al.</i> ,	fibroblasts	1993, agone & Gruber, 2013)
	Horobiasts	
2017)	Tral	Engagement of and control of the 9 of 3
Low collagen synthesis	High collagen	Fragmented and coarsely distributed
(Arai et al., 2017)	synthesis	collagen I
Collagen fibrils smaller in preterm		=> Decreased mechanical tension in
neonates than at full-term		fibroblasts
(Holbrook, 1982)		(Quan & Fisher, 2015; Fisher et al.,
		2016; Shin <i>et al.</i> , 2019)
High coll III/coll I ratio	Low coll III/coll I	High coll III/coll I ratio
(Epstein, 1974; Shuttleworth & Forest,	ratio	(Lovell <i>et al.</i> , 1987)
1975; Cheng <i>et al.</i> , 2011)		
Low density of elastin network	High density of	Elastic fibre decrease and alteration
=> Lower elasticity	elastin network	=> Low elasticity
(Swee et al., 1995; Pasquali-Ronchetti &	=> High elasticity	(Braverman & Fonferko, 1982; Lavker et
Baccarani-Contri, 1997)		al., 1989; Swee et al., 1995; Valle-Orero
		et al., 2017; Shin et al., 2019)
Horizontal plexus with a capillary	Well-organized	Significant reduction of papillary
network not well organized	capillary network	loops and blood vessel number and
(Perera et al., 1970; Miyauchi et al.,	with papillary loops	size
2016)		Increased volume fraction in
Lower capillary density for preterm		horizontal vessels
infants		Sparse and tortuous vessels
(Bonamy <i>et al.</i> , 2007)		(Kligman, 1979; Kelly <i>et al.</i> , 1995;
		Chung et al., 2002; Betsholtz et al.,
		2005; Helmbold et al., 2006)
Immature Meissner's and Pacini's	High density of	Decreased number of Meissner's
corpuscles, immature AΔ- & C-fibres	functional sensory	corpuscles, Merkel cell neurite
Lower withdrawal threshold to	fibres	complexes and free nerve fibres,
mechanical stimulation, but lower	=> High and	including mechano-sensitive C-fibres
proportion of heat-sensitive C fibres	regulated sensitivity	=> Lower & impaired sensitivity
and immature synaptic connections in		and decreased PIV
the dorsal horn		(Panoutsopoulou et al., 2009; Fromy et
=> Sensitivity, but underlying		al., 2010; Namer, 2010; Tew et al., 2011;
mechanisms are different from adults		Bowden & McNulty, 2013; Garcia-
(Ritter et al., 1991, 1993; Ririe &		Piqueras <i>et al.</i> , 2019)
Eisenach, 2006; Koch <i>et al.</i> , 2012;		1,,
	1	
Jankowski <i>et al.</i> , 2014; Fitzgerald & McKelvey, 2016; Feito <i>et al.</i> , 2018)		

Low nerve conduction and myelination degree (Canta et al., 2016; Jenny et al., 2020)	High nerve conduction and myelination degree (Canta <i>et al.</i> , 2016)	Decreased nerve conduction and myelination degree (Canta <i>et al.</i> , 2016)
Thin hypodermis	Thicker hypodermis	Thinner hypodermis (normal BMI)
=> Lower shock attenuation	=> Higher shock	=> Lower shock attenuation
(Fereira et al., 2014)	attenuation	(Levakov et al., 2012; Rittié & Fisher,
Very thin or no hypodermis in	(Perin <i>et al.</i> , 2000;	2015)
preterm infants	Grunnet <i>et al.</i> , 2019)	,
(Fox, 2011; Orsso <i>et al.</i> , 2020)		



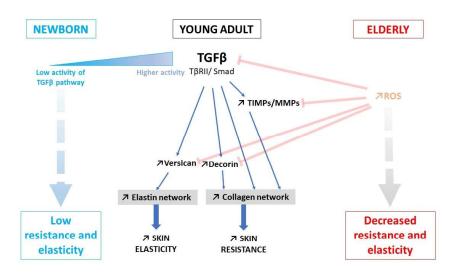


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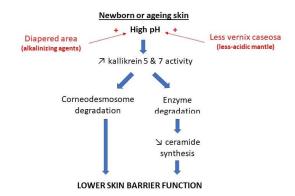


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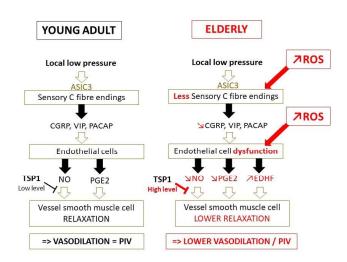


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