

# Chapter 2

## Predisposing Factors for Onychomycosis

Audrey A. Jacobsen and Antonella Tosti

### Key Features

- Onychomycosis is the most prevalent nail disease with a significant burden on quality of life.
- Age is the principal non-modifiable risk factor for onychomycosis development.
- Medical conditions such as diabetes, HIV infection, immunosuppressed states, concurrent tinea pedis, and peripheral artery disease increase the risk for onychomycosis.
- Physical and environmental factors that increase risk include obesity, certain athletic activities, and possibly smoking.

### Introduction

Onychomycosis is the most prevalent nail disease, representing up to 50 % of all nail problems and 30 % of all dermatophytoses [1]. It is estimated that over 10 million individuals suffer from onychomycosis in the United States [2], affecting between 2 and 26 % of the general population [2–6]. In Europe, tinea pedis and onychomycosis are estimated to affect a quarter of individuals [7]. Onychomycosis causes a significant burden on quality of life, causing high rates of embarrassment and other psychological sequelae [8–10], in addition to physical costs including pain and loss of dexterity [11].

---

A.A. Jacobsen, BA • A. Tosti, MD (✉)  
Department of Dermatology and Cutaneous Surgery,  
University of Miami, Miami, FL 33136, USA  
e-mail: [ajacobsen@miami.edu](mailto:ajacobsen@miami.edu); [atosti@med.miami.edu](mailto:atosti@med.miami.edu)

Onychomycosis is caused most commonly by dermatophytes followed by yeasts, then non-dermatophytic molds [12]. The predisposing factors, as well as the factors for relapse and reinfection, are important for clinicians to understand to optimize management strategies for at-risk individuals. Predisposing factors include genetic and non-modifiable risk factors, medical conditions, and physical and environmental influences (Table 2.1).

## State of Art

### *Genetic and Non-modifiable Risk Factors*

Age is the principal non-modifiable risk factor for the development of onychomycosis. The prevalence of onychomycosis increases significantly with age [13].

Estimates range from 15 to 47.7 % [8, 14, 15] in the elderly, compared to 0.44–0.6 % [8, 16] of children and 10–20 % [8] of adults. Poor peripheral circulation, repetitive nail trauma, diminished immune response, slower nail growth, and duration of exposure to fungi have been suggested as reasons for this age disparity [8]. However, while children experience the lowest prevalence, it is more often

### Clinical Pearls (Table 2.1)

**Table 2.1** Predisposing factors for onychomycosis

Category	Factors cited in the literature
Genetic and non-modifiable risk factors	Older age [8, 13–15] Male sex [13] Parent or child with onychomycosis [13] Autosomal dominant pattern of inheritance in distal subungual onychomycosis [18–21]. HLA-DR53 [22] and HLA-DR6 [23] may confer protection ICAM-1 deficiency in chronic nail candidiasis [25] Single nucleotide polymorphism in the Dectin-1 gene [26]
Medical conditions	Diabetes [27–31] Immunosuppression [13, 18, 33, 35] HIV infection [18, 33, 34] Concurrent tinea pedis infection [13, 36] Psoriasis [13, 37, 38] Peripheral arterial disease [40–42] Venous insufficiency [41, 43]
Physical and environmental factors	Athletic activity, especially swimming [2, 13, 44, 45] Nail trauma [8] Obesity [8, 46] Smoking [40] Increased prevalence of opportunistic fungal pathogens in the environment [47]

misdiagnosed in them [2]. Lastly, gender also plays a role; most studies have found a higher prevalence in males [13].

Genetic factors, such as inheritance patterns, the role of human leukocyte antigens (HLA), and intensity of immune response [17], have also been studied as potential predisposing factors. Distal subungual onychomycosis caused by *T. rubrum* shows an autosomal dominant pattern of inheritance (Fig. 2.1) [18–21]. Having a parent or child with onychomycosis has also been shown to be a predisposing factor [13].

Several studies have identified a possible role of HLA in the immune response of T cells to fungal peptides; HLA-DR53 [22] and HLA-DR6 [23] may confer protection. However, studies of the role of HLA are inconsistent as another study suggested HLA-controlled immunity is unlikely [24]. Other genetic risk factors may include ICAM-1 deficiency in familial chronic nail candidiasis [25]. Additionally, an allele of the Dectin-1 gene with a single nucleotide polymorphism was identified in a family with a propensity for onychomycosis and vulvovaginal candidiasis [26].

### ***Medical Factors***

Acquired medical conditions are significant predisposing factors for onychomycosis. Comorbid cutaneous, vascular, endocrine, infectious, and oncologic conditions have all been implicated [8]. For example, diabetics have a significantly higher



**Fig. 2.1** Distal lateral subungual onychomycosis due to *T. rubrum* in two sisters

likelihood of developing onychomycosis [27, 28], with an estimated one third of diabetics affected (Fig. 2.2) [27, 29]. In patients with diabetic foot complications, the prevalence is even higher, with 53.3 % of patients affected in one study [30]. Additionally, onychomycosis in diabetics can lead to serious complications including limb-threatening infections due to the micro- and macrovascular and neurologic sequelae of diabetes [29]. Diabetics are also prone to less common fungal organisms including *Aspergillus* [31]. Lastly, there is some evidence that onychomycosis in diabetics may be resistant to treatment, but studies are conflicting [8, 32].

Immunosuppressed patients such as those with HIV [18, 33] or cancer [13] are also at increased risk of developing onychomycosis. Studies of HIV-infected individuals have estimated a prevalence of a quarter [33] to 30.3% [18, 34] compared to 6.9 [33] to 12.6 % [34] of immunocompetent controls (Fig. 2.3). Associated factors in HIV-positive individuals include a CD4 count of 370 or less, family history, history of tinea pedis, use of swimming pools, and walking barefoot [33]. Proximal subungual onychomycosis is also more prevalent in immunosuppressed patients [33, 35]. Recurrent proximal subungual onychomycosis was identified in a patient with a defect in defect of polymorphonuclear chemotaxis [35]. There is also a risk of systemic dissemination in immunocompromised patients, particularly of *Fusarium* species [18]. Importantly, in patients with a compromised immune system, the usual dose and treatment length may not be appropriate and drug interactions may be an issue [18].



**Fig. 2.2** Distal lateral subungual onychomycosis and tinea pedis in a diabetic patient

**Fig. 2.3** Proximal subungual onychomycosis in a patient with HIV infection



**Fig. 2.4** Distal lateral subungual onychomycosis and psoriasis



Concurrent tinea pedis infection increases the risk of onychomycosis [13, 36]. Both the moccasin and interdigitalis form are implicated [13]. Tinea pedis is also associated with subclinical onychomycosis in which fungal organisms are isolated from the nails without any clinical manifestations. In a study of 35 patients with tinea pedis, 6 cases (17 %) had subclinical onychomycosis compared to 1 case (1.5 %) in the 66 control subjects [36]. Subclinical onychomycosis is also common in diabetics and is associated with neuropathy and poor glycemic control [29].

Dermatophytic invasion of involved psoriatic nails is more common than previously thought (Fig. 2.4) [37]. The organisms isolated from patients with psoriasis are similar to those of the normal population, although the odds of having onychomycosis are greater than those of the same age and sex [13, 38]. However, in an in-patient setting, the prevalence of onychomycosis among patients with psoriasis may not be different from those with other skin disorders [39].

Peripheral arterial disease and venous insufficiency are also thought to confer a greater risk for onychomycosis [40–42]. However, studies are conflicting. Ozkan et al. found a significant increase in onychomycosis in patients with venous insufficiency but not in peripheral arterial disease [41]. This contrasts with a study by Fukunaga et al. who found a significantly higher proportion of onychomycosis in patients with peripheral arterial disease than those without [43].

Other medical conditions that may show an increased risk include angioedema, urticaria, and asthma [13]. However, these connections were not strong and are not confirmed by any additional studies.

### ***Physical and Environmental Risk Factors***

Physical and environmental factors also play a role in the development of onychomycosis. For example, frequent athletic activity appears to increase the risk of onychomycosis [2, 44]. Athletes are more susceptible to developing toenail problems in general and onychomycosis is a common observance. However, the association between activity level and development onychomycosis is stronger in children and young adults than in older adults [2]. Swimming in particular has been associated with higher risk in several studies [13]; one study estimated the risk for toenail onychomycosis was three times higher for swimmers than the general population [45]. Further, wearing airtight shoes for sports like running and cycling is often associated with onychomycosis [2, 8].

Other physical and environmental factors that may increase the risk of onychomycosis include obesity [8, 46], nail damage [8], smoking [40], and prevalence of opportunistic fungal pathogens in a given environment [47]. Obesity may also negatively affect treatment outcomes; in two studies, topical 10 % efinaconazole was less effective in overweight or obese patients [8]. The evidence for smoking is less clear as studies are conflicting. One study found no correlation, but had too few heavy smokers to make any significant conclusions [13]. Another study by Gupta et al. found an association in smokers who attended a vascular clinic. However, the risk odds ratio was much higher for those with peripheral arterial disease (4.8) compared to those who smoked (1.9) [40].

### **Outlook: Future Developments**

The risk factors for relapse and reinfection are the same as the predisposing factors for onychomycosis [18]. However, the risk factors for dermatophytic infections are not the same as for mold onychomycosis. Moreover, no systemic or local predisposing factors for mold onychomycosis have been identified [48]. Important future directions will include recognizing any predisposing factors for



mold onychomycosis, if they exist, as well as optimizing or personalizing treatment plans based on what underlying conditions and predisposing conditions patients have.

### Summary for the Clinician

Predisposing factors for onychomycosis include genetic, medical, physical, and environmental factors. Certain comorbid medical conditions such as diabetes or an immunosuppressed state are especially associated with a higher prevalence of onychomycosis. Further, treatment for patients with certain diseases or physical characteristics, like diabetes and obesity, may be less effective. Identification and management of these underlying conditions is important.

## References

1. Summerbell RC, Kane J, Krajden S. Onychomycosis, tinea pedis and tinea manuum caused by non-dermatophytic filamentous fungi. *Mycoses*. 1989;32(12):609–19.
2. Caputo R, De Boulle K, Del Rosso J, Nowicki R. Prevalence of superficial fungal infections among sports-active individuals: results from the Achilles survey, a review of the literature. *J Eur Acad Dermatol Venereol (JEADV)*. 2001;15(4):312–6.
3. Elewski BE, Charif MA. Prevalence of onychomycosis in patients attending a dermatology clinic in northeastern Ohio for other conditions. *Arch Dermatol*. 1997;133(9):1172–3.
4. Heikkila H, Stubb S. The prevalence of onychomycosis in Finland. *Br J Dermatol*. 1995;133(5):699–703.
5. Sais G, Jugla A, Peyri J. Prevalence of dermatophyte onychomycosis in Spain: a cross-sectional study. *Br J Dermatol*. 1995;132(5):758–61.
6. Ghannoum MA, Hajjeh RA, Scher R, et al. A large-scale North American study of fungal isolates from nails: the frequency of onychomycosis, fungal distribution, and antifungal susceptibility patterns. *J Am Acad Dermatol*. 2000;43(4):641–8.
7. Pierard G. Onychomycosis and other superficial fungal infections of the foot in the elderly: a pan-European survey. *Dermatology*. 2001;202(3):220–4.
8. Elewski BE, Tosti A. Risk factors and comorbidities for onychomycosis: implications for treatment with topical therapy. *J Clin Aesthet Dermatol*. 2015;8(11):38–42.
9. Belyayeva E, Gregoriou S, Chalikias J, et al. The impact of nail disorders on quality of life. *Eur J Dermatol (EJD)*. 2013;23(3):366–71.
10. Schein JR, Gause D, Stier DM, Lubeck DP, Bates MM, Fisk R. Onychomycosis. Baseline results of an observational study. *J Am Podiatr Med Assoc*. 1997;87(11):512–9.
11. Milobratovic D, Jankovic S, Vukicevic J, Marinkovic J, Jankovic J, Railic Z. Quality of life in patients with toenail onychomycosis. *Mycoses*. 2013;56(5):543–51.
12. Papini M, Piraccini BM, Difonzo E, Brunoro A. Epidemiology of onychomycosis in Italy: prevalence data and risk factor identification. *Mycoses*. 2015;58(11):659–64.
13. Sigurgeirsson B, Steingrimsson O. Risk factors associated with onychomycosis. *J Eur Acad Dermatol Venereol (JEADV)*. 2004;18(1):48–51.
14. Polat M, Ilhan MN. Dermatological complaints of the elderly attending a dermatology outpatient clinic in Turkey: a prospective study over a one-year period. *Acta Dermatovenerol Croat (ADC)*. 2015;23(4):277–81.
15. Deo MS, Kerse N, Vandal AC, Jarrett P. Dermatological disease in the older age group: a cross-sectional study in aged care facilities. *BMJ Open*. 2015;5(12):e009941.

16. Gupta AK, Sibbald RG, Lynde CW, et al. Onychomycosis in children: prevalence and treatment strategies. *J Am Acad Dermatol*. 1997;36(3 Pt 1):395–402.
17. Gupta C, Das S, Ramachandran VG, et al. Possible role of trichophytin antigen in inducing impaired immunological clearance of fungus in onychomycosis. *Mycopathologia*. 2016; 181(3–4):247–51.
18. Tosti A, Hay R, Arenas-Guzman R. Patients at risk of onychomycosis—risk factor identification and active prevention. *J Eur Acad Dermatol Venereol (JEADV)*. 2005;19(Suppl 1):13–6.
19. Zaias N, Tosti A, Rebell G, et al. Autosomal dominant pattern of distal subungual onychomycosis caused by *Trichophyton rubrum*. *J Am Acad Dermatol*. 1996;34(2 Pt 1):302–4.
20. English MP. *Trichophyton rubrum* infection in families. *Br Med J*. 1957;1(5021):744–6.
21. Many H, Derbes VJ, Friedman L. *Trichophyton rubrum*: exposure and infection within household groups. *Arch Dermatol*. 1960;82:226–9.
22. Zaitz C, Campbell I, Moraes JR, et al. HLA-associated susceptibility to chronic onychomycosis in Brazilian Ashkenazic Jews. *Int J Dermatol*. 1996;35(9):681–2.
23. Asz-Sigall D, Lopez-Garcia L, Vega-Memije ME, et al. HLA-DR6 association confers increased resistance to *T. rubrum* onychomycosis in Mexican Mestizos. *Int J Dermatol*. 2010;49(12):1406–9.
24. Svejgaard E, Jakobsen B, Svejgaard A. HLA studies in chronic dermatophytosis caused by *Trichophyton rubrum*. *Acta Derm Venereol*. 1983;63(3):254–5.
25. Zuccarello D, Salpietro DC, Gangemi S, et al. Familial chronic nail candidiasis with ICAM-1 deficiency: a new form of chronic mucocutaneous candidiasis. *J Med Genet*. 2002;39(9): 671–5.
26. Ferwerda B, Ferwerda G, Plantinga TS, et al. Human dectin-1 deficiency and mucocutaneous fungal infections. *N Engl J Med*. 2009;361(18):1760–7.
27. Gupta AK, Konnikov N, MacDonald P, et al. Prevalence and epidemiology of toenail onychomycosis in diabetic subjects: a multicentre survey. *Br J Dermatol*. 1998;139(4):665–71.
28. Dogra S, Kumar B, Bhansali A, Chakrabarty A. Epidemiology of onychomycosis in patients with diabetes mellitus in India. *Int J Dermatol*. 2002;41(10):647–51.
29. Elbendary A, El Tawdy A, Zaki N, Alfishawy M, Rateb A. Subclinical onychomycosis in patients with type II diabetes. *Dermatol Reports*. 2015;7(3):6099.
30. Papini M, Cicoletti M, Fabrizi V, Landucci P. Skin and nail mycoses in patients with diabetic foot. *G Ital Dermatol Venereol (Organo ufficiale, Societa italiana di dermatologia e sifilografia)*. 2013;148(6):603–8.
31. Wijesuriya TM, Kottahachchi J, Gunasekara TD, et al. *Aspergillus* species: an emerging pathogen in onychomycosis among diabetics. *Indian J Endocrinol Metab*. 2015;19(6):811–6.
32. Vlahovic TC, Joseph WS. Efinaconazole topical, 10 % for the treatment of toenail onychomycosis in patients with diabetes. *J Drugs Dermatol (JDD)*. 2014;13(10):1186–90.
33. Gupta AK, Taborda P, Taborda V, et al. Epidemiology and prevalence of onychomycosis in HIV-positive individuals. *Int J Dermatol*. 2000;39(10):746–53.
34. Cribier B, Mena ML, Rey D, et al. Nail changes in patients infected with human immunodeficiency virus. A prospective controlled study. *Arch Dermatol*. 1998;134(10):1216–20.
35. Gianni C, Cerri A, Capsoni F, Ongari AM, Rossini P, Crosti C. Recurrent proximal white subungual onychomycosis associated with a defect of the polymorphonuclear chemotaxis. *Eur J Dermatol (EJD)*. 1999;9(5):390–2.
36. Walling HW. Subclinical onychomycosis is associated with tinea pedis. *Br J Dermatol*. 2009;161(4):746–9.
37. Staberg B, Gammeltoft M, Onsberg P. Onychomycosis in patients with psoriasis. *Acta Derm Venereol*. 1983;63(5):436–8.
38. Gupta AK, Lynde CW, Jain HC, et al. A higher prevalence of onychomycosis in psoriatics compared with non-psoriatics: a multicentre study. *Br J Dermatol*. 1997;136(5):786–9.
39. Larsen GK, Haedersdal M, Svejgaard EL. The prevalence of onychomycosis in patients with psoriasis and other skin diseases. *Acta Derm Venereol*. 2003;83(3):206–9.



40. Gupta AK, Gupta MA, Summerbell RC, et al. The epidemiology of onychomycosis: possible role of smoking and peripheral arterial disease. *J Eur Acad Dermatol Venereol (JEADV)*. 2000;14(6):466–9.
41. Ozkan F, Ozturk P, Ozyurt K, et al. Frequency of peripheral arterial disease and venous insufficiency in toenail onychomycosis. *J Dermatol*. 2013;40(2):107–10.
42. Saez de Ocariz MM, Arenas R, Ranero-Juarez GA, Farrera-Esponda F, Monroy-Ramos E. Frequency of toenail onychomycosis in patients with cutaneous manifestations of chronic venous insufficiency. *Int J Dermatol*. 2001;40(1):18–25.
43. Fukunaga A, Washio K, Ogura K, et al. Onychomycosis as a warning sign for peripheral arterial disease. *Acta Derm Venereol*. 2013;93(6):747–8.
44. Eisele SA. Conditions of the toenails. *Orthop Clin North Am*. 1994;25(1):183–8.
45. Gudnadottir G, Hilmarsdottir I, Sigurgeirsson B. Onychomycosis in Icelandic swimmers. *Acta Derm Venereol*. 1999;79(5):376–7.
46. Nurhan Doner SY, Tugba Rezan Emekci Evaluation of Obesity-Associated Dermatoses in Obese and Overweight Individuals. *Turkderm*. 2011;45(3):146–51.
47. Bandh SA, Kamili AN, Ganai BA, Lone BA. Opportunistic fungi in lake water and fungal infections in associated human population in Dal Lake, Kashmir. *Microb Pathog*. 2016;93:105–10.
48. Tosti A, Piraccini BM, Lorenzi S. Onychomycosis caused by nondermatophytic molds: clinical features and response to treatment of 59 cases. *J Am Acad Dermatol*. 2000;42(2 Pt 1): 217–24.