# Mycokeratinophiles: Pathogens of Onychomycosis

#### Sandeep Kotwal and Geeta Sumbali

Department of Botany, University of Jammu, Jammu, 180006 Corresponding author Email: geetasumbalippl@yahoo.co.in (Submitted on July 25, 2016; Accepted on September 20, 2016)

### ABSTRACT

Mycokeratinophiles are an ecologically important group of microorganisms that have the ability to cycle keratin, which is one of the most abundant and highly stable animal protein on the earth. These are vigorous and self-sufficient saprophytes as long as environmental conditions are favourable. However, they are opportunists and may become parasitic by accident. After becoming pathogenic, they are able to survive and multiply at host's body temperature, causing further infection by invading fresh keratinized tissues. Infection is transmitted from human to human or from animal to human by direct contact or by contact with infected hairs or epidermal cells. Infact, it is the only type of fungal infection known to be of contagious type. Such mycokeratinophiles, which cause diseases of skin, hair and nails in man and animals, are commonly called as dermatophytes and their infections are known as cutaneous mycoses or dermatomycoses. The dermatophytic fungi belong to one of the three genera- *Microsporum, Trichophyton or Epidermophyton.* In addition to the dermatophytes, some non-dermatophytic mycokeratinophiles are emerging as leading cause of onychomycosis, that is, fungal infection of toe nails and finger nails. It is the most common nail disorder present in 2-13 per cent of general population, increasing up to 48 percent by 70 years of age. Although onychomycosis is rarely life threatening, its high incidence, prevalence and associated morbidity, makes it an important public health problem.

Key Words: Mycokeratinophiles, mycoses, onychomycosis, dermatophytes, non-dermatophytes.

### INTRODUCTION

Mycokeratinophiles are an ecologically important group of microorganisms that have attracted the attention of researchers chiefly because they play an important role in the decomposition of keratin substrates and could be pathogenic to animals, including human beings causing mycosis. Secondly, since mycokeratinophiles are active producers of extracellular keratinases, they can be used in bioremediation of such wastes and waste contaminated sites. For example, several million tonnes of feather waste is generated by poultry and other livestock, which otherwise adds to environmental pollution can be converted into feather meal by using the keratinophilic/ keratinolytic fungi (Shih, 1993; Bertach and Coello, 2005). Addition of feather meal to the animal feed improves digestibility, results in bolstered growth of the poultry and can also be used as slow nitrogen releasing fertilizers (Kushwaha and Gupta, 2008). Keratinases produced by these fungi can be utilized in enzyme-based detergents, cleaning up of clogged drains, leather industry for dehairing, modification of silk and wool fibres, treatment of acne and psoriasis, additives in skin-lightening agents (Kushwaha and Gupta, 2008). Keratinases have also been found to degrade prion protein, leading to the cure of mad cow disease (Shih and Wang, 2006; Wang et al., 2007).

#### **Distribution and abundance**

Soil is the natural reservoir of mycokeratinophiles. Their presence and distribution in the soil depends largely on the amount of keratinic material available due to the activities of man or his domestic animals or the wild animals (Mercantini *et al.*, 1983). Other ecological and environmental factors, such as pH, temperature, humidity, soil profile, soil texture and structure also play an important role in their abundance and distribution (Chmel *et al.*, 1972; Vollekova, 1984). In addition, their existence in the soil may also be influenced by the presence of other microbes, namely the bacteria and other fungal species, which may exert antagonistic effects (Srivastava *et al.*, 1990). Reports on the presence of these fungi in different soil habitats of various countries indicate that they are worldwide in distribution. The first report of a

mycokeratinophile growing saprophytically in nature was that of Szathmary (1936), who isolated *Trichophyton primum* (*T. gypseum*) from the mud watercourses in the park of the University of Peco. Later, Emmons (1942) demonstrated that soil surveying is an excellent method for discovering the natural habitats of the fungi that are capable of causing human and animal diseases. In 1952, Vanbreuseghem introduced the hair-bait technique, which has been of immense help in the selective isolation of mycokeratinophiles from soil. Since then, this important group of microbes have attracted the interest of mycologists throughout the world (Marchisio, 2000).

A survey of literature reveals presence of keratinophilic fungi in the soil of different countries like United States (Daniels, 1954; Rippon and Medenica, 1964; Baxter, 1966, 1969), Australia and New Guinea (Duries and Frey, 1955), New Zealand and Polynsian Island (Marples, 1965), Japan (Kominami, 1961), Canada (Carmichael, 1962; Padhye et al., 1973; Currah et al., 1996), Czechoslovakia (Otsenasek and Dvorak, 1964; Repova, 1990), Egypt (Taylor et al., 1964; Abdel- Fattah et al., 1982; Youssef et al., 1992), Italy (Ajello et al., 1965; Caretta and Piontelli, 1975; Caretta et al., 1992; Mancianti et al., 1997), Pakistan (Mohammed et al., 1971; Soomro et al., 1990), Israel (Feuerman et al., 1975), Kenya (Mohammed and Lalji, 1978), Spain (Calvo et al., 1984; Guarro et al., 1981; 1987 a, b; Gene et al. 1996; Cabanes et al., 1997), France (Chabasse, 1988; Agut et al., 1995), Jordan (Ali- Shtayeh, 1988; Ali- Shtayeh and Sheikh, 1988; Ali-Shtayeh and Arda, 1989), Zambia (Simpanya and Baxter, 1997) and Iran (Soleymani et al., 2015).

In India, studies on mycokeratinophiles commenced with the work of Dey and Kakoti (1955), who isolated *Microsporum gypseum* from a soil sample collected from an animal house in Dibrugarh, Assam. Since then, a number of workers have reported occurrence of mycokeratinophiles from the soils of different states like Uttar Pradesh (Nigam and Kushwaha, 1985,1987; Mitra *et al.*, 1998), Rajasthan (Singh *et al.*, 1994), Maharashtra (Padhye and Thirumalachar, 1968), Orissa (Ghosh and Bhatt, 2000), Madhya Pradesh (Agnihotri and

Agarwal, 1989), Delhi (Randhawa and Sandhu, 1965), Chattisgarh (Deshmukh and Shukla, 2000), Tamil Nadu (Ramesh and Hilda, 1999), Jammu and Kashmir (Kaul and Sumbali, 1994, 2000a,b; Kotwal and Sumbali, 2011, 2014; Jandial and Sumbali, 2011; Deshmukh and Agarwal, 2003) and Andaman Islands (Dixit and Kushwaha, 1990).

Enrichment of soil with keratinous material is most conducive for the occurrence and growth of mycokeratinophiles (Padhye et al., 1967; Otcenasek, 1978; Mercantini et al., 1980, 1983). On the other hand, saline soils, dry- river sand, beach sand and barren road side soils have been reported as poor sources of mycokeratinophiles (Randhawa and Sandhu, 1965; Abdel- Fattah et al., 1982). Report of some mycokeratinophiles like Chrysosporium indicum and C. keratinophilum in the soil of Antarctic region having a temperature of  $-4^{\circ}$ C are of considerable importance as it shows their adaptability and tolerance to freezing temperature (Caretta and Piontelli, 1977; Mercantini et al., 1989; Del- Frate and Caretta, 1990). Similarly, occurrence and survival of mycokeratinophiles has also been reported from cold arid soils of Ladakh (Deshmukh et al., 2010; Kotwal and Sumbali, 2011, 2014). Generally, mycokeratinophiles are considered to be mesophilic (Giuseppe et al., 1987) but some strains are reported thermotolerant (Moharram et al., 1988) and few reports indicate that they can adapt themselves to adverse temperatures for their survival (Pugh and Allsopp, 1982; Punsola and Guarro, 1984).

Mycokeratinophiles have also been categorized into various groups on the basis of vertical distribution in grassland and forest soils (Qureshi *et al.*, 2005). In both types of soil, the upper profiles contain the most diverse population. Moreover, the number of isolates from the deeper layers decreases as the distance from the upper surface increases. Chmel and Vlacilikova (1975) recovered mycokeratinophiles even from a depth of 55 cm. The differences in species number in soil profiles may be associated with adaptation to development at low partial pressure of oxygen and high carbon dioxide concentration in deep sites. The vertical distribution also seems to be associated with the concentration of keratinic substrates and with the composition of soil atmosphere. Rai and Qureshi (1994) found that mycokeratinophiles also differ in their substrate preference for colonization.

Mycokeratinophiles have also been reported from dung (Caretta *et al.*, 1976), sewage sludge (Ulfig and Koreez, 1983), school floor dust (Mercantini *et al.*, 1983), parks and gardens (Marsella *et al.*, 1985; Volz *et al.*, 1991; Caretta *et al.*, 1992; Vidyasagar *et al.*, 2005; Solari *et al.*, 2005; Mahmoudabadi and Zarrin, 2008; Sharma and Sharma, 2009), lake side soils (Govil *et al.*, 2001), hospital dust (Vidyasagar *et al.*, 2005), meteorite crater soils (Deshmukh and Verekar, 2006) and paddy soils (Shrivastava *et al.*, 2008). In addition mycokeratinophiles have also been reported from feathers and nests of some birds (Ajello, 1953; Pugh, 1964, 65, 66; Otcenasek *et al.*, 1967; Rees, 1968; Hubalek, 1974).

## Degradation of keratins by mycokeratinophiles

Mycokeratinophiles have the ability to cycle keratin, which is

one of the most abundant and highly stable animal protein on the earth. Infact, these fungi possess the ability to degrade hard keratin and utilize it as a source of carbon, nitrogen and sulphur. Keratins (Greek word for 'horn'), which are insoluble fibrous proteins derived from the ectoderm are poorly biodegradable. According to Nelson and Cox (2005), there are two kinds of keratins (**Fig. 1**):

i) Alpha-keratins: These contain most of the common amino acids but are primarily rich in cystine residues and disulphide bridges. The rigid and brittle forms like horns and nails contain up to 22 per cent cystine, whereas the soft and flexible forms in the skin, hair and wool contain only 10 to 14 per cent. The alpha- keratins constitute an ecological problem as they are resistant to degradation by most of the microbes due to the tight packing of their polypeptide chains in the alpha-helix structures and due to their linkage by disulphide bridges (Marchisio, 2000).

**ii) Beta-keratins:** These lack both cystine and cysteine but are rich in amino acids with short side chains, especially glycine, alanine and serine. They are found in the fibers of spiders and silkworms, and in the scales, claws and beaks of reptiles and birds.

Due to the strength and stability of keratin, very few organisms are able to break it down and utilize it. These include few insects (e.g., the larvae of wool, feather and fur moths), helminths, bacteria (e.g., *Bacillus* species, thermophilic *Fervidobacterium pennavorans* and some actinomycetes), birds of prey, water moulds and some geophilic fungal species. Among these, the biggest group of organisms that can utilize keratin as the sole source of carbon, nitrogen and sulphur are the mycokeratinophiles belonging to *Ascomycetes, Zygomycetes* and *Chytridiomycetes* (Noval and Nickerson, 1959; Tribe and Abu-El-Souod, 1979).

Most of the ascomycetous keratinophiles belong to families *Arthrodermataceae* and *Onygenaceae* of the order *Onygenales* (Currah, 1985). The *Arthrodermataceae* and *Onygenaceae* are unusual in that majority of them are associated with birds and mammals. These are true mycokeratinophiles that vigorously degrade keratin and include important human and animal pathogens. Other commonly recovered mycokeratinophilic genera include *Chrysosporium, Geomyces, Malbranchea, Microsporum, Oideodendron, Sporendonema, Trichophyton* and their telomorphs (Kushwaha and Gupta, 2008).

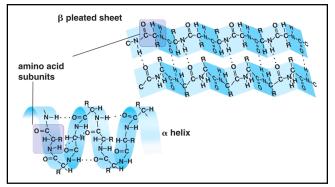


Fig. 1: Structure of alpha- and beta keratin (Nelson and Cox, 2005)

## **Ecological and biological significance**

The ecological role of geophilic mycokeratinophiles is undoubtedly of prime importance as they degrade the keratinized material, which may be added to the soil from various sources in the form of feathers, hairs, nails, hoofs, horns, wool and related appendages as wastes. Hence, soil provides most conducive habitat for the growth and multiplication of keratinophilic fungi. In the soil, these fungi usually exist in their telomorphic (sexual) state, whereas on the keratinized material, they usually exist in an anamorphic (asexual) state in which they develop only a very simple morphology. When there is ample of keratin substrate available in the soil, these fungi multiply by asexual means by producing enormous number of conidia (aleuroconidia and arthroconidia). However, when the keratin substrate is depleted, these fungi reproduce by sexual means and form characteristic sexual fruiting bodies. The thick-walled sexual and some asexual spores are the propagules for the next generation and can remain dormant until fresh keratin or an alternative source of nutrition becomes available. In natural environments, keratinophilic fungi are involved in recycling of carbon, nitrogen and sulphur present in keratins by the action of three factors (Kunert, 2000):

- i) **Deamination.** Creating an alkaline environment needed for swelling, sulphitolysis and proteolytic attack.
- **ii**) **Sulphitolysis.** Denaturing the substrate by removing its disulphide bridges.
- **iii**) **Proteolysis.** Cleaving the denatured substrate to soluble products.

Mycokeratinophiles are vigorous and self- sufficient saprophytes as long as environmental conditions are favourable. However, they are opportunists and may become parasitic by accident. After becoming pathogenic, they are able to survive and multiply at host's body temperature, causing further infection by invading fresh keratinized tissues. Infection is transmitted from human to human or from animal to human by direct contact or by contact with infected hairs or epidermal cells. Infact, it is the only type of fungal infection known to be of contagious type. Such mycokeratinophiles, which cause diseases of skin and hair in man and animals, are commonly called as dermatophytes and their infections are known as cutaneous mycoses or dermatomycoses. These fungi, by virtue of their ability to colonize epidermal appendages, may become a source of sanitary danger to human health and accordingly, from time to time they have drawn the attention of various medical and veterinary epidemiologists. The dermatophytic fungi are keratinolytic in nature and belong to one of the three genera-Microsporum, Trichophyton or Epidermophyton. In addition to the dermatophytes, the non-dermatophytic mycokeratinophiles are emerging as leading cause of onychomycosis (Elewski, 1998; Raghavendra et al., 2015).

The potential pathogenicity of mycokeratinophiles has been considered as a natural evolution from its presence in the soil (geophilic species) to invasion of cornified substrata in animals (zoophilic species) and man (anthropophilic species). Based on habitat, nature and epidemiology, dermatophytes are classified into three broad categories (Ajello, 1960):

i) **Geophilic**, which are saprobic, occur mainly in soil and are rarely pathogenic.

**ii**) **Zoophilic**, which are mainly parasitic to lower animals and are transmitted through contact.

**iii**) **Anthropophilic,** which are mainly parasitic to humans and cause dermatomycoses.

Molecular studies based on the DNA sequence analysis of the ribosomal ITS (Internal Transcribed Spacer) region have shown that these three groups are also phylogenetically distinct (Graser et al., 2000). The PCR based nucleic acid amplification procedures such as arbitrary primed PCR (AP-PCR) amplification techniques can rapidly distinguish dermatophytes and other keratinophilic fungal species examined through the generation of characteristic band patterns. Development of species-specific primers and probes for individual dermatophytes are more practical and precise methods for molecular detection (Pakshir et al., 2013). In molecular identification, similarity and phylogeny of internal transcribed spacer (ITS) sequences of two related species is also studied (Woodgyer, 2004). These ITS regions of ribosomal DNA are used as primer and amplified. For isolation of a particular ITS region, specific restriction enzymes are used. Location of a specific gene in the genome is also used for molecular identification. Molecular markers also known as DNA markers which play important role for identification of particular species and are either PCR based or non PCR based methods. Molecular markers include Restriction Fragment length Polymorphism (RFLP), Random Amplified Polymorphic DNA (RAPD), Amplified Fragment length Polymorphism (AFLP), Simple Sequence Repeats (SSR), Inter Simple Sequence Repeats (ISSR), and Single Nucleotide Polymorphism (SNP), etc. Identification of dermatophytes by Matrix Assisted laser desorption ionization time-of-flight (MALDI-TOF) is reported by Erhard et al., (2008). Molecular identification of mycokeratinophiles can also be done by purification of keratinase. Keratinase is separated by SDS-PAGE technique. The protein separation by SDS-PAGE is based on molecular weight of the compounds. In this technique polyacrylamide gel is used for separation. When electric field is applied, keratinase is separated according to molecular weight. For identification, the gel is stained with coomassie blue for 2 hours (El-Gayar et al., 2012).

### Mycokeratinophiles in causing Onychomycosis

Mycokeratinophiles cause infection of the nails also called as ungual mycosis or onychomycosis, a term derived from the Greek word "Onychos", which means nail, and "mycosis" is an infection by fungi. The fungal invasion frequently causes hyperkeratosis reaction and a greater or lesser degree of destruction to the external layers or other structures of the nails (**Fig. 2**).

Onychomycosis generally means chronic fungal infection of toe nails and finger nails caused by different species of dermatophytes, saprophytic moulds, yeasts and yeast-like

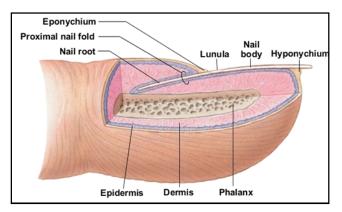


Fig. 2: Internal structure of the nail.

fungi. It is the most common nail disorder present in 2-13 per cent of general population, increasing up to 48 per cent by 70 years of age (Lilly *et al.*, 2006). Onychomycosis caused by dermatophytes is called *Tinea unguium* (Anaissie *et al.*, 2003) and the dermatophytic fungi causing it include species of *Trichophyton*, *Microsporum* and *Epidermophyton*. Other accountable non-dermatophytic species are yeast and yeastlike fungi, such as, species of *Candida*, *Geotrichum*, *Trichosporon* and saprophytic fungi like species of *Aspergillus*, *Alternaria*, *Cephalosporium*, *Scopulariopsis*, *Fusarium*, *Acremonium* and *Penicillium* (Khosravi and Mansouri, 2001). Mycokeratinophiles (both dermatophytes and non-dermatophytes) reported so far as causal agents of onychomycosis are listed in **table 1** and **table 2**.

Onychomycosis caused by dermatophytes is often symptomatic and can cause functional impairment. Its clinical appearance involves hyperkeratosis with thickening and discoloration of the nail plate. Other disorders such as nail psoriasis, lichen planus and nail trauma may yield a nearly

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<b>Pable I</b> · Dermato	nhytic	• ±11n σ1	associated	with ony	vehomveosis
Table 1: Dermato	phytic	rungi	associated	withon	yenomyeosis.

Dermatophytic	Country	References
fungi		
Trichophyton	Iceland	Gudnadottir et al., (1999)
rubrum	Italy	Romano et al., (2005)
	India	Kaur et al., (2008); Veer et al., (2007)
	Iran	Asadi et al., (2009)
	Pakistan	Farwa et al., (2011)
T. mentagrophytes	Iceland	Gudnadottir et al., (1999)
	Italy	Romano et al., (2005)
	India	Kaur et al., (2008); Veer et al., (2007)
	Iran	Asadi et al., (2009)
	Pakistan	Farwa et al., (2011)
T. violaceum	Italy	Romano et al., (2005)
	Iran	Asadi et al., (2009)
T. tonsurans	Iran	Asadi et al., (2009)
T. verrucosum	Iran	Asadi et al., (2009)
T.simii	Spain	Torres-Rodriguez and Lopez-Jodra (2000)
T.concentricum	Spain	Torres-Rodriguez and Lopez-Jodra (2000)
T.megnini	Spain	Torres-Rodriguez and Lopez-Jodra (2000)
T. shoenleinii	Spain	Torres-Rodriguez and Lopez-Jodra (2000)
T. soudanense	Spain	Torres-Rodriguez and Lopez-Jodra (2000)
T. tonsurans	Spain	Torres-Rodriguez and Lopez-Jodra (2000)
	Pakistan	Farwa et al., (2011)
T. interdigitale	Pakistan	Farwa et al., (2011)
Microsporum	India	Madhavi et al., (2011)
gypseum		
M. canis	Paris	Torres-Rodriguez and Lopez-Jodra (2000)
	Tehran	Nowrozi et al., (2008)
M. audouinii	Tehran	Nowrozi et al., (2008)
Epidermophyton	Italy	Romano et al., (2005)
floccosum	India	Kaur et al., (2008)
	Iran	Asadi et al., (2009)

identical picture (Scher and Baran, 2003).On the basis of their clinical appearance, onychomycosis is classified into four types (Roberts *et al.*, 2003; Kaur *et al.*, 2008):

i) **Distal subungual onychomycosis (DSO):** It is the most common form of *Tinea unguium*, in which the fungal infection invades the nail bed and the underside of the nail plate (**Fig. 3A**).

Table2: Non-dermatophytic fungi associated with onychomycosis.

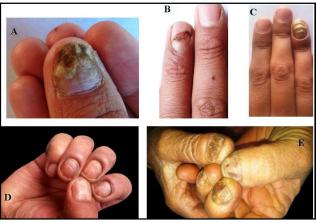
Non- Dermatophytic	Country	References
fungi Candida albicans	Italy, New York,	Romano et al., (2005); Scher et al., (2007);
Cunatata atolicans	India, Iran,	Komalo et al., (2005), Scher et al., (2007), Kaur et al., (2008), Veer et al., (2007);
	Nigeria, Pakistan	Asadi <i>et al.</i> , (2009); Efuntoye <i>et al.</i> , (2011);
	rugeria, i akistan	Farwa <i>et al.</i> , (2011)
C. parapsilosis	Italy, Mexico, Korea,	Romano et al., (2005); Manzano-Gayosso et
e. paraponosis	Chile	al., (2008); Kim et al., (2013); Fich et al.,
	cillic	(2014)
C. krusei	Italy, Pakistan	Romano et al., (2005); Farwa et al., (2011)
C. guilliermondii	Spain, Iran, Korea,	Torres-Rodriguez and Lopez-Jodra (2000);
	Chile	Asadi et al., (2009); Kim et al., (2013);
		Fich et al., (2014)
C. tropicalis	Spain, Iran, Nigeria	Torres-Rodriguez and Lopez-Jodra (2000),
		Asadi et al., (2009), Efuntoye et al., (2011)
C. lipolytica	Mexico	Manzano-Gayosso et al., (2008)
C. glabrata	Mexico, Pakistan,	Manzano-Gayosso <i>et al.</i> , (2008); Farwa <i>et al.</i> ,
<i>C</i> 1	Korea	(2011); Kim <i>et al.</i> , (2013)
C. granuloma	Mexico	Manzano-Gayosso <i>et al.</i> , (2008)
C. sake	Spain	Torres-Rodriguez and Lopez-Jodra (2000)
C. zeylanoides	Australia, Mexico	Crozier (1993); Manzano-Gayosso et al.,
C famata	Spain	(2008) Torres Podriguez and Lopez Jodra (2000)
C. famata Aspergillus flavus	Spain Spain, Iran, India	Torres-Rodriguez and Lopez-Jodra (2000) Torres-Rodriguez and Lopez-Jodra (2000);
rispergiuus juivus	Span, nan, mula	Asadi et al., (2009); Raghavendra et al.,
		(2015) (2009); Ragnavendra et al.,
A. sydowii	India, Spain	Wadhwani and Srivastava (1985); Torres-
syuonn	au, opun	Rodriguez and Lopez-Jodra (2000)
A. fumigatus	Italy, Spain, Iran,	Romano et al., (2005); Torres-Rodriguez and
J	Nigeria	Lopez-Jodra (2000); Asadi <i>et al.</i> , (2009);
	U	Efuntoye et al., (2011)
A. niger	India, Nigeria, India	Wadhwani and Srivastava (1985); Efuntoye et
-	-	al., (2011); Raghavendra et al., (2015)
A. nidulans	Nigeria, India	Efuntoye et al., (2011); Shrihari et al., (2012)
A. glaucus	India	Shrihari et al., (2012)
A. tamarii	Denmark	Kristensen et al., (2005)
A. versicolor	Spain	Torres-Rodriguez and Lopez-Jodra (2000)
A. candidus	Spain	Torres-Rodriguez and Lopez-Jodra (2000)
A. terreus	Spain, Nigeria, India	Torres-Rodriguez and Lopez-Jodra (2000);
		Efuntoye et al., (2011); Shrihari et al., (2012)
A. persii	Italy	Zotti et al., (2010)
A. ustus	Spain	Torres-Rodriguez and Lopez-Jodra (2000)
A. nomius	Italy	Zotti et al., (2011)
Alternaria alternata	Pakistan	Farwa et al., (2011)
A. humicola	USA India	Martinez-Herrera <i>et al.</i> , (2015) Wadhwani and Srivastava (1985)
A. pluriseptata	India	Wadhwani and Srivastava (1985)
Fusarium oxysporum	Canada, Brazil, Italy,	Gupta <i>et al.</i> , (2000); Godoy <i>et al.</i> , (2004);
1 usunum oxysporum	India, Nigeria	Romano <i>et al.</i> , (2005); Chithra <i>et al.</i> , (2008);
		Efuntoye <i>et al.</i> , (2011)
F. equiseti	India	Jandial and Sumbali (2012)
F. heterosporum	India	Jandial and Sumbali (2012)
F. solani	Canada, Brazil,	Gupta et al., (2000); Godoy et al., (2004);
	Nigeria, Pakistan,	Efuntoye et al., (2011); Farwa et al., (2011);
	India	Bhou and Sumbali (2015a)
F. proliferatum	India	Bhou and Sumbali (2015a)
F. moniliforme	Nigeria	Efuntoye et al., (2011)
F. dimerum	Pakistan, India	Farwa <i>et al.</i> , (2011); Ranawaka <i>et al.</i> , (2015);
E	Testin	Ray et al.,(2016)
F. verticilloides	India	Bhou and Sumbali (2015a)
F. pallidoroseum	India	Bhou and Sumbali (2015a) Bhou and Sumbali (2015a)
F. chlamydosporum	India	Bhou and Sumbali (2015a)
Penicillium marneffei P. chrysogenum	India Ni geri a	Ghosh et al.,(2015) Efuntova et al. (2011)
	Nigeria	Efuntoye et al., (2011) Patawi et al. (2006)
P. notatum Cladosporium	Egypt	Batawi <i>et al.</i> , (2006) Kaur <i>et al.</i> (2008)
Cladosporium carrionii	India	Kaur <i>et al.</i> , (2008)
C. sphaerospermum	India	Kaur et al., (2008)
2. spinerospermun	Pakistan	Farwa <i>et al.</i> , (2003)
C aladoance: -: 1	China	Shi et al., (2016)
C. cladosporioides	Mexico	Manzano-Gayosso et al.,(2008)
		Manzano-Gayosso et al.,(2008)
Cryptococcus albidus		Walizalio-Gayosso <i>et al</i> . (2008)
Cryptococcus albidus C. uniguttulates	Mexico Mexico	Manzano-Gayosso et al.,(2008)
Cryptococcus albidus	Mexico	Manzano-Gayosso et al.,(2008)
Cryptococcus albidus C. uniguttulates C. laurentii Chrysosporium	Mexico Mexico	
Cryptococcus albidus C. uniguttulates C. laurentii	Mexico Mexico	Manzano-Gayosso et al.,(2008)
Cryptococcus albidus C. uniguttulates C. laurentii Chrysosporium keratinophilum	Mexico Mexico Mexico	Manzano-Gayosso et al.,(2008) Manzano-Gayosso et al.,(2008)
Cryptococcus albidus C. uniguttulates C. laurentii Chrysosporium keratinophilum Cunninghamella	Mexico Mexico Mexico India Japan, India, Canada,	Manzano-Gayosso et al.,(2008) Manzano-Gayosso et al.,(2008) Tadepalli et al., (2015) Hattori et al., (2000); Latha et al., (2010);
Cryptococcus albidus C. uniguttulates C. laurentii Chrysosporium keratinophilum Cunninghamella bertholletiae	Mexico Mexico Mexico India	Manzano-Gayosso et al.,(2008) Manzano-Gayosso et al.,(2008) Tadepalli et al., (2015)

Table. 2 Contd.....

Non- Dermatophytic fungi	Country	References		
Curvularia spp.	India	Veer et al., (2007); Pukhrambam et al., (2011)		
Syncephalastrum	Serbia, Slovenia,	Pavlovic and Bulaji (2006); Milos et al.,		
racemosum	India	(2006); Kumaran and Rudramurthy (2014);		
racemosum	india	(2000); Kumaran and Rudramutury (2014); Baby <i>et al.</i> , (2015)		
Exophiala jeanselmei	France, India	Boisseau- Garsaud et al., (2002);		
		Pukhrambam et al., (2011); Sharma et		
		al.,(2012)		
E. oligosperma	Taiwan	Wen et al., (2016)		
Emericella	India	Gugnani et al., (2004)		
	IIIUIa	Oughani ei u., (2004)		
quadrilineata				
Botryodiplodia	India	Kaur et al., (2008)		
theobromae				
Onycochola	India	Kaur et al., (2008)		
canadensis				
Scytalidium	New York, India,	Scher et al., (2007); Kaur et al., (2008); Asadi		
dimidiatum	Iran, Pakistan	et al., (2009); Farwa et al., (2011)		
S. hyalinum	New York, India,	Scher et al., (2007); Kaur et al., (2008); Asadi		
	Iran	et al., (2009)		
Geotrichum	India	Kaur et al., (2008); Lungran et al., (2014)		
candidum				
Scopulariopsis	Belgium, Italy, India,	Pierard (2001);Romano et al., (2005); Kaur et		
brevicaulis	Pakistan, Korea,	al., (2008); Farwa et al., (2011); Lee et al.,		
	Guatemala	(2012); Martinez –Herrera et al., (2015)		
Acremonium potronii	Cleveland	Elewski (1998)		
Trichoderma sp.	Turkey	Hilmioglu-Polat et al., (2005)		
Cladophialophora	Pakistan	Farwa <i>et al.</i> , (2011)		
	1 aKIMAII	1 ai wa ĉi (l., (2011)		
carrionii				
Ulocladium	Pakistan	Farwa et al., (2011)		
chartarum				
U. botrytis	Italy	Romano et al., (2005)		
Trichosporon asahii	Mexico	Manzano-Gayosso et al., (2008)		
T. mucoides	India, Italy			
1. mucolaes	India, Italy	Sageerabanoo et al., (2011); Rizzitelli et al.,		
		(2016)		
T. beigelii	India, Korea, Texas,	Vijaya et al., (2000); Kumar (2014); Han et		
		al., (2000); Elmer et al., (2002)		
Paecilomyces	Italy	Innocenti et al., (2010)		
lilacinus				
	N/ -	4		
P. variotii	Mexico	Arenas et al., (1998)		
Rhizopus spp.	India, Malaysia,	Pukhrambam et al., (2011); Shrihari et al.,		
	Guatemala	(2012); Leelavathi et al., (2012); Martinez -		
		Herrera et al., (2015)		
Mucor spp.	India	Pukhrambam et al., (2011); Shrihari et al.,		
macor opp.	mund	(2012)		
H 1 · 4 · · ·	T. 41.			
Helminthosporium	India	Kannan et al., (2006)		
spp.				
Hendersonula	Nigeria	Gugnani et al., (1986)		
toruloidea	U			
Rhizomucor sp.	Malayeia	Leelayathi at al. (2012)		
	Malaysia	Leelavathi et al., (2012)		
Nigrospora sphaerica	China	Fan et al., (2009); Huang et al., (2009)		
Pichia ohmeri	Mexico	Manzano-Gayosso et al., (2008)		
Epicoccum spp.	India	Kumar (2014)		
Absidiasp.	India	Shrihari et al., (2012)		
		Leelavathi et al., (2012)		
Madurella spp.	Malaysia			
Hortaea spp.	Malaysia	Leelavathi et al., (2012)		
Aureobasidiumsp.	Malaysia	Leelavathi et al., (2012)		
Phialemonium spp.	Malaysia	Leelavathi et al., (2012)		
Phialophora spp.	Malaysia	Leelavathi et al., (2012)		
Pseudallescheria spp.	India	Pukhrambam <i>et al.</i> , (2011)		
	Malaysia	Leelavathi et al., (2012)		
Nattrassia spp.	Malaysia	Leelavathi et al., (2012)		
Arthrographispp.	Malaysia	Leelavathi et al., (2012)		
Rhodotorula spp.	India	Pukhrambam et al., (2011)		
rorouororaud spp.				
D.I.	Malaysia	Leelavathi et al., (2012)		
Debaromyces spp.	Malaysia	Leelavathi et al., (2012)		
Saccharomyces spp.	Malaysia	Leelavathi et al., (2012)		
Sporobolomyces spp.	Malaysia	Leelavathi et al., (2012)		
Scedosporium spp.	Finland	Issakainen et al., (2007)		
Verticillium spp.	India	Pukhrambam et al., (2011)		
<i>Bipolaris</i> spp.	India	Barua et al., (2012)		
Auxarthron	Czech Republic	Hubka et al., (2013)		
ostraviense				
	Court Day 11	Habberry J. (2012)		
	Czech Republic	Hubka et al., (2013)		
A. umbrinum				
A. umbrinum Gymnoascus dankaliensis	Guatemala	Chang et al., (2011)		

**ii) Proximal subungual onychomycosis (PSO):** It refers to fungal penetration of the newly formed nail plate through the proximal nail fold. It is least common in healthy people, but more common when the patient is immuno-compromised (**Fig. 3B**).

**iii) White superficial onychomycosis (WSO):** It is caused by fungal invasion of the superficial layers of the nail plate



Figs. 3(A-E): Different types of Onychomycosis- (A) Distal subungual onychomycosis (B) Proximal subungual onychomycosis (C) White superficial onychomycosis (D) Candidal onychomycosis and (E) Total dystrophic onychomycosis

forming "white islands" on the plate (Fig-3C).

iv) Candidal onychomycosis (CO): It refers to the invasion of finger nails by *Candida* species. It normally requires the prior damage of the nail by infection or trauma (Fig. 3D).

v) Total dystrophic onychomycosis (TDO): It refers to the total destruction of the nail plate, which usually may be the end result of any of the four main patterns of onychomycosis. The entire nail unit becomes thick and dystrophic. TDO is used to describe end-stage nail disease, although some clinicians consider it as a distinct subtype (Fig. 3E).

The most common symptom of a fungal nail infection is the thickening and discolouration of the nail, which takes up many colours like white, black, yellow or green. As the infection progresses, the nail may become brittle, with pieces breaking off or coming away from the toe or finger completely. If left untreated, the skin can become inflamed and painful underneath and around the nail. There may also be white or yellow patches on the nail bed or scaly skin next to the nail. The capacity of mycokeratinophiles to metabolise keratin of the nails is due to the production of extracellular keratinases, collagenases and elastases along with endopeptidases, lipases, glucosidases and nucleases (Torres-Rodriguez and Lopez-Jodra, 2000). These enzymes allow easy penetration and development of the mycelium, which further allows pathogenesis.

Until the late 1990s onychomycosis was a poorly discussed topic of medical science. Even in financially more advanced Asian countries, onychomycosis has been highlighted only in the last decade (Kaur *et al.*, 2007). Onychomycosis affects approximately 5% of the population worldwide (Murray and Dawber, 2002) and represents 20-40% of onychopathies and about 30% of mycotic cutaneous infections (Achten and Wanet, 1978). In developing countries, higher priorities in socioeconomic concerns and health issues for other diseases, have resulted in low awareness of onychomycosis by physicians and the general public alike. In spite of improved personal hygiene and living environment, onychomycosis

continues to spread and persist. The worldwide incidence of onychomycosis is increasing day by day and a number of factors contribute to this rise (Kaur *et al.*, 2007). Firstly, as the population ages, there are corresponding chronic health problems that emerge, such as diabetes and poor peripheral circulation. Secondly, the number of persons who are immune-compromised because of infection with human immunodeficiency virus and the use of immunosuppressive therapies, cancer chemotherapy or antibiotics continue to expand. Thirdly, avid sports participation is increasing the use of health clubs, communal swimming pools and occlusive footwear for exercise. Additionally, in a small percentage of persons, onychomycosis may be caused by a genetic defect that causes alteration in immune function (Odom, 1994).

Though there is a clearly diseased appearance associated with this condition, onychomycosis is often regarded as merely a cosmetic problem of relatively minor importance that is hardly worth the effort to seek treatment in many cases. This belief may have been supported by the adverse effects and long dosing courses associated with some of the earlier antifungal agents (Kaur *et al.*, 2008). However, in the last two decades there have been safe, effective systemic treatment regimes available for this chronic superficial fungal disease that can have significant negative effects on patients' emotional, social and occupational functioning. Although onychomycosis is rarely life threatening, its high incidence, prevalence and the associated morbidity, makes it an important public health problem.

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