



ELSEVIER

Nutrition and nail disease

Michael W. Cashman, BA, Steven Brett Sloan, MD*

Department of Dermatology, University of Connecticut Health Center, Farmington, CT 06030, USA

Abstract The nail is a specialized keratinous skin appendage that grows approximately 2 to 3 mm per month, with complete replacement achieved in 6 to 9 months. Although this structure can be easily overlooked, nail disorders comprise approximately 10% of all dermatologic conditions. This contribution first provides an overview on the basic anatomy of the nail that will delineate between the nail unit (eg, hyponychium, nail bed, proximal nail fold, and matrix) and anatomic components not part of the nail unit (eg, lateral nail folds, nail plate, and eponychium). The function of each nail structure will also be presented. The chemical profile of the normal nail plate is reviewed with a discussion of its keratin content (hair type keratin vs epithelial type keratin), sulfur content, and mineral composition, including magnesium, calcium, iron, zinc, sodium, and copper. The remainder will focus on nail manifestations seen in states of malnutrition. Virtually every nutritional deficiency can affect the growth of the nail in some manner. Finally, the discussion will include anecdotal use of nutritional and dietary supplements in the setting of brittle nail syndrome as well as a brief overview of biotin and its promising utility in the treatment of nail disorders.

© 2010 Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved.

Introduction

Although skin might encompass a large portion of the field, dermatology also includes the study of its appendages, namely the nails and hair. These two skin appendages are often discussed together, or are at least compared with one another, in the literature. The dynamics of hair and nail growth control are related in several ways: both are skin appendages serving protective functions, and both are differentiated epithelial products, which consist of tightly bound cells made rigid by special intermediate filament proteins, the hard keratins.¹

Basic anatomy of the nail unit

The nail is a specialized keratinous appendage produced by a germinative epithelium just as basal epidermal cells produce the stratum corneum of the skin. Nail keratinocytes contribute to nail cornification through the production of hard keratins, and hardness of the nail plate is due to a high concentration of sulfur matrix protein.² Although it can be grossly appreciated and show manifestations of various underlying pathologies, the nail plate is, surprisingly, not considered one of the four anatomic structures that comprise the nail unit³:

- nail bed 42
- hyponychium 43
- proximal nail fold 44
- matrix 45

The nail plate is made of anucleate keratinocytes oriented so that the cells are flattened in the plane of the plate, whereas

* Corresponding author. Tel.: +1 860 679 7320; fax: 860 679 1248.
 E-mail address: sloan@uchc.edu (S.B. Sloan).

the intermediate filaments are oriented perpendicular to its plane of growth. This unique orientation and the transverse and longitudinal curvature of the plate are thought to provide its structural rigidity.⁴ Nail plates are roughly rectangular and flat but demonstrate considerable variation within the normal population. The plate is actually translucent; however, it appears pink on gross examination due to the rich underlying vascular network of capillaries weaving through the nail bed, which firmly adheres to the nail plate above.

The white, crescent-shaped area on the proximal nail plate is known as the lunula. It can be seen projecting from under the proximal nail fold and represents the most distal portion of the matrix, which ultimately determines the shape of the free edge of the nail plate. As the nail plate emerges from the matrix, it is bordered by three normal skin structures—two lateral nail folds and a proximal nail fold. The proximal nail fold is crucial in the formation of the nail plate. In fact, approximately 25% of the nail plate's total surface area is located under the proximal nail fold.⁵

The four epithelial components that comprise the nail unit serve vital functions necessary for maintaining the integrity of the nail plate. The matrix is a thick epithelium situated above the middle part of the distal phalanx of the digits.⁶ It is bordered proximally by the proximal nail fold and distally by the lunula, generating the bulk of the nail plate. The proximal nail fold is an invaginated, wedge-shaped fold of skin on the dorsum of the distal digit⁵ that protects much of the matrix and newly forming nail plate.

Not considered one of the four epithelial components of the nail unit, the eponychium (cuticle) is a part of the proximal nail fold. It serves as a sealant and protective barrier against entry of infectious organisms into the germinative matrix. Disruption of the eponychium allows irritants to enter, which subsequently leads to the inflammation seen in chronic paronychia.⁷

The hyponychium is a narrow zone of epidermis between the nail bed and the distal nail groove beneath the free edge of the nail plate.⁵ Its function is very similar to that of the eponychium but in an inverted manner. It seals the undersurface of the nail plate, where it lifts off the tip of the digit. Disruption of this area results in the creation of a potential space between the nail plate and nail bed, as can be appreciated in onycholysis.⁷

Lastly, the nail bed begins where the distal matrix or lunula ends, extending to the hyponychium, where the free edge of the nail separates.⁵ Its contribution to nail plate formation is still questioned. The nail bed keratinocytes contribute about 20% of ventral nail plate's thickness and mass.⁶ The main function is keeping the nail plate attached to the nail unit.

Chemical make-up of the nail plate

Most the nail plate is made of keratin and contains both hair-type ("hard") keratin and epithelial-type ("soft") kera-

tin.⁸ In addition to these keratins, intermediate filament-associated proteins high in sulfur or tyrosine/glycine moieties and the protein trichohyalin are also expressed throughout the nail unit. Different types of keratin are variably expressed in separate areas of the nail unit. Keratin expression in the proximal nail fold and the fingertip epidermis consists of normal interfollicular epidermis. More specifically, keratins K5 and K14 are expressed in basal keratinocytes, K1 and K10 are expressed in suprabasal keratinocytes, and K2E is expressed by keratinocytes high in the spinous layer.¹ The nail matrix also expresses normal interfollicular keratins similar to the proximal nail fold and fingertip epidermis; however, unlike the proximal nail fold, the nail matrix sporadically expresses hard keratins and trichohyalin in its suprabasal layers. Finally, the nail bed epithelium also expresses the basal keratins, K5 and K14, and keratins K6, K16, and K17 are expressed in its suprabasal layers.¹

Hair-type keratin constitutes 80% to 90% and the epithelial type keratin comprises 10% to 20% of the nail plate. Its overall sulfur content is approximately 10% by weight. The disulfide bonds of cystine in the matrix proteins are thought to contribute largely to nail hardness by acting as glue that holds the keratin fibers together, thereby creating the nail plate's tensile strength. Contrary to popular belief, calcium does not contribute to nail hardness and makes up only 0.2% of the nail plate by weight.⁹ The lipid content is relatively low, especially compared with the amount of lipids found in the stratum corneum. Glycolic and stearic acids are types of lipids found in the nail plate, and their presence likely explains the nail plate's water resistance. Despite this feature, the nail plate's water content can vary greatly, with normal content being 18%.¹⁰ Its hydration state is thought to contribute to nail hardness. For example, nails become brittle when the water content is less than 16% and become soft when greater than 25%.¹¹ Although the major contribution of nail plate hardness is unclear, it is likely due to both the high concentration of sulfur matrix protein and the current hydration state.

Minerals are another important aspect of the nail plate's composition. The principal minerals include magnesium, calcium, iron, zinc, sodium, and copper.

Patients with soft, flaky nails that are inclined to break or split may have significantly reduced plasma and nail plate magnesium levels.¹² A second study revealed that selenium is an essential trace element with a significant effect on nail health. This report described a young boy whose fingernails turned white approximately 2 years after starting total parental nutrition (TPN). Close examination of these nails and dermatologic consultation revealed that the nails were fully developed and normal, but virtually the entire nail bed was white except for a distal zone of normal pink. The boy's nail findings, of approximately 12 months' duration, resolved dramatically after selenium therapy was instituted.¹³

The specific mineral content of a given individual's nail plate varies greatly between different populations.

157 Higher levels of calcium and zinc are found in men,
 158 higher levels of magnesium are found in women, and the
 159 level of iron is equal between them. Levels of calcium are
 160 higher in older people than in younger individuals.
 161 Children have higher levels of magnesium, sodium, and
 162 iron than adults, and iron is actually highest amongst
 163 neonates across all groups. Children with kwashiorkor
 164 disease have higher levels of calcium and sodium and
 165 healthy children have higher levels of magnesium. Two
 166 final examples that might seem more intuitive include
 167 lower levels of iron in nail plates of patients with iron-
 168 deficiency anemia and higher levels of copper in nails of
 169 patients with Wilson disease.⁹

170 Malnutrition and the nail

171 Several systemic diseases can lead to nail changes that
 172 clinicians can visually appreciate; however, not all gross
 173 changes are secondary to malnutrition alone. Those nail
 174 changes solely due to malnutrition and other systemic
 175 diseases that could manifest secondary to a deficiency in a
 176 particular vitamin, mineral, or other trace element (eg, iron-
 177 deficiency anemia) will be outlined systematically by which
 178 part of the nail unit is affected. The exception will be the first
 179 section on chromonychia, because this particular nail change
 180 can affect three different parts of the nail unit.

181 Chromonychia and the nail matrix, nail bed, and 182 nail plate

183 Chromonychia can occur in the lunula (the most distal
 184 portion of the nail matrix), the nail bed, or the nail plate. The
 185 word is defined as any color (excluding white) that
 186 abnormally discolors a part of the nail unit. Because white
 187 is not necessarily considered a distinct color, whitened areas
 188 of the nail unit define the term leukonychia. Chromonychia
 189 of the lunula has been reported as a bluish discoloration in
 190 copper overload from Wilson disease.¹⁴ Argyria—a chronic
 191 elevation of silver salts in the body—has been associated
 192 with a blackish-gray discoloration of the lunula and is
 193 thought to be photoinduced.¹⁵

194 Color changes in the nail bed are more diffuse than focal
 195 chromonychia of the lunula. For example, diffusely bluish
 196 discoloration of the nail bed is characteristically associated
 197 with ingestion of silver and does not need light exposure to
 198 manifest itself.¹⁶ The differential diagnosis of a patient who
 199 presents with a bluish, discolored nail bed includes a glomus
 200 tumor, especially when associated with pain. Although
 201 nonspecific, pallor of the nail bed can be a sign of anemia and
 202 an indication that iron body stores may be low.

203 Chromonychia of the nail plate can occur due to
 204 increased melanogenesis in the matrix or to a melanocytic
 205 neoplasm.¹⁷ Longitudinal melanonychia of the nail plate
 206 secondary to increased melanin production in the matrix has

been reported in malnutrition, vitamin D and vitamin B₁₂
 deficiencies, and hemochromatosis.¹⁶

The nail bed

The nail bed can display signs of nutritional imbalances.
 Physical signs of nail bed disease include splinter hemor-
 rhages, Terry nails, Muehrcke lines, and onycholysis.
 Splinter hemorrhages are formed by extravasation of red
 blood cells from longitudinally oriented nail bed vessels into
 adjacent longitudinally oriented troughs.¹⁷ Although classically
 associated with subacute bacterial endocarditis, these
 are most frequently seen as a result of trauma and have been
 associated with a slew of systemic illnesses. Among the
 nutrition-related conditions are scurvy and hemochromatosis.

Despite its classical association with chronic liver disease,
 Terry nails can also be seen in malnutritive states, especially
 in the elderly.¹⁰ Terry nails are described as any 0.5- to 3.0-
 mm wide, distal, brown-to-pink nail bed bands with
 proximal pallor.¹⁶ Muehrcke lines are characterized by two
 transverse white bands of pallor. When pressure is applied to
 the distal plate, the narrow transverse bands disappear,
 confirming a nail bed change.^{16,18} Leukonychia, the term
 used to describe whitened areas of the nail unit, can be
 applied to Muehrcke lines. In fact, leukonychia can be
 further classified as true or apparent. Muehrcke lines are an
 example of the latter, as evidenced by disappearing white
 bands with applied pressure to the distal plate. Although
 Muehrcke initially associated this finding with hypoalbumi-
 nemia, this nail change has also been associated with
 malnutrition and acrodermatitis enteropathica, an autosomal-
 recessive metabolic disorder that affects zinc absorption.

Onycholysis is defined as separation of the nail plate from
 the underlying nail bed, causing a proximal extension of free
 air.¹⁷ It is the third most common nail disorder seen, after
 onychomycosis and verrucae vulgaris.¹⁶ Although classically
 a sign of thyroid disease, the correlation of onycholysis
 with systemic illness is overrated and more likely to be
 associated with common local conditions such as trauma,
 allergic contact dermatitis, or irritant reactions.¹⁷ Onycho-
 lysis may be due to exogenous or endogenous causes, with
 the former representing most cases seen in the clinic. Some
 endogenous causes of onycholysis related to nutritional
 imbalances include iron-deficiency anemia, pellagra, and
 Cronkhite-Canada syndrome, an extremely rare nonfamilial
 syndrome characterized by marked epithelial disturbances in
 the gastrointestinal tract and epidermis. The abnormal
 mucosal proliferation leads to fluid and electrolyte abnor-
 malities, malabsorption, and malnutrition.¹⁹

The nail plate

The nail plate is the last portion of the nail apparatus
 affected by nutritional imbalances that often result in grossly
 visible signs. Examples of observed nail plate changes

258 include transverse leukonychia, clubbing, koilonychia,
 259 hapalonychia, Beau lines, onychomadesis, onychorrhexis,
 260 and trachyonychia. Transverse leukonychia is distinguished
 261 by transverse, opaque white bands that tend to occur in the
 262 same relative position in multiple nails.¹⁷ These bands mimic
 263 the contour of the lunula and grow out with the nail plate
 264 (Figure 1). Measuring the distance of the line from the
 265 proximal nail fold gives the clinician a time reference from
 266 when nail insult occurred, because fingernails grow about
 267 0.10 to 0.15 mm/d. Although transverse leukonychia is
 268 typically associated with deficiency states like acrodermatitis
 269 enteropathica, pellagra (deficient niacin/vitamin B₃), and low
 270 calcium levels, it is additionally associated with overabun-
 271 dant states such as the increased blood iron levels that occur
 272 in hemochromatosis.

273 Mees line is a descriptive term used to specify transverse
 274 leukonychia with arsenic deposition in the plate secondary to
 275 arsenic poisoning.²⁰ Mees line is a classic example of true
 276 leukonychia, because the transverse white bands are truly
 277 deposited in the nail plate and will not disappear with applied
 278 pressure to the distal plate, unlike Muehrcke lines (apparent
 279 leukonychia), whose lines do disappear.

280 Clubbing (Figure 2) is a long-recognized nail sign that
 281 Hippocrates first described in 5th century BCE.²¹ The term is
 282 used when the Lovibond angle (the normal 160° angle
 283 between the proximal nail fold and the nail plate) exceeds
 284 180°. Clubbing can be inherited or acquired. An inherited
 285 type of clubbing that falls under the purview of nutritional
 286 imbalances includes citrullinemia, a rare autosomal-reces-
 287 sive disorder of the hepatic urea cycle that leads to an
 288 accumulation of nitrogenous waste compounds and other
 289 toxic substances, including citrulline, in the blood.²²
 290 Acquired clubbing secondary to nutritional imbalances
 291 may be due to several different combinations of substances
 292 and pathologies, including phosphorus, arsenic, alcohol,
 293 mercury or beryllium poisoning, hypervitaminosis A, and
 294 cretinism caused by iodine deficiency.¹⁶

295 Koilonychia is defined as spoon-shaped nail plates. It is
 296 thought to occur due to a relatively low-set distal matrix
 297 compared with the proximal matrix that causes nail plate
 298 growth to occur in a downward direction as it grows toward
 299 the nail bed.²³ When present, it is usually more severe on the
 300 index and third fingernails.²⁴ Almost all cases of koilonychia



Q5 **Fig. 1** Apparent leukonychia.



Fig. 2 Clubbing.

are acquired, but it also may be idiopathic or inherited. 301
 Koilonychia is classically a sign of iron-deficiency anemia 302
 and has not been observed in any other type of anemia²⁴; 303
 however, a few published cases have reported koilonychia in 304
 postgastrectomy patients and in patients diagnosed with 305
 Plummer-Vinson syndrome. These clinical syndromes still 306
 fall under the purview of iron-deficiency anemia (eg, iron 307
 malabsorption in postgastrectomy patients and iron-defi- 308
 ciency anemia as one criterion of the Plummer-Vinson 309
 syndrome clinical triad) and support the notion that 310
 koilonychia is observed only in sideropenic anemia and not 311
 in other anemias. Iron-deficiency anemia may be the only 312
 anemia strongly correlated with koilonychia, but other 313
 nutrition states such as riboflavin deficiency, pellagra, and 314
 more commonly, vitamin C deficiency have all been 315
 implicated in the development of koilonychia. 316

Hapalonychia, or soft nails, have been associated with 317
 occupational diseases, eczematous dermatides, and certain 318
 systemic diseases. Female gender and advancing age are two 319
 predisposing factors that influence the development of 320
 hapalonychia. Some systemic causes include hypochromic 321
 anemia, rheumatoid arthritis, and arsenic poisoning. Nutri- 322
 tional deficiencies involving vitamins A, B₆ (pyridoxine), C, 323
 and D, in addition to low serum calcium, have all been 324
 implicated in causing hapalonychia.¹⁶ 325

Beau lines are defined as transverse grooves or depression 326
 of the nail plate seen in acute systemic disorders.²⁵ It is one 327
 of the most common signs encountered in clinical practice, 328
 but is the least specific. Acute illnesses are thought to cause a 329
 temporary arrest of the matrix. The width of the furrow is an 330
 indicator of the given ailment's duration.¹⁶ Measuring the 331
 distance from the furrow to proximal nail fold gives an 332
 approximate time that the insult may have occurred, as can 333
 also be done with transverse leukonychia. If the entire 334
 activity of the matrix is inhibited for 1 to 2 weeks, a Beau line 335
 will reach its maximum depth, causing a total division of the 336
 nail plate (ie, onychomadesis).²⁶ Nutritional disorders 337
 associated with Beau lines include protein deficiency and 338
 pellagra. Dysregulated blood mineral levels, such as 339

340 hypocalcemia, chronic alcoholism (another source of
341 malnutrition and malabsorption), and arsenic toxicity, can
342 also play a role in the development of Beau lines.¹⁶

343 Onychomadesis (Figure 3) is the term used to describe
344 complete onycholysis, beginning at the nail plate's proximal
345 end, which is also known as complete nail shedding. The
346 most common cause of onychomadesis is neurovascular
347 change. Examples would be repeated episodes of drops in
348 blood calcium levels or a chronic state of hypocalcemia with
349 arteriolar spasm. This underlying pathophysiology leads to
350 an abrupt separation of the nail plate from the underlying
351 nail matrix and nail bed and results in the clinical
352 manifestation of onychomadesis. Other associations that
353 can lead to the development of onychomadesis include
354 arsenic and lead poisoning.¹⁶

355 Onychorrhexis, or senile nail, describes longitudinal
356 ridges in the nail plate that are most often associated with
357 the aging process. This nail change can be inherited, and the
358 pattern has been described as specific enough to distinguish
359 between identical twins and can be useful in forensic
360 identification.²⁶ It is most strongly correlated with rheuma-
361 toid arthritis, but other systemic disturbances can also
362 contribute to its development. Mineral imbalances leading
363 to onychorrhexis include iron-deficiency anemia, arsenic
364 poisoning, and zinc deficiency.¹⁶

365 The term trachyonychia (Figure 4) describes rough nail
366 plates with a characteristic gray opacity, brittle (*fragilitas*
367 *unguium*) and split free ends, longitudinal ridging, and a
368 rough sandpaperlike surface.²⁷ Brittle nails and trachyony-
369 chia are relatively common in persons aged older than 60
370 years. Causes often include repeated cycles of hydration and
371 dehydration as occur in excessive domestic wet work and
372 overuse of dehydrating agents such as nail enamel and
373 cuticle removers. Another typical offender is poor or
374 decreased dietary water and food intake, an especially
375 common phenomenon in the elderly. Any of these may



Fig. 3 Onychomadesis.



Fig. 4 Trachyonychia.

376 contribute to and precipitate brittle nails and subsequent
377 trachyonychia seen in the elderly.²

Nutritional supplements and the nail

378 Little information is available on how nutritional supple-
379 ments can affect different nail disorders; however, brittle nail
380 syndrome is one nail disorder often found in what minimal
381 literature exists. Brittle nail syndrome is a disease character-
382 ized by soft, dry, weak, easily breakable nails that show
383 onychorrhexis and onychoschizia.¹⁰ Brittle fingernails are an
384 all-too-common complaint seen in the dermatologist's office.
385 As many as 60 million people in the United States of
386 America may experience this disorder, with women
387 predominantly affected.²⁸ The causes are believed to be
388 traumatic, vascular, or physical. Damage to the nails because
389 of deficient production of intercellular cement substance may
390 also be related to systemic diseases, nutritional deficiencies,
391 endocrine or metabolic disorders, and dermatologic condi-
392 tions.^{28,29} The intercellular cement substance is mostly made
393 of phospholipids, mucopolysaccharides, and acid phosphat-
394 ases, and is found in high concentrations around cell
395 junctions, known as the zonula occludens and gap junctions,
396 and firmly adheres nail cells together.³⁰

397 A multitude of regimens exist for treatment of brittle nails,
398 including buffing and moisturizing, application of essential
399 fatty acids, and ingestion of vitamin C and pyridoxine, iron,
400 vitamin D, calcium, amino acids, and gelatin.²⁸ One
401 nutritional supplement that has been seriously investigated
402 and has recently shown promise is biotin, or vitamin H.
403 Biotin use to abate pathologic horse hoofs in veterinary
404 medicine suggested it could be used to treat human nail
405 disease.³¹ A role for biotin in nail disorders is also indicated
406 by its favorable effect on other skin disorders, such as
407 seborrheic dermatitis, Leiner disease, and disorders of hair
408 growth. Biotin deficiency may be caused by insufficient
409 intake, ingestion of raw eggs, absorption disorders, produc-
410 tion of biotin antagonists by intestinal bacteria, or distur-
411 bance in the intestinal flora by oral therapy with
412 sulfonamides, antibiotics, or anticonvulsant agents.²⁹

Q6

378

Q3

414 One study demonstrated a 25% increase in the thickness of
 415 the nail plate in patients diagnosed with brittle nails of
 416 unknown cause and treated with biotin (2.5 mg daily) for 6 to
 417 15 months.²⁸ Another study showed that biotin was not
 418 equally effective in all patients, but a definite trend toward
 419 benefit was noted in most of those who took between 1.0 and
 420 3.0 mg daily, with 2 months being the average time before
 421 clinically noticeable results. This same study also showed that
 422 approximately 10 weeks after biotin was discontinued, nail
 423 ridging gradually returned and the nail brittleness recurred.²⁹
 424 Both studies provide clinical evidence that biotin is possibly
 425 effective in treating patients with nail brittleness. The next
 426 step in biotin investigation is to determine whether vitamin H
 427 supplementation is legitimately correcting an underlying
 428 deficiency or whether improvement in nail brittleness is
 429 through some other mechanism that has yet to be elucidated.

430 Conclusions

431 Nails as a skin appendage are considered ancillary and
 432 may be neglected by the nondermatologist in an examination;
 433 however, there are a myriad of recognizable patterns that can
 434 alter each individual part of the nail apparatus. Because
 435 systemic illness can manifest through subtle changes in the
 436 nail, clinicians may need to be reminded of these physical
 437 findings in determining the cause of nail complaints.

438 References

- 439 1. Stenn K, Fleckman P. Hair and nail physiology. In: Hordinsky MK,
 440 Sawaya ME, Scher RK, editors. Atlas of hair and nails. Philadelphia:
 441 Churchill Livingstone; 2000. p. 1-7.
- 442 2. Conejo-Mir JS. Nail. In: Sternberg SS, editor. Histology for
 443 pathologists. New York: Raven Press; 1992. p. 399-420.
- 444 3. Zaias N. The nail in health and disease. 2nd ed. Norwalk (Conn):
 445 Appleton & Lange; 1990. p. 250.
- 446 4. Forslind B. Biophysical studies of the normal nail. Acta DermVenereol
 447 1970;50:161-8.
- 448 5. Stone M, Styles AR, Cockerell CJ. Histology of the normal nail unit. In:
 449 Hordinsky MK, Sawaya ME, Scher RK, editors. Atlas of hair and nails.
 450 Philadelphia: Churchill Livingstone; 2000. p. 18-23.
- 451 6. Tosti A, Piraccini BM. Biology of nails and nail disorders. In: Wolff K,
 452 Goldsmith LA, Katz SI, et al, editors. Fitzpatrick's dermatology in
 453 general medicine. 7th ed. New York: McGraw Hill Medical; 2003.
 454 p. 778-94.
- 455 7. Fleckman P. Basic science of the nail unit. In: Scher RK, Daniel CR,
 456 editors. Nails: therapy, diagnosis, surgery. 2nd ed. Philadelphia: WB
 457 Saunders; 1997. p. 37-54.
8. Fistarol SK, Itin PH. Nail changes in genodermatoses. Eur J Dermatol 458
 2002;16:90-4. 459
9. Scheinfeld N, Dahdah MJ, Scher RK. Vitamins and minerals: their role 460
 in nail health and disease. J Drugs Dermatol 2007;6:782-6. 461
10. Singh G, Haneef NS, Uday A. Nail changes and disorders among the 462
 elderly. Indian J Dermatol Venereol Leprol 2005;71:386-92. 463
11. Cohen PR, Scher RK. Aging. In: Hordinsky MK, Sawaya ME, Scher 464
 RK, editors. Atlas of hair and nails. Philadelphia: Churchill Living- 465
 stone; 2000. p. 213-25. 466
12. Bauer F, Stevens B. Investigations of trace metal content of normal and 467
 diseased nails. Australas J Dermatol 1983;24:127-9. 468
13. Kien CL, Ganther HE. Manifestations of chronic selenium deficiency in 469
 a child receiving total parenteral nutrition. Am J Clin Nutr 1983;37: 470
 319-28. 471
14. Greenberg RG, Berger TG. Nail and mucocutaneous hyperpigmenta- 472
 tion with azidothymidine therapy. J Am Acad Dermatol 1990;22: 473
 327-30. 474
15. Plewig G, Lincke H, Wolff HH. Silver-blue nails. Acta Derm Venereol 475
 1977;57:413-9. 476
16. Holzberg M. Nail signs of systemic disease. In: Hordinsky MK, Sawaya 477
 ME, Scher RK, editors. Atlas of hair and nails. Philadelphia: Churchill 478
 Livingstone; 2000. p. 59-70. 479
17. Scher RK, Daniel CR. therapy, diagnosis, surgery. Philadelphia: WB 480
 Saunders; 1990. p. 389. 481
18. Muehrcke RC. The fingernails in chronic hypoalbuminemia. BMJ 482
 1956;1:1327. 483
19. Rabinowitz SS, Sheth M. Cronkhite-canada syndrome [updated Apr 1 484
 2008]. Available at: <http://emedicine.medscape.com/article/928489-overview>. 485
 Accessed: Oct 31, 2009. 486
20. Marino MT. Mees' lines. Arch Dermatol 1990;126:827-8. 487
21. Mendlowitz M. Measurements of blood flow and blood pressure in 488
 clubbed fingers. J Clin Invest 1941;20:113. 489
22. Roth KS. Citrullinemia [updated Mar 26, 2009]. Available at: [http://](http://emedicine.medscape.com/article/942435-overview) 490
emedicine.medscape.com/article/942435-overview. Accessed: Oct 13, 491
 2009. 492
23. Stone OJ. Spoon nails and clubbing. Cutis 1975;16:235-41. 493
24. Sato S. Iron deficiency: structural and microchemical changes in hair, 494
 nails, and skin. Semin Dermatol 1991;10:313-9. 495
25. Weismann K. Beau and his descriptions of transverse depression on 496
 nails. Br J Dermatol 1977;97:571-2. 497
26. Baran R, Dawber RPR. Diseases of the nails and their management. 498
 2nd ed. Oxford: Blackwell Scientific; 1994. p. 656. 499
27. Tosti A, Fanti PA, Morelli R, et al. Trachyonychia associated with 500
 alopecia areata: a clinical and pathologic study. J Am Acad Dermatol 501
 1991;25:266-70. 502
28. Hochman LG, Scher RK, Meyerson MS. Brittle nails: response to daily 503
 biotin supplementation. Cutis 1993;51:303-5. 504
29. Colombo VE, Gerber F, Bronhofer M, et al. Treatment of brittle 505
 fingernails and onychoschizia with biotin: scanning electron microscop- 506
 y. J Am Acad Dermatol 1990;23:1127-32. 507
30. Hashimoto K. Cementsome, a new interpretation of the membrane- 508
 coating granule. Arch Dermatol Res 1971;240:349-64. 509
31. Reilly JD, Cottrell DF, Martin RJ, et al. Effect of supplementary dietary 510
 biotin on hoof growth and hoof growth rate in ponies: a controlled trial. 511
 Equine Vet J 1998;26:51-7. 512
 513
 514