

The evolution of human skin colouration and its relevance to health in the modern world

NG Jablonski

Distinguished Professor of Anthropology, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, Pennsylvania, USA

This review is based in part on Professor Jablonski's lecture at the RCPE Symposium on Dermatology in Edinburgh on 21 September 2011

Correspondence to NG Jablonski, Department of Anthropology, The Pennsylvania State University, 409 Carpenter Building, University Park, PA 16802, USA

tel. +1 (814) 865-2509

e-mail ngj2@psu.edu

ABSTRACT

Functionally naked skin which comes in a range of colours is unique to the human species. This review summarises current evidence pertaining to the evolution of these attributes. The biggest changes in the integument occurred during the course of human evolution in equatorial Africa, under regimes of high daytime temperatures and high ultraviolet radiation (UVR). Loss of most functional body hair was accompanied by the evolution of an epidermis with a specialised stratum corneum and permanent, protective, eumelanin pigmentation. The main reason for the evolution of dark pigmentation was to protect against folate deficiency caused by elevated demands for folate in cell division, DNA repair, and melanogenesis stimulated by UVR. Dispersal out of tropical Africa created new challenges for human physiology especially because of lower and more seasonal levels of UVR and UVB outside of the tropics. In these environments, the challenge of producing a vitamin D precursor in the skin from available UVB was met by natural selection acting on mutations capable of producing varying degrees of depigmentation. The range of pigmentation observed in modern humans today is, thus, the product of two opposing clines, one favoring photoprotection near the equator, the other favoring vitamin D photosynthesis nearer the poles. Recent migrations and changes in lifestyle in the last 500 years have brought many humans into UVR regimes different from those experienced by their ancestors and, accordingly, exposed them to new disease risks, including skin cancer and vitamin D deficiency.

KEYWORDS Melanin, natural selection, vitamin D, migration, urbanisation, depigmentation

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS No conflict of interests declared.

Human skin is functionally naked, sweaty, resistant to abrasion, colourful, and often deliberately decorated. This constellation of attributes makes human skin unique¹ and of great interest to comparative biologists and anthropologists. The range of colour exhibited by human skin is its most singular biological characteristic and the one of greatest social import because skin colour has been the primary trait used to classify people into races. Skin colour has been observed and studied by philosophers and scientists for over two millennia and yet there is still much about it that is not known. Research into the evolution and importance of skin pigmentation languished during much of the twentieth century because of legitimate concerns that study of the causes and ramifications of skin colour variation would be socially divisive. This situation has changed in the last twenty years partly because of the development of new genetic tools, which have allowed for rapid and wide-scale exploration of human variation. Study of variation in pigmentation also gained impetus because of the recognition that understanding and dispassionate discussion of the causes of visible human variation is

important to human health and the future of societies. Here I review recent advances in knowledge of the evolution of skin pigmentation variation and the diverse effects that skin pigmentation has on health and wellbeing in the modern world.

THE EVOLUTION OF FUNCTIONAL NAKEDNESS AND ITS RELATIONSHIP TO SKIN PIGMENTATION

The evolution of skin pigmentation in humans is related to the evolution of hairlessness and enhanced sweating abilities.² The common ancestor of chimpanzees and humans lived about six million years ago in equatorial Africa, under conditions of high daytime temperatures and high UVR. This common ancestor probably had dark hair covering pale skin on most of its body, the condition common to catarrhine primates. The exposed skin on the face and on the dorsal surfaces of the hands and feet had active melanocytes capable of producing melanin in response to sun exposure, but unexposed skin remained unpigmented.³ Loss of functional body hair occurred

early in the evolution of the genus *Homo* and was associated with the evolution of an efficient whole-body cooling system based on eccrine sweating.³⁻⁶ Because sweating is most effective in cooling the body when there is less hair on the surface to slow evaporation, the evolution of increased density of eccrine sweat glands occurred *pari passu* with functional nakedness. Naked skin is more vulnerable to environmental influences, and that of humans differs from that of close but hairier primate relatives in its greater water resistance and resistance to abrasion.¹ These differences are due in part to genes related to the epidermal proteins that contribute to the barrier functions of the skin, the integrity of sweat glands, and the delicate and friable nature of body hair.^{7,8} Naked skin is also more vulnerable to damage from solar radiation, including UVR,^{9,10} and compensation for this came from evolution of increased thickness of the epidermis, especially the stratum corneum^{1,11} and of permanent protective eumelanin pigmentation to prevent the most energetic and damaging wavelengths of UVR from penetrating the body.³

Melanin pigments are complex polymers that have a great capacity to absorb visible light, UVR, and ionizing radiation, and to neutralize the reactive oxygen species (ROS) created when these agents interact with skin cells.^{12,13} Eumelanin is the dominant form of melanin found in human skin. It is intensely dark in its concentrated form because it absorbs broadly in the spectrum of visible light. Eumelanin polymers are intractably stable even when they are bombarded by high-energy radiation or ROS.^{14,15} Ultraviolet radiation damages DNA and the constituents of cell membranes, causing a toxic cascade of events that produces ROS and disrupts normal chemical reactions in cells.^{16,17} These processes are greatly attenuated by eumelanin, especially when it is present close to the surface of the skin.¹⁸

EVOLUTION OF PROTECTIVE EUMELANIN PIGMENTATION UNDER HIGH UVR CONDITIONS

Human skin pigmentation is highly correlated with latitude,¹⁹⁻²¹ but is even more highly correlated ($r^2 = -0.93$) with UVR, specifically the UV minimal erythemal dose or UVMED.^{3,19,22,23} Skin pigmentation as measured by skin reflectance is more strongly correlated with UVMED than with any other single environmental factor.²²

Many hypotheses have been advanced to account for the evolution of dark pigmentation under high UVR regimes, and these are reviewed at length elsewhere.² In brief, four major hypotheses proposed have described advantages under natural selection accruing from: 1) lowered mortality due to protection from sunburn and skin cancer; 2) enhancing survival through camouflage in poorly lit forested environments; 3) the antimicrobial properties of eumelanin in pathogen-rich environments;

and 4) protection of folate metabolism against deficiencies caused by high UVR. Our research has focused on the last of these hypotheses.

The mostly deleterious effects of UVR on biological systems are well known.^{16,24} Darkly pigmented, eumelanin-rich skin protects against much of the damage to DNA caused by UVR,²⁵ and is associated with much lower rates of skin cancer than lightly pigmented skin.²⁶⁻²⁹ Heavily pigmented melanocytes are able to resume proliferation after UVB irradiation faster than lightly pigmented ones, and DNA from lightly pigmented melanocytes is more badly damaged after irradiation with increasing doses of UVB than is DNA from heavily pigmented ones.^{17,27} By contrast, pheomelanin in lightly pigmented skin appears to increase the risk of oxidation stress in melanocytes. This, combined with the limited ability of pheomelanin to absorb UVR, leads to elevated skin cancer risk among light-skinned individuals.^{26,30,31} The damaging effects of UVR on DNA structure are widely recognised and are associated with the initiation of skin cancers that mostly affect people toward the end or after their reproductive careers.^{3,32} Cutaneous malignant melanoma is the only type with a high incidence rate among people of reproductive age, and overall incidence and mortality rates for melanoma prior to the mid-twentieth century were very low (<5 per 100,000).³³ Increases in the incidence of melanoma in the last fifty years are the result of lightly pigmented people being exposed to more intense or longer periods of sunlight and UVR³⁴ and experiencing more painful sunburns³⁵ because of migration to sunny places or recreational sun-tanning, the so-called 'vacation effect'.³⁶⁻³⁸ These conditions were not typical of our species prior to the twentieth century, when most people moved very little during their lifetimes because they lacked the means of transportation to do so. It is difficult to quantify the relative importance of sunburns and skin cancer, specifically melanoma, as selective factors in the evolution of skin pigmentation, but available epidemiological evidence indicates that mortality of individuals of young reproductive age would have been extremely low. Thus, reduction of sunburn and melanoma risk probably contributed only to a minor extent in the evolution of darkly pigmented skin.

The deleterious effects of UVR are not limited to DNA, and it is probably the effects of UVR on folate metabolism that have been of greatest importance in the evolution of dark pigmentation in humans. The importance of folate in human development and health has been highlighted by studies demonstrating that interdiction of cell proliferation because of folate deficiency interferes with normal development, and causes birth defects. The role of folate deficiency in causing neural tube defects is now firmly established.³⁹⁻⁴² Folate sufficiency is also necessary for maintenance of active spermatogenesis^{43,44} and in the formation of myelin

and the production of many neurotransmitters including serotonin.⁴⁵ Folate can only be obtained from foods such as green leafy vegetables, citrus fruits, and whole grains, or from supplements of the synthetic form of the vitamin, folic acid. Healthy levels of folate are difficult to maintain in the body because natural food folates are unstable, suffer from low bioavailability, and tend to break down when foods are boiled or stored.^{46,47} Folate deficiencies can be caused by insufficient intake of folate, improper absorption of the vitamin from the gut, or the breakdown of folate or its main serum form, 5-methylhydrofolate (5-MTHF) by alcohol or UVR, in particular UVA.^{48–50}

Ultraviolet radiation and the ROS generated by UVA lower levels of folate 5-MTHF in the body because competition for folate is intense when high UVR simultaneously stimulates multiple folate-requiring processes, including cell division, DNA repair, and melanogenesis. Reduction of levels of folate and 5-MTHF is particularly serious if the body's demand for folate is high – as in pregnancy – or if folate levels are already low because of low intake. The essential connections between folate metabolism and the evolution of dark skin pigmentation are, firstly, the relationship between UVR exposure and folate deficiency and, secondly, the relationship between UVR-induced folate deficiency and reduced fitness due to failures of normal embryogenesis and spermatogenesis.^{3,51} High concentrations of melanin significantly reduce folate destruction *in vitro* through absorption and scattering of UVA.¹⁸ Research into the UVR-mediated dynamics of folate metabolism is active and continuing, especially in the laboratory of Johan Moan of the University of Oslo.⁵²

This evidence supports the theory that the major factor contributing to the evolution of dark skin pigmentation was the reduction of fitness brought about by UVR-induced folate deficiency. Supporting evidence also comes from epidemiological studies, which indicate trends associating dark pigmentation with lower rates of neural tube defects.^{53–55} Much research remains to be done in this area, including further *in vivo* studies of folate metabolism in humans subjected to UVR, and prospective epidemiological studies which can further probe the relationship that skin pigmentation and dietary intake of folate have on rates of birth defects.

The importance of the maintenance of dark pigmentation under high UVR conditions has been underlined by studies of the MC1R (melanocortin 1 receptor) locus, one of several genes that contributes to skin, hair, and eye pigmentation. In modern Africans, this gene exhibits no variation, but outside of Africa it is highly variable. The absence of variation in African forms of the gene provides evidence of strong positive selection or selective sweep occurring around 1.2 million years ago⁵⁶ and the maintenance of a functional constraint on variation (purifying selection) in Africa thereafter.^{57–59} The ancestral form of *MC1R*, along

with probable contributions from other pigmentation genes (Shriver et al 2003,⁶⁰ Norton et al 2007⁶¹), makes possible the production of large amounts of eumelanin in the melanocytes of the skin and appears to have been so effective in improving health and reproductive success that people carrying it quickly outnumbered and replaced those who did not.

EVOLUTION OF DEPIGMENTATION UNDER LOW UVR CONDITIONS

The evidence that permanent dark skin pigmentation evolved as protection against the deleterious effects of UVR is overwhelming, but it does not explain the clinal distribution of increasingly lightly pigmented skin outside of the tropics. The strength of UVR, and of UVB in particular, declines greatly north of the Tropic of Cancer and south of the Tropic of Capricorn.^{22,62–64} Low levels of UVR are not beneficial despite the fact that most UVR radiation is harmful. This is because UVR has one overwhelmingly positive action, photosynthesis of vitamin D₃ (cholecalciferol) in the skin by UVB.^{65–67} Vitamin D₃ is made in the skin when UVR penetrates the skin and is absorbed by 7-dehydrocholesterol (7-DHC) in the epidermis and dermis to form pre-vitamin D₃. This reaction only occurs in the presence of wavelengths of 290–315 nm in the UVB range, with peak conversion occurring at 295–297 nm, and is dependent upon season and latitude, time of day, and on the amount of pigment and thickness of the skin.^{68,69} The reaction becomes less efficient with advancing adult age because of age-dependent decline in 7-DHC in the skin.^{70,71} Circulating levels of pre-vitamin D₃ are tightly controlled because continued sunlight exposure causes the photoisomerization of pre-vitamin D₃ to lumisterol and tachysterol.⁷² Biologically active vitamin D₃ is produced by two successive hydroxylation steps in the liver and then in the kidney to form the active metabolite, 1,25(OH)₂D₃ (calcitriol). This is the form that acts as a steroid hormone through binding to its specific intranuclear receptor, the vitamin D-receptor (VDR), and subsequently modulates the transcription of responsive genes such as that of calcium binding protein, which regulates mineral ion homeostasis.^{68,73} Vitamin D is also available in low quantities in some foods, but vitamin D₃ is found in physiologically significant quantities in oily fish and liver.⁷⁴ Dietary sources of vitamin D must be converted into the biologically active form via the same hydroxylation steps undergone by cutaneously produced vitamin D₃.

The most obvious function of vitamin D in humans is in the building and maintenance of the bony skeleton. The essential connection between vitamin D status and bone health was established because vitamin D in the form of cod liver oil was found to cure nutritional rickets.⁷⁵ Vitamin D exerts its effects on bone indirectly through regulation of absorption of calcium and phosphorus from the gut, and directly modifies the activity of osteoblasts and chondrocytes, and many other non-classical target

tissues.^{65,73} The presence of VDRs in tissues of the brain, heart, stomach, pancreas, skin, gonads, in the activated T and B lymphocytes of the immune system, and many sites elsewhere in the body has heightened awareness of the varied and important roles vitamin D plays in the body. Chronic deficiencies in vitamin D have been associated recently with breast, prostate, colon, ovarian, and possibly other cancers,^{76,77} and research in this area is extremely active. Low vitamin D status is also linked to impaired immune system activity, specifically Th1-mediated autoimmunity and infectious immunity⁷⁶ and to abnormal development and function of the brain.^{77,78}

The theory that light skin pigmentation evolved in order to permit cutaneous vitamin D production under conditions of reduced sunlight at high latitudes is an old one that has considerable new, positive support from clinical, nutritional, epidemiological, genetic, and other observational studies.^{3,81,82} The extent of vitamin D's importance to health is evidenced by the seriousness and diversity of problems related to hypovitaminosis D^{83–85} afflicting people throughout the life cycle. In the musculoskeletal system, nutritional rickets in children is now probably overshadowed by sarcopenia and osteomalacia in adults, the latter being silent afflictions that can lead to increased morbidity from accidental falls.⁸⁶ And, as mentioned earlier, vitamin D deficiency and insufficiency, especially beginning in infancy or childhood, are associated with increased, but still not rigorously quantified, risk of certain cancers, autoimmune and infectious diseases. The global disease burden linked to the vitamin D deficiencies caused by low UVR exposure now exceeds that connected with high UVR exposure.⁸⁷

The clinical and observational evidence discussed above provides the setting for the probable action of natural selection. Genetic evidence now strongly supports this.

Depigmentation is the result of positive selection in humans inhabiting low UVR environments, and this has been demonstrated in molecular genetic studies that indicate that lightly pigmented skin phenotypes in humans evolved multiple times and has been maintained by purifying selection.^{88,89,61}

Eumelanin competes with 7-DHC for UVB photons to greatly slow production of pre-vitamin D₃ to the extent that people with lightly pigmented skin produce pre-vitamin D₃ in their skin at a rate 5–10 times faster than those with darkly pigmented skin.^{3,74,90–96} This poses strict geographic limits on the distribution of darkly pigmented people outside of high UVB areas unless vitamin-D-rich foods or vitamin D supplements are consumed.⁶³ Thus, skin pigmentation in modern humans is the result of the action of two reciprocal clines working to promote the UVB-induced photosynthesis of pre-vitamin D₃ in the skin on the one hand and prevent the damage caused by UVB and UVA on the other.^{3,63}

Members of the human lineage dispersed many times independently into non-tropical latitudes, and evolved depigmented phenotypes by numerous and different genetically based means, some of which remain to be illuminated. Habitation of middle latitudes between approximately 23° and 46° with seasonally high loads of UVB favored the evolution of partially depigmented phenotypes capable of tanning.⁶³ Among people of European ancestry, genes related to tanning ability are similar to those related to hair colour.⁹⁷ The genetic basis of skin pigmentation now is becoming better understood, but considerable research remains to be done on the relationships between skin, hair, and eye pigmentation genes,^{12,98} on the convergent evolution of skin pigmentation phenotypes including those in the New World,⁹⁹ and on rates of skin pigmentation evolution.

REFERENCES

- 1 Montagna W. The consequences of having a naked skin. *Birth Defects Orig Artic Ser* 1981; 17:1–7.
- 2 Jablonski NG. The evolution of human skin and skin colour. *Annu Rev Anthropol* 2004; 33:585–623. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1146/annurev.anthro.33.070203.143955>
- 3 Jablonski NG, Chaplin G. The evolution of human skin colouration. *J Hum Evol* 2000; 39:57–106. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1006/jhev.2000.0403>
- 4 Wheeler PE. The loss of functional body hair in man: The influence of thermal environment, body form and bipedality. *J Hum Evol* 1985; 14:23–8. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0047-2484\(85\)80091-9](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0047-2484(85)80091-9)
- 5 Zihlman AL, Cohn BA. The adaptive response of human skin to the savanna. *Hum Evol* 1988; 3:397–409. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/BF02447222>
- 6 Weiner JS, Hellmann K. The sweat glands. *Biol Rev* 1960; 35:141–86. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-185X.1960.tb01413.x>
- 7 Langbein L, Rogers MA, Praetzel S et al. Characterization of a novel human type II epithelial keratin K1b, specifically expressed in eccrine sweat glands. *J Invest Dermatol* 2005; 125:428–44. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.0022-202X.2005.23860.x>
- 8 The Chimpanzee Sequencing and Analysis Consortium. Initial sequence of the chimpanzee genome and comparison with the human genome. *Nature* 2005; 437:69–87. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/nature04072>
- 9 Walsberg GE. Consequences of skin colour and fur properties for solar heat gain and ultraviolet irradiance in two mammals. *J Comp Physiol B* 1988; 158:213–21. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/BF01075835>
- 10 Rees JL. Post-genome integrative biology: So that's what they call clinical science. *Clin Med* 2001; 1:393–400.
- 11 Madison KC. Barrier function of the skin: 'La raison d'etre' of the epidermis. *J Invest Dermatol* 2003; 121:231–41. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1046/j.1523-1747.2003.12359.x>
- 12 Rees JL. Genetics of hair and skin colour. *Annu Rev Genet* 2003; 37:67–90. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1146/annurev.genet.37.110801.143233>
- 13 Ito S. A chemist's view of melanogenesis. *Pigment Cell Res* 2003; 16:230–6. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1034/j.1600-0749.2003.00037.x>
- 14 Kollias N. The physical basis of skin colour and its evaluation. *Clin Dermatol* 1995; 13:361–7. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0738-081X\(95\)00075-Q](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0738-081X(95)00075-Q)

- 15 Meredith P, Sarna T. The physical and chemical properties of eumelanin. *Pigment Cell Res* 2006; 19:572–94. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1600-0749.2006.00345.x>
- 16 Caldwell MM, Bjorn LO, Bornman JF et al. Effects of increased solar ultraviolet radiation on terrestrial ecosystems. *J Photochem Photobiol B* 1998; 46:40–52. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1011-1344\(98\)00184-5](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1011-1344(98)00184-5)
- 17 Cleaver JE, Crowley E. UV damage, DNA repair and skin carcinogenesis. *Front Biosci* 2002; 7:1024–43. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2741/cleaver>
- 18 Nielsen KP, Zhao L, Starnes JJ et al. The importance of the depth distribution of melanin in skin for DNA protection and other photobiological processes. *J Photochem Photobiol B* 2006; 82:194–8. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jphotobiol.2005.11.008>
- 19 Roberts DF. Human pigmentation: Its geographical and racial distribution and biological significance. *J Cosmet Sci* 1977; 28:329–42.
- 20 Tasa GL, Murray CJ, Boughton JM. Reflectometer reports on human pigmentation. *Curr Anthropol* 1985; 26:511–2. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1086/203314>
- 21 Roberts DF, Kahlon DPS. Environmental correlations of skin colour. *Ann Hum Biol* 1976; 3(1):11–22. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/03014467600001101>
- 22 Chaplin G. Geographic distribution of environmental factors influencing human skin colouration. *Am J Phys Anthropol* 2004; 125:292–302. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/ajpa.10263>
- 23 Walter Hv. Der zusammenhang von hautfarbenverteilung und intensitat der ultravioletten strahlung. *Homo* 1958; 9:1–13.
- 24 Madronich S, Flocke S. Theoretical estimation of biologically effective UV radiation at the Earth's surface. In: Zerefos CS, Bais AF, editors. *Solar Ultraviolet Radiation: Modelling, measurements, and effects*. Berlin: Springer; 1997. p. 23–48.
- 25 Miyamura Y, Coelho SG, Wolber R, et al. Regulation of human skin pigmentation and responses to ultraviolet radiation. *Pigment Cell Res* 2007; 20:2–13. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1600-0749.2006.00358.x>
- 26 Rees JL. The genetics of sun sensitivity in humans. *Am J Hum Genet* 2004; 75:739–51. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1086/425285>
- 27 Barker D, Dixon K, Medrano EE et al. Comparison of the responses of human melanocytes with different melanin contents to ultraviolet B irradiation. *Cancer Res* 1995; 55:4041–6.
- 28 Brenner M, Hearing VJ. The protective role of melanin against UV damage in human skin. *Photochem Photobiol* 2008; 84:539–49. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1751-1097.2007.00226.x>
- 29 Tadokoro T, Kobayashi N, Zmudzka BZ et al. UV-induced DNA damage and melanin content in human skin differing in racial/ethnic origin. *FASEB J* 2003; 17:1177–9.
- 30 van Nieuwpoort F, Smit NP, Kolb R et al. Tyrosine-induced melanogenesis shows differences in morphologic and melanogenic preferences of melanosomes from light and dark skin types. *J Invest Dermatol* 2004; 122:1251–5. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.0022-202X.2004.22533.x>
- 31 Scherer D, Kumar R. Genetics of pigmentation in skin cancer - A review. *Mutat Res* 2010; 705:141–53. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.mrrev.2010.06.002>
- 32 Blum HF. Does the melanin pigment of human skin have adaptive value? An essay in human ecology and the evolution of race. *Quart Rev Biol* 1961; 36:50–63. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1086/403275>
- 33 Diepgen TL, Mahler V. The epidemiology of skin cancer. *Brit J Dermatol* 2002; 146:1–6. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-2133.146.s61.2.x>
- 34 Jemal A, Devesa SS, Hartge P et al. Recent trends in cutaneous melanoma incidence among whites in the United States. *J Natl Cancer J* 2001; 93:678–83. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/jnci/93.9.678>
- 35 Kennedy C, Bajdik CD, Willemze R et al. The influence of painful sunburns and lifetime sun exposure on the risk of actinic keratoses, seborrheic warts, melanocytic nevi, atypical nevi, and skin cancer. *J Invest Dermatol* 2003; 120:1087–93. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1046/j.1523-1747.2003.12246.x>
- 36 Leiter U, Garbe C. Epidemiology of melanoma and nonmelanoma skin cancer-the role of sunlight. *Adv Exp Med Biol* 2008; 624:89–103. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/978-0-387-77574-6_8
- 37 Rees JL. Melanoma: What are the gaps in our knowledge. *PLoS Med* 2008; 5:e122. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.0050122>
- 38 Diffey BL. Human exposure to solar ultraviolet radiation. *J Cosmet Dermatol* 2002; 1:124–30. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1046/j.1473-2165.2002.00060.x>
- 39 Bower C, Stanley F. The role of nutritional factors in the aetiology of neural tube defects. *J Paediatr Child Health* 1992; 28:12–6. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1440-1754.1992.tb02610.x>
- 40 [No authors listed]. Prevalence of Neural Tube Defects in 16 Regions of Europe, 1980–1983. The EUROCAT Working Group. *Int J Epidemiol* 1987; 16:246–51. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/ije/16.2.246>
- 41 MRC Vitamin Study Research Group. Prevention of neural tube defects: Results of the Medical Research Council Vitamin Study. *Lancet* 1991; 338:131–4. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0140-6736\(91\)90133-A](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0140-6736(91)90133-A)
- 42 Wolff T, Witkop CT, Miller T et al. Folic acid supplementation for the prevention of neural tube defects: An update of the evidence for the U.S. Preventive Services Task Force. *Ann Intern Med* 2009; 150:632–9.
- 43 Mathur U, Datta SL, Mathur BB. The effect of aminopterin-induced folic acid deficiency on spermatogenesis. *Fertil Steril* 1977; 28:1356–60.
- 44 Ebisch IMW, Pierik FH, De Jong FH et al. Does folic acid and zinc sulphate intervention affect endocrine parameters and sperm characteristics in men? *Int J Androl* 2006; 29:339–45. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2605.2005.00598.x>
- 45 Djukic A. Folate-responsive neurologic diseases. *Pediatric Neurol* 2007; 37:387–97. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.pediatrneurol.2007.09.001>
- 46 Gregory JF. The bioavailability of folate. In: Bailey LB, editor. *Folate in health and disease*. New York: Marcel Dekker, Inc.; 1995. p. 195–235.
- 47 McNulty H, Scott JM. Intake and status of folate and related B-vitamins: Considerations and challenges in achieving optimal status. *Brit J Nutr* 2008; 99:S48–S54. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0007114508006855>
- 48 Der-Petrossian M, Födinger M, Knobler R et al. Photodegradation of folic acid during extracorporeal photopheresis. *Brit J Dermatol* 2007; 156:117–21. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2133.2006.07569.x>
- 49 Mastropaolo VV, Wilson MA. Effect of light on serum B12 and folate stability. *Clin Chem* 1993; 39:913.
- 50 Suh JR, Herbig AK, Stover PJ. New perspectives on folate catabolism. *Annu Rev Nutr* 2001; 21:255–82. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1146/annurev.nutr.21.1.255>
- 51 Jablonski NG. Sun, skin and spina bifida: An exploration of the relationship between solar ultraviolet radiation, skin colour and neural tube defects. In: Bruce NVW, editor. *Proceedings of the Fifth Annual Conference of the Australasian Society for Human Biology*. Perth: Centre for Human Biology; 1992. p. 455–62.
- 52 Moan J, Porojnicu AC, Dahlback A et al. Addressing the health benefits and risks, involving vitamin D or skin cancer, of increased sun exposure. *Proc Natl Acad Sci* 2008; 105:668–73. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0710615105>
- 53 Buccimazza SS, Molteno CD, Dunne TT et al. Prevalence of neural tube defects in Cape Town, South Africa. *Teratology* 1994; 50:194–9. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/tera.1420500304>
- 54 Williams LJ, Rasmussen SA, Flores A et al. Decline in the prevalence of spina bifida and anencephaly by race/ethnicity: 1995–2002. *Pediatrics* 2005; 116:580–6. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1542/peds.2005-0592>
- 55 Besser LM, Williams LJ, Cragan JD. Interpreting changes in the epidemiology of anencephaly and spina bifida following folic acid fortification of the U.S. grain supply in the setting of long-term trends, Atlanta, Georgia, 1968–2003. *Birth Defects Res A Clin Mol Teratol* 2007; 79:730–6. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/bdra.20401>
- 56 Rogers AR, Iltis D, Wooding S. Genetic variation at the MC1R locus and the time since loss of human body hair. *Current Anthropology* 2004; 45:105–24. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1086/381006>
- 57 Makova K, Norton HL. Worldwide polymorphism at the MC1R locus and normal pigmentation variation in humans. *Peptides* 2005; 26:1901–8. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.peptides.2004.12.032>
- 58 Rees JL. The melanocortin 1 receptor (MC1R): More than just red hair. *Pigment Cell Res* 2000; 13:135–40. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1034/j.1600-0749.2000.130303.x>
- 59 Rana BK, Hewett-Emmett D, Jin L, et al. High polymorphism at the human melanocortin 1 receptor locus. *Genetics* 1999; 151:1547–57.
- 60 Shriver MD, Parras EJ, Dios D et al. Skin pigmentation, biogeographical ancestry and admixture mapping. *Hum Genet* 2003; 112:387–99.

- 61 Norton HL, Kittles RA, Parra E et al. Genetic evidence for the convergent evolution of light skin in Europeans and East Asians. *Mol Biol Evol* 2007; 24:710–22. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/molbev/msl203>
- 62 Chaplin G, Jablonski NG. Hemispheric difference in human skin colour. *Am J Phys Anthropol* 1998; 107:221–4. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/\(SICI\)1096-8644\(199810\)107:2<221::AID-AJPA8>3.0.CO;2-X](http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1096-8644(199810)107:2<221::AID-AJPA8>3.0.CO;2-X)
- 63 Jablonski NG, Chaplin G. Human skin pigmentation as an adaptation to UV radiation. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 2010; 107:8962–8. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0914628107>
- 64 Johnson FS, Mo T, Green AES. Average latitudinal variation in ultraviolet radiation at the Earth's surface. *Photochem Photobiol* 1976; 23:179–88. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1751-1097.1976.tb07239.x>
- 65 Henry HL, Norman AW. Vitamin D: Metabolism and biological actions. *Annu Rev Nutr* 1984; 4:493–520. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1146/annurev.nu.04.070184.002425>
- 66 Holick MF. Vitamin D: A millenium perspective. *J Cell Biochem* 2003; 88:296–307. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/jcb.10338>
- 67 Webb AR, Holick MF. The role of sunlight in the cutaneous production of vitamin D3. *Annu Rev Nutr* 1988; 8:375–99. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1146/annurev.nu.08.070188.002111>
- 68 Lips P. Vitamin D physiology. *Prog Biophys Mol Biol* 2006; 92:4–8. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.pbiomolbio.2006.02.016>
- 69 Mawer EB, Davies M. Vitamin D nutrition and bone disease in adults. *Rev Endocr Metab Disord* 2001; 2:153–64. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1023/A:1010002710485>
- 70 Holick MF. Environmental factors that influence the cutaneous production of vitamin D. *Am J Clin Nutr* 1995; 61:638S–45S.
- 71 MacLaughlin J, Holick MF. Aging decreases the capacity of human skin to produce vitamin D3. *J Clin Invest* 1985; 76:1536–8. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1172/JCI112134>
- 72 Holick MF, MacLaughlin JA, Doppelt SH. Regulation of cutaneous previtamin D3 photosynthesis in man: Skin pigment is not an essential regulator. *Science* 1981; 211:590–3. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1126/science.6256855>
- 73 Norman AW. From vitamin D to hormone D: Fundamentals of the vitamin D endocrine system essential for good health. *Am J Clin Nutr* 2008; 88:491S–9S.
- 74 Chen TC, Chimeh F, Lu Z et al. Factors that influence the cutaneous synthesis and dietary sources of vitamin D. *Arch Biochem Biophys* 2007; 460:213–7. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.abb.2006.12.017>
- 75 Hess AF. Newer aspects of the rickets problem. *J Am Med Assoc* 1922; 78:1177–83. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jama.1922.02640690001001>
- 76 Fleet JC. Molecular actions of vitamin D contributing to cancer prevention. *Mol Asp Med* 2008; 29:388–96. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.mam.2008.07.003>
- 77 Garland CF, Garland FC, Gorham ED et al. The role of vitamin D in cancer prevention. *Am J Pub Health* 2006; 96:252–61. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.2004.045260>
- 78 Cantorna MT. Vitamin D and its role in immunology: Multiple sclerosis, and inflammatory bowel disease. *Prog Biophys Mol Biol* 2006; 92:60–4. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.pbiomolbio.2006.02.020>
- 79 McGrath JJ, Féron FP, Burne THJ et al. Vitamin D3—Implications for brain development. *J Steroid Biochem* 2004; 89–90:557–60. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jsbmb.2004.03.070>
- 80 Harms LR, Eyles DW, McGrath JJ et al. Developmental vitamin D deficiency alters adult behaviour in 129/SvJ and C57BL/6J mice. *Behav Brain Res* 2008; 187:343–50. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.bbr.2007.09.032>
- 81 Loomis WF. Skin-pigment regulation of vitamin-D biosynthesis in man. *Science* 1967; 157:501–6. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1126/science.157.3788.501>
- 82 Murray FG. Pigmentation, sunlight, and nutritional disease. *Am Anthropol* 1934; 36:438–45. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1525/aa.1934.36.3.02a00100>
- 83 Hathcock JN, Shao A, Vieth R. Risk assessment for vitamin D. *Am J Clin Nutr* 2007; 85:6–18.
- 84 Vieth R. Effects of vitamin D on bone and natural selection of skin colour: How much vitamin D nutrition are we talking about? In: Agarwal SC, Stout SD, editors. *Bone loss and osteoporosis: an anthropological perspective*. New York: Kluwer Academic/Plenum Press; 2003. p. 135–50. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4419-8891-1_9
- 85 Lanham-New SA, Buttriss JL, Miles LM et al. Proceedings of the Rank Forum on Vitamin D. *Brit J Nutr* 2011; 105:144–56. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0007114510002576>
- 86 Wolff AE, Jones AN, Hansen KE. Vitamin D and musculoskeletal health. *Nat Clin Pract Rheumatol* 2008; 4:580–8. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ncprheum0921>
- 87 Lucas RM, McMichael AJ, Armstrong BK et al. Estimating the global disease burden due to ultraviolet radiation exposure. *Int J Epidemiol* 2008; 37:654–67. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/ije/dyn017>
- 88 Lalueza-Fox C, Rompler H, Caramelli D et al. A melanocortin 1 receptor allele suggests varying pigmentation among Neanderthals. *Science* 2007; 318:1453–5. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1126/science.1147417>
- 89 Lamason RL, Mohideen M-APK, Mest JR et al. SLC24A5, a putative cation exchanger, affects pigmentation in zebrafish and humans. *Science* 2005; 310:1782–6. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1126/science.1116238>
- 90 Clemens TL, Adams JS, Henderson SL et al. Increased skin pigment reduces the capacity of skin to synthesise vitamin D3. *Lancet* 1982; 1:74–6. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(82\)90214-8](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(82)90214-8)
- 91 Cosman F, Nieves J, Dempster D et al. Vitamin D economy in blacks. *J Bone Min Res* 2007; 22:V34–V8. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1359/jbmr.07s220>
- 92 Matsuoka LY, Wortsman J, Haddad JG et al. Racial pigmentation and the cutaneous synthesis of vitamin D. *Arch Dermatol* 1991; 127:536–8. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1001/archderm.1991.04510010104011>
- 93 Webb AR. Who, what, where and when—influences on cutaneous vitamin D synthesis. *Prog Biophys Mol Biol* 2006; 92:17–25. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.pbiomolbio.2006.02.004>
- 94 Armas LA, Dowell S, Akhter M et al. Ultraviolet-B radiation increases serum 25-hydroxyvitamin D levels: The effect of UVB dose and skin colour. *J Am Acad Dermatol* 2007; 57:588–93. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jaad.2007.03.004>
- 95 Malvy DJ, Guinot C, Preziosi P, et al. Relationship between vitamin D status and skin phototype in general adult population. *Photochem Photobiol* 2000; 71:466–9. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1562/0031-8655\(2000\)071<0466:RBVDSA>2.0.CO;2](http://dx.doi.org/10.1562/0031-8655(2000)071<0466:RBVDSA>2.0.CO;2)
- 96 Tran TT, Schulman J, Fisher DE. UV and pigmentation: Molecular mechanisms and social controversies. *Pigment Cell Melanoma Res* 2008; 21(5):509–16. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1755-148X.2008.00498.x>
- 97 Nan H, Kraft P, Qureshi AA et al. Genome-wide association study of tanning phenotype in a population of European ancestry. *J Invest Dermatol* 2009; 129:2250–7. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/jid.2009.62>
- 98 Sturm RA. Molecular genetics of human pigmentation diversity. *Hum Mol Genet* 2009; 18:R9–17. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/hmg/ddp003>
- 99 Quillen E. *Identifying genes related to Indigenous American-specific changes in skin pigmentation*. University Park, PA: The Pennsylvania State University; 2010.