

Low Ultraviolet B and Increased Risk of Brain Cancer: An Ecological Study of 175 Countries

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Key Words

Brain neoplasms · Vitamin D · Ultraviolet rays · Alcohol · Cigarettes · Multiple regression · International comparisons

Abstract

Background: The purpose of this study was to determine whether an inverse association exists between latitude, solar ultraviolet B (UVB) irradiance, modeled 25-hydroxyvitamin D [25(OH)D] levels and incidence rates of cancer of the brain.

Methods: Associations of latitude and UVB irradiance with age-standardized incidence rates of cancer of the brain were analyzed for 175 countries while controlling for proportion of population overweight, energy from animal sources, fish consumption, cigarette and alcohol consumption and per capita health expenditures, using multiple regression. Serum 25(OH)D levels were modeled for each country, and their association with brain cancer also was determined.

Results: The incidence rates of brain cancer were higher at higher latitudes (R^2 for males = 0.45, $p \leq 0.0001$; R^2 for females = 0.35, $p < 0.0001$). After adjustment for potential confounders, UVB irradiance ($p \leq 0.0001$) and modeled serum 25(OH)D were inversely associated with incidence rates.

Conclusions: Countries with low solar UVB irradiance and

estimated mean serum 25(OH)D levels generally had higher age-standardized incidence rates of brain cancer. Since this was an ecological study, further research would be worthwhile on the association of prediagnostic serum 25(OH)D with incidence rate in studies of cohorts of individuals.

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Introduction

Worldwide there are an estimated 189,485 cases and 141,650 deaths from primary brain cancer each year [1]. In the USA, 22,000 cases and 13,000 deaths were expected in 2010 [2]. However, very little is known about the etiology of primary brain cancer with the principal confirmed causes being ionizing radiation and a few uncommon genetic syndromes [3].

Greater exposure to solar ultraviolet B (UVB) in areas with high solar irradiance causes greater cutaneous photosynthesis of vitamin D in populations in these areas, resulting in higher levels of vitamin D metabolites, particularly 25-hydroxyvitamin D [25(OH)D] that are associated with lower incidence rates of certain cancers [4]. Populations living at higher latitudes, or having lower

prediagnostic serum 25(OH)D levels, have higher incidence rates of cancers of the breast [5–8], colon [9–12] and ovary [13], raising the possibility that vitamin D might also play a similar beneficial role in the etiology of cancer of other sites, such as the brain.

Tumors of the brain and nervous system are markedly different from tumors originating in other sites. However, it is possible that vitamin D may play a role in the prevention of brain cancer through its ability to help maintain the structural integrity of intercellular adhesion proteins. These adhesion proteins can be degraded by ionizing radiation, the principal known risk factor for brain cancer. In addition, vitamin D₃ (cholecalciferol) has been shown to induce death of human glioblastoma cells in vitro [14] and another study found that 25(OH)D can cause a significant reduction in growth of glioblastoma cells in vitro [15].

We chose several variables to include in the model as possible confounders based on previous research. It is well known that obesity is associated with lower levels of circulating serum 25(OH)D [16] as well as an increased risk for several cancers [17]. Intake of large quantities of energy of animal origin is thought to increase a growth hormone, insulin-like growth factor I (IGF-I), which is believed to increase the risk of cancer for other sites [18–20] and may possibly be relevant to the etiology of brain cancers.

Consumption of fish and fish oil are good sources of dietary vitamin D. They also exert a beneficial effect on age-related cognitive decline [21]. Cigarette smoking is a well-established risk factor for many cancers and some evidence exists that implicates parental drinking in increasing the risk of childhood brain cancer [22, 23], raising the possibility that alcohol use may play some role in the etiology of certain brain cancers. Per capita health expenditure was included in the analysis in order to account for international differences in quality of health care and the ability to detect cancers, which may be correlated with latitude since countries at higher latitudes tend to be wealthier than countries at lower latitudes.

Multiple linear regression was used to examine the associations of UVB irradiance adjusted for cloudiness with age-standardized incidence rates of cancer of the brain, while controlling for potential confounders such as proportion of the population overweight, intake of energy from animal sources, fish consumption, cigarette and alcohol consumption, and per capita health expenditures.

Materials and Methods

Data Sources

Age-standardized incidence rates of brain cancer were obtained for 175 countries, along with latitude of the population centroid of each country, winter UVB irradiance adjusted for cloudiness, proportion of the population overweight, intake of energy from animal sources, intake of energy from fish sources, per capita alcohol and cigarette consumption, and per capita health expenditures. All 175 countries were used in the latitude analysis. Complete data on all other variables were available for 107 countries and were used in the multivariate analyses.

The sources for many of the variables have been described elsewhere [24]. Age-standardized incidence rates of brain and nervous center tumors (defined as ICD 10 codes C70-C72) were obtained using the International Agency for Research on Cancer GLOBOCAN database for 2002, the latest year for which data are available [1]. Per capita consumption of cigarettes, alcohol and energy from animal and fish sources were obtained from the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization for 1980 [25]. Data on cloud cover were obtained from the National Aeronautics and Space Administration International Satellite Cloud Climatology Project earth-orbiting satellite [26].

Serum 25(OH)D values were modeled for 157 countries for which actual measurements of 25(OH)D from population-based samples were not available. We were able to obtain actual serum 25(OH)D measurements from 28 regions in 18 countries from previous research, and these actual measurements provided the basis for modeling estimated population 25(OH)D values. Estimated serum 25(OH)D was modeled using the measured levels of serum 25(OH)D during winter obtained from the 28 regions in 18 countries (Appendix 1) as the dependent variable, UVB irradiance as the independent variable and skin pigmentation levels in the areas where the studies were performed as a covariate. A multiple regression model based on known values of these variables provided regression coefficients for use in a separate multiple regression prediction equation that was applied to estimate mean winter serum 25(OH)D levels in countries where measurements were not available. The prediction equation included a scaling constant that was empirically determined. The measured 25(OH)D levels were used in the final calculations for the 18 countries, and the values modeled from the procedures described above were utilized for the remaining 157 countries.

Statistical Analysis

Age-standardized incidence rates from GLOBOCAN [1] were analyzed according to the latitude of the population centroid. The rates were age standardized to the age distribution of the 2000 world population [1]. The best fit to the data points was obtained using a polynomial trend line. A standard pharmacologic dose-response curve was plotted using a standard algorithm (Prism; GraphPad Software, San Diego, Calif., USA). Multiple linear regression was employed to examine the associations of UVB irradiance adjusted for cloudiness, while controlling for proportion of the population overweight, intake of energy from animal sources, fish consumption, cigarette and alcohol consumption, and per capita health expenditure in 107 countries. All analyses were performed using SAS version 9.1 and JMP version 5.1.2 (SAS Institute, Cary, N.C., USA).

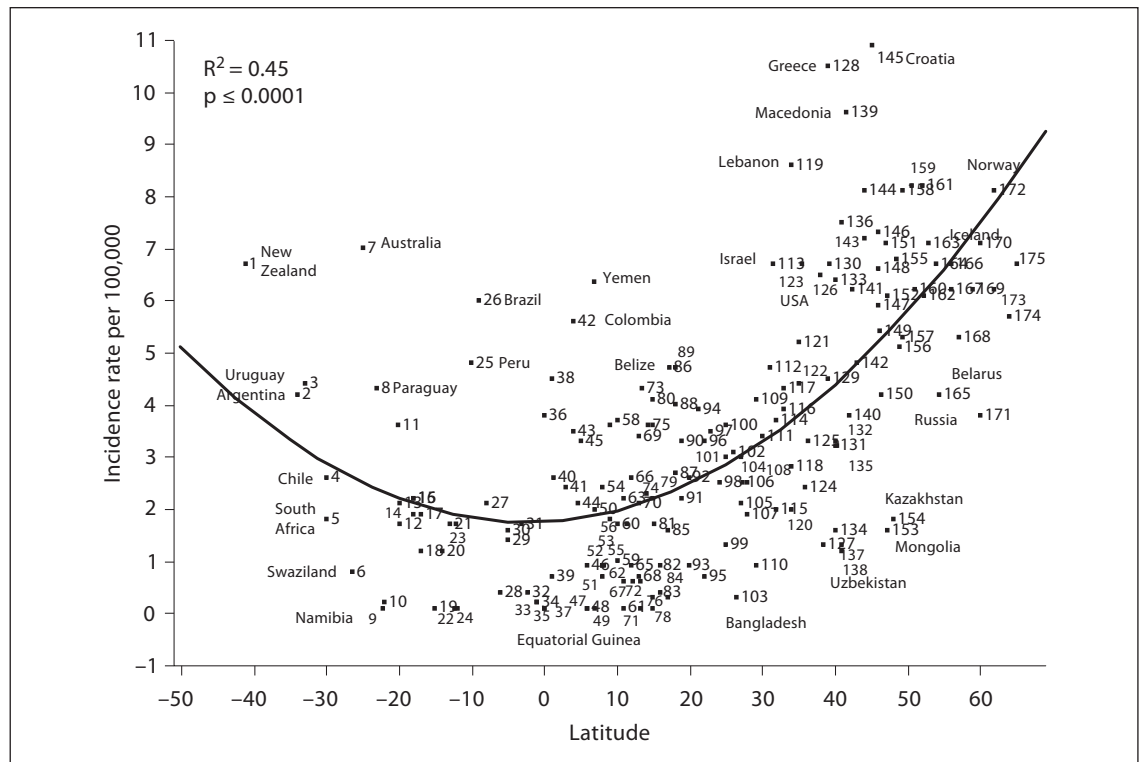


Fig. 1. Annual age-standardized incidence rates of cancer of the brain per 100,000 population, males, 175 countries, 2002. Source: data from GLOBOCAN [1].

Country label numbers used in figures 1 and 2

1 = New Zealand	27 = Solomon Republic	75 = Guatemala	99 = Qatar	125 = South Korea	150 = Moldova
2 = Argentina	50 = Sri Lanka	76 = Chad	100 = Saudi Arabia	126 = USA	151 = Hungary
3 = Uruguay	51 = Côte d'Ivoire	77 = Honduras	101 = United Arab Emirates	127 = Tajikistan	152 = Austria
4 = Chile	52 = Ghana	78 = Sudan	102 = Bahrain	128 = Greece	153 = Mongolia
5 = South African Republic	53 = Togo	79 = Thailand	103 = Bangladesh	129 = Turkey	154 = Kazakhstan
6 = Swaziland	54 = Venezuela	80 = Yemen	104 = Egypt	130 = Portugal	155 = Slovakia
7 = Australia	55 = Sierra Leone	81 = Eritrea	105 = Libya	131 = Armenia	156 = Ukraine
8 = Paraguay	56 = Ethiopia	82 = Cape Verde	106 = Bhutan	132 = North Korea	157 = Czech Republic
9 = Namibia	57 = Panama	83 = Niger	107 = Algeria	133 = Spain	158 = Luxembourg
10 = Botswana	58 = Costa Rica	84 = Mali	108 = Nepal	134 = Turkmenistan	159 = Belgium
11 = Mauritius	59 = Nigeria	85 = Vietnam	109 = Kuwait	135 = Azerbaijan	160 = Germany
12 = Madagascar	60 = Somalia	86 = Belize	110 = Lesotho	136 = Albania	161 = Poland
13 = Zimbabwe	61 = Guinea	87 = Lao People's Democratic Republic	111 = Pakistan	137 = Kyrgyzstan	162 = Netherlands
14 = Fiji	62 = Micronesia	88 = Jamaica	112 = Jordan	138 = Uzbekistan	163 = Ireland
15 = Mozambique	63 = Trinidad and Tobago	89 = Puerto Rico	113 = Israel	139 = Macedonia	164 = UK
16 = Vanuatu	64 = Djibouti	90 = Dominican Republic	114 = Iran	140 = Georgia	165 = Belarus
17 = Bolivia	65 = Guinea-Bissau	91 = Haiti	115 = Morocco	141 = Italy	166 = Denmark
18 = Polynesia	66 = Philippines	92 = India	116 = China	142 = Bulgaria	167 = Lithuania
19 = Zambia	67 = Burkina Faso	93 = Mauritania	117 = Iraq	143 = Serbia and Montenegro	168 = Latvia
20 = Samoa	68 = Cambodia	94 = Cuba	118 = Afghanistan	144 = Bosnia and Herzegovina	169 = Estonia
21 = Melanesia	69 = Nicaragua	95 = Myanmar	119 = Lebanon	145 = Croatia	170 = Canada
22 = Angola	70 = Barbados	96 = Oman	120 = Tunisia	146 = France	171 = Russian Federation
23 = Comoros	71 = Gambia	97 = Mexico	121 = Cyprus	147 = Romania	172 = Norway
24 = Malawi	72 = Guam	98 = Bahamas	122 = Syria	148 = Switzerland	173 = Sweden
25 = Peru	73 = El Salvador		123 = Malta	149 = Slovenia	174 = Finland
26 = Brazil	74 = Senegal		124 = Japan		175 = Iceland

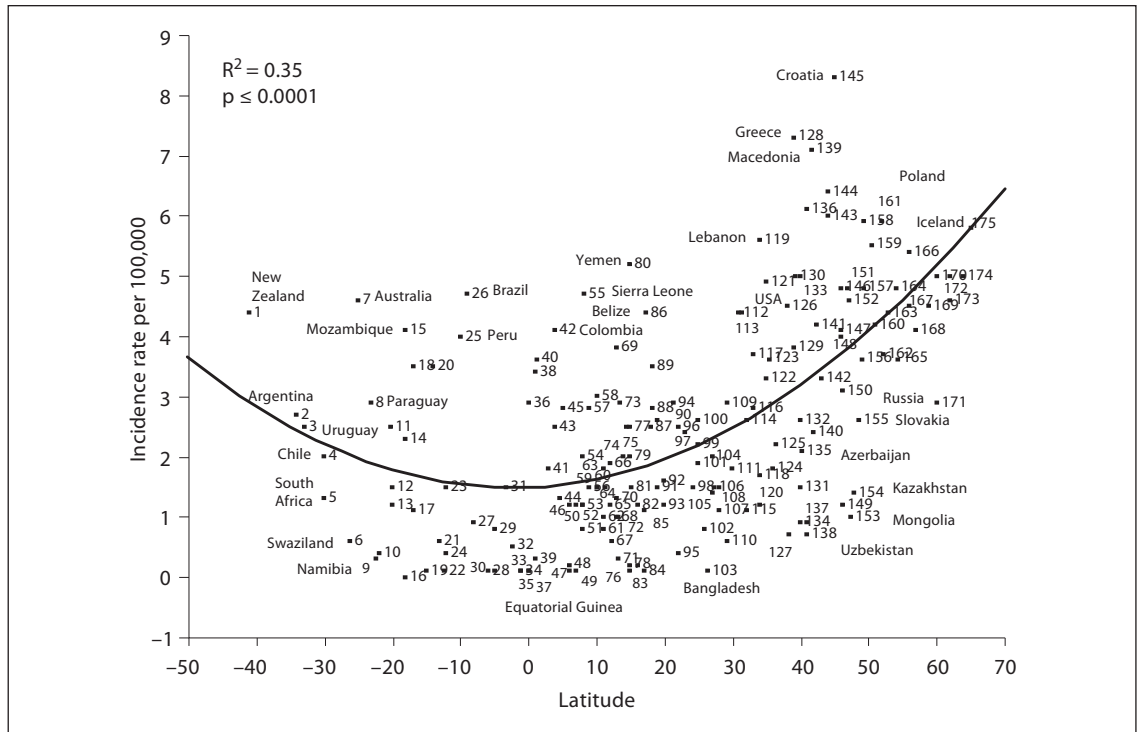


Fig. 2. Annual age-standardized incidence rates of cancer of the brain per 100,000 population, females, 175 countries. Source: data from GLOBOCAN [1]. Country label numbers are the same as in figure 1.

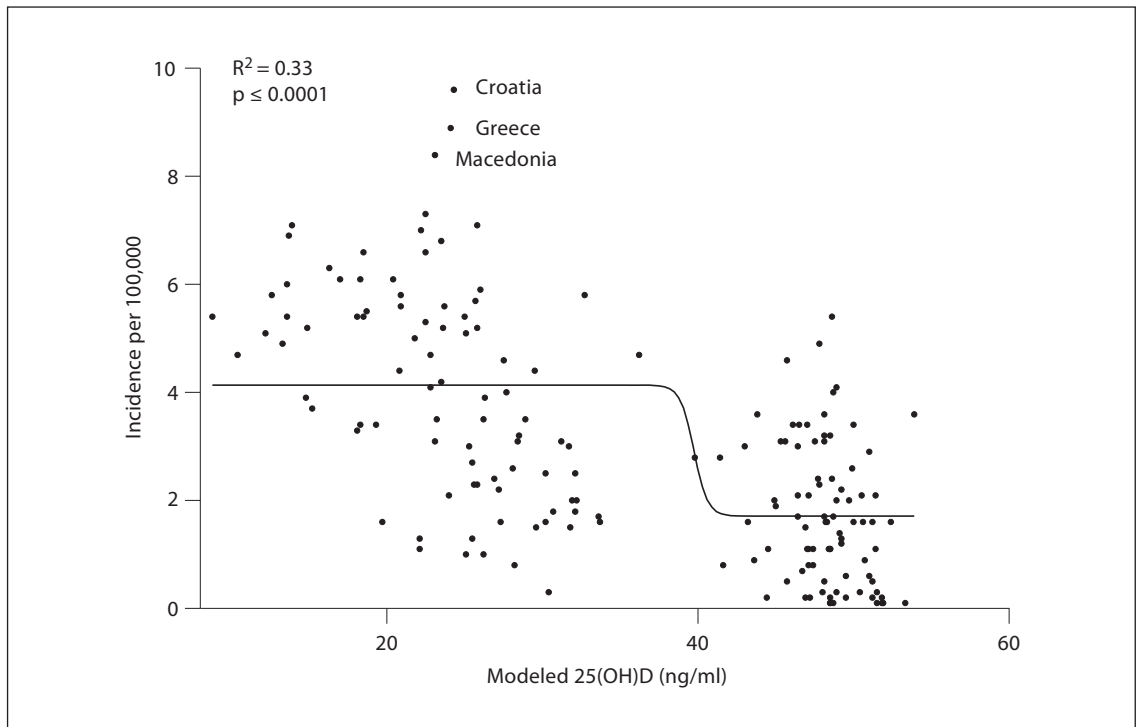


Fig. 3. Dose-response relationship between modeled serum 25(OH)D and incidence rates of brain cancer per 100,000 population in 175 countries, 2002. Source: data from GLOBOCAN [1]. Three outliers are labeled.

Table 1. Solar UVB irradiance and other covariates in association with brain cancer incidence rates, 107 countries, males, 2002

Variable	Regression coefficient	Standard error	t	p
Solar UVB irradiance ^a	-0.2219	0.0541	-4.11	<0.0001
Fish consumption ^b	-0.0082	0.0034	-2.37	0.02
Proportion of population overweight ^c	0.3681	0.0181	2.03	0.04
Intake of energy from animal sources ^b	0.0019	0.0007	2.61	0.01
Alcohol intake ^b	-0.0019	0.0024	-0.81	0.42
Cigarette consumption ^c	0.0002	0.0002	1.01	0.32
Per capita health expenditure ^{c, d}	0.0004	0.0002	1.47	0.14
Intercept	4.1131	0.7596	5.41	<0.0001

$R^2 = 0.74$, $p < 0.0001$. ^a Watts/square meter at vernal equinox, adjusted for cloudiness. ^b Source: United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization. ^c Source: World Health Organization. ^d All currencies were adjusted by the World Health Organization to USD.

Table 2. Solar UVB irradiance and other covariates in association with brain cancer incidence rates, 107 countries, females, 2002

Variable	Regression coefficient	Standard error	t	p
Solar UVB irradiance ^a	-0.2143	0.0466	-4.60	<0.0001
Fish consumption ^b	-0.0034	0.0029	-1.16	0.25
Proportion of population overweight ^c	0.0117	0.0085	1.37	0.17
Intake of energy from animal sources ^b	0.0009	0.0006	1.49	0.14
Alcohol intake ^b	-0.0018	0.0021	-0.88	0.38
Cigarette consumption ^c	0.0002	0.0002	1.05	0.29
Per capita health expenditure ^{c, d}	0.0002	0.0002	0.94	0.35
Intercept	3.8424	0.6615	5.81	<0.0001

$R^2 = 0.63$, $p < 0.0001$. ^a Watts/square meter at vernal equinox, adjusted for cloudiness. ^b Source: United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization. ^c Source: World Health Organization. ^d All currencies were adjusted by the World Health Organization to USD.

Results

The incidence rates of brain cancer were higher at higher latitudes, with a roughly parabolic relationship (fig. 1, 2). According to multivariate analysis in males, UVB irradiance was independently inversely associated with incidence rates ($p < 0.0001$). In addition, the proportion of the population overweight ($p = 0.04$) and intake of energy from animal sources ($p = 0.01$) were positively associated with incidence rates, while intake of energy from fish was inversely associated ($p = 0.02$) (table 1).

According to a multivariate analysis in females, UVB irradiance ($p < 0.0001$) was independently inversely associated with incidence, similar to the association in males (table 2). No other covariates were related to incidence in females. Serum 25(OH)D was also inversely associated with incidence rates, according to a dose-response analysis performed for both sexes combined, based on modeled and measured serum levels of 25(OH)D (fig. 3).

Discussion

The etiology of brain cancer is still poorly understood. This is the first report of the inverse association of incidence rates of solar UVB irradiance with cancer of the brain, to our knowledge. The incidence rates of cancer of the brain were higher in countries located at latitudes distant from the equator, where UVB irradiance is low, than in countries closer to the equator, where it is high. In the multivariate model, UVB irradiance was inversely associated with brain cancer incidence rates in both sexes even after controlling for other factors. UVB irradiance varies inversely with latitude [27], and photosynthesis in the skin resulting from it is the source of approximately 95% of circulating vitamin D and its metabolites in humans [28]. Previous studies have shown that 25(OH)D [14] and its precursor, vitamin D₃ [15], can inhibit growth or destroy human glioblastoma cells *in vitro*.

Several mechanisms are involved in vitamin D anticarcinogenesis [30, 51]. A 7-phase sequence has been proposed under the acronym DINOMIT that includes decoupling (D) of epithelial cells due to loss of intercellular adhesion proteins, initiation (I) due to chemical carcinogens, ionizing radiation, infidelity of DNA reproduction and, possibly, epigenetic factors [30, 51]. This is followed by natural selection (N) of rapidly-reproducing clones within a tissue compartment, overgrowth (O) of the tumor mass and penetration of the basement membrane and, eventually, metastasis (M) to remote tissues. It has been hypothesized that with vitamin D adequacy, an involutinal (I) or dormant state may occur. If this does not occur, death may ensue. If it does occur, there may be a transition (T) to permanent dormancy as long as vitamin D adequacy is maintained [29, 30]. Other mechanisms may also be involved, since vitamin D metabolites induce differentiation of cancer cells, including lung cancer cells [31] in tissue culture, and arrest growth by mitotic arrest in the interphase (G0/G1) phase of the mitotic cycle. 1,25(OH)₂D enhances apoptosis of epithelial cells in tissue culture by decreasing phospho-Erk (and phospho-Akt) kinases that regulate apoptosis, and pathways upregulating MEKK-1, a proapoptotic signaling molecule [32]. Recent studies of the human tumor suppressor oncogene, p53 [33], and its murine analog, p63 [34], have shown that their gene products induce synthesis of vitamin D receptor, a molecule that may mediate the actions of vitamin D on intercellular adhesion.

Vitamin D metabolites are lipid soluble, and it has been established that 1,25(OH)₂-vitamin D readily crosses the blood-brain barrier [35]. About 2,400 μg of 1,25(OH)₂D are present in the parenchyma of the human brain [35]. The normal range of serum 1,25(OH)₂-vitamin D is 18–64 pg/ml [36].

Cancers of the brain have diverse pathological features, but the majority (approximately 60%, including gliomas and glioblastomas) have histological features that are suggestive of glial cell origin [37]. Recent evidence suggests that these tumors arise mainly, or perhaps exclusively, from glial stem cells [38], although it has not been definitely ruled out that some might arise directly from glia [39]. Glia are derived during embryogenesis from the ectodermal layer [40]. Under normal conditions, the number of glial cells in the human brain is approximately equal to the number of neurons [41]. Unlike neurons within the mature central nervous system, several types of glial cells undergo mitosis [39].

Intercellular tight junctions bind glial cells tightly to one another [42], with the exception of microglia, which are mobile [43]. The tight junctions of glial cells and associated myelin sheaths help provide a high-resistance barrier that insulates axons and allows rapid transmission of nerve impulses [44]. When tight junctions are weak or absent, the speed of transmission of impulses is reduced [44]. Tight junctions are upregulated by vitamin D metabolites in several tissues, including colonocytes [45], keratinocytes [46] and renal cells [47], but it has not been established that tight junctions of glial cells are regulated by vitamin D. However, regulation of tight junctions is an established physiological role of vitamin D metabolites in multiple tissues. Therefore, it is likely that vitamin D upregulates tight junctions between glial cells.

Several factors influence the risk of cancer of the brain, including history of some infections [48], exposure to ionizing radiation [49] and genetic predisposition [50]. However, a subset of tumors that may be due to vitamin D inadequacy might be explained, in part, by a multiphase process that may begin with loss of intercellular adherence and contact inhibition of glial cell proliferation [4], potentially resulting from vitamin D inadequacy. Weakening of tight junctions and loss of contact inhibition is the first of several proposed phases in evolution within a tissue compartment to early precursors of cancer [4, 51].

Contact inhibition is a well-established anticancer mechanism that arrests mitosis when cells in a tissue compartment (or tissue culture) reach high density [52]. In the absence of contact inhibition, which occurs due to

many reasons including vitamin D inadequacy, inappropriate proliferation may occur and is a first step toward a population of cells that may be regarded as potential cancer precursors [4].

In this analysis, per capita energy from fish consumption was significantly inversely associated with incidence rates in men. It is unclear what role, if any, fish consumption plays in preventing brain cancer. However, previous research has identified a beneficial effect of fish consumption on age-related cognitive decline [21]. On the other hand, some types of fish and fish oil are sources of vitamin D. Although some evidence exists that implicates parental drinking in increasing the risk of childhood brain cancer [22, 23], per capita alcohol consumption was not related to incidence rates of brain cancer in this study.

We also found that consumption of energy from animal sources was significantly associated with higher risk of brain cancers in men but not in women. High intake of energy from animal sources, primarily red meat, may increase the risk for several other cancers by raising the levels of IGF-I [18–20]. However, it is unclear what role IGF-I may play in the etiology of brain cancer and how that relationship may be modified by sex. This should be explored further in future observational studies of individuals. It is also possible that consumption of energy from animal sources is primarily a marker for socioeconomic status, despite the inclusion of per capita health expenditure in the multivariable model.

Per capita health expenditure was not positively associated with brain cancer incidence rates in either sex. As stated before, this variable was included in the analysis in order to account for international differences in quality of health care and the ability to detect cancers, which may be correlated with latitude, since countries at higher latitudes tend to be wealthier than countries at lower latitudes. However, it is possible that the effect of per capita health expenditure in this model may have been weakened by the inclusion of intake of energy with animal protein, which is also related to socioeconomic status. Nevertheless, UVB irradiance was significantly inversely associated with brain cancer risk despite the inclusion of these variables.

The high incidence of brain cancer in Macedonia, Croatia and Greece remains unexplained. However, it seems possible that the traditional agrarian practices in those countries, combined with a high ovine population, might account for some of the excess [53, 54]. Since rural areas of these countries use traditional methods for raising, maintaining and slaughtering livestock, there is in-

evitable contact of members of the population with sheep and lambs, in which *Toxoplasma gondii* infection is very widely endemic in the region.

Schuman et al. demonstrated that patients with brain cancer (especially gliomas, the most common type) were substantially more likely to have antibodies in the serum to *T. gondii* [48]. A later study confirmed the association, although it reported that the effect was confined to meningiomas [55]. A large observational study found that sheep handlers had an odds ratio of 2.7 (95% confidence interval = 1.4–5.3) for brain cancer [56].

Other possibilities may include the presence of health care systems especially well suited to detecting cases of brain cancer, use of industrial pesticides that are banned in the USA, but may still be used in the Balkans, or employment in regional chemical and refining industries. More research would be worthwhile to determine the reasons for the high incidence rates in these countries, compared to most other countries at similar latitudes.

Strengths

This study had several strengths. No other studies have analyzed incidence rates by latitude and UVB irradiance in a large number of countries located at widely different latitudes, to our knowledge. It accounts for several potential risk factors using multiple linear regressions. The regression model accounted for 74% of the variation in age-standardized incidence rates of brain cancer in men and 63% in women. The independent inverse association of UVB irradiance with incidence rates of brain cancer persisted after controlling for these factors.

The percentage of variation in incidence rates of cancer of the brain among countries that was accounted for by the regression model that included UVB irradiance and covariates was similar to that of cancers for which a role of vitamin D has been reported in observational studies of individuals, including those of the breast (R^2 for the model = 0.55, $p < 0.0001$) [57], colon ($R^2 = 0.68$, $p < 0.0001$) [57] and ovary ($R^2 = 0.60$, $p < 0.0001$) [58].

Limitations

A major limitation of this study is the lack of distinction between types of brain and nervous system tumors. The 2 most common types of brain cancer are gliomas and meningiomas. These tumors are vastly different from each other and should avoid being grouped together in the same category whenever possible. However, in the only source from which global incidence rates of brain cancer are publicly available, the International

Agency for Research on Cancer GLOBOCAN database, no distinction is made between the different types of brain and nervous system tumors. All diagnoses falling under ICD 10 codes C70-C72 are grouped into the same category. Therefore, it is impossible to tell for which tumors UVB and vitamin D status may be possible factors in preventing.

Another limitation was the lack of a comprehensive database with information by country on exposure to ionizing radiation or prevalence of genetic factors that increase risk. Furthermore, this study could not account for differences in culture, behaviors and diet that vary across countries and latitudes which may modify the risk of brain cancer. For example, absorption of UVB irradiance by clothing could not be measured in the present study, yet it is possible that the association of UVB with incidence rates of bladder cancer could have been influenced by the type of clothing worn. Since there was no systematic source of information available on clothing characteristics according to country, it was not possible to eliminate this possible interaction.

The data for several of the potential confounders were from 1980. This was done in order to allow for the 20- to 30-year latency period necessary for most cancers to develop after exposure [59]. Nevertheless, it is possible that significant shifts in these and other lifestyle habits that occurred over this time period as a result of economic development and globalization could have had a strong impact on the risk of brain cancer. However, there was no way to directly assess this in the current model given the data available to the investigators.

Studies such as the present one should be considered as hypothesis generating, rather than definitive. This was a study of aggregate populations rather than individual subjects. Findings that apply to aggregates may not always apply equally to individuals [60]. For example, all individuals living in areas of high UVB irradiance may not have high exposure to UVB. This can result from urbanization and industrialization. On the other hand, regional solar UVB irradiance tends to affect a broad range of individuals, and the association was present despite the possible misclassification of exposure. While nondifferential classification of exposure is possible in ecological studies, it generally obscures associations, rather than creating them [61].

Ecological studies are potentially the source of variables to be investigated using other methods. Still, the diverse geographic distribution of populations in areas with widely different levels of solar UVB irradiance provides a natural experiment on a large scale. Natural ex-

periments can be of value in identifying potentially relevant etiological factors. For example, ecological comparisons of areas with high fluoride levels in drinking water with areas with low levels showed that higher fluoride content was associated with lower incidence of dental caries [62].

Despite their value for identifying new ideas for research, ecological studies usually cannot account for all possible confounders such as exposure to ionizing radiation by country or differences in ability to diagnose cancer of the brain. To our knowledge, no comprehensive database on exposure to ionizing radiation by country exists, and as a result this could not be included in the analysis. The covariate for per capita health care expenditures may control for international variation in diagnostic capabilities to some extent. No covariate was available besides this to control for diagnostic differences. Many of these limitations could be addressed by observational studies of individuals. Such studies should be performed to more definitively examine hypotheses generated from natural experiments such as the present study.

Conclusion

Further investigation is warranted to confirm the associations observed in this study with observational trials of individuals. New research on the association of the pre-diagnostic serum 25(OH)D levels of individuals with their risk of brain cancer might be particularly informative.

Acknowledgements

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Appendix 1. Mean population 25(OH)D levels from 28 published studies

Author	Year	Journal	Location	Mean 25(OH)D, ng/ml
Mazess et al.	1985	Am J Clin Nutr	Alaska, USA	16.6
Oliveri et al.	1990	Medicina	Buenos Aires, Argentina	19.0
Xue et al.	1991	Zhonghua Yu	Beijing, China	17.7
Chailuikit et al.	1996	J Med Assoc Thai	Thailand	67.4
Chapuy et al.	1997	Osteoporos Int	France	17.9
Aloia al.	1998	J Lab Clin Med	New York, USA	27.5
Harris et al.	1998	Am J Clin Nutr	Boston, USA	25.0
Bettica et al.	1999	Osteoporos Int	Italy	18.7
Guillemand et al.	1999	Osteoporos Int	Paris, France	8.6
Kristal-Boneh et al.	1999	Eur J Epidemiol	Israel	25.4
Goswami et al.	2000	Am J Clin Nutr	New Delhi, India	19.6
Brot et al.	2001	Br J Nutr	Denmark	26.2
Mishal et al.	2001	Osteoporos Int	Amman, Jordan	14.4
Nakamura et al.	2001	Nutrition	Japan	14.1
Vieth et al.	2001	Eur J Clin Nutr	Toronto, Canada	24.1
Looker et al.	2002	Bone	USA	26.2
Nesby-O'Dell et al.	2002	Am J Clin Nutr	USA	32.9
Rucker et al.	2002	CMAJ	Calgary, Canada	23.8
Tangpricha et al.	2002	Am J Med	USA	29.1
Fassi et al.	2003	Medicina	Buenos Aires, Argentina	22.0
Arya et al.	2004	Osteoporos Int	Lucknow, India	12.3
Hashemipour et al.	2004	BMC Public Health	Tehran, Iran	8.6
MacFarlane et al.	2004	J Steroid Biochem Mol Biol	Brussels, Belgium	13.8
Premaor et al.	2004	Endocrine	Porto Alegre, Brazil	12.0
Rejnmark et al.	2004	Calcif Tissue Int	Greenland	12.1
Tangpricha et al.	2004	Endocr Pract	USA	28.3
Meddeb et al.	2005	Osteoporos Int	Tunis, Tunisia	22.0
Rockell et al.	2005	J Nutr	Dunedin, New Zealand	22.0

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