

A Review on Sunscreen Safety and Efficacy of skin

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ABSTRACT :-

The use of sunscreen products has been advocated by many health care practitioners as a means to reduce skin damage produced by ultraviolet radiation (UVR) from sunlight. There is a need to better understand the efficacy and safety of sunscreen products given this ongoing campaign encouraging their use. The approach used to establish sunscreen efficacy, sun protection factor (SPF), is a useful assessment of primarily UVB (290-320 nm) filters. The SPF test, however, does not adequately assess the complete photoprotective profile of sunscreens specifically against long wavelength UVAI (340-400 nm). Moreover, to date, there is no singular, agreed upon method for evaluating UVA efficacy despite the immediate and seemingly urgent consumer need to develop sunscreen products that provide broad-spectrum UVB and UVA photoprotection.

With regard to the safety of UVB and UVA filters, the current list of commonly used organic and inorganic sunscreens has favorable toxicological profiles based on acute, subchronic and chronic animal or human studies. Further, in most studies, sunscreens have been shown to prevent the damaging effects of UVR exposure. Thus, based on this review of currently available data, it is concluded that sunscreen ingredients or products do not pose a human health concern. Further, the regular use of appropriate broad-spectrum sunscreen products could have a significant and favorable impact on public health as part of an overall strategy to reduce UVR exposure.

I. INTRODUCTION :-

The incidence of non-melanoma and melanoma skin cancers has been increasing in most parts of the world for several decades. Exposure to UV radiation (UVR) from the sun plays a causal role in acute and chronic skin damage including skin cancers. As such, the medical community and other health care providers have advocated a photoavoidance strategy consisting of limiting sunlight exposure between midday hours of 1100 and 1500, wearing protective clothing and using sunscreens. Because sunscreens prevent sunburn

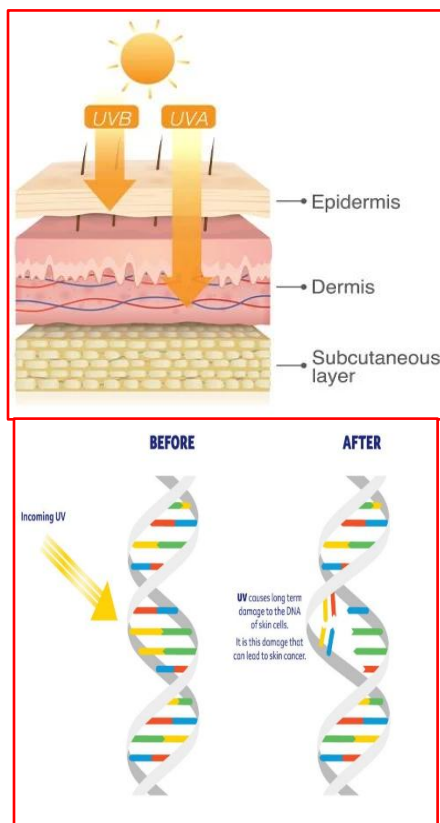
and their use is encouraged, it has been suggested that sun exposure may actually be prolonged because users believe they are protected and therefore will spend more time in the sun. This potential consequence raises several ancillary concerns. For example, because most sunscreens are primarily UVB (290-320 nm) and, in some cases, short wavelength UVAII (320-340 nm) filters, then use of such products changes the UVR spectrum to which the skin is exposed. Consequently, if behavior is modified by sunscreen use resulting in longer periods of sun exposure, then the dose of long-wavelength UVR, 340 nm and above, would be increased. Further, even though sunscreens prevent sunburn, little is known regarding the threshold or dose-response for UVR-induced effects on other endpoints such as immunosuppression or DNA damage. Finally, because sunscreens are becoming widespread and available, questions have been raised regarding their long-term safety, particularly in the presence of UVR. The intent of this review is to address these concerns, when possible, with direct evidence and discuss ways that sunscreen products might be improved. To this end, it seems necessary to examine some basic concepts regarding the complexities of UVR and its effects on skin. After considering the effects of UVR on unprotected skin, the consequences of introducing sunscreens into this intricate interaction will be reviewed.

EFFECTS OF SOLAR UVR ON THE SKIN :-



Exposure to UVR has pronounced acute, chronic or delayed effects on the skin. The UVR-induced skin effects manifest as acute responses such as inflammation, i.e. sunburn, pigmentation (hyperplasia, immunosuppression and vitamin D synthesis), and chronic effects, primarily photocarcinogenesis and photoaging. These acute and chronic effects are dependent on the spectrum and cumulative dose of UVR; however, the complete action spectrum for the majority of UVR-induced effects has not been completely defined in human skin. In addition, and quite importantly, these responses have different thresholds such that the prevention of UVR-induced changes for one endpoint does not guarantee a similar level of protection for any other. Regardless, it should be kept in mind that exposure to UVR always produces more skin damage in unprotected than in sunscreen-protected skin because the acute and chronic effects of UVR are dose, time and wavelength dependent (3), and in the most empirical terms sunscreens reduce the dose of UVR.

Evidence for a role of UVR in skin cancers :-



Exposure to UVR from sunlight probably causes NMSC, based in part on the following evidence:

- People with xeroderma pigmentosum, a genetic disease with defective DNA repair, are exquisitely sensitive to UVR and develop NMSC at an early age predominantly on sunexposed parts of the body.
- The incidence of NMSC is inversely related to latitude in populations of mainly European origin and is greater in outdoor compared to indoor workers.
- The NMSC is most common on the head, neck, arms and hands, areas of the body that receive the largest dose of UVR.
- Persons that easily sunburn, i.e. Fitzpatrick skin types I and II, are more susceptible to the development of NMSC.
- Mutations in the p53 tumor suppressor gene have been found in 90% of squamous and 50% of basal cell carcinomas, most of which are UVR signature mutations.

Evidence for a role of UVR in photoaging :-

Like skin cancer, chronic exposure to solar UVR is thought to accelerate aging of human skin. This skin photoaging is characterized by dryness, roughness, irregular pigmentations such as freckling/lentigenes, actinic keratoses, wrinkling, elastosis, inelasticity and sebaceous hyperplasia (24). The incidence and severity of skin photoaging are believed to be a function of cumulative UVR exposure, based on human and animal studies. For example, Caucasian women with excessive sun exposure have a higher incidence of photoaging than women with a low UVR exposure history.

In addition, signs of photodamage specifically on the face are absent in unexposed skin, e.g. inner portion of the arm, of the same individual (38). Importantly, photoaging differs from chronological or intrinsic aging of the skin and may be slowed or reversed by reduction in UVR exposure as is the case with sunscreens or, perhaps, with other treatments such as all-trans-retinoic acid.

SUNSCREENS AS PART OF A PHOTOPROTECTION STRATEGY:-

Sunscreen-mediated photoprotection is concerned with the reduction of exposure to UVR, specifically UVB and UVA, primarily from the sun. There are two categories of sunscreen agents: organic and inorganic. The organic sunscreens are referred to as soluble or chemical sunscreens. The

inorganic sunscreens are commonly known as physical, mineral, insoluble, natural or nonchemical.

The term nonchemical is an obvious misnomer that has gained some consumer

Table 1. List of UVR filters used in the United States skin care market

UV filter (approximate rank order)	Comment
Octyl methoxycinnamate (OMC)	Found in over 90% of sunscreen products used in the world
Oxybenzone	Combined with OMC in many beach products
Octyl salicylate	Used in oxybenzone/OMC primarily for its solvent properties
Octocrylene	Found in many recreational sunscreen products
2-Phenyl-benzimidazole-5-sulfonic acid (PBSA)	Used in combination with OMC in daily UV protectant products
Methyl anthranilate	
Homosalate	
2-Ethylhexyl-o-dimethylamino Benzoate (Padimate O)	
Avobenzene	Currently four products
Zinc oxide	Recently approved category I sunscreen
Titanium dioxide	
p-Aminobenzoic acid (PABA)	Rarely used
Glyceryl aminobenzoate	Rarely used
Amyl p-dimethylamino-benzoate (Padimate A)	Rarely used
Ethyl 4 [bis(hydroxypropyl)] amino	Rarely used
Dioxybenzone	Rarely used
Sulidobenzene	Rarely used
Cinoxate	Rarely used
Diethanolamine p-methoxycinnamate	Rarely used
Lawsone + dihydroxyacetone (DHA)	Rarely used

Organic sunscreens:-

Organic sunscreens have been the mainstay of sunscreen formulation for decades and, although inorganic sunscreens are gaining in popularity, organic sunscreens are still used in greater amounts. Organic sunscreens are often classified as derivatives of (1) anthranilates, (2) benzophenones, (3) camphors, (4) cinnamates, dibenzoylmethanes, (6) p-aminobenzoates or (7) salicylates. These aromatic compounds absorb a specific portion of the UVR spectrum that is generally re-emitted at a less energetic, longer wavelength, i.e. heat or light, or used in a photochemical reaction, such as cis-trans or keto-enol photochemical isomerization.

Inorganic sunscreens:-

During this decade, the inorganic sunscreens have been used with increasing frequency in beach and daily use photoprotection products. This has been driven, in part, by their safety and effectiveness, particularly in blocking UVA, and the concern regarding potential adverse effects of organic sunscreens. The inorganic sunscreens are generally viewed

as harmless pigments that cannot enter the skin and are largely unaffected by light energy like organic sunscreens may be.

The two most commonly used inorganic sunscreens are titanium dioxide (TiO₂) and zinc oxide (ZnO). Although these two metal oxides differ substantially in their appearance and attenuation spectra (42), they share some general properties that are discussed briefly.

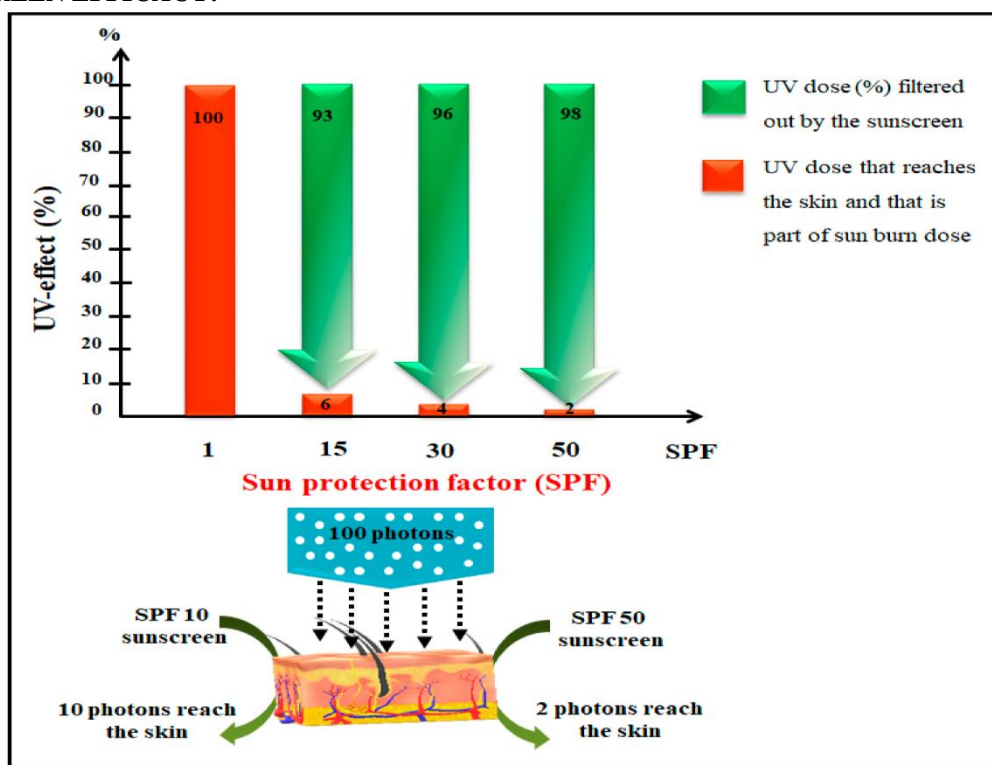
Zinc oxide and TiO₂ exist as odorless white powders comprised of a Gaussian or normal distribution of particle sizes. Microfine powders, used in sunscreen products, have an average particle size of approximately 0.20 µm (micron) or less with a distribution that is narrow and well controlled. Importantly, compared to the traditional pigment grades of these metal oxides that have been used for years in cosmetic products, microfine powders do not contain smaller particles, rather the lower end of the normal particle size distribution is augmented through specialized manufacturing procedures. In other words, microfine powders have always been present in ZnO- or TiO₂-containing products but were optically overwhelmed by the larger particles. Thus, microfine particles do not

represent an entirely new particle size, just a refinement of the existing particle size distribution (43).

Each particulate has a size at which it maximally scatters visible light (43). This is the ideal size for use as a white or colored pigment. As a sunscreen, however, any color rendered to the product by an ingredient is undesirable. Thus, the

average particle size of a metal oxide is reduced below the optimal light scattering size, allowing visible light to be transmitted and therefore, appearing virtually invisible on the skin. This property has been employed to yield the microfine grades of metal oxides that are now being widely used in sunscreen and daily skin care formulations.

SUNSCREEN EFFICACY:-



Sunscreens represent unique products because, if applied properly, their efficacy is guaranteed. This guarantee is based on their ability to prevent sunburn, which has been the criterion used to evaluate these products to date. As presented in this paper, however, this singular criterion does not appear to be sufficient for evaluation of sunscreen products in the future. This view is based on the need for broad spectrum UVB and UVA photoprotection products. Nonetheless, unlike any other OTC drug, the final sunscreen product is tested for efficacy before consumer distribution. The methods used to evaluate the efficacy of sunscreens will be briefly considered.

SPF: A measure of protection against UVB

There is no question regarding product efficacy-sunscreens prevent sunburn. The selection of a sunscreen or combination of sunscreens and the resultant formulation is designed and evaluated for this purpose. The SPF for a sunscreen is defined as the ratio of sun exposure that skin can tolerate before burning or minimal erythema is apparent with and without sunscreen protection. Thus, SPF is really the protection factor for sunburn.

Because the action spectrum for UVR-induced sunburn is similar to that for a specific measure of DNA damage, it often has been inferred that protection against sunburn is the same as protection against DNA damage and a host of other endpoints as well. However, as mentioned previously, it is now clear that each biological response has a unique action spectrum and even

when different responses have similar action spectra the threshold or dose-response or both to UVR may differ dramatically (3,14,17,19-23,39). Thus, although SPF provides a measure of sunburn protection, its value for other endpoints is limited and could be viewed as misleading.

SUNSCREEN SAFETY

Besides traditional recreational and daily photoprotection products, sunscreens are increasingly included in diverse consumer products. Given this, questions regarding their long-term safety, particularly in the presence of UVR exposure, have been raised. The intent of this section, therefore, is to address some current

concerns regarding sunscreen safety. This is not a comprehensive review of the published studies on sunscreen safety, rather an attempt to compare and contrast results of *in vitro* studies with those obtained *in vivo*.

It is important to distinguish between long-term safety concerns and short-term adverse reactions. Sensitivities, both photo- and nonphotoinduced, to organic sunscreens are well documented and seemingly rare events, although there are few published studies making it difficult to know the actual prevalence (49-51). These important and meaningful events likely impact compliance but do not represent the sort of long-term toxicity issues we discuss in this paper.

In general terms, the toxicological evaluation of any

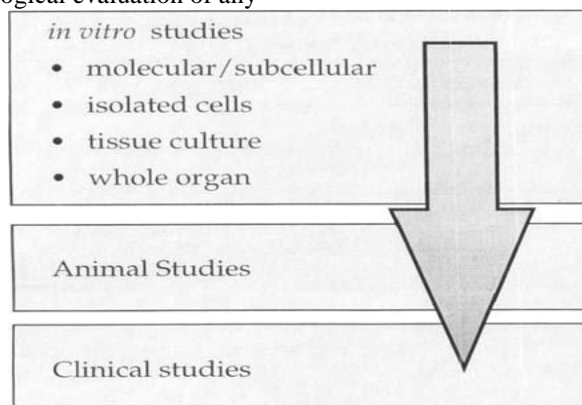


Figure 1. Toxicological hierarchy in assessment of human risk.

This cartoon represents different levels of human relevance from a toxicological viewpoint. Results from *in vitro* studies need to be balanced against animal and clinical studies when considering risk to human health.

chemical where human exposure is likely often includes short-term *in vitro* studies that are believed to be predictive of long-term or delayed toxicity. This is quite evident in the carcinogenic risk assessment of chemicals where bacterial mutation assays have become a mainstay in this process. With regard to sunscreens, assessment of the mutagenic potential represents a unique challenge considering their specific function, namely absorption of UVR. As such, short-term *in vitro* approaches measuring various endpoints have been conducted with sunscreens, many of which include UVR exposure. In general, these are cytotoxicity or genotoxicity, i.e. bacterial mutagenicity and mammalian cell clastogenicity studies that include concurrent UVR exposure.

The photogenotoxicity testing of a chemical is judged against results obtained with a positive control, 8-MOP. Because 8-MOP is the only demonstrated human photocarcinogen known, the assessment of any compound using these *in vitro* tests is tenuous at best. Nonetheless, there are a number of studies examining the acute interaction between UVR and chemicals for both organic and physical sunscreens. In general, these studies have been conducted to identify what effects sunscreens have on UVR-induced damage, either genetic or cytotoxic, and, by inference, UVR-induced skin carcinogenesis. This strategy remains in the infant stages of development, although to date, this approach appears to have little bearing on human safety assessment. Finally, when evaluating the human safety of sunscreens and other xenobiotics, it is important to understand the hierarchical

value of the experimental results. For example, studies conducted in humans provide direct evidence in the species of interest thereby eliminating issues regarding extrapolation and

relevance inherent in animal and **in vitro** investigations.

Similarly, studies conducted in animals provide an integrated response resembling the human circumstance more closely than **in vitro** single cell studies. This hierarchical prioritization, crudely illustrated in Fig 1

Studies with organic sunscreens

p-Aminobenzoic acid (PABA) was patented in 1943 and for many years was the primary organic sunscreen active used.

Derivatives of PABA including **2-ethylhexyl-o-dimethylaminobenzoate** (Padimate O) and **amyl p-dimethylaminobenzoate** (Padimate A) were developed and utilized during the 1960s and 1970s. Since then a number of other sunscreen agents have become available, several with reduced probability of photo-related toxicity making PABA and its derivatives rarely used sunscreens. Despite its infrequent use, PABA has been the subject of much research **Acute in vivo studies**. From the **in vitro** study result above, it is apparent that under specific artificial conditions, organic sunscreens, predominantly PABA and its derivatives, can interact with DNA following UVR either directly or indirectly. The effect of PABA and other organic sunscreens on measures of DNA damage produced by acute exposure to UVR has been evaluated **in vivo** using primarily hairless mice. Walter (67) and Walter and DeQuoy (68) found that several organic sunscreens including PABA and its derivatives reduced UV-induced DNA damage in the skin of hairless mice. More recently, Ley and Fourtanier

(69) reported that octyl methoxycinnamate (OMC), the most common UVB sunscreen used in the world, and terephthalylidenedicamphor sulfonic acid, a UVB filter, reduced the number of UV-induced pyrimidine dimers in epidermal DNA of hairless mice exposed to SSR.

Most recently, studies investigating UVR-induced mutations in the p53 tumor suppressor gene have been conducted. As stated earlier, it has been reported that the p53 tumor suppressor gene is mutated in 90% of squamous cell carcinomas and 50% of basal cell carcinomas from human subjects (31). Ananthaswamy et al. (70) described the ability of sunscreens, one containing the UVB filters octocrylene and **2-phenylbenzimidazole-5-sulfonic acid** and the other containing the same UVB filters plus UVA filters avobenzonone and terephthalylidenedicamphor sulfonic acid, to inhibit the induction of p53 mutations in UVR-irradiated C3H mouse skin. In order to avoid the tedious task of examining all 11 exons of p53, these authors selected a site that is mutated in 27% of UV-induced skin tumors in mice for sequence analysis.

They showed that the application of sunscreens before each irradiation nearly abolished the occurrence of p53 mutations at the selected site. In these studies artificial light emitting only a portion of the solar spectrum was employed, which means that these mice were not exposed to the high doses of longer wavelength UVA and shorter wavelength visible light that is contained in the solar spectrum. Nonetheless, this is an important study because it examined the effects of sunscreens on a molecule that influences the fate of a cell

Table 2. Summary of photo co-carcinogenicity studies with sunscreens

Test materials	References
Single compounds	
Titanium dioxide	Greenoak <i>et al.</i> (97), Bestak and Halliday (98)
Octyl methoxycinnamate (OMC)	Gallagher <i>et al.</i> (141), Reeve <i>et al.</i> (142), Forbes <i>et al.</i> (82), Reeve <i>et al.</i> (80), Fourtanier <i>et al.</i> (143), Bestak and Halliday (98), Reeve and Kerr (79), Kligman <i>et al.</i> (83)
<i>p</i> -Aminobenzoic acid (PABA)	Snyder and May (73), Flindt-Hansen <i>et al.</i> (74-76)
Octyl dimethyl PABA (Padimate O)	Kligman <i>et al.</i> (77), Reeve <i>et al.</i> (80), Bissett <i>et al.</i> (144), Reeve and Kerr (79), Bissett and McBride (145)
Glyceride PABA	Wulf <i>et al.</i> (81)
Mexoryl SX	Fourtanier (143)
3-Benzoyl-4-hydroxy-6-methoxy benzenesulfonic acid (BSA)	Knox <i>et al.</i> (72)
Combinations	
Oxybenzone + OMC	Wulf <i>et al.</i> (81), Kligman <i>et al.</i> (83)
Oxybenzone + Padimate O	Kligman <i>et al.</i> (77)
OMC + 1,7,7 trimethyl-3-benzylidene-bicyclo-[2,2,1]-2-heptone	Young <i>et al.</i> (146)
OMC + avobenzone	Bissett <i>et al.</i> (23), Young <i>et al.</i> (147)
OMC + oxybenzone + avobenzone	Kligman <i>et al.</i> (83)

One of the first published studies examining the ability of sunscreens to inhibit UVR-induced skin cancer in rodents was the work of Knox *et al.* (72). They conducted a series of experiments with mice to determine the effect of a benzophenone derivative, **3-benzoyl-4-hydroxy-6-methoxybenzenesulfonic acid (BAS)**, or PABA on the development of skin cancer produced by artificial UVR. Both BAS and PABA were found to decrease UVR-induced tumor formation.

Consistent with these results are the studies by Snyder and May (73) and Flindt-Hansen *et al.* (74,75) that found topical treatment with PABA significantly reduced the tumorigenic effects of UVR in mice. Furthermore, Flindt-Hansen *et al.* (76) demonstrated that preirradiated, photodegraded solutions of PABA still protected mice against UVR-induced tumor formation. Thus, in contrast to *in vitro* results demonstrating enhancement of UVR dimer formation or photomutations that lead to the logical hypothesis that PABA would enhance UV-induced tumorigenesis, these *in vivo* data convincingly demonstrate that this sunscreen protects against UVR-induced tumor formation in mice

Studies with inorganic sunscreens:-

Although metal oxides, TiO₂, and ZnO, have been used for years in consumer products and are generally considered to be inert, recent photocatalytic applications of TiO₂, (84,85) have led to a reconsideration of their effect in sunscreens.

TiO₂ is a semiconductor that can absorb light and under certain conditions generate free radicals (43,44,78). The band gap (3 eV for TiO₂) is a measure of the minimum energy in electron volts required to promote an electron from the valence band to the conduction band. A compound with a band gap in the region of 3 eV can be excited by radiation at wavelengths below ~380 nm. Thus, TiO₂ may be susceptible to excitation by UVB and UVA in sunlight. Photoexcitation of TiO₂ could promote a single electron from the valence band to the conduction band, leaving a positively charged hole, but sometimes the hole migrates to the surface of the particle, where it can react with absorbed species.

In an aqueous environment it can react with water or hydroxyl ions, forming hydroxyl radicals (86). Such processes are well known for aqueous preparations of TiO₂, exposed to either artificial UV light or natural sunlight. In this capacity, the photocatalytic potential of TiO₂ has been used experimentally to degrade suspensions of organic materials and purify drinking water (87).

Considering the photocatalytic potential of metal oxides, it has been proposed as well that a photoreactive pigment in a sunscreen product may degrade organic UVR filters also present in the formula. This has been studied using commercially representative sunscreens that contained both organic and inorganic sunscreens (88). Thin films of the sunscreens were applied to a synthetic substrate and irradiated with increasing



doses of solar-simulated UVR, the highest dose being 30 J/cm². The sunscreen and substrate were digested and the percent organic sunscreen remaining was determined.

Both coated, microfine ZnO and TiO₂, were shown to be photoprotective with respect to the organic sunscreens octyl methoxycinnamate and avobenzone. Similar results were obtained with uncoated microfine ZnO as well. These data show that, in finished formulation, these metal oxides not only caused no detectable break down of adjacent organic molecules but actually improved their survival. Chronic in vivo studies. The hypothesis that TiO₂ may enhance UVR-induced damage has been investigated in chronic photocarcinogenicity studies in mice. In two separate studies, it was found that micronized TiO₂, substantially reduced UVR-induced tumor formation in mice (97,98). These data are consistent with the acute in vivo results and diametrically opposed to the seemingly logical extension of the in vitro studies. Simply stated, the in vitro studies do not predict chronic in vivo findings. Thus, considering the worst case using the most photocatalytically active metal oxide, TiO₂, there is no evidence that repeated application in the presence of UVR represents a potential human hazard under the conditions of these studies. To the contrary, in vivo experiments have shown the topical application of metal oxides as sunscreens to be beneficial.

Sunscreen studies in humans:-

Acute studies. The effect of sunscreens on the acute effects of UVR has been assessed in human skin. For example, Freeman *et al.* (99) found that a sunscreen containing OMC and benzophenone-3 protected human skin from UVR-induced DNA damage as evaluated by formation of pyrimidine dimers. The study by van Praag *et al.* (100) found a sunscreen containing the UVA filter, avobenzone, and the UVB filters, **3-(4'-methylbenzylidene)-camphor** and 2-phenylbenzimidazole-5-sulfonic acid, prevented UVB-induced cyclobutane dimer formation in human skin. Finally, PABA significantly reduced unscheduled DNA synthesis produced by high dose, 2 minimal erythema dose (MED), UVR exposure in human skin (101). Collectively, these data showing prevention by sunscreens of acute UVR-induced DNA damage in vivo support their protective benefit in humans. Moreover, despite the diverse methods and different endpoints, a singular favorable outcome was obtained.

Chronic studies. There is no direct evidence in humans that sunscreen use prevents non-melanoma or melanoma skin cancers primarily due to the inability to conduct such a protracted study. However, in two prospective clinical studies it was found that repeated use of sunscreens suppresses the development of precancerous lesions (*ie.* actinic or solar keratosis). Thompson *et al.* (104) found that regular use of a sunscreen containing OMC and avobenzone (tert-butyl dibenzoylmethane) for 7 months prevented the development of solar keratoses in a dose-dependent manner. Because solar (actinic) keratoses are precursors of squamous cell carcinoma and a risk factor for basal cell carcinomas and melanoma (103), these data are suggestive that sunscreen use reduces the risk of skin cancers in the long term. Similarly, Nayloret *al.* (106) found that regular use of an **SPF 29** sunscreen containing OMC, benzophenone-3 and octyl salicylate over 2 years significantly reduced cutaneous neoplasia, as indicated by its suppression of precancerous lesions. These data are the most direct evidence that use of sunscreen reduces the **risk** of NMSC in humans. Finally, the use of sunscreens has been reported to diminish some aspects of photoaging in humans (107). These data are supported by animal studies that have clearly established that sunscreens diminish photodamage (108-110). Thus, prospective clinical studies of sunscreen use by humans have found that regular, daily use reduces measures of chronic UVR-induced skin damage.

II. DISCUSSION:-

The most apparent acute benefit of currently available sunscreens is the prevention of sunburn from UVR exposure. This effect has been suggested to be both a benefit and a potential concern. The obvious benefit is the prevention of sunburn that may reduce the risk of non-melanoma and perhaps melanoma skin cancers because severity and frequency of sunburns has been associated with NMSC formation (2,29,30). The concern has been inadequate protection of existing sunscreens and, more important, the potential for prolonged UVR exposure without acute signals (*ie.* sunburn) ultimately leading to greater doses of UVA (111). Although the assumption that sunscreen use promotes or encourages prolonged sun exposure has not been substantiated with any data (112), it remains a popular view that is, in part, logical and appealing. Regardless, it should be noted that for a given acute UVR exposure, the skin damage produced in the

absence of sunscreen photoprotection exceeds that obtained in their presence.

The human safety of current sunscreens:-

The most contentious views related to the safety of sunscreens have been built on *in vitro* findings using preparations of naked DNA or cultured cells. These studies have found that following irradiation, sunscreens may attack DNA either directly or indirectly *viz u viz* free radicals to produce damage in the form of adducts or cell death (56,58). From these results, it has been suggested that sunscreens may contribute to long-term skin damage. Specifically, it has been suggested that the DNA damage observed in these *in vitro* studies may be carcinogenic and may result when sunscreens are used as directed. If the *in vitro* mechanisms have any basis for concern, then acute and, most important, chronic application should reflect these events and sunscreens should

accelerate the appearance of UVR-induced DNA damage or tumor formation *in vivo*. As demonstrated, however, the *in vivo* results provide a singular answer that sunscreens protect against acute and chronic or delayed UVR-induced skin damage. For example, there was a trend toward delaying UV-induced tumor formation and decreasing the number of tumors per mouse in all photo-carcinogenicity studies conducted with sunscreens alone or in combination (Table 2).

The singular outcome of these studies occurred despite methodological differences in all studies. The extent of protection by the sunscreens ranged from complete inhibition of UV-induced tumor formation to a delay in the appearance of tumors by 2-3 weeks. Thus, safety concerns based on concurrent *in vitro* results with sunscreens have no bearing on the human use of sunscreens and may, in fact, be harmful to the extent that they discourage sunscreen use.

Protected versus unprotected skin

When one applies a sunscreen, the attenuation spectrum of that sunscreen defines the spectrum of UVR to which underlying cells in the skin are subjected. In this way, sunscreens alter the light spectrum to which the skin is exposed. This sunscreen-protected spectrum (SPS) will depend on the kind of sunscreen used and, with the majority of sunscreen products currently available, it is certain that longer UVA wavelengths will comprise this

SPS. It is for this reason that ideally we should know the complete action spectra, threshold and dose-response for any physiological, biological and molecular phenomena that occur in the skin. For example, the elucidation of skin immunology two decades ago led to a concern that even though sunscreens block the acute inflammation produced by UVR they might not prevent their immunosuppressive effects. Numerous studies have come down on different sides of this question (123,124). Different experimental conditions, including light sources and the lack of UVC filters, can account for many of the disagreements and the full story remains to be told because a complete action spectrum for immune suppression has not been described. Thus, it seems critical that UVR-mediated biological events be carefully characterized before the significance of UVR-sunscreen interactions can be fully understood.

Sunscreen use and melanoma:-



It is well beyond the scope of this review to consider the role of sunscreen use and the prevention of melanoma. However, it is necessary to mention considering the controversies surrounding this subject. In the most simple terms, if UVR exposure plays a role in the etiology of melanoma as suggested (2,33-35), then reducing sun exposure should diminish the risk of developing

this skin cancer. Thus, sunscreens would by this definition be beneficial in reducing the risk of melanoma provided they are applied properly, on a regular basis and do not modify behavior leading to prolonged periods of sun exposure. Clearly, the lack of an animal model of melanoma has slowed our ability to understand the pathogenesis of this disease. There is an urgent need for more research in the causation of melanoma and prospective clinical studies of preventive approaches including the use of sunscreens.

The need for broad-spectrum UVB/RVA sunscreen products

There is growing evidence that although UVB is the most damaging component of sunlight, UVA is responsible for numerous morphological, molecular and biochemical events that may contribute to photodamage of skin (125-128). The effects of long-term UVA radiation have been reported to be different qualitatively and quantitatively from those of UVB (129-131). Finally, the mechanism(s)/chromophores by which these wavelengths affect biological processes are different. For example, UVB is believed to be absorbed primarily by DNA, RNA and proteins that may be the direct chromophores mediating the damaging effects of these wavelengths. In contrast, the effects of UVA are secondary to the formation of free radicals, and the chromophore(s) leading to the generation of these reactive oxygen species is unknown.

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