The consequences of consequentialism

Sandro Galea





- 1. Motivations
- 2. A disciplinary definition
- 3. A call for recalibration
- 4. The consequences of consequentialism
- 5. Controversial consequential thoughts
- 6. Other consequences, not discussed

1. Motivations

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a. Population health; we can do better

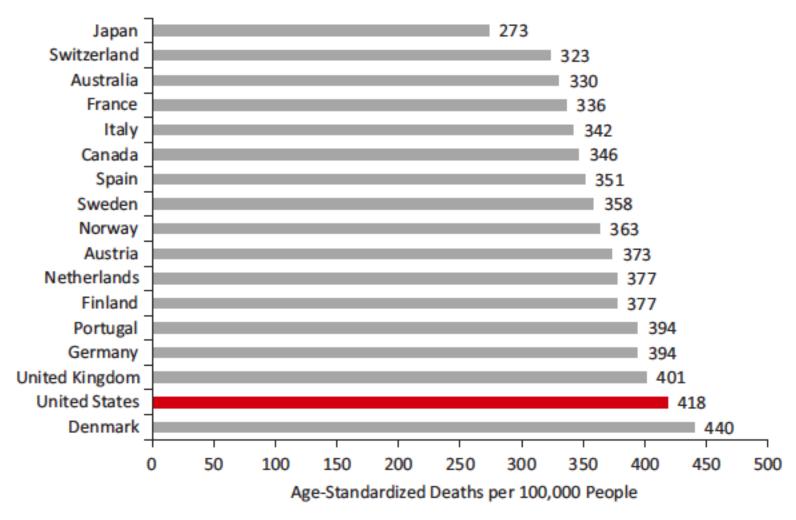


FIGURE 1-1 Mortality from noncommunicable diseases in 17 peer countries, 2008. SOURCE: Data from World Health Organization (2011a, Table 3).

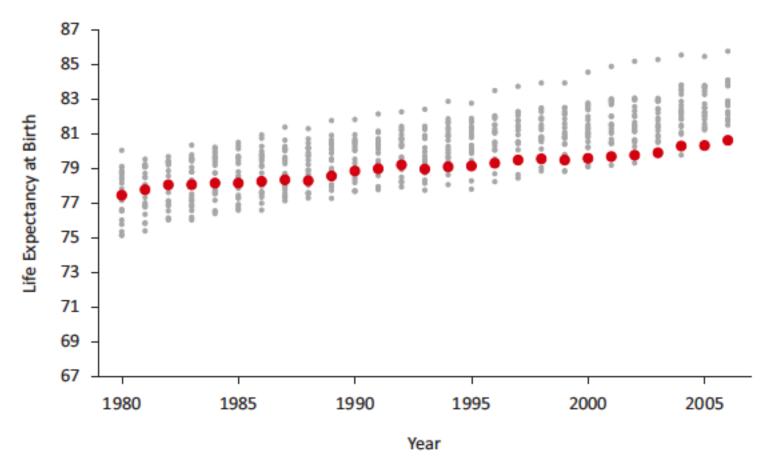


FIGURE 1-6 U.S. female life expectancy at birth relative to 21 other high-income countries, 1980-2006.

NOTES: Red circles depict newborn life expectancy in the United States. Grey circles depict life expectancy values for Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Denmark, Finland, France, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, the United Kingdom, and West Germany.

SOURCE: National Research Council (2011, Figure 1-4).

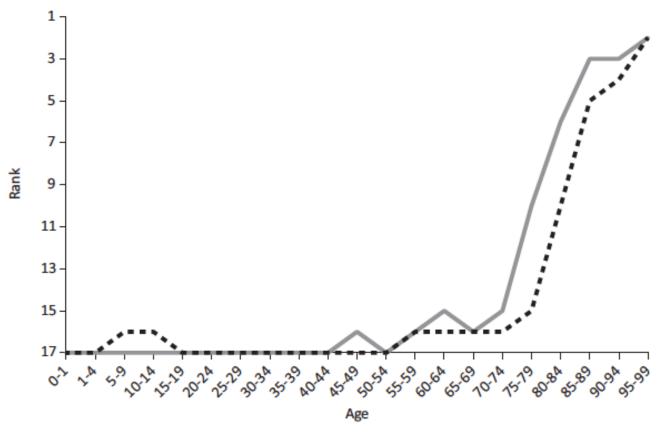
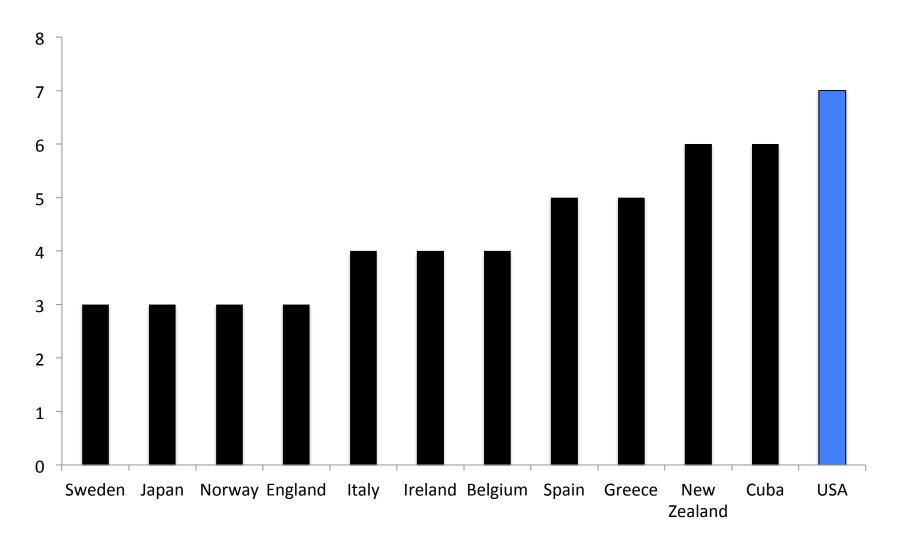


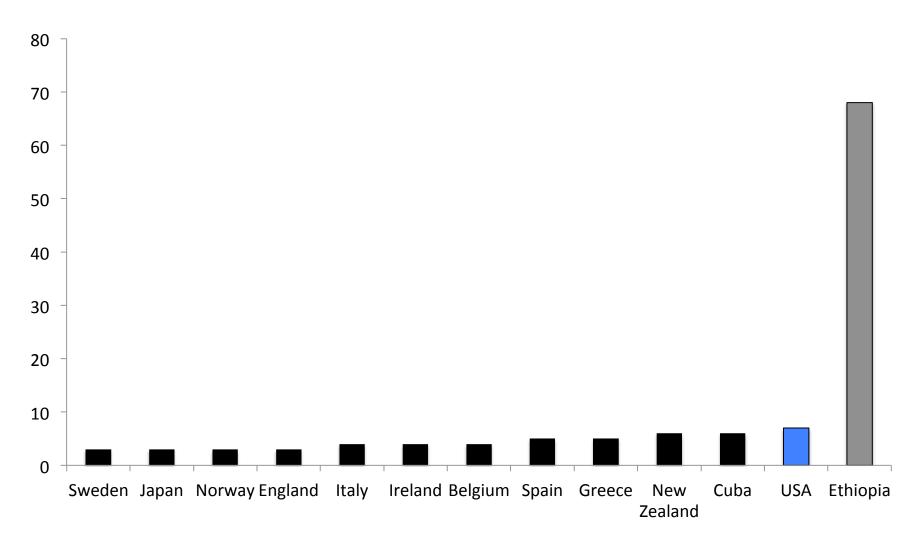
FIGURE 1-9 Ranking of U.S. mortality rates, by age group, among 17 peer countries, 2006-2008.

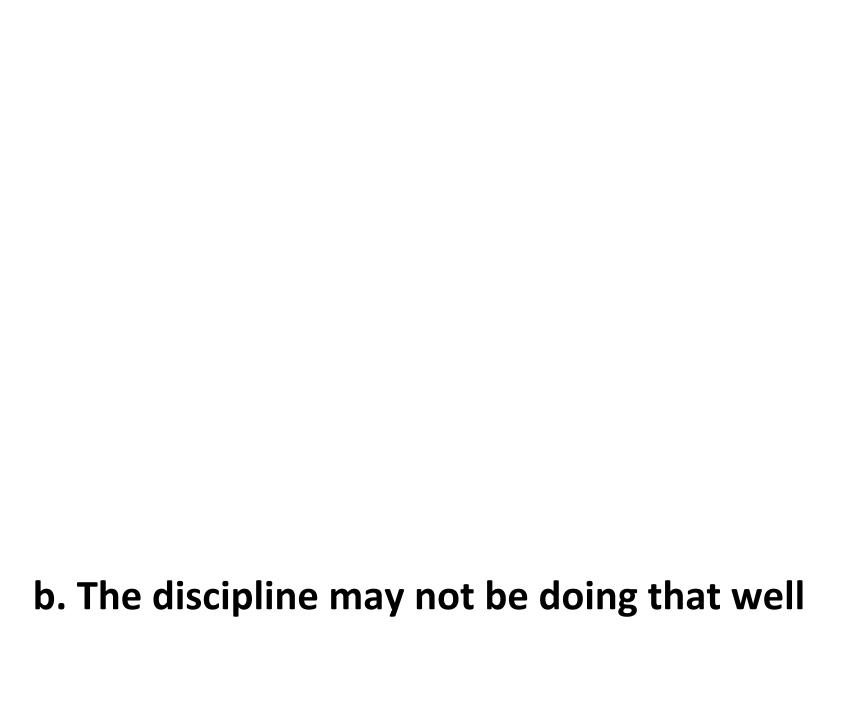
NOTES: The top rank is number 1, indicating the lowest death rate, and the bottom rank is number 17, indicating the highest death rate. Rankings are based on all-cause mortality rates for 2006-2008. Data for this figure were drawn from (1) the Human Mortality Database, 2011, University of California, Berkeley (USA), and Max Planck Institute for Demographic Research (Germany), available at http://www.mortality.org or http://www.humanmortality.de (data downloaded July 18, 2011) and (2) Arias, Elizabeth, 2011, United States Life Tables, 2007. National Vital Statistics Reports, 59(9), Hyattsville, MD: National Center for Health Statistics. SOURCE: Adapted from Ho and Preston (2011, Figure 1).

Under five mortality rates per 1,000 live births in selected countries



Under five mortality rates per 1,000 live births in selected countries





Components of Participating Organizations

Eunice Kennedy Shriver National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD), (http://www.nichd.nih.gov)

Title: Predoctoral and Postdoctoral Training Program in Reproductive, Obstetric, Perinatal and Pediatric Epidemiology and Pharmacoepidemiology (T32)

Announcement Type

This is a reissue of PAR-08-271.

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Funding Opportunity Title	Postdoctoral Training Program in Obstetric and Pediatric Pharmacoepidemiology (T32)			
Activity Code	T32 Institutional National Research Service Award (NRSA)			
Announcement Type	Reissue of PAR-10-194			



Justin Wolfers @JustinWolfers



Following

If you think economics is a mess, read the medicos trying to figure out if we're eating too much salt, or too little. nytimes.com/2013/05/15/hea...





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Cold and snow can have strange, often negative effects on people.





Wall Street Journal @WSJ

2:18pm · 16 Feb 14 · web

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The investigation of (a) the various external or physical agencies and the different conditions of life which favor their development or influence their character; and (b) the sanitary and hygienic measures best fitted to check, mitigate, or prevent them

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The investigation of (a) the various external or physical agencies and the different conditions of life which favor their development or influence their character; and (b) the sanitary and hygienic measures best fitted to check, mitigate, or prevent them 99

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A consequentialist epidemiology [is] centrally concerned with improving health outcomes. We would be much more concerned with maximizing the good that can be achieved by our studies and by our approaches than we are by our approaches themselves.

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An epidemiology of consequence should

- a. Focus on what matters most
- b. Critically interrogate what we think we know
- c. Engage in translating the science
- d. Teach epidemiology differently

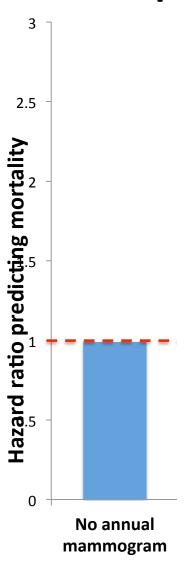
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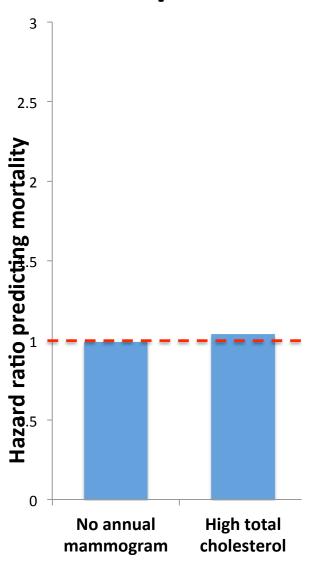
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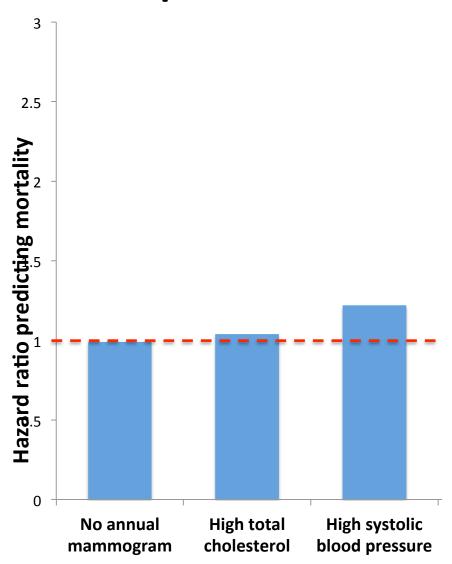
Populations and improving their health is what matters most

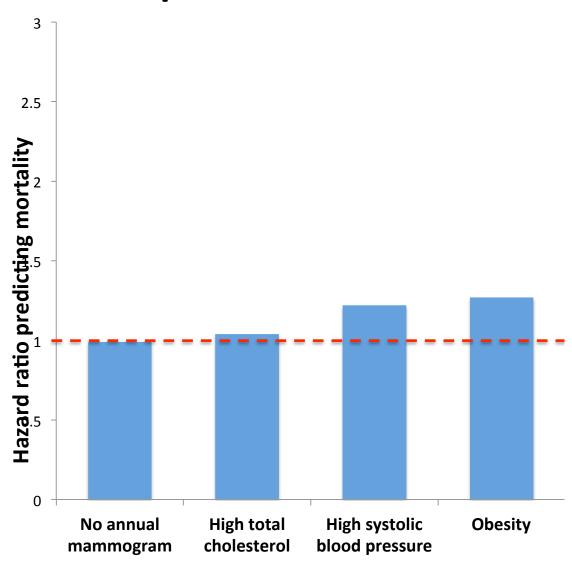
Populations and improving their health is what matters most. This suggests that we need to

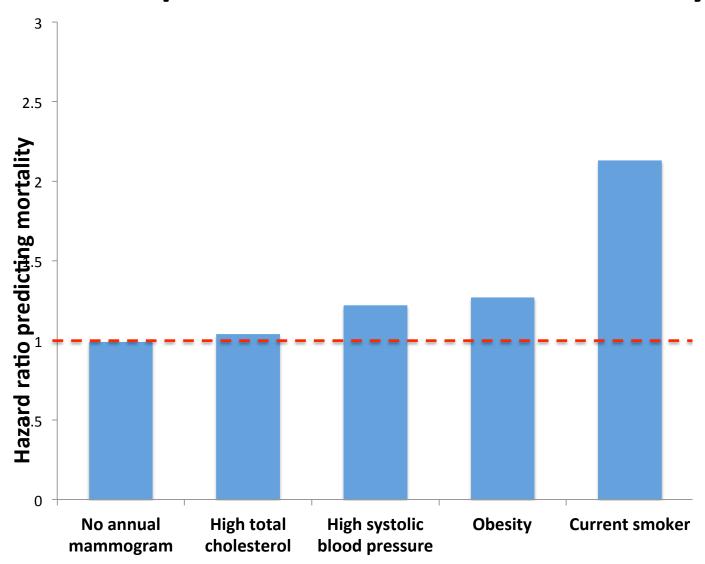
a1. Identify, and study, the factors that may have greatest impact on population health

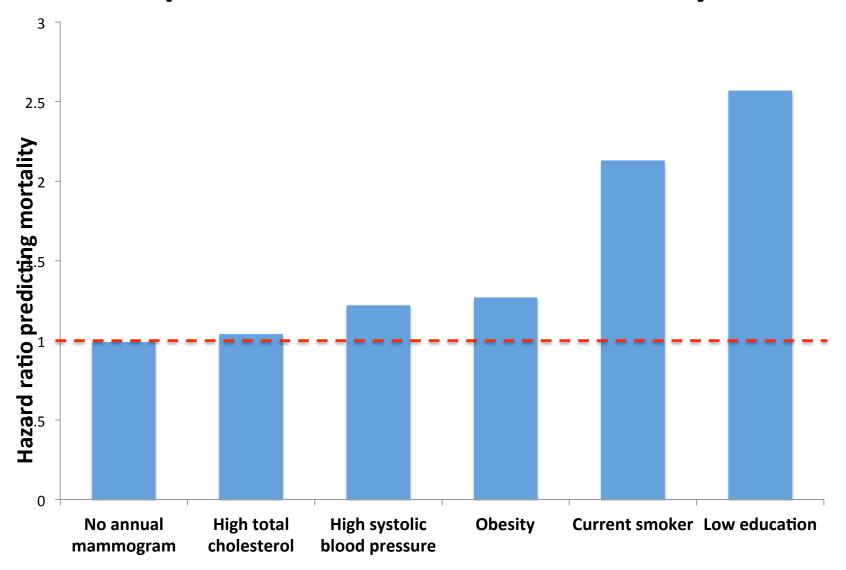


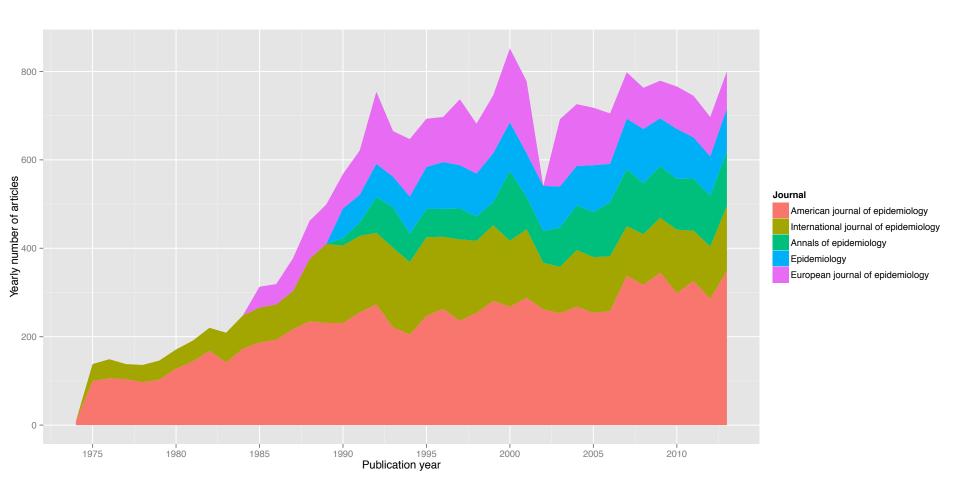




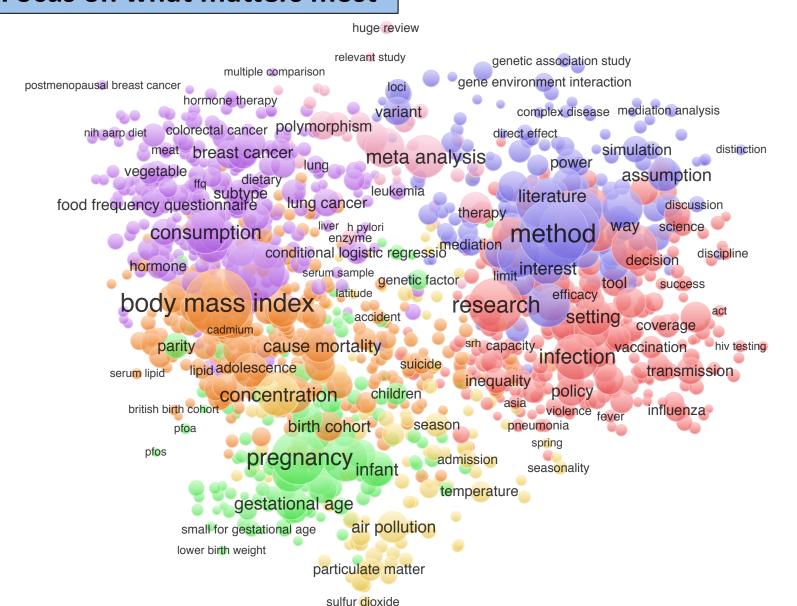








Trinquart L, Galea S. Mapping epidemiology's past to inform its future. Metaknowledge analysis of epidemiologic topics in leading journals, 1974-2013. Under review.



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Global burden of disease

Figure 27: Ten leading causes of burden of disease, world, 2004 and 2030

2004	As % of			As % of	2030
Disease or injury	total DALYs	Rank	Rank	total DALYs	Disease or injury
Lower respiratory infections	6.2	1	1 ہر	6.2	Unipolar depressive disorders
Diarrhoeal diseases	4.8	2	7 2	5.5	lschaemic heart disease
Unipolar depressive disorders	4.3	3	A 3	4.9	Road traffic accidents
lschaemic heart disease	4.1	4	4	4.3	Cerebrovascular disease
HIV/AIDS	3.8	5	5	3.8	COPD
Cerebrovascular disease	3.1	6	× 6	3.2	Lower respiratory infections
Prematurity and low birth weight	2.9	7	/ * 7	2.9	Hearing loss, adult onset
Birth asphyxia and birth trauma	2.7	8	1 8	2.7	Refractive errors
Road traffic accidents	2.7	9	//× 9	2.5	HIV/AIDS
Neonatal infections and other ^a	2.7	10	10	2.3	Diabetes mellitus
COPD	2.0	13	11	1.9	Neonatal infections and other
Refractive errors	1.8	14	12	1.9	Prematurity and low birth weight
Hearing loss, adult onset	1.8	15	15	1.9	Birth asphyxia and birth trauma
Diabetes mellitus	1.3	19	↓ 18	1.6	Diarrhoeal diseases

Populations and improving their health is what matters most. This suggests that we need to

a1. Identify, and study, the factors that may have greatest impact on population health a2. Clarify the relative contribution of factors that influence health conditions in populations

Will reducing the prevalence of junk food eating in the population reduce obesity in the population?

Baseline heritability

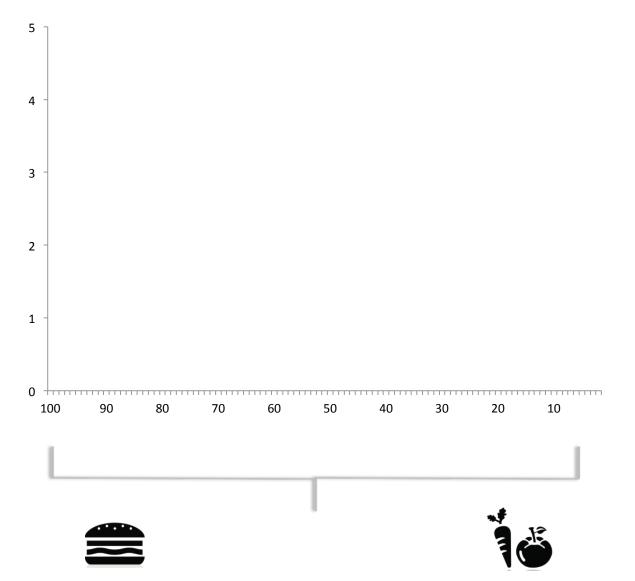


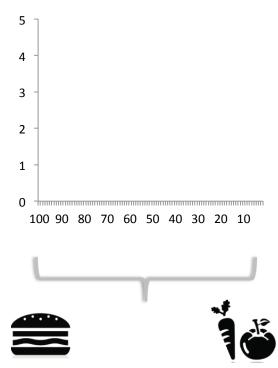
Food environment



Junk food eating



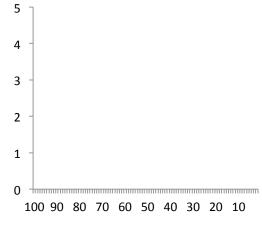












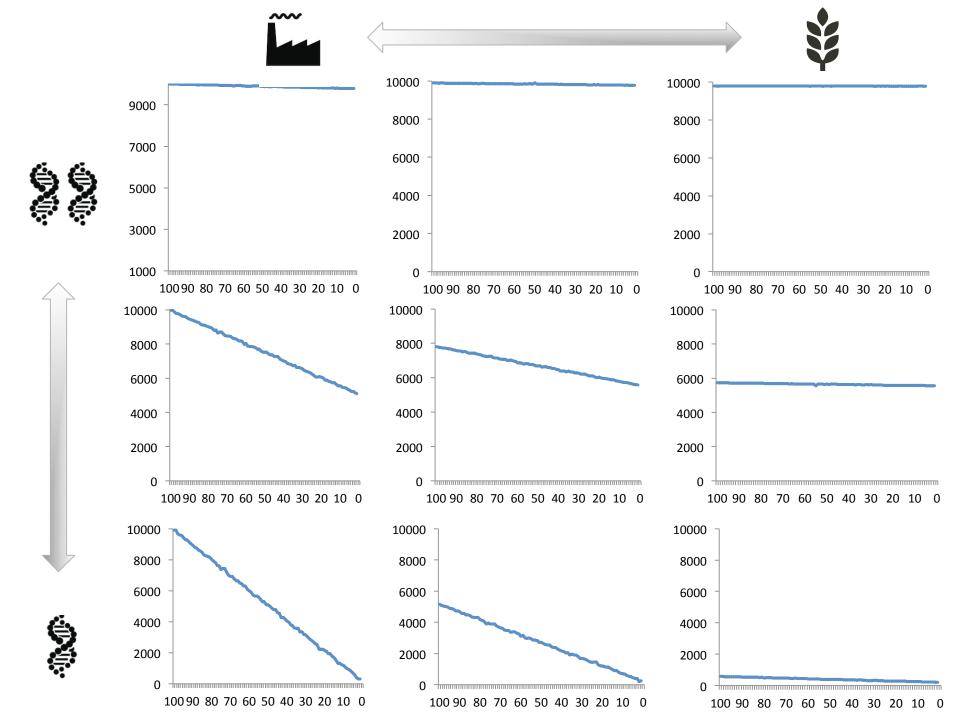


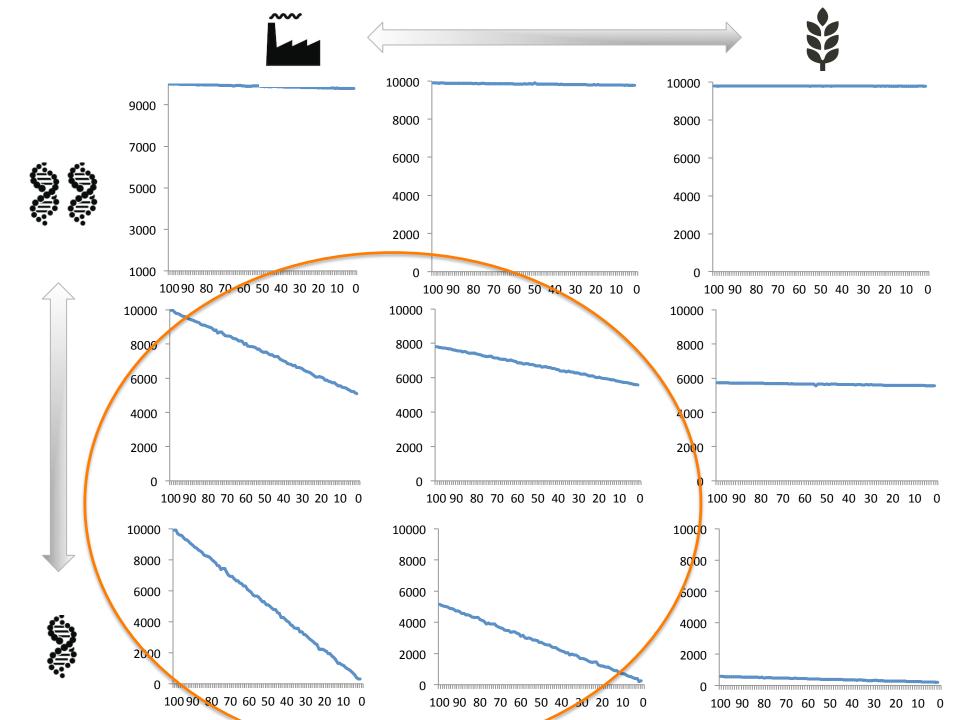


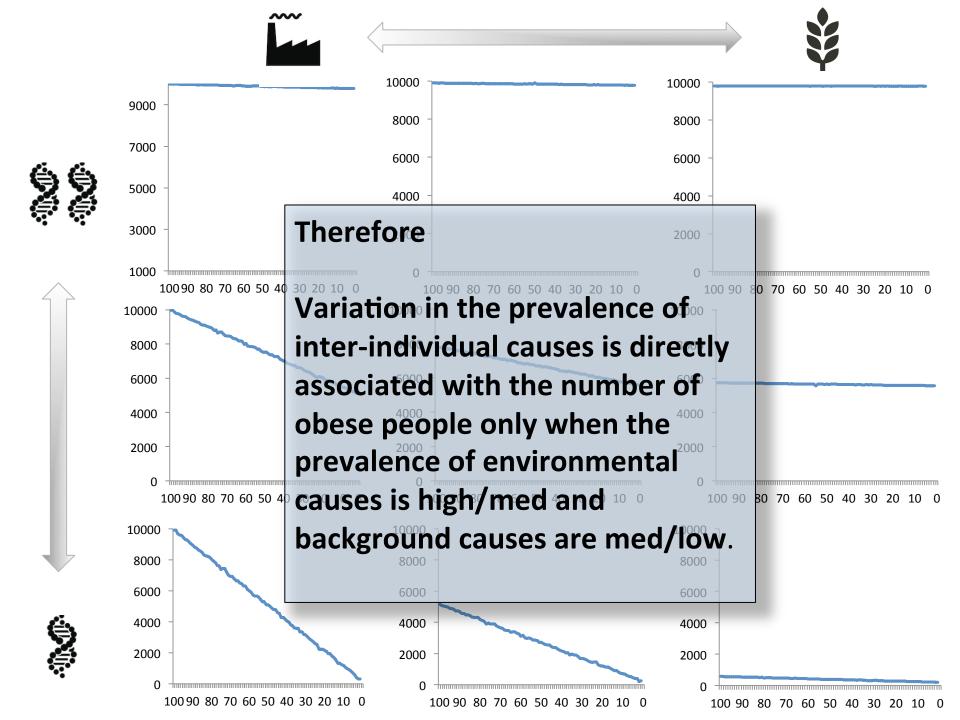


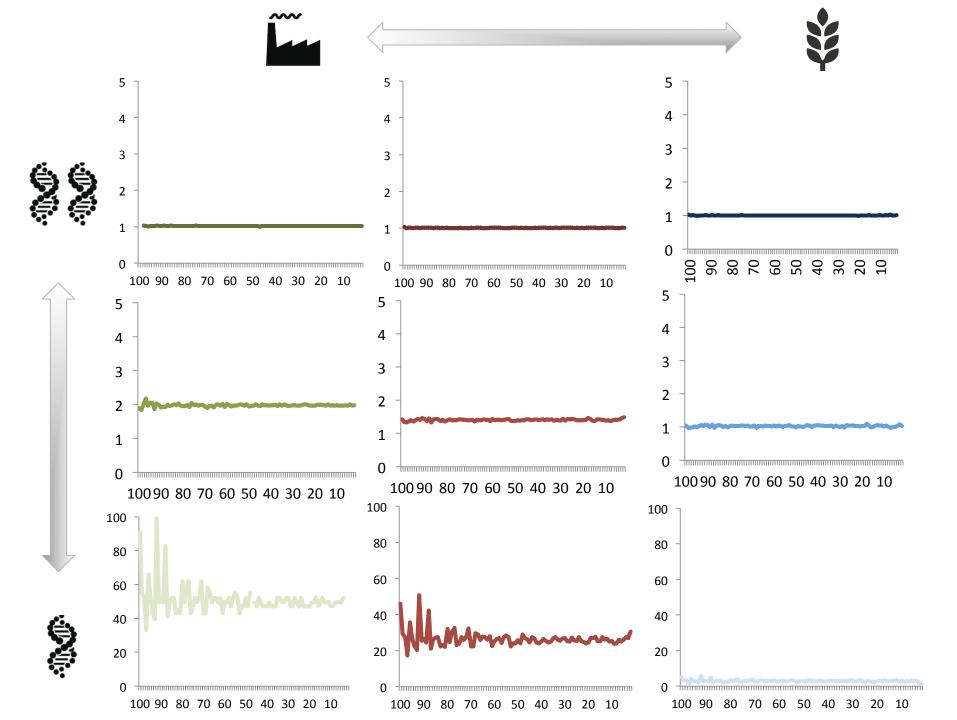


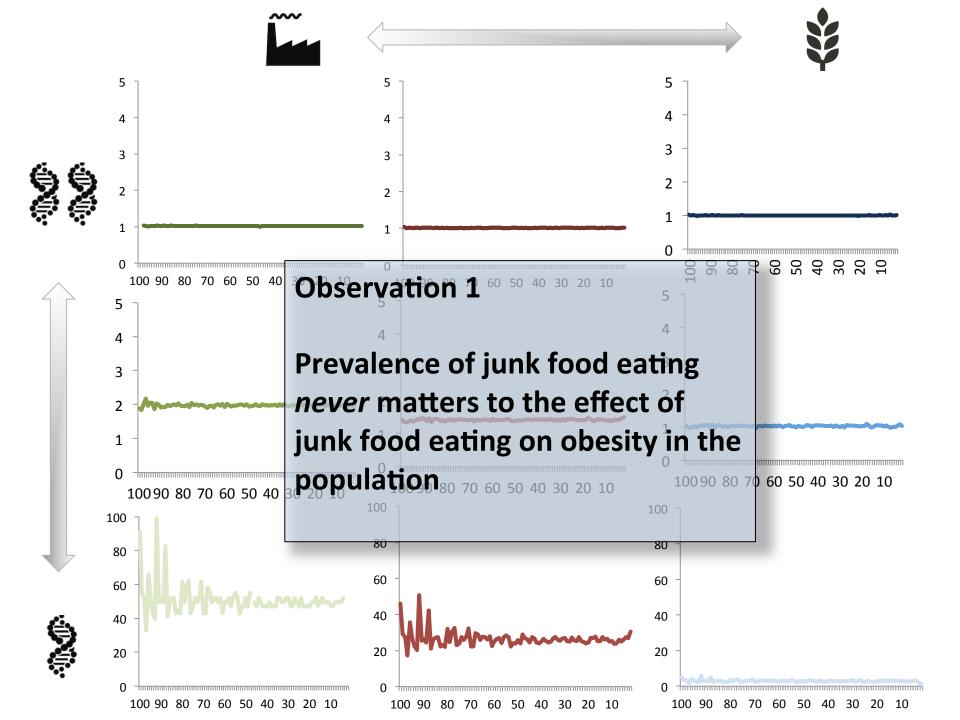


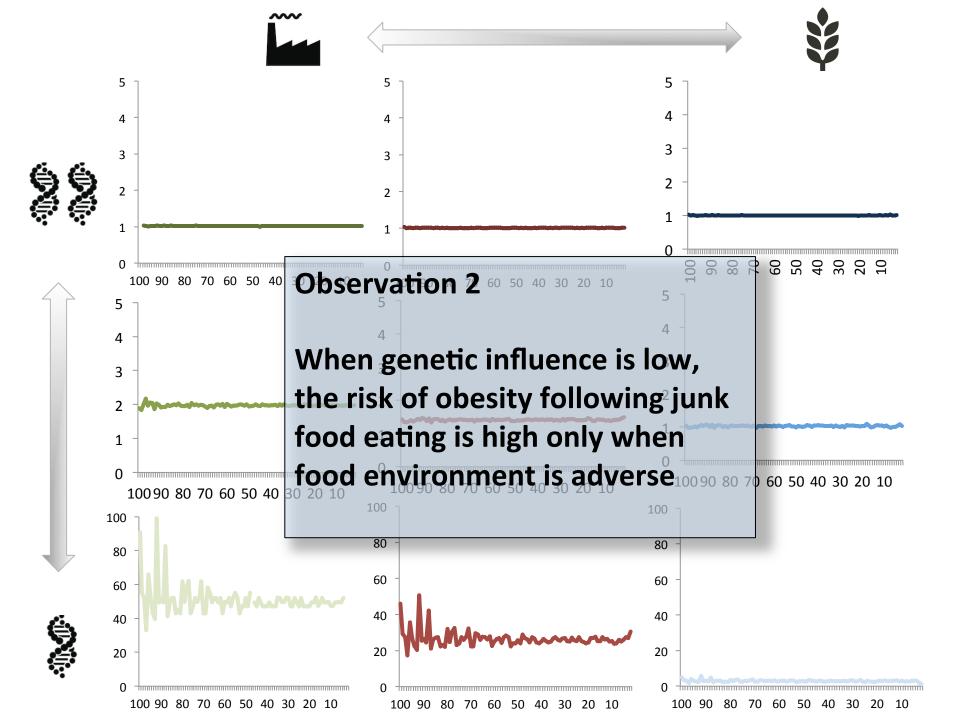


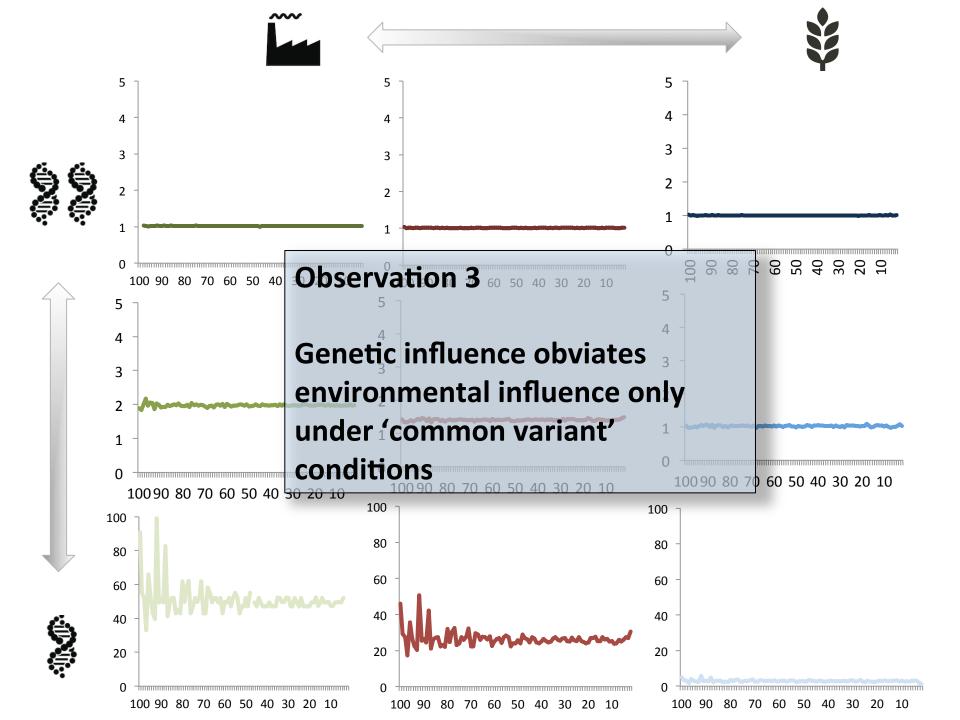






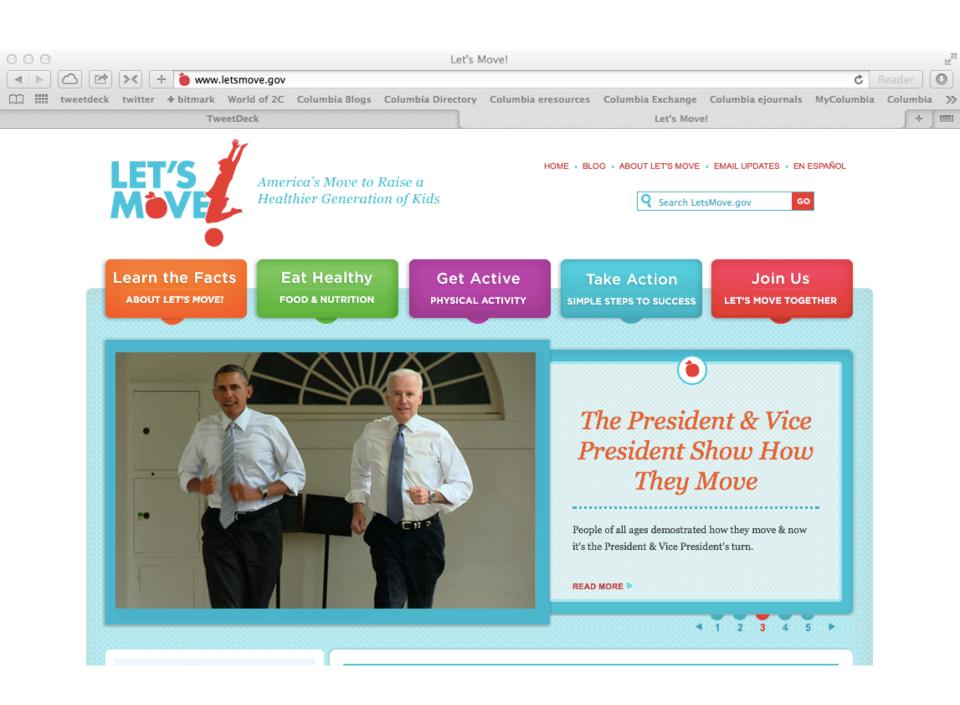






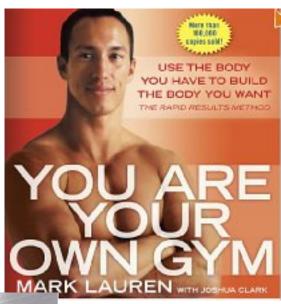
Therefore, population-wide obesity reduction effectively requires manipulation of the food environment.

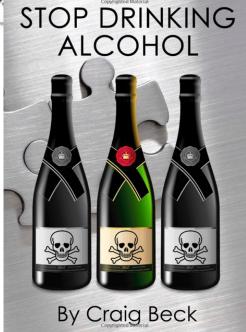
This is *necessarily* the case in any situation when both individual factors and features of context determine health outcomes, it is a real *mathematical limit* to improvement in health that focuses only on the individual

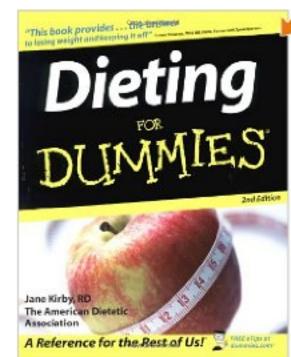








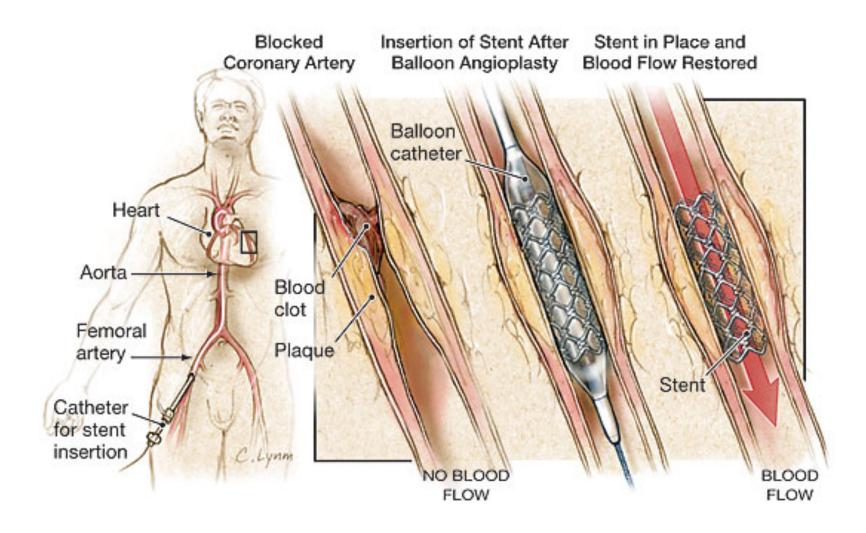




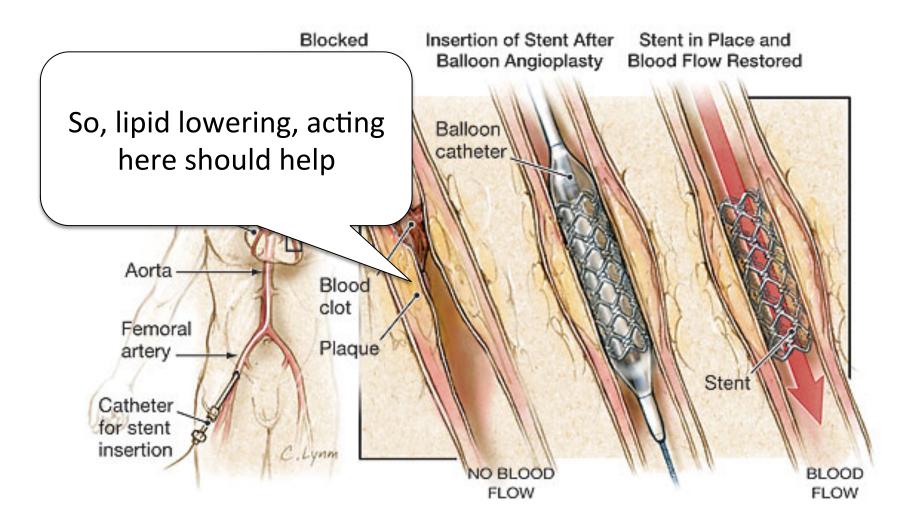
Populations and improving their health is what matters most. This suggests that we need to

a1. Identify, and study, the factors that may have greatest impact on population health a2. Clarify the relative contribution of factors that influence health conditions in populations a3. Focus on understanding how intervening affects populations

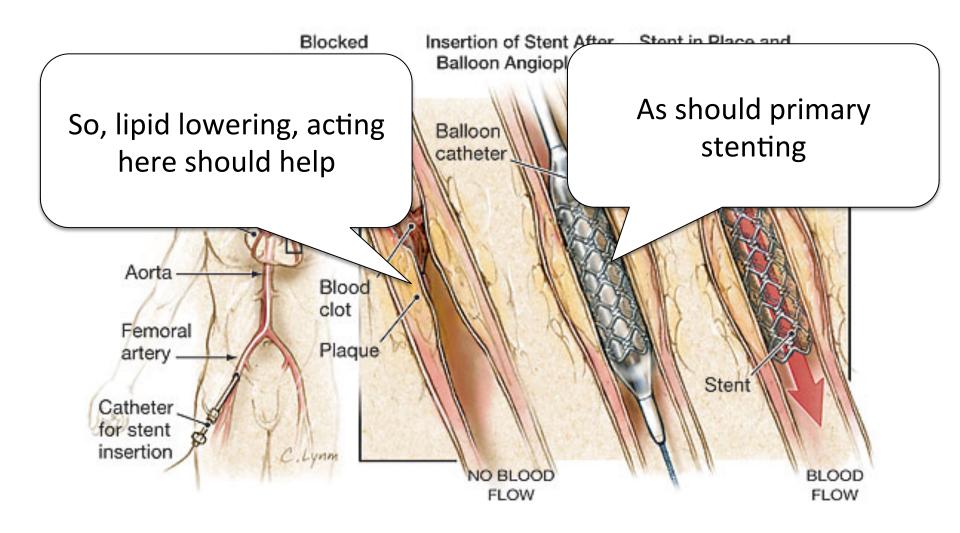
We know how myocardial infarctions arise



We know how myocardial infarctions arise



We know how myocardial infarctions arise



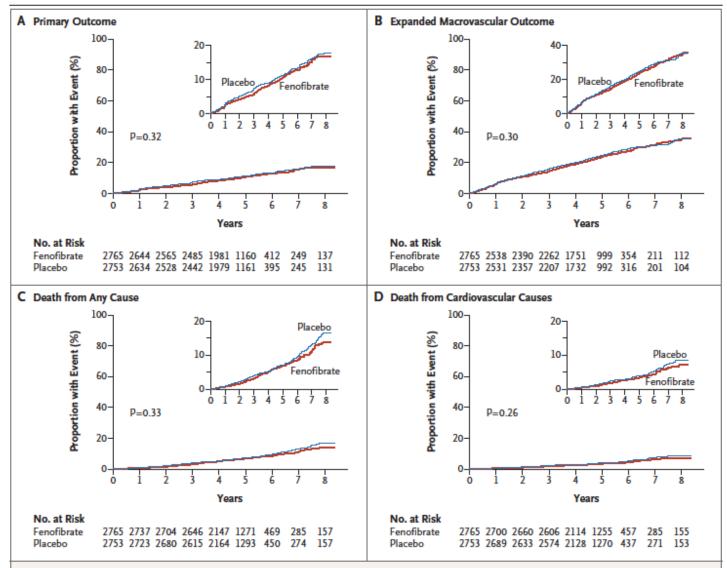


Figure 2. Kaplan-Meier Analyses of the Primary Outcome, Expanded Macrovascular Outcome, and Death.

Shown are the cumulative incidence of the primary outcome (nonfatal myocardial infarction, nonfatal stroke, or death from cardiovascular causes) (Panel A), the expanded macrovascular outcome (a combination of the primary outcome plus revascularization or hospitalization for congestive heart failure) (Panel B), and death from any cause (Panel C) or from cardiovascular causes (Panel D) during follow-up. The insets show close-up versions of the graphs in each panel.

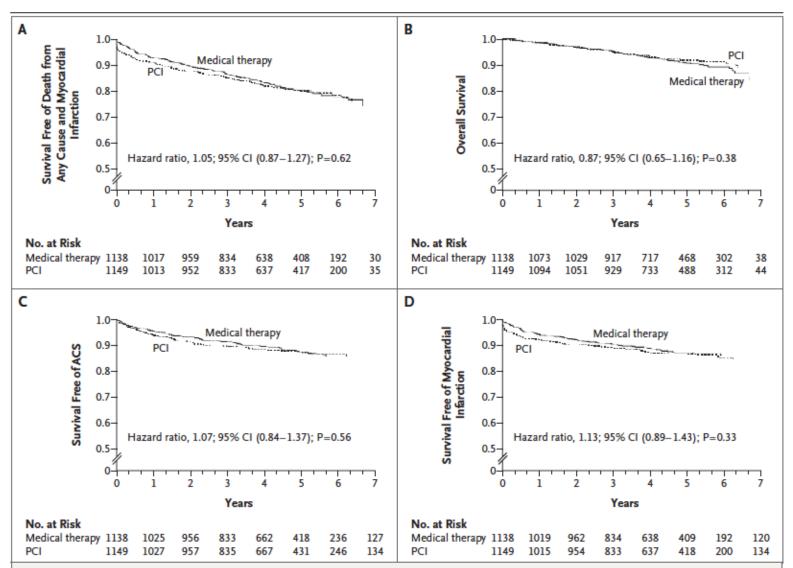


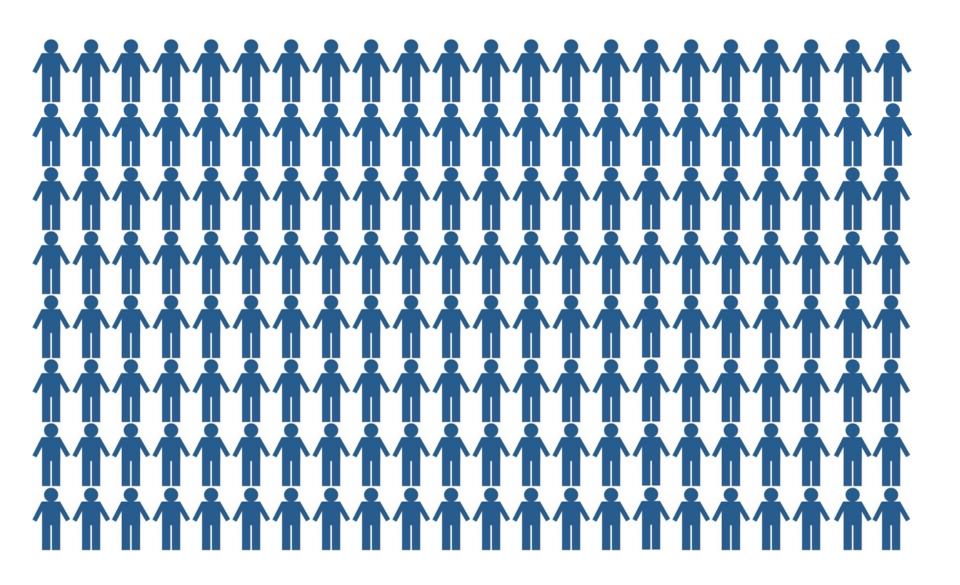
Figure 2. Kaplan-Meier Survival Curves.

In Panel A, the estimated 4.6-year rate of the composite primary outcome of death from any cause and nonfatal myocardial infarction was 19.0% in the PCI group and 18.5% in the medical-therapy group. In Panel B, the estimated 4.6-year rate of death from any cause was 7.6% in the PCI group and 8.3% in the medical-therapy group. In Panel C, the estimated 4.6-year rate of hospitalization for acute coronary syndrome (ACS) was 12.4% in the PCI group and 11.8% in the medical-therapy group. In Panel D, the estimated 4.6-year rate of acute myocardial infarction was 13.2% in the PCI group and 12.3% in the medical-therapy group.

Why?

When a study does not support the central hypothesis, it is critical to examine potential reasons for this outcome.

Perhaps the answer lies in the challenge of taking our inference from pathophysiology and expecting generalizability of answers to populations







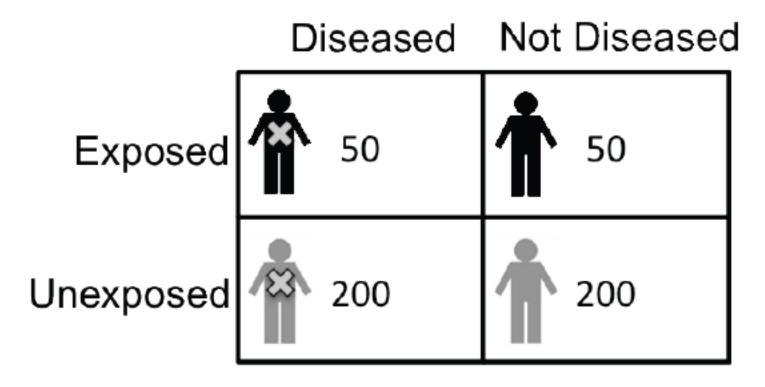
http://graphics8.nytimes.com/images/2009/03/11/opinion/13population.480.jp

Introductory epidemiology, an illustration

Let us test an exposure that may be associated with myocardial infarction

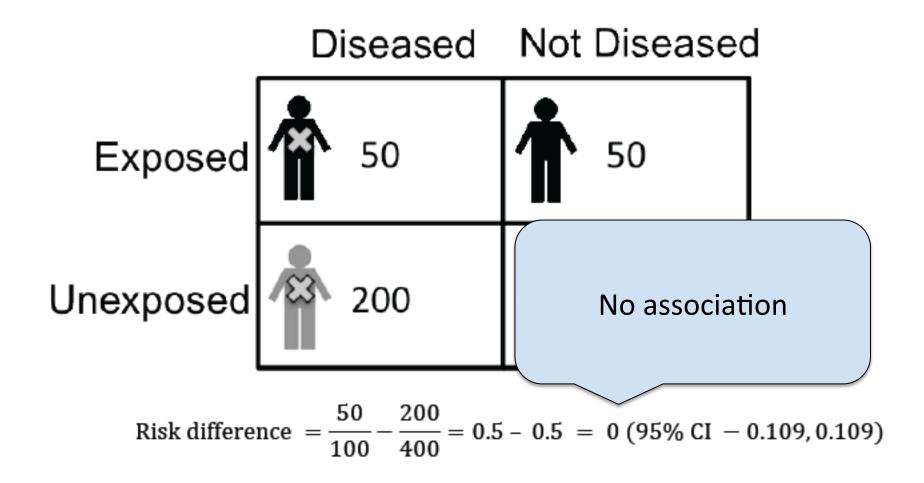
We take three samples from three populations and follow them forward in time

Sample 1 from Population 1:

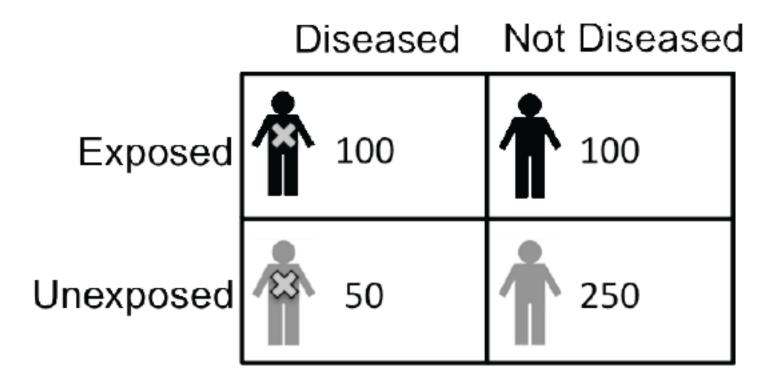


Risk difference
$$=\frac{50}{100} - \frac{200}{400} = 0.5 - 0.5 = 0 (95\% \text{ CI} - 0.109, 0.109)$$

Sample 1 from Population 1:

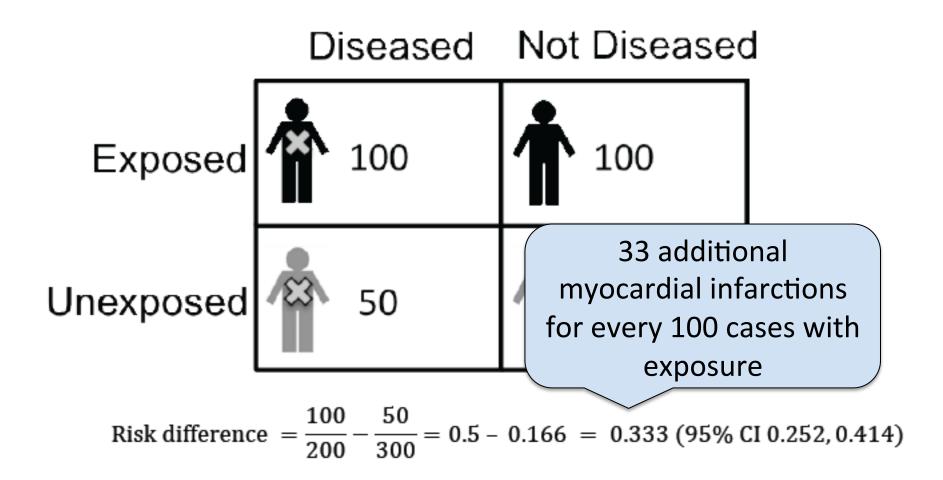


Sample 2 from Population 2:

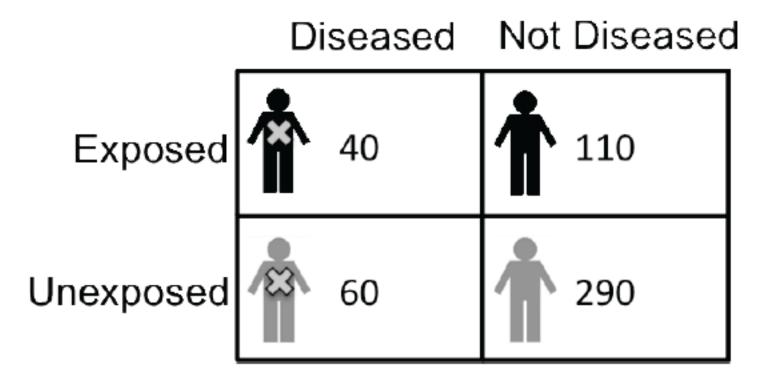


Risk difference
$$=\frac{100}{200} - \frac{50}{300} = 0.5 - 0.166 = 0.333 (95\% CI 0.252, 0.414)$$

Sample 2 from Population 2:

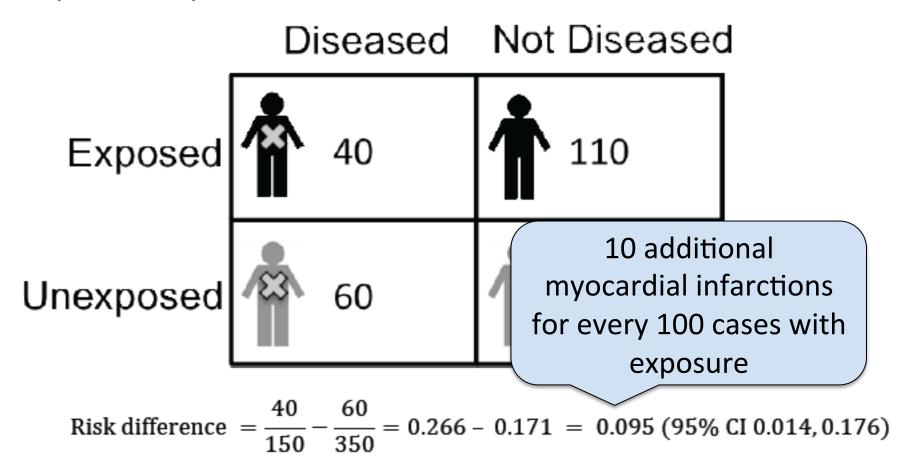


Sample 3 from Population 3:



Risk difference
$$=$$
 $\frac{40}{150} - \frac{60}{350} = 0.266 - 0.171 = 0.095 (95\% CI 0.014, 0.176)$

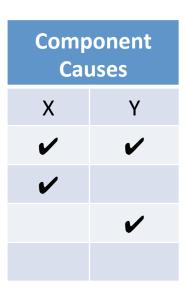
Sample 3 from Population 3:



Why?

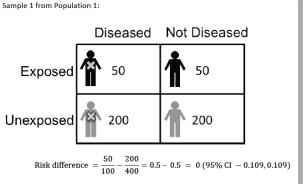
The exposure alone does not cause myocardial infarction; the exposure needs to happen together with socioeconomic adversity

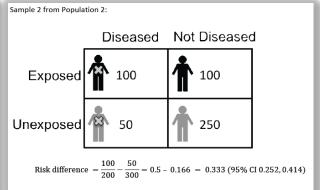
What the causal structure may look like if X, the gene, and Y, socioeconomic adversity are both necessary and insufficient causes of disease

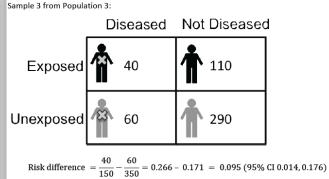


What the causal structure may look like if X, the gene, and Y, socioeconomic adversity are both necessary and insufficient causes of disease

Component Causes		Probability of disease	
Χ	Υ		
✓	✓	1	
✓		0	
	✓	0	
		0	





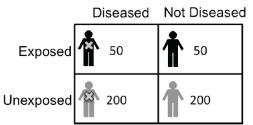


0% low SES

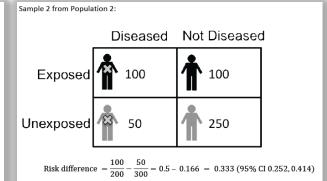
50% low SES

40% low SES





Risk difference $=\frac{50}{100} - \frac{200}{400} = 0.5 - 0.5 = 0 \text{ (95\% CI} - 0.109, 0.109)$



Diseased Not Diseased

Exposed 40 110

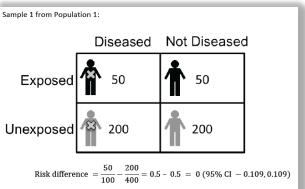
Unexposed 60 290

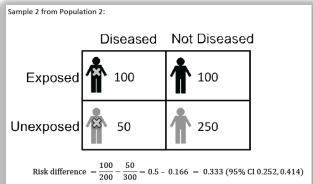
Risk difference = $\frac{40}{150} - \frac{60}{350} = 0.266 - 0.171 = 0.095 (95\% CI 0.014, 0.176)$

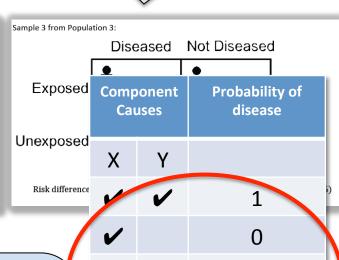
0% low SES

50% low SES

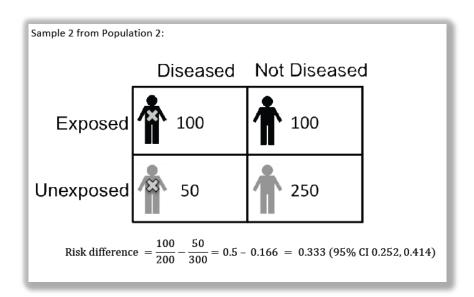
40% low sES

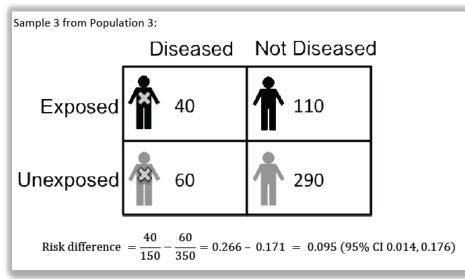






No myocardial infarctions due to the exposure because the causal partner is not present; hence equal likelihood of myocardial infarction among those exposed/unexposed





50% of those who are exposed also have low SES, hence die prematurely

Sample 2 from Population 2:

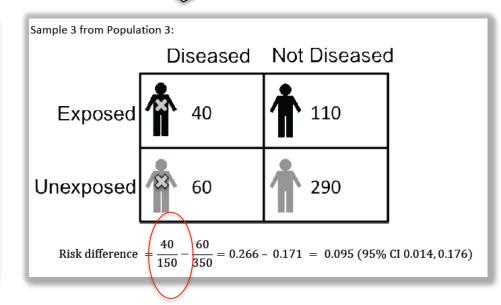
Diseased Not Diseased

Exposed 100 100

Unexposed 50 250

Risk difference $=\frac{100}{200} - \frac{50}{300} = 0.5 - 0.166 = 0.333 (95\% CI 0.252, 0.414)$

40% of those who are exposed also have low SES, hence die prematurely



17% of those who are unexposed have a myocardial infarction

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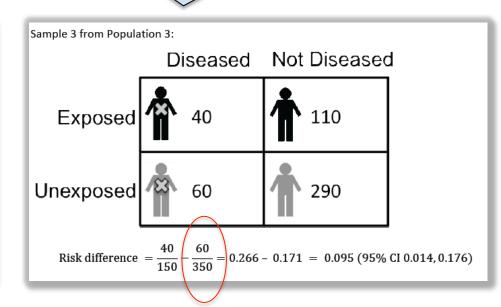
Diseased Not Diseased

Exposed 100 100

Unexposed 50 250

Risk difference = $\frac{100}{200} - \frac{50}{300} = 0.5 - 0.166 = 0.333 (95\% CI 0.252, 0.414)$

17% of those who are unexposed have a myocardial infarction



Under a very plausible assumption of cooccurring causes, any given sample will give us different estimates for exposure-death association dependent entirely on *other* factors that distinguish between samples 66

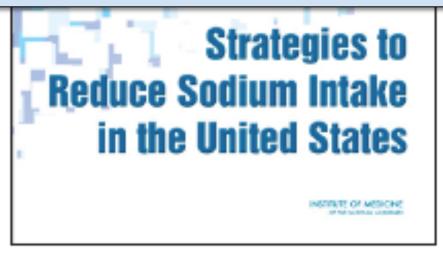
But you see, Meg, just because we don't understand doesn't mean that the explanation doesn't exist.

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For 40 years we have known about the relationship between sodium and the development of hypertension and other life threatening diseases.



Editorial

Annals of Internal Medicine

We Can Reduce Dietary Sodium, Save Money, and Save Lives

ost Americans consume far more salt than is healthy; the average sodium intake has increased over the past 30 years from already high levels to more than double the recommended amount (1, 2). Excess sodium consumption increases blood pressure (3); each 20—mm Hg increase in systolic blood pressure above 115 mm Hg doubles the risk for heart attack and stroke (4), which are the first and third leading causes of death in the United States, respectively (5). These effects of increased blood pressure on heart attack and stroke begin to occur at blood pressures that are well below levels at which drug treatment of hypertension is recommended currently (6).

Worldwide, cardiovascular disease is the leading cause of death among people aged 60 years or older and second among those aged 15 to 59 years; half or more of all strokes and heart attacks are attributable to high blood pressure (7). In the United States, approximately 100 000 deaths each year have been attributed to excess sodium intake (8). Because about one third of U.S. adults have hypertension and another 28% have levels above the desirable range (9), and because sodium consumption contributes to the increase in blood pressure observed with increasing age (9), reductions in salt intake will lead to substantial population-wide improvements in health.

Clinical care and health education require considerable individual attention and effort to help one person at a time through medical treatment or to adopt healthy behaviors. Policy interventions that change the environment to make savings of \$18 billion in direct health care costs (15). Stilllarger decreases in sodium intake than were examined in this study would probably result in even larger health improvements and cost savings and would be more costeffective than using medications to lower blood pressure in people with hypertension (13).

After tobacco control, the most cost-effective intervention to control chronic diseases might be reduction of sodium intake. But because more than three fourths of Americans' sodium intake comes from processed foods and restaurant meals (16), it is very difficult for individuals to limit their consumption to healthy levels. As a result, sodium reduction will rely on action by the food industry (14, 17).

Sodium reduction initiatives involving the food industry in other countries have been successful. In 2003, the United Kingdom introduced a voluntary strategy to decrease the sodium content of processed and packaged food, which has resulted in reductions of 20% to 30% in most processed food sold in stores (14). New sodium reduction targets in the United Kingdom are being established and are expected to lead to a total 40% reduction in population sodium intake by 2012 (14). Japan and Finland have also implemented effective salt reduction programs; Ireland, Australia, and Canada have recently begun similar initiatives; and many other countries have committed to reducing sodium intake at the population level (14).

Although substantial changes in food production will

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savings of \$18 billion in direct health care costs (15). Stilllarger decreases in sodium intake than were examined in this study would probably result in even larger health improvements and cost savings and would be more costeffective than using medications to lower blood pressure in people with hypertension (13).

After tobacco control the most cost effective intervention to control chronic disease might be reduction of sodium intake.

(7). In the United States, approximately 100 000 deaths each year have been attributed to excess sodium intake (8). Because about one third of U.S. adults have hypertension and another 28% have levels above the desirable range (9), and because sodium consumption contributes to the increase in blood pressure observed with increasing age (9), reductions in salt intake will lead to substantial population-wide improvements in health.

Clinical care and health education require considerable individual attention and effort to help one person at a time through medical treatment or to adopt healthy behaviors. Policy interventions that change the environment to make United Kingdom introduced a voluntary strategy to decrease the sodium content of processed and packaged food, which has resulted in reductions of 20% to 30% in most processed food sold in stores (14). New sodium reduction targets in the United Kingdom are being established and are expected to lead to a total 40% reduction in population sodium intake by 2012 (14). Japan and Finland have also implemented effective salt reduction programs; Ireland, Australia, and Canada have recently begun similar initiatives; and many other countries have committed to reducing sodium intake at the population level (14).

Although substantial changes in food production will

REDUCING POPULATION SALT INTAKE

The sodium phantom



Niels Graudal senior consultant¹, Gesche Jürgens MD²

¹Department of Rheumatology, Copenhagen University Hospital, Rigshospitalet, DK-2100 Copenhagen, Denmark; ²Department of Clinical Pharmacology, Bispebjerg University Hospital, Copenhagen

REDUCING POPULATION SALT INTAKE

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Niels Graudal senior consultant¹, Gesche Jürgens MD²

¹Department Pharmacolog It is surprising that many countries have uncritically adopted sodium reduction, which probably is the largest delusion in the history of preventive medicine.

of Clinical

Effects of low sodium diet versus high sodium diet on blood pressure, renin, aldosterone, catecholamines, cholesterol, and triglyceride (Review)

Graudal NA, Hubeck-Graudal T, Jurgens G



This is a reprint of a Cochrane review, prepared and maintained by The Cochrane Collaboration and published in *The Cochrane Library* 2011, Issue 11

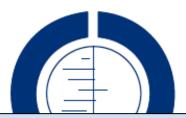
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Effects of low sodium diet venus high sodium diet on blood pressure, renin, aldosterone, catecholamines, cholesterol, and triglyceride (Reniew)

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We are commonly advised to cut down on salt...[but] we do not know if low salt diets improve or worsen health outcomes.

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Effects of low sodium diet versus high sodium diet on blood pressure, renin, aldosterone, catecholamines, cholesterol, and trigiyceride (Review) Countries & 2011 The Cockerns Collaboration Published by John Willow & Sor

Reduced Dietary Salt for the Prevention of Cardiovascular Disease: A Meta-Analysis of Randomized Controlled Trials (Cochrane Review)

Rod S. Taylor¹, Kate E. Ashton², Tiffany Moxham³, Lee Hooper⁴ and Shah Ebrahim⁵

BACKGROUND

Although meta-analyses of randomized controlled trials (RCTs) of salt reduction report a reduction in the level of blood pressure (BP), the effect of reduced dietary salt on cardiovascular disease (CVD) events remains unclear.

METHODS

We searched for RCTs with follow-up of at least 6 months that compared dietary salt reduction (restricted salt dietary intervention or advice to reduce salt intake) to control/no intervention in adults, and reported mortality or CVD morbidity data. Outcomes were pooled at end of trial or longest follow-up point.

RESULTS

Seven studies were identified, three in normotensives, two in hypertensives, one in a mixed population of normo- and hypertensives and one in heart failure. Salt reduction was associated with reductions in urinary salt excretion of between 27 and 39 mmol/24 h and reductions in systolic BP between 1 and 4 mm Hg. Relative risks (RRs) for all-cause mortality in normotensives (longest follow-up—RR: 0.90, 95% confidence interval (Cl): 0.58–1.40, 79 deaths) and hypertensives (longest follow-up RR 0.96, 0.83–1.11, 565 deaths) showed no strong evidence of any effect of salt reduction CVD morbidity in people with normal BP (longest follow-up: RR 0.71, 0.42–1.20, 200 events) and raised BP at baseline (end of trial: RR 0.84, 0.57–1.23, 93 events) also showed no strong evidence of benefit. Salt restriction increased the risk of all-cause mortality in those with heart failure (end of trial RR 2.59, 1.04–6.44, 21 deaths). We found no information on participant's health-related quality of life.

CONCLUSIONS

Despite collating more event data than previous systematic reviews of RCTs (665 deaths in some 6,250 participants) there is still insufficient power to exclude clinically important effects of reduced dietary salt on mortality or CVD morbidity. Our estimates of benefits from dietary salt restriction are consistent with the predicted small effects on clinical events attributable to the small BP reduction achieved.

Keywords: blood pressure; cardiovascular disease; diet; hypertension; meta-analysis; salt; sodium; systematic review

This article is based on a Cochrane Review published in the Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews (CDSR) YYYY, Issue X, DOI: 10.1002/1465 1858.CD00xxxx (see www.thecochranelibrary.com for information). Cochrane Reviews are regularly updated as new evidence emerges and in response to feedback, and the CDSR should be consulted for the most recent version of the review.

A more detailed review has been published and will be updated in the Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews [Taylor RS, Ashton RE, Moxham T, Hooper L, Ebrahim S. Reduced dietary salt for the prevention Of cardiovascular disease. Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews (CDSR) 2011, Issue X, DOI: 10.1002/14651888.CD0Doocx (see www.thecochranelibrary.com for information). This is a version of a Cochrane review, which is available in The Cochrane Library. Cochrane systematic reviews are regularly updated to include new research, and in response to feedback from readers. The results of a Cochrane review can be interpreted differently, depending on people's perspectives and circumstances. Please consider the conclusions presented carefully. They are the opinions of review authors, and are not necessarily shared by The Cochrane Collaboration.

American Journal of Hypertension, advance online publication 6 July 2011; doi:10.1038/ajh.2011.115

High dietary intake of salt has been identified as an important risk factor for cardiovascular disease (CVD). The current public health recommendations in most developed countries are to reduce salt intake by about half, i.e., from ~10 to 5 g/day.¹⁻⁴ However, the evidence for the reduction of CVD morbid-

¹Peninsula College of Medicine and Dentistry, University of Exeter, Exeter, UK; ²Clinical Trials and Evaluation Unit, University of Bristol, Bristol, UK; ³Wimberly Library, Florida Atlantic University, Boca Raton, Florida, USA; ⁴Norwich Medical School, University of East Anglia, Norwich, UK; ⁵Faculty of Epidemiology and Population Health, London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine, London, UK. Correspondence: Rod S. Taylor (rod.taylor@pms.ac.uk)

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ity and mortality as the result of reduced salt intake remains controversial.⁵

A number of observational studies support the link between salt intake and CVD. A meta-analysis of 13 prospective studies including 177,000 participants reported a high salt intake was associated with a greater risk of stroke (RR, 1.23, 95% confidence interval (CI): 1.06–1.43). However, there was no association between salt intake and all CVD events, and total mortality was not reported. Furthermore, the interpretation of this observational evidence base is complicated by the heterogeneity in estimating sodium intake (diet or urinary salt excretion), types of participants (healthy, hypertensive, obese, and nonobese), different end points, and definition of outcomes across studies.

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CONCLUSIONS

Despite collating more event data than previous systematic reviews of RCTs (665 deaths in some 6,250 participants) there is still insufficient power to exclude clinically important effects of reduced dietary salt on mortality or CVD morbidity. Our estimates of benefits from dietary salt restriction are consistent with the predicted small effects on clinical events attributable to the small BP reduction achieved.

Keywords: blood pressure; cardiovascular disease; diet; hypertension; meta-analysis; salt; sodium; systematic review

This article is based on a Cochrane Review published in the Cochrane Database

We found no strong evidence that salt reduction reduced all-cause mortality or CVD morbidity in normotensives or hypertensives.

Salt restriction increased the risk of all-cause mortality in those with heart failure (end of trial RR 2.59, 1.04-6.44, 21 deaths). We found no information on participant's health-related quality of life.

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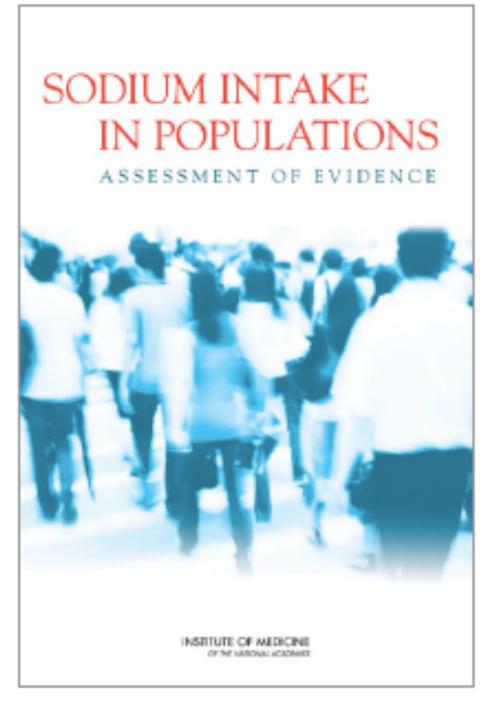
¹Peninsula College of Medicine and Dentistry, University of Exeter, Exeter, UK; ²Clinical Trials and Evaluation Unit, University of Bristol, Bristol, UK; ³Wimberly Library, Florida Atlantic University, Boca Raton, Florida, USA; 4Norwich Medical School, University of East Anglia, Norwich, UK; 5 Faculty of Epidemiology and Population Health, London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine, London, UK. Correspondence: Rod S. Taylor (rod.taylor@pms.ac.uk)

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The committee determined that evidence from studies on direct health outcomes is inconsistent and insufficient to conclude that lowering sodium intakes below 2,300 mg per day either increases or decreases risk of CVD outcomes (including stroke and CVD mortality) or all cause mortality in the general U.S. population.

INSTITUTE OF MEDICINE

Controversial Salt Report Peppered with Uncertainty

A RECENT INSTITUTE OF MEDICINE (IOM) assessment (1) provoked controversy by concluding that there is a lack of evidence for health benefits of reducing sodium intake to the very low levels recommended by some authoritative groups ("Report reignites battle over low-salt diets," K. Kupferschmidt, News & Analysis, 24 May, p. 908). The IOM

mentary by three members of the IOM salt committee likewise stressed that the Dietary Guidelines for Americans (DGA), IOM, AHA, and the World Health Organization (WHO) were "congruent" in the belief that excess sodium intake should be reduced (6).

Other key players essentially ignored the IOM study. The New York City Health Department, which leads a coalition of health organizations in a partnership with industry to reduce sodium in restaurant

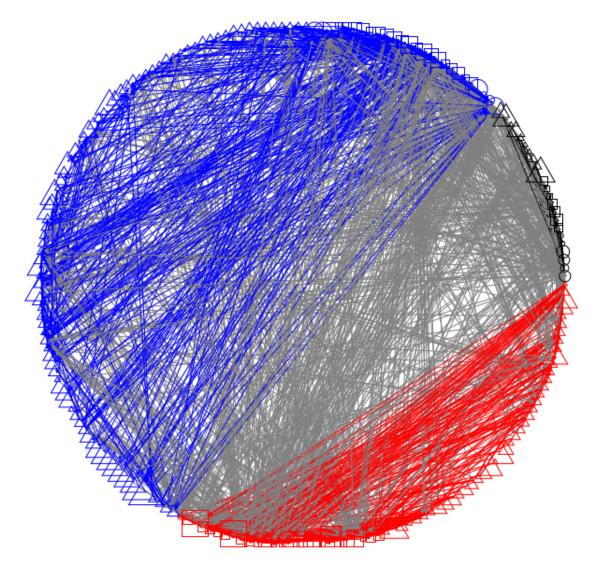
Patterns of clustering of citations between publications

		Citing articles				
		Pro	Con	NC	Total	
Cited articles	Pro	381	146	65	592	
	Con	275	235	51	561	
	No conclusion	105	39	48	192	
	Total	761	420	164	1345	

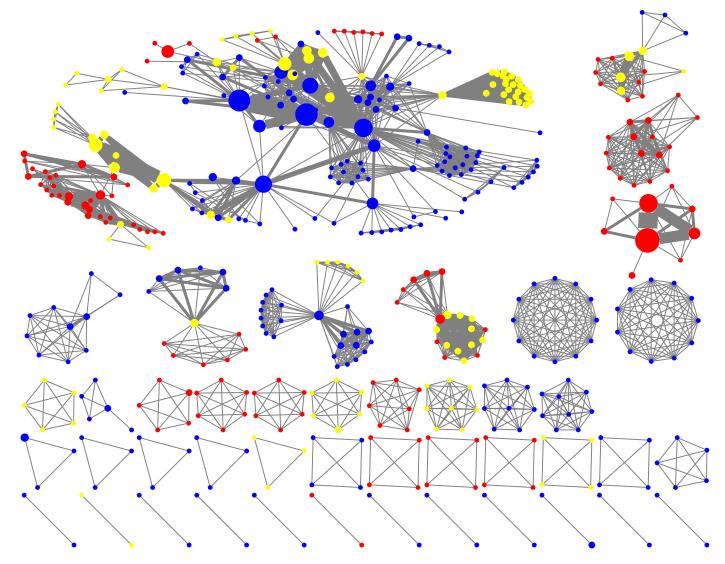
Supportive citation likelihood ratio (381/761)/(146/420) = 1.44

Contradictory citation likelihood ratio (275/761)/(235/420) = 0.65

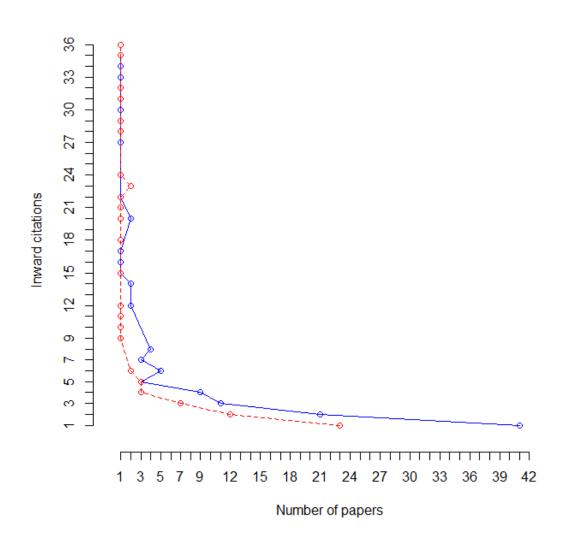
Patterns of clustering of citations between publications



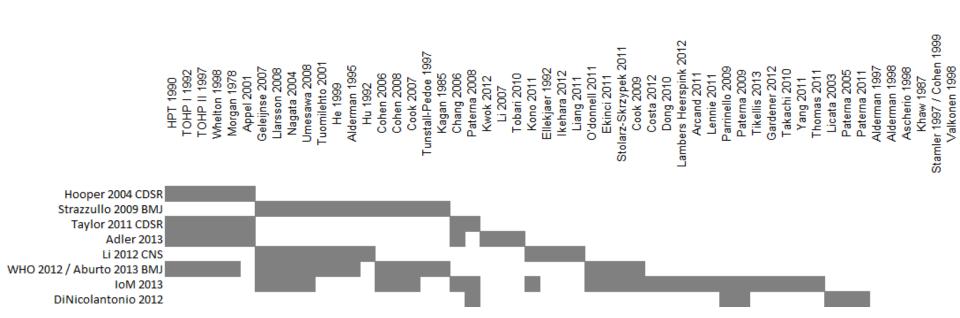
Patterns of clustering of co-authors between publications



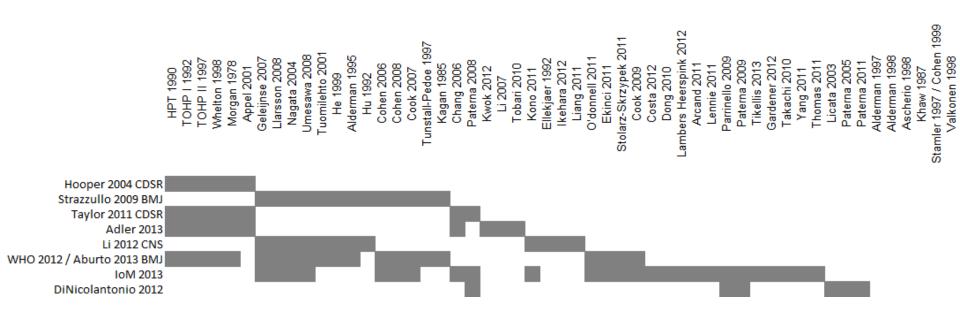
A few papers are cited quite a bit; most papers are not cited much at all



Patterns of uncertainty in systematic reviews



Patterns of uncertainty in systematic reviews

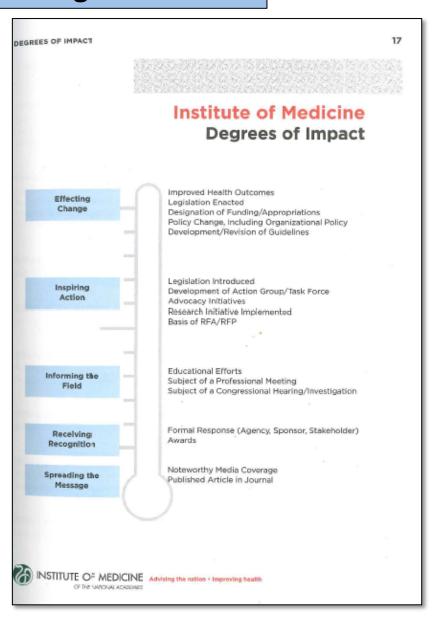


On average, there is only 27% chance that if a primary study is selected by a systematic review, a further review would also select it

An epidemiology of consequence should

- a. Focus on what matters most
- b. Critically interrogate what we think we know
- c. Engage in translating the science
- d. Teach epidemiology differently

c. Engage in translating the science



c. Engage in translating the science Median number of citations for papers indexed in ISI: 0

c. Engage in translating the science



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SundayReview OP-ED COLUMNIST

Professors, We Need You!

FEB. 15, 2014



Nicholas Kristof

 \checkmark **EMAIL FACEBOOK** TWITTER SAVE MORE

SOME of the smartest thinkers on problems at home and around the world are university professors, but most of them just don't matter in today's great debates.

The most stinging dismissal of a point is to say: "That's academic." In other words, to be a scholar is, often, to be irrelevant.

One reason is the anti-intellectualism in American life, the kind that led Rick Santorum to scold President Obama as "a snob" for wanting more kids to go to college, or that led congressional Republicans to denounce spending on social science research. Yet it's not just that America has marginalized some of its sharpest minds. They have also marginalized themselves.

"All the disciplines have become more and more specialized and more and more quantitative, making them less and less accessible to the general public," notes Anne-Marie Slaughter, a former dean of the Woodrow Wilson School at Princeton and now the president of the New America Foundation.

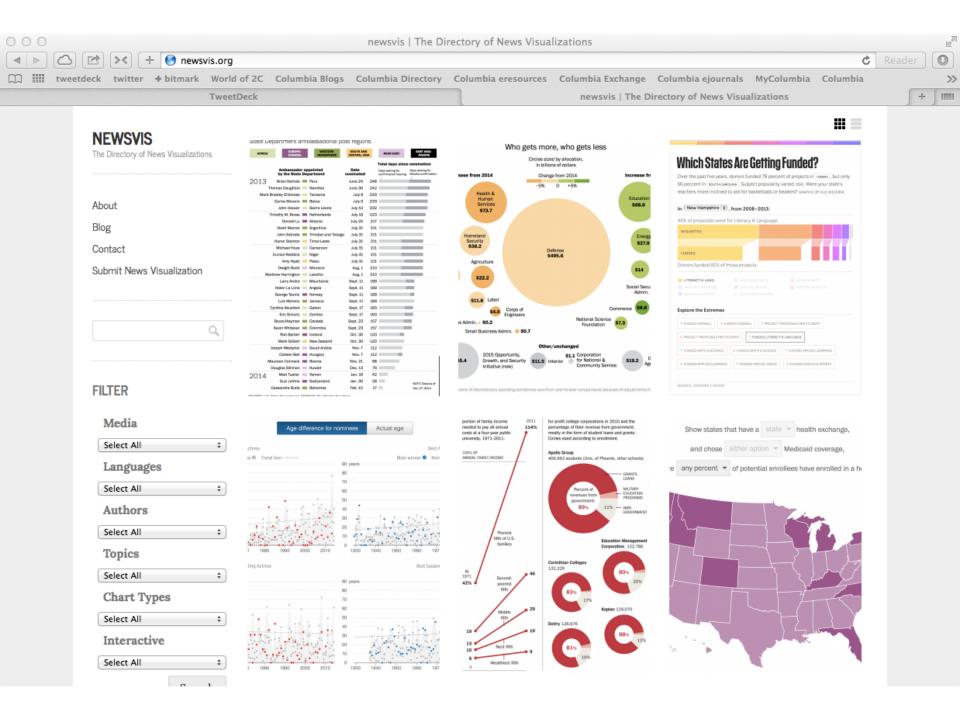


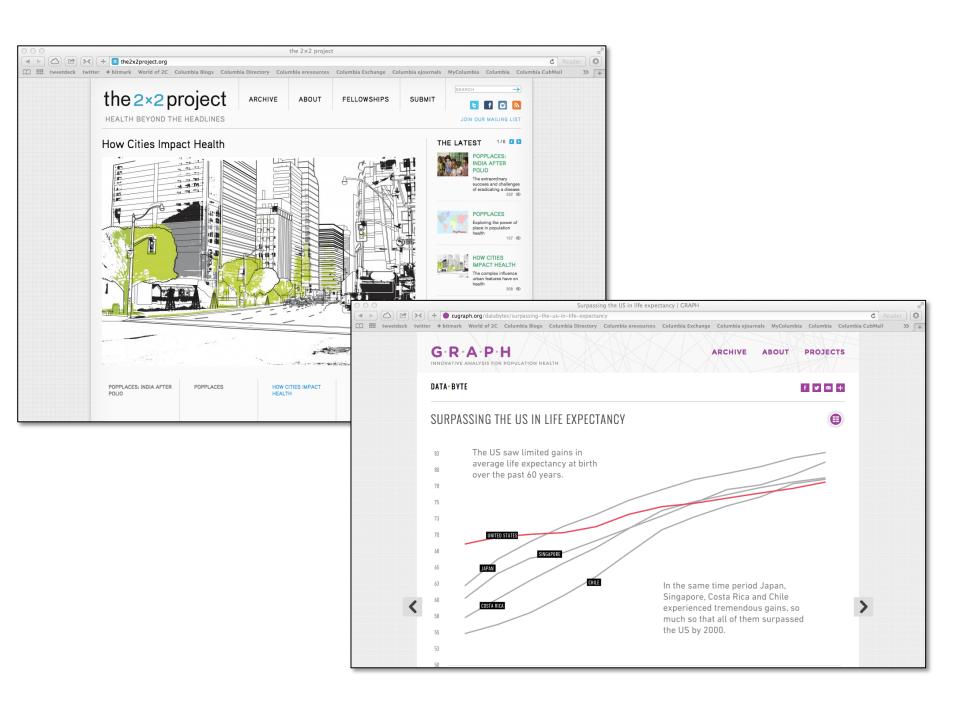
c. Engage in translating the science

[Our task] is not to tell people what they should do. That is a matter for societies and their individual members to decide. [Rather, our task is] to analyze the options, so that such important choices can be based on a clearer understanding of the issues







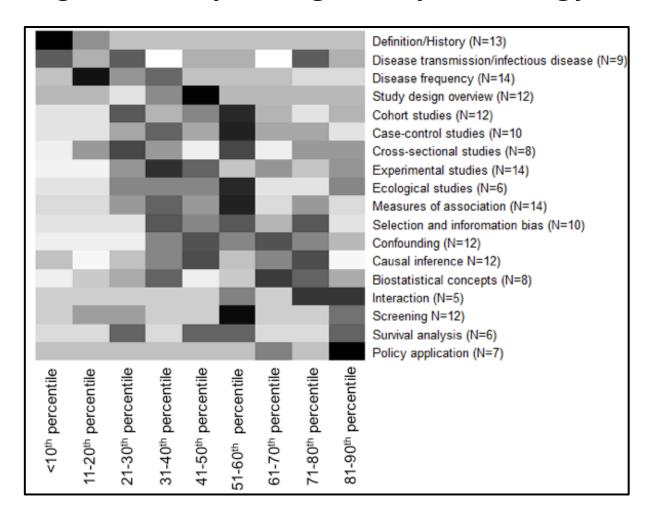


An epidemiology of consequence should

- a. Focus on what matters most
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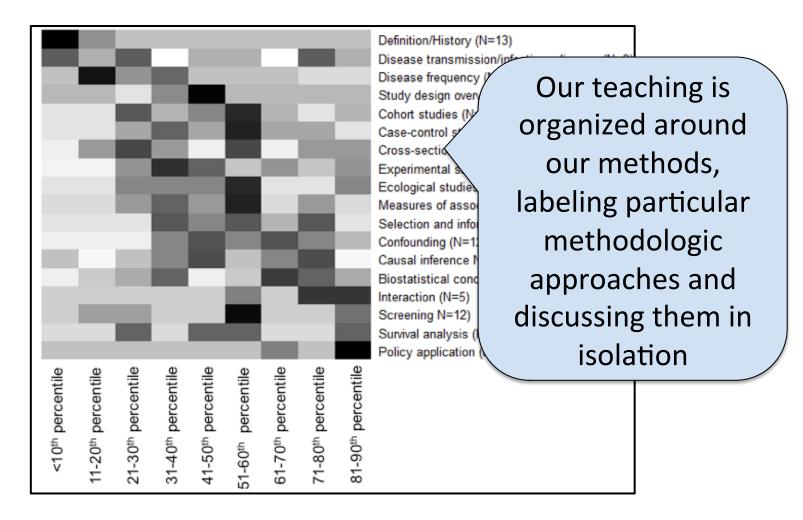
d. Teach epidemiology differently

Our current teaching in the field is based on an accepted canon, taught similarly throughout epidemiology books



d. Teach epidemiology differently

Our current teaching in the field is based on an accepted canon, taught similarly throughout epidemiology books



d. Teach epidemiology differently

What if we taught instead from first principles, informed by an epidemiology of consequence?

- 1. Define the population of interest
- Conceptualize and create measures of exposures and health indicators
- Take a sample of the population
- 4. Estimate measures of association between exposures and health indicators of interest
- 5. Rigorously evaluate whether the association observed suggests a causal association
- 6. Assess the evidence for causes working together
- 7. Assess the extent to which the result matters—is externally valid—to other populations

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It is all about populations and potential ways to improve them; this is the first underlying principle

1. Define the population of interest

2. Conceptualize and create measures

in At core, we remain a

3.

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It is all about

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^{*}Keyes KM, Galea S. Current practices in teaching introductory epidemiology: how we got here, where to go. American Journal of Epidemiology. In press.

- 1. Define the population of interest
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The science matters if we are able to influence populations

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- 1. Motivations
- 2. A disciplinary definition
- 3. A call for recalibration
- 4. The consequences of consequentialism
- 5. Controversial consequential thoughts
- 6. Other consequences, not discussed

66

Although biological principles seem to be vastly more varied than physics, and more dependent on locally varying modifying influences, the ultimate aim of biological research on humans or other species, is like that of physics, to be able to make general statements about nature. ""

66

Although biological principles seem to be vastly more varied than physics, and more dependent on locally varying modifying influences, the ultimate aim of biological research on humans or other species, is like that of physics, to be able to make general statements about nature. 99

But can we make "general statements about nature" in quantitative population health science?

- 1. Motivations
- 2. A disciplinary definition
- 3. A call for recalibration
- 4. The consequences of consequentialism
- 5. Controversial consequential thoughts
- 6. Other consequences, not discussed

An epidemiology of consequence should also

- a. Use any method necessary
- b. Cast a *global* population conceptual net
- c. Engage issues of equity v. efficiency

Thank you

Kerry Keyes

Many collaborators

Grant Support: CDC, NIH, DOD, RWJF

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