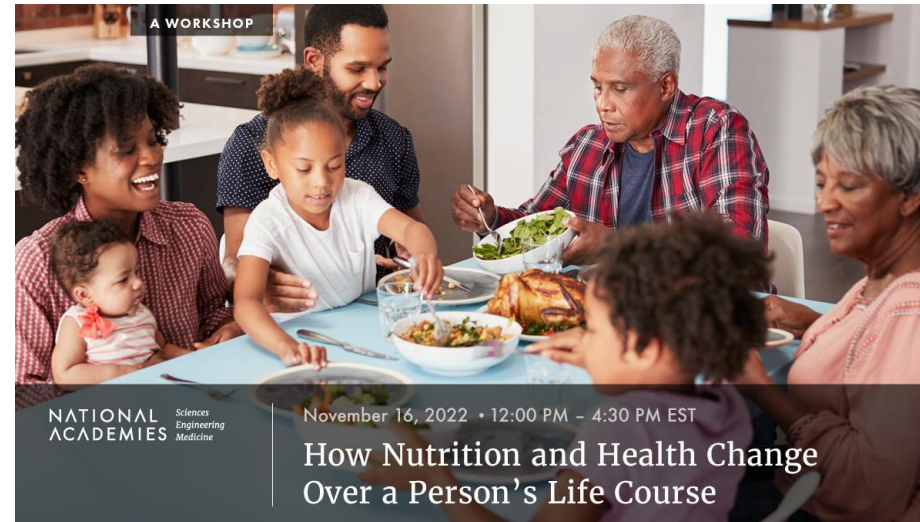




Introductory Comments

Nicholas J. Schork, Ph.D.

TGen, Phoenix AZ and The City of Hope National Medical Center, Duarte, CA;
UCSD and Scripps Research, La Jolla, CA; St. Johns Health Center, Santa Monica, CA

1. Are Factors Mitigating Disease Generally Age and Context-Dependent?
2. Going From 'Bench to Bedside to Streetside' Requires Integration
3. Surrogate Endpoints, Biological Aging, and Interventions: How and When?

Nutritional Recommendations Should be Age and Context Dependent

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Changing Nutrient Needs Through the Life Cycle

Life Stage	Change in Nutrient Needs
Pregnancy*	Increased requirements: energy, protein, essential fatty acids, vitamin A, vitamin C, B-vitamins (B1, B2, B3, B5, B6, B12, folate, choline) & calcium, phosphorus,** magnesium, potassium, iron, zinc, copper, chromium, selenium, iodine, manganese, molybdenum
Lactation*	Increased requirements: vitamins A, C, E, all B-vitamins, sodium, magnesium** Decreased requirements: iron
Infancy, childhood*	Increased requirements: energy, protein, essential fatty acids
Adolescence*	Increased requirements: energy, protein, calcium, phosphorus, magnesium, zinc (females only)
Early adulthood (ages 19-50)	Increased requirements for males, compared with females: vitamins C, K; B1, B2, B3, and choline; magnesium, zinc, chromium, manganese Increased requirements for females, compared with males: iron
Middle age (ages 51-70)*	Increased requirements: vitamin B ₆ , vitamin D
Elderly (age 70+)*	Increased requirements: vitamin D Decreased requirements: energy; iron (females only)

* Relative to adult requirements for those 19-50 years of age (and on a per-kg basis for macronutrients).

** Applies only to individuals under age 18.

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AGE CATEGORY	All Ages		0-14		15-24		25-34		35-44		45-54		55-64		65-74		75+	
CAUSE OF DEATH	Rank	#	Rank	#	Rank	#	Rank	#	Rank	#	Rank	#	Rank	#	Rank	#	Rank	#
CONGENITAL ANOMALIES	36	0,673	1	1,346	0	384	36	350	36	350	34	344	38	357	46	600	44	593
LOW BIRTH WEIGHT	46	4,110	2	4,107	55	1	62	2	69	0	72	0	72	0	73	0	77	0
OTHER INJURIES	23	28,499	3	1,795	5	929	7	1,439	13	1,867	16	2,605	20	4,431	24	5,118	24	10,315
BIRTH TRAUMA	55	1,347	4	1,336	56	1	63	2	67	1	71	0	66	4	66	2	67	1
ROAD TRAFFIC ACCIDENTS	19	41,944	5	1,171	1	6,816	3	8,038	3	6,178	9	5,615	18	6,275	27	4,117	34	3,734
HOMICIDE	26	24,573	6	1,011	3	6,466	4	7,125	7	4,482	17	2,541	32	1,753	44	742	50	453
DROWNINGS	44	4,176	7	654	6	546	18	557	25	509	38	508	50	552	52	437	52	413
SUICIDE	16	45,977	8	601	4	6,062	2	8,454	2	7,314	6	7,249	14	7,160	25	4,716	31	4,421
ENDOCRINE DISORDERS	10	55,660	9	559	8	423	8	1,210	10	2,267	13	4,320	11	8,782	10	12,131	13	25,968
INFLUENZA & PNEUMONIA	12	53,617	10	341	17	184	17	574	17	1,135	18	2,502	17	6,276	14	10,449	11	32,156
LEUKEMIA	27	23,422	11	276	12	261	26	346	24	541	29	956	28	2,616	21	5,685	20	12,741
STROKE	3	160,262	12	235	16	188	15	600	11	2,008	8	5,686	9	14,153	6	26,363	4	111,029
FIRES	53	2,951	13	185	20	99	30	158	38	234	45	307	47	640	47	674	48	654
INFLAMMATORY/HEART	24	28,422	14	166	13	237	12	826	16	1,445	21	2,405	22	4,402	22	5,527	19	13,414
DIARRHOEAL DISEASES	30	6,950	15	163	40	13	45	36	48	30	46	377	46	338	38	1,428	33	4,416
EPILEPSY	40	1,347	16	163	40	13	45	36	48	30	46	377	46	338	38	1,428	33	4,416
ASTHMA	9	87,386	19	115	2	6,664	1	20,938	1	21,943	2	18,078	8	15,030	29	3,891	46	727
OTHER NEOPLASMS	16	45,977	8	601	4	6,062	2	8,454	2	7,314	6	7,249	14	7,160	25	4,716	31	4,421
POISONINGS	19	41,944	5	1,171	1	6,816	3	8,038	3	6,178	9	5,615	18	6,275	27	4,117	34	3,734
COVID-19	2	350,827	20	103	7	501	5	2,254	4	6,079	3	16,964	2	42,090	2	76,277	2	206,559
MENINGITIS	7	119,985	34	5	22	78	13	795	9	2,783	7	7,132	6	16,447	7	21,561	6	71,184
KIDNEY DISEASE	1	382,803	26	24	21	86	10	997	5	5,133	1	18,668	1	53,125	1	81,703	1	223,067
LIVER DISEASE	14	51,575	37	4	27	47	6	1,630	6	4,934	4	9,494	7	16,128	11	11,884	26	7,454
HOMICIDE	26	24,573	6	1,011	3	6,466	4	7,125	7	4,482	17	2,541	32	1,753	44	742	50	453
DIABETES MELLITUS	8	102,187	23	61	10	312	9	1,168	8	2,904	5	7,546	5	18,002	5	27,213	8	44,981
HYPERTENSION	7	119,985	34	5	22	78	13	795	9	2,783	7	7,132	6	16,447	7	21,561	6	71,184
ENDOCRINE DISORDERS	10	55,660	9	559	8	423	8	1,210	10	2,267	13	4,320	11	8,782	10	12,131	13	25,968
STROKE	3	160,262	12	235	16	188	15	600	11	2,008	8	5,686	9	14,153	6	26,363	4	111,029
OTHER INJURIES	23	28,499	3	1,795	5	929	7	1,439	13	1,867	16	2,605	20	4,431	24	5,118	24	10,315
COLON-RECTUM CANCERS	13	53,095	49	1	28	46	21	408	15	1,523	11	4,800	10	10,544	9	13,337	14	22,436
INFLAMMATORY/HEART	24	28,422	14	166	13	237	12	826	16	1,445	21	2,405	22	4,402	22	5,527	19	13,414
INFLUENZA & PNEUMONIA	12	53,617	10	341	17	184	17	574	17	1,135	18	2,502	17	6,276	14	10,449	11	32,156
KIDNEY DISEASE	11	54,306	22	71	23	72	27	345	18	896	20	2,444	16	6,412	12	11,849	10	32,217
HIV/AIDS	41	5,115	44	2	26	53	19	468	19	770	25	1,165	34	1,542	43	833	55	282
LUNG CANCERS	5	136,166	32	6	39	13	32	126	20	756	10	5,058	3	26,664	3	45,572	7	57,971
FALLS	4	147,511	30	13	37	14	40	47	32	373	15	2,946	4	18,011	4	37,832	5	88,275
LEUKEMIA	27	23,422	11	276	12	261	26	346	24	541	29	956	28	2,616	21	5,685	20	12,741
DROWNINGS	24	28,422	14	166	13	237	12	826	16	1,445	21	2,405	22	4,402	22	5,527	19	13,414
CONGENITAL ANOMALIES	36	0,673	1	1,346	0	384	36	350	36	350	34	344	38	357	46	600	44	593
COVID-19	2	350,827	20	103	7	501	5	2,254	4	6,079	3	16,964	2	42,090	2	76,277	2	206,559
LUNG CANCERS	5	136,166	32	6	39	13	32	126	20	756	10	5,058	3	26,664	3	45,572	7	57,971
LIVER DISEASE	14	51,575	37	4	27	47	6	1,630	6	4,934	4	9,494	7	16,128	11	11,884	26	7,454
DIABETES MELLITUS	8	102,187	23	61	10	312	9	1,168	8	2,904	5	7,546	5	18,002	5	27,213	8	44,981
STROKE	3	160,262	12	235	16	188	15	600	11	2,008	8	5,686	9	14,153	6	26,363	4	111,029
HYPERTENSION	7	119,985	34	5	22	78	13	795	9	2,783	7	7,132	6	16,447	7	21,561	6	71,184
COLON-RECTUM CANCERS	13	53,095	49	1	28	46	21	408	15	1,523	11	4,800	10	10,544	9	13,337	14	22,436
ENDOCRINE DISORDERS	10	55,660	9	559	8	423	8	1,210	10	2,267	13	4,320	11	8,782	10	12,131	13	25,968
LIVER DISEASE	14	51,575	37	4	27	47	6	1,630	6	4,934	4	9,494	7	16,128	11	11,884	26	7,454
KIDNEY DISEASE	11	54,306	22	71	23	72	27	345	18	896	20	2,444	16	6,412	12	11,849	10	32,217
INFLUENZA & PNEUMONIA	12	53,617	10	341	17	184	17	574	17	1,135	18	2,502	17	6,276	14	10,449	11	32,156
LIVER CANCER	25	28,227	25	33	30	38	35	97	35	321	22	1,424	15	6,806	15	9,988	25	9,520
LYMPHOMAS	21	34,319	28	19	25	63	29	200	30	436	23	1,399	21	4,420	17	9,026	17	18,756
PROSTATE CANCER	22	32,707	50	1	58	1	64	1	53	32	44	326	25	2,944	18	8,083	15	21,319
FALLS	18	42,113	24	47	18	152	24	359	22	625	24	1,282	24	3,140	20	5,925	12	30,583
LEUKEMIA	27	23,422	11	276	12	261	26	346	24	541	29	956	28	2,616	21	5,685	20	12,741
INFLAMMATORY/HEART	24	28,422	14	166	13	237	12	826	16	1,445	21	2,405	22	4,402	22	5,527	19	13,414
OTHER INJURIES	23	28,499	3	1,795	5	929	7	1,439	13	1,867	16	2,605	20	4,431	24	5,118	24	10,315
SUICIDE	16	45,977	8	601	4	6,062	2	8,454	2	7,314	6	7,249	14	7,160	25	4,716	31	4,421
ROAD TRAFFIC ACCIDENTS	19	41,944	5	1,171	1	6,816	3	8,038	3	6,178	9	5,615	18	6,275	27	4,117	34	3,734
OVARY CANCER	33	13,438	38	4	38	14	36	96	36	285	26	1,065	26	2,837	28	4,014	29	5,123
POISONINGS	9	87,386	19	115	2	6,664	1	20,938	1	21,943	2	18,078	8	15,030	29	3,891	46	727
ORAL CANCER	37	10,835	43	2	35	15	42	41	40	187	30	842	27	2,827	31	3,317	35	3,604
OTHER NEOPLASMS	29	16,229	18	129	24	65	31	131	37	251	39	491	35	1,539	32	3,278	23	10,345

Lingering Effects of Early Genetic Programs, Diets, Behaviors, and Exposures

ORIGINALARTICLES

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Childhood Risk Factors and Adulthood Cardiovascular Disease: A Systematic Review

Lindsay R. Pool, PhD¹, Liliana Aguayo, PhD^{1,2}, Michal Brzezinski, PhD³, Amanda M. Perak, MD^{1,4,5}, Matthew M. Davis, MD^{1,2,4,6,7}, Philip Greenland, MD¹, Lifang Hou, MD, PhD^{1,2}, Bradley S. Marino, MD^{2,4,5,7}, Linda Van Horn, PhD¹, Lauren Wakschlag, PhD^{6,7}, Darwin Labarthe, MD, PhD^{1,8}, Donald Lloyd-Jones, MD^{1,8}, and Norrina B. Allen, PhD^{1,6}

Childhood Risk Factor	# of papers	Subclinical CVD				Clinical CVD			
		Arterial Stiffness	cIMT	CAC	LV structure and function	CHD	Stroke	Heart failure	CVD Mixed Definition
Increased Adiposity	61	3 papers: higher risk 5 papers: null	10 papers: higher risk 1 paper: null	1 paper: higher risk	11 papers: higher risk	9 papers: higher risk 2 papers: null	6 papers: higher risk 1 paper: null	2 papers: higher risk	10 papers: higher risk
Low Birthweight	28	1 paper: higher risk 1 paper: null	no papers	no papers	1 paper: null	13 papers: higher risk	3 papers: higher risk 1 paper: null	no papers	8 papers: higher risk
Pediatric Hypertension	29	9 papers: higher risk 1 paper: null	10 papers: higher risk 1 paper: null	2 papers: higher risk	7 papers: higher risk 1 paper: null	2 papers: higher risk	no papers	no papers	3 papers: higher risk
Pediatric Hyperlipidemia	16	no papers	10 papers: higher risk	2 papers: higher risk	1 paper: higher risk	1 paper: higher risk	no papers	no papers	3 papers: higher risk
High Glycemic Indicators	2	1 paper: null	1 paper: higher risk	no papers	no papers	no papers	1 paper: higher risk	no papers	no papers
Tobacco Exposure	7	no papers	3 papers: higher risk	1 paper: higher risk	no papers	1 paper: higher risk	1 paper: higher risk	no papers	3 papers: higher risk
Physical Activity	6	4 papers: lower risk	2 papers: lower risk	no papers	no papers	no papers	no papers	no papers	1 paper: null
Dietary Quality	9	3 papers: lower risk 1 paper: null	3 papers: lower risk	no papers	no papers	1 paper: null	2 papers: lower risk	no papers	no papers
Breastfeeding	6	1 paper: null	1 paper: lower risk 1 paper: null	no papers	no papers	1 paper: lower risk 1 paper: null	1 paper: null	no papers	1 paper: null
Low Socioeconomic Status	13	no papers	2 papers: null	no papers	1 paper: higher risk	2 papers: higher risk	2 papers: higher risk	no papers	7 papers: higher risk
Psychosocial Adversity	18	1 paper: higher risk 2 papers: null	4 papers: higher risk	1 paper: higher risk	no papers	3 papers: higher risk	1 paper: higher risk	1 paper: higher risk	5 papers: higher risk 1 paper: null
Metabolic Syndrome	9	1 paper: higher risk	5 papers: higher risk	no papers	no papers	no papers	no papers	no papers	3 papers: higher risk
Other Risk Factor Clustering	7	2 papers: higher risk	6 papers: higher risk	1 paper: higher risk	no papers	no papers	no papers	no papers	no papers

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The NEW ENGLAND JOURNAL of MEDICINE

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Childhood Cardiovascular Risk Factors and Adult Cardiovascular Events

D.R. Jacobs, Jr., J.G. Woo, A.R. Sinaiko, S.R. Daniels, J. Ikonen, M. Juonala, N. Karttunen, T. Lehtimäki, C.G. Magnusson, J.S.A. Viikari, N. Zhang, L.A. Bazzano, T.L. Burns, R.J. Prineas, J. Steinberger, E.M. Urbina, A.J. Venn, O.T. Raitakari, and T. Dwyer

BACKGROUND

Childhood cardiovascular risk factors, but links to clinic

METHODS

In a prospective cohort Cardiovascular Cohort (i3C) (at the ages of 3 to 19 years after a mean follow-up cholesterol level, triglyceride i3C-derived age- and sex calculated as the unweighted adult combined-risk jointly with the childhood events and fatal or nonfatal multiple imputation with

RESULTS

In the analysis of 319 participants (49.7% male and years), the hazard ratios 1.30 (95% confidence interval total cholesterol level to The hazard ratio for a fatal z score was 2.71 (95% CI, 95% confidence interval to those in the analyses among 20,656 participants of 115 fatal cardiovascular (31.0±5.6 years of age at the adjusted hazard ratio 3.54 (95% CI, 2.57 to 4.8 with respect to the childhood was 2.88 (95% CI, the analysis of 524 fatal

CONCLUSIONS

In this prospective cohort combined-risk z score cardiovascular events in

Full names, academic affiliations are listed in the Woo can be contacted at cchmc.org or at the Cincinnati Hospital Medical Center, 3333 Linn St., Cincinnati, OH 45229-0001.

Voo, and Sinaiko and Drs. Prineas, Steinberger, Raitakari, and Dwyer contribute to this article.

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DOI:10.1093/ajph.2022.121.1877.88

Massachusetts Medical Society.

COHORTS

The International Childhood Cardiovascular Cohort Consortium includes seven cohorts in the United States, Australia, and Finland. Since the 1970s the cohorts have collected data on cardiovascular risk factors in childhood and have followed participants into middle age. As participants are entering their 30s and early 40s, this consortium represents a unique opportunity to explore the association of childhood risk factors with adult cardiovascular events.

Map showing the locations of the seven cohorts: Bogalusa Heart Study, Cardiovascular Risk in Young Finns Study, Childhood Determinants of Adult Health (CDAH) Study, Minneapolis Children's Health Study, National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute Growth and Health Study (NHLBI), Princeton Heart Study, and Young Finns Study.

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COHORT PROFILE

Cohort Profile: The International Childhood Cardiovascular Cohort (i3C) Consortium

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†These authors contributed equally to this work

Table 1 Summary of the i3C Consortium Studies

Study	Country	Sampling frame	Baseline in childhood and adolescence				Follow-up in adulthood			
			Sample with one major CVD risk factor (N) ^a	Sample with three major CVD risk factors (N) ^b	Study years	Age (years)	Sample with three major CVD risk factors (N) ^c	Study years	Age (years)	
Muscateine Study ^d	USA	School based	11 377	11 377	1970–81	5–18	2547	1982–91	20–39	
BHS ^d	USA	School based	12 164	12 164	1973–94	4–17	1203	1992–2008	29–55	
YFS	Finland	Random sample from five centres	3596	3596	1980	3–18	2283	2001	24–39	
CDAH Study	Australia	School based	8498	1714	1985	7–15	2410	2004–06	26–36	
Minneapolis Children's Health Study ^d	USA	School based	1207 (10 423 screened)	0	1978–89	6–9 to 17–20	679	1997–2002	21–24	
Princeton LRC/PFS ^d	USA	School based	357 (12 043 screened)	357	1996	11–14	230	2007	30–45	
NGHS ^d	USA	Cincinnati, OH: School based Richmond, CA: School based Washington, DC: Sample from HMO	871 879 629	705–871 823–871 550–629	1987–96	9–19	623* 600 (ongoing) –650	1999–2004 2011–12 2002–07	30–48 43–57 24–28	

^aBHS: Bogalusa Heart Study; CDAH Study: Childhood Determinants of Adult Health Study; NGHS: National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute Growth and Health Study; YFS: Young Finns Study; Princeton LRC/PFS: Princeton Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute Princeton Lipid Research Clinics Study/Princeton Follow-up Study; HMO: health maintenance organization.
^bSample with measurement of at least one major CVD risk factor (blood pressure, lipids or adiposity measures including skinfold thickness or BMI).
^cSample with measurement of all three major CVD risk factors.
^dOther generations and family data available.
^eBirth cohort: black and white.
^fAn additional 537 participants aged 5–19 years were measured in the LRC family study (Visit 3) along with their siblings already counted in the 1729 above. Blood pressure was not measured at Visit 3. Of these 537 siblings, 221 were reconstructed in the 1999–2004 follow-up.

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The Need for Integration Across the Age, Genetic and Non-Genetic Spectrum

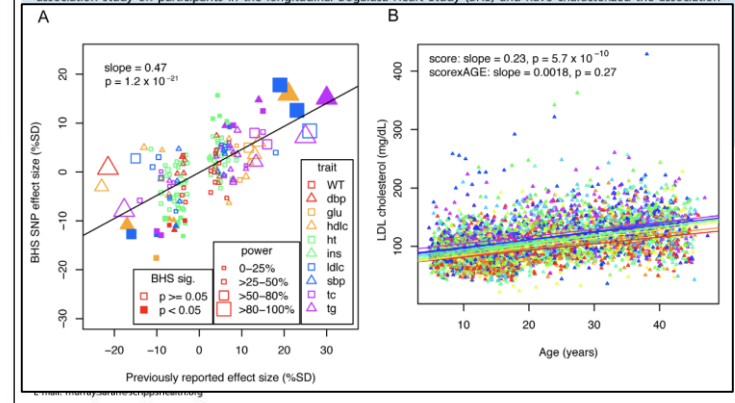
Longitudinal Genome-Wide Association of Cardiovascular Disease Risk Factors in the Bogalusa Heart Study

Erin N. Smith¹, Wei Chen², Mika Kähönen³, Johannes Kettunen^{4,5}, Terho Lehtimäki⁶, Leena Peltonen^{4,5,7}, Olli T. Raitakari⁸, Rany M. Salem⁹, Nicholas J. Schork¹, Marian Shaw¹, Sathanur R. Srinivasan², Eric J. Topol¹, Jorma S. Viikari³, Gerald S. Berenson², Sarah S. Murray^{1*}

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Abstract

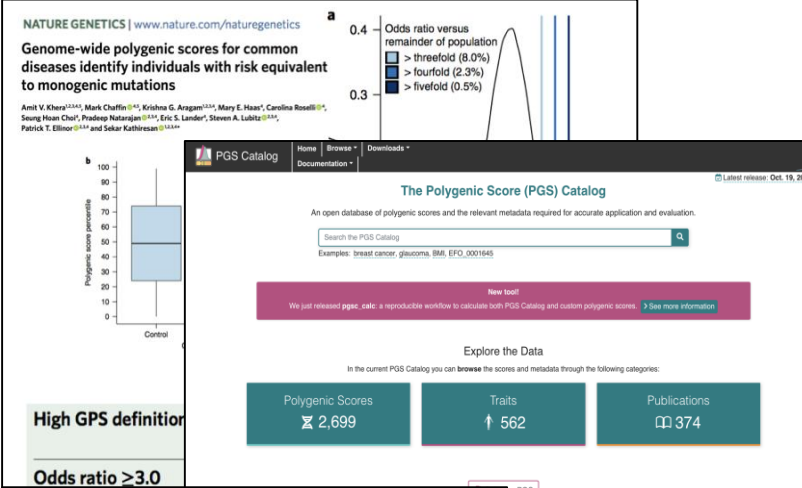
Cardiovascular disease (CVD) is the leading cause of death worldwide. Recent genome-wide association (GWA) studies have pinpointed many loci associated with CVD risk factors in adults. It is unclear, however, if these loci predict trait levels at all ages, if they are associated with how a trait develops over time, or if they could be used to screen individuals who are pre-symptomatic to provide the opportunity for preventive measures before disease onset. We completed a genome-wide association study on participants in the longitudinal Bogalusa Heart Study (BHS) and have characterized the association



Introduction

Cardiovascular disease (CVD) affects over 79 million people in the United States [1], and is the leading cause of death worldwide [2–4]. Identifying the genetic determinants of CVD can lead to more effective diagnostics, prognostics, therapeutics, and, ultimately, preventive strategies. The best chance for prevention would be to identify risk at the earliest possible age. Genome-wide association (GWA) leveraging cross-sectional phenotypic data has been a particularly useful approach to identifying loci that influence many of the quantitative risk factors of CVD [5–10], however the use of cross sectional data does not provide insight

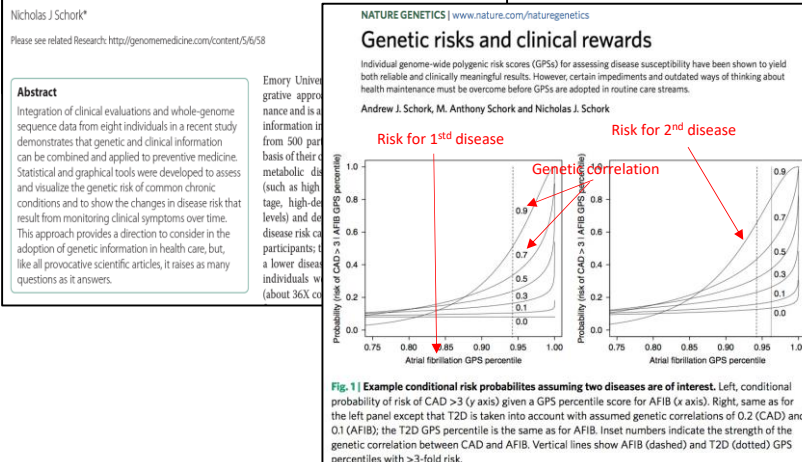
into how such risk factors develop over time. Longitudinal studies, particularly those that begin in childhood, allow for the identification of risk profiles of susceptible individuals before disease onset. The Bogalusa Heart Study (BHS) is a longitudinal study focused on the early natural history of CVD. The BHS began in 1973 and includes up to 9 phenotypic screenings in childhood (4–17 years of age) and up to 10 adult (18–48 years of age) cross-sectional screenings. We have conducted a longitudinal genome-wide association study on a subset of the total sample of unrelated individuals with a large number of measurements (mean number of measurements = 8, range = 4–13) and are of European Ancestry (N = 525).



RESEARCH HIGHLIGHT
Genetic parts to a preventive medicine whole
Nicholas J Schork*

Individual genome-wide polygenic risk scores (GPSs) for assessing disease susceptibility have been shown to yield both reliable and clinically meaningful results. However, certain impediments and outdated ways of thinking about health maintenance must be overcome before GPSs are adopted in routine care streams.

Andrew J. Schork, M. Anthony Schork and Nicholas J. Schork



Better integration is needed to identify and exploit $g \times e$ interactions, nuanced behaviors, social factors, aging effects, and general context-specificity that could lead to interventions designed to optimize individual health and longevity

Are Large-Scale National Government Subsidized Longitudinal Studies Good?

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National Children's Study (NCS) Archive

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Overview

The NCS, authorized by the [Children's Health Act of 2000](#), was a planned large-scale, long-term study of U.S. children and their parents designed to study environmental influences on child health and development.

The NCS Vanguard (Pilot) Study began in 2009, testing methods and procedures planned for use in a larger Main Study. When recruitment ended in July 2013, the Vanguard Study had enrolled approximately 5,000 children in 40 locations across the country.

The planned NCS Main Study would have followed 100,000 children from before birth to age 21. However, the [NIH Director decided to close](#) the NCS on December 12, 2014, following the advice of an expert review group.

Available Data

The NCS Archive ([NOT-HD-16-005](#)), created after the study closed, provides researchers with access to more than 250,000 data and samples, along with nearly 19,000 biological and 5,500 environmental primary samples, collected in the NCS Vanguard Study.

Available information includes study visit data from preconception to 42 months post birth gathered using questionnaires and interviews, neuro-psychosocial and cognitive assessments, and physical examinations. Specifically, the NCS Archive includes:

- Study protocols (Initial Vanguard Study and Alternate Recruitment Substudy)
- Operation manuals
- Project summaries
- Data collection instruments

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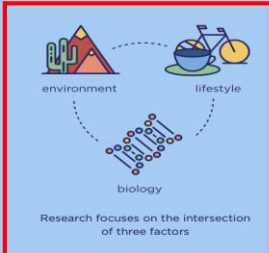
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The *All of Us* Research Program is part of the National Institutes of Health.

We are actively partnering with academic institutions, health care organizations, community partners, and others to create a groundbreaking national research platform.

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Longevity Consortium

Welcome

The Purpose of the Longevity Consortium is to identify the mechanisms of animal species and pathways that are amenable to pharmacological modulation. These various factors both influence human studies seeking to identify factors that affect longevity. Additional factors affecting longevity include appropriate integration in research projects and 3 integrative phenotypes led by Richard Miller, a proteomics project led by Eric Or Rappaport, a Cheminformatics of Cummings.

To learn more about specific projects

Welcome to Integrative Longevity Omics

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Our Study Purpose

Centenarians (ages >100 yrs) and even more so, supercentenarians (ages 105-109 yrs) are outliers not only for their exceptionally long lifespans, but also for their longer female fertility and marked delay of or escape from (resistance to) aging-related disability and morbidities such as Alzheimer's disease, heart disease, stroke, diabetes and cancer. Their offspring also exhibit delayed morbidity and lower mortality compared to their birth cohort.

This initiative aims to integrate multi-omics data from centenarians and centenarians offspring (and controls) to identify protective profiles associated with exceptional longevity associated phenotypes and possible protection against Alzheimer's disease. This project will also perform expanded tissue-specific, multi-omics analyses on at least 60 different mammalian species of varied life spans to identify potential factors contributing to long life span. iPSCs are developed from participants age 103+ years and lines are differentiated into hepatocyte and central nervous system cell lines that are then used for functional studies of resistance/resilience.

[Learn More](#)

Will such studies reveal greater heterogeneity and a need for the 'personalization' of nutritional and medical interventions?

Estimating Life Expectancy for Different Age Cohorts and Dietary Changes

PLOS MEDICINE

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Estimating impact of food choices on life expectancy: A modeling study

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Estimating impact of food choices on life expectancy: A modeling study

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Abstract

Background

Interpreting and utilizing the findings of nutritional research can be challenging to clinicians, policy makers, and even researchers. To make better decisions about diet, innovative methods that integrate best evidence are needed. We have developed a decision support model that predicts how dietary choices affect life expectancy (LE).

Methods and findings

Based on meta-analyses and data from the Global Burden of Disease study (2019), we used life table methodology to estimate how LE changes with sustained changes in the intake of fruits, vegetables, whole grains, refined grains, nuts, legumes, fish, eggs, milk/dairy, red meat, processed meat, and sugar-sweetened beverages. We present estimates (with 95% uncertainty intervals [95% UIs]) for an optimized diet and a feasibility approach diet. An optimal diet had substantially higher intake than a typical diet of whole grains, legumes, fish, fruits, vegetables, and included a handful of nuts, while reducing red and processed meats, sugar-sweetened beverages, and refined grains. A feasibility approach diet was a midpoint between an optimal and a typical Western diet. A sustained change from a typical Western diet to the optimal diet from age 20 years would increase LE by more than a decade for women from the United States (10.7 [95% UI 8.4 to 12.3] years) and men (13.0 [95% UI 9.4 to 14.3] years). The largest gains would be made by eating more legumes (females: 2.2 [95% UI 1.1 to 3.4]; males: 2.5 [95% UI 1.1 to 3.9]), whole grains (females: 2.0 [95% UI 1.3 to 2.7]; males: 2.3 [95% UI 1.6 to 3.0]), and nuts (females: 1.7 [95% UI 1.5 to 2.0]; males: 2.0 [95% UI 1.7 to 2.3]), and less red meat (females: 1.6 [95% UI 1.5 to 1.8]; males: 1.9 [95% UI 1.7 to 2.1]) and processed meat (females: 1.6 [95% UI 1.5 to 1.8]; males: 1.9 [95% UI 1.7 to 2.1]). Changing from a typical diet to the optimized diet at age 60 years would increase LE by 8.0 (95% UI 6.2 to 9.3) years for women and 8.8 (95% UI 6.8 to 10.0) years for men, and 80-year-olds would gain 3.4 years (95% UI females: 2.6 to 3.8/ males: 2.7 to 3.9). Change from typical to feasibility approach diet would increase LE by 6.2 (95% UI 3.5 to 8.1) years for 20-year-old women from the United States and 7.3 (95% UI 4.7



- How reliable are the data used? What about interactions with, e.g., SES, genetic predisposition, etc.?
- Could/should such estimates be personalized with many more factors considered based on more data?

Surrogate Endpoints for Long-term Outcomes and Longitudinal Trajectories

- Time lapse between change in the molecular milieu and change in the clinically-relevant phenotype?
- How long does it take before the system is sustainably healthy with continued use of intervention?



“You could die of age-related disease while waiting for your longevity-enhancing diet or intervention (i.e., geroprotector) to pay dividends”
- Schork et al. (AGMR; 2021)

REVIEWS

Measuring biological age using omics data

Jared Rutledge^{1,2,3,4}, Hamilton Oh^{1,5,6,7} and Tony Wyss-Coray^{1,2,4,5,6,7}

Abstract | Age is the key risk factor for diseases and disabilities of the elderly. Efforts to tackle age-related diseases and increase healthspan have targeted the ageing process itself to 'rejuvenate' physiological functioning. However, achieving this aim requires measures of biological age and rates of ageing at the molecular level. Spurred by recent advances in high-throughput omics technologies, a new generation of tools to measure biological ageing now enables the quantitative characterization of ageing at molecular resolution. Epigenomic, transcriptomic, proteomic and metabolomic data can be harnessed with machine learning to build 'ageing clocks' with demonstrated capacity to identify new biomarkers of biological ageing.

Globally, the human population is rapidly ageing but and metabolomic methods are enabling the character-

Heterochronic parabiosis: An experimental paradigm where the circulation of a young and old blood is surgically connected to a recipient mouse. Partial epigenetic reprogramming: Delivery of factors that de-differentiate cells, induced pluripotent stem cells, typically short-lived, into the germline. Clocks: Department of Gerontology, Stanford University, CA, USA. The Rod Research Institute, Stanford University, Stanford, CA, USA. What if Clocks Could Biology of Ageing, S. University, Stanford, CA, USA. Graduate Program Cell and Developmental Medicine, Stanford University, Stanford, CA, USA. Department of Neurobiology and Neuroscience, Stanford University, Stanford, CA, USA. *These authors contributed equally. Jared Rutledge, Hamilton Oh, Tony Wyss-Coray. Re-use: hcr@stanford.edu, hcr@stanford.edu, hcr@stanford.edu. 10.1016/j.celrep.2021.102111

NATURE REVIEW

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Viewpoint

Does Modulation of an Epigenetic Clock Define a Geroprotector?

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ABSTRACT

There is growing interest in the development of interventions (e.g., drugs, diets, dietary supplements, behavioral therapies, etc.) that can enhance health during the aging process, prevent or delay multiple age-related

In 2019, a small study raised the tantalizing prospect that ageing could be reversed. Scientists in California gave 9 men aged 55 to 65 a growth hormone and two diabetes medications for a year¹. The drugs seemed to rejuvenate the men's thymus glands and immune function. They also shaved 2.5 years off the men's biological age, as measured by one of the most talked about technologies in ageing research: epigenetic clocks.

Biological age is an important concept, albeit a slippery one. Everyone's physical and mental functioning gradually declines from early adulthood onwards, but this occurs at different rates in different people. A technique for measuring biological age detects a signal that is a better guide to a person's functional capacity than their actual chronological age. As more and more scientists seek to slow, halt or rewind ageing, such methods will be needed to assess whether the new manipulations achieve these goals.

Epigenetic clocks use algorithms to calculate biological age on the basis of a read-out

of the extent to which dozens or even hundreds of sites across an individual's genome are bound by methyl groups – a form of epigenetic modification.

In 2017, the scientists behind the growth-hormone trial – based at Intervet Immune, an anti-ageing biotech company in Torrance, California – were excited by their observation of thymus and immune renewal. They contacted Steve Horvath, an anti-ageing researcher at the University of California, Los Angeles, to ask if he would use an epigenetic clock to analyse blood samples they had taken during the trial. Horvath agreed. "Anybody who has an ageing study," he says, "I've got to get involved."

But critics have questioned the purported decrease in biological age, stressing that it was a small, unblinded study with no placebo control arm. "If you have nine people," says Horvath, "and you get a statistically significant result, it means there's a strong effect." He and the company are now running a randomized and placebo-controlled phase II replication on a larger group of 85 people.

In the popular perception – that these things are really measuring biological ageing. We really need to understand how these things are working."

Horvath acknowledges this. "That's the weakness of these biomarkers," he says. "They come out of a machine-learning algorithm. They work beautifully in a mathematical sense, but biologists want more."

The US Food and Drug Administration does not currently recognize epigenetic-clock scores as surrogate endpoints for clinical trials. It wants their mechanistic basis to be better defined. And it wants an answer to the crucial question of whether a short-term decrease in someone's epigenetic clock score definitively lowers their chances of developing age-related ill health.

Molecular horology

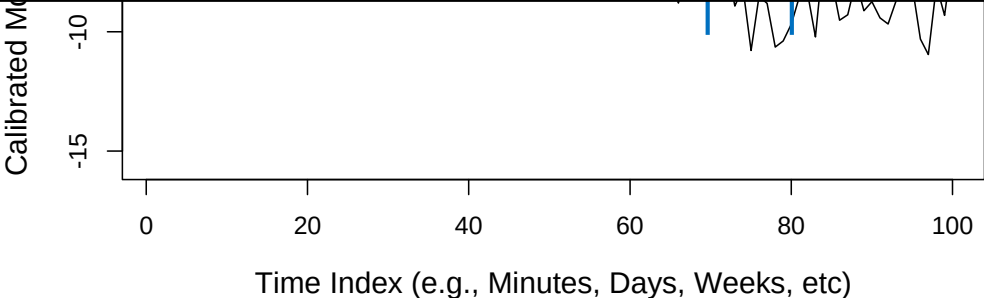
The DNA methylation that underpins epigenetic clocks is a reversible process that is catalysed by enzymes. It involves the addition of a tag known as a methyl group to parts of the genome in which cytosine bases are bound

Introduction

The search for surrogate endpoints in oncology has yielded interesting and informative results but also a large number of disappointments. Among the successes, disease-free (DFS) or relapse-free (RFS) survival were shown to be good surrogates for overall survival (OS) in the adjuvant treatment of colon cancers, gastric cancers, melanoma, and HER2-positive breast cancers, while metastasis-free survival was shown to be a good surrogate for OS in localized prostate cancer. Among the failures, pathological complete response (pCR) was not shown to be a good surrogate for event-free survival (EFS) after neoadjuvant treatment of operable breast cancer, while in advanced disease tumor response and progression-free survival (PFS) failed to be considered acceptable surrogates for OS in most^{1–10} (although not all^{11–13}) solid tumors assessed thus far using meta-analyses of individual patient data (IPDs). All these studies used a so-called 2-level statistical approach to assess surrogacy, which relies on the availability of IPDs.^{14,15} This approach consists in assessing whether (1) the potential surrogate is associated with the final endpoint

(eg, OS) in individual patients and (2) the effect of treatment on the surrogate can be used to reliably predict the effect of treatment on the final endpoint. Both questions are of interest: the former for patient management (since a good surrogate is prognostic for the final endpoint) and the latter for drug development (since use of the surrogate instead of the final endpoint can lead to gains of months or even years of development time). Condition (1), called "individual-level surrogacy" or "patient-level surrogacy," simply states that the surrogate is an independent prognostic factor for the final endpoint, and this can be tested in any series of patients, whether or not from a randomized trial. Condition (2), called "trial-level surrogacy" or "treatment-level surrogacy," requires a meta-analysis of several randomized trials in which multiple estimates of treatment effects are available on both the surrogate and on the final endpoint.¹⁶ In all the examples cited, the condition of individual-level surrogacy was fulfilled, but some potential surrogates failed to meet the condition of trial-level surrogacy. Here we explore the following conceptual difficulty: how can the surrogate

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Time Index (e.g., Minutes, Days, Weeks, etc)

Focused Clinical Trials and Broader Publicly-Subsidized Societal Interventions

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The Burden of Proof studies: assessing the evidence of risk

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Exposure to risks throughout life results in a wide variety of outcomes. Objectively judging the relative impact of these risks on personal and population health is fundamental to individual survival and societal prosperity. Existing mechanisms to quantify and rank the magnitude of these myriad effects and the uncertainty in their estimation are largely subjective, leaving room for interpretation that can fuel academic controversy and add to confusion when communicating risk. We present a new suite of meta-analyses—termed the Burden of Proof studies—designed specifically to help evaluate these methodological issues objectively and quantitatively. Through this data-driven approach that complements existing systems, including GRADE and Cochrane Reviews, we aim to aggregate evidence across multiple studies and enable a quantitative comparison of risk-outcome pairs. We introduce the burden of proof risk function (BPRF), which estimates the level of risk closest to the null hypothesis that is consistent with available data. Here we illustrate the BPRF methodology for the evaluation of four exemplar risk-outcome pairs: smoking and lung cancer, systolic blood pressure and ischemic heart disease, vegetable consumption and ischemic heart disease, and unprocessed red meat consumption and ischemic heart disease. The strength of evidence for each relationship is assessed by competing and summarizing the BPRF, and then translating the summary to a simple star rating. The Burden of Proof methodology provides a consistent way to understand, evaluate and summarize evidence of risk across different risk-outcome pairs, and informs risk analysis conducted as part of the Global Burden of Diseases, Injuries, and Risk Factors Study.

Exposure to different risk factors plays an important role in the likelihood of an individual developing or experiencing more severe outcomes from certain diseases, such as high blood pressure increasing the risk of heart disease or not having access to a safe water source increasing the risk of diarrhoeal diseases. Understanding and quantifying the relationship between risk factor exposure and the risk of a subsequent outcome is therefore essential to set priorities for public policy, to guide public health practices, to help clinicians advise their patients and to inform personal health choices. Consequently, information on risk-outcome relationships can be used in the formulation of many types of public policies, including national recommendations on diet, occupational health rules, regulations on behavior such as smoking in public places, and guidance on appropriate levels of taxes and subsidies. As new

evidence is continuously being produced and published, the systematic and comparable assessment of risk functions is a dynamic challenge. Up-to-date assessments of risk-outcome relationships are essential to, and a core component of, the Global Burden of Diseases, Injuries, and Risk Factors Study (GBD) comparative risk assessment (CRA)¹, which aims to help decision-makers understand the magnitude of different health problems. Evidence on risk-outcome relationships comes from many types of studies, including randomized controlled trials (RCTs), cohort studies, case-control studies, cross-sectional analyses, ecological studies and animal studies. Each study type has characteristic strengths and weaknesses. For example, RCTs are the most robust method for dealing with confounding but are often conducted with strict inclusion and exclusion criteria, meaning that trial participants

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2038

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nature

Studies linking diet with health must get a whole lot better

A research-rating system has identified gaps in studies that assess the connection between diet and various health risks.

Does eating red meat reduce lifespan? Some researchers certainly think so. Work such as the Global Burden of Diseases, Injuries, and Risk Factors Study¹ has led the World Health Organization and the US Department of Agriculture to advise that people limit consumption of unprocessed red meat, to protect themselves from diseases such as type 2 diabetes and various cancers. Other researchers are less sure. Targets for red meat consumption, set by public-health officials and expert panels, vary widely, with some advising that people eat no more than 14 grams per day and others not stating a recommended limit. This sends a confusing message, which in itself is not good for public health.

It's not just red meat: the evidence base surrounding much nutritional and wider health advice is similarly disputed. Now, a new approach could help health policymakers to better evaluate the quality of studies assessing potential health risks. A team at the Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation (IHME) at the University of Washington in Seattle has created a star-based metric that rates the quality of the evidence for a link between a given behaviour—such as eating red meat or smoking—and a particular health outcome². A five-star score means that the link is clearly established; one star means that either there is no association between the two factors or that the evidence is too weak to draw a firm conclusion.

What the researchers call ‘burden of proof’ analysis does not, of itself, clear up confusing issues such as the risks of red meat or the benefits of vegetables. But as a judgement on the quality of available research, it can help to flag, to researchers, funders, areas in which better evidence is needed for firm conclusions.

How is the star rating constructed? What are its parameters—and can the methodology itself be considered to be rigorous research? The IHME team did several things to try to quantify the effects of various biases in the studies being assessed. An epidemiological study, for example, might be biased in different ways to a study testing the outcomes of health interventions. The researchers also did away with what can be a common source of bias in research, namely, the assumption that health risks increase exponentially with the parameter being studied, for example blood pressure or consumption of unprocessed red meat. And they attempted to account for the

biases that can arise when sample sizes are small. Applying this framework to studies assessing a total of 180 questions, produced results that are mostly unsurprising. Studies assessing an association between smoking and a variety of cancers, for example, earn a five-star rating. Similarly, high systolic blood pressure—the force exerted by the heart to pump blood—has a five-star association with the narrowing of the blood vessels called ischaemic heart disease³.

Studies assessing diet and its health outcomes get notably lower star ratings. The IHME's analysis, for example, finds only weak evidence of an association between eating unprocessed red meat and outcomes such as colorectal cancer, type 2 diabetes and ischaemic heart disease⁴. It finds no relationship in studies that explore whether eating unprocessed red meat leads to two kinds of strokes. There is stronger, but not overwhelming, evidence that eating vegetables reduces the risk of strokes and ischaemic heart disease⁵.

In some cases, the lower star ratings could be due to effect size; for example, any health risks from red meat consumption are likely to be small relative to the huge toll that smoking takes on the body. Above all, the lower-rated findings demonstrate that studies in these areas need to get better if they are to yield convincing results.

Leaving out the effect of a single dietary component from those of the complex variety of exposures over a person's lifetime is difficult. It would need larger studies, with a diverse pool of participants and strict control over their daily diet. Such studies will entail collaboration between research groups with different expertise, and access to participants in different environmental settings—a move that funders must encourage. This is an undertaking worth prioritizing. A small risk for an individual does not mean a small impact on public health: a low-risk behaviour can have a large population-level impact if it is very common.

The literature in the field of responsible research and innovation highlights how metrics in science must always be interrogated for robustness and rigour. There needs to be wide consultation and, as much as possible, the unintended consequences of rating metrics must be anticipated, as initiatives such as the San Francisco Declaration on Research Assessment and the Leiden Manifesto show. This work must come sooner rather than later.

We have evidence that underpowered clinical studies, lacking necessary controls to make sense of the data, are not helping. If funders do not target their efforts at producing quality data, the public will remain confused, weary, distrustful and deprived of the information they need to make informed health and lifestyle choices.

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Association of the Expiration of Child Tax Credit Advance Payments With Food Insecurity in US Households

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B Differences in household food insecurity relative to reference wave

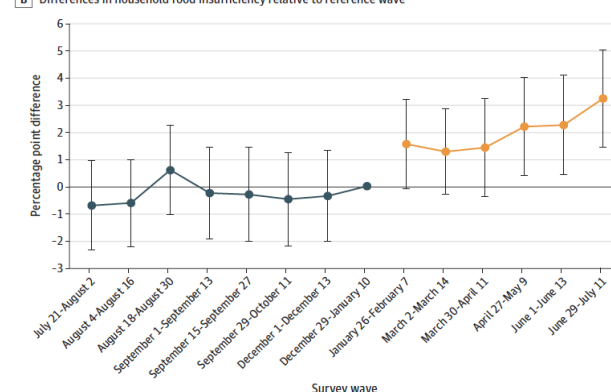


Figure 2. Unadjusted Food Insecurity Before and After Missed Child Tax Credit (CTC) Payments Among Households With Children by Subgroup

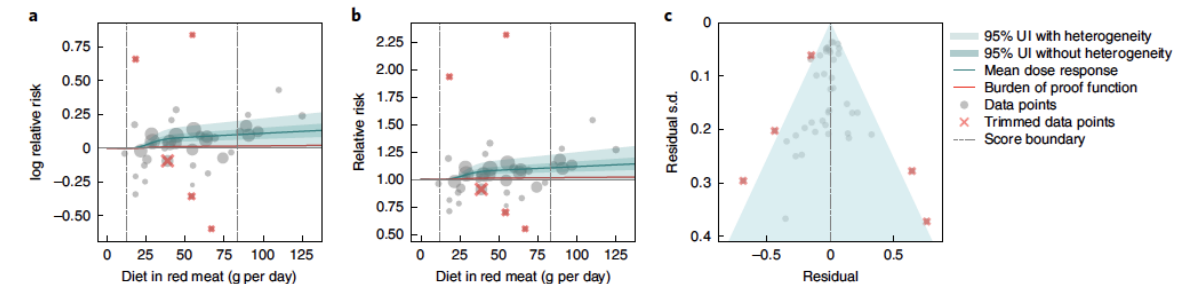
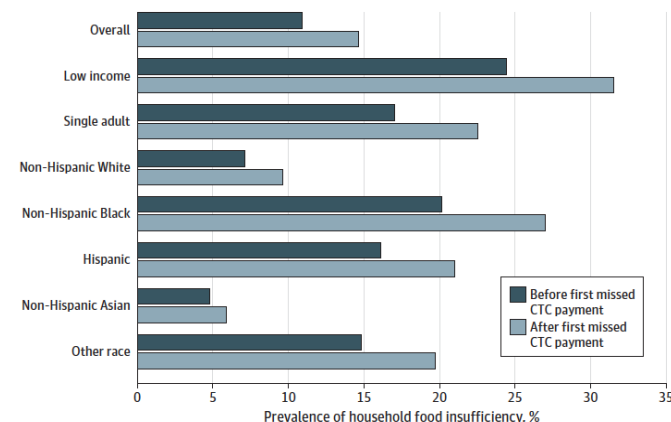


Fig. 4 | Unprocessed red meat consumption and ischemic heart disease. **a**, Log relative risk function for unprocessed red meat consumption and ischemic heart disease. **b**, Relative risk function for unprocessed red meat consumption and ischemic heart disease. **c**, A modified funnel plot for unprocessed red meat consumption and ischemic heart disease showing the residuals (relative to 0) on the x axis and the estimated standard deviation (s.d.) that includes reported s.d. and between-study heterogeneity on the y axis.

Questions to Keep in Mind:

1. What do the current data say, if anything, about nutrition, health, and life course?
2. What are the limitations of current research strategies and how we can overcome them?
3. If we learn of something that might lead to sustained health, how can we prove its worth?
4. What kind of interventions would be practical from what we have learned or could learn?

“We can't solve problems by using the same kind of thinking that created the problems in the first place”

— Albert Einstein (paraphrase)