UNITED STATES OF AMERICA
DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE AND
DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH AND HUMAN SERVICES

DIETARY GUIDELINES ADVISORY COMMITTEE
FOURTH MEETING

THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 5, 2009

The meeting came to order at 8:00 a.m., Dr. Linda Van Horn, Chairperson, presiding.

## PRESENT:

LINDA V. VAN HORN, PHD, RD, LD, CHAIR NAOMI K. FUKAGAWA, MD, PHD, VICE CHAIR
CHERYL ACHTERBERG, PHD, MEMBER
LAWRENCE J. APPEL, MD, MPH, MEMBER
ROGER A. CLEMENS, DrPH, MEMBER
MIRIAM E. NELSON, PHD, MEMBER
SHARON (SHELLY) M. NICKOLS-RICHARDSON, PHD, RD, MEMBER
THOMAS A. PEARSON, MD, PHD, MPH, MEMBER
RAFAEL PEREZ-ESCAMILLA, PHD, MEMBER
XAVIER F. PI-SUNYER, MD, MPH, MEMBER
ERIC B. RIMM, SCD, MEMBER
JOANNE L. SLAVIN, PHD, RD, MEMBER
CHRISTINE L. WILLIAMS, MD, MPH, MEMBER
ALSO PRESENT:
CAROLE DAVIS, MS, RD, CO-EXECUTIVE SECRETARY AND DFO, CNPP, USDA
KATHRYN McMURRY, MS, CO-EXECUTIVE SECRETARY, ODPHP, HHS

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ALSO PRESENT (Continued):
SHANTHY BOWMAN, PHD, CO-EXECUTIVE SECRETARY,
    ARS, USDA
HOLLY McPEAK, MS, CO-EXECUTIVE SECRETARY,
        ODPHP, HHS
RAJ ANAND, DVM, MPH, EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR,
        CNPP, USDA
RADM PENELOPE SLADE-SAWYER, PT, MSW, DEPUTY
    ASSISTANT SECRETARY FOR HEALTH, DPHD,
    HHS
CAPT SARAH LINDE-FEUCHT, MD, Deputy Director,
        DPHD, HHS
ROBERT POST, PHD, Deputy Director, CNPP, USDA
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P R O C E E D I N G S
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(8:00 a.m.)
CHAIRPERSON VAN HORN: Well, good morning, everyone. Welcome to the second day of our meeting of the Dietary Guidelines Advisory Committee. It's a beautiful sunny day here in Washington, and I hope it is nice wherever you are.

I'm Linda Van Horn, and I'm the Chair of this committee, and I'm looking forward to having a really robust day filled with lots of comments from the group. Yesterday we heard from the nutrient adequacy and carbohydrates and protein subcommittees. Today we'll also hear updates on the work from the remaining five subcommittees.

I'd like to reiterate for everyone that everything being presented today is in draft form, and although as a committee we need to come to agreement on many conclusions, as many as possible, for some topics,
especially those for which there are still puzzle pieces missing or collaborative work between subcommittees planned, additional discussion will be needed after this meeting before the material is finalized.

I'd like to remind each committee member to please announce themselves when speaking to help the public follow along as well.

And today we're going to kick off with Dr. Larry Appel, who is going to talk about sodium, potassium and water.

Larry.
MEMBER APPEL: Wonderful. Thank you very much.

This is Larry Appel. I'm a member of the Dietary Guidelines Committee.

First I want to acknowledge members of the Subcommittee on Sodium, Potassium and Water. Besides myself, Tom Pearson, Christine Williams and our superb staff, Holly, Pat, Donna, and Joan, working NEAL R. GROSS
diligently. Every Friday morning, bring your coffee; join us.

Okay. So these are the topic areas we are considering in our group, and we've completed reviews and draft conclusions for water, sodium and blood pressure in children, sodium and blood pressure in adults. Ongoing are potassium, dietary patterns, and blood pressure in children and adults which might interface with the nutrient adequacy group. So we need to coordinate there, and sodium-potassium interactions.

So we're going to start with water. Keep it easy. To start off with I have my prop, coffee. I see other people with their props, too.

So the research question is: what amount of water is recommended for health? And this one, there wasn't a huge amount of literature. We did exploratory literature searches on water and hydration in both adults and children; water and kidney stones where I

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think there's strong biologic plausibility as well as some clinical studies, but not really major general population studies; water in bladder cancer; water in body weight, and we identified no major study published since the last dietary guidelines that covered these topics that would affect our recommendations.

And we also queried one of the leading experts in the field who participated in one of our calls, Mike Sawka. That was his impression as well. So we also drafted our statement.

So this is what our draft conclusion is. I think we have some wordsmithing to do, but our draft conclusion is consumption of water is necessary to maintain health. However, there is no evidence of dehydration or other problems relating to inadequate water intake in the general population.

We're struggling with the grading issue that everybody else is. So I won't put

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a grade here for now, in part, because the basis for this is the Institute of Medicine report and then we supplemented it with the last four or five years of literature for which there's very little.

So there are implications of this, and much of this is actually drawn explicitly from 2005, but we also add some. So the first of the combination of thirst and usual drinking behavior, especially the consumption of fluids with meals, is sufficient to maintain normal hydration.

Second, healthy individuals who have routine access to fluids and who are not exposed to heat stress consume adequate water to meet their needs.

Third, purposeful drinking is warranted for individuals who are exposed to heat stress or who perform sustained vigorous activity.

And then these are two new implications. No quantitative recommendation

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for minimum water consumption can or should be set. In view of the obesity epidemic, individuals should select water or fluids with few or no calories.

So it might be worthwhile stopping here because the next section is sodium, and this is a diversion. Yes.

MEMBER PI-SUNYER: Larry, a lot of people -- this is Xavier -- a lot of people think that drinking a lot of water will reduce the amount of food they eat and defend against obesity, and as far as I know the literature doesn't show anything to that regard. Do you think something should be put in here about that?

It's kind of a negative, but --
MEMBER APPEL: Yeah, that was sort of subsumed under the weight, relationship of weight or of water intake and weight. We could, but the problems that would come would be counter to that last one, which is where we want to -- I mean, I do think even if we might
not have perfect evidence for each source of calories and weight, we probably want to, you know, as a theme encourage lower calorie foods and beverages.

So the problem if we were to say there's no evidence of or if there's a creative way of saying what you want without negating that last one, I think we could do it, yeah.

Yes.
CHAIRPERSON VAN HORN: The other thing that our group talked about because, of course, of the obesity epidemic and water, having no calories as being an ideal fluid source; the other problem and something that we'd want to recommend, I think, for the future is just the whole assessment issue because so many studies really fail to adequately document water intake, and so the opportunity may not necessarily be that there are no data or, I mean, that there is no relationship. It's just that the data we

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currently have is missing the accuracy that we need in order to make that comparison.

MEMBER APPEL: Yes. Your point is well taken. I mean, we rely on NHANES, and that's self-reporting and wasn't our primary focus.

On the other hand, the data about hydration actually is probably less amenable to the kind of traditional studies that we think about. When we reviewed the literature for the Institute of Medicine, one of the more fascinating things was that serum osmolality, which is the major bioindicator of hydration status, is rock solid, you know, whether you're consuming very little water or a lot.

So even if you have a lot of misclassifications, you know, you see the same thing. You know, people within an age stratum, it really makes no difference, a little or a lot water. Their serum osmolality is the same.

So there's really no evidence of
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at least the medical problem of hydration. The issue that $I$ think you raised is sort of the chronic disease relationships for which you do want to have, you know, better exposure data, and so at this point it's not a great exposure to measure.

MEMBER SLAVIN: I have a question about the liquids and solids because it does overlap with our committee, too. So I guess I want to make sure -- it's Joanne Slavin here -- that we talk about that.

I agree with Dr. Pi-Sunyer though that the water intake and calories, people think that, but there's no data at all, and in animals it's actually the opposite, that access to water, you know, they take in more calories. So I don't know how to make -- you know, just not to mislead people to think by drinking water it's going to help them in calorie balance.

You know, the calorie idea makes sense because it's calorie free, but there's NEAL R. GROSS
no real data to support that it's going to help in weight maintenance.

And the other question for our committee with increases in fiber, that also overlaps with the fluid committee. So making sure we do some cross-talk on that if there's suggestions for higher fiber intakes.

MEMBER APPEL: Okay. Great. So let's proceed ahead to the next topic.

So we're going to talk about sodium and salt sodium chloride. Actually this is going to be a little bit of a different presentation compared to some of the others. We will cover, you know, conclusions, implications, but I think the background is important in this. So there will be a more contextual type of presentation in addition to the usual.

So these are the way that sodium data is presented, which is confusing because you have sodium in milligrams, which is on the back of the nutrition facts panel, and then

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you have sodium in millimoles, which is what we measure when we do collect 24 -hour urines, and then sodium chloride. Actually in Europe all of the recommendations are based on sodium chloride salt.

So I'm going to actually, to the extent possible, discuss sodium in milligrams, and the Institute of Medicine reports that $a$ upper limit of 2,300 milligrams and an adequate intake level at 1,500 milligrams though, you'll see those numbers in this presentation repeatedly.

So in terms of adverse effects of sodium, there is an established relationship. You're not going to get the Salt Institute now to debate this one, that there is a relationship between salt intake and blood pressure, and there is a strong relationship between blood pressure and cardiovascular disease, coronary heart disease, and stroke.

This is based on largely pharmacologic -- well, there's a risk

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relationship that's very robust, and I'll show you data on that. There's also strong evidence that a variety of different medications that lower blood pressure also prevent cardiovascular disease and stroke. So it is the perfect biomarker, and it's one of the few biomarkers that we actually have. We don't obviously have one for cancer, but it is a great one for cardiovascular disease, along with LDL cholesterol.

There are other relationships, and there's a probable relationship of sodium intake with gastric cancer, and I'm not going to cover that, and then suggestive relationship of sodium with osteoporosis, left ventricular mass, and then a hypothesized relationship with obesity.

Now, in terms of the blood pressure problem from a population perspective, cardiovascular disease, the combination of coronary heart disease and stroke is the leading cause of death in the NEAL R. GROSS

United States. Coronary heart disease is the first and stroke is the third leading cause of death, and it has been estimated that 62 percent of strokes and 49 percent of coronary heart disease events are attributed to elevated blood pressure.

And this is not just those that are above the limit called hypertension. It's above what we call normal or optimal blood pressure, depending on how you define it. But if you do use the clinical classification of hypertension, which I'll review, about a quarter of the population, adults, has it. So it's a huge public health problem.

From an individual perspective,
lower the blood pressure, lower your risk of heart disease even if you don't have hypertension. And the lifetime risk based on data from Framingham is that you'll develop hypertension. It's almost inevitable. If you reach the age of 50 you'll get it.

So this is the classification. We

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consider normal less than 120/80, and then pre-hypertension an intermediate category, and then hypertension a higher category. This is a pie diagram from several years ago. About just under a third of the population has hypertension, a third with pre-hypertension, and about 40 percent normal.

Trends are actually going in the bad direction with increasing blood pressure levels, and I'll show you some data on that. So people did not listen to the 2005 guidelines. You know, that's the problem. (Laughter.)

MEMBER APPEL: You know, otherwise we would be okay, all right.

So the problem with high blood pressure though is not just the absolute levels, but it's this pattern of rise over time, as we age, with about a .6 millimeter rise in mercury per year, which Christine will go over, but also there's an adverse pattern in children. So the pattern of elevated blood

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pressure and the clinical manifestations in adulthood really is a childhood problem. It's almost like osteoporosis in the sense that it's a condition that reflects a lifelong process.

So here's data in older age, but the same is true in other age groups, that the blood pressure problem, in this case defined by prevalence of hypertension, is getting worse, and this is in older age individuals, and it occurs whether you're white or black or Hispanic. Okay. So this is the risk relationship.

So is, in part or in large part, why the recommendations extend to the whole population, because whether your blood pressure is, you know, 140, 130, it's always better to be a bit lower. Okay? And each of those curves represents an age epic.

I'm on that lower one, the 50-59. That one just goes like that, you know, and that is the line that divides hypertension. So

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if you're to the left of that line, you still have that progressive risk relationship. The people to the left of the line would not be treated with medication. You go in a doctor's office with that level, you don't get medication. They'll just say, you know, lose weight, eat a healthy diet, reduce your sodium intake, but that's where it has been estimated about a third of coronary heart disease events occur in that range.

So the rationale for reducing blood pressure is, in part, displayed in the last slide, but here's the distribution of blood pressure. If you start with a Gaussian distribution of blood pressure that shifted to the left, you're going to get benefits. The benefits accrue from relatively small reductions in blood pressure.

So in that table at the bottom, relatively small reductions in blood pressures lead to very large actually estimated reductions in mortality, and it's very NEAL R. GROSS
interesting because even my colleagues who are more sort of clinical hypertension people really buy into this now because they've seen some of their clinical trials screwed up because of small differentials in blood pressure that seem to account for, you know, perplexing findings.

So this is likely real and accepted broadly by the public health and clinical communities.

So with that as background, we're going to go to sodium blood pressure in children, and Christine is going to take charge here.

MEMBER WILLIAMS: Thank you,
Larry.
Christine Williams.
This is the pediatric side of the sodium and blood pressure question, and the question is: what is the effect of sodium intake on blood pressure in children from birth to 18 years?

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In the United States and most other countries, blood pressure slowly rises with age, and most children whose blood pressure appears to be in the healthy range during childhood are still at eventual risk of hypertension as adults. Blood pressure during childhood exhibits significant tracking phenomena.

Mean blood pressure levels have increased among U.S. children and adolescents over the past two decades. Higher blood pressure in childhood increases the risk of cardiovascular disease in adult life and is also associated with cardiovascular abnormalities in youth as well, for example, left ventricular hypertrophy.

High blood pressure, as well as other cardiovascular disease risk factors in youth is associated with the presence of early atherosclerotic lesions.

Some of the increase in mean blood pressure in U.S. children can certainly be

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attributed to increasing rates of childhood obesity, which have tripled and quadrupled over the past two decades. Other factors, including dietary intake of sodium and potassium, also increase blood pressure levels in children.

Dietary intake of sodium in U.S. youth is currently at unacceptably high levels, with the majority of children and adolescents exceeding the upper level of recommended intake. Diets rich in potassium can lower blood pressure. However, dietary intake of potassium among U.S. youth is very low, with less than three percent meeting recommended levels.

So the rationale for conducting a review of the evidence for this research question was that the mean blood pressure levels and prevalence of hypertension and prehypertension in children are increasing. Thus, there's some urgency to provide public guidance and promote interventions that are NEAL R. GROSS
likely to retard and reverse this unhealthy trend.

There's evidence that blood pressure elevations in children and adolescents are not benign, but are associated with immediate and future adverse effects on the heart and the vascular system.

And there's evidence that dietary sodium influences blood pressure in childhood similar to the effect observed for adults. Here you can see the annual increase in blood pressure for children, the systolic blood pressure. The increase is 1.9 millimeters of mercury per year for boys and 1.5 millimeters of mercury for girls. And this is actually significantly greater than the increase that you see for adults.

This is the comparison of blood pressure levels for children from NHANES III, 1988 to '94, and NHANES '99 to 2000, and you can see the increase in boys and girls similar to what we are seeing in adults.

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Blood pressure in adolescents is associated with subsequent cardiovascular disease. There are a number of studies that have reported this. There are autopsies --
(Pause in proceedings for technical difficulties.)

MEMBER WILLIAMS: Blood pressure measured in adolescents and young adults is associated with subsequent cardiovascular disease. Autopsy studies have shown that there are fatty streaks that begin very early in life and eventually progress to more complicated lesions, and then observational studies have shown that coronary artery calcification and eventual cardiovascular events are also associated with blood pressure in adolescents. These have been reported by the PDAY study, CARDIA, Muscatine, and other studies.

So we conducted a review of sodium intake and blood pressure in children, and we extended our search back to January of 1970,

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and this included all healthy children between the ages of birth and 18 years of age, peer reviewed articles that were conducted in the United States or internationally in the English language, and we included only randomized controlled trials or clinical controlled trials and prospective cohort studies, systematic reviews or meta-analyses, sample size at least ten per study group and less than 20 percent dropout rate.

We found 19 studies that were included in the final review, 15 clinical trials, 14 randomized controlled trials, and 14 prospective cohort studies. Of the 19 studies, eight of them were in the positive quality rating, and eight were rated neutral; three rated negative.

The studies ranged in sample size from 21 to almost 1,000. Nine of the studies were conducted in the United States. Six were conducted in Australia, three in the Netherlands, two in U.K., and one study each
in Israel and South Africa.
And the included studies were published between -- I'm sorry. I can't see that last part there -- okay. Eighty-one in 2008. The 19 studies were included in the final review, 15 clinical trials and 14 randomized controlled clinical trials, and four prospective cohort studies. Ten of the 15 clinical trials achieved contrast in sodium intake of 40 percent or more between the treatment groups or periods. Of the 15 clinical trials, 12 reported a decrease in systolic and/or diastolic blood pressure on the lower sodium diet. In eight of the 12 studies the decrease was statistically significant. Three trials reported no change in blood pressure on a low sodium diet. (Pause in proceedings.) MEMBER WILLIAMS: And four prospective cohort studies were included in final review. Three of the studies, two positive, one neutral, found evidence that NEAL R. GROSS
lower sodium intake was associated with lower blood pressure. A study of 533 infants followed seven years; another study of 233 children followed seven years; and a final study which was a 15-year follow-up of infant randomized controlled trials where systolic and diastolic blood pressure at the 15-year follow-up was still lower among the children who were initially assigned to the low sodium diet during infancy.

And one study found a positive linear relationship between infant blood pressure one year and a rough estimate of quantity of salt added to the infant's diet during the previous year.

We also used a meta-analysis as background material. All of the ten trials included in this meta-analysis were individually reviewed by us in our review, but you can see from systolic changes in the diastolic that the majority showed small but significant decreases in blood pressure for

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both systolic and diastolic.
So in summary, a review of the evidence indicates that sodium reduction modestly lowers blood pressure in children from birth to 18. The degree of blood pressure lowering was usually small, in the range of minus one to minus five millimeters of mercury.

However, such an effect if sustained over time could translate into reduced blood pressure in adults, as well as reduced prevalence of hypertension.

Furthermore, if a reduced sodium intake blunts the age related rise in blood pressure in children, then the effects of sodium reduction will be greater than projected for these studies. It must be acknowledged, however, that most of the studies had methodological limitations, small sample size, and consequently inadequate statistical power, brief duration, typically less than a month, and inadequate or uncertain

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contrast in sodium intake.
So, in summary, our draft conclusion is that a lower sodium intake appears to reduce blood pressure in children from birth to 18 years, with a Grade 2, and implications among children adolescents a lower sodium intake likely has beneficial effects on blood pressure, and a reduced blood pressure early in life should translate in to health benefits later in life, delaying and potentially preventing the consequences of chronically elevated blood pressure.

I'd be happy to take any questions.

MEMBER APPEL: This is Larry Appel.

Can we take the questions at the end? Because there's a lot of material that's all related to sodium, and there's also some contextual material that I think is relevant and might obviate some questions.

Okay. So this is Larry Appel
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again.
The second question that we addressed in detail was what is the effect of sodium intake on blood pressure in adults, and it's important to point out that we do have a substantial evidence base, not only there is actually I think it's 2005 Institute of Medicine report, but also there have been, you know, authoritative bodies in meta-analyses on this topic, over 50 trials with sodium reduction on blood pressure; ten dose response trials; and three trials in sodium reduction as a means to prevent hypertension.

Chris mentioned methodologic limitations. You also have these with this group of studies to particularly the trials, and one thing that wasn't mentioned and I'll deal with is the measurement of blood pressure which was often suboptimal in a lot of studies.

And because there is so much within person variability, you have to have a

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lot of measurements, high quality measurements in order to detect change. So that was also an issue with the children's study.

So anyway, Christine's search went back 30 years. We just went back to June 2004. The question at hand was the relationship of taking blood pressure in adults. We focused on healthy adults. Those with chronic disease risk, those with diagnosed or highly prevalent conditions, 19 years of age or older, peer reviewed U.S. English language.

This field, you know, we're not going to use cross-sectional data because we have enough experimental studies. So it was just clinical trials or prospective cohort studies, systematic reviews or meta-analyses, and we have to have at least ten in each study and less than 20 percent dropout.

So there were even after the report or after 2004 there were 13 studies, 12 clinical trials. Actually we call them

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clinical trials, but nine of them were randomized clinical trials. Two had tested different levels of sodium intake, but the order was fixed, but not randomized, and then one observational study, the previous trial, and one systematic review.

I want to point out that this is fairly settled science. So the reason that these studies were done was often for another reason, like you know, what is the effect of sodium on proteinuria or the effect of sodium on, let's say, pulse wave velocity, some other biovariable.

And, by the way, they also presented blood pressure because that's really you want to get funded to do something for which there's overwhelming evidence.

So of the 13 studies, nine were rated with a positive quality; four were neutral. Sample size ranged from 12 to 2,400. The latter was a genetic study, and the populations were actually often meant to be

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demographically heterogeneous. For example, a trial in Great Britain included blacks, whites, and Asian hypertensives, and the studies were created or done throughout the world. In fact, some of these were done as sort of effectiveness types of studies. So they're not really the optimum studies for saying is sodium related to blood pressure, but is this intervention feasible and does it get a result if implemented in Africa. So it was that kind of study.

So of the 12 clinical trials, nine reported a statistically significant decrease in systolic blood pressure on a lower sodium intervention. Six reported a statistically significant decrease in diastolic blood pressure, and there was a systematic review from the 34 trials and documented statistically significant reductions of both systolic and diastolic blood pressure on the lower sodium interventions.

So in aggregate, these studies
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reinforce the previous consultation from the dietary guidelines that a lower sodium intake reduces blood pressure.

So our draft 2010 conclusion is the relationship between salt, sodium chloride intake and blood pressure is to direct and progress without an apparent threshold. That's Grade 1.

And these are the implications, and I'm assuming that we're going to follow this strategy of conclusions followed by implications. So I'll just go over these one by one.

Individuals should reduce their salt intake as much as possible. A daily sodium intake of less than 2,300 milligrams has been recommended for the general adult population, and an intake of 1,500 milligrams for hypertensive individuals, blacks, and middle and older aged adults.

Because the latter groups together comprise 69 percent of U.S. adults, the goal

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should be 1,500 milligrams. The 69 percent figure was recently published in MMWR and is based on an NHANES analysis.

The third point, very important, nonetheless given the current food supply, it will be difficult to achieve a mean intake of 2,300 milligrams, much less a lower goal of 1,500 milligrams. For this reason, the goal should be incrementally reduced from 2,300 to 1,500 milligrams per day.

I think that actually reflects a lot of the discussion in 2005, you know, the big feasibility issues that have to be dealt with. This is not an immediate fix, it can't be done easily or immediately.

And then individuals, finally, should concurrently increase their consumption of potassium rich foods because a diet rich in potassium blunts the effects of sodium on blood pressure.

I prefer to go through all of these and then circle back. I know that NEAL R. GROSS
there's going to be discussion. So we actually have spent a lot of time on the contextual issues because the central question of sodium and blood pressure is basically settled science.

So the first is other recommendations, then current sodium intake levels, projected health benefits, whether or not to calorie adjust recommendation, review the public comments, salt sensitivity as a concept because it comes up repeatedly, other dietary factors that reduce blood pressure, food sources of sodium, and adverse trends in the food supply.

So in 2005, the U.S. dietary guidelines recommended 2,300 milligrams as the upper limit for the general population and 1,500 for hypertensive blacks and adults. International groups, actually they're really numerous and pretty consistent in terms of recommending sodium reduction, even though the specific number varied.

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So world health organization, less than 2,000. Recently Canada recommended 1,000 milligrams for children one to three and for adults 1,500 milligrams.

Now, these are actually data that I compiled into a figure that display average sodium intake in males and females by age, and if you look at the left, and those are children age two and three, they're already close to the adult upper limit of 2,300.

I didn't put down the recommended limits for children, but they're below 2,300, and as you get older, your consumption of sodium increases and then strikingly increases in adolescents and stays high in middle age and then goes down. And of course, it's higher in men than in women, and in large part that reflects a calorie issue, okay, and this is an important issue, and we'll circle back on that because it gets at an issue. We have an absolute level that we're recommending, but the realities of how we eat, you know, we eat

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more calories so that we can get more sodium. So what should we do.

Okay, and by the way, the source of these data and some other data I'm going to show is some analysts from NCI that were very helpful in documenting both the amount and food sources of sodium.

So there actually have been a lot of studies, some quite recent including this one that have estimated the benefits of reducing sodium from current levels. So this was a study by Palar's American Journal of Health promotion published just two months ago, and it just projected what would happen if you decreased sodium from the current levels down to the upper limit of 2,300 and down to 1,500. So you can see the changes in blood pressure, the percent of adults who are hypertensive, reduction in hypertension, direct health care costs saved and annual quality of life saved, as well. So these are benefits that are substantial.

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And actually it's interesting. There are more of these that are coming out, you know, that are reaching, you know, roughly the same conclusion. Often different sets of outcomes, but there are health and economic benefits.

This was actually an analysis, I think from Eric's group where there were the effects of various things that we're actually considering on mortality modifiable life style or modified risk factor and lifestyle habits. Smoking is still at the top, right, you know, and this is the estimated number of deaths that could be averted if you just brought everybody down to sort of an optimal condition. So the top one is smoking, going from smoking to no smoking in the whole population. So it has been estimated around 450,000.

So the next one is high blood pressure, and that is basically treatment of high blood pressure and getting everybody down

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to recommended levels, and the obesity, physical activity, glucose, cholesterol and salt, 102,000 deaths prevented. If you got down -- I think the level of use was 2,300, not the 1,500.

So other issues. Should recommendations for sodium and potassium be calorie adjusted? And we had a very -- we brought this up at the last meeting, but then we also had a conference call with Shiriki Kumanyika, Cheryl Anderson and Nancy Cook to discuss this issue, the scientific rationale, if there is one.

And the reason it's calorie adjusted is that, as I said, absolute intakes of sodium as well as potassium are inextricably linked to calorie intake. The higher the calorie intake the higher the sodium and potassium.

In real life we adjust by calories. You know, you eat at a table. You eat more, you know, if you're an athlete like

Mim and you run a lot. You probably are consuming 3,000 calories. You're going to get more of a salt load and, you know, a slug like Eric who sits around.
(Laughter.)
MEMBER APPEL: -- you know, basically just shows up and drinks alcohol. You can subtract that from the minutes. We're friends. We're friends. I can say that.

But in real life, you know, when you do clinical trials actually, we actually adjust. So even in the DASH sodium trial that had lower intermediate and higher levels of sodium, those levels differed by the amount of calories you consumed. Okay? So I'll show you that in a second.

So the reasons just really deal with practical reasons, but there is no biologic reason. If you need very little salt, you know, you don't adjust upward something where you're already in excess of that limit. So it's a conflict between the

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science which would say you don't need to adjust, but the practical reality which is that you do adjust, you know, and it would be almost impossible to think of a way to separate people would have to be eating different food at the same table, and it just doesn't make sense.

So anyway, this is what we did in one of our clinical trials. There's a sodium trial, and this shows you the issue. So if somebody was consuming 1,600 Kcals to maintain their weight, our lowest level of sodium that we provided was 40, but if you're consuming 3,100 Kcals, that's the lowest row. The intake would be 70.

So okay. So we also considered public comments. We got a stack of comments. Still going through those. So you get recommendations from both sides saying we should be more restrictive, should be less restrictive. So others recommended a very general population guideline, adding guideline

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for children, updating our methodology similar to what we're doing now; consider savings and linking it to clinical outcomes.

Others suggested or concomitantly recommended focus on dietary patterns rather than sodium intake, proving diet quality is the primary strategy for blood pressure, and recommending more emphasis on potassium.

There are just a lot of comments, and we are reading those and considering those, and actually they provide some useful references as well.

So salt sensitivity is a concept that we constantly hear about, and I think this is also relevant to other groups, particularly the lipids group where it basically is inter-individual variability, inter-individual variability and responsiveness. And this is very common for biological variables.

The problem with sodium is that there's huge inter-individual variability with NEAL R. GROSS
blood pressure, just a measurement itself, well, both a measurement and biologic variability that makes it very difficult to label any individual as saltensive.

It's very interesting as a biologic concept, but it's not really relevant as a public health concept, given the massive scope of the epidemic. So there are these factors that are associated with salts sensitivity and led to the lower level being recommended of 1,500 milligrams for many people in these groups, African Americans, middle and older age individuals, and individuals with hypertension, but they're also modifiable.

And we acknowledge this. You know, people have said that, well, you know, you should be really emphasizing a high quality diet or a diet high in potassium, but you know, we actually are recommending both. It's not either/or, and the reality is that most people, you know, make partial changes,

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not go full force, don't meet necessarily just one recommendation.

So in terms of some groups there is convincing evidence African Americans have a greater blood pressure reduction compared to non-African Americans, but both groups do achieve benefit, and these are data from the DASH sodium trial.

So as I mentioned, it is possible to identify groups that have greater response to sodium reduction, but there's tremendous variability within group, and it is impossible to identify salt sensitive individuals, and it's really irrelevant as a public health concept, given the vast scope of the blood pressure and cardiovascular disease epidemics.

I'm not going to go over these slides. I want to make sure we have enough discussion. There are other dietary therapies that have been recommended to reduce blood pressure: weight loss, increased potassium intake, dietary patterns, and alcohol.

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And the bottom line is that you get benefits. This is a combination of a good diet and sodium reduction, and you get better effects if you combine both, you know, and likely if you recommended an individual to improve their diet and reduce their sodium, they would go part way down both rather than meeting just one or the other. So what we're doing with dietary guidelines, I think, is right, which is to recommend as many of the things that we think are beneficial.

So sodium sources. We have a big problem in that our food supply is replete. We did do some research and the NCI people did a lot of analyses to identify sources and identify 12 food groups that each supply over 100 milligrams on average per day per person to the diet and that collectively provide about 56 percent. So it's not surprising that these are yeast breads, chicken and chicken mixed dishes, pizza, pasta and pasta dishes, cold cuts, condiments, Mexican mixed dishes,
sausage, franks, bacon, cheese, desserts, grain based desserts, soups and beef and beef dishes.

Now, I'll end with adverse trends in the food supply. There are many manufacturers that are already reducing their sodium, and in fact, there have been -- I won't mention companies -- there have been several that have been very prominent in we're going to reduce our sodium by 20 percent.

The problem is that it's not occurring uniformly in all of those groups, and further, there are certain categories of foods where we think that there's a problem, and it's really below the surface, and the public isn't aware of it. We're not even sure nutritionists are even aware of it.

And so we have no systematic way of understanding this. This is trying to define and identify issues. The two areas that we did find were that transition foods in infants, and these are just some examples of
foods. I didn't label the food explicitly, but it's the potato-cheese product that's used as infants through a transition period to solid foods, provides 100 calories, 310 milligrams of sodium. So sodium density is like 2.8, which in most foods even for adults are around two or a little bit less.

In a pasta dish that provided 630 milligrams, and then in a meat pasta dish that provided 992, and these are fed to children.

The other area that is of concern are what we call sodium augmented meats, or the other term is "enhanced meats," and this is something that I think many people are aware of individually, is that you go to the supermarket and the products are injected with sodium solutions.

In pork, the ARS has estimated that about 45 percent of raw pork products were augmented with sodium products. This is before they're cooked, and we have a similar problem with chicken, and it seems to be

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different, interestingly, by types of stores, where you get less of this occurring in traditional stores but more of it occurring in sort of the large clubs or big box type stores.

We don't have great data on this. We have some data on pork, some on children from the manufacturers, but it's even not in the databases from what we understand, which is a big problem. And this points out the problems with NHANES is that, you know, unless you have an up to date database, you know, you could be missing something big like this. So what I presented earlier may not include this.

And these are just examples of what's going on. So for chicken, pork, turkey breast, going from natural to augmented, we get huge increases in sodium in products that people had, you know, thought that were, you know, basically sodium free or minimal sodium.

So there is modeling that we're going to do to help us with our deliberations.

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I'm not going to go into a lot of detail on this. So the current models are based on the most nutrient dense versions, most of which are low in sodium, but you can think of that as sort of intermediate. You could have, as we said yesterday, sort of your typical food choices, which are going to be higher, and then your best available, which is to replace some of those with foods that are lower in sodium.

So our next steps are dietary patterns in blood pressure in children, adults, potassium, sodium-potassium interaction, and food modeling, and I think that's it.

CHAIRPERSON VAN HORN: Well, thank you, Larry. That was outstanding and certainly a lot of information, and I'm sure that the committee will want to discuss many of those issues.

I would like to just jump in by saying that I'm especially excited to see the

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new data being presented on children, and especially birth to 18. This will be a new feature of this particular set of guidelines. For the first time it will be talking about children at that age group.

We recognize that in the past there haven't been data available for that age group, and now that there are and hopefully will continue to be, I think it's especially important in light of primary prevention that we consider looking at children and diets of children. I think some of the comments that you just made about transition foods aimed at toddlers, for example, that are as high as 900 milligrams per serving at that age group is very disturbing, and it's something that I think we are going to need to address and hopefully partner with the food industry in recognizing that, as I was just reminded, that generally people, including children, are eating well above the 2,300 milligrams of sodium that has been recommended.

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So the idea of ratcheting down over time seems like a perfectly achievable goal and something that $I$ think we as a country really need to embrace and work on for everyone's health and benefit.

So with that, I guess I would just like to open. Xavier, why don't you go?

MEMBER PI-SUNYER: Yes. I have two comments for Christine.

In your draft conclusion, you end up by saying among children and adolescents a lower sodium intake likely has beneficial effects on blood pressure. Do you think you need the "likely"?

MEMBER WILLIAMS: No, I think we could take that out.
(Laughter.)
MEMBER WILLIAMS: I think the evidence was fairly consistent and moderately strong.

MEMBER PI-SUNYER: And the other comment I have is do you think that it would

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be good there to take the opportunity -- I know Larry mentions it later -- to talk about the calorie effect? I mean the fact that these children, so many children in the U.S. are overweight to begin with and obese, and if they cut back calories, they'll also cut back sodium, and put something to that effect in the childhood part of this.

MEMBER WILLIAMS: Well, I think there's no doubt that a part of the increase in blood pressure is due to the obesity epidemic, but $I$ think that a combination of those interventions would be appropriate and achieve even a greater effect in blood pressure lowering and reducing the increase over time.

MEMBER PEARSON: This is Tom Pearson.

Larry, we talked about this in the group, and I wanted to raise this calorie adjustment issue, and just speaking for the fatty acid and cholesterol group, it's an

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issue for us as well, and $I$ just wonder how many other subcommittees it's an issue.

And $I$ don't know if this is a venue to do that or a broader one, but obviously we've been kind of schizophrenic with percent of calories from one nutrient or whatever, and then in the cholesterol area, so many milligrams per day. So we have the same issue, and the data are always totally uninterpretable because of the base amount of caloric intake varies.

So as I'll show you later, the men are above the goal and women are below the goal, and it totally has to do with the amount of calories taken in. So $I$ think going forward as a way we can all speak the same language, $I$ very much liked your Kcal level, you know, the kind of model diets.

You know, this is not rocket science where you have to get down to the hundredths decimal point, but it's something that people could really use and say, "There's

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my goal." Because I think we really have some communication issues here, and we clearly haven't been delivering the goods in the past.

MEMBER APPEL: Two points. One, I think this is a huge issue, and it doesn't really get adequately addressed probably in the supported Institute of Medicine groups that decide on these recommendations, and I think if there were a panel on this, I think it would be really important to try and get some unifying approach where possible because I think there is also biology that helps drive it or not.

The second point is what do we do now, you know, and I personally don't think we should tinker with the recommendations. That was actually the recommendation of the expert group that met with us, but we can do things to make it a bit more practical, which would be as we develop the menus based on calorie level to actually use adjusted values so that you can put this as a footnote, and it just

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acknowledges the practical reality.
I'm sure there are going to be several methodological issues into the adjustment, but you might sort of reference the 2000 as meeting your goals and then do some adjustments as you go down and go up, just as a practical issue because otherwise you'll never be able to reach a sodium guideline if you're in the mid-3,500, and if you're an older age woman, you'll never be able to meet the potassium guidelines at an intake of 1,400 calories.

I mean, we're just setting ourselves up for what $I$ think is apparent failure at both ends. I think Trish and others have to really sort of think through this and maybe come back to the table with an approach to this issue.

MEMBER SLAVIN: I want to talk a little bit about the fiber because it's in the same category, that it really does go with calorie intake, but it kind of goes the
opposite way. Like for sodium, if people eat less, sodium goes down, which is a positive, but for fiber when people eat less, fiber goes down. So it's very much linked to calorie intake. So as we tell people to eat less, you know, it's another example of it being linked to calorie intake.

## MEMBER NELSON: This is Mim

Nelson.
I'm wondering, Larry and Christine, also more just a nod to physical activity. I know that we have that. We're going to be talking about that in a moment, and we did that. You know, we've done it with the physical activity guidelines, but I think that I know you're talking about dietary, you know, concerns here, but there may be a place to dot in, you know, if you couple it with physical activity. It's going to be nothing major. It's just sort of a nod to physical activity. A little bit, I think, would be helpful because it's also around energy

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balance and the independent effects on blood pressure.

MEMBER APPEL: Yes. You know, we do take a very holistic approach to blood pressure. You know, sodium is important, but beyond that, you know, other aspects of diet. Physical activity is clearly, you know, important, but actually the data on that -and I know that's not the committee's responsibility -- some people have questioned, you know, the physical activity data.

I personally am a little bit agnostic. I don't know the data as well, but we can -- part of the problem though, let me just say, I think a lot of our recommendations are driven by blood pressure. You know, it's a very important biological variable, and drives a lot, but in the report it's sort of funny because it's very nutrient based, and almost -- I'm not quite sure -- maybe at the front end when we deal with sort of like our conditions, you know, osteoporosis, cancer,

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cardiovascular disease, elevated blood pressure, we present, you know, that's the way we might cover it.

CHAIRPERSON VAN HORN: I think we'd like to hear from the slug. Here's your chance.
(Laughter.)
MEMBER RIMM: I hate to say this is Eric Rimm.

Despite the nasty comment that Larry made about me, $I$ wanted to start off by first congratulating USDA and HHS for picking like three of the world's experts in this area because I think you really have done an awesome job in covering this field, and I think we should be screaming this from the rooftops. I think what Christine has shown us is Grade 1 evidence and not Grade 2 evidence, and if it really does change millimeters of mercury in children that translate into millimeters of mercury in adults, which translates to threefold higher risk of stroke,

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we actually have a lot to say here.
And I think that sort of giving an out to industry saying we know how hard it is to get average intakes from 2,300 down to 1,500 is also giving an out because I think it can be done. I mean, for ten years we've said we couldn't take trans out of the food supply, and as soon as they put trans on the food label, two years later 50 percent of the trans was gone.

So I think it can be done, and I think targeting children where they haven't already developed the taste for sodium is probably the best place to start. I mean, I don't know how much you can cover that evidence, but that is sort of some of the few papers that $I$ have read that, you know, kids don't have a taste for sodium until it's introduced to them continually that they develop the taste for sodium over time.

So you know, I was very impressed with the presentation that you both made. You

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know, this is an opportunity for us to stand up with the dietary guidelines saying this is one of our points. It may not be related to obesity, but it really is driving blood pressure and stroke risk from the slug.

CHAIRPERSON VAN HORN: Well put.
And I just have to pile on that one because I'm intimately familiar with the data related not only to little children but even high school children in as little as three weeks, three weeks can adjust their taste preference down to a lower level, to the point where the food they were eating prior they can no longer tolerate because they've adjusted already in that short amount of time. So there is definitely a learning.

MEMBER RIMM: Yes. I don't think we need salt as much anymore for preservation of food. I mean, clearly there was historical reason to add salt, but we have now developed refrigeration. So it's not as much of an issue for a lot of foods. I don't know

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necessarily why this salt is injected into the pork or into the chicken. Some of it may be for processing purposes, and some of it just because we have developed taste. Yeah, hydration, right.

So there's lots of reasons why it may need to be there, but obviously not all chicken and all pork is injected with that much sodium. So I'm not an expert in this issue. Raj may know a lot more about it, but it seems to me this is an opportunity to push industry to say we should make a difference now because, you know, if our guidelines impact food nutrition programs in school lunch programs, this could be a great time where we start changing what is given to children in the food supply.

MEMBER APPEL: I think that you covered a lot of issues there, and some of them are actually going to be covered by the Institute of Medicine committee on strategies to reduce sodium, and they're going to deal
with, you know, some of like the sodium or the taste issues and other things.

I was just losing my train of thought. There was one point. I do think though that --

PARTICIPANT: To just say, Larry, just because the IOM is doing it why can't we do it.

MEMBER APPEL: IOM in terms of -and we can. I mean, one of the things that's hard about this, and it's not hard. I mean, we don't have that many questions, but what we're doing is we're going beyond the questions to deal with what I consider a lot of the contextual important issues related to accomplishing it. So that's why we, you know, covered all of these issues like adjustment and that sort of thing.

So we're going to probably have to cover, you know -- we will cover taste as a topic even though it probably won't be done like an NEL.

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I do think though that we have -and I don't know what the process would be, you know. One of the implications is a graduated reduction in salts or sodium. The process is not clear for me. I presume that that's not our charge. That's the charge of other groups to develop that gradual approach.

CHAIRPERSON VAN HORN: Well, what I would say -- this is Linda Van Horn -- the fact of the matter is I think everything that we raise as a concern will be identified as something that other groups will take forward, but I definitely think as you were pointing out earlier, one of the issues clearly is labeling of these products.

I mean, as we've just said, one of the things that's a problem is we don't really even know how much sodium is injected into some of these products because of the processing that occurs after the fact. We were hearing yesterday about fish, for example, that's getting sprayed with some sort NEAL R. GROSS
of sodium content, brine of some kind on the boat before it actually gets even processed locally.

So, you know, these kinds of behaviors and approaches need to be estimated and documented and recognized so that at least we have some ability to monitor and address, you know, where we can begin to look for ways to reduce that much sodium.

Roger.
MEMBER CLEMENS: This is Rog, sitting next to the slug.
(Laughter.)
MEMBER CLEMENS: Too much salt over there.

I appreciate your remark on the pork and the poultry. Actually if you look at the USDA regulations, they are now permitted and actually required to inject various sodium compounds to preserve, your point, Eric, one, to prevent CBOT development and, two, to reduce the likelihood of dehydration through

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the food chain process.
And to your other comment as well, if you look at something that's fresh with minimal chain distribution, you're not required; you're actually prohibited from injecting.

So if we look at the food chain to your comment about big box stores, so if you have something in the distribution for more than two weeks, you have to do something for food safety purposes, and sodium chloride works better than anything else.

So you look at cheese, you look at poultry, you look at pork. It's required by law to use brine. So maybe one of the challenges, do we have a substitute to brine?

MEMBER FUKAGAWA: This is Naomi Fukagawa.

Along the lines of what Linda was saying, I do think the other part of it, the other arm is obviously educating the public because I think if they know how to read the

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labels and potentially there are ways to prepare foods that allow you to remove some of the brine.

I mean, many years ago you salted foods, but you also removed the sodium prior to cooking, and so you know, hand in hand would be that education.

MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: This is Rafael.

And I would say that the labeling issue should be extended to restaurant menus as well with the amount of eating out that we do. It's very difficult to keep track of our sodium if we don't have that information in the restaurants as well.

CHAIRPERSON VAN HORN: You know, I really believe in American ingenuity, and I think that there's an awful lot that can be done in this country. We've seen so many innovations that have gone on. This challenge has been put out there for the last 20 years. I think it's really time, you know, to step up

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to this goal and really partner with industry, the food industry in particular, and look for ways that this can be addressed gradually over time so that we can finally reduce this exceedingly high level of sodium.

The one thing that hasn't been mentioned yet that we discussed yesterday in this subcommittee is the fact that many of our dietary recommendations are actually made as a consequence of our high sodium intake.

For example, the higher potassium needs are likely because we have such a high sodium need. This may be true of the higher calcium and potassium and other recommendations that we're making only to compensate for our very high sodium intake.

So I think as we discuss the recommendations overall, the lower sodium intake coupled with more fruits and vegetables and the good products that provide the potassium and fiber and other issues that are under or nutrients that are under consumed,

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you know, begins to build the picture as far as what the food choices should be.

And, again, beginning as early as childhood seems like it has to really be emphasized in order to be effective.

Other comments? Roger.
MEMBER CLEMENS: I have a question. This is Rog. Do you have any data on chloride intake? Did you address that particular issue?

The reason $I$ bring it up, Larry, is that in the '70s, you may recall there was a movement to reduce sodium because of a hypertension story. You probably remember that, too, as well, Linda, and what happened there is some members of industry pushed down the sodium and pushed down the chloride, and then we had some issues on the pediatric population. You may recall that, Chris.

So do we see that as a potential risk or do we have some way to morph with people so we can maintain an adequate chloride

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issue or do you see that's not an issue right now as you look at the data?

MEMBER APPEL: Yeah, I think we should investigate it. I mean, that was a pathological approach, you know, just total removal of chloride from $I$ think it was infant formula.

MEMBER CLEMENS: It was an infant formula where the regulations were permitted. MEMBER APPEL: So that was an experiment. That's like removing --

MEMBER CLEMENS: And now there are regulations for minimum chloride and a minimum amount of sodium

MEMBER APPEL: I think, you know, this might be one where you just sort of rely on ecologic data, you know. You have these, you know, tribes in South America, the Yanomami Indians, you know. There's no problem with infants having hypochloric or problems related to inadequate chloride intake.

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But you know, we'll take a look at it.

MEMBER RIMM: This is Eric Rimm again.

I mean, I just wanted to reiterate the strength of the data. I think the reason I started out with my comments is because I was insanely jealous that you had so many clinical trials where they had looked at something. I mean, going back and looking at the published paper from 2006 or to look at the impact of sodium and blood pressure in kids, you know, there's one or two which look like poor quality studies because the confidence intervals are very large, and the rest of them it's incredibly consistent.

So I agree with Xav that taking the "may" out of it is clear, and also that, you know, this is as strong of evidence as we've seen around the table for anything we've looked at.

MEMBER CLEMENS: Part of the
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problem, you know, with all of this is sort of you just line things up and you count how many are on the line, but there's one study that is actually really interesting. It's the exit or end of her study where it was a silent shift, you know. A school was assigned to low sodium, another one to high sodium. No problem with palatability, acceptability, and the intervention was over months, you know. So it wasn't just $a$ one week or one month intervention, and blood pressure levels were lower at the end of the day, and it was a crossover design as well on the periods in which they were low sodium

So it's a real life type of study, but it gets buried, you know, in the forest leaf diagram.

CHAIRPERSON VAN HORN: Rob.
DR. POST: Yeah, hi. This is Rob Post.

I wanted to just mention, since you've talked about a gradual reduction, to NEAL R. GROSS
acknowledge that there is an IOM report that was released in October, October 20th or so, that does, in fact, talk to school meals or reflect on Building Blocks for Healthy Children in the school meals program, and there is a gradual reduction that is suggested for sodium looking at two-year increments and, of course, eventually getting to a reduction wholly by 2020.

MEMBER NELSON: Just quick comment. I really also think we should be screaming this because it's so important, but also I know I've sort of brought this up before, but again, this sort of strengthens the issue of the shorter the supply chain also probably the lower the sodium as well as other issues, and I think that, you know, thinking about agricultural policies and production really probably could really matter here, more whole foods, less processed, shorter supply chain, everything else. It all helps to improve the diet.

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CHAIRPERSON VAN HORN: The other thing that I think, you know, just needs to be noted is, you know, Eric was mentioning the quality of the data which are impressive, but we're also fortunate as a committee that we have Larry Appel who has lived through all of the three DASH feeding trials, which, of course, established the efficacy of blood pressure lowering with lower sodium, but then also the free living trial, the premiere study, where it was clear that people even left to their own with proper education and counseling and intervention were able to make those adjustments and achieve the same kinds of results or certainly beneficial results, even those who were normotensive.

So there's benefit across the population here that is not only efficacious, but also achievable. So I think anything we can do as a country to support that movement really needs to be embraced. Christine.

MEMBER WILLIAMS: I want to mention one thing, is that -- Christine Williams -- that one of the advantages of doing the pediatric review was going back to the 1970 s because a lot of the strong studies were done in the '80s and '90s, and being able to put that all together was quite an advantage.

CHAIRPERSON VAN HORN: Absolutely. All right. Well, that was an incredibly meaty -- I guess I shouldn't say that word. We talked about that yesterday -rich discussion, yes, salty discussion.
(Laughter.)
CHAIRPERSON VAN HORN: Oh, all right. Well, now it's time to change gears, and we'll hear from Dr. Pi-Sunyer and his group on energy balance and weight management, which we'll also have lots to discuss, I'm sure.

MEMBER PI-SUNYER: Thank you, Linda.

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So this is the membership of our subcommittee: myself, Rafael Perez-Escamilla, Miriam Nelson, Joanne Slavin, Christine Williams, and Linda Van Horn.

And I'd also like to thank the staff for helping us so much in every way to be successful in doing these reviews.

The topics that we're going to address today are four. Rafael will start with talking about energy density, and then Christine will move to childhood overweight. Rafael will come back and do gestational weight gain, and then finally Mim will do physical activity.

So we'll begin with Rafael and energy density.

MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: Thank you, Xavier.

The questions that I'm going to be addressing are to what extent is dietary energy density associated with body weight, and to what extent is dietary energy density

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associated with highly prevalent chronic diseases, including Type 2 diabetes, cardiovascular disease, and cancer.

Food energy density is defined as the amount of energy in a particular weight of food and is usually expressed as kilocalories per gram. Dietary energy density is estimated by dividing the total amount of food consumption by the corresponding amount of calories.

Our search strategy included peer reviewed research articles published between June 2004 and the present, and we concentrated on adults, and we looked at body weight and BMI as well as a number of chronic disease outcomes or the risk factors associated with these chronic diseases.

With regards to the first question, to what extent is dietary energy density associated with body weight, our conclusion, preliminary conclusion, is that low energy density diets improve body weight
outcomes among male and female adults, and it is important to clarify that this is based on studies that have estimated energy density based only on foods, that is, excluding caloric and non-caloric beverages.

And the strength of the evidence for this conclusion, we consider it to be Grade I.

Through our review, we identified 17 studies four randomized controlled trials, five prospective cohort studies, five crosssectional studies, and three literature reviews. We found a consistent positive relationship in cross-sectional and prospective studies, and the randomized controlled trials with free living adults indicated that relationship is likely to be causal.

And these are the randomized controlled trials that we identified, and the first point that $I$ want to make is that they do cover a range of body mass indices, and

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that in all four trials the weight loss during the first year of exposure to the low energy density intervention was associated or was linked with improved weight loss.

The researchers used different strategies to lower the energy density in these experimental studies, and because dietary energy density is largely driven by the water and fat content of the diet, the very common approach that is used is to increase fruits and vegetables and to lower fat intake.

In two of the studies, in the Brazilian study, for example, the participants were asked to consume three apples per day or three pears per day or were randomly assigned to consume oatmeal cookies. All the products were delivered to them, and the products were isocaloric, and they also had similar fiber content.

In the study by Rolls and coworkers, the 2005 one, they decreased energy

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density by providing participants with low energy density soups, and they were randomly assigned to one or two servings of soup per day or to an isocaloric high energy density snack, which was also provided to them. They were mostly pretzels or different types of chips.

And as I mentioned during the first year, all four trials found the relationship or a causal relationship between lowering energy density and improved weight loss outcomes, and all the trials concentrated on obese and overweight adults.

The study by Saquib and coworkers, however, found at four years of follow-up these differences were no longer statistically significant.

So to summarize the randomized controlled trials, all of them found an impact of low energy density on weight loss within the first year, but one randomized controlled trial did not find significant differences at

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four years of follow-up.
With regards to the prospective cohort studies, we can see that some of them included up to six, eight years of follow-up. They used different dietary intake assessment methods ranging from 24 -hour recalls, food frequency questionnaires, and food records. These are the studies that did cover quite a range of BMIs among participants.

The first four studies listed in the slide were conducted in the U.S., and all of them estimated energy density based on foods only, that is, excluding caloric and non-caloric beverages. And all four of them found the association between low energy density diets and better weight maintenance.

The only study that did not find this relationship was that by Iqbal, was based on two adult Danish cohorts. However, it is impossible to compare the results from this study with the other four because in this study they estimated a dietary energy density

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including beverages, and that included the caloric beverages as well as water.

So in summary, four out of the five cohort studies found an association between low energy density and weight maintenance. The only cohort study that did not find this association used a different approach to estimate energy density, and it is also very important to mention that these studies consistently reported that low energy density diets were associated with higher fruit, vegetable and fiber consumption, and they were lower in animal protein and total and saturated fats, and this is totally expected as water and fat, again, are the main drivers of dietary energy density.

And the studies consistently report that low energy density was associated with higher food intake, but lower energy intake.

With regards to cross-sectional studies, all five cross-sectional studies NEAL R. GROSS
identified since 2004, they found a positive association between food based energy density and weight or related indicators. And the studies consistently reported, again, that lower energy density was associated with a dietary intake pattern characterized by a higher consumption of fruits, vegetables and fiber, and lower in total and saturated fat.

So the implications of our conclusion is that, you know, the evidence, I think, clearly indicates that a low energy density dietary pattern that is associated with beneficial body weight outcomes is characterized and needs improvement in fruit, vegetable, whole grain and fiber consumption, and a decrease in total and saturated fat consumption. are low in energy density, but the evidence can not necessarily be extrapolated to individual selection of foods based on their
energy density. Oftentimes that is the case that we are the ones to select also foods that are low in energy. There are dietary intake patterns that are low in energy density, but that includes foods relatively high in energy density, such as olive oil and nuts, or even foods that are relatively low in energy density, less of those, such as sodas and other caloric beverages.

In terms of the future, I think there are two very key questions that we need or that someone needs to address to make further progress in this area, and the first one, the studies, again, strongly suggest that low energy density diets perhaps are having an influence on caloric intake through society regulation mechanism. So it begs for answering the question on if the society regulation is different for solids and for fluids that have the same caloric content, and I believe one of our subcommittees is going to be looking at that.

And a second question that $I$ think is very important, especially if we are going to estimate energy density based on foods only excluding beverages is to find out if low energy density diets are associated with healthier beverage intake patterns. It sounds like a simple question, but it's not because I can imagine the amount of debate that will occur in terms of defining what is a healthier beverage intake pattern.

So should I take questions now about this or should I move on?

MEMBER PI-SUNYER: Yes, Linda, I think we should take questions because they're all very different, the different presentations.

I just might start by saying that Joanne and her committee is going to deal with at least looking at the data we have so far with the difference between solid and liquid. So that will be the carbohydrate-protein subcommittee that will be doing that.

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I guess we're open for questions or comments..

MEMBER RIMM: This is Eric Rimm.
I had just two questions. In the randomized controlled trials that were weight loss trials, you said they were isocaloric. So people actually were given low energy dense diets and high energy dense diets, but they were isocaloric?

MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: No, the fruits, vegetables and oatmeal cookies, the equivalent that they provided in terms of calories that three pears or three apples or cookies was the same.

MEMBER RIMM: That was isocaloric.
MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: That was isocaloric.

MEMBER RIMM: The rest of the diet after that obviously --

MEMBER
PEREZ-ESCAMILLA:
Absolutely.
MEMBER RIMM: I thought you were
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defying laws of energy.
MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: No, no, no.

MEMBER RIMM: So, I mean, what do you think based on all of this literature; what would be the best proposed mechanism that explains this? Clearly something about this is working if you get rid of peanuts and you get rid of beverages. What is driving this do you think?

MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: Well, it seems that society, the work from Barbara Rolls' group in particular, you know, strongly supports the view that low energy density diets lead to higher total food consumption or lower energy intake. So the volume, the amount of food that is consumed --

MEMBER RIMM: Just the physical volume of it, okay.

MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: -- that would be Barbara Rolls' hypothesis.

MEMBER RIMM: So the one place NEAL R. GROSS
where I think there is slight disagreement with the fat committee is their statement that the diets are driven by low saturated fat, low total fat because most of the trial data on total fat that we didn't summarize this year, that has been summarized many times in the past and by the IOM committee suggests that overall low fat diet does not lead to weight loss.

And clearly there are ways to go about a low fat diet that lead to weight loss, but in this country low fat diets have not led to weight loss, and most of the trials don't support that.

So I would be a little concerned about having this in disagreement with the fat subcommittee.

MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: Okay. The fact, Eric, is that the energy density of the diet is largely created by the water content and the fat content. There is no, I think, argument in terms of that. The data is very,
very clear.
MEMBER RIMM: You're just describing what the diet is.

MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: I think the issue is that if it's less fat, but increased fruit and vegetables, it's not just less fat, but you know, it's the whole dietary pattern again that has to be taken into account.

So low energy density doesn't mean anything. The meaning is what is the dietary pattern that is linked with them, and are those dietary intake patterns beneficial or not.

And study after study is showing that the dietary intake pattern associated with low energy dense diets that is beneficial is carrying fruits and vegetables and lower in fat.

MEMBER RIMM: Okay. Well, that's good, and I think it's a good description of a dietary pattern.

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MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: Yeah, yeah.

## MEMBER APPEL: Larry Appel.

That was really interesting. I have a question, and it's trying to integrate yesterday's presentations with this. So we didn't see much relationship with, you know, fruit and vegetable with weight, you know, and is that because that was just too narrow, you know, and it's only dealing with sort of, you know, one piece, whereas sort of this energy density, you know, seems to cover the whole diet?

Because I think you're left with yesterday being, well, fruit and vegetables don't really matter, but then I listen to you and fruit and vegetables matter a lot, you know.

And so it seems like -- I mean, is it just that their piece was only too focused, too narrow?

MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: I think
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it goes back to Mim's point from yesterday that we really have to be careful with food group approach. It's really, really difficult to get, I think, relevant conclusions for advising the public because everything has to be placed in the context of the dietary pattern.

MEMBER APPEL: The second thing, how are you -- I mean, you know, I think this is actually an advance in the evidence since 2005 -- how are you thinking of the translation piece because we've had problems with you're basically talking about a ratio, you know, and that's not easy to translate. So are you still thinking about even though we can't do the evidence based on food groups to still go back to food groups, or how are you thinking about this or how have people done this?

## MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: Well, as

far as $I$ know energy density of diets has not been specifically included in a logo or a food

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label symbol for people to select them based on energy, energy density, and I don't think that would be the right approach.

I think at the end of the day the recommendation needs to be based on the pattern, on the dietary pattern and not on the energy density of individual foods.

CHAIRPERSON VAN HORN: I think the other thing that we can intertwine into this discussion is the wonderful presentation we heard a couple of meetings back from Frank Sacks in terms of his excellent comparison of, you know, shifting the energy composition from fat to, you know carbohydrate to protein, et cetera, and as we all remember, you know, the take home message from that was it doesn't matter. Pick one, you know. It's all about calories. It's about the idea that if you're trying to lose weight, it's a matter of recognizing that the adherence to the dietary pattern that is your preference is perhaps one of the better ones.

I think Barbara Rolls' work sort of suggests that, that if you are satisfied with a diet that is high in volume, then, you know, there's no question that a low energy dense diet is going to include more fruits, vegetables and lower calorie foods in order to give you the satiety that a high fiber, you know, type of diet would give you, as opposed to some who might prefer the concentrated sources of fat, but also controlling the total number of calories.

So I think that where we're going in terms of the research based on Frank's study, which was, I think, in many people's estimation a fairly conclusive documentation of that very principle, and I would point out that he also showed us two-year follow-up data if you recall with minimal ongoing intervention and yet continued adherence to these dietary patterns.

So I think that the whole issue that we need to address here is both the

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message up front, the adherence established, and then the ongoing reinforcement of that message to sustain and maintain that type of dietary intake.

MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: I totally agree, and I think the words "sustain" and "maintain" is very key because I think in terms of where the research needs to go is also in the type of dietary patterns that people can really maintain for the long term because that's another key question.

MEMBER PI-SUNYER: Okay. I think we need to go on because we've got three more to do. Our next topic is childhood overweight, and Dr. Christine Williams will present that.

MEMBER WILLIAMS: Thank you, Xav.
I'll be presenting several questions related to childhood overweight and obesity this morning.

MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: I'm sorry. I thought I got off. Okay. Thank

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you.
Very good. So now I'm going to talk about -- here we go. So now the question is to what extent is dietary energy density associated with Type 2 diabetes, and in this instance the evidence is just starting to emerge. We were only able to identify three studies. So that's why it's Grade III at this point.

However, in agreement with the association between energy density and body weight, the few available studies find the consistent association between energy density and risk for Type 2 diabetes or its risk factors. The implication is that promoting lower energy density dietary intakes may be associated with lower risk of Type 2 diabetes, although the results obviously need further confirmation.

And the studies that we identified were two European cohort studies. The one conducted in the U.K. included a ten-year

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follow-up, the one in Finland a three-year follow-up, and the one from Finland is derived from a randomized diabetes prevention trial, but they pooled the groups for this analysis. And in both studies they ascertained a Type 2 diabetes either through biochemical blood measures or through clinical files, and the findings from the cohort studies were confirmed in the U.S. by Jason Mendoza and colleagues who analyzed NHANES data and found the relationship between higher energy density diets and higher fasting insulin levels.

All three studies adjusted for caloric intake, suggesting that there may be something about dietary composition that goes well beyond calories in terms of perhaps explaining these relationships.

The two European studies included caloric level addressed in the energy density estimation. The NHANES study did not. It excluded all beverages as most of the studies

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in the U.S. do.

With regards to cancer, to what extent the dietary energy density associated with cancer, the conclusion is that evidence for energy density and cancer is indirect and extrapolated from energy density and body weight studies, and our main source of evidence for this conclusion is the World Cancer Research Fund report, and that's why we didn't grade it, but we did not -- we were unable to identify studies examining directly the relationship between energy density and cancer.

MEMBER WILLIAMS: Thank you.
Christine Williams.
I'll be addressing several questions related to childhood overweight and obesity, and of course, these questions are fueled by the increase in childhood obesity in the U.S. over the past several decades. For children between the ages of two and 19, almost one-third are currently obese.

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The first question is the pediatric side of the energy density question. To what extent is dietary energy density associated with childhood overweight and obesity?

And then I'll move on and discuss is intake of fruit and vegetables, not including juice, related to adiposity in children, and second is intake of 100 percent fruit juice related to adiposity in children?

The definitions that we'll use for childhood overweight and obesity, for obesity BMI equal or above the age and gender specific 95th percentile on the 2000 CDC growth charts, and overweight being between the 85th and 94th percentile.

For energy density, since this was a new question we took the search back to January of 1980. We looked at studies related to children between the age of birth and 18 years of age. We included only studies that actually calculated energy density and used

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the objective measure of adiposity.
For the question to what extent is dietary energy density associated with childhood overweight and obesity, proposed conclusion is that energy dense diets increase adiposity and the risk of overweight and obesity in children with a Grade III limited evidence.

In this review we found seven studies. Five articles recorded findings from three different longitudinal cohorts and two cross-sectional studies. All of the studies were conducted outside of the U.S., published between 2004 and 2009. Five studies found a positive association between dietary energy density and adiposity.

The majority of studies that reported a positive association were methodologically strong and calculated dietary energy density by methods that excluded all or most beverages. They were also primarily longitudinal cohort studies and used objective

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measures measuring adiposity, including DEXA or doubly labeled water.

The next question is with fruits and vegetables. Is intake of fruits and vegetables, not including juice, associated with adiposity in children? Our proposed conclusion, intake of fruits and vegetables, especially fruit, is inversely associated with adiposity in children with a Grade II moderate evidence.

Our approach to this review, we combined the evidence from two independent systematic literature reviews. The American Dietetic Association's evidence analysis library review covered the dates between January 1982 and September of 2004, and then our NEL review covered this covering, with a little overlap, January 2003 through July 2009 We found a combined review of -in combination we reviewed 24 articles. Eighteen were from the earlier ADA and longer ADA review, and six from the current NEL

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review.

There was one trial, six longitudinal studies of five cohorts and 17 cross-sectional studies, two of them involving nationally representative samples of children.

In summary, ten of the studies found an inverse protective association between fruit and vegetable intake and adiposity. Twelve found no association between fruit and vegetable intake and adiposity. One found no association between usual intake, but a positive association for children with increased recent intake, and one found no association between consumption of a vegetarian diet and adiposity.

On average, U.S. children do not consume fruit and vegetables in the amounts or variety that are recommended. The mean intake of fruits for children is only about one serving a day for four to 18 year olds and one and a half servings for one to three year olds.

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Mean intake of vegetables, only about one serving a day for one to eight year old children and one and a half to 1.5 servings a day for older children, and for older children white potatoes often served as french fries or potato chips represent a significant portion of total intake, and intake of dark green and orange vegetables is very low.

So for fruits and vegetables, increasing consumption of fruits and vegetables in childhood is an important public health goal not only from the perspective of increasing the intake of shortfall nutrients, but also since diets high in a variety of fruits and vegetable tend to be lower in energy density and, therefore, likely to improve energy balance and prevent obesity.

Moving on to 100 percent fruit juice, the question is is intake of 100 percent fruit juice associated with adiposity in children. Proposed conclusion is that for
most children intake of 100 percent fruit juice is not associated with increased adiposity unless consumed in large quantities at or above 12 ounces a day.

However, intake of 100 percent fruit juice has been associated with increased adiposity in children who are overweight or obese. Thus, 100 percent fruit juice can be a healthy part of a child's diet when consumed in moderation as part of a nutrient rich energy balanced diet.

The approach to this review, again, was based on the combination of two independent systematic literature reviews, the first from the American Dietetic Association, from 1982 to September of '04, and then our subsequent NEL review from 2003 to 2009.

In combination, this resulted in 25 articles, 15 from the ADA review and ten from our subsequent NEL review. There were 12 longitudinal cohort studies and 13 crosssectional studies of which four were

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nationally representative samples of U.S. children.

Sixteen of them found no association between fruit juice and adiposity. Five found a positive association between fruit juice and adiposity. Two found differing results by gender, and two found no association in normal weight children, but a positive association for children who were at risk of overweight or overweight.

So, in summary, 100 percent fruit juice can be a healthy part of a child's diet when consumed in moderation as part of a well balanced diet. Consumption of whole fruits rather than 100 percent juice is likely to confer greater health benefits, particular increasing dietary fiber and also potassium. Since about one-third of U.S. children are currently overweight or obese, it's important though to control calorie intake and choose nutrient dense foods and beverages for daily consumption.

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I think that's it.

MEMBER PI-SUNYER: Thank you, Christine.

Any comments or questions?
MEMBER APPEL: This is Larry Appel.

In 2005 there was -- I guess it had to do with a lot of this literature. You know, you didn't have particularly crosssectional studies, but also with cohort studies, great data concurrently on physical activity as well as diet, and I'm just wondering -- and we all know that some studies have ability to stratify or adjust and do other things -- is there any study in this that sort of stands out as being really a well done study that has, you know, the ability to look at physical activity and control for it and look at an independent relationship?

Because there is, you know, a good possibility of having a null result here if you don't.

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MEMBER WILLIAMS: I think the studies from the U.K., the ALSPAC studies, three of the cohort studies were from that single cohort, and they were excellent studies. I think they did try to control for as many confounders as possible, and physical activity was one of them.

They really stand out as $I$ think the best studies of the lot.

MEMBER APPEL: And what were the results of those studies?

MEMBER WILLIAMS: They found that dietary energy density was associated with adiposity, but higher energy density.

MEMBER APPEL: I mean for --
MEMBER WILLIAMS: Oh, are you talking about fruit juice?

MEMBER APPEL: Yeah.
MEMBER WILLIAMS: For fruit juice, no, I can't say. I think of all the studies, some of them, perhaps a third to a half, tried to get some measure of physical activity, but
usually it was very rough. I can think of perhaps one that actually measured physical activity by accelerometer.

MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: Christine, one comment that I want to make based on your energy density and my energy density presentation on that, as with sodium and blood pressure and so on, this is another area where there is a remarkable consistency in terms of what we're finding with adults and with children, although with children there is still not enough -- I don't think there is any randomized trial, but it's looking also at an area where we may want to start early in life dealing with that issue.

MEMBER RIMM: This is Eric Rimm.
It was a very nice presentation. I think that the one part that worries me a little bit, and maybe you can speak to this as to the data, is it almost seems like we're setting 12 ounces of fruit juice as a target, and the fact that you're overweight, your 100

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percent fruit juice conclusions start out with saying it can be a healthy part of a diet. I can already see how that's being translated into everybody should have 12 ounces of fruit juice.

The important part that may be missed is that one-third of the kids are overweight and should probably be having a lot less, and I think your second conclusion is probably much more important than your first conclusion, is that it probably should be consumed as whole fruits rather than 100 percent juice because of the other benefits that we're all talking about.

So, you know, getting back to Larry's point, you know, are a few of these studies stronger than others in terms of where did that 12 ounces come from? Because that's the part that -- I don't know how many calories are in 12 ounces of fruit juice, the typical fruit juice, but I can imagine -MEMBER WILLIAMS: It's a big

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glass.
MEMBER RIMM: Well, it's 160. So I can imagine that's ten to 15 percent of the caloric intake for a child, and $I$ hate for that to become the target. Where did that 12 ounces come from?

MEMBER WILLIAMS: Well, there were several studies that actually looked at the amount of fruit juice, and there were at least three that showed that at or above 12 ounces, that's when you began to see more of that positive effect.

MEMBER RIMM: So the issue is, I guess, that some of that measurement error is that you can't capture the subtleties or is it something that's getting lost in physical activity? Because it just seems to defy the caloric --

MEMBER WILLIAMS: I think some of the studies were better able to measure the amount of juice, but if you look at the recommendations in various groups, the

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American Academy of Pediatrics has defined the amount of fruit juice that should be consumed at each age, and actually the new guidelines from NHLBI are even more conservative, recommending smaller amounts.

All of the guidelines from the USDA in the past have recommended whole fruits rather than 100 percent juice and emphasized that.

MEMBER RIMM: So I wonder if we should try to sort of -- not necessarily because we want to be in line with everybody else, but sort of point to the NHLBI or to others to say that, you know, that's pretty strong evidence that we should be having less than 12 ounces.

MEMBER WILLIAMS: I think originally the ADA conclusion was similar to ours, except they had said unless consumed in very large quantities, and when we discussed this earlier, we decided to put a number to that, which was what was found in several of

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those studies that was at or more than 12 ounces.
So it's a toss-up as to how you want to mention that, but it's large quantities. So there's a problem usually.

CHAIRPERSON VAN HORN: The point you're making, Eric -- this is Linda -- you know, is really a very important one. I am familiar with NHLBI recommendations, and they actually advocate no more than four ounces of 100 percent fruit juice per day for children because the caloric content can be anywhere from 150 to 300 calories a day, which for a child is just, you know, way more than should be consumed in that context.

So $I$ think that's a point that's very well taken. What the data show from, you know, studies that involved a whole bunch of different diet assessment methods also, you know, raised some questions about specifics related to the weight issue. So I think that's really important.

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MEMBER NICKOLS-RICHARDSON: And this is Shelly.

I just want to also echo that comment because $I$ think the reconciliation between the energy density work that excludes these liquids, these beverages, that there has to be some connection here. So I think that the 12 ounces is probably beyond what we really want to recommend in relation and in light of the energy density of the diets and weight relationship and the fruit and vegetable consumption in relation to dietary fiber.

MEMBER PI-SUNYER: Yes, this is Xavier.

I think the fiber issue is important and should be emphasized. So I would agree with Eric in a way that maybe you should reverse those and put fruits and vegetables, you know, as versus juice as being the first recommendation.

MEMBER NELSON: This is Mim.
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But I would reverse them, but I guess $I$ also support not having 12 ounces unless there was a really good study or a couple of studies that you felt really strongly that 12 ounces is just fine. I think a little bit like alcohol, you know, less may be better. You know, if you don't drink, it's probably more strong; that if you don't drink juice, don't start drinking juice. (Laughter.)

MEMBER NELSON: No binge juice drinkers.

But $I$ just think that less is more and more whole fruit is better, sort of that theme.

MEMBER WILLIAMS: I appreciate your comment. I think that 100 percent fruit juice though in moderation can still be a nutritious part of a child's diet. Not all juices are created equal, but there are some nutrients that are significant and provide benefits to children. So I would not want to

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recommend no juice, but $I$ think in moderation.
MEMBER PI-SUNYER: Tom.
MR. PEARSON: Chris, just trying to look back at yesterday's discussion on our nutrient adequacy and the yellow, red and leafy green ones, I'm just wondering about the recommendation obviously as to eat a variety of fruits and vegetables, but $I$ wonder if you want to be stronger than that.

I mean your statement is obviously that real deficiencies were in those two groups, and with the dominance of potato based that's kind of getting away with fruits and vegetables. I'm not sure you'd get as far as you'd like to be unless you specifically talked about the red, yellow, and leafy greens.

MEMBER WILLIAMS: I agree, and I think in the write-up of the chapter that will definitely be emphasized because I think second to potatoes comes tomatoes. So that when we include all of those together, it will

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give us a better picture of the variety of fruits and vegetables being consumed.

MEMBER ACHTERBERG: This is Cheryl.

If I could do a quick follow-up on the potato issue here, that is to come. We're going to do some more food modeling and take a look at how we might reposition that as a possibility.

MEMBER SLAVIN: This is Joanne. I just wanted to mention, too, for Christine that her question really wasn't fruits and vegetables. You know, so if you go back to her question -- right, exactly, and that's what was answered. So I think there's other things that will come along with some of the other questions that have been asked. MEMBER NELSON: But she did answer fruits and vegetables. Yeah, there were both. There were two different questions. One was just about fruits and vegetables, and one was just about fruit juice.

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MEMBER SLAVIN: Right, but I think for this last one, for the amount of fruit juice when you do the evidence based review and their amounts, I think people are going to be looking for that.

So in doing that evidence based review, you know, I think the 12 ounces, she'll have to go back and think about how that was in there, where that came from.

MEMBER PI-SUNYER: Rafael.
MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: Christine

MEMBER ACHTERBERG: This is Cheryl.

I just want to ask the committee to consider behavior and family choices in real life, too. When parents give their children juice, are they thinking of it as a serving of the fruit group or are they thinking of it as a healthier beverage than maybe soda?

So the issue I think we need to
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sort through here is really on the beverages themselves and how many ounces of beverages are we recommending, and of that what kind of beverages, and then look at the foods and what kinds of foods we want people to eat.

Because I think as nutritionists, we're sort of pulling them together because we know what the nutrient profiles look like, but in practice people have to give thirsty children something to drink, and they're making a choice that is perhaps totally independent of the way they're thinking of the rest of the diet.

MEMBER WILLIAMS: This is Christine again.

I think, well, fruit juice is considered a serving of fruit, but the question is to serve it in moderation, but again, parents do have the perception that it is a very healthy beverage, and that if some is good, more may be better, and really it's an educational issue to say that fruit juice
is good but in certain amounts and to help them understand the caloric needs of their child, which often they don't, and to keep them within a certain energy range.

MEMBER ACHTERBERG: This is Cheryl again.

I guess what I'm trying to say is we might need some kind of advice. I don't know if $I$ should call it a recommendation yet, but some kind of advice on beverages, maybe also potatoes, but on beverages per se and how to divide those rather than -- you know, as nutritionists we can slot them a fruit juice as a fruit, but as people trying to follow advice, I think we need more advice about beverages per se.

And most of the studies we're reviewing exclude fruit juices. So we have to consider that as well.

MEMBER WILLIAMS: It's Christine.
I think that's a very good point, and there has been a big shift in beverage

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consumption among children and adolescents over the past couple of decades, and I think to put more emphasis on best choices would be excellent.

MEMBER SLAVIN: I guess I just want to put in a plug for protein, too. If we're limiting calories and looking at choices, that a lot of times getting protein into the diet, fruit juice, especially 12 ounces, is a lot of carbohydrate that probably with calorie needs needing to go down doesn't fit into a lot of diets.

MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: This is Rafael.

One issue I want to bring up to recommend is I've done quite a bit of research with low income Latinos, and we have collected data among other things on fruit juice consumption, and people report as 100 percent fruit juice a lot of things that you would be very surprised, and there is a big problem in terms of labels and the huge signs that say

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100 percent Vitamin C in beverages that may contain no fruit juice at all or big signs that says contains fruit.

So I think this is an issue that we have to deal in terms of labeling practices because it is very misleading especially for low income consumers what 100 percent fruit juice is or not when they see a product.

MEMBER PI-SUNYER: We need to move on, and our next topic, we come back to Rafael and talk about weight gain, gestational weight gain.

MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: Thank
you.
Again, Xavier.
So our subcommittee is looking at the question as to how does gestational weight gain impact short and longer term pregnancy outcomes, and the source of the evidence is the IOM report, Weight Gain During Pregnancy, recently released, and it is available to the public free of charge.

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This report was called for under the leadership, under the Institute of Medicine that charged 14 committee members to recommend revisions to the existing guidelines that had previously been issued in 1990, and they wanted for the committee to take into account the needs of the specific populations based on the pre-pregnancy BMIs as well as other demographic characteristics.

And they wanted the committee to consider a range of approaches to promote appropriate weight gain during pregnancy and identify gaps in knowledge for future research.

This question is of enormous importance because American women of child bearing age are now more socioeconomically, ethnically, racially diverse. They're having more multiple, you know, twin and triplet, pregnancies, and women in the U.S. are now older than before at the age that they are getting pregnant.

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Obviously, the big issue that we have to deal with is that also two-thirds of women of reproductive age in the U.S. are either overweight or obese, and although there may be some encouraging signs that the obesity increase, the overweight increase is tapering off, it is very discouraging to see at the bottom of the slide that morbid obesity or extreme obesity, women with a BMI above 40 kilograms per meter squared has increased recently. We're now at a point where the percent of women that are morbidly obese is three times larger than the percent of women who are underweight. So this is a group we need to keep in mind.

The need for this work becomes very obvious when you see the slide that shows the distribution of gestational weight gain appropriateness, as judged by the 1990 IOM guidelines, and you can see that the percentage of women that are meeting the gestational weight gain guidelines ranges from

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50 percent underweight -- that do not meet the guideline ranges from 50 percent among underweight women to 70 percent, 73 percent among overweight, obese women, and among underweight women the biggest problem is not gaining enough weight. Among overweight, obese women the biggest problem is that they are gaining excessive amounts of weight during their pregnancy.

The guidelines that have just been released, the committee used a new approach. It's based on taking into account the inevitable tradeoffs that occur in maternal and child health outcomes as you consider different gestational weight gains.

So it commissioned for analysis to different groups, and a very inferential analysis is the one that was derived from the Danish cohort study, and in this case I want to orient you because to this slide there is a lot of data in here, and first of all I want to mention that this data applies to NEAL R. GROSS
primiparous Danish women.
Each quadrant represents a group of women based on pre-pregnancy BMI. For each graph on the $X$ axis we have the amount of gestational weight gain. So low means less than ten kilograms. Very high means above 19 kilograms.

On the $Y$ axis we have the probability of an outcome occurring adjusting for age, parity smoking and drinking status. The outcomes plotted are small for gestational age, large for gestational age, maternal postpartum weight retention, and emergency C section.

Because the outcomes that were most responsive to gestational weight gains were small for gestational age and maternal postpartum weight retention, $I$ want you to concentrate in each quadrant for the point where the two curves intersect. What you can see is that as we move from the underweight to the obese women, the point where the small for

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gestational age and the postpartum weight retention curve crosses is at lower gestational weight gain, meaning that as prepregnancy BMI goes up, the amount of gestational weight gain should be less.

In addition to these maternalchild outcomes, the committee took into account the risk of childhood obesity associated with excessive weight gain. These two pieces of evidence provided the key data for the final risk analysis that helped inform the new recommendations.

So as you can see, first of all is that the new recommendations for underweight, normal weight and overweight based on prepregnancy BMI are identical to those issued in 1990, and however, for obese women this time the committee provided a range of recommended gestational weight gain.

What did change though in these guidelines is that the classification based on pre-pregnancy BMI is now being based on the

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World Health Organization or the NHLBI criteria instead of the previous criteria used in 1990 based on the Metropolitan tables, life insurance tables.

I do want to mention that the range for the obese women is mostly, if not solely, based on Class 1 obese women because we have not enough data for morbidly obese women to come up with a more refined recommendation by the level of obesity.

Also, the committee came for the first time with recommendations for gestational weight gain, and these are provisional for mothers that deliver twins. They are provisional because they are derived from a single large study that is still ongoing in different states in the U.S.

And what we did was to look at women who delivered twins and both twins were delivered at term and both weighing over 2,500 grams. Unfortunately there were not enough women who were underweight pre-pregnancy that

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met this criteria. So we couldn't come up with a provisional recommendation for them or for the rest of categories. This is what they are.

The committee commissioned additional analysis to see if we needed to make special recommendations, for example, for women of short stature, teenage women, different racial-ethnic groups, primiparous women, and smokers, and we did not find evidence to support making special recommendations, although the Danish data in particular does suggest that perhaps primiparous women would benefit from a little bit more gestational weight gain during pregnancy and that perhaps they should be gaining towards the upper end of the range. However, these data come from Denmark. They have much lower levels of obesity, overweight in that country. So we didn't find justification to make a special recommendation, but obviously more work is

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needed.
And what this slide shows are the medium gestational weight gain. What you have on the light blue bars is the median and the interquartile range of what women are actually gaining based on their pre-pregnancy BMI in the U.S., and in the dark bars what you have is the recommendation, basically the range and the median with any recommendations, and the first issue that you can notice is that we have an enormous work to do when it comes to overweight and obese women because they are gaining, much, much more weight than what they should during gestation.

And even with underweight women, although the medians look pretty close, still 25 percent of underweight women in these data were gaining less than recommended and 25 percent were gaining more than recommended.

So there is work to do across the board, but you can see that we have an enormous amount of work to improve adherence

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to gestational weight gain guidelines among overweight and obese women.

So the conclusions from the Institute of Medicine, and I want to clarify these are not from our subcommittee, but they are from the Institute of Medicine report, is that really the guidelines are not that different. You know, 20 years have passed, and things are not looking good. They are looking worse, but the problem was not that the guidelines were not adequate. If they had been followed more, we would have had much less of the problems with maternal and child health than we have now.

And what it really takes is a different way of thinking about how to improve the BMI with which women arrive to pregnancy, the pre-conceptional body mass index, and how to promote better gestational weight gain guidelines during pregnancy and obviously issues related to post conceptional and postpartum weight retention.

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And very quickly, what I want to mention about pre-pregnancy BMI, you know, this committee was charged with looking at gestational weight gain controlling for prepregnancy BMI, but when you look at the evidence, pre-pregnancy BMI is by far a more powerful determinant of the same outcomes.

So this is another area where we want to do everything we can to do primary prevention, and we need to start very early on in life.

Thank you.
MEMBER PI-SUNYER: Thank you, Rafael.

I think that chart he showed of the overweight and obese individuals and how far away they are from the recommended is very serious, and you saw his slide of showing the inexorable going up of weight retention as women get heavier over time. So it is a huge issue here.

> We're open for questions.

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MEMBER FUKAGAWA: This is Naomi.
I have a -- oh, sorry. Somebody else?

Do we know the sort of major factors that are influencing the excessive weight gain in the overweight? Is it intake or is it decreased -- well, you know what I'm asking.

MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: That is one of the most important research recommendations. There is so, so little data on dietary intake patterns during pregnancy and how they relate to gestational weight gain, and it's data that is needed not only for generally during pregnancy, but by pregnancy trimester because there are lots of questions also about the timing of exposure to different diet compositions and so on.

So that's a great question. We couldn't even develop a chapter on that question because of the lack of data on dietary intake during pregnancy and how it

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relates to gestational weight gain and pregnancy outcome.

MEMBER WILLIAMS: Christine Williams.

I think for the majority of young women, the obstetrician-gynecologist is also their primary care physician, and the question is how much primary care in this area of nutrition and weight control are they getting, and I suspect it isn't enough.

So I think we really need to work with the guidelines for how young women are treated by their primary care physicians.

And also, I think with women when they are first pregnant usually they're encouraged to gain weight. Don't worry about the weight gain, and then by the time that the physician is concerned about the weight gain the horse is already out of the barn and it's excessive.

So there are a lot of considerations there as far as meeting the NEAL R. GROSS
guidelines.
MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: Yes, and you're just reminding me of one issue. The worst time period to advise women to lose weight is during pregnancy. So really what we need to talk about is maintaining the healthiest gestational weight gain.

The committee was very concerned, for example, of even making a statement about morbidly obese women perhaps not needing to gain any weight. So we really are in very dangerous territory when we get to weight loss, which I know that's not what you meant, but in terms of the health care providers and how they interpret what we're saying, my group has done research with low income pregnant Latinas asking them about whether gestational weight gain came up as a topic of discussion when they saw their OB-GYNs, and for over half of them it didn't, and for those that it did it wasn't like setting a goal or coming up with a dietary physical advice kind of

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counseling. There is almost zero in terms of that.

So I thoroughly agree with you, Christine, that we have to work with the health care providers on the dissemination of the findings from this report.

MEMBER APPEL: Larry Appel.
That was really interesting, and also quite important. What I'm struggling with is how it fits in the report because obviously, you know, we're not obstetricians here, but I think we'd feel uncomfortable -perhaps many would -- about commenting on that, period.

But how have you thought of that, you know, what we're going to say and where we're going to say it?

MEMBER PI-SUNYER: I think, you know, we're dealing with different groups. We are dealing with children, and we're dealing with adults, and I think this is a group at risk, and I don't see any problem in putting

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it in as a subgroup that we're concerned about with regard to weight gain and eventual continuing obesity over time. So I don't see it as a problem.

MEMBER APPEL: I was thinking more about recommendations. The concern is obviously there, but it's the recommendation piece that I'm just trying to understand. MEMBER PI-SUNYER: Well, I think the recommendations are the IOM recommendations, and I think, you know, they had a task force who did a very good job in looking at the issue, and I think the message, as Rafael said and as Christine said, needs to get back to the obstetricians who, you know, are not doing this.

I can tell you we deliver more babies than anybody else in New York, and for a lot of them there isn't the time or the energy to talk about weight very much.

CHAIRPERSON VAN HORN: I think the other thing, I actually attended the IOM

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meeting where a lot of this was discussed, and I think there are actually two very important issues that relate to our work, and it's not the obstetricians. It's the gynecologists. I mean, we're talking about primary prevention here, and as Rafael so eloquently stated, the fact is that this needs to happen before a woman gets pregnant in terms of recognizing the need for weight control early on and establishing a life style that is consistent with the kinds of recommendations that we're making.

I would also suggest that by providing a mother-to-be with healthful lifestyle intervention early, that can have tremendous benefits and payoffs in terms of the family she's about to raise.

So I think this is all an area based on, again, slowly but consistently acquired data that we're now beginning to address that hasn't been previously available to this committee, that we now need to embrace
and make recommendations about collecting additional data so that we know specifically how to make those recommendations.

Tom.

MEMBER PEARSON: You know, I'd just like to ask about this tradeoff issue. Obviously the issue is this tremendous interindividual heterogeneity in weight gain, and certainly there has been a lot done on the genetics side with A25T polymorphisms, and clearly there are some women, there's a subgroup here that are really very much predisposed.

And it seemed to me from my look at that literature that the most effective interventions in them was physical activity. This issue of the tradeoff, certainly with the fatty acid group we're going to have some comments on DHA, and those are not going to be reduce those nutrients. It's going to be to increase them.

So we're going to be at crossNEAL R. GROSS
purposes here unless we come up with a strong message. I think that strong message has to do with caloric expenditure side of this has better tradeoffs than the nutrient side.

I would just comment on that.
MEMBER NELSON: This is Mim Nelson.

Back, Larry, thinking about your question because $I$ actually was thinking about that yesterday after we had our subcommittee meeting and wondering so where does this fit because it could be considered a non sequitur a tiny bit.

But $I$ think if we have a section in the report about, you know, healthy weights, different categories and healthy weight through different, you know, life stages, I think that it's more not a recommendation. It's more just sort of stating what's out there. I would assume that's sort of where this would be.

But a follow-up question, Rafael.
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Did the committee have any guidance on postpartum weight loss? None. Because that to me seems to be where we may -- I don't know -- but this is where the big issue is. If they don't lose the weight between pregnancies, they just keep ratcheting up, and I think that that's a -- you know this area better than I do.

MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: I mean, the committee fully acknowledged that they want to deal with this hopefully before pregnancy if it didn't work between pregnancies, but how to actually get to it, there are a couple of ongoing randomized trials looking at, you know, weight loss interventions after the delivery of babies.

By the way, almost all of the evidence that we had was observational. Very, very little experimental.

MEMBER NELSON: But doesn't ACOG or others have some guidance on the sort of rate of weight loss or guidance on -- no?

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Nobody has any sort of guidance on weight, returning to pre-pregnancy weight?

MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: Like how fast and how you get --

MEMBER NELSON: Yeah. No?
MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: -- to that point as far as -- I'm not aware of that. MEMBER NELSON: Okay.

MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: Yeah.
MEMBER SLAVIN: I want to just make one comment and it has to do with -- this is Joanne here -- with low birth weight babies and, you know, like the concern of your committee that if we talk about too much weight reduction, a lot of people that go into pregnancy are on really poor diets. So even though they're obese, they have low protein intakes, and their diets are poor.

So balancing that, because it is that with the number of low birth weight babies in the U.S., we have a huge problem with not delivering healthy babies despite

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this obesity issue. And $I$ know that was a frustration of your committee.

MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: And I think the committee, you know, felt very strongly that providing access to registered dietitians and appropriate nutritional counseling is crucial for making this work exactly for the point that you are raising.

CHAIRPERSON VAN HORN: And just to reiterate what Rafael said about the randomized controlled trials, I'm aware that as we speak there are several that are now beginning to address that issue. However, they state categorically that the data collection stops at the time of birth.

So where we need to provide some additional interface, I think, is between that very crucial time of delivery and then initiation of a family and that kind of counseling to encourage life style related to family oriented eating and activity behavior is certainly not addressed adequately.

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MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: And I thoroughly agree, and also it's an issue of access, counseling and providing the access to different groups, to the foods and the physical activity opportunities that they need.

MEMBER NICKOLS-RICHARDSON: And this is Shelly. I just want to comment that I think it's very important to have this in the report, in the technical report, because the CNPP over the last several years has done an excellent job of putting together the My Pyramid for Moms, and we need to have something scientifically that justifies where those recommendations come from, along with the IOM recommendations for pregnancy and lactation.

CHAIRPERSON VAN HORN: And then one final point, and that is about breast feeding. I think that, you know, there is now growing evidence to suggest that, you know, breast feeding is just a really good thing to

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feed children. How about that? And the longer the better, and it has implications not only for nutrient adequacy, but also for weight control, et cetera, in the mom.

So I think this report, again, will be one of those that encourages, you know, not only breast feeding as an ideal source of nutrition for infants, but the research recommendations that will accompany this report related to that, I think, also will continue to support data collection on that topic.

MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: And our subcommittee will summarize the systematic reviews that have looked at breast feeding and maternal weight loss.

MEMBER PI-SUNYER: Okay. We're going to move on to our last speaker. Mim Nelson is going to talk about physical activity.

MEMBER NELSON: Thank you, Xav.
So just a little bit of context.
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In the 2005 Dietary Guidelines there is discussion around physical activity related to health and body weight, and since that time we've had the 2008 Physical Activity Guidelines for Americans, but we still felt as a committee that it was important that, just as we did actually in the physical activity guidelines -- I was part of that committee -we talk about the importance of nutrition, but basically link it to the dietary guidelines.

We thought in the dietary guidelines we, again, need to not necessarily revisit all the work that the physical activity guidelines committee did, but that to make reference to it and bring the sort of high level recommendations and guidance from those guidelines into the dietary guidelines.

So the main question we have here is how is physical activity related to body weight and other nutrition related aspects of health. In particular, how much physical activity is needed to maintain a healthy body
weight, lose body weight if overweight or obese and avoid regain in weight reduced persons.

So we really have two questions, one question that has three subcomponents.

So just a little bit of background for those that aren't as familiar. In 2008, the inaugural physical activity guidelines for Americans were released by the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. I really have a large nod to my right, to Penny Slade-Sawyer who is at the table here, who was incredibly instrumental in not only putting that committee together, but seeing it through to the end. So I really appreciate all of Penny's guidance.

So similar to the dietary guidelines, the development of the physical activity guidelines resulted from the evidence provided in the Physical Activity Guidelines Advisory Committee report released in May of 2008. It was a 683 page technical report, and

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I think our committee may be well on our way to doing another 600 page technical report if we're not careful.

So if we had had more time, it would have been half the length. So Part G, Section 4 of the report focuses on physical activity and energy balance. Other sections of the report focus on all cause mortality, cardiorespiratory health, metabolic health, musculoskeletal and functional health, cancer, mental health, and adverse events.

In addition, the report provided evidence regarding physical activity for under represented groups, including youth, pregnant and postpartum women, persons with disabilities, and racial and ethnically diverse populations.

Because the physical activity guidelines advisory committee report was guided by 13 physical activity experts and is recent, systematic and thorough, the 2010 dietary guidelines committee felt it was

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prudent to use the report for the evidence to answer these couple of questions.

So that just sort of gives you some of the context. So our source of evidence, in short, is the 2008 Physical Activity Guidelines Advisory Committee report that was submitted last year.

So how is physical activity related to body weight and other nutrition related aspects of health? There is clear and consistent evidence that physical activity or physically active people have higher levels of health related fitness, a lower risk profile for developing most chronic disabling medical conditions, and lower rates of various chronic diseases than do people who are inactive.

Physically active people are at a reduced risk of becoming overweight or obese, and I think very important, since two-thirds of the population is already obese or overweight, adults of all body weight classifications gain health and fitness
benefits by being habitually physically active. This is very important.

There was another point. I should also note what I didn't, but $I$ will in the actual writing of the report or section here, is that by objective measures, less than probably ten percent of children are meeting guidelines and probably only about five percent of adults are meeting guidelines when you use objective measurements for looking at the previous guidelines.

So we have a very large percentage of the population, somewhere in the vicinity of 80 to 90 percent, who are not physically active, and I would say the most important is that it's not about leisure physical activity. It's about increased sedentary time, decreasing activities related to commuting, self-ambulation, you know, getting out there, just taking a walk, decreases in how we work. Very few of us now do manual labor. Actually leisure activity stayed just about the same

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over the time, but we have become more sedentary because of all the different components of total energy expenditure. So just, again, as a framing.

So the guidelines, if I could, we will bring these guidelines and place them in the dietary guidelines so that we have them and that we can cross-reference, but for children, overall 60 minutes or more of physical activity daily, aerobic activity. Most of the 60 minutes should be either moderate or vigorous intensity aerobic activity and should include vigorous intensity physical activity at least three days per week.

As part of the 60 minutes, children and adolescents should include muscle strengthening and bone strengthening physical activity on at least three days per week.

For adults, all adults should avoid inactivity. That's probably the most important guidelines. Some physical activity

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is better than none. For substantial health benefits, adults should do at least 150 minutes of moderate intensity physical activity or 75 minutes of vigorous intensity activity or an equivalent combination of the two. For additional health benefits, increased aerobic activities at 300 minutes per week of moderate physical activity or 150 minutes of vigorous physical activity or an equivalent combination of the two. And adults should be doing two muscle strengthening activities on two or more days a week.

Some stuff that I would note which you don't see is that we're not talking about every day. We're not giving, you know, that it should be 20 minutes or 30 minutes; basically saying that it's a weekly goal. So, in fact, I think what's important here is that there's a lot more flexibility; that people can actually do this on a weekend. I don't mean to advocate weekend warrior, but for those of us that are sitting all day here
today for ten hours, but, yes, we have to be careful from an injury prevention, but there are many different ways to actually meet these goals.

Certainly the more vigorous that you participate, the higher the intensity, the fewer number of minutes.

And then for older adults, to follow the adult guidelines that I just went over, and when older adults cannot meet those adult guidelines they should be as physically active as their abilities and conditions will allow.

In addition, adults who are at risk for falls should do exercises that maintain or improve balance.

So how much physical activity is needed to maintain a healthy body weight? There's clear and consistent evidence that physical activity provides benefit for weight stability. Looking at weight stability over decades is very difficult. These kinds of

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trials are really much more observational. We will never have an RCT that looks over decades and looks at weight gain. We're looking at no change in body weight here.

So for children basically we're following -- we came up with a recommendation to follow the main guidelines, 150 minutes to 300 minutes for moderate intensity or the equivalent, 75 to 150 minutes of vigorous or an equivalent of the two.

And we also note that there is a great deal of inter-individual variability with physical activity and weight stability. Some adults may need more to maintain body weight, but I think most important is that achieving energy balance and a healthy weight depends on both energy intake and expenditure. You cannot talk about weight stability, weight loss or weight stability after weight loss without talking about energy intake.

Looking at how much physical activity is needed to lose weight if
overweight or obese, the reality is that if you take someone and you put them in a metabolic unit and you control their dietary intake exquisitely and you increase their physical activity, you can get them to lose weight.

That doesn't happen in the real world. People compensate with appetite increase, and even though they may feel like they're keeping the energy intake stable, they aren't. So theoretically physical activity itself works, large doses for weight loss, but in reality you need to combine the two. But there is clear and consistent research that shows that a large dose of physical activity is needed for substantial weight loss.

Adults who are most successful achieving weight loss combine calorie restriction with increased physical activity participation. I will also note that the body composition changes when you combine physical activity with energy restriction, are more NEAL R. GROSS
positive towards preserving lean tissue and losing more body fat, and that a combination of caloric restriction, again, at the 150 to 300 minute of moderate intensity or 75 to 150 minute or an equivalent combination of the two is recommended, but more may be needed to achieve substantial weight loss. So it's really in combination with energy restriction. In terms of how much physical activity is needed to avoid regain in weight reduced persons, limited evidence for the effectiveness of physical activity alone in preventing weight regain following substantial weight loss. Adults who were successful at long-term weight maintenance following weight loss appear to limit caloric intake in addition to maintaining a high level of physical activity.

The data is fairly strong that to prevent substantial weight gain over six months, adults may need more than 300 minutes of moderate or 150 minutes of vigorous NEAL R. GROSS
activity or an equivalent combination of the two.

There is no doubt, and I think there is emerging evidence that, you know, people who have lost weight and are trying to maintain that weight loss over time. They need to be more vigilant about energy intake and physical activity, and we may in the report talk a little bit about some of the new, emerging data, you know, on how that their energy needs may actually be different after weight loss than before weight loss for an equivalent body weight and composition.

So I'm trying to think of other things that are important here. I think the main sort of message here is that inactivity is the most risky thing you can do; that some activity is better than none; more is better; and that physical activity is important when you're talking about weight stability, weight loss, and weight maintenance after weight loss, but it needs to be done in combination
with energy restriction.
I think that was it. I'm happy to take questions at this point in time.

One other piece. We talked in our subcommittee meeting that we are going to do -- because this is really about energy expenditure -- we are going to be looking at the 2005 report. We're going to be updating sections around caloric intake, and actually it's sort of in different places, and we realized as we were talking yesterday there needs to be an equivalent one section in this part of the report, probably close to this I'm hopeful, that really talks about energy intake itself and requirements and suggestions, et cetera.

So we're going to balance this with energy intake.

MEMBER PI-SUNYER: Thank you, Mim.
Questions or comments? Eric.
MEMBER RIMM: This is Eric Rimm.
That was very nice, Mim. Thank
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you. It's nice that you had your own IOM report to fall back on, too. It really makes such an exquisite presentation. I notice Rafael had the same thing. It's really nice when they put together 15 experts to answer one question.

MEMBER NELSON: Whoa. We had about 60 questions we were answering. Just so you know, it was done exactly like the physical --

MEMBER RIMM: It's spectacular that you have such very nicely articulated the issue with physical activity, and the issue that is not physical activity alone, that there is a fair bit around caloric restriction.

I wonder. It made me think of Rafael's comment about food patterns as opposed to individual components of the diet that are important, and $I$ wonder if you really are sort of defining what is physical activity pattern or energy expenditure pattern; that

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the part that is not as well documented is the sedentary activity aspect of it.

I know there's a huge literature on television watching, especially among kids, and how that leads to obesity. Is there a possibility that we can include something that better defines what sedentary is, that we could come up with a recommendation that sort of talks about not just doing physical activity, but not doing extreme sedentary activity?

MEMBER NELSON: Yes. This is Mim again.

In another question that we are going to be addressing between now and February is going to be more around behavior and how that relates to adiposity and body weight. We're going to be dealing with screen time, television viewing, things like the family meal. I mean a whole bunch of things that actually influence both energy intake and energy expenditure.

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So I think we'll be doing it there. I mean, I look at Penny, but I think that it will be appropriate for us, and maybe you can voice your opinion, too, but I really hope that we can really tie these two different reports together because in the physical activity, the actual guidelines, not the report, to your question, Eric, there are so many different ways that we show how you can meet the physical activity guidelines. You know, you don't even need to put your sneakers on kind of; that you can build it into your lifestyle. You can do more vigorous activity. I mean, there is sort of the range, and we also talk about limiting sedentary time.

But I think we'll be doing that more when we talk about the -- yes, I know. Oh, yes, I got another note. Okay.

The only thing that I will say in terms of flexibility is that we did talk in the committee that when we're talking about physical activity, you get to count it towards

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the guidelines if it's a bout of ten minutes or more. So there wasn't much evidence less than that.

MEMBER PI-SUNYER: Yes, I think Eric's point is very well taken. I mean, the recent report that the TV viewing of children is still going up; it hasn't plateaued. So it's still going the wrong way. So it's crucial, I think.

MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: This is Rafael.

I just want to mention that television viewing is not only an indicator of sedentary zone, but also of exposure to marketing of junk food.

MEMBER NELSON: Marketing the junk food and a place to eat. MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: And a place to eat.

MEMBER NELSON: Yeah, and I think between Christine and myself, we're going to be dealing with behavior quite a bit in that
range.
MEMBER WILLIAMS: I had one comment about the recommendation for children. I think in some ways we need to separate out children in different age groups. For example, with preschool children, a lot of whom are in nursery schools and day care, that we need a little more attention to structured physical activity. There's often an idea that just let them go out and play and that will be adequate, and often there are children that sit on the side and don't participate and others that do.

And also, with young children we need to pay a little more attention to practicing motor skills because those skills are important to achieve in preschool. Those are the children that will like to play sports if they can catch a ball and kick and balance.

So there are different things for different age groups that are important.

MEMBER NELSON: Yeah, and I didn't NEAL R. GROSS
put the full guidelines in there, but one of the main things is that the activities are age appropriate, that they're fun, and that when you add in the bone and musculoskeletal activities, you get much more of the growth and development and coordination activities.

The data at least from Rick Troiano and his group looking at accelerometer data, I'm not looking before age six, but the six to 12 year olds actually are the only group that sort of meet the guidelines because of play. And I would argue that we need to actually engineer more play into our children's lives just for the sake of play because that will do a much better job of socializing them and having a higher energy expenditure.

MEMBER CLEMENS: Rog here. Thank you so much.

Can we have some more play in this group as well?
(Laughter.)
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MEMBER CLEMENS: In a serious note -- and perhaps that could be serious -- we see that across the country many school districts are, in fact, cutting play time and despite the need to address the comment that Linda made earlier about childhood obesity, as a result they think they need more class time.

My fear, and you've experienced this, is, well, because we're having less play time we have a Vitamin $D$ issue as provided by a committee. We have an obesity issue coming out. So actually what we have in school systems for economy reasons are actually exacerbating the condition called ill health amongst our children.

MEMBER NELSON: I completely agree. It might be beyond the scope of this committee right now, but $I$ think that the greatest -- the interesting stuff when you look at children's days, the greatest amount of physical activity even for those children that don't commute by walking or don't get to

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school by walking, it's before school and just after school, and we need to do better with the before school and after also.

And you know, I'm thinking of my colleague Christine Economos who has done so much with curriculum within schools, but still meeting, you know, the educational goals, and there's lots of ways with little children to have physically active activities that relate to math and reading and geography and everything else.

And $I$ think $P E$ is one that I'm less excited about PE as I'm thinking of the whole day of the child.

RADM SLADE-SAWYER: This is Penny Slade-Sawyer .

And $I$ just might add here that there is emerging research on sedentary behavior itself separate and apart from the research going on on physical activity and the dose required for this or that. The early evidence is that sedentary behavior in and of

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itself is not a good thing. So that merely getting up and walking around during a long meeting --
(Laughter.)
RADM SLADE-SAWYER: -- or even
standing at your chair for a couple of minutes may enhance health.

Of course, that's very preliminary, but I'm hoping that we will be able to report convening a group like yourselves around the science of physical activity in five years or more, and then have an update then on the science relating physical activity to health.

Another thing I want to add is that separate from the work that this group is doing I think neither message is as powerful as it can be. In other words, together the energy balance, the calories in, the calories out are crucial, and I see these two sets of guidelines as inseparable really.

And one should certainly within
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reason support the other. The physical activity experts were not nutrition experts, and so we did not delve into the details. Mim was on that, and we were delighted that she could come from that group to this one. We hope that one of you with some physical activity expertise perhaps can serve on the next guidelines for physical activity, but these things are hooked together.

MEMBER PI-SUNYER: Rafael.
MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: The data for low income Latinas, what it shows is that they have higher levels of occupational physical activity but lower levels and extremely low levels of recreational physical activity.

And the question that has been asked to me several times is are they the same or are these jobs so stressful that it mitigates the possible benefits for physical activity.

MEMBER NELSON: Well, the
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occupational data -- this is Mim Nelson -- is pretty strong. People that are physically active in their occupations actually do better than their same counterpart, same ethnicity, et cetera, income level that are in a job that's very sedentary. So those people generally do better across the board. We didn't look at the stress piece, although we know that people who are physically active generally have reduced stress responses, but we didn't look at that in particular with different ethnic minority groups.

But I think that, you know, the reality is even if you look at those occupational -- people who have for an occupation physically active jobs, when you're looking at low income, regardless of ethnicity, they are still very overweight. So the energy intake piece is just a big sledge hammer here, the intake piece.

And, yes, the expenditure is
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important, but $I$ think when you're talking about weight, I'm going to throw out a number, but we're talking about 75 percent of the contributions are probably around intake and maybe 25 around expenditure, but we are such a sedentary society that, you know, if we were all out being active for ten hours a day instead of sitting, we might be looking at this differently.

CHAIRPERSON VAN HORN: I want to share with the group an unintended consequence of having moved my office last week and exactly this issue, and here it is. Again, I mentioned earlier about American ingenuity. I now work in a smart room. So when I walk in the room the light goes on, and I was sitting at my computer as I always do -- and I bet you can relate -- for a long time working away, and suddenly the light went off.
(Laughter.)
CHAIRPERSON VAN HORN: And I realized, oh, I guess I haven't been moving, NEAL R. GROSS
and so I'm just suggesting that, again, environmentally there are some of these kinds of approaches that could be quite effective in getting us up and moving around, and I bet there are, again, people out there that can think of lots of creative ways to keep us moving.

So, Larry, did you --
MEMBER NELSON: Well, if I could just have one final comment.

CHAIRPERSON VAN HORN: Yes.
MEMBER PI-SUNYER: Do you have another slide?

MEMBER NELSON: No, I don't. Well, it's there, but the last thing I would say, I think the greatest way from a public health standpoint that we can get people more active is actually through the built environment and through a systems approach, not by telling people you need to exercise more. It's going to be through commuting, you know, access, connectivity of communities, sidewalks, et

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cetera. That's where all of the best research is in terms of a public health.

So there you go. There's your last slide. Do you want to finish with this or do you want me to finish with this?

I can because it's mostly what Christine is going to.

So finally, as a committee, what we're going to be working on for the remainder of our work is looking at macro nutrient proportions and energy intake, looking at childhood overweight and obesity, additional topics that Christine hasn't already talked about.

And I will say a big nod to Christine. She has done this childhood obesity work so well, as has everybody, but it has really been thorough.

Both Christine and I are going to be looking at dietary behaviors with children and adults. We're going to be looking at environmental factors, the food environment, NEAL R. GROSS
et cetera, and then some different population subgroups, and that's it.

Thank you.
MEMBER PI-SUNYER: Good. Any other comments or questions?

MEMBER FUKAGAWA: I have one last question.

MEMBER PI-SUNYER: Yes.
MEMBER FUKAGAWA: One of the concerns that oftentimes schools are facing in preschools are issues of, quotes, overactive children, and so many of their efforts are, you know, designating that they're not normal. You know, I just wonder is there evidence to show that perhaps, you know, hyperactive kids are better at maintaining their weight? And you know, what balance could we strike for something like that?

MEMBER WILLIAMS: That's a very difficult question because often the overweight children are put on stimulants that affect their appetite, but $I$ know there is

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some data with preschool children that when they're actually in the preschool, they're actually less active because they're always saying, "Sit down and be quiet."

So preschools do have a need for structured physical activity programs and to promote that, but unfortunately a lot of preschools don't have the space. Many of them don't have an adequate play area. It's a difficult question.

But I don't think there are any studies of active children, very active children followed for a period of time and looking at weight, active children who haven't been medicated.

MEMBER NELSON: But to that end, and this is, again, you know, work from my colleague Chris Economos and others, but you know, if we could get children more active, I mean, the data is pretty strong about the behaviors in the class are much better if they can be more active.

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I mean, some school districts are doing a better job with, you know, standing desks and having places so that the children can move and not have to be seated all the time, and I really applaud these efforts because I think the children, being a mother of a son who is incredibly active, you know, where a school just stifled him terribly, couldn't learn that way, you know, I think that the school districts that are embracing this sort of different learning styles, allowing children to be more active is really a good way to go.

MEMBER WILLIAMS: This is Christine again.

There are programs. For example, the ILSI program Take Ten where you actually try to incorporate ten minutes of play time, active play, into the classroom as a reward for finishing their homework and doing their work, and I think approaches like that have a lot of promise for increasing the total amount

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of physical activity during the day for school children.

MEMBER NELSON: I just can't help it because the schools, we're doing so much in that area. The other thing is, you know, there are still many school districts that punish children by not allowing them to go out to recess, and that has got to stop, or punish them, you know, either food or physical activity. You cannot have these punishments.

And along those lines, we also have to get schools with -- you know, the bake sales are five days a week, and what they're selling for foods, I mean, there's a whole -the energy intake and the energy expenditure piece is a real issue. So this penalizing students by not allowing them play is terrible.

MEMBER APPEL: This is Larry Appel.

I had a question for you, getting back to your presentation, and a difference NEAL R. GROSS
between 2005 recommendations and now for the amount of physical activity for weight regain. I think I was on the energy balance subcommittee at that time, and it was viewed as not great data, but we said we had a huge number, 60 to 90 minutes per day to avoid regain.

So in terms of, you know, this will be a big change, the 300, and I think we felt, you know, there were practical issues about that number, but that was the best number we had.

Was there a change in the evidence or is it basically an interpretation? I mean, what's the reason that --

MEMBER NELSON: Some was an approach, I think, and I wasn't on the 2005 guidelines or the IOM report that had come out shortly before that, but we looked less at the doubly labeled water data because it was much more theoretical than it necessarily was practical, and in fact, the regain is over 300
minutes a week. We're talking about for how much to avoid regain. We're still advocating more than 300 minutes.

So you're saying that because it's higher we're talking about --

MEMBER APPEL: Well, it's lower.
MEMBER NELSON: Lower. It was 60 to 90 before.

RADM SLADE-SAWYER: Can I speak to that? I think that what we did last time was quantify it in a more specific way. This one says adults may need more than 300 minutes a week, and if you think of 60 minutes five days a week, that's about 300 minutes, and we quantified 60 to 90, and I think this committee felt that we did not state that well.

And that was not in the scientific report. That was our fault. In other words, that was the writers of the guideline.

Kathryn.
MS. McMURRY: Yes, just to
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elaborate a bit, $I$ believe the amount of physical activity -- Kathryn McMurry -- in the 2005 report was based primarily on the weight control registry, following people who had lost weight.

MEMBER NELSON: The other is that I think that there wasn't as much emphasis on energy intake, and the data is pretty strong that for weight regain in particular, the energy restriction is very important.

CHAIRPERSON VAN HORN: Okay. We will eliminate our sedentary behavior for 15 minutes. So please take a break.
(Whereupon, the foregoing matter went off the record at 10:51 a.m.
and went back on the record at
11:07 p.m.)
CHAIRPERSON VAN HORN: Welcome
back, everyone. I hope you've had a workout and now you're ready to be seated and listen for the next subcommittee, which is chaired by

Roger Clemens and also Rafael.
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So take it away, Roger.
MEMBER CLEMENS: It's always
exciting to talk about food safety just before lunch.
(Laughter.)
MEMBER CLEMENS: Thank you very much, Linda, for the comments.

First of all, I'd like to thank very much our wonderful staff, Kellie, Donna, Holly, Shirley, without whose assistance and guidance this would not happen.

I also want to thank the hundreds of consumers who provided wonderful insights and comments relative to the items that Rafael and I will discuss today.

With that, there are several items that will have undergone extensive review.

Rafael will address those items in the next few moments. There are other items that will not undergo extensive review as we discussed.

They will be topics that were not
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addressed in the last Dietary Guidelines, and I will address those at the next meeting.

So that having said that, Rafael will address right now in-home practices, as well as the ever popular topic of methyl mercury in fish.

So, Rafael, it's all yours. Thank you.

MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: Thank you very much, Roger.

And I want to echo my personal thanks as well to the wonderful staff from USDA and the Department of Health and Human Services that have supported us in many ways.

So to what extent do consumers follow proper techniques for food storage, preparation, and handling at home? Background information, foodborne illnesses represent a serious morbidity burden in the country, and they are responsible for over 5,000 deaths per year with a substantial cost to society. The proportion of outbreaks that can be attributed

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to safety practices at home remains unknown, although it is believed to be substantial.

An indirect way of assessing this risk is by documenting consumers' food safety practices at home. The review was based on the following criteria: peer reviewed articles published between June 2004 and March 2009 among individuals two years old or older, and we targeted both healthy as well as population at higher risk, and the exclusion criteria was the one that has been defined by the Dietary Guidelines Advisory Committee.

The question is: to what extent do consumers follow proper techniques for food storage preparation and handling?

And the conclusion, the proposed conclusion is that U.S. consumers do not follow proper food storage preparation and cleaning sanitation techniques at home, and this conclusion is supported by strong epidemiological observation and evidence.

The implications of this review
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are that risky food safety behaviors at home are likely to translate into home based food borne illness outbreaks. Oftentimes consumers are not translating their food safety knowledge into safe practices. A major barrier is consumers' underestimation of the risk for home based foodborne illness outbreak when proper food safety practices are not followed, thus improving not only consumers' knowledge, but also their attitudes and intentions toward reducing home based food safety risks is needed.

We identified 20 studies, one meta-analysis, one systematic review, one quasi experimental study, and 17 observational studies as well, and we also worked in close coordination with Amy Lando and her team with regards to secondary analysis of the 2006 FDA FSIS food safety survey, which is nationally representative.

And now I'm going to talk about food safety risks at home across the life

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cycle. Two studies involving WIC participants, one conducted in Miami and another conducted in 31 different states, have identified a high prevalence of risky behaviors among pregnant women. For example in one study over half of them ate hot dogs or deli meats without reheating them, increasing the risk for listeria, and the same risk is increased by the consumption of soft and blue veined cheeses, which a third of these women in Miami were consuming.

The food practices that were less frequently practiced were the use of cooking thermometers, refrigerating foods within two hours after a preparation, and the safe thawing of frozen foods. And both studies underlined the very low use of meat thermometers and the need to improve the proper thawing of frozen foods.

For parents like myself that have college students or for college students that are hearing those, you have been identified --

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(Laughter.)
MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: -- as a high risk group with regard to home based food safety practices. A study conducted essentially in the northeast of the U.S. in a laboratory kitchen found that less than half of the students follow proper procedures even though they knew they were being observed, and this was related to cross-contamination, procedures related to hygiene, cooking temperatures, food storage, and the consumption of so-called risky foods, a number of under cooked foods, among other practices.

And when the same group of researchers actually went to the homes or the places where the students lived and they actually conducted an audit of their home kitchen, less than 60 percent scored adequately for kitchen appliance cleanliness, and they looked at the microwave oven, dishwasher and can openers as well. Only seven percent had a meat thermometer, and the

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frig temperature was well above the recommended 4.4 degrees Celsius.

In an online survey of college students nationwide, researchers have found that they do attempt to be likely to consume foods that may increase the risk of foodborne illness, including home made cookie dough which is made with raw eggs. They consume under cooked eggs and also raw sprouts and to a lesser extent, but still 11 percent consumed raw seafood.

In a very interesting study by Yarrow and colleagues, they work with U.S. college students who were health and nonhealth majors. Among the non-health majors the food safety believes knowledge improved after receiving food safety education. However, they still did not improve their food safety practices.

The elderly is another group in which there is a lot of interest because there are a number of reasons why they may be at

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higher risk for foodborne illness. So in a study with elderly nutrition program clients, 22 percent of participants left casseroles standing in the counter for two hours or more. Sixteen percent were unlikely to wash hands before eating, and about a quarter of the nonwhite older adults would consume meals left outside overnight.

A study based on home delivery programs showed that 35 percent of participants kept leftovers. They couldn't finish the whole portion that they were provided with, and only 15 percent ate remaining within two hours. Thirty-eight percent were not consuming the hot meals right away and left it standing on the counter.

In a U.S. nationally representative web-based survey by Kosa and colleagues found that only 16 percent of older adults had a frig thermometer at home, and that those living alone were less likely to have refrigerator at a recommended

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temperature, and we know that a very high percent of older adults are living alone.

In terms of the question about how consumers perceived the risk of foodborne illness outbreaks in their homes, we can say that in general U.S. consumers are aware of the importance of food safety for human health. However, they do not believe that the home kitchen or their home kitchen is an important source of foodborne outbreaks.
U.S. consumers report that industry and government and not themselves are the entities that have the most power or ability to make the biggest difference in food safety outcomes.

On the one hand, we identified major food safety knowledge gaps among U.S. consumers. For example, they are not aware or lack specific knowledge regarding pathogens, such as listeria and campylobacter. They are not aware of a food vehicles that may contain those pathogens among those that report being

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aware of those pathogens.
And a very worrisome finding by Dharod and colleagues with low income Latinos is that they have very little awareness of the term "cross-contamination" and those who claim to be aware really don't have an adequate understanding. It's very hard for consumers to understand how the transmission of something that they don't see is happening. And we know based on FightBac!® the importance of cross-contamination prevention as the axis of gravity around which a lot of the education is being provided.

A proper cold storage temperatures and refrigerator cleaning are issues where consumers need much more advice and guidance, and I do want to spend a slide on refrigerator cleanliness because we know that it is an issue. The study by Kosa with U.S. adults found that 53 percent had not cleaned their frig at least one month prior to the survey.

A study done in Florida and NEAL R. GROSS

Tennessee households found that 78 percent reported emptying and cleaning the frig only occasionally or rarely, and another study in Tennessee, households identified klebsiella and enterobacter issues in one-fifth of the refrigerators. They were nonpathogenic species, but they are indicators of lack of sanitation.

And what is very worrisome is that multi-drug antibiotic resistance was detected in these species.

So on the one hand, consumers don't have knowledge to follow a number of key food safety behaviors, but on the other hand, they do have some knowledge about other recommended behaviors, but they're just not translating this knowledge into practice. So consumers are familiar with, you know, the need for hand sanitation, the use of meat thermometers, but they are just not practicing it, and some others have suggested that these may be related to the "not in my kitchen," the
optimistic bias, that there is no way that a foodborne outbreak could be the result of something that happens in my home, my home kitchen.

Also, researchers have suggested that consumers may lack internal locus of control with regards to food safety, as I stated before. A good number of them just believe that it is beyond their hands to make a difference in terms of preventing foodborne illnesses.

Who are the individuals consuming or the groups consuming risky foods? By risky foods we mean foods consumed in such a way, such as undercooked, that pose a microbiological hazard for human health.

So college students, I have already reported on that, and Patil and colleagues did a meta-analysis including data for U.S. consumers indicating that there may be a gender differential. Men report greater consumption of raw or undercooked food and NEAL R. GROSS
women. Likewise higher income groups are more likely than the lower income counterparts to consume these risky foods, and these findings are consistent with the national representative, 2006 FDA FSIS food safety survey, where almost 20 percent of the adults consume raw fish with this behavior being more common among men and respondents that identify themselves as white or Asian versus black or Hispanic.

With regards to the influence of socioeconomic status, racial-ethnic status, and gender, you don't get results always in the expected direction, which is very interesting. Higher socioeconomic status has been associated with more food safety knowledge, but oftentimes with worse food safety behaviors like the consumption of risky foods, and in some studies even the use of meat thermometers.

Being a member of a racial-ethnic minority group has been associated with better

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food safety behaviors, but also with worse food safety behaviors. It depends which are the behaviors that these studies are looking at.

And overall, women are more likely than men to report safer food safety behaviors at home, although men are more likely to report using a meat thermometer probably because they are in charge of the grill whenever --
(Laughter.)
MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: -- there is a need.

A very important issue in terms of future research is related to the validity of self-reported food safety behaviors, and this is a huge issue with regard to hygiene cleaning behaviors because of the stigma that this question carriers. And researchers like Cates and colleagues and Dharod and colleagues and others have shown that there is a huge differential in terms of what people say they

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do in terms of hand washing and the cleaning and sanitation of the kitchen versus what they are actually observed doing.

And you often find threefold differences in terms of the percent who are reporting one thing but actually doing another thing.

So it is very important to really develop research methodologies that will allow us to improve the validity of the report of food safety behaviors.

Now, what this means is that the data that $I$ just showed you is a best case scenario because a lot of that data, not all of it, but a lot of the data like the nationally representative survey is selfreported.

MEMBER CLEMENS: Any comments for Rafael's presentation? Yes, Christine.

MEMBER WILLIAMS: I have one question about raw fish. I assume you're talking about sushi. And with respect to the NEAL R. GROSS
amount of sushi that's consumed in our country, which is probably significant, what is the exact risk?

MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: Eric is not here. He's the person. Sushi consumption is not --

MEMBER CLEMENS: On cue.

MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: -- in the U.S.

MEMBER RIMM: Sorry. This is Eric Rimm. I was up standing around exercising.

I can only speak to the benefit. I don't know about the trends in sushi consumption. You know there clearly are trends in fish consumption for tuna and salmon and things like that, but $I$ don't know how much translates into eating it raw versus eating it cooked.

MEMBER PI-SUNYER: Don't you think that most people are -- Xavier -- most people are eating sushi out rather than in their homes? So the safety depends a lot on the

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restaurant and what they're doing, how long they keep it.

MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: Yes.
MEMBER NELSON: This is Mim Nelson.

I have a couple questions because it seems to me one of the real research issue, you know, you put in one of your slides -- you say that risky food safety behaviors at home was likely to, you know, translate into home based foodborne illness. Is there much -- I mean, $I$ don't know this data -- is there much evidence that it actually does?

Because you know, you have also the statement that Americans feel like it's more around the industry and government and things like that, and I think it actually would be helpful to know what the contributions are to foodborne problems. Is it more in the home or not? Because if it's not in the home, then I think we have to reinforce the issues, and maybe Rob -- I don't

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know -- somebody from USDA knows this maybe better, but that's one question.

MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: All those conclusions are inferential.

MEMBER NELSON: Yes. So I think we have to be --

MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: So it's a judgment, and that goes to additional research recommendations.

MEMBER NELSON: Okay.
MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: I was asked not to spend a long time on research recommendations, but in terms of surveillance and monitoring, there are enormous gaps in the system in the country, and for home based right now it is impossible to be able to determine a percent. They go oftentimes unreported. Most of what is caught is because it affects a critical mass of people.

MEMBER NELSON: Rob?
DR. POST: Okay. This is Rob
Post.
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Well, I had a question that's related, and that is to the extent to which recalls were considered as a way to track exactly what happens in the home because there are an awful lot of recalls that are related to what we're calling consumer handling, you know, picnics, church picnics and that kind of thing also being included here, whether that's any indication and additional evidence to be considered, especially going back five years or even ten years to see a trend developing.

That might be a way to get to some measure of what's happening at the consumer level.

MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: At the same time, your other question is also very important. There are very few studies that have actually used microbial indicators, and I think the future movement in this area is really going inside the households and using microbial indicators to try to characterize better the risk for practices to translate

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into actual foodborne illnesses.
MEMBER NELSON: The only other follow-up is I think people right now don't cook anymore. I mean, we have become a society that doesn't cook nearly as much as we used to, and the caution $I$ would have is whatever recommendations we come up with, I don't want to get people scared to cook and to prepare home meals, and so, you know, there can't be a fear.

We have so much fear stuff out there that you know --

MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: There is so much emphasis on cooking it the right way that $I$ don't think they want to be scared about cooking.

MEMBER NELSON: Exactly. Good because we need more people cooking. MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: Cooking and the right way, and it is just real common. I was very surprised, but, you know, we're eating out a lot, but still 95 percent of U.S.

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consumers prepare and consume at least one meal per week in their homes, at least one. MEMBER NELSON: A week?

MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: And they all have refrigerators and they all have stoves or microwave. So you may not cook from scratch things, but there is a lot of contact with food that is handled in the home.

And also we need to think about extensions of the home, the car, the picnics. We need to have a broader concept of what the home is and also while traveling as well. It's another issue, yeah.

MEMBER PI-SUNYER: The other thing about fear, what about shellfish? I mean, in the eastern coast certainly a lot of people eat raw shellfish, and it's very good. I eat a lot.
(Laughter.)
MEMBER PI-SUNYER: I mean I don't think you should scare people away from eating clams and mussels and oysters.

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MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: Well, I guess the concern is transmission of hepatitis and other very serious -- so, it's again the issue that consumers need to know the source. I mean, are they farmed? Are they wild? You know, what is the microbiological quality control?

Just as a note, I go to New Orleans to meetings, and in the restaurants where they serve them, in those places in the restrooms they have all these warnings about, you know, eat raw oysters at your own risk. So it's something that it is acknowledged that it poses a risk.

How big of a risk $I$ don't think we know. The confidence intervals are very wide. MEMBER WILLIAMS: I just wanted to say that $I$ think you could gather a lot of data from the local health departments where the foodborne illnesses are reported. I served for a number of years as Deputy Commissioner of Health and in charge of

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foodborne illnesses, and the vast majority of reports were from fast food restaurants and from picnics and other events like that where the food is not handled properly and not from sushi or shellfish.

So I think perhaps CDC would have data on that.

MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: Well, in terms of recalls, absolutely. We can look at the data, but it's not going necessarily to reflect home based issues. That's the question here, yes.

MEMBER PI-SUNYER: They're not going to come to you and report that they're poisoning you.

MEMBER NELSON: But understanding where most of the foodborne illnesses are coming from would be, I think, a big step forward. Are they from the home? Are they from the picnic?

MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: It is incredibly important. The challenge for

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coming up with the data is phenomenal. It is not an easy task, but it's a recommendation that we have in there, and it is going to be emphasizing both in the report because we cannot make progress if we don't have that information.

Next, well, I think I have good news now for those of you who were concerned about fish and so on.
(Laughter.)
MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: So what are the benefit-risk ratios for different levels and frequencies of seafood consumption? Well, you've seen the following definition of seafood based on the IOM report as finfish, shellfish and mollusks coming from marine and fresh water sources. As background, in 2004 EPA and FDA jointly issued a fish advisory for the country targeting women who they consider at risk, that is, pregnant or who may become pregnant, lactating and young children, and the whole fish

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advisory was based on an allowable upper limit of daily intake for .1 micrograms per kilogram per day of methyl mercury. So the methyl mercury concern is what drove this advisory, and the way it was calculated, was from the lower 95 percent confidence interval limit it was identified as increasing the risk for fetal neurological development times a tenfold uncertainty factor.

The advisory states that this target group should avoid large predatory fish that has high concentration of methyl mercury because methyl mercury bioaccumulates up the trophic aquatic chain. So they need to avoid shark, swordfish, king mackerel and tile fish, and consume up to 12 ounces per week of a variety of cooked seafood lower in methyl mercury, limited consumption of albacore white tuna to six ounces per week, and always to consult local advisories for locally caught fresh water fish. And, again, the target group was very clearly defined for this NEAL R. GROSS
advisory.
Why do we have to revisit this question, as it was addressed in the 2005 Dietary Guidelines Advisory Committee report? Well, there is still uncertainty about risks previously assumed. There is no existing recommendation for groups not targeted by the 2004 fish advisory, and most importantly, the public at large is very confused, and we can see that in the media. An article, I think, was December in the New York Times that went back again to ask what are we doing. People are fused confused, and also health care providers specifically, OB-GYNs, for example, advising women during pregnancy not to eat fish at all. That has never been the intent of this recommendation.

We included studies published between June 2007 and until now. Two years old and older were included, and we looked for studies dealing with healthy as well as special populations, and a very important

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piece of evidence, the systematic review by Mozaffarian and Rimm, which was published before 2007, was identified via hand review of references from included citations.

So what are the benefit ratios for different levels of frequencies of seafood consumption? The proposed conclusion is Grade 2, simply because there is still a lot of uncertainty about the size of the benefit-risk ratio.

However, we feel comfortable stating that health benefits derived from the consumption of recommended levels of a variety of seafood in the U.S. outweighed the risks associated with methyl mercury exposure even among pregnant and lactating women and young children.

The implications are that seafood is a healthy food choice that can be safely promoted provided that the types and sources of seafood to be avoided are clearly communicated to consumers.

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The review of the evidence identified three quantitative risk-benefit assessments, one systematic review and one IOM report which essentially was also conducted as a systematic peer review.

Of these five studies, three are very relevant to the U.S. One targets the French population and one the Belgian population. All took into account the risks that you've seen there, and I'm not going to read them because $I$ will take you to a table in a moment where you will see the specific risks taken into account and benefits taken into account by each of the studies. They were using the term "seafood," but just based on food consumption patterns, the analysis really emphasized the modeling of fish, consumption over other types of seafood.

So in terms of the three quantitative analyses, the one by Ginsberg and Toal, is, I think, a very relevant and interesting one because what they did was to

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conduct the benefit risk analysis based on 16 seafood species. I believe they were seafood because lobster was included -- 16 seafood species commonly consumed in the State of Connecticut, and obviously they concluded -not all of them were commonly consumed, but they also included purposely swordfish and shark to make sure how it came out in the analysis.

So those two, shark and swordfish based on the benefit-risk ratios came under the do not eat category avoidment consistent with the previous report.
however, of the remaining species, the great majority when it came to the cardiovascular disease benefit-risk assessment, there was no reason to advise consumers not to consume them frequently. They could consume them safely on a daily basis, a portion of six ounces per day according to their analysis, and when it came to neurological development, they concluded that

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individuals could consume daily seven out of the 16 species if that was their preference.

They called these recommendations tentative because they did not take into account persistent organic pollutants and other possible contaminants in fish.

But what this study does, it does call into question having a single generic two meals per week recommendation for seafood when there are different types of seafood, a lot of seafood that perhaps could be consumed more frequently.

Geuvel and colleagues conducted a risk-benefit analysis using the quality adjusted life year gains approach, and what they did was to model in France using the CALYPSO study data that was done in four coastal communities, and they modeled what would happen in terms of increase risk and benefit if individuals moved from consuming in the lower quintile moved to the upper quintile in terms of their seafood consumption.

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And they found strong QUALY gains associated with the cardiovascular disease outcome and modest QUALY gains with a neurological development outcome, and obviously the neurological development related to Omega-3 fatty acids contained in seafood.

I do want to mention that even those consumers in the lowest quintile in France, they consumed much more fish than the U.S. population. So the background seafood consumption is very high in the French population.

And Sioen and colleagues, what they did was to look at intake of seafood and see if the intakes of Omega-3 fatty acids in relationship to the intakes of perhaps methyl mercury and persistent organic pollutants and see how those look.

What they concluded was that three fish meals per week would meet the Omega-3 fatty acid recommendation for the Belgian population, keeping methyl mercury and POPs

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intake within safe levels. Their advice was for those fish meals that it was appropriate as long as it was half of them oily, which are high in Omega-3, and half of them lean to lower the risk of exposure to POPs.

So the highlight from that study is that a variety of seafood should be recommended with different fat content.

And in terms of the systematic reviews, the IOM report emphasized heavily three large prospective cohort studies from the Seychelles Islands, the Faroe Islands and New Zealand, and the systematic review, qualitative in nature, ended up endorsing the 2004 advisory for the same target groups, but it extended the recommendation, which became more liberal, to groups beyond pregnant and lactating women and young children because they could benefit from the Omega-3 fatty acid intake in terms of, you know, cardiovascular disease without being very concerned about possible harm that related to methyl mercury.

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The relationship between methyl mercury and cardiovascular disease is still in question at the levels of consumption that people are usually exposed to.

And the systematic review by Mozaffarian and Rimm also looked at all of the possible documented benefits and risks for Omega-3 fatty acids, methyl mercury, and POPs, specifically PCBs and dioxin-like compounds, and what is very interesting from this analysis is that when they look at the benefit-risk ratio in terms of coronary heart disease, mortality prevented as a result of increased Omega-3 fatty acids in relationship to potential increased cancer mortality associated with additional exposure or increased exposure to POPs, they concluded that the benefit-risk ratio for farmed salmon was 100 to 300 across different age groups, and for wild salmon it was even bigger, 300 to more than 1,000, and the reason it's bigger for wild salmon than from farmed salmon is

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that wild salmon tends to have lower levels of POPs.

But any way you look at it, you know, the benefit-risk ratio is substantially, substantially in favor of recommending, advising the public that based on the current data that we have consuming a variety of cooked seafood in the U.S. is beneficial.

MEMBER CLEMENS: Comments? Tom.
MEMBER PEARSON: The fatty acid subcommittee obviously has had an interest on this from the Omega-3, and we're not going to be reporting those today, but just to share, we've had two Webinars on this, one from Professor Tom Brenna from Cornell and the other from Dr. Joseph Hibbeln from NIH.

I'm fascinated with these benefit-to-risk ratios because it seems that there's even more new data in the last year or two that would since jack that up even higher. The irony of this whole thing, of course, is that the very group of individuals who are most

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sensitive to the methyl mercury, and that is fetuses and early childhood, and obviously implying pregnant women or women thinking about getting pregnant, is obviously the same where the DHA is the most impactful.

And one wonders if, in fact, with this confusion, where that center of confusion is as well. So we have a l ot of work to do about this, but $I$ think certainly it seems that the science is coming in extremely strongly for perhaps even stronger and larger recommendations for the DHA in this group than before.

MEMBER CLEMENS: Rog here.
I appreciate your comments there, Tom. In the next meeting we will discuss some of the offsetting issues that might be associated with methyl mercury in a positive way. So I appreciate your comments very much.

Also, to pick up where Rafael mentioned about in-home cooking and that of Mim's, it's clear that we all are aware of the

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most recent E . coli issue affecting the beef production. We also need to be aware that these issues affect home processing or home cooking. If we're going to undercook -- and I think Rafael mentioned this -- if we undercook the beef that we get wherever we get it, either a cow from our back yard or from the local box market, we need to cook it properly and, to Rafael's excellent comment, by using proper temperatures and cooking times.

We certainly know that, in fact, with undercooked beef, it can lead to serious illnesses in the home and children have died as a result of undercooking beef. So we have to be cautious about it and be more attentive to the issues that affect us at home.

Any other comments?
CHAIRPERSON VAN HORN: What is the evidence from places in our country where seafood consumption is highest? One would expect that, you know, if there really were major problems, that we would see pockets of

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methyl mercury toxicity that occur there because of these greater increases. Are we going to hear any?

I mean, are there data to that topic? Eric, you probably know.

MEMBER RIMM: This is Eric Rimm.
I think it's obviously a challenging topic, and some of the initial documentations of the dangers of methyl mercury were in really highly toxic areas where there is contamination.

And so it would be hard to capture to the extent where there would be a pocket of methyl mercury excessive consumption because some of the neurologic effects are quite subtle and sometimes take years and years and years to develop. So some of the evidence that's coming out now looking in the U.S. looking at the impact of mercury on the fetus is really looking at subtle changes in infants and in four year olds and in six year old that may be slight differences in IQ levels.

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So it would be kind of hard to capture that as a pocket. So I don't think we necessarily have huge contamination issues in the U.S. It's just sort of subtle differences between the benefits of Omega-3s and the detriments of mercury.

MEMBER PEARSON: But the more extreme experiments have also been done, and those are in the Seychelles Islands and the Faroes with really extraordinary fish consumptions. Islands tend to eat a lot of fish since they're surrounded by it, and that was very long term. Those kids, I think, were followed up into their early teens with almost instant -- and there was also looking at dental amalgams and other sources of mercury.

Since it was a Rochester group that was doing part of it, we get seminars quite frequently. As far as I could tell, the more fish you ate, the smarter you were.

MEMBER CLEMENS: I appreciate you bringing that. This is Rog. I appreciate you

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bringing that up. Obviously there are smart people in New York. We will actually address that study extensively in the next go-round.

Also, if we look at some of the next steps we're examining as indicated on the slide, constant personal hygiene is critical, washing of hands. Sing "Happy Birthday" to yourself when you wash your hands.

We also understand that the food code will soon be updated for 2009, I recollect, and Rafael and I are looking at this very seriously, how that food code as applied to the commercial environment can be applied to our home. The various practices on a large scale can, in fact, be applied in our home operations.

So clearly, cleaning surfaces that now have color coded surfaces in different ways to actually improve sanitation capabilities in the home; we will be addressing some of those technologies in our next meeting.

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Obviously as a big issue to opportunity to increase a variety of foods, some of those foods are at risk whether they're locally grown or commercially available. So clearly we need to be sure that we handle them the most appropriately, and those appropriations indicated here, fruits and vegetables, and so forth as indicated here. Clean and separate are critical in the home.

Obviously comments by Rafael and the comments by those who were listening to this conference, undercooking and managing foods appropriately in the home is really critical to maintain the health in the home as well as to underscore the importance of minimizing any foodborne outbreaks, including picnics and so forth that we have at gatherings.

So we look at new techniques, and techniques that affect packaging, the techniques that improve food storage. Those

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kinds of issues will certainly be addressed at the next meeting, and the clicker is -Rafael, do you want to comment here?

MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: Yes. The idea was to see if we could identify additional benefit risk assessments based on seafood species. We think that for consumers, consumers tend to prefer certain species, and the most useful guidance, I think, at the end of the day is to provide them with access as to entering their preferences and hopefully databases will have information to compute the benefit-risk for them.

Domingo and colleagues have exactly done that in Spain and here in the U.S. we have the cooperative extension system with Dr. Santerre leading a very important effort at giving access to consumers through the Web for determining their risk, benefitrisk of the consumption.

MEMBER CLEMENS: The consumers are clearly asking for something more definitive,
and our goal is to provide more definitive guidance in the consumption of seafood type products.

Cheryl.
MEMBER ACHTERBERG: It occurs to me that while I guess consumers are cooking once a week, which is surprising to me, they are watching these chef cooking shows more often than that, and that might be the best vehicle to communicate some of this information.

MEMBER CLEMENS: I appreciate that remark. One of my daughters is a chef. So actually a lot of the practice that you see on those cooking shows are inappropriate when it comes to food safety. this is a no-brainer. So they are educating the public and will do it "don't do what I do, but do what I say."

So clearly, actually I personally have a movement through the Food Network to try to educate some of the chefs and bring that to light, and we're hoping that through

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the process we can actually get a food safety message out through that program. Excellent comment.

Others?
MEMBER APPEL: Yeah, this is Larry.

I always like to think about implementation even though that violates the rules, but it seems to me that food safety is one of those areas where we don't really have a great model for transmitting information. I think it's sort of haphazard through newspapers. Is there any thought to -- I mean, you know, if you do get information about nutrition or food safety maybe in schools, if not at a point where you're actually doing a lot of active food preparation -- so has there been any thought about how to do this better?

Because I think that's where probably the money is.

MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: Yes.
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Well, I think, you know, that the FightBac!® Campaign is a very nice example of a partnership that involves government and industry and so on that, you know, has increased the level of awareness, level of knowledge about food safety in the country. They use many different venues to transmit this information to the public.

But a very, very big obstacle is the issue of risk perception. If people are not convinced that this is a risk for them in their homes, how likely it is that they're going to follow the advice.

So what Mim was requesting, I think, is very crucial. It's very key. Can we quantify better the risk of foodborne illness at home as a result of us not handling the food properly in our home, in our home kitchens?

MEMBER APPEL: Let me just follow up on that. Larry Appel again.

I'm just wondering though. I NEAL R. GROSS
guess you didn't do research recommendations, but one research recommendation would be to develop and test innovative strategies because I think that even that probably will still be tough, you know, and you know, whether there are ways that you can do it at point of purchase or at end of purchase or, you know, something that -- because I think that this is an area where we just don't have the right model in place.

MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: And, again, it goes back to children and teaching kids in schools the principles behind crosscontamination. I think it would go a long way at our efforts to make it easier to explain to the public why it is important to do what we are advising them to do.

CHAIRPERSON VAN HORN: One thing that wasn't mentioned that I think we talked about last time, but I'd love an update on this or just finding out where it is at this point, and that has to do with fish farming
and aquaculture, recognizing as we were told somewhere along the line that, you know, the importance of fish farming will just continue to rise as people are recommended to eat more fish, and that there were some problems earlier. I am aware specifically at least over the last five years or so that food being fed to fish being farmed -- say that ten times fast -- it was actually contaminated.

And so the idea of, you know, trying to hone in on that source because $I$ know the public is totally confused about wild caught fish, farmed, you know. You have a benefit by choosing one over the other, and I think nutritionists are likewise not sure what to tell people.

MEMBER CLEMENS: Thank you for that comment, Linda.

Indeed, the consumer is much confused over that very issue. I appreciate that. We do know after that one big incident that we're all aware of. We know that the

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industry has actually cleaned up the feed greatly, and there's actually greater attention to that.

In addition, too, the pending bills on the Hill will mandate better clean feed that we give to those fishes that are being farmed.

And relative to food safety, as you know, there are a lot of bills on the Hill being discussed as we speak, and there's also a very important good safety conference, and, Rafael, I think you're speaking at that one, in March in Atlanta.
(Laughter.)
MEMBER CLEMENS: Well, one of us is speaking in Atlanta.

MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: That's why I came to this meeting, to find this out. (Laughter.)

MEMBER CLEMENS: The point is it's a public conference that will be done on food safety in Atlanta done by the CDC. Of course, NEAL R. GROSS
it will be addressing this very important topic. So stay tuned and practice better health.

We'll be discussing better technologies in the future. Rafael did an excellent job commenting about the cleanliness or lack thereof of refrigerators. Have you checked your microwave ovens lately?
(Laughter.)
MEMBER NICKOLS-RICHARDSON: This is Shelly.

I just want to comment that there is a system in place, and it's called the Cooperative Extension Service, and as cuts are made to that program, part of the impact of what happens has been the consumers, the public, are not as well educated about topics like food safety, about how to farm well, and all of those issues that surround our food supply, as well as how we handle, process and then how that relates to health and wellness. So there is that system, and I NEAL R. GROSS
think as much as USDA as a whole can tap into its different parts, then we'll do better for the public.

MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: Wonderful comment, Shelly, and I do want to mention that, you know, low income consumers, women of reproductive age, major source of food safety information for them is WIC program, and in fact, some researchers are attributing improved food safety behaviors as a result of perhaps the education that is done oftentimes in cooperation with the Cooperative Extension System.

So that's really important, and very briefly, I wanted to mention to what was your question, Linda, that as we presented to the science review subcommittee what we will try to do is to understand better how government and industry -- what are they doing to try to monitor the levels of diverse contaminants in the food supply because consumers think that they're taking care of

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it, and I think we may be surprised and they may be surprised that there is a lot in their hands to do to minimize the risk.

MEMBER CLEMENS: And in closing, thank you for the comment about the extended service and really wonderful education opportunities through that to happen.

As the country calls for more locally grown products, whatever that means, it's clear that food safety is paramount at locally grown products, and we have to ask ourselves who's monitoring the henhouse when locally grown products are actually being distributed throughout the community.

While this movement is gaining momentum, $I$ think from a food safety perspective we need to address some of these issues.

CHAIRPERSON VAN HORN: Perhaps one model of this, I mean, I'm reminded that Thanksgiving is approaching, and I think one of the most successful models suggesting what

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you just were mentioning, Rafael, between industry partnering with government relates to the turkey hotlines that are out there that are extremely well tapped into during this time of year as people have a million questions about how to thaw turkey safely and all of the things that go along with that.

That model, you know, is something that perhaps could be given additional thought for other venues, including this one, you know, related to ways to get the word out in a user friendly manner.

Mim, you had another question?
MEMBER NELSON: Yes. So two questions. One of which is back to the schools. I mean, not necessarily bringing back home ec, which is gone pretty much now. I feel like we've lost two generations of children and adults that don't know how to cook, and I think that there may be a way to think back into the health curriculum of schools to get cooking, safe cooking, you

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know. Also, a lot of people go into that profession. I mean, there's a jobs piece to that.

I'd like to try to resurrect cooking, safe cooking skills, et cetera, but that's just a comment.

But is there any reason -- I don't know this data. So I'm asking, but it's following up to what Linda said -- is there any reason that there should be from a health perspective benefit between farmed fish versus while caught?

And that's one that nobody has done, and is there any reason why we because there's more evidence, or not, that we should be having any differential recommendation in terms of the health benefits?

MEMBER RIMM: This is Eric Rimm.
I mean, that's the question that I think Rafael nicely put, is that when you're looking at the benefit versus risk, there's somewhere between 300 to 1,000 times more

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benefit than there is risk for eating fish, regardless of where it comes from. So I think the Omega-3 benefit is so much more than any small contaminant that you would get in fish.

That doesn't mean it doesn't need to be monitored. It doesn't mean it doesn't need to be controlled over the feed, but the fact of the matter is that we're measuring things in parts per billion or parts per trillion.

You know, if we measured all of the food we eat, there's lots of contaminants in the parts per billion and parts per trillion. In fact, most of the contaminants we get are not in fish. They're in dairy, they're in beef, and they're in chicken than they are in fish.

So I think that there obviously is a bit of I don't know if it's a scare or it's just publicized better that it's been in fish because people have measured it, but the fact of the matter is that that's not where we get

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most of our contaminants from.
MEMBER NELSON: No. I guess I was actually looking at the flip side. Is there any reason why we should be stating that it would be better to eat wild caught fish than farmed fish, not that there's no evidence?

MEMBER RIMM: Well, some of it is price. Some of it is, you know, impact. Does it impact the environment differently? If we all ate fish ever day, obviously we couldn't support that in this country. There's not enough food to support the farm fishing industry. So some of it is just an environmental demand, that if we all ate too much fish all the time or if it was all farmed it would be an issue.

But I think other than that, you know, I don't think there is necessarily a strong push to say we all should be eating wild fish as opposed to farmed.

MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: colleague of mine at a conference, the way he NEAL R. GROSS
framed these was in some countries chicken tastes like fish, and in other countries fish tastes like chicken because it depends a lot on how they are fed.

MEMBER NELSON: They're fed the same thing.

MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: So again - -

MEMBER NELSON: So I guess that's why I guess I'm asking. Because the wild caught is actually eating different food.

MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: Right.
MEMBER NELSON: You know, they're eating more naturally.

MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: Consumers want to know how the farm fish was fed. That's kind of what we're trying to get at, yeah.

MEMBER CLEMENS: In closing, we will be addressing some of the new technologies that are emerging to provide a better environment so that we can have safer food. We'll be addressing these in the next

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go-around, and also in the next go-around, we'll be discussing these important topics: food allergy, which was not addressed the last go-round. We certainly see that it was hit hard in 2006, and we want to address some of those issues.

Now, a lot of people are becoming much more sensitive to more than just the basics. We'll be discussing that.

Clearly organic food is on a lot of people's hit list. So let's talk a little bit about organic.

We'll also be discussing other things, things other than microbial issues. A lot of people think food contamination, food safety is focused on methyl mercury or microbes. It's bigger than that. Actually every food contains something that nature puts there to protect the food, and so we have to be careful how we put things together and what we call those things, contaminants or naturally occurring components.

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Also it's important to note that the FDA came out with a position not too long ago that farmed fish may have higher levels of N3 fatty acids. Again, to pick up on what Linda commented, it really, again, depends on some of the feeds that are provided some of those fish and the kinds of fish, obviously. Other comments?

So now you're ready to have a safe lunch.
(Laughter.)
CHAIRPERSON VAN HORN: That's right.

Roger, Rafael, thank you very much. That was excellent, and I want to thank all the committee members for a lively and very productive discussion today so far.

Now it's time for a lunch break. Indeed, wash your hands and move around, and we'll see you back here at one o'clock Eastern time.

Thank you.
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(Whereupon, at 12:04 p.m., the meeting was recessed for lunch, to reconvene at 1:00 p.m., the same day.)

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(1:13 p.m.)

CHAIRPERSON VAN HORN: Welcome back, everyone. We're ready to rock and roll with fatty acid subcommittee. Tom Pearson will lead us off.

Thank you. MEMBER PEARSON: Thank you, Linda, and $I$ just wanted to begin by acknowledging my colleagues on the fatty acid and cholesterol subcommittee: Eric Rimm, Roger Clemens, and Naomi Fukagawa.

I'm going to talk about half of the questions that we have set out to tackle and the remaining will be later on for the February meeting.

I also wanted to acknowledge our terrific staff. Shirley Blakely and I speak every Monday on the phone just so I can keep oriented to time and place, and I've been greatly appreciative of that, and I've been very appreciative of the bibliographic support

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from Patricia Guenther, Molly McGrane, and Thomas Fungwe. So just thanks to all of them as we've gone through this literature.

I just want to talk a little bit about some terminologies in your slides. You'll see some of these. So if I go rapidly what an iTFA is, you'll know that it's an industrial trans fatty acid, and we may not be as jargonous as the geneticists, but we're getting close. So these are some of the terms that we'll be using today.

I'd like to begin by putting this into context, and this is a committee that I sat on for the American College of Cardiology, looking at the number of patients with heart disease over the next half century. We're currently at about 12.4 million Americans have heart disease, and by 2050 that number will be about 25 million.

And what this is a consequence of is several things. Number one, the good news is that we're doing a great job in patients NEAL R. GROSS
who develop heart disease, keeping them alive. Our case fatality rates have fallen by about 75 percent. That's the good news.

The bad news is that we really haven't affected incidence, and as I'll mention, is it the new cases are still appearing? And the consequences of this graph is tremendous levels of disability, health care cost, and it's all preventable.

So the epidemiologic background of all this is that while mortality continues to fall, the incidence of coronary heart disease does not appear to have declined since about 1990 so that the new cases are still filling the reservoir.

Correlating with that is serum cholesterol levels correlate with coronary heart disease rates on a worldwide basis, and you've all seen the ecologic graphs with coronary heart disease mortality rates and serum cholesterol levels.

Serum cholesterol levels in the
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United States appear to have been stable since 1990. This is actually despite the widespread use of effective cholesterol lowering drugs, which is now certainly an industry in the multiple billions of dollars. So if everything would have remained the same, one might have expected to have a decline in serum cholesterol, and that may, in fact, be happening in the least-last few years, but the question is what are we doing about the diet.

So these are just some data from the Minnesota heart survey showing that from 1980 through about 2000 this early decline in the 1980s and then the planing off of that leaving us with average total cholesterol levels of 200 to 205 milligrams per deciliter, and you can see there hasn't been any change in the HDL either.

So this is really the challenge, is where we're going to go from here, particularly in a public health way, not in a pharmacologic way?

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Further epidemiologic background is that the relationship between saturated fat and cholesterol is well established, and this has been cited in previous dietary guidelines as well as numerous other guidelines, professional science societies, et cetera, and there is little evidence that dietary saturated fat and cholesterol intakes have changed since the 1990s.

And here what we can see is that, again, Minnesota, this is the NHANES data, looking at 2000 versus 1994. You can see that this is total cholesterol in millimoles per deciliter, on the left there being around 1990 NHANES III data and then NHANES in 2000, and you can see for men there really hasn't been any change at all, perhaps a slight decrease in women, despite a tripling of cholesterol lowering drug use now in upwards of ten percent of the American population.

So one of our first PICO questions really had to do with what is the evidence of

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implementing dietary guidelines for fats, and this is one of the questions that we had, is how did intakes of fat and cholesterol by Americans change between 1977 and 2005, according to national dietary surveys, and we had shown you some of these data previously, but we now -- the staff has been able to provide us with quite more data and organized, I think, well.

And on this chart what we see is intake of fats as percent of energy for all persons, and what we can see here is that we have data points from the late 1970 s and around 1990, but there is, I think, ample reason for concern for methodologic differences in these early nutritional surveys, although $I$ think they're useful for putting this into context.

But certainly we also have, using the same methodologies, NHANES data from -kind of chasing each other around there -NHANES data from 2001 now to 2006, especially

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three data points. And I think the message is that I think there's pretty solid evidence to suggest that total fat consumption hasn't really changed at all, right around 33 to 34 percent, and the saturated fat has really been unchanged since, say, the mid-1990s at 11 to 11 and a half percent.

Similarly, polyunsaturated fats and monosaturated fats as percent of calories has been quite steady, and you can see, again, probably due to some methodologic differences an increase in total energy, suggesting there may, in fact, be an increase in grams per day of these fats.

So I think the point is that given our epidemic of coronary disease with the incidence being stable and certainly the ecologic evidence we have of the importance of the diet and establishing population-wide cholesterol levels, the question is what do we do about these levels of saturated fat that have been basically stuck at 11 and a half

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percent.
We also have now data for men versus women, and I think the point here is that it's pretty much the same, and what we can see is saturated fat, about 11 percent in men, polyunsaturated and monounsaturated and again very little change between the mid-1990s and 2006.

Similarly for women, you see the same with the same amount of saturated fat as percent of calories, possibly a little bit of increase in polyunsaturated fats, but still again very little change over the 1995-2000 and up to the 2005 guideline periods.

So one of the next questions that we addressed was what is influence of dietary fat on cardiovascular disease and other health outcomes, and for this there obviously had been prior guidelines, including the 2005, which has reviewed this, and what our intention here was to update these databases out to saturated fat and cholesterol.

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And as we'll show you, we're going to be presenting in February monounsaturated and polyunsaturated fat in this similar context.

And here we see the inclusion criteria for our searches. We initially had done 2004 to current, 2009, but in certain circumstances we would go back to 1999 depending on the specific topic. We looked at both healthy subjects and those at elevated chronic disease risk, as well as some disease subgroups as we'll show you, particularly people with Type 2 diabetes or at risk for them.

Something else that we had done similar to some of the other groups, and that is stayed away from cross-sectional studies and limited our looks at randomized trials or prospective cohort analyses and meta-analyses.

For the feeding studies, given the asymptoting of particularly lipid levels, we had limited the search to those with a feeding

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period of greater than four weeks, in diabetic outcomes to greater than six weeks.

So just to remind you is that there really don't appear to be large differences in saturated fat intake in men versus women. So the real reference point here would be an 11 to 11 and a half percent saturated fat as percent of calories as to where we are currently.

So the first question is what is the effect of saturated fatty acid intake on the risk of cardiovascular disease, which is a previously reviewed question, but added to this was the Type 2 diabetes as an endpoint, and then intermediate markers such as at the lipoprotein levels, measures of insulin resistance and inflammation, the latter of which we really hadn't seen many papers for. So this is largely the diabetic and lipid intermediate markers.

The review included 12 studies since 2004, ten randomized trials, one non-

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randomized clinical trial, and one analysis of 11 pooled cohorts.

The evidence review showed that saturated fatty acid replacement was five to seven percent of energy with MUFAs or PUFAs, where largely the comparisons we're talking about. This is important because this is not a replacement with carbohydrates, which is the second point. So most of the data relatively have a set amount of total fat, and the comparisons and the tradeoffs are within the total fat amount.

These showed significant reductions in total LDL cholesterol in about nine trials, and in one trial improved levels of less atherogenic LDL particle size.

When it came to saturated fat replacement with carbohydrates, it was reduced total LDL cholesterol, but this was a bit of a less favorable situation with decreased HDL and increased triglycerides in that data set.

And the PUFA analysis of 11 cohort NEAL R. GROSS
studies showed replacing saturated fats modeled to five percent of energy, reduced CHD events in middle aged and older adults.

Now, in terms of the second step of this was saturated fatty acids in Type 2 diabetes. This, again, was not included in the 2005 guidelines, and this had ten studies of seven randomized trials, one prospective cohort study and two systematic reviews.

The evidence here showed replacement of saturated fat with mono and polyunsaturated fatty acids was, again, mixed. Of the 12 trials, insulin sensitivity was improved in three of the trials and was not changed in nine of the trials.

There were four trials which showed a reduction of saturated fatty acids leading to increased insulin sensitivity without a comparison group with the MUFAs and the PUFAs, and there was the reduced saturated fat intake decreasing risk of Type 2 diabetes in three studies. The two Lindstrom

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studies were two different studies, just a redundancy there, as the basis for our conclusions, which with Grade 1 evidence was that dietary saturated fat is positively associated with intermediary markers and endpoint health outcomes for two chronic diseases now increased serum total and LDL cholesterol with an increased risk of cardiovascular disease and increased markers of insulin resistance and increased risk of Type 2 diabetes.

Conversely, decreased saturated fatty acids intake improves measures of both cardiovascular disease and Type 2 diabetes risk.

Specifically, and given the granularity leading to a Grade 1 recommendation of the evidence, the evidence shows that a five percent energy decrease in saturated fatty acids when replaced by MUFAs or PUFAs, decreases risk of cardiovascular disease and Type 2 diabetes in healthy adults

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and improved insulin responsiveness and insulin resistance in Type 2 diabetes patients. So those are the conclusions from that evidence and that question.

The implications of this is, again, with the other working groups relative to energy balance, et cetera. We're working with really no change in total fat consumption here, with replacement of saturated fats with mono and polyunsaturated fatty acids rather than with carbohydrates as the basis for our discussions.

Another nuance is the addition of a second chronic disease, diabetes, as a possible driver for saturated fatty acid reductions, and then the suggestion that replacement of five percent of saturated fatty acid calories with MUFAs and PUFAs would correlate essentially with the current, say, 11, 11 and a half percent of saturated fat calories from energy, so saturated fat level of less than seven percent advantage, the

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implications for that evidence review.
In terms of cholesterol intake, the question is what is the effect of cholesterol intake on increased risk of cardiovascular disease, including these intermediate outcomes, such as lipid hypoprotein levels and markers of inflammation. Again, not a lot of literature on the markers on inflammation.

These are the current and last 30 years or so look at cholesterol intake in milligrams per day, and I think what you can see is that in men there are currently above the 300 milligrams per day, and that this level has been very stable certainly within this decade and probably before that as well.

And for women, you can see that they're considerably below the recommended level, and again, this has to do with this issue of how many total calories are being consumed, which obviously differ between men and women.

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So this is the discussion we had earlier during Larry's presentation. How should consumption of cholesterol be expressed or targeted or whatever verb you'd like to use up there? Milligrams per day, which is the status quo; milligrams per day by level of caloric intake, which I think is borrowing from Larry's stratification of different levels of diet; or just milligrams were 1,000 calories, and I think this is an issue. We've heard now from Fiber and others, and I think this is something we should really come to some consensus about. But you can see from the men and the women are a bit different there.

I have a note here saying I've added a couple of slides at the end here. So you may not have all of the slides, but they will be available for you later.

In terms of cholesterol and cardiovascular disease, the review of the evidence, there were 16 studies reviewed since

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1999, eight randomized trials, five prospective cohort studies, one meta-analysis, and two reviews. So the cholesterol study continues to be told.

The evidence review for randomized control trials is that we now have evidence, data that in previous years about 30 to 40 percent of dietary cholesterol was in the form of one food, that is, eggs. This apparently had reduced via less consumption of eggs and possibly less cholesterol in the eggs, to about 25 percent of cholesterol comes from that source. It still is the largest source, and many of the randomized controlled trials were -- industry supported over half of them, in fact -- looking at egg versus egg substitutes or eggs versus no eggs. And at least two studies showed an elevation of LDL and HDL in hyper responders, but no change in hypo responders, leaving open this issue of genetic predispositions, and six of those studies were negative.

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There also was a meta-analysis of 17 studies of high cholesterol intake, and its --

MEMBER PI-SUNYER: What do you mean by negative?

MEMBER PEARSON: There is no change, yeah, no change in the entire group, yeah.

And meta-analysis of 17 studies with high intake on total LDL over HDL ratio showed no changes, and this is consistent with the IOM report previously with 49 randomized trials.

Now, quite different in terms of funding sources, there were a number of large and particularly federally funded studies prospective studies, which again looked at particularly egg consumption. Egg consumption of up to seven eggs per week was not associated with increased mortality, and you can see the number of large prospective studies there.

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Egg consumption of greater than seven eggs per week was a little bit less consistently with one study showing an association and one study not.

But in three of the studies they did look at this Type 2 diabetes subgroup and three of those studies was able to show a consumption was related to coronary heart disease in patients with Type 2 diabetes.

And with the exception of the Type 2 diabetes finding, this was consistent with the IOM report.

So the proposed conclusion for cholesterol and cardiovascular disease is that there's a lack of consistency in epidemiologic studies relating dietary cholesterol to clinical cardiovascular disease endpoints. However, many studies on dietary cholesterol use eggs as a dietary source. Independent of other dietary factors, evidence suggests that there is no association between consumption of one egg per day and risk of CHD or stroke in NEAL R. GROSS
health adults, although consumption of greater than seven eggs per week may increase risk.

An apparently important and quite consistent exception is that dietary cholesterol has been associated with cardiovascular disease risk in individuals with Type 2 diabetes.

We addressed a couple of other questions in the area of dietary fat, components affecting serum lipids and lipoproteins. Two of the other issues that we addressed were stearic acid and natural versus industrial trans fatty acids.

This is the intake in grams per day of stearic acid across time. You can see that if anything the stearic acid has been increasing. Stearic acid, of course, is labeled as a saturated fat. It's the C18:0 fatty acid, and what perhaps the nuance here is is that actually there's quite a bit of it in the diet, particularly in the form of red meat, and this constitutes somewhere between

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-- the 2005 guideline listed it as about three and a half percent of total calories on the average in the diet, and more recent we've provided you with some of the tables in the handouts, and it looks like about two and a half percent.

But the point is it has got a sizable contribution to calories, particularly if you're going to be thinking about changing its inclusion as a cholesterol raising fat, which is the current implication of including it as a saturated fat along with other saturated fatty acids.

So the real question then, the NEL question, was what are the effects of dietary stearic acid on LDL cholesterol, and the review of recent studies looks at two randomized controlled trials and one systematic review. When stearic is substituted for carbohydrates, there's no effect on the LDL levels in two randomized trials, and only one of those two trials found

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also a decrease with stearic acid substitution to decrease HDL cholesterol.

And this meta-analysis by Mensink, et al., found no significant diet induced changes in LDL or HDL, but a small but significant reduction in triglyceride levels with stearic acid.

So the proposed conclusion with Grade 2 level of evidence is that based on randomized controlled trials, replacement of energy from carbohydrates with stearic acid has a neutral effect on LDL cholesterol. Potential impact of stearic acid on cardiovascular disease risk in general remains unclear, but certainly it does not appear to be like the other C12 through C16 saturated fats that have a cholesterol raising effect.

The other question we had on trans fatty acids was what effect does consuming natural versus synthetic, that is, industrial trans fatty acids have on serum lipids and lipoproteins. So in this instance it's NEAL R. GROSS
somewhat of a smaller question. Obviously there's been the -- in the 2005 guidelines the recommendation to lower trans fatty acids as much as possible, and the question is are there from these two sources any evidence that one may be carrying the risk of the LDL raising and the HDL lowering effect which has been so well documented.

So just to put this in context, the exposure of trans fatty acids is that the RTFA, which is the ruminant that's a natural trans fatty acids is really quite small in the U.S. adult population, approximately 1.2 grams. You can see the difference for men and women, and it's estimated to represent 0.5 percent of total daily energy intake. So a relatively small amount.

So even if there is some difference, the effect of this ruminant just given the low exposure is probably going to be minimum in terms of a public health effect.

Nonetheless, there were the four
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studies to review, three prospective cohort studies and one case control study, and basically with Grade 2 evidence the proposed conclusion, it's well documented that industrial trans fatty acids adversely affect the LDL, HDL and non HDL cholesterol levels, but evidence is limited that ruminant TFA levels typically consumed have any effect on cardiovascular disease or coronary disease risk, and based on the results of these two, small, well designed cross-over studies listed below, high intakes or ruminant trans fatty acid do not show consistent or different effects than industrial trans fatty acids. One study found that ruminants trans fatty acids compared to industrial trans fatty acids increased both LDL and HDL cholesterol in women but not in men, but certainly there wasn't any suggestion that these ruminants, natural trans fatty acids were certainly safer than the industrial ones, which was the previous point.

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The three prospective cohort studies and one case control study using coronary heart disease endpoints show no significant differences in association between ruminants and industrial trans fatty acids and basically corroborate the studies and the effects on lipids and lipoproteins, and so the proposed conclusion is that the total trans fatty intake would be considered a target of dietary change, and there really isn't any reason to separate these into industrial versus ruminant, and obviously the previous recommendations had to reduce the consumption of those as low as possible.

In terms of remaining research topics, we will be presenting in similar format the next time on what is the influence of dietary fat on coronary disease and other outcomes. You can see that this is the monounsaturated fatty acids and, in general polyunsaturated fatty acids is the other side of the saturated fatty acid coin since most of

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our data are talking about the substitution of MUFAs and PUFAs for the saturated fat. So it's the other side of the evidence that we just showed you. So for both of these we'll be looking at that in that context.

We have a lot more work to do and have with Roger and Eric some terrific expertise on this committee relative to Omega3 fatty acids in health, and we're well along with these evidence searches, et cetera.

One of the issues we want to look at is plant versus marine sources of these since the compounds are a bit different, alpha-linolenic versus docosahexaenoic acid, are obviously chemically different.

And we've had two terrific Webinars, one from Professor Tom Brenna from Cornell, one from Dr. Joseph Hibbeln from NIH, on the effect of material diet on Omega-3 fatty acids on breast milk consumption and infant health outcomes, and again, as I mentioned in the discussions earlier, this is

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an impressive and growing body of literature that I think should cause us pause to perhaps even be more enthusiastic about fish consumption, particularly in women of child bearing ages.

Other research topics are what are the health benefits related to consumption of fats from specific foods, nuts, fish and chocolate and health outcomes are some specific -- this is kind of reminiscent of the egg discussion relative to dietary cholesterol because that was the inference from those, and nuts, fish and chocolate obviously have some interesting fatty acid compositions, but other things as well.

And then to look at the genetic polymorphisms affecting the association between dietary components and plasma LDL cholesterol, and looking at some of these hyper and hyporesponder issues that we've talked about. Certainly, there is some evidence but whether or not these are ready NEAL R. GROSS
for prime time and some other recommendations is part of our deliberations.

We will be looking at some food pattern modeling, looking at the impacts on food choices and overall nutrient adequacy of limiting cholesterol raising fat to less than seven percent of total calories, and what is the impact on food choices of the nutrients and overall nutrient adequacy of limiting cholesterol to less than 200 milligrams per day.

I might say seven percent of saturated fat calories and less than 200 milligrams per day of cholesterol are the current recommendations for individuals with coronary heart disease and with lipid abnormalities. So these are more clinical recommendations currently that we're looking at the impact and the modeling effects that they were put onto more population-wide recommendations.

And then what is the impact of NEAL R. GROSS
food choice and overall nutrient adequacy for increasing Omega-3 fatty acids and look at that in terms of broad health outcomes.

Just finally, I looked at about 25 public comments, and you can see what these are related to saturated fat, cholesterol, and stearic acid. Fatty acids probably is the winner here.

About a third of the comments were from students. Students, keep on sending them. We enjoyed them. They were good questions, and maybe don't send them to everybody. I'm getting a difference in consensus here, but you can send them to us anyway.

But I wanted to congratulate the students, and it's nice to know that young people are listening to this process, and that we're listening to you. I think that's the other side of this. So those are my comments. Questions? Mim.

MEMBER NELSON: This is Mim
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Nelson.
I'm wondering about this recommendation, the implication about keeping cholesterol to under 200 milligrams per day when it seems like the preponderance of the evidence especially with eggs which have approximately, you know, 300 or so, that one a day is okay. What's the rationale for keeping the 200?

MEMBER PEARSON: Well, a couple of things. Number one, I think the cholesterol content of eggs has been going down so that it's not 300 anymore, although I'm sure there's probably some variability to that.

And, again, we're looking at particularly for many subgroups, the hyperlimidemic, the coronary disease subgroups, and now it looks like the diabetic subgroups, that would be the recommendation.

The 2005 recommendation was as low as possible with 300 being the upper goal for most individuals and 200 for these high risk

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subgroups, and the real suggestion would be that the lower the better. There is, as pointed out by the IOM report, since we synthesize our own cholesterol, that there really isn't any upper limit of normal that's recommended, that's required. It's not a minimum daily issue because of the synthetic capacity that we have.

And given the general -- it certainly looks like one egg per day on the average is safe in healthy individuals. There are these subgroups in which it is less so, and so the recommendation would be to move that down for them.

MEMBER PI-SUNYER: This is Xavier.
I wanted to ask you about this replacement, five percent energy decrease of saturated fat. You said that if it's replaced with carbohydrate you get a lower HDL and a higher triglyceride. Is that at that level of five percent or is it a bigger replacement that gives you that detrimental change in HDL

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and triglyceride?
MEMBER PEARSON: As we showed with our NEL (phonetic) report, the evidence on that is limited. I think it was in the range of that. I have to go look at that, but there was this recurrent theme with both epidemiologic endpoints for modeling, as well as randomized trial models with either lipid, LDL specifically, or insulin sensitivity that I think had some consistency with this five percent difference, which conveniently looks at the possible public health impact of going, say, from 11 and a half to six and a half percent, in other words, above 11 to less than seven.

MEMBER PI-SUNYER: The reason I mention that is because, you know, we're talking earlier about energy density. We're also going to talk about fiber. In a way if you could substitute saturated fat with carbohydrate, it will give you a higher energy or lower energy density and a higher fiber

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intake. That would seem to be better than substituting it with a high energy density food like monounsaturates or polyunsaturates, but I don't know what, you know, what the detrimental part of doing that with regard to HDL and triglyceride.

MEMBER PEARSON: Well, I think others in the group can comment because we've all been looking at these data, but in terms of the beneficial effect of substituting out saturated fat, the biggest benefit is substituting MUFAs and PUFAs rather than carbohydrates. So we are coming at it from that side of the thing.

I found the energy density discussions very interesting, and again, the American Heart Association guidelines, the 2005 guidelines, again, were looking at not commenting on a total fat, more of a 20 to 35 percent fat rather than getting into the very low fat diets, which in fact do have effects on HDL and triglycerides, which is

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carbohydrates, and whether looking at healthful substitutions within those total fat parameters as a way to particularly benefit both lipid and insulin sensitivity parameters.

So that was the --
MEMBER SLAVIN: Can I jump in? I feel like jeopardy. It's hard to get on the button here. So I've got to get faster on the draw.
(Laughter.)
MEMBER SLAVIN: But the soluble fiber stuff on HDL actually keeps HDL up. So I think with carbohydrate it's not -- a lot of the epi data makes carbohydrate look like the bad guy while a lot of the feeding stuff, depending on which carbohydrate you're taking, HDL actually goes up. So I'd want to put in a plug here.

MEMBER PEARSON: It's an important concept, and it's totally analogous to mono and polyunsaturated fats versus saturated fats, which we're all bedeviled. There's NEAL R. GROSS
total fat and then we got into these very low fat diets and watching our HDL go. So it's absolutely analogous. It has to do with educating about which fat and which carbohydrate rather than they're all good or they're all bad.

MEMBER SLAVIN: I wanted to follow up on Mim's just because of the egg, because I think for high quality protein I'm with kids and getting better diets into people with lower calories. I'm just really big on eggs and protein qualities.

So making sure we don't let cholesterol make the decision here.

MEMBER PEARSON: But also to remind you that the cholesterol is in the yoke of the egg, and the protein is in the white, and you can actually do something about that.

MEMBER SLAVIN: Well, there's actually protein in the yoke also, and there's lecithin and choline and other things we're trying to get into the diet.

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MEMBER FUKAGAWA: This is Naomi.
And I think -- sorry, Larry.
(Laughter.)
MEMBER FUKAGAWA: This is Naomi Fukagawa.

So I may be eating the wrong mix of fatty acids since my reaction time was rather slow, and I'm going to admit --
(Laughter.)
MEMBER FUKAGAWA: -- that my memory may be failing me, but getting back to the proposed conclusions for the trans fatty acids, my understanding was that we had concluded that ruminant trans fats in the amount that is presently consumed is not problematic and does not need to be a target for the total dietary change, and because --

MEMBER PEARSON: That really wasn't our question. We could probably extrapolate from that. Our question was did it appear that ruminant trans fatty acids were acting differently than industrial trans fatty

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acids, and our conclusion, at least with Grade 2 level of evidence was it did not appear so. MEMBER SLAVIN: At high dose.

MEMBER PEARSON: At high dose, yeah.

MEMBER SLAVIN: But I thought that it was important to qualify because trans fats do come from a natural source that also has important other nutrients.

MEMBER PEARSON: And that's why I put the level of consumption on there. But one could perhaps -- I don't know how -- you can obviously see how industrial trans fatty acids could be put in high amounts, but certainly if those similar levels of ruminant ones were used, I think the suggestion is they would act the same as industrial ones.

But, again, as $I$ put it in the levels of exposure, the natural occurring ruminant ones, which is 0.5 percent or less of calories, is a small amount. It's interesting that there were a number of comments in the

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comment about, you know, should we -- you know, is 0.5 percent -- maybe we want to go even below that, and this was a topic of many other comments, and this may not be possible. It's just like many things, that the lower you go the harder it is to get rid of everything.

MEMBER SLAVIN: But I guess that's why this is important from the context of not confusing the consumers, because you know, we don't want to make them afraid of the whole food that's available in our supply, and I think it's very important that we balance our message from that perspective.

MEMBER PEARSON: But our question was really addressing a different -- you know, at the same level of perhaps your population would be consuming these to increase their risk. Are these two acting biologically the same?

And apparently the look is that they are.

MEMBER APPEL: Yes, very
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interesting, Tom. I had some questions/issues about the cholesterol conclusion and discussion. One is -- I can rattle them off and then you can -- so when it comes to clinical trials that don't see an outcome, you know, was there enough power? I mean, you know, some of these studies, I think, are pretty small, you know. So that's sort of one question.

But --
MEMBER PEARSON: You mean the RCTs?

MEMBER APPEL: The RCTs, yeah. I know you didn't go into a lot of detail on it, but I think that's an important issue.

The second is shouldn't we take a look at the total amount of cholesterol in egg eaters and non-egg eaters and just get an understanding of where cholesterol is coming from?

And this is related to my third, which is at the conclusion it's sort of funny.

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We have a very specific food group where there's a conclusion, and I'm wondering whether the conclusion should be more on cholesterol and then the implications might be that, you know, one egg a day for people who are otherwise not consuming a large amount of cholesterol, you know, is okay, but right now it is really an egg conclusion which I think is sort of funny.

MEMBER PEARSON: You know, I think you raise several good points. Number one, as pointed out, not that many years ago I know I think it was the NHANES from one of the 1990s or something had about 38 percent of dietary cholesterol from eggs.

## MEMBER APPEL: Yes.

MEMBER PEARSON: That apparently has now fallen to 25 percent or less. So the point you're making about looking at total dietary cholesterol consumption is increasingly important, but if, in fact, eggs are only a quarter of the dietary consumption,

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then to say that one egg a day, and if we're shooting at 300 to say nothing about 200, obviously it doesn't add up because if you're eating one egg a day and that's a quarter of your -- and you've still got --

MEMBER APPEL: You still have the remaining. You're well over.

MEMBER PEARSON: That's my point. That's my point.

MEMBER APPEL: That's why I'm thinking about the implication because I think it's a little bit more nuanced, you know. Well, if you decide to eat an egg a day, but hopefully you're not eating scallops and shrimp for the rest of your -- yeah.

MEMBER PEARSON: And we've been very impressed with that. I was very impressed by the changes in the fatty acids and cholesterol content of many foods over time as they've been kind of engineered out or brought to the consumer with lower levels.

So some of the old consumption NEAL R. GROSS
data, I think, has to be, you know, re-looked at.

MEMBER APPEL: We got that for salt, you know, and $I$ think we got the tables presented, and this might be one nutrient where you want to see where the cholesterol is coming from, you know.

MEMBER PEARSON: I'm not sure I answered all of yours.

MEMBER APPEL: Yeah, the other one was the RCTs. You know, I was thinking about this. We're going through this really quickly, you know, five negative RCTs. The easiest way to get a negative RCT is just have an underpowered study, you know.

So $I$ just wonder are these decent size where you can actually, you know, say that we had adequate powers so that we didn't miss clinically relevant change.

MEMBER PEARSON: Many of them were small and relatively short term, and industry funded, and also may not have had as a primary

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hypothesis some of the specific lipid endpoints we are looking at. MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: This is Rafael.

At the last Society for Nutritional Education meeting in New Orleans there was a very interesting talk about the labeling of trans fats in foods, and the whole talk was about zero is not zero, and it's the issue that brought us that says zero trans fats and half, partially hydrogenated oil; they still have trans fats. And they gave us a number of examples as to how you could end up ingesting a good amount of trans fats if you consume, you know, not too many servings of those products.

So I think that situation deserves to be addressed and corrected because it is very misleading for the public.

MEMBER PEARSON: This came up with several commenters, and I guess I would take their point. Although at very low levels you

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get into all sorts of measurement issues and certainly getting it lower than that, it's like an environmental pollutant. You know, the first half is easy to get rid of. The second half gets really expensive.

MEMBER CLEMENS: Rog here.
That's an excellent comment, Rafael, in the SNE, and we had a lot of comments from the public on that, $I$ believe if I remember my food law correctly that the FDA has defined acidic acid as a trans fat which occurs naturally, of course, but CLA is not considered a trans fat from the FDA's perspective, and there are 13 isomers of CLA, and as we know, when we take in those isomers either through beef or from milk, we actually can summarize those either to assist or transform.

So at what point do you want to include those isomers in terms of labeling? Right now the FDA does not do that.

## MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: I think

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that issue is about products that leave partially hydrogenated oil as an ingredient and they claim it has zero trans fats.

MEMBER NELSON: Sorry. Go ahead. MEMBER PI-SUNYER: This is Xavier.

I was kind of depressed with your statistics about no change over all these years, and you know, I don't know if that's due to the lipid skeptic literature that's out there or very poor translation of our message or what, but it seems like a number of different dietary guidelines have come up with recommendations that have been totally not followed by the American public.

MEMBER NELSON: Yes, but, Xav, this is Mim.

I would say if you look at the supply of foods, that it's completely the supply chain has changed. We have more meat. We have more -- I mean, the foods that contribute to saturated fat, the supply is just different.

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So I would say it's not about the personal, you know, choice pieces. It's simply our food supply has changed to mimic that, including the increased caloric intake which you had on the bottom there.

MEMBER RIMM: Yeah, this is Eric Rimm.

To add to that, 15 or 20 years ago we told everybody to eat a low fat diet, and I'm not sure we were giving them the right advice. I don't know if that drove up the heart disease rate, but I think it certainly didn't help driving them down.

MEMBER PEARSON: And it didn't help our diabetes epidemic.

MEMBER APPEL: I'm just putting things in perspective though. Do you think the current guideline, less than ten percent saturated fat -- okay. So we've been at 11 percent then for several years, which is not too far from where we wanted to be.

Now, the American Heart
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Association in 2006 dropped it to seven percent. So compared to that we are worse off, you know, but that's a migration creep in terms of standard. That just occurred a few years ago.

CHAIRPERSON VAN HORN: I think the other thing that needs to be recalled here is, you know, in the '70s our average American fat intake was about 42 percent of calories. So, you know, any way you look at it as Tom pointed out, we're now hovering around a 33, 34 percent. So, you know, that shift has already occurred.

But the other thing that I think I would like us to go back to because of our ongoing interest in obesity, and I think we need to remember that we really don't know at this moment the risk-benefit in terms of weight loss versus monounsaturated fat increase in terms of impact on HDL. We know that weight loss in an obese person raises HDL. We also know that shifting to a

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monounsaturated source of fatty acids protects HDL.

So you know, the question overall is in an overweight person I think most of the people around this table would say, you know, first and foremost lose weight, and as we've been saying earlier today, you know, if that takes a total fat intake that is 28 percent of calories or something of that sort in order to achieve that lower energy density that we're talking about, that for that individual may be the right approach.

I think the problem is that we do get to a point where one size does not necessarily fit all, and the weight issue sometimes trumps other things in terms of trying to make up the qualitative decisions about that.

Tom, do you want to comment?
MEMBER PEARSON: Linda, there's some very good evidence to say what you say is true and that the Minnesota heart study showed

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some modest improvements in total saturated fat and cholesterol levels and the change in the extant scores at a time in which there was absolutely no change in serum cholesterol. It went up a little bit, and it was a time in which their calories per day on the average, their body mass index and all the indicators. So it's a very good evidence that weight reduction, prevention of obesity has to be part of this whole thing. MEMBER RIMM: This is Eric Rimm. Just to echo again what you said, Linda, I think it is an important point, and sort of going back on -- thanks for bringing this up -- but going back on what Frank Sacks spoke about before, the sort of fluctuations of fat, carbohydrate and protein really don't make that much difference. It's really about losing weight.

So I don't think there's one exact diet that's going to drive weight down. I think if you're holding fat constant, clearly

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switching the type of fat you're getting is going to be beneficial, but the most important thing is to drive weight down.

MEMBER NELSON: This is Mim.
Sorry to go back to this cholesterol question, but it's really -- I don't know -- it's puzzling me. So are we talking that we actually are going to change what was in the 2005, you know, from the upper limit of $300 ?$ We're going to say it's going to be 2000? Because $I$ just am not seeing the evidence there, and I'm concerned if we're going to change it that if we don't have strong evidence it concerns me.

MEMBER PEARSON:
The
recommendation for the 2005 was that the dietary cholesterol should be as low as possible, and the IOM report is also corroborated with that, having to do with the fact that we could synthesize what we need. It's not an essential compound.

And so what the spectrum is, in
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addition to coronary patients, patients with high LDL, now it would certainly appear that people with diabetes, in fact, do have evidence that their cholesterol level of 200 or a reduction in a consumption -- again, there's different pieces of evidence -- do benefit from a lowering of their dietary cholesterol.

So it gets to the situation about how many of these subgroups do you want to have before it becomes the population recommendation.

MEMBER NELSON: I thought it was more, you know, our guidelines were more focused towards the sort of general healthy population and no subgroups.

MEMBER PEARSON: For prevention.
MEMBER NELSON: For prevention. If everybody is fine with that, I am. I'm worried about the eggs. There's just so many good things in them, and you know, the other conclusion was that one egg a day is okay,

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which may be in conflict with -- I know that cholesterol has been coming down in the eggs, but we're saying in one that one egg a day is okay and in the other we're saying it needs to be under 200.

MEMBER SLAVIN: This is Joanne, too.

I kind of want to follow up with Mim because if 300 is kind of the general accepted everywhere else, if we're moving to 200, I think we need more of a vote and more data than I've seen to feel comfortable with that.

MEMBER NICKOLS-RICHARDSON: and this is Shelly.

I just want to jump on that comment that what if what our dietary intake data are showing us, what if that level is as low as possible when we talk about whole foods, whole diet, and so what else can be done then if it's that tradeoff between the other fatty acids rather than the cholesterol

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piece?
Just in terms of the volume of work, this may be one of those modeling questions that we could push to another time so that if we believe that what the data are showing is that it's really not perhaps this cholesterol piece, that's something that could be held for a later point and perhaps not done now because $I$ think in terms of what we know about those sources of cholesterol animal products and what that might do to all of the other nutrients, and we think about calories in the context of obesity and everything else, but wanting a nutrient rich diet, then I'm concerned about changing sort of the animal based foods and the other nutrients that those provide.

MEMBER PEARSON: Yeah, we kind of look at it the other way, and this should be one that we'd be very interested in taking a Grade 2 evidence. I mean, we never certainly thought that this was Grade 1 evidence. I
mean, we're essentially agreeing with you that there really are some holes in this data, particularly in the panoply of industry supported trials, some trials that have a vested interest in foods that contain cholesterol.

And so the modeling, on the other hand, would really be helpful in deciding how aggressively we'd want to be with that. So we were looking at this -- at least I was looking at this a little bit differently because this is the kind of thing we would want to model because what are the other issues, the competing benefits and risks that we'd have.

MEMBER APPEL: This is Larry.
I don't really understand what is recommended in 2005. I have the report here. Now, I know the IOM said as low as possible. They didn't give an upper limit. In 2005 we said it was based on LDL cholesterol. For those less than 130, less then 300 milligrams, less than 300. For those with elevated LDL

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greater than 130, less than 200.
So was there a change between --
MS. McMURRY: And the government's dietary guidelines on page 30 -- this is Kathryn McMurry -- recommend consume less than 300 milligrams per day of cholesterol for the general population recommendation.

MEMBER APPEL: Okay. So it's not as low as possible then.

PARTICIPANT: McMurry. I think, you know, once again -- and that's a very good example that one size doesn't fit all -- I do think there's some opportunity here for tweaking some of these levels.

MEMBER VAN HORN: No one is suggesting that dietary cholesterol is not atherogenic. I mean the Keys and Hegsted scores still work. I know they do, and in fact, you know, looking at dietary cholesterol, saturated fat, those are the two most atherogenic aspects of our diet.

But in an individual who is not NEAL R. GROSS
already at risk or have an elevated LDL cholesterol, I think you know there is some wisdom in some of these previous recommendations that allow a little discretion in terms of the nature of the individual with some judicious approach to exactly what gets recommended based on a person's risk status.

So, you know, I think that perhaps the best thing we can do is not necessarily rigidly, you know, decide one or the other, but you know, use the same sort of range concept based on risk.

MEMBER PEARSON: And I guess the evidence base we thought did extend to people with diabetes in terms of the 200, as well as those individuals with cholesterol abnormalities, and establish cardiovascular.

PARTICIPANT: Right, and once again, this could be a source of recommendations for the future. I think, you know, the whole issue about quality protein in children and, you know, quality protein, NEAL R. GROSS
animal versus vegetable protein and the discussion we were having yesterday, you know, those are all questions that we still really haven't adequately studied to be able to determine what's the best mix in terms of coming up with the most nutritious, but also least atherogenic model.

MEMBER WILLIAMS: I just wanted to mention as far as expressing cholesterol in terms of milligrams per 1,000 calories, when you think of very young children, you almost would eliminate eggs from the diet of preschool children if you express it based on 1,000 calories.

Also, one other comment about taking out trans fats from foods. In some cases they've been replaced by palm oil and some other oils that are higher in saturated fat, and what does that do to our consumption of saturated fats?

MEMBER RIMM: Of course that would be an issue if it was a tremendous amount of

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fat that was put in because, as we've said, it's better to have mono and polys than it is to have sat, but sometimes a very small amount of sat is put in just to make the product hard instead of soft.

So I think it will obviously depend on the product, but if it's a very small amount, a very small amount of saturated fat, I think, is not that much to give up if we can get rid of the hydrogenated oils.

Sorry. That was Eric Rimm.
CHAIRPERSON VAN HORN: Anything
else? Tom?
All right. Well, very interesting, very worthwhile, and thank you for that excellent review, and lots of questions yet to discuss.

I think we'll now go right ahead and move into ethanol, and the chair of that group is Eric Rimm.

MEMBER RIMM: Alphabetically we're going from eggs to ethanol.

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Thank you, Linda.
I wanted to first start by acknowledging my colleagues, Larry Appel, Tom Pearson and Naomi Fukagawa, and the great help that we've received from HHS and USDA from Rachel Hayes, Jean Altman, Patricia Guenther, and Shirley Blakely.

So the topics I'd like to address today start out with I think sort of a helpful review from an updated analysis from NHANES on average beverage consumption and alcohol beverage consumption, and then go on to talk about a few of the questions we've addressed, ethanol weight gain, ethanol dementia, ethanol and cardiovascular disease, and then highlight some of the remaining research topics.

So to get at some of the issues related to what we're drinking in America, Patricia Guenther and her team, Shanty and Joe, have looked at data from NHANES from a variety of sources. Some of these are from 24-hour recalls. Some of these are from the

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alcohol youth questionnaire, and some of these are from food frequency questionnaires that are used depending on the year and the time of the visit, and some of the questions are listed here.

How many adults drink alcoholic beverages? And to look at that, we'd like to sort of address the question of how many adults drink beer, wine or distilled spirits on a given day; how many adults drink any alcoholic beverage at least once in a year.

And also we wanted to ask the questions of how much alcohol do adults consume, and that is what is the distribution of alcoholic beverages intake on a given day, and some of that speaks to the caloric content of the beverage since there is a different caloric content of the beverages, and what is the distribution of average daily alcoholic beverage consumption, and what is the distribution of alcoholic beverage consumption by adults on days that they drink.

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So let's look at some of that data. It really, I think, helped us to think a little bit more deeply about the questions we want to ask and the guidance we want to give. So let's start out with the first question, and this one is really just to look at distribution of alcohol. It's a little deceiving because this is not on average how much the people consume, but this is on any given day. So this is from a 24 -hour recall. So naturally most people don't drink every day. So even though there may be moderate drinkers among here, some of them may drink nothing on a given day.

So this is just in a given day from NHANES between 2003 and 2006, what were people drinking? So on a given day 32.8 percent of men will drink an alcoholic beverage, and 17.4 percent of women will drink.

And here is the distribution to show that it is slightly different by gender.

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I think much of this has been published over the years in the literature, and obviously industry knows about this from classic sort of disappearance data, but you can see that men drink more beer than women.

And you can also see -- I wanted to break this out because I was a little bit concerned about caloric content because beer in general will have 30 or 40 percent more calories than wine or distilled spirits, unless it's light beer, and also $I$ wanted to make the point that not all distilled spirits necessarily is consumed by itself. The last column shows distilled spirits as a mixed drink, and so somewhere in the range of 60 to 80 percent of distilled spirits are consumed with something else which could also contain calories.

So if our concern really is alcohol and alcohol containing beverages and weight gain, we wanted to look at the distribution of where the calories are coming

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from.
So maybe something that you have been maybe more accustomed to seeing as sort of on average how many people drink in this country, and this is the data based on alcohol use questionnaires where individuals were asked have you consumed any alcoholic beverage at least once in the past 12 months. So this really is the top end estimate. This is for all adults 21 and over. For men it's 76.3 percent and for women it's 65.3 percent, and I believe -- I can't see because the arrow is in my way -- but I believe this is 2003 to 2006. Yes, so this is the most updated data.

So now going forward we're really actually more concerned about patterns of consumption this time around. We felt that there is enough data in the literature to address patterns as opposed to just average consumption.

We wanted to break out on those days that individuals drank how much were they

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actually drinking. So hopefully you can see this, but the blue -- I'm going to point to it because I know that someone over there has to point to my pointer -- the blue is 65.9 percent. That means on any given day 65.9 percent of men don't drink, but if they are drinking, how much do they drink?

And you can see as you go around the pie 8.3 percent drink one drink, 6.8 percent drink two drinks. So this would be the cutoff for the current U.S. dietary guidelines. On any day drink two drinks a day or less for men.

So that means that 19.0 percent of men are drinking in excess of the dietary guidelines on any given day, and this pie that's broken out here shows how much they are drinking. So 5.8 percent are drinking three; 4.1 percent are drinking 4; five, six, seven, 3.6 percent are drinking eight-plus drinks per day.

So I didn't mean to present this
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as a "wow" factor. Obviously alcohol abuse is a problem in this country, and a significant percentage of the population, and this, of course, is people who participate in NHANES and people who happen to be drinking on the day that they were asked.

So it does speak to the issue of patterns and maybe giving a dietary guideline based only on average may be more difficult for some people to incorporate into their thought process about drinking patterns.

So let's look at the data for women. Again, the format is very similar. On any given day about 81 percent -- thank you. Oh, you're beating me to pointing -- about 80.9 percent of the women don't drink. Ten percent drink one drink. So those are the women that would drink within the current dietary guidelines if not more than one drink per day.

It also means that nine percent of women on any given day are drinking in excess,

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but you can see that nine percent breaks down to 3.1 percent drinking two, 2.1 percent drinking three, and so on, four, five and sixplus.

Again, there is clearly an issue of excess consumption in a small percentage of the population, but we would still consider that a significant percentage of the population, given the detrimental health effects of excess alcohol consumption.

So I guess that's the basis for some of our further work, is trying to understand issues related to drinking patterns.

So I'm looking at more of on an average. So if individuals are asked how much alcohol do adults consume on average over the course of a year, you can see that people report more of like what you expected me to show, is that 23.7 percent of men don't drink. Sixty percent of men drink on average one drink a day. Seven percent drink on average

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two drinks a day, and 8.6 percent drink on average above the current U.S. dietary guidelines of two drinks or less per day.

This, again, is updated data from Patricia, Shanty, and Joe from the '03 through '06 NHANES analyses.

For women you also see the same thing. On average, 34.7 percent don't drink; 61.5 percent drink one drink a day; and this would be, therefore, within the U.S. dietary guidelines, and 3.8 percent drink on average in excess of the dietary guidelines.

So now the more challenging issue really is related to patterns of consumption and, I guess, binge drinking, and so what we tried to -- we're sort of teasing the data apart in three different ways and maybe we're pulling too hard, but I think it's useful to help us think about how we would put forward the guidelines.

And so this is on the days that men drink, how much do they drink, and this is
not just on the day that NHANES happened to go there, but this is more based on average how much do they drink on days that they drink.

So you can see this is number of drinks consumed on those drinking days, and the blue bar is total adults, and we broke it down by age just to show you that clearly there's a difference. As men age, their amount of excess consumption, four, five, and six drinks on a drinking day, is much less than the men that are 21 to 64 .

So the point here is that the current dietary guidelines suggest that men should not drink more than two drinks a day. So if you add it up, you can see that the blue bars add up to more than 50 percent of men on days that they drink, drink in excess.

Now, we don't know if this is just one day a year or if this is 364 days a year, but we do know that there clearly is excess drinking based on the current U.S. dietary guidelines, and the definition of binge

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drinking accepted in the literature is five drinks a day in a session for me, five or more drinks per day and four or more drinks a day for women.

So, again, if you look at women, you see the similar type of distribution, that on days that they drink, how much do they drink, and here, once again, you can see that, again, the U.S. dietary guidelines for women right now says one drink a day or less. So that's 45 percent. So more than 50 percent of women on days that they drink drink in excess of the U.S. dietary guidelines.

All right. So, you know, this does pose a dilemma for us. I know that we've already talked about sodium where 97 percent of kids, I think, were over, in excess of the sodium upper limit. So it does also point to the fact that based on our most up to date data when men and women drink on days that they drink, more than half of them drink in excess of the dietary guidelines.

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So I guess our main question still remains and one that I'm not going to answer today but one that I look to the committee for some insight: is it more important to provide a recommendation for average consumption or is it more important to provide a recommendation for pattern of consumption?

And it has been over the last 25 or 30 years that the U.S. dietary guidelines has stuck with the one a day for women and two a day for men, and it was not written as average. It may have been implied, but essentially it says the cutoff is one a day for women and two a day for men.

So here's what I see are the three possible options for moving forward on trying to decide how to define alcohol consumption. One is as this committee in 2005, really, again, it's not directly written that way, but it is implied based on summarizing the data at the time. The implicit recommendation was that the average consumption -- that

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consumption should be on average two per day for men and one a day for women. That could be drinking on four days per week, and then having three to four on those days. It could be a woman drinking three days a week and having two drinks on those days instead of having one per day.

However, it's really, I think, more implicit in the dietary guidelines for Americans. Once the technical report was translated into policy, it really had a daily limit of two per day for men and one per day for women.

So it's not a complete disconnect, but the bulk of the epidemiological evidence that led to the first guideline is based all on average consumption. There were very few papers published on patterns of the consumption before 2005. There was some, but not very many, and so most of them are based on average consumption, and since most people don't drink every day, there obviously was
some averaging going on.
So our final option is to look at what NIH or NIAAA has put forward in their rethinking drinking, which is something they've just put out in the last month, which I'll show you in a bit which really gets away from average and sort of speaks to daily limit, but actually gives two separate limits. One is a weekly limit and one is an explicit cutoff for not having excess drinking, no binge drinking.

So just to show you a little bit more about that since $I$ think it is an interesting approach, it's an approach that other countries have used, but it's one that the dietary guidelines has not used in the last 25 years that they've been published.

This is what NIAAA currently has in that document. Interestingly enough, this is about a 20-page document that you can find on their Website. I think it's actually rethinkingdrinking.gov. Also it's a PDF that

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you can download, and this actually is meant to help people reduce excess consumption. It's really a document all about more in identifying individuals with problems and trying to get them down to what they call low risk drinking, and low risk drinking is broken up into two parts. If you start out with the per week part, it says for men they should drink no more than 14 drinks per week, and for women they should drink no more than seven drinks per week.

If you've done the math, you can say on average if you have two drinks a day that's 14 drinks for men and one drink a day is seven for women.

The difference here is that what they are saying is on any single day you can drink up to the cutoff for binge drinking, which is no more than four drinks on any day for men and three drinks for women.

Now, this is obviously a little bit more liberal and gets several people NEAL R. GROSS
around the table, including my colleague Larry Appel, who threw me under the bus before, since he's usually the one drinking in excess, but --
(Laughter.)
MEMBER RIMM: -- but at this -- I warn people I will get you back. We're friends. I'm just kidding. I've never seen him drink more than two drinks in any one sitting.

But it is a little bit more liberal in the amount of alcohol that could be consumed in any one day, although it clearly has the same upper weekly limit, and maybe if we are thinking about dietary guidelines for alcohol, we should be thinking not on a daily basis, but more on a weekly basis only because people don't drink every day.

So our question going forward was: is there evidence to support this? And that's why we went to the evidence libraries, to try to see if there was enough data to support

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either the guidelines that were from last time of no more than one or two for women and men or to support this NIAAA.

Now, there's a lot more verbiage which I won't read to you in detail, but there is some scientific support that they provide here from NIAAA's own study saying that in their nationwide survey of 43,000 U.S. adults, only about two in 100 people who drank within this guideline were not truly at low risk, which means that they were at high risk. Even though they were drinking within this guideline, they were probably drinking in excess or were alcoholics and could not stop drinking or had alcohol addiction problems.

So that's a little bit of background. There is not a lot of other background that is printed within this rethinking drinking, and again, the focus of the rethinking drinking was on getting people to reduce their alcohol consumption. So we went to the evidence library NEAL R. GROSS
and the first thing we wanted to look at was ethanol and weight gain. This was addressed in the 2005 dietary guidelines at the time. There wasn't enough evidence. There's only a few cross-sectional studies and maybe one or two prospective studies, and I didn't think the cross-sectional studies were necessarily worthwhile in pursuing further only because of reverse causation issues.

So we tried to focus on prospective studies in the randomized clinical trials to look at the effect of ethanol on weight gain.

So we went back to 1994. That was based mostly on, I think, our expert opinion on when the studies first began in terms of these large scale observational studies. We focused on adults, obviously and had these MeSH terms, and again focused only on observational studies and randomized clinical trials.

I won't go through all of them NEAL R. GROSS
now. There were eight studies, seven modestly sized to very large size prospective observational studies, one randomized clinical trial. Obviously it's a randomized clinical trial. It's not going to be long term because they were looking at alcohol.

It was a weight loss trial, where they fed individuals either alcohol or isocaloric amounts of fruit juice. Not surprisingly, if it's isocaloric both sides lost about the same amount of weight. Interesting enough actually, the group that was randomized to alcohol lost a little bit more weight, but the study is relatively small. So that difference wasn't significant, but it's a weight loss study. It worked. I wouldn't necessarily use alcohol as a device in a weight loss study, but that's the only randomized clinical trial on the topic. I know editorial opinions will be further put forward.

Overall, conclusions, and I think
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it was actually pretty consistent across the board, which is why we gave it a Grade 2, is that the evidence predominantly from observational prospective studies suggests that among the free living populations moderate drinking is not associated with weight gain.

Now, you know, I think Larry was very helpful in crafting this. I think we have to stand back and realize that these observational studies were among free living populations, where the observational studies tried to account for their diet and tried to account for the difference in exercise patterns and tried to account for the differences in smoking and, you know, didn't find that the individuals who drank alcohol gained weight.

We didn't really find sufficient evidence to determine the relationship of drinking patterns or frequency of consumption to weight gain, not enough of the studies

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address that. Almost all of them were based on average consumption.

However, in the few studies that had sufficient power, there was clearly an association between heavier consumption, and that means consuming over two drinks a day on average. There was an association between heavy consumption and weight gain.

The next topic we wanted to address was cognitive function. This is one that wasn't touched in the 2005 dietary guidelines, and I felt that there had been a sufficient amount of data both pro and con for the effects of alcohol on cognitive function, and in this case we looked at among person -the question was: among persons who consume alcoholic beverages, what is the relationship between patterns of alcohol intake and cognitive decline with age?

I should point out that this was not related to the acute effects of ethanol on cognitive function or anything related to

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acute brain damage. This was really looking at those studies that looked at long-term change in cognitive function typically associated with age.

So again here, some of the first studies on this started to come out in the late 1990s. So it was a little bit easier for us to go back and capture all of the evidence. Again, we focused here on adults and we use the standard MeSH terms for cognitive impairment.

There were a lot of studies here, and I think that's one of the reasons why I wanted to look at the data. Twenty-four studies, one was a meta-analysis of the studies; 21 of them were prospective cohort studies; two were case controlled studies; and again, we eliminated the cross-sectional studies from this for reasons related, again, to reverse causality.

So our conclusion from this, again, it's Grade 2 evidence. The evidence in

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observational prospective studies suggest that compared to non-drinkers, individuals who drink moderately have reduced cognitive decline with age. It's not meant to be a double negative. It's really how the data come out, is that individuals, their rate of decline is less if they consume alcohol moderately.

But again, there was insufficient evidence to determine if drinking patterns were important, although the caveat here is there was a suggestion from a few studies that heavy or binge drinking was detrimental to age related cognitive decline. A few of these studies, one in particular study from a Scandinavian country really showed very strong positive associations between heavy and binge drinking and adverse cognitive function with age.

So, you know, we have talked during the last two days sort of about piling on what was there already in 2005 as opposed

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to looking for new questions and asking new questions that needed to be asked. The case for heart disease and stroke is one of those where $I$ don't think it needs to be piled on. There is a tremendous number of studies, great scientific evidence before 2005 that already pointed to sort of benefits of moderate alcohol consumption for cardiovascular disease.

The reason that we wanted to reask this question, and again, maybe we'll keep this, maybe we won't, is that we wanted to get to drinking patterns. So the question we asked is what is the relationship between patterns of alcohol intake and cardiovascular disease.

And this is one of the cases where most of the inverse association between alcohol and heart disease is pretty linear and it continues down pretty far to four or five and even six drinks a day before it starts to come back up and be adversely related to

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disease. So this is one of the cases where even heavy, frequent drinkers have lower rates of heart disease from atherosclerotic disease. So this may be one that's a little bit more challenging to look at for patterns of consumption because there is clear benefit even with heavy frequent consumption.

So we didn't go back and review all of the prospective studies for heart disease because that list is now over about 120 studies. Instead we pulled out some of the meta-analyses to see if they really gave us insights into patterns of consumption.

We did pull the stroke papers. There are 15 prospective cohort studies and one case control study. The evidence here, again, focusing mostly on patterns, is Grade 2. We felt that the evidence from observational prospective studies again strongly suggests that compared to nondrinkers, individuals who drink moderately have lower risk of heart disease and modestly

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lower risk of stroke.
There was really still, I think, insufficient evidence to determine if drinking patterns were equally predictive of risk, although there was a suggestion, again, that heavy or binge drinking was detrimental especially for stroke.

So I don't know if I've answered my own question saying maybe there's insufficient evidence to go to the pattern that -- go to the format that NIAAA used to define patterns, but there is some evidence to suggest that there may be differences in patterns of the consumption over just a flat cutoff for one a day for women and two a day for men.

So the reason that we sort of held up on making a final decision about I think is driven by a few of the questions we haven't gotten to yet. That is ethanol and unintentional injury and predictors of alcohol related disorders.

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Those two -- actually ethanol and fractures also would probably be in that range. If it turns out that we make a recommendation that it's okay for women to have three drinks on any given day and four for men, yet we find in the literature that, there's a tremendous amount of fractures and unintentional injury associated with that, then, of course, we would not want that to be part of the recommendation.

So, you know, this is meant to be a preliminary discussion of our findings. So we may be more preliminary than most of you, but I think it's driven by the fact that our searches for unintentional injury, fractures and alcohol related disorders may drive our overall conclusions.

So that's where we stand, and I'd be happy to take questions.

MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: This is Rafael.

Why cancer is not in the list?
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MEMBER RIMM: Thank you.
Sorry. I have written down here cancer. Yeah, again, I think that there are a number of things that are addressed in the 2005 dietary guidelines that we're not going to pile on. Yes, we're going to discuss at length the cancer issue. There was a WCRF report that came out in 2007 which very nicely documents the positive association between alcohol and breast cancer. We didn't figure that it was worthwhile to go back and review papers in the last two years because there's really, I think, almost unanimous evidence that there's a positive association there, and I think also for colon cancer there's some evidence suggesting that alcohol increases risk of colon cancer.

So those will be addressed, I guess, in what we would call an exploratory search and discussion which essentially points out the other fantastic reviews that have been done in the past that document that positive

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association.
MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: And I guess then the question is how will you make a decision as to what to recommend.

MEMBER RIMM: Yes, right. So in our brief subcommittee discussions the other day, in the spirit of what we're trying to do is reduce the number of questions. We actually may reduce by getting rid of the blood pressure question because it has been addressed and it's likely not going to change our overall guidelines, and we're probably going to get rid of the mortality question also because, again, there's been 140 papers on outcome and mortality. Papers in the last five years probably haven't changed our thinking on that.

I think what I'll do is highlight some of the key papers in the last five years that have talked about ethanol mortality and just point out that there seems to be, again, continuing evidence to suggest that those
women that average one drink a day live the longest and those men that average two drinks a day live the longest. So I think that's where the balance will come, and there will have to be a discussion of the fact that, you know, ten times more women die of heart disease than breast cancer, which is probably why that J goes down to one for women, and the same holds for men, is that there's more men that die of heart disease and stroke than die of colon cancer. So that's why the nadir of that curve is probably at the average of two drinks a day for men.

So clearly it's a balance. We're not telling everybody to drink, but we're trying to somehow balance these concerns with some of the beneficial effects I talked about. MEMBER ACHTERBERG: If I could jump in, Cheryl here.

Call me thick, but are ethanol and unintentional injury code for car accident?

MEMBER RIMM: This is Eric again.
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Sorry. I will not go on record by calling you thick since I've been very impressed with some of the presentations you made today, but yes. The unintentional injury is anything. Yeah, I mean, I think we're talking about everything from -- you know, our search will be broad, and that will include car accidents. It will include, you know, fights. It will include other social factors that turn up when people drink in excess or even drink at all.

So I think we're going to cast a broad net to make sure that we're not overstepping our guidance.

MEMBER ACHTERBERG: Okay, and now I have a question. There are certain segments of our population that do engage in binge drinking heavily, and so one question is: are there data out there now where we could look at weight gain in, let's say, the college student population who are binge drinkers versus non-binge drinkers?

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MEMBER RIMM: You know, I think -this is Eric again -- that's a challenging question. There's a lot of data on binge drinking in college students, and even some data on college students that drink that don't binge drink. You know, I think most college students don't binge drink.

But I think the issues will be I have not seen great prospective, long-term studies that have tried to document the fact that it's the beer over the pizza over the lack of exercise, over the other factors that contribute to weight gain in what we would classically -- you know, the first two years of college.

So I have not seen evidence, although I haven't explored that in detail, but when we look at alcohol and weight gain, there was nothing that came out specifically on college drinking that's binge drinking.

MEMBER ACHTERBERG: Thank you.
I'm also, frankly, thinking of an NEAL R. GROSS
adolescent population, and we probably have less data on that, but we know a lot of adolescents also binge drink, and we shouldn't forget that. I don't know what to look for there. It might be implications. It might be future research, but somehow we have to comment on that.

But if there is any relation at least in that population segment relating alcohol intake to weight gain, that might be some of the best leverage we have to discourage people at least in that age range from binge drinking.

MEMBER WILLIAMS: This is Christine Williams.

Along that line, $I$ think one of the public comments had to do with discouraging under age drinking based on the direct damage to the brain. Did you consider looking at that evidence?

MEMBER RIMM: I think that did come up briefly in one discussion, and we sort NEAL R. GROSS
of felt like that was almost beyond our purview and expertise to start talking about things which already are illegal and should be avoided.

So I mean, I guess, is that related to purpose of the dietary guidelines, to start giving, you know, the advice that it's not like we're telling people to have seven grams of sodium and it's going to cause brain damage.

So I guess that's something we can talk about. It's a discussion, you know. Should we go there? Should we start talking about adverse effects for something which, you know, regardless of the fact it may be dangerous to the brain, you know, it's flat out illegal?

So if were going to use the dietary guidelines as something that, again, as you say, leveraged to try to get individuals to stop drinking, then maybe we could explore that in more detail. I don't NEAL R. GROSS
know if we have the expertise in the panel, but we could seek that expertise if it's really something that the committee thinks is worthwhile.

MEMBER PEARSON: Eric, this is Tom Pearson.

We had talked about this in the subcommittee, but one of the obfuscating parts of the discussion on cognitive function or dementia is I think if you look at it hematologically, those things that prevent stroke prevent cognitive decline and dementia because of the mixing of those disorders, and so that certainly part of the people we might call Alzheimer's without benefit of further testing or other kinds of things probably are multi-infarct dementia, a subset of stroke.

So I wonder. Maybe it's a research recommendation, et cetera, but it would be awfully nice if you got into something like mace or something in which you could sort those out and which really identify

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a subgroup of individuals without any evidence of cerebral vascular disease and really ask whether, you know, the neuronal effects of moderate to high alcohol or even binge use of alcohol was, in fact, affecting them, and $I$ think right now I certainly would have a hard time saying if, in fact, you found some beneficial effects on cognitive function or reduced dementia, that that wasn't just another chapter on the stroke story. MEMBER RIMM: This is Eric. Yeah, I think that's clearly one of the biological hypotheses put forward for why there is a decrease in the rate of cognitive decline. So, yeah, it may just be a statement to that.

I think there have been a few other hypotheses put forward, but I think that's clearly the strongest one.

I should point out that in the NIAAA document where they're talking about sort of the differences for men and women, at

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the bottom they do sort of say or they do specifically say for individuals 65 and over, the recommendation is the same as the recommendation for women, regardless of your gender. So that if you're 65 and older, it should not be more than three drinks in any setting, and whatnot, not more than seven in a week.

So it does speak to the fact that there are differences in metabolism over age, and there may be, you know, more risk for the adverse effects of a spike in blood pressure or a spike in something else that comes with heavier alcohol consumption.

JOANNE SLAVIN: I want to talk just a little bit about nutrient adequacy. Does that get pulled in here as people drink and dilution of the -- it relates to the nutrient adequacies, three drinks a day, four drinks a day. When you look at those numbers, half of the people's calories are going to be alcohol. So it is going to affect nutrient

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needs for sure.

## MEMBER ACHTERBERG: Discretionary

 calories.MEMBER RIMM: Yes, I mean, that's clearly what it is. To use the verbiage in 2005, it's discretionary calories. So do we need nutrient adequacy on every single day? That's the question. Are we talking about weekly averages or are we talking about a longer period of time?

I think that's why the NIAAA sort of caged that in the case of weekly, not because we realize in any given day people may differ. They may have a lot more dark green leafy vegetables on one day and a lot more carrots and tomatoes the next day that will provide different nutrients, but on average over the course of the week, they're going to have the right amount of servings of fruits and vegetables.

So if someone has four drinks on Tuesday and three on Wednesday and four on

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Thursday, you're right. That's a fair bit of calories that are displaced. I'm hoping that that's in excess of their discretionary calories for those days. I would hope they would make it up during the rest of the week.

And right now it looks like in free living populations individuals who drink on average one to two drinks a day don't gain weight. Now, I don't think it's magic. It's not like the calories disappear. So there is clearly some individuals who have the ability to themselves take out calories when they're, you know, drinking alcohol.

Now, there are some metabolic effects that may actually increase your basal metabolic rate for the short amount of time that you're metabolizing ethanol, but I think for the most part people are just displacing themselves.

CHAIRPERSON VAN HORN: Yet I think one of the things going back to the discretionary calorie issue is unfortunately NEAL R. GROSS
the behavior of drinking is often associated with a loss of inhibition, and so you basically wind up consuming more calories at the time than you normally would.

So I do think that just as we know that overweight people under report calories and over report physical activity, we also know that people who drink more report less in terms of their alcohol consumption as well.

And so, again, with our focus constantly on the obesity epidemic, $I$ don't think any of us would suggest that for someone who is overweight one of the things we would recommend in terms of helping them lose weight and control their weight gain would be to limit their discretionary calories and to point out that if you're consuming 300, 450 calories and that's three drinks in one day, that totally eliminates any other options as far as other discretionary choices.

So I think, you know, as we were saying earlier about liquid calories versus NEAL R. GROSS
solid calories, I think it sort of enters into this discussion as well. People don't necessarily perceive that drinking that glass of wine is equivalent to, you know, a brownie in terms of the calories.

MEMBER RIMM: Thank you, Linda. This is Eric.

And I think you brought up several good points. I think a brownie is probably more than 100 calories, first of all. No, I think the first point you brought up about, you know, people who are overweight obviously are not going to use alcohol to lose weight. There's no evidence, there's no study that has ever shown that. The randomized trial here was not using alcohol. They were both diets. Both arms were on an energy restricted diet. So it was just that -- anyway, you get the point.

So $I$ hope $I$ didn't get that point across. So I think you're clearly right, and I think that if you are overweight that, you

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know, individuals do look to discretionary calories to reduce their caloric consumption, and I think that's one of the reasons why we didn't include cross-sectional studies in any of our analyses, and I think that maybe all of us should look to that because cross-sectional studies of diet are always fraught with the fact that as people are overweight, they look to discretionary calories or look to changes in their diet. So it ends up looking like diet Coke causes obesity because people are overweight and drinking diet Coke.

Alcohol may be the same way, which I think is, you know, something we have to really carefully take into consideration.

But to your other point, you know, people who drink may lose, you know, inhibitions and then eat more. I think that's why we see in almost all of the prospective studies that have enough power that people who average more than two drinks a day on average gain weight.

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So clearly there is something to it. It's not disappearing and maybe they're eating more peanuts when they're drinking. So, you know, I think there's a lot of things that go on when we talk about the health effects of alcohol. So it is a challenging thing, and that's why we're sort of grappling with the fact of how do we deal with patterns.

Because we want to capture, you know, how people drink. I think it's really kind of naive to think that everybody drinks on average one drink a day for women and two drinks a day for men. There is not that many people that drink every day.

So the issue is can we capture that in the guideline and can we give people the correct advice as opposed to being just restrictive saying, "Never drink more than two for men and never more than one for women."

CHAIRPERSON VAN HORN: Well, and, again, just to zero in on this topic because we know the majority of our population is

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overweight or obese, so everything that we're recommending in these guidelines will address a population that is overweight or obese.

And so we can't ignore the fact that for the majority the question of discretionary calories from alcohol is an issue, and they need to understand that if you're going to drink, if that's your choice, you have no other options as far as other foods, fun foods, whatever we want to call them, because you've already blown your wad, so to speak, in regard to the alcohol that you've consumed.

That's the message that $I$ think will be a little challenging to get across but needs to get across because our population is overweight already.

MEMBER RIMM: Yes. Those are good points. I mean, everything that we've talked about in the last few days, it's always hard. Once you put a number up on the screen people look to that as a target. I don't think we're
using as a target that every man should drink 14 drinks in a week and every woman should have seven drinks in a week.

I don't think I would want to scare people away from drinking alcohol because there are clearly health benefits. An individual who is overweight, there's very clear evidence that an individual who is overweight who drinks alcohol has about a 40 percent lower risk of developing diabetes than someone who doesn't drink. It clearly increases insulin sensitivity. There are clear biological effects.

Now, I'm not going to prescribe that overweight people drink alcohol because there's lots of other things they can do, but I would be concerned about a guideline coming out saying if you are overweight you should stop drinking because $I$ think that could be more detrimental than helpful.

So it's clearly a balance and, you know, a lot of the things we've talked about NEAL R. GROSS
are balances, and Rafael's issue of dietary patterns is a balance. You know, the issues of sodium are a balance. I think this is one of those things where there has to be a balance. It's just that unfortunately on the high end of this balance scale there's a lot of really bad health outcomes. So we have to take that into consideration.

MEMBER PEREZ-ESCAMILLA: Eric, I believe in the previous guidelines one recommendation was if you are not a drinker, don't start drinking now to get this benefit. Would that remain your position?

MEMBER RIMM: Yeah, I mean, that has been the underlying -- the first sentence of every guideline since 1980 when alcohol was included when the first dietary guidelines came out. That is the guideline for any agency that put something out, saying if you don't drink, don't use this as a reason to start and don't start.

I mean, I showed you 25 percent of
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men and 35 percent of women don't drink. They don't drink for a reason. It's not that they've never seen alcohol. You know, it's religious reasons. It's for health reasons. It's for, you know, they drive and they drop (phonetic). So this clearly will not change. That's a very important point.

As well, the point, actually one thing I didn't talk about. The points about, you know, drinking if you are pregnant, drinking if you're driving, all of those things obviously still hold, and if anything there's now even stronger evidence.

So the one thing where there is challenge and the one thing $I$ didn't address yet which will be something for us to discuss, that again $I$ would like maybe Christine's input and others, is that the last question on ethanol and breast feeding, and this has been a question where it hasn't really been addressed or if it hasn't been addressed, it's been if you are breast feeding, don't drink,

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and we really wanted to try to see what the literature was. Is there really evidence to support that?

Everybody is concerned about the infant getting ethanol through the breast milk, and we know ethanol exists there, and we do know that there's a modest reduction in breast milk if you are drinking. So the question really is to us if someone looks at the guidelines as, you know, if I'm breast feeding I shouldn't drink. Therefore, I'm going to stop breast feeding.

You know, there is evidence to suggest that in all sorts of different cultures, that they want to have a drink once in a while, not drinking in excess; want to have a drink once in a while. So they give up breast feeding.

Now there is actually one paper that NEL identified a few weeks ago which is a very nice paper, sort of looking at a woman's weight and how much they're drinking and how

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long the ethanol stays in the breast milk such that, again, it's more of a timing issue; that if you want to breast feed and you also want to have a glass of wine once in a while, that if you time it, that it really only takes two to three hours for the ethanol to get out of the breast milk; that you can still have your three drinks a week and still continue to breast feed.

So that's one of the challenging questions that we hope to address at the subcommittee.

MEMBER PEARSON: Eric, this is Tom Pearson.

Is this NIAAA publication on the Website?

MEMBER RIMM: Yes.
MS. McMURRY: Yes, it is. Kathryn.
MEMBER PEARSON: I guess the question $I$ had is it would be interesting to look at their grade of evidence according to our criteria for their recommendation because

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I think what you've said is that for up to four drinks you're having a very hard time finding risk or benefit from that either.

I guess maybe where I'm going with this is that this recommendation is really to assuage people from alcohol abuse, I think.

MEMBER RIMM: Yeah, I mean, and I

MEMBER PEARSON: And maybe our goals are different. That is, I guess, my point.

MEMBER RIMM: No, that's a good point. I think NIAAA does not have this same foundation of standards saying you have to go to the evidence library and you have to share with all of the available evidence that this is the case.

So I guess, you know, they have summarized the literature and they have their own studies, and it suggests that people who drink like that don't have -- you know, are low risk drinkers, that they would qualify as

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low risk drinkers.
So with their being a little bit more flexible saying, you know what? It's okay to drink like this. You know, don't worry about your consumption if you're up to four drinks in a day just as long as you don't drink more than 14 a week.

> And I don't see any evidence to say that that's wrong. I don't see any evidence necessarily to say it's really, you know, incredibly right and it's just exactly the same as the previous evidence, but there's not evidence to say that it's wrong, you know, four drinks a day for men on any given day is going to necessarily impact their rates of heart disease, stroke, breast cancer or color cancer any differently.

But I will say we haven't necessarily looked at all of the evidence for unintentional injuries and fractures where I will probably see where it's probably two to three or four times increased risk.

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MS. McMURRY: Kathryn McMurry, HHS.

I just wanted to try to clarify the dietary guidelines' recommendations for moderate alcohol consumption. Historically it has been a daily limit, not an average weekly limit, and the 2005 dietary guidelines committee report on page 218 says a daily intake of one to two alcoholic beverages is associated with the lowest all cause mortality and a low risk of CHD among middle aged and older adults.

And it goes on to say if alcohol is consumed, it should be consumed in moderation and only by adults. Moderation is defined as consumption of up to one drink per day for women and up to two drinks per day for men, although the committee did look at research among people who consumed four or fewer alcoholic beverages per day, and that might be the source of some of the unclarity.

MEMBER RIMM: Well, I think the
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issue is that all of the papers that are summarized in the 2005 dietary guideline report are all based on average consumption. They're not one drink a day, up to one drink a day for women, up to two drinks a day for men because those data for the most part didn't exist. It has only been in the last eight to -- yeah, five to eight years that there's been a lot more data on dietary patterns or on alcohol patterns where they actually looked at days per week and how many alcohol drinks were consumed on those days.

So that's why I said it was sort of implied, but in the end they did say one drink a day for women and two drinks a day for men, but I think implied in that was that it was average consumption because they were basing it on data that was all average consumption.

MEMBER PEARSON: This is Tom Pearson.

But underlying this is an
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individual using alcohol as a beverage or a drug, and I think the pattern of a drink or two a day, I think you could suggest might be associated with a lot of other healthy lifestyles. I mean, it's just a moderation thing kind of versus -- again, this is one of those average versus this maximum. You know, I'd certainly be more comfortable with the two being a maximum rather than this four and none in which you might have an individual who's using this not as part of a healthy diet but rather as something else.

MEMBER RIMM: Yeah. I mean, I think that the reason that I brought up this NIAAA document, one is it just came out, is useful to talk about and publicize. The second thing is that we're going to have the case where there's going to be two different government agencies that have essentially two different guidelines.

That's not to say that government agencies always all agree on everything and NEAL R. GROSS
the guidelines are always going to be the same, and they clearly didn't have the same sort of requirements for evidence base on the world's literature as we may have. So I wanted to at least look at it and address it to see, you know, is this an acceptable guideline. Should we go with something that would be consistent that would then become more of a uniform guideline or if the evidence doesn't support it, of course, we would go back to something which is best supported by the evidence.

So I'm not tied to it. I'm just saying that we're putting it out there and I'm not going to encourage all college students around the country to write letters to me like you did, but I clearly would love to hear people's opinion on this.

MEMBER APPEL: Yeah, Larry Appel.
Eric, $I$ have a question about the NIAAA. Is this really sort of a guideline that's based on the evidence or was it deemed

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sort of like a more practical type of recommendation because the evidence actually becomes a circular argument, you know, the way they've defined it. The problem drinker is a non-binge, you know. It's a bit circular.

So it's easy to say that this is consistent with a low risk population because a high risk person almost by definition is over 14 per day or is drinking five or more, you know, on an occasion.

But it seems to me that it might have been just sort of a way to say, okay, well, we know that when a woman drinks it's very unlikely it's just one a day, you know. They probably are drinking maybe two or something like this and men maybe not two or three.

So do you know if this is really based on some sort of, you know, real evidence or is it just sort of this makes more sense? The reason $I$ bring that up is because that would be a potential translation improvement

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if they thought that this was just a more practical guideline than what has been out there before.

MEMBER RIMM: yeah, I mean we can go back and ask someone at NIAAA for insights into this. Again, what $I$ have is what I've seen, and for the most part I realize that this is something really not geared at defining, hey, this is the way everybody should be drinking. This document is geared at trying to help people who drink in excess of that.

So it gives people ideas, gives people suggestions, gives ways to identify the fact that if you are not a low risk drinker how can you get to that? So I think it really is a practical way of getting people down from drinking in excess of that, of 14 and seven.

Now, obviously why we're arguing this back and forth is because this is saying you can drink up to four for men and up to three for women, and I think that also may be

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just a practical way to start from drinking in excess of that to get to that level to feel like you've made some progress and that you are now drinking at a level which is of lower risk.

Now, again, $I$ think they're basing this mostly on their own NIAAA studies, and I don't think it's meant in the same way. I really don't think it's meant as this is an alcohol guideline that everybody should be following. I think it's meant to be in a pamphlet to help drinkers -- people who drink in excess to drink less.

But $I$ think it's a good idea. It's funny that I'm getting 80 percent of the questions from people in my own subcommittee.
(Laughter.)
MEMBER RIMM: Rachel, this is a sign to us we need to meet more frequently. (Laughter.)

MEMBER RIMM: But I think we should welcome someone from NIAAA to give us a

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much more detailed description of what led to this. How did you go about doing it? And you know, I would welcome the discussion, and I think maybe this is an implication that we have in the dietary guideline where we point to this saying here's one way if you drink in excess -- here's a great way to get to a lower level.

MEMBER APPEL: Yes. I think the other thing, they sort of crosses my mind, and I'm sure you, too. It's like any time you sort of like make a change in a number, I mean, that becomes a headline, and it's a headline that it's going to be misinterpreted, too. So maybe they've even done some, you know, qualitative research in the public that this did or did not seem to have an impact on how people drink.

If we were to make a change or accept this, you know, that would probably get a lot of attention, and we would probably be wondering ourselves, you know, are we creating

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more harm by giving potential license going from what is under two to up to four and would the people, you know, go further.

MEMBER RIMM: Yeah, you're right. I think looking at some of Patricia's data that she did for us, I mean, there's a lot of people who are drinking outside of the dietary guidelines. So I'm not trying to sort of massage the dietary guidelines so that it looks like we don't have as much drinking problems in this country.

So I agree. I mean, this should not be in the top five things that get screamed from the rooftops when the dietary guidelines come out. I really think that sodium in children, you know, and things related to body weight control should be screamed from the rooftops. This should be something that, you know, is driven by the evidence.

DR. POST: Yeah, hi. This is Rob Post.

I've got a question, and that is if you're going to consider calories declared on labeling when we're talking about discretionary calories, $I$ know that's an issue that may have been brought up in comments received, but it looks at it from a more practical standpoint.

MEMBER RIMM: Yeah, I mean, that is a challenge, and $I$ know it has been something that's been debated for a fair bit of time, and I'm all for sort of freedom of information. I really think that when people make choices they should know what they're consuming. They should know how much calories are in what they're choosing.

So I am strongly in favor of that. Again, I'm not familiar with the evidence that there's been enough studies saying that people altered alcohol consumption based on if they saw a label or not that had caloric content, but you know, I think that body weight is the theme of this dietary guidelines, and if

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drinking in more than two drinks a day leads to weight gain and if labeling the beverage helps with that, then I would be all for it, and I think maybe that could be one additional piece that would help to guide that.

You know, I am all for information and having the information on the alcohol package also is very important.

CHAIRPERSON VAN HORN: And that really is a cross-cutting theme, I think, of this group, you know, that providing that information and raising to the attention of the public the caloric content of food so that, indeed, informed choices can be made in light of the need to pay attention to weight control, you know, is something that cuts across every single subcommittee that we've discussed. So I think that's another aspect of this.

I think we're at the point now where we can actually open the floor to discussion on any of the topics that we've

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discussed over these last two days. I want to just congratulate everybody because I think the amount of effort that has been put forth is just really unbelievable, to use a word I just heard.

And I think that we, indeed, have recognized, you know, that this is a very ambitious group, and if anybody can do it, I think this group can do it, but I also think we are now recognizing on the basis of the effort that has been put forth for this meeting that we have perhaps more than our fair share of work cut out for us.

And so our goals now, I think, are as subcommittees to go back and reconsider and reprioritize the key questions and topics that we think really need to be addressed, but now is the chance. I would like to open it up.

Are there things that any of the committee members would like to raise for discussion? Larry, you look like you do.

MEMBER APPEL: Larry Appel.
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In the context of sort of trimming, I think one of the things that we've done on our subcommittee that might be another reason to trim is that we've dealt with a lot of sort of contextual issues. So if all of the committees are doing is just, you know, going through the process and counting up positive and negative studies and not dealing with, you know, some of the important, you know, I'll call them -- I don't know -contextual ancillary issues which actually deserve a lot of discussion, you know, like we said the enhanced meat issue and other things that might be just as similarly important on their committees.

So it's another reason to start trimming the sails.

MEMBER RIMM: This is Eric Rimm.
I think related to that, you know, I think I would urge all subcommittees to take into consideration that this is more than a bean counting exercise. I've come up myself

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in just looking at my own studies for some of the questions that I've had, and it's really hard. It takes a lot of time to look at every study, but $I$ think we can't equate. All studies are not the same, and there is a time -- and I don't think all prospective studies are the same, and I don't think all randomized clinical trials are the same.

And so I know why the quality of the study is rated as positive, neutral or negative quality, but sometimes $I$ don't know if that's enough or depending on the context of it if the way those quality scores are set up are correct, but I think we could get a lot more out of it if instead of counting 20 studies we actually looked at the four best studies.

And I think the reason that we're around this table is because we're experts in an area. So I think at some point there has to be a decision made where, you know, it turns out there's 20 studies, 16 of them that NEAL R. GROSS
were poorly done and, you know, barely published, found one thing, and then the four that were excellent found the other thing. I think we have to put weight on the four studies even though the study designs may be one way or the other.

I realize I have some of those bad papers that you're citing, and so I don't mind my own papers being personally discounted if they don't hold up to some of the other papers. So I really think that it's time when we get down to the final questions that we really do look at the study quality.

CHAIRPERSON VAN HORN: I would like to echo that. You know, it's interesting that we're at a point of evidence based reports suggesting that we no longer need the expertise, in fact, and all we do is bean count and decide how many are on this side versus that side, and clearly that's not at all what needs to be done.

If anything, now more than ever
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the kind of judgment that you're suggesting is required because you have to know something about science and research and understand the topic and what are those nuances.

In my case, for example, what was the diet assessment method used and can you really rely on those data on the basis of the way those diet data were collected, and sometimes the answer is yes and sometimes it's no.

So $I$ think that in every one of our subcommittees, you know, there are those kinds of questions that have to be weighed and balanced and evaluated because we actually do make decisions.

I also think just for the purpose of those listening that this group has said over and over again that ultimately if no data exists or inaccurate or questionable data exists, there is a certain amount of responsibility felt by this group to come up with the best judgment in terms of how to NEAL R. GROSS
treat that.
And I think that, again, that's the beauty of having a group like this convened with interdisciplinary expertise and the ability to really wade through all of this and come up with something reasonable as far as what to recommend.

So I think at this point, other topics on any other questions that have been addressed? Everyone is looking a little exhausted at the moment.

Yes, go ahead, Tom.
MEMBER PEARSON: Well, this caloric adjustment question came up and that was one of the things that I think we haven't resolved in terms of expressing nutrients on the basis of calories versus milligram amounts. It's fiber; it's sodium; it's fat; it's cholesterol.

CHAIRPERSON VAN HORN: Right, right. I think --

MEMBER PEARSON: It would be nice
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if we did something standardly.
CHAIRPERSON VAN HORN: Right. If we think that it is applicable in a standard way. I know in the sodium -- and, Larry, you can speak to this -- but in the sodium discussion it was decided that calorie adjustment for that would not be a benefit because of some of the things Christine said, and you know, in terms of children as well as just realizing there's an absolute amount here that does make a difference in terms of blood pressure and other issues.

But you know, to do that in each of the subcommittees related to their issue, whether it be fiber or cholesterol or what have you, I think that requires a little more contemplating.

Larry.
MEMBER APPEL: Yeah, Larry Appel again.

I think just a little bit of a refinement. What we decided in our NEAL R. GROSS
subcommittee, and maybe we need to just make sure, is that we're not going to adjust the recommendation based on calorie intake. On the other hand, there's a charge to Trish and also subcommittees to think about whether the tables for, you know, the dietary patterns could be adjusted just because there is the practical aspect to this.

Now, you know, I'm not quite sure. There's a bit of a disconnect, but there is also the reality, you know, that people who eat together have very different calorie intakes and they're not preparing different meals for people with higher calorie levels. CHAIRPERSON VAN HORN: Right, exactly. Other general topics? Shelly. MEMBER NICKOLS-RICHARDSON: This is Shelly. I just wanted to go back to the cholesterol question, the 300/200 level. In looking at the modeling that Trish has already done with the ideal representative foods, when you get below 1,600 calories, you can then get

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below 200 milligrams of cholesterol in the diet, but above the 1,600 calorie level, just based on a little bit of what Trish has here, it's very difficult to get below the 200 milligrams.

So we already have some of that modeled.

CHAIRPERSON VAN HORN: Okay. Well, with that, just a few closing comments, and we'd also like to hear from Raj.

And I'd just like to briefly review the next steps for our work. Between now and the fifth meeting each subcommittee will finish drafting its proposed conclusion statements for all of the remaining research questions, realizing that some of those may get triaged.

The subcommittee chairs will leave the drafting of the content for their respective chapters and work with the science writer on organization and flow within their chapters.

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At this fifth meeting that's likely to take place in the first quarter of 2010, each subcommittee will present the proposed conclusions for the remaining research questions for the report. The focus of this fifth meeting will be to come to consensus on the science and consider the integration of our conclusions into the food based recommendations that will ultimately be made.

And as I mentioned at the start of the meeting yesterday, there will be a sixth and final meeting after the report is complete that will be held via Webinar for both the committee members and the public, and at that meeting we'll present and vote on the approval of this report.

After that the report will undergo final formatting and formal discussion to submit the advisory report to the Secretaries of USDA and HHS who will then post it for public comment.

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And with that, $I^{\prime} d$ just like to ask Raj to address the group.

DR. ANAND: Penny and I were talking just two minutes ago that how exciting it has been to be here. I'm really impressed by the caliber of discussion and the caliber of the committee members. I really want to thank each one of you for really spending your time and your energy on this one, and especially to Linda Van Horn for chairing this meeting.

Arranging a meeting takes a lot of time, a lot of people. So if you will give me the liberty to acknowledge some of the people that have worked behind this one.

First of all I would like to thank the people from HHS, Penny Slade-Sawyer and Sarah Linde-Feucht. We thank you very much for coming and participating in it.

Second, I would like to acknowledge the role of three Executive Secretaries: Carol Davis, Kathryn McMurry,

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and Shanty Bowman. Thank you for taking part. We have several people. I'll just name them from CNPP: Jan Adams, Trish Britten, Eve Essery, Patricia Guenther, Kellie O'Connell, Colette Rihane, Joanne Spahn, Joan Lyon, Yat Ping Wong, Jean Altman, Donna BlumKimelor, Eve Essery, Thomas Fungwe, Patricia MacNeil, Molly McGrane, Julie Obbagy.

These people have really worked very hard for over the past several days and arranged this one.

Then we have people from HHS: Holly McPeak, Shirley Blakely, Rachel Hayes.

And I also want to acknowledge the ERS that have given us this facility, very nice facilities, and the staff that really helped the logistics were Dominique Harris, Pat Cleveland, and LeShawn Williams. We want to thank each one of you for your work and your effort to make this meeting a really enjoyable experience.

Thank you very much.
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CHAIRPERSON VAN HORN: Thank you very much Raj, and I would just echo that to all of the committee members and everyone gathered here and Rob Post, just all of the work that's going on. It's really impressive, and it's really a privilege to be a part of this illustrious group.

So thank you all so much and we'll be back in February. Thank you.
(Whereupon, at 3:26 p.m., the meeting in the above-entitled matter was concluded.)

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