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Economic consequences of better health: insights from clinical data

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KEY MESSAGES

- There is strong evidence that good health in early life leads to better economic outcomes later in life.
- The body of evidence in support of this causal link is mostly related to the economic effects of better diets in utero and in early childhood.
- Although strong evidence exists on the economic consequences of some specific diseases and their treatments – such as HIV and antiretroviral treatment – for most diseases and treatments such evidence is lacking.
- Clinicians and researchers can generate powerful new insights on the economic consequences of specific diseases and treatments by incorporating economic outcomes in clinical trials and by identifying and exploiting natural experiments in routine clinical data.

Contributors and sources

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Patient involvement

No patients were involved in the preparation of article.

Conflicts of Interest

We have read and understood [BMJ policy on declaration of interests](#) and declare that all the authors have no relevant interest to declare.

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Standfirst

Osondu Ogbuoji and colleagues discuss the state of available evidence of the causal links between health status and economic outcomes. They also propose ways for clinicians, economists, and other researchers to substantially improve our understanding of the economic consequences of specific diseases and their treatments.

Introduction

Little could be more plausible than the proposition that healthier individuals and populations are likely to generate higher economic output than sickly ones: First, healthier individuals are more productive at work and less likely to be absent from work. Second, health promotes the accumulation of human capital. Healthier children are more likely to go to school, to learn and to develop to their full human and economic potential. Third, health promotes the accumulation of physical capital. Greater life expectancy increases the incentives to save for retirement. These savings, in turn, will be available for investment in the buildings, machinery and technology necessary for the production of goods and services. Fourth, declining child mortality often induces fertility reductions as parents realize that they require fewer children to ensure a comfortable old age. The lag between the mortality and the fertility decline lead to an increase ratio of working age population to young and old dependents – the so-called demographic dividend –, which provides favourable conditions for economic growth (1).

Box 1: Economic consequences of better health – pathways

Several authors have proposed theoretical frameworks in an attempt to explain the causal link between health and future economic outcomes. Some common frameworks include the health to wealth framework by Bloom and Canning(1), subsequently expanded by Bärnighausen et. al. (2), and the social drift hypothesis for mental illness (3). We highlight some of the common pathways below.

Outcome-related productivity consequences: Healthier children learn better and perform better at school while healthier adults perform better at work and earn higher salaries. Another example is the social drift hypothesis in mental health research: a major mental health disorder, e.g. schizophrenia, prevents a person from earning a stable income leading to impoverishment.

Behaviour-related productivity consequences: Better health can induce individuals to change long-term behaviours that affect economic outcomes – such as fertility, education and saving for future spending. For instance, as life expectancy increases, so does the expected return on education. Life expectancy increases due to expanding vaccine coverage or access to HIV treatment should thus increase educational attainment in a community. In turn, higher educational attainment will increase wages for individuals and boost economic development at the community level.

Healthcare cost and care-related productivity consequences: Disease leads to the need for healthcare spending and reduces patients' and carers' productive time. Prevention and treatment can reduce future financial and monetary losses due to ill health. For instance, good glycaemic control among diabetic patients prevents future financial and time costs of care for diabetic complications.

Community economic externalities: Healthier communities tend to attract more investment, such as foreign direct investment, and are more likely to provide the conditions for strong economic growth, such as social and political stability.

A combination of historical, macroeconomic, and household studies provide ample evidence of the association between health and economic outcomes, as well as insights into a range of potential pathways explaining these associations (**Box 1**) (4-6). Yet, causal (as opposed to associational) evidence remains sparse and inconclusive, particularly at the macroeconomic level. The *microeconomic research* on the causal link between health and economic outcomes has focused to a large degree on the wealth effects of two particular aspects of health: quasi-experimental evidence on in-utero exposure to mothers' health and both experimental and quasi-experimental evidence on reductions of various forms of malnutrition, such as stunting or nutrient deficiencies. These individual-level studies published in economic journals have been accompanied by a number of studies in medical journals examining the health effects of nutrition status and nutritional interventions. This research has moved from initial descriptions of associations to experiments providing strong causal evidence on the economic consequences of nutrition. What is largely lacking, however, perhaps surprisingly, are empirical individual-level studies establishing the economic consequences of specific diseases, such as malaria, hypertension, diabetes, pneumonia, diarrhoea or depression, and the economic returns to specific treatments. There are a few notable exceptions to this rule – in particular HIV treatment – but to date we lack strong causal evidence on the economic consequences of most diseases and most medical treatments.

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5 Our purpose in this short note is twofold. First we provide three examples that illustrate the
6 (already highly plausible) economic consequences of health. And, second, we point to a research
7 agenda that would leverage clinical trials and routine data collection to provide, at relatively low
8 cost, a mechanism for expanding the range, robustness, and practical utility of the literature on
9 the economic consequences of better health.
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15 **Example of a specific medical treatment: HIV**

16 HIV treatment can halt and reverse the progression of HIV disease, as well as reduce the spread
17 of HIV. Untreated, HIV leads to physical suffering and eventually premature death. It is thus
18 plausible that HIV treatment has important economic effects. Quasi-experimental studies over
19 the past 15 years have established a number of these effects, mostly in sub-Saharan Africa: HIV
20 treatment increases employment (7-10) and worker productivity (10) and decreases absenteeism
21 (9). These effects are larger if treatment is initiated soon after HIV infection occurs rather than
22 after the disease has progressed (11, 12). Based on the understanding of HIV disease, the
23 directions of these effects may not be surprising. The main value of these findings could thus be
24 seen primarily in quantifying the size of the effects within a particular context. Economic effects
25 of treatment, however, may also manifest in unexpected directions. For instance, Patenaude and
26 colleagues find that HIV treatment in rural South Africa decreased food security for a period of
27 about three years following treatment initiation – despite positive effects of HIV treatment on
28 employment in the same population (13). The likely explanation for this result is that the
29 financial burden of treatment is immediate and large, while the economic benefits lag treatment
30 initiation by three to five years. This study demonstrates that the empirical analysis of economic
31 effects of a treatment may reveal unexpected directions of effects and stimulate further research
32 into the mechanisms leading from treatment to economic outcomes.
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48 **Effects of in utero health on economic well-being in adulthood**

49 The in-utero period was first linked to adult health outcomes by Barker (14, 15). Almond
50 extended the Barker hypothesis – in utero conditions affect adult health – to economic outcomes.
51 Using quasi-experimental variation in exposure to the 1918/19 Spanish flu in the United States,
52 he estimated that the flu led to reduced educational attainment, substantially reduced income in
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3 adulthood, and generally lower socio-economic status (16). Other studies have found similar
4 effects for Brazil, Sweden, Switzerland and Taiwan (17-20). However, Vollmer and Wójcik
5 show in a meta regression of census data that these findings do not translate to most other
6 countries, although the Spanish flu was a global phenomenon (21). Almond and co-authors have
7 investigated other natural experiments such as the exposure to Chernobyl's radioactive fallout in
8 Sweden or temporal variation in Ramadan observance (22, 23). Their results consistently
9 confirm the hypothesis that adverse in utero conditions negatively affect adult economic
10 outcomes.
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19 **Economic effects of child health and nutrition**

20 There is overwhelming evidence that, on average, healthy children enjoy better educational
21 outcomes than unhealthy children, and that this educational advantage translates to higher
22 earnings over their lifetime (24-27). Experiments done around the world found math and
23 language scores and attendance rates to be significantly higher in schools that received a school
24 feeding program compared to schools that did not (28-32). An experiment in a region of India
25 with widespread iron deficiency anemia found that math and language scores were higher among
26 children who regularly participated in a school feeding program that included iron fortified salt
27 (33). A study conducted in Guatemala found that children who were randomly assigned to
28 receive nutritional supplements in their first two years of life earned 46% more in wages than
29 their counterparts in adulthood (34). However, randomized trials, which follow participants over
30 very long periods are still rare and more evidence on the long-run economic effects of childhood
31 interventions is needed.
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43 **Economic effects of adult nutrition**

44 The quantity and quality of food intake affects the levels of productivity of workers. In separate
45 studies conducted at different times, and in different countries, better diets were found to have a
46 positive effect on the level of productivity of farm workers when measured as harvest yield or
47 wages (35-38). Increased caloric intake in energy-deficient adults led to increased energy levels,
48 which increased farm productivity in some studies (35, 39, 40), while in other studies it led to
49 decreased farm productivity or no observable change in farm productivity (41, 42). There is
50 some evidence that calories from protein seem to have a higher impact on productivity than
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3 calories from other sources (40). Also workers with micronutrient deficiencies such as iron
4 deficiency anemia show improvements in aerobic capacity, production efficiency, and work
5 outputs once these specific deficiencies are addressed (43). These findings indicate that beyond
6 simple calorie levels, the nutritional composition of adult diets may be a more important
7 determinant of increased productivity.
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11 12 13 **Implications for clinical research**

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15 Overall, there is strong evidence of the general causal impacts of good health and nutrition on
16 economic outcomes. Evidence on the economic consequences of specific diseases and
17 treatments, however, is largely lacking. These knowledge gaps are important because they
18 impede the optimal allocation of resources for healthcare – everything else equal, diseases
19 leading to more severe economic harms and treatments with higher economic returns should be
20 prioritized. These knowledge gaps also make it difficult to design policies and interventions to
21 enhance the economic benefits and to mitigate economic harms that medical treatments can
22 bring.
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31 A first step in a clinical research agenda on economic returns to specific treatments could be the
32 systematic description of the extant knowledge – for instance, in systematic reviews, scoping
33 reviews, or evidence gap maps (44). What is our knowledge about the long-term productivity
34 effects of headaches? What is the evidence on the effects of dementia on grandchildren's
35 educational attainment? What do we know about the economic effects of empiric treatment of
36 community-acquired pneumonia? These types of evidence bases are very different from
37 standard health economic estimations of the direct and indirect costs of care – rather they focus
38 on the downstream effects of health on economic and social outcomes.
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46 47 **Box 2: Evidence and gap maps and their potential contributions to research**

48 49 **What are evidence and gap maps?**

50 An evidence and gap map (EGM) is a tool that visually summarizes all available evidence
51 (meta-analysis, systematic reviews, and primary studies) about a particular subject (44). By
52 doing this, it identifies important gaps that require future research, and can be used to
53 prioritize investment of resources for research.
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Why are they important?

EGMs are important because in addition to their role in determining future research priorities, they also promote the use of evidence in policy making. EGMs also prevents duplication of studies which in turn will promote more efficient use of limited resources for research.

How can EGM contribute to evidence generation on the economic consequences of better health?

The nature of the question of a causal link between health and economic outcomes necessitates cross-disciplinary research that will involve the clinical sciences, economics, and epidemiology, among others. Bringing together experts from these fields with evidence scattered around different databases, knowledge banks and repositories will be greatly facilitated by an exercise that consolidates all the information available in all disciplines related to the subject of interests. EGMs fulfill such a consolidating function. First, the process of developing an EGM will integrate all the information available on the economic consequences of health in an easy to use format. The visual summary of evidence gaps will focus researchers on what is and what is not available. Second, EGM will allow researchers to know the quality of evidence available on the economic consequences of health, and by implication the strengths of recommendations that can result from the existing evidence base. Third, it will enable researchers to identify gaps that need to be filled as well as prioritize the sequence for filling those gaps.

As a second step, clinical research infrastructures – in particular clinical trials and cohorts – could be leveraged to learn about economic consequences of specific diseases and treatments. All that would be needed to generate major new insights is measurement of economic outcomes in existing clinical research infrastructures – such as cognitive development in children, educational attainment in adolescents, labor productivity in middle-aged adults, and social functioning in older-aged adults.

Adding economic endpoints to clinical trials of novel treatments generates two powerful analytical opportunities. First, it allows empirical estimation of the causal effects of the treatment on economic outcomes. Second, it enables the estimation of the economic effects of the disease that the treatment affects. The latter purpose will require that the standard assumptions of instrumental-variable estimation are met – which in many cases will be likely in clinical trials: The treatment has been randomly assigned and many treatments (such as certain medicines) are unlikely to affect economic outcomes via pathways other than those running through the disease they are intended to affect. These opportunities that leverage already funded

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3 clinical trials for major new insights apply to past trials – we can revisit trial cohorts and assess
4 economic outcomes – as well as to future trials – we can make sure that the prospective
5 endpoints include economic outcomes.
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10 Adding economic outcome assessments to clinical cohorts will enable the estimation of the
11 economic effects of diseases and routine healthcare. One strong quasi-experimental approach to
12 analyzing clinical cohort data is regression discontinuity analysis around thresholds for treatment
13 eligibility (45) – such as 140 mmHg for systolic blood pressure for antihypertensive treatment.
14 Another quasi-experimental approach for clinical cohort studies is individual fixed effects
15 analysis, comparing individuals to themselves in different treatment states over time (46). This
16 latter approach allows control of all unobserved time-invariant individual confounders; the
17 former approach allows control of all unobserved confounders – just like in a clinical trial.
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26 **Box 3: Opportunities for clinical science to contribute to the evidence on the economic**
27 **consequences of better health**
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29 **Adding economic endpoints to clinical trials**

30 Past clinical trial cohorts can be revisited to assess economic endpoints, providing the data
31 to measure economic consequences of diseases and treatments, such as the long-term wage
32 effects of novel approaches to prevent stroke or treat depression. Economic outcomes
33 should also be included in the design of relevant new clinical trials.
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36 **Adding economic assessments to clinical cohort studies**

37 Clinical care has established cohorts of individuals that have been followed for many years
38 and, in some situations, for several decades. If assessments of economic outcomes are
39 added to these cohorts, they will generate the data to measure the economic consequences
40 of specific diseases and treatments. For this purpose, a range of powerful quasi-
41 experimental approaches can be used – such as regression discontinuity analyses around
42 treatment thresholds (e.g, for diabetes mellitus, hypertension, or hypercholesterinemia), as
43 well as instrumental variable analyses exploiting policy and clinical guideline changes, and
44 fixed effects analyses comparing the same individuals in different disease and treatment
45 states.
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51 In conclusion, we see major opportunities for clinical research to contribute advances in our
52 understanding of the causal effects of specific diseases and treatments on economic outcomes.
53 This research would powerfully complement the existing economic literature, providing far
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greater precision and detail in our evidence on effects of healthcare beyond effects on health. The investments for these scientific advances will not be very large, because past and future clinical trials and ongoing clinical cohorts can be leveraged for this research.

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