

UC San Diego

UC San Diego Previously Published Works

Title

Tooth loss, periodontal disease, and mild cognitive impairment among Hispanic/Latino immigrants: The moderating effects of age at immigration.

Permalink

<https://escholarship.org/uc/item/9qh3g3m7>

Journal

The Journals of Gerontology Series A, 78(6)

ISSN

1079-5006

Authors

Luo, Huabin

Wu, Bei

González, Hector M

et al.

Publication Date

2022-09-01

DOI

10.1093/gerona/glac178

Peer reviewed

Research Article

Tooth Loss, Periodontal Disease, and Mild Cognitive Impairment Among Hispanic/Latino Immigrants: The Moderating Effects of Age at Immigration

Huabin Luo, PhD,^{1,*} Bei Wu, PhD,^{2,○} Hector M. González, PhD,³ Ariana Stickel, PhD,⁴ Linda M. Kaste, PhD,⁵ Wassim Tarraf, PhD,⁶ Martha L. Daviglius, MD, PhD,⁷ Anne E. Sanders, PhD,⁸ and Jianwen Cai, PhD^{9,○}

¹Department of Public Health, Brody School of Medicine, East Carolina University, Greenville, North Carolina, USA. ²Rory Meyers College of Nursing, New York University, New York City, New York, USA. ³Department of Neurosciences and Shiley-Marcos Alzheimer's Disease Research Center, University of California, San Diego, San Diego, California, USA. ⁴Department of Neurosciences, University of California, San Diego, San Diego, California, USA. ⁵Department of Pediatric Dentistry, College of Dentistry, University of Illinois at Chicago, Chicago, Illinois, USA. ⁶Department of Healthcare Sciences, Wayne State University, Institute of Gerontology, Detroit, Michigan, USA. ⁷Institute for Minority Health Research, University of Illinois at Chicago, College of Medicine, Chicago, Illinois, USA. ⁸Division of Pediatric and Public Health, Adams School of Dentistry, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, Chapel Hill, North Carolina, USA. ⁹Department of Biostatistics, Gillings School of Global Public Health, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, Chapel Hill, North Carolina, USA.

*Address correspondence to: Huabin Luo, PhD, Department of Public Health, Brody School of Medicine, East Carolina University, 115 Heart Drive, Greenville, NC 27834, USA. E-mail: Luoh@ecu.edu

Received: April 30, 2022; Editorial Decision Date: August 23, 2022

Decision Editor: Lewis A. Lipsitz, MD, FGSA

Abstract

Background: The objectives were to assess (a) the association between poor oral health and mild cognitive impairment (MCI) in Hispanic/Latino immigrants and (b) potential modification effects on this association by age at immigration.

Methods: Data were from the Hispanic Community Health Study/Study of Latinos and its ancillary study—the Study of Latinos—Investigation of Neurocognitive Aging. MCI, a binary outcome variable, defined by the National Institute on Aging–Alzheimer's Association criteria. The main exposure was significant tooth loss (STL), defined as a loss of 8 or more teeth, and periodontitis, classified using the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention and American Academy of Periodontology case classification. Multiple logistic regression was used to assess the association between STL/periodontitis and MCI and test moderation effects of age at immigration. The analytical sample comprised 5 709 Hispanic/Latino adult immigrants.

Results: Hispanic/Latino immigrants with STL (adjusted odds ratio [AOR] = 1.36, 95% confidence interval [CI]: 1.01–1.85) were more likely to have MCI than those with greater tooth retention. Overall, migration to the United States after age 18 was associated with greater odds of MCI than migration at a younger age. A significant interaction effect between STL and age at immigration revealed that the effect of STL on MCI is even higher in those who immigrated to the United States at ages 35–49 years.

Conclusions: STL is a significant risk factor for MCI and age at immigration had a modification effect on the association between STL and MCI. Better access to dental care, health education on risk factors of MCI, and promotion of good oral health may mitigate the burden of cognitive impairment in Hispanics/Latinos.

Keywords: Hispanics/Latinos, Immigrants, Mild cognitive impairment, Periodontal disease, Tooth loss

Mild cognitive impairment (MCI) is the intermediate stage between the cognitive changes of normal aging and dementia; early detection and intervention may be possible during this stage (1,2). Among individuals with MCI, about 32% develop Alzheimer's disease and dementia (ADRD) within 5 years (2,3). The high conversation rate to ADRD than those with normal cognition underscores the need to identify the risk factors of this devastating disease. Identification of risk factors is a key step in developing and implementing relevant public health programs to delay the onset of cognitive impairment and slow the progression to ADRD.

Periodontal disease is a chronic inflammatory disease caused by host response to predominantly Gram-negative anaerobic bacteria (4,5). Pro-inflammatory molecules, bacteria, and bacterial products derived from periodontal disease increase the risk of developing an inflammatory state in the central nervous system (6). Prior research found significant relationships between periodontal infection and lower cognitive scores (7). Yet, recent systematic reviews have shown that research on the association between periodontitis and cognitive impairment is limited and more studies are needed (8,9). Furthermore, tooth loss in older adults represents the final outcome of dental conditions, such as caries and periodontitis (10) and has been related to worse cognitive function (11,12).

A growing number of studies have shown an association between poor oral health (tooth loss and/or periodontal disease) and ADRD (11,13–16). Tooth loss and periodontal disease may be putative modifiable risk factors for MCI, but limited research has been conducted on the association between poor oral health and MCI (17–20). Evidence on poor oral health as a potential risk factor for MCI would have important implications for ADRD prevention. The findings of this study can contribute to designing programs and interventions to promote oral health and to delay the onset of the cognitive decline.

Hispanics/Latinos (henceforth Latinos) are 1.5 times as likely to be clinically diagnosed with ADRD than non-Hispanic Whites. They are projected to have the largest increase in ADRD cases in the coming decades (21). Furthermore, many Latinos in the United States are immigrants (22). Immigration is a key life event that can result in dramatic changes in one's life (23). Age at immigration has far reaching implications for an individual's language acquisition, socioeconomic status, acculturation, and cognitive health in later life (24,25). (26) For most immigrants, age at immigration also determines the duration and levels of exposure to the inadequate health care and limited education in their home countries (23). Thus, the impact of these preimmigration antecedents on their health outcomes may vary by age of immigration (27).

To our knowledge, no research has been conducted to assess the relationship between poor oral health and MCI among Latino immigrants in the United States; nor has the role of age at immigration been investigated. The current study assessed the association between poor oral health (eg, significant tooth loss [STL] and periodontal disease) and MCI in a diverse group of Latino immigrants in the United States, and assessed moderation effects of age at immigration on the association. We hypothesized that (a) immigrants with poor oral health would be more likely to have MCI; (b) those who immigrated to the United States at an older age would be at an even higher risk of MCI.

Method

Data were from the Hispanic Community Health Study/Study of Latinos (HCHS/SOL), and its ancillary study—the Study of Latinos—Investigation of Neurocognitive Aging (SOL-INCA).

HCHS/SOL is a large, multicenter, population-based, longitudinal prospective cohort study of Hispanic/Latino adults (ages 18–74 years, $n = 16\,415$) from 4 U.S. metropolitan areas: Bronx, NY; Chicago, IL; Miami, FL; and San Diego, CA, consisting of individuals from Cuban, Dominican, Mexican, Puerto Rican, Central and South Americans backgrounds. The first 2 data collections (ie, 2006–2013 [Visit 1] and 2013–2018 [Visit 2]) have been completed. The third data collection period is from 2018 to 2024. Participants were recruited based on a multi-stage complex sampling design (28,29). Sampling details can be found elsewhere (29). Participants underwent comprehensive clinical examinations (medical and dental), cognitive assessment, and behavioral and sociodemographic interviews at baseline (Visit 1). Participants were asked if they had any natural teeth. If the answer was “no,” they were directed to edentulous specific questions. Data from edentulous participants were not included in this study. The dental examination included tooth count, assessment of caries, dental restorations, and periodontal status.

For the SOL-INCA study, the HCHS/SOL Coordinating Center identified 7 420 potentially eligible participants, 50 years and older with baseline neurocognitive testing from Visit 1, who were screened at Visit 2 and completed the SOL-INCA Eligibility and Screening form. Out of this group, 222 were considered ineligible, 569 were eligible and refused, and 6 377 were eligible and agreed to participate (29). Out of them, 6 255 participants completed the cognitive tests at Visit 2. Among these 6 255 participants, there were 5 709 immigrants (not born in one of the 50 U.S. states), 555 non-immigrants, and 1 participant with missing data on immigrant status. The sample in this study consisted of 5 709 immigrants ages 50–74 years (see Figure 1 for the study sample selection).

Outcome Variable: Mild Cognitive Impairment

MCI was a binary outcome in this study and we assessed the prevalence of MCI. In HCHS/SOL (Visit 1), 4 tests on cognitive function are included: (a) Six-Item Screener (mental status), (b) Brief-Spanish English Verbal Learning Test (verbal episodic learning and memory), (c) Word Fluency, and (d) Digit Symbol Subtest (processing speed, executive function). In SOL-INCA (Visit 2), cognitive tests were administered to eligible HCHS/SOL participants who returned for Visit 2. In addition to these 4 tests, the following tests were also included in Visit 2: the Trail Making Test (parts A and B [executive function]), and NIH Toolbox Picture Vocabulary Test (PVT) self-reported

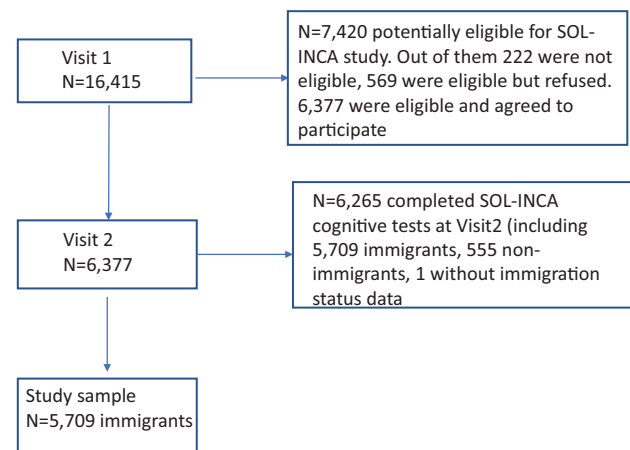


Figure 1. A flow chart of sample selection. SOL-INCA = Study of Latinos – Investigation of Neurocognitive Aging.

cognitive decline (Everyday Cognition-12), and instrumental activities of daily living (IADL) (29,30).

The assessment of MCI is based on the cognitive test scores in Visit 1 and Visit 2 and has been described elsewhere (29–31). Briefly, MCI diagnostic criteria include 4 core National Institute on Aging–Alzheimer’s Association (NIA-AA) criteria (32): (a) any cognitive score in the mildly impaired range, that is, from -1 to -2 SDs compared with the SOL-INCA internal robust norms (age-, education-, sex-, and PVT-adjusted scores), (b) significant cognitive decline (greater than or equal to -0.055 SD/year) from Visit 1, (c) self-reported cognitive decline, and (d) no or minimum IADL impairment (32). Cognitive impairment and significant cognitive decline criteria were used to reduce false-positive bias. Individuals with severe cognitive impairment (below -2 SD relative to SOL-INCA robust norms and with significant functional impairment) were not included in these MCI prevalence estimates (30).

Independent Variable: Oral Health

Oral health status was measured by 2 variables: (a) Significant tooth loss (STL), measured as a binary variable (ie, 8 or more vs less than 7 tooth loss) (33), which indicates significant loss in functional dentition status. (b) Periodontal disease—no periodontal disease, mild, moderate, and severe (34), coded as 1, 2, 3, and 4. The dental examination was conducted at Visit 1. Tooth loss was based on a maximum of 28 permanent teeth (exclusion of the third molars). The definition of periodontal disease was based on the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention and American Academy of Periodontology case definitions for mild, moderate, and severe periodontitis (34,35). Detailed descriptions can be found elsewhere (36,37). Briefly, periodontal disease was estimated as severe (≥ 2 interproximal sites with attachment loss [AL] ≥ 6 mm [not on same tooth], and ≥ 1 interproximal sites with pocket depth [PD] ≥ 5 mm), moderate (≥ 2 interproximal sites with AL ≥ 4 mm [not on the same tooth], or ≥ 2 interproximal sites with PD ≥ 5 mm [not on same tooth]), and mild (≥ 2 interproximal sites with AL ≥ 3 mm and ≥ 2 sites with PD ≥ 4 mm [not on the same tooth, or ≥ 1 site with PD ≥ 5 mm]).

Moderator Variable: Age at Immigration

Self-reported age at immigration to the United States was assessed as a moderator variable in this study. Following prior research (24,25,38), we classified the immigrants into 4 groups according to their age at immigration: <18 , 18–34, 35–49, and 50+ years.

Covariates

Covariates were selected based on prior research on risk factors of MCI (30,31,39). Data of covariates were from Visit 1. They included (a) Demographics: age at Visit 2, sex, Hispanic/Latino background (7 groups: Dominican, Central American, Cuban, Mexican, Puerto Rican, South American, and Mixed Hispanic/Latino heritage); (b) Socioeconomic status: annual household income ($< \$10,000$, $\$10,000$ – $< \$20,000$, $\$20,000$ – $< \$40,000$, $\$40,000$ – $< \$75,000$, $\geq \$75,000$ or Unknown [income data missing]), education ($<$ high school, high school, and above high school), and health insurance; (c) Self-reported health behavior variables: alcohol consumption (current drinker, former drinker, and never drinker), smoking cigarettes (current, former, or never smokers), and diet quality (above or below the top 40th percentile). Dietary intake was ascertained by two 24-hour dietary recalls administered 6 weeks apart. A diet score was calculated by assigning participants a score of 1–5 according to sex-specific quintile of daily intake of saturated fatty acids,

potassium, calcium, and fiber (with 5 as the most favorable quintile). The total scores were summed and the highest 40 percentile considered a healthier diet (40,41); (d) Self-reported chronic conditions: hypertension, myocardial infarction, stroke, diabetes—all binary variables (Yes/No), body mass index (measured as weight in kilograms divided by height in meters squared), depressive symptoms (measured by Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression scale-10 [CES-D] [Yes, elevated depressive symptoms, ≥ 10 CES-D, No, < 10 CES-D]) (42). In addition, 3 other covariates were included—participant’s high sensitivity C-reactive protein (hs-CRP) from baseline, time elapsed since Visit 1 (in years), and field centers (ie, Bronx, Chicago, Miami, and San Diego).

Analysis

First, we provided descriptive statistics to characterize the SOL-INCA population by MCI status. Second, we ran 6 logistic regression models sequentially to assess the association between poor oral health and MCI: Model I assessed the crude association of STL with MCI; Model II assessed the crude association of periodontal disease with MCI; Model III included both STL and periodontal disease; Model IV added demographics (age, sex, and Hispanic/Latino background), SES variables (household income, education level, and health insurance), field center, and time elapsed between Visits 1 and 2 to Model III; Model V, added health behavior variables (alcohol consumption, cigarettes smoking status, and diet quality), chronic conditions variables (hypertension, myocardial infarction, stroke, and diabetes), high-sensitivity C-reactive protein (hsCRP), and age at immigration to Model IV; finally in Model VI, we tested the interaction between poor oral health and age at immigration. Data analysis was performed using Stata 16 (College Station, TX: StataCorp LLC). All analyses used survey procedures (with strata, cluster, and weight statements) to account for the complex sampling design of HCHS/SOL. A significance level of .05 was used.

Results

Out of 6 377 participants who completed cognitive tests in Visit 1, 112 (1.7%) did not complete the cognitive tests at Visit 2. We compared the characteristics between participants who completed the cognitive tests at both Visit 1 and Visit 2 with those who did not complete the cognitive tests at Visit 2. We did not find significant differences between these 2 groups.

In the analytical sample ($n = 5\,709$), the prevalence of MCI was 11.4% (95% confidence interval [CI]: 10.2–12.8%). Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics of immigrants in the SOL-INCA population ($n = 5\,709$ immigrants). By MCI status, the proportions of immigrants who developed MCI were higher in those with STL, or having a less than high school education, less than \$10,000 family income, health insurance; having hypertension, stroke, depression symptoms, diabetes, or not drinking alcohol (all $p < .001$). The average age of those with MCI was older than those without ($p < .001$). In addition, the proportion who developed MCI was higher for those who immigrated to the United States at ages 50+ years ($p < .001$). There is no statistically significant difference in the proportion of immigrants who developed MCI by periodontal disease status.

Table 2 shows logistic regression model results for the association between poor oral health and MCI across all statistical models. The crude association between STL and MCI was significant ($p < .001$) and the crude association between periodontal disease was not significant ($p = .25$; see Models I and II). In Models III and IV,

Table 1. Characteristics of Hispanic/Latino Immigrants in the Target Population of SOL-INCA, Overall and by MCI Status (unweighted $n = 5\,709$)

Variables	Overall			MCI				<i>p</i>		
	%, Mean*	95% CI		Yes (%), Mean)*	95% CI		No (%), Mean)*		95% CI	
Significant tooth loss										<.001
No	65.2	62.7	67.6	8.4	7.0	10.0	91.6	90.0	93.0	
Yes	34.8	32.4	37.3	15.3	12.9	18.1	84.7	81.9	87.1	
Periodontal disease										.312
No	34.2	32.2	36.2	10.4	8.3	13.0	89.6	87.0	91.7	
Mild	7.2	6.1	8.6	13.1	8.3	20.1	86.9	79.9	91.7	
Moderate	43.1	41.0	45.2	9.3	7.8	11.0	90.7	89.0	92.2	
Severe	15.5	14.2	16.9	12.3	9.1	16.3	87.7	83.7	90.9	
Age (mean)	63.5	63.1	63.8	66.9	65.8	68.0	63.0	62.6	63.4	<.001
Sex										.290
Male	41.9	40.2	43.6	10.7	8.9	12.7	89.3	87.3	91.1	
Female	58.1	56.4	59.8	12.0	10.4	13.9	88.0	86.1	89.6	
Hispanic/Latino backgrounds										.140
Dominican	9.9	8.4	11.7	11.6	8.4	15.8	88.4	84.2	91.6	
Central American	7.3	6.3	8.4	11.3	7.6	16.4	88.7	83.6	92.4	
Cuban	29.9	25.5	34.7	10.7	8.6	13.2	89.3	86.8	91.4	
Puerto Rican	31.2	27.5	35.1	10.3	8.3	12.7	89.7	87.3	91.7	
South American	13.7	11.9	15.7	15.9	12.1	20.7	84.1	79.3	87.9	
Mexican	6.4	5.5	7.3	10.1	6.9	14.5	89.9	85.5	93.1	
Mixed Latino heritage	1.7	1.2	2.2	16.7	7.7	32.6	83.3	67.4	92.3	
Education										<.001
<High school	38.2	36.1	40.5	15.8	13.5	18.4	84.2	81.6	86.5	
High school	21.3	19.7	22.9	10.1	8.1	12.4	89.9	87.6	91.9	
> High school	40.5	38.4	42.6	8.2	6.7	10.0	91.8	90.0	93.3	
Family income										<.001
<\$10 000	16.8	15.2	18.6	17.0	13.9	20.6	83.0	79.4	86.1	
\$10 000–<20 000	30.7	28.8	32.7	11.2	8.9	14.0	88.8	86.0	91.1	
\$20 000–<40 000	28.7	26.9	30.5	9.4	7.5	11.7	90.6	88.3	92.5	
\$40 000–<75 000	11.2	9.8	12.7	5.9	3.8	9.1	94.1	90.9	96.2	
>=\$75 000	3.2	2.5	4.3	7.5	3.9	14.2	92.5	85.8	96.1	
Unknown	9.4	8.2	10.7	17.0	12.7	22.3	83.0	77.7	87.3	
Health insurance										<.001
No	45.4	42.7	48.0	8.8	7.4	10.5	91.2	89.5	92.6	
Yes	54.6	52.0	57.3	13.5	11.8	15.4	86.5	84.6	88.2	
Body mass index	29.7	29.5	29.9	30.3	29.7	30.9	29.7	29.4	29.9	.056
Smoking status										.540
Current smokers	56.8	54.7	58.8	11.6	9.9	13.4	88.4	86.6	90.1	
Former smokers	25.7	23.9	27.5	10.4	8.3	12.9	89.6	87.1	91.7	
Never smoked	17.5	15.9	19.3	12.5	9.7	15.9	87.5	84.1	90.3	
Alcohol use										<.001
Current drinker	43.5	41.5	45.4	8.9	7.6	10.4	91.1	89.6	92.4	
Former drinker	31.6	29.6	33.6	12.9	10.7	15.4	87.1	84.6	89.3	
Never drinker	25.0	23.0	27.0	14.1	11.5	17.2	85.9	82.8	88.5	
Depression										<.001
No	69.4	67.5	71.2	9.2	7.9	10.7	90.8	89.3	92.1	
Yes	30.6	28.8	32.5	16.2	13.7	19.1	83.8	80.9	86.3	
Hypertension										<.001
No	56.9	54.8	59.1	8.5	7.3	9.9	91.5	90.1	92.7	
Yes	43.1	40.9	45.2	15.4	13.0	18.0	84.6	82.0	87.0	
Stroke										<.001
No	98.1	97.6	98.5	11.0	9.8	12.3	89.0	87.7	90.2	
Yes	1.9	1.5	2.4	34.9	23.2	48.8	65.1	51.2	76.8	
Myocardial infarction										.114
No	96.9	96.0	97.6	11.3	10.1	12.6	88.7	87.4	89.9	
Yes	3.1	2.4	4.0	18.3	9.8	31.5	81.7	68.5	90.2	
Diabetes										<.001
No	70.1	68.3	71.9	8.4	7.3	9.6	91.6	90.4	92.7	
Yes	29.9	28.1	31.7	18.8	16.0	22.0	81.2	78.0	84.0	

Table 1. Continued

Variables	Overall			MCI				p		
	%, Mean*	95% CI		Yes (%), Mean*	95% CI		No (%), Mean*		95% CI	
Dietary quality above 60%										.381
No	44.2	41.8	46.6	12.1	10.3	14.2	87.9	85.8	89.7	
Yes	55.8	53.4	58.2	10.9	9.2	12.9	89.1	87.1	90.8	
Age at immigration										<.001
<18 years	13.6	11.9	15.5	7.9	5.3	11.7	92.1	88.3	94.7	
18–34 years	37.7	35.4	40.2	12.1	10.3	14.2	87.9	85.8	89.7	
35–49 years	32.5	30.6	34.5	10.0	8.0	12.5	90.0	87.5	92.0	
50+ years	16.1	14.1	18.4	15.8	12.6	19.7	84.2	80.3	87.4	
hs-CRP (mean)	4.2	3.8	4.5	4.6	3.9	5.4	4.1	3.7	4.4	.191
Time since Visit 1 (mean years)	7.0	6.9	7.1	7.1	6.9	7.2	7.0	6.9	7.0	.140
Field center										
Bronx	22.7	19.8	26.0	26.3	20.1	33.5	21.8	18.9	25.0	.339
Chicago	13.3	11.5	15.4	13.9	10.7	18.0	13.4	11.5	15.5	
Miami	40.3	35.2	45.6	37.2	30.2	44.8	41.0	35.8	46.4	
San Diego	23.6	20.0	27.7	22.6	17.2	29.1	23.9	20.1	28.1	

Notes: hs-CRP = high-sensitivity C-reactive protein; MCI = mild cognitive impairment.
*Weighted percent/mean.

STL was associated with MCI ($p < .001$) while periodontal disease (mild, moderate, or severe) was not (all $p > .05$).

In Model V, immigrants with STL (adjusted odds ratio [AOR] = 1.36, 95% CI: 1.01–1.85) were more likely to have MCI than those with fewer than 7 teeth loss. Overall, periodontal disease was associated with MCI ($p = .04$), but no results were found comparing mild, moderate, and severe periodontal disease with non-periodontal disease (all $p > .05$). Immigrants who came to the United States at ages 18–34 years (AOR = 1.83, 95% CI: 1.09–3.08), and at ages 50+ years (AOR = 1.88, 95% CI: 1.02–3.45) were more likely to have MCI than those who immigrated to the United States before age 18 years. Immigration at ages 35–49 was marginally associated with MCI (AOR = 1.62, $p = .08$). Immigrants having a high school or more than high school education were less likely (all $p < .05$) to have MCI than those with less than high school education. Having elevated depression symptoms, stroke, and diabetes were significant risk factors for MCI (all $p < .05$).

We tested if age at immigration modified the associations between each of the oral health measures (STL and periodontal disease, separately) with MCI status (Model VI). The interaction term was significant ($p = .02$) between STL and age at immigration but the interaction term between periodontal disease and age at immigration was not ($p = .10$). There was an increased risk of having MCI for those immigrants who had STL and immigrated to the United States at ages 35–49 years (see Figure 2).

As additional analyses, we explored the potential moderating effects of diet and hsCRP. We tested diet \times STL, hsCRP \times STL, diet \times periodontal disease, and hsCRP \times periodontal disease. We did not find significant results.

Discussion

In recent years, many studies have investigated poor oral health as a potential risk factor for ADRD. Overall, we found support for poor oral health, specifically STL, as a risk factor for MCI among Hispanic/Latino immigrants. One systematic study found that individuals with suboptimal dentition (<20 teeth) had a 20% higher risk of having cognitive decline and dementia than those with optimal

dentition (≥ 20 teeth) (11). Another systematic review found that each additional tooth loss was associated with a 1.41% increase in the risk of cognitive impairment (14). Within Hispanic populations in the United States, an analysis of data from the Hispanic Established Populations for Epidemiologic Studies of the Elderly found that fewer teeth were associated with greater cognitive decline (43).

However, a paucity of evidence exists specifically on the association between poor oral health and MCI (19,44). A Japanese study (18) found that a loss of 8–15 teeth or loss of all the 32 teeth was significantly associated with MCI, in comparison to a loss of fewer than 8 teeth.

To our knowledge, our study is the first to assess the association between poor oral health determined by clinical examination and MCI in a diverse group of Latino immigrants in the United States. Our study provides new empirical evidence on tooth loss as a risk factor for MCI, and the results are consistent with prior research (20).

Overall, periodontal disease was significantly associated with MCI in the adjusted model (Model V). However, in comparison to those without periodontal disease, we did not observe disease severity as a significant risk factor for MCI. It should be noted that current disease status does not always reflect past disease, particularly if the participant has undergone treatment or has had several teeth extracted in the past. It should also be noted that existing findings on the association between periodontal disease and dementia are inconclusive (15,45). More research is needed to explicate the relationship. Recent research has shown that bacteria that cause gum disease are also associated with the development of Alzheimer’s disease and related dementias, especially vascular dementia (46). Periodontal care may assist in preventing or ameliorating Alzheimer’s disease (47). Potential pathways between poor oral health and cognitive impairment include impairment in masticatory function, which in turn diminishes stimulation of the central nervous system (48,49), leads to change in diet and nutritional status (50), and increases total body inflammatory load (51). With ADRD projected to increase among Hispanics/Latinos in the United States, dental care may be an important point of intervention for preventing later-life cognitive impairment.

Table 2. Logistic Regression Model* Results of Factors Associated With MCI (n = 5 709)

Variables	Model I			Model II			Model III				
	AOR	95% CI	p	AOR	95% CI	p	AOR	95% CI	p		
STL	1.98	1.49	2.62	<.001			1.97	1.48	2.62	<.001	
Periodontal disease (vs None)						.25*				.11*	
Mild				1.33	0.75	2.34		1.56	0.88	2.74	.13
Moderate				0.88	0.64	1.21		0.86	0.63	1.19	.37
Severe				1.21	0.81	1.80		1.17	0.78	1.77	.45
Model V											
Variables	AOR	95% CI	P	AOR	95% CI	p	AOR	95% CI	P		
STL	1.46	1.09	1.95	.01	1.85	.04	0.71	0.26	1.89	.48	
Periodontal disease (vs None)						.07+				.04+	
Mild	1.41	0.81	2.43	.22	2.36	.20	1.43	0.85	2.41	.18	
Moderate	0.78	0.57	1.06	.11	1.04	.08	0.76	0.56	1.04	.08	
Severe	1.02	0.67	1.54	.93	1.55	.95	1.00	0.66	1.51	1.00	
Age at immigration (vs <18)						.12*				.04*	
18–34				1.83	1.09	.02	1.49	0.79	2.82	.22	
35–49				1.62	0.95	.08	0.96	0.50	1.87	.91	
50+				1.88	1.02	.04	1.87	0.84	4.17	.12	
STL by age at immigration interaction (vs Non-STL and immigration age <18)										.02*	
STL by immigration age 18–34							1.78	0.67	4.77	.25	
STL by immigration age 35–49							3.41	1.20	9.72	.02	
STL by immigration age 50+							1.35	0.41	4.47	.63	

Notes: AOR = adjusted odds ratio; BMI = body mass index; hs-CRP = high-sensitivity C-reactive protein; MCI = mild cognitive impairment; STL = significant tooth loss. Model I: crude model, only included STL as the independent variable; Model II: only included periodontal disease as the independent variable; Model III: included both STL and periodontal disease as the independent variables; Model IV: added other covariates: age, sex, race, education, income, health insurance, time since visit 1, and field centers to Model III; Model V: added body mass index, smoking status, alcohol use, dietary quality, depression, hypertension, stroke, myocardial infarction, diabetes, and hs-CRP to Model IV; Model VI: same covariates as in Model V, plus a product term of age at immigration and STL.

*Analyses accounted for the survey design of HCHS.

+The overall p value from an overall test that tests the null hypothesis that all subgroups for each variable have the same odds of MCI.

Our data showed that about one third of immigrants had STL and two-thirds had periodontal disease. Tooth loss is considered the ultimate outcome of periodontal disease and dental caries (52). Given the disproportional burden of dementia among Latinos in the United States, more efforts are needed to promote good oral hygiene behaviors among Latino immigrants and improve access to dental care including restorative services, such as use of denture. Research has found that denture use would attenuate the detrimental effects of tooth loss, especially for partial tooth loss, on cognitive impairment (20,53).

Overall, our results (Model V) show that Latinos who immigrated to the United States when they were adults (ie, age at immigration, 18–34, 35–49, or 50+ years) were more likely to have MCI than those who immigrated when they were children (ie, age at immigration <18 years). Although not directly comparable due to different study designs, our findings are in line with prior studies that examined cognitive health among Mexican Americans (24,25,38). For example, one study found that late-life (ages 50+ years) immigrant women had a 46% higher risk of cognitive impairment compared to U.S.-born Mexican American women (24). One explanation for our findings is that child immigrants may have better opportunities to obtain higher education/new occupational skills, get greater exposure to public health information, and use preventive health care in the United States. They may be able to accumulate socioeconomic resources which can positively affect cognitive health in later life (54). Conversely, adult immigrants may have disadvantages, including English language barriers and limited education and career opportunities, which would negatively affect their health outcomes. For these immigrants, assistance should be provided in access to dental care.

Moreover, in this analysis, age at immigration moderated the association between STL and MCI. The significant interaction between STL and age at immigration revealed that the risk for MCI associated with STL varied by the age of immigration; the variation

by age at immigration was not linear. The likelihood of MCI was significantly increased among Latino immigrants who immigrated at ages 35–49 years. It is probable that this group of immigrants may find it harder to adapt to a new life in the United States: Job/income opportunities and opportunities to learn new skills may be more limited for them. Such frustration may take a toll on their wellbeing including mental health. Another explanation is that before immigration to the United States, the limited and sub-optimal health/dental services in their home country (55,56) may have affected these adult immigrants more than child immigrants, and may predispose them to poor health including tooth loss, subsequently impacting their mental health (45), compared with child immigrants. More research is needed to investigate the associations between age at immigration, poor oral health, mental health, and MCI among these immigrants.

Our study has several strengths. We included a large sample of community-dwelling Latino from 6 different background groups. Also, oral health data were from clinical dental examinations and MCI was defined by objective and well-accepted standards. Our study also has limitations. First, the cause for tooth loss, whether dental caries or trauma, is not known. Second, the time of tooth loss was not available. Third, denture use data were not available, which could mitigate the effects of missing teeth on cognitive health (57). Edentulous participants were not included in the dataset, hence, the association between total tooth loss and MCI was not available. Nevertheless, edentulism reflects a different status of oral health. The focus of this study was on the effects of both missing teeth and periodontal disease on MCI. Fourth, the reason of immigration (eg, family reunion or career development) is not available in the dataset, which would affect an immigrant's health. Fifth, we are examining MCI prevalence and do not know for certain the temporal order of poor oral health and cognitive impairment. Further, there may be a bidirectional relationship between poor oral hygiene and cognitive impairment (58).

Conclusion

STL is a significant risk factor for MCI and age at immigration had a modification effect on the association between STL and MCI. Good oral hygiene practice and regular dental visits to maintain good oral health should be promoted among Latino immigrants. Better access to dental care, health education on risk factors of MCI, and promotion of good oral health may mitigate the burden of dementia in Latinos.

Funding

The Hispanic Community Health Study/Study of Latinos was carried out as a collaborative study supported by contracts from the National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute (NHLBI) to the University of North Carolina (N01-HC65233), University of Miami (N01-HC65234), Albert Einstein College of Medicine (N01-HC65235), Northwestern University (N01-HC65236), and San Diego State University (N01-HC65237). The following Institutes/Centers/Offices contribute to the HCHS/SOL through a transfer of funds to the NHLBI: National Institute on Minority Health and Health Disparities, National Institute on Deafness and Other Communication Disorders, National Institute of Dental and Craniofacial Research, National Institute of Diabetes and Digestive and Kidney Diseases, National Institute of Neurological Disorders and Stroke, NIH Institution-Office of Dietary Supplements.

Conflict of Interest

None declared.

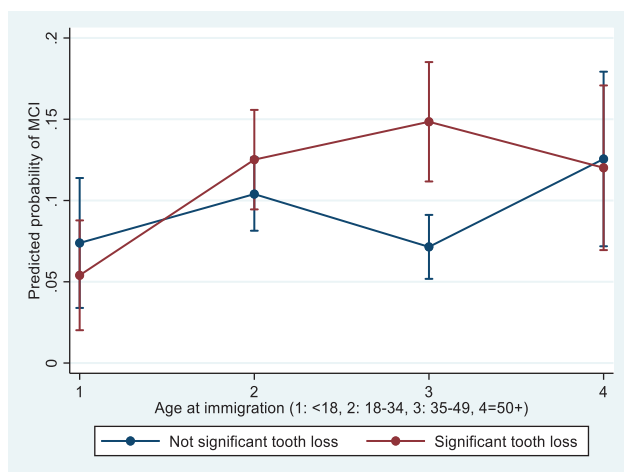


Figure 2. Predictive probability by Age at immigration × Significant tooth loss. Note: Results were generated from a logistic regression model (same as Model VI): MCI is the dependent variable; periodontal disease and tooth loss are the independent variables; covariates included. The independent variables significant tooth loss, periodontal disease, and covariates were age, sex, race, income, health insurance, time since visit 1, filed centers, body mass index, smoking status, alcohol use, dietary quality, depression, hypertension, stroke, myocardial infarction, diabetes, hs-CRP, age at immigration, and age at immigration by significant tooth loss interaction. hs-CRP = high-sensitivity C-reactive protein; MCI = mild cognitive impairment.

References

- Gatz M, Mortimer JA, Fratiglioni L, et al. Potentially modifiable risk factors for dementia in identical twins. *Alzheimers Dement.* 2006;2(2):110–117. doi:10.1016/j.jalz.2006.01.002
- Petersen RC, Lopez O, Armstrong MJ, et al. Practice guideline update summary: mild cognitive impairment: report of the Guideline Development, Dissemination, and Implementation Subcommittee of the American Academy of Neurology. *Neurology* 2018;90(3):126–135. doi:10.1212/WNL.0000000000004826
- Ward A, Tardiff S, Dye C, Arrighi HM. Rate of conversion from prodromal Alzheimer's disease to Alzheimer's dementia: a systematic review of the literature. *Dement Geriatr Cogn Dis Extra* 2013;3(1):320–332. doi:10.1159/000354370
- Van Dyke TE. The management of inflammation in periodontal disease. *J Periodontol.* 2008;79(8 Suppl):1601–1608. doi:10.1902/jop.2008.080173
- Graves D. Cytokines that promote periodontal tissue destruction. *J Periodontol.* 2008;79(8 Suppl):1585–1591. doi:10.1902/jop.2008.080183
- Kamer AR, Craig RG, Dasanayake AP, Brys M, Glodzik-Sobanska L, de Leon MJ. Inflammation and Alzheimer's disease: possible role of periodontal diseases. *Alzheimers Dement.* 2008;4(4):242–250. doi:10.1016/j.jalz.2007.08.004
- Kamer AR, Morse DE, Holm-Pedersen P, Mortensen EL, Avlund K. Periodontal inflammation in relation to cognitive function in an older adult Danish population. *J Alzheimers Dis.* 2012;28(3):613–624. doi:10.3233/JAD-2011-102004
- Nascimento PC, Castro MML, Magno MB, et al. Association between periodontitis and cognitive impairment in adults: a systematic review. *Front Neurol.* 2019;10:323. doi:10.3389/fneur.2019.00323
- Guo H, Chang S, Pi X, et al. The effect of periodontitis on dementia and cognitive impairment: a meta-analysis. *Int J Environ Res Public Health.* 2021;18(13):6823. doi:10.3390/ijerph18136823
- Petersen PE, Bourgeois D, Ogawa H, Estupinan-Day S, Ndiaye C. The global burden of oral diseases and risks to oral health. *Bull World Health Organ.* 2005;83(9):661–669. doi:10.1590/S0042-96862005000900011
- Cerutti-Kopplin D, Feine J, Padilha DM, et al. Tooth loss increases the risk of diminished cognitive function: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *JDR Clin Trans Res* 2016;1(1):10–19. doi:10.1177/2380084416633102
- Tsakos G, Watt RG, Rouxel PL, de Oliveira C, Demakakos P. Tooth loss associated with physical and cognitive decline in older adults. *J Am Geriatr Soc.* 2015;63(1):91–99. doi:10.1111/jgs.13190
- Oh B, Han DH, Han KT, et al. Association between residual teeth number in later life and incidence of dementia: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMC Geriatr.* 2018;18(1):48. doi:10.1186/s12877-018-0729-z
- Qi X, Zhu Z, Plassman B, Wu B. Dose-response meta-analysis on tooth loss with the risk of cognitive impairment and dementia. *JAMDA* 2021;22(10):2029–2045. doi:10.1016/j.jamda.2021.05.009
- Tonsekar PP, Jiang SS, Yue G. Periodontal disease, tooth loss and dementia: Is there a link? A systematic review. *Gerodontology* 2017;34(2):151–163. doi:10.1111/ger.12261
- Wu B, Goeders EA, Crout RJ, et al. Recruitment of rural and cognitively impaired older adults for dental research. *Spec Care Dentist.* 2010;30(5):193–199. doi:10.1111/j.1754-4505.2010.00150.x
- Okamoto N, Morikawa M, Okamoto K, et al. Relationship of tooth loss to mild memory impairment and cognitive impairment: findings from the Fujiwara-kyo study. *Behav Brain Funct.* 2010;6:77. doi:10.1186/1744-9081-6-77
- Okamoto N, Morikawa M, Tomioka K, Yanagi M, Amano N, Kurumatani N. Association between tooth loss and the development of mild memory impairment in the elderly: the Fujiwara-kyo Study. *J Alzheimers Dis.* 2015;44(3):777–786. doi:10.3233/JAD-141665
- Iwasaki M, Kimura Y, Ogawa H, et al. Periodontitis, periodontal inflammation, and mild cognitive impairment: a 5-year cohort study. *J Periodontol Res.* 2019;54(3):233–240. doi:10.1111/jre.12623
- Xu S, Huang X, Gong Y, Sun J. Association between tooth loss rate and risk of mild cognitive impairment in older adults: a population-based longitudinal study. *Aging* 2021;13(17):21599–21609. doi:10.18632/aging.203504
- Alzheimer's A. 2021 Alzheimer's disease facts and figures. *Alzheimers Dement.* 2021;17(3):327–406. doi:10.1002/alz.12328
- Pew Research Center. Facts on Latinos in the US. <https://www.pewresearch.org/hispanic/fact-sheet/latinos-in-the-u-s-fact-sheet/#demographic-characteristics-of-u-s-hispanic-population-2017>. Accessed October 14, 2021.
- Elder G, Johnson M. The life course and aging: Challenges, lessons, and new directions. In: Settersten RA, ed., *Invitation to the Life Course: Toward New Understandings of Later Life*. Baywood; 2003:49–81. Amityville, N.Y.: Baywood Publishing Co.
- Garcia MA, Reyes AM, Downer B, Saenz JL, Samper-Ternent RA, Raji M. Age of migration and the incidence of cognitive impairment: a cohort study of elder Mexican-Americans. *Innov Aging* 2017;1(3):1–11. doi:10.1093/geroni/igx037
- Garcia MA, Ortiz K, Arévalo SP, et al. Age of migration and cognitive function among older Latinos in the United States. *J Alzheimers Dis.* 2020;76(4):1493–1511. doi:10.3233/JAD-191296
- Dannefer D. Cumulative advantage/disadvantage and the life course: cross-fertilizing age and social science theory. *J Gerontol B Psychol Sci Soc Sci* 2003;58(6):S327–S337. doi:10.1093/geronb/58.6.s327
- Andersen RM, Davidson PL. Ethnicity, aging, and oral health outcomes: a conceptual framework. *Adv Dent Res.* 1997;11(2):203–209. doi:10.1177/08959374970110020201
- Lavange LM, Kalsbeek WD, Sorlie PD, et al. Sample design and cohort selection in the Hispanic Community Health Study/Study of Latinos. *Ann Epidemiol.* 2010;20(8):642–649. doi:10.1016/j.annepidem.2010.05.006
- González HM, Tarraf W, Fornage M, et al. A research framework for cognitive aging and Alzheimer's disease among diverse US Latinos: design and implementation of the Hispanic Community Health Study/Study of Latinos-Investigation of Neurocognitive Aging (SOL-INCA). *Alzheimers Dement.* 2019;15(12):1624–1632. doi:10.1016/j.jalz.2019.08.192
- González HM, Tarraf W, Schneiderman N, et al. Prevalence and correlates of mild cognitive impairment among diverse Hispanics/Latinos: Study of Latinos-Investigation of Neurocognitive Aging results. *Alzheimers Dement.* 2019;15(12):1507–1515. doi:10.1016/j.jalz.2019.08.202
- González HM, Tarraf W, González KA, et al. Diabetes, cognitive decline, and mild cognitive impairment among diverse Hispanics/Latinos: Study of Latinos-Investigation of Neurocognitive Aging Results (HCHS/SOL). *Diabetes Care.* 2020;43(5):1111–1117. doi:10.2337/dc19-1676
- Albert MS, DeKosky ST, Dickson D, et al. The diagnosis of mild cognitive impairment due to Alzheimer's disease: recommendations from the National Institute on Aging-Alzheimer's Association workgroups on diagnostic guidelines for Alzheimer's disease. *Alzheimers Dement.* 2011;7(3):270–279. doi:10.1016/j.jalz.2011.03.008
- Parker ML, Thornton-Evans G, Wei L, Griffin SO. Prevalence of and changes in tooth loss among adults aged ≥50 years with selected chronic conditions - United States, 1999-2004 and 2011-2016. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep.* 2020;69(21):641–646. doi:10.15585/mmwr.mm6921a1
- Eke PI, Page RC, Wei L, Thornton-Evans G, Genco RJ. Update of the case definitions for population-based surveillance of periodontitis. *J Periodontol.* 2012;83(12):1449–1454. doi:10.1902/jop.2012.110664
- Page RC, Eke PI. Case definitions for use in population-based surveillance of periodontitis. *J Periodontol.* 2007;78(7 Suppl):1387–1399. doi:10.1902/jop.2007.060264
- Finlayson TL, Lemus H, Becerra K, et al. Unfair treatment and periodontitis among adults in the Hispanic Community Health Study/Study of Latinos (HCHS/SOL). *J Racial Ethn Health Disparities* 2018;5(5):1093–1106. doi:10.1007/s40615-017-0459-5
- Jiménez MC, Sanders AE, Mauriello SM, Kaste LM, Beck JD. Prevalence of periodontitis according to Hispanic or Latino background among study participants of the Hispanic Community Health Study/Study of Latinos. *J Am Dent Assoc.* 2014;145(8):805–816. doi:10.14219/jada.2014.31

38. Downer B, Garcia MA, Saenz J, Markides KS, Wong R. The role of education in the relationship between age of migration to the United States and risk of cognitive impairment among older Mexican Americans. *Res Aging* 2018;40(5):411–431. doi:10.1177/0164027517701447
39. Hu C, Wang L, Guo Y, Cao Z, Lu Y, Qin H. Study of the risk and preventive factors for progress of mild cognitive impairment to dementia. *Am J Alzheimer's Dis Other Demen.* 2020;35:1533317520925324. doi:10.1177/1533317520925324
40. Daviglius ML, Talavera GA, Avilés-Santa ML, et al. Prevalence of major cardiovascular risk factors and cardiovascular diseases among Hispanic/Latino individuals of diverse backgrounds in the United States. *JAMA* 2012;308(17):1775–1784. doi:10.1001/jama.2012.14517
41. Liu K, Daviglius ML, Loria CM, et al. Healthy lifestyle through young adulthood and the presence of low cardiovascular disease risk profile in middle age: the Coronary Artery Risk Development in (Young) Adults (CARDIA) study. *Circulation* 2012;125(8):996–1004. doi:10.1161/CIRCULATIONAHA.111.060681
42. Wassertheil-Smoller S, Arredondo EM, Cai J, et al. Depression, anxiety, antidepressant use, and cardiovascular disease among Hispanic men and women of different national backgrounds: results from the Hispanic Community Health Study/Study of Latinos. *Ann Epidemiol.* 2014;24(11):822–830. doi:10.1016/j.annepidem.2014.09.003
43. Reyes-Ortiz CA, Luque JS, Eriksson CK, Soto L. Self-reported tooth loss and cognitive function: data from the Hispanic Established Populations for Epidemiologic Studies of the Elderly (Hispanic EPESE). *Colombia Medica (Cali, Colombia)* 2013;44(3):139–145.
44. Demmer RT, Norby FL, Lakshminarayan K, et al. Periodontal Disease and Incident Dementia: The Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities Study (ARIC). *Neurology* 2020;95(12):e1660–e1671. doi:10.1212/WNL.00000000000010312
45. Wu B, Fillenbaum GG, Plassman BL, Guo L. Association between oral health and cognitive status: a systematic review. *J Am Geriatr Soc.* 2016;64(4):739–751. doi:10.1111/jgs.14036
46. Beydoun MA, Beydoun HA, Hossain S, El-Hajj ZW, Weiss J, Zonderman AB. Clinical and bacterial markers of periodontitis and their association with incident all-cause and Alzheimer's disease dementia in a large national survey. *J Alzheimers Dis.* 2020;75(1):157–172. doi:10.3233/JAD-200064
47. Matsushita K, Yamada-Furukawa M, Kurosawa M, Shikama Y. Periodontal disease and periodontal disease-related bacteria involved in the pathogenesis of Alzheimer's disease. *J Inflamm Res* 2020;13:275–283. doi:10.2147/JIR.S255309
48. Noble JM, Scarmeas N, Papananou PN. Poor oral health as a chronic, potentially modifiable dementia risk factor: review of the literature. *Curr Neurol Neurosci Rep.* 2013;13(10):384. doi:10.1007/s11910-013-0384-x
49. Weijenberg RA, Scherder EJ, Lobbezoo F. Mastication for the mind--the relationship between mastication and cognition in ageing and dementia. *Neurosci Biobehav Rev.* 2011;35(3):483–497. doi:10.1016/j.neubiorev.2010.06.002
50. Sheiham A, Steele JG, Marcenes W, et al. The relationship among dental status, nutrient intake, and nutritional status in older people. *J Dent Res.* 2001;80(2):408–413. doi:10.1177/00220345010800020201
51. Scannapieco FA, Cantos A. Oral inflammation and infection, and chronic medical diseases: implications for the elderly. *Periodontol 2000* 2016;72(1):153–175. doi:10.1111/prd.12129
52. Humphrey LL, Fu R, Buckley DI, Freeman M, Helfand M. Periodontal disease and coronary heart disease incidence: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Gen Intern Med.* 2008;23(12):2079–2086. doi:10.1007/s11606-008-0787-6
53. Yang HL, Li FR, Chen PL, Cheng X, Chen M, Wu XB. Tooth loss, denture use and cognitive impairment in Chinese older adults: a community cohort study. *J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci.* 2021;77(1):180–187. doi:10.1093/gerona/glab056
54. González HM, Ceballos M, Tarraf W, West BT, Bowen ME, Vega WA. The health of older Mexican Americans in the long run. *Am J Public Health.* 2009;99(10):1879–1885. doi:10.2105/AJPH.2008.133744
55. Duran D, Monsalves MJ, Aubert J, Zarate V, Espinoza I. Systematic review of Latin American national oral health surveys in adults. *Community Dent Oral Epidemiol.* 2018;46(4):328–335. doi:10.1111/cdoe.12379
56. Aguirre-Zero O, Westerhold C, Goldsworthy R, Maupome G. Identification of barriers and beliefs influencing engagement by adult and teen Mexican-Americans in oral health behaviors. *Community Dent Health.* 2016;33(1):44–47. doi:10.1922/CDH_3672Aguirre-Zero04
57. Suma S, Furuta M, Takeuchi K, Tomioka M, Iwasa Y, Yamashita Y. Number of teeth, denture wearing and cognitive function in relation to nutritional status in residents of nursing homes. *Gerodontology* 2022;39(2):197–203. doi:10.1111/ger.12554
58. Syrjälä AM, Ylöstalo P, Sulkava R, Knuutila M. Relationship between cognitive impairment and oral health: results of the Health 2000 Health Examination Survey in Finland. *Acta Odontol Scand.* 2007;65(2):103–108. doi:10.1080/00016350601083521