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Global smoking-attributable burden of periodontal disease in 186 countries in the year 2015

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Abstract

Aim: We aimed to quantify the smoking-attributable burden of periodontal disease (PD).

Methods: The association between smoking and PD was evaluated. Population-, smoking- and PD-data from the Global Burden of Disease Study were used and the burden in different sex- and age-groups in 186 countries in 2015 calculated, adjusted for PD-prevalence and numbers of cigarettes smoked. No adjustment was performed in a sensitivity analysis.

Results: The global smoking-attributable burden was 251,160 disability-adjusted life years (DALYs; 95% uncertainty interval: 190,721-324,241; sensitivity analysis: 344,041 DALYs), or 38.5 million cases. The burden was lower in female than male, and highest in the age group of the 50-69-year-olds. On super-regional level, the burden was highest in Southeast Asia, East Asia, and Oceania (83,052 DALYs), and high-income North America and Asia Pacific (55,362 DALYs). On regional level, it was highest in East Asia (70,845 DALYs), South Asia (30,808 DALYs) and North Africa and the Middle East (24,095 DALYs). On national level, it

was highest in China (69,148 DALYs), India (29,362 DALYs) and the United States (12,714 DALYs). The relative smoking-attributable burden ranged between >25% in Suriname to <1% in Chad.

Conclusions: There is great need to monitor and tackle the smoking-attributable burden of PD.

Clinical Relevance

Scientific rationale: Smoking is a confirmed risk factor for periodontal disease (PD). The global smoking-attributable burden of PD has not been quantified.

Principal findings: With 251,160 disability-adjusted life years (38.5 million cases), the global smoking-attributable burden of PD is substantial. This estimate seems conservative and excludes the burden of tooth loss and edentulism due to periodontitis.

Practical implication: Policy-makers, public health activists and clinicians need to increase their efforts for tackling smoking if they want to substantially reduce the burden of PD, especially in countries where individual-level clinical care is not widely available.

Introduction

A large number of studies confirmed an association between tobacco smoking and periodontal disease (PD), with smokers being at significantly increased risk for experiencing periodontitis and, subsequently, losing teeth. As a great range of case definitions (including the extent and severity of periodontal disease) is used across different studies, often in various age and sex groups, the exact association, however, remains unclear (Chambrone and Chambrone 2006, Fardal et al. 2004, Heasman et al. 2006, Eke et al. 2016). Building on systematically compiled and pooled data, one might produce more robust and generalizable estimates of this association.

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If such estimates were available, one might assess the smoking-attributable burden of PD in different countries, age and sex groups, allowing comparisons between them. The smoking-attributable burden is the fraction of prevalent cases of PD or the subjective burden generated by PD attributable to smoking. The subjective burden is often measured as disability-adjusted life years (DALYs), whereas one DALY can be interpreted as one year of healthy life lost due to premature death (expressed in Years of Life Lost (YLL)) and/or due to illness (expressed in Years lived with Disability (YLD); Murray, Acharya 1997). In case of non-mortal diseases like PD, DALYs are calculated as the time suffered from a disease multiplied with its subjective impact (expressed in disability weights). For PD, there have been estimates of how its symptoms subjectively impact on affected individuals (Salomon et al. 2015)

Quantifying the global smoking-attributable burden of PD should help to monitor patterns in smoking and associated PD outcomes, to identify where interventions towards smoking reduction are, from a dental perspective, most needed, and to evaluate which interventions might be most suitable across countries and populations (Carter et al. 2015, Jha and Peto 2014). The attributable health burden of, for example, sugar, salt and fat consumption has been quantified (Meier et al. 2017, Meier et al. 2015). For PD, one would need to (1) estimate the association between smoking and PD, (2) quantify the prevalence of smoking in different countries and age groups, (3) quantify the prevalence of PD in these groups, and (4) estimate the corresponding population attributable fraction. We aimed to quantify the global smoking-attributable burden of PD in different age and sex groups in 186 countries in 2015.

Methods

This study compiled data from the Global Burden of Disease (GBD) 2015 database ([https://http://vizhub.healthdata.org/gbd-compare](https://vizhub.healthdata.org/gbd-compare)) and data yielded by a systematic review on the association between smoking and periodontitis. Figure 1 displays the dataflow of this

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study, which was performed in line with the STROBE, GATHER, PRISMA and MOOSE statements (Stevens et al. 2016, von Elm et al. 2007, Moher et al. 2009, Moher et al. 2015, Stroup et al. 2000). Our analyses were performed on country, regional and super-regional level, with the definitions of these geographic units being in accordance with the GBD studies (Fig. 2). Note that in this study, only the smoking-attributable burden of PD was quantified; the closely related burden of tooth loss or edentulism due to PD, again attributable to smoking, was not quantified. Our estimates are thus certainly conservative as to the overall impact of smoking.

Population data

We used data from the GBD 2015 studies to estimate the populations aged 15-49, 50-69 and ≥ 70 years old, respectively, stratified for sex, in 186 countries in 2015. These age bands were chosen, as (1) periodontal disease is near-absent in younger age groups and (2) these bands were also used to estimate the global burden of PD within the GBD studies (Kassebaum et al. 2017).

Smoking data

From the overall populations, we estimated the smoking prevalence in the respective age groups via GBD 2015 data on prevalent cases in 5-year bands. These were summed up and divided by the total population in each of our three age groups to estimate smoking prevalence, again separated for sex. We additionally estimated the number of cigarettes smoked per smoker using GBD 2015 data (Reitsma et al. 2017). Note that these data only extended until 2012; 2015 estimates were generated via taking the arithmetic mean of annual changes from 2007 to 2012, which were then used to extrapolate the number of smoked cigarettes from 2012 to 2015. Also note that while both population and periodontitis data were available for 199 countries, smoking data were only available for 186 countries, hence the number of evaluated countries in our study.

Periodontal disease data

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The GBD 2015 studies had estimated the number of prevalent cases of PD, defined as “a gingival pocket depth equal or more than 6 mm, or Community Periodontal Index of Treatment Needs (CPITN) also referred as Community Periodontal Index (CPI) score of 4, or a clinical attachment loss (CAL) more than 6 mm” (Kassebaum et al. 2017, Kassebaum et al. 2014a), i.e. severe chronic periodontitis. For GBD, a clinical examination was required and only surveys, which had sampled populations representative for the general populations, were included. Each prevalent case of PD was associated with disability according to the GBD definition of symptomatic severe chronic periodontitis constituting “bad breath, a bad taste in the mouth, and gums that bleed a little from time to time, but which does not interfere with daily activities” (Kassebaum et al. 2017, Kassebaum et al. 2014a).

Association between smoking and periodontitis

To obtain robust estimates of the association between smoking status and PD, a systematic review was first performed. The following inclusion criteria were applied:

- Only observational studies (cross-sectional, case-control, longitudinal) were included.
- Data from nationally representative but also non-representative samples were considered.
- Studies needed to report on the association between smoking status and PD. We did not pre-specify how smoking status was defined (categorical as never/former/current, or continuous as number of cigarettes or pack-years). Similar, the definition of PD was not prespecified. As our aim was to quantify the burden of disease, and as only severe chronic periodontitis has been assigned such subjective burden estimates in the 2015 GBD study, we prioritized studies reporting on severe periodontitis. Note, however, that the definition of severe periodontitis was similarly variable (some studies used the maximum attachment loss measured at a specific number of sites, others used probing depths etc.).

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- Studies needed to apply multivariable models to account for minimum two other factors besides smoking which might be associated with PD (like age, sex, socioeconomic stratum, oral hygiene habits, etc.). We did not specify a priori how the association needed to be reported (OR, HR, RR). However, as we were interested in calculating population level estimates, only studies reporting on the association between smoking and PD prevalence were included; studies reporting on PD extent or severity (reporting how smoking affected the attachment loss in mm etc.) were excluded.
 - As we aimed to generate estimates applicable to today's population, only studies published from 1990 onwards were included.

The search is described in detail in the appendix and was performed by one reviewer (FS) on 05/01/2017. If more than one study per country was available, we used the study which reported in more detail on the association between smoking and periodontitis, best using sex- and age-specific estimates. In case no such decision was possible, all eligible studies were included and estimates pooled using fixed-effect meta-analysis.

The following data items were extracted from the included studies: The year of publication and the year of study conduct (if this was not reported, we assumed this to be the year prior to publication), the country, the definition of smoking status, smoking prevalence, the definition of PD, PD prevalence, the association between both variables in the total population and in subgroups (of age, sex, or smoking status). The extraction was repeated after 2 weeks by the same reviewer as a validation.

The observed association estimates were, in case of HR and RR, then transformed into OR. For studies which reported on the association being non-significant without giving an estimate, we assumed the OR to be 1, while the variance was imputed using the mean value from all other studies. Estimates were pooled using random-effects meta-analysis, as heterogeneity (as indicated by I^2 statistics) was substantial (92%). The unit of meta-analysis was the country. As mentioned, for some countries more than one study had been included.

In this case, fixed-effect meta-analysis of these studies was performed first to yield one estimate for each country, which was subsequently entered into the main meta-analysis.

To explore, which parameters (PD prevalence, smoking prevalence, year of study conduct) modified the association between smoking and PD, fixed-effect and inverse-variance weighted meta-regression analyses were performed. Simple bivariate and multi-variable models were constructed, and various fits were tested (linear, exponential, logistic). The performance of the yielded models was checked by inspecting the deviations of predicted from measured estimates.

Smoking-attributable burden and sensitivity analysis

The smoking-attributable burden was estimated in two scenarios; a base-case and a sensitivity analysis. For the base-case, the association between smoking and periodontitis was assumed to be modified by the PD prevalence as described, with the yielded regression coefficient and intercept being used to tailor the association according to the prevalence in different countries, age and sex groups. In the base-case scenario we also factored in the average number of cigarettes smoked per capita on country level in the year 2015. To do so, we used the pooled OR obtained in the meta-analysis, which has an average consumption of 22.5 cigarettes as baseline, and calculated the average OR increase of PD per cigarette smoked (which was 0.05 per cigarette). This coefficient was used to then calculate the smoking intensity-adjusted OR on country level, ranging from 1.05 in Chad (average daily cigarette consumption per capita: 0.86) to 6.69 in Suriname (average daily cigarette consumption per capita: 107). In a second step the OR were converted to corresponding relative risks (RR) using the following formula:

$$RR = \frac{OR}{1 - p_o + (p_o * OR)} \quad (\text{Grant 2014})$$

OR ... odds ratio

p_o ... base risk

RR ... relative risk

For the calculation of the base risk, the age and sex adjusted prevalence rate of PD was used on country level. In a third step the generated RR were converted into corresponding population attributable risks (PAR) using the following formula:

$$PAR = 1 - \frac{1}{p(RR - 1) + 1} \quad (\text{Spiegelman et al. 2007})$$

PAR ... population attributable risk

p ... prevalence

RR ... relative risk

To check and to validate the robustness of our model in the sensitivity analysis, we instead did not tailor the association estimates to periodontitis prevalence or cigarettes smoked, but used solely the pooled association from our meta-analysis for all countries and age and sex groups to gauge the significance of the deviation of the base-case from the sensitivity scenario.

For all results in both scenarios, 95% uncertainty intervals (95% UI) were calculated. UIs are commonly used in Bayesian statistics (like confidence intervals in frequentist statistics) to describe the narrowest interval of the prior and posterior distribution that contains a distinct share (in our case 95%) of the probability density (Flaxman et al. 2015). As priors, all epidemiological data points can be considered, which are used as input variables in the meta-regression framework of the GBD. Within this study the absolute and relative prevalence as well as corresponding DALYs of PD in 186 countries were used as priors (Kassebaum et al. 2017).

Results

From 722 identified records, 27 studies were included in our systematic review (appendix Fig. S1). Studies were conducted in 18 countries (appendix Table S1). The mean (95% CI) association between smoking and PD was OR 2.2 (1.8-2.8) in random-effects meta-analysis (fixed-effects: OR 2.1; 2.0-2.2) (Fig. S2). Meta-regression was performed to identify parameters predicting this association, to allow adjusting the association for individual countries. The lowest deviation between predicted and observed associations, i.e. the best fit, was achieved when using linear meta-regression of the inverse-variance weighted Odds Ratio on the periodontitis prevalence (Fig. S3); the mean deviation was ± 0.058 .

Using the mean estimate and adjusting it for PD-prevalence and the numbers of cigarettes smoked in different countries, we estimated the smoking-attributable burden of PD. The global attributable burden was 251,160 (95%UI: 190,721-324,241) disability-adjusted life years (DALYs), or 38.5 (95%UI: 29.2-49.7) million cases (Tab. 1). In our sensitivity analysis, where no adjustment was performed (appendix Table S2), we found this burden to be higher (344,041 DALY; 219,649-504,682).

The global smoking-attributable burden of PD was higher in male than female (male: 141,389 [108,008-181,507] DALYs; female: 109,771 [82,705-142,720] DALYs); this was confirmed in our sensitivity analysis. The largest burden was found in the age group 50-69-year-olds (Tab. 1); this was not the case in our sensitivity analysis, where the oldest group (≥ 70 years) shouldered the largest burden (given the PD prevalence being highest in this group) (appendix Table S2).

The smoking-attributable burden of PD was analyzed on three levels (Fig. 3): On super-regional level, the burden was highest in Southeast Asia, East Asia, and Oceania (83,052 DALYs), and high-income North America and Asia Pacific (55,362 DALYs). On regional level, it was highest in East Asia (70,845 DALYs), South Asia (30,808 DALYs), North Africa and the Middle East (24,095 DALYs) and Western Europe (23,675 DALYs). On national

level, it was highest in China (69,148 DALYs), India (29,362 DALYs) and the United States (12,714 DALYs). On national level, the largest attributable-burden was found in China (69,148 DALYs) and India (29,362 DALYs) and the United States (12,714 DALYs).

The relative smoking-attributable burden (in % of total PD burden) was higher than 10% in 46 countries, headed by Suriname (26.1%) and followed by St. Vincent and the Grenadines (22.9%) and Mauritania (17.8%). The lowest relative attributable burden was observed in Chad (0.60%), Timor-Leste (0.63%) and the Solomon Islands (0.86%) (Fig. 4). For most countries and regardless of sex, the highest attributable burden was found in the group aged 50-69 years, followed by the group aged 15-49 years. Notable exceptions were Oman, the Gambia, Kuwait and the United Arab Emirates, where the largest attributable burden was found in the youngest group. In certain countries, the attributable burden was highly concentrated in male rather than female, namely the United Arab Emirates, Qatar, Oman, Bahrain and Saudi Arabia (in these countries, more than 75% of the burden was in male, not female). There were only few countries where the opposite was true, namely Lesotho, Bulgaria, South Africa, and Swaziland.

Using age-standardized estimates, the attributable burden was highest in Canada, Sweden, several countries in Northern Africa and South America (Fig. 5a). After age-standardization, the attributable burden was now much higher in males than females in most countries (Fig. 5b,c)

Discussion

This study found a strong and consistent association between smoking and PD. We found this association to be possibly modified by PD prevalence, which – in most circumstances – also means being modified by age; in older populations and giving the cumulative nature of the disease, the association with smoking was found to be reduced. In younger populations, however, smoking seemed a significant factor triggering and also possibly aggravating PD.

This has implications for both monitoring but also combatting the smoking-attributable burden of PD. This burden, on a global scale, was found to be substantial. Its relative extent, however, was found to vary widely (we found this burden to range between <1% and >25%). On absolute levels, the highest burden was found in Asia, Northern America and Europe, being a function of both absolute population estimates (and with it, prevalent cases of PD) and smoking prevalence. Moreover, the attributable burden was higher in male than female, which is a function of smoking prevalence being unequally distributed between sexes (PD prevalence, in contrast, was higher in females). The attributable burden was also larger in those aged 50-69 years and younger, than older groups. This is notable, as those aged 70 years or above are, at least in richer countries, those suffering the most from PD (Kassebaum et al. 2014a). However, as smoking prevalence declines in older groups, but also given the decreased association between smoking and PD in such high-prevalence groups, the attributable burden was lower in these older than in middle-aged groups. This decreased association in older groups might also reflect the fact that in these groups, smoking-related PD might have led to tooth loss and, consequently, edentulism. This has, as described, not been accounted for in our estimation. In comparison to other smoking-associated diseases the observed disease burden related to PD (251,160 DALYs) in 2015 was of limited relevance. Diseases with the highest absolute burden attributable to smoking were (in descending order): cardiovascular diseases: 62.7 million DALYs, neoplasms/cancer: 40.8 million DALYs, chronic respiratory diseases: 29.1 million DALYs (Reitsma et al. 2017). However, the observed relative attributable burden of smoking-related PD of 7.1% (that is, its relative share of the total disease burden, expressed in DALYs), was similar to that of other smoking-related diseases (like asthma (7.8%), tuberculosis (7.0%), lower respiratory infections (6.9%)) and ranks on the 23rd position out of 38 totally considered smoking-related diseases in the Global Burden of Disease Study (IHME 2017).

Our findings are relevant from a number of perspectives. First, when evaluated regardless of PD prevalence, we found smokers to be at twice or even higher the risk than non-smokers to experience PD. This calls for dentists and the whole dental domain, including dental public health and dental health policy, to be actively involved in anti-smoking campaigns. Dentistry should thus align with current efforts by the World Health Organization to attain the WHO target of a decreasing smoking prevalence by 30% by 2025. There are a number of active campaigns for combatting smoking, including taxation or bans tobacco products, restrictions on tobacco marketing or warning labels on tobacco products (Jha and Peto 2014, Reitsma et al. 2017). Smoking cessation interventions provided by dentists or dental auxiliary staff might be added to that list. Given the limited evidence for the efficacy of such clinical-dental interventions, greater efforts are needed to provide dentists or dental care personnel with the capacities for providing cessation advice effectively (Ramseier and Suvan 2015, Ramseier et al. 2010, Carr and Ebbert 2006). Moreover, there might be the need to actively incentivize providing such advice in clinical care (instead of remunerating the therapy of non-avoided PD) (Shelley et al. 2012).

Second, on a global level, the attributable burden of smoking-related PD affects nearly 40 million individuals. As can be expected when considering population estimates, the largest absolute attributable burden stemmed from China, India, and the United States. In contrast, the highest burden in relative terms was found in a very different set of countries, including both richer countries like Denmark, Iceland or Canada, and poorer countries like Suriname, Mauretania or Rwanda. Generally, it was notable that relative attributable burden was limited in (especially Sub-Saharan) Africa, mainly as smoking prevalence was relatively low. For example, the attributable burden was <5% in Uganda, Chad, Burkina Faso, or Namibia; notable exemptions were Mauritania, Rwanda, Eritrea and Gabon (burden >14%). Given that a substantial share of the global burden came from countries with limited access to dental healthcare (Barber et al. 2017), where PD will most likely (as untreated) result in tooth loss in many cases, smoking will also be responsible for a large number of people with

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tooth-loss-associated masticatory, but also phonetic and aesthetic impairments (Gerritsen et al. 2010, Kassebaum et al. 2014b, Mack et al. 2005). It should be noted that we have not measured these sequels of PD and thus, most likely, under-estimated the overall oral smoking-attributable burden. In countries with wide or even universal access to dental care, tooth loss might be avoided when thorough and systematic active and supportive periodontal therapy is provided; however, such therapy generates substantial costs (Schwendicke et al. 2016, Pretzl et al. 2009). Avoiding PD by tackling smoking on public health level might reduce these costs. Moreover, and considering the unequal distribution of both PD prevalence, but more so of smoking, this will also decrease inequalities in PD between different populations (different social, age or sex groups).

This study has a number of limitations. First, the compiled estimates on the association between smoking and PD showed high heterogeneity, not only across but also (where available) within countries. This highlights that study design aspects (including target population and PD prevalence, but also PD case definition and smoking prevalence) heavily affect the found associations. We accounted for that by (1) pooling estimates using random-effects models (however, the yielded estimates did not greatly differ from those generated with fixed-effect models) and (2) by performing different analyses. In our base-case, we adjusted associations for PD prevalence and the number of cigarettes smoked. The latter was justified, as a number of studies report a clear and consistent dose-response-relationship between cigarettes smoked and the risk of PD (Do et al. 2003, Do et al. 2008, Carasol et al. 2016, Gelskey et al. 1998, Tomar and Asma 2000, Natto et al. 2005). However, the exact association remains unclear, which is why in a second analysis, no adjustment at all was performed. Given that this second analysis found the global burden to be even higher, we consider our base-case results to be conservative. Second, the PD burden was estimated, in accordance with the GDP studies, only for severe chronic periodontitis; milder cases were not included. This was, as milder cases might not produce a subjective burden of disease. Similarly, we have not quantified the subsequent burden of

tooth loss emanating from PD (edentate individuals were not included in most analyses of the studies compiled in our review). Again, we will have underestimated the total absolute burden, which should be born in mind. Also, note that the studies building on for our meta-analysis on the association between smoking and PD did not uniformly assess severe, but also other forms of PD. Third, we did not account for smokeless tobacco products and e-cigarettes, or second-hand smoking. This was, as only very few studies have evaluated the association of such tobacco intake and PD. Fourth, the definition of smoking exposure varied, as mentioned above, between studies; in a number of studies, for example, both current and former smokers were classified as “smokers”, while in others, only severe current smokers (e.g. according to daily number of cigarettes smoked, or pack-years) were counted as smokers. Last, the smoking prevalence data from the GBD was largely self-reported; the inherent risk of reporting bias is thus present.

In conclusions, and within the limitations of this study, the global smoking-attributable burden of PD is substantial, with nearly 40 million prevalent cases and over 250,000 DALYs in 2015. The burden was lower in female than male, and highest in the age group of the 50-69-year-olds. Monitoring this burden helps to identify groups and countries at risk, but also to gauge the possible impact of anti-smoking interventions on PD. Policy-makers, public health activists and clinicians need to increase their efforts for combatting smoking if they want to substantially reduce the burden of PD, especially in countries where individual-level clinical care is not widely available.

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Figure legends

Figure 1: Dataflow of this study. Data from the Global Burden of Disease Study (GBD 2015) and data from the performed review and meta-analysis/meta-regression were used to estimate the prevalence and burden of periodontal disease, the prevalence of smoking and number of cigarettes smoked per smoker, and the association between smoking and periodontal disease. As a result, the smoking-attributable burden of periodontal disease on population level was estimated for 186 countries in three age groups, separated for sex, in 2015.

Figure 2: The different geographic areas of the GBD studies were used in the present study, too.

Figure 3: Smoking-attributable DALYs (a) and prevalent cases of periodontal disease (b) in 2015.

Figure 4: Relative smoking-attributable burden of periodontal disease (PD) (in % of total DALYs) in different age groups and countries in 2015, ranked from highest to lowest, in male (A) and females (B). Uncertainty intervals are indicated by whiskers.

Figure 5: Age-standardized smoking-attributable prevalent cases of periodontal disease per 100,000 in 2015. (a) Both sexes pooled, (b) male, (c) female.

Tables

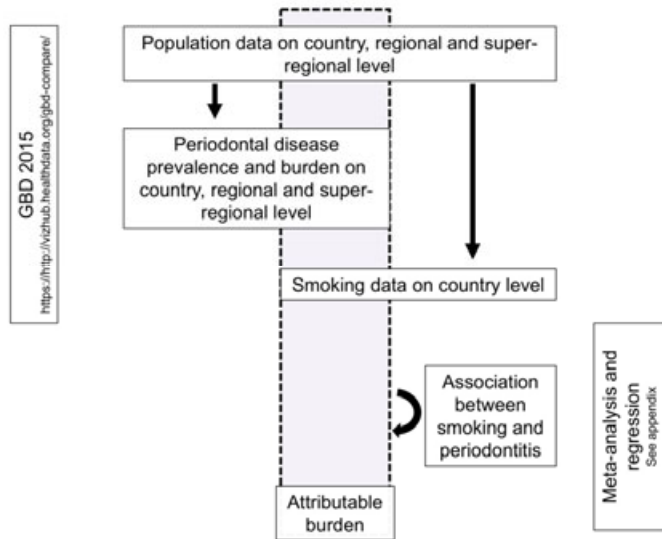
Table 1: Smoking-attributable DALYs and prevalent cases of periodontal disease in different geographic areas (global, super-region, region), in different age groups in 2015. The geographic areas are those used by the GBD studies and are shown in Figure 2.

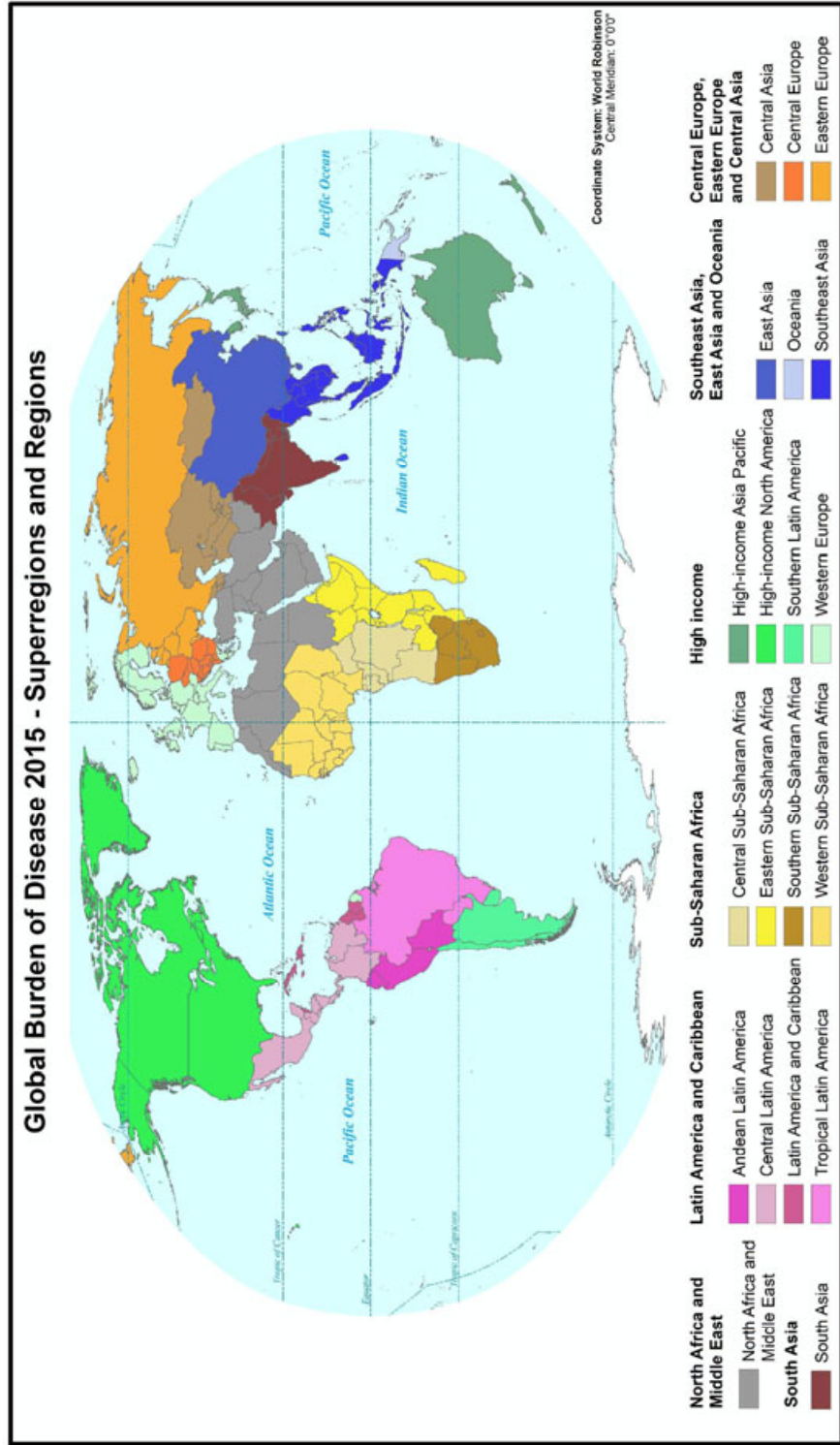
Geographic area	Age group (years)	DALYs	Lower bound	Upper bound	Prevalent cases	Lower bound	Upper bound
Global	15-49	75771	53938	105852	11372510	8093835	15891419
	50-69	141434	110022	176146	21705811	16877730	27042952
	≥70	33954	26751	42230	5402605	4253741	6723005
Central Europe, Eastern Europe, and Central Asia	15-49	3660	2751	4799	548944	412626	719893
	50-69	8700	6924	10689	1338873	1065538	1644764
	≥70	2599	2084	3196	415719	333402	511163
High-income	15-49	13692	10177	18232	2051103	1524531	2731367
	50-69	31684	25105	38790	4845018	3838380	5931810
	≥70	9988	7912	12377	1588346	1258414	1969222
Latin America and Caribbean	15-49	10027	6832	14023	1503878	1024623	2103199
	50-69	13143	9730	16724	2016529	1492881	2566088
	≥70	2215	1610	2901	354152	257527	464054
North Africa and Middle East	15-49	9666	6787	13856	1453771	1020601	2083856
	50-69	12174	9375	15231	1881195	1448362	2353960
	≥70	2255	1753	2822	363415	282514	454790
South Asia	15-49	10622	6731	15754	1602349	1015392	2376583
	50-69	17045	11580	23304	2643981	1796154	3614898
	≥70	3142	2144	4313	506882	346024	695803
Southeast Asia, East Asia, and Oceania	15-49	21330	16653	27799	3191943	2491968	4160312
	50-69	49882	41456	59728	7617662	6330186	9122447

	≥70	11841	9966	14091	1864918	1569414	2219635
Sub-Saharan Africa	15-49	6773	4008	11390	1020522	604094	1716209
	50-69	8800	5854	11679	1362553	906229	1808985
	≥70	1916	1280	2529	309173	206446	408338
<hr/>							
Andean Latin America	15-49	354	238	515	53085	35577	77072
	50-69	491	347	662	75107	53182	101474
	≥70	92	65	125	14630	10314	20094
Central Asia	15-49	611	438	853	91522	65634	127800
	50-69	1042	791	1356	159700	121249	207943
	≥70	170	130	220	27106	20764	35160
Central Europe	15-49	1484	1109	1956	222181	165942	292774
	50-69	3525	2799	4329	541853	430214	665405
	≥70	1054	833	1310	168058	132877	208925
Central Latin America	15-49	3103	2140	4376	464832	320572	655574
	50-69	4152	3063	5391	636514	469442	826469
	≥70	757	558	996	121031	89168	159206
Central Sub-Saharan Africa	15-49	530	333	836	80203	50490	126681
	50-69	830	562	1166	129534	87743	182085
	≥70	179	123	250	29230	20050	40750
East Asia	15-49	17931	14277	22856	2682287	2135648	3418891
	50-69	42619	36029	50265	6502600	5497151	7669349
	≥70	10295	8806	12072	1618301	1384346	1897746
Eastern Europe	15-49	1565	1204	1991	235241	181050	299319
	50-69	4134	3335	5004	637320	514075	771416
	≥70	1376	1122	1667	220555	179761	267078
Eastern Sub-Saharan Africa	15-49	2300	1228	4346	345980	184812	654120
	50-69	3206	1907	4401	495312	294352	680139
	≥70	782	464	1055	125670	74511	169683
High-income	15-49	2976	2285	3826	444235	341116	571150

Asia Pacific	50-69	7162	5857	8578	1088976	890501	1304276
	≥70	2506	2050	3049	395492	323533	481093
High-income North America	15-49	3563	2591	4822	534731	388824	723789
	50-69	9857	7624	12379	1515401	1172024	1903225
	≥70	2645	2053	3337	425590	330377	536850
Latin America and Caribbean	15-49	696	466	990	104614	69918	148670
	50-69	1078	792	1372	165010	121254	210148
	≥70	251	185	327	39981	29382	51947
North Africa and Middle East	15-49	9666	6787	13856	1453771	1020601	2083856
	50-69	12174	9375	15231	1881195	1448362	2353960
	≥70	2255	1753	2822	363415	282514	454790
Oceania	15-49	146	12	459	21912	1749	69036
	50-69	104	12	247	16237	1939	38496
	≥70	15	2	40	2521	346	6356
South Asia	15-49	10622	6731	15754	1602349	1015392	2376583
	50-69	17045	11580	23304	2643981	1796154	3614898
	≥70	3142	2144	4313	506882	346024	695803
Southeast Asia	15-49	3252	2364	4483	487744	354571	672385
	50-69	7157	5413	9216	1098825	831096	1414602
	≥70	1532	1158	1979	244096	184722	315533
Southern Latin America	15-49	886	673	1146	132543	100759	171500
	50-69	1651	1348	1965	251670	205569	299609
	≥70	450	367	543	70878	57841	85602
Southern Sub-Saharan Africa	15-49	183	120	278	27784	18123	42162
	50-69	296	201	427	46141	31236	66651
	≥70	80	56	113	13007	9039	18430
Tropical Latin America	15-49	5873	3989	8142	881347	598556	1221883

	50-69	7423	5529	9299	1139898	849003	1427997
	≥70	1114	803	1453	178510	128663	232807
Western Europe	15-49	6262	4627	8437	939594	693832	1264928
	50-69	13021	10277	15868	1988971	1570286	2424700
	≥70	4385	3440	5449	696386	546663	865677
Western Sub-Saharan Africa	15-49	3761	2327	5930	566555	350669	893246
	50-69	4469	3185	5685	691566	492898	880110
	≥70	875	637	1111	141266	102846	179475





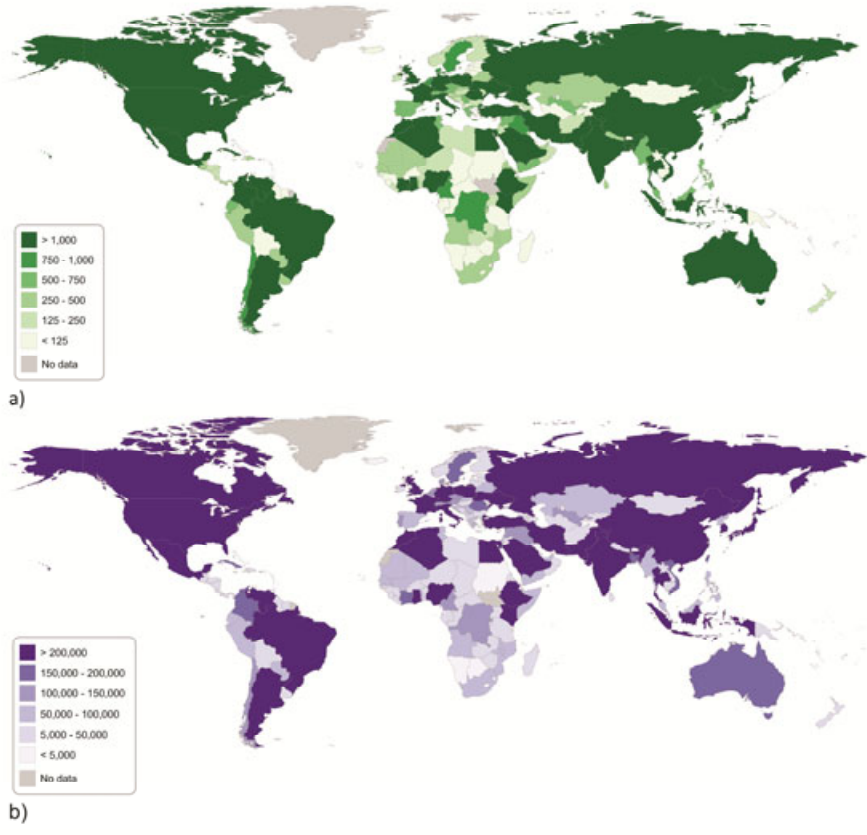
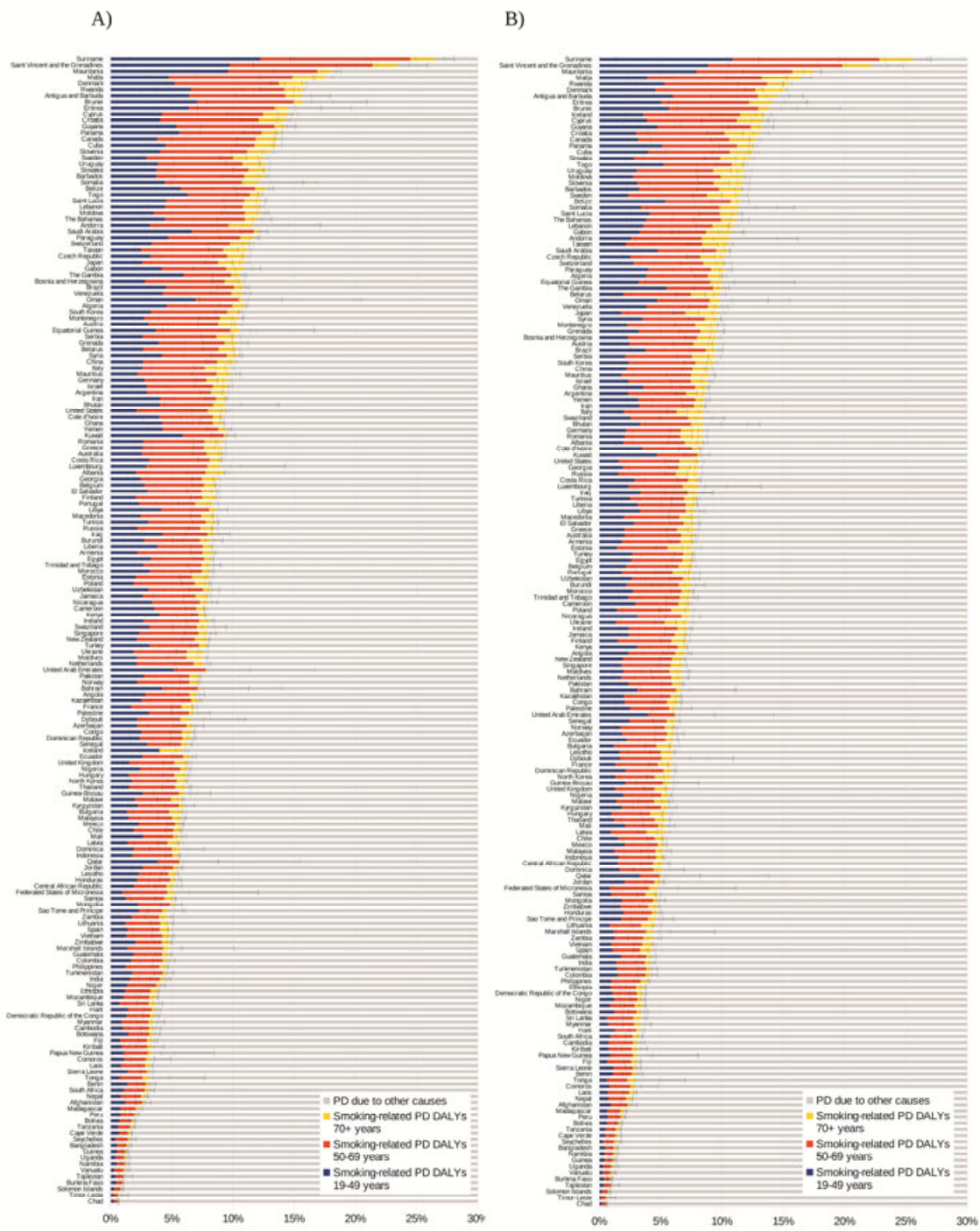


Figure 3: Smoking-attributable DALYs (a) and prevalent cases of periodontal disease (b) in 2015.



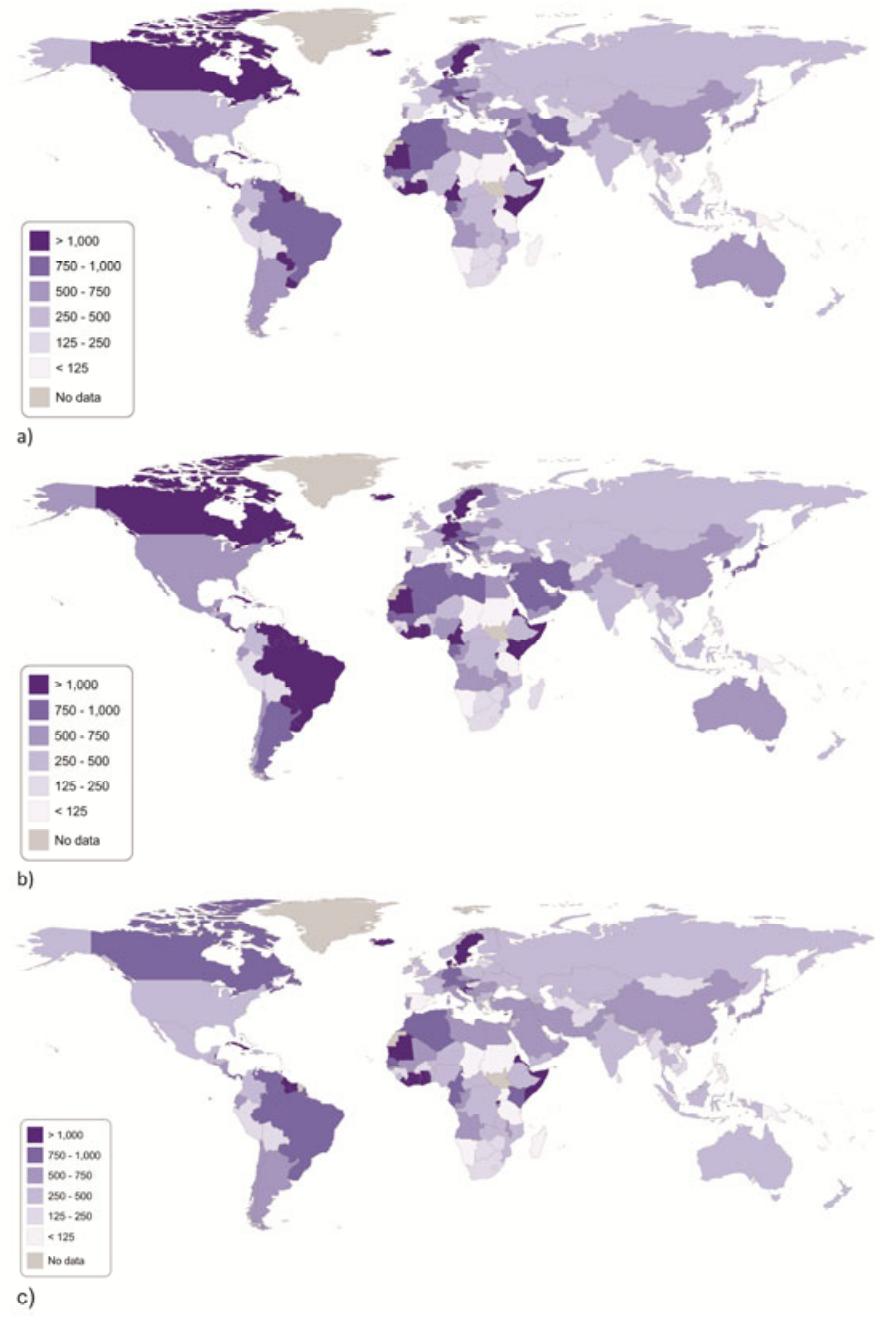


Figure 5: Age-standardized smoking-attributable prevalent cases of periodontal disease per 100,000 in 2015. (a) Both sexes pooled, (b) male, (c) female.