

Alcohol consumption is associated with periodontitis. A systematic review and meta-analysis of observational studies

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Objective: To determine whether alcohol consumption is associated with the risk of periodontitis. **Basic Research Design:** Systematic review and meta-analysis of observational studies performed using the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Review and Meta-Analyses guidelines. **Method:** PubMed and Scopus were searched for eligible articles published in English from inception till November 2018. The quality of studies was assessed by the Newcastle Ottawa Scale. Pooled odds ratios (OR) and 95% confidence intervals (CI) were calculated for the risk of periodontitis associated with highest versus lowest/non-alcohol in a random effects meta-analysis model. Heterogeneity and sensitivity were investigated in meta regression analysis. A funnel plot was used to assess publication bias. **Results:** Twenty-nine observational studies were included. One study with two separate datasets was considered as two separate studies for analysis. Alcohol consumption was significantly associated with the presence of periodontitis (OR = 1.26, 95% CI= 1.11-1.41). Significant heterogeneity (I²=71%) was present in the overall analysis, primarily attributable to sampling cross-sectional studies (I²=76.6%). A funnel plot and Egger tests (p=0.0001) suggested the presence of publication bias. **Conclusion:** Alcohol consumption was associated with increased occurrence of periodontitis and should be considered as a parameter in periodontal risk assessment. Publication bias should be explored in future studies.

Keywords: Alcohol consumption, meta-analysis, risk factor, periodontitis, systematic review

Introduction

The World Health Organization (2011) sees alcohol consumption as the world's third largest risk factor for disease and disability and the greatest risk among middle-income countries. Consumption of alcohol influences the immune system with a broad range of detrimental effects. High consumption of alcoholic beverages can cause cardiovascular disease, obesity, stroke, cancer, suicide and accidents and death (Rocco *et al.*, 2014; WHO, 2011; Xi *et al.*, 2017). Alcohol consumption may affect the oral cavity and the upper digestive tract leading to morphologic, metabolic and functional changes (Riedel *et al.*, 2005).

Periodontitis is a chronic inflammatory disease associated with a dysbiotic bacterial biofilm in a susceptible host leading to progressive loss of teeth supporting structures (Caton *et al.*, 2018). Several risk factors have been associated with its development and progression such as composition of the subgingival bacterial plaque, tobacco use, diabetes mellitus, obesity, male gender, socioeconomic status, psychological factors, HIV infection and alcohol consumption (Van Dyke & Sheilesh, 2005).

Increased periodontal breakdown and tooth loss have been reported in people with severe alcoholism (Hornecker *et al.*, 2003). Long-term excessive alcohol use is reported to affect bone metabolism and may play an important role in extensive bone loss (de Souza *et al.*, 2006; Porto *et al.*,

2012). Samnieng *et al.* (2013) reported that regular use of alcohol was significantly associated with lower salivary flow, fewer teeth and functional tooth units and higher oral malodour and periodontal disease. Some studies have suggested that the relationship between periodontitis and alcohol consumption is confounded by poor oral hygiene (Hornecker *et al.*, 2003; Park *et al.*, 2014; Pitiphat *et al.*, 2003).

The effect of alcohol use on periodontal disease is still being investigated, with the findings of recent studies still inconclusive (Amaral *et al.*, 2009; Gay *et al.*, 2018; Wang *et al.*, 2016). Some long-term studies have shown positive associations between alcohol consumption and periodontitis (Nishida *et al.*, 2008; 2010; Pitiphat *et al.*, 2003; Wagner *et al.*, 2017) while Okamoto *et al.* (2006) did not find such a link. A systematic review by Amaral *et al.* (2009) including five longitudinal and 11 cross sectional studies concluded that alcohol consumption can be considered as a risk indicator for periodontitis. Another meta-analysis using data from 18 observational studies also supported the link between alcohol consumption and periodontitis (Wang *et al.*, 2016). The difference in results between various studies may be attributed partly to differences in assessment and definition of periodontal disease, confounding factors, small sample size, and variations in the frequency and the amount of alcohol consumed (Wagner *et al.*, 2017).

The present systematic review and meta-analysis was conducted to update the evidence on the association between alcohol consumption and the presence/occurrence of periodontitis in the light of studies reported since the earlier reviews on this topic. The research question was aligned to the PECOS model: What is the level of association (O) between alcohol consumption (E) compared to no or low alcohol consumption (C) and periodontitis in adults (P) from observational studies (S)?

Materials and Methods

The reporting of this systematic review and meta-analyses followed the Preferred Reporting Items for systematic review and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) guidelines.

Literature search and strategy

A literature search performed on the PubMed and Scopus databases for eligible studies from inception to 30th November 2018 used the following search terms ((Alcohol OR Ethanol)) AND (periodontitis OR “periodontal disease”) as free-text terms. This strategy was found to include relevant studies identified in an earlier review (Wang *et al.*, 2016). The reference list of all the eligible studies, systematic reviews, and narrative reviews were also searched for eligible studies.

Study selection

The criteria for inclusion were observational studies published in the English language as original research on the association between alcohol consumption and periodontitis that had calculated relative risk (RR) or odds ratios (OR) with 95% confidence intervals (CI) for alcohol consumption adjusted for other confounders by study design or multivariate analysis. Case reports, case series and ecological studies were excluded. All the studies identified through the initial search were screened by two independent reviewers (SJ, SN) based on their titles and abstracts. Full text assessment of the studies screened positive was also done independently by the two reviewers. Any disagreements were resolved by consensus or by arbitration by the third reviewer (MK).

Data extraction

Relevant data were extracted independently from the source papers to a bespoke form that recorded: (1), Study characteristics: name of the first author, publication year, country of study, number of participants, study design, population, sampling methods and sample size; (2), Participant characteristics: mean age at baseline, sex, definition and prevalence of periodontitis and the factors adjusted for; (3), Exposure and comparator details: definition of alcohol consumption and alcohol reference group; (4), Outcome measures: multivariate adjusted risk estimates and 95% CI for highest versus lowest/non-alcohol consumption.

Quality Assessment

Included studies were assessed for quality using the Newcastle-Ottawa Scale (NOS) (Stang, 2010) checklist (cohort and case control studies) independently by two reviewers (SJ, SN). The NOS scale is commonly employed to assess the quality of observational studies. A star system

was used to score in three domains: selection of groups, comparability of groups and exposure/outcome measurement. Different criteria were used for cross-sectional and longitudinal studies.

Statistical Analysis

Analysis was performed with STATA (version 15.0, Stata-Corp, College Station, TX, USA). Meta-analyses using DerSimonian and Laird’s random-effects model were used to estimate summary measures of the association between alcohol consumption and periodontitis. Sensitivity meta-analysis excluded low quality studies and subgroup analysis considered characteristics that could affect any apparent association between alcohol consumption and periodontitis including: study design (cross sectional vs. longitudinal), population (country), sex (both, males or females), sampling (probabilistic vs. non-probabilistic), reference alcohol group (no consumption or low consumption), age range of population (<40 years or >40 years), periodontitis prevalence based on a median cut-off (<30 or >30%), total participants in the study based on a median cut-off (<800, >800). Further meta regression considered the number of cases (people with periodontitis) and total participants in the study to evaluate their effect in explanation of the heterogeneity and the association in influencing the overall outcome. Publication bias was assessed in the Egger test and visually through a funnel plot.

Results

The initial search identified 1568 unique studies of which 1526 were excluded after screening by title and abstract. The full texts of 42 articles were assessed for eligibility of which 10 were excluded due to absence of any estimates on the association (Amaral *et al.*, 2008; Enberg *et al.*, 2001; Harris *et al.*, 1996; Jansson, 2008; Khocht *et al.*, 2003; Lages *et al.*, 2015; Novacek *et al.*, 1995; O’Sullivan, 2012; Ogawa *et al.*, 2002; Wickholm *et al.*, 2003) and one older study had same data as the follow-up report (Park *et al.*, 2014) (Figure 1).

A total of 29 reports were finally selected for systematic review and meta-analysis (Table 1). One study presented data for males and females that could be included in the analysis independently (Kongstad *et al.*, 2008), making 30 datasets. Twenty-three reports described cross sectional studies and six longitudinal. Follow up in the longitudinal studies ranged from 2-12 years. The studies originated from 11 different countries and participants’ ages ranged from 13 to 96 years. Most sources had studied urban populations and had used multi-stage complex sampling. Two reports (Antoniazzi *et al.*, 2016; Tanner *et al.*, 2015) described *a priori* sample size calculations. In all cases, data on alcohol use were collected in interviews or questionnaires, which was computer assisted in one study (Gay *et al.*, 2018).

Many different criteria were used to define the presence of periodontitis and the prevalence of periodontitis ranged between 19% to 81% across studies. Nineteen reports did not specify the prevalence of periodontitis in their samples. The criteria for defining alcohol consumption also differed between studies, ranging from ‘more than once a week’, ‘heavy drinking’ or relating to chronicity. Reference values were often ‘no or mild consumption of alcohol’.

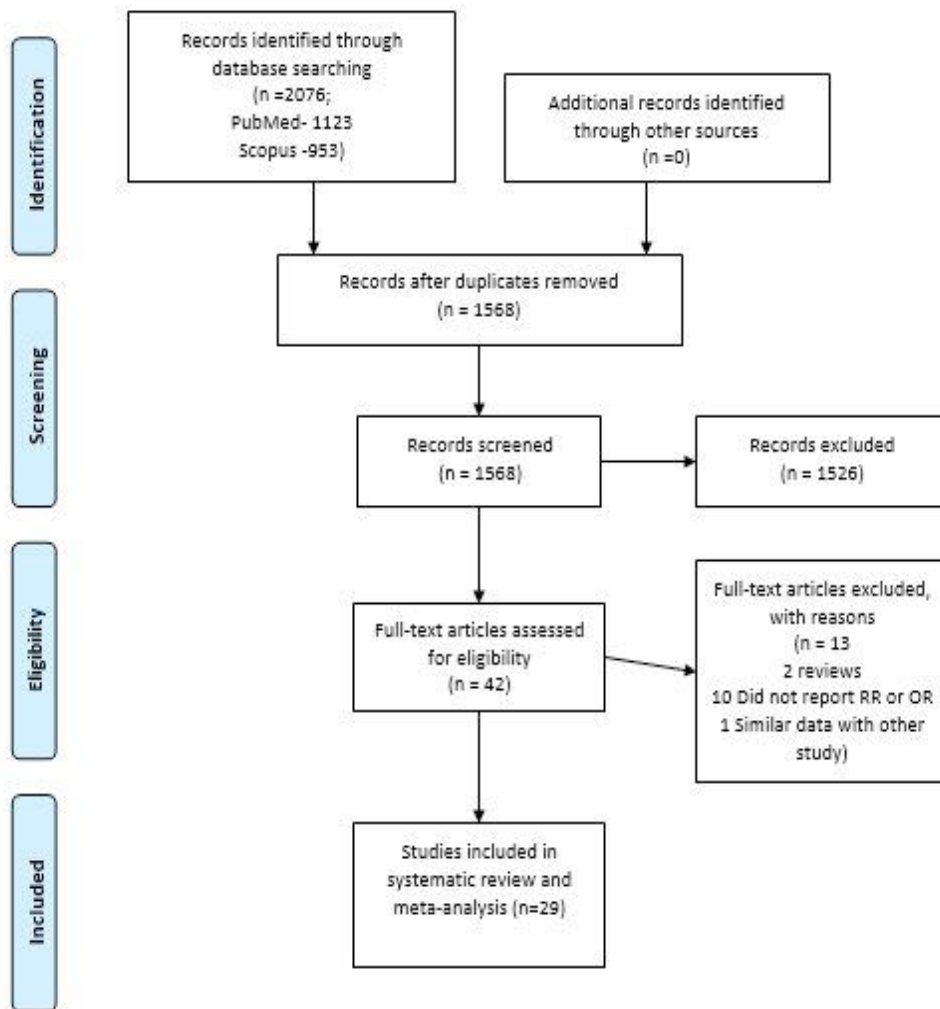


Figure 1. Prisma Flow chart

Five sources reported no association, one reported a negative association and the remainder identified positive associations between alcohol consumption and the presence of periodontitis (Figure 2).

Using the NOS scale to score study quality, 12 of the 23 cross sectional scored ≥ 6 stars, as did all the longitudinal studies (Supplementary tables, available at https://studentimuedu-my.sharepoint.com/:w:/g/personal/shaju_jacob_imu_edu_my/Ef2vdkRr7SBKi1ITYGC_VL0BM5NGr5xY5tDQq4Iwkwh4jg?e=k0XcZD).

The pooled OR estimates and 95% confidence intervals for the overall, subgroup and sensitivity meta-analyses is presented in Table 2. Alcohol consumption was associated with greater prevalence or occurrence of periodontitis (OR = 1.26, 95% CI = 1.11-1.41) (Figure 2). The relationship between alcohol use and the presence of periodontitis persisted in subgroup analyses for study design, sampling technique, participant age and the prevalence of periodontitis in the total sample. The relationship also persisted in reports where data for men and women had been aggregated and where it was reported males only. Subgroup analysis for women (two studies) did not find a relationship. Subgroup analyses by country yielded varying results. The one study in China provided the highest risk estimate, while aggregated data from the eight Japanese studies did not relate alcohol consumption to the presence of periodontitis. (Supplementary figure 1a-1g; Full results available at <https://studentimuedu-my.sharepoint.com/:w:/g/>

[personal/shaju_jacob_imu_edu_my/EQm8tpUO4RRCuYXeC-PUH5UBd-J4MhYP9of5x5Fmw4kldA?e=DykqeI](https://studentimuedu-my.sharepoint.com/:w:/g/personal/shaju_jacob_imu_edu_my/EQm8tpUO4RRCuYXeC-PUH5UBd-J4MhYP9of5x5Fmw4kldA?e=DykqeI)).

Studies where the reference group was defined as persons who consumed less alcohol than the cases did not associate alcohol with the presence of periodontitis, whereas studies where the reference group consumed no alcohol did find an association.

Meta-regression analysis

Meta regression analysis did not reveal sample size or the number of cases of periodontitis to be associated with heterogeneity (Supplementary Figure 2a-2b; https://studentimuedu-my.sharepoint.com/:w:/g/personal/shaju_jacob_imu_edu_my/EQm8tpUO4RRCuYXeC-PUH5UBd-J4MhYP9of5x5Fmw4kldA?e=DykqeI).

Sensitivity analysis

Meta-analysis after excluding low-quality studies i.e. cross-sectional studies scoring fewer than 5 or 6 stars (OR 1.03; 95% CI 0.88-1.19 and OR 1.12; 95% CI 0.98-1.25 respectively) rendered the pooled OR non-significant. No sensitivity analysis was done for longitudinal studies as all studies scored more than 6 stars in quality assessment. No studies exerted an increased influence in the overall effect size in leave-one-out analysis (Supplementary Figures 3a-3b, available at https://studentimuedu-my.sharepoint.com/:w:/g/personal/shaju_jacob_imu_edu_my/EQm8tpUO4RRCuYXeC-PUH5UBd-J4MhYP9of5x5Fmw4kldA?e=DykqeI).

Table 1. Characteristics of 29 included studies

Author Year Country	Design	Sample M/F No. cases periodontitis	Sampling	Alcohol reference Group	Alcohol definition	Age	Factors adjusted for	Diagnostic criteria for periodontitis	OR, CI
Gay 2018 USA	LS	7062 3509/3553 3884	Probability	<1 drink/ week	8+ drinks/ week	30+	Age, gender, race/ethnicity, education level, income-to-poverty ratio, cigarette use, overall oral health & HbA1c	≥2 interproximal sites with CAL ≥6 mm & ≥1 with PD ≥5 mm	1.9, 1.2-3
Suwama 2018 Japan	LS	438 236/202 368	Probability	Non-drinker	≥40 g for men, ≥20 g for women	73	Number of existing teeth, smoking, use of interdental brushes	CPI score 4	2.44, 1.03-5.78
Kongstad 2017 Denmark	CS	3665 1425/2240 337	Probability	No alcohol	Alcohol consumption	18-96	Age, sex, smoking status, T2DM, ISCED, physical activity, BMI, WC, body fat, triglyceride, total cholesterol, CRP	≥2 interproximal sites with CAL ≥6 mm & ≥1 with PD ≥5 mm	1, 0.99-1.01
Wagner 2017 Brazil	CS	502 209/293 302	Probability	Non drinker	> 1 glass/ day	18-65	Age, sex, smoking, socioeconomic status, & body mass index	mean CAL > 1.5 mm	1.3, 1.07-1.58
Akpata 2016 Nigeria	CS	500 240/260 185	Probability	Less than 600 ml of alcohol a day	Chronic alcohol consumption	>50	Age, gender, education, income, previous dental visit & history of medical illness	≥2 interproximal sites with CAL ≥6 mm & ≥1 with PD ≥5 mm	1.17, 0.59-2.33
Antoniuzzi 2016 Brazil	CS	212 158/54 168	Non-probabilistic	Less than once/week	Once or more/week	13-46	Sex, age, skin colour, schooling in years, household income, tobacco use	At least three sites with CAL >4mm & 2+ sites with PD >3 mm	2.24, 1.03-4.90
Lee 2016 South Korea	CS	18448 NA 5165	Probability	Alcohol drink- ing <6.8 GY	Long term drinking ≥ 6.8 GY	>19	Sex, age, education level, household income, marital status, recent dental visit, use of oral hygiene device, the number of decayed, missing or filled permanent teeth, frequency smoking	CPI 3	1.22, 0.96-1.56
Hach 2015 Denmark	LS/CS data of 168 volunteers	168 77/91 43	Probability	0-3 units/ week for women, 0-7 units for men	>7 units/week for women, >14 units for men	>65	Age, gender, smoking, number of teeth & dental plaque	≥3 teeth with CAL ≥4 mm	2.24, 0.58-8.58
Susin 2015 Brazil	CS	1115 513/602 318	Probability	No alcohol	> 1 glass/ day	18-65	Age, gender, race, socioeconomic status, dental care, body mass index, diabetes & smoking	Individuals with ≥ 30% teeth with periodontal attachment loss ≥ 5 mm	1.48, 0.88-2.48

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	CS	8539	NA	No alcohol or <once/ month	> once/week	NA	Teeth brushing, father's & mother's education, own education, smoking & last visit to dental care	CPI score ≥ 2	0.98 (0.76-1.26)
Tanner 2015 Finland	CS	8539/0 5633	NA	No alcohol or use	Harmful alcohol use defined as total AUDIT score of 8 or higher	NA	Teeth brushing, father's & mother's education, own education, smoking & last visit to dental care	CPI score ≥ 2	0.98 (0.76-1.26)
Kim 2014 South Korea	CS	5291 2409/2882 1671	Probability	Non-alcohol use	Alcohol use defined as total AUDIT score of 8 or higher	>19	Age, gender, household income, education level, daily frequency of brushing, use of floss or interdental brush, current smoker, active caries, diabetes mellitus, obesity	CPI 3	1.15, 0.96-1.38
Costa 2013 Brazil	CS	705 341/364 92	Non-probabilistic	No/ occasional alcohol	Alcohol use defined as total AUDIT score of 8 or higher	35-65	Smoking, sex, age, family income, educational level, co-habitation status, BMI, last dental visit, diabetes	Mean CAL ≥ 3 mm	1.94, 1.39-2.72
Wu 2013 China	CS	754 0/754 639	NA	Never drinker/ former drinker	≥ 1 drinks/ weeks	20-29	Age	Two or more sites with CAL ≥ 3 mm	2.44, 2.02-3.87
Lages 2015 Brazil	CS	542 292/250 134	Non-probabilistic	No/occasional alcohol	Alcohol dependence	35-55	Gender, age, family income, education level, co-habitation status, dental visit, BMI, diabetes, smoking	≥ 4 teeth with one or more sites with PD ≥ 4 mm and CAL ≥ 3 mm at the same site.	4.72, 2.73-7.92
Okamoto 2006 Japan	LS	1332 1332/0 592	NA	Non-drinker	>20g alcohol /day	30-59	Age, alcohol consumption	CPI score 3 or 4	0.74, 0.34-1.64
Nishida 2010 Japan	CS	183 164/19 78	NA	<33g alcohol /day	≥ 33 g alcohol /day	18-63	Age, gender, smoking habit	Mean CAL ≥ 3 mm	4.28, 1.2-15.3
Kongstad 2008 Denmark	CS	817 0/817 NA	NA	<1drinks/ week	21+ drinks/week for women	20-95	Age, smoking, education level income, body mass index, physical activity, diabetes, number of teeth, plaque scores	CAL ≥ 3 mm	0.82 (0.37-1.82)
Kongstad 2008 Denmark	CS	704 704/0 NA	NA	1-13 drinks/ week	35+ drinks/week for men	20-95	Age, smoking, education level income, body mass index, physical activity, diabetes, number of teeth, plaque scores	CAL ≥ 3 mm	0.34 (0.15-0.79)
Nishida 2008 Japan	LS	200 179/21 99	NA	< every day	Every day	18-62	Age, gender, physical exercise, smoking habit, sleep, eating breakfast, nutritional balance, working hours, subjective mental stress	1+ teeth with an increase ≥ 2.0 mm in CAL and PD for 2 years	2.03, 1.05-3.93

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Minaya-Sanchez 2007 Mexico	CS	161 161/0 74	Non-probabilistic	Never drinker	Current/ former drinker Current drinker ≥ 1 drink/week for 6m.	>20	Age, schooling, number of teeth, marital status, dental care in previous month, tooth brushing frequency, tobacco use, use of antibiotics in past 6 months, presence of dental plaque, presence of calculus, presence of suppuration, presence of gingivitis	CAL ≥ 4 mm in at least one site	0.60, 0.25-1.46
Torrunguang 2005 Thailand	CS	2005 1492/513 548	Non-probabilistic	Non-drinker	Current drinker ≥ 12 drinks in 1 year	50-74	Age, gender, education level, income, plaque score, smoking status, diabetes mellitus, BMI, WC	CAL ≥ 4.0 mm	2.30, 1.70-3.20
Ojima 2006 Japan	LS	4828 1896/2932 554	Probability	Never drinker	Current drinker	>40	Smoking, gender, age, BMI, vitamin C, vitamin E	CPI score = 4	1, 0.76-1.33
Bouchard 2006 France	CS	2132 1044/1088 421	Probability	occasional intake	Non-drinker /regular drinker	35-64	Age, gender, BMI, WBC	CAL >5 mm	1.60, 1.20-2.20
Shimazaki 2005 Japan	CS	961 378/583 90	Probability	no alcohol consumption	heavy drinking ≥ 30 g/day	40-79	Amount of smoking, glucose tolerance, age, sex, number of teeth, mean plaque index	PD ≥ 4 mm	2.5, 1.1-5.7
Nishida 2004 Japan	CS	372 290/82 206	NA	< 33 g/day	≥ 33 g alcohol /day	20-59	Age, gender, BMI, smoking status, frequency of tooth brushing	PD ≥ 3.5 mm	5.36, 1.39-20.77
Tezal 2004 US	CS	12723 6007/ 6716 3478	Probability	no alcohol	20 drinks/week	>20	Age, gender, race, education, income, smoking, diet, diabetes, number of remaining teeth, gingival bleeding	CAL > 1.5 mm	1.67, 1.25-2.23
Pitiphat 2003 US	CS	39461 39461/0 2125	Probability	0 g/day	≥ 30 g alcohol /day	40-75	Diabetes, BMI, physical activity, calories time period, & caloric intake	NA	1.27, 1.08-1.49
Tezal 2001 US	CS	1371 661/710 156	Probability	No alcohol	10 drinks/ week	25-74	Age, gender, race, education, income, smoking, diabetes mellitus, dental plaque.	CAL > 4 mm	1.44, 1.04-2.22
Shizukuishi 1998 Japan	CS	310 252/58 70	Non-probabilistic	Not everyday	Everyday	20-59	Age, gender, physical exercise, smoking habit, sleeping hours, eating breakfast, smoking, working hours, mental stress	Miller's modified CPI score >25 th percentile	1.8, 1.1-3.1
Sakki 1995 Finland	CS	527 266/261 121	NA	0 drinks/2 weeks	7 or more drinks /2 weeks	55	Dietary habits, tobacco, smoking habits, tooth brushing frequency.	PPD ≥ 3 mm	2.52, 1.40-4.54

NA: Not available; OR: Odds ratio; CI: Confidence interval; M: Male; F: Female; CAL: Clinical attachment level; PD: Probing depth; CPI: Community Periodontal Index; BMI: Body Mass Index; CRP: C-reactive Protein; WC: Waist Circumference; ISCED: International Standard Classification of Education; T2DM: Type 2 diabetes mellitus; CDC: Centre of Disease Control; AAP: American Association of Periodontology; GY: Glass Year; CAGE: cut down, annoyed, guilty, eye-opener; AUDIT: alcohol use disorders identification test.
dependent on the case definition of periodontitis.

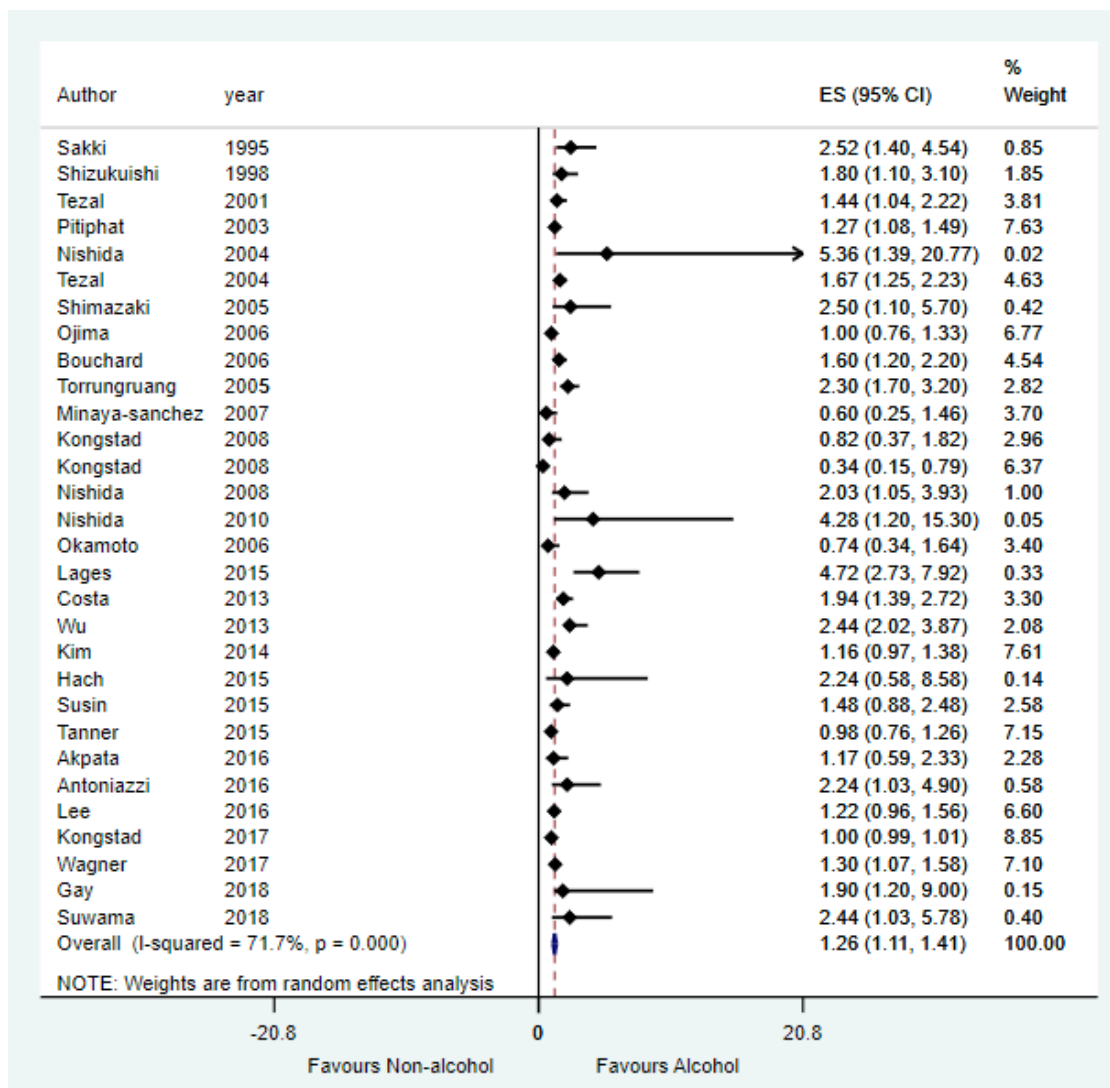


Figure 2. Forest plot synthesising results from 30 datasets of the association between alcohol use and the presence of periodontitis

Publication bias

The funnel plot and Egger's test ($p=0.001$) suggested significant publication bias and is provided as supplementary (Figures 4 and 5 accessible at https://studentimuedu-my.sharepoint.com/:w:/g/personal/shaju_jacob_imu_edu_my/EQm8tpUO4RRCuYXeC-PUH5UBd-J4MhYP9of5x5Fmw4kldA?e=DykqeI).

Discussion

Alcohol is a risk factor common to several chronic diseases. Our review updated evidence on the association between alcohol use and the presence of periodontitis from observational studies that had controlled for other risk factors. As well as elucidating the relationship between alcohol use and the presence of periodontitis, the additional studies included in this update allowed investigation of heterogeneity through subgroup and sensitivity analysis. Analysis of 29 reports involving 30 datasets and 117,239 participants associated alcohol consumption with periodontitis. The association consistent across populations around the world, except for studies in Japan. A dose-response relationship could not be calculated due to the varying thresholds for alcohol consumption in the reports.

Our findings are compatible with previous systematic reviews. Amaral et al. (2009) included 16 studies, 12 related to alcohol consumption and 4 to alcohol dependence. Seven studies of alcohol consumption and all four studies on alcohol dependence reported positive associations between alcohol intake and periodontitis. Wang and colleagues (2016) included 18 studies with 90,147 participants. Our review supplemented the studies reported by Wang et al. (2016) with another 11 reports.

Subgroup analyses suggested that the relationship was consistent across study designs, population groups and underlying levels of periodontitis. Differences between countries may be attributable to different underlying levels of alcohol consumption and periodontitis and to the different diagnostic thresholds used in the source studies. Genetic variation among populations may also explain differences in effects of alcohol and organ health (Matsushita and Higuchi, 2017). Similarly, whilst males had higher risk for periodontitis than females, a WHO report (2005) identified different consumption patterns between males and females and differing effects of alcohol consumption.

Table 2. Summary of meta-analysis of all included studies and subgroup analyses.

Groups and subgroups		No of datasets	Odds ratio	95% Confidence Interval	I2 %
All studies		30	1.26	1.11-1.41	71.7
Design	Cross-sectional	20	1.32	1.12-1.52	76.6
	Longitudinal	10	1.21	1.06-1.35	3.4
Country	Nigeria	1	1.74	0.30-2.04	
	Brazil	5	1.741	1.15-2.33	60.5
	Denmark	4	0.746	0.25-1.24	82.3
	South Korea	2	1.178	1.01-1.35	0
	Japan	8	1.245	0.81-1.68	24.6
	United States	4	1.341	1.16-1.52	0
	Thailand	1	2.300	1.55-3.05	
	Mexico	1	0.600	-0.010-1.20	
	China	1	2.440	1.52-3.37	
	France	1	1.600	1.10-2.10	
	Finland	2	1.547	0.09-3.00	72.3
Sex	Both	23	1.43	1.24-1.63	67.5
	Males	5	1.26	1.11-1.41	71.7
	Females	2	1.60	0.02-3.19	86.3
Sampling	Probabilistic	16	1.20	1.08-1.33	58.4
	Non-probabilistic	6	1.92	1.11-2.73	76.2
	Others	8	1.36	0.64-2.08	75.7
Alcohol reference	Less consumption	17	1.31	0.91-1.66	69.9
	No consumption	13	1.30	1.12-1.49	75.6
Age range	>40	21	1.45	1.08-1.83	54.5
	<40	9	1.26	1.06-1.46	74.1
Periodontitis prevalence	>30	6	1.80	1.13-2.47	72.3
	<30	5	1.57	1.17-1.97	47.8%
	Others (not specified)	19	1.10	0.93-1.27	66.9%
Total participants	>800	15	1.21	1.06-1.35	66.1
	<800	15	1.63	1.14-2.13	76.4

The stricter reference case definition of ‘no alcohol consumption’ was associated with the presence of periodontitis, unlike the more relaxed definition of less than the cases. This laxer definition may have permitted false positives into the reference category, leading to dilution of risk estimates (Radoi and Luce, 2013).

Heterogeneity was expected due to the variety in the pooled studies in terms of population, study design and case definitions (Munafò and Flint, 2004). The included studies spanned the five major continents and recruited participants with varying ages. By contrast, reports from the US, South Korea and Japan showed low heterogeneity. Minimal heterogeneity was observed among the longitudinal studies. There was considerable variation in the case definitions for alcohol and periodontitis. Subgroup analysis identified possible sources of heterogeneity. Variation by gender, sampling strategy, reference definition for alcohol consumption, age (>40 or <40 years), prevalence of periodontitis (<30 or >30%) and sample size (<800 or >800) did not affect the degree of heterogeneity to a major extent. Sub-group meta-analysis was not able to identify whether differences in heterogeneity has any statistical significance. Meta-regression for the effect of continuous variables did not identify relationships between the number of participants or the prevalence of periodontitis and heterogeneity (Thompson & Higgins, 2002). The sources of heterogeneity identified in subgroup and sensitivity meta-analysis points future investigators to variables that may confound the relationship between alcohol consumption and periodontitis.

Sensitivity analysis excluding low-quality studies among the cross-sectional studies showed non-significant association of alcohol consumption to periodontitis. This result could not be compared with earlier reviews that did not use quality assessment but gains importance due to the effect on reliability. Leave-one-out analysis was used to identify if any studies had a greater influence on the overall results. No single study swayed the results of these pooled analyses, validating the accuracy of our results.

The strong possibility of publication bias highlights an important issue on the possible preference of authors and journals to submit and publish studies with positive findings (Gadde *et al.*, 2018). However, the large samples in many published studies suggest that publication bias would not have affected the accuracy of the effect estimates (Egger *et al.*, 1997).

As is always the case, this study has limitations arising from the source studies and the review process. The primary studies varied in their definitions of periodontitis and alcohol, creating heterogeneity. This is reflected further in the large range of prevalence estimates across the selected studies. One consequence of this methodological heterogeneity was that strict inclusion criteria for exposure and outcome could not be adopted for this review. However, the weighting of each study in meta-analysis according to its strength strengthens the results of the review. The heterogeneity also prevented analysis of a possible dose response effect between alcohol consumption and periodontitis.

Conclusion

Alcohol consumption is associated with the presence of periodontitis despite inconsistent case definitions for periodontitis and alcohol consumption. Alcohol consumption is a common risk factor for various chronic diseases and the positive association revealed in this review is in addition to the role of alcohol in oral carcinogenesis (Kumar *et al.*, 2016). Dental clinicians and public health specialists should advise their patients and the public to avoid alcohol consumption. These findings suggest that future studies are required in this area with proper sampling methods, consistent and valid definitions for periodontitis and alcohol consumption and longer follow-up. The risk of publication bias should encourage authors and journals to publish study reports with neutral or negative findings.

Conflict Of Interest

None

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