

1 **Importance of socioeconomic factors in predicting tooth loss among older adults in**
2 **Japan: Evidence from a machine learning analysis**

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1 income, manual occupations) variables. Predictors related to wide a range of
2 determinants contribute towards tooth loss among older adults. In addition to oral health
3 related and demographic factors, socioeconomic factors are important in predicting
4 future tooth loss. Understanding the behaviour of these predictors can thus be useful in
5 developing prevention strategies for tooth loss among older adults.

6 **Introduction**

7 Tooth loss can have a negative impact on older adults' quality of life, affecting function,
8 nutrition, aesthetics, as well as psychological and social well-being. The prevalence of tooth
9 loss has increased due to population aging (James et al., 2018). Tooth loss indicates an
10 individual's experience of dental disease and its treatment throughout the life-course. Therefore,
11 it is considered one of the most useful oral health indicators (Kassebaum et al., 2014).

12 A wide range of social determinants, such as socioeconomic, community-level, psychosocial,
13 behavioural, and demographic factors are associated with tooth loss (Aida et al., 2009; Silva et
14 al., 2019). However, existing prediction models of tooth loss have mainly used tooth-level
15 clinical features, as studies focused on people with oral diseases or those who sought or
16 received dental treatment (Ravidà et al., 2020; Schwendicke et al., 2018). Furthermore, there
17 are statistical limitations in such conventional multivariable models as parametric techniques
18 obviate the use of multidimensional data with complex associations, thus limiting the predictive
19 capacity of models.

20 In contrast to conventional statistical methods, machine learning based models can make
21 accurate predictions while considering a wider range of factors without strict assumptions
22 regarding the predictors and the outcome (Breiman, 2001; Bzdok et al., 2017). Machine
23 learning is an umbrella term used to describe a wide variety of models and strategies that focus

1 on algorithmic modelling (Royal Society 2017). The use of machine learning methods has
2 become popular in medical research fields such as genomics and diagnostic imaging (Sidey-
3 Gibbons and Sidey-Gibbons, 2019). Although machine learning methods are capable of
4 powerful predictions by detecting complex relationships in data, their application in
5 epidemiological and public health research has been limited (Wiemken and Kelley, 2019). This
6 could mainly be due to the perception of machine learning models as “black boxes”; that is,
7 being not straightforward in explaining how a given predictor contributed to the prediction,
8 hence not being suitable for obtaining actionable interpretations (Bi et al., 2019).

9 In a recent cross-sectional study, Elani et al. (2021) predicted tooth loss among adults (aged 20
10 years or older) in the United States using machine learning algorithms (Elani et al., 2021).
11 However, none of the previous studies have used longitudinal data to predict tooth loss among
12 older adults. Some studies have used machine learning to predict health outcomes such as
13 mobility loss, fall risk, and mortality among older adults (Speiser et al., 2020; Stenholm et al.,
14 2015). None of those studies used explainable machine learning methods to obtain
15 interpretations for their prediction models.

16 The main oral conditions that lead to tooth loss among older adults (dental caries and
17 periodontal disease) are largely preventable by community level interventions (Peres et al.,
18 2019). Therefore, understanding of the predictors related to a wide variety of determinants
19 could provide useful insights to optimise relevant prevention strategies and for policy
20 interventions. In the current study, we investigated the possibility of using machine learning
21 methods to identify the most important predictors of tooth loss, to predict the incidence of tooth
22 loss, and to understand the behaviour of those predictors.

1 **Methods**

2 **Study settings**

3 The data for this study came from the Japan Gerontological Evaluation Study (JAGES) (Kondo
4 et al., 2018). JAGES is an ongoing cohort study for over 65-year-old community-dwelling
5 older adults living in Japan. We used two waves of data: the baseline in 2010 and the follow-
6 up in 2016. In 2010, 95,827 postal survey questionnaires were randomly distributed among 16
7 municipalities and 62,418 people responded (response rate: 65.1%). In the 2016 follow-up,
8 54,529 of the baseline survey participants were successfully identified (n=7,889 were not
9 identified due to invalid information at baseline). Among them, 7,744 were ineligible to
10 participate in the 2016 survey because they were in care facilities, 6,148 had died, and 12,570
11 were lost to follow-up. Hence, a total of 28,067 baseline participants took part in the 2016
12 follow-up survey.

13 Only the respondents who were functionally independent at baseline (i.e., who could walk, take
14 a bath or use a toilet without assistance) were included in the analysis. The participants who
15 were edentate at baseline (n=2,717), had missing (n=1,558) or invalid information for the
16 number of teeth variable (n=4,231) were also excluded. As a result, the final analytical sample
17 included 19,407 individuals. The selection of the analytical sample is shown in Figure 1.

18 **Ethical approval**

19 The JAGES survey was approved by the ethics committee of the XXXX (No. XXX) and the
20 ethics committee of XXXX University (No. XXX).

21 **Outcome variable**

22 In JAGES, the number of teeth was recorded as a categorical variable (i.e. >20 teeth/10-19
23 teeth/1-9 teeth/no teeth). Transition from a higher number of teeth category at baseline to a

1 lower number of teeth category at the follow-up indicated “tooth loss”. A binary outcome
2 variable was created to indicate the tooth loss (0: no tooth loss, 1: tooth loss).

3 **Variable transformations**

4 Since low frequencies in categorical variable categories can have a negative impact on the
5 robustness of machine learning models, some categorical variables were recoded to assign less
6 frequent values to a more general category. Some variables were combined into single variables
7 to create composite variables related to certain constructs (e.g. community participation) or
8 aggregate variables of established measures (e.g. IADLs, body mass index). All variable
9 transformations are reported in Supplementary Table 1.

10 **Imputation of missing values**

11 Variables with more than 30% missing information were dropped to minimise possible bias
12 due to imputation. Remaining variables were imputed using the ‘missForest’ multivariate
13 iterative random forest (RF) imputation algorithm with five iterations and 100 estimators to
14 impute each variable (Kokla et al., 2019).

15 **Variable selection and analyses**

16 *Selection of predictors*

17 Selection of predictors for the final model was performed in two steps. First, as JAGES contains
18 a large number of variables, we manually excluded theoretically irrelevant variables for tooth
19 loss, informed by existing literature and the domain knowledge of the authors. JAGES
20 contained a large number of variables. This process resulted in a pool of 119 potential
21 predictors. Then, to further reduce the dimensionality of the data and to select only the most
22 important variables for the final model we used the random forest based Boruta feature
23 selection algorithm (Kursa and Rudnicki, 2010). The Boruta algorithm has been shown to be

1 more robust and statistically grounded compared to other feature selection methods used in
2 machine learning (Kursa, 2014).

3 The final selected predictors were age, sex (male/female), number of teeth at baseline (≥ 20
4 teeth/10-19 teeth/ < 10 teeth), denture use (yes/no), chewing difficulty (yes/no), annual
5 household income in Japanese yen (< 1 million/1 to < 1.5 million/1.5 to < 2 million/2 to < 3
6 million /3 to < 5 million/ ≥ 5 million), years of education (< 10 /10-12/ ≥ 13), occupation
7 category (manual/sales or services/clerical/managerial/specialist), smoking status (never
8 smoked/stopped ≥ 5 years ago/stopped < 5 years ago/current smoker), frequency of fruits and
9 vegetables consumption (once a week or less/2-3 times a week/4-6 times a week/ once a day/ twice
10 or more a day), time since last health check-up (within a year/within 2-3 years/ > 4 years
11 ago/never), leisure activities (yes/no), feeling useless (yes/no), and frequency of community
12 participation (never/few times a year/1-2 times a month/once a week/ $> once$ a week). Table 1
13 reports characteristics of the study population by outcome variable.

14 *Minority class oversampling*

15 In our study sample, the incidence of tooth loss was 15.5% (minority class) as opposed to
16 84.5% (majority class) for no tooth loss. This large variance between classes can lead to a poor
17 performing machine learning model due to few instances of the outcome (Wiemken and Kelley,
18 2019). Oversampling of the minority class is commonly used procedure with imbalanced data.
19 Therefore, random oversampling of the minority class was performed to obtain class balance
20 (Khaldy, 2018).

21 *Prediction model*

22 We used the extreme gradient boosting (XGBoost) classification algorithm (Chen and Guestrin,
23 2016) to model the relationships between the selected predictors and incidence of tooth loss.
24 XGBoost was selected as the main algorithm for the following reasons: 1) its superior

1 performance over logistic regression and random forest algorithms in our preliminary analysis
2 compare performance (Figure 2), 2) its ability to directly handle encoded categorical variables,
3 3) having a better compatibility with the features of the shapley additive explanations (SHAP)
4 framework. In addition, XGBoost algorithm is well-known for its high efficiency and accuracy
5 (Huang et al., 2018; Sagi and Rokach, 2018). Random forest classification models were used
6 as baseline tree-based model to compare the performance of XGBoost models.

7 *k-fold cross-validation*

8 k-Fold cross validation was to assess the performance of machine learning models, which is
9 performed by splitting data into k number of groups; each unique group is held out as test data
10 while the remaining $k-1$ groups are used as training data (Hastie et al., 2009). We nested a
11 separate k-fold hyperparameter optimisation procedure within the training data split of the
12 model evaluation procedure. 10-fold cross validation was used for model evaluation (Figure 3;
13 outer split) and 5-fold cross validation was used for nested hyperparameter optimisation
14 (Figure 3; inner split). Cross validation procedure was repeated 10 times, thus evaluating 100
15 (10x10) models to obtain mean performance scores (Table 2). Implementation of repeated
16 nested cross validation is illustrated in Figure 3. Results of all XGBoost model evaluations are
17 reported in Supplementary Table 2.

18 *Performance metrics*

19 Model performance was evaluated using accuracy score, F1 score (i.e., weighted average of
20 the precision and sensitivity obtained using the formula: $2 \text{ (precision} \times \text{sensitivity)} / (\text{precision}$
21 $+ \text{sensitivity}))$), and Area Under the Receiver Operating Characteristic Curve (ROC_AUC).

22 **Interpretability**

1 We used the SHAP framework to get insight into the behaviour of the XGBoost prediction
2 model. SHAP values can provide both local (each prediction) and global (overall) explanations
3 regarding the behaviour of predictors in predicting the outcome. This enables visualisation of
4 how a given value (of a continuous variables) or a specific group (of a categorical variable) in
5 a predictor contributes to outcome prediction. A detailed description of SHAP value
6 computation can be found in Lundberg and Lee 2017 (<https://github.com/slundberg/shap>)
7 (Lundberg and Lee, 2017).

8 **Sensitivity analyses**

9 In order to assess the sensitivity of the minority class oversampling procedure, we conducted
10 several model performance analyses using different oversampling ratios (1.0, 0.75, 0.5, none).
11 Model performances related to all oversampling ratios are reported in Table 2. All analyses
12 were conducted using Jupyter Notebook with python 3.8 kernel and Stata MP 16.1 (StataCorp
13 LLC). XGBoost version 1.3.3 and SHAP version 0.38.1 were used. The reporting of this study
14 conforms to STROBE guidelines.

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16 **Results**

17 Among 19,407 people in the analytical sample, 3,013 individuals (15.5%) reported a category
18 with fewer number of teeth in 2016 compared to the baseline (2010). Table 1 shows the
19 incidence of tooth loss for all the predictors used in the study. People who experienced
20 incidence of tooth loss were older (72.9 ± 5.2 vs 71.8 ± 4.7), and predominantly men (18.3% vs
21 13.1%). Tooth loss incidence was higher among individuals who at baseline were in the 10-19
22 teeth category, were denture wearers, reported chewing difficulties, and were in a lower
23 socioeconomic position.

1 Our feature selection algorithm selected 14 relevant predictors of tooth loss that can be
2 categorised into seven broader determinants of oral health. These were two demographic
3 predictors (age, sex), three oral health related predictors (number of teeth at baseline, denture
4 use, chewing difficulty), three socioeconomic predictors (household income, employment
5 category, years of formal education), two behavioural predictors (smoking, fruit and vegetable
6 consumption), two psychological predictors (having a hobby, feeling worthless), a predictor
7 related to community participation, and a predictor related to health service use (time since last
8 health check-up).

9 Table 2 summarises the performance of all the machine learning models evaluated in this study.
10 XGBoost models outperformed RF models in all three oversampling scenarios. However, RF
11 performed slightly better with imbalanced data. XGBoost with balanced outcome classes had
12 the best performance metrics with mean accuracy score of $90.5\% \pm 0.9\%$, F1 score of $91.0\% \pm 0.9$,
13 and ROC_AUC of $90.5\% \pm 0.9$. Model performance appeared to decline when the oversampling
14 ratio of the minority class was reduced.

15 Figure 4 visualises the behaviour of predictors within the XGBoost model in predicting tooth
16 loss, using SHAP values. Figure 4(A) shows the average magnitude of SHAP values indicating
17 the overall importance of each predictor within the model. Our model identified baseline age
18 and the number of teeth as the primary drivers of tooth loss in older adults, in accordance with
19 fundamental intuition. Figure 4(B) summarises the model behaviour for each local prediction
20 (each dot represents an individual prediction), hence revealing the direction of effects at
21 different levels of each predictor, such as, higher values of age (red) being related to higher
22 risk of tooth loss and lower values of age (blue) being related to lower risk, and mid-level
23 values of number of teeth (purple= 10-19 teeth category) being associated with higher risk of
24 tooth loss compared to the other two categories (red: 1-9 teeth, blue: ≥ 20 teeth). Figure 4(B)

1 also revealed that having a denture, belonging to the manual occupation category, having a
2 lower household income, fewer years of education, and chewing difficulties were associated
3 with a higher risk of tooth loss being predicted by the machine learning model.

4 The effect of community activities, fruit and vegetable consumption, smoking status, leisure
5 activities, and feeling worthless, was not apparent in a single dimension, as the XGBoost model
6 captures complex interactions between variables. We analysed SHAP interaction values to
7 capture some of the predictor interactions (reported in Figure 4(C) to Figure 4(G)). Figure 4(C)
8 revealed that the risk of tooth loss among number of teeth categories varied based on denture
9 use, i.e., wearing a denture while being in the ≥ 20 teeth category was associated with an
10 increased risk of tooth loss, while denture use reduced the risk of tooth loss for those in the
11 lower number of teeth categories. Figure 4(D) showed that the effect of smoking status on tooth
12 loss prediction was mainly driven by men except in the never smoked category. Similarly,
13 interaction effects between ‘participation in community activities and years of education’,
14 ‘chewing difficulty and denture use’, and ‘fruit and vegetable consumption and number of teeth’
15 are shown in Figures 4(E), 4(F), and 4(G) respectively.

16 **Discussion**

17 In this study, we explored predictors of the tooth loss among older adults over 6 years, using
18 high-dimensional epidemiological data that contained more than 100 variables. Feature
19 selection algorithm selected 14 important predictors that belonged to seven broader
20 determinants associated with tooth loss among older adults. Although the predictor selection
21 was done in a highly data driven manner, all selected predictors were theoretically associated
22 with tooth loss, but have not been studied together in the same analysis. The machine learning
23 model had over 90% accuracy score, F1 score and ROC_AUC in predicting tooth loss (Table
24 2). The SHAP value analysis provided useful insights regarding behaviour of the machine

1 learning model in predicting tooth loss. Such as, the overall importance of individual predictor,
2 direction of their effect in predicting tooth loss, and interactions between predictors (Figure 4).

3 Tooth loss at older age can be considered as an accumulative effect of life course oral health
4 conditions. Therefore, with aging the risk of tooth loss should naturally increase. Our prediction
5 model had behaved accordance with this basic intuition. Men had higher risk of tooth loss
6 compared to women. Interaction analysis suggested that the sex difference was largely affected
7 by smoking status, as the majority of the smokers were men. However, based on previous
8 Japanese studies, oral hygiene behaviours and attendance to dental care services might also
9 affect the observed sex difference in tooth loss among Japanese older adults (Cooray et al.,
10 2020; Fukai et al., 1999). In addition to non-modifiable demographic factors (age, sex) and
11 oral health condition at the baseline (number of teeth, denture use), socioeconomic factors such
12 as lower household income, manual labour occupations, and lower education increased the risk
13 of tooth loss. This highlights the importance of targeted preventive approaches for older people
14 who belong to lower socioeconomic positions. Furthermore, the predictors identified in this
15 study has shown to be associated many other health outcomes (Braveman and Gottlieb, 2014;
16 Kojima et al., 2018; Montano, 2021). Therefore, tooth loss prevention could potentially be a
17 consequence of reduced health inequalities and improved living conditions of older adults.

18 A couple of previous studies have used machine learning to predict tooth loss. Krois et al.
19 (2019) used logistic regression, recursive partitioning, random forest, and extreme gradient
20 boosting machine learning algorithms to predict tooth loss among patients with periodontitis
21 using only tooth-level variables (Krois et al., 2019). Furthermore, their study was mainly
22 focused on suggesting different validation strategies for tooth loss predictions. Elani et al.
23 (2021) used cross-sectional data to assess the performance of multiple machine learning models
24 in predicting tooth loss related outcomes using a variety of socioeconomic, self-reported dental

1 care, and general health related predictors. Although the demographics of our sample
2 population is different from the sample used in Elani et al. (adults vs older adults, the United
3 States vs Japan), socioeconomic factors such as income, education, and employment were
4 found to be important predictors of tooth loss in both studies. To the best of our knowledge,
5 the current study is the first to present an explainable machine learning model for an oral health
6 outcome in older adults using longitudinal data.

7 There are some potential limitations of our study. Tooth loss measure was based on self-
8 reported number of teeth. Although self-reported number of teeth has been validated and used
9 in many epidemiological studies (Peres et al., 2021), self-reports of number of teeth, especially
10 among older adults, could lead to random errors. However, JAGES participants reported
11 number of teeth as categories which might be less error prone compared to counting individual
12 teeth. As the number of natural teeth can change only in one direction, we identified and
13 excluded all invalid responses. On the other hand, having number of teeth only as a categorical
14 variable presented another potential limitation as we could not detect tooth loss within the same
15 categories or the exact number of teeth an individual would have lost when moving to a lower
16 category. Hence, we acknowledge that incidence of tooth loss could potentially be
17 underestimated in this study. However, we believe that the number of teeth categories measured
18 in this study represent wider variations of overall oral health and oral functions for older adults
19 (i.e.; between 1-9 teeth, 10-19 teeth, 20 or more teeth categories). Hence, it could be argued
20 that detecting tooth loss at categorical level carries more weight from a public health and policy
21 perspective.

22 The strengths of this study hinge on three aspects. First, the Boruta feature selection algorithm
23 selected a set of highly relevant predictors that represent a wide range of oral health
24 determinants. This suggests that the predictor selection procedure alone could be useful to

1 identify new predictors related to the outcome. However, we acknowledge that the predictors
2 selected by a data driven procedure might not be generalisable as the algorithm behaviour is
3 dependent on the data. Therefore, only the theoretically plausible 119 variables were used to
4 select most important predictors. Second, the XGBoost model predicted the incident tooth loss
5 with a satisfactory level of accuracy. More importantly, the model had behaved in a manner
6 that is agreeable with basic intuition and existing evidence, for example, risk of tooth loss
7 increases with age and lower socioeconomic position, and is higher among men (Buchwald et
8 al., 2013; Meisel et al., 2014). Third, the use of SHAP framework enabled visual interpretations
9 of machine learning predictions without having to use statistical jargon. In this study we
10 focused more on the interpretability as it is considered one of the main barriers to integrate
11 machine learning methods in health outcome research (Schwendicke et al., 2020).

12 Accurate prediction regarding a health outcome is useful as long as we have actionable insights
13 to prevent or achieve the intended outcome. Also, such insights must be easily communicated
14 to clinicians in clinical settings, and to policy makers, social workers, and the general public in
15 public health settings. In this study, we predicted future tooth loss among older adults using
16 epidemiological data, and were able to extract actionable interpretations from a complex
17 machine learning prediction algorithm. Hence, we believe this study has important practical
18 clinical and policy implications. Furthermore, future gerontological research should try to adapt
19 explainable machine learning methods in order to extract actionable evidence from powerful
20 prediction algorithms.

21 **Conclusions and Implications**

22 Factors related to multiple domains contribute towards the tooth loss among older adults.
23 In addition to oral health related and demographic factors, socioeconomic factors are
24 important in predicting tooth loss. Therefore, understanding of the behaviour of these

1 predictors can be useful in formulating prevention strategies for tooth loss among older
2 adults.

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5 **The authors declare no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the authorship and/or**
6 **publication.**

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15 **Figure captions:**

16 **Figure 1.** The flow of participant in the 6-year cohort to obtain the analytical sample.

17 **Figure 2.** A comparison of the preliminary performance of logistic regression, random forest
18 classification, and XGBoost classification algorithms. All categorical variables were encoded
19 with one hot encoding and standardised scaling was applied to continuous variables. Models
20 were evaluated using 10-fold cross-validation. Confidence intervals for AUC are shown in grey
21 shading.

22 **Figure 3.** A simplified illustration of repeated nested k-fold cross-validation procedure used to
23 evaluate prediction models in this study.

1 **Figure 4.** A visual explanation of predictor behaviour based on the XGBoost prediction
2 model. **A**, bar chart average global feature importance (separately for men and women) based
3 on SHAP value magnitude. **B**, each dot represents an individual prediction, dot's position on
4 the x-axis shows the impact that predictor has on the model's prediction for that individual.
5 When multiple dots land at the same x position, they pile up to show density. The colour of
6 the dot represents the level of the predictor related to that individual (ref: colour bar on the
7 right). **C**, shows the interaction effect between the number of teeth and denture use on model
8 predictions. Denture use among individuals in ≥ 20 teeth category appeared to be increasing
9 the risk of tooth loss. **D**, the interaction between smoking status and sex, indicating that
10 smoking status effect higher tooth loss risk among men (ref: A & B). **E**, the effect of years of
11 education is different for lower higher community activity categories compared to higher
12 ones. **F**, individuals with chewing difficulty and dentures showed a higher risk of tooth loss
13 and dentures posed a lower risk among no chewing difficulty individuals. **G**, shows different
14 effects of the number of teeth on different fruit & veg consumption categories.

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16 **Tables**

Table 1. Characteristics of the sample based on selected predictors and the tooth loss (N= 19,407)

<i>Characteristics</i>	Outcome (Incidence tooth loss)	
	No (n= 16,394)	Yes (n=3,013)
Age (mean±SD)	71.8±4.7	72.9±5.2
Sex		
Female	86.9%	13.1%
Male	81.7%	18.3%
Dental status		
≥ 20 teeth	88.3%	11.7%
10-19 teeth	75.9%	24.1%
<10 teeth	84.3%	15.7%
Denture use		

No	88.3%	11.7%
Yes	80.9%	19.1%
Chewing difficulty compared to 6 months ago		
No	87.8%	12.2%
Yes	80.3%	19.7%
Equivalent annual household income (yen)		
<1 million	82.2%	17.8%
1 to <1.5 million	82.0%	18.0%
1.5 to <2 million	84.8%	15.2%
2 to <3 million	85.3%	14.7%
3 to <5 million	85.3%	14.7%
>=5 million	86.2%	13.8%
Years of formal education		
<10 years	82.6%	17.4%
10-12 years	85.9%	14.1%
13 years or more	85.9%	14.1%
Longest occupation category		
Manual occupations	81.7%	18.3%
Sales/Services	84.7%	15.3%
Clerical work	87.6%	12.4%
Manager	85.2%	14.8%
Professional/Specialist	84.7%	15.3%
Smoking status		
Never smoked	86.2%	13.8%
Stopped >=5 years ago	83.7%	16.3%
Stopped <5 years ago	78.6%	21.4%
Current smoker	77.2%	22.8%
Fruits and vegetables consumption		
Once a week or less	77.8%	22.2%
2-3 times a week	81.0%	19.0%
4-6 times a week	80.4%	19.6%
Once a day	84.0%	16.0%
Twice or more a day	86.0%	14.0%
Time since the last health check-up		
within a year	85.4%	14.6%
within 2-3 years	83.7%	16.3%
> 4 years ago	83.7%	16.3%
never had	80.5%	19.5%
Engage in any leisure activities		
No	82.2%	17.8%
Yes	85.6%	14.4%
Having thoughts that you are not useful?		
No	85.34%	14.6%

Yes	81.5 %	18.5%
Participation in community groups/clubs		
Never	82.8%	17.2%
Few times a year	83.0%	17.0%
1-2 times a month	84.6%	15.4%
Once a week	86.7%	13.3%
> Once a week	86.1%	13.9%

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Table 2. Mean performance metrics and class sizes of machine learning models evaluated in this study.

Classifier	Oversampling (N-Majority = 16394)		Model performance metrics		
	Ratio (N _m /N _M)	N- minority	*Accuracy	*F1 Score	*ROC_AUC
XGBoost	1.0	16,394	90.5% (0.9%)	91.0% (0.9%)	90.5% (0.9%)
	0.75	12,295	89.2% (0.8%)	88.1% (0.9%)	89.7% (0.9%)
	0.5	8,197	88.1% (0.7%)	83.8% (0.9%)	89.2% (0.7%)
	None	3,013	73.2% (1.1%)	21.4% (1.8%)	53.0% (1.2%)
Random forest	1.0	16,394	82.7% (0.7%)	83.3% (0.7%)	82.7% (0.7%)
	0.75	12,295	81.9% (0.7%)	78.8% (0.9%)	81.4% (0.7%)
	0.5	8,197	79.9% (1.0%)	72.6% (1.1%)	79.9% (0.9%)
	None	3,013	71.6% (0.9%)	25.3% (1.9%)	55.0% (1.3%)

N-minority (N_m)= Number of people with tooth loss

N-Majority (N_M)= Number of people with no tooth loss

*mean performance values of 100 independent models evaluated using repeated nested cross-validations are reported in the table.

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