



Update on modifiable risk factors for Alzheimer's disease and related dementias

Methasit Jaisa-aad^{a,b,*}, Clara Muñoz-Castro^{a,b,c,*}
and Alberto Serrano-Pozo^{a,b,d}

Purpose of review

All human beings undergo a lifelong cumulative exposure to potentially preventable adverse factors such as toxins, infections, traumatism, and cardiovascular risk factors, collectively termed exposome. The interplay between the individual's genetics and exposome is thought to have a large impact in health outcomes such as cancer and cardiovascular disease. Likewise, a growing body of evidence is supporting the idea that preventable factors explain a sizable proportion of Alzheimer's disease and related dementia (ADRD) cases.

Recent findings

Here, we will review the most recent epidemiological, experimental preclinical, and interventional clinical studies examining some of these potentially modifiable risk factors for ADRD. We will focus on new evidence regarding cardiovascular risk factors, air pollution, viral and other infectious agents, traumatic brain injury, and hearing loss.

Summary

While greater and higher quality epidemiological and experimental evidence is needed to unequivocally confirm their causal link with ADRD and/or unravel the underlying mechanisms, these modifiable risk factors may represent a window of opportunity to reduce ADRD incidence and prevalence at the population level via health screenings, and education and health policies.

Keywords

air pollution, Alzheimer's disease, hearing loss, infection, traumatic brain injury

INTRODUCTION

Projections indicate that the current number of people living with dementia will triplicate by 2050 [38]. This increase will be mainly due to the rising life expectancy of low- and middle-income countries, however the age-standardized prevalence of dementia is predicted to remain stable in both sexes [38]. Epidemiological studies have estimated a population attributable fraction (PAF) for dementia of 30–50%, suggesting that up to half dementia cases could be prevented if those risk factors were eliminated from the population [7,69,86]. In cancer research, the term “exposome” was coined to describe the cumulative lifelong experiences and exposures that can impact disease risk [115]. An analogous concept has been proposed for dementia, comprised of exogenous (e.g., head trauma, infections) and endogenous (e.g., hypertension) exposures [36]. Here we will critically review new developments and controversies regarding some potentially modifiable risk factors of the dementia exposome, including exogenous such as air pollution, microbial agents, and traumatic brain injury,

as well as endogenous such as cardiovascular risk factors and hearing loss. We will use the broader term Alzheimer's disease and related dementias (ADRD) to account for the frequent co-occurrence of multiple brain pathologies contributing to cognitive decline and for the fact that most studies lack

^aMassachusetts General Hospital, Boston, Massachusetts, ^bHarvard Medical School, Boston, Massachusetts, ^cUniversidad de Sevilla, Sevilla, Spain and ^dMassachusetts Alzheimer's Disease Research Center, Charlestown, Massachusetts, USA

Correspondence to Alberto Serrano-Pozo, MD, PhD, MassGeneral Institute for Neurodegenerative Disease, Charlestown, MA 02129, USA. Tel: +1 617 643 0870; fax: +1 617 724 1480; e-mail: aserrano1@mgh.harvard.edu

*These two authors contributed equally to this work.

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KEY POINTS

- The wide expansion of cardiovascular risk control measures is the likely culprit of the decrease and/or stabilization of age- and sex-standardized dementia incidence over the last two decades revealed by multiple population-based longitudinal epidemiological studies in Western countries, and of the reduction in cerebrovascular disease burden observed at brain autopsy examination.
- Recent epidemiological studies have linked air pollution and hearing loss with an increased Alzheimer's disease and related dementias (ADRD) risk, whereas the epidemiological evidence of an association of both viral infections and traumatic brain injury with ADRD risk remains very controversial, likely due to methodological differences across studies.
- Preclinical studies in transgenic Alzheimer's disease (AD) mouse models do generally lend support to the idea that cardiovascular risk factors, traumatic brain injury, gut microbiome dysbiosis, exposure to certain air pollutants, and hearing loss can promote the AD pathophysiological process, whereas studies modeling a possible contribution of herpesvirus infections in these transgenic mice are discrepant.

biomarker and autopsy data to ascertain the neuropathological substrate(s) of dementia. For each risk factor, we will examine the epidemiological studies supporting the association between the exposure and ADRD risk, the experimental evidence from mouse models supporting a causal pathophysiological link and, whenever available, the results of clinical trials targeting those risk factors.

CARDIOVASCULAR RISK FACTORS

Epidemiological evidence

The importance of mid-life cardiovascular factors in the risk of developing dementia later in life is underscored by several epidemiological observations. First, cardiovascular risk factors (e.g., hypertension, obesity, and sedentarism) rank at the top of all modifiable risk factors by PAF across all ethnic-racial groups [7,14,54,61,69,76,86,99,114]. Second, population-based clinic-pathological studies have revealed that mixed AD and cerebrovascular disease is the most common pathological substrate underlying dementia in community-dwelling individuals [15]. Third, age-adjusted measures of ADRD incidence and prevalence are decreasing or stabilizing in Western countries [69,102], possibly thanks to the expansion of cardiovascular risk screening, prevention, and treatment (e.g., statins, antihypertensive, antidiabetic, and antiplatelet drugs), together

with the stricter recommendations to consider hypertension, diabetes mellitus, and hypercholesterolemia adequately controlled. Lastly, and supporting this idea, neuropathological studies have confirmed that the frequency of severe cerebrovascular disease at autopsy has dramatically decreased over the last decades [43^{***}].

Evidence from preclinical studies

A plethora of preclinical studies have shown that, besides their pro-atherosclerosis effects, hypertension and high fat diet can promote the accumulation of A β plaques and tau neurofibrillary tangles and worsen cognitive deficits in AD transgenic mouse models, whereas antihypertensive drugs, statins, and exercise improve these AD phenotypes (reviewed in [102]). The importance of exercise in preventing ADRD has been strengthened by new evidence implicating brain derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF) [24] and irisin [49,73] in the exercise-induced amelioration of the cognitive deficits observed in AD mice. Both BDNF and irisin promote hippocampal synaptic plasticity and neurogenesis, and irisin additionally reduces A β levels [49,73] through enhancing the secretion of neprilysin – one of the main A β -degrading enzymes – by astrocytes [57^{**}].

Evidence from clinical trials

This strong epidemiological and preclinical evidence supporting a synergistic effect of cardiovascular risk factors to promote ADRD has led to the design of clinical trials to test the efficacy of multidomain lifestyle interventions (i.e., targeting exercise, diet, cognitive stimulation, and vascular risk control) and cardiovascular drugs at preventing cognitive decline in elderly people at risk for dementia (Table 1). Although the Finnish FINGER trial revealed the benefits of such multidomain lifestyle interventions on cognition [83], the French MAPT trial failed to do so [4]. Moreover, a clinical trial testing the MIND diet has recently failed to slow down cognitive decline, brain atrophy, and white matter hyperintensities in participants without cognitive impairment but at risk of dementia [9^{***}]. Clinical trials with similar design to the FINGER trial are underway worldwide to shed light on these conflicting outcomes [60], including the US POINTER (NCT03688126). In the SPRINT-MIND trial, intensive blood pressure control with antihypertensive drugs (goal systolic < 120 mmHg) significantly reduced the risk of MCI and MCI/probable dementia combined diagnoses over the 5-year follow-up compared to standard control (goal systolic

Table 1. Clinical trials testing cardiovascular preventative interventions with cognition as primary outcome

Reference	Trial name	Intervention	Trial design	Participants	Primary endpoints	Secondary endpoints	Results
Ngandu T <i>et al.</i> 2015 [83]	Finnish Geriatric Intervention Study to Prevent Cognitive Impairment and Disability (FINGER) (NCT01041989)	Multidomain (591) vs. control (599) <u>Multidomain: nutritional advice (diet rich in fruits and vegetables, wholegrain cereals, low-fat milk and meat, fish > 2x/wk, limit sucrose <50 g/d, avoid butter), physical exercise program (muscle strength 1–3x/wk, cardio 2–5x/wk, balance), cognitive training (group educational/cognitive skills sessions and individual web-based computer sessions), social activities (group sessions).</u>	2-year, multicenter, randomized, double-blind, controlled	Age 60–77 y, community-dwelling, non-demented but at risk for dementia based on CAIDE score ≥ 6 and cognitive screening	Change in global cognition from baseline over 2 years	Change in cognitive domain-specific z-scores	Significantly slower cognitive decline in intervention vs. placebo groups, particularly in executive function and processing speed
Andrieu S <i>et al.</i> 2017 [4]	Multidomain Alzheimer Preventive Trial (MAPT) (NCT00672685)	<u>Control: regular health advice.</u> Multidomain + $\omega 3$ PUFA (374) vs. Multidomain + placebo (390) vs. $\omega 3$ PUFA (381) vs. placebo (380) <u>Multidomain: cognitive training (group reasoning and memory skills sessions), physical exercise (advice on walking ≥ 30 min 5x/wk and tailored home-based program), nutritional advice (based on France national guidelines).</u> <u>$\omega 3$ PUFA: 2 caps/d, each containing 400mg DHA and 112.5 mg EPA.</u>	3-year, multicenter, randomized, placebo-controlled superiority (double-blind regarding $\omega 3$ PUFA only)	Age ≥ 70 y, community-dwelling, non-demented but at risk of dementia based on spontaneous memory complaint to PCP, limitation in one ADL, or slow gait	Change in cognition from baseline over 3 years	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Change in cognitive domain-specific z-scores CDR-SOB, ADL, physical performance, frailty, and depression scales 	No difference of any intervention vs. placebo
Barnes LL <i>et al.</i> 2023 [94]	MIND Diet Intervention and Cognitive Decline (MIND) (NCT02817074)	MIND diet (301) vs. control (303) diet (both with mild caloric restriction) <u>MIND diet: increase MIND foods (e.g., skinless, not fried chicken/turkey, olive oil, green leafy and other vegetables, fish, wholegrain cereals, bread and pasta, beans/legumes, berries, nuts).</u> <u>Control diet: focus on portion control, calorie intake, behavioral strategies to lose weight, without changing diet structure.</u>	3-year, 2-center, randomized, controlled	Age ≥ 65 y, with overweight (BMI ≥ 25) and suboptimal diet (MIND-diet score ≤ 8), non-demented (MoCA ≥ 22) but with family history of dementia in 1 st degree relative	Change in global and cognitive-domain specific cognitive scores from baseline over 3 years	MRI-based brain volumes and WMH	No difference of MIND diet vs. control diet
Williamson JD <i>et al.</i> 2019 [107]; Nasrallah IM <i>et al.</i> 2019 [106] and 2021 [81]; Dolui S <i>et al.</i> 2022 [31]	Systolic Blood Pressure Intervention Trial (SPRINT-MIND) (NCT01206062)	Intensive (SBP < 120 mmHg, 4278) vs. standard (SBP < 140 mmHg, 4285) treatment with major anti-hypertensive drug classes	5-year, multicenter, randomized	Age ≥ 50 y, with hypertension and cardiovascular risk but no diabetes or history of stroke, non-demented	Rate of probable dementia diagnosis over 5 years	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Rate of MCI and combined MCI + probable dementia diagnoses over 5 years MRI-based cerebral blood flow, brain volumes, and WMH 	Significantly lower rate of MCI and combined MCI + dementia diagnoses, lower increase in WMH, and greater cerebral blood flow, but also greater total brain and hippocampal atrophy in intensive vs. standard treatment

Table 1 (Continued)

Reference	Trial name	Intervention	Trial design	Participants	Primary endpoints	Secondary endpoints	Results
Burns DK et al. 2021 [19]	Safety and efficacy of pioglitazone for the delay of cognitive impairment in people at risk of AD (TOMMORROW) (NCT01931566)	Pioglitazone 0.8 mg/d sustained release (1430) vs. placebo (1406)	3.5-year, multicenter, randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled	Age 65–83, community-dwelling, cognitively intact, at high risk of AD (based on age and APOE/TOMM40 genotype)	Time to diagnosis of MCI due to AD	Change in cognition and ADL	No difference in pioglitazone vs. placebo

The list of clinical trials is not exhaustive. Numbers in parenthesis in the intervention column indicate the number of participants in each trial arm based on the modified intention-to-treat analysis.

ADL, activities of daily living; BMI, body mass index; CAIDE, cardiovascular risk factors, aging and dementia; caps, capsules; CDR-SoB, clinical dementia rating sum of boxes; d, day; DHA, docosahexaenoic acid; EPA, eicosapentaenoic acid; MIND, Mediterranean-DASH (Dietary Approach to Stop Hypertension) intervention for Neurodegenerative Delay; MRI, magnetic resonance imaging; PUFA, polyunsaturated fatty acids; SBP, systolic blood pressure; wk, week; WMH, white matter hyperintensities.

< 140 mmHg) in nondemented individuals who had hypertension and increased cardiovascular risk, but no diabetes mellitus or stroke history [107]. Secondary analyses have shown that intensive blood pressure control increases (rather than reduces) cerebral perfusion [31] and slows down white matter damage [93^{***},106], however slightly accelerates total brain and AD-like hippocampal volume loss [81,106]. Data on plasma AD biomarkers would be very informative to determine whether this strategy has any impact on the AD pathophysiological process, but are not currently available. Conversely, in the TOMMORROW trial, low dose of the antidiabetic peroxisome proliferator receptor gamma (PPAR γ) agonist pioglitazone failed to delay the onset of MCI due to AD relative to placebo in cognitively intact individuals who were deemed to be at high risk of developing AD based on their age as well as APOE and TOMM40 genotypes [19].

BACTERIAL DYSBIOSIS

Epidemiological evidence

Both oral and intestinal bacterial dysbiosis – a dysregulation of the commensal bacterial flora – have emerged as potential risk factors for the development of dementia. Oral bacterial dysbiosis, such as that occurring in bacterial periodontitis, has been associated with AD through inflammatory mediators [91[■]], but whether this association is due to a causal link between the oral microbiome and the AD pathophysiological process or just reflecting reverse causality (i.e., poor oral health as a result of cognitive decline) remains controversial. Biomarkers offer a unique opportunity to resolve the directionality of this association; for example, a cross-sectional study found a higher oral dysbiosis index (measured as a healthy/unhealthy bacteria genome ratio via DNA sequencing) in cognitively unimpaired old individuals positive for A β (i.e., with low A β CSF levels), suggesting that oral microbial dysbiosis may precede cognitive decline and contribute to AD progression [55]. Similarly, AD has been associated with reduced diversity and altered composition of the fecal microbiome [51[■]]. Interestingly, these changes precede cognitive decline [35^{***}], cannot be explained by the changes in diet, caloric intake, and/or nutrition status observed in AD [35^{***},116], and correlate with CSF AD biomarker levels in both cognitively unimpaired individuals [35^{***}] and patients with AD dementia [116], suggesting a pathophysiological link between gut microbiome dysbiosis and AD. Longitudinal prospective studies with serial AD biomarkers in cognitively unimpaired individuals are needed to confirm

this association and unequivocally rule out reverse causality.

Evidence from preclinical studies in mouse models

Preclinical studies support the idea that gut microbiota may impact A β and pTau accumulation. For example, a decrease in A β plaque accumulation has been described in AD transgenic mice raised in germ-free vs. conventional conditions [25] or treated with an antibiotic cocktail to deplete the gut microbiome [30]. Similarly, tauopathy mice bred in germ-free conditions or treated with broad spectrum antibiotics exhibit a reduction in pTau levels and pTau-mediated neurodegeneration compared to tauopathy mice raised in conventional conditions or treated with vehicle. Of note, these effects were modulated by sex [30,100^{***}] and in the case of pTau also by the *APOE* genotype [100^{***}]. Mechanistically, these studies have implicated gut microbiome-induced changes in the peripheral immune system and/or microglial function [25,30,100^{***}, 123^{*}], possibly mediated by secreted short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs) – a major by-product of fermentation [25,100^{***},123^{*}]. However, further studies are needed to dissect the mechanisms by which the gut microbiota and their metabolites may interact with the peripheral immune system and/or microglia, and impact ADRD pathophysiology.

Evidence from clinical trials

Several randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled clinical trials have evaluated the efficacy of probiotics in patients with MCI with mixed results [5,10,122]. In addition, the safety and feasibility of oral fecal microbiota transplant is being evaluated [23].

VIRUS

Epidemiological evidence

In a revival of the viral hypothesis of AD [101], the possible implication of certain viral infections in ADRD risk is receiving increasing attention, particularly the reactivation of latent neurotropic viruses of the *Herpesviridae* family, including herpes simplex virus 1 and 2 (HSV-1/2), varicella-zoster virus (VZV), and Epstein-Barr virus (EBV). Indeed, numerous epidemiological studies in the last few years have tried to address this question but yielded conflicting results (Table 2) [8,22,45,53,66,71,79,97,98,105, 111]. Reasons for these mixed findings are likely methodological, including differences in study

design (population-based longitudinal cohort vs. electronic health records or claims data), ascertainment of viral exposure (positive IgM or IgG serology vs. ICD codes and/or medical records of antiviral treatment) and of dementia and/or AD diagnosis (ICD codes vs. expert diagnosis), and length of follow-up (a shorter follow-up is prone to reporting bias, thus overestimating the link between viral infection and dementia). Similarly, neuropathological studies examining the frequency of herpesvirus genome detection in postmortem AD vs. control brains have rendered mixed results [3,11,94,121]. The 2019 SARS-CoV2 pandemic has been associated with an increased risk of cognitive decline [68] and ADRD [110^{***},117], however it is still unclear whether these findings are due to neuroinvasive disease leading to neuropathological changes, reporting bias, or unmasking of a preexisting ADRD caused by the systemic inflammatory milieu; ongoing longitudinal cohort studies will eventually elucidate the long-term impact of SARS-CoV-2 infection on ADRD risk. Studies incorporating imaging and/or fluid biomarkers and *APOE* genotype (a potential major confounder) are much needed but scarce [66].

Evidence from preclinical studies in mouse models

Studies in AD transgenic mice have investigated whether viral agents, particularly HSV-1 and HHV-6, can induce A β plaque deposition. It has been reported that HSV-1 viral particles can interact with A β and induce A β seeding into plaques, and that A β plaques improve survival from HSV-1 encephalitis due to putative antiviral properties of the A β peptide [32]. However, other studies have shown that HSV-1 [12,13] and murine roseolovirus (MRV, the mouse homolog of HHV-6) [11] do not induce A β plaque deposition, and that the presence of A β plaques does not protect from HSV-1 neurotoxicity [12,13] or prevents MRV brain invasion [11]. It is noteworthy that, in the absence of viral infection, microglia exhibit a prominent antiviral interferon type I response in both A β and tauopathy AD transgenic mice and human AD brains due to the activation of the cGAS-STING pathway [113^{*},124^{*}]. While the cGAS-STING pathway is canonically induced by the presence of viral double-stranded DNA (dsDNA) in the cytosol, other sources of cytosolic dsDNA can be circular mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) and DNA double-strand breaks, which can leak into the cytosol from mitochondria and nucleus, respectively, due to oxidative stress-mediated damage of mitochondrial membranes and nuclear envelope [113^{*},120,124^{*}].

Table 2. Recent epidemiological studies on the association between viral infections and ADRD risk

Reference	Risk factor/exposure	Comparator group	Study design	Location	Outcome	Follow-up length (y)	HR	OR	β	95% CI
Herpes Simplex Virus (HSV)										
Linarid M <i>et al.</i> 2021 [66]	Positive serum HSV IgG	Negative serum HSV IgG	Population-based longitudinal cohort	Bordeaux, Dijon, Montpellier (Southwest France)	Incident AD (NINCDS-ADRDA)	6.8 ± 2.6	1.19	N.A.	N.A.	0.81, 1.77
Murphy MJ <i>et al.</i> 2021 [79]	Positive serum HSV1 IgG	Negative serum HSV1 IgG	Population-based longitudinal cohort	Rotterdam (The Netherlands)	Incident dementia (DSM-III-R)	9.1 ± 3.4	1.18	N.A.	N.A.	0.83, 1.68
	Serum HSV1 IgG antibody titer	N.A.			Incident AD (NINCDS-ADRDA)		1.13	N.A.	N.A.	0.77, 1.66
	Diagnosis of symptomatic HSV infection (ICD)	Controls with no HSV (or VZV) diagnosis	National insurance claim data, matched-cohort	South Korea	Global cognition (MMSE)		N.A.	N.A.	-0.12	-0.24, 0.002
Shim Y <i>et al.</i> 2022 [105]					Global cognition (MMSE)		N.A.	N.A.	-0.06	-0.11, -0.01
					Incident dementia (ICD)	Up to 10	1.18	N.A.	N.A.	1.16, 1.20
Varicella-Zoster Virus (VZV)					Incident AD (ICD)		1.121	N.A.	N.A.	1.183, 1.239
Chen YCH <i>et al.</i> 2018 [22]	Herpes zoster diagnosis (ICD)	Controls with no VZV diagnosis	National insurance claim data, matched-cohort	Taiwan	Incident dementia (ICD)	Up to 17	1.11	N.A.	N.A.	1.04, 1.17
Johannesdottir Schmidt SA <i>et al.</i> 2022 [53]	Incident herpes zoster (ICD) or antiviral treatment	No history of herpes zoster or antiviral treatment	National EHR data, matched-cohort	Denmark	Incident dementia (ICD) or antiedementia drug	6 (3–11), range 1–21	0.93	N.A.	N.A.	0.90, 0.95
	Herpes zoster with cranial nerve involvement (ICD)	No history of herpes zoster or antiviral treatment			Incident AD (ICD) or antiedementia drug		0.93	N.A.	N.A.	0.90, 0.97
	Herpes zoster with CNS involvement (ICD)	No history of herpes zoster or antiviral treatment			Incident dementia (ICD) or antiedementia drug		1.07	N.A.	N.A.	0.79, 1.45
Shim Y <i>et al.</i> 2022 [105]	Diagnosis of symptomatic VZV infection (ICD)	Controls with no VZV (or HSV) diagnosis	National insurance claim data, matched-cohort	South Korea	Incident dementia (ICD) or antiedementia drug	Up to 10	1.94	N.A.	N.A.	0.78, 4.80
					Incident dementia (ICD)		1.09	N.A.	N.A.	1.07, 1.11
					Incident AD (ICD)		1.106	N.A.	N.A.	1.081, 1.131
Epstein-Barr virus (EBV)										
Torniaainen-Holm M <i>et al.</i> 2018 [111]	Positive serum EBV IgG	Negative serum EBV IgG	National health survey	Finland	Incident dementia (ICD)	Up to 13	1.74	N.A.	N.A.	0.51, 5.92
Cytomegalovirus (CMV)										
Barnes LL <i>et al.</i> 2015 [8]	Positive serum CMV IgG	Negative serum CMV IgG	Longitudinal cohort (ROS, MAP, and MARS)	Chicago area (USA)	Incident AD (NINCDS-ADRDA)	5.0	2.41	N.A.	N.A.	1.53–3.78
Torniaainen-Holm M <i>et al.</i> 2018 [111]	Positive serum CMV IgG	Negative serum CMV IgG	National health survey	Finland	Incident dementia (ICD)	Up to 13	0.85	N.A.	N.A.	0.57, 1.27
Antiviral treatment										
Chen YCH <i>et al.</i> 2018 [22]	Antiviral drug after VZV diagnosis	Controls with no VZV diagnosis	National insurance claim data, matched-cohort	Taiwan	Incident dementia (ICD)	Up to 17	0.55	N.A.	N.A.	0.40–0.77
Hemmingson ES <i>et al.</i> 2021 [45]	Positive serum HSV1 IgG with antiviral drug treatment	Positive serum HSV1 IgG without antiviral drug treatment	Population-based, nested case-control	Umea, Sweden (Betula cohort study)	Incident AD (DSM-IV)	Up to 29	N.A.	0.287	N.A.	0.102, 0.809

Table 2 (Continued)

Reference	Risk factor/exposure	Comparator group	Study design	Location	Outcome	Follow-up length (y)	HR	OR	β	95% CI
Lopatko Lindman K <i>et al.</i> 2021 [71]	Antiviral treatment, irrespective of herpes diagnosis (ICD)	No history of antiviral treatment or herpes diagnosis (ICD)	National EHR and drug prescription data, matched-cohort	Umeå, Sweden	Incident dementia (ICD)	Up to 12	0.89	N.A.	N.A.	0.86, 0.92
	Herpes diagnosis (ICD) with antiviral treatment	No history of antiviral treatment or herpes diagnosis (ICD)					0.90	N.A.	N.A.	0.82, 0.98
	Herpes diagnosis (ICD) without antiviral treatment	No history of antiviral treatment or herpes diagnosis (ICD)					1.50	N.A.	N.A.	1.29, 1.74
	Herpes diagnosis (ICD) with antiviral treatment	Herpes diagnosis (ICD) without antiviral treatment					0.75	N.A.	N.A.	0.68–0.83
Schnier C <i>et al.</i> 2021 [98]	History of oral antiherpetic medication	No history of oral antiherpetic medication	National EHR data	Denmark	Incident dementia	7.4 (3.8–12.2) × 10 000 person-year	0.91	N.A.	N.A.	0.89, 0.93
	History of oral antiherpetic medication	No history of oral antiherpetic medication	National EHR data	Scotland	Incident dementia	2.7 (1.4–4.2) × 10 000 person-year	0.98	N.A.	N.A.	0.64, 1.49
	History of herpes treated with oral antiherpetic drugs	No history of herpes or oral antiherpetic medication	National EHR data	Wales	Incident dementia	6.7 (3.3–11.3) × 10 000 person-year	0.91	N.A.	N.A.	0.86, 0.97
	History of herpes treated with oral antiherpetic drugs	No history of herpes or oral antiherpetic medication	National EHR data	Germany	Incident dementia	8.8 (4.5–14.5) × 10 000 person-year	1.08	N.A.	N.A.	0.98, 1.20
Schnier C <i>et al.</i> 2022 [97]	VZV vaccination	Non-vaccinated without shingles	National EHR data	Wales	Incident dementia (ICD)	Up to 6	0.72	N.A.	N.A.	0.69, 0.75
					Incident AD (ICD)		0.81	N.A.	N.A.	0.77, 0.86
					Incident vascular dementia (ICD)		0.66	N.A.	N.A.	0.61, 0.71
Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV2)										
Wang L <i>et al.</i> 2022 [117]	COVID-19 infection (ICD)	Non-infection	National EHR data, matched-cohort	USA	Incident AD (ICD)	1	1.69	N.A.	N.A.	1.53, 1.72
Taqeeli M <i>et al.</i> 2022 [110]	COVID-19 infection (ICD)	Other respiratory tract infections (ICD)	International EHR data, matched-cohort	International	Incident dementia (ICD)	0.5	1.33	N.A.	N.A.	1.26, 1.41
Liu YH <i>et al.</i> 2022 [68]	Severe COVID-19 infection (WHO)	Non-infection	Longitudinal cohort	Wuhan, China	Early-onset cognitive decline (TICS40, IQCODE)	1	N.A.	4.87	N.A.	3.30, 7.20
					Late-onset cognitive decline (TICS40, IQCODE)		N.A.	7.58	N.A.	3.58, 16.03
					Progressive cognitive decline (TICS40, IQCODE)		N.A.	19.00	N.A.	9.14, 39.51

The list of studies is not exhaustive. Follow-up in years is depicted as mean ± standard or median (interquartile range), unless detailed otherwise. Hazard ratios (HR), odds ratios (OR), and β coefficients with confidence intervals (CI) are given for the statistical models adjusting for more covariates. Statistically significant associations are bold-faced. AD, Alzheimer's disease; CI, confidence interval; COVID-19, coronavirus disease 2019; DSM, diagnostic and statistical manual; EHR, electronic health records; HR, hazard ratio; HSV, herpes simplex virus; ICD, international classification of diseases; IQCODE, Informant Questionnaire of Cognitive Decline in the Elderly; MAP, Memory Aging Project; MARS, Minority Aging Research Study; MMSE, minimal state examination; N.A., not applicable; NINCDS-ADRD, National Institute of Neurological and Communicative Disorders and Stroke-Alzheimer's Disease and Related Disorders Association; OR, odds ratio; ROS, Religious Orders Study; TICS-40, Telephone Interview of Cognitive Status-40; VZV, varicella-zoster virus.

Evidence from clinical trials

Clinical trials to test whether antiviral drugs (e.g., valacyclovir) can slow down cognitive decline in patients with AD are underway and may help elucidate if there is a link between these viruses and the AD pathophysiological process (NCT03282916) [118].

TRAUMATIC BRAIN INJURY

Epidemiological evidence

Epidemiological research on the association between traumatic brain injury (TBI) and ADRD has been reignited by the delineation of chronic traumatic encephalopathy (CTE) – a neurodegenerative disease neuropathologically defined by a neuronal and astrocytic tauopathy preferentially located in perivascular areas in the depth of cortical sulci, clinically manifested with progressive cognitive decline and prominent behavioral disturbances, and typically affecting professional athletes of contact sports who sustain repetitive head impacts, both concussions and nonconcussive [56,77^{*}]. However, whether one or more TBIs in mid-life can increase the risk of late-onset ADRD remains controversial, partly due to substantial heterogeneity in study design. Overall, studies relying on a self-reported history of TBI have been inconsistent at finding an association between TBI and late-onset dementia, whereas those using medical records and/or claims data to ascertain TBI and dementia have found such association [6,26,28^{*},34,41^{*},44^{*},63,85,90,92,96,109,119] (Table 3). Similarly, cross-sectional biomarker [28^{*},119] and neuropathological [26,109] studies investigating a link between a remote history of TBI and AD pathophysiology have failed to establish such association. Longitudinal studies measuring multimodal AD biomarkers closely after a well documented TBI and serially thereafter would help answer this longstanding question.

Evidence from preclinical studies in mouse models

While there is considerable heterogeneity in both TBI paradigm (single vs. multiple repetitive mild impacts vs. blast injury) and mouse models used, multiple studies from different labs have shown a link between TBI and AD pathophysiology, specifically both A β and pTau accumulation. TBI leads to an acute increase in the amyloidogenic processing of the amyloid- β precursor protein (A β PP) and inhibition of this pathway has been reported to be neuroprotective in this scenario [64,70,112]. Additionally, TBI leads to tau hyperphosphorylation, which is not just downstream A β generation

[112], and may also promote seeding and propagation of a transmissible pTau form [39,128]. Some authors, however, have questioned the relationship between TBI and AD [80,89]. More reproducible TBI models that reflect the diversity of injury biomechanics and evaluate *APOE* genotype, age, and sex as relevant biological variables are needed to understand the link between TBI and ADRD [29^{*}].

Evidence from clinical trials

Efforts to investigate the efficacy of antitau therapies in patients with chronic traumatic encephalopathy syndrome have just begun with immunotherapy using antitau monoclonal antibodies (NCT03658135).

AIR POLLUTION

Epidemiological evidence

A number of reports have suggested that living in urban and polluted areas (e.g., close to major roads) is associated with an increased risk of ADRD [21,104]. Specifically, exposure to both nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) emissions from combustion engine vehicle emissions and pollution with particulate matter less than 2.5 μ m in diameter (PM_{2.5}) have been implicated in this association [21,40]; however, they do not fully account for it [21], suggesting one or more as-yet-unknown additional mediators. PM_{2.5} exposure has also been correlated with faster cognitive decline [40] and poorer health outcomes (i.e., higher number of hospital admissions) in people living with ADRD [104]. Conversely, a higher chronic residential exposure to green areas may reduce the risk of ADRD [2] and have positive effects on cognition [52]. Importantly, these findings could not be explained by differences in socioeconomic status, education attainment, or health comorbidities [2,21,40,52,104] (Table 4).

Evidence from preclinical studies in mouse models

There is a growing body of evidence from preclinical studies supporting a direct effect of air pollutants on AD pathophysiology. Chronic exposure to PM_{2.5} can accelerate AD phenotypes in transgenic mouse models including A β plaque deposition [95], microglial reactivity and inflammation [62], tau phosphorylation [62], and neuronal loss [62], relative to filtered air. Ozone—a pollutant that causes lung injury and asthma—has been shown to increase A β plaque burden and plaque-associated dystrophic neurites as well as impair cholinergic neurotransmission, possibly through altering

Table 3. Recent epidemiological studies on the association between TBI and AD/DR risk

Reference	Risk factor/exposure	Comparator	Study design	Location	Outcome	Follow-up length (y)	HR	OR	β	95% CI
Lee YK <i>et al.</i> 2013 [63]	Diagnosis of mild TBI (ICD)	No diagnosis of TBI	National insurance claim data	Taiwan	Incident dementia (ICD) or anticholinergic drug	Up to 5	3.26	N.A.	N.A.	2.69, 3.94
Crane PK <i>et al.</i> 2016 [26]	TBI with LOC > 1 h (self-reported)	No TBI	Longitudinal cohort (ROS-MAP)	Chicago area (USA)	Incident dementia	4.7 (2.0–8.0)	0.84	N.A.	N.A.	0.44, 1.57
Raji R <i>et al.</i> 2017 [92]	Diagnosis of moderate-severe TBI (ICD) with length of stay ≤ 1 day	Diagnosis of mild TBI (ICD) with length of stay ≥ 3 days	Population-based, longitudinal cohort (ACT study)	Seattle area (USA)	Incident AD (NINCDS-ADRDA)	6.2 (3.9–11.1)	0.82	N.A.	N.A.	0.43, 1.59
Fanni JR <i>et al.</i> 2018 [34]	Diagnosis of moderate-severe TBI (ICD)	No diagnosis of TBI	National EHR data	Finland	Incident AD (NINCDS-ADRDA)	10.0 (4.0–17.0), up to 28	1.18	N.A.	N.A.	0.77, 1.78
Nordström A and Nordström P 2018 [85]	Diagnosis of TBI (ICD)	No diagnosis of TBI	National EHR data	Denmark	Incident dementia (ICD) or anticholinergic drug	9.89 \pm 5.10	1.24	N.A.	N.A.	1.21, 1.27
Barnes DE <i>et al.</i> 2018 [6]	Diagnosis of mild TBI without LOC (ICD + CTBIE)	No diagnosis of TBI	National EHR data, matched-cohort, prospective	Sweden	Incident AD (ICD)	15.3 (range 0–49)	1.16	N.A.	N.A.	1.12, 1.22
Schneider ALC <i>et al.</i> 2021 [96]	Diagnosis of mild TBI with LOC (ICD + CTBIE)	No diagnosis of TBI	National EHR data, Veterans Health Administration, matched-cohort	USA	Prevalence AD (ICD)		N.A.	1.81	N.A.	1.75, 1.86
Plassman BL <i>et al.</i> 2022 [90]	History of TBI (self-reported + ICD)	No history of TBI	National EHR data, case-control, retrospective	USA	Incident dementia (ICD)	4.2 \pm 3.4	2.36	N.A.	N.A.	2.10, 2.66
Grasset L <i>et al.</i> 2023 [41]	History of TBI with LOC (self-reported)	No history of TBI with LOC	Community-based, longitudinal cohort (ARIC Study)	Minnesota, Maryland, North Carolina, Mississippi (USA)	Incident dementia (in-person and phone evaluation, and ICD)	25.0 (17.9–28.2)	2.51	N.A.	N.A.	2.29, 2.76
	Twins with history of TBI (self-reported)	Twins with no history of TBI	Longitudinal cohort (Duke Twins Study of Memory in Aging, male WWII veterans)	USA	Incident non-AD dementia	39.02 \pm 22.42	3.77	N.A.	N.A.	3.63, 3.91
	History of TBI with LOC (self-reported)	No history of TBI with LOC	Population-based, longitudinal cohort (3C-Dijon study)	Dijon (France)	Incident dementia (DSM-IV)	Up to 12	1.44	N.A.	N.A.	0.97, 2.14
					Incident AD (NINCDS-ADRDA)		1.23	N.A.	N.A.	0.76, 2.00
					Incident non-AD dementia		2.00	N.A.	N.A.	0.97, 4.12
					Incident dementia (DSM-IV)		0.90	N.A.	N.A.	0.60, 1.36
					Incident AD (NINCDS-ADRDA)		1.03	N.A.	N.A.	0.69, 1.52

The list of studies is not exhaustive. Follow-up in years is depicted as mean \pm standard deviation or median (interquartile range), unless detailed otherwise. Hazard ratios (HR), odds ratios (OR), and β coefficients with confidence intervals (CI) are given for the statistical models adjusting for more covariates. Statistically significant associations are bold-faced. ACT, Adult Changes in Thought study; AD, Alzheimer's disease; ARIC, Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities; CI, confidence interval; CTBIE, Comprehensive TBI Evaluation; DSM, Diagnostic and statistical manual; HR, hazard ratio; ICD, international classification of diseases; LOC, loss of consciousness; MRI, magnetic resonance imaging; N.A., not applicable; NACC, National Alzheimer's Coordinating Center; NINCDS-ADRDA, National Institute of Neurological and Communicative Disorders and Stroke - Alzheimer's Disease and Related Dementias Association; OR, odds ratio; ROS-MAP, Religious Orders Study-Memory Aging Project; TBI, traumatic brain injury.

Table 4. Recent epidemiological studies on air pollution as risk factor for AD/DR

Reference	Risk factor/Exposure	Comparator	Study design	Location	Outcome	Follow-up length (y)	HR	OR	β	95% CI
Chen H <i>et al.</i> 2017 [21]	Living <50 m from main road	Living >300 m from main road	National insurance and prescription claim data, zip codes	Ontario (Canada)	Incident dementia (ICD)	Up to 12	1.07	N.A.	N.A.	1.06, 1.08
Shi L <i>et al.</i> 2020 [104]	Distance from main road ^a Any exposure to PM _{2.5} Low exposure to PM _{2.5} (< 12 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)	N.A. N.A. N.A.	Medicare claims and US EPA air quality data	USA	Cause-specific hospital admission for AD/DR (ICD)	Up to 17	0.91 1.13^c 1.18^c	N.A. N.A. N.A.	N.A. N.A. N.A.	0.89, 0.92 1.12, 1.14 1.15, 1.21
Grande G <i>et al.</i> 2021 [40]	Low exposure to PM _{2.5} ($\leq 8.6 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) 10 years prior High exposure to PM _{2.5} ($> 8.6 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) 10 years prior	Median exposure level in the entire population Median exposure level in the entire population	Population-based, longitudinal cohort (SNACK) and air quality data	Kungsholmen, Stockholm (Sweden)	Fast cognitive decline ^b (MMSE)	Up to 10	N.A.	1.46	N.A.	1.06, 2.01
Aitken WW <i>et al.</i> 2021 [2]	Highest greenness tertile ^d	Lowest greenness tertile	Cross-sectional, Medicare claims and NYDI data	Miami-Dade County, Florida (USA)	AD diagnosis (ICD)	N.A.	N.A.	0.94	N.A.	0.88, 1.00
Jimenez MP <i>et al.</i> 2022 [52]	Higher green space exposure quintile ^d	Lower green space exposure quintile ^d	Cross-sectional, Nurses' Health Study II and NYDI data	USA	AD/DR diagnosis (ICD) Non-AD dementia diagnosis (ICD) Global cognition (Cogstate)	N.A. N.A. N.A.	N.A. N.A. N.A.	0.93 1.01	N.A. N.A.	0.88, 0.99 0.93, 1.08 0.05, 0.07

^aLog-transformed continuous distance.^bUpper quartile of decline rate in serial MMSE scores.^cPer 5 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ PM_{2.5} increment.^dMean census block level Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI).The list of studies is not exhaustive. Hazard ratios (HR), odds ratios (OR), and β coefficients with confidence intervals (CI) are given for the statistical models adjusting for more covariates. Statistically significant associations are boldfaced.AD, Alzheimer's disease; AD/DR, Alzheimer's disease and related dementias; CI, confidence interval; EPA, Environmental Protection Agency; HR, hazard ratio; ICD, international classification of diseases; MMSE, minimal state examination; N.A., not applicable; NYDI, Normalized Difference Vegetation Index; OR, odds ratio; PM_{2.5}, particulate matter less than 2.5 μm in diameter; SNACK, Swedish National study on Aging and Care in Kungsholmen.

microglial response to plaques via cross-talk with the peripheral immune system [42]. NO₂ inhalation has been shown to accelerate Aβ plaque deposition and impair cognition [125], whereas carbon monoxide (CO) inhalation actually reduces Aβ generation and improves cognitive deficits in transgenic AD mice [58]. More experimental studies are needed to dissect the effect of each pollutant on cognition and on each AD neuropathological feature.

HEARING LOSS

Epidemiological evidence

Presbycusis (a.k.a. age-related sensorineural hearing loss) affects 40% of people above 65 years old [37]. Together with cardiovascular risk factors, hearing loss is one of the top modifiable risk factors for dementia, with PAF estimations across multiple ethno-racial groups and countries ranging from 5 to 17% [7,14,54,61,69,76,86,99,114]. Numerous epidemiological studies in the last 3 years have evaluated the effect of hearing loss on dementia risk and the impact of hearing aids usage, with considerable heterogeneity in the methodology of hearing loss ascertainment (i.e., self-reported vs. informant-reported vs. audiometry test-based) (Table 5) [17, 18,20,46–48,74,82,108]. Overall, studies relying on self or proxy reports have shown an association with an increased incidence of MCI and/or dementia as well as faster rate of cognitive decline. However, reverse causality may have confounded some of these studies since memory loss is often initially masqueraded as hearing loss and hearing impairment can affect the performance on cognitive testing. Regarding ascertainment of hearing impairment by audiometry, speech-in-noise hearing impairment [108] may be a better predictor of incident dementia than impaired pure-tone average hearing level [74] by revealing an alteration in central auditory processing. However, a recent meta-analysis of pure-tone audiometry longitudinal studies did find a significant association between age-related hearing loss and an incident dementia diagnosis as well as the rate of decline in multiple cognitive domains, but not with a diagnosis of AD or vascular dementia [72]. Moreover, another meta-analysis has also found that the usage of hearing aids and/or cochlear implants can reduce the long-term risk of any cognitive decline by 19%, relative to uncorrected hearing loss [126^{***}]. Interestingly, older nondemented adults with hearing loss exhibit lower glucose metabolism in the auditory pathway [127] and reduced white matter microstructure integrity specifically in the temporal lobe [27], suggesting deleterious central effects. Also, noteworthy, dual

(visual and hearing) sensory impairment has an additive effect on rate of cognitive decline and ADRD risk over single sensory impairment (visual or hearing) [47,20,48,46].

Evidence from preclinical studies in mouse models

Several lines of preclinical evidence support a link between hearing loss and the AD pathophysiological process. First, several studies using various neurophysiological assessments have reported increased age-related hearing deficits in several AD mouse models, involving both peripheral (including cochlear hair cell loss) and central mechanisms [50,67,78,87]. Second, hearing impairment in AD transgenic mice, modeled either by chronic noise exposure [88] or by chronic perforation of the tympanic membrane (conductive) [59], accelerates cognitive deficits in these mice, likely through enhancing synaptic loss and dysfunction [88]. Third, a mouse model of sensorineural hearing impairment based on treatment with high doses of the ototoxic drugs kanamycin and furosemide exhibits hippocampal AD-like phenotypes such as increased hyperphosphorylated tau, neuronal loss, reduced neurogenesis, and memory deficits [103]. Last, auditory stimulation at 40 Hz has been shown to ameliorate Aβ plaque burden and tau phosphorylation and seeding in the auditory cortex and hippocampus of AD transgenic mice, possibly through effects in blood vessels and microglia [75].

Evidence from clinical trials

In a randomized clinical trial comparing the effect of hearing aids vs. a health education control intervention on the rate of cognitive decline over 3 years in individuals with audiometry-proven hearing loss but no substantial cognitive impairment, those at high risk of dementia wearing hearing aids exhibited a 48% slower cognitive decline than those in the control intervention, suggesting that hearing aids may help prevent dementia or delay dementia onset [65^{***}]. On the other hand, a smaller and shorter clinical trial in individuals with audiometry-proven hearing loss and mild-to-moderate AD dementia failed to slow down cognitive decline, mitigate neuropsychiatric manifestations, or improve quality of life over the 6-month duration of the trial, suggesting little clinical benefit of hearing loss treatment at the dementia stage [1,84]. Interpretation of these clinical trials should be cautious, however, because unmasking of the hearing aids intervention may have been suboptimal [16] and performance on cognitive testing partly relies on auditory function.

Table 5. Recent epidemiological studies on hearing loss as risk factor for ADRD

Reference	Risk factor/Exposure	Comparator	Study design	Location	Outcome	Follow-up length (y)	HR	OR	β	95% CI
Hwang PH et al. 2020 [47]	Hearing loss (self-reported)	No hearing loss (self-reported)	Population-based clinical trial cohort (GEM)	USA	Incident all-cause dementia (DSM-IV)	Up to 8 years	1.20	N.A.	N.A.	0.88, 1.63
Byeon G et al. 2021 [20]	Hearing loss (self-reported)	Normal hearing (self-reported)	Population-based longitudinal cohort (KIOSCAD)	South Korea	Incident AD (NINCDS-ADRDA) Incident VaD (ADDTIC)	Up to 8 years	1.31	N.A.	N.A.	0.92, 1.89
Buchholz M et al. 2021 [18]	MCI with hearing loss using aids (informant-reported)	Normal hearing (self-reported)	Population-based longitudinal cohort (KIOSCAD)	South Korea	Prevalent dementia (DSM-IV)	Up to 6	N.A.	1.15	N.A.	0.35, 3.79
Nedelec T et al. 2022 [82]	MCI with hearing loss using aids (informant-reported)	MCI with hearing loss not using aids (informant-reported)	Longitudinal retrospective cohort (NACC)	USA (ADRCs)	Incident dementia (DSM-IV)	Up to 6	0.93	N.A.	N.A.	0.26, 3.30
Stevenson JS et al. 2022 [108]	Dementia with hearing loss using aids (informant-reported)	Dementia with hearing loss not using aids (informant-reported)	Longitudinal retrospective cohort study (NACC)	USA (ADRCs)	Cognitive decline (change in Korean CERAD total score)	Up to 6	N.A.	N.A.	-0.38	-1.01, 0.26
Nedelec T et al. 2022 [82]	Hearing loss (ICD code)	No hearing loss (ICD code)	National EHR data	France	Incident dementia (ICD code)	Up to 10	N.A.	1.51	N.A.	1.01, 2.26
Stevenson JS et al. 2022 [108]	Insufficient speech-in-noise hearing (audiometry)	Normal speech-in-noise hearing (audiometry)	National EHR data	UK	Incident AD (ICD code)	Up to 10	N.A.	1.19	N.A.	1.04, 1.36
Buchholz M et al. 2022 [17]	Poor speech-in-noise hearing (audiometry)	Normal speech-in-noise hearing (audiometry)	National EHR data	UK	Incident dementia (ICD code)	Median 10.1	1.61	N.A.	N.A.	1.41, 1.84
Buchholz M et al. 2022 [17]	Normal cognition with hearing loss (self-reported)	Normal cognition with no hearing loss (self-reported)	Longitudinal retrospective cohort (NACC)	USA (ADRCs)	Incident MCI (Peterson)	4.0±2.8	2.58	N.A.	N.A.	1.73, 3.84
Hwang PH et al. 2022 [48]	Normal cognition with hearing loss using aids (self-reported)	Normal cognition with hearing loss not using aids (self-reported)	Longitudinal retrospective cohort (NACC)	USA (ADRCs)	Incident MCI (Peterson)	4.0±2.8	0.47	N.A.	N.A.	0.29, 0.74
Hwang PH et al. 2022 [48]	Normal cognition with hearing loss using aids (self-reported)	Normal cognition with no hearing loss (self-reported)	Longitudinal retrospective cohort (NACC)	USA (ADRCs)	Incident MCI (Peterson)	4.0±2.8	0.86	N.A.	N.A.	0.56, 1.34
Marmelli JP et al. 2022 [74]	Hearing loss (audiometry pure-tone threshold)	N.A.	Population-based longitudinal study (CHSCS)	USA	Incident all-cause dementia (DSM-IV)	Up to 10	1.53	N.A.	N.A.	1.20, 1.97
Marmelli JP et al. 2022 [74]	Hearing loss (informant-reported)	No hearing loss (informant-reported)	Population based longitudinal cohort (Olmsted County, Minnesota [USA])	USA	Incident AD (NINCDS-ADRDA) Incident VaD (ADDTIC)	Up to 10	1.54	N.A.	N.A.	1.09, 2.18
Huang AR et al. 2023 [46]	Hearing loss (self-reported)	No hearing loss (self-reported)	Longitudinal population-based, Medicare beneficiaries (NHATS)	USA	Incident dementia (Change in 10-word list immediate recall)	Up to 8	1.66	N.A.	N.A.	1.16, 2.38
Huang AR et al. 2023 [46]	Hearing loss (self-reported)	No hearing loss (self-reported)	Longitudinal population-based, Medicare beneficiaries (NHATS)	USA	Incident dementia (Change in 10-word list delayed recall)	Up to 8	N.A.	N.A.	-0.27	-0.44, -0.10
Huang AR et al. 2023 [46]	Hearing loss (self-reported)	No hearing loss (self-reported)	Longitudinal population-based, Medicare beneficiaries (NHATS)	USA	Incident dementia (Change to fair/poor self-reported memory)	Up to 8	N.A.	N.A.	0.88	0.71, 1.10

*per 10 dB hearing level increase in pure-tone average in the audiometry test (treated as a continuous variable). The list of studies is not exhaustive. Follow-up in years is depicted as mean ± standard deviation or median, unless stated otherwise. Hazard ratios (HR), odds ratios (OR), and β coefficients with confidence intervals (CI) are given for the statistical models adjusting for more covariates. Statistically significant associations are bold-faced.
AD, Alzheimer's disease; ADDTC, State of California Alzheimer's Disease Diagnostic and Treatment Centers; ADRCs, Alzheimer's Disease Research Centers; CHSCS, Cardiovascular Health Study - Cognition Study; CI, confidence interval; DSM-IV, Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, version IV; EHR, electronic health records; GEM, Gingko Evaluation of Memory Study; HR, hazard ratio; ICD, International Classification of Diseases; KIOSCAD, Korean Longitudinal Study of Cognitive Aging and Dementia; MCI, mild cognitive impairment; N.A., not applicable; NACC, National Alzheimer's Coordinating Center; NHATS, National Health and Aging Trends Study; NINCDS-ADRDA, National Institute of Neurological and Communicative Disorders and Stroke - Alzheimer's Disease and Related Disorders Association; OR, odds ratio; VaD, vascular dementia.

Larger and longer clinical trials with adequate masking of hearing therapy are needed to confirm the clinical benefit of this intervention on cognitively unimpaired individuals with hearing loss and at risk of dementia.

CONCLUSION

We are entering an exciting new era in which epidemiology, genetics, biomarkers, and basic science have the potential to expand our understanding of the complex genetic-environmental interactions explaining ADRD risk [33]. Eventually, it may be possible to develop a robust exposome risk score (ERS) to be used in combination with a polygenic risk score (PRS) to improve the accuracy of ADRD risk prediction at the individual level [115]. Meanwhile, the modifiable risk factors comprising the dementia exposome could represent a window of opportunity to reduce ADRD incidence and prevalence at the population level via health screenings, and education and health policies.

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Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts of interest.

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