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Biopsychosocial Pathways Linking Depression and Oral Health: A Literature Review

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Abstract

Background: Despite their high global prevalence, depression and oral diseases are rarely addressed within a unified clinical framework. Recent evidence highlights a bidirectional relationship with overlapping biological and behavioral underpinnings.

Aim: This review consolidates current knowledge on the mutual influence of depression and oral health and explores the underlying mechanisms.

Methods: A structured search of PubMed/MEDLINE, EMBASE, PsycINFO, and the Cochrane Library identified systematic reviews, meta-analyses, observational, and mechanistic studies published between 2016 and 2025.

Results: Depression is consistently linked to caries, periodontitis, tooth loss, and xerostomia, while periodontal inflammation may contribute to depressive symptomatology. Underlying mechanisms span neuroendocrine, immune, microbial, behavioral, pharmacological, and psychosocial domains.

Conclusions: Recognizing depression and oral disease as mutually reinforcing conditions supports the case for integrated, interdisciplinary care models that incorporate routine cross-screening.

Keywords: *Depressive Disorder, Major; Periodontal Diseases; Oral Health; Neuroinflammation; Integrated Care*

Introduction

Major depressive disorder (MDD) and oral diseases rank among the most prevalent health burdens globally, yet their clinical interconnection remains insufficiently recognized in practice. MDD, projected to rank as the second leading cause of disability worldwide, affects millions of individuals and frequently coexists with poor oral health outcomes [1,4](#). Accumulating evidence indicates that this relationship is bidirectional and mechanistically complex, involving biological, behavioural, and psychosocial pathways. [5,6](#).

Epidemiological studies consistently demonstrate significant associations between depression and multiple oral health conditions

[1,3,4](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/33103263)[(https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/33103263)]. Meta-analytic evidence indicates that depression is associated with increased odds of dental caries, tooth loss, and edentulism, while periodontal disease predicts the development of depression [1,7](#). Additional meta-analytic data confirm that periodontal disease is positively associated with both depression and anxiety [3](#). The magnitude of these associations intensifies with increasing severity of both conditions, and a dose-response relationship exists between the number of oral health conditions and depression severity [1,8](#).

A recent scoping review of 165 longitudinal studies identified 35 independent associations between oral exposures and mental disorder outcomes, with depression linked bidirectionally to temporomandibular disorders (TMD) and periodontitis [6](#). Longitudinal data from nationally representative cohorts demonstrate that internalizing problems predict bleeding gums and tooth extraction at two-year follow-up [9](#). Data from the Azar cohort study demonstrate that individuals with depression, particularly those not receiving antidepressant medication, have a significantly higher prevalence of untreated decayed teeth compared to non-depressed individuals [10](#).

Understanding the mechanisms underlying this bidirectional relationship requires a comprehensive biopsychosocial framework that integrates neuroendocrine dysregulation, systemic inflammation, behavioral factors, pharmacological effects, and psychosocial consequences [3,5,11](#)[(https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/35153869)]. This review synthesizes current evidence on these interconnected pathways and discusses implications for integrated clinical care.

Research materials and methods

This literature review synthesizes current evidence on the bidirectional relationship between depression and oral health. The review integrates findings across biological, behavioral, pharmacological, and psychosocial domains to provide a comprehensive biopsychosocial perspective on this relationship [12-15](#)[(https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/21800117)].

Search Strategy

A comprehensive literature search was conducted across four major electronic databases: PubMed/MEDLINE, EMBASE, PsycINFO, and the Cochrane Library. The search was performed using a combination of Medical Subject Headings (MeSH) terms and free-text keywords. The primary MeSH terms included: "Depressive Disorder, Major", "Periodontal Diseases", "Dental Caries", "Oral Health", "Inflammation", "Xerostomia", "Antidepressive Agents", and "Delivery of Health Care, Integrated".

Free-text keywords included: "depression," "oral health," "periodontitis," "dental caries," "HPA axis," "cortisol," "neuroinflammation," "blood-brain barrier," "oral microbiome," "xerostomia," "dry mouth," "antidepressants," "SSRIs," "tricyclic antidepressants," "oral health-related quality of life," "integrated care," and "biopsychosocial." Boolean operators (AND, OR) were used to combine search terms across thematic domains.

Eligibility Criteria

Studies were included if they met the following criteria:

1. published in English;
2. published primarily between 2016 and 2025, with seminal earlier works included where relevant;
3. addressed the relationship between depression or depressive symptoms and oral health outcomes (dental caries, periodontal disease, tooth loss, edentulism, xerostomia, or oral health-related quality of life);
4. were systematic reviews, meta-analyses, randomized controlled trials, cohort studies, cross-sectional studies with adequate sample sizes, preclinical mechanistic studies, or qualitative studies on integrated care models.

Studies were excluded if they:

1. were case reports or case series with fewer than 10 participants;
2. were published in languages other than English without available translation;
3. focused exclusively on psychiatric conditions other than depression (e.g., schizophrenia, bipolar disorder) without relevance to depressive symptomatology;
4. lacked sufficient methodological detail to assess study quality.

Study Selection and Data Extraction

Titles and abstracts were screened for relevance to the five thematic domains of the review:

1. biological pathways (neuroendocrine and inflammatory mechanisms);
2. behavioral mechanisms (oral hygiene, diet, healthcare-seeking);
3. pharmacological factors (antidepressant-induced oral side effects);
4. psychosocial impact (bidirectional relationship, quality of life);

5. clinical implications (integrated care models, interventions).

Full texts of potentially relevant articles were retrieved and assessed for inclusion. Reference lists of included systematic reviews and meta-analyses were hand-searched to identify additional relevant studies. Data were extracted focusing on study design, population characteristics, key findings, effect sizes (where reported), and clinical implications. Priority was given to systematic reviews and meta-analyses as the highest level of evidence, followed by randomized controlled trials, prospective cohort studies, cross-sectional studies, preclinical studies, and qualitative research [14,15](#).

Quality Assessment

The quality of included systematic reviews and meta-analyses was assessed based on adherence to the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) guidelines [14](#). For observational studies, the Newcastle-Ottawa Scale (NOS) criteria were considered as reported by the original authors [3,16](#). For qualitative studies, methodological rigor was assessed based on transparency of methods, sampling strategy, and analytical approach [15](#). No formal critical appraisal scoring was applied. Quality considerations were integrated into the evidence synthesis, with priority given to systematic reviews and meta-analyses as higher-level evidence [12,13](#).

Evidence Synthesis

Findings were synthesized thematically across the five domains described above. Where multiple meta-analyses addressed the same association, results were compared and any discrepancies noted. The strength and direction of associations were summarized qualitatively, with statistical measures reported where they added clarity. Evidence gaps and limitations were identified within each thematic domain and consolidated in a dedicated section.

Research Results

Epidemiological Associations Between Depression and Oral Health

Meta-analytic evidence demonstrates consistent associations between depression and adverse oral health outcomes [1,3,4](#). Depression is associated with increased odds of dental caries, tooth loss, and edentulism [1](#). Conversely, periodontal disease predicts the development of depression [1,7](#). People with severe mental illness have nearly three times the odds of having lost all their teeth compared to the general community, and those with depression have between 1.17 and 1.32 times the odds [2](#).

The relationship between periodontal disease and emotional disorders is supported by multiple meta-analyses [3,16](#). Subjects with periodontal disease demonstrate higher depression scale scores and anxiety scale scores compared to periodontally healthy controls [3](#). However, one recent meta-analysis found no significant increased risk of depression among subjects with periodontal disease when analyzing pooled estimates from longitudinal studies, highlighting the need for cautious interpretation [17](#).

A dose-response relationship exists between oral health burden and depression severity [1,8](#). Individuals experiencing multiple concurrent oral health conditions demonstrate progressively higher odds of depression [8](#). Individuals with moderately severe to severe depressive symptoms demonstrate substantially higher odds of experiencing oral health problems that interfere with daily functioning, including difficulty obtaining needed dental care and job-related impairment due to oral pain [18](#).

Biological Pathways

HPA Axis Dysregulation and Cortisol

Salivary cortisol levels are significantly elevated in patients with periodontitis, with the highest concentrations observed in individuals experiencing concurrent psychological stress [19,20](#). The cortisol/dehydroepiandrosterone (DHEA) ratio, an indicator of chronic stress burden, demonstrates strong associations with periodontal disease severity [19](#). Cortisol levels increase with periodontal disease severity, being highest in the periodontitis group compared to gingivitis and healthy controls, and chromogranin A levels follow a similar pattern. Recent evidence demonstrates strong correlations between *Porphyromonas gingivalis* levels and salivary stress markers including lactoferrin, cortisol, and DHEA [19,21](#).

Cortisol and catecholamines possess immunomodulatory properties that can alter periodontal bacterial growth patterns and enhance the expression of virulence factors in periodontal pathogens [22,23](#). Psychosocial stress may contribute to a proinflammatory immunity that is implicated in periodontal disease pathobiology [23](#). However, prospective observational studies and Mendelian randomization (MR) analyses show mixed results regarding the causal role of cortisol in periodontitis pathology [24](#).

Nonsurgical periodontal treatment reduces gingival crevicular fluid cortisol levels in patients with chronic periodontitis, suggesting that periodontal inflammation contributes to local stress hormone elevation [25](#).

Systemic Inflammation and Neuroinflammation

Preclinical models combining experimental periodontitis with chronic mild stress demonstrate region-specific neuroinflammatory responses in the frontal cortex and hippocampus [26,27,28](#). These regions exhibit increased expression of pro-inflammatory mediators in combined periodontitis-depression models, accompanied by microglial activation and morphological changes [26,28](#). These microglial alterations include increased complexity and heterogeneity of parenchymal microglia, along with elevated expression of inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS), a marker of pro-inflammatory microglial phenotype [28](#).

In preclinical models, bacterial lipopolysaccharide (LPS) from periodontal pathogens such as *Porphyromonas gingivalis* and *Fusobacterium nucleatum* enters systemic circulation and can be transported to the brain via apolipoprotein A1 (APOA1)-mediated mechanisms [26](#). Notably, *F. nucleatum* has been detected in brain parenchyma in preclinical models, suggesting direct bacterial translocation as an additional pathway [26](#).

Treatment of periodontitis reduces systemic inflammatory markers. Meta-analyses confirm reductions of high-sensitivity C-reactive protein (hs-CRP), interleukin-6 (IL-6), and plasma glucose after periodontal treatment [29,30](#). Intensive nonsurgical periodontal therapy (NSPT) leads to significantly greater reductions in tumor necrosis factor-alpha (TNF- α), IL-6, and hs-CRP compared to standard therapy [31](#). These findings support a causal association between periodontitis and systemic inflammation and suggest that periodontal treatment may attenuate the inflammatory pathways linking oral disease to depression [29,30](#).

Blood-Brain Barrier Disruption

In combined periodontitis-depression models, blood-brain barrier (BBB) integrity is significantly compromised, as evidenced by decreased expression of tight junction proteins including zonula occludens-1 (ZO-1) and occludin, alongside increased expression of adhesion molecules (intercellular adhesion molecule-1 (ICAM-1), vascular cell adhesion molecule-1 (VCAM-1), and matrix metalloproteinase 9 (MMP9) [27](#). This BBB disruption facilitates the entry of peripheral inflammatory mediators and potentially periodontal pathogens into the central nervous system (CNS), amplifying neuroinflammatory responses [27](#).

Neuroplasticity and Neurotransmitter Alterations

Preclinical studies demonstrate decreased levels of brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF) and synaptophysin in combined periodontitis-depression models. The proBDNF/mature BDNF (mBDNF) ratio becomes imbalanced, contributing to depressive-like

behavior [28](#). Intracellular signaling pathways critical for neuroplasticity, including phosphatidylinositol-3-kinase (PI3K)/protein kinase B (Akt) and mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR), show reduced activity [28](#).

Endocannabinoid signaling is also disrupted, with decreased expression of endocannabinoid metabolic enzymes (N-acyl phosphatidylethanolamine-specific phospholipase D (NAPE-PLD), diacylglycerol lipase (DAGL), monoacylglycerol lipase (MAGL)) and cannabinoid receptor 1 (CB1), along with downstream signaling molecules (PI3K, Akt, extracellular signal-regulated kinase 1/2 (ERK1/2)) [28](#).

The Oral Microbiome-Brain Axis

Studies examining the salivary microbiome in individuals with depression demonstrate subtle but significant differences in alpha and beta diversity compared to healthy controls. A total of 21 bacterial taxa have been found to be differentially abundant in depressed cohorts, including increased *Neisseria* spp. and *Prevotella nigrescens* [32](#).

Large-scale population-based studies confirm that mental and periodontal health variables influence the overall composition of the oral microbiome [33](#). Posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) symptoms correlate with altered abundance of specific bacterial species, and functional prediction analysis reveals a potential role for tryptophan metabolism/degradation in the oral-brain axis, confirmed by lower plasma serotonin levels across symptomatic groups [33](#). Oral microbiota dysbiosis may contribute to depression through immune, inflammatory, and neuroactive pathways [34,35](#). Preclinical evidence demonstrates that oral microbiota dysbiosis alters chronic restraint stress-induced depression-like behaviors by modulating host metabolism [36](#).

Behavioral Mechanisms

Oral Hygiene and Self-Care

Reduced toothbrushing frequency serves as a significant mediator of the systemic determinants of relationship between depressive symptoms and dental caries [1,4](#). Anhedonia directly undermines motivation for self-care behaviors, while psychomotor retardation reduces the physical capacity to perform routine oral care tasks [4](#). Qualitative research reveals that oral care is often among the first self-care activities to be neglected in individuals with depression [4,37](#). Depression is frequently associated with disinterest in performing appropriate oral hygiene techniques, cariogenic diet, and diminished salivary flow [2,4](#).

Dietary Patterns

High sugar intake, associated with depressive symptoms, represents both a coping mechanism and a consequence of altered reward processing in depression. Individuals with depression may consume more processed foods high in refined carbohydrates while reducing intake of nutrient-dense foods, creating a dietary pattern that promotes both systemic inflammation and dental caries [1,4](#).

Healthcare-Seeking Behaviors

Individuals with moderately severe to severe depressive symptoms are substantially less likely to obtain needed oral health care despite experiencing greater oral health needs [[\]\(https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/41201412\)](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/41201412)[9,18](#) [[\]\(https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/37246825\)](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/37246825)). Dental phobia and anxiety, which frequently co-occur with depression, create additional barriers to accessing dental care [4,38](#). The combination of depression and dental anxiety can result in avoidance of dental services until oral health problems become severe [4](#).

Pharmacological Factors

Xerostomia Prevalence and Risk

Xerostomia (dry mouth) is reported in 91% of psychotropic medications across all classes [39](#). Serotonin-norepinephrine reuptake inhibitors (SNRIs) are associated with a significantly greater risk of dry mouth compared to selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) [40](#). Tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) demonstrate the highest risk of dry mouth [39,40](#). Network meta-analyses reveal that duloxetine, levomilnacipran, and vilazodine carry higher risk of inducing dry mouth, whereas trazodone, amitriptyline, agomelatine, and mirtazapine tend to be better tolerated [40](#).

Mechanisms of Salivary Dysfunction

TCAs exert antimuscarinic effects at the glandular level, directly inhibiting methacholine-evoked salivary secretion. In contrast, SSRIs and SNRIs primarily affect salivary secretion through central inhibition of the salivary reflex, reducing citric acid-evoked secretion by 40--60% without direct antimuscarinic effects at salivary glands [41](#). While all three antidepressant types inhibit reflex-evoked secretion, only TCAs inhibit methacholine-evoked secretion, whereas SSRIs and SNRIs actually increase methacholine-evoked secretion, particularly salivary protein output.[41](#)

Specific Antidepressant Profiles and Oral Consequences

Among commonly prescribed antidepressants, fluoxetine demonstrates relatively lower prevalence of dry mouth compared to other agents [42](#). Sertraline is associated with higher oral side effects and should be avoided when oral health is a primary concern [39](#). Dysgeusia (taste disturbance) affects approximately 65% of antidepressants [39,42](#). Systematic reviews demonstrate consistent associations between antidepressant use and increased risk of dental caries and periodontal disease [39](#). SSRIs have been linked with higher implant failure, potentially through their anabolic effect on bone, reducing turnover [2](#).

Psychosocial Impact

Oral Health as a Predictor of Depression

Beyond cross-sectional associations, longitudinal evidence demonstrates that periodontal disease and edentulism predict incident depression [1,7](#). A recent scoping review identified that depressive and anxiety disorders were linked bidirectionally with TMD and eating disorders [6](#). The dose-response relationship between oral health burden and depression severity provides additional evidence for causality [1](#).

Functional and Aesthetic Mediators

Mediation analyses reveal that difficulty chewing accounts for approximately one-fifth of the relationship between tooth loss and depression, with difficulty speaking and problems with smiling also contributing substantially [1](#). Oral health-related quality of life (OHRQoL) demonstrates moderate positive correlations with both depression and anxiety, and poorer OHRQoL significantly predicts incident depression [1,43,44](#).

Genetic Evidence

Mendelian randomization studies demonstrate associations between mouth ulcers and both MDD and bipolar disorder (BIP), as well as between MDD and periodontitis [45](#). However, socioeconomic status represents an important confounding factor, with poverty explaining the majority of the observed association between depression and periodontitis [46](#).

Barriers and Facilitators to Integrated Care

Qualitative research has identified key barriers for maintaining oral health among individuals with severe mental illness, including impact of mental ill-health, lack of patient involvement and tailored approach, and accessibility and availability of dental services. The

main facilitators identified include service providers' effective communication skills and further support through the involvement of carers [37](#).

From multiple perspectives (patients, psychiatrists, dentists), barriers include access to dental care, fear of dental care, characteristics of mental illness, lack of oral health screening by psychiatrists, lack of education and training, stigma of mental illness, and lack of communication. Facilitators are linked to the need for education and training, financial support, dentists' chairside manner, community support, and interprofessional communication [38](#).

Four types of oral health interventions in mental health have been identified:

I. educational interventions;

II. (II) physical interventions;

III. (III) interventions combining behavioral and educational elements; and

IV. (IV) interventions combining educational and physical elements.

Studies demonstrate positive effects on oral health knowledge, oral health behavior, and physical oral health outcomes in different diagnostic patient groups [47](#).

Learning collaboratives have demonstrated that virtual interprofessional education is an accessible and productive avenue to improve interprofessional education and achieve practical progress in integrated care [48](#). Sites participating in such collaboratives displayed improvement in the percentages of patients screened and referred [48](#).

Discussion

Synthesis of Biological Evidence

The biological pathways linking depression and periodontal disease converge on a shared inflammatory substrate [\]\(https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30072865\)](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30072865)[5,11](#). The hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis and the sympathetic-adrenal-medullary (SAM) system represent the primary neuroendocrine pathways through which chronic stress, a hallmark of depression, influences periodontal disease susceptibility [22,23](#). Activation of these systems triggers sustained cortisol elevation, which possesses immunomodulatory properties that alter periodontal bacterial growth patterns and enhance virulence factor expression [22](#). The "cytokine hypothesis" of depression posits that peripheral inflammation, including that originating from periodontitis, increases CNS pro-inflammatory cytokines (TNF- α , interleukin-1 beta (IL-1 β), nuclear factor kappa B (NF- κ B)), thereby contributing to depressive symptomatology [\]\(https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30072865\)](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30072865)[5,11](#).

The preclinical evidence demonstrating BBB disruption, microglial activation, and neuroplasticity alterations in combined periodontitis-depression models provides mechanistic plausibility for the epidemiological associations observed [26,27,28](#). The detection of *F. nucleatum* in brain parenchyma suggests that direct bacterial translocation may represent an additional pathway beyond cytokine-mediated neuroinflammation [26](#). The emerging evidence on the oral microbiome-brain axis adds a further dimension, with oral microbiota dysbiosis potentially contributing to depression through immune, inflammatory, and neuroactive pathways [32,33,35](#).

Importantly, the finding that periodontal treatment reduces systemic inflammatory markers (hs-CRP, IL-6, TNF- α) supports the hypothesis that periodontitis is a modifiable contributor to systemic inflammation [29,30,31](#). If periodontitis contributes to depression through inflammatory pathways, then periodontal treatment may represent a novel adjunctive approach to depression management, though this hypothesis requires direct testing in clinical trials [11](#).

Behavioral and Pharmacological Considerations

The behavioral mechanisms linking depression to poor oral health are clinically intuitive but empirically well-supported [1,4](#). The core symptoms of depression-anhedonia, fatigue, psychomotor retardation, and cognitive impairment-create cascading barriers to oral self-care that extend from reduced brushing frequency to dietary deterioration and avoidance of dental services [4,9,18](#). The paradox of increased oral health need coupled with decreased healthcare utilization in depressed individuals represents a critical clinical challenge [18](#).

Pharmacological factors compound these behavioral risks [39,40,49](#). The high prevalence of xerostomia across antidepressant classes creates an iatrogenic pathway to dental caries and periodontal disease that is often overlooked in prescribing decisions [39](#). The mechanistic differences between TCA-induced xerostomia (peripheral anticholinergic) and SSRI/SNRI-induced xerostomia (central inhibition of salivary reflex) have practical implications for management strategies [41](#). Clinicians should consider oral side effect profiles when selecting antidepressants, particularly for patients with pre-existing oral health concerns [39,49](#).

The Role of Socioeconomic Confounding

A critical finding from the current evidence is the substantial role of socioeconomic status in mediating the depression-periodontitis relationship. The observation that poverty explains the majority of the observed association challenges simplistic causal models and highlights the importance of addressing social determinants of health [46](#). Both depression and periodontal

disease share common upstream risk factors including low income, limited education, food insecurity, and restricted access to healthcare [\(https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/41201872/\)](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/41201872/)[23,46](#). This does not negate the biological and behavioral pathways described above but rather contextualizes them within a broader socioeconomic framework that must inform both research design and clinical intervention [46](#).

Clinical Implications for Integrated Care

The convergence of biological, behavioral, pharmacological, and psychosocial evidence supports the need for integrated care models that bridge dental and mental health services [2,4,37](#). Both mental and oral health rank among the leading causes of disability worldwide, yet clinical care typically addresses these domains in isolation [1,2](#).

Dental practices represent viable venues for mental health screening, as many individuals access dental care more regularly than mental health services. Standardized screening tools can be efficiently integrated into dental intake procedures [2,4](#). Conversely, standard oral health checklists can be completed by non-dental personnel in mental health settings, enabling systematic screening without requiring dental expertise [4,50](#).

Effective integration requires systematic approaches to interprofessional collaboration [37,38,51](#). Education and training represent foundational elements, with mental health professionals requiring oral health education and dental professionals needing mental health literacy and communication skills training. Communication protocols must be established to enable information sharing between dental and mental health providers [37,38](#).

Behavioral interventions should employ evidence-based behavior change techniques, including clear instructions, demonstrations of proper oral hygiene techniques, and involvement of carers or care coordinators [37,47,51](#). Pharmacological management should address iatrogenic xerostomia through saliva substitutes and anticaries agents containing fluoride [4,39](#). Prevention should be a priority, including the promotion of dental care and the management of xerostomia when psychopharmacologic agents are prescribed [2,4](#).

At the systems level, service integration models that co-locate dental and mental health care, establish formal referral networks, and create shared care protocols can reduce fragmentation [37,48,51](#). Policy implications include the need for reimbursement structures that support integrated care models and public health initiatives that address the social determinants underlying both depression and poor oral health [2,46](#).

Evidence Gaps and Limitations

Several important gaps in the current evidence base warrant attention:

1. **Causality and Temporality:** While meta-analyses demonstrate consistent associations between depression and oral diseases, the cross-sectional design of most included studies limits causal inference. More longitudinal studies are required to test causal and temporal relationships [1,4](#).

2. **Heterogeneity:** High degrees of heterogeneity among studies should be considered when interpreting pooled estimates. Findings for periodontal disease are more equivocal than for dental caries, possibly because of study heterogeneity. One meta-analysis found no significant increased risk of depression among subjects with periodontal disease, contrasting with other pooled analyses [2,3,17](#).

3. **Intervention Trials:** There is a paucity of randomized controlled trials testing integrated care models for individuals with comorbid depression and oral disease. Similarly, no clinical trials have directly tested whether periodontal treatment improves depression outcomes [47](#).

4. **Mechanistic Translation:** The majority of mechanistic evidence derives from preclinical animal models. Clinical studies are needed to validate these pathways in human populations and quantify the relative contribution of each biological mechanism [26,27,28](#).

5. **Population Diversity:** Mendelian randomization studies are limited to European populations, restricting generalizability. More diverse population-based studies are needed [45](#).

6. **Socioeconomic Confounding:** The substantial role of socioeconomic status in mediating the depression-periodontitis relationship highlights the need for studies that adequately control for social determinants of health [46](#).

7. **Oral Microbiome Research:** While emerging evidence supports the oral-brain axis, further studies are warranted to investigate whether shifts in oral microbiota play a role in the underlying etiology of depression and to develop microbiome-based therapeutic strategies [32,33,35](#)

Conclusions

The relationship between depression and oral health is bidirectional and mechanistically complex, involving neuroendocrine dysregulation, systemic inflammation, behavioral factors,

pharmacological effects, and psychosocial consequences [1,3,5,11](#). The bidirectional nature of this relationship with depression increasing risk for oral disease and poor oral health predicting depression creates opportunities for integrated interventions that address both conditions simultaneously [1,6](#).

Biological mechanisms linking depression and periodontal disease include HPA axis activation with cortisol elevation, systemic inflammation with neuroinflammatory consequences, BBB disruption, and alterations in neuroplasticity and neurotransmitter systems [<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/41289041>][11,19,22,26,27,28](#). Treatment of periodontitis reduces systemic inflammatory markers, supporting the hypothesis that periodontal disease is a modifiable contributor to systemic inflammation and potentially to depression [29,30](#).

Behavioral mechanisms, including depression-related neglect of oral hygiene, cariogenic dietary patterns, and reduced dental service utilization, translate psychological symptoms into tangible oral health consequences [1,4,9,18](#). Pharmacological factors, particularly antidepressant-induced xerostomia, create additional risk for dental caries and periodontal disease [39,40](#). Psychosocial impacts, including functional impairments and aesthetic concerns related to poor oral health, can precipitate or exacerbate depression, perpetuating a bidirectional cycle [1,18,43](#).

Clinical implications emphasize the need for integrated care models that bridge dental and mental health services. [2,4,37](#). Mental health screening in dental settings and oral health screening in mental health settings can facilitate early identification of comorbidities [2,4](#). Interprofessional collaboration, supported by cross-disciplinary education, systematic communication protocols, and tailored care plans, represents the foundation for effective integrated care [37,38,48,51](#).

Future research should prioritize longitudinal studies establishing causal and temporal relationships, intervention trials testing whether periodontal treatment improves depression outcomes, clinical validation of preclinical mechanistic findings, and investigation of the oral microbiome-brain axis [3,6,32,35](#). From a public health perspective, addressing socioeconomic factors that mediate the depression-oral health relationship is essential for achieving health equity [46](#).

Recognition of the profound interconnections between oral and mental health should inform clinical practice, health policy, and resource allocation [1,2](#). By adopting integrated approaches that address both domains simultaneously, healthcare systems can reduce the substantial burden of these comorbid conditions and improve outcomes for affected individuals [1,2,9](#).

Disclosure

Author Contributions

Conceptualization: Z.S., M.S., N.S., J.S., P.M., S.P. and J.P.; Formal analysis: Z.S., M.S., N.S., J.S., P.M., S.P. and J.W.; Investigation: Z.S., J.S., P.M., S.P. and J.P.; Writing rough preparation: Z.S., M.S., N.S., J.S., P.M., S.P. and J.W.; Writing review and editing: Z.S., M.S., N.S., J.S., P.M., S.P., J.P. and J.W.; Supervision: N.S., J.P. and J.W.

All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

AI Statement

Artificial intelligence tools were used exclusively for linguistic refinement, grammar correction, stylistic improvement, and organizational assistance under full human supervision. Specifically, the paid version of ChatGPT (OpenAI) and Grammarly (<https://www.grammarly.com>) were utilized to support academic English editing, improve clarity and readability of the manuscript, and assist with language refinement. No AI tools were used for data fabrication, generation of scientific results, interpretation of findings, or autonomous scientific decision-making. All scientific analysis, interpretation of the literature, conclusions, and final editorial decisions were performed solely by the authors, who take full responsibility for the content of the manuscript.

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