

Short Communication

Chronic Stress Leads to Anxiety and Depression

Sarah Khan¹ and Rafeeq Alam Khan^{2*}¹Department of Psychology, University of Karachi, Pakistan²Department of Pharmacology, Faculty of Pharmacy, Pakistan

*Corresponding author

Rafeeq Alam Khan, Department of Pharmacology, Faculty of Pharmacy, University of Karachi, Karachi-75270, Pakistan, Email: rkhan1959@gmail.com

Submitted: 04 November 2016

Accepted: 25 January 2017

Published: 27 January 2017

Copyright © 2017 Khan et al.

ISSN: 2374-0124

OPEN ACCESS

Abstract

Studies have found a link between chronic stress and anxiety disorders as well as major depressive disorder. This article reviews literature based on that keeping in view the physiology of stress and its consequences on psychological well-being of a person. If untreated, stress however downplayed at times, could be hazardous.

Keywords

- Chronic stress
- Anxiety disorders
- Depression

INTRODUCTION

The word stress implies an experience of negative emotions that comes in the wake of anticipated physiological, biochemical, cognitive and behavioral changes that work towards either changing the stressor or making adjustments to its effects [1]. Stress is a process that puts the bodily systems under strain in order to cope with the environmental demands that bring about psychological and biological changes that could account for an illness [2]. The environmental aspect highlights the evaluation of environmental situations that are in objective relation with the extensive adaptive demands. The subjective assessment of the ability to cope with the stressor comes under the domain of psychological stress perspective. Finally, the biological perspective refers to the multiple bodily systems that are activated and controlled by both psychologically and physically demanding situations [3].

If the stress is continued or prolonged, it can leave adverse effects on body's immune, cardiovascular, neuroendocrine and central nervous systems [4]. When chronic stress goes untreated it can result into serious disabilities like insomnia, weakened immune system, high blood pressure, anxiety and muscle pain. It can also play a role in developing major disorders like depression, heart disease and obesity [5].

The pathway between stress and mental illness can be better understood with a thorough comprehension of physiology of stress. There are two interconnected systems that are involved when experiencing stressful events; sympathetic adreno-medullary (SAM) system and hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenocortical (HPA) axis. In SAM activation, when a person is faced with a stimulus that disturbs his homeostasis it is labeled as a stressor by the cerebral cortex. This information travels to the hypothalamus which initiates the fight or flight response. This stimulates the adrenal medulla to secrete the catecholamine (epinephrine and norepinephrine). The combined effect of two produces an aroused bodily system i.e. high blood pressure, sweating, palpitation, constriction of blood vessels etc. While in

HPA activation, hypothalamus is known to secrete corticotrophin-releasing hormone (CRH). It rouses pituitary gland which in turn releases adrenocorticotrophic hormone (ACTH). This stimulates the adrenal cortex to secrete glucocorticosteroids. Among these, cortisol is the most important. It stores carbohydrate and decreases inflammation and helps the body returning to its original, steady state before the stress [6]. Prolonged HPA activation due to continued stress has been related with serious diseases. Various researchers have proposed that the consequences of HPA activation on health are far more significant than that of sympathetic arousal [7,8].

Below is a flow chart presented by Baum (1994) that shows how stress could influence health through certain behavioral acts, first, by affecting health habits straight and secondly by meddling with the treatment procedure and the use of health services [9].

It is evident how physiological arousal could lead to maladaptive patterns of behavior which would eventually influence a person's attitude towards seeking help and care. Evidences have been found that the combination of emotional arousal and neuroendocrine stimulation due to prolonged stress causes chronic insomnia [10]. As sleep is imperative for body's restoration, its disturbance and deficiency implies a significant pathway to disease [11]. A study in 2006 by Ardayfio and colleague showed how chronic stress could lead to anxiety and depression. It presented that prolonged exposure to stress hormone, cortisol, contributed to symptoms of depression. According to this study, stress hormones help a person in responding to an immediate threat [12,13]. However, if stress remains heightened, it could boost anxiety and lead to mood disorder or most commonly major depressive. Repeated or recurrent stress is known to quicken or worsen the mood disorders [14,15].

Anxiety disorders, according to diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders (DSM IV-TR) include panic disorders (characterized by frequent panic attacks, somatic and autonomic indications of fear), generalized anxiety disorder (prolonged anxiety accompanied with overpowering, extreme worry

about nominal and significant matters alike), phobic disorders (that includes agoraphobia, social and specific phobia i.e. an irrational, uncontrollable fear of an object or situation), post-traumatic stress disorder (characterized by intrusive, unpleasant thoughts of the trauma once experienced manifested through troubled behavioral actions) and obsessive compulsive disorder (persistent, irrepressible thoughts, imagery or actions) [16]. Studies have shown how early exposure to stressors in life and sensitivity to stress make a person susceptible to the mentioned disorder [17-25]. Early life stressor has the power to bring about noticeable and durable changes in brain circuitry regulating stress reactivity, mood and behavior [17]. Impairment in central nervous system may take place due to early stressful life events [26] and change in stress response system that can last through adulthood [27-29]. The HPA activation due to physically and psychologically stressful experiences produces cortisol as explained above which in turn negatively impacts mood and behavior [30,31].

Major Depressive Disorder among other psychotic disorder is one of the most prevalent disorders with the lifetime prevalence of more than 17% in the general population [32]. Researchers have associated elevated cortisol level in bloodstream to be one of the major causes of MDD as a result of HPA hyperactivation [33,34]. CRH has also been found to create symptoms of both anxiety and depression in animals including low appetite, decreased libido, and abnormal reaction to new stimuli, troubled sleep and changes in locomotor activity [35,36]. Heightened CRH is not an indicator of depression rather it is a state as it goes back to normal when depression is treated [37]. People with cognitive impairment, a distinct indicator of depression, have shown abnormalities in HPA activation [38-40]. The other way around HPA axis deregulation has been found in patients with severe depressive and psychotic symptoms [41]. Moreover, reduced glucocorticoids concentration in response to HPA activation along with heightened negative feedback has been known to cause depressive symptoms as well which signifies that either abnormally heightened or reduced HPA activation in response to stress is related with the occurrence of depressive symptoms [42]. Also, studies have supported the idea that elevated cortisol damages hippocampus that is the part of the brain responsible for memory that in turn may cause unusual behavior observed in depressed patients [43-46]. It has been known that exposure to stress prevent neurogenesis in the adult hippocampus [47-49]. A recent literature review proposed that prolonged stress and pathological anxiety are responsible for causing structural degeneration in the brain and reduced functioning of hippocampus and the prefrontal cortex which in return increase the risk of development of disorders like depression and anxiety [50].

Thus it can be said that it is a generally known fact that depressive episodes develop after the occurrence of major negative life event [51]. Further researches have strengthened this proposition by stating that stressful life events are usual for the beginning of depression [52-54]. Thus, the inability to deal with stress effectively may prove to be hazardous. This may very well depend upon the personality traits and the coping mechanisms a person utilize to meet the stressor. His approach could either be that of avoidance or approach. Mullen found

out that avoidant coping is suitable when the stressor is short term while approach coping is required when the stressor is prolonged [55]. While Lazarus had to say that the strategy used must depend upon how controllable the stressor is. Avoidance is better if the situation is uncontrollable [56].

CONCLUSION

Stress is often neglected in day to day life event when it could play a very detrimental role in our mental health. It should be curbed in the beginning in order to prevent its serious consequences. Social support, explanatory styles, locus of control, personality types and coping strategies can be significant when dealing effectively with stress.

REFERENCES

1. Baum A. Stress, intrusive imagery, and chronic distress. *Health Psychol.* 1990; 9: 653-675.
2. Cohen S, Kessler RC, Gordon LU. Strategies for measuring stress in studies of psychiatric and physical disorders. In: Cohen S, Kessler RC, Gordon LU, editors. *Measuring stress: A guide for Health and Social Scientists.* Oxford: Oxford University Press. 1995.
3. Salleh MR. Life event, stress and illness. *Malays J Med Sci.* 2008; 15: 9-18.
4. Anderson NB. Levels of Analysis in Health Science: A Framework for Integrating Socio behavioral and Biomedical Research. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences.* 1998; 840: 563-576.
5. Baum A, Polusnszy D. *Health Psychology: Mapping Biobehavioral Contributions to Health and Illness.* *Annu Rev Psychol.* 50. 137-163.
6. Taylor SE. *Healthy Psychology.* 8th Edition. McGraw Hill. New York. 2012; 10020: 139-180.
7. Dientsbier RA. Arousal and physiological toughness: implications for mental and physical health. *Psychosomatic Medicine.* 1989; 68: 747-753.
8. Frankenhaeuser M. The psychophysiology of workload, stress and health: Comparison between the sexes. *Annals of Behavioral Medicine.* 1991; 13: 197-204.
9. Baum A. Behavioral, biological and environmental interactions in disease processes. In S. Blumenthal, K. Matthews, & S. Weiss (Eds.). *New research frontiers in behavioral medicine: Proceedings of the national conference.* 61-70.
10. Shaver JLF, Johnson SK, Lentz MJ, Landis CA. Stress exposure, psychological distress and physiological distress activation in midlife women with insomnia. *Psychosomatic Medicine.* 2002; 64: 793-802.
11. Edwards S, Hucklebridge F, Clow A, Evans P. Components of the diurnal cortisol cycle in relation to upper respiratory symptoms and perceived stress. *Psychosomatic Medicine.* 2003; 65: 320-327.
12. Ardayfio P, Kim KS. Anxiogenic-like effect of chronic corticosterone in the light-dark emergence task in mice. *Behav Neurosci.* 2006; 120: 249-256.
13. van Praag HM. Can stress cause depression? *World J Biol Psychiatry.* 2005; 6: 5-22.
14. Anisman H Matheson K. Stress, depression, and anhedonia: Caveats concerning animal models. *Neuroscience Biobehavioral Reviews.* 2005; 29: 525-546.
15. McEwen BS. Understanding the potency of stressful early life experiences on brain and body function. *Metabolism.* 2008; 57: 11-15.

16. American Psychiatric Association. Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, Fourth Edition, Text Revised (DMS-IV-TR) Washington, DC: American Psychiatric Association. 2000.
17. Arborelius L, Owens MJ, Plotsky PM, Nemeroff CB. The role of corticotropin-releasing factor in depression and anxiety disorders. *J Endocrinol.* 1999; 160: 1-12.
18. Heim C, Nemeroff CB. The role of childhood trauma in the neurobiology of mood and anxiety disorders: preclinical and clinical studies. *Biological Psychiatry.* 2000; 49:1023-1039.
19. Safren SA, Gershuny BS, Marzol P, Otto MW, Pollack MH. History of childhood abuse in panic disorder, social phobia, and generalized anxiety disorder. *J Nerv Ment Dis.* 2002; 190: 453-456.
20. Bandelow B, Späth C, Tichauer GA, Broocks A, Hajak G, Rütger E. Early traumatic life events, parental attitudes, family history, and birth risk factors in patients with panic disorder. *Compr Psychiatry.* 2002; 43: 269-278.
21. Nemeroff CB. Early-Life Adversity, CRF Dysregulation, and Vulnerability to Mood and Anxiety Disorders. *Psychopharmacol Bull.* 2004; 38: 14-20.
22. Carpenter LL, Carvalho JP, Tyrka AR, Wier LM, Mello AF, Mello MF, et al. Decreased adrenocorticotropic hormone and cortisol responses to stress in healthy adults reporting significant childhood maltreatment. *Biol Psychiatry.* 2007; 62:1080-1087.
23. Copeland WE, Keeler G, Angold A, Costello EJ. Traumatic events and posttraumatic stress in childhood. *Arch Gen Psychiatry.* 2007; 64:577-584.
24. Zlotnick C, Johnson J, Kohn R, Vicente B, Rioseco P, Saldivia S, et al. Childhood trauma, trauma in adulthood, and psychiatric diagnoses: results from a community sample. *Comprehensive Psychiatry.* 2008; 49:163-169.
25. Faravelli C, Gorini AS, Rotella F, Faravelli L, Palla A, Consoli G, et al. Childhood traumata, Dexamethasone Suppression Test and psychiatric symptoms: a trans-diagnostic approach. *Psychol Med.* 2010; 40: 2037-2048.
26. Bennett AJ, Lesch KP, Heils A, Long JC, Lorenz JG, Shoaf SE, et al. Early experience and serotonin transporter gene variation interact to influence primate CNS function. *Mol Psychiatry.* 2002; 7:118-122.
27. Breier A, Kelsoe JR Jr, Kirwin PD, Beller SA, Wolkowitz OM, Pickar D. Early parental loss and development of adult psychopathology. *Arch Gen Psychiatry.* 1988; 45: 987-993.
28. Charmandari E, Kino T, Souvatzoglou E, Chrousos GP. Pediatric stress: hormonal mediators and human development. *Horm Res.* 2003; 59: 161-79.
29. Tyrka AR, Wier L, Price LH, Ross N, Anderson GM, Wilkinson CW, et al. Childhood parental loss and adult hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal function. *Biol Psychiatry.* 2008; 63:1147-1154.
30. Sapolsky RM, Romero LM, Munck AU. How do glucocorticoids influence stress responses integrating permissive, suppressive, stimulatory, and preparative actions. *Endocr Rev.* 2000; 21: 55-89.
31. de Kloet ER. Hormones, brain and stress. *Endocr Regul.* 2003; 37: 51-68.
32. Blazer DG, Kessler RC, McGonagle KA, Swartz MS. The prevalence and distribution of major depression in a national community sample: the National Comorbidity Survey. *Am J Psychiatry.* 1994; 151:979-986.
33. Murphy BE. Steroids and depression. *J Steroid Biochem Mol Biol.* 1991; 38: 537-559.
34. Murphy BE, Wolkowitz OM. The pathophysiologic significance of hyperadrenocorticism: antigluco-corticoid strategies. *Psychiatric Annals.* 1993; 23: 682-690.
35. Owens MJ, Nemeroff CB. The role of corticotropin-releasing factor in the pathophysiology of affective and anxiety disorders: laboratory and clinical studies. *Ciba Found Symp.* 1993; 172: 296-308.
36. Coplan JD, Andrews MW, Rosenblum LA, Owens MJ, Friedman S, Gorman JM. Persistent elevations of cerebrospinal fluid concentrations of corticotropin-releasing factor in adult nonhuman primates exposed to early-life stressors: implications for the pathophysiology of mood and anxiety disorders. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences USA.* 1996; 93:1619-1623.
37. Nemeroff CB, Bissette G, Akil H, Fink M. Neuropeptide concentrations in the cerebrospinal fluid of depressed patients treated with electroconvulsive therapy: corticotropin-releasing factor, endorphin and somatostatin. *Br J Psychiatry.* 1991; 158: 59-63.
38. Rubinow DR, Post RM, Savard R, Gold PW. Cortisol hypersecretion and cognitive impairment in depression. *Arch Gen Psychiatry.* 1984; 41: 279-283.
39. Winokur G, Black DW, Nasrallah A. DST nonsuppressor status: relationship to specific aspects of the depressive syndrome. *Biol Psychiatry.* 1987; 22: 360-368.
40. Gold PW, Chrousos GP. Organization of the stress system and its dysregulation in melancholic and atypical depression: high vs low CRH/NE states. *Mol Psychiatry.* 2002; 7: 254-275.
41. Krishnan V, Nestler EJ. The molecular neurobiology of depression. *Nature.* 2008; 455: 894-902.
42. Wolkowitz OM, Reus VI, Weingartner H, Thompson K, Breier A, Doran A, et al. Cognitive effects of corticosteroids. *Am J Psychiatry.* 1990; 147: 1297-1303.
43. Sheline YI, Sanghavi M, Mintun MA, Gado MH. Depression duration but not age predicts hippocampal volume loss in medically healthy women with recurrent major depression. *J Neurosci.* 1999; 19: 5034-5043.
44. Sheline YI, Wang PW, Gado MH, Csernansky JG, Vannier MW. Hippocampal atrophy in recurrent major depression. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA.* 1996; 93: 3908-3913.
45. Shah PJ, Ebmeier KP, Glabus MF, Goodwin GM. Cortical grey matter reduction associated with treatment: resistant chronic unipolar depression. *Br J Psychiatry.* 1998; 172: 527-532.
46. Sahay A, Hen R. Adult hippocampal neurogenesis in depression. *Nat Neurosci.* 2007; 10: 1110-1115.
47. Campbell S, MacQueen G. An update on regional brain volume differences associated with mood disorders. *Curr Opin Psychiatry.* 2006; 19: 25-33.
48. Warner-Schmidt JL, Duman RS. Hippocampal neurogenesis: opposing effects of stress and antidepressant treatment. *Hippocampus.* 2006; 16: 239-249.
49. Mah L, Szabuniewicz C, Fiocco AJ. Can anxiety damage the brain? *Curr Opin Psychiatry.* 2016; 29: 56-63.
50. Steffens DC, Byrum CE, McQuoid DR, Greenberg DL, Payne ME, Blitchington TF, et al. Hippocampal volume in geriatric depression. *Biol Psychiatry.* 2000; 48: 301-9.
51. Paykel ES. Stress and affective disorders in humans. *Semin Clin Neuropsychiatry.* 2001; 6: 4-11.
52. Hammen C. Stress and depression. *Annu Rev Clin Psychol.* 2005; 1: 293-319.
53. Kendler KS, Karkowski LM, Prescott CA. Causal relationship between

- stressful life events and the onset of major depression. *Am J Psychiatry*. 1999; 156: 837-841.
54. Stroud CB, Davila J, Moyer A. The relationship between stress and depression in first onsets versus recurrences: a meta-analytic review. *J Abnorm Psychol*. 2008; 117: 206-213.
55. Mullen B, Suls J. The effectiveness of attention and rejection as coping styles: a meta-analysis of temporal differences. *J Psychosom Res*. 1982; 26: 43-49.
56. Lazarus RS. The costs and benefits of denial. In S. Breznitz (Ed.), *the denial of stress*. New York: International Universities Press. 1983. 1-30.

Cite this article

Khan S, Khan RA (2017) Chronic Stress Leads to Anxiety and Depression. *Ann Psychiatry Ment Health* 5(1): 1091.