

Cardiovascular Disease Triggered by Hypothalamic-Pituitary-Adrenal Axis Activation Following Stress Stimulation

FAIZA ATIQUE¹, SANIA WARIS², NAJEEB ULLAH KHAN^{3*}, KAINAT SHAFIQUE⁴,
RUQIA KOUSAR², HASSAN ATEEQUE¹, MUHAMMAD MUNEEB JAFAR³, MARYAM FAROOQ³

¹Pathology and pathophysiology Health Science Center, School of Basic Medicine, Xi'an Jiaotong University (XJTU), China

²Department of Physiology, Government College University Faisalabad, Faisalabad, Pakistan

³Department of Rehabilitation Sciences, The University of Faisalabad, Faisalabad, Pakistan

⁴Operation Theatre Technology, Government College University, Faisalabad, Pakistan

*Corresponding author: najeeb-ullah-khan.dpt@tuf.edu.pk

ABSTRACT: Recent research has emphasized the connection between numerous psychological conditions, such as depression, chronic stress, posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD), anxiety, and cardiovascular disease (CVD). This chapter will discuss the psychobiological mechanisms of stress and important brain-heart connections that support the emergence of CVD. The relationship among depression, anxiety and CVD is studied as well as the possible processes that raise the risk of CVD in those who have these diseases. The development of CVD in people with psychiatric diseases is linked to metabolic and immunologic maladaptation, dysregulation of the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis, and sympathetic nervous system dysfunction. The study also emphasizes how social support, personality traits, and hereditary factors can all contribute to reducing the negative effects of stress on cardiovascular health. The study ends by highlighting the need for more research to clarify the intricate interactions between stress and CVD, with a focus on coronary heart disease (CHD) and stroke.

Keywords: Cardiovascular disease, Stress, Hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis

INTRODUCTION

The biggest cause of death worldwide at the moment is cardiovascular disease (CVD). Most parts of the globe have seen or are experiencing a rise in CVD. CVD death rates in low- and middle-income nations have risen by 15% during the last 20 years (Gaziano, 2022). Large potential clinical research and many fundamental scientific investigations have recently established a relationship between CVD and its risk factors, like many psychiatric diseases, including depression, chronic psychological stress, posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD), anxiety and metabolic disorders (Cohen et al., 2015). Scientifically, it is challenging to examine the temporal correlations between these factors and CHD or CVD (Katsarou et al., 2013a; Vaccarino and Bremner, 2024a).

The first and foremost cause is chronic stress that frequently causes anxiety and depression and may have long-term harmful cardiometabolic effects. As a result, examining the possible links between stress-related mental issues and CVD is becoming progressively significant in cardiovascular epidemiology research (Kyrou et al., 2017). Depression and anxiety may increase the risk of cardiovascular disease through a variety of mechanisms, including hypertension and impaired vascular function, autonomic nervous system dysfunction, and increased platelet activity and aggregation (Kim et al., 2022). In patients with established CVD and controlled transplanted heart valve devices, the frequency of appropriate shocks was directly related to the severity of the depression in them and can be measured easily by a Holter

monitor. The patients with high symptoms of depression, more frequent to angina, increased physical limits, and a worse quality of life are more likely to experience CVD frequently (Naylor, 2012; Silverman et al., 2019).

Metabolic and immunologic dysfunction also play key roles in the molecular mechanisms generating stress-induced cardiovascular issues, which accelerates the start and progression of the disease (Lagraauw et al., 2015). In addition to a recognized number of other risk factors, psychosocial behaviour has become increasingly considered potential CVD indicators. When studying the relationship between psychosocial aspects and CVD, the concept of stress is significant. Latent biobehavioral mechanisms connecting depression with CVD contain of changes in the autonomic nervous system and the operative abilities of the HPA axis, platelet activation, inflammation, smoking, increased alcohol drinking, idleness, and traditional metabolic factors such as obesity and hypertension, which often coincide in depressed personalities (Katsarou et al., 2013b; Malik et al., 2021, 2020). Other than stress and mental issues numerous observational studies have studied the relationships between diet indicators and CVD (Brlek and Gregorič, 2023). A high diet of drenched fatty acids and trans-fatty acids has been allied to an intensification risk of CVD. This upshot is believed to be arbitrated primarily through higher blood plasma low-density lipoprotein cholesterol echelons, reactive oxygen species and their proatherogenic effects (Giosuè et al., 2022). Two significant lifestyle-related danger aspects for CVD consist of slenderness and physical inactivity are also countable

(Dubbert et al., 2002). In contrast some good psychological, physical and eating patterns can benefit several CVD risk factors (Nestel and Mori, 2022).

CVDs remain the primary reason of death and disability wide-reaching, driven by an amalgamation of genetic, lifestyle, and environmental risk aspects such as high blood pressure, diabetes, overweight, poor nourishment, and bodily dormancy (Murri et al., 2020; Sobolewska-Nowak et al., 2023). The rate of CVD is still rising despite improvements in diagnosis and treatment, particularly in areas that are quickly urbanizing. The complicated character of the illness is highlighted by the key roles that metabolic dysregulation, endothelial dysfunction, and chronic inflammation play in its pathogenesis. Finding new treatment targets and biomarkers is essential for efficient management and prevention. To provide better prevention and care measures, we attempt to give a summary of CVD caused by stress, underlying mechanisms, and current research trends.

STRESS AND CARDIOVASCULAR DISEASE RELATION

WHO reports that CVD remains the main root of impermanence globally. Additional it is a multifactorial disease (Roth et al., 2020). In 2013, 31% of fatalities worldwide were due to CVD, which results in around 17.5 million deaths annually. According to the American Heart Association's 2016 CVD statistics update, nearly one in three Americans in 2013 had one or more kinds of CVD, which also has an economic burden (Gracia et al., 2017; Gutiérrez-Bedmar et al., 2017). Some studies appear to prove the connection between stress and CVD. Yet, a lot of research has found that stress, which can be defined in a variety of contexts, is linked to an increased risk of cardiac diseases, including heart disease and stroke (Kashani et al., 2012). Studying the effects of unplanned major disasters and extreme mood experiences has frequently been used to appraise the possible effects of acute psychosocial stress on CVD (e.g., receiving a cancer diagnosis, and gambling losses) (Dar et al., 2019a). The sympathetic-adrenal-medullary system and the HPA axis system are two endocrine response systems that are highly sensitive to psychological stress.

Psychological variables are now more commonly assumed to be risk factors for CHD (Cooper and Marshall, 2024; Kivimäki and Kawachi, 2015). Stress may have a direct effect on CVD by causing neuroendocrine responses to stressors, or it may have a more delayed impact by indirectly raising the risk of CVD through unhealthy behaviours like smoking, inactivity, or drinking too much alcohol (Vaccarino et al., 2020). Since older people are less resistant to stress and sickness than younger people, chronic stress may have a stronger link to CHD in older people than in younger people (Vitaliano et al., 2002; Wirtz and von Känel, 2017a). An additional CHD risk factor linked to psychological stress is elevated inflammation. The body can resist the effects of short-term physical stresses because of the brain stem's and hypothalamus' activation of the stress system. Yet, continuous overactivity of these systems may result in wear and tear and

lead to infection, accelerated ageing, and CHD or CVD (Ricci et al., 2023).

Social Causes of Stress and Role of Stressors

The body's general response to any demand is stress (Russell and Shipston, 2015; Tu et al., 2025). Has stress recently been recognized as a substantial risk factor for CVD, especially when it is chronic and caused by social and environmental stressor (Larkin and Chantler, 2020; Vaccarino and Bremner, 2024b). Psychosocial stressors such as educational pressure, financial insecurity, job pressures, social isolation, and exposure to environmental contaminants stimulate the HPA axis and sympathetic nervous system (Alotiby, 2024). As a result, cortisol and catecholamine levels remain elevated, promoting endothelial dysfunction, swelling, ROS-related stress, and vascular remodeling, all of which contribute to hypertension, atherosclerosis, and, finally, CVD (Beall et al., 2022). Unlike temporary stress, which is adaptive, chronic stress overwhelms the body's resistance systems, resulting in long-term cardiovascular homeostasis disruption (Berto, 2014). According to epidemiological research, those who are exposed to chronic social stress have a much-increased risk of rising hypertension, coronary artery disease, and myocardial infarctions (Dar et al., 2019b). As a result, stress is not merely a psychological condition, but a physiological trigger that directly promotes cardiovascular disease via neuroendocrine and metabolic changes (Cozma et al., 2023; Munir and Du Toit, 2024).

Effect of Stress on Normal Physiology

Stress is difficult to study because its effects on the body are diffuse and difficult to isolate (Alam et al., 2023). The term "stress" is confined to situations in which an organism's usual regulatory capacity is surpassed, particularly in conditions that are unpredictable and uncontrollable (Buwalda et al., 2011; Koolhaas et al., 2011a). An integrated strain/apprehension composite comprising ecological, physiological, emotional, and interactive gears embraces stress and anxiety as corresponding topographies (Bystritsky and Kronemyer, 2014). The communicative and neural stations of stress and anxiety are interlinked (Daviu et al., 2019). Stress is a condition in which the brain sees the intensity or nature of the stimulus as dangerous and reacts broadly (Habib et al., 2001). Stress appears to be physiologically defined by either a shortened neuroendocrine reaction recovery time (uncontrollable) or the lack of an anticipatory response (unpredictable) (Koolhaas et al., 2011b).

Stressful life trials can have a noteworthy influence on several biological systems, counting the autonomic nervous system, the HPA axis, the immune system, and the endorphin systems, it is also associated with mild hypercholesterolemia and prolonged sympathetic nervous system activation, which favour the accumulation of visceral fat and contribute to the clinical presentation of visceral obesity, type 2 diabetes, and related cardiometabolic complications (Correa et al., 2024; Pillozzi et al., 2020; Zheng, 2022).

In order to prepare the body for a fight-or-flight reaction, acute stress causes the instantaneous initiation of sympathetic

nerves and the decrease of parasympathetic nerves. It has been demonstrated that autonomic dysregulation contributes to cardiovascular somatic symptoms such as tachycardia, blood pressure vulnerability, and propensity for hypertension. It causes a rise in heart rate and arterial pressure that leads to a greater need for oxygen in the myocardium, which is mediated by sympathetic activation. Damage can also arise from an imbalance between antioxidants and oxidants, which, over time, may develop into oxidative stress (Albertini et al., 2022; Izzo et al., 2021).

Neuroendocrine And Autonomic Nervous System Causes CVD During Stress

Stress triggers interdependent endocrine, neurological, and immunological responses, regardless of whether it is a real or imagined danger to equilibrium. The body's primary stress system is represented by the HPA axis (Mbiydzennyuy and Qulu, 2024). With the stimulation of a stressor autonomic nervous system is activated as the initial quick response, increasing catecholamine activity. The adrenal medulla releases the hormones adrenaline (similarly recognized as epinephrine) and noradrenaline (correspondingly identified as norepinephrine), which cause the classic signs of stress, such as an elevated heart rate and sweat gland activity. The HPA axis becomes active as a second, delayed reaction. The hypothalamus releases a corticotropin-releasing hormone (Fig.1), which travels to the pituitary, where it is then secreted as Adrenocorticotrophin hormone (ACTH) and ultimately affects the adrenal glands' ability to produce glucocorticoids (cortisol, in humans) (Lv et al., 2020). Corticotropin-releasing factor and vasopressin are also released when the paraventricular nucleus in the hypothalamus is activated in response to stress or a danger to homeostasis. It has been demonstrated that these hormones interact with the immune system by promoting the production of the polypeptide precursor POMC (proopiomelanocortin) products, corticotropin and melanocyte-stimulating. Corticotropin promotes the release of glucocorticoids, generally cortisol in humans and corticosterone in gnawers, from the adrenal gland. Glucocorticoids act as a powerful negative feedback mechanism to control the HPA axis's responses (Cohen et al., 2006). The typical anti-inflammatory effects of cortisol can become chronic over-secretion, resistance develops, and feedback regulation is reduced (Hinterdobler et al., 2021; Mahmood et al., 2020). After the same stimulation, men and females of many animals release different amounts of these stress hormones (Goel et al., 2014).

There are probably many physiological changes caused by stress that are associated with cardiovascular disease (Steptoe and Kivimäki, 2012). Epidemiology studies show that physiological alterations in neuroendocrine systems may put people at risk for CVD by having an impact on risk variables,

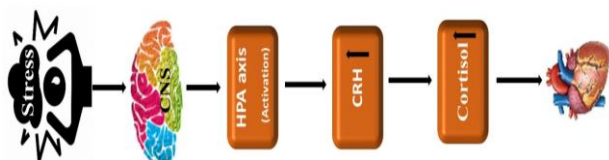


Fig. 1. Stress activates different pathways in the brain

together with blood pressure, blood sugar, and cholesterol levels (Phillips and Jones, 2006). Dysregulation of the HPA axis and high cortisol levels are direct factors contributing to CVD. Many cardiovascular ailment risk factors, including intuitive obesity, hypercholesterolemia, hypertriglyceridemia, raised blood pressure, accelerated heart rate, and steroid-induced diabetes, are associated with HPA axis dysfunction (Lamadé et al., 2024).

Increased sympathetic nerve commotion, diminished parasympathetic activity, activation of the HPA axis, and a pro-inflammatory immune response were all effects of psychological stress. These pathways have been connected to the expansion of the cardiac disease that is brought on by social isolation, even if a direct connection has not yet been shown (Li and Xia, 2020). Numerous stress-related substances, with catecholamines and cortisol in a supplementary unintended method, have been suggested as possible intermediaries of the link between psychological stress and CVD. However, unfluctuating though aldosterone is also generated in response to HPA axis instigation, this association has not been established to be important for it (Blitshteyn et al., 2024; Goldstein, 2025). The mobilization of energy to muscles, improved cardiovascular tone, suppression of reproductive physiology, reduction of hunger and eating, focused cognition, and higher local cerebral glucose consumption are the cumulative outcomes of activating the HPA axis (Mcewen et al., 2007). As a result of the HPA axis and autonomic nervous system being galvanized by acute stress, cortisol, alpha-amylase and heart rate are all increase (Nater and Rohleder, 2009).

Activation of Platelets During Stress

Cardiovascular disease (CVD) is one of the chief causes of death; in addition, platelets play a significant role and in swear condition it can cause death. Platelet activation can be accomplished by many chemicals, genes, pathways, and chemokines through the activation of the HPA axis. In addition to interacting with leukocytes and endothelial cells and releasing pro-inflammatory, mitogenic, proapoptotic, and cytotoxic chemicals, platelet activation also causes myocardial ischemia-reperfusion (I/R), which is a component of CVD damage to start grow and turn into severe inflammation and immune response (Freedman, 2008). Circulating levels of IL-6 increase during psychological stress, also possibly because of catecholamines' effect on IL-6 levels (Ridker and Rane, 2021).

Together, at the same time, cytokines and TNF-alpha work to improve the immune response and combat inflammatory problems like allergens through direct and indirect effects. To stop cytokine levels from exceeding or overcompensating to the disadvantage of the organism, they induce feedback inhibition when they reach a particular threshold. Reduced local inflammatory responses and short-term immunity brought on by acute HPA axis activation may be crucial in controlling this system to minimize harm from overactivation (Abelson et al., 2014).

Psychological disorders and cardiovascular risk

Depression, anxiety, and PTSD increase CVD risk through behavioral and biological pathways (Monami and Marchionni, 2007). Depression has a bidirectional association with cardiac outcomes; the pervasiveness of miserable symptoms in cardiac patients is high and linked to worse morbidity and mortality (Ogunmoroti et al., 2022). Autonomic imbalance, HPA axis dysfunction, inflammation, and platelet hyperactivity contribute to pathogenesis (Sic et al., 2025). Behavioral factors, including inactivity and smoking, worsen outcomes (Hannan et al., 2021; Xu et al., 2020). PTSD promotes persistent neuroendocrine and immunological activation (Neigh and Ali, 2016).

PROTECTIVE FACTORS

Psychosocial resources mitigate stress’s cardiovascular impacts. Social support reduces sympathetic activation and inflammation, protecting vascular health (Christenfeld and Gerin, 2000). Positivity and flexibility in coping promote healthy behaviour (Boehm et al., 2018; Schwarzer, 1994). Individual sensitivity and resilience are influenced by genetic variations in stress and immunological pathways, which in turn guide personalised therapy (Gillespie et al., 2009). Along with that, maintain a healthy diet, get enough sleep, and engage in physical activity to cope with the condition. In reality, adopting a healthy lifestyle may lead to great outcomes (Briguglio et al., 2020).

CONCLUSION

Several physiological systems, together with the immune system, the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis, the autonomic nerve system, and the endorphin systems, can be significantly impacted by stressful life experiences. The hypothalamus-pituitary-adrenal axis and the autonomic nervous system are triggered in animals, including humans, in response to stress. Research has established that physiological alterations in the neuroendocrine systems may put people at risk for CVD by having an impact on risk variables, for example, blood pressure, plasma glucose, and lipid concentrations. Depression and sensitivity to CVD may be mediated by dysregulation of the HPA axis and high cortisol levels. The social aspects that contribute to stress are also explored, and it is mentioned that persistent stress can have pathological repercussions on people. People’s behaviour can show signs of stress, especially when it changes. If stress continues, changes in neuroendocrine, cardiovascular, autonomic, and immunological functions occur, which can result in mental and physical health problems, including anxiety, depression, and heart disease.

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