

INTERPRETATION OF SCHIZOPHRENIA

**Endocrine &
Cardiovascular
Changes in
Schizophrenia**

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Endocrine and Cardiovascular Changes in Schizophrenia

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e-Book 2016 International Psychotherapy Institute

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Endocrine and Cardiovascular Changes in Schizophrenia

I The Endocrine Glands

Great etiological significance has been attributed in the past to the endocrine system in the etiology of schizophrenia. This occurred in an era when endocrinology was making great advances.

Many cases of schizophrenia presenting varied endocrinological disorders have been described, and each time with the implication that the mental disease may be in a state of causal relationship with the endocrinopathy. A visit to a large mental hospital would be sufficient to point out that the number of endocrine disorders is not much larger among schizophrenics than in the general population, and that an occasional endocrinopathy should be considered an accidental concomitant finding.

In my clinical experience with ambulatory schizophrenics I have not found a high percentage of any typical endocrine syndrome. In

some large state hospitals one finds a slightly larger percentage of adolescent schizophrenics who are dysplastic than would be expected from the general population. In a large hospital one sees also a considerable number of cases of marked obesity in hebephrenic girls, and of the adolescent type of dystrophia adiposo-genitalis (Frohlich's syndrome) in both boys and girls who are affected by the simple type of schizophrenia. It is possible that these endocrine disorders have crippled the patients not only physically but also psychologically and have increased their anxiety and made them more susceptible to the psychosis.

Because the enthusiasm for endocrinology in psychiatric circles has vanished, it seems universally agreed that no classical endocrinological syndrome can be considered responsible for schizophrenia. Manfred Bleuler (1954), who has studied extensively schizophrenia in relation to endocrine glands, found no correlation whatsoever between the disorder and known endocrine conditions. The possibility remains that another endocrine disorder, not manifesting itself with the usual symptoms, may be incriminated eventually. Many researchers have been investigating this possibility.

The thyroid gland, for example, has been studied by many. Witte (1922), who studied a series of 815 patients, was unable to confirm the high percentage of thyroid atrophy that other authors have found. He observed, however, a tendency to accumulate colloid, a characteristic indicative of moderate functional hypothyroidism. In a minority of patients, Hoskins (1946) found a triad of symptoms: low oxygen-consumption rate, secondary anemia, and scanty, nitrogen-low urine. This minority of patients generally responded favorably to thyroid medication. Simpson, Cranswick, and Blair (1963) found evidence of hypothyroidism in only 28 percent of the cases. Dewhurst and co-workers (1969) found an increase in thyrotrophic hormone in several but not all schizophrenics examined.

Pathology of the adrenal glands has also been suggested, especially because the catatonic picture, with asthenia, low blood pressure, low oxygen consumption, and anemia, reminds one of Addison's disease. Hoskin's therapeutic experiments, however, failed to show any improvement in patients under adrenalin medication.

That the adrenal glands may be implicated was also suggested by Selye's studies (1950, 1952). According to him, any stressful condition

engenders a syndrome consisting of (1) acute gastrointestinal ulcers; (2) adrenocortical stimulation, evidenced by hyperemia and discharge of secretory granules from the adrenal cortex; and (3) thymico-lymphatic involution, accompanied by characteristic hematologic changes (lymphopenia, eosinopenia, and polymorphonuclear leucocytosis). Later Selye found that the stressing situation acts upon the body directly and indirectly through the pituitary and adrenal glands. Through some “unknown pathway” the stressing stimulus travels from the directly injured area of the body to the anterior pituitary. This gland, after being stimulated, secretes ACTH hormone, which, in turn, stimulates the adrenal cortex to discharge corticoid hormones. Some of these corticoids are proinflammatory, that is, they enhance the inflammatory potentiality by stimulating the proliferative ability and the reactivity of the connective tissue. Other corticoids are anti-inflammatory, inasmuch as they inhibit the production of granulomatous tissue and other facets of the inflammatory process. The total of these nonspecific reactions is what Selye called the “general adaptation syndrome.”

Many authors have observed a dysfunction of the adaptation syndrome in schizophrenia. According to Pincus and Hoagland (1950)

schizophrenics respond to “stress” differently from normal persons. The ingenious experiments of these two investigators prove that if the patients are given adrenocortical extracts, their responses to stress are not considerably different from those of normal control subjects. On the other hand, if the patients are given high doses of ACTH, their responses to stress are by far inferior to those of control subjects. The authors conclude that the adrenal cortices of the patients are not adequately stimulated by ACTH. ACTH may be produced normally in the schizophrenic; it is the adrenal cortex that does not respond. Although these authors do not think that this lack of response is the one and only “cause” of the psychosis, they think that it may be one of a number of important factors that are involved. Pincus and Hoagland have worked on patients who had an average duration of hospitalization of two and a half years. Gildea (quoted by Pincus and Hoagland, 1950) found an abnormal adaptation reaction in chronic patients but not in early patients. Also Parsons and coworkers (1949) obtained data different from those of Pincus and Hoagland. They found that psychotic subjects respond to epinephrine in the same way that the controls do. The degree of lymphocytopenia was practically the same as in the control subjects. Electric shock produced a degree of

lymphocytopenia similar to that obtained after epinephrine. Because lymphocytopenia following stress is dependent upon a normal pituitary-adrenal system, Parsons and collaborators conclude that this functional system is not impaired in schizophrenics. On the other hand, the same authors found that psychotic patients, both manic-depressive and schizophrenic, do not respond to psychological stress with lymphocytopenia or hyperglycemia. In this respect they do differ from normal subjects. The findings obtained by the authors mentioned and by others are such that no definite conclusion is possible. They all seem to agree on one thing: psychological stress does not produce a normal general adaptation reaction in the schizophrenic.

This result is easy to understand because the psychologically stressing stimulus may not be perceived as stressing by the schizophrenic. Therefore it may never reach the pituitary gland, or, if it reaches the pituitary gland, it may have lost a great deal of stressing power. But even if the stimulus is physiological or chemical and not psychological, it must travel from the injured part of the body to the pituitary gland, and it probably travels not humorally but through the nervous system. The psychological states of the schizophrenic may indirectly alter or delay or weaken even the nonpsychological

functions of the nervous system, so that the stressing stimulus may have lost power when it reaches the pituitary gland. If the pituitary gland is stimulated, however, the adrenal gland should be stimulated in turn because here the interstimulation is not through the nervous system but humorally, namely, through the ACTH hormones. Pincus and Hoagland (1950), however, found that when patients were administered a standard 25 mg dose of ACTH, they responded much less intensely than normal subjects. They concluded that the adrenal cortex of schizophrenics is much less responsive than that of normal subjects. Actually, the mechanism is more complicated than that, as Pincus and Hoagland themselves admit, because the stimulated adrenal glands also secrete hormones, which again act on the pituitary gland and perhaps on the central nervous system.

Some authors have considered the pituitary gland as being directly involved in the etiology of schizophrenia, but the evidence so far has not been convincing. More importance has been attributed to the sexual glands, especially because sexual maladjustment is one of the symptoms of the disorder.

Recently the Japanese authors Suwa and Yamashita (1972) have

studied the diurnal rhythm in adrenocortical activity. In normal subjects with a normal sleep routine the cyclic plasma 17-hydroxycorticosteroids (17-OHCS) pattern consists of an early morning peak, followed by a downward trend during the remainder of the day and through the night. The authors found marked alterations of the cyclic pattern in acute and chronic schizophrenics.

Mott (1919) reported a more or less advanced atrophy of the testicles in all cases of schizophrenia and a complete arrest of spermatogenesis in the majority of them. Hemphill (1944) and Hemphill, Reiss, and Taylor (1944) confirmed these findings in biopsy specimens from patients who did not belong to the paranoid type. They saw that in the males the atrophy was limited to the seminiferous tubules and speculated that what was at fault was probably a gonadotrophic hormone from the anterior lobe of the pituitary gland. Morse criticized Mott's work (quoted by Henderson and Gillespie, 1941). She felt that the changes found in the glands of the patients might have resulted from causes unrelated to schizophrenia. For instance, the age of the patient, the state of nutrition, and the nature and duration of the terminal illness are all factors that influence the histologic condition of the endocrine glands.

Forster, a pupil of Mott, confirmed her teacher's findings (quoted by Henderson and Gillespie, 1941). She noticed signs of early involution in the ovaries of schizophrenic women who had reached the age of 30.

Menstrual disorders, especially prolongation of the interval and amenorrhea, are very common in schizophrenic women and are well known to all psychiatrists. Ripley and Papanicolaou (1942) investigated the menstrual cycle of patients by means of studies of vaginal smears. They found in both schizophrenic and affective disorders a greater irregularity than in a comparable normal group. A tendency to a delay, a weakened expression, or a complete temporary suppression of the follicular reaction was found by these authors. They also frequently noticed prolongation of the menstrual interval and amenorrhea. All of these alterations were interpreted as the result of a hindered growth of the ovarian follicles. Ripley and Papanicolaou also found a correlation between the severity of the illness and the degree of abnormality of the menstrual cycle. An improvement in the psychological symptomatology was usually accompanied by a return to a more normal menstrual function. The authors could not ascertain the existence of an etiological relationship.

How is one to interpret these reports on the endocrine system in schizophrenia? Although nothing has been definitely ascertained, one may nevertheless attempt to formulate some conclusions and hypotheses:

1. An etiological relationship, proving that schizophrenia is engendered by an endocrine disorder, has not been demonstrated. On the contrary, the more we know about the syndromes caused by dysfunction of the endocrine glands, the more we depart from this assumption.
2. It seems fairly well established that in the majority of cases of schizophrenia, especially in the chronic cases, there is a diminished functionality of the endocrine system. At this stage of our knowledge, it is difficult to determine whether this diminished functionality is due to decrease in the production of hormones or to the decreased responsiveness to them. This point has been well emphasized by Hoskins.
3. The authors who believe in the organic nature of schizophrenia have seen in this diminished functionality of the endocrine system another proof that their assumption is valid. Others view this diminished functionality of the endocrine system as another psychosomatic disorder of schizophrenia.

According to this interpretation, the psychological syndrome of schizophrenia directly or indirectly diminishes the amount of stimulation to which the endocrine system is subjected; the resulting diminished functionality in turn engenders in the organism unusual functional compensatory mechanisms and eventually even organic damages, such as fibrosis of the testicles.

It is appropriate at this point to mention that Roizin (1938) worked with roosters that were experimentally blinded and fed artificially. In comparison with control cases, he found very marked atrophy of the testicles of the blind rooster, although the general weight was not considerably diminished. (At the end of the experiment the average total weight of control cases was 1250g., and the weight of the testicles 8.40g. In the blinded animals the total weight was 1100g., and the weight of the testicles 0.320g.)

Roizin's findings may be interpreted as indicating that lack of sensory stimulation was producing the atrophy or impairment of growth of the testicles. Blindness in normal men would not produce atrophy of the testicles, because men may become stimulated by other sensory organs or by inner images and thoughts. In many cases of schizophrenia, however, this inner or external stimulation is defective. It is important to add

that testicular alterations have not been found in paranoid patients, who are in better contact with external reality than hebephrenic and catatonic patients (Hemphill, 1944; Hemphill, Reiss, and Taylor, 1944).

4. The diminished functionality of the endocrine system in schizophrenia may not be necessarily directly related to the decrease in stimulation to which the endocrine system is subjected on account of the psychological picture of the psychosis. An altered functionality of the autonomic nervous system, which controls the endocrine glands, may be responsible, even totally, for this hypofunctionality.

II

The Cardiovascular Apparatus

The cardiovascular system of schizophrenic patients, from the size of the heart to the pattern of capillaries in the nailfold, was the object of many studies up to 1955. In recent years these studies have considerably decreased in number, in spite of the fact that the findings were more consistent than in other somatic studies of schizophrenic patients. Following is a brief review of the most significant of these works.

The prevalent opinion of the authors who have studied this subject is that the blood pressure of schizophrenics is generally lower than that of the general population of similar age. Freeman, Hoskins, and Sleeper (1932) found in a series of 180 patients that the average systolic pressure was 104.5 mm Hg and the diastolic was 54.5. These values were much lower than those found in medical students examined as control cases. The highest values were found in paranoids and the lowest in catatonics. Rheingold (1939) too has found the blood pressure of 129 schizophrenics in an early stage of their illness to be lower than that of the general population (life insurance applicants). Shattock (1950) has compared the blood pressure of "refractory" patients to those of socialized patients. He found that the average systolic pressure of forty-six refractory schizophrenics was 118 mm Hg, and that of thirty-two socialized schizophrenics 131.5 mm Hg. The paranoid patients in each of the two groups had the highest blood pressure. Gottlieb (1936) and several other authors have found a close correlation between the systolic and diastolic pressure in schizophrenics. Some authors (Cameron and Jellinek, 1939) have found a rise of blood pressure in clinical remission after insulin treatment. Farrell and Vassaf (1940) have noted even an increase in

the size of the heart after this treatment.

Lewis (1923), in his study on the constitutional factors in dementia praecox, found a hypoplastic cardiovascular system in schizophrenics who came to autopsy. He made it clear, however, that such hypoplastic condition was not found in paranoids. Hypertrophy of the heart was never found, even in presence of valvular lesions.

Finkelman and Haffron (1937) found the volume of circulating blood in thirty-nine schizophrenics to be diminished in comparison to that of manic-depressive patients. The intracranial blood flow has been studied by numerous authors, but so discordant are the findings that no conclusion is possible. Perhaps it is safe to say that no important deviation from normal values has been obtained in the intracranial flow of schizophrenics.

Another alteration that has interested many authors is the exaggerated tendency toward vasoconstriction found in all vessels from capillaries to large arteries. Abramson (1944) found excessive vasoconstriction in the vessels of schizophrenics exposed to cold temperatures. He found improvement in the blood circulation after

insulin treatment. Jung and Carmichael (1937), Minski (1937), and others have found vasomotor disturbances leading to cyanosis. Some authors felt that the vasoconstriction was an exaggerated reaction to cold temperatures and inactivity (Stem, 1937). Others feel that there is a permanent vasoconstriction in the vessels of patients, especially catatonics.

Shattock (1950), who has studied intensely the vascular conditions of schizophrenics, found the following:

1. At room temperature, 62-65° F (16.7-18.3° C), cyanosis of the extremities, especially of the feet, was present in 43 percent of 220 female psychotics and in only 5 percent of 300 male psychotics.
2. At room temperature, 62° F (16.7° C), the average temperature of the hands and feet of thirty female schizophrenics was significantly lower than that of thirty female affective psychotics.
3. There was no relation between cyanosis of the extremities and advancing age.
4. There was imperfect correlation between cyanosis and inactivity.

5. The effect of posture on the circulation of cyanosed extremities was shown by diminution of cyanosis after raising of the feet.
6. Temporary relief of cyanosis was obtained by any means that brings about vasodilation, like vasodilator drugs, and so on.
7. The brachial, radial, and dorsalis pedis of twenty-eight female schizophrenics who suffered from peripheral cyanosis were found to be contracted and pulseless, but these vessels were normal after vasodilation had been obtained.

Summarizing, we may state that the four main alterations found in the cardiovascular apparatus of schizophrenics are (1) decrease in the size of the heart;

decrease in the volume of the blood flow; (3) decrease in systematic blood pressure; [11](#) (4) exaggerated tendency to vasoconstriction and resulting diminished blood supply.

The entire circulatory system of many schizophrenics seems hypoplastic or at least in a state of diminished functionality. How are these findings to be interpreted? Do they indicate a congenital

cardiovascular hypoplasia of the preschizophrenic, who, on account of this hypoplasia, will be predisposed to schizophrenia? Or are these findings not a predisposition or cause of schizophrenia, but rather one of the many by-products of this condition? In interpreting these findings, we have to take into consideration the following points:

First, these findings are not constant. Although it is true that the average blood pressure of a large number of schizophrenics is lower than the blood pressure of a corresponding number of people taken from the general population, the individual schizophrenic does not necessarily have a low blood pressure. In other words, low blood pressure or hypoplasia of the heart or other vascular alterations are not present in each case of schizophrenia or necessary for the diagnosis of schizophrenia. In the initial stage of the illness, the cardiovascular alterations are, by far, less frequent.

Second, the fact that several authors have found that these symptoms, including hypoplasia of the heart, diminish or disappear at remission seems to be a strong indication that these symptoms are functional and not based on a congenital defect.

Third, most of these studies were made on chronic schizophrenics who make relatively few demands on their circulatory system, which consequently is less active than that of a normal person. First of all, the physical activities of the chronic schizophrenic are very much reduced. Even though he may have transitory periods of excitement, restlessness, and impulsive behavior, his activity as a whole is very much decreased. Secondly, he does not discharge his anxiety or other emotional states through his cardiovascular system any longer. The psychological stimuli of external or internal origin, which produce variations in the blood pressure of the normal person, do not affect the schizophrenic very much. Sociological factors, which complicate our modern society more and more, have an effect on the vascular system. High blood pressure and arteriosclerosis are much rarer in blacks who live in Africa than in blacks who live in the United States. The schizophrenic becomes less perceptive to the sociopsychological stimuli that act on the cardiovascular system or finds other mechanisms of response to them. Paranoid patients, who remain better socialized and more active than the other schizophrenics, maintain a higher blood pressure. Again, it is the paranoid mental condition that allows better functioning of the

cardiovascular system. It is not a more efficient cardiovascular system that predisposes the individual to the paranoid type, rather than to the simple, hebephrenic, and catatonic types.

Fourth, some authors, like Lewis, have been impressed by the fact that even in cases with valvular lesions, hypertrophy of the heart was not observed. Again, I think that, although the heart was diseased, the diminished demands made on it made a compensatory hypertrophy unnecessary. Even without this compensatory hypertrophy, the schizophrenic would supply sufficient blood to his organs; however, if his heart suddenly were requested to work more efficiently, as in the sudden outbreak of an acute infective condition, the patient might succumb.

Fifth, the low blood pressure and the diminished activity make the patient more vulnerable to low temperatures. The vasoconstriction that is found in many schizophrenics seems to have the main purpose of preventing dispersion of heat. If a normal person is exposed to a cold environment, he will try to warm up by moving, doing exercises, eating, grinding his teeth, and so on. The regressed schizophrenic does not increase his activities, which, on the contrary,

remain very few. If he is in a catatonic state, he may not move at all. Thus a compensatory mechanism, which does not require a voluntary act, occurs. Vessels constrict, and cyanosis may ensue. Cyanosis is found more frequently in women than in men, because in our society certain parts of the female body, such as arms and legs, are more exposed than those of men. This fact holds true even for patients in mental institutions.

Another factor increases the constriction of the vessels, especially in catatonics. The postures, which they maintain at times for whole days, one day after another, activate antigravity vasoconstrictor mechanisms. Without these mechanisms, edema due to blood stasis would be very frequent. Edemas of the ankles and feet are common in catatonics who maintain a standing position, but this would be much more frequent if these vasoconstrictor mechanisms were not present. We cannot minimize the importance of motor activity for a good blood circulation. The fact that marked vasoconstriction is found in patients who are at times restless and destructive does not invalidate this interpretation. First of all, as mentioned before, although these patients may be episodically hyperactive, they are, as a group, hypoactive. Secondly, autonomous mechanisms that have originated

during long periods of inactivity may continue to function, sometimes even if such inactivity decreases, because the cardiovascular system may not become quickly adjusted to the new demands. It has to use the old mechanisms. The vasoconstriction obviously has an additional compensatory function, namely, to raise the blood pressure. It may seem strange that the blood pressure of the schizophrenic is so low, notwithstanding the vasoconstriction. The obvious conclusion is that the blood pressure would be even lower without this vasoconstriction. Such low blood pressure, although tolerable in normal circumstances, cannot be tolerated by the body when the temperature is low.

Sixth, we do not imply with the foregoing that this relative hypofunctionality of the cardiovascular system is directly due only to inactivity or to diminished cardiovascular responsiveness to emotions. Another mechanism has to be taken into consideration, which is involved either directly or through the mechanisms already mentioned. This is an altered functionality of the autonomic nervous system, which regulates the cardiovascular system.

Another fact, which in a certain way contrasts with what has been mentioned so far, has also been observed. Hospitalized paranoids

seem to be in a much better state of physical health than people of similar age taken from the general population. Alpert, Bigelow, and Bryan (1947) studied fifty patients who have maintained an active paranoid state from 8 to 42 years, with an average duration of 21.36 years. Except for one patient who was diagnosed “paranoid condition,” the diagnosis was always dementia praecox, paranoid type. The authors found that the manifestation of arteriosclerosis, including cerebral arteriosclerosis, was less frequently encountered than in the general population. They mention the fact that repressed hostility often produces essential hypertension and possibly arteriosclerosis. The paranoid continually acts out his hostilities and gives expression to his conflicts, and so he contrasts with the person who represses and develops tension. The authors do not draw any definite conclusions. However, their noteworthy work, which they called “preliminary report,” should have stimulated further research. It is common knowledge that paranoids tend to deteriorate less than other patients when they reach old age. Their sensorium is much better preserved. However, in some of them the mental condition improves when they finally show signs of arteriosclerosis. They are less resentful and less concerned with their delusions.

An additional finding worth mentioning is a special capillary structure found by some authors in schizophrenic patients (Hauptmann and Myerson, 1948; Doust, 1955; Wertheimer and Wertheimer, 1955). This structure is considered an immature formation of capillaries, like that found in normal children before the capillary development is completed. More recently Maricq (1963, 1966) confirmed the works of the previous authors. She found a particular capillary pattern in the nailfold of schizophrenics, with a high plexus rating. Like similar studies on fingerprints (Raphael and Raphael, 1962) these studies of capillaries need additional research.

Notes

- [\[1\]](#) The reader must be reminded that these studies were made before the drugs with hypotensive effects, like reserpine and chlorpromazine, were developed.

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Acknowledgments

I wish to express my indebtedness to the publishers who have permitted the reproduction in this volume of long excerpts and/or illustrations from the following articles of mine:

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