Anxiety and depression are both common mental health disorders. They are the commonest mental health problems in the community, and the great majority of people who experience these problems will be treated in primary care.

In the UK, primary care services are an integral part of the National Health Service (NHS) in which general practitioners (GPs) work as independent contractors. The GP works as a generalist and a provider of personal, primary and continuing care to individuals, families and a practice population, irrespective of age, gender, ethnicity and problems presented.

In this book we will consider both depression and anxiety with reference to specific case histories: the O’Sullivan family and their neighbours (see Box 1.1). We will be adopting a life cycle perspective, considering depression and anxiety at different ages and times of life and in different settings although primarily taking a primary care perspective.

Box 1.1 Broad Street

The O’Sullivans live in a three-storey Victorian house in need of repair, in a northern English city. The extended family consists of Maria, 53, who is married to Ged, her parents, Bridie and Anthony; and Maria and Ged’s sons, Patrick, 18, Francis, 20, and John-Paul, 23. Maria’s brother, Frank, killed himself 10 years ago, and Bridie says she has ‘never recovered’. Maria’s other siblings live in Dublin, Cork and Australia.

Next door, at number 64, live the Jairaths, who also fill their house. Imran and Shabila are second-generation Pakistanis, who speak good English and both work: Imran is a businessman, importing textiles, and Shabila is a teaching assistant. Imran’s parents, Hanif and Robina are in their late 70s and go out very little. Both have diabetes and Hanif had a heart attack 3 years ago, which left him anxious about his health. Shabila’s four sons and one daughter, Humah, all attend the local school and seem to be doing well. The eldest son, Shochin, aged 17, is hoping to apply to study medicine. All the children attend the mosque for weekly instruction in Islam.

Number 60 is a multi-occupancy house with students who attend the local University. Jess is 19 and lives with her boyfriend, Oliver. Jess is friendly with Shabila and often looks after the younger children. Shabila’s four sons and one daughter, Humah, all attend the local school and seem to be doing well. The eldest son, Shochin, aged 17, is hoping to apply to study medicine. All the children attend the mosque for weekly instruction in Islam.

What is depression?

Some people may describe themselves as ‘depressed’ when they are unhappy. ‘Depression’ is more than unhappiness: A person who is depressed will experience low mood, which is lower than simply being ‘sad’ or ‘unhappy’, and crucially is associated with difficulty in being able to function as effectively as is usual for them in their everyday life. The severity of this mood disturbance can vary between a mild degree of difference from the norm, through moderate levels of depression to severe depression, which may be then associated with abnormal or ‘psychotic’ experiences such as delusions and hallucinations. Low mood
is accompanied by a wide range of other symptoms, which also need to be present in order to make the diagnosis of depression (see diagnostic criteria, Appendix 2). In bipolar disorder, episodes of depression and mania are both experienced. We will not be focusing specifically on bipolar disorder in this book but will highlight how, where and why it is important to distinguish bipolar from unipolar depression.

**What is anxiety?**

Similarly, ‘anxiety’ is a term in common usage to describe feeling worried and fearful. People who are suffering with one or more of the anxiety disorders also experience symptoms of anxiety to a degree that it interferes with their ability to function. The central emotions at the heart of anxiety are fear and worry. You may be worried and fearful because you feel unsafe and have a sense of foreboding and uncertainty, as in generalised anxiety, or you may have a specific fear or phobia, or experience sudden crescendos of anxiety associated with physical symptoms, which are known as panic. Obsessive-compulsive disorder (OCD) and post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) are also included among the anxiety disorders (see Box 1.2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Disorder</th>
<th>Key symptoms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Depression†</td>
<td>Low mood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generalised anxiety disorder</td>
<td>Loss of interest or pleasure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phobia</td>
<td>Excessive anxiety and worry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Panic disorder</td>
<td>Fear of a specific object or situation that is out of proportion to the actual danger or threat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obsessive-compulsive disorder</td>
<td>Panic attacks (sudden, short-lived anxiety)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obsessive-compulsive disorder</td>
<td>Presence of obsessions (unwanted intrusive thought, image or urge that repeatedly enters one's mind but is recognised as one's own thoughts) and/or compulsions (repetitive behaviours or acts that one feels driven to perform)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-traumatic stress disorder</td>
<td>Re-experiencing symptoms and aspects of a traumatic event</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*May occur separately or together in differing combinations.
†Depressive can be unipolar or bipolar, and in severe depression psychotic symptoms may be present, which are mood-syntonic or consistent with depressed mood.

**How are anxiety and depression related?**

Although they have traditionally been classified as separate disorders, there is a considerable overlap between anxiety and depression. The majority of people who are seen in primary care settings will have a mixture of symptoms of anxiety (with often symptoms of different anxiety disorders present) and depression, and often also physical symptoms that may be related to either or both of these, or for which there is no apparent physical cause (and also other health problems too). People with more severe disorders who are seen in specialist settings may have a more distinct presentation of depression or one of the anxiety disorders, but even here they often coexist (see both Maria’s and Francis’s stories in Box 1.3 and Chapter 2). Anxiety may precede the development of depression and vice versa. The coexistence of symptoms had led some to question whether these are indeed distinct disorders.

**Box 1.3**

**Maria’s story**

‘I’ve always been a worrier, I know that. My husband Ged says I’m always needing someone to tell me everything is going to be OK. He gets annoyed with me sometimes. I do worry about everything, especially my family. Sometimes I sit here in the armchair and it just feels as though something else awful is going to happen and I’ve no idea what it is. I just feel sweaty and shaky and my heart starts beating really fast. Then the other day in the supermarket, I just suddenly felt really dreadful, I suddenly started shaking and sweating, and I felt faint and I thought I was going to pass out. It was really scary. I felt awful when my brother killed himself, and I suppose I’ve been feeling worse since the problems started next door. I wish those boys would move out. I don’t know what’s happening to me. It’s all really getting me down.’

**Francis’s story**

‘I had my first drink when I was 14. I used to get really anxious when I was out, so it gave me a bit of Dutch courage. I couldn’t chat up girls if I hadn’t had a drink. I was the life and soul of the party when I’d had a drink. Then it started to get a bit out of hand, and I carried on drinking when everyone else moved on, went to college and left town. I don’t get out much at the moment. I have to go out to get my cider otherwise I get a bit shaky in the morning. It calms me down. I feel very stuck now. I can’t seem to move on. I’ve started to feel really wound up and sometimes I’m really low. I don’t tell anyone about that. I don’t want to worry my mother.’

**Diagnosis and multimorbidity**

The two major diagnostic systems in use for mental disorders are the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual* of the American Psychiatric Association (DSM), which has recently been published in its fifth edition, and the *International Classification of Diseases* (now ICD-10 with edition 11 in preparation). These differ slightly in the criteria used for diagnosis of depressive and anxiety disorders. We will describe the specific symptoms associated with each way in which they can present across the life cycle in different chapters of this book.

There has been criticism about the applicability of diagnostic criteria developed in the population of people seen in specialist settings to the way in which anxiety and depression present in the wider community and in primary care. In general, presentations in primary care are less severe, though there is considerable overlap in terms of severity with those people who present to mental health services. Primary care patients frequently present a mixture of psychological, physical and social problems, and the context of life...
events and medical comorbidity plays an important role in how patients experience their mental health symptoms. What is clear is that overlapping degrees of psychopathology exist along a spectrum of anxiety, depression, somatisation and substance misuse. Thus, Francis (Boxes 1.1 and 1.3) has a number of problems including anxiety, depression and alcohol dependence. This coexistence may be cross-sectional in that all these symptoms appear together at the same time, or it may be longitudinal, as one set of symptoms is followed closely in time by another. All of these may occur against a background of personality difficulty or disorder. Physical health problems, especially long-term conditions such as diabetes, coronary heart disease, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease and pain (see Chapter 2) may be complicated by depression and anxiety, which will both exacerbate the distress, pain and disability associated with physical illness and adversely affect health outcomes.

**Epidemiology of depression and anxiety**

Depression is a considerable contributor to the global burden of disease, and according to the World Health Organization unipolar depression alone (not associated with episodes of mania) will be the most important cause by 2030.

Estimates of prevalence vary considerably depending on the methods used to carry out the research, and the diagnostic criteria employed. In the UK the household survey of adult psychiatric morbidity in England carried out in 2007 found that 16.2% of adults aged 16 to 64 met diagnostic criteria for at least one of the common mental health disorders in the week prior to the interview. More than half of these presented with a mixed anxiety and depressive disorder (9% of the population in the last week). The 1-week prevalence for the other common mental health disorders were 4.4% for Generalised Anxiety Disorder (GAD), 2.3% for a depressive episode, 1.4% for phobia, 1.1% for Obsessive-Compulsive Disorder (OCD) and 1.1% for Panic Disorder.

Both anxiety and depression are more common in women, with a prevalence of depression around 1.5–2.5 times greater than in men. The gender difference is even greater in the South Asian population in the UK (see Chapter 8). Depression and anxiety occur in children and young people (Chapter 2), and are more common in older people than in adults of working age (Chapter 4). In the UK household survey, men and women who were married or widowed had the lowest rates of disorder, and those who were separated or divorced the highest rates. This is probably due to both the impact of separation or divorce on a person’s mental health and the impact of depression in one partner on relationships. For women, family and marital stresses may be a particularly common factor leading to the onset of mental health problems. Those living in the lowest income households in society are also more likely to have a common mental health disorder. The prevalence of depression in older people is thought to be up to 20%, and 25% in people who also have a long-term physical condition (Chapter 6).

The average age of a first episode of depression or anxiety is in the early to mid-20s, but this can occur at any time from childhood (see Chapter 2) to old age (Chapter 4). Research in this area is problematic because many people with symptoms of anxiety may not seek help. A person with obsessive-compulsive symptoms may take up to 15 years or longer to seek help. In general, the earlier problems are first experienced, the more likely they are to recur, and many people with anxiety and depression experience problems from their teenage years. Given that more than 50% of people with depression will have at least one further episode, and that for many it has a relapsing and remitting course throughout their lives, depression can itself be viewed as having many of the features of a chronic illness, which has important implications for treatment and longer term management. Over time, symptoms may change in severity and in form, with more anxiety than depression or vice versa. Those people who experience symptoms of panic and agoraphobia are likely to have a chronic course, and fear and avoidance of situations in which panic might occur can lead to considerable disability and social isolation.

**What causes depression and anxiety?**

A combination of biological, social and psychological factors contribute to the onset of depression and anxiety. These interact with each other to differing degrees in each individual, and it is helpful to think in terms of ‘vulnerability’ and ‘resilience’ when considering the likelihood that a person will experience symptoms if they experience stress in their lives.

Within the O’Sullivan family (Box 1.1) there is a history of mental illness and, as a general rule, the more first-degree relatives who have suffered anxiety and/or depression, the more severe a person’s experience of illness will be. This will not solely be as a result of genetic factors.

**Factors contributing to vulnerability and resilience**

Genetic factors are important, but there is no specific gene for ‘depression’ or ‘anxiety’. As well as influencing vulnerability, genes also control resilience – a low likelihood that a person will become depressed or anxious when under stress.

Early life experience increases our vulnerability, in particular maternal separation, maternal neglect and exposure to emotional, physical or sexual abuse. There is evidence that these early experiences may have biological effects – leading to hyper-responsiveness of the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis. Later, ageing with associated loss increases vulnerability to depression.

**Factors that trigger an episode**

The major contributors are severe life events (see Maria’s story, Chapter 3), which are particularly likely to precipitate depression when combined with chronic social disadvantage or lack of support. Additionally, severe physical health problems can precipitate depression or anxiety, especially if it is life-threatening or causes disability. In key research carried out 30 years ago, George Brown and his colleagues demonstrated how life events were more likely to trigger depression in women living in Camberwell, south-east London, if they had three or more children under the age of 14 living at home, no paid employment outside the home and lacked a confiding relationship with another person. Financial problems, poor housing and social isolation are key stresses that can lead to the onset of symptoms.
Factors that influence the speed of recovery

Some social factors both trigger the onset of symptoms and delay recovery. Bereavement, particularly one that is complicated, as we will see in Chapter 7, can lead to prolonged symptoms of depression in some people. Separation and divorce, physical disability, prolonged unemployment and other life events that lead to the person experiencing a sense of being chronically ‘threatened’ or ‘trapped’, such as in a prolonged and difficult marital or family dispute, can all lead to a failure to recover. We know that females are more likely than males to experience onset of symptoms and are less likely to recover; women seem to experience a greater number of distressing life events and may feel trapped by difficult marital and family circumstances.

Psychological theories

Freud’s theory of depression linked depression with the experience of loss and prolonged mourning. It can be helpful in understanding how prolonged grief develops into depression. One of the best known recent theories of depression is the cognitive theory proposed by Beck, from which cognitive-behavioural therapy has developed. In early life, in response to adverse events as described above, dysfunctional and quite rigid views of the self are developed (known as schemas). Life events that seem to particularly fit with these attitudes and beliefs will later trigger anxiety and/or depression. The content of these schemas is particularly negative in depression, with negative views about the self, the world and the future, such as ‘I will never be a success’, ‘No-one will ever like me’. In anxiety, the belief will be concerned with threat, danger and vulnerability. Behavioural theories focus more on the way in which people who are depressed reduce their activity, stop doing things that are pleasurable, and become isolated, which further prolongs their depression. In behavioural activation the depressed person is encouraged to act better in order to begin to feel better.

Biological factors

The monoamine hypothesis of depression and anxiety proposes that mood disorders are caused by a deficiency of the neurotransmitters noradrenaline and serotonin at key receptor sites in the brain. The way in which most antidepressants work is by altering activity at these receptors. However, it is now clear that this is far from the whole story. Inflammatory mechanisms may also play a part in the onset and continuation of depression and alter the functioning of the HPA axis. Neuroimaging studies show a significant reduction in the volume of the hippocampus in depression, and changes in activity in several regions of the brain. How these biological factors contribute to or result from the impact of life events and experiences remains a subject of much research, but cognitive-behavioural therapy has been shown in neuroimaging studies to alter functioning in specific areas of the brain linked with anxiety and depression.

Summary

Primary care clinicians have an important role in the detection and management of anxiety and depression in patients consulting them. The importance of listening to the patient’s story and understanding the context in which people live, is vital when formulating the problem and negotiating management.

Further reading