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**Highlights**

- This is the first systematic review on social networks of patients with chronic depression.
- Social networks of chronically depressed patients are smaller than those of healthy individuals and of patients with other mental disorders, with the exception of patients with schizophrenia.
- Few articles included in the review have used objective measures to assess patients’ social networks.
- The overall evidence is limited as existing studies used very inconsistent methodologies.
Social networks of patients with chronic depression: a systematic review

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Declaration of interest: none

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Abstract

**Introduction and Aim:** The social networks of patients are an important factor for the prognosis of mental disorders and can be potentially targeted through psycho-social interventions. We aimed to explore these networks in patients with chronic depression, by conducting a systematic review on the characteristics of social networks in this patient group.

**Methods:** Six databases, three key journals and grey literature were searched. Two reviewers screened the articles, assessed the risk of bias and extracted the information needed. Findings were descriptively synthesised.

**Results:** Nineteen articles met the inclusion criteria reporting the findings of a total of 873 patients with chronic depression. Four papers presented results without a comparison group (six in comparison to a healthy population, eight to patients with non-chronic major depression and three to patients with other mental disorders). Social networks of patients with chronic depression appeared to be smaller than those of healthy individuals, patients with non-chronic major depression and other disorders.

**Limitations:** Studies used different concepts of chronic depression and inconsistent methodologies for assessing social networks. Only three studies adopted objective measures.

**Conclusions:** Whilst the evidence on social networks of patients with chronic depression is limited, the networks appear smaller than in most comparison groups, including patients with non-chronic depression.

**Key words:** Depression, Chronic Depression, Dysthymia, Social contacts, Social Networks

Introduction

The term ‘social network’ refers to the social ties that link individuals together through communication (Cohen et al., 1978) and different sets of interactions. Although this term is not precise, it can be characterised more clearly by both the structure of the network (i.e. size, the frequency of contact etc.) and the network function (i.e. social support, the content of the relationships) (Santini et al., 2015).

The literature suggests that a patient’s social network and relationships are important factors for both mental and physical health outcomes (Leigh-Hunt et al., 2017). Evidence shows that poor social networks and social isolation are linked with a variety of unfavourable outcomes including an increased risk of cardiovascular disease (Bunker et al., 2003, Cuffee et al, 2014,
increased mortality (Holt-Lunstad et al., 2010, Holt-Lunstad et al., 2015), poorer general health (Chen et al., 2014), and increased risk of depression (Santini et al., 2015) and suicide (Hatcher et al, 2013). As such, satisfactory social support and robust social networks have an important role in maintaining a person’s quality of life and good mental health (Hansson, 2006; Li et al., 2014).

Depression is one of the most common and prominent mental disorders worldwide. It is a leading cause of disability and can cause high levels of distress and increased risk of suicide (World Health Organisation, 2017). Although there are a range of treatment options available for acute depression, between 20-30% of patients go on to develop chronic depression, defined as symptoms continuing for two years or more (Angst et al, 2009). These patients often continue to have a poor quality of life, are more likely to have a physical comorbidity and functional impairment and often cause distress for their families, partners and friends.

Chronic depression is linked with worse social, economic and interpersonal conditions than episodic depression; individuals with chronic depression are more often single, unemployed and living on social benefits and have fewer children (Angst et al, 2009). Patients often receive long-term care in secondary mental health services, and chronic depression is one of the most common disorders encountered in clinical outpatient settings, with 22-36% of patients meeting the diagnostic criteria for dysthymia (Klein and Santiago, 2003).

The association between social relationships and affective disorders has also been investigated in the literature (Santini et al., 2015) with the identification of some protective factors against depression, notably perceived emotional support and large, diverse social networks. However, there is little evidence on the exact characteristics of the social networks of patients with chronic depression.

Aim

Given the evidence on the importance of social networks for an individual’s physical and mental wellbeing, as well as the poor prognosis for individuals with chronic depression, the aim of the following systematic review is to investigate the characteristics of the social networks of patients with chronic depression.

Methods

Search strategy
A systematic review of the literature was carried out, according to the PRISMA guidelines (Moher et al., 2009). An electronic search through six databases, Embase, MEDLINE, PsycINFO, CINAHL, DARE, CENTRAL, was performed, from inception, in July 2017 and updated in April 2018. The search terms employed as keywords were: (Social network* OR Social contact OR Social isolation OR Socially Isolated OR Lonel* OR Social environment OR Social Support OR Social Withdrawal OR Social relationships OR Social Relations OR Social Capital) AND (Chronic Depression OR Treatment Resistant Depression OR Treatment-Resistant Depress* OR Therapy Resistant Depression OR Long-term Depression OR Dysthymia OR Persistent Depress* OR Depressive Disorder). In addition, backward snowballing related to citations in papers was conducted; hand searches along the indexes, from the year 1970 to 2018, were carried out in the following key journals: British Journal of Psychiatry, Journal of Affective Disorders and British Medical Journal. Grey literature was also searched: OpenGrey, BASE and Google Scholar. The review was registered on PROSPERO (CRD42017080235).

**Eligibility criteria**

**Inclusion Criteria**

Studies were eligible if at least 50% of the patient sample was diagnosed as chronically depressed by a clinician or researcher and if the publications reported any assessment of social networks. We included different diagnostic terms – chronic depression, dysthymia, double depression, and neurotic depression – as long as the duration of the clinically relevant depressed mood was clearly defined as lasting, continuously, for two years or longer. Reflecting the inconsistent definitions of social networks and the different terminologies used, we adopted an inclusive approach and included any assessment of social networks, contacts, relationships and support, as all of them represent a type of interaction or bond between individuals. Papers were considered without limitations regarding the language, country of origin and study design. Studies in primary, secondary, tertiary care, and community settings were included.

**Exclusion Criteria**
Articles were excluded if the majority of participants were under the age of 18 or over the age of 70 years; the psychiatric diagnosis was self-reported; a physical comorbidity was present; the depression was related to a pre- or post-partum condition. We did not include studies addressing social functioning as this is a clearly distinct concept.

**Review strategy**

Titles and abstracts of the identified papers were exported into EndNote and were independently screened by two reviewers (MC, CV) to determine potentially relevant articles. Results from both reviewers were compared and a high inter-observer agreement was found (97.5%). Full-text articles were then screened for inclusion by both reviewers. In case of disagreement, a third reviewer (VJB, SP) was involved in making the final decision about inclusion.

**Data extraction, quality assessment, data synthesis**

Two reviewers (MC, CV) independently extracted the data on the study setting, patients’ demographics, methodology, type of recruitment and outcomes, using a pre-piloted form designed ad hoc for the purpose of this review. Risk of bias was assessed using the Effective Public Health Practice Project (EPHPP) (1998) quality assessment tool for quantitative studies and the Critical Appraisal Skills Programme (CASP) (2017) for qualitative ones. The ratings of the EPHPP related to the: selection bias, study design, confounders, blinding, data collection method, withdrawals and dropouts; the ratings of the CASP related to the: aim, methodology, design, recruitment, data collection, relationship between researcher and participant, ethical issue, analysis, findings, value of the research. Findings were narratively described and summarised. A meta-analysis could not be conducted because of the variability of the measures used in the studies.

**Results**

The initial searches yielded 8131 articles, 8082 through database searching and 49 through other sources, as previously described. During full-text screening, 180 studies were reviewed for inclusion, and 19 were included in the review. One paper did not have enough
Overview of the included studies

The studies were published between 1986 and 2015. They were conducted across nine countries: Brazil (Orsini and Ribeiro, 2012), Finland (Honkalampi et al., 2005), Hungary (Szadoczky et al., 2004), India (Ajinkya et al., 2015; Gupta et al., 2014; Kulhara and Chopra, 1996; Subodh et al., 2008), The Netherlands (Cornelis et al., 1989; Spijker et al., 2004), Norway (Cramer et al., 2010), Sweden (Magne-Ingvar et al., 1992), the United Kingdom (Baines, 2000) and United States of America (George et al., 1989; Hays et al., 1997; Hirschfeld et al., 1986; Klein et al., 1988a; Klein et al., 1988b; McCullough et al., 1994a; McCullough et al., 1994b).

The studies were conducted in a number of different settings:

1. **Community setting**, comprising primary and secondary care (Baines, 2000; Cornelis et al., 1989; Cramer et al., 2010; Hays et al., 1997; Hirschfeld et al., 1986; Honkalampi et al., 2005; Klein et al., 1988a; Klein et al., 1988b; Kulhara and Chopra, 1996; McCullough et al., 1994a; McCullough et al., 1994b; Spijker et al., 2004; Subodh et al., 2008);
2. **Inpatient setting** (George et al., 1989; Hirschfeld et al., 1986; Szadoczky et al., 2004);
3. **Highly specialised setting, including tertiary care** (Ajinkya et al., 2015; Gupta et al., 2014; Magne-Ingvar et al., 1992).

In one study it was not possible to identify the setting (Orsini and Ribeiro, 2012).

With regard to the study design; six were case-control studies, five were cross-sectional, five were cohort studies, one was a longitudinal study, one was a case study and one was a qualitative study using semi-structured interviews.

Risk of bias assessment

On the EPHPP quality assessment tool for quantitative studies six studies were rated as weak, six as moderate and six as strong. The qualitative study (Orsini and Ribeiro, 2012) was rated on the CASP as appropriate only with regard to aims, methodology, research design and data analysis. The risk of bias assessment is presented in Table 1.
Patients’ sample: demographic characteristics

In total, 873 patients with chronic depression were included in the articles. Table 2 shows their socio-demographic characteristics. The majority of patients were female, under 50 years of age, with a high level of education.

Patients’ sample: mental illness characteristics

The diagnostic classification systems used in the studies were DSM-III (Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders), DSM-III-R, DSM-IV, DSM-IV–R, DSM-5 and ICD–10 (International Classification of Diseases), in one case more than one system was adopted. In three studies, the diagnostic system was not stated (Hirschfeld et al., 1986; Honkalampi et al., 2005; Orsini and Ribeiro, 2012). In fifteen cases validated symptoms scales were used to underpin the diagnosis. Two papers (Ajinkya et al., 2015; Orsini and Ribeiro, 2012) did not report how the diagnosis was established.

In three of the 19 studies data were extracted from a sample that was not comprised entirely by individuals with chronic depression. (Cornelis et al., 1989; George et al., 1989; Gupta et al., 2014). In these studies 50% or less of the sample, 42%, 29%, 50% respectively, were diagnosed with major depression.

Social network and Social Support

During synthesis, the studies were grouped in three ways: results without any comparison group; results compared with those of a healthy sample; and results compared with those of patients with other mental disorders.

Reports of social networks without comparison groups

There was only one study (Baines, 2000) that reported the size and structure of the social network of patients. They found these networks included between three and five people and consisted mostly of parents, partners and, in two of the patients, non-familial friends.

Two studies measured the perceived social support of patients. McCullough et al. (1994b) found patients reported medium levels of perceived social support, and these remained stable at one year of follow-up. However, Spijker et al.’s (2004) study found there was no significant difference in whether patients rated their perceived social support as low, medium
or high. In a qualitative study (Orsini and Ribeiro, 2012) patients were described as feeling lonely and said that their symptoms persisted even when social support was available. However, patients did remark that their symptoms and condition did worsen if they had difficult social relationships or they had conflict in their intimate relationships.

**Comparisons with healthy populations**

Six studies compared social networks of patients with chronic depression with those in healthy populations. Four of these studies (Honkalampi et al., 2005, McCullough et al., 1994a, Subodh et al., 2008, Cramer et al., 2000) found that patients with chronic depression rated their perceived social support significantly lower than those in the healthy population. On the other hand, Gupta et al. (2014) found no significant difference in perceived social support between a group of women with dysthymia compared to a group of women who had never had a mood disorder.

Lastly, Cornelis et al. (1989) found the number and proximity of friends before the onset of the depression was significantly smaller in the patients than in the healthy group. However, there was no significant difference between either group on subjective measures (i.e. frequency of superficial and deep social contact and personal evaluation of the quality of the social network) of their social networks.

**Comparisons with non-chronic major depression**

Eight studies compared social networks in patients with chronic depression with those in patients with a diagnosis of non-chronic major depression. Four studies (Klein et al., 1998a, Klein et al., 1998b, Subodh et al., 2008, Hays et al., 1997) found that patients with chronic depression had significantly lower levels of perceived social support compared to patients with non-chronic depressive disorders. Furthermore, Hays et al. (1997) found that those with a chronic duration of the disease reported significantly lower levels of non-household social interactions. Magne-Ingvar et al. (1992) found patients with dysthymia were more likely to report insufficient social interaction than patients with major depression except on the measure of availability of social integration.

In George et al.’s (1989) study it was found that those who had not recovered from a major depressive episode after 32 months were significantly more likely to have impaired social interactions and perceived social support, but not impaired instrumental support and social
networks. Likewise, Szadoczky et al. (2004) found that those who had remitted within two years had significantly higher perceived social support scores than those who still had major depression after two years. However, Hirschfeld et al. (1986) found that there was no significant difference with regard to reported social support that participants could ‘count on’, between those who had a diagnosis of chronic depression compared to those who had recovered from depression.

Comparisons with other mental disorders

Kulhara and Chopra (1996) found that patients with dysthymia rated themselves more often to be lacking in available social support and had significantly lower levels of perceived social support compared to patients with general anxiety disorder or dissociative disorders. Magne-Ingvar et al. (1992) compared social interaction amongst patients with a variety or Axis I disorders – i.e. dysthymia, substance use disorder, adjustment disorders, anxiety disorders and psychosis. They found that patients with dysthymia were significantly more likely to report insufficient social interaction than those with substance abuse and adjustment disorders. In particular patients with dysthymia were found to be significantly less satisfied than all other groups with their social integration and deep emotional relations. However, Ajinkya et al. (2015) found that patients with a diagnosis of schizophrenia had significantly higher impairment in their social relationships, compared to patients with dysthymia.

Discussion

Main Findings

This review highlights the breadth, structure, and functions of the social networks of patients with chronic depression and it suggests that networks are smaller, and patients’ satisfaction with social support is lower, compared to either a healthy population or to patients with other Axis I diagnoses, notably those with episodic major depression. Only in comparison with patients with schizophrenia, in one study, did people with chronic depression score more favourably in their social relationships (Ajinkya et al., 2015). The evidence deriving from the present systematic review may be regarded as weak overall, mainly due to the inconsistency of measurement tools used to assess the social networks of
patients with chronic depression. Therefore he results of different studies are difficult to compare and to interpret against the findings of other studies.

**Strengths and limitations**

To our knowledge, this is the first systematic review on social networks in patients with chronic depression and has been developed according to rigorous methodology criteria (Moher et al., 2009). In order to be systematic and to collect all the known evidence on the topic of interest, a comprehensive search was performed, without limitations regarding year of publication, language or country of origin of the articles. Moreover, both quantitative and qualitative studies have been included.

The development across time of the nomenclature, used to categorise the group of patients affected by chronic depressive disorders (American Psychiatric Association, 1980; American Psychiatric Association, 2013; Klerman et al., 1979), could have led to a loss of some papers during the search process. However, the wide-ranging and extensive hand searches on scientific journals and the citation screening procedure conducted should have avoided this critical point.

Another limitation is the sometimes unclear definition and circumscription of patients’ social networks across time and the inconsistency of methodological study approaches observed. It was decided from the beginning of the review process, in order to avoid this limit, to be hyper inclusive in order not to be too restrictive, nor overlook what could be part of the social dimension of an individual.

Chronic depressed patients with a physical comorbidity were not included in this review, as such, the findings cannot be generalised to this group of individuals.

Finally, it could be argued that since the patients’ living situation was not taken into account, we cannot consider the influence this would have on an individual’s social network and level of support.

**Comparison with the literature and future implications**

In a systematic review looking at the social networks of people with psychotic disorders (Palumbo et al., 2015), the authors found that patients had a mean size of 11.7 individuals in their whole social network. In the present review only one study (Baines, 2000) had this
information and so it is not possible to make a comparison. Santini et al. (2015) found in their systematic review of individuals with non-chronic depression that perceived emotional support, perceived instrumental support and large, diverse social networks appeared to have a protective effect.

Only three papers in our review used objective measurements of the social network. In one study (Cornelis et al., 1989), patients with chronic depression were reported to have impaired social networks at the onset of their disorder. In George et al.’s (1989) study patients with chronic depression were shown to have more impaired social interaction at baseline compared to those with a non-chronic illness. Yet, Hays et al. (1997) reported that patients with a chronic course of depression compared to those with an illness duration between 1 to 12 months, perceived themselves to have significantly less social support and less non-household social interactions. This raises the question of whether low social support and poor social networks are a contributing factor to developing chronic depression or whether individuals who develop the disorder are more likely to withdraw socially or perhaps even to simply perceive that their social support is limited, due to their symptoms and the associated distress. Although there is limited research on this, two studies have looked at these associations in non-chronic depression. First, Pettit et al. (2011) found that higher levels of initial perceived family support in women, in fact predicted a slower decrease in depressive symptoms. However, for men, low levels of support appeared to be the consequence of their depressive symptoms. Almquist et al. (2016) however, found that among women, changes in the levels of social support affected changes in depressive symptoms and vice versa. For men they found that a higher level of social support was associated with a decrease in depressive symptoms over time. It may be useful to consider gender difference when planning a future research project testing the association between social networks and chronic depression.

A recent systematic review on risk factors for a persistent course of depression (Hölzel et al., 2011) has identified some social indexes as frequently associated with chronic depression, but not in a causal relation, these include: low social integration, low social support and negative social interactions. This stimulates discussion about the consequences of the quality of the social interactions that patients develop and not only of the frequency and quantity of them. Furthermore, in another study comparing chronic depressed and episodic depressed patients to healthy subjects (Domes et al., 2016), the chronic group showed higher levels of personal distress in tense social situations and higher impairment in social skills.
Since the evidence for a relationship between non-chronic depression and social networks is currently inconsistent, more research is needed to clarify this relationship, both for chronic and non-chronic depression.

One conclusion from the findings is that it may be helpful to develop interventions to improve the social network of patients with chronic depression. Recommended treatment for chronic depression is based on pharmacotherapy plus psychotherapy with an interpersonal view (Jobst et al., 2016), but more research needs to be done in order to develop valid treatments in the longer term. Another therapeutic option is social interventions to target those with limited social networks. Although there is evidence to suggest this is possible in patients with psychosis (Anderson et al., 2015), there is little evidence on patients with mood disorders. More research is required to see whether an increased social network would indeed lead to better health and social outcomes, in particular for those with a chronic course of depression (Nagy and Moore, 2017).

**Conclusion**

In conclusion, the present systematic review provides some evidence about the social networks of patients with chronic depression. The networks appear to be smaller than those in the general population and in patient groups with other Axis I diagnostic groups. The only discordant result was in comparison to patients with schizophrenia.

The review underlines the importance and need for future research, using both objective and subjective measures of social networks. A more consistent methodology across studies may help to build up a more useful evidence base, and longitudinal studies are needed to decide whether poor social networks contribute to depression becoming chronic or result from long lasting depression or both. And finally, it should be tested whether poor networks may be the target for specific interventions, psychotherapeutic or social, that could then lead to better outcomes.

**Acknowledgements**

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Conflict of Interest

All authors declare they have no conflict of interest.

Authors’ Statement

Authors Cassidy and Visentini designed the study and wrote the protocol. Author Visentini managed the literature searches and Authors Cassidy and Visentini conducted the analyses. Authors Cassidy and Visentini wrote the first draft of the manuscript. All authors contributed to and have approved the final manuscript.

References


47. World Health Organization (2017). Depression and Other Common Mental Disorders: Global Health Estimates. Licence: CC BY-NC-SA 3.0 IGO.
Fig. 1 PRISMA Flow Diagram reporting studies selection process

Records identified through database searching (n = 8082)

Additional records identified through other sources (n = 49)

Records after duplicates removed (n = 2030)

Records screened (n = 6101)

Records excluded because not fulfilling the inclusion criteria n = 5919

Full-text articles assessed for eligibility (n = 180)

Articles excluded n = 161 because:
- Not chronic depression n = 95
- Self-report diagnosis n = 2
- Sample < 18 years old n = 1

Studies included in narrative synthesis (n = 19)
Tab. 1 Risk of bias assessment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>EPHPP Quality Assessment Tool for Quantitative Studies</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Selection Bias</td>
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<tr>
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<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>Baines, 2000</td>
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<td>Cornelis et al., 1989</td>
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<td>Hays et al., 1997</td>
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<td>Hirschfeld et al., 1986</td>
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<td>Klein et al., 1988b</td>
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<td>Kolhara and Chopra, 1996</td>
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<td>Magne-Ingvar et al., 1992</td>
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<tr>
<td>Spijker et al., 2004</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>Subodh et al., 2008</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>Szadoczky et al., 2004</td>
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Tab. 2 Patients' characteristics and social networks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Sample / Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Diagnose / Classification</th>
<th>Social Network Assessment</th>
<th>Social Networks</th>
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<td>Chronic Depressed Group</td>
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<td>Semi-structured in depth interview</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Baines, 2000</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Range 21-65y</td>
<td>Dysthymia DSM-IV-R</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study</td>
<td>Sample Size</td>
<td>Range Age</td>
<td>Dysthymia</td>
<td>Double Depression</td>
<td>Interpersonal Support Evaluation Checklist</td>
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<tr>
<td>McCullough et al., 1994b</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>19-73y</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>88%</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Orsini and Ribeiro, 2012</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>26-70y</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>88%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spijker et al., 2004</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>18-45y</td>
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<tr>
<td>Study</td>
<td>Sample Size</td>
<td>Age Range</td>
<td>Diagnosis</td>
<td>Comparison with Healthy Population</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cornelis et al., 1989</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>F=13 M=11</td>
<td>21-60y</td>
<td>Unipolar Major Depression (n=10)</td>
<td>Dysthymia (n=14)</td>
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<td>Cramer et al., 2010</td>
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<td>-</td>
<td>Dysthymia</td>
<td>DSM-III-R</td>
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<td>Mea n=37y</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Dysthymia</td>
<td>DSM-IV</td>
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<tr>
<td>Honkama et al., 2005</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>F=73</td>
<td>26-65y</td>
<td>Depression</td>
<td>&quot;Do you receive enough support and understanding for your Insufficient social support=38.4% Insufficient social support=4.2% (p&lt;0.001)&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tab. 2 Patients’ characteristics and social networks
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Gender Ratio</th>
<th>Diagnosis</th>
<th>Social Network</th>
<th>Social Function</th>
<th>Significance</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subodh &amp; al., 2008</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>19-73y</td>
<td>Male: Female</td>
<td>Dysthymia DSM-IV</td>
<td>Social Support Questionnaire</td>
<td>Mean:</td>
<td>SSQ total score=49.67</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subodh &amp; al., 2008</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>19-73y</td>
<td>Male: Female</td>
<td>Dysthymia DSM-IV</td>
<td>Social Support Questionnaire</td>
<td>Mean:</td>
<td>SSQ total score=49.67</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tab. 2 Patients’ characteristics and social networks</td>
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</table>

**Comparison with non-chronic major depression**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Gender Ratio</th>
<th>Diagnosis</th>
<th>Social Network</th>
<th>Social Function</th>
<th>Significance</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>George &amp; al., 1989</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>35-50y</td>
<td>Male: Female</td>
<td>Dysthymia DSM-III</td>
<td>Duke Social Support Index</td>
<td></td>
<td>Mean:</td>
<td>non-household social interaction=4.6 subjective social support=21.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hays &amp; al., 1997</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>18-59y</td>
<td>Male: Female</td>
<td>Major Depressive Episode DSM-III-R</td>
<td>Duke Social Support Index</td>
<td></td>
<td>Mean:</td>
<td>non-household social interaction=5.3 (prob.=0.01) subjective social support=22.7 (prob.=0.0004)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hirschfeld &amp; al., 1986</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>42.6y</td>
<td>Male: Female</td>
<td>Major Depressive Disorder</td>
<td>Personal Resources Inventory interview</td>
<td></td>
<td>NS difference between the two groups regarding social support that patients could “count on”. (Exact data not reported)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Klein et al., 1988a</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>M = 7</td>
<td>Primary Early Onset Dysthymia</td>
<td>Interpersonal Support Evaluation (self-esteem subscale not included)</td>
<td>Mean: appraisal=4.8, belonging=3.8, tangible support=6.2</td>
<td>Mean: appraisal=6.5 (p&lt;0.05), belonging=6.5 (p&lt;0.001), tangible support=7.7 (p&lt;0.05)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Klein et al., 1988b</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>M = 7</td>
<td>Double Depression</td>
<td>Interpersonal Support Evaluation List (self-esteem subscale not included)</td>
<td>Mean score=15.3</td>
<td>Mean score=22.1 (p&lt;0.001)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Magne-Ingvar et al., 1992</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Dysthymia</td>
<td>Interview Schedule for Social Interaction</td>
<td>Pat. with dysthymia more often insufficient social interaction than major depression (p&lt;0.01). In all subscales, except the availability of social integration (AVSI), the Pat. with dysthymia scored lower than major depression (p&lt;0.05) (Exact data not reported)</td>
<td></td>
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</table>

**Tab. 2 Patients’ characteristics and social networks**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subodh et al., 2008</th>
<th>30</th>
<th>M = 8</th>
<th>Dysthymia</th>
<th>WHO Quality Of Life-Brief Version, Social Support Questionnaire</th>
<th>Mean: WHO-social relationship=9.76, SSQ total score=49.67</th>
<th>Mean: WHO-social relationship=10.26 (NS), SSQ total score=55.27 (p&lt;0.05)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Szadoczky et al., 2004</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>M = 10</td>
<td>Major Depressive Episode</td>
<td>Support Dimension Scale</td>
<td>Social support=8.8</td>
<td>Social support=13.1 (p=0.01)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Comparison with other mental disorders**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ajinkya et al., 2015</th>
<th>30</th>
<th>M = 10</th>
<th>Dysthymia</th>
<th>WHO Quality Of Life-Brief Version</th>
<th>Median WHO-social relationships=19</th>
<th>Schizophrenia - Median WHO-social relationships=6 (p=0.001)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kulhara and Chopra, 1996</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>M = 39</td>
<td>Dysthymia</td>
<td>Social Support Questionnaire</td>
<td>Mean score=42.01</td>
<td>General Anxiety Disorder - Mean score=47.10 (p&lt;0.01), Dissociative Disorders -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Author</td>
<td>Year</td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Diagnosis</td>
<td>Instrument</td>
<td>Findings</td>
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<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Magne-Ingvar et al., 1992</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Dysthymia</td>
<td>DSM-III-R</td>
<td>Pat. with dysthymia more often insufficient social interaction than substance abuse (p&lt;0.05) and adjustment disorders (p&lt;0.001). Pat. with dysthymia less satisfied than all other groups with their social integration (ADSI subscale, p&lt;0.01) and deep emotional relations (ADAT subscale, p&lt;0.05). (Exact data not reported)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pat., Patients; F, Female; M, Male; y, year; SSQ, Social Support Questionnaire; NS, No Significant