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- 1 Social capital: an independent dimension of healthy ageing
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14 Resources that are embedded in social relationships, such as shared knowledge, access to food, 15 services, social support or cooperation, are all examples of social capital. Social capital is 16 recognized as an important age-related mediator of health in humans and fitness-related traits in 17 animals. A rich social capital in humans can slow down senescence and reverse age-related deficits. 18 Some animals are able to adjust their social capital at different life stages (i.e., early, reproductive 19 and post-reproductive life), which may promote individual fitness. However, the underlying 20 biological mechanisms remain unknown. We suggest future research avenues to focus on social 21 capital as a modifiable dimension to gain a better understanding of variations in senescence, and 22 thereby provide new approaches to promote healthy ageing.

23 Keywords

24 Social capital; ageing; senescence; health; trade-offs; evolution

25

26 The key role of social relationships in ageing

Humans are a social species. Any lack of social contact affects both mental and physical health (see 27 Glossary for definition of health)^{1,2}. Poor social interactions are even known to be a risk factor for all-28 cause mortality ^{1,3,4}. Although numerous studies report associations between social interactions and 29 30 health outcomes, the underlying mechanisms are largely unknown. The number of animal studies on 31 the physiological (e.g. stress) or ecological (e.g. food access) determinants of ageing has risen sharply over the past ten years ^{3,9}. They suggest that complex and intertwined behavioural, psychological and 32 biological pathways are likely involved (Box 1)^{1,10}. However, these animal studies provided with 33 contrasted results according to species traits (e.g. group size)⁹ or individual traits (e.g. social status) 34 35 ³. A large part of the ageing variations at both inter- and intra-specific levels is therefore still 36 unexplained.

Resilience to stress and body energy homeostasis is affected by **social resources** (i.e. the knowledge, services, social support or cooperation ^{11–15}) an individual has access to or has used ¹⁶, which is called **social capital**. Individual social capital is a widely used concept in human **healthy ageing** literature, and recent research on non-human animals seems to show that social capital represents a key set of components (see Box 2 and Table S1) in adjusting **senescence** and influencing **fitness**. By adjusting, we mean that changes in social capital are not random but made in a way to increase fitness (survival and/or reproduction) and/or healthy ageing. This adjustment is the result of behavioural strategies

(e.g., favouring, selecting or avoiding social interactions). Although these strategies may or may not 44 45 be ruled by intermediary mechanisms (e.g., stress, genetics, mating system), the latter being most likely evolutionary selected¹⁷. Based on the fact that **social capital** varies with individual age and 46 47 social group characteristics, we propose that it is the main factor that mediates the associations 48 between sociality and healthy ageing. In this perspective, we propose that the mechanisms linking social capital to healthy ageing can be better understood by adopting an evolutionary and 49 comparative approach within individuals and between humans and animals ^{18–20}, thus providing 50 greater insight into the observed variation in senescence rates and facilitating the identification of 51 52 anti-ageing interventions.

53 Social capital changes with chronological age

The social capital of an individual varies according to its life stage (i.e., early, reproductive or postreproductive life) ²¹. In humans, non-human mammals and other species with long-lasting motheroffspring bonds, infants focus on a small number of strong relationships with their mother and individuals who share common traits (e.g., gender, kin). As adolescents, the individuals then expand the quantity and diversity of their social relationships, and become more selective upon reaching adulthood ²² in order to adjust social capital in favour of resource acquisition (box 1).

Elephants (Loxondota africana²³), chimpanzees (Pan troglodytes²⁴) and macaques (Macaca sp. ^{12,25}) 60 show comparable patterns of social changes with chronological age, even if they generally display 61 higher interspecific than intraspecific longevity variation. In elephants, social relationships such as 62 dominance are age-based²⁶. Matriarchs are the repositories of knowledge and manage 63 relationships²³. In chimpanzees, ageing males display more mutual, positive and selective 64 relationships than younger counterparts ^{24,27}. Some authors proposed that the maintenance of social 65 relationships with elders may improve their health status and longevity. Almeiling et al.²⁵ reported 66 that old Barbary macaques (Macaca sylvanus) appear to remain valuable alliances for young 67 68 macaques, who continue grooming them to obtain social resources. These alliances result in a richer 69 social capital with fewer injuries and better transmission of knowledge, all of which give access to resources for animals of all ages ^{23,25}. In mammal societies and many native human societies such as 70 71 the Māori²⁸, knowledge is a key resource provided by older group members. The fitness of both older and younger members increases because of the expertise and leadership of the elders ^{10,23,29}. 72 Social capital also varies in **eusocial** insects. Throughout ontogenesis, worker ants or bees change 73 from one caste to another ³⁰. This is associated with age-related cognitive decline ³¹ and changes in 74 75 their social capital; they no longer interact with the same individuals 32-34.

Different theories offer contrasting arguments to explain this change in social capital throughout life, based on ultimate (e.g. reproduction-life trade-off ^{35,36} and kin selection ³⁷) or proximate (e.g. cognitive ^{38,39} or cellular processes ⁴⁰) approaches. Thus, comparing the age-specific changes in social capital between different animal species may help to identify the associations between the timing of these changes and the individual physiological markers of ageing.

81 Biological age changes with social capital

Social capital fluctuates according to the different stages of life (early-life, reproductive life, post-82 83 reproductive life) and may therefore influence individual health and biological age through stress and body energy homeostasis. For example, early maternal loss leads to short, but not long-term stress 84 increases in wild chimpanzees⁴¹. Social isolation itself, i.e. independent of the usually associated 85 increased risk of predation and lower feeding efficiency, causes death in carpenter ants 86 (Camponotus fellah ⁴²) by disrupting energy homeostasis. In reproductive fruit flies (Drosophila 87 88 melanogaster), social isolation induces stress, significantly accelerates the progression of tumour growth, and triggers rapid death ⁴³. Of course, usually social isolation increases predation risks or 89 90 decreases feeding efficiency, but the latter results were done in absence of predation and with ad 91 libitum food. In primates, males often disperse and this social isolation period is the most dangerous

92 for them⁵. Conversely, helping (early-life stage in cooperative breeders) and being helped by others (reproductive stage) increase social capital and positively influence individual health, and ultimately 93 fitness, in all age categories ^{44–46}. Of course, social capital can have a negative impact on fitness ^{3,5,6}, 94 but this is relative to other group members, and this negative impact of social capital on fitness is still 95 96 lower than the cost associated to solitary living⁷. Yet, perception of ambivalent relationships in humans is related to shorter telomere length⁸ which suggest that social capital could also negatively 97 98 impact biological ageing. In a nutshell, social capital, as early as infancy, could be one of the main 99 determinants of individual long-term fitness prospects.

In old macaques, maintaining an active social life has been suggested to stimulate and maintain brain 100 activity through a good quality of life at both mental and physical levels ²⁵. Cognitive decline is 101 observed in many non-human primate species ^{20,47}, but the interplay with the components of social 102 capital is underappreciated. For instance, young lab animals who grow up alone may have difficulties 103 104 developing good relationships when they become adults, which in turn may trigger faster senescence. Remarkably, the longevity of eusocial insect workers ranges from a few weeks to more 105 than two years. This plasticity is largely controlled by social factors⁹. Although these individuals are 106 closely related genetically, distinct life trajectories can emerge as a result of variations in their social 107 108 capital. Recent studies conducted in honeybees (Apis mellifera ³⁴) and carpenter ants ³³ confirm that social capital predicts survival better than chronological age. A high social demand exposes workers 109 to an overload of social stimulations, speeding up senescence and decreasing longevity. Richardson 110 et al. ³³ went further and concluded that the transition between castes is not hard wired or age 111 dependent, but rather stochastic and dependent on changes in social capital. Bees and ants are also 112 113 able to return to their previous caste and modify their interactions if a new demand appears in the colony (e.g., following a nest predation event). This sole change in social capital results in molecular 114 ⁴⁸ and neuronal modifications ³⁰ associated with reversible age-related phenotypes ³¹ (Box 1) and 115 improved health, cognitive abilities and longevity. Social reprogramming in Harpegnathos saltator 116 ants (from workers to gamergates) conducts to longevity-associated brain remodelling ⁴⁹. To sum up, 117 118 social capital can reverse biological age.

119

120 Future perspectives: the interplay between social capital and biological age matters

121 Organic (e.g., food) and inorganic (e.g., social) resources influence survival, growth and reproduction. Social resources alone define social capital. Individuals can act on social interactions or social 122 activities to modify social capital and thus decrease stress, balance homeostasis, and ultimately 123 124 improve health. Because social capital is flexible and seems to be partly independent of chronological age, we suggest that social capital should be considered as a modifiable dimension (as defined in 125 mathematics, Figure 1) within the health space ⁵⁰, with its own regulatory processes and bidirectional 126 effects on individual senescence. As proposed by Richardson et al. ³³, social capital is not directly 127 linked to chronological age but can change with biological age. This modifiable characteristic involves 128 129 large intra- and inter-specific variations in social capital, which in turn influence individual ageing rate 130 and fitness.

131





Figure 3: Changes in biological age (③, curved line) according to chronological age (①, x-axis) and social capital (②, y-axis). The dotted line represents variations observed in returning to a previous caste and solicitations in eusocial insects, but may result from intervention on social parameters in humans and other animals. The most recent research in animal species showed that biological age ③ is not only dependent on chronological age ① but also on social capital ② with an interplay between ② and ③. Interplay with ① cannot exist as chronological age cannot be altered.

140 These statements (i.e., the presence of variations in social capital leading to variations in ageing rate 141 and fitness) give rise to future research directions that can be addressed in the three following 142 questions:

143 1) What is the extent of our knowledge on social capital? Social capital is most certainly a complex concept. This is illustrated by the large number of existing definitions in human sciences ^{2,16,51} but 144 also by the diversity of its potential components. Portes ⁵² noted that " the point is approaching at 145 which social capital comes to be applied to so many events and in so many different contexts as to 146 147 lose any distinct meaning." Because social capital seems to be important for individual fitness and 148 the evolution of sociality, it is crucial to acknowledge and apprehend its complexity. First, although 149 most of the attention has been focused on the health benefits of social capital so far, the possible 150 health risks associated with social capital also need to be considered, especially in terms of social overloading ^{33,34} or exposure to pathogens ⁵³. Page and collaborators ⁵⁴, for example, observed that 151 mothers with higher betweenness and closeness centrality show more frequent instances of 152 sickness, which somewhat counteracts other positive fitness effects. Other researchers have begun 153 to acknowledge that social capital ranges across a large spectrum spanning from positive to negative 154 consequences ^{55,56}, the latter being associated with adverse health outcomes. Costs of sociality are 155 important. For instance, high social status males experience accelerated epigenetic aging in wild 156 157 baboons ⁶ and higher oxidative damage but only during the mating season in mandrills ⁵⁷. We also 158 need to consider other positive resources that can be considered components of social capital. For example, it has been shown that in addition to providing food ⁵⁸, trophallaxes convey compounds 159 that are essential to individual health and growth in a conserved way across several taxa ⁵⁹, which 160 seems to indicate a selection. Like eusocial insects, mammals share organic compounds through the 161 162 social transmission of gut microbiome, which is known to influence health outcomes ⁶⁰. This field of study extends to birds, in which the feeding of chicks may allow intergenerational transmission of 163

such compounds ⁶¹, and thus ensure rapid adaptations to environmental changes ⁶². Whether or not 164 a richer social capital can improve adaptation in social species remains to be evaluated. Finding new 165 166 components of social capital is a research horizon that needs to be explored. Box 2 shows that social 167 capital may simply be directly related to the number of relationships or could be evaluated in a complex way with the inclusion of social activities and the locations in which these social activities 168 are performed. How social capital should be operationalized also depends on the studied species, the 169 conditions and the scales of the study (temporal scale and subject/social organisation scale, i.e., 170 interspecific comparisons of individuals that are studied throughout their lifetime). Future research 171 172 should further explore the potential components of social capital and their independent or 173 additive/synergistic effects on ageing outcomes, in laboratory but more importantly in natural 174 settings to demonstrate similar effects under natural variation of social relationships.

175 2) How can we explain individual and species variations in health and longevity? This section is about 176 ultimate mechanisms linking social capital to ageing. Among species, environmental factors have 177 differently shaped age-specific trade-offs between growth, reproduction and survival. Some components of the social capital can be influenced by environmental factors but can also attenuate 178 179 the impact of the latter, increasing or decreasing individual and species variations in health and 180 longevity. Future studies should therefore address the co-evolution of inter-specific variances in 181 social capital and senescence rate. Animal species characterized by particular age-specific social capital can emerge as novel behavioural models to address questions in current human ageing 182 research ^{9,45,47}. For instance, such studies may delineate how social capital modulates life period 183 184 trade-offs (*i.e,.* early-life growth and subsequent young and adult survival, and reproductive success) and how adult social capital may have co-evolved with post-reproductive lifespan ⁶³. For example, 185 female killer whales (Orcinus orca) live twice longer than males, and post-reproductive females have 186 greater knowledge and lead the group, thus enhancing the survival of their grand-offspring ¹⁰. These 187 old females, like elephant matriarchs²³, have a rich social capital, live longer and also provide their 188 189 offspring with a huge social capital. This grandmother hypothesis was primarily proposed in humans ³⁶. In line with these observations, one can hypothesize that variations in social capital in different life 190 191 stages influence variability in post-reproductive longevity (Figure 2b) and indirectly modulate sexdifferences in senescence ³⁵. This means that sex-related differences in social capital could lead to 192 193 sex-related differences in longevity because of health or because of fitness benefits of social capital. 194 However, such sex-related differences in longevity can be buffered when males associate with 195 females. For instance, male baboons who are more strongly bonded to females have longer lifespans 196 ⁵. The subject of age-related cognitive processes requires longitudinal neurobiological studies focusing on the ageing brain within the context of social capital ⁴⁷. Finally, the interaction between 197 social capital and life history traits has certainly been constrained by environmental factors such as 198 199 predation risks, parasite prevalence or local population density. It is also important to note that nonsocial species like ctenophores or cnidarians have almost reached immortality ⁶⁴, or may live for 200 201 centuries like the Galapagos turtle or the Greenland shark. This casts doubt on the incompressible limits of social benefits for longevity (Figure 2a and d). Multi-specific and multigenerational studies 202 203 will help to discover the mechanisms that underlie the relationships of social capital with species life-204 history and ecology.



206 Figure 2: Variation (y-axis) of social capital (blue), biological age (green) and health (orange) over 207 chronological age (x-axis) for an individual having access to (a.) life-long high social capital, (b.) only early-life high social capital, (c.) late-life high social capital, and (d.) life-long low social capital. Curves 208 209 are theoretical and based on past research conducted in different species that are cited in the main 210 text. They represent the global trajectory of the dimensions over the lifetime of an individual. Health is a state of physical, mental and social well-being that depends on internal (senescence) and 211 external (pathogens, pollutants, etc.) factors. Individuals die when health level reaches zero (dashed 212 black line). Biological age is a sum of intrinsic proxies and predicts health and survival prospects. 213 214 These schematic representations also raise questions pertaining to the limits of social capital 215 influence (both positive and negative) on longevity and health ($\mathbf{1}$ and $\mathbf{4}$), or indeed on the programming of physiological and social processes in early life that may counteract ageing even if 216 social capital evaporates over age (2), dashed orange and green lines representing how biological 217 age and health would change without these programming effects). Finally, Figure 1 also highlights 218 219 the reversible interaction with senescence (3).

220

221 3) How is social capital encoded to enhance fitness? This section is more about proximate 222 mechanisms linking social capital to ageing and fitness. Although we know that social capital is 223 related to individual fitness, little is known about the extent to which this relationship depends on 224 species ecology and gender, or whether it is restricted to certain life-history traits. The role of social 225 capital in variations of senescence onset or in senescence rate can be assessed in the context of evolutionary theories of ageing ⁶⁵. For instance, this can be done by determining how social capital 226 modulates the energy trade-offs that can occur during the life trajectory of individuals (e.g. 227 growth/reproduction and ageing trade-offs ^{45,66,67}). Potential biological mechanisms such as telomere 228 rate of loss ⁶⁸, oxidative stress or mitochondrial dysfunction ⁶⁹ (Box 1) that are already suspected to 229 play a major role in ageing would have to be tested in the light of the social capital context. For 230 231 example, extended sex-specific post-reproductive life in killer whales may have been co-selected 232 with specific social traits and anti-ageing mechanisms that have positive effects on female fitness and

their offspring ^{36,70}. Age-related variations in social capital in cooperative breeders have already been 233 linked with the fitness traits of individuals (see ^{44,46}). However, we have yet to elucidate the question 234 of how eusocial reproducers have acquired a specific social capital that probably enables them to 235 236 successfully face higher reproduction rates and attain a longer lifespan than non-reproducers. How is 237 the impact of social capital on senescence genetically or epigenetically encoded? For instance, personality, which is heritable, has an impact on longevity and pace of life⁷¹, and one of its basis is 238 sociality. Social capital could be encoded in this personality variable, a hypothesis that need to be 239 240 tested via the demonstration of a covariation at the individual level among social capital, personality 241 and longevity. Understanding the genetics and epigenetics of sociality would be of help in unraveling 242 mechanisms that link sociality to ageing outcomes and fitness. In this respect, we propose that the recent development of genomics and proteomics to study ageing ^{30,48} should be extended to include 243 244 the study of social capital. These investigations will likely extend our knowledge on how evolution has co-selected sociality and longevity ^{9,63}. Furthermore, these new findings could subsequently be 245 leveraged to promote healthy ageing. 246

247 Concluding remarks

248 The three points we developed indicate that working with social capital and markers of senescence 249 along life will prove to be more powerful than standing with chronological age. Making these 250 comparisons in animals is of paramount importance as animal studies allow (i) to reduce the number 251 of confounding factors by controlling experimental conditions; (ii) to carry out studies over several 252 generations in a relatively short timeframe, and study evolution through genetic and epigenetic 253 effects; and (iii) to conduct invasive and integrative experimental studies going from the cell to the 254 group level, which is impossible in humans. Experimental designs or observations of wild individuals 255 throughout their lifespan and across several generations will help to better understand the long-term consequences of social capital. This is mainly possible through longitudinal studies ⁷² or 256 257 multigenerational laboratory studies with a controlled environment and small changes in the study 258 design (i.e., systematic heterogenization of study samples as group size, group composition, number of helpers) 73,74. 259

260 Taken together, currently available data suggest that focusing on social capital and markers of 261 senescence throughout lifespan may explain individual health and fitness better than chronological age. The observation that mean lifespan is greater in eusocial than non-eusocial species leads us to 262 question the co-evolution of sociality with senescence ⁹. Social capital adjustment further suggests 263 that the basic assumptions that environmentally driven mortality shapes the selection of senescence 264 265 may be more complex than we initially thought. Although mean lifespan is influenced by a large 266 number of factors, the respective contribution of social capital versus other biological, ecological and 267 environmental factors in the regulation of senescence and longevity remains an open question. Time 268 is finite for most living animals, but social capital appears to be a promising tool to make senescence 269 an adjustable parameter and to slow down the rate of $ageing^{75}$.



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Figure 3: Schema of the proposed mutual influence of social capital, chronological age and biologicalage, from the cell level to the network.

275 While an individual can have a long-life expectancy, it may not attain the same fitness as a 276 conspecific due to an accelerated **senescence** of the reproductive function (figure 3). The rate of 277 senescence at the individual level is expected to reflect the lifelong deleterious impact of costly traits such as growth, immunity or reproduction ⁶⁷. Inter-individual variability in the age of senescence 278 onset is also a unique opportunity to investigate the genetic and socio-environmental factors that 279 shape **ageing** trade-offs within a given population. Social stress has been known to modulate ageing 280 pathways for the last decade ⁷⁶. However, interplay between social capital and age may highlight 281 282 putative loops of intertwined pathways that modulate reproductive success and survival rate in both negative and positive ways ①. In a resource-based explanation, an initial underlying mechanism 283 284 relies on the impact of social capital on energy resource acquisition (for instance via the acquisition of knowledge or friendly relationships) 2. However, variation in social capital may act indirectly 285 through cellular and physiological changes that strengthen resilience to stress 3 or body energy 286 287 homeostasis 🚇. These effects are currently inferred from previous observations. Social isolation and interactions have been described as having opposite effects on stress hormones ¹⁴, with potentially 288 negative consequences but also adaptive responses observed at the physiological and cellular level 289 (e.g. oxidative stress)⁷⁷. Another study suggests that social isolation has negative effects on stress 290 and energy balance ⁴². Inflammation is also an important biological mechanism that links social 291 capital to unhealthy states ⁷⁸. Indeed, various forms of social adversity are associated with elevated 292 expression of proinflammatory genes and decreased expression of genes related to innate immune 293 responses in humans⁷⁹ and rhesus macaques⁸⁰. These altered individual performances in the 294 295 acquisition of energy from the environment will be reflected in the life-history trade-offs for the 296 allocation of energy to individual fitness traits. Social isolation triggers an increased rate of telomere loss (a biological index of ageing)⁸¹ and disrupts energy homeostasis. Increased telomerase activity in 297 socially stressed individuals has also been described in the literature ⁸². This suggests that social 298 299 variables do indeed impact cell-ageing proxies, as previously suggested for social rank and telomere length ^{40,68}. However, as social capital likely varies over time and depends on individual physiological 300 301 status, a feedback of physiology is expected on sociality (5, 6). For instance, some authors

- suggest possible causal effects of short telomeres on unhealthy behaviours as smoking in humans ⁴⁰. 302 303 It means that some physiological traits (short telomeres) can conduct to some bad aspects of 304 sociality (here being conformist with risky behaviours for health) enhancing the physiological traits (decreasing telomeres). Another example is the accelerated death of ill flies (Drosophila 305 306 melanogaster) who are isolated from their conspecifics, likely because of reluctant physiological traits as cancer ⁴³. Because individuals have cancer, they are isolated from others but this in turn 307 accelerates cancer progression. These studies confirm that the social capital – fitness relationships 308 309 have auto-regulating properties, a finding that calls for dedicated studies to identify these causal 310 links.
- 311

312 Box 2: What are the components of social capital?

Although work on social capital abounds across disciplines, there is no consensus on its 313 conceptualization and operationalization ^{4,51,83,84}. Social capital can first be studied in terms of 314 resources or services that are embedded in spatial associations (e.g., proximities, being close to an 315 316 individual can provide access to food) or social interactions (e.g., grooming). Although social 317 resources that are embedded in social relationships cannot be directly controlled using behavioural strategies, individuals can choose the individuals with whom they maintain relationships ^{3,11}. Food is 318 primarily an ecological resource, but access to it depends on the social capital of the individual (social 319 320 support, cooperation, alliances, tolerance).

321 Because social relationships are the basis on which social capital is managed, the notion of social 322 capital is often simplified to these social relationships, in which social resources are exchanged. 323 These relationships can be described from their compositional (e.g., hierarchical position of the 324 individuals) or structural (e.g., distributions of social relationships) properties. In many studies, social 325 network indices such as degree (number of social relationships, see table S2 for metrics from social 326 network analysis to measure the components of social capital) are used as a proxy of social capital. 327 Most of the past studies have focused on the direct social relationships between individuals in a network (e.g., degree or strength⁸⁵), yet indirect relationships (*e.g.*, friend of our friend, betweenness 328 or clustering coefficient⁸⁵) also influence social capital ^{12,58}. These indirect connections affecting 329 information but also disease⁵³ transmission networks may strengthen the cognition and longevity of 330 species, in which cultural behaviour is important ⁵³. Furthermore, cultural differences influence social 331 capital in humans⁸⁶; few studies have been conducted to date on this topic in non-human animals, 332 and further studies should be carried out. 333

Lastly, social activities and geospatial locations can be studied in relation with social capital⁸⁷, but can also be integrated as components of the latter. Indeed, human social activities are linked to specific locations and both elements can be combined to better understand covariation between social capital and health ⁸⁷. This covariation between social capital, location and task is obvious in eusocial insects ^{33,34}, but evidence is lacking in other species. Both Wild et al. ³⁴ and Richardson et al. ³³ used information about social interactions, proximities, social activities and location to calculate a social capital index.

- To summarize, the social capital components we need to identify are: resources embedded in social relationships ¹⁶ such as information and services ¹¹, the composition and structure of social networks (individual but also group metrics), cultural differences, social activities and geospatial locations. Table S1 summarizes the currently considered components of social capital according to the studied species and the level of studies. Table S2 summarizes metrics from social network analysis to measure the components of social capital.
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- 348

349	Glossary:				
350	- Ageing: the only consensual definition is that it is a heterogeneous process of becoming older.				
351 352 353 354 355	- Biological age : individual age as determined through different biological markers that change over time, but not necessarily related to chronological age. Biological age is composed of different stages (e.g., ontogeny, reproductive life, and senescence, including post-reproductive life). Contrary to chronological age, biological age considers the individual in relation to its date of death, while chronological age considers it in relation to its date of birth.				
356 357	- Cooperative breeding : social system characterized by alloparental care: offspring receives care not only from their parents, but also from additional group members, often called helpers.				
358 359	- Chronological age (or age): the age of an individual as measured from birth to a given date referring to time, usually based on the Gregorian calendar.				
360 361	 Eusociality: highest level of sociality defined by cooperative brood care, overlapping generations, and division of labour into reproductive and non-reproductive groups. 				
362 363	- Evolutionary theories of ageing : proposals to explain the persistence of the deleterious process of ageing over several generations, despite the action of natural selection.				
364 365	 Fitness: defined here as the individual's ability to transmit its genes directly (with offspring) or indirectly (by helping relatives, i.e., inclusive fitness) to future generations. 				
366 367 368 369 370 371	- Health : state of complete physical and mental independence in activities of daily living ² . Being healthy, in practical terms, means having adequate physical and mental independence in activities of daily living. The main three characteristics of the dynamic equilibrium between the occurrence of damage and the processes of maintenance and repair are damage control, stress response and constant remodeling and adaptation. These elements can be studied at different levels of the organism, as described in Box 1.				
372	- Healthy ageing: process of maintaining functionality of a living system as age advances.				
373	- Longevity: mean lifetime duration for a species.				
374	- Ontogeny: development of an organism from fertilization to the adult stage (reproductive stage).				
375 376 377	- Senescence : progressive decline of biological functions, eventually leading to death. In evolutionary terms, senescence can be defined as the decrease in the age-specific contribution to fitness over lifetime.				
378 379 380 381 382 383 384 385 386	- Social capital: resources embedded in a social structure which are accessed and / or mobilized in purposive action. The resources of an individual vary during its life, meaning that social capital fluctuates with age. In some studies, the number of partners or the connections an individual has within its network ¹² are a proxy to measure social capital. Differences in social capital implies that group members have differentiated and contrasting relationships with each other ¹¹ , as observed in cooperative breeding or eusocial species. This means that it is difficult to seek to identify social capital components in communal breeding or gregarious species with few differentiated relationships ¹¹ . However, in these cases it would be possible to start with the use of simpler indices like group size or kinship size as social capital proxies.				
387 388 389 390	- Social resources: Social resources are defined as any concrete or symbolic item that can be used as an object of exchange among people. Foa and Foa classified social resources into six categories for humans: love/affection, status, information, services, goods, and money ⁸⁸ . Money can be replaced by access to food in non-human animals.				

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Table S1: Components of social capital according to the studied species and the level of study.

Variations inside a same group/colony

Eusocial species (e.g. ants, bees, naked mole-rats) **Properties of social interactions** including number and duration of interactions, type of interactions (e.g., trophallaxes⁸⁹, antenna-toantenna, grooming), intra-caste or inter-caste interactions.

Spatial distribution of social interactions⁹⁰ according to individual mobility patterns

Individual positions within the social system including, not exclusively, individual caste (e.g., male, queen, nest worker) or centrality index ⁹¹

Variations between groups/colonies Properties of the colony⁹²

including, not exclusively, its size, the population distribution by caste (e.g., mono/polygyny, the ratio of individual between caste), and the colony age.

Properties of the whole system of social interactions⁵⁸ using network

indicators such as community separation and its resilience.

Interspecific variations

Properties of the colony, including, among others, its size, the caste system specific characteristic (e.g., number of reproductive individuals, marked division of labor, short or long-lived males, worker dimorphism)^{93–96}

Relation with other colonies

including the tolerance level and belonging to supercolony ⁹⁷.

Cooperative breeding species **Properties of social interactions** including number and duration of interactions, type of interactions (e.g., grooming, aggression, reproductive behavior). ^{98,99}

Properties of social relationships which may include kinship, sex, reproductive status and dominance hierarchy.¹⁰⁰

Individual positions within social structures

including, not exclusively, individual status (e.g., reproductive or helpers) and its position between reproductive sub-groups. ^{101–103}

Properties of the colony, may include its size, the number of helpers and offspring and the system of interactions between reproductive sub-groups.¹⁰⁴

Properties of cooperative breeding, including if its facultative or systematic and the level of competition for reproduction between helpers and male breeder. ^{105–109}

Comparing evolutionary advantages of cooperative and not-cooperative breeding,

regarding *e.g.* longevity, reproductive success, life history. ^{110–112}

Primate
societies and
similar
mammal
societiesProperties of social interactions including
number and duration of interactions, type of
interactions (e.g., grooming, aggression,
reproductive behavior, exchange of
resources)^113-115 and their spatial distribution116

 Properties of social relationships, including, not exclusively, kinship¹¹⁷, dominance¹¹⁸, direction and reciprocity in conflicts and

resources exchange¹¹⁹.

Individual position within social structures,

including, among others, centrality⁸⁵, belonging to certain subgroups and dominance¹²⁰ relative to the whole hierarchy Properties of the group, including their size, and their age/sex distribution^{121,122}

Cultural variation^{123,124} including, among others, tolerance in aggression and exchange with nonkin, tool use

Properties of the interaction network, including, among other, the level of community division resulting from non-kin interactions¹²⁵.

Exchange with and tolerance of other groups (between-group

competition)

Properties of the group, including, their size, the mating system, the hierarchical structures, and affiliation between non-kin¹²⁵.

Structure of the interaction

networks including their size, community structure and efficacy in exchange of information and ressources^{126,127}

Properties of social relationships which may Humans include, relation type (e.g., relatives, colleagues, friends)¹²⁸, relationship diversity¹²⁹ marital status and quality^{130–132}, closeness and intimacy ^{133,134}, homophily ^{135,136} and their perceived valence (i.e., positive, negative, ambivalent)¹³⁷.

Properties of social Interactions, which may

include perceived and received support^{138–140} companionship^{141,142}, negative interactions^{143,144} and their geospatial distribution ^{145,146}.

Individual position within social structures

such as centrality and periphery¹⁴⁷, brokerage¹⁴⁸, and belonging to specific subgroups¹⁴⁹

Indicators of complex process such as social

isolation^{150,151} bonding and bridging capital^{152,153}, social participation¹⁵⁴, social inclusion and exclusion¹⁵⁵.

International and intra-national comparison of individual-level social capital according, not exclusively, to ethnic groups¹⁵⁶, welfare regime¹⁵⁷, regional economic growth¹⁵⁸, or socio-economic status

Community-level social properties

such as centrality ^{159,160}, clustering ^{161–163} dyadic distances ^{159,161}, social connectedness ^{164,165} or components and cyclical structures¹⁶⁶

768 769 NA

770 **Table S2: Metrics from social network analysis to measure the components of social capital.** We define usual metrics used in social network analysis and

give non-exhaustive example of their possible use in diverse systems to assess the components of social capital cited above in Table S1. We call network, the

scales greater than the individual. It can be groups, colonies, species. A path is the successive connections that are necessary to link an individual A to an

individual B within a given group. The shortest path is the one that minimizes the number of necessary connections. We use the term 'resources' in a broad

sense that can include, depending on the model studied: information, food, sexual partner...

Social metrics	Scale	Definition	Practical examples of the social network metrics to study social capital
degree	individual	* The number of connections (neighbors) of an individual * This metrics can be undirected or directed, in this latter case we distinguish the case where individuals <i>emit</i> interaction towards the interaction towards	* Studying the individual degree highlights social immunity in eusocial insects. ¹⁶⁷ * Chicks' degree in cooperative breeders is a proxy for the intensity of parental care they can get. ¹⁶⁸
		<i>receive</i> interactions (<i>in-degree</i>).	social relationships.
strength	individual	* The interaction number in which an individual is involved. * This metrics can be undirected or directed, in this case we distinguish the interactions <i>given</i> (<i>out-strength</i>) from the ones <i>received</i> (<i>in-strength</i>).	 * The number of given and emitted aggressions between conspecifics affect the individual physiology, especially triggers oxidative stress. ¹⁷¹ * Duration and number of trophallaxes vary according to social role in black garden ants. ⁵⁸ * Lower-rank individuals may benefit from higher-rank ones' protection through an intensive grooming behavior. ¹⁷²
betweenness	individual	The number of shortest paths passing through an individual. Individuals with a high betweenness are crucial nodes through which a large amount of resource passes.	* Having a high betweenness may be an advantage regarding the access to resources but a drawback regarding the exposition to pathogens. ¹⁷³
eigenvector	individual	This metrics adds the neighbor amount of an individual to the neighbor amount of those neighbors. It reflects the possibility to access resources through direct and indirect connections.	* Chimpanzees with higher values of eigenvector centrality in early adulthood have been found more likely to be high-ranked in the hierarchy later in life. ¹⁷⁴
closeness	individual	Gives the average distance (number of connections) necessary to reach all other members of the groups. So, counterintuitively, a high closeness coefficient reflects social isolation.	* Closeness coefficients reliably predict hierarchy and dominance patterns, <i>e.g.</i> in pigs. ¹⁷⁵ * Social isolation is proved to be a major health issue in humans and non-human animals. ¹⁷⁶
modularity and clustering coefficient	network	These two metrics are based on different formula, but both assess whether individuals tend to cluster into modules characterized by a strong intra-module interaction but a weak inter-modules interaction.	* Such metrics highlight groups cooperating for access to resources and thus increasing their social capital. ^{177,178}
diameter	network	Gives the longest path of the network and thus a clue about the speed all group members can access a resource.	* Diameter and other network metrics have been used in ants to measure the network plasticity in different ant colonies, and have been linked to pathogen resistance. ⁹¹
density	network	The number of connections observed within the group divided by all the possible connections.	* A density index may be used, for instance, to compare the degree of selectivity (high selectivity implies low density) of different groups of ravens to know if they share resources with specific individuals or not. ¹⁷⁹