

1 **Effects of the social environment on vertebrate fitness and**  
2 **health in nature: moving beyond the stress axis**

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19 **Keywords:** dominance, epigenetics, hierarchies, HPA, social determinants of health, social  
20 buffers

21 **ABSTRACT**

22 Social interactions are a ubiquitous feature of the lives of vertebrate species. These may be  
23 cooperative or competitive, and shape the dynamics of social systems, with profound effects on  
24 individual behavior, physiology, health, fitness, and health. On one hand, a wealth of studies  
25 on humans, laboratory animal models, and captive species have focused on understanding the  
26 relationships between social interactions and individual health within the context of disease and  
27 pathology. On the other, ecological studies are attempting an understanding of how social  
28 interactions shape individual phenotypes in the wild, and the consequences this entails in terms  
29 of adaptation. Whereas numerous studies in wild vertebrates have focused on the relationships  
30 between social environments and the stress axis, much remains to be done in understanding  
31 how socially-related activation of stress axis coordinates other key physiological functions  
32 related to health. Here, we review the state of our current knowledge on the effects that social  
33 interactions may have on other markers of vertebrate health. Building upon complementary  
34 findings from the biomedical and ecological fields, we identify 6 key physiological functions  
35 (cellular metabolism, oxidative stress, cellular senescence, immunity, brain function, and the  
36 regulation of biological rhythms) which are intimately related to the stress axis, and likely  
37 directly affected by social interactions. Our goal is a holistic understanding of how social  
38 environments affect vertebrate fitness and health in the wild. Whereas both social interactions  
39 and social environments are recognized as important sources of phenotypic variation, their  
40 consequences on vertebrate fitness, and the adaptive nature of social-stress-induced  
41 phenotypes, remain unclear. Social flexibility, or the ability of an animal to change its social  
42 behavior with resulting changes in social systems in response to fluctuating environments, has  
43 emerged as a critical underlying factor that may buffer the beneficial and detrimental effects of  
44 social environments on vertebrate fitness and health.

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46 **Keywords:** dominance, epigenetics, hierarchies, HPA, social buffers, social determinants of  
47 health

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## 50 INTRODUCTION

51 Social interactions with conspecifics are ubiquitous in vertebrates. These range from  
52 interactions between mates, between parents and offspring, among siblings, among members  
53 living in groups, or between competitors for space (Wilson, 1975). The evolution of social-  
54 living is typically considered in the light of resource competition, kin selection, cooperation,  
55 and predation pressure (Hamilton, 1964, 1971; Alexander, 1974; Wilson, 1975; Oli and  
56 Armitage, 2003; Silk, 2007; Roulin and Dreiss, 2012); with social biology shaped by a balance  
57 between the advantages earned, and costs and constraints paid from aggregating with  
58 conspecifics. As a consequence, the optimal frequency, duration, intensity, and quality of social  
59 interactions, as well as information exchanged between conspecifics, is expected to vary greatly  
60 across species and life-stages depending on the ecology and life history of a species and its  
61 surrounding (social, biotic and abiotic) environment (Kappeler et al., 2013; Schradin, 2013;  
62 Hofmann et al., 2014). Importantly, deviation from optimal levels of social interactions,  
63 whether due to social isolation or overload, can lead to negative effects on vertebrate fitness,  
64 often referred to in the literature as ‘social stress’ (DeVries et al., 2003; Goymann and  
65 Wingfield, 2004; Creel et al., 2013; Snyder-Mackler et al., 2020).

66 Much of the behavioral and physiological changes that occur when vertebrates are faced  
67 with predictable or unpredictable stressors – such as when dealing with conspecifics – are  
68 orchestrated by the Sympathetic-Adrenal-Medullary axis (SAM) and the Hypothalamic-  
69 Pituitary-Adrenal (HPA) axis (hypothalamic pituitary inter-renal HPI in fish) (Smith and Vale,  
70 2006; Romero and Butler, 2007). Thus, it is not surprising that studies on the relationships  
71 between social interactions and individual physiology have focused on what has come to be  
72 known as the stress axis. These studies have considered both aspects of the stress response: i.e.  
73 (1) SAM activity, which occurs within seconds of a disturbance, participates in the “fight-or-  
74 flight” response of the organism via the action of catecholamines (adrenaline, noradrenaline),

75 and can be measured through increases in blood catecholamine levels (Stoddard et al., 1987;  
76 Sgoifo and Papi, 1995; Sgoifo et al., 1996), or their effects, such as increased heart rate in  
77 response to social stimuli (Eisermann, 1992; Sgoifo et al., 1999; Jong et al., 2000; Wascher et  
78 al., 2008; Wascher et al., 2009; Viblanc et al., 2012); and (2) HPA activity which is slower and  
79 more sustained, and results in the production of glucocorticoids (GC; cortisol or corticosterone)  
80 from the adrenal cortex that promote the mobilization of carbohydrates from body reserves to  
81 face the stressful events (Sapolsky et al., 2000).

82         Whereas the effects of social interactions on the stress axis are now well known, in  
83 humans, laboratory/captive animals, and in wild animals, (reviewed at length elsewhere;  
84 DeVries et al., 2003; Goymann and Wingfield, 2004; Creel 2004; Creel et al., 2013) it is only  
85 more recently that researchers have started to move beyond the stress axis alone in  
86 understanding the adaptive consequences of social interactions (Snyder-Mackler et al., 2020).  
87 On one hand, a large body of research on human well-being and on laboratory/ captive animals  
88 has sought to understand how 'negative' social interactions (competition, hierarchies, work  
89 stress, emotional neglect or abuse, etc.) may lead to pathology and disease (DeVries et al., 2003;  
90 Cohen, 2004; Epel et al., 2004; Avitsur et al., 2006; Blackburn and Epel, 2012; Norman et al.,  
91 2012), whereas 'positive' social interactions may provide a buffer against social challenges,  
92 alleviating individual stress, in many cases with positive health outcomes (Turner-Cobb et al.,  
93 2000; DeVries et al., 2003; Heinrichs et al., 2003; Cohen, 2004; Rosal et al., 2004; Uchino,  
94 2004; Lutgendorf et al., 2005; Uchino, 2006; Uchino, 2006; Uchino et al., 2012; Bateson, 2016).  
95 On the other, numerous studies in wild vertebrates have focused on the relationships between  
96 social environments and the stress axis (see Creel et al., 2013) but much remains to be  
97 understood about how social environments (often through modulation of the HPA or SAM  
98 axes) affect other important physiological functions directly related to individual fitness and  
99 health (Sapolsky, 2004, 2005; Snyder-Mackler et al., 2020). Below, we review the current state

100 of knowledge on the effects that social interactions can have on markers of vertebrate health.  
101 We highlight areas where research is needed and propose directions for future studies to  
102 broaden our understanding of the consequences that social interactions can have on the health  
103 and fitness of wild vertebrates, shaping group dynamics and the evolution of sociality. We see  
104 three main reasons why studies would benefit from a more holistic view of vertebrate health,  
105 rather than focusing on the activation of the stress axis alone.

106 First, studies aiming to understand the effects of social environments on individual  
107 physiology and stress have mostly focused on how social interactions may affect the function  
108 of the SAM or HPA/I axes, and these studies have often used chronically elevated levels of  
109 circulating GC as indicative of elevated stress load and a likely marker of disease and pathology  
110 (Boonstra 2013). This view is one that stems mostly from the biomedical literature where  
111 individuals are pushed beyond their capacity to cope with stressors from the environment.  
112 Under such situations, the negative feedback loops that terminate stress responses are impaired,  
113 resulting in irreversible “wear and tear” of bodily functions (McEwen and Wingfield, 2003;  
114 Romero et al., 2009). Whereas this might occur in natural conditions, it is more likely the  
115 exception rather than the rule, stress and chronically elevated GC levels being primarily  
116 adaptive responses to deal with ecological challenges, and thus beneficial (Boonstra, 2004,  
117 2005, 2013; Bonier et al., 2009; Beehner and Bergman, 2017). Some confusion may occur when  
118 GCs are often and misleadingly referred to negatively and interpreted as “stress hormones” in  
119 the literature (including in some of our own papers) (MacDougall-Shackleton et al., 2019).  
120 Because GCs are pleiotropic hormones with receptor- and tissue-specific functions, that  
121 modulate the expression of some 10% of the genome (Le et al., 2005), the role of GCs cannot  
122 be confined to the stress response alone. Unfortunately, several studies using the descriptor  
123 “stress hormones” fail to consider the adaptive action of GCs in coordinating other essential  
124 physiological functions (for a discussion see Boonstra, 2007, 2013; MacDougall-Shackleton et

125 al., 2019). Yet studies from wild vertebrates indicate that chronically elevated maternal GCs  
126 can adaptively shape the next generation to cope with prevailing social circumstances (Dantzer  
127 et al., 2013; Boogert et al., 2014). It is increasingly acknowledged that, in natural conditions,  
128 GCs levels alone are not sufficient to evaluate the adaptive nature of physiological stress,  
129 especially chronic stress, as such states might reflect the natural and evolutionary conserved  
130 response of organisms in coping with the environmental challenges of their daily lives  
131 (Boonstra, 2013; MacDougall-Shackleton et al., 2019; Harris, 2020).

132         Second, focusing solely on the measurement of individual total GC levels in response  
133 to social interactions alone can be misleading. GCs circulate in the bloodstream either strongly  
134 bound to corticosteroid binding globulin (CBG) or free. The free hormone hypothesis states  
135 that only the latter is biologically active and can bind to GC receptors (GR) to trigger cellular  
136 signaling pathways and modifications in gene transcription and cell functioning (Mendel,  
137 1989). Because about 90% of blood GCs are bound to CBG in the vast majority of vertebrates  
138 (Desantis et al., 2013a; Delehanty et al., 2015; 2020), our understanding of how social  
139 interactions affect individual stress requires analyzing total GCs *and* CBG levels, and how these  
140 change as a function of the social environment. This could provide information not only on the  
141 biologically active fraction of GC (the free GC) and level of activation of the HPA/I axis in  
142 response to social challenges, but also on the organism's capacity to buffer elevated levels of  
143 circulating GC by binding to CBG. Such information is functionally important in maintaining  
144 physiologically acceptable levels of active GCs in the organism (Breuner et al., 2013). Studies  
145 from captive animals indicate that socially stressed animals experience a decrease in CBG  
146 capacity, leading to higher access of free GCs (Spencer, 1996; Alexander and Irvine, 1998;  
147 Tamashiro et al., 2005; Otten et al., 2010). However, those studies usually focus on situations  
148 where social conflict is forced, and little is known of social effects on CBG in wild vertebrates.  
149 An alternative hypothesis for the relationship between CBG and social interactions is that

150 binding capacity may be increased as a response to chronic social conflicts, *i.e.* to buffer  
151 potentially negative effects of chronically elevated GC such as immunodepression (Desantis et  
152 al., 2013). Our current studies in colonial king penguins (*Aptenodytes patagonicus*), which are  
153 highly aggressive and territorial during reproduction (Côté, 2000), indicate that adults breeding  
154 in high social densities exhibit increased CBG levels compared to adults breeding in low social  
155 densities (Lemonnier, Schull, Stier, Boonstra, Delahanty, Lefol, Durand, Robin, Criscuolo,  
156 Bize, Viblanc; *unpublished data*). Elevated CBG levels may adaptively allow birds to cope with  
157 chronically stressful social environments (Viblanc et al., 2012; Viblanc et al., 2014a), but in  
158 general, chronic stress imposed by external stressors (e.g. predation; Boonstra et al. 1998)  
159 causes CBG levels to fall, and free levels to increase. Not all researchers agree with the need to  
160 measure free levels (see Schoech et al., 2013). The affinity between CBG and GC is subject to  
161 local conditions (infection, temperature, other steroid hormones, etc., Cameron et al., 2010; Lin  
162 et al., 2010). Therefore, rigor is needed in quantifying CBG and thus free GCs levels (Delehanty  
163 et al., 2015; 2020), though it is clear that over the short term (4-24 h depending on the species),  
164 CBG levels are stable in plasma. However, extensive evidence indicates that CBG is a key  
165 mediator of the biological effects of circulating GCs (Siiteri et al., 1982; Hammond, 1990;  
166 Perogamvros et al., 2011; Qian et al., 2011) and thus needs to be quantified to assess how the  
167 social environment affects free GC levels.

168         Third, many studies investigating the effects of social environments and social  
169 interactions on the vertebrate stress axis in the wild have done so in the context of dominant-  
170 subordinate social relationships in social hierarchies (Fox et al., 1997; Kotrschal et al., 1998;  
171 Abbott et al., 2003; Goymann and Wingfield, 2004; Muller and Wrangham, 2004; Ostner et al.,  
172 2008; Gesquiere et al., 2011; Dantzer et al., 2017). Yet, the relationships between GCs and  
173 social rank are not always consistent (Sapolsky and Ray, 1989; Creel, 2001; Creel et al., 2013),  
174 and in many cases the endocrine and demographic consequences of social interactions and



175 social rank do not appear to be mediated by the SAM or HPA/I axes. In particular, studies in  
176 cooperative breeding species of effects of the social hierarchy on the stress axis have found that  
177 baseline GC concentrations are often higher in dominant than subordinates individuals (or not  
178 detectably related to social status). Although direct associations are often found between social  
179 hierarchy and various aspects of reproductive function in cooperative breeding species, this  
180 body of research has shown that these associations are not necessarily mediated by SAM or  
181 HPA/I function, and that other pathways can be involved, such as changes in sex steroid levels  
182 or the functioning of the hypothalamic-pituitary-gonadal HPG axis (Schoech et al., 1991;  
183 Abbott et al., 1997; Creel et al., 1997; Faulkes and Abbott, 1997; Carlson et al., 2004; reviewed  
184 in Montgomery et al., 2018; Creel, 2022 this issue; but see Young et al., 2006; Hart et al., 2022  
185 this issue). These studies indicate that other important physiological mechanisms than the stress  
186 (HPA/I or SAM) axis are key to a proper understanding of the effects of social environments  
187 on individual phenotypes, and of the adaptive consequences of social interactions and social  
188 hierarchies.

189 For these reasons, our understanding of the fitness consequences that social interactions  
190 may have on vertebrates in the wild, and the extent to which they are an important source of  
191 phenotypic variation within and amongst social units (siblings, families, matriline, colonies,  
192 etc.), should benefit from a holistic view encompassing key physiological functions, some  
193 centrally coordinated by the SAM or HPA/I axes, pertaining to vertebrate health (Sapolsky,  
194 2005, 2004; Snyder-Mackler et al., 2020).

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196

197 **MOVING BEYOND THE STRESS AXES ALONE: SOCIAL EFFECTS ON**  
198 **VERTEBRATE FITNESS AND HEALTH**

199 Health has often been defined as the absence of disease, inflammation or pathology (Blaxter,  
200 2010). This definition, however, can be unpractical, especially when trying to determine how  
201 social stressors affect the functioning of organisms, as an overwhelming number of mechanisms  
202 and pathways can result in the genesis of diseases (Blaxter, 2010; Ayres, 2020). A more  
203 practical definition describes the hallmarks of health as the function of cells and organs,  
204 integration of functions and communication at the cellular and organism levels, and normal  
205 biological rhythms (López-Otín and Kroemer, 2021) where “normal” allows for allostasis and  
206 response to stress with no or minimal long-term deleterious effects, as the organismal response  
207 to stressful stimuli is part of the usual and adaptive functioning of organisms (McEwen and  
208 Wingfield, 2003; Romero et al., 2009). Below, we review the state of current knowledge on the  
209 effects that social environments have on vertebrate health by focusing on key functions. The  
210 key functions encompass individual metabolism/energetics, oxidative stress/damage/ageing  
211 processes, immunity/inflammation, cognitive/psychological state and decline, and the  
212 regulation of biological rhythms (Figure 1).

213

#### 214 **Social effects on metabolism and energetics: a key role for cellular mitochondria?**

215 Regulating the organism’s energy balance, and the rate at which organisms acquire and expend  
216 energy and materials, is central to maintaining life and governs several ecological processes  
217 (Brown et al., 2004). Because physical activity is associated with an increase in oxygen and  
218 energy substrate consumption that are needed to fuel muscular activity, it follows that social  
219 interactions are often associated with an increase in activity and therefore in metabolic rate. For  
220 instance, territorial defense against social conspecifics, the maintenance of a position in the  
221 social hierarchy, or vocal advertising during competitive displays have all been associated with  
222 increased metabolic rates in birds (Nephew and Romero, 2003; Lindström et al., 2005; Viera et  
223 al., 2011), reptiles (Marler et al., 1995), amphibians (Wells and Taigen, 1986), and fish

224 (Metcalf et al., 1995; Sloman et al., 2000; Reid et al., 2011). However, it is not clear that  
225 increased metabolic rate in response to social stressors is due to increased physical activity  
226 alone. In brown trout (*Salmo trutta*) for instance, subordinate fish paired with dominant fish  
227 showed higher standard metabolic rate despite displaying overall lower levels of activity  
228 (Sloman et al., 2000). In king penguins (*Aptenodytes patagonicus*), bird daily heart rate at rest  
229 (a proxy to resting energy expenditure; Groscolas et al., 2010) is positively associated with  
230 increasing social density in breeding colonies (Viblanco et al., 2014b). Interestingly, higher  
231 social densities in penguins are also associated with higher baseline GC levels in individual  
232 birds (Viblanco et al., 2014a), suggesting a mechanistic link between social stressors, GCs, and  
233 metabolic rate. Besides their complex role in regulating glucose metabolism and the availability  
234 of energy substrates (Peckett et al., 2011; Kuo et al., 2015;), studies have indicated that GC play  
235 a role in stimulating the biogenesis of mitochondria and mitochondrial DNA transcription  
236 (Weber et al., 2002; Hunter et al., 2016; Morgan et al., 2016), which might account for elevated  
237 resting metabolic rates under stressful conditions.

238         There is an intuitive appeal in studying mitochondria to understand vertebrate responses  
239 to stressful (social) situations. Mitochondria, often referred to as ‘energy powerhouses’ of  
240 eukaryote cells, are organelles responsible for the majority of energy production in vertebrates  
241 (Lane, 2006). Their function, morphology and behavior (communication at inter-mitochondrial  
242 junctions; Picard et al., 2015) are responsible for determining much of animal performances  
243 (Heine and Hood, 2020). In the context of stress, mitochondria play a key role in making  
244 cellular energy available under challenging conditions by conforming to local levels of  
245 glucocorticoids (Manoli et al., 2007; Picard et al., 2014, 2018). But more importantly,  
246 mitochondria are key regulators that are involved in the stress response itself (Picard et al.,  
247 2014; Lapp et al., 2019). Following ACTH activation by the adrenal gland, the synthesis of  
248 steroids (including glucocorticoids) is limited by the transport of cholesterol across the

249 mitochondrial membrane for conversion into pregnanolone (Bose et al., 2002; Clark, 2016),  
250 and later conversion into GCs (corticosterone or cortisol) in the mitochondrial matrix before  
251 their release into the general circulation (Picard et al., 2018). Thus, mitochondria not only  
252 respond to variations in local GCs levels, but also play an essential role in their production.

253         Although the study of mitochondrial function is recently gaining attention in the field  
254 of ecology and evolution as a central effector mediating life history trade-offs (Criscuolo et al.,  
255 2005; Hood et al., 2018; Havird et al., 2019; Koch et al., 2021), there are yet few studies that  
256 have considered mitochondria under the light of organismal stress in wild vertebrates (Stier et  
257 al., 2019; Casagrande et al., 2020), except for the well-known role of mitochondria in the  
258 response to thermal stress (Criscuolo et al., 2005; Koch et al., 2021). To our knowledge, little  
259 is known on the relationships between social environments/social interactions and  
260 mitochondrial function in the wild. A recent study in captive rats identified the nucleus  
261 accumbens (NAc), a brain region involved in the expression of motivation and anxiety  
262 behaviors, as critical in the establishment of social hierarchies (Hollis et al., 2015). Surprisingly,  
263 anxious rats had reduced mitochondrial respiratory capacity in the NAc and lower ATP output.  
264 More importantly, experimentally inhibiting the activity of respiratory complexes in NAc  
265 mitochondria reduced the success of treated animals for winning social contests during the  
266 establishment of social hierarchies (Hollis et al., 2015). In addition, studies indicated that  
267 mitochondria are sensitive to time-dose dependent effects of stressors (Du et al., 2009; Picard  
268 et al., 2018), and may integrate and transduce psychosocial factors into cellular and molecular  
269 modifications, which in turn may contribute to the embedding of psychological states affecting  
270 social and other behaviors (reviewed in Picard and McEwen, 2018a, 2018b). These studies  
271 stemming from the neuroscience literature are important for our understanding of social stress  
272 in wild vertebrates, since they indicate a causal mechanistic pathway directly relating

273 mitochondrial function to the expression of social behaviors and social interactions, which has  
274 yet to be explored in nature.

275         There is at least one other aspect in which mitochondria are relevant to the study of  
276 social stress, and that is because they can be a source of cellular reactive oxygen species (ROS)  
277 production (Balaban et al., 2005; but see Zhang and Wong, 2021). ROS are by-products of  
278 normal cellular respiration, but can damage and disrupt the function of important biomolecules  
279 such as lipids, proteins and DNA, if their production outweighs the detoxifying physiological  
280 antioxidant systems organisms use to keep them in check (Monaghan et al., 2009).

281

## 282 **Social effects on oxidative stress, health and ageing**

283 ROS production has both positive and negative effects on vertebrate health: at low levels ROS  
284 play a key role as secondary messengers that can affect gene expression and actually promote  
285 resistance to stress (Ristow and Zarse, 2010; Costantini, 2014; Hood et al., 2018). At high  
286 levels, ROS cause oxidative stress, which has been suggested as an important factor behind  
287 organism decline and ageing (Beckman and Ames, 1998; Finkel and Holbrook, 2000; but see  
288 Speakman and Selman, 2011; Kirkwood and Kowald, 2012). In recent years, a growing number  
289 of studies have focused on the relationships between social interactions and increased oxidative  
290 stress in vertebrates. Opposite relationships pointing to beneficial effects of social environments  
291 on buffering oxidative stress have also been found (Lardy et al., 2016; Li and Xia, 2020).  
292 Interestingly, common to many of those studies is the observation that social instability and  
293 social aggression are associated with increased oxidative stress in mammals (Beaulieu et al.,  
294 2014; Nation et al., 2008), fish (Border et al., 2019, 2021; Fialkowski et al., 2021; but see  
295 Funnell et al., 2022), and birds (Silva et al., 2018; Quque et al., in press).

296         However, it is not only competitive social interactions that are related to increased  
297 oxidative stress. In certain cooperative breeders, such as the Damaraland mole rat (*Fukomys*

298 *damarensis*), increased contributions to cooperative behavior (in this case burrowing activity)  
299 is associated with increased oxidative damage (in blood and ejaculates) (Mendonça et al., 2020).  
300 Interestingly, in males, oxidative damage was biased towards the germline, indicating increased  
301 protection of somatic cells at the expense of future reproduction, whereas in general, females  
302 appeared to be better equipped in dealing with the oxidative costs of increased cooperation  
303 (Mendonça et al., 2020). This study, however, manipulated burrowing (physical) effort, so that  
304 increased oxidative stress was more likely the result of increased metabolism than of increased  
305 social interactions *per se*. To date, we have little information on whether social interactions  
306 intensify or ameliorate individual oxidative stress by other means than increasing metabolism.  
307 As discussed above, modifications in the organisms' production of ROS might be mediated by  
308 the interaction between GCs and mitochondrial function. In addition, GCs may have non-  
309 metabolic effects on oxidative stress by down-regulating antioxidant defenses (Briehl and  
310 Baker, 1996; McIntosh et al., 1998). Not surprisingly, increased oxidative stress has been  
311 associated with increased GCs in vertebrates, at both baseline levels (Costantini et al., 2011)  
312 and acute levels in response to a stressor (Majer et al., 2019; Stier et al., 2019; Casagrande et  
313 al., 2020). Within the context of social interactions, however, the interplay among GCs,  
314 mitochondrial function, ROS production, and antioxidant defense regulation remains under-  
315 studied (Epel, 2009).

316         Studying the intricate relationship between social interactions, oxidative stress and the  
317 stress axis in wild vertebrates may benefit from insights into laboratory studies on social  
318 isolation. In socially isolated rats, enhanced oxidative stress in the brain seems due to an  
319 increased expression of a ROS-generating family of enzymes known as of NADPH oxidases,  
320 especially NOX-2 (Schivavone et al., 2009; Colaianna et al., 2013). NOX2-mediated oxidative  
321 production appears to be an early trigger of HPA activation, since social isolation increases the  
322 expression of NOX2 *before* the elevation of corticotropin-releasing hormone in the

323 hypothalamus or of ACTH in the blood. The latter initiate the stress response (mechanisms  
324 reviewed in Li and Xia, 2020). In addition, NOX2-mediated oxidative stress also appears to  
325 have important excitation functions in the sympathetic nervous system (SNS), specifically in  
326 the rostral ventrolateral medulla, a region of the brain responsible for control of sympathetic  
327 and cardiovascular function (Chan et al., 2005; Bai et al., 2009). Though we still lack  
328 information on the extent to which social isolation or social interactions may modulate SNS  
329 activity through NOX2-mediated oxidative stress, it is quite clear that ROS play a central role  
330 in shaping both HPA and SNS activity and the response to stress (Campese et al., 2004; for a  
331 review see Li and Xia, 2020). Thus, studies on wild vertebrates will benefit from investigations  
332 into the complex interplay that appears to exist between oxidative stress and GCs in shaping  
333 both HPA and SAM responses to social stressors.

334         From a health perspective, the study of individual oxidative stress in response to social  
335 interactions is of further interest because of the challenges ROS molecules pose to biological  
336 tissues. Increased accumulated damage resulting from free radicals over the lifetime of  
337 individuals is one of main theories proposed for explaining ageing processes in aerobic  
338 organisms (Harman, 1956; Finkel and Holbrook, 2000; also see Speakman and Selman, 2011;  
339 Kirkwood and Kowald, 2012). Specifically, reactive oxygen species are known to interact with  
340 DNA bases (notably guanine) which form the repeated non-coding DNA sequences that cap,  
341 stabilize and protect chromosome ends, known as telomeres (von Zglinicki, 2002; Kawanishi  
342 and Oikawa, 2004; Reichert and Stier, 2017). Telomere shortening has been associated with  
343 cell senescence and overall organism ageing (Blackburn, 2000; Blackburn and Epel, 2012) and  
344 thus may constitutes a good proxy for individual health and longevity. There is clear evidence  
345 from studies in humans that adverse social conditions (domestic violence, caregiving, poverty)  
346 and psychosocial stress associated with peer-pressure and poverty accelerate telomere loss and

347 cellular ageing (Epel et al., 2004; Entringer et al., 2011; Blackburn and Epel, 2012; Oliveira et  
348 al., 2016; Rentscher et al., 2020).

349         Although telomere shortening has been associated with increased exposure to various  
350 sources of stress in non-human vertebrates (Chatelain et al., 2020), it is only relatively recently  
351 that the effects of social environments and social interactions on telomere length and telomere  
352 shortening rates have been considered. In birds, studies have shown that both early-life social  
353 adversity (exposure to a large number of dominant competitors; *Sturnus vulgaris*; Nettle et al.,  
354 2013), and lack of social contact (social isolation; *Psittacus erithacus erithacus*; Aydinonat et  
355 al., 2014) can be associated with accelerated telomere loss. Social crowding also appears to  
356 interfere with telomere restoration mechanisms causing shorter telomeres in socially crowded  
357 groups (in lab mice, Kotrschal et al., 2007; in birds, Quque et al., *in press*). Moreover, in  
358 addition to direct effects of social interactions on telomere dynamics, studies indicate how  
359 interactions between social and reproductive strategies may shape ageing trajectories, both in  
360 early life and adulthood. For instance, social competition among mature cooperative breeders  
361 has been shown to carry long-term costs in terms of increased reproductive senescence (Sharp  
362 and Clutton-Brock, 2011). Further, dominant individuals who monopolize reproduction in  
363 cooperatively breeding sparrow-weavers (*Plocepasser mahali*) show higher investments into  
364 telomere maintenance than subordinates, an association likely to mitigate somatic costs of  
365 reproduction (Wood et al., 2021). In juveniles, early social competition for food within litters  
366 or juvenile cohorts may enhance telomere loss (Boonekamp et al., 2014; Cram et al., 2017;  
367 Nettle et al., 2015; but see van Lieshout et al., 2021), but the presence of cooperative adults  
368 helping with reproductive effort may favor telomere maintenance in offspring, suggesting  
369 positive social effects on parental care with downstream consequences on offspring health in  
370 the wild (Quque et al., 2021). Parents may then act as important buffers to stressful  
371 environments for their offspring (Bauer et al., 2015; Gunnar and Hostinar, 2015).



372 Thus, it appears clear that social interactions, status and environments have strong  
373 effects on cellular processes related to telomere degradation and maintenance, and overall  
374 organismal senescence. However, much remains to be understood about the interplay among  
375 social stressors, GCs, oxidative stress, telomere dynamics and their consequences on individual  
376 performance in the wild. Notably, telomere length and shortening rate appear to be related to  
377 chronic, but not short-term (Zane et al., 2021), modifications in GCs in vertebrates (reviewed  
378 in Angelier et al., 2018), though the direction of this relation (shorter telomeres with increased  
379 or reduced GCs) is not always consistent. Understanding how telomere biology is regulated by  
380 the interplay between GC and ROS production (Casagrande and Hau, 2019) is the next logical  
381 step in our understanding of social effects on vertebrate senescence and decline in overall  
382 performances in the wild. Particularly, in addition to focusing on telomere loss, it would be of  
383 interest to understand how telomerase activity (an enzyme specialized in re-building telomeres)  
384 is regulated by social stressors in nature (see Epel et al., 2010; Beery et al., 2012; Deng et al.,  
385 2016 for studies on captive animals and humans). In addition, the relationships between social  
386 stress and ageing are likely to extend to non-genetic molecular mechanisms as well, as recently  
387 demonstrated in wild yellow baboons (*Papio cynocephalus*) where high social rank males  
388 experience accelerated epigenetic ageing (Anderson et al., 2021).

389

### 390 **Social effects on immunity**

391 The immune system is the body's main line of defense against pathogens and parasites (Iwasaki  
392 and Medzhitov, 2010). Because social proximity and increased number of direct interactions  
393 among individuals increase the risk of pathogen and parasite transmission (Cote and Poulinb,  
394 1995; Patterson and Ruckstuhl, 2013; Schmid-Hempel, 2017), sociality and immunity are  
395 tightly linked (Kappeler et al., 2015). The immune system can be divided into innate and  
396 adaptive responses which, although they interact, differ greatly in their specificity and

397 regulation by the HPA axis and release of GCs (Iwasaki and Medzhitov, 2010). Although GCs  
398 are best known for their suppressive effects on the immune system, there is rapidly  
399 accumulating evidence that GCs also enhance inflammation and immunity (Cain and  
400 Cidlowski, 2017). Accordingly, low doses of GCs are thought to promote localized  
401 inflammatory response (stimulating cytokines and complement responses) and suppress  
402 adaptive immunity, whereas high doses of GCs will suppress innate and adaptive immunity,  
403 therefore preventing excessive and/or prolonged immune responses (Cain and Cidlowski,  
404 2017). Hence, the effects of social interactions on GCs and, in turn, immunity, are expected to  
405 be complex and to lead to nuanced results. For instance, adaptive immunity was observed to  
406 decrease with group size (and social status) in house finches (*Carpodacus mexicanus*) (Hawley  
407 et al., 2006), but to increase with group size in other bird species (Minias et al., 2019; Tella et  
408 al., 2001; Kamiński et al., 2021). Predicting how social effects, immunity and parasite load are  
409 inter-linked is further complicated by the fact that immunity is not regulated by GCs alone  
410 (Iwasaki and Medzhitov, 2010), with many other factors besides social interactions and  
411 immunity influencing parasite load (Bize et al., 2008). This is well illustrated in studies on  
412 social status (Habig and Archie, 2015; Habig et al., 2018). For instance, high rank individuals  
413 are expected to be more exposed to parasites, as they often show increased number of social  
414 interactions, have greater energy expenditure, and need to feed more frequently (Clutton-Brock  
415 and Huchard, 2013). Alternatively, high rank individuals can be more exposed to parasites as  
416 they often show greater investment into reproduction that can come at the expense of immune  
417 defences. Finally, as low rank individuals experience more frequent defeats in social  
418 antagonistic interactions, they are expected to also show lower immunity and higher levels of  
419 parasitism caused by social stress and increased circulating GCs. Comparative studies in  
420 vertebrates show that social rank has only weak effects on immune functions but often strong  
421 effects on parasite load (Habig and Archie, 2015; Habig et al., 2018), with dominant individuals

422 (especially males) showing higher levels of parasitism. These findings suggest that rank-  
423 associated variations in parasitism are primarily influenced by exposure to parasites and trade-  
424 offs between reproduction and immunity. In addition, the relationship between the social  
425 environment and immunity is complex as social structures and social relations are conditioned  
426 by trade-offs between the benefits of sharing social information and the costs of transmitting  
427 pathogens (Romano et al., 2020, 2021).

428         Socially interacting individuals can also limit the spread of parasites when both the  
429 individuals who initiated the social interaction and the recipients enjoy greater protection, such  
430 as by allogrooming, referred to in the literature as collective defences or social immunity (Cotter  
431 and Kilner, 2010). Interestingly, low levels of GCs have been suggested to favour proactive  
432 behaviour (Raulo and Dantzer, 2018), that in turn could favour the occurrence of allo-grooming  
433 in social interacting species. The role of GCs in shaping social immunity versus personal  
434 immunity remains to be investigated in detail.

435         Finally, it is important to note that the relationship between social behavior and  
436 immunity is bidirectional. It is now well demonstrated that the immune system communicates  
437 with the brain via the release of proinflammatory cytokines and chemokines, which can impair  
438 social behavior by leading to social withdrawal (Dantzer and Kelley, 2007; Kopec et al., 2019).  
439 These changes, together with reduced activity, referred to as ‘sickness behavior’, are widely  
440 viewed as an adaptive host response that prevents parasite transmission rather than a  
441 manipulation of the host behaviour by parasites (Dantzer and Kelley, 2007). A chronic  
442 inflammation and immune-neuro modulation of the brain can however lead to social isolation  
443 and depression (Raison et al., 2006). Although the immune-neuro modulation of sickness  
444 behaviour is evolutionary conserved at least in mammals and birds (Dantzer and Kelley, 2007),  
445 we still know very little about effects of inflammation on social interactions in the wild  
446 (Stockmaier et al., 2018; Hamilton et al., 2020) and their consequences on health and fitness.

447

448 **Social effects on the brain and psychological states**

449 Effects of (social) stress on brain development, morphology and plasticity (Blanchard et al.,  
450 2001; Oitzl et al., 2010; Madalena and Lerch, 2017; Cameron and Schoenfeld, 2018), and in  
451 turn on psychological states (anxiety and depression) (Lukkes et al., 2009; Teo et al., 2013),  
452 cognition (memory, learning) (Modlinska et al., 2018; Hesse et al., 2019; Lambert and Guillette,  
453 2021), and social competences (Taborsky, 2016; Reyes-Contreras et al., 2019) have been  
454 extensively studied, especially, in fish, rodents and humans. For example, using the mouse  
455 model for studying depression, chronic social stress was found to increase the permeability of  
456 the blood brain barrier, which in turn increases the infiltration of peripheral inflammatory  
457 signals into the brain, leading to neuroinflammations and depression-like behaviors (Menard et  
458 al., 2017). Beside immune signaling to the brain (see ‘social effects on immunity’), GCs are  
459 also known to strongly influence learning abilities, and memory formation and maintenance by  
460 binding to glucocorticoid receptors (GR) and mineralocorticoid receptors (MR) widely  
461 distributed throughout the brain. The (dis)balance between GR:MR receptors in particular is  
462 thought to play a central role in altering information processing in the neural circuits underlying  
463 fear, reward, social behaviour and resilience, and subsequently in altering the behaviours,  
464 psychological states and cognitive abilities of individuals (Oitzl et al., 2010). As GCs have been  
465 shown to promote aversive memories following social contests (Tertil et al., 2018), they can  
466 play a role in shaping individual social memory and social competence, that is, the expression  
467 of context-relevant behaviors (*e.g.*, subordinates showing submissive behavior in presence of  
468 higher-ranking individuals), via neurological and behavioral processes. Consistent with this, in  
469 a cooperatively breeding fish, experimental exposure to GCs during the juvenile stage resulted  
470 in persistent down-regulation of MR but not GR gene expression in the brain (telencephalon)  
471 and reduced social competence (Reyes-Contreras et al., 2019). Although research on the effects

472 of social stress on brain development, morphology and plasticity is likely to remain scarce in  
473 wild vertebrates due to the invasive nature of such studies (and the associated ethical  
474 challenges), much remains to be done to study the effect of the social environment on  
475 psychological states associated with fear or phobias (such as neophobia) (Kelly et al., 2020)  
476 and cognition (Heinen et al., 2021) in natural populations, as well as possible connections with  
477 markers of health as oxidative stress and mitochondrial function (Hoffmann and Spengler, 2018)  
478 (see also ‘Social effects on metabolism and energetics: a key role for cellular mitochondria?’  
479 and ‘Social effects on oxidative stress, health and ageing’).

480 Finally, social interactions can also have positive effects by facilitating learning (Aplin  
481 et al., 2015), and also by helping to buffer stress associated with negative memories (fear)  
482 (Leblanc and Ramirez, 2020; Mikami et al., 2020). Hence, social effects on the brain and  
483 especially behavior and cognition, can be seen as a mechanism promoting ‘social homeostasis’,  
484 that is to say, the maintenance of a degree of social connection necessary for the normal function  
485 of organisms and maintenance of health (Matthews and Tye, 2019). In line with this, a  
486 systematic review has shown that more, better, or more diverse opportunities for social  
487 experiences early in life lead in most cases to better social skills in the same individuals  
488 measured later in life (Taborsky, 2016). As a result, social learning and memory of social  
489 interactions are expected to be important mechanisms shaping future behavior and long-term  
490 health and fitness outcomes in natural populations.

491

## 492 **Social effects on biological rhythms**

493 A ubiquitous feature of vertebrate biological functions (including gene expression, physiology  
494 and behavior) is their rhythmicity (Aschoff, 1981; Rusak, 1981; Kumar, 2002). Most  
495 physiological systems function in pulsatile fashion, with ultradian, circadian, diurnal or  
496 infradian patterns of activation (*e.g.*, hormonal secretion), often synchronized by environmental

497 cues known as *zeitgebers* (photoperiod, temperature, exercise, social interactions) (Aschoff,  
498 1981; Kumar, 2002). For instance, GC secretion follows circadian and ultradian biological  
499 rhythms important in regulating metabolism, inflammation, mood, cognition and stress  
500 responsiveness (Focke and Iremonger, 2020). The HPA axis itself – especially the adrenal gland  
501 – plays a key role in transmitting biological rhythms to the entire body (Kalsbeek et al., 2012;  
502 Rao and Androulakis, 2019).

503         The importance of biological rhythmicity to health and fitness is made clear by the  
504 observation in humans and laboratory animals that chronic disruptions of biological rhythms  
505 can lead to pathological dysregulation of physiological systems. These range from systemic  
506 immune/ metabolic disorders and cognitive impairment (Takahashi et al., 2008; Delezie and  
507 Challet, 2011; Karatsoreos et al., 2011; Cermakian et al., 2014; Rao and Androulakis, 2019),  
508 central nervous system disorders including anxiety, schizophrenia, depression, and bi-polarity  
509 amongst others (Lamont et al., 2007; McClung, 2007; Benca et al., 2009), to cell senescence  
510 (Grosbellet et al., 2015) and cancer (Sephton and Spiegel, 2003; Shilts et al., 2018). However,  
511 it is only recently, and mostly in the context of anthropogenic disturbance and urbanization  
512 (Dominoni et al., 2013, 2016; Kolbe et al., 2021; Secondi et al., 2021; Ziegler et al., 2021), that  
513 studies on wild vertebrates have focused on the extent to which chronic disruption of biological  
514 rhythms may occur in nature. Yet, social interactions have been suggested to play a key role in  
515 the regulation of biological rhythms and health (Ehlers et al., 1988; Mistlberger and Skene,  
516 2004). Studying the effects social environments may have on the dysregulation of biological  
517 rhythmicity may be important for better understanding how physiological costs of social  
518 relationships arise, for instance between parents and offspring, mates, or dominants and  
519 subordinates. The social zeitgeber theory (Ehlers et al., 1988) proposes that disruptions in  
520 individual social routines can cause dysregulation in biological rhythms, themselves leading to  
521 the deleterious health consequences mentioned above. The influence of social routines on

522 biological rhythms and health have been particularly studied with reference to mood regulation  
523 and mental disorders in humans (Grandin et al., 2006; Shen et al., 2008; Margraf et al., 2016;  
524 Takaesu, 2018; Sabet et al., 2021). Though studies in other vertebrates have focused on social  
525 entrainment of behavioral circadian rhythmicity (Favreau et al., 2009), fewer have focused on  
526 the interrelations among social stressors, biological rhythms and health. Yet, social aggression  
527 has been found to alter patterns of melatonin secretion (in mammals, Heinzeller et al., 1988; in  
528 fish, Larson et al., 2004), a key hormone secreted by the pineal gland responsible for  
529 synchronizing daily rhythms to light/dark cycles in vertebrates, perhaps explaining differences  
530 in behavioral profiles between subordinate and dominant individuals (Larson et al., 2004).  
531 Indeed, melatonin is itself known to play a role in the expression of social aggression (Jasnow  
532 et al., 2002; Demas et al., 2004; Munley et al., 2020), and GC and/or adrenoreceptors have been  
533 found in the vertebrate pineal gland (e.g. in fish; Benyassi et al., 2001; in rats; Fernandes et al.,  
534 2017). These studies suggest that causal pathways might exist from the perception of social  
535 stressors to the expression of social behaviors through the regulation of the pineal gland. In  
536 addition, the pineal gland and melatonin play a key role in the innate immune response for  
537 instance by favoring phagocytosis and modulating inflammation (Majewski et al., 2012;  
538 Markus and Ferreira, 2011). Thus, cross-talks between the HPA/SAM axis, the immune system,  
539 the pineal gland, and the expression of social behaviors appear to be features that require further  
540 exploration in the context of social stressors in wild vertebrates (Couto-Moraes et al., 2009).

541

## 542 **WHERE NEXT?**

543 The sheer breadth of studies presented above highlights how important social effects can be in  
544 affecting the stress, health, and fitness of vertebrates. On one hand, many of these studies have  
545 emerged from the biomedical community (Epel et al., 2004; Entringer et al., 2011; Blackburn  
546 and Epel, 2012; Mitchell et al., 2014) with the growing recognition that societal factors (broadly

547 including work stress, emotional neglect and abuse, financial hardship, income, gender,  
548 education, unemployment, early childhood development, housing, social exclusion, social  
549 support networks, social gradients, war, etc.) are key determinants of individual health in human  
550 societies (World Health Organization 2022). On the other, studies from the ecological  
551 community have started to delve into the intricacies of socially-induced consequences on  
552 individual physiology in wild vertebrates, but so far, have – by and large – mostly focused on  
553 social effects on the stress axis. Yet, much remains to be learned about the way in which social  
554 environments might affect individual health and phenotypes *sensu largo*, with joint  
555 examination of individual anatomy, physiology and behavior. We believe that cross-talks  
556 between the biomedical and ecological communities will take us further in our understanding  
557 of how evolution has shaped similar or specific phenotypic responses to social interactions,  
558 ubiquitous across vertebrates. Integrating the study of social stressors and their mechanistic  
559 effects on animal phenotypes at the level of organs, cells, organelles, proteins and gene  
560 expression, with joint examination of relevant ecological (*e.g.*, density, predation pressure,  
561 parasite pressure, resource abundance) and life history (*e.g.*, trade-off between reproduction  
562 and self-maintenance) factors affecting wild animals, will allow shedding lights on the actual  
563 benefits and costs of sociality.

564         First, the evaluation of the various health markers described above in a wider range of  
565 species encountering different habitats, social environments and having different life-histories  
566 is necessary to assess how these different markers respond to various types of social and non-  
567 social environments. Such assessments will provide a better understanding of their associations  
568 with individual survival, reproduction, life history, and fitness. Implementing the evaluation of  
569 such markers in field-based ecological studies is challenging, considering the methodological  
570 and ethical limitations inherent to the study of wild animals. However, available tools in both  
571 the ecological and the biomedical fields can, and are already, being used. For instance, there is



572 an increasing interest in the measure of mitochondrial respiration or aerobic metabolism and  
573 the evaluation of mitochondrial function in wild vertebrates (reviewed in Koch et al., 2021).  
574 Evaluating mitochondrial function is complex for field ecologists, as sampling protocols can be  
575 invasive and biological samples must be assayed in a dedicated laboratory within hours of  
576 collection. However, in some taxa (i.e. birds, amphibians and reptiles), recent methodological  
577 developments now allow measuring mitochondrial function longitudinally and in a minimally  
578 invasive way (Stier et al., 2013; 2015; 2017). These developments allow for new insights on  
579 the cascading effects of social stress on GCs, mitochondrial traits, health and fitness  
580 (Casagrande et al., 2020b; Stier et al., 2019). Similarly, methodological as well as ethical  
581 limitations greatly reduce the possibility of assessing brain function in wild vertebrates, which  
582 are mainly being done through indirect observations such as learning behavior and capacity,  
583 and memory (see methods in Hesse et al., 2019; Modlinska et al., 2018; Reyes-Contreras et al.,  
584 2019; White et al., 2012). Evaluating brain function of free ranging vertebrates would gain from  
585 the development of minimally invasive and validated methods from the neurological and  
586 biomedical fields and the development of sampling or recording techniques of relevant  
587 parameters (brain activity, transcriptomics, proteomics).

588 In this regard, bio-loggers, which are already being extensively used in the field of  
589 ecophysiology in free ranging animals, may provide an interesting and practical method for  
590 studying individual health in ecological settings (Jax et al., 2021). Bio-loggers are monitoring  
591 devices that allow acquiring fine-resolution data ranging from activity (movement, energy  
592 expenditures, acceleration), to foraging, temperature, or sleep, on periods ranging from days to  
593 months. Bio-loggers are honed for specific study species, parameters, and durations of  
594 monitoring (Ropert-Coudert et al., 2012; Wilmers et al., 2015). The relevance of bio-loggers to  
595 the study of social interaction – health relationships is rendered even more salient by recent  
596 technological advances allowing the acquisition of detailed information on social interactions

597 in situations where direct visual observation is not always possible (Rutz et al., 2012; Smith  
598 and Pinter-Wollman, 2021). The use of such tools and the fine resolution of data collected are  
599 promising avenues for measuring metrics related to energy metabolism (e.g. via heart rate and  
600 ECG, and accelerometry; Green et al., 2009), immunity (e.g. via body temperature; Jax et al.,  
601 2021), rhythmicity (e.g. via accelerometry and activity patterns); and brain activity (via EEG;  
602 Vyssotski et al., 2006), with regards to varying social interactions, social contexts, and  
603 hierarchies.

604         Second, the adaptive foundations of stress responses have been little investigated,  
605 compared to the wealth of knowledge of how mechanisms that produce stress responses operate.  
606 Specifically, studies of differences in reproduction and survival of individuals that respond  
607 appropriately to ecological and social stressors might be expected to produce nuanced results.  
608 The primary difficulty will be to demonstrate the evolutionary benefits of stress responses in  
609 fitness terms. A key to our understanding of these evolutionary benefits will be in integrating  
610 the study of phenotypic plasticity to social environments within the lifetime of an individual  
611 (Levins, 1968). Phenotypic plasticity is the ability of one genotype to produce multiple  
612 phenotypes over a life time as the environment, or that of the offspring, changes (Charmantier  
613 et al., 2008; Chevin and Hoffmann, 2017). Its study is particularly relevant to the issue of social  
614 change. Animals moving through life, from infant to subadult to adult, or from subordinate to  
615 dominant, will experience changes in their social environment. Being able to adjust to these  
616 changes adaptively will result in fitness benefits. For example, as food supply fluctuates in red  
617 squirrel along with social competition for limited resources, maternal hormones result in  
618 offspring with different growth trajectories and different survival prospects in the long run  
619 (Dantzer et al., 2013).

620         Studies of mechanisms responsible for intergenerational consequences of social  
621 environments across vertebrates will prove particularly exciting. Such studies will reveal the

622 mechanisms through which social environments encountered by parents, early in their lives (in  
623 the womb, egg, den, nest), influence the development of future (offspring) phenotypes. This  
624 intergenerational embedding of influences of parental environments (including, but not limited  
625 to, social experiences) are today known to occur through transmission of maternal hormones in  
626 the yolk, placenta or milk ( Mazuc et al., 2003; Kaiser and Sachser, 2005; Guibert et al., 2010;  
627 Edwards et al., 2021; Stead et al., 2022), or epigenetic inheritance (Cunliffe, 2016; Venney et  
628 al., 2020), sometimes mediated via variations in parental care (Champagne, 2008, 2010).  
629 Prenatal exposure to ecological or social stressors (whether competition or social isolation)  
630 experienced by parents while offspring are in the womb or in the egg, may directly affect  
631 offspring neuroendocrine function (Sheriff et al., 2010; Love et al., 2013). For instance,  
632 mediations may occur via alterations of the expression/transcription of specific genes/proteins  
633 related to the programming/functioning of the stress axis (Marasco et al., 2016; D'Agostino et  
634 al., 2019; Mueller et al., 2021; Haq et al., 2021). Yet, the extent to which such effects are  
635 adaptive or not in ecological environments is unclear, and still under intense scrutiny (Sheriff  
636 and Love, 2013; Sheriff et al., 2017; Sopinka et al., 2017; Yin et al., 2019; Sánchez-Tójar et al.,  
637 2020; Zhang et al., 2020). Here again, there is an urgent need for studies where the fitness  
638 consequences (encompassing both parental and offspring reproduction and survival) of early  
639 social environments can be evaluated (Fagundes et al., 2013). Long-term field studies of wild  
640 vertebrates (where physiological, behavioral data and life-history data can be acquired) will  
641 prove particularly useful in doing so, though assessing the mechanistic (physiological)  
642 pathways relating social environments to phenotypes and fitness in longitudinal monitoring  
643 schemes is faced with the considerable challenge of doing so in a minimally invasive way (but  
644 see Anderson et al., 2021). Research into methodological refinements for longitudinal measures  
645 of physiological markers at organ, cellular and subcellular levels is thus needed.

646 Finally, studies in evolutionary ecology would benefit from integrating the concepts of  
647 social stress and social health in thinking about the evolution of group-living. Many vertebrate  
648 species show some degree of intra-specific social flexibility ranging from solitary to group  
649 living, depending on season or environmental contexts (Schradin, 2013), so that most  
650 individuals are subject to variable social contexts within their lifetimes. Several studies have  
651 considered how individual physiological requirements may shape social systems (e.g. in equids;  
652 Gersick and Rubenstein, 2017), or shown how social group fission or natal dispersal may arise  
653 from competition for resources and mates, as well as limited breeding opportunities  
654 (Greenwood, 1980; Dobson, 1982; Waser, 1985). However, the extent to which social  
655 flexibility arises as a response to the intensification of social competition in other contexts, or  
656 alleviates individuals from the costs of social isolation, at given periods of time, remains to be  
657 considered.

658

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675

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1477 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

1478 **Figure 1. A comprehensive view of the effects of the social environment on key biological**  
1479 **functions related to vertebrate health.** Inputs from the social environment (or social stimuli)  
1480 are integrated in the brain as negative or positive events, and this integration leads to  
1481 modifications in key physiological functions including metabolism, oxidative stress, ageing,  
1482 the rhythmicity of biological functions, immune responses, and brain function and  
1483 psychological states. These functions can be directly affected by social stimuli, or indirectly,  
1484 orchestrated by the stress axes including the sympathetic-adrenal-medullary (SAM) axis and  
1485 the Hypothalamic-Pituitary-Adrenal (HPA) axis (hypothalamic pituitary inter-renal HPI in  
1486 fish). Note that cross-talks between biological functions, either via or independently, of the  
1487 stress axes, make an integration of functions necessary to properly understand the effects of  
1488 social environments on vertebrate health.

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1491 **TABLES**

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1493 **Table 1.** Summary of the known effects of the social environment on key markers of vertebrates

1494 health.

Marker of Health	Effect	Mechanism	Example	
			Laboratory	Wild
Metabolism	Increased metabolic rate	Increase in physical activity		birds <sup>1,2</sup> , fish <sup>3,4</sup> , reptiles <sup>5</sup> , amphibians <sup>6</sup>
		Without increase in physical activity (HPA/SAM activity)		fish <sup>4</sup> , birds <sup>7</sup>
	Mitochondria respiratory capacities (in NAC)		rats <sup>8</sup>	
Oxidative stress & Ageing	Increased oxidative stress	Increase in metabolic rate + enhance HPA activity + increased expression NADPH oxidases	rats <sup>13</sup>	mammals <sup>9</sup> , fish <sup>10,11</sup> , birds <sup>12</sup>
	Buffered oxidative stress			mammals <sup>14</sup>
	Accelerated telomere loss	Modification in GCs (trend direction not always consistent) + metabolic activity + telomerase activity	mice <sup>15</sup>	humans <sup>16</sup> , birds <sup>17</sup> , mammals <sup>18,19</sup>
	Reduced telomere loss in offspring			birds <sup>20</sup> , mammals <sup>21</sup>
Immunity & Inflammation	Decreased adaptive immunity			house finches <sup>22</sup>
	Increased adaptive immunity			other birds species <sup>23-25</sup>
	Parasite load			meta-analysis in vertebrate species <sup>26</sup>
	Increased social immunity	Allo-grooming, sickness behavior	humans <sup>29,30</sup>	mammals <sup>27,28</sup> , birds <sup>27</sup>
Cognition & Psychology	Brain morphology & plasticity	Modification of MR and GR expression in brain	rats <sup>31</sup> , mice <sup>31</sup>	mammals <sup>31</sup>
	Psychological state (depression-like behavior, anxiety)	Increased permeability of the Blood Brain Barrier	rats <sup>32</sup> , mice <sup>32,33</sup> , humans <sup>34</sup>	
	Learning & Memory	Role of GCs in formation of aversive memory	mice <sup>35</sup> , fish <sup>36</sup>	birds <sup>37</sup> , mammals <sup>38</sup>
	Social Competence		fish <sup>36</sup>	review on vertebrates <sup>39</sup>
Biological Rhythms	Social zeitgebers theory	Modification in patterns of hormone secretion (e.g. , melatonin)		humans and non-humans mammals <sup>40</sup>
	Social entrainment		fish <sup>42</sup>	mammals <sup>41</sup>

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1496 **Footnote :** <sup>1</sup>Nephew et al., 2003; <sup>2</sup>Viera et al., 2011; <sup>3</sup>Metcalf et al., 1995; <sup>4</sup>Sloman et al., 2000; <sup>5</sup>Marler et al.,  
 1497 1995; <sup>6</sup>Wells et al., 1986 ; <sup>7</sup>Viblanco et al., 2014b ; <sup>8</sup>Hollis et al., 2015 ; <sup>9</sup>Beaulieu et al., 2014 ; <sup>10</sup>Border et al.,  
 1498 2019 ; <sup>11</sup>Funnel et al., 2022 ; <sup>12</sup>Silva et al., 2018 ; <sup>13</sup>Colaïanna et al., 2013 ; <sup>14</sup>Lardy et al., 2016 ; <sup>15</sup>Kotrschal et al.,  
 1499 2007 ; <sup>16</sup>Epel et al., 2004 ; <sup>17</sup>Nettle et al., 2013 ; <sup>18</sup>Anderson et al., 2021 ; <sup>19</sup>Sharp & Clutton-Brock 2011 ; <sup>20</sup>Quque  
 1500 et al., 2021 ; <sup>21</sup>Bauer et al., 2015 ; <sup>22</sup>Hawley et al. ; 2006 ; <sup>23</sup>Minias et al., 2019 ; <sup>24</sup>Tella et al., 2001 ; <sup>25</sup>Kamiński  
 1501 et al., 2021; <sup>26</sup>Habig et al., 2018 ; <sup>27</sup>Raulo & Dantzer, 2018 ; <sup>28</sup>Hamilton et al., 2020 ; <sup>29</sup>Dantzer & Kelley, 2007 ;  
 1502 <sup>30</sup>Kopec et al., 2019 ; <sup>31</sup>Blanchard et al., 2001 ; <sup>32</sup>Lukkes et al., 2009 ; <sup>33</sup>Teo et al. ,2013 ; <sup>34</sup>Menard et al., 2017 ;  
 1503 <sup>35</sup>Tertil et al., 2018 ; <sup>36</sup>Reyes-Contreras et al., 2019 ; <sup>37</sup>Heinen et al., 2021 ; <sup>38</sup>Leblanc & Ramirez, 2020 ;  
 1504 <sup>39</sup>Taborsky, 2016 ; <sup>40</sup>Favreau et al., 2016 ; <sup>41</sup>Heinzeller et al., 1988 ; <sup>42</sup>Larson et al., 2004

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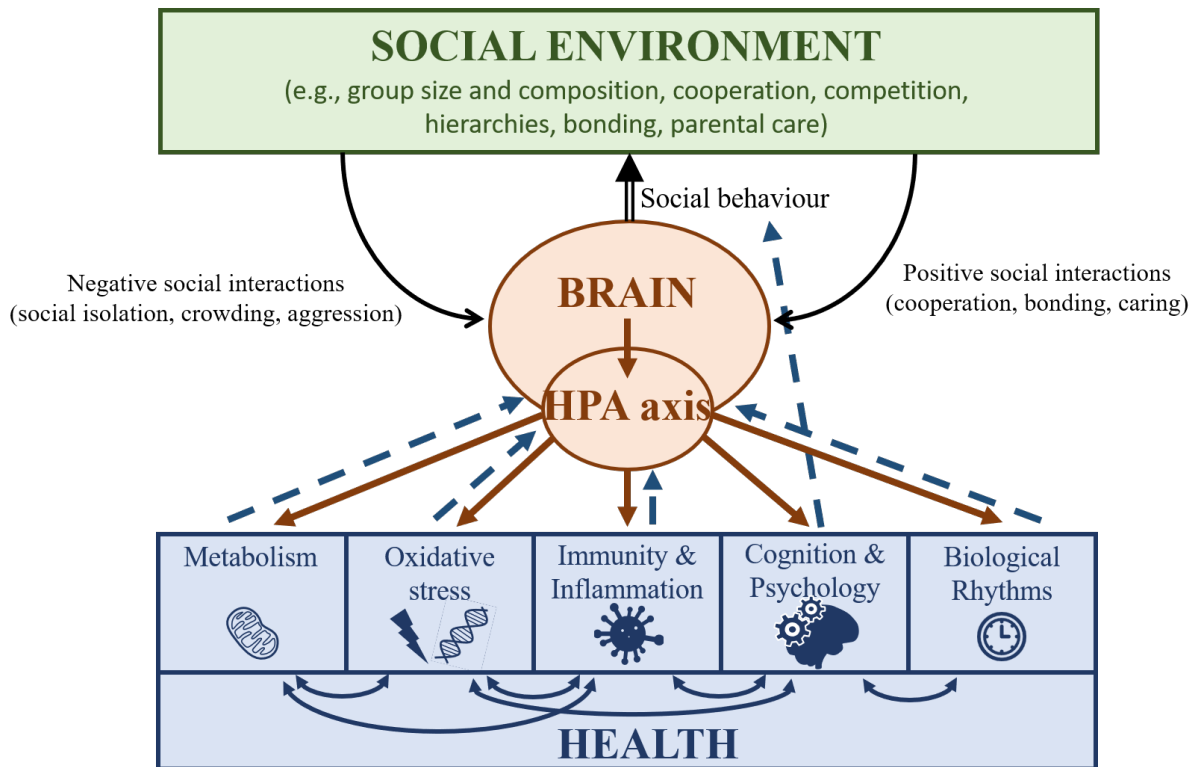
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1509 **FIGURES**

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1512 **Figure 1.**

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