

1 **Differential effects of multiplex and uniplex affiliative relationships on**
2 **biomarkers of inflammation**

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23 **Abstract**

24 Social relationships profoundly impact health in social species. Much of what we know
25 regarding the impact of affiliative social relationships on health in nonhuman primates (NHPs)
26 has focused on the structure of connections or the quality of relationships. The influence of
27 relationship dimensionality (e.g., the breadth of affiliative behaviors used) on health and fitness
28 outcomes remains unknown. Here we explored how social networks containing dyads with either
29 multiplex (dyads both groom and huddle) or uniplex (dyads only groom) affiliative relationships
30 differ in their structure and association with biomarkers of inflammation, an indicator of
31 individual health risk. Being strongly embedded in multiplex affiliative networks, which were
32 more modular and kin biased, was associated with lower inflammation (IL-6, TNF-alpha). In
33 contrast, being well connected in uniplex networks, which were more strongly linked with social
34 status, was associated with greater inflammation. Results suggest that multiplex affiliative
35 relationships may function as supportive relationships that promote health. In contrast, the
36 function of uniplex affiliative relationships may be more transactional and may incur
37 physiological costs. This complexity is important to consider for understanding the mechanisms
38 underlying the association of social relationships on human and animal health.

39

40 **Keywords:** affiliation, *Macaca mulatta*, cytokines, inflammation

41

42 **Introduction**

43 For decades, research has shown that social relationships impact individual health and
44 fitness with estimates of the magnitude of the association with mortality on par with other well
45 recognized mortality risks (e.g., smoking, alcohol consumption, obesity)¹. Researchers often
46 distinguish between structural (quantity and structure) versus functional (quality or function)
47 measures of social relationships, and while only moderately correlated ($r = 0.2-0.3$) both high
48 quantity and quality of relationships have been associated with better health outcomes^{1,2}.
49 Notably, multidimensional measures (i.e., those that assess multiple aspects of social
50 connections) often are the strongest predictors of health and fitness¹⁻³. While structural measures
51 of social relationships (number of social partners) are typically straightforward for both human
52 and animal societies, functional measures of social relationships are more feasible and thus
53 common for humans (e.g., measures of perceived social support), whereas determining the
54 function of social relationships in animals is much more complicated.

55 Quantitative measures of the structure of affiliative social relationships are often simple
56 to calculate and include the number of social partners, the frequency of interactions, or the higher
57 order structuring of social relationships using social network analysis. While some studies find
58 that the total number of social connections or the total amount of affiliation are associated with
59 survival and reproductive outcomes, others find that only *certain* relationships (e.g., animals:
60 strong and stable social bonds; humans: family and friends) impact health and fitness^{1,2,4-9}.
61 Social network analysis is often used to examine how structural features of social life or an
62 individual's role in their broader social network or community may impact their health and
63 wellbeing. Commonly used network centrality metrics include eigenvector, betweenness, and
64 closeness which reflect the degree to which an individual has social capital, acts as a bridge

65 between others, and is embedded in the network, respectively. Less commonly investigated is
66 the impact of clustering or transitivity (the degree to which your connections are connected to
67 each other) a measure of subgrouping and the degree to which individual form cohesive
68 “cliques”¹⁰. While the general pattern seen across these measures is that greater connectedness
69 or centrality is associated with lower risk for gastrointestinal pathogens, increased reproduction
70 and longevity^{4,10–12}, there is little consistency across studies in identifying which specific social
71 role or network metric is important and some studies find no impact of social network position
72 on fitness^{2,4,6}.

73 Measuring the function of social relationships attempts to examine what purpose or role a
74 relationship serves and whether it meets the needs of the individual. In humans, functional
75 measures of social relationships include surveys of perceived social support, informational
76 support, emotional support, and tangible support. Assessing functions of different relationships
77 is far more challenging in animals due to the fact we cannot ask animals the value or perceptions
78 of their relationships. Instead, research on social relationships in animals has more often relied
79 on metrics designed to indirectly assess the quality rather than directly query the function of
80 relationships. A commonly used metric to assess the quality of affiliative social relationships is
81 the dyadic sociality index (DSI) which incorporates information from multiple, correlated
82 affiliative behaviors (e.g., grooming and proximity). Relationships with high DSI scores are
83 commonly referred to as strong bonds and tend to be equitable, stable, involve frequent
84 interaction and are most common between kin and peers^{4,13,14}. Higher number or quality of these
85 strong bonds has been associated with acute hormonal responses (e.g., oxytocin or cortisol
86 levels), increased reproduction, and survival^{4,6,7,15}. While the positive association between strong
87 bonds and increased reproduction and survival are well supported (although see¹⁶), the strength

88 of affiliative bonds is often skewed with strong affiliative bonds making up only a small fraction
89 of affiliative relationships an individual has^{7,13,17–19}. The function of these other, weaker bonds
90 has been hypothesized to be increased social flexibility (e.g., social connections can shift with
91 environmental demands), with general social integration and indirect connections providing
92 access to others that may have resources or information^{4,17}. However, evidence for an
93 association between weak bonds and health and fitness is mixed^{7,17}. While useful, the dichotomy
94 of strong and weak bonds does not fully characterize these relationships and their potential
95 functions. Hinde²⁰ points out that “affection is multidimensional and cannot be assessed along a
96 simple scale...” (p. 13). We know that both structural and functional aspects of social
97 relationships are key to understanding their impacts on health in humans. Therefore, to better
98 understand the mechanisms by which these relationships impact health and fitness in animals we
99 need additional tools to characterize social relationships.

100 Recent advances in social network analysis and theory, and specifically multiplex
101 networks, may provide tools to help disentangle the impact of structural and functional social
102 relationships. Most studies of animal affiliation either analyze behaviors separately (e.g.,
103 grooming or proximity) or lump affiliative behaviors together giving them roughly equal
104 weight^{4,21}. However, such practices may overlook key information in the diversity or breadth of
105 affiliative interactions in which a dyad engages^{20,21}. Evidence for the importance of
106 multidimensionality in social relationships can be found in a study by Balasubramaniam and
107 colleagues¹¹ in which they found that highly connected rhesus macaques (i.e., high outdegree or
108 eigenvector) in a grooming network were less likely to have *Shigella*, a gastrointestinal
109 pathogen, but only if they were also well connected in a huddling network (i.e., high
110 betweenness). This finding lends support to the idea that the breadth or diversity of affiliative

111 behaviors a dyad engages in might provide important information as to the nature of that
112 relationship and its potential impacts on health and fitness¹¹. Therefore to understand the impact
113 of social relationships on individual health and fitness, we must examine the cumulative impact
114 of an individual's diversity and breadth of social relationships to really understand their potential
115 influence on health^{22,23}. Social network approaches provide an important tool to aid in bridging
116 the gap between these different levels of analysis: from interactions, to relationships, to an
117 individual's place in a social structure and may be uniquely suited to assessing the cumulative
118 impact of social relationships on individual functioning.

119 Here we used social network analysis to explore whether behavioral diversity within a
120 relationship can allow for understanding of the potential function of those relationships and their
121 impact on health-related outcomes. Affiliation in primates takes many forms, including
122 grooming, huddling, proximity, embracing, and less commonly coalitionary support⁴³⁻⁴⁵. In
123 macaques, grooming is commonly used to indicate the presence of an affiliative relationship^{41,46}.
124 Grooming has been proposed to serve multiple social functions including: to maintain social
125 bonds⁴⁶ and social cohesion⁴⁷, and in exchange for tolerance from dominants, for agonistic
126 support, or for access to resources⁴⁸⁻⁵⁰. Although less commonly studied, huddling behavior may
127 also be an important indicator of strong affiliative relationships⁵¹, particularly those that may
128 offer social buffering¹¹. Therefore, we generated networks consisting of dyads with multiplex
129 (i.e., dyads both groomed and huddled) vs. uniplex (i.e., dyads that only groomed) affiliative
130 relationships and examined whether they differed in their network structure in ways that might
131 allow us to infer their potential function (e.g., social bonding and cohesion or exchange for
132 tolerance and resources). The structure of the resulting networks was then examined in relation
133 to key structural features of rhesus relationships including: modularity (i.e., degree of clustering),

134 associations with kinship, and associations with rank^{46,47}. Next, we determined whether the
135 structure of connections in multiplex and uniplex affiliative networks were associated with
136 biomarkers of inflammation (i.e., serum pro-inflammatory cytokines), an indicator of individual
137 health status. Chronic inflammation is associated with for a variety of diseases (e.g., diabetes,
138 cardiovascular disease, cancer) and mortality²⁴⁻²⁶. We measured two pro-inflammatory
139 cytokines, IL-6 and TNF- α , as biomarkers of general inflammation. High levels of these pro-
140 inflammatory cytokines and have previously been reported to be associated with social variables
141 (e.g., low social status, low social integration, poor quality relationships, loneliness) in humans
142 and rhesus macaques^{22,27-30}.

143 **Materials and Methods**

144 **Subjects and housing**

145 Subjects were 248 breeding age (3 years and older) female rhesus macaques (*Macaca*
146 *mulatta*) that were born at the California National Primate Research Center in Davis, California
147 (Table 1). Subjects lived in one of four large multigenerational and matrilineal social groups
148 containing 100-200 mixed-sex individuals (Table 1), each housed in a 0.2 hectare outdoor
149 enclosure. Subjects were fed commercial monkey chow and foraging enrichment twice daily.
150 Fruits or vegetables were provided weekly. Water was available ad libitum.

151 **Table 1: Group Demographics**

152

Group	Group size (adults)	N (adult females)	# of Matrilines^a	Mean Matriline size (SD)
Group A	131 (101)	74	13	5.7 (3.6)
Group B	204 (101)	67	33	2.0 (1.0)
Group C	125 (55)	39	6	6.5 (3.9)
Group D	185 (96)	68	13	5.2 (2.3)

160 ^a Number of matrilines and matriline size statistics include only breeding age females.
161 Individuals were considered part of the same matriline if they could be traced back to the same
162 female genetic common ancestor at the time of group formation.

163
164 Rhesus macaques live in large multi-male, multi-female social groups organized by rank
165 and kinship³¹. For females, rank is inherited from their mothers and generally all members of a
166 matriline hold adjacent ranks³² (although see³³). In contrast, males generally immigrate into a
167 new social group and may enter at the bottom of the hierarchy, queueing for rank, or attain rank
168 through direct competition³⁴. Rhesus macaque females form the core of the social group with
169 affiliation between both kin and non-kin playing a key role in maintaining group stability^{31,35}.
170 Although male social bonds have important fitness outcomes in macaques generally³⁶, male
171 rhesus macaques engage in social affiliation far less frequently³⁷ and tend to be more socially
172 isolated than females³⁸. Therefore, we focus our analysis on females, which we predict will be
173 more strongly impacted by social bonds than males. We use rhesus macaques as a group-living,
174 nonhuman primate (NHP) model because their social relationships are highly differentiated,
175 exhibit a high degree of complexity and individual variability, and have been linked to a variety
176 of health and fitness outcomes^{22,30,39,40}.

177 **Behavioral data collection**

178 Subjects were part of a larger study on the associations between social networks and
179 health. Groups A and B were studied for six continuous weeks during the birthing season from
180 March to April 2013 and 2014, respectively. Groups C and D were studied for six continuous
181 weeks during the breeding season from September to October 2013 and 2014, respectively.
182 Behavioral data were collected six hours per day, four days per week from 0900-1200 and 1300-
183 1600 each day by one of three observers (inter-rater reliability, Krippendorff's $\alpha \geq 0.85$).
184 Affiliative behavior was collected via scan sampling every 20-minutes (maximum 18 scans per
185 day), where identities of all adult female dyads affiliating (i.e. grooming or huddling) were
186 recorded¹¹. Grooming was defined as cleaning or manipulating the fur of another animal and

187 huddling included all forms of body contact, including (but not restricted to) ventral contact,
188 embrace, or side by side sitting. During each scan, these behaviors were mutually exclusive for a
189 dyad (an individual grooming another was not also huddling that individual). Affiliation scans
190 produced 1637 scans (Group A: N=418, Group B: N=410, Group C: N=378, Group D: N=431)
191 and an average of 20.1 grooming interactions per female (group range 12.8 – 25.6) and 15.65
192 huddling interactions (group range 7.8-26.9). This sampling scheme has been shown to produce
193 sufficiently sampled grooming and huddling networks⁴¹. Aggression data (threats, chases, bites)
194 were also collected via an event sampling protocol for six hours per day, four days per week by
195 two other observers (average of 42.5 interactions per individual, group range 36.2 – 51.9).
196 Because social status has been shown to impact inflammation³⁹ (although see²²), dyadic
197 aggression data was used to calculate dominance ranks and dominance certainty via the R
198 package *Perc*^{22,42}. Dominance rank was expressed as the percent of animals in the group
199 outranked and therefore ranged from 0 (low) to 1 (high).

200 **Affiliative network analysis**

201 Huddling behavior was used to filter edges in the grooming network into two affiliative
202 networks; a network containing edges for dyads that both groomed and huddled at some point
203 during the 6-week study (multiplex affiliative relationships) and a network containing edges for
204 dyads that groomed but were never seen huddling (uniplex affiliative relationships). Edge-
205 weights in both networks reflected only the number of times that dyad was observed grooming
206 (Table S1). For each network, centrality and cohesion measures for each individual were
207 calculated in Cytoscape 3.7.1 using two plug-ins, NetworkAnalyzer and CytoNCA^{52,53}. For all
208 metrics, both unweighted and weighted metrics were evaluated; unweighted metrics evaluated
209 the importance of who individuals were connected to regardless of how often they interacted

210 while weighted metrics evaluated whether the frequency with which animals interacted was
211 relevant. The effects of the direct connections for individuals were measured using degree
212 centrality. The effect of an individual's indirect connections in the network was evaluated using
213 eigenvector, betweenness, information, and closeness centralities^{4,10,11}. In addition, the degree to
214 which individuals were part of cohesive local communities was measured by the local clustering
215 coefficient (i.e., triadic closure). Multiple metrics were chosen to reflect the different ways social
216 integration can manifest (e.g., bridging, cohesion, embeddedness, etc. Table 2).

217 **Table 2: Network Metric Definitions**

218 ^a Both weighted and unweighted metrics were used.

Measure	Description
Degree	measures the <i>number</i> (unweighted) of partners or <i>frequency</i> of interaction (weighted) for each node.
Eigenvector ^a	measures whether individuals are well connected to others that are also well connected, a measure of <i>social capital</i> .
Betweenness ^a	measures the number of times a node lies on the shortest path between other nodes, which reflects an individual's role in connecting others in the network or acting as a <i>social bridge</i> .
Information ^a	measures the number of times a node lies on <i>any</i> path between other nodes, which reflects an individual's role as a social bridge between many others. Reflects an individual's role in <i>social cohesion</i> .
Closeness ^a	measures how close each node is to all other nodes within the network, which reflects how <i>embedded</i> an individual is in the network
Clustering Coefficient	measures the extent to which a node's neighbors are also connected to each other, a measure of <i>cliquishness</i> .

219

220 **Biological sample collection**

221 Blood samples were taken during the fifth week of each group's study period during
222 routine, semi-annual health checks. On a single morning, all animals in a group were lightly
223 sedated with ketamine (10 mg/kg) and given veterinary exams. Blood samples were obtained
224 from the femoral vein and serum was aliquoted and stored at -80 °C for later assay. The order in
225 which animals were processed and samples were collected was recorded to control for any
226 potential impacts of the sampling procedure on the physiological variables examined.

227 **Pro-inflammatory Cytokine Assay**

228 Serum levels of IL-6 and TNF- α were measured simultaneously using commercially
229 available, species specific Milliplex multi-analyte profiling (MAP) reagents purchased from
230 EMD/Millipore (Billerica, MA, USA), and utilizing Luminex Xmap technology (Luminex,
231 Austin, TX, USA). Color coded polystyrene microbeads coated with specific antibodies for IL-6
232 and TNF- α were incubated with the serum samples, washed, and then further reacted with
233 biotinylated detector antibodies followed by Streptavidin-PE to label the immune complexes on
234 the beads. After a final washing to remove all unbound material, the beads were interrogated in a
235 BioPlex dual laser (BioRad, Hercules, CA, USA). The median fluorescent index for each sample
236 was compared to a standard curve to calculate the concentration (IL-6: mean = 12.55 pg/mL, sd
237 = 46.92, range = 0 – 690; TNF- α : mean = 185.0 pg/mL, sd = 442.27, range = 0 – 4052; see
238 Figure S2 for histograms). Samples were tested in duplicate and had an intra-assay coefficient of
239 variability of 15.3%. Samples were re-analyzed if the CV was greater than 25% for all analytes
240 measured. Manufacturer provided quality control samples fell within recommended ranges for all
241 assays. Samples falling below the threshold sensitivity of the assay (1.6 pg/mL) were assigned a
242 value of zero (IL-6: N = 76, TNF- α : N = 53).

243 **Statistical analysis**

244 Two sets of analyses were done to determine whether 1) multiplex and uniplex affiliation
245 networks differ in structure and relationships to known social features of rhesus macaques (e.g.,
246 kin bias, hierarchical organization), and 2) whether network metrics from these two networks
247 predicted biomarkers of inflammation.

248 First, we compared multiplex and uniplex affiliation networks, which were treated as
249 weighted and directed networks, to determine if they exhibited differences in key structural

250 features of rhesus relationships. For example, evidence suggests that despotic macaques such as
251 rhesus, particularly in large groups, are likely to have grooming networks that are modular (i.e.,
252 shows subgrouping), expected to be based on kinship, and have individual network positions
253 (i.e., eigenvector centrality) that are correlated with rank^{55,56}. Therefore, we examined whether
254 these two networks differed in the degree of clustering (Newman's modularity, clustering
255 coefficient), kin bias (e.g., proportion of kin (kin unweighted degree/total unweighted degree)),
256 and associations with rank (proportion of grooming up the hierarchy, rank disparity among
257 grooming dyads) for each of the four groups studied. Also, because previous research has
258 focused on bond strength, we further examined reciprocity, strength of relationships (average
259 edge weight), and distribution of grooming (eigenvector centralization) across these network
260 types. Due to the low number of groups in the comparison, paired t-tests were used to evaluate if
261 the multidimensional vs unidimensional network metrics were consistently different across
262 groups. Normality of the differences was evaluated using the Shapiro-Wilk test, and if
263 significant then Wilcoxon signed rank tests were used. As a final structural analysis, we
264 examined the correlations between individual level network positions from these two network
265 types (Table S2) to evaluate multicollinearity within networks and associations between
266 networks.

267 Next, to determine if the structure of individual affiliative relationships in multiplex or
268 uniplex affiliation networks was associated with pro-inflammatory cytokines we ran generalized
269 linear models using a negative binomial distribution (proc glimmix, SAS 9.4) on each biomarker
270 separately (see ²² for details on distribution choice and Figure S2 for distributions). For these
271 analyses networks were treated as weighted but undirected. Model building proceeded in four
272 steps for each outcome (i.e., IL-6, TNF- α). One animal was excluded from the IL-6 analysis

273 because it was an outlier with influence (Cook's $D > 1$); all other outliers had a Cook's $D < 0.5$
274 and therefore were included in the analyses. A second animal was excluded from all analysis
275 due to the fact she was not included in the uniplex network. For all steps, $\Delta AIC > 2$ was used to
276 identify potential predictors and candidate models. First, a random effect indicating the group ID
277 was evaluated for each outcome, and all subsequent models were compared to this random
278 effects only model. Next, variables from the literature (age, dominance rank, dominance
279 certainty, sampling order), although not of direct interest here, were evaluated to determine if it
280 was necessary to control for their effects on inflammation before examining social network
281 variables. Third, a statistical winnowing strategy was used to eliminate nonpredictive social
282 network variables (multiplex affiliation, uniplex affiliation, or huddling metrics) from further
283 consideration⁵⁶. Because huddling behavior was used to separate relationships into the multiplex
284 and uniplex networks, huddling degree was also included as a potential predictor to evaluate if it
285 was multiplex vs uniplex relationships or just simply huddling behavior driving observed effects.
286 While some multiplex affiliation and huddling metrics were highly correlated (Table S2), VIF
287 (range: 1.93 – 1.94) and tolerance (range: 0.517 – 0.519) did not indicate multicollinearity. A
288 final set of models was constructed in which variables identified in step 3 were combined to
289 identify a final set of candidate models. Metrics from the same network were never included in
290 the same model due to the interdependence of network metrics. If no single best model emerged,
291 candidate models (i.e., those with $\Delta AIC \leq 2$, Table S3) are discussed with model weights guiding
292 our interpretations⁵⁷. A log of all models tested is available in Tables S3-5.

293 **Ethical Note**

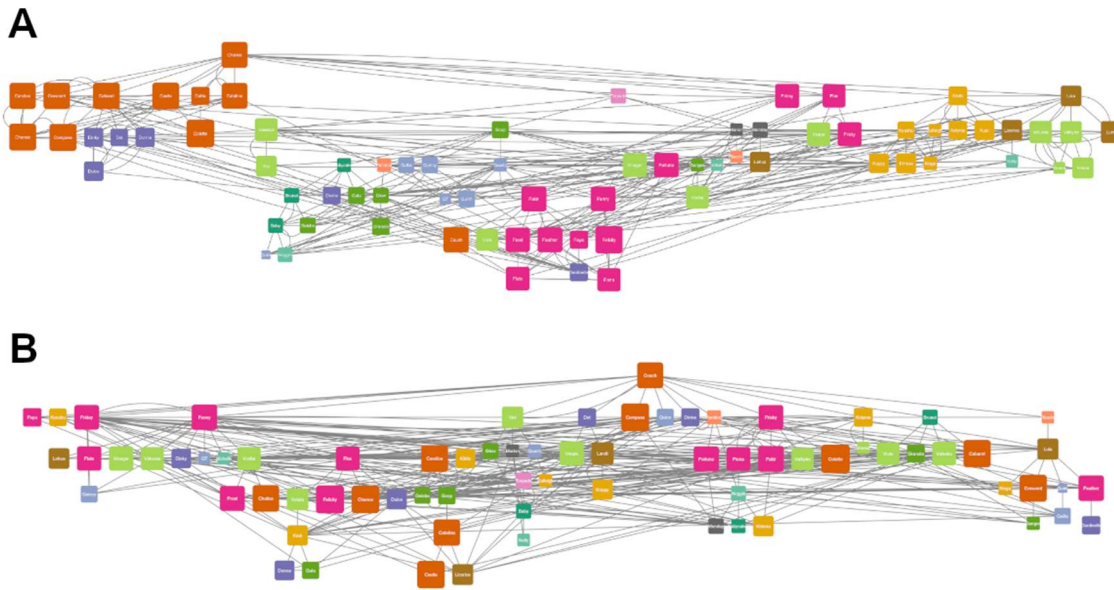
294 All procedures used in this study met all legal requirements of the United States as well
295 as guidelines set by the American Society of Primatologists regarding the ethical treatment of

296 non-human primates. This study was approved by the Institutional Care and Use Committee at
297 the University of California, Davis and was carried out in compliance with the ARRIVE
298 guidelines.

299 **Results**

300 *Multiplex vs. Uniplex Affiliation Networks*

301 For all groups studied, clear differences in network topology, kinship, and associations
302 with dominance rank were seen between the multiplex (groom and huddle, Figure 1A) and
303 uniplex (grooming only, Figure 1B) affiliative networks (Table 3). Multiplex affiliation networks
304 had higher average edge-weight ($t(3) = 4.32, p = 0.023$; the average number of interactions per
305 social partner), clustering coefficient ($t(3) = 8.74, p = 0.003$), and modularity ($t(3) = 6.74, p =$
306 0.007 ; how much clustering is in the network) for all groups. Notably, although average edge-
307 weights in the multiplex networks were higher than uniplex networks, the predominant edge
308 weight in both networks was 1-2 grooming interactions (Figure S1). Multiplex affiliation
309 networks also consistently showed more kin bias (proportion kin, $t(3) = 5.74, p = 0.010$) and
310 reciprocity ($t(3) = 6.83, p = 0.006$) than uniplex networks. In contrast, both networks showed
311 associations between rank and affiliation (i.e., no difference in the tendency for grooming to be
312 directed up the hierarchy (Shapiro-Wilk: $W = 0.761, p = 0.048$; Wilcoxon signed rank $v = 0, p =$
313 0.125) or eigenvector centrality to be correlated with rank ($t(3) = -0.741, p = 0.51$)) but the
314 disparity in the ranks of the grooming partners was greater in the uniplex affiliation networks
315 compared to the multiplex networks ($t(3) = -10.534, p = 0.002$). Individual centrality metrics
316 generated from the multiplex networks were largely uncorrelated with metrics from the uniplex
317 networks (mean correlation strength = 0.15, SD = 0.10, Table S2).



319 Figure 1. Example network graphs of (A) Multiplex affiliative network and (B) Uniplex
 320 affiliative network from social group A. Node color corresponds to matriline membership. Node
 321 size corresponds to rank (large nodes are high ranking). Curved lines reflect reciprocal edges.
 322 Layout is yFiles Tree Layout, Cytoscape.

323 **Table 3: Network Level Metrics by Group**

Group	<u>A</u>		<u>B</u>		<u>C</u>		<u>D</u>		Effect
	Multi	Uni	Multi	Uni	Multi	Uni	Multi	Uni	
Density	0.062	0.067	0.087	0.063	0.088	0.099	0.047	0.086	Multi = Uni
Modularity	0.688	0.272	0.515	0.281	0.473	0.219	0.698	0.290	Multi > Uni*
Eigenvector Centralization	0.807	0.654	0.659	0.589	0.710	0.636	0.829	0.538	Multi > Uni ⁺
Avg Edge Weight	4.074	1.480	2.834	1.400	2.215	1.445	3.643	1.471	Multi > Uni*
Clustering Coefficient	0.269	0.157	0.249	0.147	0.270	0.201	0.261	0.185	Multi > Uni*
Reciprocity	0.534	0.239	0.466	0.200	0.400	0.233	0.573	0.215	Multi > Uni*
Proportion Kin	0.617	0.165	0.207	0.000	0.638	0.260	0.695	0.171	Multi > Uni*
Proportion Up Rank ^a	0.552	0.605	0.585	0.646	0.577	0.671	0.563	0.616	Multi = Uni
Rank Disparity	0.154	0.251	0.232	0.301	0.155	0.240	0.140	0.249	Multi < Uni*
Rank/Eigenvector centrality correlation	0.101	0.488	0.488	0.328	0.386	0.181	-0.230	0.308	Multi = Uni

324 Multi: Multidimensional affiliation network; Uni: Unidimensional affiliative network. Effect
 325 indicates the overall difference between multidimensional and unidimensional networks for all
 326 groups using a paired t-test. ^a Wilcoxon test. * p < 0.05, ⁺ p < 0.1

327 *Relationship Dimensionality and Biomarkers of Inflammation*

328 **IL-6.** The best fit models indicated that an individual’s position in both the multiplex and uniplex
 329 affiliative networks predicted levels of IL-6. Less connected individuals (i.e., low weighted
 330 closeness) in the multiplex network had higher levels of IL-6 (Table 4). In contrast, more
 331 connected individuals (i.e., high weighted closeness or weighted degree) in the uniplex network
 332 exhibited higher levels of the pro-inflammatory cytokine IL-6. Multiplex weighted closeness was
 333 not correlated with uniplex weighted degree ($r = -0.06$) but had a weak negative correlation with
 334 uniplex closeness weight ($r = -0.23$). Uniplex weighted closeness and weighted degree were
 335 highly correlated ($r = 0.84$, Table S2). Effects from the best fit model (Model 1) are shown in
 336 Figure 2A-B.

337

338 **Table 4: Candidate Model Outputs**

	Model Parameters	Model 1	Model 2
IL-6	Multi Weighted Closeness	-1.15 (-2.00 – -0.30)	-1.35 (-2.19 – -0.51)
	Uni Weighted Closeness	2.95 (1.21 – 4.69)	-
	Uni Weighted Degree	-	0.041 (0.016 – 0.066)
	Intercept	1.14 (-1.28 – 3.56)	2.72 (1.38 – 4.07)
	AIC	1520.65	1520.77
TNF- α	Multi Weighted Closeness	-2.54 (-3.66 – -1.42)	-2.07 (-3.22 – -0.93)
	Uni Betweenness	0.005 (0.001 – 0.008)	-
	Uni Degree	-	0.07 (0.02 – 0.12)
	Intercept	6.74 (5.19 – 8.30)	6.03 (4.24 – 7.82)
	AIC	2627.69	2628.74

339 β (95% CI). Bold values: $p < 0.05$. All models were run using a negative binomial distribution

340 and included a random effect of group. Multi: Multiplex affiliation network, Uni: Uniplex

341 affiliation network.

342

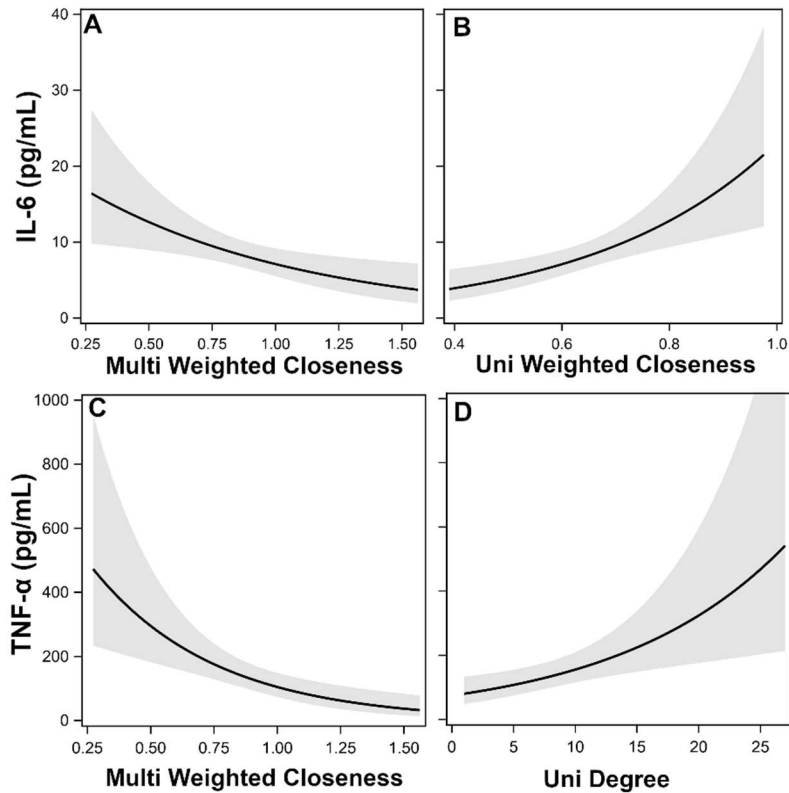


Figure 2. Effects of affiliative centrality on cytokines. Effects of multiplex (Multi) weighted closeness (A) and uniplex (Uni) weighted closeness (B) on levels of IL-6 with 95% confidence intervals (Model 1). Effects of multiplex weighted closeness (C) and uniplex degree (D) on levels of TNF α with 95% confidence intervals (Model 2).

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357 **TNF- α .** Levels of TNF- α were also predicted by network position in both the multiplex and
358 uniplex affiliation networks. As with IL-6, lower connectedness (i.e., weighted closeness) in the
359 multiplex grooming network and greater connectivity (i.e., betweenness or degree) in the uniplex
360 affiliation network were associated with higher levels of TNF- α (Table 4). Multiplex weighted
361 closeness was not correlated with uniplex degree ($r = -0.08$) but had a weak positive correlation
362 with uniplex betweenness ($r = 0.20$). Uniplex betweenness and degree were highly correlated ($r =$
363 0.79 , Table S2). Examination of the effects in the best fit model (Model 1) containing multiplex
364 weighted closeness and uniplex betweenness revealed unexpectedly high predicted values of
365 TNF- α (i.e., higher than 99% of the sample) and large confidence intervals. This is likely due to
366 low variability in multiplex weighted closeness at high levels of uniplex betweenness (Figure

367 S3). Therefore, we show effects of the second-best model (Model 2) containing multiplex
368 weighted closeness and uniplex degree in Figure 2C-D.

369 **Discussion**

370 Social primates have a complex web of differentiated social relationships, which vary in
371 their structure and function. While strong affiliative social relationships are usually associated
372 with better health, less is known on how the multidimensionality or diversity of affiliative
373 behaviors exhibited in social relationships might impact health. We identified affiliative
374 relationships that were multiplex (animals affiliated using both grooming and huddling behavior)
375 versus uniplex (animals only groomed). Examination of these networks revealed that they
376 differed in topology, kinship, and associations with rank. Multiplex networks were more
377 modular, clustered, reciprocal, had higher average edge weights, were more strongly associated
378 with kinship, and less likely to be related to dominance rank than were uniplex affiliative
379 networks. The health impacts of these two networks differed as well, with females that were *less*
380 socially embedded in multiplex affiliative networks exhibiting higher levels of biomarkers of
381 inflammation (IL-6 and TNF- α), whereas females *more* socially connected in uniplex networks
382 exhibited higher levels of biomarkers of inflammation. These results suggest that grooming
383 which occurs in the context of multiplex affiliative relationships may result in health benefits
384 (i.e., reduced inflammation) while grooming occurring in uniplex affiliative relationships may
385 have potential costs.

386 Networks consisting of dyads with multiplex affiliative relationships showed differences
387 from uniplex affiliative networks in network topology, kinship, and associations with dominance.
388 Multiplex networks had structural characteristics consistent with strong bonds or supportive
389 affiliative relationships^{13,58,59}. Specifically, interactions in the multiplex networks were more

390 likely to be reciprocal, frequent (i.e., higher edge-weight), clustered, and associated with kinship,
391 suggesting they are relationships that are regularly maintained and potentially more stable across
392 time^{13,59}. Previous methods demonstrating that strong bonds enhance fitness, particularly those
393 using sociality indices, have also used multiple behaviors to assess relationship strength (e.g.,
394 grooming and proximity^{7,17,18}). However, these methods rely on total duration or frequency of
395 affiliation to describe relationships rather than characterizing the breadth or dimensionality of the
396 relationships (e.g., dyads can have high DSI through grooming, proximity, or both). Similar to
397 strong bonds, multiplex affiliative relationships may improve health and fitness by buffering
398 individuals from the negative impacts of stress, improving predator detection, promoting
399 offspring survival, and improving social stability^{10,11,60,61}.

400 Also consistent with the literature on strong affiliative bonds, being well connected to
401 others was associated with biomarkers of better health. Specifically, the negative association
402 between weighted closeness and biomarkers of inflammation indicated that individuals that were
403 less embedded in the network (e.g., at the periphery of the group) may be at greater risk for
404 inflammation related diseases²⁴. Closeness measures how close a node is to all other nodes in a
405 network (i.e., how many edges must be traversed to get to all other nodes) which means that
406 individuals with high closeness can readily reach many other individuals in the network. In other
407 words, they are highly embedded in this supportive network. The fact that the weighted version
408 of closeness was the best predictor suggests that it's not enough to just be highly embedded, but
409 frequent engagement is also required to reap the benefits of this connectedness. Notably,
410 huddling degree was not a predictor of inflammation adding support to the idea that there is
411 something unique about these multiplex relationships that is not represented by looking at
412 grooming or huddling relationships alone. Our results add to the literature suggesting that strong

413 bonds may improve fitness by altering endocrine and immune function^{2,15,62,63}. Consistent with
414 this idea, Yang et al.⁶⁴ found in humans that socially integrated individuals (i.e., those with more
415 social connections across multiple domains) exhibited lower inflammation, whereas social strain
416 (e.g., higher levels of family criticism or demands) was associated with greater inflammation.
417 Given that familial and friend relationships tend to endure through extended periods, often
418 persisting over decades (in both humans and NHPs), these relationships may have an important
419 and long-lasting impact on health.

420 Uniplex affiliative relationships may reflect affiliative relationships that are more
421 transactional in nature⁶⁵. The fact that uniplex relationships are less kin biased but likely to
422 occur between dyads of more disparate ranks suggests that these relationships may be more
423 related to grooming being used as a commodity in exchange for tolerance or support from higher
424 ranking animals. These relationships are likely more transactional in nature, reflecting a desire
425 to maintain peace/tolerance or used in a biological market exchange^{48,49}, rather than reflecting a
426 strong affiliative relationship. The positive association between females' connectedness in
427 uniplex affiliation networks and biomarkers of inflammation suggests that uniplex affiliative
428 relationships may not be supportive on their own and instead are associated with increased
429 physiological costs, at least in the short term. Specifically, predictors of inflammation in the
430 uniplex affiliation networks included degree, weighted degree, weighted closeness, and
431 betweenness. The network metrics in the uniplex network were more highly correlated with each
432 other and therefore it is difficult to identify which specific aspect of centrality in the network
433 might be driving these effects. However, collectively this group of candidate predictors indicates
434 that greater general connectedness (direct and indirect) was associated with increased
435 inflammation. Uniplex affiliative relationships are maintained through generally less frequent

436 interactions that are more likely to occur between animals of disparate ranks which may result in
437 greater uncertainty regarding the outcome of any given interaction. This uncertainty may be
438 stressful, and therefore have at least short-term physiological costs⁶⁶. If these relationships are
439 more transactional in nature, reflecting a desire to maintain peace/tolerance or used in a
440 biological market exchange^{48,49}, then maintaining more of these transactional relationships may
441 result in increased stress, which if sustained can result in long-term physiological costs². It is
442 possible that these short-term costs are actually investments that may manifest in future benefits
443 (e.g., tolerance, alliance support) that would offset these costs, yet this is difficult to test as the
444 “commodities” exchanged may be heterogeneous and the time-scale for market exchanges is
445 often unclear⁶⁷. However, other work points to benefits of weak or economically based bonds to
446 survival and reproduction^{6,17} (although see⁷). While these types of connections may have
447 ultimate fitness benefits (e.g., alliance support, increased access to food), this research suggests
448 they may also be associated with proximate costs.

449 **Conclusion**

450 Both humans and many species of NHPs engage in a complex interconnected system of
451 social interactions. Understanding the mechanisms by which social relationships impact health
452 and fitness remains a challenge. Decades of research has established that affiliative social
453 relationships can benefit health, however, the complexity and multidimensionality of
454 relationships has yet to be explored. By utilizing a network approach, we were able to
455 characterize two types of affiliative social relationships that differed in their network topology,
456 kin bias, associations with rank, and importantly their associations with biomarkers of
457 inflammation. Our research has indicated that features of multiplex affiliative relationships are
458 consistent with the concept of a strong supportive relationships and may support health and

459 fitness. In contrast, more transactional affiliative relationships (e.g., uniplex affiliation) may
460 incur short-term health costs yet may result in ultimate benefits through commodity exchange.
461 Still unclear is whether these effects are specific to the combination of behaviors used here (i.e.,
462 huddling and grooming), or if other affiliative behaviors (e.g., proximity) might provide similar
463 information. Further research into the dimensionality of relationships might reflect different
464 qualities or functions of relationships is needed. However, this complexity is important to
465 consider for understanding the mechanisms underlying the impact of social relationships on
466 human and NHP health.

467

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631 Figure Captions

632 Figure 1. Example network graphs of (A) Multiplex affiliative network and (B) Uniplex
633 affiliative network from social group A. Node color corresponds to matriline
634 membership. Node size corresponds to rank (large nodes are high ranking). Curved lines
635 reflect reciprocal edges. Layout is yFiles Tree Layout, Cytoscape.

636

637 Figure 2. Effects of affiliative centrality on cytokines. Effects of multiplex (Multi) weighted
638 closeness (A) and uniplex (Uni) weighted closeness (B) on levels of IL-6 with 95%
639 confidence intervals (Model 1). Effects of multiplex weighted closeness (C) and uniplex
640 degree (D) on levels of TNF α with 95% confidence intervals (Model 2).

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