1	Does social capital benefit older adults' health and well-being?
2	The mediating role of physical activity
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4	Boen, F. ¹ , Pelssers, J. ¹ , Scheerder, J. ² , Vanbeselaere, N. ³ , Vos, S. ^{2,4,5} , Hurkmans, E. ¹ , Smits
5	T.6, Fransen, K.1
6	
7	¹ Physical Activity, Sports & Health Group,
8	Department of Movement Sciences, KU Leuven
9	² Policy in Sports & Physical Activity Group,
10	Department of Movement Sciences, KU Leuven
11	³ Centre for Social and Cultural Psychology,
12	Faculty of Psychology and Educational Sciences, KU Leuven
13	⁴ School of Sport Studies,
14	Fontys University of Applied Sciences
15	⁵ Department of Industrial Design,
16	Eindhoven University of Technology
17	⁶ Institute for Media Studies,
18	Faculty of Social Sciences, KU Leuven
19	
20	Corresponding author: Filip Boen, filip.boen@kuleuven.be, tel.: 0032-16329179
21 22 23 24 25 26	Running title: Social capital predicts older adults' health and well-being

27 Filip Boen is professor in sport and exercise psychology at the Physical Activity, Sports & 28 Health Research Group at the Department of Movement Sciences (KU Leuven). His research 29 focuses on the motivational and social-psychological processes underlying physical activity 30 and sports, in particular among the elderly. 31 32 Johan Pelssers obtained a PhD in Kinesiology at the KU Leuven in 2015, in which he examined 33 the role of social support in older adults' physical exercise. In practice, he now supports students 34 in developing professional and personal skills for a self-fulfilling career at the University of 35 Maastricht. 36 37 Jeroen Scheerder is professor in the Department of Movement Sciences (KU Leuven) where he 38 heads the Policy in Sports & Physical Activity Research Group. He is the promotor-coordinator 39 of the Flemish Policy Research Centre on Sports. His research focuses on political and 40 sociological aspects of sport and physical activity. 41 42 Norbert Vanbeselaere was a professor at the Center for Social and Cultural Psychology. He 43 focused on the impact of group memberships upon group members' self-definitions and upon 44 their behavior towards fellow ingroup members and towards members of other groups. 45 46 Steven Vos is professor at the Department of Industrial Design at Eindhoven University of 47 Technology, and head of the research group 'Move to Be' at Fontys University of Applied 48 Sciences. He is also part of the Policy in Sports and Physical Activity Research Group at KU 49 Leuven. 50 51 Emalie Hurkmans has over ten years of research experience in a large variety of studies focused 52 on the promotion of a healthy lifestyle among people with a chronic disease, people with 53 overweight, employees and older adults. Furthermore, Emalie is focused on improving quality 54 of care by developing and implementing guidelines. 55 56 Tim Smits is a professor in persuasion and marketing communication at the Institute for 57 Media Studies (KU Leuven). He mainly focuses on how communication subtly persuades 58 people into healthy or unhealthy behavior and how interventions can thus improve. This

research involves both children and adults, but often zooms in on at-risk groups.

59

61	Abstract
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63	Does social capital benefit older adults' health and well-being?
64	The mediating role of physical activity
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66	Objectives: To assess whether social capital benefits older adults' self-rated health and well-
67	being, and whether physical activity mediates this relation.
68	Methods: A survey study was conducted among members of a socio-cultural organization (age
69	\geq 55 years), both cross-sectionally (baseline Time 1; $N=959$) and longitudinally (3-year
70	follow-up Time 2; $N = 409$).
71	Results: Specific indicators of social capital were positively, though modestly, related to health
72	and well-being at Time 1 and Time 2. Experienced connectedness with age peers emerged as
73	the strongest predictor. Physical activity only mediated the relation with experienced safety in
74	society.
75	Discussion: The relative importance of elderly's experienced connectedness with their age
76	peers underlines the importance of internalized group membership as a determinant of their
77	health and well-being. Physical activity seems to play only a minor mediating role.
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80	Keywords: Social Capital, Physical Activity, Successful Aging, Health, Well-Being, Social
81	Support
82	

83 Introduction

The population in Global North societies is ageing rapidly. In the upcoming decades, an increasing number of individuals are expected to pass the age of 60 and to live a substantial part of their life as an older adult. The presence of older adults is projected to grow from 12% in 2015 to 21% in 2050 (United Nations, 2015). In order to maintain a high quality of life at an older age, it will be of utmost importance to prevent diseases and disability as long as possible. Leading an active and healthy life will therefore become even more important. The promotion of such 'successful aging' (Rowe & Kahn, 1997, 2015) has become a priority in public health policy in the last decades. For example, the World Health Organization (2002) has since long advocated to optimize the opportunities for older adults to achieve successful aging.

Social capital has been considered to be a key factor in the successful aging of older adults (e.g., Berkman & Glass, 2000; Gilbert, Quinn, Goodman, Butler, & Wallace, 2013, House, Landis, & Umberson, 1988). Although the social capital approach suffers from conceptual ambiguity, it generally refers to the networks, norms of reciprocity, and trust among members of a neighborhood or community that develop through social interaction and mutual co-operation (Haslam et al., 2018). Regardless of the conceptualization, being 'rich' in social capital has been shown to contribute to the successful aging of older adults, especially in terms of health and well-being (e.g., Avlund, Lund, Holstein, & Due, 2004; Gilbert, Quinn, Goodman, Butler, & Wallace, 2013; Holt-Lunstad, Smith, & Layton, 2010; Kim, Subramanian, & Kawachi, 2010; Nyqvist, Forsman, Giuntoli, & Cattan, 2012; Nyqvist, Nygård, & Steenbeek, 2014; Nummela, Sulander, Karisto, & Uutela, 2009).

It has been shown that social capital benefits health and well-being in both a direct and an indirect way (Berkman & Glass, 2000; Uchino, 2004). The 'direct' path implies that social connectedness constitutes a prerequisite for receiving social support, which facilitates people's coping efficacy and eliminates the harmful physiological and psychological effects of the stress

that arises from the demands of life. For example, loneliness and social isolation have been found to negatively affect older adults' health (e.g., Gale, Westbury, & Cooper, 2018; Holt-Lunstad et al., 2015; Luo et al., 2012).

The 'indirect' path implies that social capital strengthens the motivation to live an active life, and as such facilitates individuals to involve in healthy behaviors, such as physical activity. In turn, physical activity would diminish individuals' risks for mortality and all-cause morbidities, improve their physical and mental functioning, and enhance their well-being (e.g., Chodzko-Zajko et al., 2009; Nelson et al., 2007).

In support of this indirect path, previous studies have indeed shown that social capital and social support promote physical activity in general (e.g., Legh-Jones & Moore, 2012; Lindström, Hanson, & Ostergren, 2001), and also among older adults in particular (Fisher, Li, Michael, & Cleveland, 2004; Reed, Crespo, Harvey, & Andersen, 2011). Therefore, social capital is considered to be a determining factor in older adults' physical activity engagement (e.g., McNeill, Kreuter, & Subramanian, 2006). Other studies have even suggested that physical activity is the only health behavior that partially mediates the positive association that exists between social capital and (the experience of) health and well-being (Mohnen, Volker, Flap, & Groenewegen, 2012; Nieminen et al., 2013). However, this mediating role of physical activity in the relation between social capital and health and well-being has not yet been examined among older adults. The present study aims to fill this gap.

We decided to test the proposed mediation not only cross-sectionally, but also longitudinally over a three-year period. This longitudinal perspective enabled us to determine whether specific indicators of social capital predict – and therefore potentially contribute to – future physical health and well-being among older adults. In addition, this longitudinal perspective allows us to examine whether this relation between social capital and future physical health and well-being is (at least) partially the result of the mediating role of physical

133 activity.

It was hypothesized that among a representative sample of older adults indicators of social capital would be positively associated with better self-reported physical health (Hypothesis 1a) and well-being (Hypothesis 1b). We also predicted that this association would be partially mediated by physical activity, both for health (Hypothesis 2a) and well-being (Hypothesis 2b). We expected that these hypotheses would hold both cross-sectionally and longitudinally.

Research Design

A cross-sectional and longitudinal survey was conducted among older adults (age \geq 55 years) in Flanders – the Dutch-speaking part of Belgium. This survey was organized in collaboration with OKRA, a socio-cultural organization for older adults with over 200,000 registered members. A random sample of OKRA members was invited to take part in a survey on specific indicators of social capital, physical activity, physical health and well-being (Time 1; baseline survey). Three years after the baseline survey, these participants were again invited to take part in a survey on physical activity, physical health and well-being (Time 2; follow-up survey).

Procedure and Participants

We randomly selected a sample of registered OKRA members for participation in the baseline survey (Time 1). Prior to random selection, we stratified the Flemish older adult population according to age (55-59; 60-64; 65-69; 70-74; 75-79; >80), gender, and region of residence (14 regions). This stratification process resulted in 168 age x gender x region of residence profiles. Respecting the representation of these profiles in the Flemish older adult population, we randomly selected a sample of 1,298 registered OKRA members for survey participation. In addition to this originally selected participant sample, we selected two profile-stratified backup participant samples of 1,298 registered OKRA members. When a selected participant from the originally selected participant sample could not be reached or refused to participate in the study,

the reason for non-participation was registered and the profile-equivalent participant from the first back up sample or – if needed – the second backup sample was contacted and invited to participate in the study. The main reported reason for non-participation was a lack of interest.

The baseline survey at Time 1 was administered in peer-to-peer interviews. Volunteering OKRA members were trained to assess the survey questionnaire. The random sample of elderly was invited for this survey by means of a post-mailed letter. Three weeks after, the peer interviewers contacted the interested participants to make an appointment for the face-to-face survey assessment at the respondent's home. The peer interviewer administered the survey in a guided interview. Three years later (Time 2), participants of the baseline survey were invited to complete the follow-up survey online or on a paper copy within six weeks. Halfway this period, the non-responders were contacted by phone to remind them about the study. If they refused to participate in the study, their reason for non-participation was noted (if provided). Table 1 provides an overview of participation in terms of age and gender for Time $1 \ (n=959)$ and Time $2 \ (n=409)$.

[insert Table 1 about here]

Measures

Indicators of social capital. As indicators of older adults' social capital, we decided to include both measures of their actual interactions (e.g., their self-reported levels of participation in various domains in society) as well their experienced connectedness with others at different levels (e.g., with the community as a whole, with their age peers) and their perceived trust in others (e.g., their experienced safety). In this way, we tried to cover different aspects that are assumed to make up individuals' social capital.

In the baseline survey (at Time 1), the respondents completed measures on seven indicators of their social capital (De Witte & Verté, 2008), namely: (1) experienced safety in society; involvement in (2) social engagement, and (3) volunteer activity; (4) experienced

connectedness to their community, (5) experienced connectedness with OKRA, (6) experienced connectedness with their age peers; and (7) experienced ageism.

Safety. The respondents reported their experienced safety in society by indicating their agreement with eight statements (e.g., 'Nowadays it is unsafe to go out in the evening') on a Likert-scale ranging from 1 (do not agree at all) to 5 (agree completely). During analysis, the scores were inversed to facilitate the interpretation of the results: a higher score reflected a higher level of experienced safety in society. Exploratory factor analysis indicated that the items formed one scale of safety, explaining 47% of the variance. This scale had sufficient internal reliability (Cronbach's $\alpha = .84$).

Social engagement. The respondents indicated whether or not (yes/no) they had engaged in the last year in a social activity in 20 domains of society (i.e., politics; vocation; religion; culture; social; leisure; restaurant/bar/club; fandom; gender; family; youth; older adult; community; councils; support/care; rescue/medical aid; self-help; NGO/charity; ecology; and 'other'). The number of domains for which they had indicated 'yes' was used as a measure of their extent of social engagement.

Volunteer engagement. The survey respondents reported whether or not (yes/no) they volunteered in 16 domains of society (i.e., politics; vocation; religion; culture; leisure; youth; student; school; gender; community; support/care; rescue/medical; consultancy; NGO/charity; ecology; and 'other'). The number of domains for which they had indicated 'yes' was used as a measure of their extent of volunteering.

Connectedness with community. The survey respondents indicated the extent to which they experienced to be connected to their community: 'To what degree do you feel connected to (what happens in) your community?' They marked their connectedness to the community on a Likert-scale ranging from 1 (not connected) to 5 (very connected).

Connectedness with OKRA. The survey respondents reported their connectedness to

OKRA by marking their agreement with three statements ('I feel strongly connected to other OKRA members'; 'I feel at home at OKRA'; 'Being an OKRA member is important in my life') on a Likert-scale ranging from 1 (*do not agree at all*) to 5 (*agree completely*). Exploratory factor analysis indicated that the items formed one scale of identification with OKRA, which explained 88% of the variance. The scale had high internal reliability (*Cronbach's* α = .93).

Connectedness with age peers. The survey respondents reported their experience of (social) connectedness to age peers by indicating their agreement with the statement 'I feel strongly connected to people of my age' on a Likert-scale that ranged from 1 (do not agree at all) to 5 (agree completely).

Ageism. The respondents indicated the experience of ageism in society by marking the extent to which they agreed with the statement 'In general people have a negative view on the people of my age' on a Likert-scale ranging from 1 (do not agree at all) to 5 (agree completely).

Physical activity. In the baseline and follow-up surveys, the respondents indicated their present physical activity involvement on an adapted version of the Godin Leisure-Time Exercise Questionnaire (GLTEQ; Godin & Shephard, 1997). They reported the number of times they had engaged in low-, moderate- and high-intensity physical activity for at least 20 continuous minutes, in a normal week (i.e., undisturbed by exceptional events) of the last four weeks. The GLTEQ assigns a mean metabolic expenditure (or MET) value to each intensity level. Using these MET-values, the GLTEQ total score was calculated: GLTEQ-total score = (low intensity * 3 MET) + (moderate intensity * 5 MET) + (high intensity * 9 MET).

Physical health. In the baseline survey, the survey respondents self-rated their health on a Likert-scale that ranged from 1 (*very bad*) to 5 (very good). In the follow-up survey, participants indicated their health by marking the degree they felt hindered by their health to engage in four types of activity: moderate-intensity physical activity; high-intensity physical activity; functional/self-care activity; social activity. They indicated the extent of experienced

hindrance on a Likert-scale ranging from 1 (*very much hindered*) to 5 (*not at all hindered*). An exploratory factor analysis showed that the items formed one scale of self-rated health that accounted for 68% of the variance. This scale had a sufficient internal reliability (Cronbach's $\alpha = .82$).

Physical well-being. In the baseline and follow-up surveys, the respondents indicated their physical well-being by responding to four statements (e.g., 'I feel well in my body') of the Marcoen scale of physical well-being for older adults (Marcoen, Van Cotthem, Billiet, & Beyers, 2002). They indicated how often they felt in line with the statements on a Likert-scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*always*) in the baseline survey (Time 1), and 1 (*never*) to 7 (*always*) in the follow-up survey (Time 2). The four items formed an internally reliable scale of physical well-being in the baseline (Cronbach's $\alpha = .85$) and follow-up surveys (Cronbach's $\alpha = .92$).

Data Analysis

To test whether physical activity mediates the association of social capital with self-rated physical health and well-being, the Preacher and Hayes' (2004; 2008) method was applied. In a mediation model, the effect of variable X on Y can be partitioned into two parts: (1) the direct effect, and (2) the indirect effect via the mediator. Combined, the direct and indirect effect of X on Y is known as the total effect. Model 4 of Hayes' (2013) Process syntax for IBM SPSS was used to perform these analyses with physical activity as mediator. Age and gender were entered as covariates. The analyses were performed with the unstandardized (B) and standardized measures (B(z)), using 5,000 bootstrap samples. Missing data were imputed with the Expectation-Maximization Algorithm prior to analysis. The analyses were performed with IBM SPSS 19.0.

256 Results

The means and standard deviations of social capital, physical activity, physical health and well-

being at Time 1 and Time 2 are presented in Table 2.

[insert Table 2 about here]

Cross-Sectional Analyses

Physical health. In line with Hypothesis 1a, four of the indicators of social capital (i.e., safety, volunteer engagement, connectedness with community, connectedness with age peers) significantly explained self-rated physical health at Time 1 (Table 3 – Total). Each of these indicators was directly related to health (Table 3 – Direct). In line with Hypothesis 2a, safety and social engagement were indirectly related to health through physical activity (Table 3 – Indirect).

[insert Table 3 about here]

It should be noted that safety and social engagement predicted only a small part of physical activity. More specifically, the social capital indicators and the demographics altogether accounted for 7% of physical activity (see Table 4).

[insert Table 4 about here]

Physical activity in turn predicted a limited part of self-rated health. To be more precise, the social capital indicators, physical activity and demographics altogether explained 12% of self-rated physical health; F(10,948) = 11.45, p < .001). Consequently, the physical activity-indirect associations of safety and social engagement only accounted for a limited part of health. More specifically, the physical exercise-indirect association explained 14% of the overall positive association of safety with health. Even though social engagement was indirectly and positively associated to health, the strength of this indirect association was too small to explain health at Time 1 (Table 3 – Total).

Physical well-being. In line with Hypothesis 1b, it was found that four of the indicators of social capital (i.e., safety, connectedness with community, connectedness with age peers, ageism) significantly explained self-rated physical well-being at Time 1 (Table 3 – Total).

Three of these indicators explained physical well-being directly (Table 3 – Direct). In line with Hypothesis 2b, both safety and social engagement explained physical well-being indirectly through physical activity (Table 3 – Indirect).

It should be noted however that physical activity explained only a small part of self-well-being. More specifically, the social capital indicators, physical activity and demographics altogether accounted for 13% of self-rated physical well-being (F(10,948) = 12.10, p < .001). Consequently, the physical activity-indirect associations of safety and social participation only accounted for a limited part of well-being. To be more precise, the physical activity-indirect association explained 27% of the overall positive association of safety with well-being. Even though social engagement was indirectly positively associated with well-being, the strength of this indirect association was too small to explain well-being at Time 1 (Table 3 – Total).

Longitudinal Analyses

Physical health. In line with Hypothesis 1a, two of the indicators of social capital (i.e., safety and connectedness with age peers) at Time 1 significantly predicted self-rated physical health at Time 2 (Table 5 – Total). These indicators were directly associated with health at Time 2 (Table 5 – Direct). In line with Hypothesis 2a, safety also explained physical health indirectly through physical activity (Table 5 – Indirect).

[insert Table 5 about here]

Again, it should be noted that safety predicted only a small part of physical activity involvement at Time 2: the social capital indicators and demographics together accounted for 8% of physical activity (see Table 4). In turn, physical activity explained only a small part of health at Time 2. More specifically, the social capital indicators, physical activity, and the demographics explained 12% of self-rated physical health; F (10,398) = 4.22, p < .001.Consequently, safety explained a small part of health at Time 2 by mediation of physical activity at Time 2 (Table 5 – Indirect). This physical activity-indirect association explained

25% of the overall association of safety with health at Time 2.

Physical well-being. In line with Hypothesis 1b, one indicator of social capital (i.e., connectedness with age peers) significantly and positively predicted physical well-being at Time 2 (Table 5 – Direct and Total). In line with Hypothesis 2b, safety and ageism were significant indirect predictors of physical well-being at Time 2 (Table 5 – Indirect).

However, safety predicted only a limited part of physical activity at Time 2 (see Table 4), and physical activity in turn explained only a limited part of well-being at Time 2. More specifically, the individual social capital indicators, physical activity and demographics altogether explained 12% of physical well-being at Time 2 (F (10,398) = 4.25, p < .001). Consequently, the strength of the physical activity-indirect associations of safety with well-being was limited, and there were no overall associations of safety with self-rated physical well-being at Time 2.

321 Discussion

The aim of this study was twofold. First, we wanted to evaluate to what extent specific indicators of older adults' social capital are related to their self-reported physical health and well-being. Second, we wanted to assess whether these associations are mediated by the elderly's levels of physical activity. To the best of our knowledge, the present study was the first to evaluate this mediating role of older adults' physical activity. Moreover, this mediation was not only assessed in a cross-sectional sample, but also in a three-year follow-up.

In line with the expectations, the results at Time 1 showed that specific indicators of older adults' social capital were positively related with their health and well-being at Time 1. More specifically, the more strongly older adults felt connected to their age peers and to their community, the more they felt physically healthier and reported higher well-being, Moreover, the more older adults volunteered, the more they felt physically healthier. In addition, the more

ageism older adults experienced, the less well-being they reported.

It should be noted, though, that most of these associations disappeared after a three-year period. Nevertheless, both feeling safe in society and feeling connected to age peers were significantly and positively associated with feeling physically healthier three years later. In addition, feeling safe in society also positively predicted well-being in the long run. These findings thus underscore that some aspects of older adults' social capital significantly predict both their present and future experience of physical health and well-being, albeit only modestly.

With respect to the proposed mediation by physical activity, this mediation was only confirmed for older adults' perceived safety in society. More specifically, older adults who felt safer in society engaged more in physical activity, now and three years later; in turn, physical activity predicted their experienced physical health and well-being. That is, the more participants engaged in physical activity, the higher levels of physical health and well-being they reported. It should be stressed, though, that this mediation explained only a small part of the association between older adults' safety and their physical health and well-being. Safety predominantly benefited older adults' experienced physical health and well-being in a direct way. The only other evidence that was found for the mediation of physical activity concerned the relation between social engagement and well-being at Time 1. However, this mediation was quite small and disappeared after three year.

Our findings thus suggest that physical activity plays only a minor role in explaining the positive relations between older adults' social capital and their subjective physical health and well-being, namely for experienced safety in society. This mediation can be understood by considering that perceptions of a safe society provide older adults with more opportunities to be physically active. To be more precise, the more a society is perceived as safe, the more locations (e.g., parks, streets, ...) and time-frames (e.g., evenings) seem to be available to engage in physical activity. By engaging more in physical activity, older adults then experience

more physical health and well-being, in addition to the direct effects of perceived safety.

With respect to the direct effects, we like to point out that older adults' experienced connectedness with their age peers emerged as the strongest predictor of both their self-rated physical health and well-being. It is striking that this internalized attachment with people who share their age categorization contributed more to participants' health and well-being than actual social engagement and volunteering. In fact, experienced connectedness with their age peers predicted health and well-being as strongly as physical activity.

This relative importance of experienced connectedness with age peers is in line with the recent emphasis on the 'social cure' (Jetten, Haslam, & Haslam, 2012). According to the social cure approach, identification with meaningful social groups constitutes a much underrated determinant of both physical and mental health. Therefore, in their new psychology of health, Haslam et al. (2018) suggest to further unlock this social cure by developing group interventions that increase participants' sense of social identification (e.g., Groups 4 Health, see Haslam et al., 2016). Inspired by this approach, future research might therefore focus on how physical activity for the elderly can be organized so that it constitutes a setting to develop this sense of social identification.

We acknowledge that the present study contains some limitations. First, a self-selection bias might come into play, considering that all participants were members of the same socio-cultural organization, namely OKRA. Therefore, caution is recommended in generalizing these findings to the general population of older adults, even though the sample was constructed to be representative for the Flemish population in terms of age, gender and region. For example, OKRA members might be more socially oriented than older adults who are not a member of this social organization and therefore report higher levels of social capital than more isolated individuals.

Second, the measurement of all concepts relied on self-reports. Despite the fact that

these measurements referred to validated questionnaires, self-reports of especially physical activity remain problematic. Future studies should therefore aim to include more objective measures to assess physical activity, such as accelerometers.

Third, the selection and operationalization of the indicators of social capital can be questioned. For example, we did not ask how many friends participants counted to estimate the quality of their interactions. Moreover, in measuring volunteering and social engagement, we focused on the breadth of their involvement (i.e., the number of domains) and not on the intensity (e.g., frequency) of their involvement in each domain. Future studies should therefore try to capture the quality and intensity of older adults' social capital.

393 Conclusion

Specific indicators of older adults' social capital seem to contribute (modestly) to older adults' successful aging by enhancing their present and future experience of physical health and well-being in a direct way. Physical activity mediates this relation only for perceived safety in society, and only partially. Interestingly, the consistently strongest predictor of both health and well-being was older adults' experienced connectedness with age peers. This finding suggest that, in line with the social cure approach, we should pay more attention to developing older adults' sense of social identification in order to facilitate successful aging. Physical activity and exercise settings might constitute ideal avenues to facilitate social identification, assuming that organizers realize that creating social connectedness takes more than simply moving together. For example, in a walking intervention in the same socio-cultural organization as in this study (Pelssers et al., 2013), we found that the communal coffee and cake that was organized after the weekly group-walk was very important to motivate participants. In order words, physical activity can be used as a means or an occasion to strengthen older adults' social identities and hence further develop their social capital.

408	Conflict of interest
409	None declared.
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Table 1.Participants as a function of age and gender

	Tin	ne 1	Tin	ne 2	
Male	\overline{n}	%	n	%	
55-59	82	8.6	46	11.2	
60-69	91	9.5	56	13.7	
65-69	91	9.5	59	14.4	
70-74	75	7.8	37	9.0	
75-79	61	6.4	14	3.4	
≥80	43	4.5	9	2.2	
Total	443	46.2	221	54.0	
	Tin	ne 1	Tir	ne 2	
Female	n	%	\overline{n}	%	
55-59	83	8.7	46	11.2	
60-64	110	11.5	55	13.4	
65-69	93	9.7	40	9.8	
70-74	93	9.7	30	7.3	
75-79	66	6.9	13	3.2	
≥80	71	7.4	4	1.0	
Total	516	53.8	188	46.0	
	Tin	ne 1	Tir	ne 2	
Total	n	%	\overline{n}	%	
50-59	165	17.2	92	22.5	
60-64	201	21.0	111	27.1	
65-69	184	19.2	99	24.2	
70-74	168	17.5	67	16.4	
75-79	127	13.2	27	6.6	
≥80	114	11.9	13	3.2	
Total	959	100	409	100	

Table 2.*Means and Standard Deviations*

		Particip	ant Sample		
	Baseline Survey Follow			v-up Survey	
	\overline{M}	SD	\overline{M}	SD	
Individual Social Capital (only Time 1)					
Safety (range 1-5)	2.60	.85	2.74	.84	
Social engagement (range 0-20)	2.23	1.90	2.58	2.00	
Volunteer engagement (range 0-20)	.92	1.57	1.27	1.82	
Connectedness with community (range	3.59	1.15	3.65	1.10	
Connectedness with OKRA (range 1-5)	3.89	1.14	3.79	1.16	
Connectedness with age peers (range 1-	4.12	1.04	4.10	1.01	
Ageism (range 1-5)	2.56	1.20	2.38	1.18	
Physical Activity (MET-value)					
Time 1	8.64	12.4	11.80	13.40	
Time 2			10.11	12.27	
Physical Health (range 1-5)					
Time 1	3.74	.79	3.86*	.70	
Time 2			4.25	.66	
Physical Well-Being					
Time 1 (range 1-5)	4.16	.77	4.23*	.67	
Time 2 (range 1-7)			5.03	1.14	

^{*}Baseline mean and SD of the participants who also participated in the follow-up survey

Table 3.
 Associations of Individual Social Capital (Time 1) with Physical Health and Well-Being (Time
 1)

		Direct			Physical Activity-Indirect			
Physical Health	В	B(z)	B(z) T		B CI 95	B(z)	B(z) CI 95	В
Indicators of Social Capital								
Safety	.11	.11	3.36**	.02	[.00, .04]*	.02	[.00, .04]*	.12
Social engagement	02	04	-1.23	.01	[.00, .02]*	.02	[.01, .04]*	01
Volunteer engagement	.05	.09	2.70**	.00	[01, .01]	.01	[01, .03]	.05
Connectedness with community	.05	.07	2.01*	.00	[01, .01]	.00	[01, .02]	.05
Connectedness with OKRA	03	04	-1.11	.00	[01, .02]	.01	[01, .02]	03
Connectedness with age peers	.12	.16	4.34***	.00	[01, .01]	.00	[02, .02]	.13
Ageism	01	01	22	.01	[00, .02]	.01	[01, .02]	.00
Demographics								
Age	.00	04	-1.10	00	[01,00]*	03	[05,01]*	01
Gender	.02	.02	.33	.04	[.02, .06]*	.05	[.02, .08]*	.05
Physical Well-being	В	B(z)	T	В	B CI 95	B(z)	B(z) CI 95	В
Indicators Social Capital								
Safety	.05	.05	1.51	.02	[.00, .03]*	.02	[.00, .04]*	.06
Social engagement	00	01	18	.01	[.00, .02]*	.02	[.01, .04]*	.01
Volunteer engagement	.02	.05	1.53	.00	[01, .01]	.01	[01, .03]	.03
Connectedness with community	.05	.07	1.94°	.00	[01, .01]	.00	[01, .02]	.05
Connectedness with OKRA	02	03	87	.00	[01, .02]	.01	[01, .02]	02
Connectedness with age peers	.15	.21	4.66***	.00	[01, .01]	.00	[01, .02]	.15
Ageism	05	08	-2.33*	.01	[01, .02]	.01	[01, .02]	05
Demographics								
Age	.01	.09	2.62**	00	[00,00]*	03	[05,02]*	.01
Gender	.13	.18	2.74**	.03	[.01, .06]*	.05	[.02, .08]*	.17

 $^{^{\}circ}$ p = .05; * p < .05; ** p < .01; *** p < .001

Table 4.
 Associations of Individual Social Capital (Time 1) with Physical Activity (Time 1 and Time 2)

					Physica	l Activity
			Time 1			
	В	B(z)	t	F(9,949)	R^2	В
Indicators of Social Capital				8.45***	.07	
Safety	1.34	.09	2.48*			2.64
Social engagement	.64	.10	2.55*			.23
Volunteer engagement	.23	.03	.67			12
Connectedness with community	.08	.01	.21			59
Connectedness with OKRA	.27	.03	.60			25
Connectedness with age peers	.19	.02	.39			.92
Ageism	.39	.04	1.08			.92
Demographics						
Age	22	14	-4.36***			26
Gender	2.72	.22	3.31**			2.43

 $[\]overline{564}$ * p < .05; ** p < .01; *** p < .001

Table 5.
 Associations of Individual Social Capital (Time 1) with Physical Health and Well-Being after
 three year follow-up (Time 2)

		Direct		Physical Activity-Indirect				
Physical Health	В	B(z)	t	В	B CI 95	B(z)	B(z) CI 95	В
Indicators of Social Capital								
Safety	.09	.11	2.02*	.03	[.02, .05]*	.04	[.02, .07]*	.11
Social engagement	01	02	25	.00	[00, .01]	.01	[01, .03]	00
Volunteer engagement	.02	.05	.94	00	[01, .01]	00	[03, .02]	.02
Connectedness with community	.04	.07	1.30	01	[02, .01]	01	[04, .01]	.04
Connectedness with OKRA	04	07	-1.14	00	[02, .01]	01	[04, .02]	04
Connectedness with age peers	.12	.18	2.37*	.01	[01, .03]	.02	[01, .04]	.13
Ageism	03	06	-1.21	.01	[.00, .03]*	.02	[00, .05]	02
Demographics								
Age	01	09	-1.53	00	[01,00]*	03	[05,01]*	01
Gender	02	03	30	.03	[.00, .06]*	.04	[.00, .09]*	.01
Physical Well-being	В	B(z)	t	В	B CI 95	B(z)	B(z) CI 95	В
Indicators of Social Capital								
Safety	.04	.03	.50	.05	[.02, .10]*	.04	[.02, .07]*	.09
Social engagement	07	11	-1.83	.01	[01, .02]	.01	[01, .04]	06
Volunteer engagement	.05	.08	1.17	00	[02, .01]	00	[03, .02]	.05
Connectedness with community	01	01	18	01	[04, .01]	01	[04, .01]	02
Connectedness with OKRA	01	01	14	01	[04, .02]	01	[04, .02]	01
Connectedness with age peers	.24	.22	3.47**	.02	[01, .05]	.02	[01, .05]	.26
Ageism	07	07	-1.37	.02	[.00, .05]*	.02	[.00, .05]*	05
Demographics								
Age	.01	.07	1.44	01	[01,00]*	03	[06,01]*	.01
Gender	.10	.09	.84	.05	[.01, .11]*	.04	[.01, .10]*	.15

^{570 *} p < .05; ** p < .01; *** p < .001