

1	
2	Conflict Between Groups Promotes
3	Later Defence of a Critical Resource
4	in a Cooperatively Breeding Bird
5	
6	Andrew N. Radford ^{1*} & Tim W. Fawcett ¹
7 8	¹ School of Biological Sciences, University of Bristol, 24 Tyndall Avenue, Bristol, BS8 1TQ, UK
9	
10	*Corresponding author, email: andy.radford@bristol.ac.uk, tel.: +44 117 3941197
11	
12	Running title: Intergroup conflict affects resource use
13	
14	
15	Keywords: Allogrooming, collective decision-making, contest outcome, cooperation, group
16	dynamics, intergroup conflict, intragroup behaviour, roosts, sociality, territoriality
17	
17	
18	
19	
20	
21 22	
22	
23 24	
25	
26	
27	

28 Summary

29 Conflict between groups (intergroup conflict) is common in many social species [1–4] and is widely discussed as an evolutionary driver of within-group dynamics and social structure 30 [2, 5]. However, empirical studies investigating the impacts of intergroup conflict have 31 focused on the immediate aftermath [6–9], when behavioural changes may be the direct 32 result of elevated stress levels [7] or territorial exclusions [9]. Demonstrations of longer-33 term effects, with behavioural changes persisting once increases in stress have diminished 34 and when full access to resources is again possible, would support proposed links to 35 36 individual fitness and social evolution. Here we show that conflicts between neighbouring 37 groups of cooperatively breeding green woodhoopoes (Phoeniculus purpureus) have a lasting influence on decisions concerning roost cavities, a limiting resource vital for survival 38 39 and breeding. Groups involved in extended conflicts in the morning were more likely to return to the zone of conflict that evening, roosting closer to territorial borders, than when 40 intergroup interactions were short or did not occur. Extended morning conflicts also 41 42 increased the likelihood that groupmates roosted together and preened one another at the roost, suggesting that intergroup conflict promotes consensus decision-making, social 43 44 bonding and group cohesion. Border roost use and allopreening increased more following 45 conflicts that were lost rather than won. Our results demonstrate that both the intensity and outcome of intergroup interactions affect resource defence and associated within-46 group behaviour many hours later, and begin to bridge the gap between the immediate 47 impacts of intergroup conflict and its role in social evolution. 48

- 49
- 50
- 51
- 52
- 53
- 54
- 55
- 56
- 57

58 **Results**

Green woodhoopoes live in groups consisting of a dominant breeding pair and up to six 59 60 nonbreeding helpers of both sexes [10]. Each group defends a year-round territory (mean ± SE size = 23.5 ± 1.7 ha) in thickly forested valleys [11] and they generally forage and move 61 62 around this territory as a single unit [12]. Group members roost communally in tree cavities every night, which yields vital thermoregulatory benefits [13], and use one of the same 63 cavities for nesting [10]. Each territory contains only a small number (mean \pm SE = 6.9 \pm 2.9) 64 of suitable tree cavities [10] and these represent the limiting resource for woodhoopoe 65 survival and reproduction: groups will rapidly move into previously unoccupied areas of forest 66 67 if nestboxes are provided [14].

68

Interactions between groups are common and involve all group members contributing to 69 70 alternating choruses (or 'rallies') [1], which on rare occasions escalate to physical fighting [15]. 71 Around 97% of intergroup interactions (hereafter IGIs) between neighbours take place within 100 m of shared territory boundaries, termed zones of conflict [16]. We found that cavities in 72 zones of conflict were used for roosting significantly more often than would be expected by 73 74 chance (Wilcoxon signed-ranks test: Z = 2.05, n = 12, p = 0.041; Figure 1A). Groups with a greater involvement in IGIs, compared to those that interacted less with their neighbours, 75 76 used zone-of-conflict roosts relatively more often than predicted from their availability 77 (Spearman rank correlation, IGI rate: $r_s = 0.59$, n = 12, p = 0.042; proportion of time engaged 78 in IGIs: $r_s = 0.62$, n = 12, p = 0.032; Figure 1B).

79

Woodhoopoe IGIs are highly variable in duration (1-45 min) and exhibit a bimodal 80 distribution: 'short' IGIs (> 57% of cases), usually on territory boundaries, are decided within 81 82 5 min and primarily involve information exchange about current group structure and potential breeding opportunities; while 'extended' IGIs (ca. 30% of cases), which develop when there 83 is a conflict over territory space, take over 15 min to resolve and usually involve a territorial 84 85 intrusion [15]. We found that self-preening, a potential indicator of stress levels in this species [16, 17], was not significantly affected by the occurrence of short IGIs (linear mixed model 86 (LMM) using mean duration of self-preening bouts: $\chi^2_2 = 0.23$, n = 44, p = 0.900), but there 87 was a highly significant effect of extended IGIs (χ^2_2 = 11.40, n = 42, p = 0.003). Specifically, 88 self-preening bouts lasted significantly longer in the immediate aftermath of an extended IGI 89

90 than in the period immediately preceding the conflict (Figure 2). The fact that self-preening was unaffected by short IGIs, and that no diurnal fluctuations in self-preening were evident 91 92 on days without IGIs (A.N. Radford pers. obs.), strongly suggests that the increase 93 immediately following an extended IGI is a direct response to intense conflict. However, this effect was short-lived: by the start of the afternoon observation session, long before groups 94 roosted (mean ± SE time from start of observation session to roosting: 3.5 ± 0.2 h, range = 95 2.2–4.5 h, n = 16 days), the duration of self-preening bouts had returned to pre-IGI levels 96 (Figure 2). 97

98

99 Despite no evidence of prolonged stress, and groups always (100% of 134 cases) moving away 100 from the IGI site in the interim, the occurrence and type of IGIs in the morning (none, short 101 IGI, extended IGI) significantly influenced the likelihood of roosting within a zone of conflict at the end of the day (generalised linear mixed model (GLMM): $\chi^2_2 = 23.30$, n = 232, p < 0.001). 102 103 Specifically, zone-of-conflict roosts were more likely to be chosen on evenings when there 104 had been an extended IGI during that morning compared to days on which there had been a short IGI or no IGI (Figure 3A). Even when controlling for whether a group had roosted in the 105 106 zone of conflict the night before (by including the location of the previous night's roost for the subset of observations for which this information was known), the effect of IGI 107 108 categorisation remained highly significant (χ^2_2 = 13.88, n = 153, p = 0.001). Further analysis showed that the effect of IGI categorisation was not because groups were more likely to 109 change roost sites on extended IGI days (χ^2_2 = 4.44, n = 153, p = 0.109), but because groups 110 that changed roost were more likely to move to a roost closer to the shared border on nights 111 following an extended IGI than when there had been a short IGI or no IGIs that morning (χ^2_2 112 = 9.52, n = 64, p = 0.009; Figure 3B). 113

114

115 When groups roosted within a zone of conflict, their time of arrival at the roost site was 116 significantly affected by IGI categorisation (LMM: $\chi^2_2 = 6.68$, n = 70, p = 0.035): they arrived 117 earlier on days that they had experienced an extended IGI than on other occasions (Fig. 4A). 118 There was, however, no significant difference in the time they entered the roost for the night 119 depending on IGI categorisation ($\chi^2_2 = 0.13$, n = 70, p = 0.938). On most nights all groupmates 120 roosted together in a single cavity, but occasionally groups split up more than 20 min before 121 roosting and spent the night in two different cavities, as found previously in this species [18]. 122 There was a strong, but marginally non-significant, tendency for groups to split less often on 123 days when there had been an extended IGI (GLMM: $\chi^2_2 = 5.95$, n = 70, p = 0.051; Figure 4B). 124

Allopreening between woodhoopoe groupmates (an established affiliative behaviour [19]) has previously been shown to change in the hour following an IGI, with dominant individuals increasing their preening of subordinates [7, 20]. In the current study, we found that the likelihood of groups exhibiting allopreening in the evening when roosting in the zone of conflict was significantly influenced by IGI categorisation that morning (GLMM: $\chi^2_2 = 8.27$, n = 70, p = 0.016): allopreening was more likely on extended IGI days than in other cases (Figure 4C).

132

133 Extended IGIs usually have clear-cut winners and losers; neighbouring groups that intrude and 134 win extended IGIs spend up to an hour in the territory of their opponent, foraging and 135 examining tree cavities [15]. We therefore considered whether roost choice in the evening is 136 affected by the outcome of earlier intergroup conflicts, testing the prediction that there is a stronger response following lost encounters, as is the case with intragroup behaviour in the 137 138 immediate aftermath of IGIs [7]. Considering only days when there was an occurrence of an 139 extended IGI in the morning, there was a strong though non-significant trend for groups to be 140 more likely to roost in the zone of conflict with their opponents when they had lost rather than won the conflict (GLMM: χ^2_1 = 2.90, n = 54, p = 0.089; Figure 3C). There was no significant 141 difference in arrival time depending on conflict outcome (LMM: χ^2_1 = 0.81, n = 31, p = 0.368), 142 but groups were significantly more likely to exhibit allopreening before roosting when they 143 had lost rather than won the morning conflict (GLMM: χ^2_1 = 3.98, n = 31, p = 0.046; Figure 144 145 4D).

146

147

148 **Discussion**

Our findings provide strong evidence that intergroup conflict can influence group decisions and intragroup behaviour relating to critical resource use. In general, green woodhoopoe groups that interacted more with their neighbours used roosts near territorial borders more often. Use of border roosts was most pronounced when there had been an extended IGI earlier in the day, especially if that conflict had been lost. Extended IGIs in the morning were 154 also associated with a greater likelihood of group members roosting together in one place and allopreening at the roost site in the evening, suggesting that conflict with rivals promotes 155 156 consensus over roosting decisions and group cohesion. Our results indicate that subsequent 157 behaviour is influenced both by the nature of the interaction with another group (extended but not short IGIs in this case) and the outcome of a conflict (see also [7, 9, 20]). Most 158 159 importantly, we demonstrate that the behavioural impact of intergroup conflict is longer-160 lasting than the immediate effect considered in many previous studies [7, 8, 21, but see 9, 22], and can occur without territorial exclusions (cf. [9, 22, 23]) and once elevated stress levels 161 162 have subsided.

163

164 Previous work on intergroup conflict has shown that losing groups might be prevented from using certain areas because of exclusion by winners [9, 23], or may avoid areas of agonistic 165 interaction if prior experience reliably predicts future conflict [22]. This reduced involvement 166 in agonistic interactions parallels the 'loser effect' often found in dyadic contests, whereby 167 168 individuals become less likely to escalate future conflicts following a defeat (reviewed in [24]). Even where loser effects are not found, previous fights can reduce aggression and discourage 169 170 home-range overlap [25, 26]. Here, however, we found the opposite effect: the woodhoopoe groups in our study used roosts in zones of conflict more often following intergroup conflicts, 171 especially those that were lost, and arrived at roost sites earlier on such occasions. This 172 greater usage may represent defence of a limiting resource; as in many other species [23, 27, 173 174 28], there is a risk that highly productive or important parts of a territory will be annexed by 175 successful rival groups [29]. Despite this risk, groups may continue to use other roosts outside 176 the zone of conflict if they provide greater thermoregulatory benefits [13], provide more 177 protection from predators [29], are less likely to accumulate water on rainy nights [30] or if 178 switching roosts is important for minimising the build-up of parasites [31].

179

Occasions when members of the same group roost in different places probably reflect unresolved between-individual conflicts of interest over group decisions [32, 33]. Our results suggest that an earlier conflict with a rival group enhances the likelihood that a consensus is reached later on, i.e. that all group members roost together. Since all adult woodhoopoe group members contribute to the majority of IGIs [1] and the outcome of extended IGIs is strongly determined by relative group size [15], an increased need for collective defence may override within-group disagreements about roost site. Previous work on the factors influencing group fissions has focused on environmental variability and uncertainty and within-group factors such as individual energetic state, the social relationships between group members and the ways information is gathered and shared [34–36]. Our study suggests that external factors – in this case, intergroup conflict – also play an important role and should be considered in future work on consensus decision-making.

192

Extended intergroup conflicts appear to cause short-term increases in stress, which may be 193 responsible for previously documented changes in allopreening and other behaviour in the 194 immediate aftermath [7, 37]. However, our data on self-preening suggest that those 195 196 increased stress levels have subsided long before groups arrive at the roost site, perhaps because commonly exhibited postconflict affiliative behaviour between groupmates reduces 197 198 stress for both recipients [38, 39] and donors [17, 40]. Consequently, the greater allopreening at roost sites on days when there had been an extended IGI in the morning is unlikely to be 199 200 explained by lingering stress from the earlier conflict. One alternative possibility is that returning to the zone of conflict in the evening causes a secondary stress increase, especially 201 202 since conflicts reliably occur in the same areas. Previous work has indicated that merely being in a zone of conflict can affect intragroup behaviour [16], but here we also found a difference 203 in allopreening depending on the outcome of a conflict occurring many hours earlier. From a 204 205 functional perspective, allopreening may strengthen social bonds and group cohesion [41] or 206 may be traded in return for some other commodity [42, 43], such as increased involvement 207 in any conflict that subsequently ensues.

208

209 Green woodhoopoe roosts are crucial both for survival and reproduction [10, 13]. If 210 intergroup conflict affects the use of such limiting resources, as suggested by our work here, 211 then there are likely implications for individual fitness beyond the obvious consequences of injury or death resulting from aggressive interactions themselves [16, 18]. Moreover, the 212 increasing evidence that intergroup interactions affect intragroup behaviour in a variety of 213 214 species [7, 20, 37], not just humans [6, 8, 21], suggests broad evolutionary significance. While it has long been suggested that conflict with rival groups is a key selective driver for group 215 dynamics and social structure [2, 5], previous empirical work on behaviour has generally 216 focused on immediate, short-term responses [6, 7, 37, but see 9, 22]. The current study, 217

218	showing that there can be a lasting impact of individual conflicts beyond the immediate effect
219	of elevated stress, combined with the possibility that the mere threat of future conflicts also
220	has an influence [16], suggests a stronger mechanism for evolutionary change. Future studies
221	on intergroup conflict will therefore continue to be important in developing our
222	understanding of resource use, sociality and the evolution of cooperation.
223	
224	
225	Experimental Procedures
226	Available in online Supplemental Information.
227	
228	
229	Author Contributions
230	ANR conceived the research and collected the data. TWF conducted the statistical analysis.
231	ANR and TWF interpreted the data and co-wrote the paper.
232	
233	Acknowledgements
234	We are grateful to Morné du Plessis for access to the study population he originally
235	established, and to Andrew Higginson, Christos Ioannou and two anonymous referees for
236	their comments on the manuscript. The data were collected by ANR when supported by a
237	NERC studentship.
238	

239

240 **References**

- 1. Radford, A.N. (2003). Territorial vocal rallying in the green woodhoopoe: influence of rival
- group size and composition. Anim. Behav. *66*, 1035–1044.
- 243 2. Bowles, S. (2009). Did warfare among ancestral hunter-gatherers affect the evolution of
 244 human social behaviors? Science *324*, 1293–1298.
- 245 3. Crofoot, M.C., and Wrangham, R.W. (2010). Intergroup aggression in primates and
- humans: the case for a unified theory. In Mind the Gap: Tracing the Origins of Human
- 247 Universals, P.M. Kappeler, and J. Silk, eds. (New York: Springer), pp 171–195.

- 4. Hardy, I.C.W., and Briffa, M. (2013). Animal Contests. (Cambridge: Cambridge University
 Press).
- 5. Van Schaik, C.P. (1989). The ecology of social relationships amongst female primates. In
 Comparative Socioecology: The Behavioural Ecology of Humans and Other Mammals, V.
 Standen, and R. Foley, eds. (Oxford: Blackwell Scientific), pp 195–218.
- 6. West, S.A. et al. (2006). Cooperation and the scale of competition in humans. *Curr. Biol.* 16, 1103–1106.
- 7. Radford, A.N. (2008). Duration and outcome of intergroup conflict influences intragroup
 affiliative behaviour. Proc. R. Soc. Lond. B *275*, 2787–2791.
- 257 8. Puurtinen, M., and Mappes, T. (2009). Between-group competition and human
 258 cooperation. Proc. R. Soc. Lond. B *267*, 355–360.
- 9. Crofoot, M.C. (2013). The cost of defeat: capuchin groups travel further, faster and later
 after losing conflicts with neighbours. Am. J. Phys. Anthropol. *152*, 79–85.
- 10. Hawn, A.T., Radford, A.N., and du Plessis, M.A. (2007). Delayed breeding affects lifetime
 reproductive success differently in male and female green woodhoopoes. Curr. Biol. *17*,
 844–849.
- 11. Radford, A.N., and du Plessis, M.A. (2004). Green woodhoopoe territories remain stable
 despite group-size fluctuations. J. Avian Biol. *35*, 262–268.
- 12. Radford, A.N., and du Plessis, M.A. (2003). Bill dimorphism and foraging niche partitioning
 in the green woodhoopoe. J. Anim. Ecol. *72*, 258–269.
- 13. Williams, J.B., du Plessis, M.A., and Siegfried, W.R. (1991). Green woodhoopoes
 (*Phoeniculus purpureus*) and obligate cavity roosting provide a test of the
 thermoregulatory insufficiency hypothesis. Auk *108*, 285–293.
- 14. du Plessis, M.A. (1992). Obligate cavity roosting as a constraint on dispersal of green (redbilled) woodhoopoes: consequences for philopatry and the likelihood of inbreeding.
 Oecologia *90*, 205–211.
- 15. Radford, A.N., and du Plessis, M.A. (2004). Territorial vocal rallying in the green
 woodhoopoe: factors affecting contest length and outcome. Anim. Behav. *68*, 803–810.
- 16. Radford, A.N. (2011). Preparing for battle? Potential intergroup conflict promotes current
 intragroup affiliation. Biol. Lett. 7, 26–29.
- 17. Radford, A.N. (2012). Post-allogrooming reductions in self-directed behaviour are affected
 by role and status in the green woodhoopoe. Biol. Lett. *8*, 24–27.

- 18. du Plessis, M.A. (1993). Do group-territorial green woodhoopoes choose roosting
- partners based on the basis of relatedness. Anim. Behav. 4, 612–615.
- 19. Radford, A.N., and du Plessis, M.A. (2006). Dual function of allopreening in the
 cooperatively breeding green woodhoopoe, *Phoeniculus purpureus*. Behav. Ecol. Sociobiol.
 61, 221–230.
- 285 20. Radford, A.N. (2008). Type of threat influences postconflict allopreening in a social bird.
 286 Curr. Biol. *18*, R114–115.
- 287 21. Erev, I., Bornstein, G., and Galili, R. (1993). Constructive intergroup competition as a
 288 solution to the free rider problem: a field experiment. J. Exp. Soc. Psychol. 29, 463–478.
- 289 22. Markham, A.C., Alberts, S.C., and Altmann, J. (2012). Intergroup conflict: ecological
- predictors of winning and consequences of defeat in a wild primate population. Anim.
 Behav. *84*, 399–403.
- 292 23. Harris, T.R. (2006). Between-group contest competition for food in a highly folivorous
- population of black and white colobus monkeys (*Colobus guereza*). Behav. Ecol. Sociobiol. *61,* 317–329.
- 24. Hsu, Y., Earley, R. L., and Wolf, L.L. (2006). Modulation of aggressive behaviour by fighting
 experience: mechanisms and contest outcomes. Biol. Rev. *81*, 33–74.
- 297 25. Stamps, J.A., and Krishnan, V.V. (1997). Functions of fights in territory establishment. Am.
 298 Nat. *150*, 393–405.
- 26. Stamps, J.A., and Krishnan, V.V. (1998). Territory acquisition in lizards. IV. Obtaining high
 status and exclusive home ranges. Anim. Behav. 55, 461–472.
- 27. Pride, R.E., Felantsoa, D., Randriamboavonjy, R., and Randriambelona, R. (2006). Resource

defense in Lemur catta: the importance of group size. In Ringtailed Lemur Biology: Lemur
 catta *in Madagascar*, A. Jolly, R.W. Sussman, N. Koyama, and H. Rasamimanana, eds. (New
 York: Springer), pp 208–232.

- 28. Mitani, J.C., Watts, D.P., and Amsler, S.J. (2010). Lethal intergroup aggression leads to
 territorial expansion in wild chimpanzees. Curr. Biol. 20, R507–508.
- 29. Ligon, J.D., and Ligon, S.H. (199). Green woodhoopoes: life-history traits and sociality. In
 Cooperative Breeding in Birds, P.B. Slater, and W.C. Koenig, eds. (Cambridge: Cambridge
 University Press), pp 33–65.
- 30. Radford, A.N., and du Plessis, M.A. (2003). The importance of rainfall to a cavity nesting
 species. Ibis *145*, 692–694.

- 31. Christie, P., Oppliger, A., and Richner, H. (1994). Ectoparasite affects choice and use of
 roost sites in the great tit, *Parus major*. Anim. Behav. *47*, 895–898.
- 314 32. Fleischmann, D. et al. (2013). Female Bechstein's bats adjust their group decisions about
 315 communal roosts to the level of conflicts of interests. Curr. Biol. 23, 1658–1662.
- 316 33. Conradt, L. (2012). Models in animal collective decision-making: information uncertainty
 317 and conflicting preferences. Interface Focus *2*, 226–240.
- 318 34. Kerth, G., Ebert, C., and Schmidtke, C. (2006). Group decision making in fission–fusion
- societies: evidence from two-field experiments in Bechstein's bats. Proc. R. Soc. Lond. B
 273, 2785–2790.
- 321 35. Aureli, F. et al. (2008). Fission-fusion dynamics: new research frameworks. Curr.
- 322 Anthropol. *49*, 627–654.
- 323 36. Sueur, C. et al. (2011). Collective decision-making and fission-fusion dynamics: a
 324 conceptual framework. Oikos *120*, 1608–1617.
- 37. Polizzi di Sorrentino, E., Schino, G., Massaro, L., Visalberghi, E., and Aureli, F.
 (2012). Between-group hostility affects within-group interactions in tufted capuchin
 monkeys. Anim. Behav. *83*, 445–451.
- 328 38. Schino, G., Scucchi, S., Maestripieri, D., and Turilazi, P.G. (1988). Allogrooming as a 329 tension-reduction mechanism: a behavioural approach. Am. J. Primatol. *16*, 43–50.
- 330 39. Aureli, F., Preston, S.D., and de Waal, F.B.M. (1999). Heart rate responses to social
- interactions in free-moving rhesus macaques (*Macaca mulatta*): a pilot study. J. Comp.
 Psychol. *113*, 59–65.
- 40. Aureli, F., and Yates, K. (2010). Distress prevention by grooming others in crested black
 macaques. Biol. Lett. *6*, 27–29.
- 41. Dunbar, R.I.M. (1991). Functional significance of social grooming in primates. Folia
 Primatol. *57*, 121–131.
- 42. Seyfarth, R.M., and Cheney, D.L. (1984). Grooming, alliances and reciprocal altruism in
 vervet monkeys. Nature *308*, 541–543.
- 43. de Waal, F.B.M. (1997). The chimpanzee's service economy: food for grooming. Evol.
 Hum. Behav. *18*, 375–386.
- 341
- 342

343 Figure Legends

344

345 Figure 1. Relative use of roosts in a zone of conflict.

(A) Expected (relative to total number of roosts available in the territory) and observed
proportions of zone-of-conflict roosts used. (B) The difference between observed and
expected usage of zone-of-conflict roosts in relation to the proportion of observation time
engaged in intergroup conflict; the least-squares regression line is shown. N = 12 groups.

350

Figure 2. The influence of intergroup interactions (IGIs) on self-preening bouts.

The effect of extended and short IGIs on the duration of self-preening bouts in the 30 min immediately before the IGI ('before'), immediately after the IGI ('aftermath') and at the start of the afternoon observation session 7.7 \pm 1.1 h (mean \pm SE) later ('afternoon'). Shown are means \pm SE, along with p values for significant post-hoc comparisons. N = 8 (extended IGIs) and N = 10 (short IGIs) groups.

357

358 Figure 3. The influence of intergroup interactions (IGIs) on roost use.

The effect of IGI categorisation (extended, short or no IGI in the morning) on the proportion of occasions that (A) a zone-of-conflict roost was used that evening and (B) the group chose a roost closer to the relevant territorial border that evening compared to the night before. (C) The effect of extended IGI outcome on the proportion of occasions that a zone-of-conflict roost was used that evening. Shown in all panels are means ± SE, along with p values for significant post-hoc comparisons. N = 12 groups.

365

Figure 4. The influence of intergroup interactions (IGIs) on roost-related behaviour.

The effect of IGI categorisation (extended, short or no IGI in the morning) on (A) arrival time at the roost site that evening, (B) the proportion of occasions that the group split to roost between different sites and (C) the proportion of occasions that group members allopreened at the roost site. (D) The effect of extended IGI outcome on the proportion of occasions that allopreening occurred. Shown in all panels are means \pm SE, along with p values for significant post-hoc comparisons. N = 12 groups.