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Perceptual learning in an appetitive Pavlovian procedure: Analysis of the effectiveness of
the common element

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28 Nonreinforced preexposure to two stimuli often enhances discrimination between them.

29 Analyses of this perceptual learning phenomenon have mainly focused on the role played

30 by the distinctive stimulus features; this study examined the contribution of the non

31 distinctive common elements. A standard appetitive Pavlovian procedure was used. Rats

32 received two different schedules of exposure –alternated or blocked– to two compound

33 auditory stimuli, *AX* and *BX*. In Experiment 1 a generalization test to *BX* that followed

34 conditioning to *AX* showed that animals responded less, and hence discriminated better,

35 following alternated exposure, thus extending the generality of this perceptual learning

36 effect to standard appetitive Pavlovian procedures. The degree to which the common

37 element *X* was mediating this effect was explored in the next three experiments.

38 Experiment 2 assessed the effectiveness of *X* following conditioning to *AX*. Experiment 3

39 explored *X*'s effectiveness throughout extensive conditioning to *X*. Experiment 4 tested

40 the ability of *X* to overshadow a novel stimulus *Y*. The results were consistent with the

41 suggestion that alternated preexposure can reduce the relative effectiveness of the

42 common element.

43

44 *Keywords:* associability; classical conditioning; common feature; perceptual learning;

45 salience

46

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49 **1. Introduction**

50

51 Nonreinforced exposure to a stimulus has at least two relatively well known effects.
52 Firstly, it retards conditioning when the exposed stimulus is subsequently paired with a
53 reinforcer. This phenomenon, labeled latent inhibition, has been extensively studied in a
54 wide range of procedures (for a review, Hall, 1991; Lubow, 1989). Secondly, exposure to
55 a pair of stimuli has been found to enhance discrimination between them. Discrimination
56 is commonly assessed by establishing a conditioned response (CR) to one of the stimuli,
57 the conditioned stimulus (CS), and measuring generalization to the other stimulus. A
58 discrimination enhancement –or, alternatively, a generalization reduction– of this sort is
59 what is known in associative learning terms as a perceptual learning effect. Although
60 perceptual learning was originally considered to be of non associative nature (Gibson and
61 Gibson, 1955; Gibson, 1969; but see, Postman, 1955), from the perspective of animal
62 learning literature the phenomenon is regarded as associative based. Current perceptual
63 learning models in animal research are all associative based.

64 Perceptual learning has been found in several training procedures such as
65 simultaneous visual discrimination learning in rats (e.g., Gibson and Walk, 1956; Hall,
66 1979, 1980), spatial learning discriminations in a radial maze with visual and tactile cues
67 (e.g., Chamizo and Mackintosh, 1989; Trobalon, Sansa, Chamizo and Mackintosh, 1991),
68 visual discriminations in navigation tasks in a swimming pool (e.g., Prados, Chamizo and
69 Mackintosh, 1999), visual discrimination in domestic chicks (e.g., Honey and Bateson,
70 1996; Honey, Bateson and Horn, 1994), generalization after flavor-aversion conditioning
71 in rats (e.g., Honey and Hall, 1989; Mackintosh, Kaye and Bennett, 1991; Symonds and
72 Hall, 1995), a same/different learning task in humans (Dwyer, Hodder and Honey, 2004);

73 and human generalization tasks (Lavis and Mitchell, 2006). However, and even though
74 perceptual learning is supposed to be an associative based phenomenon (Hall, 2003;
75 McLaren and Mackintosh, 2000) and it has been demonstrated in many preparations and
76 species, it has never been reported in a standard appetitive Pavlovian preparation with
77 rats.

78 Since Gibson's early studies (e.g., Gibson, 1969), perceptual learning
79 investigation has changed significantly. Far from the original developmental perspective
80 or from other modern cognitive approaches (e.g., Goldstone, 1998) associative learning
81 research has stressed the need for identifying the learning mechanisms that, under certain
82 conditions, boost discrimination performance. Generalization from *A* to *B*, for example, is
83 assumed to be determined primarily by the associative strength acquired by the features
84 that the stimuli hold in common. Discrimination therefore depends on the number and
85 strength of the common features: The fewer or weaker these are, the better the
86 discriminative performance is. To enhance similarity and, more importantly, to facilitate
87 the manipulation of common elements, an explicit common stimulus *X* added to *A* and *B*
88 is used in many studies (e.g., Mackintosh *et al.*, 1991; Symonds and Hall, 1995).

89 McLaren and Mackintosh (2000) proposed an associative model, outlined first in
90 McLaren, Kaye and Mackintosh (1989), in which three mechanisms were considered to
91 account for perceptual learning effects. First, the reduction in generalization that follows
92 preexposure could emerge as a result of latent inhibition. During exposure the common
93 features undergo more latent inhibition than the unique stimulus elements –the former
94 appearing twice as often as the latter. Hence, the relative effective salience of the
95 common features is reduced and overshadowed by the unique elements which acquire
96 most of the associative strength when subsequently conditioned. Thus, when compared

97 with a non-exposed control the common elements will be less able to mediate
98 generalization of responding to the test stimulus. A second mechanism called unitization
99 was proposed that could enhance discrimination between two similar stimuli. According
100 to this mechanism, repeated presentations of a stimulus engender a number of
101 associations between its constituent elements. Since the unique elements lose salience
102 less readily than the common elements, associations between them are formed
103 preferentially compared to associations between common and unique elements. As a
104 result, when a set of unique elements is activated other non-active unique elements are
105 associatively activated and become available for acquiring or expressing learning.

106 McLaren and Mackintosh's first mechanism certainly accounts for some instances
107 of perceptual learning but seems insufficient to explain the effect when latent inhibition is
108 controlled. Honey *et al.* (1994) and Symonds and Hall (1995) developed a technique for
109 controlling the contribution of differential latent inhibition to the perceptual learning
110 effect by equating the amount of stimulus exposure. Their results showed that an
111 exposure regime in which two stimuli are presented in alternation is more effective at
112 reducing generalization between them than a schedule in which the stimuli are presented
113 equally often but in separate blocks of trials. A process of unitization, the proposed
114 second mechanism, might be expected to facilitate learning in explicit discrimination
115 training but it is not obvious how the mechanism would apply to these generalization
116 tasks. As a result of simple stimulus exposure unitization might facilitate the acquisition
117 of positive and negative associative strength by associatively activating more non-
118 sampled unique elements than common elements during subsequent discrimination
119 training trials (*AX+*, *BX-*), therefore enhancing discrimination. In order to explain how
120 unitization could reduce generalization in a generalization task, it must be assumed that

121 there is no random sample of elements but instead common elements are preferentially
122 sampled: “Unitization will reduce generalization only if the initial sampling of a complex
123 CS is biased toward those elements it shares in common with the stimulus to which
124 generalization is being measured” (McLaren and Mackintosh, 2000, p.233). If during
125 exposure a process of unitization occurs, it might reduce generalization by counteracting
126 the otherwise normal bias. More unique elements will be associatively retrieved during
127 conditioning that will therefore acquire most of the available associative strength in
128 detriment of the common elements. A process of unitization might be therefore thought to
129 reduce generalization between two similar compounds that have been preexposed.
130 However there is no reason why this process should produce differential discrimination
131 depending on the preexposure regime the stimulus compounds have undergone unless it
132 is also assumed that alternated preexposure does result in an increased tendency to favour
133 the oversampling of common elements.

134 Although there is general agreement on the role played by the common elements
135 as the main source of generalization (see, Mackintosh, 1974; Rescorla, 1976) the
136 differential effect of the above regimes of exposure in which both conditions allegedly
137 share the same elements has yielded to different sort of interpretations. Thus, the
138 attention of modern theoretical accounts has been displaced towards the function of the
139 unique features in generating the effect somehow neglecting as a result the analysis of the
140 common elements’ involvement.

141 McLaren and Mackintosh’s third mechanism assumes that during alternated
142 exposure of two compound stimuli, (e.g., *AX* and *BX*) excitatory within-compound
143 associations (e.g., between *X* and *A*, and between *X* and *B*) will be established. These
144 associations ensure that on each trial (e.g., *BX*) the representation of the other unique

145 stimulus (e.g., *A*) is associatively activated. According to McLaren and collaborators,
146 under these circumstances a mutually inhibitory link between the unique stimuli (*A* and
147 *B*) is formed. This link prevents retrieving the representation of one unique stimulus (e.g.,
148 *A*) on trials in which the fellow exposed unique stimulus (e.g., *B*) is present. This
149 mechanism will only work if exposure occurs in an alternated schedule. In a blocked
150 presentation of trials, the excitatory within-compound associations formed between the
151 elements of the stimulus compound first exposed (e.g., between *X* and *A*) will undergo
152 extinction during the presentation of the second stimulus compound, preventing the
153 formation of an inhibitory link. It is commonly assumed that in a generalization test
154 response originates from the common elements' ability to retrieve the unconditioned
155 stimulus (US) representation through two sources: Directly, through the excitatory
156 associative link formed between these common elements and the US during conditioning,
157 and indirectly by the way of an $X \rightarrow A$ association. The inhibitory link formed during
158 alternated but not during blocked exposure between *A* and *B* will impede this latter source
159 of generalization. As a result, generalization following blocked stimuli exposure will be
160 greater than after alternated exposure.

161 Based on Gibson's idea of stimulus differentiation (Gibson, 1969), Honey *et al.*
162 (1994) and also Symonds and Hall (1995) proposed that alternated exposure permits the
163 operation of comparison mechanisms able to alter the perceptual characteristics of the
164 stimulus features, increasing the perceptual effectiveness of the unique elements and
165 reducing those of the common elements facilitating discrimination. Hall (2003) suggested
166 a specific mechanism under which the perceptual effectiveness would change.
167 Associative models usually assume that the strength of a stimulus representation depends
168 directly upon the stimulus's physical characteristics such as its intensity. The term

169 salience is used to denote such characteristics. According to Hall, direct presentation of a
170 stimulus can cause it to lose effectiveness. This loss of effectiveness is exemplified by the
171 phenomenon of habituation in which the effect of repeated presentations of a stimulus
172 could be characterized as a reduction of the stimulus sensitivity or salience. Conversely,
173 indirect activation of the stimulus representation by way of an associative link will restore the
174 stimulus's lost salience by a process that could be conceptualized as negative habituation.
175 Exposure to *AX* and *BX* will therefore reduce the stimulus salience in both alternated and
176 blocked pre-exposure schedules. As a consequence of alternated exposure, however, the
177 representation of *A* will be associatively activated (by way of the $X \rightarrow A$ link) on *BX* trials,
178 and the representation of *B* will be activated on *AX* trials (through the $X \rightarrow B$ link). This
179 associative activation of *A* and *B* will attenuate the loss of salience during exposure.
180 Blocked exposure, on the contrary, will not favor this associative activation because the
181 excitatory links formed during the first blocked stimulus presentation will be subject to
182 extinction during the next block. As a result, the effective salience of *A* and *B* will be
183 higher following alternated than blocked exposure and generalization between *AX* and *BX*
184 reduced.

185 Both, McLaren and Mackintosh and Hall's approaches may very well constitute
186 an associative based mechanism underlying what Gibson (1969) referred to as
187 *differentiation* processes. Differentiation was defined as an increase in the ability to
188 detect (to respond to) distinctive features of the stimuli that were not initially responded
189 to by a process of abstraction guided by experience of contrasted instances. Alongside
190 differentiation, Gibson (1969) postulated an additional perceptual process by virtue of
191 which irrelevant features of the stimuli, those aspects that fail to distinguish one stimulus
192 from another, are progressively ignored. That is, the perceptual effectiveness of the

193 features that the stimuli hold in common will be reduced. This latter process can probably
194 be identified as latent inhibition but as noted above it is not clear that latent inhibition to
195 X should be influenced by the schedule of stimulus exposure to AX and BX (but see
196 Mondragón and Hall, 2002).

197 McLaren and Mackintosh's (2000) notion of latent inhibition merges the concepts
198 of associability and salience making them depend upon the degree of expectancy or
199 familiarity of the stimulus. Thus, a stimulus that is well predicted will lose associability,
200 and therefore salience, and will be more latent inhibited than one not so well predicted
201 (see also, Wagner, 1981). Alternated stimulus preexposure could result in a weak
202 association between X and the unique features (A and B will be less well predicted) that
203 might protect the unique stimulus from latent inhibition but there is no obvious way by
204 which this preexposure arrangement may reduce the associability of X . Alternated
205 preexposure however should not result in a weak $A \rightarrow X$ or $B \rightarrow X$ association, therefore X
206 will be equally predicted after both preexposure conditions. Consequently, although it is
207 clear that latent inhibition contributes to many perceptual learning effects, it is widely
208 assumed that it cannot explain the schedule effect we are investigating. This assumption
209 however may be wrong at least to the extent that perceptual learning may be partially due
210 to differences on the effectiveness of the stimulus common features.

211 Nonreinforced exposure to a stimulus has another well known effect, that of
212 habituation. The progressive reduction of the unconditioned response, such as orienting
213 response (OR), that a stimulus elicits during preexposure will certainly contribute to the
214 latent inhibition outcome but can be differentiated from it. Evidence, like the differential
215 effects of context change, suggests that latent inhibition can be attributable to a loss of the
216 associability whereas habituation effects are better explained as a decline on the stimulus

217 perceptual effectiveness or salience (for a review, Hall, 1991). This distinction between
218 associability and salience may prove useful in producing an associative mechanism to
219 Gibson (1969) processes for disregarding common features.

220 As the main source for generalization from one stimulus to another, the role
221 played by their common features in perceptual learning surely deserves further
222 investigation. The purpose of this research is to analyze the effectiveness of these
223 common features in an appetitive conditioning procedure.

224

225 **2. Experiment 1**

226

227 The variety of procedures employed to investigate the effect suggests that
228 perceptual learning may be expected to occur quite generally and yet, to our knowledge,
229 no report has shown perceptual learning with a standard appetitive Pavlovian
230 conditioning technique in rats. On the contrary, a study on the effects of stimulus
231 familiarity and novelty reported by Honey (1990) that tested generalization from one
232 stimulus *A* to another *B* as a function of exposure yielded the opposite result. Honey
233 (1990) exposed rats to two auditory cues *A* and *B* (a tone and a clicker) in a semi-random
234 arrangement. Experiment 1 tested generalization to *B* after appetitive conditioning to *A*
235 and found that rats given preexposure to the stimuli showed more generalization on the
236 test than subjects not given pre-exposure. Group B/A of his Experiment 2 also showed
237 more generalization to *B* than to a novel stimulus *C* in a within subjects test design.
238 Honey's results could, however, be interpreted solely as a consequence of differences in
239 stimulus familiarity.

240 One possible reason for the lack of evidence of perceptual learning with standard
241 Pavlovian procedures could be the fact that perceptual learning might be evident only
242 when the stimuli are initially rather difficult to discriminate. Unlike in flavor aversion
243 experiments, standard conditioning procedures often involve very distinctive stimuli. The
244 differences between a tone and a click, for instance –the stimuli tested in Honey (1990)
245 experiments– might be too evident *per se* making redundant any learning mechanism able
246 to enhance such differences. The rationale underlying this assertion arises from the
247 empirical observation that perceptual learning is more likely to be obtained when the
248 stimuli to be discriminated are rendered more similar by the addition of a common
249 feature (Mackintosh *et al.*, 1991). The following experiment sought to eliminate this
250 problem by employing two similar stimulus compounds formed by two pure tones as
251 unique features. Moreover, to increase similarity and to allow manipulation of the
252 common features, white noise delivered through an additional speaker was superimposed
253 on each tone. All animals were exposed to the stimuli, namely *AX* and *BX*, prior to
254 conditioning to *AX*. In the experimental condition, Group ALT, the stimuli were
255 presented in an alternated schedule whereas in the control condition, Group BLK,
256 exposure to the stimuli was given in two separated blocks of identical trials; that is, a set
257 of *AX* was followed (or preceded) by a sequence of *BX* trials. This exposure arrangement
258 guaranteed that the two groups were matched in their exposure to the stimuli, a procedure
259 developed by Honey *et al.* (1994) and Symonds and Hall (1995) for controlling the
260 contribution of latent inhibition to the perceptual learning effect. Differences in
261 discrimination were assessed by comparing responding during a generalization test to *BX*.
262 If the alternated exposure regime is more effective at reducing generalization between the

263 stimuli, *BX* should elicit less responding following the alternated preexposure than after a
264 blocked preexposure schedule.

265

266 **2.1. Method**

267 *2.1.1. Subjects*

268 The subjects were 16 experimentally naïve male hooded Lister rats (Charles-
269 River, London) with a mean weight of 348.3 g (326 - 372 g) at the start of the
270 experiment. They were housed in pairs in a colony room on a 12 hour light-dark cycle
271 with training taking place during the light part of the cycle (lit from 7am to 7pm) with
272 free access to water. The animals were handled, weighed and fed a restricted amount of
273 food at the end of each session to keep them at 85% of their *ad lib* body weight for the
274 course of the experiment.

275

276 *2.1.2. Apparatus*

277 Eight identical conditioning chambers (30.5 X 24.1 X 21.0 cm) from MED
278 Associates were used. The chambers were inserted in sound and light attenuating shells
279 with background noise produced by ventilation fans (\approx 65 dB). The floor of each
280 chamber consisted of 19 tubular steel bars 4.8 mm in diameter and 11.2 mm apart within
281 a polypropylene frame. These bars were perpendicular to the wall where the food tray
282 was located. This wall and the opposite one were made of aluminum. The ceiling and
283 remaining walls were of clear polycarbonate. Each chamber was dimly illuminated by a
284 shielded houselight (operating at 20V) located on the wall opposite the food tray. A
285 magazine pellet dispenser (Model ENV-203M, Med Associates) delivered 45-mg Noyes
286 (Lancaster, NH; Improved Formula A) pellets into the food tray. A head entry into the

287 food tray was recorded by interruption of an LED photocell. A jewel light operating at
288 28V (Model ENV-221M, Med Associates), which was located above the food tray,
289 provided illumination used as the response cue. A speaker (Model ENV-224DM, Med
290 Associates) located at the ceiling of each chamber delivered two tones of 3.2 KHz and
291 9.5 KHz (approximately 80 dB) produced by a programmable audio generator (Model
292 ANL-926, Med Associates). A heavy duty relay attached to the top center of the front
293 wall was used to deliver a 6.25 Hz click of approximately 78 dB. A speaker mounted on
294 the inside front wall of the shell could be used to deliver a 75 dB white noise, produced
295 by a Campden Instruments Ltd noise generator. A Pentium III 800MHz computer
296 running Med-PC for Windows (Version 4.0) controlled experimental events with 10ms
297 resolution.

298

299 TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE

300

301 2.1.3. Procedure

302 Table 1 shows the designs employed in this and subsequent experiments.
303 Throughout all the experiment phases rats were presented with trials separated by a
304 variable ITI with mean of 315s. They received two exposure training days to two
305 compound stimuli, *AX* and *BX*. Two tones of 3.2 KHz or 9.5 KHz and intensity of 80 dB
306 served as *A* and *B* (counterbalanced) and a 75 dB white noise delivered from a different
307 speaker was used as the common *X* element. The stimuli were 15 seconds long. Each
308 exposure day consisted of 10 stimulus presentations, 5 of each compound type. The
309 initial order (counterbalanced) in which the stimuli were exposed was reversed on day 2
310 and the identity of the first stimulus counterbalanced. In Group ALT-AX:BX the stimuli

311 were exposed in an alternated fashion (e.g., *AX/BX/AX/BX...*). In Group BLK-AX:BX
312 stimuli were presented in two separated blocks of identical trials (e.g., *AX/AX ... BX/BX*).
313 Two sessions of conditioning followed, each of which comprised 10 presentations of *AX*
314 followed by 2 pellets of food. A test day was run next. The test consisted of 4
315 presentations of *BX* in extinction. The amount of time the animals kept their head in the
316 food tray was recorded during the stimulus presentation and during the 15 seconds that
317 preceded it (PCS). A difference score in which time responding during the PCS was
318 subtracted from that recorded during the stimulus presentation was computed and used as
319 a response measure. The rejection level adopted here and in all subsequent analyses was
320 $p < 0.05$.

321

322 ***2.2. Results and Discussion***

323 Response times during conditioning and during the PCS were averaged across 4
324 blocks of 5 trials to calculate difference scores. Inspection of these data indicated that
325 responses during the presentation of *AX* increased progressively and similarly for both
326 groups of animals. Mean time responding ($\times 10^{-2}$ s) along the four conditioning blocks for
327 Group ALT-AX:BX were -19.8, 5.0, 22.8, 138.0; and 17.8, 22.7, 66, 97.0 for Group
328 BLK-AX:BX. Statistical analysis conducted with preexposure condition (alternated *vs.*
329 blocked) and trial block as variables showed that conditioning was sufficient to generate
330 responding to *AX* [$F(3,42) = 6.28$]. No other differences, between preexposure conditions
331 or in the interaction between the variables, were significant ($F_s < 1$). PCS responses as a
332 measure of background activity also appear to increase as a result of training (Means:
333 30.9, 62.4, 59.6, 90.6 and 15.4, 57.3, 58.8, 94.4 *per* block and groups ALT-AX:BX and

334 BLK-AX:BX respectively) but this increment failed to reach significance [$F(3.42) =$
335 $2.82]$. No other variable effect or interaction was significant ($F_s < 1$).

336

337 FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE

338

339 Mean time responding during the critical test of generalization to *BX* over two
340 trial blocks is shown in Figure 1. Animals that were preexposed to the stimuli in
341 alternation, Group ALT-AX:BX, responded less during the test presentation of *BX* than
342 did animals in Group BLK-AX:BX. This pattern of responding would indeed be expected
343 if alternated preexposure had resulted in an improved discrimination between the stimuli,
344 that is, if generalization between the conditioned stimulus and the test stimulus had been
345 reduced as a consequence of the alternated arrangement more than after the blocked
346 stimulus presentation. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) with preexposure condition and
347 trial block as variables was conducted with these data. This analysis confirmed the
348 statistical reliability of this difference in responding. Animals in Group BLK-AX:BX
349 responded significantly more to *BX* [$F(1,14) = 5.16]$ than animals in Group ALT-AX:BX.
350 No other effect, trial blocks or interaction between the variables, was significant ($F_s < 1$).
351 Responding during the PCS periods (Means: 23.7, 16.4 and 10.1, 11.1 *per* block and
352 groups ALT-AX:BX and BLK-AX:BX, respectively) did not statistically differ across
353 trials and/or groups ($F_s < 1$).

354 To the best of our knowledge this result is the first report of perceptual learning in
355 standard appetitive Pavlovian conditioning, that is, of reduced generalization as
356 consequence of the schedule of exposure.

357 Similar experiments reported by Honey (1990) found more generalization when
358 conditioning occurred after exposure than when the stimuli were not preexposed. There
359 are, however, several differences between this experiment and those reported by Honey.
360 For example, the stimuli used in his experiments were unmistakably more dissimilar than
361 the ones employed here. As previously suggested, a learning mechanism intended to
362 facilitate discrimination might only be evident when the stimuli are initially
363 undifferentiated. The exposure arrangements were also different. In Honey's experiments
364 the stimuli were either exposed in a semi random arrangement or not exposed at all. In
365 the experiment described here, exposure within a day in the experimental condition
366 followed a strict alternation, an arrangement known to be critical to obtain the effect
367 (Blair and Hall, 2003; Dwyer, Bennett and Mackintosh, 2001; Dwyer and Mackintosh,
368 2002; Symonds and Hall, 1995). It was not the purpose of this experiment to elucidate
369 the differences between Honey's procedure and ours nor to assess the specific conditions
370 that favor the effect but rather to obtain clear evidence of perceptual learning in a
371 standard appetitive Pavlovian conditioning.

372

373 **3. Experiment 2**

374

375 Schedule effects in perceptual learning designs control for differences in latent
376 inhibition by comparing discriminative performance following an exposure arrangement
377 in which only the regime of exposure to the stimuli – not the amount – varies within
378 conditions. It is assumed that any perceptual learning effects attributable to differences in
379 the schedule of exposure cannot be explained in terms of differential latent inhibition of
380 the common features (e.g., Honey *et al.*, 1994; Symonds and Hall, 1995). Yet, it can be

381 questioned whether the common features are really equally effective acquiring
382 associative strength. More specifically, is the common element *X* equally effective
383 transferring generalization after an alternated preexposure than after a blocked one?
384 Some evidence implies that it is.

385 Bennett and Mackintosh (1999) and Mondragón and Hall (2002) found no
386 significant differences in the acquisition of a conditional response to *X* following
387 alternated or blocked exposure to *AX* and *BX*. Nonetheless, Mondragón and Hall gave
388 further test sessions in extinction and found that learning about *X* following alternated
389 exposure was less robust than that shown by the blocked group.

390 Generalization from one stimulus to another is mainly the result of the associative
391 strength acquired by the common features, but typically the whole stimulus (i.e., *AX*) and
392 not just the common feature (i.e., *X*) undergoes conditioning. Thus, the extent to which
393 response to *AX* may generalize to *BX* will perhaps be better assessed testing *X* following
394 conditioning to *AX*. In Bennett and Mackintosh's (1999) Experiment 1b, animals were
395 conditioned to *AX* and the strength acquired by *X* was then tested. They found no
396 differences depending on the preexposure conditions. All the animals in their experiment,
397 though, had previously received a *BX* test that could have attenuated any differences in
398 strength due to the exposure conditions. Mondragón and Hall (2002) conducted a similar
399 test but immediately after conditioning *AX*. Their experiment did find a reliable
400 difference, indicating that learning about *X* was weaker in the alternated than in the
401 blocked condition.

402 None of the accounts of perceptual learning mentioned earlier predicts direct
403 changes in the effectiveness of *X*. However, a mechanism such as the one proposed by
404 Hall (2003) able to modify the salience of *A* differentially depending on the schedule of

405 exposure might account for different levels of X's associative strength following AX
406 conditioning. If alternated exposure restores the loss of salience of A, conditioning to X
407 can differ as a result of stronger overshadowing by A than that caused in the blocked
408 condition by a less salient A. Weaker learning to X following alternated preexposure and
409 AX conditioning could also be easily accommodated by McLaren and Mackintosh (2000)
410 theory. Compared to a blocked preexposure, the associability of A after an alternated AX /
411 BX regime is expected to be higher since this preexposure schedule will protect A from
412 undergoing latent inhibition. Then, during AX conditioning the relative more salient A in
413 the alternated condition could overshadow conditioning to X in a greater degree than A
414 could following blocked preexposure arrangement.

415 Experiment 2 was designed to provide further evidence for variations in the
416 effectiveness of X following AX conditioning as a consequence of the differential
417 exposure schedule.

418 Table 1 shows the experimental design. The group labels refer to the successive
419 experiment phases: Preexposed schedule (ALT or BLK), conditioned stimulus and test
420 stimulus. Group ALT-AX:X was given alternated preexposure to AX and BX and Group
421 BLK-AX:X received blocked stimulus exposure. Conditioning trials followed in which
422 all animals were conditioned to AX. The strength of learning governed by X was tested in
423 two subsequent blocks of 5 extinction trials. If as a consequence of alternated exposure
424 of AX and BX X became less effective transferring generalization than after blocked
425 stimulus preexposure responding during test in Group ALT-AX:X was expected to be
426 lower than in the Group BLK-AX:X .

427

428 **3.1. Method**

429 *3.1.1. Subjects and Apparatus*

430 The subjects were 16 male hooded Lister rats (Charles-River, London) with no
431 previous experimental experience and with a mean *ad lib* weight of 369.2 g (348 - 395 g)
432 at the start of the experiment. They were housed and maintained exactly as in Experiment
433 1. The apparatus was the same as that used in Experiment 1.

434

435 *3.1.2. Procedure*

436 Initial exposure training and conditioning were identical to those of Experiment 1.
437 Following conditioning all animals received a single test day consisting of ten
438 presentations of *X* in extinction. All other parameters remained identical to those of
439 Experiment 1.

440

441 *3.2. Results and Discussion*

442 Response times ($\times 10^{-2}$ s) during conditioning and during the PCS were averaged
443 across 4 blocks of 5 trials to calculate difference scores. Over the course of conditioning,
444 responding increased progressively during the presentation of *AX*. This increment was
445 similar for both groups of animals. Mean time responding along the four conditioning
446 blocks for Group ALT-*AX*:*X* were 28.4, -45.3, 62.7, 284.0; and -29.2, 41.2, 87.9, 281.1
447 for Group BLK-*AX*:*X*. Statistical analysis conducted with preexposure condition
448 (alternated *vs.* blocked) and trial block as variables showed that conditioning was
449 effective producing responding to *AX* [$F(3,42) = 19.27$]. No other differences were
450 significant ($F_s < 1$). PCS responses did not significantly increase as a result of training
451 (Means: 54.3, 163.5, 202.6, 129.0 and 64.9, 98.7, 77.5, 87.6 *per* block and groups ALT-
452 *AX*:*X* and BLK-*AX*:*X* respectively) nor differentiated the groups in any way ($F_s \leq 1.44$).

453

454

FIGURE 2 ABOUT HERE

455

456 More interesting were the results of the test phase. Figure 2 shows response times
457 during the presentation of stimulus *X* for each group during the first and last block of 5
458 trials of this test. A visual inspection of the data reveals that animals that were exposed to
459 stimuli in blocks responded more than animals preexposed to the stimuli in alternation.
460 This difference was constant throughout test. If anything, extinction to *X* appeared to
461 develop faster in Group ALT-AX:X. This pattern of responding is fully consistent with
462 the proposal that *AX / BX* alternation would result in a loss of the effectiveness of *X* to
463 acquire associative strength during conditioning to *AX* and was confirmed by a statistical
464 analysis. An ANOVA performed with preexposure condition (alternated or blocked) and
465 blocks as variables produced a significant main effect of preexposure condition [$F(1,14)$
466 = 8.47]. The interaction between these variables and the effect of the extinction blocks
467 were not statistically significant ($F_s < 1$). PCS scores did not differ during test or across
468 groups (all $F_s < 1$). Means: 26.38, 34.47 and 23.58, 17.03 for blocks 1 and 2 and groups
469 ALT-AX:X and BLK-AX:X, respectively.

470 These results seem to suggest that alternated exposure to the stimuli may have
471 indeed reduced the effectiveness of *X* to acquire, or at least to express, associative
472 strength during *AX* conditioning and support those of Mondragón and Hall (2002). If
473 alternated exposure in Group ALT-AX:X had effectively restored some of the salience
474 that *A* lost during exposure as predicted by Hall (2003), *A* could more easily have
475 overshadowed *X* during conditioning than in Group BLK-AX:X. This result also fits the
476 predictions of McLaren and Mackintosh (2000) model. That is, if alternated exposure had

477 protected *A* from latent inhibition keeping its relative salience higher than the salience of
478 *A* in Group BLK-AX:*X*, its ability to overshadowing *X* would be lesser in the latter than
479 in the former.

480 No doubt, the fact that the ability of *X* to gain associative strength may be
481 dependent upon the schedule of the compound stimuli preexposure would certainly
482 contribute to the perceptual learning effect. However the question about whether the
483 schedule of exposure would have a direct effect on the effective salience of *X* remains
484 unanswered. Experiment 3 was designed to try to answer this question.

485

486 **4. Experiment 3**

487

488 If the effectiveness of the common element is reduced as a consequence of
489 alternated exposure, it would be reasonable to expect differences both in the acquisition
490 of a conditional response to *X* conditioned alone and in its expression. As above
491 mentioned, McLaren and Mackintosh's (2000) theory of latent inhibition, that fails to
492 distinguish between associability and salience effects, does not predict differences on the
493 effectiveness of *X* due to this particular preexposure schedule, neither does Hall's (2003).
494 From the perspective of a theory (e.g., Pearce and Hall, 1980) that assumes a distinction
495 between associability and salience, variations in the stimulus salience able to modify the
496 effectiveness of *X* during preexposure would be concurrent and interacting with the
497 associability effects. During preexposure to *AX* and *BX*, each common stimulus feature
498 will appear on twice as many occasions as each unique feature; its associability will
499 therefore be severely reduced and a substantial latent inhibition is to be expected.
500 Besides, these two exposure schedules may differentially reduce the associability of *X*

501 according to Pearce and Hall's (1980) model. For the sake of clarity, the analysis of the
502 implications of this later prediction will be postponed to the general discussion.
503 Experiment 3 attempted to counteract latent inhibition with extensive conditioning
504 training under the assumption that stronger conditioning will grant more room to detect
505 any differences that could emerge. Therefore, in Experiment 3 (summarized in Table 1)
506 twice as many conditioning trials to *X* were given as in the previous experiments. That is,
507 animals received 40 conditioning trials to *X*. Four extinction test trials followed. In all
508 other respects the procedure was identical to that used in Group ALT-AX:BX and Group
509 BLK-AX:BX in Experiment 1.

510

511 **4.1. Method**

512 *4.1.1. Subjects and Apparatus*

513 The subjects were 16 experimentally naïve male hooded Lister rats (Charles-
514 River, London) with a mean *ad lib* weight of 375.3 g (345 - 414 g) at the start of the
515 experiment. Housing, maintenance and apparatus were the same as in Experiment 1.

516

517 *4.1.2. Procedure*

518 Group ALT-X:X and Group BLK-X:X received preexposure training identical to
519 that of each group in Experiment 1 with the exceptions described next. All animals
520 received 4 days of conditioning to *X* and a single test day consisting in 4 trial
521 presentations of *X* in extinction. All other parameters remained identical to those of
522 Experiment 1.

523

524

FIGURE 3 ABOUT HERE

525 4.2. Results and Discussion

526 The left panel of Figure 3 shows response times over the course of conditioning
527 averaged across 10 blocks of 4 trials. As conditioning progressed, responding to X
528 increased. Contrary to our prediction, learning progressed similarly for both groups of
529 animals. Although during initial training animals in Group ALT-X:X appeared to learn
530 somewhat slower than those in Group BLK-X:X these differences were not statistically
531 reliable. An analysis of variance showed that only the effect of training [$F(9,126) =$
532 $12.85]$ was significant; neither the effect of group nor the interaction between these two
533 variables were statistically significant ($F_s < 1$). PCS response times during conditioning
534 (Means: 43.3, 68.0, 70.4, 107.4, 67.3, 90.3, 43.7, 58.9, 79.7, 60.8 and 18.7, 22.3, 34.7,
535 77.3, 95.4, 30.7, 45.6, 68.8, 94.0, 81.9, *per* block and groups ALT-X:X and BLK-X:X
536 respectively) did not statistically differ in any way ($F_s < 1$). Test results (right panel of
537 Figure 3), however, showed that animals in Group ALT-X:X responded less than animals
538 in Group BLK-X:X during the first block of trials. These differences were not evident by
539 the end of the test phase. An ANOVA confirmed this pattern of results and showed a
540 significant interaction between group and test block [$F(1,14) = 4.75]$. No other effect was
541 significant ($F_s < 2.05$). *Post hoc* analysis revealed that animals in Group ALT-X:X
542 responded less than did animals in Group BLK-X:X during the first block of trials
543 [$F(1,14) = 5.87]$ but not during the second ($F < 1$). PCS scores during test (Means: 31.7
544 and 14.7; 4.8 and 0.0 *per* block and groups ALT-X:X and BLK-X:X, respectively) did
545 not differ statistically differ in any way [$F_s(1,14) < 1.63]$.

546 Experiment 3 replicated the effect found in Experiment 2, that is, relative to
547 blocked exposure alternated exposure to AX and BX reduced the effectiveness of the
548 feature X common to the compound stimuli. However, unlike in Experiment 2, this

549 difference could not be attributable to an indirect effect product of differences in the
550 effectiveness of the unique feature A. Remarkably, this effect was only evident when
551 stimulus effectiveness was tested in extinction. Despite this, since responding to X
552 differentiated the groups early during test, it seems unreasonable to consider the effect as
553 a product of differential extinction rates. The absence of differences between the
554 alternated and blocked exposure conditions during acquisition to X replicates the findings
555 of both Bennett and Mackintosh (1999) and Mondragón and Hall (2002). It is possible
556 that the failure in finding a reliable difference might simply be due to the insensitivity of
557 the measure used but this is mere speculation. The reason why this schedule effect on X
558 only appears evident during an extinction test remains a puzzle.

559 Since evidence supporting a reduction in the effectiveness of the common
560 elements following alternated preexposure seems to elude a direct conditioning test, in
561 Experiment 4 we used an indirect test to substantiate it.

562

563 **5. Experiment 4**

564

565 Consistently with the proposal that alternated exposure reduces the perceptual
566 effectiveness of common elements, Experiments 2 and 3 extinction tests of X following
567 AX or X conditioning, respectively, showed that animals appeared to have learned less
568 readily about these elements during conditioning. Experiment 4 (see Table 1) was
569 designed to seek for a different sort of evidence for changes in the perceptual
570 effectiveness of the common elements. The rationale for this experiment was as follows.
571 An indirect way to assess the effectiveness of a stimulus during conditioning would be to
572 test its ability to overshadow other stimuli that are present. That is, if alternated exposure

573 to two compound stimuli *AX* and *BX* reduces the effectiveness of *X* more than is observed
574 after blocked stimulus exposure, then *X* should also be less able to overshadow a novel
575 stimulus *Y* when conditioned in a simultaneous compound following alternated exposure.
576 Accordingly, it was predicted that conditioning to *XY* will result in more responding to *Y*
577 following alternated exposure thus providing an indirect test for the effectiveness of the
578 common elements after alternated or blocked exposure.

579 **5.1. Method**

580 *5.1.1. Subjects and Apparatus*

581 The subjects were 16 male hooded Lister rats (Charles-River, London) with no
582 previous experimental experience and a mean *ad lib* weight of 375.7 g (330 - 406 g) at
583 the start of the experiment. They were housed and maintained exactly as in Experiment 1.
584 The apparatus was the same as that used in Experiment 1.

585

586 *5.1.2. Procedure*

587 Initial exposure training and conditioning were identical to those of Experiment 1
588 except for the following changes. Animals in Group ALT-YX:Y received alternated
589 exposure to *AX* and *BX* whereas animals in Group BLK-YX:Y were exposed to a
590 blocked schedule. Following preexposure all animals received conditioning trials to a
591 compound stimulus *XY* formed by a simultaneous presentation of a click of 6.25 Hz and
592 approximately 78 dB (*Y*) and the noise delivered from different sources. All animals
593 received then a single test day consisting of four presentations of *Y* in extinction. Data
594 from this laboratory showed an enormous variability in the responding times when using
595 the click as CS therefore in this experiment we recorded number of responses. The
596 number of times that the animals introduced their head in the food tray was recorded

597 during the stimulus presentation and during the 15 seconds that preceded it (PCS). A
598 difference score was calculated subtracting responding during the PCS from that recorded
599 during the stimulus and was used as a response measure. All other parameters were
600 identical to those of Experiment 1.

601

602

603 **5.2. Results and Discussion**

604 Conditioning to YX progressed similarly for both groups of animals. Responses
605 were averaged across 4 blocks of 5 trials to calculate difference scores. The mean number
606 of responses per minute along the four blocks of conditioning trials for Group ALT-
607 YX:Y were 0.7, 6.5, 8.2, 13.7; and 0.1, 6.5, 8.8, 12.5 for Group BLK-YX:Y. An
608 ANOVA with preexposure condition and trial block as variables confirmed the original
609 observation. Only the effect of blocks was statistically reliable [$F(3,42) = 18.02$]. No
610 other differences were significant ($F_s < 1$). An analysis conducted on the PCS responses
611 (Means: 1.2, 2.7, 3.5, 2.3 and 2.2, 1.4, 1.8, 2.9 *per* block and groups ALT-YX:Y and
612 BLK-YX:Y, respectively) showed no significant interactions [$F(3,42) = 2.04$] nor a
613 simple main effect of the variables ($F_s < 1$).

614

615 FIGURE 4 ABOUT HERE

616

617 More interesting were the results found during the overshadowing test. A visual
618 inspection of the data, depicted in Figure 4, shows that animals in Group ALT-YX:Y
619 responded more to Y than animals in Group BLK-YX:Y. This response pattern is
620 consistent with the idea that motivated the experiment – that the less perceptually

621 effective the common element X becomes as consequence of an alternated preexposure,
622 the less will it be able to overshadow conditioning to Y , therefore resulting in more
623 vigorous conditioned response. An ANOVA with preexposure condition and test block as
624 variables statistically confirmed these observations. Both the effect of block and the
625 interaction between block and preexposure condition were significant [$F_s(1,14) = 4.95$].
626 The main effect of preexposure was not [$F(1,14) = 1.57$]. An analysis conducted to
627 explore the source of this interaction revealed that the differences in responding were
628 reliable during the second block of trials [$F(1,14) = 18.42$] but not during the first ($F < 1$).
629 An analysis of the PCS responses through the test blocks (Means: 0.25 and 1.0 for Group
630 ALT- YX:Y; 1.25 and 3.0 for Group BLK-YX:Y) showed no effect of blocks [$F(1,14) =$
631 1.87] nor an interaction between blocks and preexposure condition ($F < 1$). However, the
632 main effect of preexposure condition just reached significance [$F(1,14) = 4.7$; $p = .05$],
633 stemming from the fact that background responding in Group BLK-YX:Y was somewhat
634 stronger. This different level of PCS responding was explored further. No differences in
635 responding were found when the test blocks were individually analysed [$F_s(1,14) < 2.4$];
636 besides, a similar analysis conducted with CS rates alone showed a significant effect of
637 groups on the second block of trials [$F(1,14) = 6.10$] thus ruling out the possibility that
638 PCS scores might have contributed decisively to the critical test results.

639 This result provides further evidence of variations in the effectiveness of the
640 element common to the two compound preexposed stimuli. Differential responding in
641 extinction revealed differences in the associative strength of the conditioned response
642 acquired by Y during conditioning but also may suggest that the speed of learning during
643 the Y extinction phase differed. However, being the extinction phase identical for both
644 groups, any observed difference must be a consequence of what was learned during the

645 previous phases that would generalize to the extinction test. There are two sources of
646 generalization. Direct generalization through the excitatory associative link formed
647 between Y and the US and indirectly by the way of an $Y \rightarrow X (\rightarrow US)$ association.

648 Conditioning to an equally novel stimulus Y will be expected to produce similar
649 rates of conditioning. Differences of this rate due to a direct source of generalization
650 should therefore be attributed to differential overshadowing by X . That the differences
651 appear late during test should not be surprising. Since Y was a novel stimulus,
652 conditioning should have developed faster and stronger for both exposure conditions
653 compared to that gained by a substantially latent inhibited X . Thus, high levels of
654 responding to Y could be expected initially during test that could mask differences
655 between groups. However, as extinction proceeds, differences between groups could
656 emerge. Conditioning of Y in Group ALT-YX:Y was more resistant to extinction
657 indicating that animals exposed to the stimuli in alternation learned more readily about
658 the novel stimulus Y presented in compound with X than animals exposed to them in
659 blocks, therefore suggesting that the effectiveness of the common stimulus X was
660 preferentially reduced as a result of this schedule of preexposure.

661 Although weaker, there is, however, a second source of generalization that may
662 contribute to the difference rates of extinction by the way of an $Y \rightarrow X (\rightarrow US)$ association.
663 Other conditions remaining equal, a stronger conditioning to X or a stronger $Y \rightarrow X$
664 association in Group ALT-YX:Y will result in more generalization from XY to Y . Given
665 that conditioning was identical and Y equally novel in both conditions, differences in
666 conditioning to X or in the $Y \rightarrow X$ association strength between the two groups could have
667 only been produced by difference in the effective salience of X . Thus, to produce a
668 stronger $X \rightarrow US$ or $Y \rightarrow X$ association in Group ALT-YX:Y, X should be more salient in

669 Group ALT-YX:Y than in Group BLK-YX:Y at the beginning of conditioning. This
670 hypothesis is precisely the opposite of what it has been proposed in this paper and
671 elsewhere, implying that alternated preexposure of *AX* and *BX* would have increased the
672 salience of *X* in Group ALT-YX:Y (or reduced the salience of *X* in Group BLK-YX:Y)
673 contrarily to what previous results seem to suggest. Attributing the source of the observed
674 differences to this secondary source of generalization without any other fact to support it
675 seems in some way perverse.

676 There is a further possible explanation. If as a consequence of preexposure and
677 conditioning the salience of the stimulus *Y* was somehow reduced on Group ALT-YX:Y
678 (or enhanced in Group BLK-YX:Y), then, according to Rescorla and Wagner's model
679 (Rescorla and Wagner, 1972) faster extinction should be expected to develop in Group
680 BLK-YX:Y. No grounds, however, can be found to support this preliminary assumption
681 according to which the salience of *Y* may have differentially changed during
682 conditioning.

683

684

685

686 **6. General discussion**

687

688 An important set of perceptual learning studies assess the degree of generalization
689 from one stimulus *AX* to another similar stimulus *BX* following different schedules of
690 stimulus preexposure. When compared with a blocked stimulus presentation, alternated
691 exposure often enhances stimulus discrimination. Although such a perceptual learning
692 effect might be expected to occur quite generally, and regardless of the apparently diverse

693 range of procedures in which the effect has been found, it has proved difficult to obtain in
694 experiments using standard appetitive classical conditioning. Pilot experiments carried
695 out by, among others, the first author in this laboratory and in Hall's laboratory at the
696 University of York and by Ward-Robinson's laboratory at the University of Nottingham
697 have repeatedly failed to obtain the effect (Ward-Robinson's personal communication).
698 Besides, no report employing what is perhaps the more paradigmatic procedure of
699 Pavlovian conditioning has never been published. Experiment 1 demonstrated for the first
700 time, a perceptual learning effect in standard appetitive conditioning in Skinner boxes
701 using auditory stimuli as discriminative stimuli thus proving the generality of the effect.

702 The primary source of generalization between two compound stimuli such as the
703 ones employed in perceptual learning experiments is determined by the associative
704 strength acquired by the feature, *X*, common to the stimuli. Despite being the basis for
705 generalization, the role played by these common features in perceptual learning has been
706 relatively ignored (but see, Bennett and Mackintosh, 1999; Mondragón and Hall, 2002;
707 Symonds and Hall, 1997). All in all, the experiments reported here suggest that
708 preexposure conditions that engender perceptual learning reduce learning about the
709 common features. Unlike blocked stimulus exposure, alternated preexposure seems to
710 reduce what has been referred to as the *effectiveness* of the common elements. Both a
711 direct test of the common feature's associative strength in extinction and an indirect test,
712 through its ability to overshadow a novel stimulus, are consistent with a diminished
713 learning capability. It remains however unclear why such an effect would not be observed
714 during conditioning.

715 One well known effect of exposing a stimulus is that it will reduce its associability,
716 retarding subsequent conditioning –the latent inhibition effect. The designs employed in

717 this research are intended to control for latent inhibition effects. All the stimuli are
718 exposed and the amount of each stimulus exposure is equal to all the experimental
719 conditions. However, it remains possible that latent inhibition to a feature *X* that is
720 experienced as part of two different stimulus compounds might be influenced by the
721 schedule of exposure. Latent inhibition to *X* could progress less readily during blocked
722 exposure than when exposure involves alternated stimulus presentations. It must be
723 noted, however, that the Pearce and Hall (1980) model makes just the opposite
724 prediction. According to this account the accuracy with which a stimulus predicts the
725 events that follow determines its associability; but the model asserts that the less accurate
726 predictor a stimulus is the higher its associability will be. Applied to this particular case,
727 we might assume that at the end of blocked preexposure in which, for instance, a set of
728 *AX* trials precedes a series of *BX*, the feature *X* will become a good predictor of its
729 associate stimulus *B*. In contrast, after an alternated exposure of *AX* and *BX*, the feature *X*
730 will not have a consistent associate and, therefore, it will be a less accurate predictor than
731 in the blocked case. That is, the associability of *X* will remain higher after alternated
732 exposure and conditioning should be stronger – the opposite of what our test results
733 revealed. A mechanism in the spirit of that proposed by Mackintosh (1975) that predicts
734 higher associability for good predictor stimuli could perhaps cope with these results.

735 It is also possible to speculate that the operation of Hall's (2003) mechanism in
736 which the *perceptual salience* of the unique feature increases when is associative
737 activated by *X*, would also alter the salience of *X*. Specifically, we propose a simplified
738 attentional mechanism that only requires assuming that a stimulus that associatively
739 activates another will lose some of its own effective salience in a selective attention
740 process that could be analogous to that of overshadowing. Alternated stimulus

741 preexposure will guarantee that *X* will associatively activate either *A* or *B* in all trials but
742 the first one, resulting in *X* losing more salience than after a blocked exposure schedule in
743 which *X* will only activate the representation of its first associate during the initial second
744 blocked trials. Whereas Hall's proposal could constitute a specific mechanism for
745 explaining how *differentiation* might develop, the mechanism that we propose might
746 refine Gibson's secondary perceptual process that assumed that irrelevant features of the
747 stimuli, those that will not help to distinguish one stimulus from another, are
748 progressively ignored. The operation of a mechanism such as the one we propose could
749 perhaps give a more detailed account –and, at the same time, be of more general
750 application– of how this secondary Gibsonian process might work. Associatively
751 activated distinctive features could overshadow the salience of the feature that they hold
752 in common and that associatively activates them. This salience reduction mechanism
753 could operate in parallel to associative ones, such as associability effects, modulating the
754 stimulus effectiveness. This explanation however is not exempt of problems. If as
755 consequence of the compound stimuli exposure, the common element loses effectiveness
756 to gain associative strength by associatively activating the unique elements, it could be
757 assumed that it will also progressively lose its ability to activate them in the forthcoming
758 trials because of the intermixed extinction trials that the alternation regime involves.
759 Therefore, this process would imply limiting the amount of perceptual improvement that
760 preexposure would generate to an asymptotic level of salience change that would be
761 parametrically dependent.

762 The experiments reported in this paper were intended to analyze the role played
763 by the common features, that is, to provide evidence of their contribution to the
764 perceptual learning effect. We have shown that the effectiveness of common elements

765 does change as consequence of preexposure and that this effect is to be taken into account
766 when elaborating a perceptual learning theoretical approach. We propose a mechanism
767 that could explain how the effective salience of the common stimulus may decrease as
768 consequence of an alternated regime of preexposure. This mechanism does not exclude
769 nor is presented as an alternative explanation to other theories that focus on the unique
770 stimulus features (Hall, 2003; McLaren and Mackintosh, 2000) but as a complementary
771 mechanism that would also contribute to the scheduled perceptual learning effect.

772

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Figure captions

Figure 1. Mean time of magazine approach response calculated from difference scores CS- PCS ($s \times 10^{-2}$) during the two test trial blocks for Group ALT-AX:BX and Group BLK-AX:BX. Vertical bars represent SEM.

Figure 2. Mean time of magazine approach response calculated from difference scores CS- PCS ($s \times 10^{-2}$) during the five test trials blocks for Group ALT-AX:X and Group BLK-AX:X. Vertical bars represent SEM.

Figure 3. Mean time of magazine approach response calculated from difference scores CS- PCS ($s \times 10^{-2}$) during the ten conditioning four trial blocks (left panel) and during the two trial test blocks (right panel) for Group ALT-X:X and Group BLK-X:X. Vertical bars represent SEM.

Figure 4. Group mean rates of responding calculated from difference scores CS- PCS during the two test trial blocks for Group ALT-YX:Y and Group BLK-YX:Y. Vertical bars represent SEM.