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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

47

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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.