



Edited by
Frances K. McSweeney and Eric S. Murphy

THE WILEY BLACKWELL HANDBOOK OF
*Operant and
Classical Conditioning*

WILEY Blackwell

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Handbook of Operant and
Classical Conditioning

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Alexander W. Kusnecov is Associate Professor of Psychology at Rutgers University. He obtained his Ph.D. in 1990 at the University of Newcastle, Australia, where he focused on the functional interface between the immune and nervous systems. Postdoctoral studies on Psychoneuroimmunology were conducted in the Department of Psychiatry, University of Rochester, New York. His research has continued to address different domains of neural-immune interactions. This has included behavioral conditioning of the immune system, as well as stressor effects on immune function. More recently, his research has addressed the neural, endocrine, and behavioral consequences of immunologic challenge with bacterial T cell superantigens, such as the staphylococcal enterotoxins.

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John A. Nevin, known as Tony, received his Ph.D. from Columbia University in 1963. He taught at Swarthmore College until 1968, then returned to Columbia where he served two years as Department Chair. In 1972, he moved to the University of New Hampshire, where he remained until retirement in 1995. He now lives with his wife Nora on the island of Martha's Vineyard, and maintains research collaborations with colleagues at other institutions with the support of the National Institutes of Health. His recent work focuses on applications of the behavioral momentum metaphor, which he developed over several decades with data from pigeons trained on multiple schedules of reinforcement, to the persistence of severe problem behavior in children with intellectual and developmental disabilities. The postretirement persistence of his work is itself an instance of momentum, based on the many reinforcers he has enjoyed throughout his life.

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Karen Pryor is a behavioral biologist and writer. Trained at Cornell, the University of Hawaii, and Rutgers, she has focused on learning and behavior in areas ranging from human lactation to marine mammal ethology to autism. Never an academic (though an active guest lecturer), she served three years as a presidential appointee to the federal Marine Mammal Commission, and a decade as a consultant on dolphin

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William A. Roberts has carried out research on a number of problems in animal cognition, including working memory, spatial memory, timing, numerical processing, concept learning, episodic-like memory, and metamemory since 1970. His work has been continuously supported by discovery grants from the Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada, and he has published approximately 150 articles and book chapters. He has served as editor of the journal *Learning and Motivation* since 2000. His textbook, *Principles of animal cognition*, was published in 1998. Recent high-profile publications include an article, "Are animals stuck in time," in the *Psychological Bulletin*, two review articles on episodic-like memory in *Current Biology*, a research report on the temporal basis of episodic-like memory published in *Science*, a review of the comparative study of mental time travel in *Current Directions in Cognitive Science*, and a review of the study of metacognition in animals in *Comparative Cognition and Behavior Reviews*.

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Douglas A. Williams has maintained a nationally funded laboratory (Natural Sciences and Engineering Council of Canada) for some 20 years. Among his publications are more than a dozen articles in the prestigious *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, most coauthored with students from the mainly undergraduate University of Winnipeg. Many highly motivated undergraduates have made substantive contributions to his research program, later pursuing their own academic, research, or professional careers. He joined the faculty in 1991 after receiving a doctorate from the University of Minnesota under the guidance of J. Bruce Overmier and serving as a Killam Postdoctoral Fellow at Dalhousie University with Vincent M. LoLordo.

Preface

The *Wiley-Blackwell Handbook of Operant and Classical Conditioning* surveys the field of contemporary behavior analysis. The book is organized into four parts. Part I summarizes the basic principles, theories, and physiological substrates of classical conditioning. Habituation, a related fundamental form of learning, is also covered. Part II describes applications of classical conditioning. These applications include taste aversions, phobias, and immune system responses. Part III provides a review of the basic operant conditioning literature. Coverage ranges from traditional topics, such as basic operant principles and schedules of reinforcement, to the more contemporary topics of behavioral economics, behavioral momentum, and dynamic changes in reinforcer effectiveness. The final section of the book covers the growing field of applied behavior analysis. These applications range from intensive behavioral treatment for children with developmental disabilities to organizational behavior management to behavior analytic approaches to aging.

We chose to cover the topics of operant and classical conditioning in the same book because the basic principles of these two types of learning are similar. Therefore, an understanding of one type of conditioning can contribute to an understanding of the other type. As a result, the two types of learning are traditionally covered in a single volume. We chose to cover both basic principles and applications in the same book because we could not leave out either topic without ignoring a substantial part of the current literature on conditioning. In addition, we believe that applications cannot be properly understood without coverage of the principles on which they are based. Likewise, the understanding of basic principles is enriched and enhanced by a discussion of their applications.

There are many potential topics to cover in the broad areas of classical and operant conditioning. The choice of topics for this book is somewhat arbitrary. We have tried to select topics that are broad in coverage and, therefore, interesting to a relatively wide audience. This is particularly true in the section on applied behavior analysis in humans. With the exceptions of the chapters on autism and aging, we have tried to select topics that affect almost everyone, rather than concentrate on treatments for particular populations. We have also tried to select topics in which substantial research progress has been made since earlier conditioning handbooks were published and we

gave priority to topics that were not covered recently in other books. Some topics were given a slightly lower priority because of less broad interest, slower recent research progress, or an ability to integrate these topics into other chapters. Our choices were also limited by our own prejudices and perspectives and by an occasional inability to find an appropriate and available author. We acknowledge that many worthy topics were omitted from this book.

The book is designed for advanced undergraduates and graduate students. It should provide a reference book for academicians, and professionals in behavior analysis including those who wish to conduct research in the area of conditioning, those who wish to use conditioning techniques as a baseline for understanding the effects of other variables (e.g., drugs), and those who wish to use conditioning techniques to either understand or treat challenging behaviors.

The chapters contained within this volume provide a summary of the chosen subfields within behavior analysis. Each author was chosen specifically for his or her expertise. Without the authors' dedication to this project, this book would not be possible. We are sincerely indebted to each contributor. We would also like to thank the dedicated staff at Wiley-Blackwell. Andrew Peart provided much-needed support and advice during the early stages of the project. We are also grateful to Karen Shield and Rosemary Morlin for their help with clearing copyright permissions and copyediting the book.

Frances K. McSweeney and Eric S. Murphy
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Part I

Basic Classical Conditioning

Principles of Pavlovian Conditioning

Description, Content, Function

Daniel A. Gottlieb and Elizabeth L. Begej

Although both early human memory researchers and behaviorists studied processes that today would be considered Pavlovian, Ivan Pavlov is credited with discovering classical conditioning and first officially describing the process to an English-speaking audience with the publication of *Conditioned reflexes* in 1927. Pavlov's systematic investigation of Pavlovian conditioning uncovered most of the primary phenomena, and his sharp and nuanced discussions are still relevant today.

Gottlieb (2011) defined Pavlovian, or classical, conditioning as the “adjustments organisms make in response to observing the temporal relations among environmental or proprioceptive stimuli.” The most well-known form involves pairing a neutral conditioned stimulus (CS) with a biologically relevant unconditioned stimulus (US) that automatically elicits an unconditioned response (UR), leading the CS to elicit a conditioned response (CR) qualitatively similar to the UR. Pavlov's first reported example used dogs as subjects, a metronome CS, food as the US, and salivation as the UR and CR (Pavlov, 1927, p. 26).

Pavlovian conditioning is most clearly defined and constrained by its method, which involves maintaining strict control over the presentation of stimuli. There appear to be few clear principles that distinguish Pavlovian conditioning from other forms of associative learning, such as instrumental learning and human associative memory, and we agree with Rescorla and Solomon (1967)'s conclusion the Pavlovian conditioning is most distinct in how determined the form of the learned response is by the choice of US. Pavlovian responding is also characteristically resistant to instrumental contingencies. For example, it is difficult to prevent a pigeon from pecking (CR) at a discrete key light (CS) paired with food (US), even if pecking prevents the delivery of food (Williams & Williams, 1969).

Overview

Basic Excitatory Phenomena

Acquisition is the primary phenomenon of Pavlovian conditioning and refers to the growth in conditioned responding resulting from pairing a CS and US over time (Pavlov, 1927, p. 26). A CS that produces conditioned responding is sometimes referred to as an excitator. An example of an excitator is a brief tone that, due to repeated pairings with an air puff to the eye, elicits anticipatory eyeblinking.

An animal that has learned to blink to a tone may also blink when presented with a novel auditory stimulus. The magnitude of this generalized responding is a function of the similarity of the new stimulus to the originally trained CS (Pavlov, 1927, p. 111). Generalization functions can be modified by discrimination learning, in which some stimuli are reinforced while others are nonreinforced. For example, the generalized responding from a tone to a burst of white noise can be reduced by interspersing presentations of the noise alone.

A tone paired with an air puff to the eye gains more than the ability to elicit anticipatory blinking. It also develops the ability to serve as a conditioned reinforcer for another, second-order, CS (Pavlov, 1927, p. 33). Second-order conditioning tends to lead to lower levels of responding than does first-order conditioning. Thus, a light paired with a tone excitator will likely elicit less conditioned eyeblinking than will the tone itself. Conditioned reinforcers are contrasted with primary reinforcers that do not need prior training to be able to establish conditioned responding. Unlike in instrumental conditioning, Pavlovian reinforcers refer to stimuli that may be appetitive or aversive.

Basic Inhibitory Phenomena

Inhibitory phenomena are those that manifest in opposition to conditioned responding. When stimuli both reduce responding to simultaneously presented excitors and are slow to become excitors themselves, as compared to neutral stimuli, they are called inhibitors (Rescorla, 1969a). This type of inhibition is sometimes referred to as operational inhibition. It is contrasted with the theoretical inhibition that is used as an explanation for transient decreases in excitatory responding.

Extinction refers to the loss in conditioned responding that occurs when an excitator is subsequently presented in a manner that breaks the CS-US relationship (Pavlov, 1927, p. 49). For example, our tone excitator will stop eliciting conditioned eye-blinks if it is repeatedly presented alone. Although extinction is explained by appeal to inhibitory mechanisms, extinguished stimuli do not typically become operational inhibitors (Rescorla, 1969a).

Suppression of responding may also be observed when a nonreinforced stimulus is interspersed among the reinforced trials of another CS and a US. For example, if noise alone presentations are interspersed among tone-air puff pairings, generalized responding to the noise will be reduced. The suppression of responding observed in a discrimination procedure is referred to as differential inhibition. Unlike extinguished stimuli, differentially conditioned stimuli may become operational inhibitors (Pavlov, 1927, p. 120).

A particularly powerful form of differential inhibition results from a conditioned inhibition procedure in which a stimulus is nonreinforced in the presence of an excitator that is reinforced when presented alone. For example, if our tone signals an air puff except when it is presented together with a light, the light will become a conditioned inhibitor capable of passing the operational tests for inhibition (Pavlov, 1927, p. 68).

Perhaps it is not surprising that with extended training, organisms may come to withhold responding to a CS until closer to the time of the US. The decrease in responding to early parts of a CS that may result from extended training is referred to as inhibition of delay (Pavlov, 1927, p. 88).

Basic Framework

Early theorists most often adopted a contiguity view of learning, in which the pairing of stimuli in time and space was the necessary and sufficient condition for generating conditioned responding. Although Hull (1943) expanded on this view in arguing that drive reduction was also necessary for learning, it is his other contributions that have made him central to contemporary understandings of Pavlovian processes.

Hull (1943) adopted the view of Pavlovian conditioning as an associative process by which the magnitude of the association determined the magnitude of conditioned responding. He presented a simple mathematical learning rule that specified the change in associative (habit) strength that resulted from the pairing of a CS and a US. The vast majority of subsequent quantitative models developed within the associative framework contain Hull's simple learning algorithm (Mackintosh, 1975; Pearce, 1987; Rescorla & Wagner, 1972; Wagner, 1981).

Hull (1943) helped to cement a view of Pavlovian conditioning as an incremental trial-based process involving changes in the associative strength between stimuli. The parameters of his model are what were originally thought to be the determinants of Pavlovian learning. Primary was the number of trials. Secondary included three durations related to the CS-US interval: the length of the CS, the temporal gap between the CS and US, and the extension of the CS past the US; as well as two salience parameters, one for the CS and one for the US.

Hull's Choices

CS-US Interval

Delay Conditioning. Most demonstrations of acquisition use a delay conditioning procedure where CS offset coincides with US onset. As such, CS duration is the only determinant of the CS-US interval in delay conditioning. There appear to be two conflicting ideas related to effects of CS duration. The first is that there is an optimal CS-US interval that is highly procedure-dependent. For skeletal muscle CRs, like eyeblink conditioning, the optimal CS-US interval is often a fraction of a second (Gormezano & Kehoe, 1981), but for other types of CRs, such as sign-tracking and conditioned fear, the optimal interval may be multiple seconds (Gibbon, Baldock, Locurto, Gold, & Terrace, 1977; Yeo, 1974).

That there is an optimal CS-US interval conflicts with the other main idea about CS duration, that shortening it promotes acquisition (Lattal, 1999). This conflict is likely a result of optimal durations being at the low end of the range of durations that can establish conditioned responding. What appears most relevant is that certain procedures allow for conditioning with CS-US intervals much longer than others. In fear conditioning, CS durations of several minutes can be effective (Kamin, 1965), and in conditioned taste aversion, CS-US trace intervals of up to 24 hours can establish conditioned aversions (Etscorn & Stephens, 1973).

Trace Conditioning. When the CS terminates prior to US onset, acquisition of conditioned responding may be strongly impaired (Ellison, 1964). This procedure is known as trace conditioning, referring to one explanation for the conditioned responding that does occur: A memory trace of the CS is contiguously paired with the US. Although a gap between CS offset and US onset impairs conditioned responding, the impairment does not necessarily reflect a failure to learn. Trace conditioning can lead a CS to become inhibitory (LoLordo & Fairliss, 1985). It also may lead to increasing levels of responding during the time between CS offset and US onset (Marlin, 1981).

Simultaneous Conditioning. Early research suggested that simultaneous CS-US presentation did not lead to conditioned responding (Kimble, 1961), but it is clear that in many cases it does (Heth & Rescorla, 1973). Simultaneous conditioning may lead to different forms of learning than does forward conditioning. For example, in flavor conditioning, simultaneous, but not delay, conditioning prevents the reacquisition of an extinguished preference (Higgins & Rescorla, 2004).

Backward Conditioning. Backward conditioning refers to presenting the US prior to presenting the CS. Typically, US offset and CS onset coincide. After a small number of trials, it is not uncommon to observe excitatory conditioned responding, but after further trials, the responding diminishes and the CS may become an inhibitor (Heth, 1976). One complexity is that a backward CS may pass an operational test for inhibition while at the same time establishing excitatory second-order conditioning to another CS (Barnet & Miller, 1996). Romaniuk and Williams (2000) provided an explanation for this by demonstrating that the initial 3 s of a 30 s backwards CS was excitatory while the remaining 27 s was inhibitory. Adding a 3 s gap between US offset and CS onset eliminated excitatory responding, strengthened inhibition, and prevented second-order conditioning.

Stimulus Intensity

US Magnitude. Some argue that acquisition of conditioned responding should be broken down into components that include the point of acquisition and the asymptotic magnitude of responding (Gallistel, Fairhurst, & Gibbon, 2004). In general, increasing US intensity or number tends to increase the magnitude of conditioned responding (Mackintosh, 1974, pp. 70–71); however, although Morris and Bouton (2006) detected effects of US magnitude on the point of acquisition in aversive and appetitive procedures with rats, how strongly US magnitude influences the point of acquisition is still not clear. Unlike US intensity, the effects of increasing US duration are not consistent across procedures (Mackintosh, 1974).