



Psychology of Learning

Readings in Behavior Theory

Edited by

Barry Schwartz

Psychology of Learning

READINGS IN BEHAVIOR THEORY

EDITED BY

Barry Schwartz

Swarthmore College



W. W. Norton & Company
New York London

Cover photograph by Bill Boyarsky. Used by permission.

Copyright © 1984 by W. W. Norton & Company, Inc.
ALL RIGHTS RESERVED.

Published simultaneously in Canada by
Penguin Books Canada Ltd,
2801 John Street, Markham, Ontario L3R 1B4.

This book is composed in Baskerville.
Composition by New England Typographic Service, Inc.
Manufacturing by The Murray Printing Company.
Book Design by Nancy Dale Muldoon.

Library of Congress Cataloging in Publication Data

Main entry under title:

Psychology of learning, readings in behavior theory.

Includes bibliographical references.

1. Learning, Psychology of—Addresses, essays, studies. 2. Behaviorism (Psychology)—Addresses, essays, studies. I. Schwartz, Barry, 1946-
LB1051.P72937 1983 370.15'23 82-24670

ISBN 0-393-95305-X

W. W. Norton & Company, Inc.
500 Fifth Avenue, New York, N. Y. 10110
W. W. Norton & Company Ltd.
37 Great Russell Street, London WC1B 3NU

Contents

Introduction

1

Part I Pavlovian Conditioning

3

A. Excitation and Inhibition 4

1. Inhibition of avoidance behavior. *R. A. Rescorla and V. M. LoLordo.* 5

B. Second-Order Conditioning: What Is Learned? 15

2. Associations in second-order conditioning and sensory preconditioning. *R. C. Rizley and R. A. Rescorla.* 16

C. The Nature of the Conditioned Response 29

3. The role of predrug signals in morphine analgesic tolerance: Support for a Pavlovian conditioning model of tolerance. *S. Siegel, R. E. Hinson, and M. D. Krank.* 30

D. Contingency and Conditioning 42

4. Predictability and number of pairings in Pavlovian fear conditioning. *R. A. Rescorla.* 43
5. Classical conditioning of a complex skeletal response. *E. Gamzu and D. R. Williams.* 47
6. Chronic fear produced by unpredictable electric shock. *M. E. P. Seligman.* 52

E. Predictability and Attention 66

7. Predictability, surprise, attention, and conditioning. *L. J. Kamin.* 67

F. Selective Association 82

8. Relation of cue to consequence in avoidance learning. *J. Garcia and R. A. Koelling.* 83

Part II Operant Conditioning

87

A. Creating Behavioral Units 89

9. An operant discrimination task allowing variability of reinforced response patterning. *R. Vogel and Z. Annau.* 90

B. Contiguity and Contingency 97

10. "Superstition" in the pigeon. *B. F. Skinner.* 98
11. The effect of contingency upon the appetitive conditioning of free-operant behavior. *L. J. Hammond.* 102
12. Failure to escape traumatic shock. *M. E. P. Seligman and S. F. Maier.* 111

C. The Nature of Reinforcement 122

13. Reversibility of the reinforcement relation. *D. Premack.* 123

D. Conditioned Reinforcement 126

- OPT 14. Secondary reinforcement in rats as a function of information value and reliability of the stimulus. *M. D. Egger and N. E. Miller.* 127
15. Fixed-ratio schedules of conditioned reinforcement with chimpanzees. *R. T. Kelleher.* 136

E. When Organisms Misbehave 145

16. The misbehavior of organisms. *K. Breland and M. Breland.* 146

Part III Avoidance Learning**153**

A. Two-Factor Theory 154

17. Studies of fear as an acquirable drive: I. Fear as motivation and fear-reduction as reinforcement in the learning of new responses. *N. E. Miller.* 155

B. Reinforcement Theory 167

18. Avoidance conditioning with brief shock and no exteroceptive warning signal. *M. Sidman.* 168

C. Cognitive Theory 171

19. A cognitive theory of avoidance learning. *M. E. P. Seligman and J. C. Johnston.* 172

D. Biological Theory 193

20. Species-specific defense reactions and avoidance learning. *R. C. Bolles.* 194

Part IV Intermittent Reinforcement and Choice**215**

A. Concurrent Schedules of Reinforcement 216

21. Relative and absolute strength of response as a function of frequency of reinforcement. *R. J. Herrnstein.* 217
22. Commitment, choice, and self-control. *H. Rachlin and L. Green.* 228

B. Choice under Naturalistic Conditions 240

23. Foraging in a simulated natural environment: There's a rat loose in the lab. *R. L. Mellgren.* 241

Part V Stimulus Control: Discrimination and Generalization**251**

A. Generalization Gradients 253

24. Positive and negative generalization gradients obtained after equivalent training conditions. *W. K. Honig, C. A. Boneau, K. R. Burstein, and H. S. Pennypacker.* 254

B. Attention and Predictability 262

25. Auditory stimulus control in pigeons: Jenkins and Harrison (1960) revisited. *R. L. Rudolph and R. Van Houten.* 263
26. Intradimensional and extradimensional shift learning by pigeons. *N. J. Mackintosh and L. Little.* 268

C. Biological Selectivity of Stimulus Control 271

27. Attention in the pigeon: The differential effects of food-getting versus shock-avoidance procedures. *D. D. Foree and V. M. LoLordo.* 272

Part VI Cognitive Processes**283**

- A. Learning about Relations 285
 - 28. Evidence for relational transposition. *D. H. Lawrence and J. DeRivera.* 286
- B. Complex Natural Concepts 296
 - 29. High-order concept formation in the pigeon. *R. E. Lubow.* 297
- C. Cognitive Maps 306
 - 30. Chimpanzee spatial memory organization. *E. W. Menzel.* 307
- D. Insightful Problem-Solving 313
 - 31. Chimpanzee problem-solving: A test for comprehension. *D. Premack and G. Woodruff.* 314
- E. Cognition and the Law of Effect 321
 - 32. Why the law of effect will not go away. *D. C. Dennett.* 322

Part VII Applications of Behavior Theory**337**

- A. Pavlovian Conditioning 338
 - 33. The treatment of addiction by aversion conditioning with apomorphine. *M. J. Raymond.* 339
 - 34. Systematic desensitization as a counter-conditioning process. *G. C. Davison.* 345
- B. Operant Conditioning 358
 - 35. Intensive treatment of psychotic behaviour by stimulus satiation and food reinforcement. *T. Ayllon.* 359
 - 36. The elimination of tantrum behavior by extinction procedures. *G. D. Williams.* 368
 - 37. Use of the Premack principle in controlling the behavior of nursery school children. *L. E. Homme, P. C. deBaca, J. V. Devine, R. Steinhorst, and E. J. Rickert.* 370
- C. Token Reinforcement 372
 - 38. A token reinforcement program in a public school: A replication and systematic analysis. *K. D. O'Leary, W. C. Becker, M. B. Evans, and R. A. Saudargas.* 373

References to the Introductions 388

Introduction

The discipline known as behavior theory has been at the heart of experimental psychology for most of this century. It has been concerned with exploring the determinants of certain kinds of learning and with studying the ways in which behavior can be controlled by environmental events. The principles of behavior theory have been derived primarily from laboratory experimentation with nonhuman animals; but many of these principles have been demonstrated to apply not only to animals in laboratories, but also to people in complex social environments.

This book contains a collection of articles that have contributed over the years to the development of behavior theory. The articles are organized into seven groups, each reflecting a major area of inquiry in behavior theory. Each group is further subdivided into sections and each of the sections is preceded by a brief introduction that previews the articles contained in the section and indicates why they are significant. With one exception (*A Cognitive Theory of Avoidance Learning*, by Seligman and Johnston), the articles have been reprinted without editing or abridgment. This decision was based on the view that an important component of one's education in psychology is in learning how to read and evaluate primary source material. In addition to their content, these articles convey the logic and subtleties of experimental design, execution, and analysis—in short, the process underlying the scientific endeavor.

Part I

Pavlovian Conditioning

At the turn of the century, Russian physiologist I. P. Pavlov (1849–1936) discovered what he called “psychic reflexes.” When food was placed in a dog’s mouth, the dog would salivate. This salivary response to food was wired into the dog’s nervous system. It was a reflex that required no experience to be triggered by an appropriate stimulus. What Pavlov discovered was that other stimuli that bore no “wired-in” relation to salivation could also trigger the salivary response if they regularly preceded the delivery of food. These other stimuli came to be known as *conditioned stimuli* (CSs), because their ability to trigger reflexes was conditional upon the animal’s experience. The CS had to be paired with an *unconditioned stimulus* (US), such as food, whose power to trigger salivation is independent of experience. The result of such pairing was the formation of an *association* between CS and US, so that the CS came to trigger a *conditioned response* (CR).

Pavlov devoted the rest of his life to the study of these “psychic reflexes,” or *conditioned reflexes* as they came to be called (Pavlov, 1927).^{*} He saw them as the building blocks of all learning by association and, indeed, perhaps all learning. In addition, he gave birth to a field of inquiry that has continued to be vigorously pursued to the present day. In the years since Pavlov’s early work, the methods used to study Pavlovian conditioning, the phenomena discovered, and the accounts offered to explain these phenomena have broadened considerably. The articles included in Part I provide a glimpse of the range of concerns that occupy modern researchers.

Section A presents an article that demonstrates excitatory and inhibitory Pavlovian conditioning, using a method, quite different from Pavlov’s, that has come to dominate research on Pavlovian conditioning. Section B presents an article that asks what it is an animal actually learns in Pavlovian conditioning, that is, what is conditioned. Section C explores the nature of the response conditioned to the CS, and its relation to the response triggered by the US. Section D is concerned with the kind of experience that is necessary for conditioning to occur. Is pairing of CS and US enough, as Pavlov thought, or is something more required? The evidence in Section D suggests that pairing of CS and US is not enough. This is buttressed by the article in Section E, which shows that organisms are sensitive to how informative a CS is about a coming US, and that they will learn to ignore CSs that are not informative. Finally, Section F presents an article that suggests that organisms may be pretuned to associate certain types of CSs with certain types of USs.

^{*} For bibliographic information on all works cited in the introductions to the various sections of this book, see References to Introductions, beginning on p. 388.

A. EXCITATION AND INHIBITION

In studying conditioned salivation in dogs, Pavlov discovered two types of conditioning. One type, conditioned excitation, resulted when a CS was presented in conjunction with a US; the other type, conditioned inhibition, resulted when a CS was presented in the absence of a US. Pavlov showed that when, for example, a tone was presented in the absence of food, in a situation in which food was being delivered at other times, the tone did not remain neutral with respect to salivation; it actually inhibited the occurrence of salivation. Much of Pavlov's own research actually focused on the phenomenon of conditioned inhibition.

The article in this section, by Rescorla and LoLordo, demonstrates both conditioned inhibition and conditioned excitation using methods quite different from Pavlov's. Animals are first trained to avoid electric shock by running back and forth across a barrier. It is assumed that their continued avoidance responding is motivated by their fear of being shocked (see Part III). Then Pavlovian conditioning is introduced. One CS (the CS +) is followed by shock with the expectation that it will eventually trigger conditioned fear. Another CS (the CS -) is not followed by shock, with the expectation that it will eventually inhibit fear. Now what should happen when these two CSs are presented while the animal is responding to avoid shock? The CS +, if it makes the animal more afraid, should increase the rate of avoidance responding. The CS -, if it makes the animal less afraid, should decrease the rate of avoidance responding. Thus changes in the rate of avoidance responding are used to measure excitatory and inhibitory Pavlovian conditioning.

1 Inhibition of Avoidance Behavior

ROBERT A. RESCORLA AND VINCENT M. LOLORDO

Conditions for establishing stimuli which inhibit conditioned fear reactions are demonstrated in 3 experiments. Dogs, trained in a shuttle box to avoid shock on a Sidman avoidance schedule, received Pavlovian fear conditioning involving the presentation of tones and shock in various temporal relations. Subsequently, these tones were presented while *S* performed the avoidance response. Stimuli preceding shock in conditioning increased rate of avoidance; Pavlovian conditioned and discriminative inhibitors depressed it. Furthermore, a stimulus whose presentation was "contrasted" with that of shock depressed the avoidance rate. These findings imply that inhibitory as well as excitatory Pavlovian processes are involved in fear conditioning. Implications for pseudoconditioning control procedures and reinforcement of avoidance behavior are discussed.¹

Although the establishment of conditioned fear by excitatory Pavlovian processes has been well accepted, the diminution of fear by inhibitory Pavlovian processes has received little attention. In salivary conditioning, some contingencies between a neutral stimulus and an US produce excitatory Pavlovian processes; other contingencies yield inhibitory processes (Pavlov, 1927). If the fear reaction follows the laws of Pavlovian conditioning, both excitatory and inhibitory processes should occur for it as well.

The three experiments reported here are based upon this reasoning: If avoidance behavior is maintained in part by a conditioned fear reaction, then any stimulus that increases this reaction should enhance the avoidance response and any stimulus which inhibits fear should weaken the avoidance response. Using avoidance responding as the index of fear, these experiments demonstrate that certain Pavlovian conditioning procedures produce elicitors of fear while others yield inhibitors of the fear reaction.

Experiment 1: Conditioned Inhibition

This experiment was designed to explore the possibility of inhibiting avoidance behavior by means of a Pavlovian conditioned inhibitor. We used a modification of one of Pavlov's (1927) conditioning procedures, employing two CSs, one of which warned *S* of the onset of shock and one of which informed *S* that no shock would follow.

Method

Subjects and Apparatus The *Ss* were 10 mongrel dogs obtained from a local supplier. They were maintained in individual cages on ad-lib food and water throughout the course of the experiment. Short exercise periods were given before and after the daily 1-hr. sessions.

The apparatus was a two-compartment shuttle box for dogs described

"Inhibition of Avoidance Behavior" by Robert A. Rescorla and Vincent M. LoLordo. *Journal of Comparative and Physiological Psychology*, 1965, 59, 406-412. Copyright 1965 by the American Psychological Association. Reprinted by permission of the publisher and author.

in detail by Solomon and Wynne (1953). The two compartments were separated by a barrier of adjustable height and by a drop gate which, when lowered, prevented *S* from crossing from one compartment into the other. The floor was composed of stainless-steel grids which could be electrified through a scrambler. Speakers mounted above the hardware-cloth ceiling provided a continuous white noise background and permitted the presentation of tonal stimuli. The general noise level in the box, with the white noise and ventilating fans on, was about 80 db. re. .0002 dyne/sq cm; the tones added 10 db. to this level. Events were recorded on an Esterline-Angus operations recorder.

Procedure. Each *S* was trained to jump a barrier, separating the two sides of the shuttle box, to avoid electric shock. An unsignaled avoidance schedule similar to that described by Sidman (1953) was used. If *S* did not jump the barrier, a shock was delivered to the grid every 10 sec.; each jump postponed the next shock for 30 sec. Thus the shock-shock interval was 10 sec. and the response-shock interval was 30 sec. Shock duration was 0.25 sec.; the intensity was 6 ma. from a 550-v. ac source.

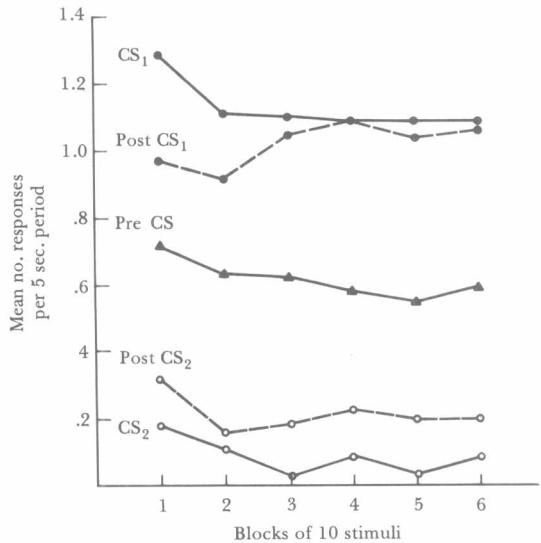
The *S* received 3 days of avoidance training. The height of the barrier separating the compartments of the shuttle box was 9, 12, and 15 in. on successive days. Beginning with the fourth experimental day, *S* was confined to one-half of the shuttle box and given five 1-hr. Pavlovian conditioning sessions on alternate days. On the days between Pavlovian conditioning sessions, *S* continued to receive 1-hr. sessions of avoidance training, with the barrier at 15 in. This particular order of events was adopted to prevent adventitious reinforcement of the avoidance response during Pavlovian conditioning. In preliminary experimentation, dogs given inescapable shock in the shuttle box had tended to have some difficulty in subsequent avoidance training; therefore, we established the avoidance behavior prior to Pavlovian conditioning and maintained the response by alternating avoidance training and conditioning sessions.

During the Pavlovian conditioning sessions, *S* received two kinds of conditioning trials: (a) CS_1 was presented for 5 sec.; either 2, 5, or 8 sec. following the termination of CS_1 , a 5-sec. 3-ma. shock was presented; (b) CS_1 was presented for 5 sec.; either 2, 5, or 8 sec. following its termination, CS_2 was presented for 5 sec. but no shock was presented. Thus CS_1 was a trace CS with a variable gap between CS and US; the gaps of 2, 5, and 8 sec. were presented equally often for each kind of trial. In addition, CS_1 was followed by shock on only some trials, with CS_2 replacing shock on the remaining trials. Following CS_1 , the onset of CS_2 was the only event which informed *S* that the particular presentation of CS_1 would not be followed by shock.

On each conditioning day, 18 of each of the two kinds of trials were presented in random order. The intertrial intervals were 1, 1.5, and 2 min., with a mean of 1.5 min. For five *Ss*, CS_1 was a 400-cps tone and CS_2 a 1,200-cps tone; for the other five *Ss*, the tones were interchanged.

After *S* had completed the sequence of five Pavlovian conditioning and seven avoidance sessions, a single test session was given. During this 1-hr. session, *S* performed the avoidance response under extinction conditions, i.e., no shocks were delivered. The 400- and 1,200-cps tones were presented in random order without respect to *S*'s behavior. Sixty 5-sec. pre-

FIG. 1. Mean number of responses during 5-sec. periods before, during, and following stimulus presentations in the test session (Experiment 1).



sentations of each tone were given with a mean intertone interval of 25 sec. (range: 10–40 sec.).

Results

Nine *Ss* acquired the avoidance response, with distinct signs of learning appearing in the first 1-hr. session. One *S* was eliminated for failure to avoid one-half of the shocks programmed on Day 2. By the seventh day of avoidance training, the behavior of the nine *Ss* was stable. The mean number of shocks received on this day was 1.2; however, the response rate varied considerably among *Ss*. During the seventh avoidance training day, rates ranged from 6.5 to 12.7 jumps per minute, with a mean of 8.1. Even *S* with the lowest rate was responding at approximately three times the minimum rate necessary to avoid all shocks.

In order to evaluate the effects of the two CSs upon jumping during the test session, comparison was made with a base-line jumping rate. The rate of jumping during the 5-sec. periods immediately preceding the onset of the tones was taken as a base rate. Since the mean values of 0.61 and 0.63 jumps for the pre-CS₁ and pre-CS₂ periods did not differ significantly ($T = 18$, $p > .20$), a single base-rate score was computed by averaging the scores for these two periods. Figure 1 shows this base rate (pre-CS) together with the jumping rates both during and after the tones, all plotted in terms of the mean number of responses per presentation of each stimulus over blocks of 10 presentations.

The response rate was higher during the presentations of CS₁ than during the prestimulus periods for all *Ss*, yielding a $p < .01$ by the Wilcoxon signed-ranks test. In addition, the rate of responding in the 5-sec. period immediately following CS₁ was considerably higher than the base rate ($p < .01$). For some *Ss*, this period had a higher rate than the during-CS₁ period. But for every *S* the relation between response rates during CS₁ and during the 5 sec. following CS₁ was consistent throughout

the session. Approximately 5–10 sec. after the termination of CS₁ (not shown), responding had returned to the base rate.

In striking contrast to the effects of CS₁, the response rate during CS₂ was well below the base rate for each *S* ($p < .01$). As in the case of CS₁, the effects of CS₂ continued after its termination. For both the period 0–5 sec. after CS₂ and the period 5–10 sec. after CS₂, the rate of responding was below the prestimulus rate ($p < .01$). However, response rate was higher during the 5 sec. following CS₂ than during CS₂ ($p < .05$). Even though these conclusions are based upon responding for the test session as a whole, the same relations obtain within each block of 10 stimulus presentations. Though Fig. 1 indicates a slight decline in responding during the test session, this was not statistically significant (Friedman two-way analysis of variance by ranks; $p > .20$).

To summarize, response rate suddenly increased upon presentation of the CS₁, remained high for the next few seconds, and then slowly returned to the prestimulus level. Upon presentation of CS₂, there was a sharp drop in response rate lasting about 15 sec., then responding returned to the base rate.

Discussion

The novel finding of this experiment was the capacity of CS₂ to depress avoidance responding. Observation of *S* during Pavlovian conditioning sessions confirmed the inference that CS₂ inhibited fear. Upon the onset of CS₁ *S* typically showed signs of fear and agitation—barking, crouching, running around with its ears back and its tail between its legs, etc. However, by the last conditioning session, CS₂ clearly produced termination of this behavior; during CS₂ *S* seemed to relax, cocking its head at the sound of the stimulus.

It is interesting to note that CS₂ had the same relation to shock in the present experiment that stimuli associated with the avoidance response have in the traditional signaled avoidance training procedure. In a (trace) avoidance situation, the CS occurs briefly; if *S* responds following the CS, shock does not occur, while failure to respond leads to the delivery of shock. In our Pavlovian conditioning procedure, CS₁ occurred briefly; if it was followed by CS₂, no shock occurred. The failure of CS₂ to occur led to the delivery of shock. Thus stimuli associated with an avoidance response might be expected to acquire properties similar to those of CS₂. The capacity of such stimuli to inhibit the fear previously aroused by the warning stimulus would mean rapid reinforcement for the avoidance response and might provide a mechanism for the “conservation of anxiety” suggested by Solomon and Wynne (1954).

However, before concluding that Pavlovian inhibition was the source of the depressed response rates, it is necessary to demonstrate similar effects from other Pavlovian conditioning paradigms known to yield inhibitors. The next experiment does this.

Experiment 2: Discriminative and Conditioned Inhibition

Pavlov (1927) reported the development of both discriminative and conditioned inhibitors of the salivary reflex. The present experiment explores these conditioning paradigms for the conditioning of fear. One

group of Ss received discriminative Pavlovian conditioning in which one stimulus was always followed by shock and another never followed by shock. A second group received conditioning designed to establish a Pavlovian conditioned inhibitor; unlike the inhibitor in Experiment 1, this stimulus preceded CS₁ and bore a constant time relation to it.

Method.

Subjects and Apparatus. The apparatus was identical to that used in Experiment 1. The Ss were 10 mongrel dogs.

Procedure. The Ss first received 3 days of Sidman avoidance training. On Day 1, the barrier height was 9 in.; on all subsequent days the height was 15 in. Beginning with Day 4, each S received Pavlovian conditioning while confined to one-half of the shuttle box. The Ss received this treatment on alternate days, with avoidance days intervening, for five Pavlovian conditioning and seven avoidance training days. Each S was then tested in the manner described in Experiment 1.

For five Ss the Pavlovian conditioning was discriminative, involving two kinds of trials: (a) CS₁ came on for 5 sec., and coincident with its termination a 3-ma. shock was presented for 5 sec. (b) CS₂ was presented for 5 sec., and no shock was delivered. Another group of five Ss received a conditioned inhibition procedure involving two kinds of trials: (a) CS₁ came on for 5 sec., and a 5-sec. shock was presented coincident with its termination. (b) CS₂ was presented for 5 sec., and coincident with the termination of CS₂, CS₁ came on for 5 sec.; on these trials no shock was delivered.

Thus, the Pavlovian conditioning procedures for the two groups were identical with but one exception: On trials when the Discrimination group received CS₂ alone, the Conditioned Inhibition group received CS₂ alone, the Conditioned Inhibition group received CS₂ followed by CS₁. Half the Ss had the 400-cps tone and half the 1,200-cps tone as CS₂. Eighteen trials of each type were given per day in random order. The intertrial intervals were 1, 1.5, and 2 min. ($M = 1.5$ min.).

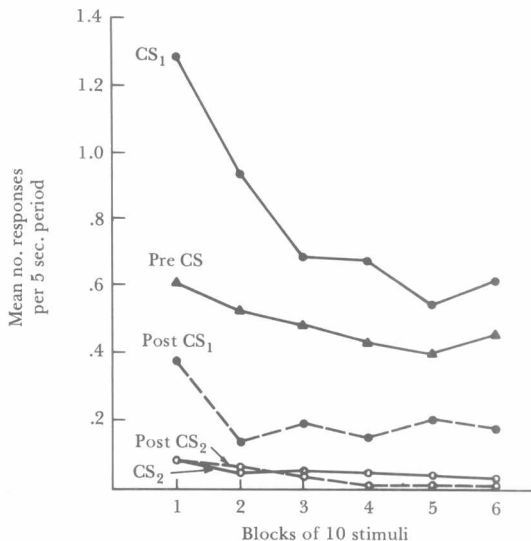
In addition to these two groups, a control group of seven Ss was run in order to check on the unconditioned properties of the 1,200- and 400-cps tones. The treatment of these dogs was identical to that of the experimental Ss except that the Pavlovian conditioning days were omitted.

Results

Avoidance learning proceeded as in the previous experiment. Two Ss, however, had to be discarded because of ill health—one from each of the two experimental groups. On the last avoidance training day, the mean jumping rate for the Discrimination group was 8.0 responses per minute; for the Conditioned Inhibition group 9.3. The difference is not significant ($U = 7$, $p > .40$).

A three-way analysis of variance performed on the test-session scores of the two experimental groups revealed no significant effect involving groups. Therefore, for all subsequent analyses the results of these two groups have been combined. Fig. 2 shows the mean jumping rates for various 5-sec. periods of the test session as a function of blocks of 10 stimulus presentations. Because the analysis of variance indicated no reliable

FIG. 2. Mean number of responses during 5-sec. periods before, during, and following stimulus presentations in the test session (Experiment 2).



difference between the response rates in the pre-CS₁ and pre-CS₂ periods, these rates were averaged to give a single base rate.

For the session as a whole, the rate during CS₁ was significantly greater than the base rate ($T = 4$, $p < .05$). However, it is clear from Fig. 2 that the main effect of CS₁ occurred during the first 10 stimulus presentations. The rate of jumping during the 5-sec. period following the termination of CS₁ also differed from the base rate ($p < .01$). However, unlike the post-CS₁ rate of Experiment 1, the rate following the fear-eliciting stimulus was considerably lower than the base rate. This depression appeared early, lasted throughout the test session, and extended into the period 5–10 sec. following CS₁ termination (not shown).

In both experimental groups jumping rate during CS₂ was depressed considerably below the prestimulus rate ($p < .01$). Depression of rate also appeared during the 5–10 sec. following CS₂ ($p < .01$). These depressed rates continued throughout the session, and were lower than the rate during the 5 sec. following CS₁ ($p < .05$).

The test session results for the seven control Ss showed no differences between the rates during the two tones. For the session as a whole the mean number of responses in the 5-sec. periods before, during, and after stimulus presentations were 0.51, 0.62, and 0.42, respectively. Both the higher rate during the tones and the lower rate following stimulus termination were significantly different from the prestimulus rate ($p < .05$). The effects of the tones occurred primarily early in the test session.

However, unconditioned effects of the tones were minor compared with the effects of CS₁ and CS₂ in the two experimental groups. Comparison was made between the control group and the combined experimental groups by means of suppression ratios (Annau & Kamin, 1961). This ratio of response rate during the CS to the sum of the rates during and pre-CS allows comparison among animals independently of their base rate. Using

this ratio, the increase in rate during CS_1 was found to be greater in the experimental groups ($p < .05$). Similarly the ratios for the periods during CS_2 , and following CS_1 and CS_2 , in the experimental groups differed from the corresponding ratios for the control group ($p < .01$).

Discussion

The results confirm the hypothesis that Pavlovian conditioned inhibitors and discriminative inhibitors can depress the rate of avoidance responding. Though the effects of CS_2 in this experiment were consistent with the results obtained in Experiment 1, several findings about the properties of CS_1 were unexpected and somewhat puzzling. First, the fear reaction to CS_1 in the present experiment seemed to extinguish more rapidly than in Experiment 1. Perhaps the variable temporal gap between CS_1 and US in Experiment 1 retarded extinction in that experiment; such phenomena are well known in instrumental learning (e.g., McClelland & McGown, 1953).

Equally unexpected was the depression of response rate immediately following the unreinforced presentation of CS_1 . This depression seems independent of the fear-eliciting properties of CS_1 since it remains relatively constant through the session in spite of the decreasing capacity of CS_1 to elicit fear. A possible explanation is that during Pavlovian conditioning CS_1 termination preceded the intertrial interval. The end of a conditioning trial was an event which reliably signaled a period free of shock. To the extent that the termination of CS_1 occurred near the end of a trial, that termination might become an inhibitory stimulus. The failure of the termination of CS_1 in Experiment 1 to produce the depression may be related to its favorable position for fear conditioning during the Pavlovian conditioning sessions. The next experiment explores the possibility that an event which precedes a long period without shock becomes inhibitory.

Experiment 3: Contrast

Experiments 1 and 2 have varied the relationship of CS_2 to CS_1 , and the relationship of CS_1 to shock, without affecting the reliable depression in avoidance responding produced by CS_2 . These experiments have held constant only the relationship of CS_2 to shock— CS_2 was always followed by a period free from shocks. It may be that for CS_2 to depress the rate of avoidance responding, it need only have preceded a period which is shock-free; differentiation or contrast between CSs may be unnecessary.

Method

Subjects and Apparatus. The apparatus was identical to that of the previous experiments. The Ss were 10 mongrel dogs.

Procedure. Two groups of five Ss each received treatment identical to that of Ss in Experiment 2 in all respects except that the procedure on Pavlovian conditioning days differed. For one group (Contrast) two kinds of conditioning trials occurred: (a) a 5-sec. 3-ma. shock occurred without any warning signal and (b) a 5-sec. presentation of a tone (CS_2) occurred without a shock. Thus, this group received exactly the same Pavlovian conditioning procedure as the Discrimination group of Experiment 2,