

## Metadata of the chapter that will be visualized online

---

Chapter Title	Attention and Pavlovian Conditioning		
Copyright Year	2011		
Copyright Holder	Springer Science+Business Media, LLC		
Corresponding Author	Family Name	<b>Haselgrove</b>	
	Particle		
	Given Name	<b>Mark</b>	
	Suffix		
	Division/Department	School of Psychology	
	Organization/University	The University of Nottingham	
	Street	University Park	
	Postcode	NG7 2RD	
	City	Nottingham	
	Country	UK	
	Email	Mark.Haselgrove@Nottingham.ac.uk	

---

# A

1

## 2 **Attention and Pavlovian** 3 **Conditioning**

4 MARK HASELGROVE  
5 School of Psychology, The University of Nottingham,  
6 Nottingham, UK

### 7 **Synonyms**

8 [Associability](#); [Classical conditioning](#); [CS processing](#)

### 9 **Definition**

10 Pavlovian conditioning is a procedure for studying the  
11 properties and mechanisms of learning. In this procedure  
12 an initially neutral stimulus (the conditioned stimulus,  
13 CS) is repeatedly paired with a biologically significant  
14 stimulus (the unconditioned stimulus, US). As a conse-  
15 quence of these pairings, the CS comes to evoke a learned  
16 response, the conditioned response (CR). The most suc-  
17 cessful analysis of Pavlovian conditioning is provided by  
18 associative theories, which propose that pairings of the CS  
19 and US establish an associative connection or link between  
20 representations of these stimuli. An issue of continuing  
21 theoretical and empirical scrutiny is whether associative  
22 connections are determined by (1) variations in the  
23 processing of the US or, in contrast, (2) variations in  
24 the processing of (or attention to) the CS.

### 25 **Theoretical Background**

26 Two theories of attention and learning have had  
27 a substantial impact upon the Pavlovian conditioning  
28 literature. These theories are, at face value, contradictory.

#### 29 **Mackintosh (1975)**

30 According to the theory proposed by Mackintosh (1975),  
31 the change in the connection between the CS and the US is  
32 determined, on each trial, by the difference between the  
33 magnitude of the US and the associative strength of the  
34 CS. Importantly, this value is multiplied by a learning rate  
35 parameter,  $\alpha$ , which reflects the attention paid to  
36 a stimulus and changes with experience. More specifically,  
37 the value of  $\alpha$  increases if the CS is the best available

38 predictor of the US on a conditioning trial, and decreases  
39 if it is no better a predictor of the US than any other CS on  
40 a conditioning trial. This model builds upon early obser-  
41 vations by Krechevsky (1932), which were developed fur-  
42 ther by Sutherland and Mackintosh (1971). The theory  
43 proposed by Mackintosh has been instantiated as a neural  
44 network model by Kruschke (2001).

#### 45 **Pearce and Hall (1980)**

46 According to the theory proposed by Pearce and Hall  
47 (1980), the change in the connection between the CS and  
48 the US is determined, again on each trial, by the product of  
49 three parameters, two of which are fixed and are deter-  
50 mined by the physical properties of the CS and the US, and  
51 the third (again,  $\alpha$ ), which reflects the attention that will  
52 be paid to the CS on the next trial, and again changes with  
53 experience. The value of  $\alpha$  is equal to the absolute differ-  
54 ence between the magnitude of the US and the sum of the  
55 associative strengths of all the CS present on that trial. In  
56 contrast to Mackintosh's theory, therefore, Pearce and  
57 Hall's theory stipulates that learning will progress more  
58 to CSs that are followed by surprising, or unpredictable  
59 USs. Pearce & Hall's theory was based upon observations  
60 first reported by Hall and Pearce (1979), and has been  
61 expanded upon by Pearce, Kaye, and Hall (1981). The  
62 principles proposed by Pearce and Hall have been incor-  
63 porated into the neural network model proposed by  
64 Schmajuk, Lam, and Gray (1996).

### 65 **Important Scientific Research and Open** 66 **Questions**

#### 67 **Latent Inhibition**

68 Lubow and Moore (1959, see also Lubow 1973) reported  
69 an experiment in which the acquisition of Pavlovian con-  
70 ditioning was retarded if the CS had been pre-exposed in  
71 the absence of the US. This effect has been obtained in  
72 a variety of Pavlovian conditioning procedures, such as  
73 conditioned emotional responding and flavor-aversion  
74 learning. In addition, simple pre-exposure to the CS has  
75 been shown to attenuate the acquisition of inhibitory  
76 conditioning (e.g., Rescorla 1971). Although open to  
77 alternative analyses (e.g., Wagner 1981; Bouton 1993)

78 this latent inhibition effect has been taken as evidence for  
79 animals learning to ignore the CS. The effect follows from  
80 the theory proposed by Mackintosh (1975) as, during pre-  
81 exposure, attention to the CS will fall; this follows because  
82 the CS is no better a predictor of the absence of the US  
83 than is the background context. Latent inhibition also  
84 follows from the theory proposed by Pearce and Hall  
85 (1980) as, during pre-exposure, the CS is never followed  
86 by a surprising US – attention to the CS will therefore fall.  
87 Latent inhibition has been taken as a model of the atten-  
88 tional dysfunction that is observed in acute schizophrenia  
89 (e.g., Weiner 2003).

### 90 **Blocking**

91 Kamin (1968) described a series of experiments in which  
92 prior conditioning with CS A prevented, or blocked, con-  
93 ditioning with CS X when CSs A and X were subsequently  
94 conditioned in compound (see Table 1). Blocking is  
95 a robust property of Pavlovian conditioning and has  
96 been demonstrated across a wide variety of conditioning  
97 procedures and species. According to the theories pro-  
98 posed by Mackintosh (1975), and Pearce and Hall  
99 (1980), prior conditioning with A should result in a loss  
100 of attention to X. A number of experiments are consistent  
101 with this prediction, for blocked stimuli are resistant at  
102 acquiring new associations (Mackintosh 1978). Further-  
103 more, when a surprising upshift or downshift in the mag-  
104 nitude of the US is introduced following AX, blocking is  
105 predicted to be attenuated, as attention should be  
106 restored. Again, extant evidence is consistent with this  
107 prediction (Dickinson et al. 1976). It must be stated,  
108 however, that it seems likely that an additional mechanism  
109 contributes to blocking. Baxter, Gallagher, and Holland  
110 (1999) showed that lesions of the cholinergic inputs of the  
111 hippocampus disrupted the attenuation of subsequent  
112 learning about a blocked CS but left blocking itself unaf-  
113 fected. These results might be taken to imply that a US  
114 processing mechanism (e.g., Rescorla and Wagner 1972)  
115 might also contribute to blocking.

### 116 **Learned Irrelevance**

117 According to Mackintosh's (1975) theory, conditioning  
118 will be retarded if the CS has, in the past, been a poor  
119 predictor of the US; that is to say, it has acquired irrele-  
120 vance. Evidence consistent with this prediction has been  
121 provided by, for example, Mackintosh (1973) who  
122 exposed one group of rats (Group random) to random  
123 presentations of the CS and US, before then examining the  
124 speed of conditioning in a test stage in which a predictive  
125 relationship was established between the CS and the US.  
126 Rats in Group random were slower to learn in the test

stage than control rats, for whom the initial, random, 127  
training was omitted. Random presentations of the CS 128  
and US have also been shown to attenuate the subsequent 129  
acquisition of inhibitory conditioning (e.g., Baker and 130  
Mackintosh 1977). There is, however, an alternative anal- 131  
ysis of learned irrelevance which appeals to the summed 132  
effects of CS pre-exposure and US pre-exposure – both of 133  
which, alone, are known to retard the acquisition of con- 134  
ditioning (e.g., Bonardi and Ong 2003). It remains to be 135  
determined if learned irrelevance represents more than the 136  
sum of CS and US pre-exposure effects. If it does, it then 137  
remains to be determined if these two phenomena can be 138  
explained with an attentional mechanism alone. 139

140 An alternative method of demonstrating the effect on  
141 learning of irrelevance training is exemplified by the supe-  
142 riority of an intradimensional shift (IDS) over an  
143 extradimensional shift (EDS). A particularly clear demon-  
144 stration of the effect was described by George and Pearce  
145 (1998) who presented pigeons with different CSs that  
146 signalled the presence and absence of the US and which  
147 each comprised two features: a color, and lines at  
148 a particular orientation. Once learning in stage one was  
149 complete the pigeons transferred to a test discrimination,  
150 which again involved different CSs that signalled the pres-  
151 ence and absence of the US, and which again comprised  
152 color and line orientation features. However, the specific  
153 colors and orientations were different to those used in  
154 stage one. For animals in the IDS group, the dimension  
155 that was relevant to the solution of the discrimination in  
156 stage 1 (e.g., color) was again relevant at test. For the EDS  
157 group the dimension that was irrelevant in stage one was  
158 relevant at test. The results showed the test discrimination  
159 was learned faster in Group IDS than in Group EDS. These  
160 results are compatible with Mackintosh's theory as stage 1  
161 training should establish, for example, color, as the best  
162 predictor of the US, and thus attention to this stimulus  
163 dimension should increase – easing learning in the test  
164 discrimination for Group IDS. At the same time line  
165 orientation is irrelevant to the solution of the discrimina-  
166 tion in stage one, and this dimension should therefore  
167 come to be ignored – hardening the learning in the test  
168 discrimination for Group EDS. The IDS/EDS effect has,  
169 again, been demonstrated in a variety of species using  
170 different conditioning procedures. Furthermore, lesions  
171 to the medial frontal cortex in rodents (e.g., Birrell and  
172 Brown 2000) and the lateral prefrontal cortex in primates  
173 (e.g., Dias et al. 1996) have been shown to attenuate the  
174 IDS/EDS effect. The Wisconsin card sorting task is  
175 a variety of the IDS/EDS task, and is widely used by  
176 neuropsychologists to test for attentional dysfunction in  
177 patients with frontal lobe injury or mental illness such as

178 schizophrenia. The attenuation of learning by learned  
179 irrelevance training is not consistent with the theory pro-  
180 posed by Pearce and Hall (1980).

### 181 **Continuous and Partial Reinforcement**

182 It follows from the proposals of Pearce and Hall (1980)  
183 that if a CS is followed on each trial with a US (continuous  
184 reinforcement), attention to the CS will fall. This has been  
185 confirmed by Hall and Pearce (1979) who showed that  
186 continuous reinforcement of a CS with a weak shock,  
187 retarded conditioning of the same CS when it was subse-  
188 quently paired with a stronger shock. It also follows from  
189 the Pearce and Hall theory that if the CS is intermittently  
190 paired with a US (partial reinforcement) attention to the  
191 CS will be maintained as the presentation of the US – or its  
192 omission – will always be surprising. Consequently, partial  
193 reinforcement of a CS should facilitate later conditioning.  
194 This prediction was confirmed by Kaye and Pearce  
195 (1984) who presented a continuously reinforced group  
196 of rats with the sequence light-tone-food, and a partially  
197 reinforced group the same sequence intermixed among  
198 trials in which the light was presented by itself. In a final  
199 test stage, the light was paired directly with food: the  
200 previously partially reinforced group showed superior  
201 conditioning relative to the continuously reinforced  
202 group. Kaye and Pearce (1984) provided direct evidence  
203 that a partially reinforced CS maintains more attention  
204 than a continuously reinforced CS. They examined the  
205 extent to which a localized light evoked an orienting  
206 response in rats. Their results showed that a CS that was  
207 partially reinforced with food maintained an orienting  
208 response for longer than a CS that was continuously  
209 reinforced with food. Lesion experiments with rodents  
210 have identified the amygdala as a crucial structure that  
211 mediates the types of attention posited by Pearce and Hall  
212 (Holland and Gallagher 1999). The effects of continuous  
213 and partial reinforcements that have been investigated by  
214 Pearce and his colleagues are not consistent with the  
215 theory proposed by Mackintosh (1975).

### 216 **Hybrid Models of Conditioning and** 217 **Attention**

218 It should be apparent from the preceding discussion that  
219 there exists – at both a theoretical and an empirical level –  
220 a contradiction. On the one hand, Mackintosh's (1975)  
221 theory stipulates that CSs that are good predictors of the  
222 US will come to attract more attention than CSs that are  
223 poorer predictors of the US, and a number of studies have  
224 supported this stipulation. On the other hand, the theory  
225 proposed by Pearce and Hall (1980) stipulates, to the  
226 contrary, that CSs that are poor predictors of the US will

come to gain more attention than CSs that are good pre- 227  
dictors of the US, and again, a number of studies have 228  
supported this stipulation. To resolve this contradiction, it 229  
has been suggested that the attention paid to a CS is 230  
affected by two processes, and it is the net outcome of 231  
the interaction between these processes in any condition- 232  
ing task that determines whether attention to a CS is high 233  
or low (Le Pelley 2004; Pearce et al. 1998). A common 234  
assumption of these theories, which differ in detail, is that 235  
on every conditioning trial, a calculation is made about 236  
how well each CS predicts the US (ala Mackintosh) and 237  
about the extent to which each CS is followed by an 238  
accurately predicted US (ala Pearce and Hall); and evi- 239  
dence which supports this assumption has recently been 240  
provided by Haselgrove, Esber, Pearce and Jones (2010). 241  
According to Le Pelley's (2004) theory, the product of 242  
Mackintosh and Pearce-Hall attention is then used to 243  
determine the total attention that is paid to the CS on 244  
the subsequent trial, and simulations of this theory have 245  
provided a good fit to the existing conditioning data. 246  
A crucial goal for future research is to determine the 247  
conditions under which attention and conditioning 248  
adheres to the proposals of Mackintosh, or the proposals 249  
of Pearce and Hall, and indeed whether separate models of 250  
attention are required (Esber and Haselgrove 2011). 251

### 252 **Cross-References**

▶ Animal Learning and Intelligence	253
▶ Animal Perceptual Learning	254
▶ Associative Learning	255
▶ Computational Models of Classical Conditioning	256
▶ Conditioning	257
▶ Discrimination Learning Model	258
▶ Formal Learning Theory	259
▶ Mathematical Models/Theories of Learning	260
▶ Pavlov, Ivan P. (1849–1936)	261

### 262 **References**

Baker, A. G., & Mackintosh, N. J. (1977). Excitatory and inhibitory conditioning following uncorrelated presentations of CS and UCS. <i>Animal Learning &amp; Behavior</i> , 5, 315–319.	263
Baxter, M. G., Gallagher, M., & Holland, P. C. (1999). Blocking can occur without losses in attention in rats with selective removal of hippocampal cholinergic input. <i>Behavioural Neuroscience</i> , 113, 881–890.	264
Birrell, J. M., & Brown, V. J. (2000). Medial frontal cortex mediates perceptual attentional set shifting in the rat. <i>Journal of Neuroscience</i> , 20, 4320–4324.	265
Bonardi, C., & Ong, S. Y. (2003). Learned irrelevance: A contemporary overview. <i>Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology</i> , 56B, 80–89.	266
Bouton, M. E. (1993). Context, time, and memory retrieval in the interference paradigms of Pavlovian learning. <i>Psychological Bulletin</i> , 114, 80–99.	267

- 277 Dias, R., Robbins, T. W., & Roberts, A. C. (1996). Dissociation in pre-  
278 frontal cortex of affective and attentional shifts. *Nature*, 380, 69–72.
- 279 Dickinson, A., Hall, G., & Mackintosh, N. J. (1976). Surprise and the  
280 attenuation of blocking. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Animal  
281 Behavior Processes*, 2, 313–322.
- 282 Esber, G. R., & Haselgrove, M. (2011). Reconciling the influence of  
283 predictiveness and uncertainty on stimulus salience: A model of  
284 attention in associative learning. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B*,  
285 (in press).
- 286 Hall, G., & Pearce, J. M. (1979). Latent inhibition of a CS during CS–US  
287 pairings. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Animal Behavior Pro-  
288 cesses*, 3, 31–42.
- 289 Haselgrove, M., Esber, G. R., Pearce, J. M., & Jones, P. M. (2010). Two  
290 kinds of attention in Pavlovian conditioning: Evidence for a hybrid  
291 model of learning. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Animal Behav-  
292 ior Processes*, 36, 456–470.
- 293 Holland, P. C., & Gallagher, M. (1999). Amygdala circuitry in attentional  
294 and representational processes. *Trends in Cognitive Science*, 3, 65–73.
- 295 Kamin, L. J. (1968). “Attention-like” processes in classical conditioning.  
296 In M. R. Jones (Ed.), *Miami symposium on the prediction of behavior*,  
297 1967: *Aversive stimulation*. Coral Gables, Florida: University of  
298 Miami Press.
- 299 Kaye, H., & Pearce, J. M. (1984). The strength of the orienting response  
300 during Pavlovian conditioning. *Journal of Experimental Psychology:  
301 Animal Behavior Processes*, 10, 90–109.
- 302 Krechevsky, I. (1932). Hypotheses in rats. *Psychological Review*, 39,  
303 516–532.
- 304 Kruschke, J. K. (2001). Toward a unified model of attention in associative  
305 learning. *Journal of Mathematical Psychology*, 45, 812–863.
- 306 Le Pelley, M. E. (2004). The role of associative history in models of  
307 associative learning: A selective review and a hybrid model. *Quarterly  
308 Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 57B, 193–243.
- 309 Lubow, R. E. (1973). Latent inhibition. *Psychological Bulletin*, 79, 398–407.
- 310 Lubow, R. E., & Moore, A. U. (1959). Latent inhibition: The effect of  
311 non-reinforced preexposure to the conditional stimulus. *Journal of  
312 Comparative and Physiological Psychology*, 52, 415–419.
- 313 Mackintosh, N. J. (1973). Stimulus selection: Learning to ignore stimuli  
314 that predict no change in reinforcement. In R. A. Hinde & J. S. Hinde  
315 (Eds.), *Constraints on learning*. London: Academic Press.
- Mackintosh, N. J. (1975). A theory of attention: Variations in the  
316 associability of stimuli with reinforcement. *Psychological Review*, 82,  
317 276–298.
- Mackintosh, N. J. (1978). Cognitive or associative theories of condition-  
318 ing: Implications of an analysis of blocking. In H. Fowler,  
319 W. K. Honig, & S. H. Pulse (Eds.), *Cognitive processes in animal  
320 behavior*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Pearce, J. M., & Hall, G. (1980). A model for Pavlovian conditioning:  
321 Variations in the effectiveness of conditioned but not of uncondi-  
322 tioned stimuli. *Psychological Review*, 87, 532–552.
- Pearce, J. M., Kaye, H., & Hall, G. (1981). Predictive accuracy and stimulus  
323 associability. In M. L. Commons, R. J. Herrnstein, & A. R. Wagner  
324 (Eds.), *Quantitative analyses of behavior: Acquisition* (Vol. 3).  
325 Cambridge, MA: Ballinger.
- Pearce, J. M., George, D. N., & Redhead, E. S. (1998). The role of attention  
326 in the solution of conditional discriminations. In N. A. Schmajuk &  
327 P. C. Holland (Eds.), *Occasion setting: Associative learning and  
328 cognition in animals*. Washington, DC: American Psychological  
329 Association.
- Rescorla, R. A. (1971). Summation and retardation tests of latent inhibi-  
330 tions. *Journal of Comparative and Physiological Psychology*, 75, 77–81.
- Rescorla, R. A., & Wagner, A. R. (1972). A theory of Pavlovian condition-  
331 ing: Variations in the effectiveness of reinforcement and  
332 non-reinforcement. In A. H. Black & W. F. Prokasy (Eds.), *Classical  
333 conditioning II: Current research and theory*. New York: Appleton-  
334 Century-Crofts.
- Schmajuk, N. A., Lam, Y. W., & Gray, J. A. (1996). Latent inhibition:  
335 A neural network approach. *Journal of Experimental Psychology:  
336 Animal Behavior Processes*, 22, 321–349.
- Sutherland, N. S., & Mackintosh, N. J. (1971). *Mechanisms of animal  
337 discrimination learning*. New York: Academic Press.
- Wagner, A. R. (1981). SOP: A model of automatic memory processing in  
338 animal behavior. In N. E. Spears & R. R. Miller (Eds.), *Information  
339 processing in animals: Memory mechanisms*. New Jersey: Erlbaum.
- Weiner, I. (2003). The “two-headed” latent inhibition model of schizo-  
340 phrenia: modelling positive and negative symptoms and their  
341 treatment. *Psychopharmacology*, 169, 257–297.

t1.1 **Attention and Pavlovian Conditioning. Table 1** Design of  
a blocking experiment

Group	Stage 1	Stage 2	Test (and result)
t1.2 Blocking	A → US	AX → US	X (weak CR)
t1.3 Control	–	AX → US	X (Stronger CR)

t1.4

Uncorrected Proof