

This is an Open Access document downloaded from ORCA, Cardiff University's institutional repository:<https://orca.cardiff.ac.uk/id/eprint/150301/>

This is the author's version of a work that was submitted to / accepted for publication.

Citation for final published version:

Sanchez, Jesus, Dwyer, Dominic M. , Honey, Robert C. and Brugada, Isabel de 2022. Perceptual learning after rapidly alternating exposure to taste compounds: Assessment with different indices of generalization. *Journal of Experimental Psychology* 48 (3) , pp. 169-178. 10.1037/xan0000333

Publishers page: <https://doi.org/10.1037/xan0000333>

Please note:

Changes made as a result of publishing processes such as copy-editing, formatting and page numbers may not be reflected in this version. For the definitive version of this publication, please refer to the published source. You are advised to consult the publisher's version if you wish to cite this paper.

This version is being made available in accordance with publisher policies. See <http://orca.cf.ac.uk/policies.html> for usage policies. Copyright and moral rights for publications made available in ORCA are retained by the copyright holders.



Perceptual Learning After Rapidly Alternating Exposure to Taste Compounds:  
Assessment With Different Indices of Generalization

Jesús Sánchez<sup>1</sup>, Dominic M. Dwyer<sup>2</sup>, Robert C. Honey<sup>2</sup>, and Isabel de Brugada<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Experimental Psychology, University of Granada

<sup>2</sup>School of Psychology, Cardiff University

Running head: Perceptual learning with rapid alternation

Revision submitted in June 2022: *Journal of Experimental Psychology:  
Animal Learning and Cognition*

Author Note

All authors contributed to the ideas presented in this article and to its preparation for publication. We have no conflicts of interest to disclose. The research was conducted when Jesús Sánchez was a Visiting Scholar to Cardiff University from the University of Granada. This research was supported by MCIN/ AEI /10.13039/501100011033/ FEDER “Una manera de hacer Europa” (PGC2018-095965-B-I00; PI: IB), and by the BBSRC (UK; BB/T004339/1; PI: RCH). All data from this study are available by emailing the corresponding authors. Correspondence about this article should be addressed to either Jesús Sánchez: Department of Experimental Psychology & Mind, Brain and Behavior Research Center (CIMCYC), University of Granada, Campus de Cartuja s/n, 18011, Granada, Spain, e-mail: [jesusflea@ugr.es](mailto:jesusflea@ugr.es); or Dominic M. Dwyer, School of Psychology, Cardiff University, CF10 3AT, UK, e-mail: [dwyerdm@cardiff.ac.uk](mailto:dwyerdm@cardiff.ac.uk)

©2022, American Psychological Association. This article may not exactly replicate the authoritative document published in the APA journal. It is not the copy of record. Please do not copy or cite without authors' permission. The final article will be available, upon publication, via its DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1037/xan0000333>

## Abstract

Exposure to two similar stimuli (AX and BX; e.g., two tastes) reduces the extent to which a conditioned response later established to BX generalizes to AX. This example of perceptual learning is more evident when AX and BX are exposed in an alternating manner (AX, BX, AX, BX,...) than when AX and BX occur in separate blocks (e.g., AX, AX,...BX, BX,...). We examined in male rats ( $N = 126$ ) the impact of *rapid* alternation to AX and BX on generalization of a taste aversion from BX to AX. Experiment 1 showed that such alternating presentations (with 5-min intervals between AX and BX) reduced generalization relative to blocked exposure; but only as assessed by consumption levels and not by lick cluster size (an index of hedonic reactions). Experiment 1 also showed that the nature of exposure did not affect how A influenced performance to a novel conditioned taste, Y. Experiment 2 replicated the pattern of results involving the different influences of rapidly alternating and blocked exposure on generalization from BX to AX, and showed that this effect was only evident when rats received access to water during the 5-min intervals between AX and BX. These results reinforce parallels between perceptual learning effects in rats and humans, both at empirical and theoretical levels.

*Keywords:* Associative learning, Flavor aversion, Licking microstructure, Stimulus generalization.

Perceptual learning can be defined as a long-lasting change in the ability to discriminate two stimuli as a function of experience or practice with those stimuli (e.g., Gibson, 1969). One real-world case where perceptual learning has been implicated is in becoming a wine connoisseur (James, 1890; see Hughson & Boakes, 2009). Indeed, the recommended process for developing such expertise is closely linked to the interests of those who study perceptual learning in the laboratory: When sampling a succession of wines – presumably engaging the processes underpinning perceptual learning and discrimination – it is recommended that a piece of bread is washed down with water to clear the palate of the remnants of one wine before the sampling the next. As James (1890, p. 496) wrote in the context of discrimination: “*One cannot judge accurately of the differences between two similar wines, whilst the second is still in one’s mouth. ...we must get the dying phases of both sensations of the pair we are comparing.*” More recent theoretical analyses of perceptual learning (e.g., Hall, 2003; McLaren & Mackintosh, 2000; see also, McLaren, Kaye & Mackintosh, 1989) have embodied the fact that manipulations that determine how stimuli are sampled affects perceptual learning in non-human animals (e.g., Blair & Hall, 2003; Honey, Bateson & Horn, 1994; Honey & Bateson, 1996; Mackintosh, Kaye & Bennett, 1991; Symonds & Hall, 1995) and humans (e.g., Dwyer, Hodder & Honey, 2004; Mundy, Dwyer & Honey, 2006; Mundy, Honey & Dwyer, 2007).

In a simple perceptual learning procedure, rats might first receive exposure to two similar taste compounds (AX and BX; e.g., sucrose+quinine and saline+quinine). To assess the impact of this exposure on the discriminability of AX and BX, one of the flavors (BX) is then paired with an injection of lithium chloride (LiCl) and the extent to which the resulting aversion generalizes to AX is measured. Rats given exposure to AX and BX show less generalization from BX to AX (i.e., by consuming more of AX) than those rats who encounter the flavors for the first-time during conditioning with BX and the test with AX (Mackintosh et al., 1991; see also, Honey & Hall, 1989). This outcome is explicable in many ways, including the possibility

that exposure to AX and BX might disrupt the development of an aversion to X (a latent inhibition effect; Lubow & Moore, 1959) and thereby reduce generalization to AX (see Rescorla, 1976; McLaren et al., 1989). However, this explanation is undermined by the fact that the way in which AX and BX are presented and therefore sampled by the rat is important: Perceptual learning is more marked when the presentations of AX and BX occur in an alternating fashion (AX, BX, AX, BX,...) than when they occur in blocks (AX, AX,..BX, BX,..). That is, in spite of the fact that X (and A and B) have been presented on the same number of occasions during the two exposure schedules, generalization from BX to AX is less marked after alternating than blocked exposure (Blair & Hall, 2003; Symonds & Hall, 1995).

The scheduling effect described in the previous paragraph is a general one. As already indicated, it has been demonstrated flavor-aversion learning in both rats (e.g., Symonds & Hall, 1995) and humans (e.g., Dwyer et al., 2004); but it also occurs in filial imprinting in chicks (Honey et al., 1994; Honey & Bateson, 1996), and the processing of faces (Mundy et al., 2006, 2007) and more abstract checkerboards (e.g., Lavis & Mitchell, 2006; Mundy et al., 2009) in humans. However, even the procedures used in studies of perceptual learning with tastes as stimuli for rats and humans are quite different. For example, the presentation of AX and BX in rats is usually separated by many hours or days (e.g., Blair & Hall, 2006; Symonds & Hall, 1995), whereas in humans they are presented within seconds or minutes of one other (e.g., Dwyer et al., 2004; Mundy et al., 2006). This fact, together with other considerations, has encouraged the view that the perceptual learning effects observed using analogous procedures in nonhuman animals and humans might in fact be based on the operation of different mechanisms (Hall, 2009; Mitchell & Hall, 2014). For example, while it is distinctly implausible to argue that a process of (direct) comparison of AX and BX resulted in perceptual learning in rats (Gibson, 1969), it seems more plausible to adopt this form of explanation in the case of humans, where the stimuli are much closer together in time. In short, if it transpired that the benefits of alternating

presentations of AX and BX in rats required that the stimuli were presented many hours or days apart, then it would be difficult to maintain that the mechanism was the same as in humans, where timescales are orders of magnitude shorter. However, there has been relatively little published research in rats that has investigated rapid alternation to stimuli that are primarily discriminated on the basis of their taste.

Recent research has suggested that rapidly alternating and blocked exposure to compounds (AX and BX), principally discriminated by their odors (i.e., A and B; caramel and hazelnut), have different consequences: Alternating exposure increases the capacity of A to interfere with the expression of an aversion to Y relative to blocked exposure (Recio, Iliescu & de Brugada, 2018). One interpretation of this effect (and perceptual learning in general) is that alternating exposure to AX and BX results in the salience of A (and B) being higher than after blocked exposure; and that this difference salience affects the ability of A to disrupt the expression of the aversion acquired by Y (e.g., Hall, 2003). This interpretation also applies to the more conventional test procedure in which generalization to AX is tested after conditioning with BX (e.g., Symonds & Hall, 1995). However, Recio et al. (2018) also showed that the effect of rapid alternation (on generalization from Y to AY) was reduced when a distractor (D) was placed between successive presentations of AX and BX during the exposure stage. The distractor had no effect when placed between successive presentations of AX and AX in Group Blocked. These facts are consistent with the idea that concurrent processing of AX and BX contributes to the results (see Dwyer, Mundy & Honey, 2011; Mundy et al., 2007), but it is less clear why a distractor should have interfered with changes in the salience of A when it was placed between successive presentations of AX and BX. Moreover, as we shall now show, the effect of the distractor need not have been on a process of perceptual learning *per se* (cf. Dwyer et al., 2011).

There is an alternative explanation for the results reported by Recio et al. (2018), which derives from the use of odors and the specific test procedure employed. This explanation relies

on the possibility that when the presentation of AX and BX are rapidly alternated, the strong odor components (A and B) will not have fully dissipated over the 5-min intervals between AX and BX. This potential for the odors to linger might have allowed the representations of A and B to become directly linked, or otherwise combined. Under these conditions, at least a part of the ability of the presence of A to impact the consumption of Y might have been mediated by its ability to retrieve B in the alternating group, but not the blocked group: The associatively activated representation of B (B\*) might have contributed to the external inhibition (Pavlov, 1927) produced when A was combined with Y after alternating exposure (A+B\*+Y) but not blocked exposure (A+Y). In fact, the impact of associatively activated representations on performance has been formally implemented in a recent application of model of Pavlovian learning and performance (Heidi; Honey, Dwyer & Iliescu, 2020) to higher-order conditioning (Honey & Dwyer, 2021, 2022). The supplementary finding reported by Recio et al. (2018) – that placing a distractor between successive presentations of the compounds AX and BX (Group Alternating) or AX and AX (and BX and BX; Group Blocked) reduced the difference between the groups – might have reflected a disruption to the formation of a (direct) association between A and B in Group Alternating, rather than to a process of perceptual learning (see Honey & Dwyer, 2021, 2022; cf. Holland, 1980; Urcelay & Miller, 2009).

Given the paucity of evidence concerning the effects of rapid alternating presentations of two tastes on perceptual learning in rats, and the ambiguity concerning the interpretation of the evidence involving odors, the aims of Experiments 1 and 2 were threefold. First, to examine whether rapidly alternating exposure to taste compounds (AX and BX) results in a reduction in generalization between them. Second, to assess whether such a reduction is evident in different measures of generalized conditioned aversions. Theoretical analyses of perceptual learning (e.g., Hall, 2003; McLaren et al., 1989; McLaren & Mackintosh, 2000) are constrained (without additional assumptions) to predict that the reduction in generalization (the index of perceptual

learning) will be evident independently of how the aversion is measured. It is known that pairing a flavour (e.g., BX) with LiCl results in a reduction in consumption and a reduction in the number of licks per drinking bout (a measure of hedonic reactions called lick-cluster size; for a review, see Dwyer, 2012). The standard measure of generalization used to examine perceptual learning is consumption of AX. Here, for the first time, we examined both consumption and conducted an analysis of licking microstructure to assess perceptual learning (cf. Dwyer, Burgess & Honey, 2012). Finally, we sought to investigate the origins of the perceptual learning effect generated by rapid alternation of AX and BX through manipulating the details of the test stage (Experiment 1) and exposure stage (Experiment 2).

### Experiment 1

Table 1 summarizes the design of Experiment 1. Two groups first received alternating exposure to two taste compounds (AX and BX; e.g., sucrose+quinine and saline+quinine) on each of 4 days, while the other two groups received a block of presentations of AX (e.g., sucrose+quinine) on 2 days and a block of presentations of BX (e.g., saline+quinine) on 2 days. Both groups received water in the 5-min interval between successive presentations on a given day. This procedure mimics that used in studies of perceptual learning in humans, where participants take a sip of water between presentations of the tastes (e.g., AX and BX; see Dwyer et al., 2004; Mundy et al., 2006). After the exposure stage, half of the rats from each condition received conditioning trials with BX and were tested with AX (Alternating-AX and Blocked-AX), and the remainder received conditioning trials with Y and were the tested with AY (Alternating-AY and Blocked-AY). The comparison between groups Alternating-AX and Blocked-AX provides an assessment of whether perceptual learning can be observed after rapid alternating exposure. The comparison between groups Alternating-AY and Blocked-AY is the same as that used by Recio et al. (2018) and enables an assessment of whether or not an effect observed with odors (where there was the potential for a direct association between A and B) is



also observed with tastes (where this possibility had been reduced). More generally, this comparison provides the opportunity to assess whether any perceptual learning effect (evident in groups Alternating-AX and Blocked-AX) reflects an increase in the salience of A (Hall, 2003). If this explanation for perceptual learning effects applies to the current procedures, then generalization should be less evident in group Alternating-AY than in group Blocked-AY.

*Table 1*  
*Design of Experiment 1*

| Group          | Exposure           | Conditioning | Test |
|----------------|--------------------|--------------|------|
| Alternating-AX | AX–W–BX<br>BX–W–AX | BX-LiCl      | AX   |
| Blocked-AX     | AX–W–AX<br>BX–W–BX | BX-LiCl      | AX   |
| Alternating-AY | AX–W–BX<br>BX–W–AX | Y-LiCl       | AY   |
| Blocked-AY     | AX–W–AX<br>BX–W–BX | Y-LiCl       | AY   |

*Note:* Rats received exposure to sequences of taste compounds (AX and BX), which were presented in an alternating (e.g., AX then BX) or blocked fashion (e.g., AX then AX). During the 5-min intervals between successive 10-min compound presentations, rats received access to water (W). After the exposure stage, half of the rats in each exposure condition received pairings of BX with lithium chloride (LiCl) and were tested with AX (groups Alternating-AX and Blocked-AX); and the remainder received conditioning with Y and testing with AY (groups Alternating-AY and Blocked-AY). Conditioning and test trials were 30 min.

## Method

### *Subjects*

Sixty naïve male Lister Hooded rats were used (supplied by Envigo, Blackthorn, U.K). The rats were housed in pairs in standard cages and maintained on 12-hr/12-hr light/dark cycle

(lights on at 7 a.m.). Their mean *ad libitum* weight was 374g (range: 290-449g) when the water-deprivation regimen began, and they had continuous access food when they were in their home cages. Research was conducted in accordance with the Home Office regulations under the Animal (Scientific Procedures) Act 1986. There were 15 rats in each group because 4 rats from the original cohort of 64 were taken for use in a separate electrophysiology study. This sample size has proven adequate in the past to detect perceptual learning effects using a consumption measure, and with similar procedures and designs (e.g., groups sizes were 8 in Recio et al., 2019, and either 8 or 16 in Symonds & Hall, 1995).

### *Apparatus*

Rats received exposure, conditioning and test in 16 custom-made drinking chambers (supplied by Med Associated Inc., St Albans, VT; 32 × 15 × 12cm, L × W × H). The chambers had white acrylic walls, and wire mesh floors and ceilings. Access to fluids was via stainless-steel drinking spouts, attached to 50 ml tubes, which could be inserted through the left-hand or right-hand side of the mesh lid of the chamber. Here, the tubes were inserted in the left-hand side. A contact-sensitive lickometer registered the time of each lick to the closest 0.01 s, and the licks were recorded by a computer using MED-PC software (Med Associates Inc.). Consumption was measured by weighing the tubes before and after each fluid presentation. The stimuli were solutions of 2% sucrose and .9% salt (which served as A and B), and solutions of 2% lemon juice and 0.000015M quinine (which served as X and Y; all wt/wt). These solutions were combined to create the three compounds (AX, BX and AY) in a way that maintained their concentrations.

### *Procedure*

The water deprivation schedule began with rats receiving access to water for 30 min starting at 10:00 and 16:00 on each of the first 2 days. On the subsequent 4 days rats received exposure to AX and BX at 10:00 and 30-min access to water at 16:00. Solutions of sucrose and salt served as A and B, and solutions of lemon juice and quinine served as X and Y. The

identities of the stimuli that served these roles were otherwise fully counterbalanced. Rats received successive periods of 10 min, 5 min and 10 min in which they received access to 10 ml, 8 ml and 10 ml of the designated solutions. For groups Alternating-AX and Alternating-AY, the designated solutions were respectively: AX, Water, BX, and BX, Water, AX, counterbalanced across subgroups, with the sequence alternating across days (e.g., AX, Water, BX, on days 1 and 3 of the exposure stage, and BX, Water, AX, on days 2 and 4). For groups Blocked-AX and Blocked-AY, the solutions were AX, W, AX, and BX, W, BX; with the order being counterbalanced across subgroups: AX, Water, AX, on days 1 and 2, and BX, Water, BX, on days 3 and 4, for one subgroup; and BX, Water, BX, on days 1 and 2, and AX, Water, AX, on days 3 and 4, for the second subgroup.

Rats received conditioning trials on Days 5 and 7 and recovery days on Days 6 and 8. On conditioning trials, rats in groups Alternating-AX and Blocked-AX received 30-min access to 15 ml of BX followed by an injection of 0.15 ml LiCl at 10ml per kg bodyweight. Rats in groups Alternating-AY and Blocked-AY received an identical conditioning treatment to their namesakes with the exception that access to Y was paired with LiCl. On the recovery days, rats received access to water for 30 min at 11:00. At 11:00 on day 9 rats in groups Alternating-AX and Blocked-AX received access to AX for 30 min, whereas those in groups Alternating-AY and Blocked-AY received access to AY. After this test, rats received water for 30 min in the afternoon, and we also assessed performance to AB. However, the results of this test were not informative and will not be reported here.

#### *Data analysis*

During the exposure stage, rats consumed the small quantities of AX and BX within the 10-min periods, which meant that a reliable analysis of lick microstructure was not possible. Therefore, the analysis that follows focusses on consumption and lick-cluster sizes during 30-min conditioning trials with BX or Y and the 30-min test with AX or AY. The

analysis of lick microstructure during conditioning and testing followed reported protocols (e.g., Dwyer, 2012; Patitucci, Nelson, Dwyer & Honey, 2016). A cluster was defined as a set of licks, each separated by an inter-lick-interval of no more than 0.5 s, as most pauses greater than that are also greater than 1 s (e.g., Davis & Smith, 1992; Spector et al., 1998). General linear model null hypothesis testing analyses were conducted, assuming a rejection level of  $p < 0.05$  for mixed factorial analysis of variance. Partial eta squared, and Cohen's  $d$  tests were used to measure effect sizes.

### *Transparency and openness*

This study was not preregistered. All data from this study are available by emailing the corresponding authors.

### Results

During the exposure phase, rats in groups Alternating-AX, Blocked-AX, Alternating-AY and Blocked-AY consumed 4.77, 4.75, 4.37, and 4.01g, respectively, of the AX solution and 4.67, 4.79, 4.37, and 4.19g, respectively, of the BX solution. ANOVA revealed no effect of exposure schedule (Alternating or Blocked), conditioned stimulus (BX or Y), or solution (AX or BX), and there were no significant interactions between these factors (all  $F_s < 1$ ).

Table 2 shows consumption and lick clusters sizes during the BX and Y conditioning trials. Inspection of the table suggests that consumption of BX (for group Alternating-AX and Blocked-AX) and Y (for groups Alternating-AY and Blocked-AY) declined between the two conditioning trials; and that consumption scores were generally higher for the familiar compound (BX) than for the novel stimulus (Y). There was also a reduction in lick cluster sizes in the four groups between the two trials, with lick cluster size being higher for BX than Y. An ANOVA conducted on the consumption scores, with exposure condition (Alternating or Blocked), conditioned stimulus (BX or Y), and trials (1 or 2) as factors, revealed an effect of conditioned stimulus,  $F(1, 56) = 205.31$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .786$ ,  $MSE = 4.07$ , an effect of trial,  $F(1, 56) = 39.51$ ,

$p < .001$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .414$ ,  $MSE = 7.36$ , and an interaction between the three factors,  $F(1, 56) = 4.24$ ,  $p = .044$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .070$ ,  $MSE = 7.36$ . There was no significant effect of exposure condition or other two-way interactions (largest  $F(1, 56) = 1.65$ ,  $p = .204$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .029$ ,  $MSE = 4.07$  for the exposure condition  $\times$  conditioned stimulus interaction). Inspection of the descriptive statistics in Table 2 suggests that the significant 3-way interaction stems from the fact that, for the groups conditioned with BX, there was a tendency for the blocked exposure group to show a smaller decrease in consumption across conditioning than the alternating exposure group, while for the groups conditioned with Y, this was reversed. Despite these impressions, separate ANOVAs performed on each conditioned stimulus only showed main effect of trial for BX,  $F(1, 28) = 14.20$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .336$ ,  $MSE = 10.42$ , and for Y,  $F(1, 28) = 33.22$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .543$ ,  $MSE = 4.30$ . The effect of exposure condition and the trial  $\times$  exposure condition interaction were non-significant (largest  $F(1, 28) = 2.76$ ,  $p = .108$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .090$ ,  $MSE = 3.26$  for main effect of exposure condition in the groups conditioned with Y).

An equivalent ANOVA conducted on the lick cluster sizes revealed an effect of conditioned stimulus,  $F(1, 56) = 43.15$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .435$ ,  $MSE = 97.54$ , an effect of trial,  $F(1, 56) = 60.85$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .521$ ,  $MSE = 37.87$ , and an interaction between all three factors  $F(1, 56) = 6.55$ ,  $p = .013$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .105$ ,  $MSE = 37.87$ . Again, there was no significant effect of exposure condition or any two-way interactions (largest  $F(1, 56) = 2.97$ ,  $p = .090$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .050$ ,  $MSE = 97.54$  for the exposure condition  $\times$  conditioned stimulus interaction). Inspection of the descriptive statistics in Table 2 suggests that the significant 3-way interaction stems from the fact that for the groups conditioned with BX, there was a tendency for the blocked exposure group to show a smaller decrease in lick cluster size across conditioning than the alternating exposure group, while for the groups conditioned with Y this pattern was reversed. A separate ANOVA conducted on the groups conditioned with BX revealed only a significant main effect of trial,  $F(1,28) = 15.47$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .356$ ,  $MSE = 50.55$ , and no significant effect of exposure

condition or trial  $\times$  exposure condition interaction (largest  $F(1, 28) = 2.00, p = .168, \eta_p^2 = .067, MSE = 50.55$  for the trial  $\times$  exposure condition interaction). The analysis performed on groups conditioned with Y revealed a main effect of trial,  $F(1,28) = 63.29, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .693, MSE = 25.19$ , and a trial  $\times$  exposure condition interaction  $F(1,28) = 5.92, p = .022, \eta_p^2 = .175, MSE = 25.19$ , but no significant main effect of exposure condition  $F(1,28) = 2.46, p = .128, \eta_p^2 = .081, MSE = 62.47$ .

*Table 2*

*Mean (+SEM) consumption and lick cluster size on the conditioning trials in Experiment 2*

| Group          | Trial 1      |                   | Trial 2     |                   |
|----------------|--------------|-------------------|-------------|-------------------|
|                | Consumption  | Lick cluster size | Consumption | Lick cluster size |
| Alternating-AX | 10.84 (0.14) | 32.79 (2.41)      | 6.34 (0.64) | 22.97 (2.12)      |
| Blocked-AX     | 9.31 (0.98)  | 27.17 (2.33)      | 7.53 (0.81) | 22.55 (2.95)      |
| Alternating-AY | 4.04 (0.44)  | 16.51 (1.33)      | 1.63 (0.61) | 9.35 (1.57)       |
| Blocked-AY     | 5.49 (0.53)  | 22.86 (2.54)      | 1.73 (0.40) | 9.39 (1.00)       |

*Note:* Consumption is measured in ml and lick cluster size in licks per bout. For groups Alternating-AX and Blocked-AX the 2 conditioning trials were with BX, while for groups Alternating-AY and Blocked-AY they were with Y. The group names denote whether AX and BX were presented in an alternating or blocked fashion, and whether BX was conditioned and AX was presented at test, or Y was conditioned and AY was presented at test.

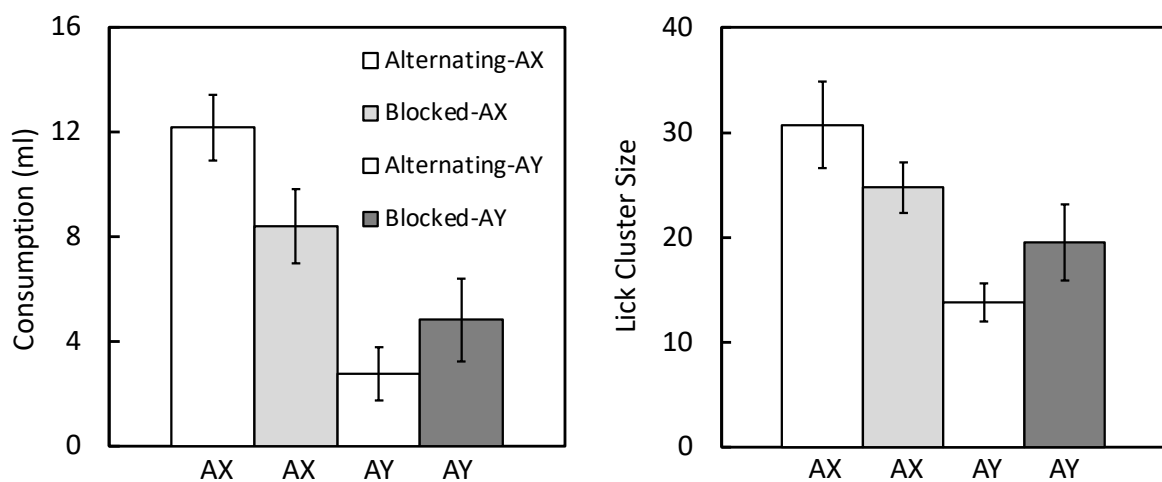
Figure 1 depicts consumption and lick-cluster sizes for the test trial with AX and AY. Inspection of the left-hand panel shows that rats in group Alternating-AX consumed more AX than those in Blocked-AX. There was, however, no difference in consumption to AY between groups Alternating-AY and Blocked-AY; with consumption of AY being lower than AX. Inspection of the right-hand panel reveals that the lick-cluster sizes paralleled those for consumption, with these sizes being larger in group Alternating-AX than in group Blocked-AX

(and larger in group Blocked-AY than Alternating-AY). As we shall see, however, the sole statistically significant effect involving click cluster size was the nature of the test stimulus (AX versus AY)

ANOVA conducted on the consumption scores revealed an effect of test stimulus (AX or AY),  $F(1, 56) = 23.86, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .299, MSE = 26.51$ , an interaction between exposure condition and test stimulus,  $F(1, 56) = 4.78, p = .033, \eta_p^2 = .079, MSE = 26.51$ , but no effect of exposure condition (Alternating or Blocked),  $F(1, 56) = .42, p = .520, \eta_p^2 = .007, MSE = 26.51$ . A  $t$ -test conducted on the AX consumption scores revealed that the difference between groups Alternating-AX and Blocked-AX did not reach conventional levels of standard levels of significance on a two-tailed test,  $t(28) = 1.99, p = .056, d = -0.73$ . There was no significant difference between the AY consumption scores in groups Alternating-AY and Blocked-AY,  $t(28) = 1.09, p = .283, d = 0.4$ .

*Figure 1*

*The test results from Experiment 1 involving presentations of AX or AY*



*Note:* Mean ( $\pm$ SEM) consumption (left-hand panel) and mean lick cluster size (right-hand panel) during test trials with AX and AY. Groups had previously received either alternating or blocked exposure to AX and BX, and then groups Alternating-AX and Blocked-AX received conditioning trials with BX and were tested with AX, while those in groups Alternating-AY and Blocked-AY received conditioning trials with Y and were tested with AY.

A parallel analysis of the lick-cluster scores revealed only a main effect of the test compound (AX versus AY),  $F(1, 56) = 12.36, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .181, MSE = 148.83$ , with no effect of exposure condition (Alternating or Blocked),  $F(1, 56) < 0.01, p = .970, \eta_p^2 < .001, MSE = 148.83$ , and no interaction between exposure condition and test compound,  $F(1, 56) = 3.42, p = .070, \eta_p^2 = .058, MSE = 148.83$ .

## Discussion

Experiment 1 demonstrated that manipulating how compound tastes (AX and BX) are exposed (rapidly alternating or blocked) interacts with later assessments of generalization of an aversion: When the assessment involved conditioning an aversion to BX and testing AX alternating exposure tended to reduce generalization to AX relative to blocked exposure; however, when it involved conditioning an aversion to Y and testing AY the patterns of results was if anything in the opposite direction. This pattern of results provides no support for the suggestion that the perceptual learning effect reflected the salience of A being higher after alternating than blocked exposure. While there were effects of the nature of the conditioned flavor (BX or Y) and trial on both consumption and lick cluster size, the effect of exposure condition on generalization to AX and AY was evident when consumption, but not lick cluster size, was the measure of generalization. The basis for this apparent dissociation will be given further consideration in the General Discussion, after the results of Experiment 2 have been presented. These results allow an assessment of its reliability, which is especially important given the fact that the general pattern of results appeared to be similar across the two measures of generalization.

The contrast between the results of Experiment 1, using tastes, and those reported by Recio et al. (2018), using odors, is marked. The procedures used in groups Alternating-AY and Blocked-AY closely parallel those from their study, and yet the results were quite different: In



our case, alternating exposure to AX and BX resulted in no greater tendency for A to disrupt the aversion to Y than did blocked exposure, and in their procedure it did. We have argued that the effect observed with odors might well have reflected greater external inhibition; but resulting from the capacity of A to evoke a memory of B during the test rather than from the effective salience of A being higher after alternating than blocked exposure. The possibility that the odor of A might remain until odor B is presented (and allow an association to form between them) seems a plausible one. It also seemed plausible to argue that this possibility is reduced by providing access to water between presentations of AX and BX. Experiment 2 examined the latter suggestion directly, while providing an opportunity to confirm the reliability of the pattern of results evident in groups Alternating-AX and Blocked-AX; as in Experiment 1 the difference between these two groups would only be evident using a one-tailed test.

## Experiment 2

Table 3 summarizes the design of Experiment 2. Groups Alternating-W and Blocked-W received an equivalent treatment to groups Alternating-AX and Blocked-AX in Experiment 1; including the fact that they received access to water in the 5-min intervals between the presentations of the taste compounds within a day (e.g., between AX and BX in group Alternating-W, and between AX and AX in group Blocked-W). Two further groups also received alternating or blocked exposure to AX and BX: Alternating-N and Blocked-N. However, for these groups there was no access to water during the 5-min intervals between the taste compounds, but instead this access occurred immediately following the second taste compound within a day. In this procedure, any tendency for A to become linked to B during alternating exposure should increase generalization from BX to AX through a process of sensory preconditioning (e.g., Dwyer et al., 2012; Rescorla & Cunningham, 1978). Indeed, Recio, Iliescu and de Brugada (2019) described just such an effect when odors were used as A and B, and rats

received a limited amount of intermixed exposure to AX and BX (see also, Alonso & Hall, 1999). However, to the extent that rapid alternation to our tastes results in perceptual learning then it should be evident in a reduction in generalization from BX to AX. Moreover, this effect might be expected to be influenced by the taste lingering between successive presentations of AX and BX in group Alternating-N but not group Alternating-W; either because it affords greater opportunity for stimulus comparison and thereby increases perceptual learning (Gibson, 1969; cf. James, 1890) or it enables A and B to become linked which would counteract perceptual learning (e.g., Dwyer et al., 2012; Rescorla & Cunningham, 1978; see also, Honey & Bateson, 1996).

*Table 3*

*Design of Experiment 2*

| Group         | Exposure               | Conditioning | Test |
|---------------|------------------------|--------------|------|
| Alternating-W | AX-W-BX-N<br>BX-W-AX-N | BX-LiCl      | AX   |
| Blocked-W     | AX-W-AX-N<br>BX-W-BX-N | BX-LiCl      | AX   |
| Alternating-N | AX-N-BX-W<br>BX-N-AX-W | BX-LiCl      | AX   |
| Blocked-N     | AX-N-AX-W<br>BX-N-BX-W | BX-LiCl      | AX   |

*Note:* Rats received exposure to sequences of taste compounds (AX and BX), which were presented in an alternating (e.g., AX then BX) or blocked fashion (e.g., AX then AX). During the 5-min intervals between successive 10-min compound presentations, rats either received access to water (W; groups Alternating-W and Blocked-W) or no water (N; groups Alternating-N and Blocked-N). The N groups received access to water after the sequences of taste compounds while the W groups did not. All rats then received conditioning trials in which BX was paired with lithium chloride (LiCl) and test trials with AX. Conditioning and test trials were 30 min.

## Method

### *Subjects and apparatus*

Sixty-four naïve male Lister Hooded rats were used (supplied by Envigo, Blackthorn, U.K). The rats were housed and maintained in the same way as Experiment 1. Their mean *ad libitum* weight was 296g (range: 260-325g) when the water-deprivation regimen began. The apparatus was the same as that used in Experiment 1. The stimuli were solutions of 2% sucrose and .9% salt (which served as A and B counterbalanced), and 0.000015M quinine (which served as X). These tastes were combined to create the two compounds (AX and BX) in a way that maintained their concentrations.

### *Procedure*

The rats were divided into 4 groups ( $ns = 16$ : Alternating-W, Blocked-W, Alternating-N, and Blocked-N). The 2-day water deprivation schedule was the same as in Experiment 1. On the subsequent 4 days rats received exposure to AX and BX at 10:00 and 30-min access to water at 16:00. Rats in groups Alternating-W and Blocked-W received the same treatment as groups Alternating-AX and Blocked-AX in Experiment 1. The Alternating-N and Blocked-N groups receive the same training as their W-subscripted namesakes, with the exception that they did not receive water in the 5-min intervals between the flavor compound presentations on a given day, but rather in the 5-min period that immediately followed the second compound presentation on each day.

Rats received conditioning trials on Days 5 and 7 and recovery days on Days 6 and 8. On conditioning trials, rats received 30-min access to 15 ml of BX immediately followed by an injection of 0.15 ml LiCl at 10ml per kg bodyweight. On the recovery days, rats received access to water for 30 min at 11:00. At 11:00 on the next 6 days (Days 9-16), rats received access to AX for 30 min, and in the afternoon they received 30-min access to water. The analysis that follows again focusses on consumption and lick-cluster sizes during conditioning with BX and

the tests with AX. The analysis of lick microstructure during conditioning and testing again followed reported protocols (e.g., Dwyer, 2012; Patitucci et al., 2016).

## Results

During the exposure phase, rats in groups Alternating-W, Blocked-W, Alternating-N and Blocked-N consumed 4.52, 4.34, 5.30, and 5.57g, respectively, of the AX solution and 4.64, 4.39, 4.90, and 5.53g, respectively, of the BX solution. ANOVA revealed an effect of water placement (W or N),  $F(1, 60) = 18.11, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .232, MSE = 23.3$ , presumably because of the effect of water consumption prior to the second solution presented each day in the Alternating-W and Blocked-W groups. As expected, there was no significant effect of exposure schedule (Alternating or Blocked) or of solution (AX or BX), nor any significant interactions (largest  $F(1, 60) = 2.75, p = .102, \eta_p^2 = .044, MSE = 3.54$ , for the exposure condition  $\times$  water placement interaction).

The levels of consumption and lick clusters sizes during the BX conditioning trials are shown in Table 4. Inspection of the table shows that the consumption of BX decreased between the two conditioning trials in the four groups, with some evidence that the reduction was somewhat greater in the groups given water between presentations than the groups that were not. There was also a reduction in lick cluster size between the two trials, with an indication that lick cluster size was smallest on the second trial in group Alternating-W. An ANOVA conducted on the consumption scores with exposure condition (Alternating or Blocked), water placement (W or N), and conditioning trial (1 or 2) as factors revealed a main effect of conditioning trial,  $F(1, 60) = 35.43, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .371, MSE = 7.79$ , but no other significant main effects or interactions (largest  $F(1, 60) = 3.05, p = .086, \eta_p^2 = .048, MSE = 7.79$ , for the conditioning trial  $\times$  water placement interaction). A parallel analysis of the lick cluster size revealed main effects of conditioning trial,  $F(1, 60) = 14.94, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .199, MSE = 111.41$ , and water placement,  $F(1, 60) = 5.00, p = .029, \eta_p^2 = .077, MSE = 148.68$ , but no other significant main effects or

interactions (largest  $F(1, 60) = 3.77, p = .057, \eta_p^2 = .059, MSE = 111.41$ , for the conditioning trial  $\times$  water placement  $\times$  exposure condition interaction).

*Table 4*

*Mean (+SEM) consumption and lick cluster sizes on the BX conditioning trials in Experiment 2*

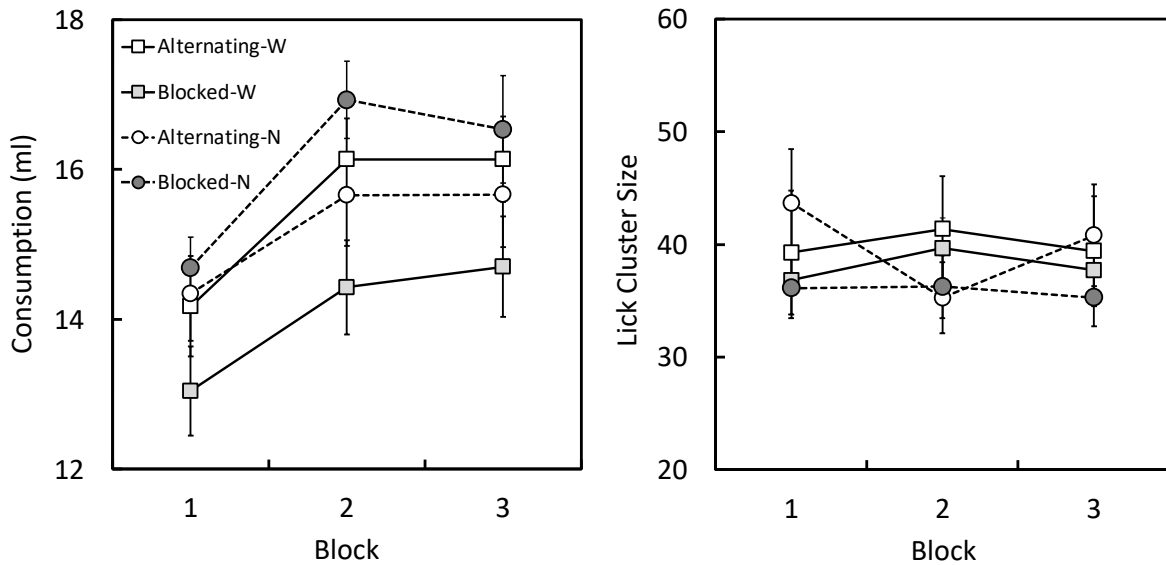
| Group         | Trial 1      |                   | Trial 2     |                   |
|---------------|--------------|-------------------|-------------|-------------------|
|               | Consumption  | Lick cluster size | Consumption | Lick cluster size |
| Alternating-W | 10.83 (0.25) | 34.62 (2.93)      | 6.92 (0.75) | 21.16 (1.80)      |
| Blocked-W     | 10.92 (0.30) | 29.60 (1.76)      | 7.23 (0.97) | 28.81 (3.17)      |
| Alternating-N | 10.01 (0.68) | 34.30 (2.48)      | 8.36 (0.72) | 27.92 (2.63)      |
| Blocked-N     | 11.08 (0.24) | 39.73 (3.73)      | 8.58 (0.70) | 31.51 (3.61)      |

*Note:* Consumption is measured in g and lick cluster size in licks per bout. All groups received 2 conditioning trials with BX. The group names denote whether AX and BX were presented in an alternating or blocked fashion, and whether water was placed in the 5-min intervals between successive presentations (W) or not (N).

Figure 2 shows the results of principal interest from Experiment 2. This figure depicts the consumption scores (left-hand panel) and lick-cluster sizes (right-hand panel) for AX across three, 2-test blocks. Inspection of the left-hand panel shows that rats in group Alternating-W consumed more than those in group Blocked-W, and it also suggests that – if anything – the opposite difference is evident in groups Alternating-N and Blocked-N. In contrast, inspection of the right-hand panel reveals that there no marked or consistent differences in lick-cluster sizes between the groups.

Figure 2

The test results from Experiment 2 involving presentations of AX



Note: Mean ( $\pm$ SEM) consumption (left-hand panel) and mean lick cluster size (right-hand panel) during test trials with AX. Rats had received either alternating or blocked exposure to AX and BX following by conditioning with BX. During the exposure stage, rats in groups Alternating-W and Blocked-W received access to water in the 5-min intervals between successive exposures; whereas those in groups Alternating-N and Blocked-N did not receive such access during these intervals.

ANOVA conducted on the consumption scores revealed a main effect of test block (1-3),  $F(2, 120) = 22.14, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .27, MSE = 2.82$ , and critically, an interaction between exposure condition and water placement,  $F(1, 60) = 4.80, p = .032, \eta_p^2 = .074, MSE = 12.66$ ; but no significant effects of exposure condition (Alternating or Blocked),  $F(1, 60) = 0.33, p = .565, \eta_p^2 = .006, MSE = 12.66$ , water placement (W or N),  $F(1, 60) = 2.85, p = .097, \eta_p^2 = .045, MSE = 12.66$ , or other interactions (test block  $\times$  water placement,  $F(2, 120) = 0.16, p = .849, \eta_p^2 = .003, MSE = 2.82$ ; test block  $\times$  exposure condition,  $F(2, 120) = 0.04, p = .959, \eta_p^2 < .001, MSE = 2.82$ ; test block  $\times$  water placement  $\times$  exposure condition,  $F(2, 120) = 0.80, p = .450, \eta_p^2 = .0013, MSE = 2.82$ ). Separate ANOVAs were conducted with the W and N groups to follow up the interaction between exposure condition and water placement. For the W groups, the ANOVA revealed a main effect of exposure condition,  $F(1, 30) = 4.33, p = .046, \eta_p^2 = .126, MSE = 11.21$ ,

confirming greater consumption in group Alternating-W than group Blocked-W. The main effect of test block was also significant,  $F(2, 60) = 9.29, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .236, MSE = 3.50$ , but the block  $\times$  exposure condition interaction was not,  $F(2, 60) = 0.19, p = .825, \eta_p^2 = .006, MSE = 3.50$ . For the N groups, the ANOVA revealed a main effect of test block,  $F(2, 60) = 14.21, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .236, MSE = 2.14$ , but no main effect exposure condition,  $F(1, 30) = 1.17, p = .289, \eta_p^2 = .037, MSE = 14.10$ , or block  $\times$  exposure condition interaction,  $F(2, 60) = 0.80, p = .454, \eta_p^2 = .026, MSE = 2.14$ ).

A parallel ANOVA conducted on the lick-cluster-size scores (summarized in the right-hand panel of Figure 2) revealed an interaction between water placement and test block,  $F(2, 120) = 3.46, p = .035, \eta_p^2 = .055, MSE = 51.92$ , but no effects of exposure condition (Alternating or Blocked),  $F(1, 60) = 0.76, p = .398, \eta_p^2 = .012, MSE = 593.51$ , water placement (W or N),  $F(1, 60) = 0.10, p = .748, \eta_p^2 = .002, MSE = 593.51$ , or test block (1-3),  $F(2, 120) = 0.238, p = .789, \eta_p^2 = .004, MSE = 51.92$ . The remaining interactions were non-significant (test block  $\times$  exposure condition,  $F(2, 120) = 1.76, p = .176, \eta_p^2 = .029, MSE = 51.92$ ; water placement  $\times$  exposure condition,  $F(1, 60) = 0.09, p = .770, \eta_p^2 = .001, MSE = 593.51$ ; test block  $\times$  water placement  $\times$  exposure condition,  $F(2, 120) = 1.34, p = .266, \eta_p^2 = .0022, MSE = 51.92$ ).

## Discussion

Experiment 2 demonstrated that rapidly alternating exposure to AX and BX resulted in a reduction in generalization from BX to AX relative to blocked exposure. This effect was only evident when access to water was provided between successive presentations of AX and BX (e.g., during alternating exposure) and AX and AX (e.g., during blocked exposure). The finding that this effect was not evident when there was no access to water between presentations of AX and BX is consistent with the suggestion that the lingering taste of the first compound allows it to become associated with the second compound. This would tend to increase generalization from

BX to AX through the tendency of A (and X) to activate B during the test (e.g., Dwyer et al., 2012; Rescorla & Cunningham, 1978). The perceptual learning effect involving rapidly alternating tastes reinforces that observed in Experiment 1 (cf. Recio et al., 2018); and the observation that this effect is evident in one measure of generalization (consumption) but not another (lick cluster size; cf. Dwyer et al., 2012) is also consistent with the results of Experiment 1.

### General Discussion

The study of perceptual learning in rats has made extensive use of flavor-aversion procedures. These procedures assess how exposure to complex flavors (AX and BX; sucrose+quinine and saline+quinine) affects later generalization of a conditioned aversion between them. A reduction in generalization is taken to be evidence perceptual learning (e.g., Honey & Hall, 1989; Mackintosh et al., 1991; Symonds & Hall, 1995). Studies with humans that have adopted analogous flavor-aversion procedures (e.g., using the same flavors) have yielded similar findings (Dwyer et al., 2004; Mundy et al., 2006; see also Mundy et al., 2007). However, the studies with humans have involved a much-compressed timescale, with presentations of AX and BX occurring within seconds and minutes of one another, rather than the hours and days that is typical in studies with rats. This might mean that the parallel empirical effects seen in humans and rats reflect the operation of quite different mechanisms (see Hall, 2009; Mitchell & Hall, 2014). Here, we examined whether perceptual learning with complex tastes could be observed in rats with timescales more like those used in humans (cf. Recio et al., 2018, 2019); and provided a concurrent analysis of both consumption and licking microstructure in order to assess whether perceptual learning is equally evident in different assays of flavor aversion: consumption and lick-cluster size. This form of analysis of perceptual learning has not been undertaken in either



rat or human, but it has been used in the context of a theoretically related phenomenon: sensory preconditioning (Dwyer et al., 2012).

When rats receive pairings of BX with LiCl it results two changes: later presentations of BX result in lower consumption and a reduction in lick-cluster size (for a review, see Dwyer, 2012). There is already some evidence that these different conditioned behaviors are dissociable. For example, if rats receive a sensory preconditioning procedure in which BX is first exposed and then X is paired with LiCl, the reduction in consumption of X generalizes to B, but the reduction in lick-cluster size does not (Dwyer et al., 2012). This is interesting because it suggests anew (cf. Rescorla, 1988) the need for models of Pavlovian conditioning and higher-order conditioning to provide a more sophisticated analysis of the translation of (associative) learning into different forms of conditioned behaviors (see Honey et al., 2020; Honey & Dwyer, 2021, 2022). Here, we used the standard measures of avoidance (i.e., consumption) and aversion (i.e., lick cluster size) to assess perceptual learning generated by different schedules of exposure to two complex tastes: AX and BX.

On each of 4 exposure days, rats received successive 10-minute presentations of compound tastes separated by 5 minutes. Some rats received alternating exposure, where the successive presentations were of different flavors, AX and BX; whereas other rats received blocked exposure, where successive presentations were of the same flavor (e.g., AX and AX on 2 days and BX and BX on 2 days). Across Experiments 1 and 2 it was shown that when rats had access to water during the 5-min intervals between successive flavor compounds, there was less generalization at test from BX to AX after alternating than blocked exposure (using a one-tailed test in Experiment 1 and a two-tailed test in Experiment 2); but this effect was only evident in the measure of avoidance (i.e., consumption) and not aversion (i.e., lick-cluster size). However, in Experiment 2, when access to water occurred after the second of the successive presentations there was no difference between the two schedules of exposure; with a tendency for alternating

exposure to result in more generalization (as measured by consumption). There is a simple explanation for the effect of water placement between AX and BX: It prevents the remnants of one taste (e.g., AX) being present when the next is presented (e.g., BX), which would otherwise allow AX and BX to become linked and increase generalization from BX to AX (cf. Dwyer et al., 2012; Rescorla & Cunningham, 1978; cf. James, 1890). This interpretation suggests that there are at least two processes in play when two compounds are presented close together in time: a process of perceptual learning process that reduces generalization and an associative process that enhances it (cf. Honey & Bateson, 1996; see also, Rodríguez & Alonso, 2008). But, why should perceptual learning be evident in one measure of generalization, but not another? The fact that the difference in perceptual learning, between alternating and blocked exposure, was only evident in consumption scores is potentially important: Without additional assumptions, it is not captured by two popular theoretical accounts of perceptual learning.

Hall (2003) suggested that alternating exposure to AX and BX, unlike blocked exposure, will mean that A and B will be repeatedly activated in their absence, which was taken to maintain the salience of A and B (but see, Dwyer & Honey, 2007): Associations formed between A and X (on AX trials) and between B and X (on BX trials) will mean that A will be activated on BX trials and B will be active on AX trials. If the salience of A and B is greater after alternating than blocked exposure, B should limit the development of the aversion established to X, when BX is paired with LiCl, and A should interfere (through a process of external inhibition; see Pavlov, 1927) with the aversion otherwise evoked by X or indeed any other effective CS (e.g., Y). As we saw in Experiment 1, there was no evidence of the latter influence in the groups given conditioning with Y and tested with AY: No evidence that the perceptual learning effect resulting from rapid alternation reflected a change in the salience of A. Moreover, the fact that when there was a scheduling effect (in both Experiments 1 and 2) it was only evident statistically in one measure of generalization (e.g., consumption) is not consistent with the idea that B is more likely

to overshadow the formation of an association between X and LiCl. As noted in the preceding paragraph and in the Introduction to this article, without further assumptions such an effect should be evident in those conditioned behaviors that are established through pairing BX with LiCl.

Another popular account of perceptual learning is that it reflects, at least in part, the development of inhibition between the unique features of the AX and BX compounds (i.e., A and B). McLaren et al. (1989) noted that an application of the Rescorla and Wagner (1972) learning rules to a procedure in which AX and BX were alternated would result in inhibition between A and B. Thus, initial AX and BX trials should result in the formation of associations between A and X, and between B and X, which should then provide the basis for the development of inhibition between A and B: X will activate B on trials on which it was absent (i.e., AX trials) and X will activate A on trials on which it is absent (i.e., BX trials). This inhibition could impact generalization by preventing B from becoming associatively activated by X on AX test trials, and generating a conditioned response via the associative chain: X-B-LiCl. However, this theory fails to address why consumption, but not lick-cluster size, is affected by the ability of A to inhibit B on AX test trials.

One possibility, open to both accounts of perceptual learning considered above, is that lick-cluster size is simply a less sensitive measure than is consumption (cf., Dwyer et al., 2012). The fact that pairing BX (and Y) with LiCl had effects on consumption and lick cluster size that were similar in magnitude suggests that the sensitivity of the two measures is not a general issue. If the dissociation observed in Experiments 1 and 2 between the two measures of performance was reliable and evident across a broad range of parameters, then one would need a more nuanced analysis of how perceptual learning is translated into performance. A recent model of Pavlovian conditioning and higher-order conditioning has developed such an analysis (Honey et al., 2020; Honey & Dwyer, 2021, 2022). While detailed application of this model to perceptual

learning is beyond the scope of this paper, it is relevant to note that the model provides a formal analysis of the translation of learning into different forms of conditioned responding: Responding that is based on the properties of the CS or CSs (e.g., consumption) and responding that is based on the properties of the US (e.g., lick cluster size; see Honey & Dwyer, 2021, 2022). It thereby affords a natural basis for when and why different forms of conditioned response diverge across different procedures (e.g., higher-order conditioning and Pavlovian conditioning).

In more general terms, the results presented here suggest that the conditions under which perceptual learning is observed using flavors are similar in rats and humans (Dwyer et al., 2004; Mundy et al., 2006), encouraging the possibility that similar theoretical mechanisms might be at work (cf. Hall, 2003; Mitchell & Hall, 2014). However, the results also suggest that there is a need for any theoretical analysis to give more detailed consideration to how perceptual learning is translated into performance.

#### Funding

This research was supported by MCIN/ AEI /10.13039/501100011033/ FEDER “Una manera de hacer Europa” (PGC2018-095965-B-I00; PI: IB), and by the BBSRC (UK; BB/T004339/1; PI: RCH).

#### Declaration of conflicting interests

The authors declared no potential conflicts of interest concerning the research, authorship, or publication of this article.

## References

- Alonso, G., & Hall, G. (1999). Stimulus comparison and stimulus association processes in the perceptual learning effect. *Behavioural Processes*, *48*, 11-23.
- Blair, C.A.J., & Hall, G. (2003). Perceptual learning in flavor aversion: Evidence for learned changes in stimulus effectiveness. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Animal Behavior Processes*, *29*, 39-48.
- Davis, J. D., & Smith, G. P. (1992). Analysis of the microstructure of the rhythmic tongue movements of rats ingesting maltose and sucrose solutions. *Behavioral Neuroscience*, *106*, 217-228.
- Dwyer, D.M. (2012). Licking and liking: The assessment of hedonic responses in rodents. *Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology*, *65*, 371-394.
- Dwyer, D.M., Burgess, K.V., & Honey, R.C. (2012). Avoidance but not aversion following sensory-preconditioning with flavors: A challenge to stimulus substitution. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Animal Behavior Processes*, *38*, 359-368.
- Dwyer, D.M., Hodder, K.I., & Honey, R.C. (2004). Perceptual learning in humans: Roles of pre-exposure schedule, feedback, and discrimination assay. *Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology*, *57B*, 245-259.
- Dwyer, D.M., & Honey, R.C. (2007). The effects of habituation training on compound conditioning are not reversed by an associative activation treatment. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Animal Behavior Processes*, *33*, 185-190.
- Dwyer, D.M., Mundy, M.E., & Honey, R.C. (2011). The role of stimulus comparison in human perceptual learning: Effects of distractor placement. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Animal Behavior Processes*, *37*, 300-307.
- Gibson, E.J. (1969). *Principles of perceptual learning and development*. NY: Appleton-Century-Crofts.

- Hall, G. (2003). Perceptual learning in human and nonhuman animals: A search for common ground. *Learning & Behavior*, *37*, 133-140.
- Holland, P.C. (1980a). Second-order conditioning with and without unconditioned stimulus presentation. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Animal Behavior Processes*, *6*, 238-250.
- Honey, R.C., & Bateson, P. (1996). Stimulus comparison and perceptual learning: Further evidence and evaluation from an imprinting procedure. *Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology*, *49B*, 259-269.
- Honey, R.C., Bateson, P., & Horn, G. (1994). The role of stimulus comparison in perceptual learning: An investigation with the domestic chick. *Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology*, *47B*, 83-103.
- Honey, R.C., & Dwyer, D.M. (2021). Higher-order conditioning: What is learnt and how it is expressed. *Frontiers in Behavioral Neuroscience*, *15*, 726218.
- Honey, R.C., & Dwyer, D.M. (2022). Higher-order conditioning: A critical review and a computational model. *Psychological Review* (in press).
- Honey, R.C., Dwyer, D.M., & Iliescu, A.F. (2020). HeiDI: A model for Pavlovian learning and performance with reciprocal associations. *Psychological Review*, *127*, 829-852.
- Honey, R.C., & Hall, G. (1989). Enhanced discriminability and reduced associability following flavor preexposure. *Learning and Motivation*, *20*, 262-277.
- Hughson, A.L., & Boakes, R.A. (2009). Passive perceptual learning in relation to wine: short-term recognition and verbal description. *Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology*, *62*, 1-8.
- James, W. (1890). *Principles of psychology (Vol. I)*. London: McMillan & Company, Ltd.

- Lavis, Y., & Mitchell, C. (2006). Effects of preexposure on stimulus discrimination: An investigation of the mechanisms responsible for human perceptual learning. *Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology Section B*, *59*, 2083-2101.
- Lubow, R.E., & Moore, A.U. (1959). Latent inhibition: The effect of non-reinforced preexposure to the conditioned stimulus. *Journal of Comparative and Physiological Psychology*, *52*, 415-419.
- Mackintosh, N.J., Kaye, H., & Bennett, C.H. (1991). Perceptual learning in flavour Aversion Conditioning. *Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology*, *43B*, 297-322.
- McLaren, I.P.L., Kaye, H., & Mackintosh, N.J. (1989). An associative theory of the representation of stimuli: applications to perceptual learning and latent inhibition. In R.G.M. Morris (Ed.) *Parallel Distributed Processing: Implications for Psychology and Neurobiology* (pp. 102-130). Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- McLaren, I.P.L., & Mackintosh, N.J. (2000). An elemental model of associative learning: 1. Latent inhibition and perceptual learning. *Animal Learning & Behavior*, *28*, 211-246.
- Mitchell, C., & Hall, G. (2014). Can theories of animal discrimination explain perceptual learning in humans. *Psychological Bulletin*, *140*, 283-307.
- Mundy, M.E., Dwyer, D.M., & Honey, R.C. (2006). Inhibitory associations contribute to perceptual learning in humans. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Animal Behavior Processes*, *32*, 178-184.
- Mundy, M.E., Honey, R.C., & Dwyer, D.M. (2007). Simultaneous presentation of similar stimuli produces perceptual learning in human picture processing. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Animal Behavior Processes*, *33*, 124-138.
- Mundy, M.E., Honey, R.C., & Dwyer, D.M. (2009). Superior discrimination between similar stimuli after simultaneous exposure. *Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology*, *62*, 18-25.

- Patitucci, E., Nelson, A.J.D., Dwyer, D.M., & Honey, R.C. (2016). The origins of individual differences in how learning is expressed in rats: A general-process perspective. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Animal Learning and Cognition*, 42, 313-324.
- Pavlov, I.P. (1927). *Conditioned Reflexes*. London: Oxford University Press.
- Recio, S.A., Iliescu, A.F., & de Brugada, I. (2018). The role of stimulus comparison in animal perceptual learning: Effects of a distractor placement. *Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 71, 2488-2496.
- Recio, S.A., Iliescu, A.F., & de Brugada, I. (2019). The amount of exposure determines generalization in animal perceptual learning using short inter-stimulus intervals. *Behavioural Processes*, 166, Article 103900.
- Rescorla, R.A. (1976). Stimulus generalization: Some predictions from a model of Pavlovian conditioning. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Animal Behavior Processes*, 2, 88-96.
- Rescorla, R.A. (1988). Pavlovian conditioning: It's not what you think it is. *American Psychologist*, 43, 151-160.
- Rescorla, R.A., & Cunningham, C.L. (1978). Within-compound flavor associations. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Animal Behavior Processes*, 4, 267-275.
- Rodríguez, G., & Alonso, G. (2008). Stimulus comparison in perceptual learning: Roles of sensory preconditioning and latent inhibition. *Behavioural Processes*, 77, 400-404.
- Spector, A. C., Klumpp, P. A., & Kaplan, J. M. (1998). Analytical issues in the evaluation of food deprivation and sucrose concentration effects on the microstructure of licking behavior in the rat. *Behavioral Neuroscience*, 112, 678-694.
- Symonds, M., & Hall, G. (1995). Perceptual learning in flavor aversion learning: Roles of stimulus comparison and latent inhibition of common elements. *Learning and Motivation*, 26, 203-219.



Urcelay, G.P., & Miller, R.R. (2009). Potentiation and overshadowing in Pavlovian fear conditioning. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Animal Behavior Processes*, 35, 340-356.