

# Learning Behaviour I

Much of early research on animal behaviour was governed by the idea that animals, as opposed to humans, were largely guided by “instinctive” behaviour, where stimulus-response patterns are genetically pre-programmed and hard wired into the nervous system

Where learning was acknowledged, it was in the relatively simple form of imprinting

Konrad Lorenz (1903-89)  
Nobel laureate 1973



# What is learning?

**Definition:** the process of acquiring information. Learning is a durable and usually adaptive change in an individual's behaviour traceable to a specific experience in that individual's life (Alcock)

It needs to be determined that the behavioural change is really the result of experience - not a result of development, exhaustion, satiation, etc.

# When is learning advantageous?

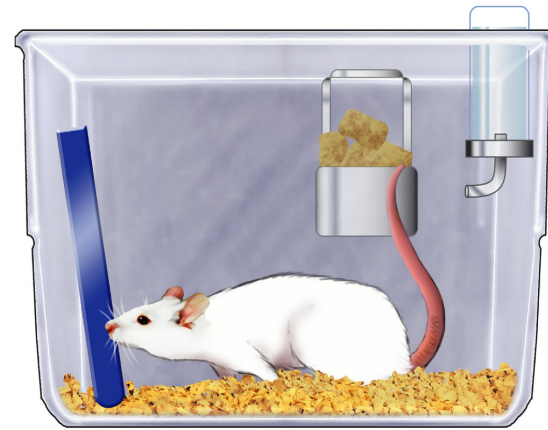
		Within-lifetime predictability	
		Low	High
Between-generation predictability	Low	Ignore experience (1)	Learn (3)
	High	Ignore experience (2)	Ignore experience (4)

In changing environments

But, not too much change!

# Non associative forms of learning

**Habituation:** strength of reaction decreases with repeated presentation of a “non-meaningful” stimulus.



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Example – alarm call whistles in prairie dogs.

Habituation allows animals to ignore irrelevant stimuli

# Habituation can be a problem

Predator fish



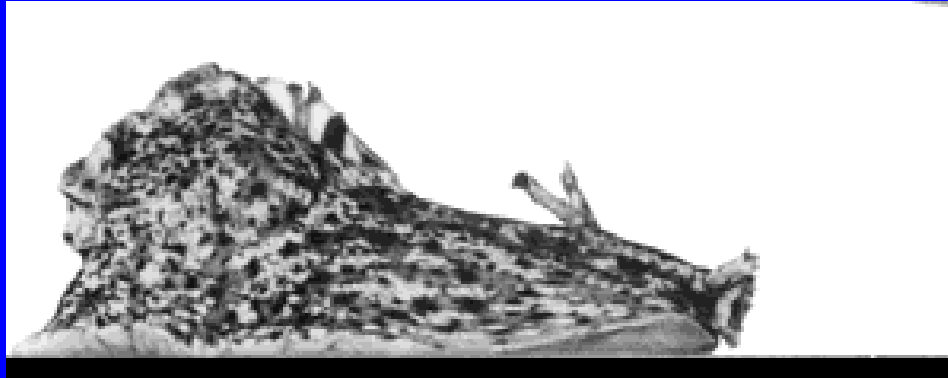
Prey fish



Prey may learn predator is not dangerous and habituate to its presence

# Non associative learning: sensitisation

Increased response to a stimulus after another or the same stimulus, e.g. in the sea slug (*Aplysia*)



If you pinch *Aplysia* in the tail, it will quickly withdraw it.

If you touch the same animal on the tail, the snail contracts its tail more strongly than if you had never pinched it.

# Associative learning 1: Classical (Pavlovian) conditioning

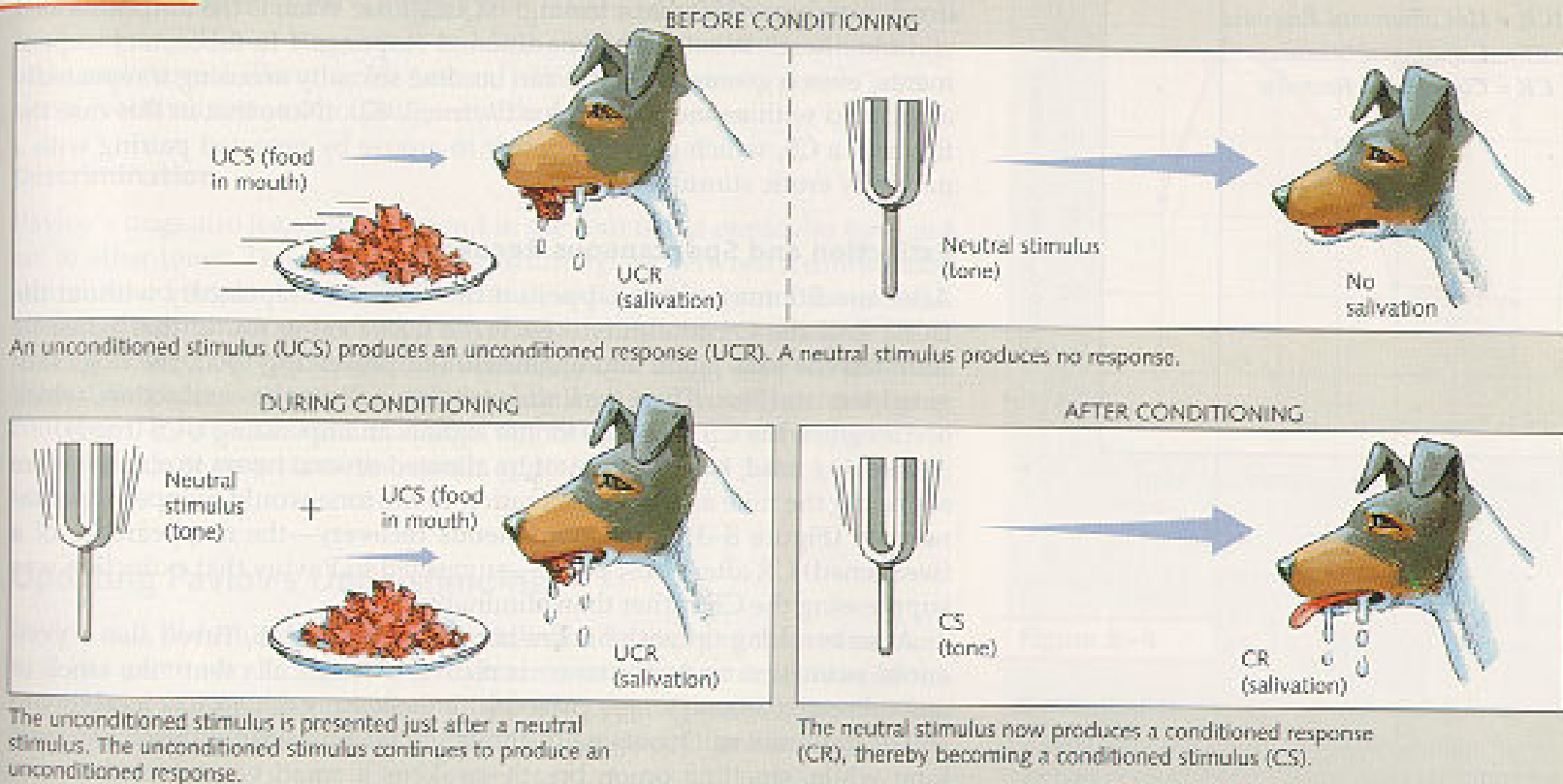


Conditioning of a response (reflex)

Here the dog salivating in response to food.

# Classical (Pavlovian) conditioning

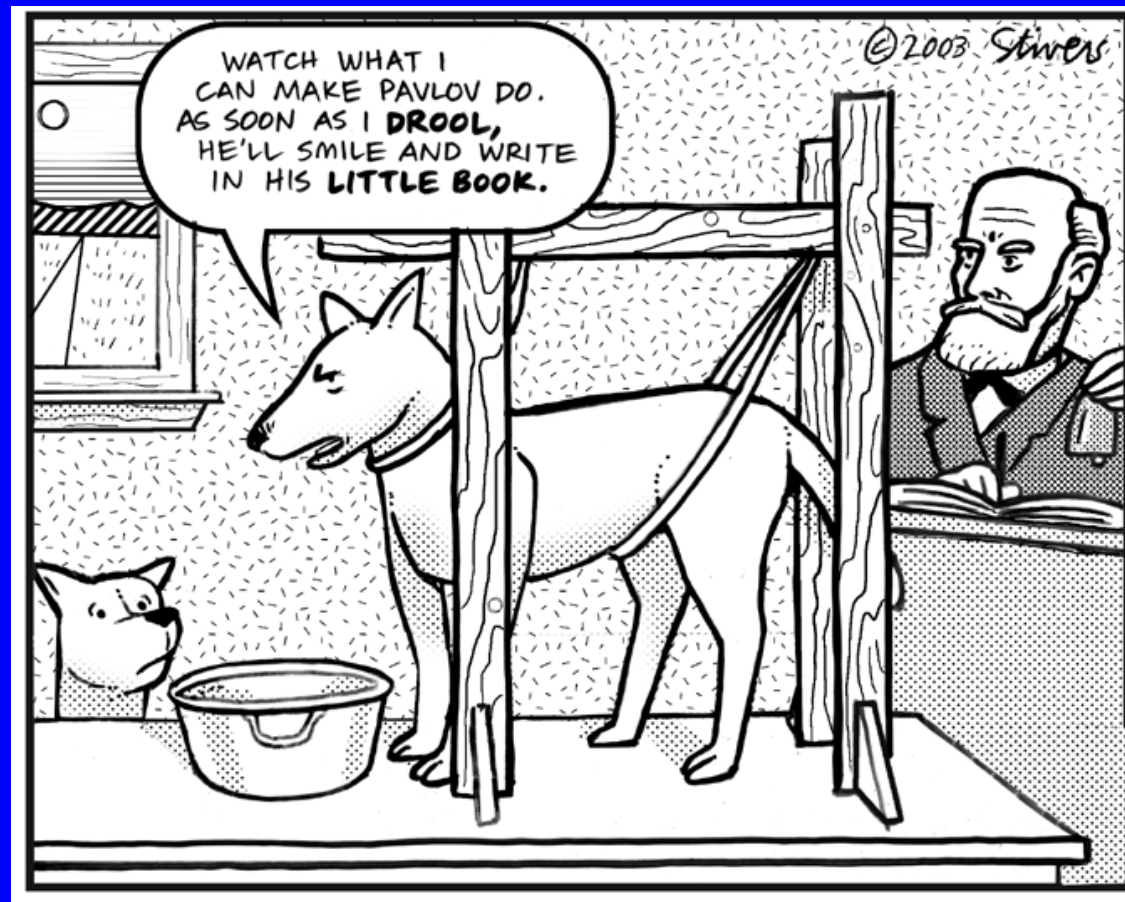
Figure 8-2



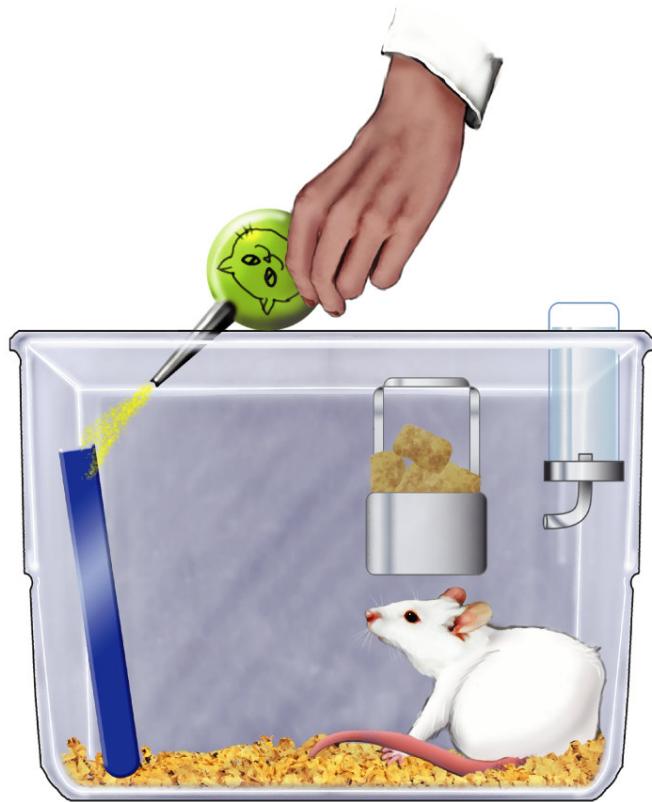
US (or UCS) = unconditioned stimulus, i.e. a stimulus that elicits a response without learning

CS – conditioned stimulus, elicits no response without learning

# Classical (Pavlovian) conditioning



# Classical (Pavlovian) conditioning

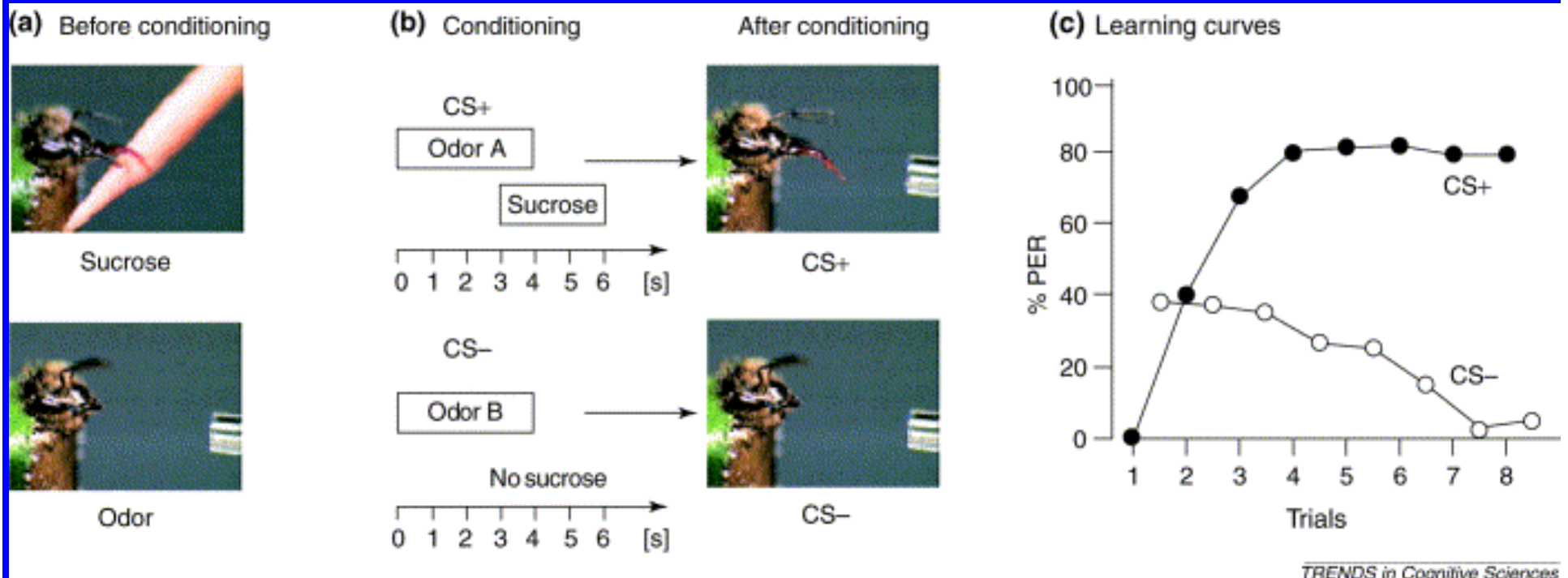


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This procedure also works with aversive (as well as appetitive) stimuli – here US = cat odour, which rats innately avoid.

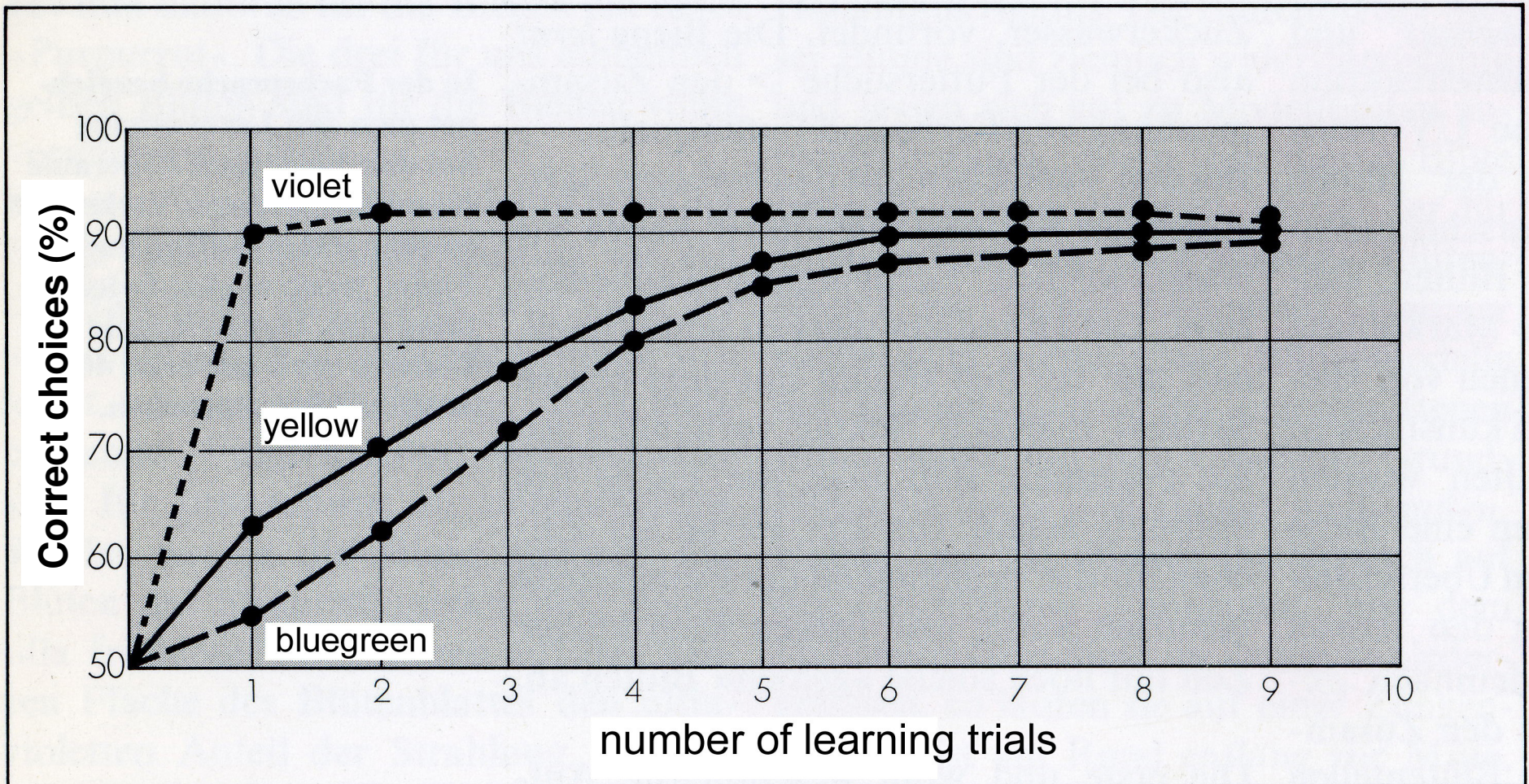
# Classical conditioning in honeybees

Proboscis extension response (reflex) - PER



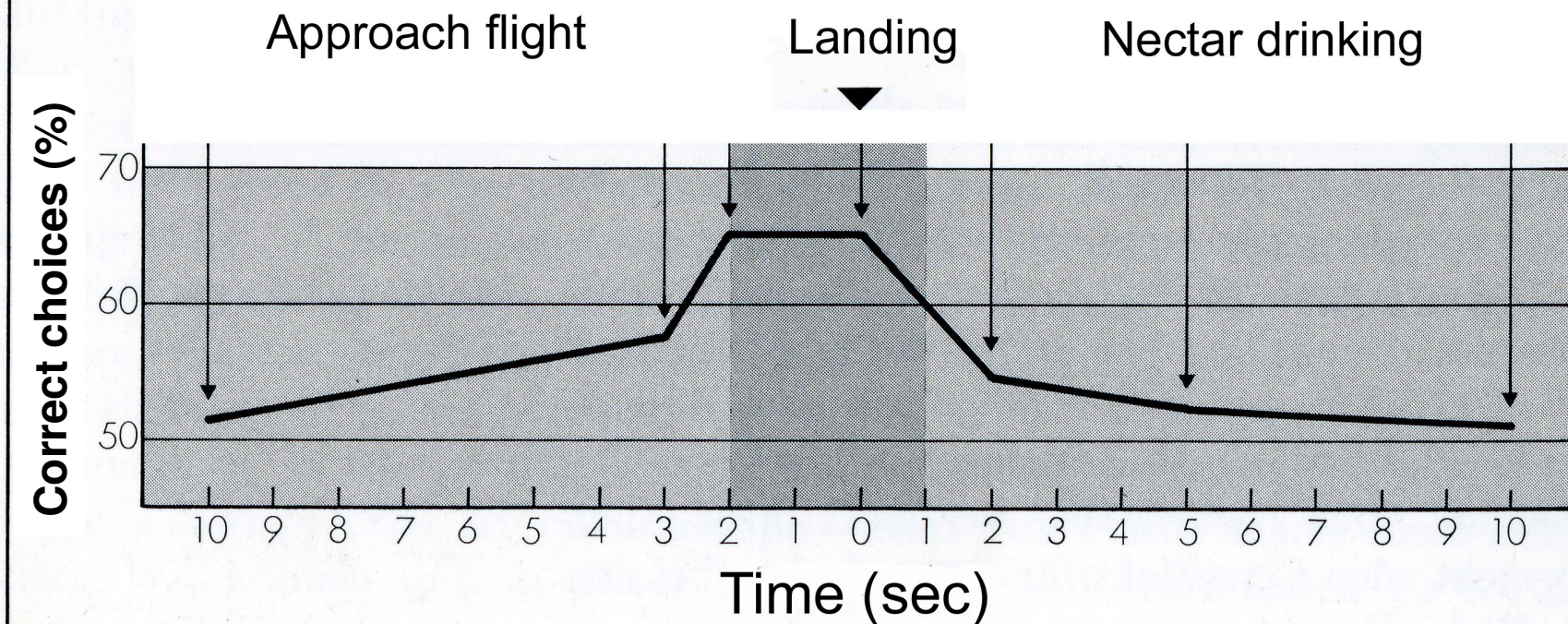
work by R. Menzel et al.

# Animals show innate preparedness to learn certain things better than others



# Classical conditioning (timing)

Timing is critical: maximum effect if US is directly preceded by CS (here colour learning in bees)



Except: nausea from eating toxic food (other than alcohol)

# Applied classical conditioning

Aversion therapy uses classical conditioning techniques to treat addiction

Positive emotional associations are changed by pairing alcohol with unpleasant stimulus (e.g. emetic)

Applied from nail-biting to class A drugs



Classical conditioning has also been used to treat pathological violence

e.g. *Clockwork Orange*

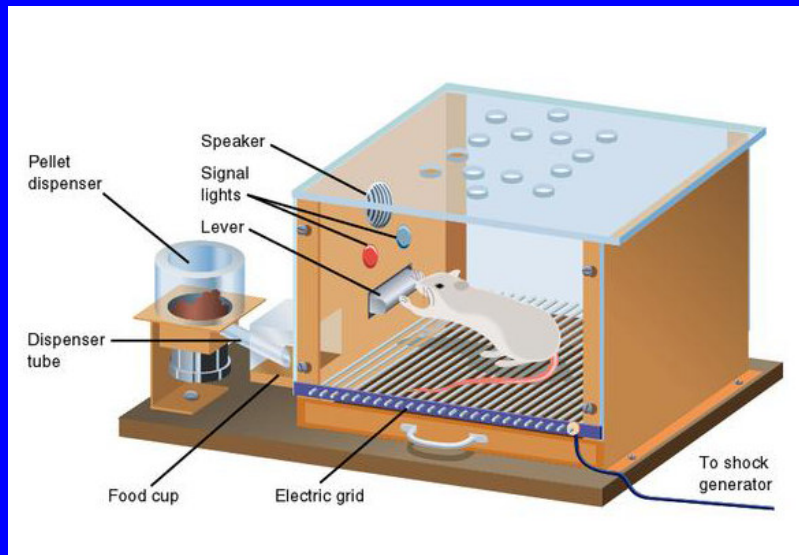
*One flew over the cuckoo's nest*

# Associative learning 2 - Operant conditioning

(also called instrumental conditioning)

Learning by trial and error

“Animal learns to associate a voluntary action with the consequences that follow from performing it” (Alcock)

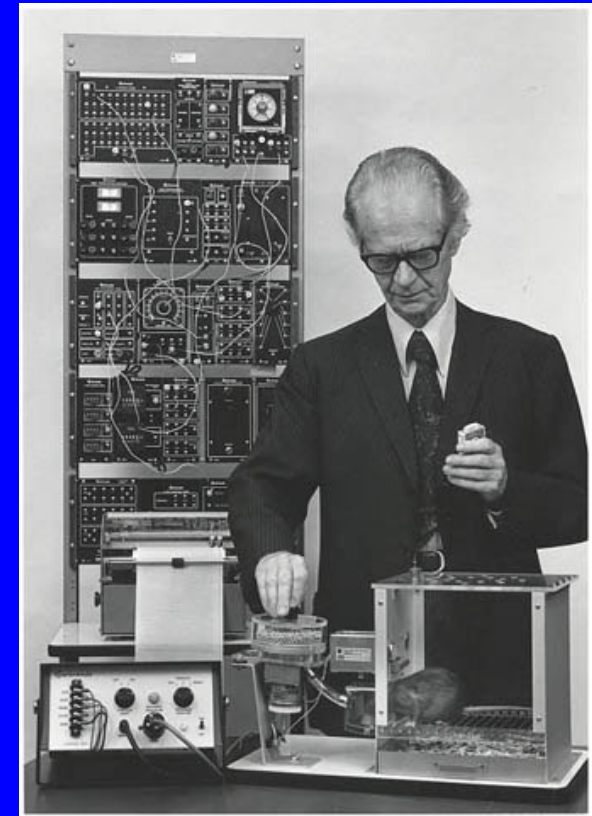


Chance behaviour strengthened via (positive) reinforcement

Example: lever pressing rat in Skinner box

# Instrumental (operant) conditioning or trial-and-error learning

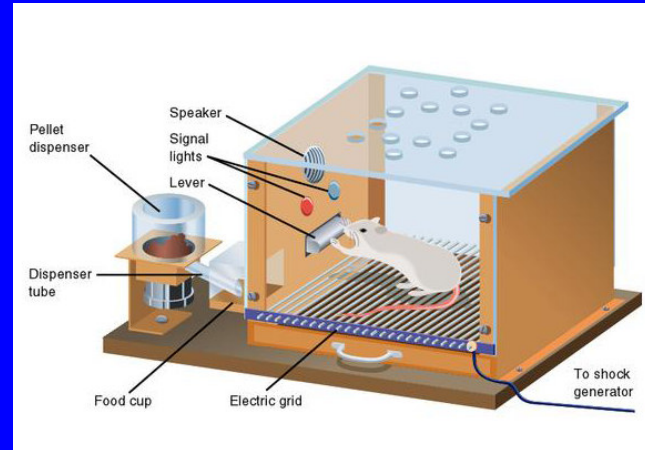
Burrhus F. Skinner  
1904-1990



Skinner built a playpen for his children with toys designed to promote learning and creative behaviour through operant conditioning

# Operant (instrumental) conditioning

Rat in Skinner box



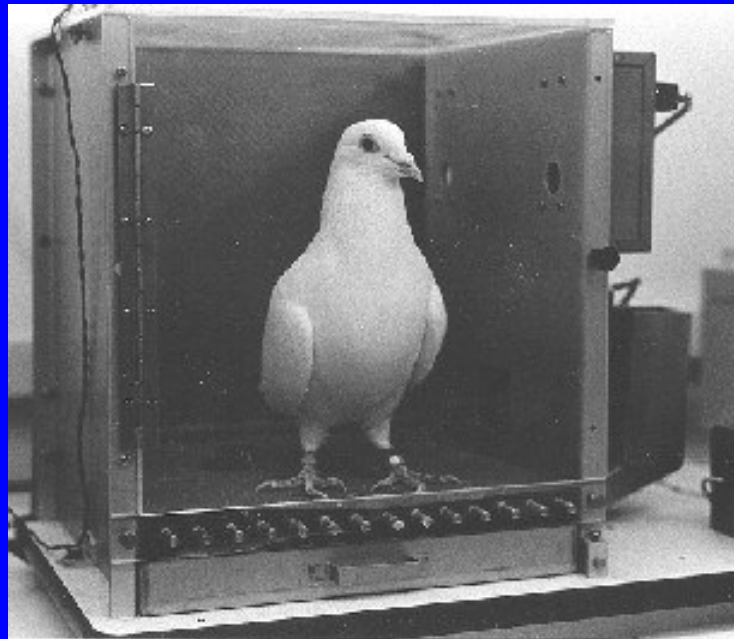
**1. Reinforcement** strengthens a behaviour:

- a) **Positive reinforcement** by providing a consequence an individual finds rewarding (e.g. food when lever pressed)
- b) **Negative reinforcement** by removing an aversive stimulus (e.g. electric current until lever pressed)

**2. Punishment** weakens a behaviour by application of an aversive stimulus in response (shock when lever pressed)

# Superstition in the pigeon

When the animal behaves as if its action and an event are related, when in fact they are not.

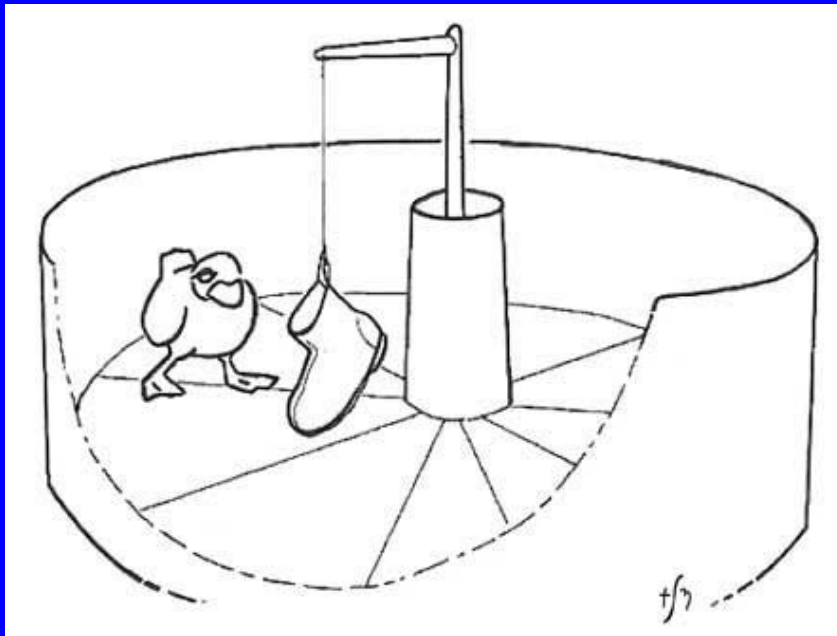


(Skinner BF 1948)

# Imprinting

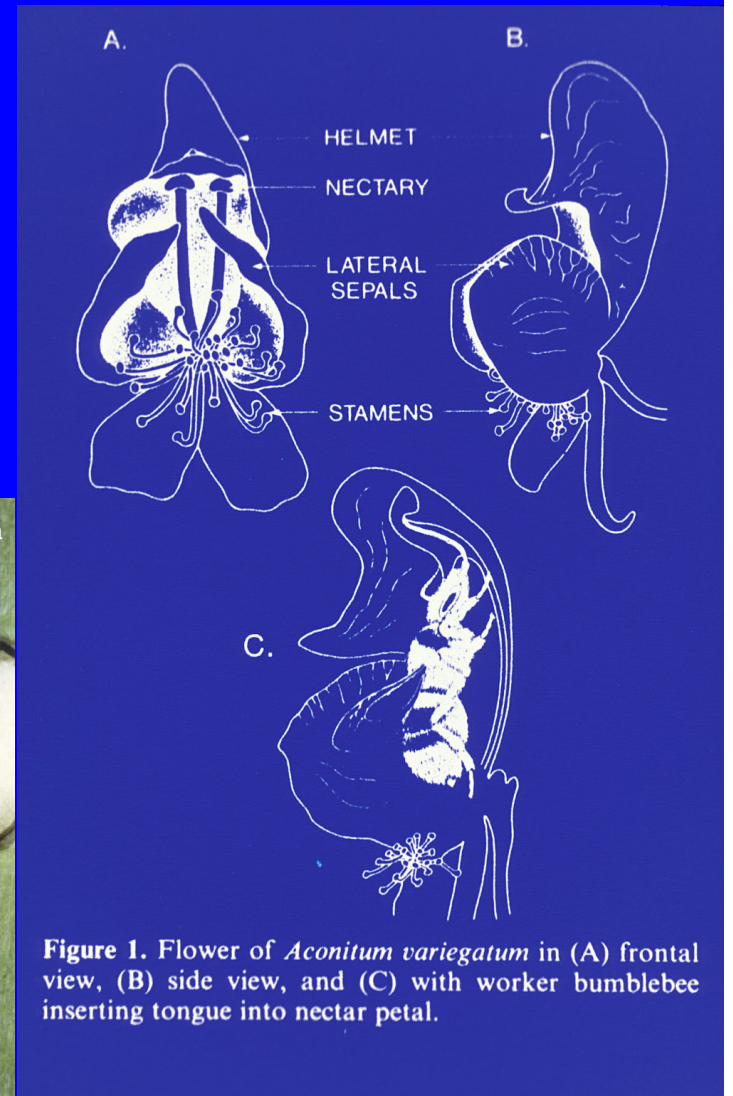
Irreversible learning that occurs in a critical time window.

Example: young birds after hatching get imprinted on a parental image in some species.



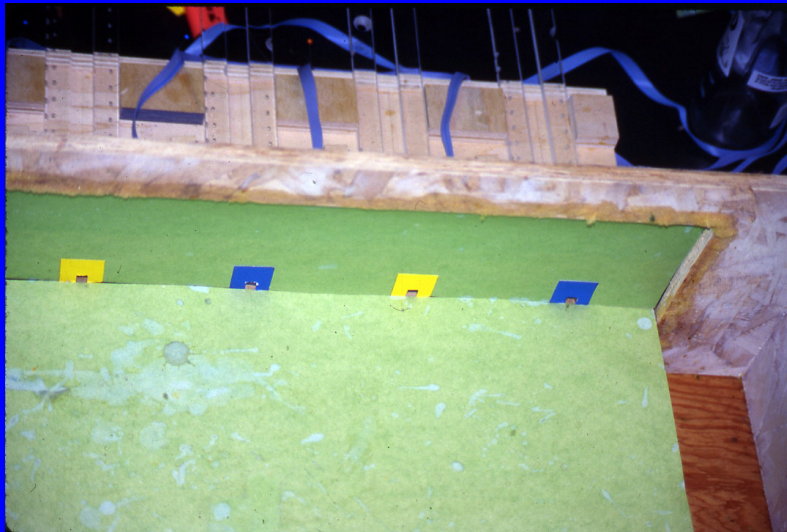
# Motor learning

Learning improves speed, accuracy and smoothness of movements (motor skills)

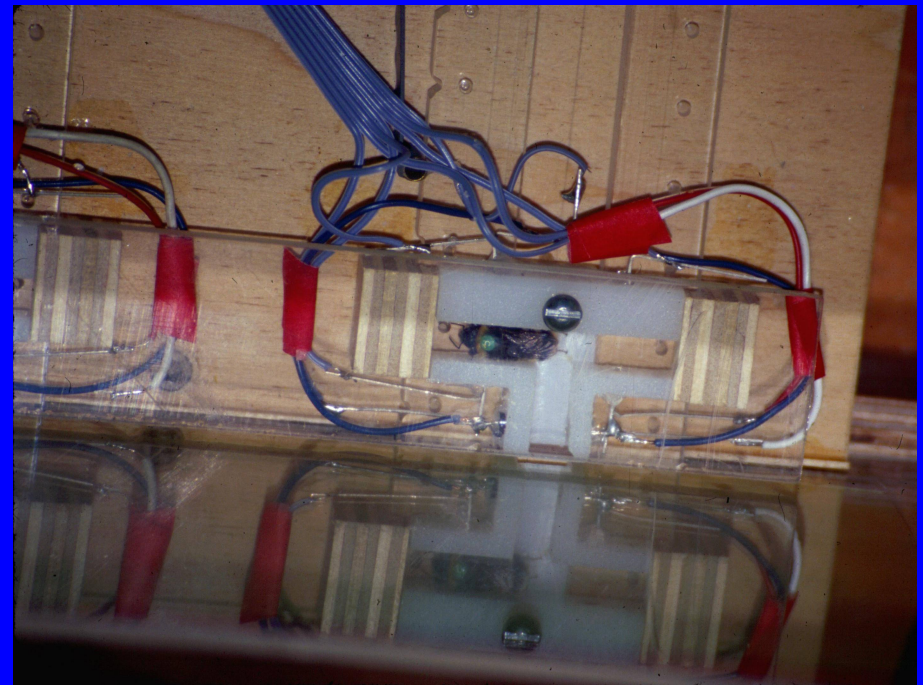


# Motor learning in artificial flowers

Bees must perform different behaviours depending on flower colour

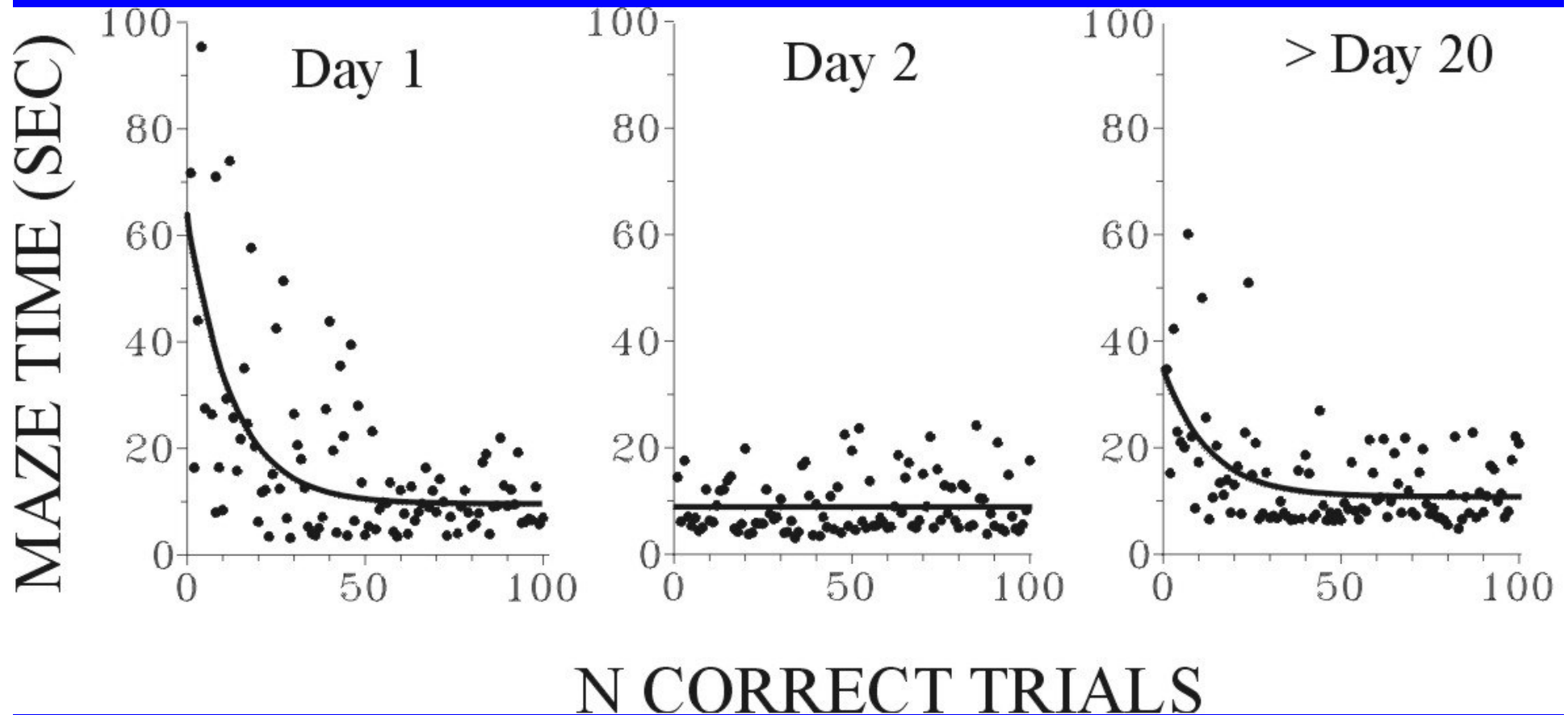


T-shaped flowers:  
yellow - rewards in left arm  
blue – rewards in right arm



Yellow flower

# Learning to handle flowers in bumblebees

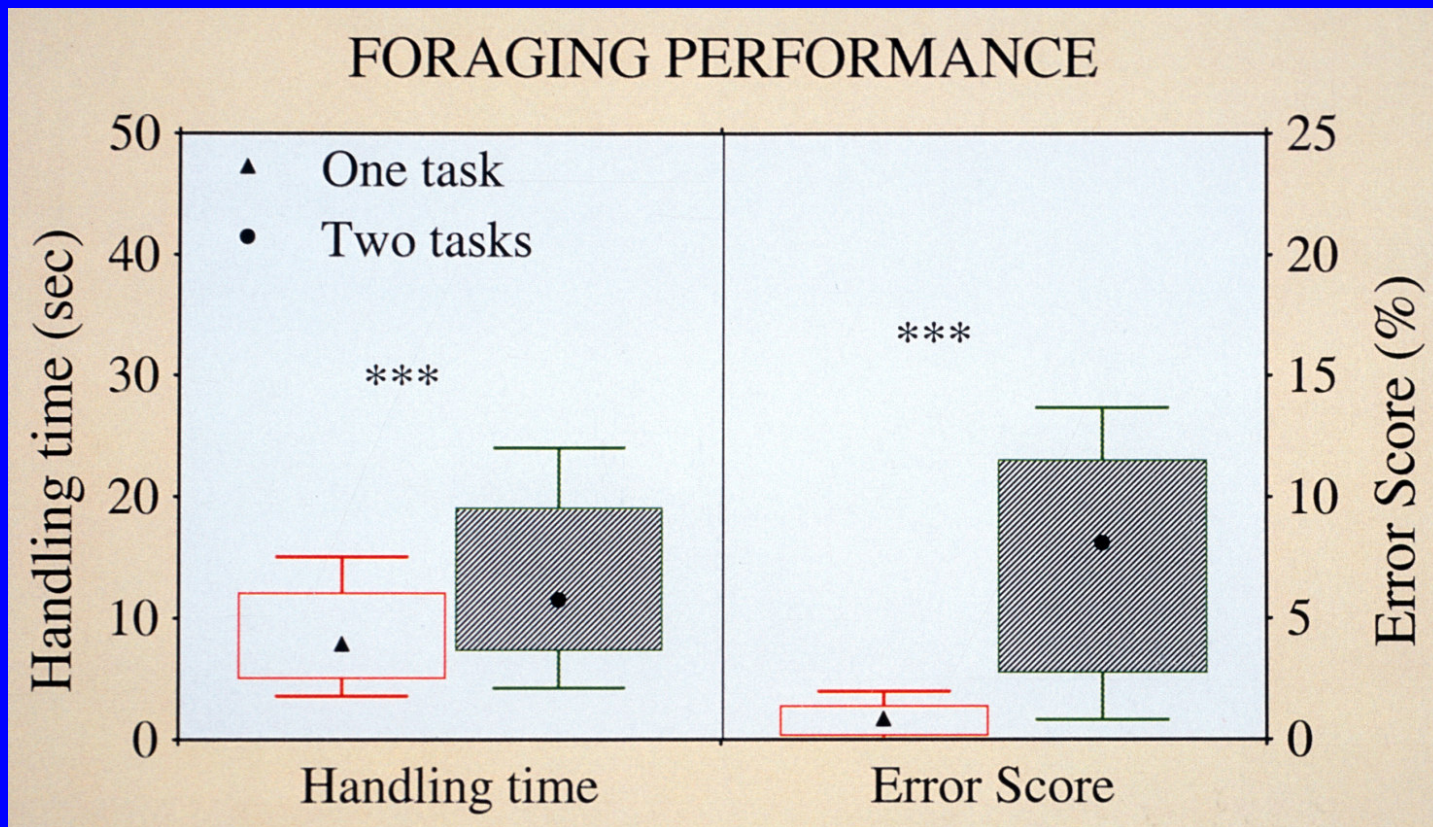


Chittka (1998) J Exp Biol 201: 515

Performance improves with experience

Skill re-learned quickly after long delay (18 days)

# Bumblebees can juggle two motor tasks, but with lower efficiency



Handling time and error rates both increase when handling the same flower species after switching from another species.

# Social learning in animals



**FIGURE 1.16: Two rats smell one another**

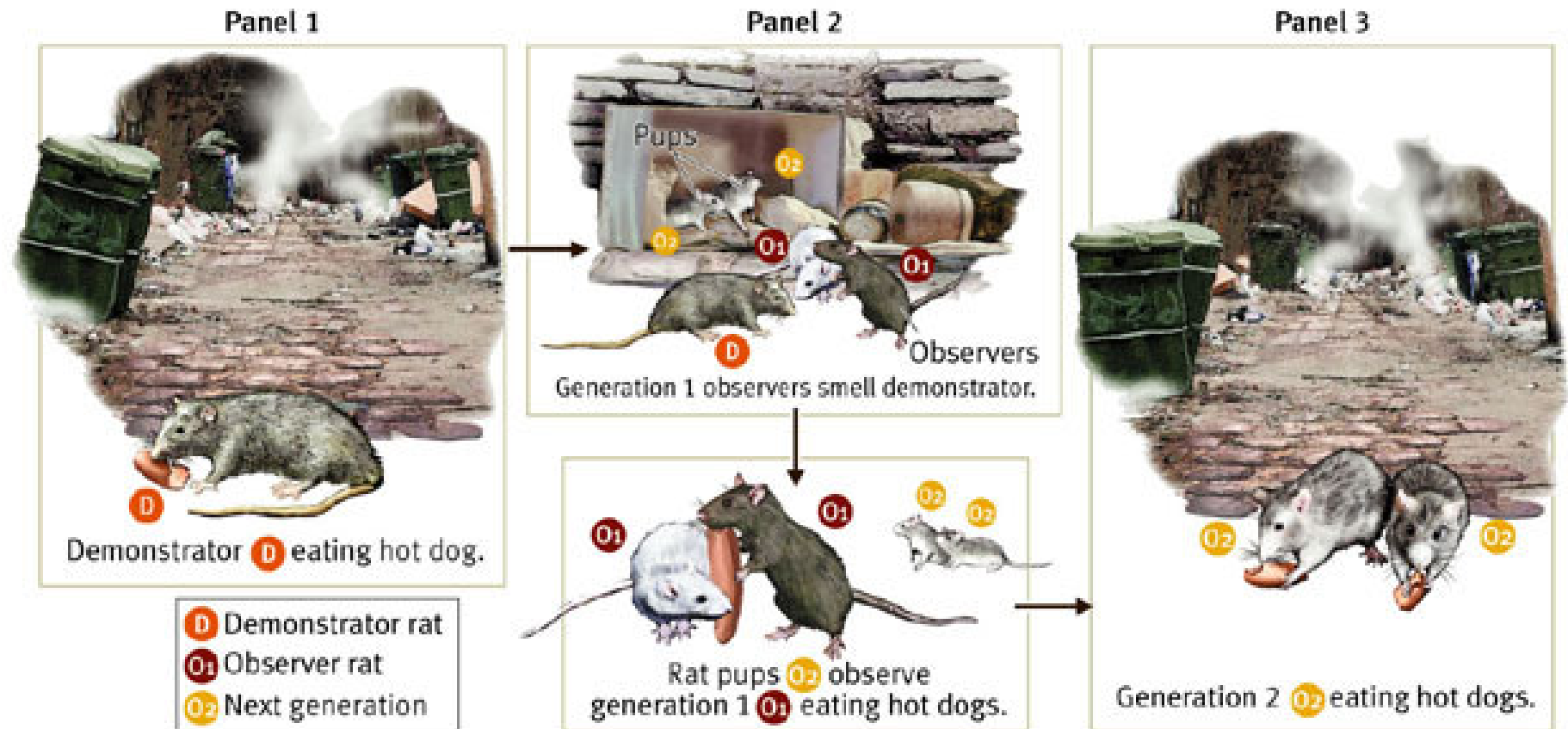
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Learning or obtaining information from other individuals  
(e.g. learning by observation):

From parents/ family, peers or others in the community

# Social learning in rats



**FIGURE 1.18: A role for cultural transmission**

# Social learning in insects: the honeybee waggle dance



Photo Scott Camazine



# Summary

Know the various forms of learning, e.g. habituation, sensitisation, classical conditioning, operant learning, motor learning, social learning

For those interested: also read up on: insight learning, learning to use tools, and language acquisition