# Chapter Six LEARNING

## Review of Key Ideas

#### CLASSICAL CONDITIONING

Descr learni	ibe Pavlov's demonstration of classical conditioning and the key elements in this form of ing.
1-1.	Classical conditioning is a type of learning that occurs when two stimuli are paired or associated closely in time. In Pavlov's initial demonstration, the two stimuli were a bell and
1-2.	The response to one of the two stimuli occurs naturally and does not have to be learned or acquired through conditioning. This "unlearned" stimulus, in this case the food, is technically known as the stimulus.
1-3.	The other stimulus is said to be neutral in the sense that it does not initially produce a response. When a response to this neutral stimulus is <i>acquired</i> or <i>learned</i> , the technical name for it is thestimulus. In Pavlov's initial study the conditioned stimulus was the sound of a
1-4.	The unconditioned stimulus in Pavlov's original study was the and the conditioned
	response; salivation to the bell is termed the response.
1-5.	Label the parts of the classical conditioning sequence. Place the commonly used abbreviations for these terms in the parentheses.
	(a) meat:( )
	(b) salivation to meat: (
	(c) bell:(
	(d) salivation to bell:(

Answers: 1-1. meat powder (food) 1-2. unconditioned 1-3. conditioned, bell 1-4. meat powder, bell, unconditioned, conditioned 1-5. (a) unconditioned stimulus (UCS) (b) unconditioned response (UCR) (c) conditioned stimulus (CS) (d) conditioned response (CR).

2.	Discuss how classical conditioning may shape phobias and physiological processes, inc	luding
	sexual arousal.	-

2-1.	day someone got stuck in the tunnel and couldn't get out. Eventually he got out, but after that he didn't want to play in tunnels again. To this day that person still has an intense fear not only of tunnels but of
	closed-in spaces in general. Label the parts of the classical conditioning process involved in the acquisi-
	tion of the phobia of closed-in spaces. Use the abbreviations CS, CR, UCS, and UCR. (Hint: Even
	though "getting stuck" involves a behavior or response, it also has stimulus components.)
	getting stuck
	fear produced by getting stuck
	tunnels and closed-in spaces
	fear of tunnels and closed-in spaces
2-2.	The individual described above had developed an intense fear or phobia, acquired in part through the process of conditioning. Other emotions can be conditioned as well. For example, the smell of smoke and Beemans' gum described in your text, the playing of "our song," and the sight of one's home after a long absence could all produce a pleasant emotional response (or perhaps a slightly weepy, sentimental feeling). The emotional responses to such smells, sounds, or sights are learned, so the stimuli that produce these responses would be considered stimuli
2-3.	Similarly, certain physiological responses can be conditioned. Label the parts of the conditioning process in the study on immunosuppression in rats described in the text. (Use the abbreviations CS, CR, UCS, and UCR.)
	the immunosuppressive drug
	unusual taste
	decreased antibody production produced by the drug
	decreased antibody production produced by the taste
2-4.	Sexual arousal can be classically conditioned as well. In quail as in humans, stimuli routinely paired with sex (e.g., red lights in the quail study; lingerie, mood music, etc. in humans) evidently become stimuli for sexual arousal.
2-5.	In one variation of Domjan's studies with quail the conditioned stimuli even produced an increased
	release of in males, a conditioned response with a clear evolutionary advantage.
	One implication of this study for evolutionary theory, then, is that the capacity for classical conditioning,
	in this case conditioning of sexual arousal, has value for a species.
	rs: 2-1. UCS, UCR, CS, CR 2-2. classical, conditioned 2-3. UCS, CS, UCR, CR 2-4. conditioned 2-5. sperm, I (adaptive).

	recovery.		
	3-1.	Acquisition of a conditioned response occurs when the CS and UCS are contiguous, or paired. Not all pairings result in conditioning, however. What characteristics of a CS are more likely to produce acquisition of a CR?	
	3-2.	Acquisition refers to the formation of a conditioned response. What is the term that refers to the weakening or disappearance of a CR?	
	3-3.	Extinction in classical conditioning occurs when the stimulus is presented <i>alone</i> , without the stimulus.	
	3-4.	After CRs are extinguished they may reappear, even without further conditioning.	
		(a) For example, after extinction of a response, a dog may again show the conditioned response (e.g., salivation to a bell) when returned to the apparatus in which it was originally conditioned. What is the name of this type of "reappearance" of the CR?	
		(b) When, or under what circumstance, is spontaneous recovery likely to occur?	
		(c) If an animal is extinguished in a different environment from the one in which conditioning took place, it is likely to again show a CR when returned to the original environment. What is the name of this effect?	
	tioned, 1	s: 3-1. A novel or particularly intense CS is more likely to produce conditioning. 3-2. extinction 3-3. conditioned 3-4. (a) spontaneous recovery (b) after extinction, following a period of nonexposure to the CS enewal effect.	
4.	Describe the processes of generalization and discrimination and summarize the classic study of Little Albert.		
	4-1.	With regard to the case of Little Albert:	
		(a) What was the CS?	
		(b) The UCS?	
	4-2.	Albert was also afraid of white dogs and white rabbits. What is the name of the process that resulted in his acquisition of these additional fear responses?	
	4-3.	Why would Albert be more likely to develop a fear of a white rabbit, say, than a white car or a dark horse?	
	4-4.	The more similar stimuli are to the CS, the more likely the organism will from the CS to the other stimuli. The less similar stimuli are to the CS, the more likely the organism is to them from the CS.	

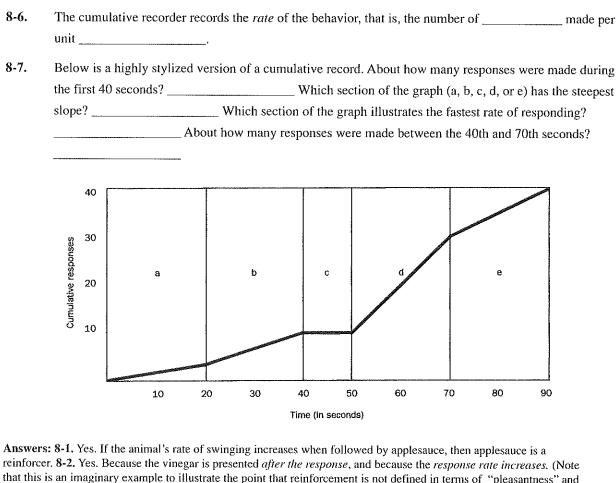
3. Describe the classical conditioning phenomena of acquisition, extinction, and spontaneous

	4-5.	Casey (R.S.'s cat, now deceased) salivated when she heard the sound of food being dumped into her
		bowl. The process by which this salivary response was learned is conditioning.
		The food is a(an) ( <u>CS/UCS/CR/UCR</u> ). The sound of the food is a(an) ( <u>CS/UCS/CR/UCR</u> ). Salivation to
		the sound is a(an) ( <u>CS/UCS/CR/UCR</u> ).
	4-6.	Pets are also likely to salivate when they hear other, similar sounds, like bags rustling in the kitchen or
		dishes being pulled from the cupboard. Salivation to these other sounds represents stimulus
	4-7.	With continued training, in which food is paired only with the sound of food entering the bowl and not
		with the other sounds, the animal will learn to salivate only to the rattling bowl. The process of learning
		to respond only to one particular stimulus and not to a range of similar stimuli is termed
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	stimuli	rs: 4-1. (a) a white rat (b) a loud noise 4-2. generalization 4-3. Because of similarity. The more similar the other to the CS, the more likely generalization is to occur. 4-4. generalize, discriminate 4-5. classical, UCS, CS, CR neralization 4-7. discrimination.
5.	Expla	in what happens in higher-order conditioning.
	5-1.	Suppose that a <i>bell</i> and <i>meat powder</i> are paired, as in the original Pavlovian study. At some point a
		conditioned salivary response will occur to the bell. Suppose that in a new series of trials a clicking sound
		(a new, neutral stimulus) is paired with the bell. Assuming that the stimuli are potent enough, that the
		timing is right, and so on, a response will occur to the clicking sound.
	5-2.	This process, in which a stimulus that previously functioned as a "learned" or <i>conditioned</i> stimulus is
		used as an <i>unconditioned</i> stimulus, is known as conditioning.
	5-3.	In our example, in which the clicking sound and bell were paired, which stimulus acted as the UCS?
	Answe	rs: 5-1, conditioned 5-2, higher-order 5-3, the bell.
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6.		ss the nature of operant responding in comparison to the types of responding typically ned by classical conditioning.
	6-1.	A major feature of Pavlovian or classical conditioning is that conditioned responses occur when two
		stimuli are paired or associated. For example, when a sound and food are paired together, a conditioned
		salivary response occurs to the
	6-2.	In contrast, in operant conditioning, learning or conditioning occurs from stimuli that (precede/follow)
		the response, the stimuli that are the "payoff" or of that particular behavior.
	6-3.	Learning theorists originally supposed that the two types of conditioning controlled different types of
		responses, that classical conditioning controlled reflexive or (voluntary/involuntary) responses (such as
		salivation or leg flexion) while operant conditioning controlled voluntary responses. While this distinc-
		tion holds up (all of the time/much of the time), it is now clear that the only absolute distinction is in
		terms of procedure.

96 CHAPTER SIX

Answers: 6-1. sound 6-2. follow, reinforcers (consequence) 6-3. involuntary, much of the time.

7.	Describe Thorndike's work and explain his law of effect.			
	7-1.	E. L. Thorndike's pioneering work on what he referred to as learning provided the foundation for Skinner's conditioning.		
	7-2.	According to Thorndike's law of, if a response leads to a <i>satisfying effect</i> in the presence of a stimulus, the association between the stimulus and response is strengthened. Thorndike's law of effect is similar to Skinner's concept of reinforcement: both emphasize the of behavior.		
	Answer	s: 7-1. instrumental, operant 7-2. effect, consequences.		
8.	Describe Skinner's principle of reinforcement and the prototype experimental procedures used in studies of operant conditioning.			
	8-1.	A reinforcer is a stimulus or event that (1) is presented <i>after</i> a response and that (2) increases the tendency for the response to be repeated. Apply that definition to this example: Grundoon, a captive monkey, occasionally swings on a bar in his cage. Suppose that at some point Grundoon's trainers decide to give him a spoonful of applesauce whenever he swings. Is the applesauce a reinforcer? In terms of the definition above, how do you know that applesauce is a reinforcer?		
	8-2.	The trainers switch to vinegar. Grundoon, an unusual primate, swings quite frequently when this behavior is followed by vinegar. Is vinegar a reinforcer here? How do you know?		
	8-3.	The trainers try another approach. They present Grundoon with fresh fruit <i>just before</i> they think he is likely to jump. It so happens that Grundoon's rate of jumping does increase. Is the fruit a reinforcer here? Why or why not?		
	8-4.	The prototypic apparatus used in operant conditioning studies is the operant chamber, better known as the On one wall of the chamber is mounted a manipulandum, a device that makes for an easily discernible response. For rats, the manipulandum is usually a small; for pigeons, the device is a that the bird learns to peck.		
	8-5.	A press of the lever or peck at the disk may produce a reinforcer, generally a small bit of food dispensed into the food cup mounted to one side or below the manipulandum. Each of these responses is recorded on a		



Answers: 8-1. Yes. If the animal's rate of swinging increases when followed by applesauce, then applesauce is a reinforcer. 8-2. Yes. Because the vinegar is presented after the response, and because the response rate increases. (Note that this is an imaginary example to illustrate the point that reinforcement is not defined in terms of "pleasantness" and "unpleasantness," which are unobservable subjective judgments. Instead, reinforcement is defined in terms of strengthening of a response tendency by the events that follow the responses. I don't know of any monkeys that will respond for vinegar. I doubt that there are any.) 8-3. No. Reinforcing stimuli, by definition, follow the response. (Again, this is a contrived example just to illustrate the definition.) 8-4. Skinner box, lever (or bar), disk 8-5. cumulative recorder 8-6. responses, time 8-7. 10, d, d, 20.

#### 9. Describe the operant conditioning phenomena of acquisition, shaping, and extinction.

- 9-1. Acquisition refers to the formation of new responses. In classical conditioning, acquisition occurs through a simple pairing of the CS and UCS. In operant conditioning, acquisition usually involves the procedure known as \_\_\_\_\_\_.
- **9-2.** What is shaping? When is it used?
- 9-3. Extinction in classical conditioning involves removing the UCS while still presenting the CS.
  - (a) What is the extinction procedure in operant conditioning?
  - (b) What is the effect of extinction on behavior (response rate)?
  - (c) What does the term resistance to extinction mean?

98 CHAPTER SIX

Answers: 9-1. shaping 9-2. Shaping is the process of reinforcing closer and closer approximations to the desired behavior. It is used in the formation of a new response. 9-3. (a) No longer presenting the reinforcers after a response. (b) Response rate decreases and may eventually stop. (c) Animals may continue to respond, for a period of time, even when reinforcers are no longer presented. The extent to which they will *continue to respond during extinction* is referred to as *resistance* to extinction.

10.	-	in how stimuli govern operant behavior and how generalization and discrimination occur in nt conditioning.
	10-1.	Suppose that a rat has been shaped so that when it presses a lever it receives a food pellet. With further

10-1.	Suppose that a rat has been shaped so that when it presses a lever it receives a food pellet. With further training, the rat may respond only when a light (or sound, etc.) in the chamber is on and not when it is				
		se) is a The light (which precedes			
	the response) is astim				
10-2.	Reinforcers occur ( <u>after/before</u> ) the response occurs.				
10-3.		orces a response only in the presence of a particular			
10-5.		imulus will gain control of the response: Animals will tend			
	to emit the response only if the discriminative				
10-4.	For example, rats can be trained to press a lever when a light comes on and not to press when the light is off. Lever presses that occur when the light is on are followed by a food pellet; those that occur in the dark are not. Label each component of this operant-conditioning process by placing the appropriate letters in the blanks below.				
	light	a, discriminative stimulus			
	lever press	b. response			
	food	c, reinforcer			
10-5.	"Heel Fido!" says Ralph. Fido runs to Ralph's side. Fido gets a pat on the head. Label the parts of the operant conditioning sequence by placing the appropriate letters in the blanks. (To avoid confusion, the behavior or response of interest in this example is already labeled.)				
	"Heel Fido!"	a. discriminative stimulus			
	Fido gets a pat on the head.	b. response			
	b Fido runs to Ralph's side.	c. reinforcer			
10-6.	*	ter Ralph promises to pay her back. Ralph is also careful to re looking at here is Phyllis's lending behavior.			
	"Thank you very much, Phyllis."	a. discriminative stimulus			
	b Phyllis lends.	b. response			
	"I promise I'll pay you back."	c, reinforcer			

	10-7.	Generalization occurs in operant as well as classical conditioning. For example, when I put dishes in the sink, our cat would <i>run to her bowl</i> looking for food. In technical terms, our cat		
		between the sound of food dropping in her bowl and the <i>similar</i> sound of dishes going into the sink.  Despite the fact that food does not follow the sound of clattering dishes, our cat did <i>not</i> learn to between the sounds in our kitchen.		
	Answe	rs: 10-1, reinforcer, discriminative 10-2, after, before 10-3, present, absent 10-4, a, b, c 10-5, a, c, (b) 10-6, c, 0-7, generalizes, discriminate.		
11.	Distin	nguish between primary and secondary reinforcers.		
	11-1.	Define the following:		
		(a) Primary reinforcer:		
		(b) Secondary or conditioned reinforcer:		
	seconda	rs: 11-1. (a) A primary reinforcer satisfies biological needs, such as needs for food, water, warmth and sex. (b) A ary, or conditioned, reinforcer is one that is learned or acquired through association with a primary reinforcer. nans, secondary reinforcers may include praise, attention, and money.		
12.	Identify various types of schedules of reinforcement and discuss their typical effects on responding.			
	12-1.	Schedules of reinforcement are either continuous or intermittent. If reinforcers follow each response, the schedule is referred to as a/anreinforcement schedule, abbreviated CRF. If reinforcers only follow some responses and not others (e.g., FR, VR), or occur as a function of the passage of time (e.g., FI, VI), the schedule is referred to as a/an schedule.		
	12-2.	Identify the following schedules of reinforcement by placing the appropriate abbreviations in the blanks: continuous reinforcement (CRF), fixed ratio (FR), variable ratio (VR), fixed interval (FI), variable interval (VI).		
		A pigeon is reinforced whenever it has pecked a disk exactly 20 times.		
		A pigeon is reinforced for pecking a disk, on the average, 20 times.		
		A rat is always reinforced for the first response that follows a two-minute interval.		
		A slot machine delivers a payoff, on the average, after every 10th pull of the lever.		
		Every time the pigeon pecks a disk, it receives a pellet of food.		
		A rat is reinforced, on the average, for the first response following a two-minute interval.		
		A pig is reinforced for the first response after 30 seconds, then for the first response after 42 seconds, then for the first response after five seconds, and so on.		
		Every two weeks Ralph picks up his payroll check at the office.		
		A rat is reinforced after the 73rd response, then after the 22nd response, then after the 51st response, and so on.		

100

	12-3.	is the general effect of the intermittent schedules of reinforcement on resistance to extinction?
	12-4.	In terms of the effect on <i>rate</i> of responding, what is the general difference between the <i>ratio</i> schedules (FR and VR) and the <i>interval</i> schedules (FI and VI)?
	12-5.	In terms of the effect on <i>pattern</i> of responding, what is the general difference between <i>fixed</i> schedules and <i>variable</i> schedules?
	schedule interval	s: 12-1. continuous, intermittent (or partial) 12-2. FR, VR, FI, VR, CRF, VI, VI, FI, VR 12-3. The intermittent is increase resistance to extinction. 12-4. Ratio schedules tend to produce more rapid responding than the schedules. 12-5. Variable schedules tend to produce more regular patterns of responding, without pauses or ng, than do their fixed counterparts. They also result in more resistance to extinction.
13.	Explai	n the distinction between positive and negative reinforcement.
	13-1.	Some Skinner boxes may be set up so that a mild electric shock can be delivered to the feet of the animal through the floor of the box. Suppose that whenever the animal presses the bar, the shock is turned off for a period of time. Will the lever-pressing behavior be strengthened or weakened?
	13-2.	By definition, what effect does reinforcement have on behavior? What is the effect of positive reinforcement on behavior? Negative reinforcement?
	13-3.	With positive reinforcement, a stimulus is <i>presented</i> after the response. What is the procedure with negative reinforcement?
	Answei negativ	s: 13-1. strengthened 13-2. Reinforcement strengthens (increases the frequency of) behavior. Both positive and e reinforcement strengthen behavior. 13-3. The stimulus (an aversive stimulus) is <i>removed</i> after the response.
14.	Descr	ibe and distinguish between escape learning and avoidance learning.
	14-1.	Review the section on escape and avoidance learning. In escape learning the animal first experiences the aversive stimulus and then makes a response that escapes it. In avoidance learning the animal responds to a cue that permits it to respond <i>before</i> the aversive stimulus is delivered, thereby avoiding it altogether. Label the following examples E for escape and A for avoidance.
		The weather has changed and Fred is getting cold. He goes inside.
		Little Sandra rapidly removes her hand from the hot stove.
LEARN	∛ING	101

		Randolph has been told that he will be mugged if he goes outside, so he stays inside.
		Sue has learned some new verbal behavior. If she simply says, "No, I don't want that" shortly after a salesman starts his pitch, the salesman will stop bothering her.
		Alice sees Ruppert in the distance. If Ruppert sees her he will ask for her course notes, which she doesn't want to lend him. She heads in the other direction.
	14-2.	What is the major difference between escape learning and avoidance learning?
	the anin	rs: 14-1. E, E, A, A, E, A 14-2. The major difference is that with escape learning there is no cue stimulus, so that mal must first experience the aversive stimulus and then <i>escape</i> it. In the case of avoidance learning, a cue are the aversive stimulus permits the animal to <i>avoid</i> the aversive event altogether.
15.	Descri	be punishment and its effects.
	15-1.	Punishment involves <i>weakening</i> a response by presenting an aversive stimulus after the response has occurred. Review the concepts of reinforcement and punishment by labeling each of the following with one of these terms: <i>positive reinforcement</i> , <i>negative reinforcement</i> , or <i>punishment</i> .
		(a) A stimulus is presented after the response; response rate increases:
		(b) A stimulus is <i>presented</i> after the response; response rate decreases:
		(c) A stimulus is removed after the response; response rate increases:
	15-2.	Response rate increases. Which of the following procedures may have been used?
		a. positive reinforcement
		b. negative reinforcement c. punishment
		d. either a or b above
	15-3.	Response rate <i>decreases</i> . Which of the following procedures may have been used?
		a. positive reinforcement
		b. negative reinforcement
		c. punishment d. either $b$ or $c$ above
	15-4.	
	15-4.	When a rat presses a bar in an operant chamber, the electric shock stops. Bar pressing increases. What procedure has been used?
		a. positive reinforcement
		b. negative reinforcement
		c. punishment
		d. extinction

A cue light comes on in the dog's shuttle box. It jumps the hurdle to the other side.

- 15-5. When the dog ran after the car, his master immediately threw a bucket of water on him. This sequence of events was repeated only twice, and the dog stopped running after the car. What has occurred?
  - a. positive reinforcement
  - b. negative reinforcement
  - c. punishment
  - d. extinction
- **15-6.** When Randolph stepped out in his new outfit, everyone stared. If Randolph tends *not* to wear this outfit in the future, what has occurred?
  - a. positive reinforcement
  - b. negative reinforcement
  - c. punishment
  - d, extinction
- 15-7. In the space below list three negative side effects of punishment.

Answers: 15-1. (a) positive reinforcement (b) punishment (c) negative reinforcement 15-2. d, because if response rate increases, either positive or negative reinforcement may be involved 15-3. c. Not d, because negative reinforcement increases response rate. 15-4. b 15-5. c 15-6. c 15-7. Punishment may (1) suppress responses in general rather than just the response punished, (2) produce unwanted emotional responses, including fear and anger, and (3) increase aggressive behavior.

#### 16. Discuss research on the side effects of punishment as a disciplinary procedure.

- 16-1. A recent comprehensive review of research on punishment of children concluded that (<u>physical punishment/time out</u>) is associated with increased aggression and, in adulthood, criminal and other undesirable behaviors.
- 16-2. Critics have raised questions about these conclusions. For example, it is possible that punishment does not cause aggression in children but that aggression in children causes them to be punished. The studies are, after all, (experimental/correlational), so cause-effect conclusions are difficult to make.
- 16-3. Critics also point out that the review (<u>did/did not</u>) distinguish between occasional mild physical punishment and harsh abusive punishment. Experts are unanimously opposed to harsh physical punishment, but judicious use of occasional mild spanking (<u>is known to/may not</u>) have negative effects.
- 16-4. The text suggests the following guidelines for use of punishment: (a) Apply punishment (<u>immediately/after a delay</u>). (b) Use a level of punishment that is the (<u>most/least</u>) severe to be effective. (c) When administering punishment (<u>explain/do not explain</u>) why it is being given. (e) In general, when employing punishment try to use (<u>physical punishment/withdrawal of privileges</u>).

Answers: 16-1. physical punishment 16-2. correlational 16-3. did not, may not 16-4. (a) immediately (b) least (c) explain (d) withdrawal of privileges.

LEARNING 103

CHA	CHANGING DIRECTIONS IN THE STUDY OF CONDITIONING		
17.	Discu	iss the phenomena of instinctive drift and conditioned taste aversion.	
	17-1.	What is instinctive drift?	
	17-2.	Why was the occurrence of instinctive drift surprising to operant psychologists? Discuss this question in terms of the supposed <i>generality</i> of the laws of learning.	
	17-3.	What is conditioned taste aversion?	
	17-4.	Why is the occurrence of conditioned taste aversion surprising? Discuss this question in terms of classical conditioning relating to (1) CS-UCS delays and (2) the sense of taste compared with other senses.	
18.	17-2. B condition innate the condition sickness: 17-4. It (2) taste fairly earlierly the helps the	rs: 17-1. It is the tendency for instinctive or innate behavior to interfere with the process of conditioning, efore the 1960s, operant psychologists assumed that any response that animals could emit could readily be oned. This did not turn out to be true. Animals may exhibit instinctive drift, the tendency to respond with certain pehaviors that actually interfere with the process of conditioning. 17-3. It refers to the somewhat unusual oning involving taste and nausea. If the distinctive taste of a particular food is followed some hours later by a (nausea, vomiting, etc.), that taste will become aversive and will itself come to elicit the response of nausea, is surprising because (1) classical conditioning generally does not occur if there are long CS-UCS delays, and e is only one of several senses stimulated in this situation. Garcia concluded that the tendency for animals to usily associate taste (as opposed to sight, sound, etc.) with sickness has survival value for a species in that it em avoid poisonous food in the future.	
18.	Explain the ev	in Domjan's ideas on the importance of ecologically relevant conditioned stimuli and discuss olutionary perspective on learning.	
	18-1.	Domjan (2005) proposes that taste aversion is not a unique phenomenon but represents the rapid conditioning that may occur when the CS is ( <u>neutral/ecologically relevant</u> ) with regard to the UCS. Such a CS-UCS relationship generally occurs in ( <u>the laboratory/natural environment</u> ).	
	18-2.	In a traditional laboratory conditioning experiment, the CS is an arbitrary orstimulus. For example, a tone or clicking sound may be artificially paired with food. In the natural environment, the CS is not "neutral" but is generally relevant to the UCS. For	

104 CHAPTER SIX

conditioning may occur (more/less) rapidly, may be more resistant to extinction, etc.

18-3.

example, in the natural environment food is not preceded by a bell but by specific smells or tastes; copulation by specific mating signals; danger from animals by specific sounds or smells, etc.

For Domjan species-specific differences in conditioning are the norm rather than the exception, and he urges researchers to shift their focus from the study of neutral to ecologically relevant CS-UCS pairings. When more naturally related CS-UCS associations are used, several differences are likely to occur:

18-4.	While most learning psychologists currently agree that differing evolutionary demands have produced differences in conditioning across species, they still maintain that there are highly general or laws of learning. Taking a more radical view, some evolutionary psychologists					
	propose that learning in different species has evolved along different paths; they assert that there (are/are not) universal principles of learning.					
Answer	s: 18-1. ecologically relevant, natural environment 18-2. neutral, ecologically 18-3. more 18-4. universal, are					
	ibe research on latent learning, signal relations, and response-outcome relations, and n their theoretical importance.					
19-1.	Is reinforcement really needed for learning, as traditional learning theorists have contended? In the 1940s Edward C. Tolman, an early dissenter from conventional learning theory, found that rats allowed to wander a complicated maze without reinforcement learned to get to the goal box rapidly once food was presented. In fact, they learned as rapidly as another group of rats reinforced on every trial. What does this prove? First, rats appeared to learn the complicated series of left and right turns without ; second, they appeared to learn something about the layout of the maze, what					
	Tolman termed a map.					
19-2.	Tolman referred to this type of learning as learning. Latent learning is not apparent from behavior when it first occurs, but it appears later if the incentive is present. Tolman was prophetic, in a sense, well ahead of his time. His views were rejected by mainstream theorists for the next several decades but, as this chapter makes clear, current models of conditioning (include/do not include) cognition as a factor in conditioning.					
19-3.	In the example of a signal relations study described, the number of conditioning trials in which CS and UCS were paired was the same for two groups, 20 trials. The difference between the two treatment groups was that for one group the ( <u>CS/UCS</u> ) was presented <i>alone</i> for an additional series of 20 trials.					
19-4.	Theorists originally assumed that classical conditioning is an automatic, reflexive phenomenon that does not depend at all on higher mental processes. If that actually were true, then what should have been the effect of presenting the UCS alone for additional trials? Remember that both groups received exactly the same number of conditioning trials (CS-UCS pairings).  a. Extinction would occur.					
	b. The UCS-alone trials would weaken conditioning.					
	c. The UCS-alone trials would have no effect on conditioning.					
19-5.	In fact, what did occur in the signal relations studies?  a. Extinction.					
	b. The UCS-alone trials weakened conditioning.					
	c. The UCS-alone trials had no effect on conditioning.					

	19-6.	These results suggest that the CS signals the occurrence of the UCS and that additional trials with the
		UCS alone weaken the value of the CS. What is surprising about these results?
		Rather than being an automatic, mechanical process, these studies suggest that classical conditioning
		involves processes.
	19-7.	Response-outcome relations refers to the connection between an operant response and its consequences.
		For example, for a rat in a Skinner box the relationship between the lever press (the response) and the
		food pellet (the outcome) is this: the rat gets the food only if it presses the lever. In other words, the
		reinforcer is (contingent/not contingent) on the response.
	19-8.	But does the animal "know" the connection between the response and reinforcer, or is the connection
		stamped in automatically? That is the crux of the response-outcome relations issue. Evidence suggests that
		a. reinforcement and punishment are relatively automatic, mindless processes.
		b. cognition is not involved in an organism's responding in an operant chamber.
		<ul> <li>c. humans and other animals actively try to figure out the contingencies, the relationship between response and outcome.</li> </ul>
	19-9.	Thus, research on signal relations and response-outcome relations has forced the development of new
		theories that emphasize a much more explanation of conditioning, an explanation
		in which organisms actively attempt to detect the relationship between their behaviors and environmental
		events.
	19-10.	Why are the latent learning, signal relations (in classical conditioning) and response-outcome relations
		(in operant conditioning) studies surprising and of theoretical importance?
	extinction 19-10. T	rs: 19-1. reinforcement, cognitive 19-2. latent, include 19-3. UCS! (If the CS were presented alone, it would be on.) 19-4. c 19-5. b 19-6. signaling, cognitive (higher mental) 19-7. contingent 19-8. c 19-9. cognitive [These studies indicate that conditioning is not, as assumed earlier, an automatic process but instead depends to a rable degree on higher mental (cognitive) processes.
OBS	ERVATI	ONAL LEARNING
20.	Discus	ss the nature and importance of observational learning.
	20-1.	Observational learning occurs when an organism learns by observing others, who are called
		. This type of learning occurs in (humans/animals/both).
	20-2.	Why is the concept of observational learning so important? For one thing the idea was surprising to
		theorists who assumed that all learning could be accounted for by operant and classical conditioning. For
		another, it extends classical and operant conditioning to include not only <i>direct</i> experience but
		or vicarious experience. We learn not only when we behave but when we
		the behavior of others.
	20-3.	Bandura's theory has helped explain some puzzling aspects of conditioning in human behavior. For
		example, what happens when parents punish aggressive behavior in their children? While punishment by
		definition (increases/decreases) the behavior it follows, a parent using punishment also serves as a
		for aggressiveness. In this way events intended to decrease aggression may, in the
		longer run, aggression through the process of learning.

21.	List the basic processes in observational learning and discuss Bandura's view on whether
	reinforcement affects learning or performance.

21-1.	In the space below list and define the four processes that Bandura has identified as crucial components of observational learning. The first letter of each concept is listed at the left.
	A:
	R:
	R:
	M:
21-2.	Bandura asked the question that Tolman asked decades earlier: Is reinforcement essential for learning?
	Many learning theorists used to think so, but in Bandura's view reinforcement is essential only for
	( <u>learning/performance</u> ). Bandura asserts that we may learn without being reinforced simply by
	the behavior of a model, but we are unlikely to perform the response unless we
	are for doing so.
mental :	rs: 21-1. Attention: Paying attention to a model's behavior and consequences. Retention: Retaining in memory a representation of what one has observed. Reproduction: Having the ability to reproduce what one sees, to the image to behavior. Motivation: Having the inclination, based on one's assessment of the likely payoff, to use the observed behavior. 21-2. performance, observing, reinforced.
	ss research on observational learning as it relates to the controversy about the effects of violence.
22-1.	Young children are exposed to an enormous amount of violence on T.V. Does televised violence increase the likelihood that they will engage in aggressive acts? Is it a <i>causal</i> factor in aggression? In hundreds of experimental laboratory studies, the answer is clearly ( <u>yes/no/maybe</u> ). Individuals exposed to media violence, even for short periods of time in a laboratory setting, are both verbally and physically more immediately after the exposure.
22-2.	What are the longer-term effects? In the real world, several studies have found that the more violence children watch on television, the more aggressive they are at home and at school. These are studies, not experiments, and the opposite causal relationship could be inferred: children who are violent in the first place may like to watch violent T.V.
22-3.	There is, however, particularly convincing evidence in long-term studies of the same individuals: the more televised violence individuals watch as children, the more likely they are to be as adolescents and young adults. Since media aggression ( <u>follows/precedes</u> ) the aggressive behavior that occurs much later, these studies, when considered with the laboratory experiments, make alternative explanations unlikely.
22-4.	Thus, watching televised violence seems to cause aggressive behavior. Since most of us have been exposed to media violence, why aren't we all violent? The reason is that aggression is influenced by a (few/large number) of factors, so the resulting increase may be relatively modest. Still, a modest effect multiplied by millions of people can have big repercussions.
	10

### REFLECTING ON THE CHAPTER'S THEMES

23.	Explain how the chapter highlighted two of the text's unifying themes.							
	23-1.	Skinner's view is that behavior is in large part determined by the environment. One of our unifying themes, however, is that environment doesn't act alone – environment with heredity. What two phenomena discussed in the chapter illustrate the powerful effect that biology has on conditioning? and and						
	23-2.	The second theme well illustrated in this chapter is that psychology evolves in a sociohistorical context.  Skinner's psychology, for example, with its emphasis on reinforcement, has clearly influenced trends in education, child rearing, and management styles in business.						
	Answe	rs: 23-1. interacts, instinctive drift, conditioned taste aversion 23-2. operant, positive.						
PER.	SONAL	APPLICATION • ACHIEVING SELF-CONTROL THROUGH BEHAVIOR MODIFICATION						
24.	Describe how to specify your target behavior and gather baseline data for a self-modification program.							
	24-1.	What behavior do you want to change? The question sounds simple, but the task of defining a behavior is frequently quite tricky.						
	24-2.	The behavior that you select must be defined in terms of observable events so that you will know if and when it changes. For example, for the problem of anger control, which of the following would be the most <i>directly observable</i> definition of "anger"?  a. inner turmoil  b. intense hostility  c. loud voice and clenched fists						
	24-3.	Once you specify the target behavior you must gather data on your behavior prior to the intervention. At this time you should also keep track of events that precede the target behavior, the events, and also the positive and negative reinforcers that follow it, the of your behavior.						
	modifica	s: 24-1. target (specific) 24-2. c, although even those behaviors would have to be further described in a behavior ation program. Alternative a is not really observable. Alternative b could be behaviorally defined, but as it stands it know precisely which behaviors intense hostility refers to. 24-3. baseline, antecedent, consequences.						
25.	Discus	s how to design, execute, evaluate, and end a self-modification program.						
	25-1.	To increase a target behavior you would use The reinforcer (can/can not) be something that you already are receiving. For example, you probably already watch TV, go to movies, or buy things for yourself, so you could make one of these events on an increased frequency of the target behavior.						

	25-2.	You would specify exactly what behavioral goals must be met before you receive the reinforcer; that is,
		you would arrange the If your goal is to increase studying, you might specify that TV watching for one hour is on having studied for two hours.
	25-3.	Or, you might specify that for each hour you studied you would earn points that could be "spent" for watching TV, or going to movies, or talking with friends, and so on. This type of arrangement is referred to as a economy.
	25-4.	A fairly obvious way to decrease a target behavior is to use The problem with this approach is that it is difficult to follow through with self-punishment. So, there are two guidelines to keep in mind when using punishment in a self-control program: (1) Use punishment only in conjunction with reinforcement; and (2) use a relatively punishment that you, or perhaps a third party, will be able to administer.
	25-5.	It is also possible to use reinforcement to decrease behavior. For example, if you want to gradually reduce the amount that you smoke, you could reinforce yourself whenever you smoke fewer than a particular number of cigarettes per day. Paradoxically, you are using to decrease behavior.
	25-6.	For some situations you may be able to identify events that reliably precede the behaviors you are trying to stop. For example, for some people smoking is at least under partial control of certain types of social events. So, one strategy for decreasing a behavior is to identify, and then avoid, the (antecedent/consequent) events that may control the behavior.
	25-7.	Successful execution of the program depends on several factors. To avoid cheating try creating a formal written behavioral Or, make an arrangement so that (only you/someone else) delivers the reinforcers and punishments.
	25-8.	If your program isn't working, some small revision may turn it around. Try increasing the strength of the reinforcer or else try the delay between the behavior and delivery of the reinforcer.
	25-9.	It is generally a good idea to specify in advance the conditions under which you would end the program. You may wish to phase it out by having a/an (gradual/immediate) reduction in the frequency or potency of reinforcers, although for some successful programs the new behaviors become self-maintaining on their own.
	Answer mild 25	rs: 25-1. reinforcement, can, contingent 25-2. contingency, contingent 25-3. token 25-4. punishment, positive, -5. reinforcement 25-6. antecedent 25-7. contract (agreement), someone else 25-8. decreasing 25-9. gradual.
CRIT	ICAL T	HINKING APPLICATION • MANIPULATING EMOTIONS: PAVLOV AND PERSUASION
26.	Descr	ibe how classical conditioning is used to manipulate emotions.
	26-1.	It is easy to forget that Pavlovian conditioning involves more than salivating dogs. It involves emotion and in that respect is important for a range of reactions—from phobias to sexual arousal to the effects of advertising. Manipulation employs a special subtype of classical conditioning in which the elicited responses are emotion-laden likes and dislikes. This type of conditioning, known as conditioning, is especially resistant to extinction.

label each of the fo	llowing:	
CR, and UCR. attracted to the the won the car attractio attractio	(Assume, for the sake of this example woman than the car. It could work the	le. Label each of the following with CS, UCS, e, that the target audience is initially more e other way, too.)
What is the CS	?	
The UCS?		
(c) A salesman tak	es you to lunch.	
What is the CS	?	
The UCS?		
		ust classical conditioning. When we receive a liged to pay back or the
well—such as feelin	gs of masculinity and femininity. Wan est. Not that we must be conscious of	n, other emotions may be conditioned as at to be more masculine? Smoke these cigamanipulation attempts, for conditioning (does/
26-5. How do we protect ourselves against attempts to manipulate our emotions? One suggestion from on persuasion is that merely being of the pervasiveness of conditioning will by provide some protections against manipulation strategies.		
Answers: 26-1. evaluative 26-2. the lunch, liking for the salesman	(a) UCS, CS, CR, UCR (b) the politician, (or his product) <b>26-3.</b> reciprocate <b>26-4.</b> do	the flag (c) the salesman (or his product), oes not <b>26-5</b> . forewarned (aware).
The state of the s		
Acquisition Antecedents	Fixed-ratio (FR) schedule Higher-order conditioning	Primary reinforcers Punishment
Avoidance learning	Instinctive drift	Reinforcement
Behavior modification	Instrumental learning	Reinforcement contingencies
Behavioral contract	Intermittent reinforcement	Resistance to extinction
Classical conditioning Concurrent schedules of reinforceme	Latent learning nt Law of effect	Schedule of reinforcement
Conditioned reinforcers	Learning	Secondary reinforcers Shaping

For practice with classical conditioning concepts, especially as they relate to evaluative conditioning,

26-2.

Conditioned response (CR)	N	Natching law	Skinner box
Conditioned stimulus (CS)	N	legative reinforcement	Spontaneous recovery
Continuous reinforcement		Observational learning	Stimulus discrimination
Cumulative recorder		Operant chamber	Stimulus generalization
Discriminative stimuli		Operant conditioning	Token economy
Elicit		Optimal foraging theory	Trial
Emit		Partial reinforcement	Unconditioned response (UCR)
Escape learning		avlovian conditioning	Unconditioned stimulus (UCS)
Evaluative conditioning		Phobias	Variable-interval (VI) schedule
Extinction		Positive reinforcement	Variable-ratio (VR) schedule
Fixed-interval (FI) schedule	F	Preparedness	
	_ 1.	A relatively durable change in ence.	behavior or knowledge that is due to experi-
	2.	Irrational fears of specific obje	cts or situations.
	3.	The most common name of a t acquires the ability to evoke a stimulus.	ype of learning in which a neutral stimulus response that was originally evoked by another
	4.	Another name for classical cor who originally discovered the	nditioning derived from the name of the person conditioning phenomenon.
	_ 5.	A type of classical conditionin responses involved are emotio	g, especially resistant to extinction, in which n-laden likes and dislike.
	6.	A stimulus that evokes an unco	onditioned response.
	7.	The response to an uncondition	ned stimulus.
	8.	A previously neutral stimulus conditioned response.	that has acquired the capacity to evoke a
	9.	A learned reaction to a conditi conditioning.	oned stimulus that occurs because of previous
	10.	To draw out or bring forth, as	in classical conditioning.
	11.	Any presentation of a stimulus	s or pair of stimuli in classical conditioning.
	12.	The formation of a new respon	nse tendency.
	13.	Learning without reinforceme learning first occurs.	nt that is not apparent from behavior when the
	14.	The gradual weakening and didency.	sappearance of a conditioned response ten-
	15.	The reappearance of an exting to the conditioned stimulus.	uished response after a period of nonexposure
	16.	Occurs when an organism resp stimulus used in conditioning.	ponds to new stimuli that are similar to the
	17.	Occurs when an organism lear the stimulus used in condition	rns not to respond to stimuli that are similar to ing.
	18.	Occurs when a conditioned statimulus.	imulus functions as if it were an unconditioned
	19.	This term, introduced by Skin responses come to be controll	ner, refers to learning in which voluntary ed by their consequences.
	20.	Another name for operant cor	ditioning, this term was introduced earlier by

Edward L. Thorndike.

_ 21.	Law stating that if a response in the presence of a stimulus leads to satisfying effects, the association between the stimulus and the response is strengthened.
_ 22.	Occurs when an event following a response strengthens the tendency to make that response.
 _ 23.	A standard operant chamber in which an animal's responses are controlled and recorded.
24.	Production of voluntary responses in responding in operant conditioning.
_ 25.	The circumstances or rules that determine whether responses lead to presentation of reinforcers; or, the relationship between a response and positive consequences.
26.	Device that creates a graphic record of operant responding as a function of time.
27.	The reinforcement of closer and closer approximations of the desired response.
28.	A small enclosure in which an animal's responses are recorded and followed by specified consequences; a Skinner box.
29.	Occurs when an organism continues to make a response after delivery of the reinforcer for it has been terminated.
 30.	Cues that influence operant behavior by indicating the probable consequences (reinforcement or nonreinforcement) of a response.
31.	Stimulus events that are inherently reinforcing because they satisfy biological needs.
32.	Stimulus events that acquire reinforcing qualities by being associated with primary reinforcers.
33.	A specific pattern of presentation of reinforcers over time.
34.	Occurs when every instance of a designated response is reinforced.
35.	The name for all schedules of reinforcement in which a designated response is reinforced only some of the time.
36.	The schedule in which the reinforcer is given after a fixed number of nonreinforced responses.
37.	The schedule in which the reinforcer is given after a variable number of nonreinforced responses.
 38.	The schedule in which the reinforcer is given for the first response that occurs after a fixed time interval has elapsed.
39.	The schedule in which the reinforcer is given for the first response that occurs after a variable time interval has elapsed.
 40.	Occurs when a response is strengthened because it is followed by the arrival of a rewarding (presumably pleasant) stimulus.
41.	Occurs when a response is strengthened because it is followed by the removal of an aversive (unpleasant) stimulus.
42.	Occurs when an organism engages in a response that brings aversive stimulation to an end.
43.	Occurs when an organism engages in a response that prevents aversive stimulation from occurring.
44.	Occurs when an event that follows a response weakens or suppresses the tendency to make that response.
45.	Occurs when an animal's innate response tendencies interfere with conditioning processes.

112 CHAPTER SIX

	46.	Occurs when an organism's responding is influenced by the observation of others, who are called models.
	47.	A systematic approach to changing behavior through the application of the principles of conditioning.
	48.	When a designated response is reinforced only some of the time; another name for intermittent reinforcement.
A STATE OF THE STA	49.	Another name for secondary reinforcers.
	50.	A written agreement outlining a promise to adhere to the contingencies of a behavior-modification program.

Answers: 1. learning 2. phobias 3. classical conditioning 4. Pavlovian conditioning 5. evaluative conditioning 6. unconditioned stimulus (UCS) 7. unconditioned response (UCR) 8. conditioned stimulus (CS) 9. conditioned response (CR) 10. elicit 11. trial 12. acquisition 13. latent learning 14. extinction 15. spontaneous recovery 16. stimulus generalization 17. stimulus discrimination 18. higher-order conditioning 19. operant conditioning 20. instrumental learning 21. law of effect 22. reinforcement 23. Skinner box 24. emit 25. reinforcement contingencies 26. cumulative recorder 27. shaping 28. operant chamber 29. resistance to extinction 30. discriminative stimuli 31. primary reinforcers 32. secondary reinforcers 33. schedule of reinforcement 34. continuous reinforcement 35. intermittent reinforcement 36. Fixed-ratio (FR) schedule 37. variable-ratio (VR) schedule 38. Fixed-interval (FI) schedule 39. variable-interval (VI) schedule 40. positive reinforcement 41. negative reinforcement 42. escape learning 43. avoidance learning 44. punishment 45. instinctive drift 46. observational learning 47. behavior modification 48. partial reinforcement 49. conditioned reinforcers 50. behavioral contract.

## Review of Key People

Albert Bandura John Garcia		Robert Rescorla Martin Seligman	E. L. Thorndike John B. Watson
Ivan Pavlov		B. F. Skinner	
	_ 1.	The first to describe the proce	ess of classical conditioning.
	_ 2.	Founded behaviorism; exami boy known as "Little Albert."	ned the generalization of conditioned fear in a
	_ 3.	Developed a principle known tal learning.	as the law of effect; coined the term instrumen-
	_ 4.		ess known as operant conditioning; investigated developed programmed learning.
	_ 5.	Asserted that environmental classical conditioning are bet	stimuli serve as signals and that some stimuli in ster signals than others.
	_ 6.	Described and extensively in	vestigated the process of observational learning.
	_ 7.		n was conditioned only through taste and nauseaer stimulus pairings, such as taste and shock.
	_ 8.	Proposed the theory of prepa predispositions to condition	redness, the notion that there are species-specific to certain stimuli and not to others.

Answers: 1. Pavlov 2. Watson 3. Thorndike 4. Skinner 5. Rescorla 6. Bandura 7. Garcia 8. Seligman.

b. VR c. FI d. VI

-	
1	In Pavlov's original demonstration of classical conditioning, salivation to the bell was the: a. conditioned stimulus b. conditioned response c. unconditioned stimulus d. unconditioned response
2.	Sally developed a fear of balconies after almost falling from a balcony on a couple of occasions. What was the conditioned response?  a. the balcony b. fear of the balcony c. almost falling d. fear resulting from almost falling
3.	When the UCS is removed and the CS is presented alone for a period of time, what will occur? a. classical conditioning b. generalization c. acquisition d. extinction
4.	Sally developed a fear of balconies from almost falling. Although she has had no dangerous experiences on bridges, cliffs, and the view from tall buildings, she now fears these stimuli as well. Which of the following is likely to have produced a fear of these other stimuli?  a. instinctive drift b. spontaneous recovery c. generalization d. discrimination
5.	A researcher reinforces closer and closer approximations to a target behavior. What is the name of the procedure she is using?  a. shaping b. classical conditioning c. discrimination training d. extinction
6.	John says, "Please pass the salt." Ralph passes the salt. "Thank you," says John. John's request precedes a behavior (salt passing) that is reinforced ("Thank you"). Thus, the request "Please pass the salt" is a for passing the salt.  a. discriminative stimulus b. response c. positive reinforcer d. conditioned stimulus (CS)
	A rat is reinforced for the first lever-pressing response that occurs, <i>on the average</i> , after 60 seconds. Which schedule is the rat on?  a. FR

114 CHAPTER SIX

- 8. When the rat presses a lever, the mild electric shock on the cage floor is turned off. What procedure is being used?
  - a. punishment
  - b. escape
  - c. discrimination training
  - d. avoidance
- 9. A cue light comes on in the dog's shuttle box. It jumps the hurdle to the other side. What procedure is being used?
  - a. punishment
  - b. escape
  - c. discrimination training
  - d. avoidance
- 10. In a signal relations study, CS-UCS trials are alternated with presentation of the UCS alone. What will occur?
  - a. stronger conditioning than would have occurred without the UCS alone trials
  - b. weaker conditioning than would have occurred without the UCS alone trials
  - c. latent learning
  - d. extinction
- 11. The contingencies are as follows: if the response occurs, a stimulus is *presented*; if the response does not occur, the stimulus is not presented. Under this procedure the strength of the response *decreases*. What procedure is being used?
  - a. positive reinforcement
  - b. negative reinforcement
  - c. punishment
  - d. avoidance training
- 12. In terms of the traditional view of conditioning, research on conditioned taste aversion was surprising because
  - a, there was a very long delay between CS and UCS
  - b. the dislike of a particular taste was operantly conditioned
  - c. conditioning occurred to all stimuli present when the food was consumed
  - d. the sense of taste seems to be relatively weak
- 13. Animal trainers (the Brelands) trained pigs to put coins in a piggy bank for a food reward. The animals learned the response but, instead of depositing the coins immediately in the bank, the pigs began to toss them in the air, drop them, push them on the ground, and so on. What had occurred that interfered with conditioning?
  - a. conditioned taste aversion
  - b. blocking
  - c. instinctive drift
  - d. S & L scandal
- 14. Which of the following produces strong resistance to extinction?
  - a. a continuous reinforcement schedule
  - b. an intermittent reinforcement schedule
  - c, optimal foraging behavior
  - d. discrimination and differentiation
- 15. Earlier learning viewpoints considered classical and operant conditioning to be automatic processes involving only environmental events that did not depend at all on biological or cognitive factors. Research on which of the following concepts cast doubt on this point of view?
  - a. latent learning, signal relations, and instinctive drift
  - b. extinction, discrimination, and generalization
  - c. CRF, ratio, and interval schedules
  - d. escape, avoidance, and spontaneous recovery

Answers: 1, b 2, b 3, d 4, c 5, a 6, a 7, d 8, b 9, d 10, b 11, c 12, a 13, c 14, b 15, d.

# infoTrac Keywords

Behavior Modification Classical Conditioning Intermittent Reinforcement

Operant Conditioning

116