Reinforcement and aversive Learning Behavior, The basal-ganglia, The amygdala

Rony Paz

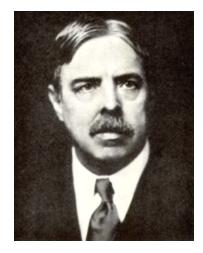
Reinforcement learning

Supervised learning – all knowing teacher, detailed feedback

Reinforcement learning – scalar (correct/incorrect) feedback

Unsupervised learning – self organization

The law of effect



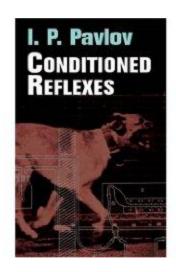
"The Law of Effect is that: Of several responses made to the same situation, those which are accompanied or closely followed by satisfaction to the animal will, other things being equal, be more firmly connected with the situation, so that, when it recurs, they will be more likely to recur"

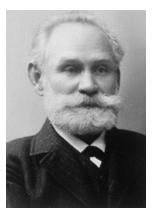
Edward Lee Thorndike (1911)

Classical conditioning (Pavlov, 1927)

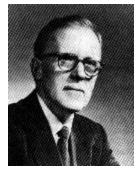
The Elements:

- US: Unconditioned stimulus
- UR: Unconditioned response
- NS: Neutral stimulus
- CS: Conditioned stimulus
- CR: Conditioned response





And in Neurons

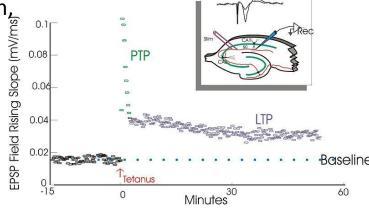


Donald Hebb

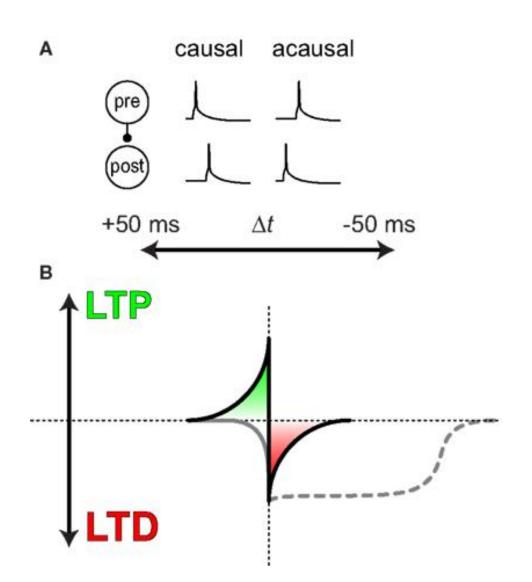
- Hebbian plasticity (1949):
- The general idea is an old one, that any two cells or systems of cells that are repeatedly active at the same time will tend to become 'associated', so that activity in one facilitates activity in the other
- When one cell repeatedly assists in firing another, the axon of the first cell develops synaptic knobs (or enlarges them if they already exist) in contact with the soma of the second cell

Long-term-potentiation (LTP)

- Lomo, Bliss, Andersen, 1966, Hippocampus.
- Induced artificially by tetanic stimulation
- Long-lasting enhancement in signal transmission between two neurons that results from stimulating them synchronously.
- Increase in synaptic strength
- A cellular mechanism for learning and memory.
- Requires protein synthesis
- **Hebbian LTP** requires simultaneous pre- and postsynaptic depolarization for its induction ("fire together – wire together")
 - Specificity: to synapse
 - Associativity: when a 'weak' pathway is not enough, simultaneous strong input will associate both
 Coopertaivity: weak stimulation of many that converge



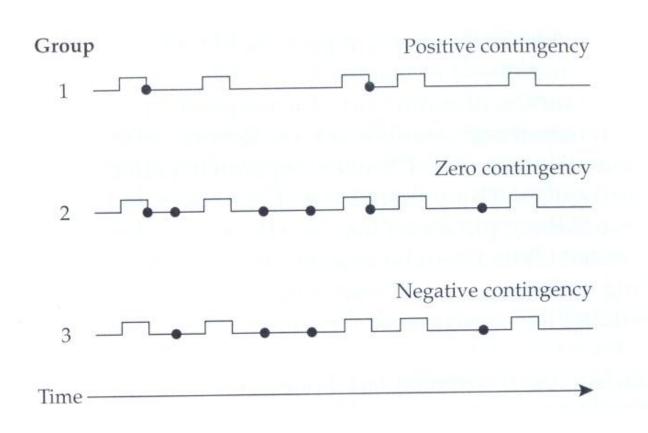
Spike-timing-dependent-plasticity (STDP)

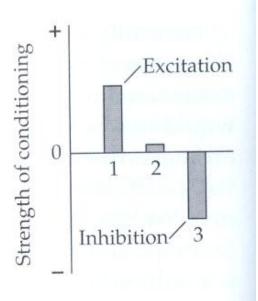


So far...

• Coincidence (co-occurrence) model can explain learning and associations.

More than just co-occurrence: Reliable prediction - contingency

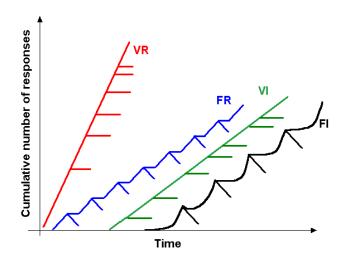




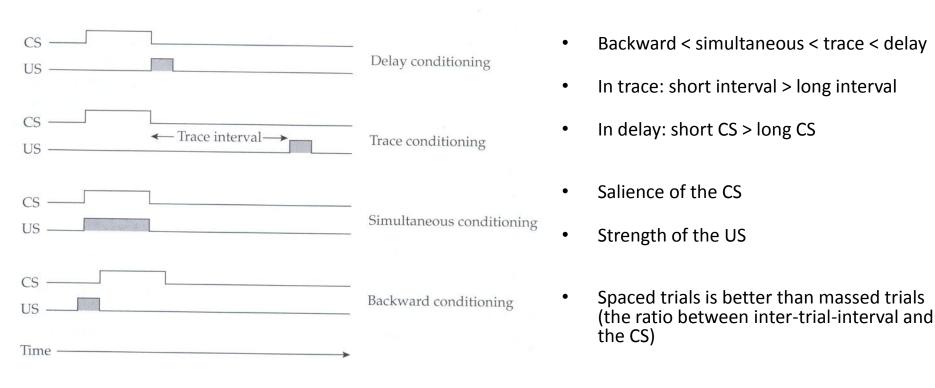
Schedules of reinforcement

Lead to different kinds of learning rates:

- Fixed interval
- Variable interval
- Fixed ratio
- Variable ratio



Conditioning strength

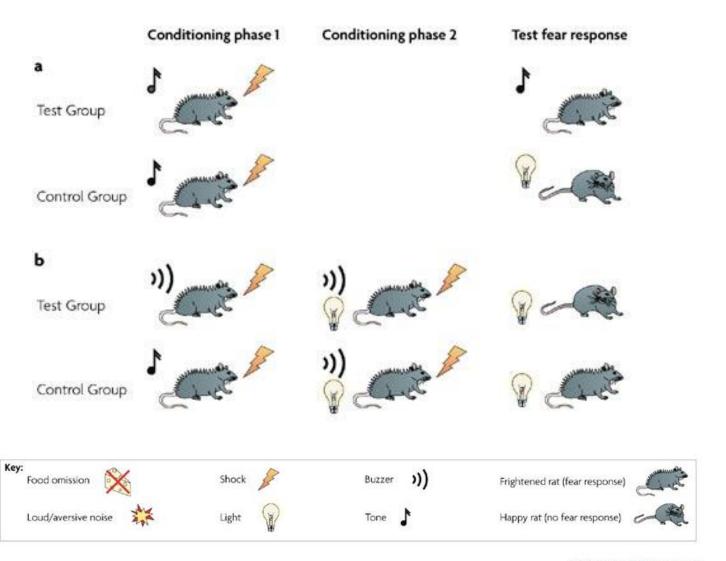


Properties of classical conditioning

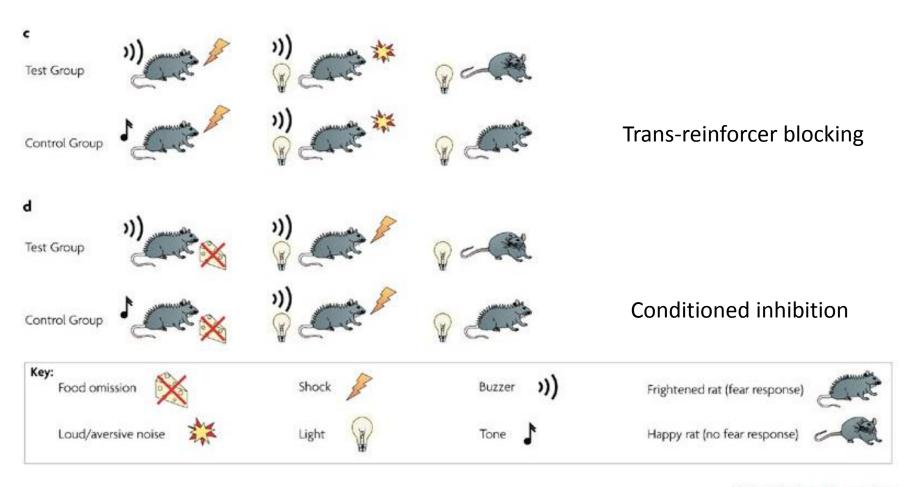
- Acquisition.
- Partial Reinforcement
- Generalization (little albert, watson&rayner, 1920)
- Interstimulus Interval (ISI) effects.
- Intertrial Interval (ITI) effects.



Blocking (Kamin, 1968)



Conditioned inhibition and more



Nature Reviews | Neuroscience

Relative validity (wagner 1968)

- Experimental Group
- 10 x Tone and Light followed by food
- 10 x Click and Light followed by nothing causing extinction
- Control Group
- 5 trials of Tone and Light followed by food
- 5 trials of Tone and Light followed by nothing causing extinction
- 5 trials of Click and Light followed by food
- 5 trials of Click and Light followed by nothing causing extinction
- Total experience of the light is the same for both groups as both have 10 light food pairings and 10 light no food pairings yet the animals in the experimental group associated less with the light.
- In simple terms it is attending more to a stimulus that constantly predicts the outcome and attending less to a poor predictor

 Learning occurs not because two events cooccur, but because that co-occurrence is <u>UNPREDICTED</u>

Rescorla-Wagner rule (1972)

Learning to predict reward R given stimulus U=1

Goal: Form a prediction of the reward V of

the form:

Where:

V=ωU

U=CS availability (0,1); V=reward prediction:

And learn to change ω :

R=reward availability (0,1):

 ω = weight of the connection

 $\Delta \omega = \epsilon (R-V)U$

between U and V ε = learning rate

R-V = prediction error

After learning of consistent pairing: $\omega=R$

Blocking

- Given U1, U2 and R, after U1 has been learnt:
- ω1=R
- $V = \omega 1U1 + \omega 2U2$

Prediction error: R-V=0
 And no learning occurs for ω2

But: two main problems

- Temporal credit assignment (or who is to blame?)
 - Rewards are delayed, and come after many actions and states has occur.
 - We need to propagate the rewards back...

- Exploration / exploitation tradeoff
 - Trust one set of reasonably good cards, and the ace might hide in the other

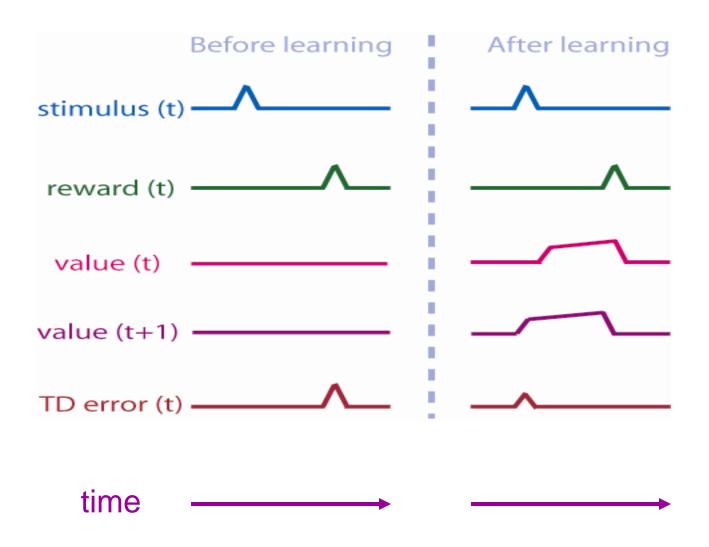
TD learning

- 1. Estimate value of current state $(V_t = r_t + \gamma' r_{t+1} + \cdots)$: (discounted) sum of expected rewards
- 2. Measure 'truer' value of current state: reward at present state + estimated value of next state $(r_t + \gamma V_{t+1})$
- 3. TD error $\delta_t = r_t + \gamma V_{t+1} V_t$
- 4. Use TD error to improve 1 $(V_t^{k+1}=V_t^k+\eta \delta_t)$

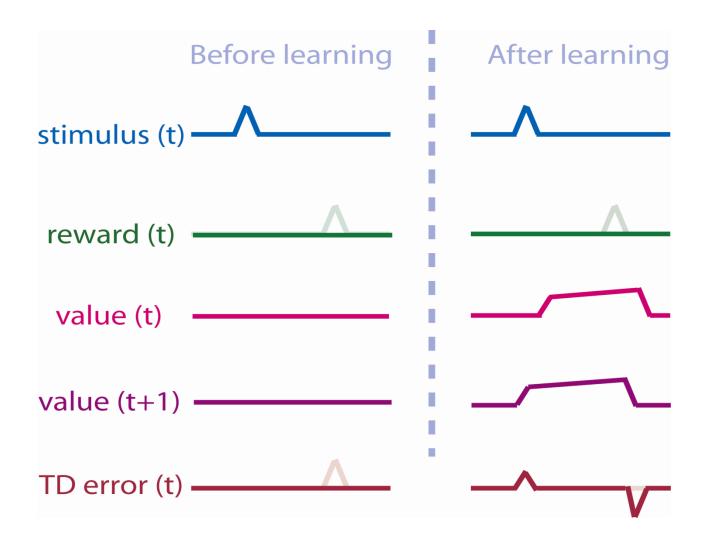
where: $V_{t=value}$ of the state reached at time t in iteration k

 r_t = reward given at time t; η = learning rate, δ = prediction error

TD error:
$$\delta_t = r_t + \gamma V_{t+1} - V_t$$

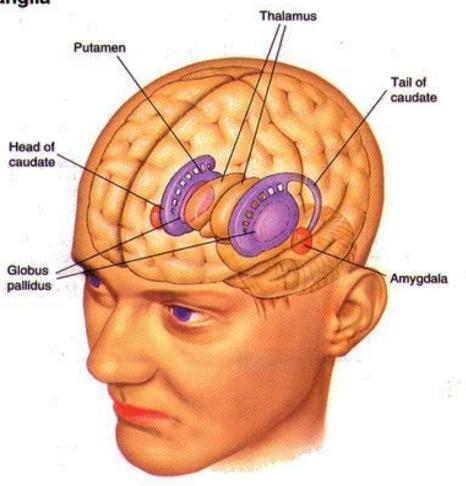


Reward omission

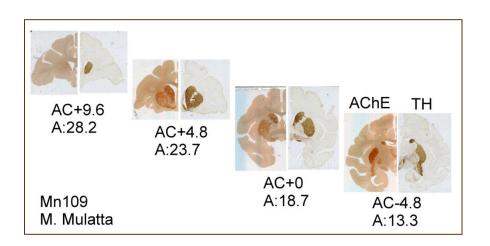


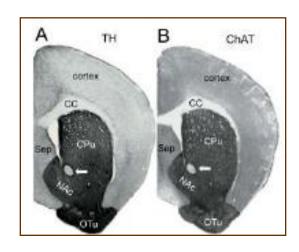
The basal ganglia

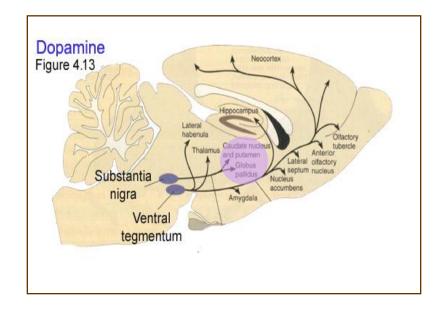
► The Basal Ganglia

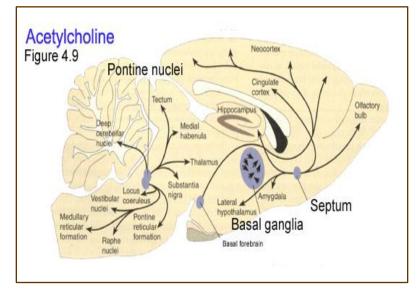


Dopamine and acetylcholine meet in the striatum

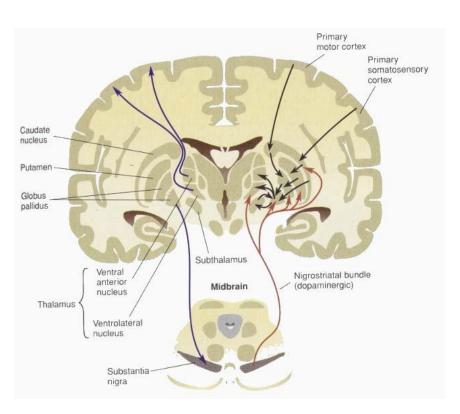


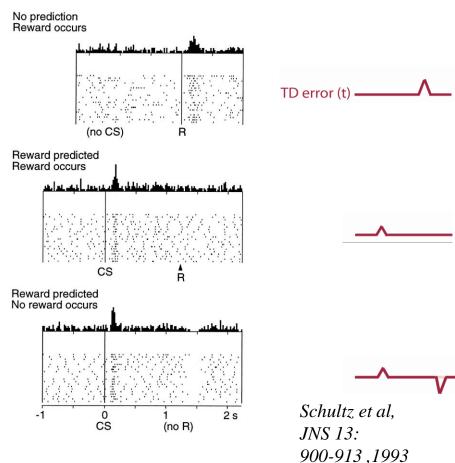




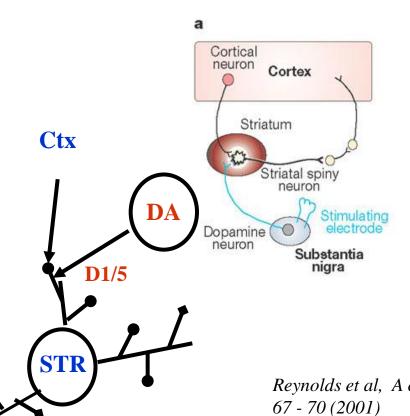


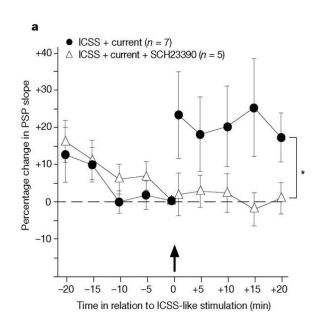
Dopamine match surprise signal





LTP in cortico-striatal synapses

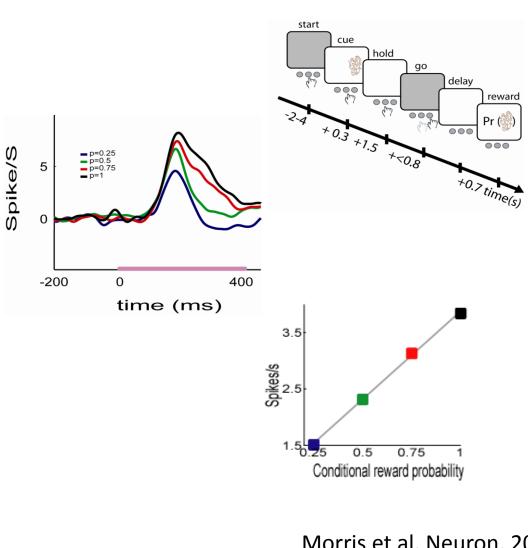




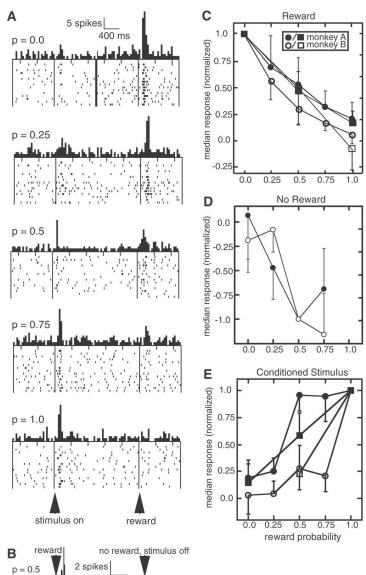
Reynolds et al, A cellular mechanism of reward-related learning Nature 413, 67 - 70 (2001)

Dopamine reflects probability of

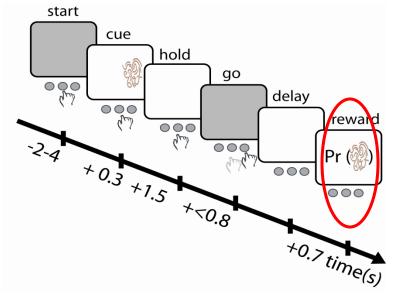
cue giving reward

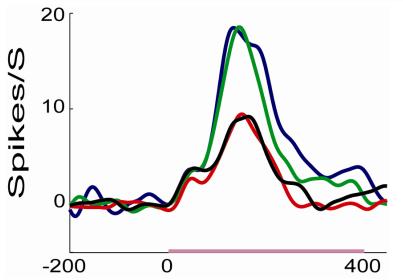


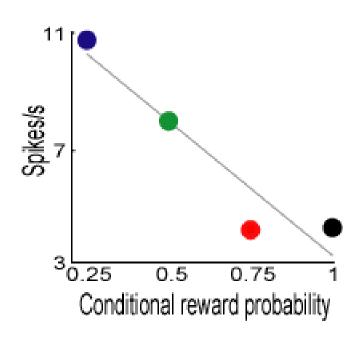
Morris et al, Neuron, 2004 Fiorillo et al, Science, 2003



And inversely to the reward:





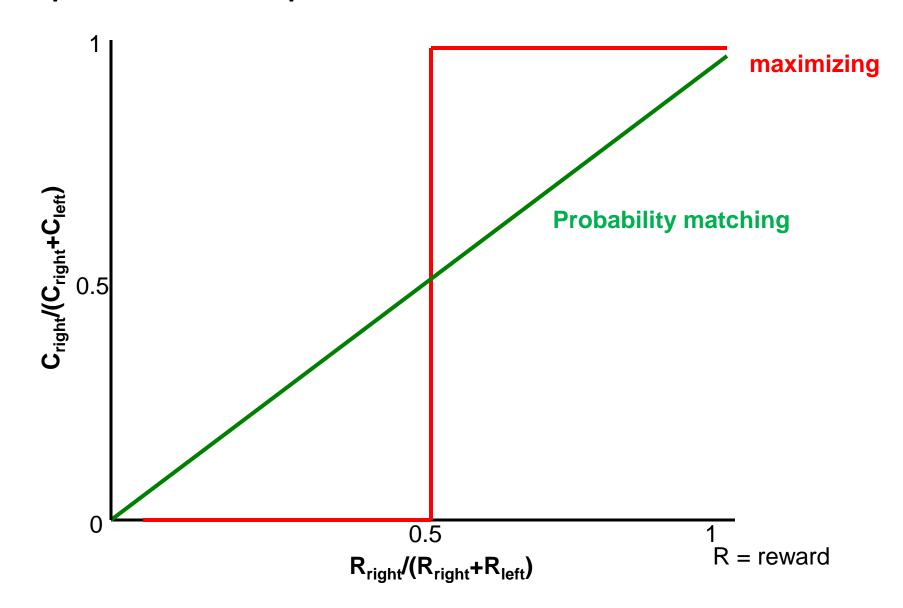


Dopamine responses

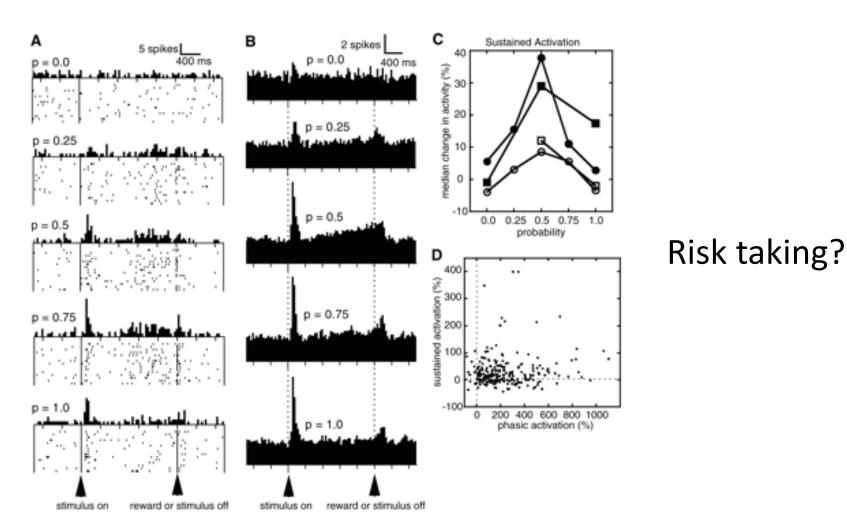
- Responses to visual cue are correlated with future reward probability
- Responses to reward are inversely correlated with reward probability
- Dopamine neurons provide an accurate surprise signal (but only in the positive domain)

What about actions?

Exploration-exploitation: decision behavior

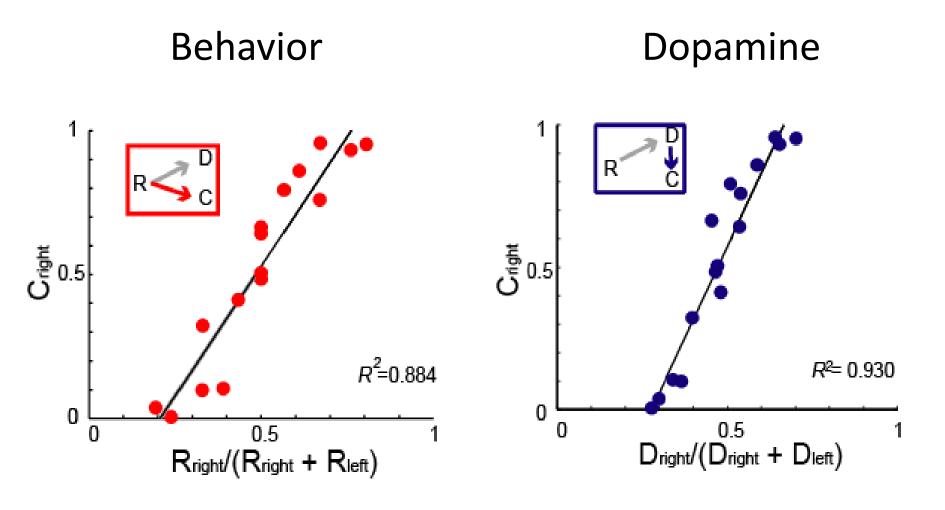


Uncertainty signal in dopamine neurons



Fiorillo, Science, 2003

Probability matching in monkeys



Morris, Nat. Neurosci. 2006

Fear thou not – the negative domain

- What is a "reward"?
- Learning is motivated by threats to survival
- Threats are reinforcers
- Fear is a prime motivator

	Decreases behavior	Increases behavior
Presented	Positive punishment	Positive reinforcer
Taken away	Negative punishment	Negative reinforcer

Taking drugs?

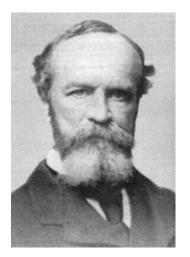
More fun, less withdrawal

What are emotions?

Do we run from a bear because we are afraid, or are we afraid because we run?

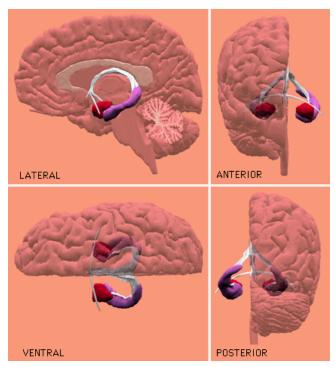
James proposed that the obvious answer, that we run because we are afraid, was wrong, and instead argued that we are afraid because we run.

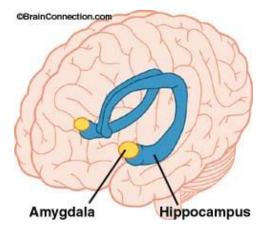
Perception=>bodily changes=>feeling

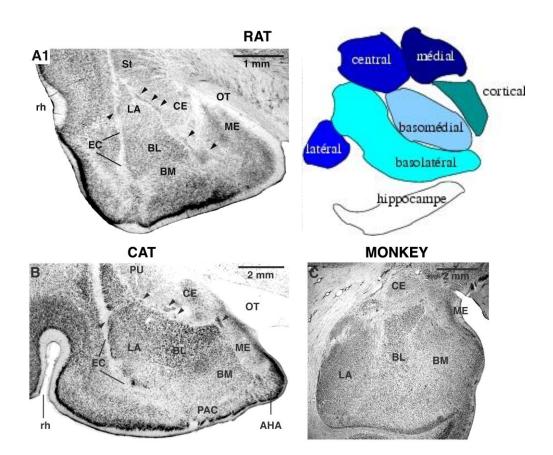


William James 1842-1910

The amygdala

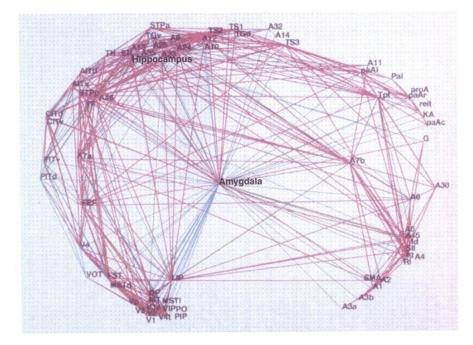


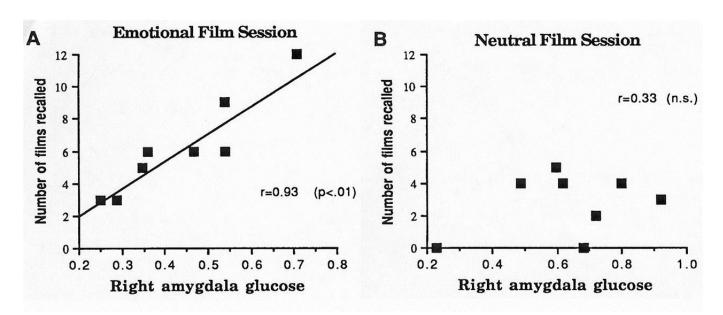




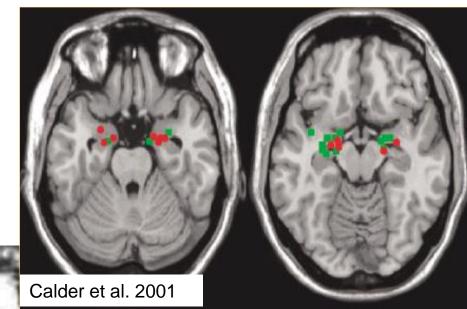
Amygdala and its basolateral complex (BLA)

- BLA evolution parallels that of the prefrontal cortex
- BLA cell types reminiscent of cortex
- Cortical projections are much more extensive in primates
- Most cortical projections of the amygdala originate from BLA (none from CEA)





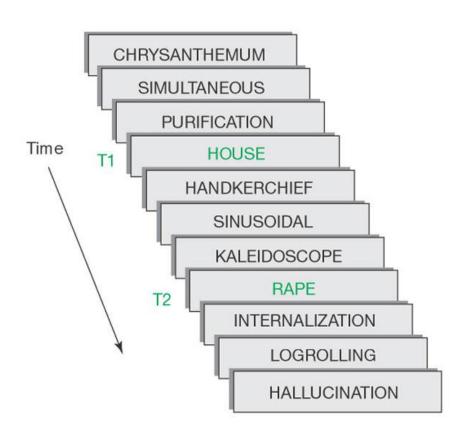
Cahill et. al. PNAS, 1996

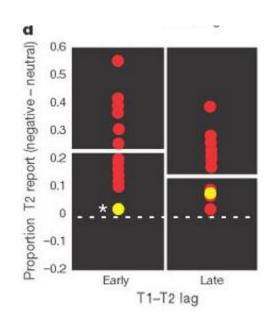




(8) תגובה לפנים מפוחדות – (8)(6) תגובה להתנית פחד – (6)

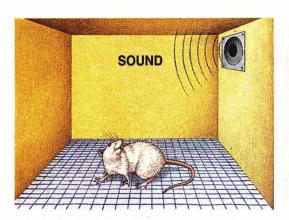
Emotional affect on "Attentional blink" is reduced with amygdala damage

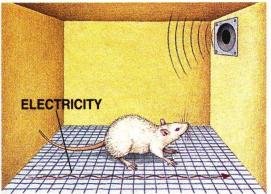


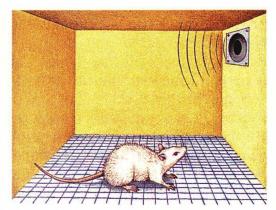


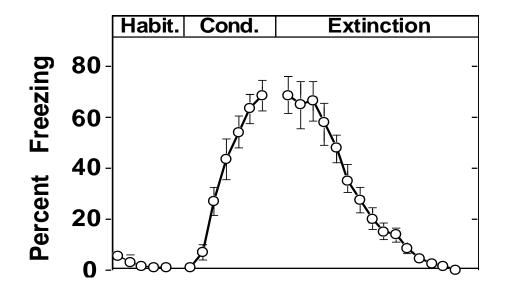
•

Classical fear conditioning









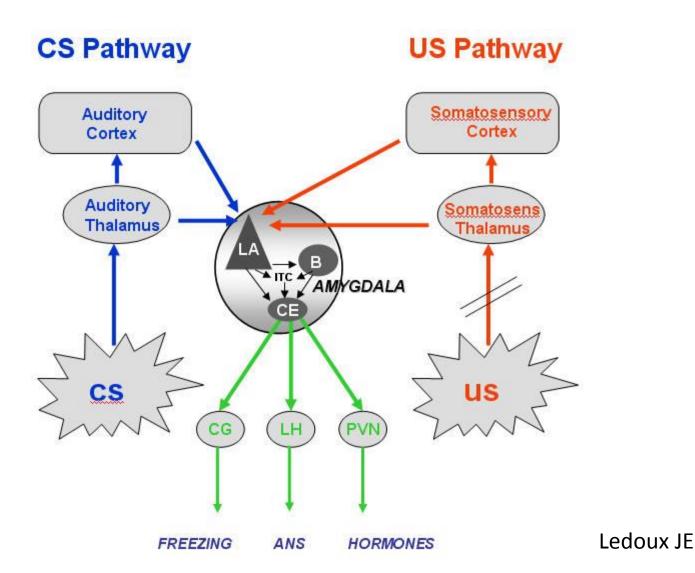
CS-US pairing

Tone = conditioned stimulus (CS)

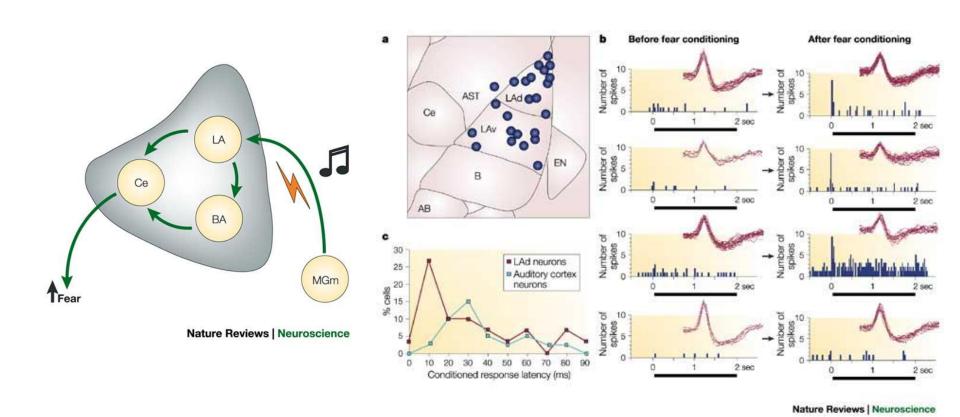
Foot-shock = unconditioned stimulus (US)

Freezing = conditioned response (CR-UR)

Fear circuit

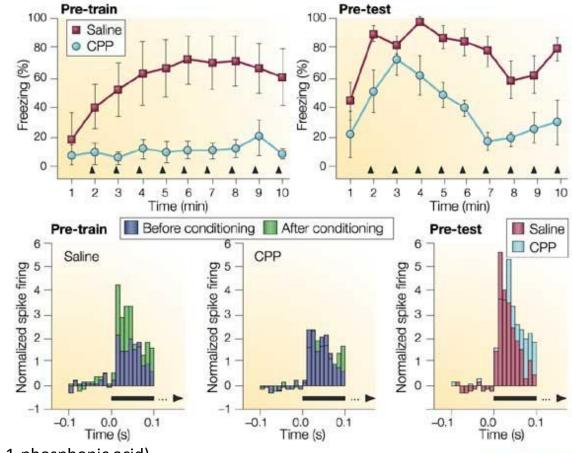


Neurons acquire tone responses after conditioning



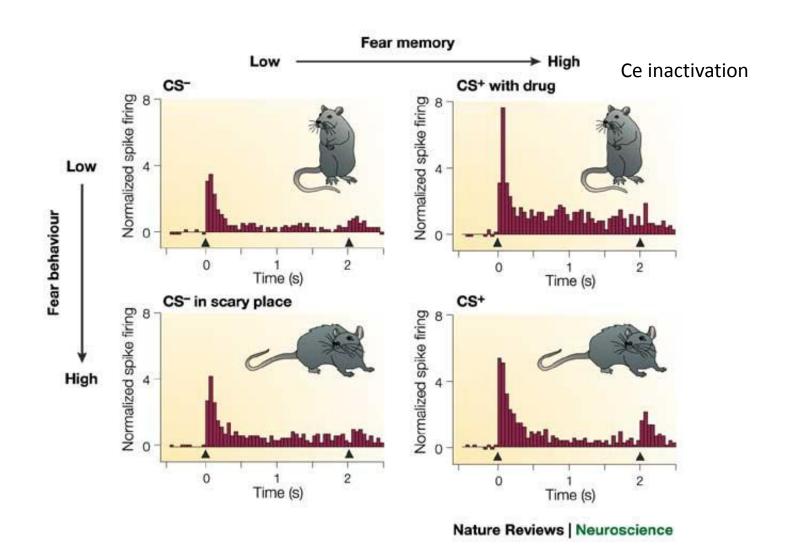
LTP is required

NMDA (**N**-methyl-**D**-aspartate, glutamate receptor) is involved in both the acquisition of fear memory and the induction of long-term potentiation (LTP) in the amygdala.



CPP (3-(2-carboxypiperazin-4-yl) propyl-1-phosphonic acid), a competitive NMDA-receptor antagonist

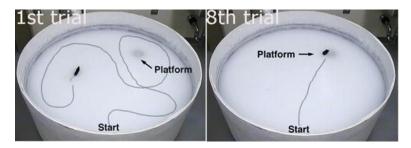
LA encodes memory independent of fear behavior

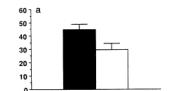


Amygdala: modulation of emotional memory

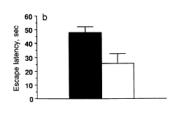
- Hippocampal dependent learning: spatial
- Striatum dependent-learning: cue-related

Morris water maze





Neurobiology: Packard et al.



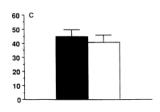
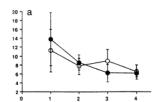
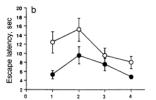


Fig. 1. Mean (\pm SE) escape latencies of d-amphetamine (10 μ g) (□) and saline-treated (■) rats on the retention test trial in the spatial task. (a) Hippocampal injections. (b) Amygdala injections. (c) Cau-

posttraining intracaudate and intrahippocampal injections of d-amphetamine on retention of cued and spatial learning in





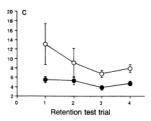
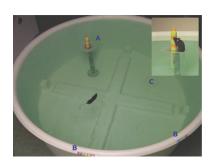
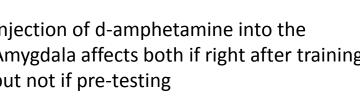


Fig. 2. Mean (±SE) escape latencies of d-amphetamine (10 μg) () and saline-treated () rats on the retention test trial in the cued task. (a) Hippocampal injections. (b) Amygdala injections. (c) Caudate nucleus injections.



Injection of d-amphetamine into the Amygdala affects both if right after training, but not if pre-testing



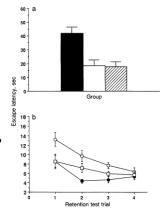
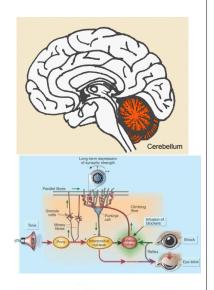


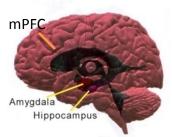
Fig. 3. Mean $(\pm SE)$ escape latencies of rats receiving in-traamygdala posttraining d-amphetamine or saline and rats receiving preretention test lidocaine or saline on the retention test trial(s) in the ○ (b), saline/saline; □ (a) and • (b), d-amphetamine/saline; □ (a) and (b), d-amphetamine/lidocaine.

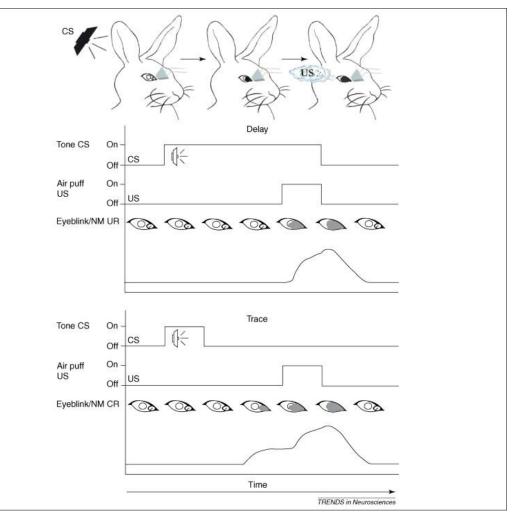
Packard, Mcgaugh

Eyelid (blink) reflex conditioning



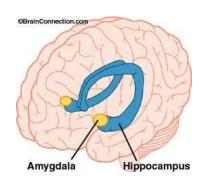


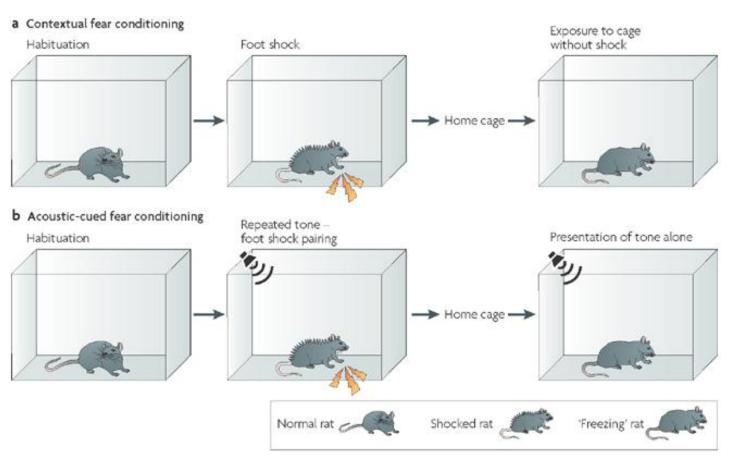




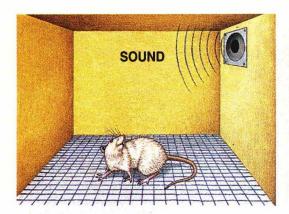
- Why is trace hippocampal-dependent?
- Maintaining the CS? Timing the trace? Harder?
- Eyelid requires ~0.3sec, and hippocampus is required when 0.5-1sec.
- In tone-shock, trace can be 3sec, and hippocampus is required for ~20sec
- This suggest context-conditioning

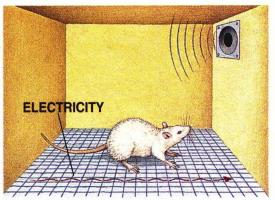
Contextual fear

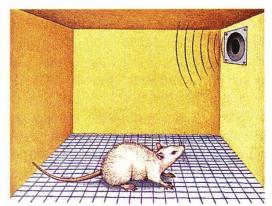


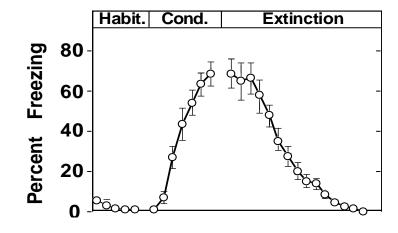


Extinction of fear-conditioning

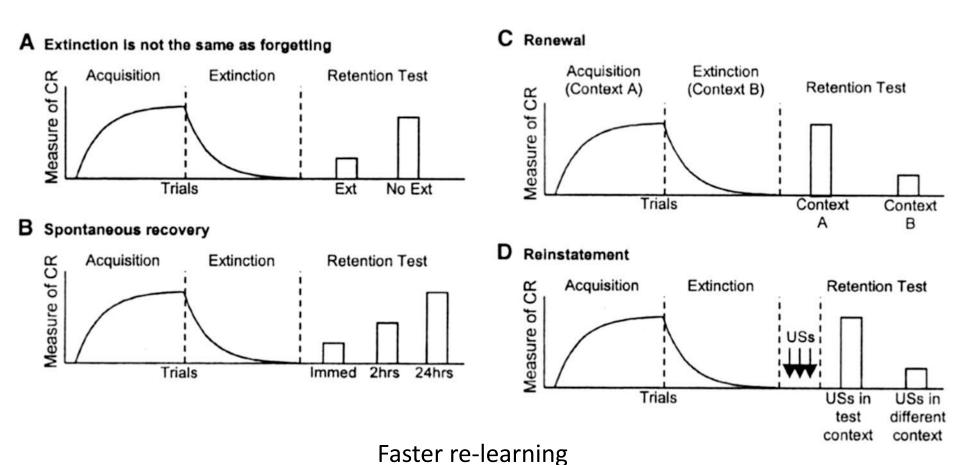




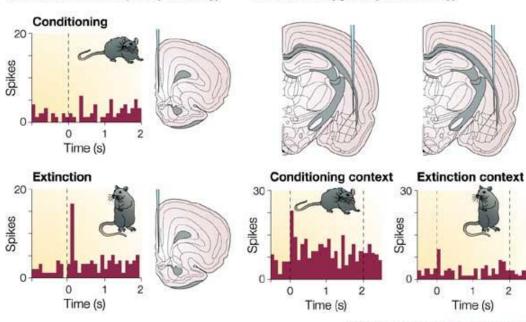




Extinction: a new learning



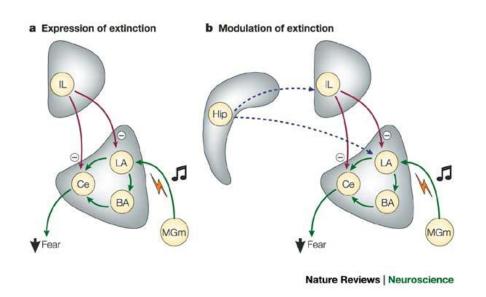
Extinction: brain mechanisms

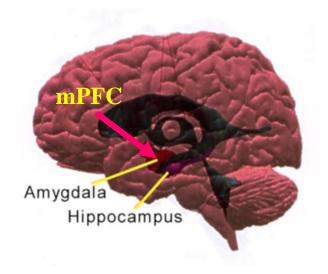


b Lateral amygdala (fear memory)

a Prefrontal cortex (safety memory)

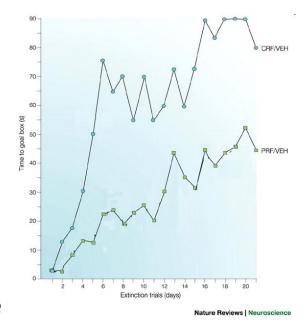
Nature Reviews | Neuroscience





Partial reinforcement extinction effect

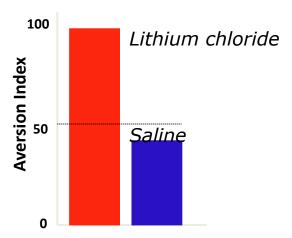
- Partial reinforcement
 - Fixed/variable ratio
 - Fixed/variable schedule
- Results in longer extinction learning
- Why?
 - Frustration theory (Amsel): The omission of the US induces frustration. Therefore, during extinction, the frustration predicts the US.
 - Sequential theory (Capaldi): conditioning to strings of NNNRNNNR
- Bad for behavior flexibility
- Good for education

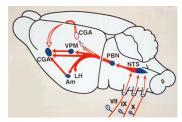


Conditioned Taste Aversion



- One-trial learning
- Long-delay learning (few hours)
 - A [lack of] interference effect?
 - Still a problem for neuroscientists
- Hedonic shift: changes the CS, not its predictions



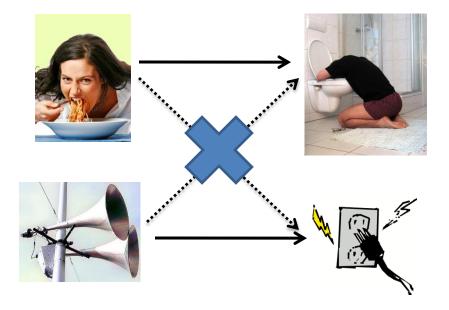


CTA

Compound potentiation: odor + taste increase

response to odor

Preparedness:



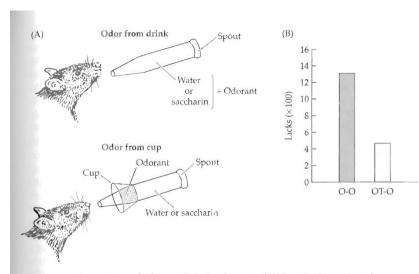
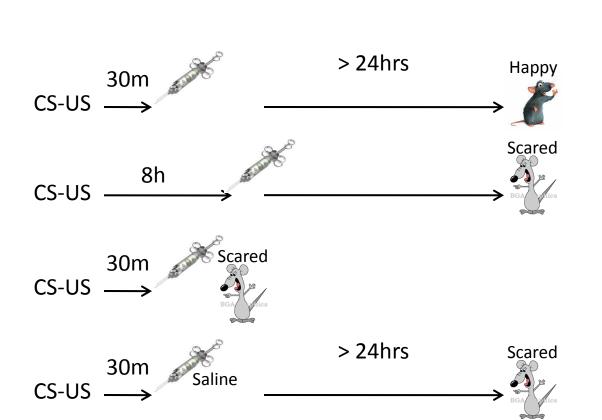
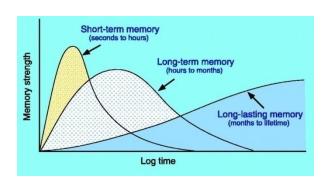


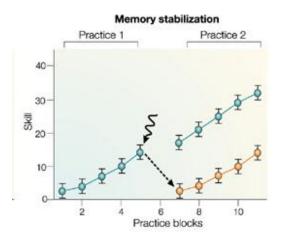
Figure 6.5 Potentiation of odor conditioning by taste. (A) A rat is given a taste in drinking water that also contains an odor. (In many experiments, the odor comes from a cup near the spout instead of being mixed in the drink.) (B) When odor is paired with illness on its own and then tested (O-O), it does not suppress consumption much. But if it has been combined with a taste on the conditioning trial (OT-O), strong odor conditioning is obtained. (A, after Inui, Shimura, & Yamamoto, 2006; B, after Palmerino et al., 1980.)

Consolidation

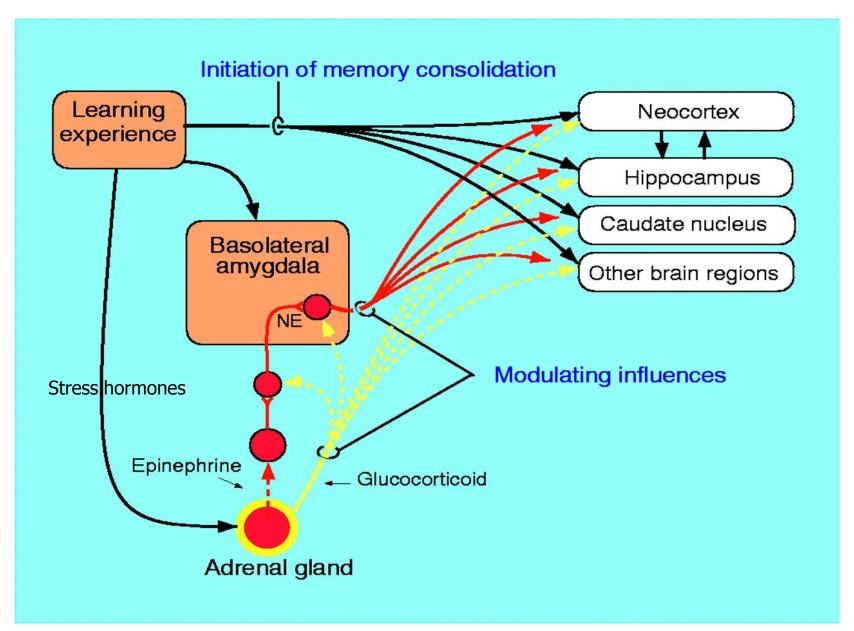
- Anisomycin, a protein synthesis inhibitor, into the Basolateral complex of the amygdala (BLA)
 - No effect on short-term-memory
 - No effect after XX time (rule of thumb is 6hrs)
 - But harms long-term memory below that.





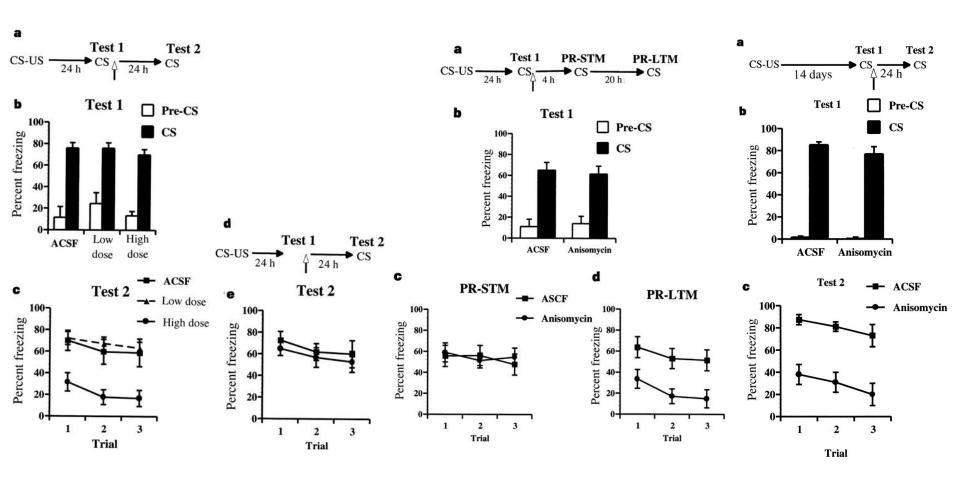


Nature Reviews | Neuroscience



Reconsolidation

No effect on STM



An updated view of memories

