

Differential roles of human striatum and amygdala in associative learning

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Although the human amygdala and striatum have both been implicated in associative learning, only the striatum's contribution has been consistently computationally characterized. Using a reversal learning task, we found that amygdala blood oxygen level-dependent activity tracked associability as estimated by a computational model, and dissociated it from the striatal representation of reinforcement prediction error. These results extend the computational learning approach from striatum to amygdala, demonstrating their complementary roles in aversive learning.

Both the amygdala and striatum are known to be critical for associative learning. For the striatum, celebrated work in humans and other animals suggests its involvement in learning from prediction errors for reinforcement^{1,2}. Such errors occur when there is more or less reward (or punishment) than expected. Supporting this idea, the prediction error, as quantified in theories of conditioning such as the Rescorla-Wagner and temporal difference models, has helped to explain neural signaling in this system across species, including blood oxygenation level-dependent (BOLD) signals in the human striatum^{2,3}.

However, BOLD activity in the amygdala is not consistently correlated with error signals, even in aversive conditioning tasks³. This raises the question of how we might computationally characterize learning signals in the amygdala. Such a specific characterization could shed further light on ideas about the structure's distinct contributions to associative learning. Current theories of amygdala function in humans have highlighted its role in vigilance⁴ and the detection of relevant stimuli⁵. Theories of associative learning in animals, such as the Pearce-Hall model⁶, describe a more specific and potentially related function for the amygdala^{7,8}: the attentional gating of learning. These theories envision that, to learn cue-reinforcer associations, animals track a quantity, known as associability, that reflects the extent to which each cue has previously been accompanied by surprise (positive or negative prediction errors). A cue's associability gates the amount of future learning about the cue on the basis of whether it has been a reliable or poor predictor of reinforcement in the past. In other words, associability controls learning rates

dynamically, accelerating learning to cues whose predictions are poor and decelerating it when predictions become reliable.

In nonhuman animals, lesion studies and, more recently, unit recordings have indicated that an important neural substrate for associability is the amygdala⁷⁻⁹. To date, there is little direct evidence that the human amygdala might have an analogous role. We hypothesized that the human amygdala codes for associability, which is distinct and complementary to the striatum's coding of prediction error during associative learning. Specifically, we used a computational model to examine an aversive reversal-learning task and asked whether an associability signal similar to that seen in unit recordings in nonhuman animals might be present in the pattern of BOLD signaling in the human amygdala during aversive learning⁸.

We asked 17 participants to complete a Pavlovian reversal-learning task (Fig. 1a and Supplementary Methods) and simultaneously recorded their BOLD signals and skin conductance responses (SCRs)¹⁰. The experiment began with an acquisition phase, in which participants were presented with two visual stimuli (mildly angry faces, conditioned stimulus). One stimulus co-terminated with an aversive outcome (electric shock, unconditioned stimulus) on one-third of the trials (partially reinforced). The other stimulus was not paired with an unconditioned stimulus. The acquisition phase was followed by an unpaired reversal phase, in which the identities of the original conditioned and unconditioned stimuli were switched¹⁰. This task provides a characteristic test for theories of associability, which predict that the associability of each conditioned stimulus should decline during acquisition, as the outcomes become more expected, and then increase rapidly during the reversal phase, when the outcomes are again surprising.

We first fit and validated our associability model behaviorally using SCRs (Fig. 1b). Although previous work has found that SCRs correlate with cue-specific value (V) as predicted by a Rescorla-Wagner learning model¹⁰, we hypothesized that these responses might reveal additional effects of associability. To test this, we compared the fit of alternative learning models to all participants' SCRs, correcting for the models' different numbers of free parameters using likelihood ratio tests (see Supplementary Methods and Supplementary Tables 1 and 2). Indeed, compared with the basic Rescorla-Wagner model using a constant learning rate, value-related SCR effects were better explained by values predicted by an augmented 'hybrid' Rescorla-Wagner model, which gated its learning rate dynamically according to the Pearce-Hall associability rule ($\chi^2_{34} = 104.42$, $P < 0.00001$). Furthermore, given that an arousal or attentional signal such as a SCR might directly reflect associability (a measure of cue-specific attention) as well as value expectation, we tested whether SCRs were modulated by the cue-specific associabilities learned by the model, over and above any value-related effects. This additional effect was

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(Supplementary Tables 4 and 5). These results leave open the question of whether associability coding in human amygdala is specific to aversive tasks or to other features of our experiment, such as the use of mildly aversive (angry) faces as conditioned stimuli. However, our findings complement previous research that used reward learning tasks in nonhuman animals and found similar roles for the amygdala and the striatum in the computation of associability and prediction error, respectively⁸. In the context of these findings, our results suggest that what distinguishes these two value-learning regions may not be the nature of the reinforcer, but rather the computational contribution to the learning signal^{3,14,15}.

Note: Supplementary information is available on the Nature Neuroscience website.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

E.A.P. and D.S. designed the study and conducted the experiment. J.L. and N.D.D. performed the data analysis. J.L., D.S., G.S., E.A.P. and N.D.D. interpreted the data and wrote the manuscript.

COMPETING FINANCIAL INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing financial interests.

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