

1 Bayesian reinforcement learning models reveal how great-tailed
2 grackles improve their behavioral flexibility in serial reversal
3 learning experiments.

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21 **ABSTRACT**

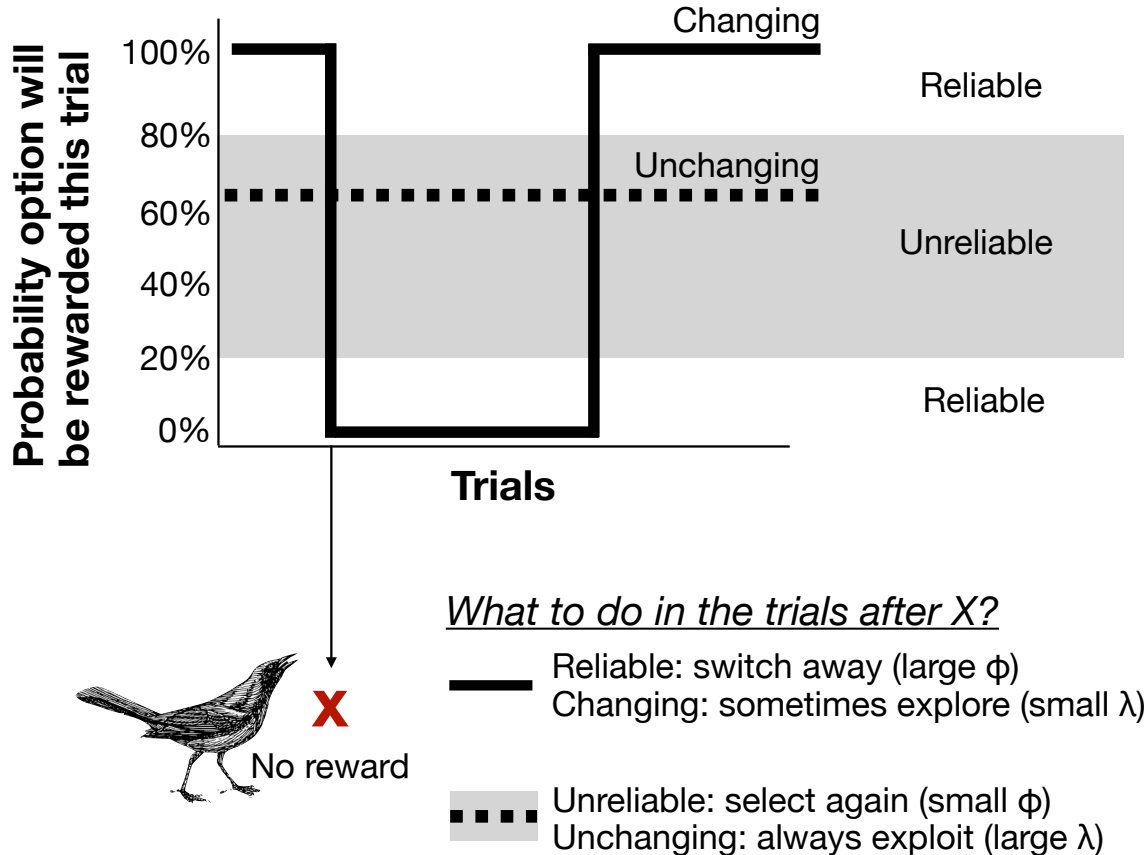
22 Environments can change suddenly and unpredictably, so animals might benefit from being able to flexibly
23 adapt their behavior through learning new associations. Reversal learning experiments, where individuals
24 initially learn that a reward is associated with a specific cue before the reward is switched to a different cue,
25 thus forcing individuals to reverse their learned associations, have long been used to investigate differences in
26 behavioral flexibility among individuals and species. Here, we apply and expand newly developed Bayesian
27 reinforcement learning models to gain additional insights into how individuals might dynamically adapt their
28 behavioral flexibility if they experience repeated reversals in which cue is associated with a reward. Using
29 data from simulations and great tailed grackles (*Quiscalus mexicanus*), we find that two parameters, the
30 association updating rate, which reflects how much individuals weigh the most recent information relative to
31 previously learned associations, and the sensitivity to learned associations, which reflects whether individuals
32 no longer explore alternative options after having formed associations, are sufficient to explain the different
33 strategies individuals display during the experiment. Individuals gain rewards more consistently if they
34 have a higher association updating rate, because they learned that cues are reliable and they therefore can

35 gain the reward consistently during one phase. The sensitivities to learned associations plays a role for the
36 grackles who experienced a series of reversals, where individuals with lower sensitivities are better able to
37 explore the alternative option after a switch. The grackles who experienced the serial reversal adapted their
38 behavioral flexibility through two different strategies. Some individuals showed more exploration such that
39 they can quickly change to the alternative option after a switch even if they continue to occasionally choose
40 the unrewarded option. Others stick to the previously learned associations such that they take longer to
41 change after a switch, but, once they have reversed their associations consistently, choose the correct option.
42 These strategies the grackles exhibited at the end of the reversal learning experiment also relate to their
43 performance on multi-option puzzle boxes where there are different behaviors required to access rewards.
44 Grackles with intermediate strategies solved fewer options to access the rewards than grackles with either
45 of the extreme strategies, and they took longer to attempt a new option. Our approach offers new insights
46 into how individuals react to uncertainty and changes in their environment, in particular showing that they
47 can adapt their behavioral flexibility in response to their experiences.

48 INTRODUCTION

49 Serial reversal learning experiments have long been used to understand how individuals keep track of biolog-
50 ically important associations in changing environments (Bitterman, 1975; Dufort et al., 1954; Mackintosh
51 et al., 1968). Most animals live in environments that undergo changes that can affect key components of
52 their lives, such as where to find food or which areas are safe. Accordingly, individuals are expected to be
53 able to react to these changes. One of the ways in which animals react to changes is through behavioral
54 flexibility, the ability to change behavior when circumstances change by updating information and making it
55 available to other cognitive processes (Mikhalevich et al., 2017). Serial reversal learning experiments aim to
56 measure differences in behavioral flexibility across individuals and species (Lea et al., 2020) by first present-
57 ing individuals with multiple options associated with cues, such as different colors or locations, that differ
58 in their reward. After individuals learn the associations between rewards and cues, the rewards are reversed
59 across cues, and individuals are observed to see how quickly they learn the changed associations. However,
60 despite their long history, we still know little about how individuals approach these serial reversal learning
61 tasks [Bond et al. (2007)] and what cognitive processes might lead to the observed differences in behavioral
62 flexibility (Danwitz et al., 2022; Izquierdo et al., 2017).

63 A number of theoretical models have been developed to reflect the potential cognitive processes animals might
64 rely on to make informed choices in changing environments (for a recent review see for example Frömer &
65 Nassar (2023)). These models deconstruct the behavior of individuals making choices into two processes
66 (Bartolo & Averbeck, 2020; Camerer & Hua Ho, 1999; P. K. Chow et al., 2015; Izquierdo et al., 2017). The
67 first process reflects the learning about the environment, through updating associations between external cues
68 and potential rewards (or dangers). Individuals are expected to show different rates of updating associations
69 (which we refer to as ϕ , the greek letter phi, in the following) in different environments (Figure 1). Lower
70 rates are expected when changes are rare and associations are not perfect such that a single absence of a
71 reward might be an error rather than indicating a new association. Higher rates are expected when changes
72 are frequent and associations are reliable such that individuals should update their associations when they
73 encounter new information (Breen & Deffner, 2023; Dunlap & Stephens, 2009). The second process reflects
74 how individuals, when presented with a set of cues, might decide between these alternative options based on
75 their learned associations of the cues. Individuals with larger sensitivity to their learned associations (which
76 we refer to as λ , the greek letter lambda, in the following) will quickly prefer the option that previously
77 gave them the highest reward (or the lowest danger), while individuals with low sensitivity will continue
78 to explore alternative options. Sensitivities are expected to show the opposite pattern to the association-
79 updating rate (Figure 1), with larger sensitivities when cues are unreliable but environments are static such
80 that individuals start to exploit the rare information they are learning and lower sensitivities when cues are
81 reliable and changes are frequent such that individuals explore alternative options when conditions change
82 (Breen & Deffner, 2023; Daw et al., 2006).



83

84 **Figure 1** In serial reversal learning experiments, associations are reliable, such that if an option is associated
 85 with a reward, it is rewarded during every trial (white background). However, the associations between
 86 options and the rewards change across trials (solid line). In such environments, individuals are expected to
 87 gain the most rewards if they update their associations quickly (large ϕ) to switch away from an option if
 88 it is no longer being rewarded, and if they have small sensitivities to their learned associations to continue
 89 to explore all options to check if associations have changed again (small λ). In contrast, in unchanging but
 90 unreliable environments, the probability that an option is rewarded stays constant across trials (dotted lines),
 91 but is closer to 50% (gray background). In such environments, individuals are expected to gain the most
 92 rewards if they build their associations as average across many trials (small ϕ), and have high sensitivities
 93 to learned associations to exploit the option with the highest association (large λ).

94 A recent development to infer the cognitive processes from the choices individuals make during reversal
 95 learning experiments are Bayesian reinforcement learning models (Bari et al., 2022; Chen et al., 2021; Danwitz
 96 et al., 2022; Deffner et al., 2020). These Bayesian models estimate the association-updating rate and the
 97 sensitivity to learned associations by modeling the likelihood of the subsequent choices individuals were
 98 observed to make based on how the underlying reward associations would predict each choice. The learning
 99 of information is reflected by the Rescorla-Wagner rule (Rescorla & Wagner, 1972), which includes the
 100 association-updating rate (the rate's label differs across authors) which weights the most recent information
 101 proportionally to the previously accumulated information for that cue (as a proportion, the rate can range
 102 between 0 and 1, see below for equation). The decision between different options is reflected by relative
 103 probabilities (Agrawal & Goyal, 2012; Danwitz et al., 2022; Daw et al., 2006), where the sensitivity to
 104 learned associations (again, the label can differ by author) modifies the relative difference in learned rewards
 105 to generate the probabilities to choose each option. A value of zero means individuals do not pay attention
 106 to their learned associations, but choose randomly, whereas increasingly larger values mean that individuals
 107 show strong biases in choice as soon as there are small differences in their learned associations. These static
 108 models have, for example, recently been used to indicate sex differences in exploration, with individuals

109 of one sex on average showing lower sensitivities to learned associations (Breen & Deffner, 2023; Chen et
110 al., 2021). More generally, they support the prediction that individuals with higher association-updating
111 rates are more successful in reversal learning experiments (Bari et al., 2022; Danwitz et al., 2022). However,
112 the application of these models has thus far however been static, rather than inferring whether and how
113 individuals might adapt their strategies over time (Tello-Ramos et al., 2019). We need an understanding of
114 the dynamic changes individuals might undergo in their processes to describe the improvement in performance
115 that occurs through the serial reversal learning experiments to gain a full better of behavioral flexibility.

116 In serial reversal learning experiments, there are potentially three types of information individuals might pay
117 attention to when adjusting their cognitive processes. First, in most reversal learning designs, there are two
118 options differentiated by a cue, of which only one has the reward. Accordingly, exploring one option still
119 provides information about the presence or absence of a reward in the other option. Second, linked to this,
120 the association between a cue and a reward can be perfect such that one option is always rewarded during
121 a reversal, but it could also be probabilistic, where both options contain a reward that differs in amount or
122 frequency. In most animal experiments, the former is used where only one option contains a reward, so the
123 association is perfect. In contrast, experiments in humans often introduce uncertainty in the associations by
124 providing rewards only in a certain percentage of trials or by assigning rewards as draws from distributions
125 (multi-armed bandit experiments). Third, reversals in the association between a cue and the reward can
126 occur more or less frequently depending on the experimental design. At the extreme, when an individuals'
127 previous experience suggests that rewards are only at one of the options during any given trial, associations
128 are highly reliable, and changes are frequent, they might switch to an abstract rule, where the choice in
129 the next trial is completely determined by the most recent experience (win-stay/lose-shift one-shot strategy,
130 Mackintosh et al. (1968); Jang et al. (2015)). In experiments, such switches in strategy seem to appear
131 in individuals living in the highly stable conditions of captivity (Metha et al., 2020; Rayburn-Reeves et
132 al., 2013), especially if these individuals have been over-trained (Bartolo & Averbek, 2020), and for highly
133 reliable cues such as the location of a tree (Liu et al., 2016). However, most associations that animals have
134 to learn however often have a probabilistic association between the cue and the outcome, the relationship
135 between options is not necessarily straightforward, and the initial learning phase introduces a period of
136 stability. Accordingly, most animals tested on serial reversal learning experiments do not show switches to
137 abstract strategies, but rather improvements in their flexibility (Bitterman, 1975; Bond et al., 2007). In the
138 classic two-choice serial reversal learning experiments given to animals, these improvements likely reflect how
139 individuals adjust their association-updating rate and their sensitivity to learned associations depending on
140 their experience of the frequency of the change and of the reliability of the association between the cue and
141 the reward (Leimar et al., 2024; Neftci & Averbek, 2019). Based on the static theoretical models, we would
142 predict that individuals increase their association-updating rate because cues are highly reliable, and reduce
143 their sensitivity to the learned associations because the option that is rewarded switches frequently.

144 Here, we applied and modified the Bayesian reinforcement learning models to data from our great-tailed
145 grackle (*Quiscalus mexicanus*, hereafter grackle) research on behavioral flexibility to assess how the two
146 parameters of the model interact and dynamically change to shape the behavior of individuals. We previously
147 found that the model can predict the performance of grackles in a static reversal learning task with a single
148 switch of a color preference using two differently colored tubes (one light gray and one dark gray Blaisdell
149 et al., 2021). Here, we build on this work with additional data from another population (Logan et al.,
150 2023a), where we conducted a flexibility manipulation using serial reversal learning. The serial reversal
151 manipulation consisted of switching the rewarded color whenever individuals chose the rewarded option
152 more than expected by chance (passing criterion of choosing correctly in 17 out of the last 20 trials), until
153 their reversal speeds were consistently fast (reaching criterion in 50 trials or less in two consecutive reversals).
154 We randomly assigned individuals to a manipulated group who received serial reversals, or to a control group
155 who received one reversal and then a similar amount of experience in making choices between two yellow
156 tubes that both contained the same reward (Logan et al., 2023a). After the reversal learning experiment,
157 both the manipulated and the control grackles were given a different flexibility test using multi-option puzzle
158 boxes. Grackles who experienced the serial reversal learning experiment subsequently also appeared to show
159 improved behavioral flexibility in this different context because they required less time to switch to a new
160 option to access a food reward when the previously learned option was blocked. They also solved a larger
161 number of the four options presented in the multi-option puzzle boxes (Logan et al., 2023a).

162 **RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

163 **1) Are the Bayesian reinforcement learning models sufficiently sensitive to detect changes that**
164 **occur across the limited number of serial reversals that individuals participated in?**

165 The models infer two parameters, the association updating rate ϕ and the sensitivity to learned associations
166 λ , from the behavior of individuals, from across the traditional single outcome of the number of trials needed
167 to reach the criterion. In theory, multiple combinations of the two parameters could lead to the same number
168 of trials during a given reversal. Whether information from a single or few reversals is sufficient to infer these
169 values for individuals at different time points throughout a serial reversal experiment has not been systemat-
170 ically addressed before. Therefore we used simulations to assess whether these models work on the samples
171 that people usually work with. Determining the minimum number of choices per individual necessary to
172 correctly infer their underlying parameters is necessary to reveal the dynamic changes in these parameters as
173 individuals adjust their expectation of change throughout the serial reversal learning experiments and react
174 accordingly.

175 Prediction 1: We predicted that the Bayesian reinforcement learning model can reliably infer the two param-
176 eters based on the choices individuals make during reversal learning, and that it can detect changes in these
177 parameters that might occur during the series of reversals that individuals usually experience (4-6 reversals).

178 **2) Is a strategy of high association-updating (ϕ) and low sensitivity to learned associations (λ)**
179 **best to reduce errors in the serial reversal learning experiment?**

180 Previous modeling work predicts that in situations in which changes are abrupt, but information is reliable,
181 individuals learning in accordance with a Bayesian reinforcement model should show a high association-
182 updating rate and a low sensitivity to learned associations (Breen & Deffner, 2023; Dunlap & Stephens,
183 2009). However, the modeled situations were abstract and the inferred optimal association updating rates
184 and sensitivities were higher than what is usually observed in reversal learning experiments. Therefore, we
185 perform simulations of the specific behavior exhibited in serial reversal learning experiments to assess how
186 changes in the choices individuals make link to their ϕ and λ values. In addition, previous studies were only
187 focused on the optimal values for the two parameters in different situations rather than looking at how ϕ
188 and λ interact to explain variation among individuals. Therefore, we also use the simulations to determine
189 whether one of the two parameters, ϕ or λ , might explain more of the variation in the number of trials
190 individuals need to reach the criterion of choosing the correct option 17 out of 20 times during a reversal.

191 Prediction 2: We predicted that both ϕ and λ influence the performance of individuals in a reversal learning
192 task, with higher ϕ values (faster learning with a higher association-updating rate) and lower λ values (more
193 exploration with less sensitivity to learned associations) leading to individuals more quickly reaching the
194 passing criterion after a reversal in the color of the rewarded option.

195 **3) Which of the two parameters ϕ or λ explains more of the variation in the reversal learning**
196 **experiment performance of the tested grackles?**

197 Across both the manipulated and control grackles, we assessed whether variation in the number of trials an
198 individual needs to reach the criterion in a given reversal is better explained by their inferred association
199 updating rate or by their sensitivity to learned associations.

200 Prediction 3: We predicted that both ϕ and λ explain variation in the reversal performance of the grackles.

201 **4) Which of the two parameters ϕ or λ changes more for the grackles that improved their**
202 **performance through the serial reversal experiment?**

203 If individuals learn the contingencies of the serial reversal experiment, they should be reducing their sensi-
204 tivity to learned associations λ to explore the alternative option when rewards change, and increase their
205 association-updating rate ϕ to quickly exploit the new reliably rewarded option.

206 Prediction 4: We predicted that individuals have higher ϕ and lower λ values during their last reversal of
207 the serial reversal experiment than during their first reversal.

208 **5) Are some individuals better than others at adapting to the serial reversals?**

209 In previous work, we found that there are individual differences that persist throughout the experiment, with
210 individuals who required fewer trials to solve the initial reversal also requiring fewer trials in the final reversal
211 after their manipulation [mccune2023flexmanippeerj]. We could expect that these individual differences are
212 guided by consistency in how individuals solve the reversal learning paradigm, meaning they are reflected in

213 individual consistency in ϕ and λ that persist through the serial reversal manipulation. In addition, it is not
214 clear whether some grackles change their behavior more than others: for example, it could be that individuals
215 who have a higher association-updating rate ϕ at the beginning of the experiment might also be better able
216 to quickly change their behavior to match the particular conditions of the serial reversal learning experiment.
217 Therefore, we also analyze whether the ϕ and λ values of individuals at the beginning predict how much
218 they changed throughout the serial reversal learning experiment. Alternatively, given that the prediction
219 for which sensitivity to learned association is best during a reversal (high sensitivity to stick to the learned
220 associations) is different from the prediction for what is best right after a reversal (low sensitivity to explore
221 the alternative option), the individuals who improved the most might end up with different strategies.
222 Prediction 5: We predicted that differences in ϕ and λ among individuals persist through the serial reversal
223 learning experiment, or that they might even increase as some individuals change their learning more than
224 others.

225 **6) Can the ϕ or λ from the performance of the grackles during their final reversal predict**
226 **variation in the performance on the multi-option puzzle boxes?**

227 We previously found that grackles who needed fewer trials to reach the criterion in their last reversal on
228 the color tube test were also better at performing on the two (plastic and wooden) multi-access boxes.
229 This association could potentially be explained by either of the parameters underlying flexibility, or by an
230 interaction between the parameters. With the multi-option puzzle boxes, grackles would be expected to gain
231 more rewards if they quickly update their previously learned associations with the options (high ϕ) and/or if
232 they are less sensitive to previously learned associations and instead continue to explore alternative options
233 (low λ).

234 Prediction 6: We predicted that grackles that are more flexible, those who have a high ϕ and/or a low λ ,
235 have shorter latencies to attempt a new option and solve more options on the two multi-option puzzle boxes.
236 Given that grackles are expected to change both their ϕ and their λ through the serial reversal (see prediction
237 2), we also explore whether the relationship between ϕ or λ and the performance on the multi-access boxes
238 is non-linear.

239 **METHODS**

240 **The Bayesian reinforcement learning model**

241 We used the version of the Bayesian model that was developed in Blaisdell et al. (2021) and modified
 242 in Logan CJ et al. (2023) (see their Analysis Plan > “Flexibility analysis” for model specifications and
 243 validation). This model uses data from every trial of reversal learning (rather than only using the total
 244 number of trials to pass criterion) and represents behavioral flexibility using two parameters: the association-
 245 updating rate (ϕ) and the sensitivity to learned associations (λ). The model transforms the series of choices
 246 each grackle made based on two equations to estimate the most likely ϕ and λ that generated the observed
 247 behavior.

248 Equation 1 (attraction and ϕ): $A_{j,i,t+1} = (1 - \phi_j)A_{j,i,t} + \phi_j \pi_{j,i,t}$

249 Equation 1 estimates how the associations A that individual j forms between the two different options ($i \in \{1,$
 250 $2\}$) and their expected rewards change from one trial to the next (time $t+1$) as a function of their previously
 251 formed associations $A_{j,i,t}$ (how preferable option i is to grackle j at time t) and recently experienced payoff π
 252 (in our case, $\pi = 1$ when they chose the correct option and received a reward in a given trial, and 0 when they
 253 chose the unrewarded option). The parameter ϕ_j modifies how much individual j updates its associations
 254 based on its most recent experience. The higher the value of ϕ_j , the faster the individual updates its
 255 associations, paying more attention to recent experiences, whereas when ϕ_j is lower, a grackle’s associations
 256 reflect averages across many trials. Association scores thus reflect the accumulated learning history up to
 257 this point. The association with the option that is not explored in a given trial remains unchanged. At
 258 the beginning of the experiment, we assume that individuals have the same low association between both
 259 options and rewards ($A_{j,1} = A_{j,2} = 0.1$).

260 Equation 2 (choice and λ): $P(j, i)_{t+1} = \frac{\exp(\lambda_j A_{j,i,t})}{\sum_{i=1}^2 \exp(\lambda_j A_{j,i,t})}$

261 Equation 2 expresses the probability P that an individual j chooses option i in the next trial, $t+1$, based on
 262 their learned associations of the two options with rewards. The parameter λ_j represents the sensitivity of a
 263 given grackle j to how different its associations to the two options are. As λ_j gets larger, choices become more
 264 deterministic and individuals consistently choose the option with the higher association even if associations
 265 are very similar. As λ_j gets smaller, choices become more exploratory, with individuals choosing randomly
 266 between the two options independently of their learned associations if λ_j is 0.

267 Equation 2 expresses the probability P that an individual j chooses option i in the next trial, $t+1$, based on
 268 the attractions. The parameter λ_j represents the rate of deviating from learned attractions of an individual.
 269 It controls how sensitive choices are to differences in attraction scores. As λ_j gets larger, choices become more
 270 deterministic and individuals consistently choose the option with the higher attraction even if attractions
 271 are very similar, as λ_j gets smaller, choices become more exploratory (random choice independent of the
 272 attractions if $\lambda_j=0$).

273 We implemented the Bayesian reinforcement learning model in the statistical language Stan (Stan Develop-
 274 ment Team, 2023), calling the model and analyzing its output in R (version 4.2.2) (R Core Team, 2023).
 275 The model takes the full series of choices individuals make (which of the two options did they choose, which
 276 option was rewarded, did they make the correct choice) across all their trials to find the ϕ and λ values
 277 that best fit these choices given the two equations: whether or not individuals chose the rewarded option
 278 was reflected as a categorical likelihood (yes or no) with probability P as estimated from equation 2, before
 279 updating the associations using equation 1. The model was fit across all choices, with individual ϕ and λ
 280 values estimated as varying effects. In the model, ϕ is estimated on the logit-scale to force the values to
 281 be positive before being converted back for equation 1 to update the associations, and λ is estimated on
 282 the log-scale to account for the exponentiation that occurs in equation 2. We set the priors for ϕ and λ to
 283 come from a normal distribution with a mean of zero and a standard deviation of one. We set the initial
 284 associations with both options for all individuals at the beginning of the experiment to 0.1 to indicate that
 285 they do not have an initial preference for either option but are likely to be somewhat curious about exploring
 286 the tubes because they underwent habituation with a differently colored tube (see below). For estimations at
 287 the end of the serial reversal learning experiment, we set the association with the option that was rewarded

288 before the switch to 0.7 and to the option that was previously not rewarded to 0.1. Note that when applying
289 equation 1 in the context of the reversal learning experiment as most commonly used, where there are only
290 rewards (positive association) or no rewards (zero association) but no punishment (negative association),
291 associations can never reach zero because they change proportionally.

292 We used functions in the package “posterior” (Vehtari et al., 2021) to draw 4000 samples from the posterior
293 (the default in the functions). We report the estimates for ϕ and λ for each individual (simulated or grackle)
294 as the mean from these samples from the posterior. For the subsequent analyses where the estimated ϕ and
295 λ values were response or predictor variables, we ran the analyses both with the single mean per individual
296 as well as looping over the full 4000 samples from the posterior to reflect the uncertainty in the estimates.
297 The analyses with the samples from the posterior provided the same estimates as the analyses with the
298 single mean values, though with larger confidence estimates because of the increased uncertainty. In the
299 results, we report the estimates from the analyses with the mean values. The estimates with the samples
300 from the posterior can be found in the code in the rmd file at the repository. In analyses where ϕ and λ
301 are predictor variables, we standardized the values that went into each analysis (either the means, or the
302 respective samples from the posterior) by subtracting the average from each value and then dividing by the
303 standard deviation. We did this to define the priors for the relationship on a more standard scale and to be
304 able to more directly compare their respective influence on the outcome variable.

305 We also used the two equations analytically to more directly make predictions about how a specific ϕ and λ
306 would influence the choices individuals make during the reversal learning. To derive the learning curves for
307 individuals with different ϕ and λ , we incorporated the dynamic aspect of change over time by inserting the
308 probabilities of choosing either the rewarded or the non-rewarded option from time t-1 as the likelihood for
309 the changes in associations at time t:

310 Equation 3a (dynamic association): $AssociationRewarded_{t+1} = ((1-\phi) * AssociationRewarded_t + \phi * Reward) * ProbabilityRewarded_t + (1-ProbabilityRewarded_t) * AssociationRewarded_t$

312 Equation 3b (dynamic association): $AssociationNonrewarded_{t+1} = (1-ProbabilityRewarded_t) * (1-\phi) * AssociationNonrewarded_t + ProbabilityRewarded_t + (1-ProbabilityRewarded_t) * AssociationNonrewarded_t$

314 1) Using simulations to determine whether the Bayesian serial reinforcement learning models 315 have sufficient power to detect changes through the serial reversal learning experiment

316 We re-analyzed data we previously simulated for power analyses to estimate sample sizes for population
317 comparisons (Logan CJ et al., 2023). In brief, we simulated 20 individuals each from 32 different populations
318 (640 individuals). The ϕ and λ values for each individual were drawn from a distribution representing that
319 population, with different mean ϕ (8 different means) and mean λ (4 different values) for each population
320 (32 populations as the combination of each ϕ and λ). The range for ϕ and λ values assigned to the artificial
321 individuals in the simulations were based on the previous analysis of the single reversal data from grackles in
322 a different population (Santa Barbara, California, USA, Blaisdell et al. (2021)) to reflect the likely expected
323 behavior. Based on their assigned ϕ and λ values, each individual was simulated to pass first through the
324 initial association learning phase and, after they reached criterion (chose the correct option 17 out of the
325 last 20 times), the rewarded option switched and simulated individuals went through the reversal learning
326 phase until they again reached criterion. Each choice that each individual made was simulated consecutively,
327 updating their internal associations with the two options based on their ϕ values and setting the probability
328 of their next choice based on how their λ value weighted their associations to the two options. We excluded
329 simulated individuals from the further analyses if they did not reach criterion either during the initial
330 association or the reversal within 300 trials, the maximum that was also set for the experiments with the
331 grackles.

332 We ran the Bayesian reinforcement learning model on these simulated data to understand the minimum
333 number of choices per individual that would be necessary to recover the association-updating rate ϕ and the
334 sensitivity to learned association λ values assigned to each individual.

335 To determine whether the Bayesian reinforcement learning model can accurately recover the simulated ϕ
336 and λ values from limited data, we applied the model first to only the choices from the initial association
337 learning phase, next to only the choices from the first reversal learning phase, and finally from both phases

338 combined. To estimate whether the Bayesian reinforcement learning model can recover the simulated ϕ and
339 λ values without bias from either of the single or from the combined datasets, we correlated the estimated
340 values with the values individuals were initially assigned:

341 Assigned value of ϕ or $\lambda \sim \text{Normal}(\mu, \sigma)$
342 $\mu = a + b * \text{Estimated value of } \phi \text{ or } \lambda$
343 $a \sim \text{Normal}(0, 0.1)$
344 $b \sim \text{Normal}(1, 1)$
345 $\sigma \sim \text{Exponential}(1)$

346 A slope b between the assigned and estimated values close to 1 would indicate that the estimated values
347 matched the assigned values.

348 This, and all following statistical models, were implemented using functions of the package ‘rethinking’
349 (McElreath, 2020) in R to estimate the association with stan. Following the social convention set in (McEl-
350 reath, 2020), we report the mean estimate and the 89% confidence interval from the posterior estimate from
351 these models. For each model, we ran four chains with 10,000 iterations each (half of which were burn-in,
352 and half samples for the posterior). We checked that the number of effective samples was sufficiently high
353 and evenly distributed across parameters such that auto-correlation did not influence the estimates. We also
354 confirmed that in all cases the Gelman-Rubin convergence diagnostic, \hat{R} , was 1.01 or smaller indicating that
355 the chains had converged on the final estimates (Gelman & Rubin, 1995). In all cases, we also linked the
356 model inferences back to the distribution of the raw data to confirm that the estimated predictions matched
357 the observed patterns.

358 **2) Using simulations to determine whether variation in ϕ or in λ has a stronger influence on** 359 **the number of trials individuals might need to reach criterion in reversal learning experiments**

360 We determined how the ϕ and λ values that were assigned to the simulated individuals influenced their
361 performance in the reversal learning trials, building a regression model to determine which of the two
362 parameters had a more direct influence on the number of trials individuals needed to reach criterion. We
363 assumed that the number of trials followed a Poisson distribution because the number of trials to reach
364 criterion is a count that is bounded at smaller numbers (individuals need at least 20 trials to reach the
365 criterion), with a log-linear link, because we expect there are diminishing influences of further increases in ϕ
366 or λ .

367 Number of trials to reverse $\sim \text{Poisson}(\mu)$
368 $\log \mu = a + b * \phi + c * \lambda$
369 $a \sim \text{Normal}(4.5, 1)$
370 $b \sim \text{Normal}(0, 1)$
371 $c \sim \text{Normal}(0, 1)$
372

373 The prior for the intercept a was based on the average number of trials (90) grackles in Santa Barbara were
374 observed to need to reach the criterion during the reversal (mean of 4.5 is equal to logarithm of 90, standard
375 deviation set to 1 to constrain the estimate to the range observed across individuals). The priors for the
376 relationships b and c with ϕ and λ were centered on zero, indicating that, a-priori, we do not bias it toward
377 a relationship.

378 **3) Estimating ϕ and λ from the observed reversal learning performances of great-tailed grackles** 379 **to determine which has more influence on variation in how many trials individuals needed to** 380 **reach the passing criterion**

381 The collection of the great-tailed grackle data is described in detail in (Logan et al., 2023a). The data
382 collection was based on our preregistration that received in principle acceptance at PCI Ecology (Coulon,
383 2023). All of the analyses reported here were not part of the original preregistration.

384 The research on the great-tailed grackles followed established ethical guidelines for the involvement and treat-
385 ment of animals in experiments and received institutional approval prior to conducting the study (US Fish

386 and Wildlife Service scientific collecting permit number MB76700A-0,1,2; US Geological Survey Bird Band-
387 ing Laboratory federal bird banding permit number 23872; Arizona Game and Fish Department scientific
388 collecting license number SP594338 [2017], SP606267 [2018], and SP639866 [2019]; California Department
389 of Fish and Wildlife scientific collecting permit number S-192100001-19210-001; Institutional Animal Care
390 and Use Committee at Arizona State University protocol number 17-1594R; Institutional Animal Care and
391 Use Committee at the University of California Santa Barbara protocol number 958; University of Cambridge
392 ethical review process non-regulated use of animals in scientific procedures: zoo4/17 [2017]).

393 The data we use here were published as part of an earlier article (Logan et al., 2023b) and are available at
394 the Knowledge Network for Biocomplexity’s data repository: [https://knb.ecoinformatics.org/view/corina_](https://knb.ecoinformatics.org/view/corina_logan.84.42)
395 [logan.84.42](https://knb.ecoinformatics.org/view/corina_logan.84.42).

397 Great-tailed grackles were caught in the wild in Tempe, Arizona, USA for individual identification (colored leg
398 bands in unique combinations), and brought temporarily into aviaries for testing, before being released back
399 to the wild. After training individuals to gain food from a yellow-colored tube, individuals then participated
400 in the reversal learning tasks. A subset of individuals was part of the control group, where they learned
401 the association of the reward with one color before experiencing one reversal to learn that the other color
402 is rewarded (initial reward option was randomly assigned to either a dark-gray or a light-gray tube). The
403 rewarded option was switched when grackles passed the criterion of choosing the rewarded option during 17
404 of the most recent 20 trials. This criterion was set based on earlier serial reversal learning studies, and is
405 based on the chi-square test which indicates that 17 out of 20 represents a significant association. With this
406 criterion, individuals can be assumed to have learned the association between the cue and the reward (Logan
407 et al., 2022). After their single reversal, the 11 control grackles participated in a number of trials with two
408 identically colored tubes (yellow) which both contained a reward. This matched their general experiment
409 participation to that of the manipulated group. The other subset of 8 individuals in the manipulated group
410 went through a series of reversals until they reached the criterion of having formed an association (17 out
411 of 20 choices correct) in less than 50 trials in two consecutive reversals. The individuals in the manipulated
412 group needed between 6-8 reversals to consistently reach this threshold, with the number of reversals not
413 being linked to their performance at the beginning or at the end of the experiment.

414 We fit the Bayesian reinforcement learning model to the data of both the control and the manipulated grackles.
415 Based on the simulation results indicating that the minimum sample required for accurate estimation are
416 two learning phases across one switch (see below), we fit the model first to only the choices from the initial
417 association learning phase and the first reversal learning phase for both control and manipulated individuals.
418 For the control grackles, these estimated ϕ and λ values also reflect their behavioral flexibility at the end of
419 the reversal learning experiment. For the manipulated grackles, we additionally calculated ϕ and λ separately
420 for their final two reversals at the end of the manipulation to infer the potential changes in the parameters .
421 We fit the same regression model as with the simulated data to determine how ϕ and λ link to the number
422 of trials grackles needed during their reversals.

423 **4) Comparing ϕ and λ from the beginning and the end of the observed serial reversal learning** 424 **performances to assess which changes more as grackles improve their performance**

425 For the subset of grackles that were part of the manipulated group, we calculated how much their ϕ and
426 λ changed from their first to their last reversal.

427 ϕ or $\lambda \sim \text{Normal}(\mu, \sigma)$
428 $\mu = a_{bird} + b_{bird} * \text{reversal}$ $[a_{bird}, b_{bird}] \sim \text{MVNormal}([a, b], S)$
429 $S = (\delta_{bird}, 0)$ $\text{Rho}(\delta_{bird}, 0)$
430 $\text{Rho} \sim \text{LKJcorr}(2)$
431 $a \sim \text{Normal}(5, 2)$
432 $b \sim \text{Normal}(-1, 0.5)$
433 $\delta_{bird} \sim \text{Exponential}(1)$
434 $\sigma \sim \text{Exponential}(1)$

435

436 where each grackle has two ϕ or λ values, one from the beginning ('reversal' equals 1) and one from the end
 437 of the serial reversal experiment ('reversal' equals 2). We assume that there are individual differences that
 438 persist through the experiment (intercept a_{bird}) and that how much individuals change might also depend
 439 on their values at the beginning (multi-normal matrix correlation between the bird specific intercepts a and
 440 the bird specific changes between the reversals b).

441 We also fit a model to assess whether how much individuals improved in the number of trials from their first
 442 to their last reversal was linked more to their change in ϕ or to their change in λ .

443 Improvement in number of trials \sim Normal(μ , σ)
 444 $\mu = a + b * \text{change in } \phi + c * \text{change in } \lambda$ $a \sim$ Normal(40, 10)
 445 $b \sim$ Normal(0, 10)
 446 $c \sim$ Normal(0, 10)
 447 $\sigma \sim$ Exponential(1)
 448

449 where *Improvement in the number of trials* is the difference in the number of trials between the first and the
 450 last reversal and *change in ϕ* and *change in λ* are the respective differences in these parameters between the
 451 beginning and the end of the serial reversal experiment.

452 **5) Calculating whether individual differences in ϕ and λ persist throughout the serial reversal**
 453 **learning experiment and whether individuals differ in how much they change throughout the**
 454 **experiment**

455 We checked whether the ϕ or λ values of individuals at the beginning (*first*) was associated with how much
 456 they changed (*change*, difference in values between beginning or end) or with the values they had at the end
 457 (*last*).

458 ϕ *change* or λ *change* \sim Normal(μ , σ)
 459 $\mu = a + b * \phi$ *first* or λ *first*
 460 $a \sim$ Normal(0,1)
 461 $b \sim$ Normal(0,1)
 462 $\sigma \sim$ Exponential(1)
 463

464 ϕ *last* or λ *last* \sim Normal(μ , σ) $\mu = a + b * \phi$ *first* or λ *first*
 465 $a \sim$ Normal(0,1)
 466 $b \sim$ Normal(0,1)
 467 $\sigma \sim$ Exponential(1)

468 In addition, we assessed whether grackles at the end show the potential trade-off between ϕ and λ that could
 469 be expected in the serial reversal experiment.

470 ϕ *last* \sim Normal(μ , σ)
 471 $\mu = a + b * \lambda$ *last*
 472 $a \sim$ Normal(0,1)
 473 $b \sim$ Normal(0,1)
 474 $\sigma \sim$ Exponential(1)

475 **6) Linking ϕ and λ from the observed serial reversal learning performances to the performance**
 476 **on the multi-access boxes**

477 After the individuals had completed the reversal learning experiment, they were provided access to two
 478 multi-access puzzle boxes, one made of wood and one made of plastic. The two boxes were designed with
 479 slight differences to explore how general the performance of the grackles was. The wooden box was made
 480 from a natural log, so was more representative of something the grackles might encounter in the wild. In
 481 addition, while both boxes had 4 possible ways (options) to access food, the four options on the wooden box
 482 were distinct compartments, each containing rewards, while the four options on the plastic box all led to the

483 same reward. Grackles were tested sequentially on both boxes, where individuals could initially explore all
 484 options. After proficiency at an option was achieved (gaining food from this locus three times in a row), this
 485 option became non-functional by closing access to the option, and then the latency of the grackle to switch
 486 to attempting a different option was measured. If they again successfully solved another option, this second
 487 options was also made non-functional, and so on. The outcome measures for each individual with each box
 488 were the average latency it took to switch to a new option and the total number of options they successfully
 489 solved. For details see (Logan et al., 2023a).

490 We modified the models in the original article (Logan et al., 2023a) that linked performance on the serial
 491 reversal learning tasks to performance on the multi-access boxes, replacing the previously used independent
 492 variable of number of trials needed to reach criterion in the last reversal with the estimated ϕ and λ values
 493 from the last two reversals (manipulated grackles) or the initial discrimination and the first reversal (control
 494 grackles) (see below for explanation of these choices). With our expectation that ϕ and λ could be negatively
 495 correlated, we realized that grackles might be using different strategies when facing a situation in which cues
 496 change: some grackles might quickly discard previous information and rely on what they recently experienced
 497 (high ϕ and low λ), or they might rely on earlier information and continue to explore other options (low ϕ
 498 and high λ). Accordingly, we assumed that there also might be non-linear, U-shaped relationships between
 499 ϕ and/or λ and the performance on the multi-access box. For the number of options solved, we fit a binomial
 500 model with a logit link:

$$\begin{aligned}
 501 \text{options solved} &\sim \text{Binomial}(4, p) \\
 502 \text{logit}(p) &\sim a + b * \phi + c * \phi^2 + d * \lambda + e * \lambda^2 \\
 503 a &\sim \text{dnorm}(1, 1) \\
 504 b &\sim \text{dnorm}(0, 1) \\
 505 c &\sim \text{dnorm}(0, 1) \\
 506 d &\sim \text{dnorm}(0, 1) \\
 507 e &\sim \text{dnorm}(0, 1)
 \end{aligned}$$

508 where *options solved* is the number of options solved on the multi-access puzzle box, 4 is the total number
 509 of options, p is the probability of solving any one option across the whole experiment, a is the intercept, b is
 510 the expected linear amount of change in *options solved* for every one unit change in ϕ in the reversal learning
 511 experiments, c is the expected non-linear amount of change in *options solved* for every one unit change in ϕ
 512 squared, d the expected linear amount of change for changes in λ , and e the expected non-linear amount of
 513 change for changes in λ squared.

514 For the average latency to attempt a new option on the multi-access puzzle box as it relates to trials to
 515 reverse (both are measures of flexibility), we fit a Gamma-Poisson model with a log-link:

$$\begin{aligned}
 516 \text{latency} &\sim \text{Gamma-Poisson}(\mu_i, \sigma) \\
 517 \text{log}(\mu_i) &\sim a + b * \phi + c * \phi^2 + d * \lambda + e * \lambda^2 \\
 518 a &\sim \text{dnorm}(1, 1) \\
 519 b &\sim \text{dnorm}(0, 1) \\
 520 c &\sim \text{dnorm}(0, 1) \\
 521 d &\sim \text{dnorm}(0, 1) \\
 522 e &\sim \text{dnorm}(0, 1) \\
 523 \sigma &\sim \text{Exponential}(1)
 \end{aligned}$$

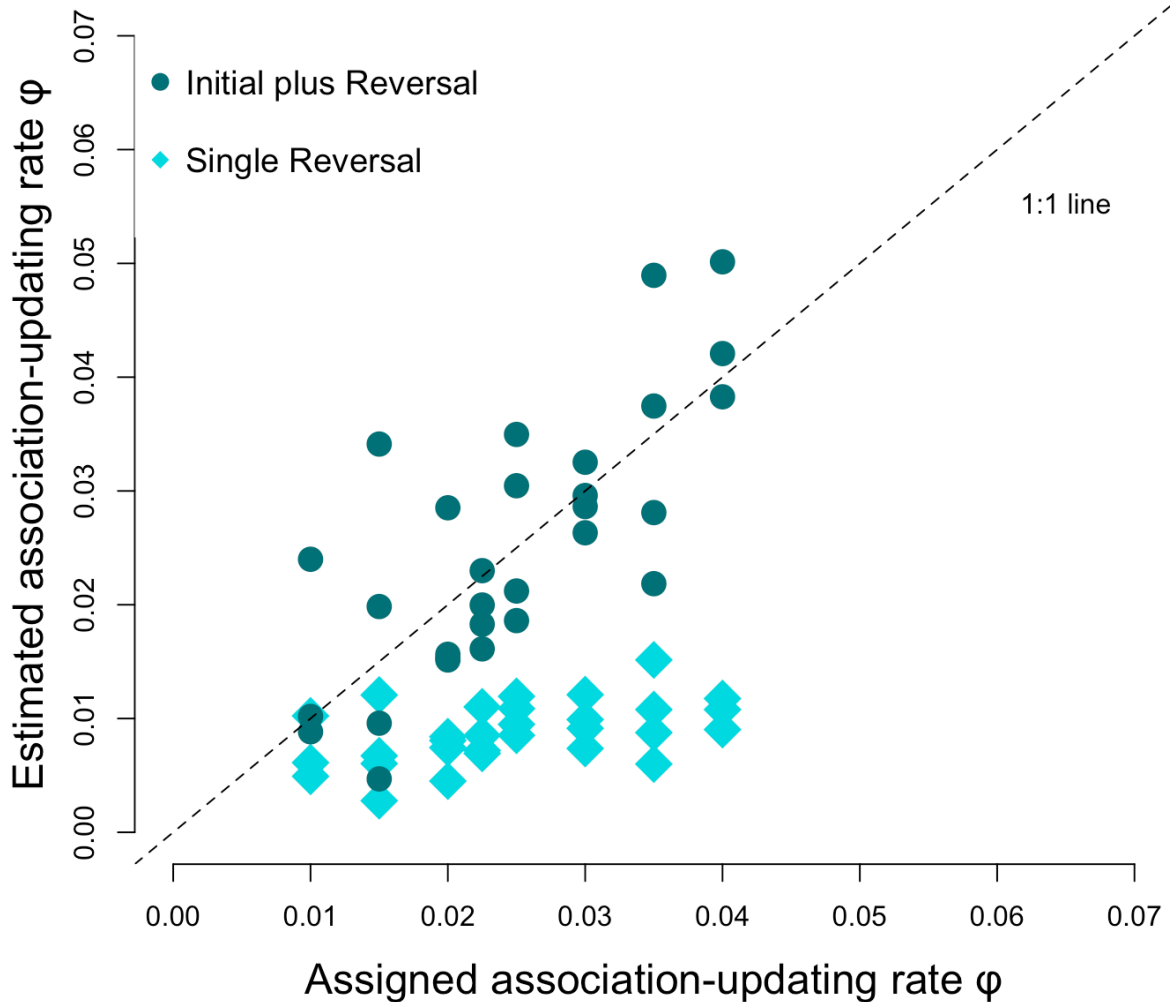
524 latency is the average latency to attempt a new option on the multi-access box, μ_i is the rate (probability
 525 of attempting an option in each second) per grackles (and we take the log of it to make sure it is always
 526 positive; grackles with a higher rate have a smaller latency), σ is the dispersion of the rates across grackles,
 527 a is the intercept, b is the expected linear amount of change in latency for every one unit change in ϕ , c is
 528 the expected non-linear amount of change in latency for every one unit change in ϕ squared, d the expected
 529 linear amount of change for changes in λ , and e the expected non-linear amount of change for changes in λ
 530 squared.

531 RESULTS

532 1) Power of the Bayesian reinforcement learning model to detect short-term changes in the 533 association-updating rate ϕ and the sensitivity to learned associations λ

534 Applying the Bayesian reinforcement learning model to simulated data from only a single phase (initial
535 association or first reversal) revealed that, while the model recovered the differences among individuals,
536 the estimated ϕ and λ values did not match those the individuals had been assigned (Figure 2 shows the
537 relationship between the assigned and estimated ϕ values when estimated from only the first reversal as
538 an illustration). We realized that ϕ and λ values were consistently shifted, with the Bayesian estimation
539 adjusting both parameters towards the mean and away from extreme values. Simulated individuals who
540 were assigned large λ values were estimated to have a smaller λ values but in turn estimated to have ϕ
541 values such that they would reach criterion in a similar number of trials because while the model assumed
542 that they were more exploratory the model also assumed that they updated their associations more quickly.
543 Similarly, individuals with large assigned ϕ values were estimated to have smaller ϕ values, but in turn were
544 estimated to have larger λ values than those λ they were assigned. Because the estimation from a single
545 reversal did not accurately recover large values for either parameter, both the estimated ϕ values (slope of
546 the correlation between the estimated and the assigned ϕ +0.15, confidence interval +0.06 to +0.23, n=626
547 simulated individuals) and the estimated λ values (slope of the correlation between the estimated and the
548 assigned λ +0.58, confidence interval +0.48 to +0.68, n=626 simulated individuals) were underestimates of
549 the assigned values. In addition, this shift means that, even though simulated individuals were assigned ϕ
550 and λ values randomly from across all possible combinations, the estimated values showed a strong positive
551 correlation as the model had to make up the shifts in estimates of one parameter through shifting the
552 estimate of the other parameter (slope of the correlation between the estimated λ and estimated ϕ values
553 +505, confidence interval +435 to +570, n=626 simulated individuals).

554 In contrast, when we combined data from across the initial discrimination learning and the first reversal, the
555 model accurately recovered the ϕ and λ values that the simulated individuals had been assigned (slope of
556 the correlation between the estimated and the assigned ϕ +0.96, confidence interval +0.70 to +1.21, n=626
557 simulated individuals; slope of the correlation between the estimated and the assigned λ +0.98, confidence
558 interval +0.92 to +1.05, n=626 simulated individuals) (Figure 2). While different combinations of ϕ and λ
559 could potentially explain the series of choices during a single phase (initial discrimination and single reversal),
560 these different combinations lead to different assumptions about how an individual would behave right after
561 a reversal when the reward is switched to the alternative option, making it possible to infer the assigned value
562 when combining behavioral choices from two phases (initial learning plus first reversal, or two subsequent
563 reversals).



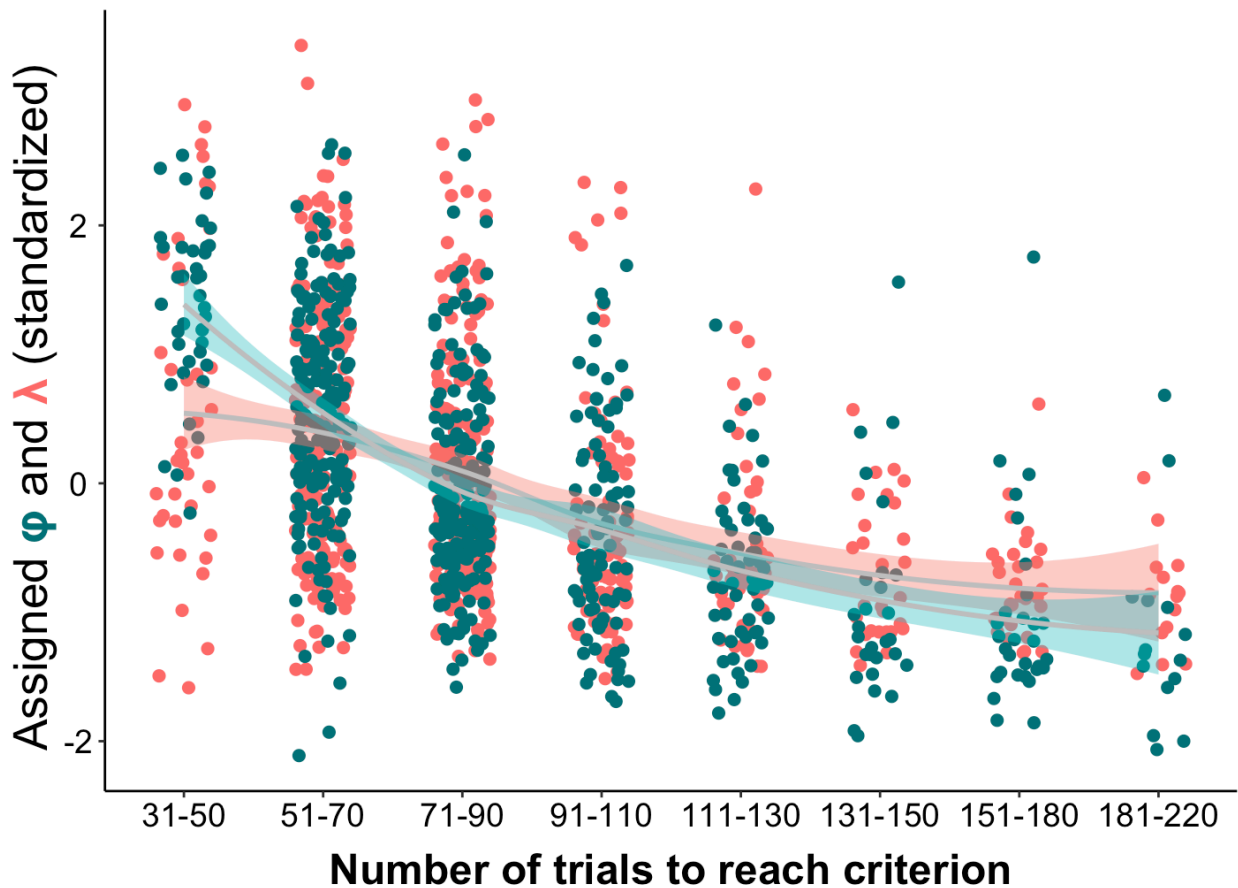
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565 **Figure 2:** The ϕ values estimated by the model based on the choices made by 30 of the simulated individuals
 566 (y-axis) versus the ϕ values assigned to them (x-axis). Individuals were assigned a range of ϕ values, their
 567 choices were simulated and these values were used to back-estimate the ϕ . When ϕ was estimated based
 568 on the choices made only during the first reversal, the estimates were consistently lower than the assigned
 569 values, particularly for large ϕ values (lightblue squares). However, when ϕ was estimated based on the
 570 choices made during the initial association and the first reversal, the estimates were close to the assigned
 571 values (darkgreen circles). Patterns are similar for the relationship between the estimated and assigned λ
 572 values, and when ϕ and λ are estimated only from the trials during the initial association learning. Lines
 573 around the points indicate the confidence intervals of the estimated values.

574 **2) Predicted role of ϕ and λ on performance in the serial reversal learning task based on**
 575 **simulations**

576 In terms of the influence of the two parameters ϕ and λ on the number of trials grackles needed to reverse
 577 a color preference, the ϕ values assigned to simulated individuals had a stronger influence than the λ values
 578 (estimated association of number of trials with standardized values of ϕ : -0.23, confidence interval: -0.24 to
 579 -0.23; with standardized values of λ : -0.17, confidence interval: -0.18 to -0.16, $n = 626$ simulated individuals).

580 In line with the prediction, there was a linear negative relationship between ϕ and the number of trials to
 581 reverse, with simulated individuals needing fewer trials the more they updated their association based on
 582 their most recent experience. There also was, as predicted, an overall negative relationship between λ and
 583 the number of trials to reverse. Individuals generally needed few trials to reach the criterion if they were
 584 assigned a high λ value because they acted even on small differences in their learned associations. However,
 585 while individuals with small λ values can show large numbers of 150 or more trials to reach criterion because
 586 they are not sensitive to the differences in their learned associations, individuals with small λ values can also
 587 reach the criterion in small numbers of trials if they simultaneously quickly update their association because
 588 of their high ϕ values (Figure 3).

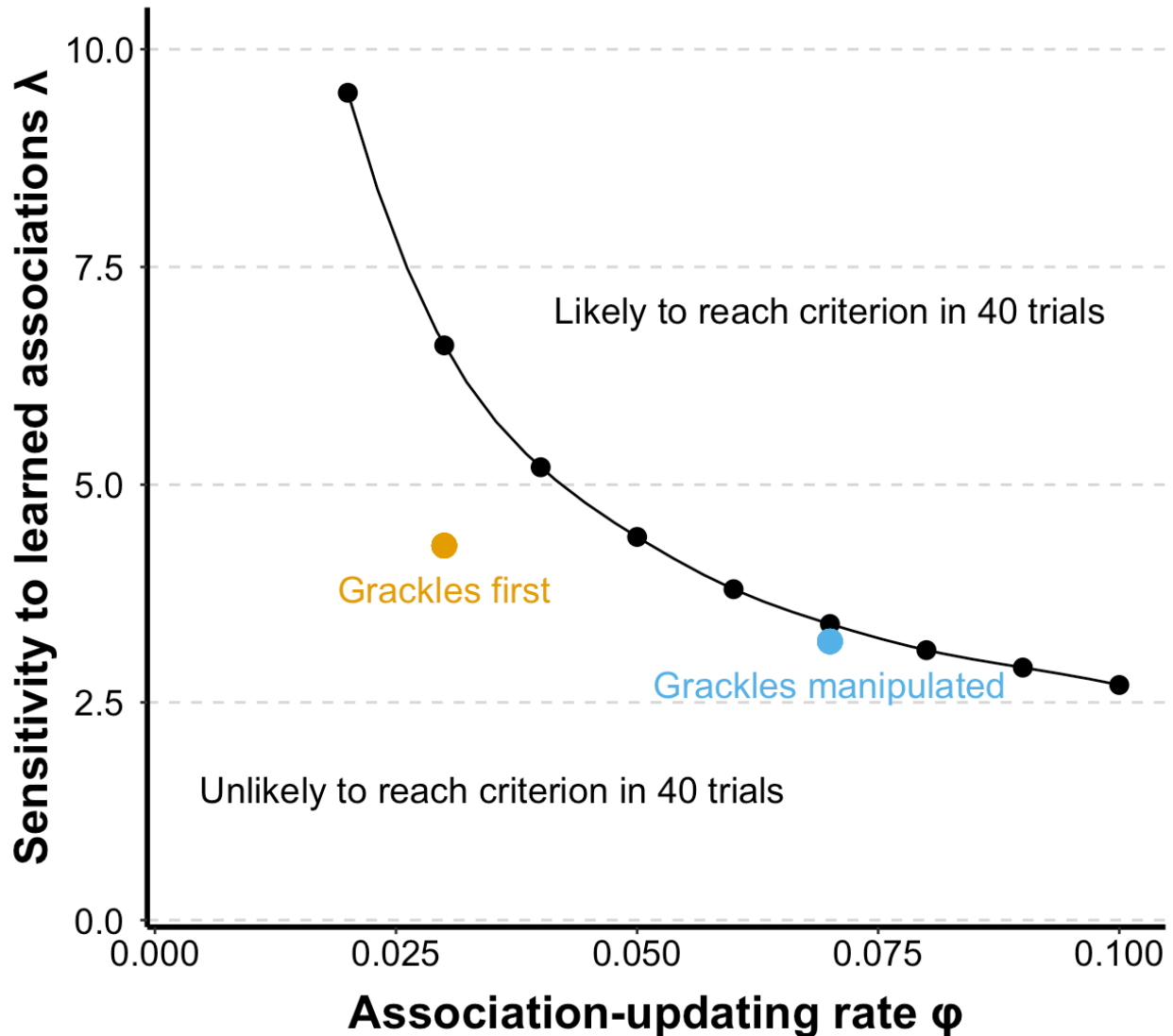


589

590 **Figure 3.** In the simulations, the ϕ values assigned to individuals (green) had a larger influence on the
 591 number of trials these individuals needed to reverse than their λ values (red). In general, individuals needed
 592 fewer trials to reverse if they had larger ϕ and λ values. However, relatively small λ values could be found
 593 across the range of reversal performances, whereas there was a more clear distinction with ϕ values (shaded
 594 lines represent confidence intervals of the estimated relationship for these data). ϕ and λ are grouped into discrete blocks for easier illustration, but the analyses were performed on the raw values
 595 for each individual.

597 We performed an analytical assessment of this likely trade-off between the association updating rate ϕ and
 598 the sensitivity to the learned associations λ to identify the range of values we could expect in the serial
 599 reversal learning experiment. We assigned an hypothetical individual one of nine potential ϕ values in the
 600 range of 0.02 to 0.10 (steps differ by 0.01), assumed that this individual initially had the same association
 601 of the reward with both of the options (associations of 0.10 for light gray and 0.10 for dark gray), and
 602 assumed that this individual would choose each options 10 times during its first 20 trials. We calculated
 603 the associations to both options after the first 20 trials given the respective ϕ (e.g. with a ϕ of 0.10, the
 604 association with the rewarded option increases to 0.69 while the association with the unrewarded option

605 declines to 0.03). Based on the differences in the two associations, we estimated the λ value necessary for
606 individuals to choose the rewarded option 85% in the next 20 trials (to reach the criterion of choosing the
607 rewarded option in 17 out of 20 trials). We detected a clear negative, and exponential, trade-off between
608 the necessary ϕ and λ values to reach the criterion (Figure 4): individuals with the highest ϕ value of 0.10
609 only need a λ of 2.7 to reach the criterion, whereas individuals with a ϕ value of 0.02 need a λ of 9.5. This
610 trade-off, where individuals can reach criterion during a reversal in few trials by either quickly updating their
611 associations or by being highly sensitive to even small differences in their learned associations, means that in
612 the serial reversal learning experiment individuals are expected to choose a strategy from across this range,
613 and that doing so means they can also react to the sudden reversals in the reward location. In the serial
614 reversal learning experiments, individuals will be able to reach the criterion more quickly during subsequent
615 trials if they have, as predicted, a high ϕ and a low λ value. First, even if individuals were to choose randomly
616 during the first trials after a reversal, individuals with a low ϕ need exponentially more trials to reverse their
617 bias in associations between the two options. If an individual after one reversal has an association to the
618 no longer rewarded option of 0.70 and to the now rewarded option of 0.10, with a ϕ of 0.02 it will take 48
619 random trials until their association to the now rewarded options is higher than their association to the no
620 longer rewarded option. In contrast, with a ϕ of 0.08 it will only take them 10 trials. Second, individuals
621 with a high λ value will keep on choosing the previously rewarded option in almost all of their trials until
622 this switch in associations occurs, further delaying the learning of the new associations. Individuals that
623 have an association of 0.70 with the no longer rewarded option and 0.10 with the now rewarded option will
624 choose the now rewarded option in 14% of cases if their λ is only 3, but only in 0.8% of cases if their λ is 8.



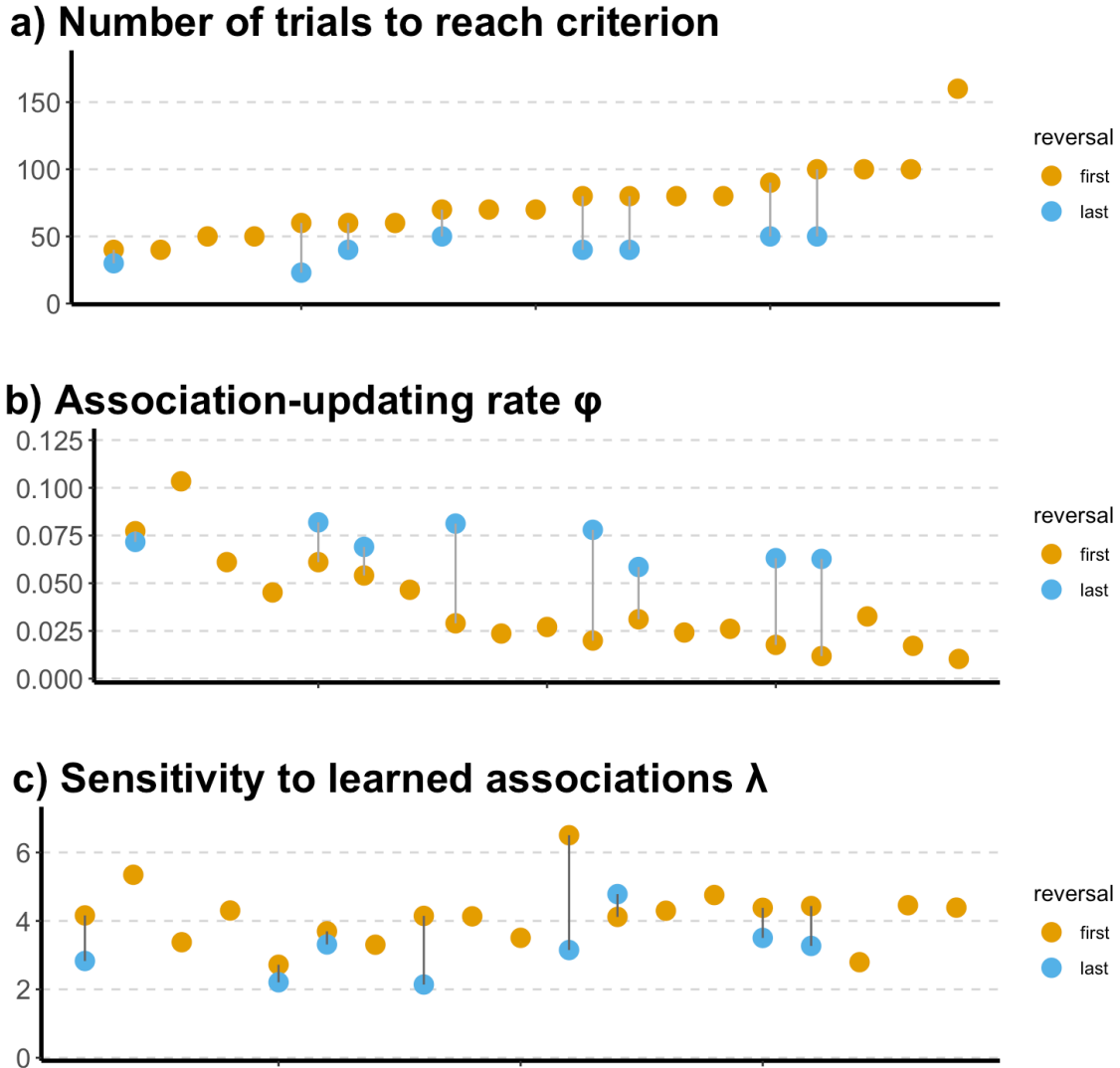
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626 **Figure 4.** Individuals are more likely to reach the criterion of choosing the correct option 17 out of 20 times
 627 during the reversal trials if they update their associations quickly (high ϕ) and/or are sensitive to even small
 628 differences in their learned associations (high λ), because, during a reversal, recent information accurately
 629 predicts where the reward can be found. The figure shows this trade-off of individuals needing either high
 630 ϕ or high λ values to reach the criterion in a hypothetical situation where all individuals reach the criterion
 631 in 40 trials. This also means that if an individual has, for example, a high ϕ , their λ value becomes less
 632 important for reaching the criterion quickly. In this example, individuals with a ϕ of 0.10 will reach the
 633 criterion in 40 trials if their λ is at least 3.3. The figure also shows the median ϕ and λ values estimated for
 634 the grackles during their first reversal (yellow) when they needed about 70 trials to reach criterion and for
 635 the manipulated individuals during their last reversal (blue) when they did needed about 40 trials to reach
 636 criterion. During the manipulation, grackles increased their ϕ to become efficient at gaining the reward and
 637 reaching the criterion, despite the concordant decline in λ .

638 **3) Observed role of ϕ and λ on performance of grackles in the reversal learning task**

639 For the grackles, we estimated ϕ and λ after the first reversal for all individuals, and additionally after
 640 the final reversal for the individuals who experienced the serial reversal learning experiment. The findings
 641 from the simulated data indicated that λ and ϕ can only be estimated accurately when calculated across
 642 at least one switch. In the simulation, we could combine the performance of individuals during the initial

643 learning with the first reversal to estimate the parameters because the behavior during those two phases
644 in the simulations was determined in the same way by the ϕ and λ values that individuals were assigned.
645 We determined that we can also combine the first two phases for the grackles, because we found that the
646 performance of the great-tailed grackles during the initial learning and the first reversal learning is correlated,
647 with grackles needing about 28 trials more to reach criterion during the first reversal than they needed during
648 the initial association learning (estimate of the association between number of trials in initial learning and
649 first reversal +1.61, confidence interval +1.53 to +1.69, n=19 grackles). Therefore, we estimated ϕ and λ for
650 the great-tailed grackles based on their performance in the initial discrimination plus first reversal, and for
651 the manipulated grackles additionally based on their performance in the final two reversals. The inferred ϕ
652 values for the grackles in Arizona range between 0.01 and 0.10, and the λ values between 2.1 and 6.5 (Figure
653 5).

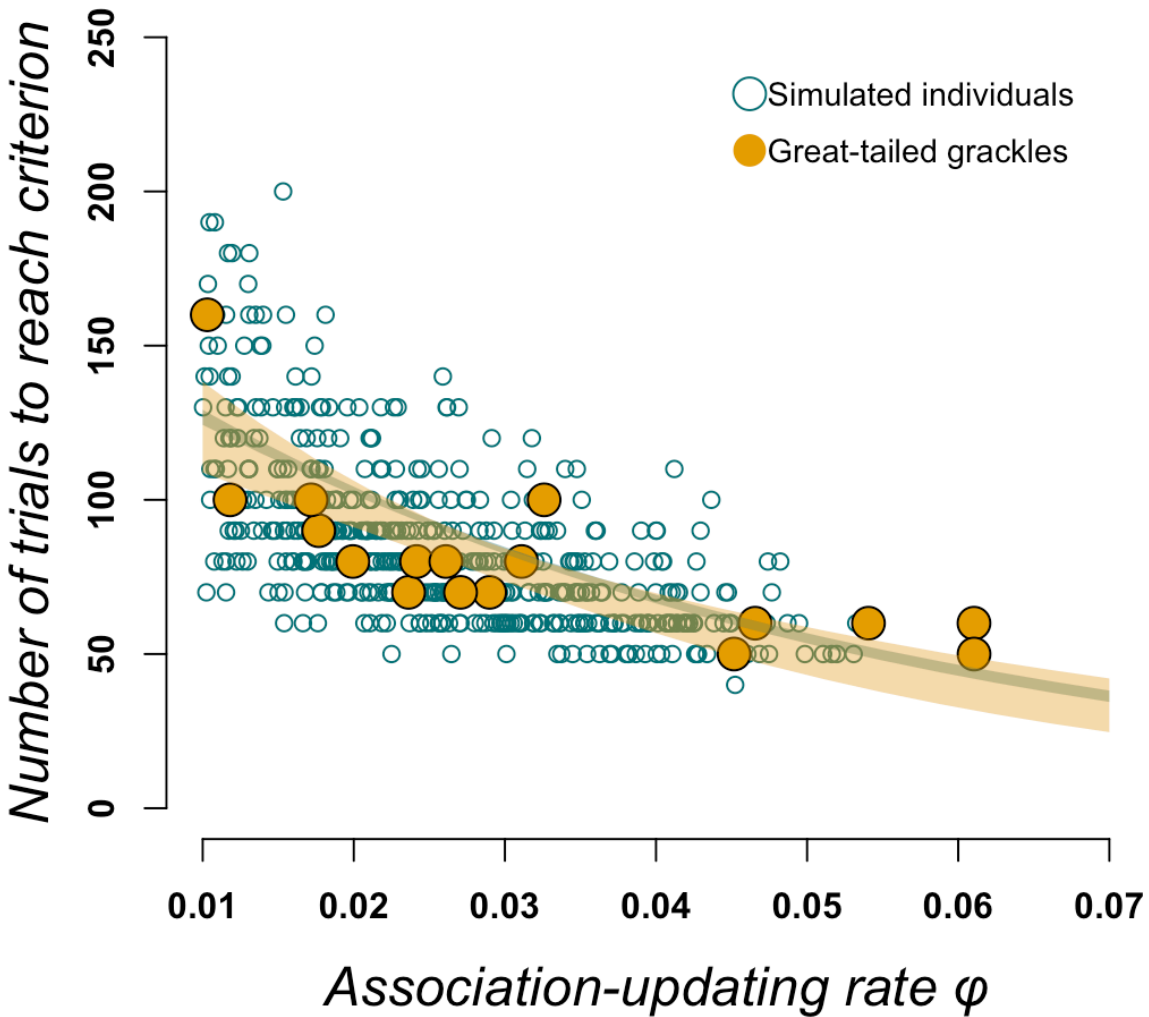


654

655 **Figure 5.** Comparisons of the different measures of ability in the reversal task for each of the 19 great-tailed
 656 grackles. The figure shows a) the number of trials to pass criterion for the first reversal (orange; all grackles)
 657 and the last reversal (blue; only manipulated grackles); b) the ϕ values reflecting the rate of updating
 658 associations with the two options inferred from the initial discrimination and first reversal (orange; all
 659 grackles) and from the last two reversals (blue; manipulated grackles); and c) the λ values reflecting the
 660 sensitivity to the learned associations inferred from the initial discrimination and first reversal (orange; all
 661 grackles) and from the last two reversals (blue; manipulated grackles). Individual grackles have the same
 662 position along the x-axis in all three panels. Grackles that needed fewer trials to reverse their preference
 663 generally had higher ϕ values, whereas λ appeared unrelated to the number of trials grackles needed during
 664 the first reversal. For the manipulated grackles, their ϕ values changed more consistently than their λ
 665 values, and the ϕ values of the manipulated individuals were generally higher than those observed in the
 666 control individuals, while their λ values remained within the range observed in the control group.

667 For the 19 grackles that finished the initial learning and the first reversal, only their ϕ , but not their λ ,
 668 predicted the number of trials they needed to reach criterion during their first reversal (mean estimate
 669 of correlation between number of trials and: standardized ϕ : -20.69, confidence interval -26.17 to -15.13;
 670 standardized λ : -0.22, confidence interval -5.66 to 5.26, n=19 grackles)(Figure 6). A grackle with a 0.01
 671 higher ϕ than another individual needed about 10 fewer trials to reach the criterion. The slope between ϕ
 672 and the number of trials for the grackles was essentially identical to that observed in the simulations (-21.21

673 vs -20.48, Figure 6). The number of trials grackles needed to reach the criterion given their ϕ values fell
 674 right into the range observed in the relationship between the ϕ and the number of trials observed among
 675 the simulated individuals (Figure 6) Even though the 8 manipulated grackles also appeared to need slightly
 676 fewer trials to reach criterion in their final two reversals if they had a higher ϕ , the limited variation in the
 677 number of trials and in ϕ and λ values among individuals means that there is no clear association (mean
 678 estimate of correlation between number of trials and: standardized ϕ : -7.38, confidence interval -15.97 to
 679 1.28; standardized λ : -4.00, 89% confidence interval 12.53 to 4.61, n=8 grackles).



680
 681 **Figure 6.** Relationship between ϕ and the number of trials grackles (yellow points) and simulated individuals
 682 (green circles) needed to reach criterion in their first trial. The observed grackle data falls within the range
 683 of the number of trials individuals with a given ϕ value are expected to need, and shows the same negative
 684 correlation between their ϕ and the number of trials as the simulated individuals (lines display the confidence
 685 interval of the estimated relationships).

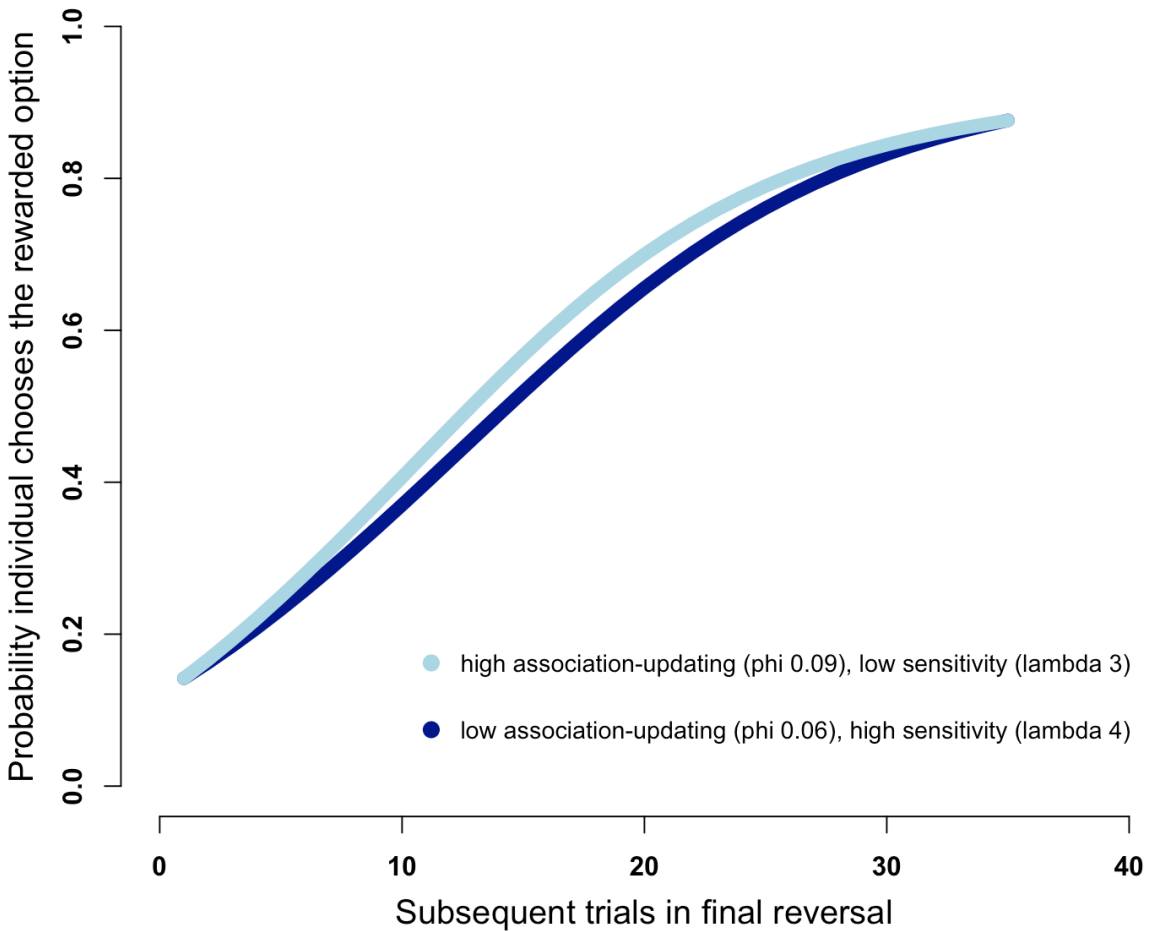
686 4) Changes in ϕ and λ through the serial reversal learning task

687 Great-tailed grackles who experienced the serial reversal learning manipulation reduced the number of trials
688 they needed to reach the criterion from an average of 75 to an average of 40 (estimate of change in number of
689 trials -30.02, confidence interval -36.05 to -24.16, n=8 grackles). For the manipulated grackles, the estimated
690 ϕ values more than doubled from 0.03 in their initial discrimination and first reversal (which is identical to
691 the average observed among the control grackles who did not experience the manipulation) to 0.07 in their
692 last two reversals (estimate of expected average change: +0.03, confidence interval +0.02 to +0.05, n=8).
693 The λ values of the manipulated grackles went slightly down from 4.2 (again, identical to control grackles)
694 to 3.2 (estimate of average change: -1.07, confidence interval -1.63 to -0.56, n=8 grackles) (Figure 5). The
695 values we observed after the manipulation in the last reversal for the number of trials to reverse, as well as
696 the ϕ and λ values estimated from the last reversal, all fall within the range of variation we observed among
697 the control grackles in their first and only reversal (Figure 5). This means that the manipulation did not
698 push grackles to new levels, but changed them within the boundaries of their natural abilities observed in
699 the population.

700 As predicted, the increase in ϕ during the manipulation fits with the outcome from the simulations: larger
701 ϕ values were associated with fewer trials to reverse. The improvement the grackles showed in the number
702 of trials they needed to reach the criterion from the first to the last reversal matched the changes in their
703 ϕ values (confidence interval +1.54 to +14.22, n=8 grackles). The improvement did not match the change
704 in their λ values (confidence interval -4.66 to 9.46, n=8 grackles), because, as predicted, the grackles in the
705 manipulation showed a decreased λ in their last reversal. This decrease in λ meant that grackles quickly
706 found the rewarded option after a switch in which option was rewarded. In their first reversal grackles
707 chose the newly rewarded option in 25% of the first 20 trials, in their final reversal the manipulated grackles
708 chose correctly in 35% of the first 20 trials. Despite their low λ values, manipulated grackles still chose the
709 rewarded option consistently because the increase in ϕ compensated for this reduced sensitivity (Figure 4;
710 also see below).

711 5) Individual consistency in the serial reversal learning task

712 While we had previously found that differences among grackles in whether they needed many or few trials
713 persisted through the manipulation, we did not find similar consistency in either ϕ or λ . We found a negative
714 correlation between the ϕ estimated from an individual's performance in the first reversal and how much
715 their ϕ changed toward the value for their performance in the last reversal (-0.84, confidence interval -1.14
716 to -0.52, n=8 grackles) such that individuals ended up with similar ϕ values to each other at the end of the
717 manipulation and their beginning and end ϕ values were not correlated (-0.21, confidence interval -1.55 to
718 1.35, n=8 grackles). Similarly, individuals who started with a high λ changed more than individuals who
719 already had lower a λ during the first reversal (-0.44, confidence interval -0.76 to -0.10, n=8 grackles) and
720 these changes were not consistent such that individual differences in λ did not remain through the serial
721 reversal learning task (+0.17confidence interval -0.67 to +0.97, n=8 grackles). Individuals appeared to use
722 different adjustments to their strategies to improve their performance through the manipulation. There was
723 a negative correlation between an individual's ϕ and λ after their last reversal (-0.39, 89% confidence interval:
724 -0.72 to -0.06, n=8 grackles), indicating that they ended up with different strategies from along the range of
725 potential solutions. Some individuals quickly learn the new reward structure after a switch, but continue to
726 explore the alternative option even after they have learned the new associations (high association-updating
727 rate and low sensitivity to learned associations). Other individuals take longer to learn that the reward has
728 switched but once they have reversed their associations they rarely choose the unrewarded option (Figure 7).
729 Together, this suggests that all individuals improved by the same extent through the manipulation such that
730 the differences in their performances persisted, but they ended up with different strategies for how to quickly
731 reach the criterion after a reversal by either having a high association updating rate or a low sensitivity to
732 their learned associations.



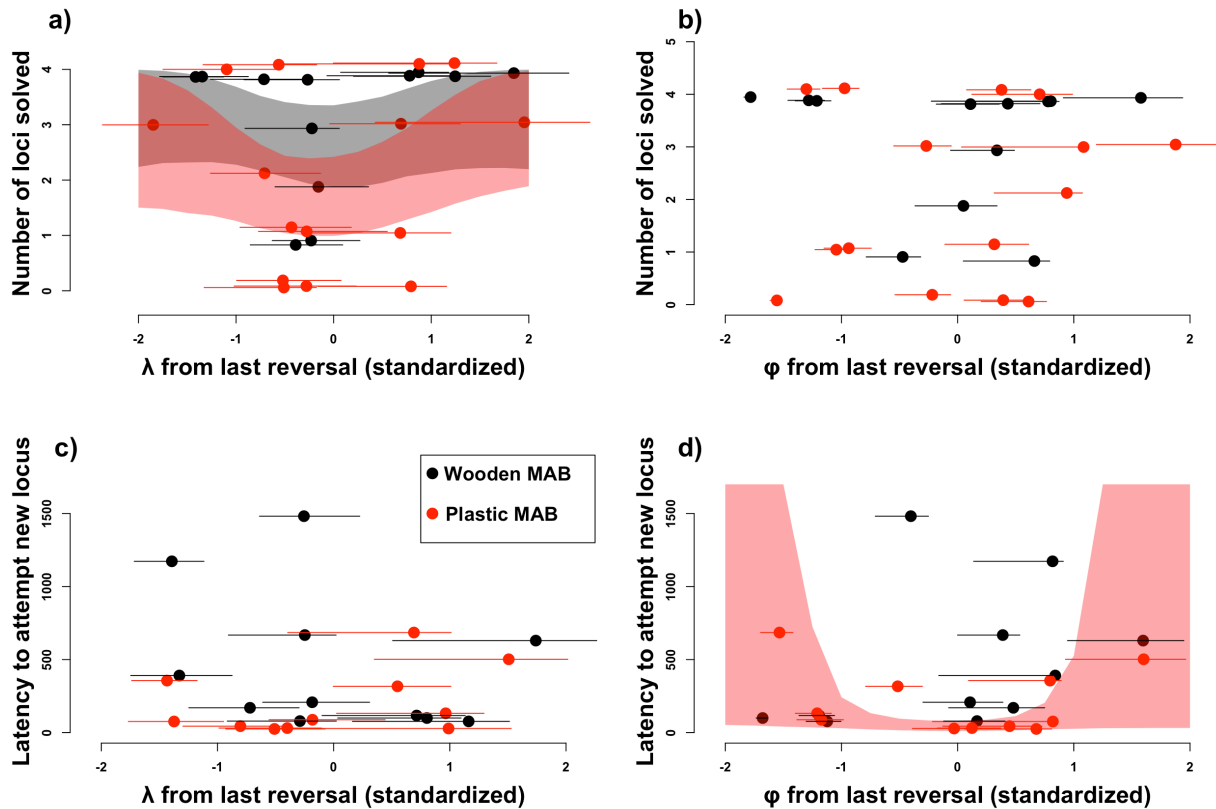
733

734 **Figure 7.** Predicted performance curves of individuals with different ϕ and λ values at the end of the serial
 735 reversal learning experiment based on the analytical formulas. We observed that, among the grackles who
 736 completed the serial reversal learning experiment, there was a negative correlation between their ϕ and λ ,
 737 indicating that individuals used slightly different strategies to reach the criterion (choosing the rewarded
 738 option in 85% or more of trials) at equally few number of trials after the reward switched (when they had
 739 chosen the now rewarded option in 15% or less of trials). Individuals with a higher ϕ and lower λ (light blue
 740 line) quickly learn the new associations, but continue to explore the unrewarded option even after they have
 741 learned the association, leading to a curve with a more gradual increase throughout the trials. Individuals
 742 with a lower ϕ and higher λ (dark blue line) take longer to switch their associations, but once they do, they
 743 only rarely choose the non-rewarded option, leading to a more S-shaped curve where the initial increase in
 744 probability is lower and a more rapid rise later.

745 **6) Association between ϕ and λ with performance on the multi-access boxes**

746 We previously found that three measures of performance in the two multi-access puzzle boxes (number of
 747 options solved for both the wooden and the plastic multi-access puzzle box, latency to solve a new option on
 748 the plastic multi-access puzzle box) were correlated with the number of trials grackles needed to reach the
 749 criterion in the color tube reversal. We find that these measures also correlate with the underlying flexibility
 750 parameters ϕ and λ . In particular, the number of options solved on both the plastic and the wooden multi-

751 access puzzle boxes had a U-shaped association with the λ values individuals had at the end in their last
 752 reversal (estimate of association between number of options solved on plastic box and: $\phi = +0.03$, confidence
 753 interval -0.38 to $+0.43$; squared $\phi = -0.16$, confidence interval -0.59 to $+0.28$; $\lambda = +0.17$, confidence
 754 interval -0.27 to $+0.61$; squared $\lambda = +0.59$, confidence interval $+0.18$ to $+1.02$; $n=15$ grackles; estimate of
 755 association between number of options solved on wooden box and: $\phi = -0.08$, confidence interval -0.62 to
 756 $+0.47$; ϕ squared = $+0.43$, confidence interval -0.08 to $+0.97$; $\lambda = +0.03$, confidence interval -0.50 to $+0.59$;
 757 squared $\lambda = +0.63$, confidence interval $+0.12$ to $+1.19$; $n=12$ grackles). Grackles who had either particularly
 758 low or particularly high sensitivities to their previously learned associations were more likely to solve all four
 759 options than grackles with intermediate values of λ (Figure 8). For the latency to attempt a new option on
 760 the plastic box there was also a U-shaped association, but with ϕ (estimate of association between latency to
 761 attempt new option on plastic box and: $\phi = -0.66$, confidence interval -1.30 to $+0.06$; squared $\phi = +0.58$,
 762 confidence interval -0.06 to $+1.30$; $\lambda = +0.14$, confidence interval -0.45 to $+0.70$; squared $\lambda = +1.09$,
 763 confidence interval $+0.28$ to $+1.87$; $n=11$ grackles; estimate of association between latency to attempt new
 764 option on wooden box and: $\phi = -0.62$, confidence interval -1.46 to $+0.14$; ϕ squared = $+0.39$, confidence
 765 interval -0.47 to $+1.26$; $\lambda = +0.13$, confidence interval -0.66 to $+0.86$; squared $\lambda = +0.32$, confidence interval
 766 -0.62 to $+1.35$; $n=11$ grackles). Grackles with either particularly high or particularly low rates of updating
 767 their associations took longer to attempt a new option than grackles with intermediate values of ϕ (Figure
 768 8).



769

770 **Figure 8.** Relationships between ϕ and λ from the last reversal and performance on the wooden (black
 771 dots) and plastic (red dots) multi-access puzzle boxes. Grackles with intermediate λ values in their last
 772 reversal (a) were less likely to solve all four options on both boxes than grackles with either high or low λ
 773 values. Grackles with intermediate ϕ values have a shorter latency to attempt a new option on the plastic
 774 box (d). There are no clear relationships between ϕ and the number of options solved on either box (b), λ
 775 and the latency to attempt an option on either box (c), or (d) ϕ and the latency to attempt a new option on
 776 the wooden box. The ϕ and λ values change slightly between the top and bottom rows because the sample
 777 differs between boxes, and values were standardized for each plot.

778 **DISCUSSION**

779 Our analyses indicate that applying a more mechanistic model to understand the behavior of great-tailed
780 grackles in a serial reversal learning experiment can provide additional insights into the potential components
781 of behavioral flexibility and their dynamic changes. First, the simulations showed that the Bayesian rein-
782 forcement learning model accurately captures variation in the behavior of individuals in the serial reversal
783 learning experiment and that the two key parameters ϕ , the association-updating rate, and λ , the sensitivity
784 to learned associations, can be reliably inferred if we combine at least two association learning periods across
785 a switch in the rewarded options. This provides the opportunity to also infer whether and how individuals
786 who experience the serial reversal learning experiment dynamically change their behavioral flexibility. Sec-
787 ond, in line with our prediction, the simulations indicate that higher ϕ and lower λ mean that individuals
788 should reach the reversal learning criterion in fewer trials. However, we observe that for a single reversal ϕ is
789 more important and that λ simply sets a threshold on the number of trials individuals need to consistently
790 choose the rewarded option. Third, post-hoc analyses of grackle serial reversal learning data revealed that,
791 contrary to our prediction but in line with the simulation results, ϕ but not λ explained more of the interindi-
792 vidual variation in how many trials individuals needed to reach criterion during a reversal. Fourth, matching
793 these observations, we found that the primary component of flexibility that was manipulated during the
794 serial reversal experiments was ϕ , which more than doubled between the first and last reversals, whereas λ
795 slightly declined, as expected based on the simulations. Fifth, while individual differences in performance
796 persist across the manipulation, the underlying changes in ϕ and λ are not predictable based on their initial
797 values. Grackles appear to use different strategies to improve their performance during the serial reversal
798 experiment, with some individuals showing more changes in their association-updating rate but less in their
799 sensitivity to learned associations, while others show the opposite, leading to a negative correlation between
800 the inferred ϕ and λ values among the individuals at the end of the serial reversal learning experiment..
801 Finally, these different strategies to improve their behavioral flexibility that individuals revealed in the se-
802 rial reversal learning experiment subsequently also influenced their behavior in a different experimental test
803 of behavioral flexibility. Grackles with intermediate values of λ (and ϕ) solved fewer options on both
804 multi-access puzzle boxes than grackles with either high or low λ (and low or high ϕ), and grackles with
805 intermediate values of ϕ have shorter latencies to attempt a new option. Accordingly, the grackles appeared
806 to react to the predictability of the associations and the frequent switches of the reward location that they
807 experienced during the serial reversal learning experiment to adjust their behavioral flexibility.

808 Previous analyses of reversal learning performance in wild-caught animals have often focused on summaries
809 of the choices individuals make (e.g. Bond et al., 2007), setting criteria to define success and how much
810 individuals sample or explore the different options versus acquire or exploit the reward (e.g. Federspiel et al.,
811 2017). These approaches are more descriptive, making it difficult to link the differences to specific processes
812 and to predict how variation in behavior might transfer to other tasks. While there have been attempts
813 to identify potential rules that individuals might learn during serial reversal learning (Minh Le et al., 2023;
814 Spence, 1936; J. Warren, 1965; J. M. Warren, 1965), these rules were often about abstract switches to extreme
815 strategies (e.g. win-stay / lose-shift) and therefore could not account for the full variation in the behavior.
816 In contrast, the Bayesian reinforcement learning model with its two parameters of the association-updating
817 rate and the sensitivity to learned associations has a clear theoretical foundation and appears to be sufficient
818 to accurately represent the behavior of grackles in the serial reversal experiment. The previously described
819 rules, including dramatic shifts in strategies, can be recovered with the dynamic Bayesian reinforcement
820 learning model, including the different ‘learning curves’ that we observe among individuals (e.g. Gallistel
821 et al. (2004)). Applying the Bayesian reinforcement model to (serial) reversal learning experiments can
822 provide several benefits to our understanding of behavioral flexibility. First, it highlights the key pieces
823 of information that individuals likely pay attention to when adjusting their behavior. This provides ways
824 to also link their performances and inferred cognitive abilities to how they experience and react to their
825 natural environments. In particular, literature on foraging behavior that focuses on the likely trade-offs
826 between the exploration versus exploitation of different options has a similar focus on gaining information
827 (exploration) versus decision making (exploitation) (Addicott et al., 2017; Berger-Tal et al., 2014; Kramer
828 & Weary, 1991). Having a mechanistic model for the behavioral choices can also help to design better
829 and alternative experiments. Simulating the likely behavioral choices of individuals can help to decide

830 how to track the progress of individuals and when to switch rewards (Logan et al., 2023a). Deciding on
831 which external conditions might matter most to a given group of individuals can help to determine which
832 parameters to vary and can help to adapt the model further. For example, it has been extended to allow for
833 unpredictability in the association between the cue and the reward (Danwitz et al., 2022; Gershman, 2018)
834 or to assume that experiencing a reward will update the association more than not experiencing a reward
835 (Metha et al., 2020). Our advance here was to make the model dynamic to determine how individuals adjust
836 their behavior during the serial reversal learning experiment.

837 The dynamic model shows that behavioral flexibility in the grackles is not a fixed trait, but individuals
838 can change their flexibility in response to their experiences. Grackles coming into the experiment already
839 had different strategies, suggesting that they had different experiences of how predictable cues are and how
840 frequently their environment changes. In general, the association-updating rate ϕ appears to explain more
841 of the variation in how many trials individuals need to reach the criterion of consistently choosing the
842 rewarded option during a single phase. The importance of the association-updating rate for the performance
843 of the grackles in the reversal learning experiment matches what has been reported for squirrel monkeys
844 (Bari et al., 2022). In contrast, the sensitivity to learned associations λ appears to set a threshold on the
845 performance during a single phase, but appears more important as the rewards switch more frequently. In
846 the serial reversal learning experiments, we observed an initial decline in performance, with most grackles
847 needing more trials in the second and third reversal compared to the first, before improving and reaching the
848 criterion in 50 trials or less (Logan et al., 2023a). This initial increase likely reflects that grackles need to
849 distinguish between the absence of a reward at the previously rewarded location reflects stochastic variation
850 in the association between the cue and the reward or an actual switch in reward structure. In a stochastic
851 environment, individuals can gain more reward if they do not update their associations quickly, but stick with
852 an option that previously gave them high rewards (Woo et al., 2023). In their natural environment, most
853 cues are presumably not perfect such that their initial expectation might be that the particular tube just did
854 not have a reward that time, but should still provide rewards frequently, thus explaining their initial decline
855 in performance. Only after several switches is there sufficient information for the grackles to infer that the
856 cues are highly reliable and the switches are relatively frequent. This is when they show the increase in their
857 association-updating rate ϕ , which on average doubled across individuals, changing more for individuals who
858 started off with lower ϕ values. IGrackles also changed their sensitivity to the learned associations during
859 the manipulation, in line with the prediction that they benefit from being open to exploring the alternative
860 option when the reward structure frequently switches.

861 Most animals that have been tested in serial reversal learning experiments thus far show improvements
862 throughout the consecutive reversals, suggesting that most species can adapt their behavioral flexibility in
863 response to the predictability and stability of their environments (e.g. J. Warren & Warren (1962); Komischke
864 et al. (2002); Bond et al. (2007); Strang & Sherry (2014); P. K. Chow et al. (2015); Cauchoix et al. (2017);
865 Erdsack et al. (2022); Degrande et al. (2022)]. For the grackles, the manipulation pushed individuals to levels
866 that were already observed in some individuals at the beginning of the experiment, meaning that the change
867 within the experiment is within the natural range of abilities also observed in the wild. While there were
868 individual differences in how individuals performed (McCune et al., 2023), all individuals changed depending
869 on their experiences. Among the manipulated grackles, who all quickly switched to consistently gain the
870 reward, we observed different strategies. On the one side, there are grackles who change gradually throughout
871 an association phase, already choosing the newly rewarded option at the beginning but continuing to explore
872 the alternative non-rewarded option throughout. These are the individuals with a high association-updating
873 rate and low sensitivity to learned associations. On the other side are grackles who take longer to choose the
874 newly rewarded option after a switch, but once they discover which option is rewarded, quickly reverse their
875 preference. These are the individuals with low association-updating rates and high sensitivities to learned
876 associations. With the variables we measured here, we could not predict which strategies ended up with
877 after the manipulation. We observed additional strategies with different combinations of ϕ and λ across the
878 grackles during their first reversal, but these are not efficient in the serial reversal learning experiment and
879 instead are more suited to unpredictable and less frequently changing environments. How frequently and how
880 quickly individuals change their behavioral flexibility in their natural environments is unclear. Individual
881 differences might persist if their different behavioral flexibility leads them to continue to experience their
882 environment differently. For the grackles, we have some indication that after releasing them back to their

883 original environments, differences in behavioral flexibility between the manipulated and control individuals
884 persisted for at least several months, with individuals who had changed their ϕ and λ appearing to switch
885 more frequently between food types and foraging techniques (Logan CJ et al., 2019, results are in prep.).

886 The analyses linking ϕ and λ to the performance on the multi-access boxes show that the different strategies
887 grackles ended up with to improve their performance during the serial reversal learning experiment subse-
888 quently appeared to influence how they solved the multi-access box. The negative correlation between ϕ
889 and λ prompted us to explore whether the relationship between these two variables and the performance on
890 the multi-access boxes could be non-linear. We detected U-shaped relationships between ϕ and λ and how
891 individuals performed on the multi-access puzzle boxes. First, grackles with intermediate ϕ values showed
892 shorter latencies to attempt a new option. This could reflect that grackles with high ϕ values take longer
893 because they formed very strong associations with the previously rewarded option, while grackles with small
894 ϕ values take longer because they do not update their associations even though the first option is no longer
895 rewarded or because they do not explore as much because of their small λ . Second, we found that grackles
896 with intermediate values of λ solved fewer options. This could indicate that grackles with a small λ are more
897 likely to explore new options while grackles with a large λ , and low ϕ are less likely to return to an option
898 that is no longer rewarded. Given that there was also a positive correlation between the number of options
899 solved and the latency to attempt a new options, there might be a trade-off, where grackles with extreme
900 ϕ and λ values solve more options, but need more time, whereas grackles with intermediate values have
901 shorter latencies, but solve fewer options. We are limited though in our interpretation by the small sample
902 sizes. More detailed studies would be needed in order to fully understand how the association-updating rate
903 and the sensitivity to learned associations might shape performance on the multi-access puzzle boxes. In
904 addition, it is also possible that performance on the multi-access boxes relies on other cognitive abilities in
905 which individuals may differ. For example, we previously found that grackles who are faster to complete an
906 inhibition task, where they had to learn to not react to a cue in order to wait for a trial in which a different
907 cue could result in gaining a a reward, were slower to switch options on the boxes (Logan et al., 2021).
908 As such, variation in self control may affect performance on flexibility and innovation tasks by decreasing
909 exploratory behaviors. However, all these analyses are exploratory and based on a small sample, so these
910 interpretations are speculative and further investigation is needed to understand how potential cognitive
911 abilities shape performance on such tasks.

912 Overall, these findings indicate the potential benefits of applying more mechanistic models to psychological
913 experiments. Inferring the cognitive processes potentially underlying behavior can allow us to make clearer
914 predictions about how the performance in one experiment might translate to other paradigms and to behavior
915 in the wild. For the serial reversal learning paradigm, we could expect that the previously observed differences
916 in whether performance links with performance in other experiments like innovation or inhibition Logan
917 (2016) could be linked to differences in whether the association-updating rate or the sensitivity to learned
918 associations plays a larger role in the reversal performance in a given species and in particular for the other
919 trait. The advanced capabilities of reflecting behavioral choices directly in a Bayesian framework offers an
920 opportunity for the field of comparative cognition to implement more informed assessments of cognitive
921 abilities and the factors shaping them.

922 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

923 **Lukas:** Hypothesis development, simulation development, data analyses, data interpretation, write up,
924 revising/editing.

925 **McCune:** Added MAB log experiment, protocol development, data collection, revising/editing.

926 **Blaisdell:** Prediction revision, revising/editing.

927 **Johnson-Ulrich:** Data collection, revising/editing.

928 **MacPherson:** Data collection, revising/editing.

929 **Seitz:** Prediction revision, revising/editing.

930 **Sevchik:** Data collection, revising/editing.

931 **Logan:** Hypothesis development, protocol development, data collection, data analysis, data interpretation,
932 revising/editing.

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936 CONFLICT OF INTEREST DISCLOSURE

937 We, the authors, declare that we have no financial conflicts of interest with the content of this article. CJ
938 Logan is a Recommender and, until 2022, was on the Managing Board at PCI Ecology. D Lukas is a
939 Recommender at PCI Ecology.

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