



An active inference approach to interpersonal differences in depression

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ABSTRACT

Depression is characterized by different distortions in interpersonal experience and behavior, ranging from social withdrawal to overt hostility. However, clinical psychological research has largely neglected the need for an integrative framework to operationalize these different phenomena and their dynamic change more accurately in depression. In this article, we draw on active inference theory, a comprehensive theory of perception, action, and learning, to provide a formal model explaining how variations in patients' internal belief-systems lead to differences in social experience and behavior. In this context, we assume that individuals cannot directly grasp the characteristics of their social environment. Instead, they must infer them indirectly from ambiguous social observations, which they themselves generate and alter through their actions. Differences in interpersonal experience and behavior arise from the interplay of patients' prior expectations, their propensity to infer particular social states from certain observations, and their beliefs in their ability to influence these situations through specific actions. We then use concrete examples to demonstrate how future research can take our approach to identify systematic differences in interpersonal experiences and behaviors among depressed patients (or patient subgroups) and to investigate their changes in response to new social experiences. We also discuss potential applications of our approach in diagnosing and treating depression. This work is a move towards understanding the interpersonal aspects of depression in more detail, recognizing their importance in etiology, diagnosis, and treatment.

1. Introduction

Since Coyne's (1976) influential characterization of the interpersonal nature of depression, there has been extensive research on the interpersonal factors contributing to the development and maintenance of depressive symptoms. It is widely agreed that depressed individuals exhibit significant distortions in the anticipation, perception, and processing of interpersonal information, as well as in their interpersonal behavior (Hames, Hagan, & Joiner, 2013; Kupferberg & Hasler, 2023; Segrin, 2000). For instance, depressed individuals are more sensitive to rejection (Gao, Assink, Cipriani, & Lin, 2017) and perform worse on tasks involving social cognition (Nestor, Sutherland, & Garber, 2022). They also have difficulty with social problem-solving while interacting with others (Hames et al., 2013).

From an etiological perspective, research suggests a bidirectional relationship between depressive symptoms and impaired social functioning (Beeson, Brittain, & Vaillancourt, 2020; Kirchner, Schummer, Krug, Kube, & Rief, 2022). Negative interpersonal experiences such as peer rejection, childhood maltreatment, and lack of social support are common risk factors (Gariépy, Honkaniemi, & Quesnel-Vallée, 2016; Nanni, Uher, & Danese, 2012; Platt, Kadosh, & Lau, 2013). According to this view, interpersonal trauma and the lack of social support may trigger socially maladapted perception (Gadassi & Rafaeli, 2015), informational processing (Everaert, Podina, & Koster, 2017), and behavior (Evraire & Dozois, 2011), which in turn promotes new negative interpersonal experiences (Starr & Davila, 2008).² On the other hand, depressive symptoms might themselves impair social skills in the long run, leading also to new negative interpersonal experiences

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² This etiological model is especially relevant to chronic forms of depression, where interpersonal trauma and interpersonal problems are core features (Schramm et al., 2020).

(Dobson, Quigley, & Dozois, 2014).

Depression has been associated with a variety of interpersonal distortions (Bird, Tarsia, & Schwannauer, 2018; Bourke, Douglas, & Porter, 2010; Dobson et al., 2014; Gadassi & Rafaeli, 2015; Hames et al., 2013; Hirschfeld et al., 2000; Kupferberg, Bicks, & Hasler, 2016; Kupferberg & Hasler, 2023; Liu & Alloy, 2010; Nestor et al., 2022; Segrin, 1990, 2000; Starr & Davila, 2008; Teichman & Teichman, 1990; Tse & Bond, 2004; Weightman, Air, & Baune, 2014). However, traditional research has largely neglected the precise operationalization of these different manifestations of depression (for laudable exceptions, see, Cain et al., 2012; Dawood, Thomas, Wright, & Hopwood, 2013; Simon, Cain, Wallner Samstag, Meehan, & Muran, 2015), which extends beyond the interpersonal symptom domain (de Jonge, Wardenaar, & Wichers, 2015; Fried, Flake, & Robinaugh, 2022; Goldberg, 2011; Monroe & Anderson, 2015).

For instance, depression can be associated with both inhibited interpersonal behaviors such as social withdrawal, and disinhibited behaviors like excessive reassurance-seeking (Hames et al., 2013; Kupferberg & Hasler, 2023). Moreover, while depression often manifests in terms of dependent, submissive, and anxiously-avoidant experiences and behaviors, it can also involve impulsive and hostile behaviors including retaliation or uncontrolled expressions of anger (Bird et al., 2018; Hames et al., 2013; Kupferberg & Hasler, 2023). Clinicians have long recognized the varied interpersonal manifestations of depression, and tailor their treatments accordingly. Intervention strategies include psychoeducation (Cuijpers, Muñoz, Clarke, & Lewinsohn, 2009), interpersonal context discrimination training (McCullough, Schramm, & Penberthy, 2014; McCullough, 2006a), behavioral activation (Uphoff et al., 2020), experiential and emotion-focused techniques (Renner, Arntz, Leeuw, & Huibers, 2013; Roediger, Stevens, & Brockman, 2018), role disputes (Klerman & Weissman, 1994), training of new interpersonal skills (Bellack, Hersen, & Himmelhoch, 1996; Lipsitz & Markowitz, 2013), repeated social exposure (Muñoz, Ghosh Ippen, Rao, Le, & Valdes Dwyer, 2000), disciplined personal involvement (McCullough, 2006b), and behavioral experiments (Bennett-Levy et al., 2004). A more precise operationalization of such diverse interpersonal manifestations of depression would offer opportunities to better understand etiological, diagnostic, and treatment-related differences in depression.

Furthermore, traditional research approaches have had limited success in explaining and predicting how depressed individuals' interpersonal experiences and behaviors adapt dynamically in response to changing interpersonal environments (Wichers, 2014). For example, there is evidence that depressed individuals struggle to adjust negative interpersonal beliefs in response to positive interpersonal experiences (Kube, 2023), favoring experiences that align with their existing beliefs (e.g., "As I said, no one talked to me at the party!") (Badcock, Davey, Whittle, Allen, & Friston, 2017).³ A more precise (i.e., mathematical) description and examination of how interpersonal experiences are integrated into existing belief-systems and how these belief-systems change dynamically over time in response to new social experiences

would provide an opportunity for more accurate understanding of how biased belief-systems and pathological interpersonal behaviors in depression can be altered progressively through treatment.

Relevance of computational models. Computational models, with their mathematical formalism and flexibility, offer a precise means of describing heterogeneous experiences and behaviors, and of modelling dynamic adaptations in response to environmental changes (Friston et al., 2016; Montague, Dolan, Friston, & Dayan, 2012; Schwartenbeck & Friston, 2016). They provide a unified framework to formalize hypotheses, functionally link and simulate internal experiences and external behaviors, and derive clear-cut predictions about how these experiences and behaviors change in response to observations from the external environment (Hauser, Skvortsova, De Choudhury, & Koutsouleris, 2022). Accordingly, computational approaches can enable researchers to operationalize and explore heterogeneity in interpersonal manifestation of depression more accurately and systematically. Moreover, they can help researchers to better understand under which conditions these symptoms develop, manifest, persist, and change in response to the social environment (Smith, Badcock, & Friston, 2021; Story et al., 2023).

Aims of this article. In summary, research suggests that distortions in interpersonal experience and behavior are prevalent and varied in depression. However, there is still a lack of formal approaches to model this heterogeneity and the dynamic change in interpersonal experience and behavior in response to the social environment.

Compared to traditional methods, formalizing interpersonal processes within an integrative computational framework enables more precise operationalization of different interpersonal phenomena in depression. It also aids in understanding the environmental conditions that influence how such experiences and behaviors develop, persist, and change over time.

This article applies the theory of active inference, a comprehensive theory of perception, action, and learning, to provide such a formalization. Our approach functionally connects distorted interpersonal experiences in depression, such as vague or negative social expectations, low confidence in social observations, negative interpretation of these observations, and low efficacy expectations about one's own behavior, with distorted interpersonal behavior such as dependent, hostile, passive, or avoidant means of action. Furthermore, it enables a systematic investigation of how these processes dynamically change in response to the social environment.

In the subsequent sections, we focus on the structure, motivation, and functional form of the model, rather than providing numerical analyses using a specific example. In the final section, we discuss potential applications and ideas for implementation.

2. Modelling interpersonal differences in depression

Introduction to active inference. In recent decades, emerging computational theories have revolutionized our understanding of the mind in both health and psychological disorders. In cognitive and computational neuroscience, the active inference framework enables a unified approach to complex processes such as perception, learning, action, and decision-making via the Bayesian decision theory (Da Costa et al., 2020; Huys, Guitart-Masip, Dolan, & Dayan, 2015). At the core of active inference is the concept of the mind as an intricate inference engine, constantly trying to make sense of its environment based on noisy, ambiguous, and incomplete sensory information (Friston, Fitz-Gerald, Rigoli, Schwartenbeck, & Pezzulo, 2017). The external world's "reality" is not directly accessible to the agent; instead, the agent must infer the "hidden states" of the world using its internal "generative model" (Heins et al., 2022; Smith, Friston, & Whyte, 2022). This generative model represents the agent's beliefs about how sensory information is related to environmental states, and how states lead to observable consequences. The agent's probabilistic model of the world is continuously updated with sensory input to ensure the accurate

³ Explanations from general psychology and clinical psychology suggest that several mechanisms are involved in this phenomenon. These include learned helplessness (Seligman, 1972), neurobiological abnormalities (Ng, Alloy, & Smith, 2019; Porcelli et al., 2019; Yang et al., 2022), increased neural effort when processing social cues (Suffel et al., 2020), pre-operational thinking (J. P. McCullough, 2003), dysfunctional core beliefs (Beck, 1963, 1964), negative relational schemas (Baldwin, 1992), blunted elaboration of positive information (Chen, Takahashi, Nakagawa, Inoue, & Kusumi, 2015; Halahakoon et al., 2020), social anhedonia (Barkus & Badcock, 2019), persistent negative expectations (Kube et al., 2020; Roepke & Seligman, 2016), and cognitive immunization (Rief & Joormann, 2019). In addition to these findings, evidence suggests that depressed individuals have trouble drawing accurate conclusions from social interactions (Weightman et al., 2014), and demonstrate abnormal patterns of reward-learning and decision-making in social contexts (Safra, Chevallier, & Palminteri, 2019).

inference of hidden states. It is combined with the agent's "prior" beliefs about specific hidden states or observations (Friston et al., 2016; Smith, Badcock, & Friston, 2021). Having accurate prior beliefs and generative models is essential for the agent's optimal adaptation to its environment (Da Costa et al., 2020).

A crucial aspect of active inference is action. By performing action sequences, or "policies," the agent can influence the environment's hidden states (Heins et al., 2022). Inferring policies allows the agent to select those action sequences that result in desired or preferred outcomes or sensory information. In other words, action helps to minimize surprise in the long term.⁴ This fundamental understanding of sentient behavior involves choosing action plans that produce predicted consequences (Adams, Shipp, & Friston, 2013). When applied to social behaviors and decision-making, this principle is often referred to as "planning as inference" (Attias, 2003; Botvinick & Toussaint, 2012; Kaplan & Friston, 2018). In other words, policy selection involves committing to actions that minimize deviations from predicted or expected outcomes.

From an evolutionary perspective, active inference involves constantly making a trade-off between seeking new information through action, and maximizing access to known rewards to ensure survival in an ever-changing environment (Gopnik, 2020; Kouvaris, Clune, Kounios, Brede, & Watson, 2015). Agents who fail to engage in any exploratory behavior and only seek to maximize known rewards "over-fit" their environment, putting themselves at risk of being incapable of adapting to environmental changes. On the other hand, "under-fitting" agents who engage in a lot of exploratory behavior and show little reward maximization run the risk of failing to exploit resources and rewards to maintain their fitness.

Active inference suggests that mental disorders such as depression result from a biased inference of hidden states in the world. This bias is attributable to a biased generative model (Schwartenbeck et al., 2015). Bayesian formulations have been useful in this context in explaining depression's different symptom domains (Berg, Feldmann, Kirchner, & Kube, 2022; Chekroud, 2015; Smith, Alkozei, Killgore, & Lane, 2018). For example, Smith et al. (2018) proposed that depressive schemas⁵ may serve as precise, internalized priors in individuals with depression. They also suggest that psychomotor slowing and loss of energy, key symptoms of depression, may arise from biased beliefs about the effectiveness of actions in achieving desired sensory states. From this perspective, the mind may infer that the cost of certain actions "outweighs" their utility, thus lowering motivation for action and encouraging the tendency for depressed individuals to stay in bed (Smith et al., 2018). These costs may be high particularly when processing social information because

positive social cues are less expected (Suffel, Nagels, Steines, Kircher, & Straube, 2020).

Applying active inference theory to interpersonal phenomena in depression. Human social interactions are incredibly complex. During everyday conversations, individuals must consider a multitude of factors, including noisy verbal and non-verbal information, as well as ambiguous cultural, contextual, and situational elements. These factors evolve constantly and are sometimes unpredictable. From a Bayesian perspective, individuals must process highly uncertain information to infer the hidden characteristics of their interpersonal environment and respond in real time to gain interpersonal information and meet interpersonal needs.

Individuals with depression struggle to draw accurate conclusions from social interactions (Weightman et al., 2014). Moreover, they exhibit different distortions in interpersonal experience and behavior that can vary among (but also within) affected individuals (Hames et al., 2013; Kupferberg & Hasler, 2023).

We propose that the common and sometimes even contradictory interpersonal behaviors seen in depression, such as excessive reassurance-seeking, retaliation, passivity, or avoidance (Hames et al., 2013; Kupferberg & Hasler, 2023), result from the interplay of different biases in inferring the hidden characteristics of the interpersonal environment through observation and action.

The active inference approach, with its inherent flexibility, allows us to represent these different biases within depressed individuals' generative models which integrate their beliefs about how sensory information relates to specific characteristics in the social environment and their actions within it.⁶ For example, depressed individuals' generative models can reflect vague or negative expectations regarding future events, having low confidence in one's own observations or interpreting such observations in a negative manner, and holding low self-efficacy expectations in general or high efficacy-expectations about dysfunctional action sequences (Everaert, 2021; Everaert et al., 2017; Gamble, Moreau, Tippet, & Addis, 2019; Kavanagh, 2014; LeMoult & Gotlib, 2019; Rief & Joormann, 2019) (Fig. 1).

Consider the scenario where someone attends a party where they only know a few people. A person without depression would likely approach the party anticipating that most guests will be friendly and engage in conversation once introduced (positive expectation regarding future events). They would interpret a smile from another table as a sign of friendliness (interpretation in a positive manner) and expect that initiating a conversation would lead to a positive social experience (high efficacy-expectations for functional interpersonal action sequences). Conversely, a person with depression might approach the party with more vague or even negative expectations about how they will be treated (vague or negative expectations regarding future events). They might question whether they truly saw a smile from the other table (low confidence in one's own observations), or may interpret it as a clear sign of pity or even mockery (interpretation in a negative manner). Their reaction, whether to withdraw (e.g., leave the party) or start an argument, would depend on how much control they believe they have over the situation (low self-efficacy expectations) and what behavior they consider to be effective (high efficacy-expectations for dysfunctional action sequences).

⁴ Mathematically speaking, we can approximate the minimization of "surprise" by minimizing a quantity called "variational free energy" (VFE). In the context of active inference, minimizing VFE is expected to lead to "optimal" perceptions and actions (Friston, 2010). More generally, actions or policies are selected to minimize "expected free energy" (EFE) (Da Costa, Parr, Sengupta, & Friston, 2021). Technically, EFE encompasses two types of optimality. The first reflects the inclination to bring about desired outcomes, which are the "states of being" that characterize the decision maker or person in question. Mathematically, this inclination can be interpreted as maximizing expected value, or the (log) probability of being in a characteristic state. The other part of EFE supports information-seeking and the resolution of uncertainty. In short, active inference involves a joint commitment to optimal Bayesian decisions by maximizing expected value (Berger, 2011), while simultaneously adhering to the principles of optimum Bayesian design by maximizing expected information gain (Lindley, 1956; MacKay, 1992). Active inference effectively helps to solve the exploration-exploitation dilemma by balancing epistemic and pragmatic imperatives in well-adjusted agents (Schwartenbeck et al., 2019).

⁵ Here, schemas are defined as "(...) maladaptive, pessimistic sets of beliefs/expectations that bias perceptual/conceptual interpretations of new sensory input, as well as the subsequent predictions, judgments, and decisions these interpretations inform (...)" (Smith et al., 2018, p. 375).

⁶ In fact, any social experience and behavior can be seen as deviations from the probability distributions making up the generative model. This concept is known as the complete class theorem (Brown, 1981; Wald, 1947), which states that there are prior beliefs that make the behavior Bayes optimal for any combination of behaviors and value functions. In other words, the ideal Bayesian assumptions in active inference (refer to the above) allow us to describe any behavior based on an agent's prior beliefs. This is one of the main reasons for computational phenotyping, which characterizes a patient's choice behavior by examining their underlying prior beliefs (Smith, Kirlic, et al., 2021).



expectation can be represented by assigning equally low probabilities to negative and positive social states or by assigning a higher probability to a negative social state.

Individuals with depression might also display biased beliefs to what extent a certain observation reflects a certain state of the social environment. For example, they might generally have low confidence in their social observations, or infer predominantly negative social states from them. This can be represented through the patient's observation model $p(o_T|s_T)$. Here, having low confidence in a social observation can be represented by assigning equally low probabilities to infer a negative and positive social state from a social observation. The tendency to infer a negative social state from a social observation can be represented by assigning a higher probability to infer such a state from a social observation than by inferring a positive one.

Moreover, individuals with depression may have different beliefs about how possible action sequences will influence a hidden state in the social environment. For instance, they might have low expectations of changing these characteristics through any action sequence (low self-efficacy) or high expectations of changing them through dysfunctional action sequences, such as behaving in a dependent, hostile, passive, or avoidant manner. This can be represented by assigning equally low probability for transforming a negative social state to a positive one by any action sequence, or by assigning a high probability for achieving this transformation through a dysfunctional action sequence (concerns $p(s_{T+1}|s_T, \pi)$).

3. Implications and future research

Compared to traditional depression research, our approach enables a more flexible and accurate description of the diverse interpersonal phenomena in depression, and their dynamic changes in response to the social environment. By functionally linking interpersonal perception, decision-making, action, and learning within an integrative model, researchers can gain a deeper understanding of *why* depressed individuals differ in their social experience and behavior and *how* their internal belief-systems adapt in response to new interpersonal experiences.

This has potential applications in etiology and psychopathology research. For instance, it can be used to identify systematic differences between patients or patient subgroups suffering from depression (cf. Schwartenbeck & Friston, 2016). It can also help us investigate how new social experiences influence the internal belief-systems of those affected (Kube, 2023). In this context, future research could use experimental tasks from social psychology (e.g., Wirth, 2016) or game theory (e.g., Wang, Yang, Li, & Zhou, 2015), because these tasks often involve making decisions under uncertainty and can be easily formalized in terms of the aforementioned model (Eckert, Pawlowski, Rief, Endres, & Kirchner, 2023; Moutoussis et al., 2014; Smith et al., 2022). Moreover, these paradigms have demonstrated sensitivity to differences between individuals with depression and those without (Wang et al., 2015).

Understanding how the interplay of different biases in patients' internal belief-system leads to specific interpersonal experiences and behaviors, and how social observations influence these biases, has important implications for depression diagnostics and treatment. This is due to the likelihood that differences in generative models between patients (or patient subgroups) would necessitate corresponding differences in treatment. For example, patients harboring negative expectations about the hidden characteristics of an impending social situation (represented by the probability distribution $p(s_1)$) and low expectation of being able to change these characteristics through their actions (represented by the probability distribution $p(s_T|s_{T-1}, \pi)$) may benefit most from acquiring social skills via social skills training (Bellack et al., 1996). Conversely, patients with similarly negative expectations but who anticipate being able to change these characteristics through hostile behavior (again represented by the probability distribution $p(s_T|s_{T-1}, \pi)$) may first need interventions such as disciplined personal involvement (McCullough, 2006), interpersonal

discrimination exercise (McCullough, 2006), and behavioral experiments (Bennett-Levy et al., 2004) before they will be able to change their internal belief-systems and behaviors. Both examples illustrate that deeper understanding of the differences in patients' internal belief-systems can enhance depression diagnostics and facilitate its effective treatment. Therefore, future research could investigate whether estimating patients' internal belief systems, for example, by applying the above model to behavioral data from the proposed experimental tasks, could guide subsequent treatment.

Moreover, our approach offers new opportunities regarding the issue of persistent and treatment-resistant depression (Schramm, Klein, Elsaesser, Furukawa, & Domschke, 2020). It seems likely that therapies for these patients often fail to address key aspects of their internal belief-systems. For instance, no matter how many positive social experiences a patients encounters during behavioral activation, if they no longer believe that positive social observations are connected to the social environment's actual characteristics (as represented by the observational model $p(o_T|s_T)$), these experiences will hardly impact their internal belief-systems. Referring back to the example above, if a patient fails to infer any positive interpersonal states from observing smiles due to past negative interpersonal experiences, then being frequently smiled at will have little impact on their belief-system. Furthermore, these patients often expect to be unable to change the characteristics of their social environments through any action (referring to the transition probability $p(s_{T+1}|s_T, \pi)$). Therefore, future research should focus on how to effectively treat the observational model and self-efficacy expectations of these patients.

The heterogeneity of depression (Fried et al., 2022) and its interpersonal manifestations (Kupferberg & Hasler, 2023) make it challenging to explain the above-mentioned model in neurobiological terms. Depression, like many mental disorders (Eaton et al., 2023; Rief et al., 2023), cannot be "essentialized" (Adriaens & De Block, 2013) by a single, unified neural or biological pattern because of its complex, multicausal, and multifaceted nature (Gray, Müller, Eickhoff, & Fox, 2020; Marquand, Wolfers, Mennes, Buitelaar, & Beckmann, 2016; Pelin et al., 2021; Winter et al., 2023). Different hierarchical levels can affect interpersonal behaviors (Story et al., 2023), further complicating the issue. One way to better understand the neurobiological distortions of depressed individuals in social contexts would be to examine how systematic and finely-grained differences in patients' generative models correspond to neurobiological changes during a given interpersonal task. This might facilitate identifying less heterogeneous neural signatures within the spectrum of depressive disorders.

Our approach of characterizing different interpersonal phenomena within depression aligns with a broader trend of shifting away from fixed clinical categories and towards a more dimensional and trans-diagnostic perspective on mental disorders (Conway, Forbes, & South, 2022; Dalgleish, Black, Johnston, & Bevan, 2020; Insel et al., 2010; Jungilligens, Paredes-Echeverri, Popkirov, Barrett, & Perez, 2022). Taking this perspective, distortions in the probability distribution $p(s_1)$ could signify not only low interpersonal trust and dysfunctional expectations in depression, but also across various mental disorders (Poggi, Richetin, & Preti, 2019; Rief et al., 2015) reflecting the impact of negative interpersonal experiences (Mauritz, Goossens, Draijer, & van Achtenberg, 2013). Similarly, the observational model $p(o_T|s_T)$ might represent some perceptual and cognitive distortions observed across different mental disorders (Horga & Abi-Dargham, 2019; LeMoult & Gotlib, 2019; Van den Bergh, Brosschot, Critchley, Thayer, & Ottaviani, 2021). Lastly, biased transition probabilities $p(s_T|s_{T-1}, \pi)$ could be relevant across mental disorders associated with learned helplessness or low social self-efficacy (Maier & Seligman, 2016; Niu et al., 2023).

Please note that our approach does not account for all aspects of depression, such as its episodic nature or related somatic symptoms (cf., Smith et al., 2018). This limitation also applies to the realm of interpersonal phenomena. For instance, developing models that describe the interactions between multiple agents with varying generative models

could be beneficial. This would enable researchers to study dynamic interaction patterns between patients and healthy individuals, and the resulting impacts on the involved individuals' generative models.

Testable hypotheses for future research derived from our approach and a general outline of their empirical investigation are depicted in Table 1.

4. Conclusion

There is solid evidence that depression is associated with different distortions in interpersonal experience and behavior. We suggest that this heterogeneity can be attributed to the interplay of different biases in patients' internal belief-systems about their social world, leading to unfortunate conclusions about this world's genuine properties and corresponding distorted behaviors.

By formalizing these biases within the theory of active inference as a partially observable Markov decision process model, we enable researchers to describe interpersonal phenomena in depression more precisely, and to investigate their dynamic change in response to the social environment more systematically.

Future investigations can take our approach to identify systematic differences among patients with depression (or subgroups thereof) and to investigate how new social experiences influence the internal belief-systems of those affected. Future research should explore how our approach could augment depression diagnostics and personalize its treatment.

Use of generative AI in scientific writing

We declare that we used generative AI tools solely for text editing purposes (such as translation and spelling correction) in the preparation of this article. We did not use these tools to create any scientific content or search for scientific sources. All changes made were carefully reviewed for accuracy.

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Related links

A previous version of this manuscript is available on the PsyArXiv preprint server: <https://psyarxiv.com/bp9re/>. Neither the preprint nor the supplemental material were changed during the revision process.

CRedit authorship contribution statement

Lukas Kirchner: Conceptualization, Methodology, Project administration, Visualization, Writing – original draft. **Anna-Lena Eckert:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Supervision, Writing – review & editing. **Max Berg:** Supervision, Writing – review & editing. **Dominik Endres:** Supervision, Writing – review & editing, Methodology. **Benjamin Straube:** Supervision, Writing – review & editing. **Winfried Rief:** Funding acquisition, Supervision, Writing – review & editing.

Declaration of competing interest

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Table 1
Testable hypotheses for future research derived from Fig. 1 and a general outline of their empirical investigation.

Distortions in external behaviors	Distortions in the internal belief-system	Expected biases in the generative model	Empirical investigation (closely based on Schwartenbeck et al., 2016)
Dependent behaviors	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Vague expectations regarding upcoming social states• Low confidence in social observations• High efficacy-expectations for dependent action sequences	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• $p(s_1)$: Low probabilities for both negative and positive states• $p(o_1 s_1)$: Low probabilities to infer negative or positive states from observations• $p(s_T s_{T-1}, \pi)$: High probabilities to transform negative states through dependent action sequences	1) Consider experimental tasks requiring multiple runs of interpersonal behavior (e.g., choices) under uncertainty based on social observations, and add both an information-seeking (e.g., exploration of the social environment) and a reward-seeking (e.g., monetary incentives) component.
Hostile behaviors	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Negative expectations regarding upcoming social states• Negative interpretation of social observations• High efficacy-expectations for hostile action sequences	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• $p(s_1)$: High probabilities for negative states and low probabilities for positive states• $p(o_1 s_1)$: High probabilities to infer negative states from observations• $p(s_T s_{T-1}, \pi)$: High probabilities to transform negative states through hostile action sequences	2) Ensure that these tasks contain action sequences that reflect the behavior of interest (e.g., hostile behavior) and associate these action sequences with a cost (e.g., loss of financial gain)
Passive behaviors	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Vague expectations regarding upcoming social states• Low confidence in social observations• Low efficacy-expectations for all action sequences	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• $p(s_1)$: Low probabilities for both negative and positive states• $p(o_1 s_1)$: Low probabilities to infer negative or positive states from social observations• $p(s_T s_{T-1}, \pi)$: Low probability to transform negative social states through action sequences	3) Specify a subjective generative model (e.g., a partially observable Markov decision process model) that predicts participants' responses during the task
Avoidant behaviors	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Negative expectations regarding upcoming social states• Negative interpretation of social observations• Low efficacy-expectations for all action sequences	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• $p(s_1)$: High probabilities for negative states and low probabilities for positive states• $p(o_1 s_1)$: High probabilities to infer negative states from observations• $p(s_T s_{T-1}, \pi)$: Low probabilities to transform negative social states through action sequences	4) Simulate task behavior to investigate whether the tasks produce relevant differences in behavior given the generative model

Data availability

No data was used for the research described in the article.

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