
1 REINFORCEMENT LEARNING IN MDD

2 **Spared internal but impaired external reward prediction error signals in**
3 **Major Depressive Disorder during reinforcement learning**

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ABSTRACT

Background. Major depressive disorder (MDD) creates debilitating effects on a wide range of cognitive functions, including reinforcement learning (RL). In this study, we sought to assess whether reward processing as such, or alternatively the complex interplay between motivation and reward might potentially account for the abnormal reward-based learning in MDD.

Methods. A total of 35 treatment resistant MDD patients and 44 age matched healthy controls (HCs) performed a standard probabilistic learning task. RL was titrated using behavioral, computational modeling and event-related brain potentials (ERPs) data.

Results. MDD patients showed comparable learning rate compared to HCs. However, they showed decreased lose-shift responses as well as blunted subjective evaluations of the reinforcers used during the task, relative to HCs. Moreover, MDD patients showed normal internal (at the level of error related negativity, ERN) but abnormal external (at the level of feedback related negativity, FRN) reward prediction error (RPE) signals during RL, selectively when additional efforts had to be made to establish learning.

Conclusions. Collectively, these results lend support to the assumption that MDD does not impair reward processing per se during RL. Instead, it seems to alter the processing of the emotional value of (external) reinforcers during RL, when additional intrinsic motivational processes have to be engaged.

Keywords: depression, EEG/ Evoked potentials, cognition

INTRODUCTION

43

44 In an attempt to shed light on the defining emotional deficit characterizing MDD, many bets
45 in the state of the art research are currently placed on anhedonia, one of the cardinal
46 symptoms of this mental illness. Defined as a “loss of pleasure or lack of reactivity to
47 pleasurable stimuli”^[1], anhedonia is hypothesized to account for learning deficits visible in
48 MDD when reward processing and utilization is crucial, such as in reinforcement learning
49 (RL). Using this framework, two studies previously showed the reduced development of an
50 implicit positivity bias (or active pursuit of rewarding outcomes) across time in MDD patients
51 with high anhedonia ^[2,3]. However, in these earlier studies, monetary/secondary reward was
52 used ^[4]. Unlike monetary reward for which a fixed value is usually provided to the participant,
53 goal attainment relates to the (subject-specific) hedonic experience encountered (or
54 anticipated) when a cue signals that the task at hand has been fulfilled, and self-efficacy is in
55 turn transiently reinforced ^[5,6].

56 Because reward-related cues informing about self-efficacy (e.g. feedback on task
57 performance) necessarily provide potent motivational signals to the organism, their swift use
58 to guide learning might be compromised by MDD. The goal of this study was to test this
59 prediction, using a multi-methods approach. RL is paradigmatic example of a situation where
60 internal and external cues have to be used timely to guide the course of learning. At the
61 electrophysiological level, this process has been associated with the generation of the ERN
62 (response-locked) and FRN (feedback-locked) event related potential (ERP) component,
63 respectively ^[7]. The ERN and FRN are thought to reflect phasic reward prediction error (RPE)
64 signals (either based on an internal/motor or external cue)

65 In this study, we tested a well-defined cohort of treatment resistant MDD patients
66 (with high level of anhedonia) and compared their learning performance and RPE signals

67 (using conventional EEG/ERP methods) during a probabilistic learning task ^[8,9] to a group of
68 age and education-level matched healthy controls (HCs). We assessed if MDD could impair
69 internal (ERN) and/or external (FRN) RPE signals, and whether it would be associated with
70 decreased RL (at the behavioral level) compared to HCs in this task ^[2]. Given that we used
71 motivationally significant (self-efficacy related) reward and punishment cues as learning
72 signals ^[10, 11], we surmised that MDD might very well influence it in a way that directly
73 depends on reward probability and effort investment to achieve learning ^[12]. More
74 specifically, when extra efforts are required to establish learning, abnormal reward prediction
75 error signals (and hence abnormal RL) should be observed in this condition (see ^[13] for
76 evidence with non-human data).

77 METHODS

78 Participants

79 Sixty non-depressed HCs (35 females, 25 males, mean age: 37.90, *SD* = 12.82) and forty-two
80 individuals meeting the *Diagnostic and Statistical manual of Mental Disorders 4* criteria ^[14]
81 for MDD (30 females, 12 males, mean age: 41.40, *SD* = 12.04) participated in the current
82 study. The two groups were matched for age, sex and education. All participants had normal
83 or corrected to normal vision.

84 The patients were all diagnosed with MDD by using the Mini-International
85 Neuropsychiatric Interview ^[15]. Depression severity was assessed with the 17-item Hamilton
86 Rating Scale for Depression (HRSD) ^[16], and the 21-item Beck Depression Inventory (BDI)
87 ^[17] by a certified psychiatrist. They filled in the Snaith-Hamilton Pleasure Scale ^[18], and the
88 Temporal Experience of Pleasure Scale ^[19]. These patients were classified as at least Stage I
89 treatment resistant ^[20]. All patients were free from any antidepressant (AD), neuroleptic and
90 mood stabilizer for at least two weeks. Exclusion criteria were (a) bipolarity, (b) a history of

91 neurological disorders, including epilepsy, head injury, and a loss of consciousness, (c) a
92 history of electroconvulsive therapy, (d) a past or present substance abuse, (e) past or present
93 experience of psychotic episodes. Finally, some of those admitted to the study were excluded
94 a posteriori for the following reasons: (f) balancing average age between the two samples ($n =$
95 4 HCs), (g) insufficient or no learning during the RL task, (i.e. below chance level). The data
96 of 16 participants (11 in the HC and 5 in the MDD group) were excluded accordingly, and (j)
97 additional 3 (1 in HC and 2 in MDD group) due to excessively noisy EEG signal. Based on
98 these criteria men were excluded significantly more than women ($\chi^2(3) = 9.44, p = .024$). The
99 two groups did not differ significantly for the number of participants excluded ($p = .172$).
100 Importantly, inclusion of these participants did not change the results of the analyses reported
101 below, however it was decided not to include them in these analyses to reduce the noise in the
102 data. The final sample consisted of 44 HCs and 35 MDD patients. Demographic and clinical
103 data are presented in Table 1. The study was approved by the ethics committee of the Ghent
104 University Hospital.

105 **Probabilistic learning task**

106 We used a probabilistic learning task previously devised by Eppinger^[8] and used by Bakic^[21],
107 as well as by Unger^[9]. After a fixation cross of 250 ms duration, and a blank screen (250 ms),
108 a visual stimulus (S) was presented for 500 ms on each trial against a white homogenous
109 background on a 17-inch computer screen. Its mean size was 7 cm width x 5 cm height,
110 corresponding to 5 x 3,6 degrees of visual angle at 80 cm viewing distance. Participants
111 performed a two-alternative forced choice task and decide (with a 800 ms response deadline)
112 whether the stimulus was associated with response (R) 1 or 2. After a 500 ms blank, they
113 received (visual) feedback (500 ms), informing about the accuracy of their action. The inter-
114 trial interval was 500 ms. Unbeknownst to the participant, three stimulus conditions
115 (corresponding to three different reward probabilities) were used in random order: the S-R

116 association was deterministic, probabilistic or random (see supplementary materials). Each
117 participant completed two blocks of 240 trials. Each block had six different stimuli (there
118 were each time 2 different stimuli used per condition), each repeated forty times. Trial order
119 within a block, as well as the order of the two blocks was alternated across participants.

120 **Procedure**

121 Prior to the actual testing session, participants were asked not to consume any caffeine or
122 nicotine. After the EEG preparation, they first performed a practice of 20 trials, after which
123 the experimental session began. After each block, participants were asked to indicate, for each
124 of the 6 stimuli, the clarity and certainty of each of the six S-R associations, by means of a
125 horizontal 10-cm visual analogue scale (VAS). Furthermore, they were asked to rate the
126 amount of positive vs. negative feedback they thought they received during this last block
127 (using a 10 cm VAS going from “exclusively negative” to “exclusively positive”), as well as
128 how much they liked or disliked this positive vs. negative feedback when receiving them
129 (using a Likert scale spanning from 0 to 100).

130 **EEG recording**

131 EEG was recorded continuously using 64-channels by means of a Biosemi Active Two
132 system ([www. Biosemi.com](http://www.biosemi.com)). The EEG was sampled at 512 Hz, with CMS-DRL serving as
133 the reference-ground. The EEG signal was filtered off line, using a 0.016 to 70 Hz filter
134 (12db/oct), with a 50 Hz notch and re-referenced using the linked (average) mastoids. For
135 response-locked ERPs (ERN), individual epochs were segmented using a \pm 500 ms interval
136 around the response (see ref [22-24]). For feedback-locked ERPs (FRN), epoching was made
137 200 prior to until 800 ms following feedback onset. Eye blinks were removed automatically
138 via vertical ocular correction ^[25], using two electrodes, placed above and below the right eye.
139 Individual epochs were baseline corrected using the first 200 ms of the pre-response time-

140 interval for the ERN (i.e. from -500 to -300 ms prior to response onset) and the entire pre-
141 stimulus time interval for the FRN (i.e. 200 ms).

142 Artifact rejection was based on a $\pm 100 \mu\text{V}$ amplitude cutoff. For response-locked
143 segments, it led to 84.64% of the individual segments being kept and eventually included in
144 the individual averages. No significant group difference [HCs: $M = 84.46$, $SEM = 0.84$; MDD
145 patients: $M = 84.39$, $SEM = 1.08$; $t(84) = 0.51$, $p = .96$] was found for this metric. For
146 feedback-locked segments, 84.86% of the individual epochs were kept. No group difference
147 was found for this metric either [HCs: $M = 85.25$, $SEM = 0.97$; MDD: $M = 84.42$, $SEM = 1.22$, t
148 $(75) = 0.54$, $p = .59$]. Finally, individual epochs were averaged separately for the different
149 conditions and subjects, and an additional low pass filter set to 30 Hz was applied on the
150 individual averages before grand-averaging.

151 **Data analysis**

152 Behavioral data (accuracy and switch after negative feedback) were analyzed by
153 means of a mixed model ANOVA with group as a between subjects factor, and condition
154 ($n=3$) and bin ($n=4$, where trials were grouped in four parts of 60 trials, 20 per condition) as a
155 within subject factor. Switch after negative feedback captures the sensitivity to negative
156 feedback and has been described as a change of lose-shift strategy (see ref [26,27]). Where
157 necessary, Greenhouse-Geisser correction for sphericity was performed, and corrected p-
158 values were reported, together with the effect size and the 95% confidence interval (CI)
159 around this value. Description of the reinforcement learning model can be found in
160 supplementary materials. The resulting learning rate (α), calculated separately for positive and
161 negative feedback, was analyzed using an ANOVA, followed up by an independent sample t-
162 test. Possible changes in the concurrent exploration parameter (β) between the two groups
163 were assessed by an independent sample t-test.

164 For the ERN, the mean amplitude was calculated in an interval spanning 100 ms after
165 response onset at electrode FCz. For the FRN, we used a similar 100 ms time interval
166 (centered around the peak; 50 ms prior and 50 ms after it) and calculated the mean amplitude
167 of this component at the same fronto-central electrode (see ref [8]). The FRN peak was
168 defined as the most negative deflection arising at electrode FCz in the 230-350 ms time
169 window following feedback onset. A mixed-model ANOVA was performed on the average
170 mean amplitudes with group as between subjects and condition and response accuracy as
171 within subject factors. In a second step, we computed difference waveforms by subtracting the
172 ERP activity of incorrect from correct trials, separately for the ERN and FRN components,
173 following standard practice ^[8]. The FCz electrode was selected based on previous work ^[8,10]
174 showing the strongest expression of these two ERP components at this fronto-central location.

175 RESULTS

176 Behavioral results

177 The number of too late responses was modest ($M = 3.45$, $SD = 1.83$) and significantly higher
178 for the MDD group than for the HC group ($F(1, 77) = 9.51$, $p = .003$, $\eta_p^2 = .11$, 95% CI [.02,
179 .22]).

180 The analysis of the proportions of correct responses (Figure 1a) showed a significant
181 Condition x Bin interaction ($F(4.72, 363.30) = 31.92$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .29$, 95% CI [.22, .34]), as
182 well as significant main effects of condition ($F(2, 154) = 295.14$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .79$, 95% CI
183 [.75, .82]) and bin ($F(2.74, 210.86) = 73.86$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .49$, 95% CI [.33, .48]). These
184 effects translated a steep learning across time in the deterministic condition, lower and
185 intermediate in the probabilistic condition, and with no such learning in the random condition.
186 Groups did not differ significantly with respect to these gross accuracy scores, $F(1, 77) =$
187 1.68 , $p = .20$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$, 95% CI [.00, .09]).

188 The analysis performed on the mean number of switches after negative feedback
 189 showed a significant Group x Bin interaction ($F(3, 231) = 3.47, p = .015, \eta_p^2 = .04, 95\% \text{ CI}$
 190 $[.00, .08]$; see Figure 1 b). Independent t-tests showed that in the first half of the task the
 191 difference between the two groups was not significant ($t(77) = 0.25, p = .804, d = -0.082$),
 192 while during the second half of the experimental session the MDD group ($M = 0.24, SD =$
 193 0.10) had a lower number of switches after negative feedback compared to the HCs ($M =$
 194 $0.30, SD = 0.10$), ($t(77) = 2.88, p = .013, d = -0.6$). There was a significant main effect of
 195 condition ($F(2, 154) = 8.13, p = .002, \eta_p^2 = .10, 95\% \text{ CI} [.03, .17]$), and bin ($F(3, 231) = 2.89,$
 196 $p = .034, \eta_p^2 = .04, 95\% \text{ CI} [.00, .07]$). Main effect of group was not significant ($F(1, 77) =$
 197 $1.82, p = .181, \eta_p^2 = .023, 95\% \text{ CI} [.00, .10]$).

198 Clarity ratings (Figure 1c) showed a significant Group x Condition interaction ($F(2,$
 199 $154) = 3.04, p = .051, \eta_p^2 = .04, 95\% \text{ CI} [.00, .09]$) and a main effect of condition ($F(2, 154)$
 200 $= 311.70, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .80, 95\% \text{ CI} [.76, .83]$). Independent t-tests showed that in the
 201 deterministic condition, the HC group ($M = 77.09, SD = 11.33$) rated the S-R associations to
 202 be clearer than the MDD group ($M = 70.78, SD = 13.93$), ($t(77) = 2.22, p = .029, d = 0.50$).
 203 There was no significant group difference for the two other conditions (all p 's $> .05$).
 204 Certainty ratings (Figure 1d) revealed a significant main effect of group ($F(1, 77) = 5.23, p$
 205 $= .025, \eta_p^2 = .06, 95\% \text{ CI} [.00, .17]$). Additionally, the HC group ($M = 40.73, SD = 10.67$) rated
 206 that they had received overall significantly more positive feedback than the MDD group ($M =$
 207 $25.74, SD = 9.84$), ($t(77) = 4.68, p < .001, d = 1, 47$). The HC group ($M = 52.74, SD = 9.84$)
 208 also reported liking the positive feedback significantly more than the MDD group ($M = 44.39,$
 209 $SD = 23.73$), ($t(77) = 2.12, p = .037, d = -0.48$). The two groups did not differ significantly
 210 with respect to how much they disliked receiving negative feedback ($t(77) = -1.27, p = .208, d$
 211 $= -0.29$).

212 Computational modeling

213 For the learning rate, there was a significant main effect of feedback valence ($F(1, 77) =$
 214 $145.93, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .66, 95\% \text{ CI } [.55, .72]$) showing higher values following positive
 215 feedback ($M = 0.32, SD = 0.23$) than negative feedback ($M = 0.04, SD = 0.08$), replicating
 216 previous results^[21]. The interaction with group was non-significant ($F(1, 77) = 0.78, p = .380,$
 217 $\eta_p^2 = .01, 95\% \text{ CI } [.00, .07]$), nor the main effect of group ($F(1, 77) = 0.23, p = .631, \eta_p^2 =$
 218 $.003, 95\% \text{ CI } [.00, .09]$). The group comparison performed on the inverse-gain
 219 parameter/exploration (β) revealed no significant effect ($t(77) = 0.63, p = .532, d = 0.14$).

220 ERP results

221 The analysis carried out on the ERN mean amplitudes showed a significant Condition x
 222 Accuracy interaction ($F(1.84, 139.98) = 34.59, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .31, 95\% \text{ CI } [.21, .40]$), and main
 223 effects of condition ($F(2,152) = 9.32, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .11, 95\% \text{ CI } [.03, .18]$) and accuracy
 224 ($F(1,76) = 49.25, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .39, 95\% \text{ CI } [.25, .50]$). The main effect of group was not
 225 significant ($F(1,76) = 0.90, p = .347, \eta_p^2 = .01, 95\% \text{ CI } [.00, .08]$), (see Figure 2). As can be
 226 seen from the Table 2, the ERN was large and significant in the deterministic condition,
 227 intermediate in the probabilistic condition and merely absent in the random condition, with
 228 this (internal) reward probability effect being balanced between the two groups.

229 By comparison, for the FRN, the analysis revealed a significant Group x Accuracy x
 230 Condition interaction ($F(2,138) = 3.84, p = .025, \eta_p^2 = .05, 95\% \text{ CI } [.06, .11]$), as well as
 231 significant main effects of condition ($F(2,138) = 22.45, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .25, 95\% \text{ CI } [.10, .28]$)
 232 and accuracy ($F(1,69) = 10.32, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .213, 95\% \text{ CI } [.09, .34]$). The main effect of
 233 group was not significant ($F(1,69) = 0.13, p = .718, \eta_p^2 = .00, 95\% \text{ CI } [.00, .06]$). As can be
 234 seen from the Table 2, while reward probability yielded opposite effects on the ERN and FRN
 235 components for HCs (with the FRN effect being the highest for the random and probabilistic
 236 condition), MDD patients did not show the normal amplitude variation of the FRN depending
 237 on reward probability. When computing difference waves (i.e. negative – positive feedback),

238 we found that reward probability did influence the amplitude of the FRN in the HC group in
239 the expected direction ($F(2, 78) = 3.18, p = .047, \eta_p^2 = .075, 95\% \text{ CI } [.00, .17]$), while it did
240 not in the MDD group ($F(2, 52) = 1.37, p = .26, \eta_p^2 = .050, 95\% \text{ CI } [.00, .15]$). Strikingly,
241 when the S-R association was probabilistic or random (and hence RL was more difficult to
242 achieve), no reliable FRN effect was detected in this latter group (see Table 2). Importantly,
243 this lack of normal (external) reward probability effect in MDD patients could not be imputed
244 simply to noisy feedback-locked ERP waveforms in this group, as can be seen from Figure 3.

245 Relation to Anhedonia

246 We assessed whether these abnormal RL effects seen in MDD (i.e., switches after
247 negative feedback and FRN) might be related to anhedonia severity in this sample. To this
248 aim, we recalculated the ANOVAs presented here above using the SHAPS, TEPS, or the
249 subscale of the BDI as covariate in separate analyses. None of these analyses showed
250 significant results, however.

251 DISCUSSION

252 The MDD patients had more too late responses than the HCs, which is often reported
253 in the literature ^[1, 2]. Yet, their learning slope and accuracy were similar to the HCs.
254 Moreover, neither learning rate, nor exploration differed between the two groups.
255 Noteworthy, an important difference between our study and previous ones is that monetary
256 (or secondary) reward was often used ^[2, 34], while we did not do so in the present case. Our
257 reward vs. punishment incentives were primarily related to the perceived task-success/failure
258 (i.e., self-efficacy^[28]), as opposed to secondary rewards or punishments, the former of which
259 presumably activates more abstract motivational processes ^[5], and more dorsal prefrontal
260 cortical areas than the latter ^[4,29].

261 Notwithstanding the lack of clear group differences for RL when it was assessed using
262 standard quantitative measures, we found that MDD patients had a lower number of switches
263 after negative feedback than HCs, during the second phase of the experimental session,
264 selectively. This difference might stem from a different updating of trial history based on
265 negative feedback in these two groups. MDD patients became more conservative than HCs, as
266 demonstrated by their lower exploration of the alternative response option towards the end of
267 the experiment. Remarkably, despite a learning performance that was matched with the HCs,
268 these patients judged that they had received less often positive feedback (and they liked them
269 less) throughout the experimental session than HCs (which was not the case obviously),
270 unambiguously translating blunted positive affect at the subjective level. They also evaluated
271 the clarity of the S-R associations in the deterministic condition to be lower than the HCs, and
272 they felt overall less certain about the accuracy of their responses than the HCs.

273 Our ERP results show that while internal reward prediction error signals (at the ERN
274 level) were overall spared in MDD patients relative to HCs, at the external, FRN level, when
275 it was based on the processing of external evaluative feedback it was abnormal. For the
276 probabilistic and random conditions, for which extra efforts needed to be exerted by the agent
277 to learn the complex rule linking the actual R to the preceding S, the FRN was blunted,
278 irrespective of anhedonia's severity . Previous studies ^[30,31] reported an overactive ERN for
279 negative affect (MDD or anxiety), an effect that we failed to observe here. This discrepancy
280 might be explained by the fact that interference tasks (such as Stroop or Flanker) were
281 primarily used in these earlier studies, as opposed to RL in the present case, where error
282 making acquires a different meaning (errors provide potent learning signals, as opposed to
283 mere lapses of attention or concentration).

284 Lastly, we have to point out that these results were obtained in a cohort of MDD
285 patients that were qualified as treatment resistant (because they were enrolled in a treatment

286 study using intermittent theta burst stimulation (iTBS) and treatment resistance was an
287 inclusion criterion therein, [see 33]). This feature makes our results not immediately
288 comparable to earlier studies where no such criterion was met. We also had to exclude some
289 participants and patients because they failed to show normal RL at the behavioral level.

290 **CONCLUSION**

291 Our new results are compatible with recent theoretical accounts ^[12, 28], as well as older animal
292 models ^[13], stating that MDD (and anhedonia) does not dampen reward processing per se, but
293 instead it likely alters a core motivational component which in turn decreases or blunts the
294 processing of the hedonic value of external reinforcers during RL. Abnormal RL as a function
295 of MDD is confined to externally-based learning in the present case (switches after negative
296 feedback and FRN), but not visible for internal error monitoring (ERN). Our findings suggest
297 that ERN and FRN are dissociable since they are differentially sensitive to emotional
298 disturbances accompanying MDD. We failed however to find evidence for an association with
299 anhedonia severity.

300 In this context, clinical interventions meant to improve the timely processing of external
301 evaluative feedback (self-efficacy related) might ultimately provide a valuable approach to
302 reduce the burden of negative affect and distress in MDD.

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313 **Conflict of interest**

314 The authors have no conflict of interest to declare.

315 **Ethical standards**

316 “The authors assert that all procedures contributing to this work comply with the ethical
317 standards of the relevant national and institutional committees on human experimentation and
318 with the Helsinki Declaration of 1975, as revised in 2008.”

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406 Table 1. Demographic and Clinical Data. Means (standard deviations) are provided.
 407 Independent samples t-test differences are provided for HRSD (df = 77), BDI II (df = 72),
 408 Anhedonia subscale of BDI II (df = 77), TEPS with the corresponding subscales (df = 74),
 409 and SHAPS (df = 77).

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	HC	MDD	t-test	d
N	44	35		
Age	37.89 (12.23)	43.00 (11.67)	-1.88	-0.43
Sex	28F/16M	27F/8M		
	$*\chi^2 = 1.68, p=.23$			
Age at onset		24.6 (11.03)		
Length of episode (months)		20.81 (32.05)		
Number of episodes		3.14 (2.61)		
HRSD	1.42 (2.37)	21.83 (5.63)	-21.79**	-4.93
BDI_II	5.98 (6.75)	30.21 (10.27)	-12.16**	-2.86
Anhedonia	0.98 (1.37)	4.66 (2.25)	-8.97**	-2.03
TEPS	75.02 (19.22)	58.97 (17.04)	3.81**	0.88
Consumatory	36.05 (9.57)	28.76 (9.02)	3.39**	0.78
Inhibitory	38.89 (10.94)	30.21 (8.95)	3.76**	0.89
SHAPS	0.55 (2.16)	7.31 (4.09)	-9.45**	-2.14

*p<.05, **p<.01

425 Table 2. Mean ERP activity (1 standard deviation) for each condition and accuracy
 426 level, separately for each component and group. Results of the direct pairwise comparisons
 427 (degrees of freedom: 43) between the two accuracy levels (correct vs. incorrect), using post-
 428 hoc t-tests. * indicates that p-values were Bonferroni corrected for multiple testing ($p = .008$).

ERP							
component	Condition	Group					
		HC			MDD		
		Correct	Incorrect	t-test	Correct	Incorrect	t-test
ERN	Deterministic	-1.73	-3.89	5.97*	-1.39	-3.62	5.71*
		(4.33)	(4.79)		(3.84)	(4.64)	
	Probabilistic	-2.25	-2.52	1.18	-1.62	-2.00	1.57
		(4.37)	(4.58)		(3.98)	(3.70)	
	Random	-2.95	-2.68	-1.31	-1.95	-2.03	0.43
		(4.41)	(4.27)		(3.48)	(3.12)	
FRN	Deterministic	0.47	0.35	-0.65	0.90	0.29	1.76
		(2.10)	(1.97)		(2.11)	(2.68)	
	Probabilistic	1.11	0.29	2.84*	1.24	1.02	0.71
		(2.34)	(3.28)		(2.58)	(2.90)	
	Random	1.60	1.03	2.91*	1.60	1.59	0.77
		(2.10)	(2.09)		(2.74)	(2.98)	

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FIGURES LEGEND

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434 Figure 1. a) Accuracy data (i.e. proportion of correct responses) decomposed as a function of
435 bin, condition and group. b) Mean number of switches after negative feedback (expressed
436 here in proportion) decomposed as a function of bin and group. c) Clarity and d) Certainty
437 ratings decomposed as a function of condition and group.

438 Figure 2. Grand average ERP waveforms and topographical maps (top view) for the response-
439 locked ERP data (electrode FCz), separately for each condition and accuracy level, for a) HCs
440 b) MDD patients

441 Figure 3. Grand average ERP waveforms and topographical maps (top view) for the feedback-
442 locked ERP data (electrode FCz), separately for each condition and accuracy level, for a) HCs
443 b) MDD patients.

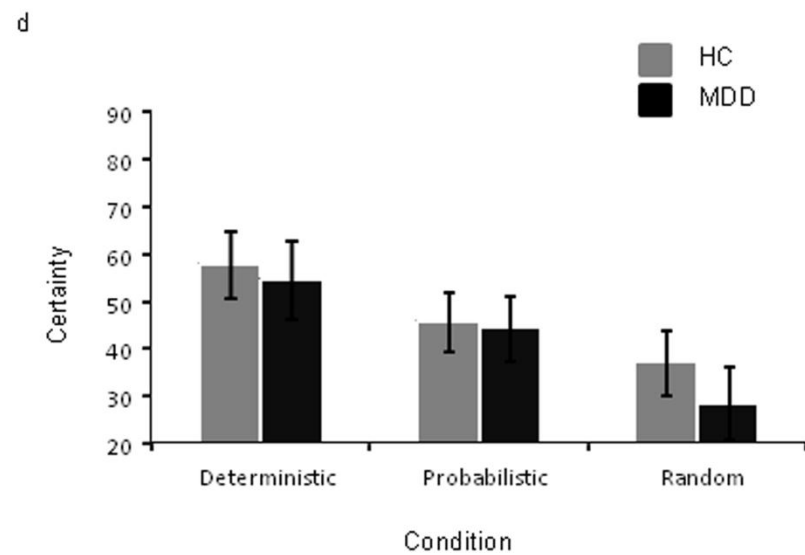
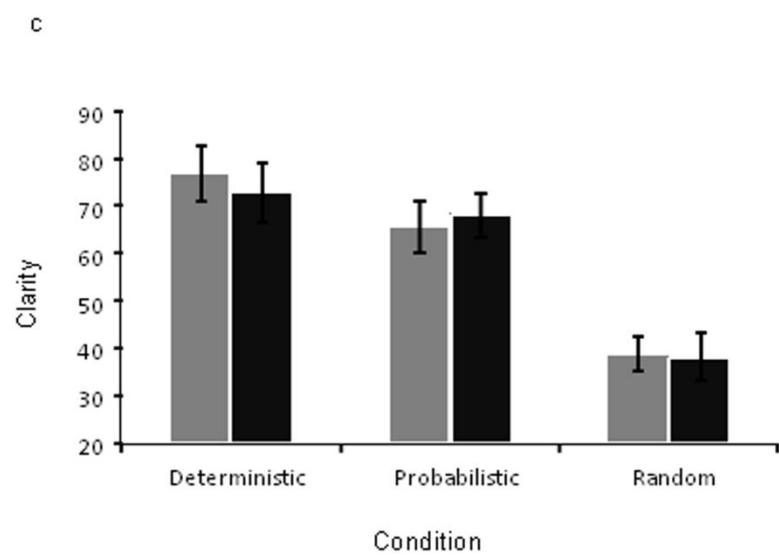
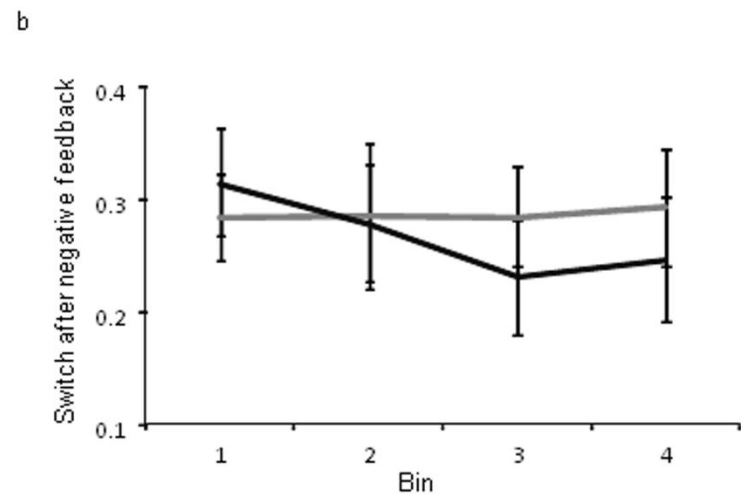
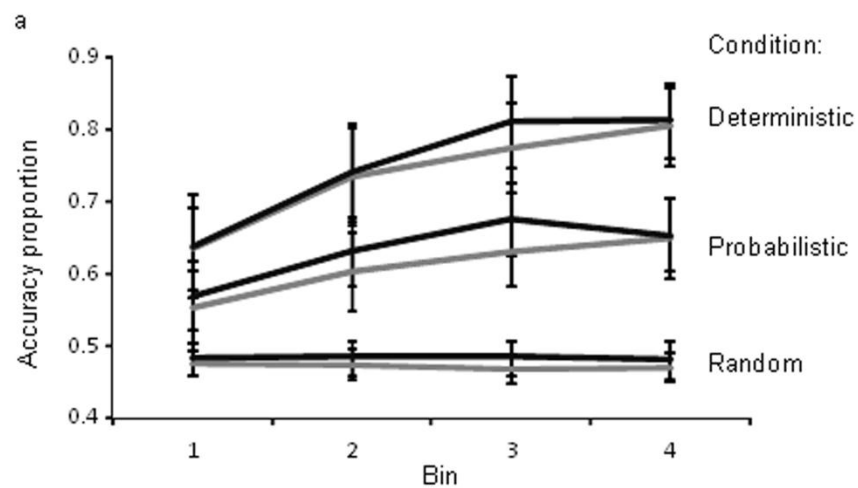


Figure 2

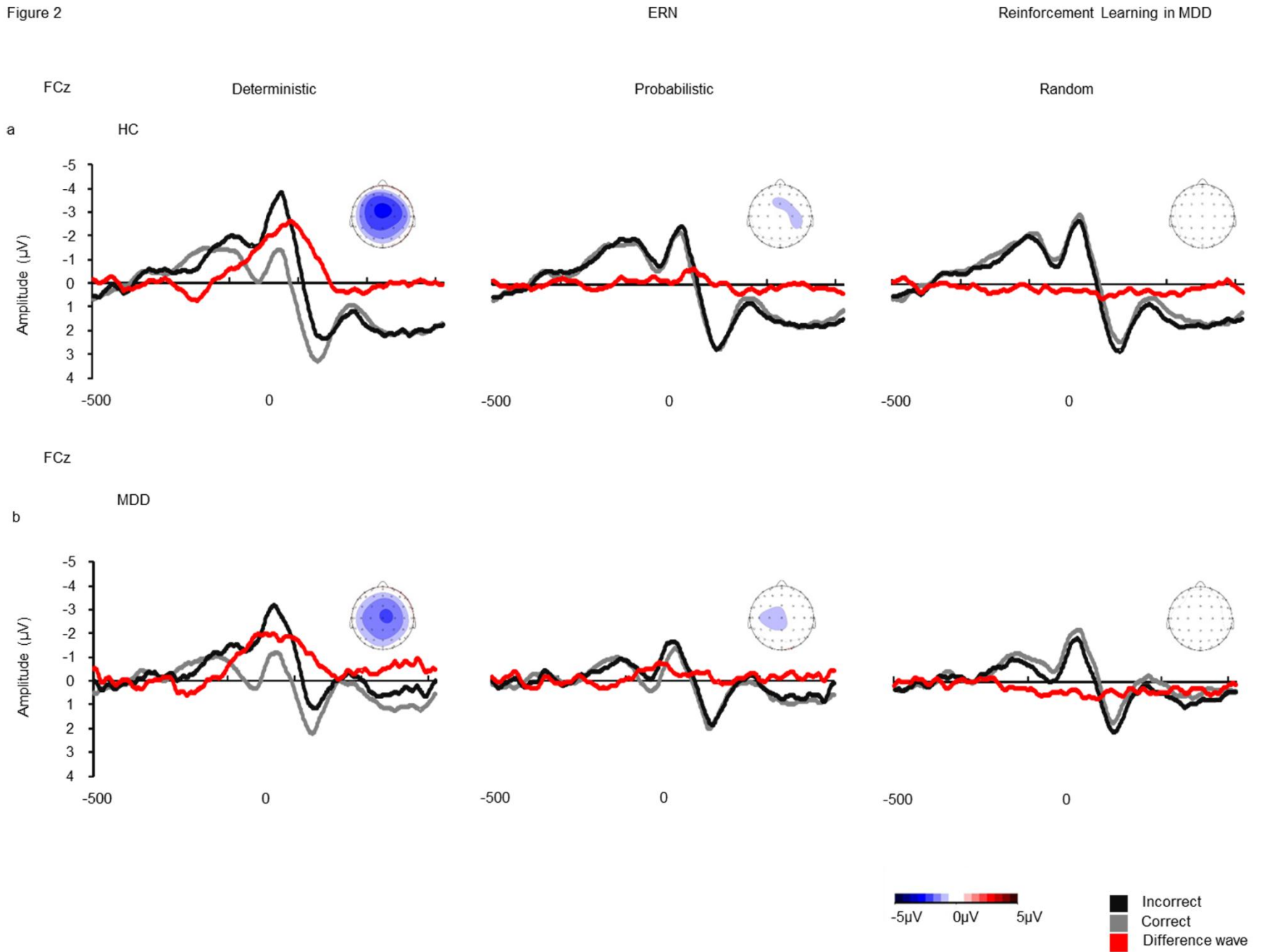


Figure 3

FRN

Reinforcement Learning in MDD

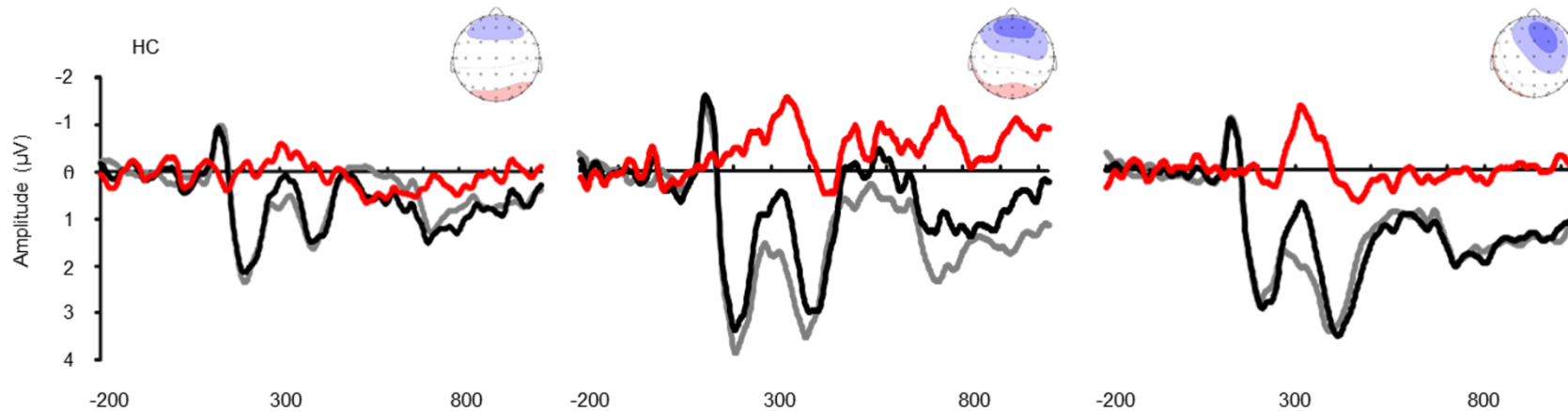
Deterministic

Probabilistic

Random

a

FCz



b

FCz

