

1 **Gender impacts the relationship between mood disorder symptoms and effortful**
2 **avoidance performance**

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Abstract

32

33 We must often decide how much effort to exert or withhold to avoid undesirable outcomes
34 or obtain rewards. In depression and anxiety, levels of avoidance can be excessive and
35 reward-seeking may be reduced. Yet outstanding questions remain about the links between
36 motivated action/inhibition and anxiety and depression levels, and whether they differ
37 between men and women. Here we examined the relationship between anxiety and
38 depression scores, and performance on effortful active and inhibitory avoidance (Study 1)
39 and reward seeking (Study 2) in humans. Undergraduates and paid online workers ($N_{Avoid} =$
40 545 , $N_{Reward} = 310$; $N_{Female} = 368$, $N_{Male} = 450$, $M_{Age} = 22.58$, $Range_{Age} = 17-62$) were
41 assessed on the Beck Depression Inventory II (BDI) and the Beck Anxiety Inventory (BAI)
42 and performed an instructed online avoidance or reward-seeking task. Participants had to
43 make multiple presses on active trials and withhold presses on inhibitory trials to avoid an
44 unpleasant sound (Study 1) or obtain points towards a monetary reward (Study 2). Overall,
45 men deployed more effort than women in both avoidance and reward-seeking, and anxiety
46 scores were negatively associated with active reward-seeking performance based on sensitivity
47 scores. Gender interacted with anxiety scores and inhibitory avoidance performance, such
48 that women with higher anxiety showed worse avoidance performance. Our results illuminate
49 effects of gender in the relationship between anxiety and depression levels and the motivation
50 to actively and effortfully respond to obtain positive and avoid negative outcomes.

51

Keywords: avoidance, reward, effort, depression, anxiety

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Word count: 8582

53 **Gender impacts the relationship between mood disorder symptoms and effortful**
54 **avoidance performance**

55 **Significance statement**

56 We must often take or withhold effortful action to avoid unpleasant outcomes or
57 obtain rewards. Depression and anxiety can impact these behaviours' effectiveness, but the
58 roles of avoidance in depression and reward-seeking in anxiety are not fully understood.
59 Gender differences in avoidance and reward-seeking have also not been examined. We
60 present a task in which community participants with a range of anxiety and depression levels
61 made or withheld button presses to avoid hearing an unpleasant sound or obtain a reward.
62 Men deployed more effort than women in avoidance, and women with higher anxiety scores
63 had lower avoidance performance than men. We illuminate gender differences in how
64 depressive and anxiety scores impact our ability to avoid threats and obtain rewards.

65 **Introduction**

66 **Avoidance and reward-seeking behaviours**

67 Living organisms are motivated to avoid potential threats or to acquire rewards
68 respectively. Often achieving these goals requires action, but it can also require refraining
69 from action. For example, we may take action to remove a threat's potential harm through
70 active avoidance, or we may decide that withholding action is the best way to let the threat
71 pass by, as in inhibitory avoidance (Krypotos, Effting, Kindt, and Beckers, 2015; LeDoux,
72 Moscarello, Sears, and Campese, 2017). Alternatively, in a situation that offers the possibility
73 of reward, we may take action to approach the reward through active reward-seeking or,
74 instead, inhibit pre-potent reward seeking to wait for a larger reward (Capuzzo and Floresco,
75 2020; Cools, 2008). Research suggests that the expression of similar behavioral actions
76 (including inhibition) is dependent on the motivational context (aversive vs. appetitive),
77 which influences the likelihood of selecting a specific action in a specific motivational context

78 (Wang and Delgado, 2021). However, in neuropsychiatric research, depressive disorders are
79 often studied with regard to reward-seeking contexts, and anxiety disorders with regard to
80 avoidance contexts, with little emphasis on the other motivational context. Symptoms of
81 anxiety and depression have been associated with avoidance, typically operationalized via
82 active avoidance and via questionnaires, as threats are overestimated (Bishop and Gagne,
83 2018; Browning, Behrens, Jocham, O'Reilly, and Bishop, 2015; Cléry-Melin, Schmidt,
84 Lafargue, Baup, Fossati, and Pessiglione, 2011; Mkrtchian, Aylward, Dayan, Roiser, and
85 Robinson, 2017; Ottenbreit, Dobson, and Quigley, 2014). In depression, reward-seeking may
86 also be impaired due to a lack of motivation to obtain rewards (Alloy, Olino, Freed, and
87 Nusslock, 2016; Bishop and Gagne, 2018). Past research has established the importance of
88 avoidance and reward-seeking behaviours in helping us navigate our environment and stay
89 safe (Krypotos, Effting, Kindt, and Beckers, 2015; LeDoux, Moscarello, Sears, and Campese,
90 2017). However, active vs. inhibitory subtypes of these behaviours have not typically been
91 distinguished – especially through objective measures of observable behavior.

92 Gender - as a culturally defined construct - may also be an important variable in this
93 relationship. For example, gender differences have been identified in the presentation and
94 incidence of mood and anxiety disorders, such that women have higher rates of depression
95 and present more often with depression than men (Altemus, Sarvaiya, and Neill Epperson,
96 2014; Kessler, 2006; Parker and Brotchie, 2010) and have rates of anxiety disorders that are
97 twice as high as those of men (McLean, Asnaani, Litz, and Hofmann, 2011; Pittig, Treanor,
98 LeBeau, and Craske, 2018). However, we do not know how these gender differences manifest
99 themselves in avoidance or reward-seeking behaviours. Although mood and anxiety disorders
100 are often comorbid, they also manifest with distinct symptoms and courses that would
101 require distinct strategies to treat in a clinical context (Goldstein-Piekarski, Williams, and
102 Humphreys, 2016; McLean, Asnaani, Litz, and Hofmann, 2011). In the present study, we ask
103 how indices of anxiety and depression levels impact active vs. inhibitory avoidance and
104 reward-seeking behaviours in a community population of young adults with a wide range of

105 depressive and anxiety scores ranging from minimal to severe.

106 **The role of mood disorder symptoms and gender differences in avoidance and**
107 **reward-seeking**

108 It has been proposed that mood and anxiety disorder symptoms shift the perceived
109 value and costs of avoidance and reward-seeking in sub-optimal ways. The Altered
110 Computations Underlying Decision Making (ACDM) framework (Bishop and Gagne, 2018)
111 proposes that anxiety is linked to underestimation of the effort cost in avoiding an aversive
112 outcome and that depression is linked to overestimation of the effort cost in obtaining a
113 reward. These effort costs interact with the perceived value of avoidance or reward-seeking
114 to inform one's decision on whether or not to engage in the behaviour. Past experimental
115 work has also identified impairments in physical effort deployment for reward in populations
116 with depression (Pessiglione, Vinckier, Bouret, Daunizeau, and Le Bouc, 2018; Treadway,
117 Buckholtz, Schwartzman, Lambert, and Zald, 2009; see Culbreth, Moran, and Barch, 2018
118 for a review) and anxiety (Wang and Delgado, 2021). However, work linking mood and
119 anxiety disorders to impairments in adaptive avoidance and reward-seeking often focuses on
120 these avoidance and reward-seeking behaviours as unitary processes. As such, we still do not
121 know how shifts in perceived effort costs linked to mood and anxiety disorders manifest
122 themselves in active or inhibitory avoidance or reward-seeking.

123 To better understand the degree to which depressive and anxiety scores contribute to
124 active and inhibitory forms of avoidance or reward-seeking a rigorous assessment of effort
125 deployment in these behaviors is needed. People with Major Depressive Disorder (MDD)
126 show a reduction in selecting high-effort, high-reward options on effort-based decision
127 making tasks. This behaviour is potentially symptomatic of a larger-scale motivational
128 deficit (Pessiglione, Vinckier, Bouret, Daunizeau, and Le Bouc, 2018; Treadway, Bossaller,
129 Shelton, and Zald, 2012; Treadway, Buckholtz, Schwartzman, Lambert, and Zald, 2009). If
130 maladaptive effort deployment is a primary characteristic of mood and anxiety disorders,

131 then we might expect active avoidance and reward-seeking to be impaired more than
132 inhibitory forms of these behaviours overall (Culbreth, Moran, and Barch, 2018). Anxiety,
133 especially when co-occurring with high levels of depression, has also been shown to impair
134 our sensitivity to rewards (Auerbach, Pagliaccio, Hubbard, Frosch, Kremens, Cosby, Jones,
135 Siless, Lo, Henin, Hofmann, Gabrieli, Yendiki, Whitfield-Gabrieli, and Pizzagalli, 2022;
136 Dillon, Rosso, Pechtel, Killgore, Rauch, and Pizzagalli, 2014); however, whether anxiety's
137 impact on reward-seeking differs for active or inhibitory behaviours is not yet clear.

138 Additionally, individual differences in the presentation and severity of mood and
139 anxiety disorders - beyond the mere presence or absence of the disorder - may manifest with
140 different patterns of active vs. inhibitory behaviours depending on the motivational context.
141 Among these patterns, gender differences are especially prominent. Women generally present
142 with higher levels of depression (Parker and Brotchie, 2010) and experience depression
143 comorbid with anxiety more often than men (Kessler, 2006; McLean, Asnaani, Litz, and
144 Hofmann, 2011; Ottenbreit, Dobson, and Quigley, 2014). Thus, the impact of mood and
145 anxiety disorders on our ability to avoid aversive outcomes and seek out rewarding outcomes
146 may be linked to gender differences that affect the motivational deficits these disorders
147 present. If gender differences - looking across a full range of depressive and anxiety scores
148 captured on self-report scales (Beck, Steer, and Brown, 1996) - predict differences in
149 performance in a gender-dependent manner, then our study may help elucidate how gender
150 differences in depressive and anxiety scores translate to changes in real-life behaviour.

151 In order to bring our understanding of mood disorder symptoms into a framework
152 that acknowledges differences in active vs. inhibitory avoidance and reward-seeking
153 behaviours, we must consider both anxiety and depression in a framework that directly
154 investigates their impact on these behaviours, and how depressive and anxiety symptoms
155 might interact to impair effective avoidance and reward-seeking. While the relationships
156 between anxiety and avoidance (Bishop and Gagne, 2018; Levita, Hoskin, and Champi, 2012;

157 Norbury, Robbins, and Seymour, 2018), and depression and reward-seeking (Alloy, Olin,
158 Freed, and Nusslock, 2016; Rizvi, Pizzagalli, Sproule, and Kennedy, 2016; Treadway,
159 Bossaller, Shelton, and Zald, 2012) are well established, those between anxiety and
160 reward-seeking, as well as depression and avoidance, have yet to be fully characterized.

161 **An effortful avoidance and reward-seeking study**

162 Despite established gender differences in the prevalence and presentation of mood
163 disorder symptoms (Kessler, 2006; Parker and Brotchie, 2010; Thompson and Bland, 2018),
164 it is not known how the relationship between mood and anxiety disorder symptom levels,
165 and avoidance and reward-seeking, differs by gender. Gender differences in motivational
166 deficits may lead to unique patterns in active and inhibitory behaviours, but this has not
167 been examined either. As such, in this work, we ask: 1) whether anxiety and depression
168 symptoms predict accuracy and effort deployment in active/inhibitory avoidance
169 vs. reward-seeking; and 2) whether there are gender differences in the relationship between
170 mood disorder scores and accuracy. We predicted that anxiety scores would significantly
171 predict participants' accuracy and the amount of effort they were able to deploy in avoidance
172 behaviours (Bishop and Gagne, 2018) and that depression scores would significantly predict
173 participants' accuracy and effort in reward-seeking behaviours (Bishop and Gagne, 2018).
174 We also predicted that the relationship between mood disorder scores – especially depression
175 scores – and task performance (accuracy and effort) would be differ by gender, such that
176 women would have lower performance than men in the task given higher depression scores
177 (Parker and Brotchie, 2010).

178 To address these questions, the present study examined both avoidance and
179 reward-seeking, each with two community online samples - undergraduates and online
180 workers - with a broad distribution of mood disorder scores. Both studies were
181 reverse-translated with modification from a series of rodent studies investigating deficits in
182 active and inhibitory avoidance and reward-seeking behaviours (Capuzzo and Floresco, 2020;

183 Piantadosi, Yeates, and Floresco, 2018). Our studies are the first to combine intermixed
184 active and inhibitory avoidance (Levita, Hoskin, and Champi, 2012) or reward-seeking trials
185 with increasing effort requirements throughout the task, requiring participants to switch
186 between withholding physical effort on inhibitory trials and deploying increasing amounts of
187 effort on active trials in each task. This design allows us to directly compare performance on
188 active and inhibitory trials in the context of increasing effort demands. Increasing effort
189 demands may also pull out differences in selecting between active vs. inhibitory strategies.

190 **Materials and Methods**

191 **Participants**

192 We powered each study to detect a moderate-sized main effect of $d = 0.15$ obtained
193 with a previous study of $N = 217$ participants using the `fabs` R package (Biesanz, 2020),
194 resulting in a target sample size of $N = 549$. Demographic information for all studies can be
195 found in Table ???. For each study, we collected data from two samples: an undergraduate
196 population and an online worker population. The study was approved by the University of
197 British Columbia Behavioural Research Ethics Board (BREB) under certificate H20-01388.

198 **Study 1 (Avoidance)**

199 We recruited undergraduate participants at the University of British Columbia to
200 participate online in our study. These participants received one percentage point towards
201 their grade in a psychology course of their choosing for completing the study. Of these
202 participants, $N = 311$ finished the study, of which $N = 39$ were excluded for not completing
203 the pre-task survey, having below 50% accuracy on active or inhibitory avoidance trials,
204 spending over 100 s on any given attention check, or not responding to all Beck Anxiety
205 Inventory (BAI) questions. As such, data from $N = 272$ participants was used in the data
206 analysis.

207 Additionally, we recruited paid online workers from around the world ($N = 310$) on

208 the Prolific online study platform (<https://www.prolific.co/>). These participants received
209 GBP £8.07 for completing the study. Of these participants, $N = 294$ finished the study, of
210 which $N = 22$ were excluded for not completing the pre-task survey, having below 50%
211 accuracy on active or inhibitory avoidance trials, spending over 100 s on any given attention
212 check, or not responding to all Beck Anxiety Inventory (BAI) questions. As such, data from
213 $N = 272$ participants was used in the data analysis.

214 **Study 2 (Reward-seeking)**

215 We recruited undergraduate participants at the University of British Columbia to
216 participate online in our study. These participants received one percentage point towards
217 their grade in a psychology course of their choosing and a CAD \$5.00 gift card from
218 Starbucks for completing the study. Of these participants, $N = 83$ finished the study, of
219 which $N = 43$ were part of a separate task condition with visual appetitive stimuli that is
220 beyond the scope of this paper and $N = 4$ were excluded for not completing the pre-task
221 survey, having below 50% accuracy on active or inhibitory avoidance trials, spending over
222 100 s on any given attention check, or incorrectly responding to a pre-task attention check.
223 As such, data from $N = 36$ participants was used in the data analysis.

224 Additionally, we recruited paid online workers from around the world ($N = 309$) on
225 the Prolific online study platform. These participants received GBP £8.07 and a £2.69
226 bonus for completing the study. Of these participants, $N = 300$ finished the study, of which
227 $N = 26$ were excluded for not completing the pre-task survey, having below 50% accuracy on
228 active or inhibitory avoidance trials, spending over 100 s on any given attention check, or
229 incorrectly responding to a pre-task attention check. As such, data from $N = 274$
230 participants was used in the data analysis.

231 Overall, the excluded sample across both studies was 29.17% female and 70.83% male,
232 while the analyzed sample was 45.90% female and 54.10% male.

233 **Materials and Methods**

234 *Stimulus presentation*

235 We used PsychoPy 2020.1.2 (RRID: SCR_006571) via the Pavlovia online study
236 platform (Peirce, Gray, Simpson, MacAskill, Höchenberger, Sogo, Kastman, and Lindeløv,
237 2019). Participants completed the study online on their own computers; they were not
238 allowed to complete the study on mobile devices or tablets.

239 *Stimuli*

240 Cues indicating active or inhibitory trials were dark blue squares and circles with a
241 thin black border and were generated by PsychoPy 2020.1.2 (Peirce, Gray, Simpson,
242 MacAskill, Höchenberger, Sogo, Kastman, and Lindeløv, 2019) (Fig. ??); they subtended a
243 visual angle of about 11.5° x 11.5°. All stimuli were presented against a grey background
244 (RGB value [0,0,0] on a scale from -1 to 1). If participants responded incorrectly on any trial
245 in the avoidance studies, an aversive sound was played for 2000 ms. The aversive sounds
246 were randomly selected from a set of eight screeching and scraping sounds created by our lab
247 and ranked as highly aversive by four independent raters and in a pilot study.

248 Participants completed a series of questionnaires before beginning the main task.
249 These were the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory, form Y-2 (STAI Y-2) (Spielberger, 2008); the
250 Beck Depression Inventory II (BDI) (Beck, Steer, and Brown, 1996); the Beck Anxiety
251 Inventory (BAI) (Steer and Beck, 1997); the Behavioral Activation for Depression Scale
252 (BADSD) (Kanter, Mulick, Busch, Berlin, and Martell, 2007); the Generalized Anxiety
253 Disorder Scale (GAD-7) (Spitzer, Kroenke, Williams, and Löwe, 2006); and the Behavioural
254 Inhibition Scale and Behavioural Activation Scale (BIS/BAS) (Carver and White, 1994). In
255 our data analysis, we looked at results from the BDI and BAI as these clinically validated
256 scales most directly capture participants' levels of current depressive and anxiety scores. The
257 BADSD, GAD-7, and BIS/BAS capture specific behavioural facets of depression and anxiety

258 that are less relevant to understanding overall effects of mood and anxiety disorders on
259 avoidance and reward-seeking and were not analyzed in this study. We used the BAI as our
260 primary measure of anxiety scores as it is the most widely used and validated among the
261 anxiety scales we included (Fydrich, Dowdall, and Chambless, 1992) and as its structure
262 parallels that of the BDI.

263 **Procedure**

264 *Avoidance task*

265 A graphical overview of the avoidance task is provided in Fig. ??A.

266 After an introduction screen, participants completed an effort calibration to control
267 for differences in baseline effort ability and keyboard sensitivity. They were instructed to
268 press the spacebar on their computer as many times as possible within a five-second period
269 when a thermometer appeared on screen. Each time they pressed the spacebar, the
270 thermometer would increase in height in order to incentivize participants to press the
271 spacebar as many times as possible. Afterwards, participants repeated this effort calibration.
272 This second calibration was identical to the first except that the thermometer would increase
273 by only half the amount per press that it did for the first calibration, in order to incentivize
274 participants to press more times during the second calibration and thereby better capture
275 the participant's maximum effort capability.

276 Following the effort calibration, participants completed an audio calibration to
277 control for differences in audio cards and speakers. Here, participants were presented with a
278 series of three one-second 2400 Hz sine tones - spaced by one second - at volumes of -50 dB,
279 -30 dB, and -10 dB from maximum. After listening to these tones, participants were asked
280 whether the first tone was barely heard and the final tone was aversive but not painful
281 (Neumann and Waters, 2006). If this was not the case, participants were asked to adjust the
282 volume on their computer and play the three tones again, repeating the process until the

283 sound met these criteria - equalizing the experience of the sounds across participants. This
284 computer volume was then used for the rest of the task.

285 After calibrating their physical effort capability and the volume of the aversive stimuli
286 in the task, participants read instructions indicating the shape to which they would have to
287 respond with multiple spacebar presses as well as the shape to which they would have to
288 withhold their response. They also heard an example of the aversive sound that would be
289 played if they made an incorrect response during the task.

290 In order to gain exposure to the stimuli and task contingencies, participants
291 completed a series of practice trials (Fig. ??A). This consisted of five trials in which
292 participants had to make an active avoidance response - pressing the spacebar several times
293 to avoid hearing an unpleasant sound; five trials in which participants had to make an
294 inhibitory avoidance response - not pressing the spacebar to avoid hearing an aversive sound;
295 and ten trials that intermixed these active and inhibitory trials.

296 On each trial, participants first viewed a grey screen with a white fixation cross for a
297 mean duration of 2000 ms with a standard deviation (SD) of 1200 ms, jittered according to a
298 normal distribution with these parameters on each trial. Participants then saw a visual cue -
299 either a blue circle or a blue square - for 2000 ms. The cues used for active and inhibitory
300 trials were pseudorandomly intermixed between participants. While this cue was on-screen,
301 participants had to press the spacebar multiple times on active avoidance trials or withhold
302 pressing on inhibitory avoidance trials. On active trials, the number of presses required was
303 set according to the average number of presses made during the two effort calibration trials,
304 such that participants who pressed fewer times during the calibration would have to press
305 fewer times to achieve criterion during the task. The initial criterion was 5 presses given an
306 average of 18 or fewer presses during calibration; a criterion of 6 presses given an average of
307 19-33 presses inclusive during calibration; and 7 presses given an average of 34 or more
308 presses during calibration.

309 If participants made an incorrect response (pressing an insufficient number of times
310 on active trials or pressing at all on inhibitory trials), participants heard an aversive sound
311 and saw a fixation cross for 2000 ms. This aversive sound was taken from a set of ten sounds
312 created by our lab and rated as highly aversive. All sounds were scraping sounds that had
313 unpleasant psychoacoustic properties shown to reliably induce aversive responses (Neumann
314 and Waters, 2006) at a variety of frequencies. If participants made a correct decision
315 (pressing a sufficient number of times on active trials or not pressing on inhibitory trials),
316 they saw a fixation cross surrounded by a white border that acted as a safety signal on the
317 edges of the screen for 500 ms.

318 After completing the practice trials and viewing a final screen reminding them of the
319 instructions, participants began the main task. This consisted of up to 168 active avoidance
320 trials and 72 inhibitory avoidance trials (70% active and 30% inhibitory), pseudorandomized
321 such that no more than 6 active trials or 3 inhibitory trials appeared in a row. On the 15th
322 trial and every 40 trials thereafter, an attention check appeared asking participants to press
323 a key corresponding to the letter they heard, to ensure that they were attending to the task
324 and able to hear auditory stimuli. Every 20 trials, the number of button presses required on
325 active trials increased by one press - this increased the effort demands on active trials across
326 the task. The task continued until the participant responded correctly on half or less than
327 half of the last 20 active trials - at this point, the breakpoint was reached and the participant
328 was thanked for completing the task.

329 *Reward-seeking task*

330 A graphical overview of the reward-seeking task is provided in Fig. ??B.

331 The design of the reward-seeking task was identical to that of the avoidance task,
332 with the following exceptions. First, the practice blocks were based on criterion-based
333 advancement in order to increase consistency with the design of other reward-seeking studies

334 in our lab. Participants had to achieve at least 80% accuracy in each of the active, inhibitory,
335 and intermixed reward-seeking trial blocks in order to advance; each block would repeat until
336 they achieved each criterion. Second, if the participant made a correct decision during a trial,
337 they would see a screen indicating that they had gained 5 points along with a sum of their
338 points thus far; if the participant made an incorrect response during a trial, they would see a
339 screen indicating that they had gained 0 points along with a sum of their points thus far.
340 Both screens appeared for 1500 ms. Undergraduate participants received a CAD \$5 gift card
341 as a reward in addition to course credit for completing the task; online workers received a
342 GBP £2.69 payment as a reward in addition to their payment for completing the task.
343 Finally, as this task did not incorporate audio, no volume check or audio-based attention
344 check was included.

345 **Data analysis**

346 All data was analyzed using R 4.1.1 “Kick Things” (R Development Core Team,
347 2011) through RStudio (Booth et al., 2018). On each behavioural task, we measured: 1)
348 participants’ sensitivity (d'), operationalized as the rate of correct active trials (hit rate)
349 minus the rate of incorrect inhibitory trials (false alarm rate) and calculated using the
350 `dprime` function in the `psycho` R package (Makowski, 2018) as the Z value of the hit rate
351 minus the Z value of the false alarm rate; 2) effort on each trial type, operationalized as the
352 number of presses made relative to criterion on each trial, averaged per block. 3)
353 participants’ depressive and anxiety scores, operationalized as their BDI (Beck, Steer, and
354 Brown, 1996) and BAI (Steer and Beck, 1997) scores respectively; and 4) breakpoint,
355 operationalized as the trial number on which the participant responded incorrectly on half or
356 less than half of the last 20 active trials. Breakpoint captures the point at which the effort
357 demands of the task are no longer attainable for the participant, which is impaired in people
358 with depression (Hershenberg, Satterthwaite, Daldal, Katchmar, Moore, Kable, and Wolf,
359 2016). On inhibitory trials, effort reflects the total number of presses made, to capture

360 mistakes in which responses were still made on inhibitory trials. In order to capture all task
361 parameters parsimoniously in our analyses, we analyzed sensitivity for avoidance and
362 reward-seeking through four linear models in which either anxiety scores (BAI scores) or
363 depression scores (BDI scores), together with gender and sample (university undergraduates
364 vs. online workers), were included as predictors. We also analyzed effort for avoidance and
365 reward-seeking through four multi-level models (using the `lmerTest` R package (Kuznetsova,
366 Brockhoff, and Christensen, 2017)) in which either anxiety scores (BAI scores) or depression
367 scores (BDI scores), together with gender, sample, and block of 28 active trials, were
368 included as fixed effects and participant was a random effect. Lastly, we analyzed breakpoint
369 for avoidance and reward-seeking using two linear models in which either anxiety scores
370 (BAI scores) or depression scores (BDI scores), together with gender and sample (university
371 undergraduates vs. online workers), were included as predictors. Linear models were used for
372 sensitivity and breakpoint as these factors did not differ within participants, unlike effort -
373 which differed between active and inhibitory trials, making a multi-level model appropriate.
374 All analyses were Bonferroni corrected for multiple comparisons. All confidence intervals
375 were based on 1000 bootstrap replications using the `confintr` R package (Mayer, 2022). All
376 BDI and BAI scores were divided by the maximum number of points possible on each scale
377 to obtain proportion scores. This was necessary because of the exclusion from our surveys of
378 a BDI question relating to suicidality as the inclusion of such a question was not covered in
379 our ethics, and because of the omission from our surveys of a BAI question that was used as
380 an attention check – rendering raw BDI and BAI scores not comparable to those of other
381 studies.

382

Results

383 Demographics

384 Participant's reported gender and sex heavily overlapped. Of those reporting their
385 gender as female, there was a 97.53% overlap with reported sex in women and 97.67%

386 overlap in men on the avoidance tasks. There was a 98.84% overlap with reported sex
387 women and 97.80% overlap in men on the reward-seeking task. For this reason, the following
388 results are expressed in terms of gender only. Women reported higher levels of depressive
389 scores ($t(720.46) = -3.83, p < .001, d = 0.27$) and anxiety scores ($t(703.99) = -4.68, p <$
390 $.001, d = 0.34$) than men across samples (Table ??, Figs. ??, ??). Across both studies,
391 20.98% of women and 15.11% of men were on medication for depression, and 19.35% of
392 women and 14.89% of men were on medication for anxiety. For participants on these
393 medications, BAI and BDI scores reflect their anxiety and depression scores in a medicated
394 state and participants' medication status was not included as a statistical control in our
395 analyses. There were no significant differences in depression ($t(582.52) = -1.61, p = 0.109, d$
396 $= -0.12$) or anxiety ($t(588.90) = -0.22, p = 0.823, d = -0.02$) between samples.

397 **Avoidance task**

398 To account for participants' bias to engage in active relative to inhibitory avoidance
399 in general, we first calculated sensitivity (d'). Sensitivity reflects participants' ability to
400 correctly distinguish between active and inhibitory trials and deploy the required amount of
401 effort on active trials only, while withholding effort on inhibitory trials. We additionally
402 present results of active and inhibitory avoidance accuracy analyses at the link to the OSF
403 repository in the data and code availability section (<https://osf.io/2rd3f/>). As all variance in
404 sensitivity was between subjects, we ran a linear model analysis (Table ??) to evaluate
405 whether d' could be predicted from anxiety scores (BAI scores), gender, and sample in
406 avoidance. Gender in interaction with anxiety scores significantly predicted sensitivity in the
407 avoidance task such that women had lower performance with higher levels of anxiety (Fig.
408 ??A). There was also a BAI x Sample interaction such that participants with high anxiety in
409 the global sample had lower performance than those with high anxiety in the undergraduate
410 sample. We ran an additional linear model analysis (Table ??) to evaluate whether d' could
411 be predicted from depression scores (BDI scores), gender, and sample in avoidance (Fig.

412 ??B). Depression scores and sample significantly predicted d' , as did interactions between
413 depression scores and gender, and between depression scores and sample - such that there
414 was a significant interaction with women having lower sensitivity given higher depression
415 scores. As with anxiety, women had lower performance with higher levels of depression.
416 Women in the online worker sample had lower performance than those in the undergraduate
417 sample given higher levels of depression.

418 Additionally, we explored the extent to which the amount of effort that participants
419 exerted to avoid aversive outcomes changed across the avoidance task. As effort deployment
420 could differ both between and within subjects, we conducted a multi-level model analysis
421 (Table ??) to evaluate whether effort deployment could be predicted from anxiety (BAI)
422 scores, gender, sample, and block (28 active trials) in avoidance. This analysis revealed that
423 participants deployed increasing amounts of effort during the task to meet increasing effort
424 requirements (Fig. ??A). There was also an interaction between gender and block qualified
425 by a 3-way interaction between gender, BAI score, and block, indicating that the decrease in
426 effort over time was associated with increased anxiety primarily in women (Fig. ??B). We
427 ran an additional multi-level model analysis (Table ??) to evaluate whether effort could be
428 predicted from depression (BDI) scores, gender, sample, and block in avoidance. Changes in
429 effort across blocks during the task interacted with participants' BDI scores and with gender,
430 such that women with higher levels of depression deployed less effort relative to criterion in
431 active avoidance.

432 Last, we examined whether breakpoint could be predicted from anxiety scores (BAI
433 scores) or depression scores (BDI scores), gender, and sample in avoidance using two linear
434 models (Tables ??, ??). None of these factors significantly predicted breakpoint in avoidance.

435 **Reward-seeking task**

436 To evaluate participants' bias to engage in active relative to inhibitory
437 reward-seeking, we again calculated sensitivity (d'). We ran a linear model analysis (Table
438 ??) to evaluate whether d' could be predicted from anxiety scores (BAI scores), gender, and
439 sample in reward-seeking. Only gender significantly predicted sensitivity in the
440 reward-seeking task (Fig. ??). We ran an additional linear model analysis (Table ??) to
441 evaluate whether d' could be predicted from depression scores (BDI scores), gender, and
442 sample in avoidance. None of these factors predicted sensitivity in reward-seeking.

443 Additionally, we explored the extent to which the amount of effort that participants
444 deployed to obtain reward changed across the reward-seeking task. We ran a multi-level
445 model analysis (Table ??) to evaluate whether effort deployment could be predicted from
446 anxiety scores (BAI scores), gender, and sample in reward-seeking. This analysis revealed
447 that effort decreased relative to criterion as the reward-seeking task progressed (Fig. ??A).
448 There were also effects of gender, with men deploying overall more effort than women, and
449 anxiety, such that those with higher levels of anxiety were less able to deploy effort relative
450 to criterion. These were qualified by an interaction between gender and anxiety such that
451 women increased effort and men decreased it with higher levels of anxiety (Fig. ??B). There
452 were also a number of differences in effort deployment between samples, which interacted
453 with a number of other predictors. We ran an additional multi-level model analysis (Table
454 ??) to evaluate whether effort could be predicted from depression scores (BDI scores),
455 gender, sample, and block in reward-seeking. Only task block and gender predicted effort
456 when depression scores were included as a predictor, such that women with higher depression
457 scores deployed less effort relative to criterion in active reward-seeking.

458 Last, we examined whether breakpoint could be predicted from anxiety scores (BAI
459 scores) or depression scores (BDI scores), gender, and sample in reward-seeking using two
460 linear models (Tables ??, ??). None of these factors significantly predicted breakpoint in

461 reward-seeking.

462 Discussion

463 Summary

464 In the present study, we investigated effects of gender and anxiety and depression
465 levels in active and inhibitory avoidance and reward-seeking behaviours in a community
466 population. Compared to men, women showed overall higher levels of self-reported
467 depression and anxiety. Gender differences in task performance were in opposite directions
468 depending on whether the task demanded avoidance or reward-seeking. Women showed
469 lower sensitivity (d'), a measure of ability to correctly respond to active *and* inhibitory task
470 demands, when avoiding an aversive outcome than men - but higher sensitivity when seeking
471 reward. During active and inhibitory *avoidance*, gender interacted with anxiety level such
472 that, in women, higher anxiety scores predicted lower sensitivity. There were also gender
473 differences in effort deployment. Overall, throughout active *reward-seeking* trials, men made
474 more effortful responses than women. Yet this finding was qualified by an interaction
475 between gender and anxiety (over time) in both avoidance *and* reward-seeking, such that
476 higher effort levels were associated with anxiety levels for women in both tasks, particularly
477 early in the task. It should be noted that, in effortful reward seeking, effort deployment
478 above criterion differed by sample such that online workers deployed more effort across the
479 task and with increasing anxiety scores than undergraduate participants. Our findings
480 illuminate gender differences in performance when both active and inhibitory responses are
481 required for avoidance and reward-seeking in a context where effort is required to obtain the
482 desired outcome. They also point to important boundary conditions for correlational effects
483 that may vary between populations.

484 Interpretation of results

485 *Effects of gender and anxiety on avoidance task performance*

486 We observed that, in avoidance, gender differences in performance (sensitivity; d')
487 where men had higher performance than women were moderated by anxiety, where women
488 with higher anxiety had lower performance in the avoidance task. This finding is consistent
489 with previous findings that avoidance behaviours are influenced by mood and anxiety levels
490 (Pittig, Treanor, LeBeau, and Craske, 2018) which may partly explain overall gender
491 differences in this task because of baseline gender differences in the prevalence of depression
492 and anxiety (Parker and Brotchie, 2010). In particular, the observed gender differences in
493 selecting the correct response on active vs. inhibitory trials (sensitivity; d') when avoiding an
494 unpleasant outcome could reflect more general gender differences in stress tolerance. In our
495 study, women reported overall higher anxiety scores than men. Parker and Brotchie (2010)
496 argued that women have a higher predisposition (diathesis) to stress than men and, in a
497 context where an aversive outcome must be avoided, people with higher levels of anxiety
498 scores may have a stronger impulse to act to avoid an aversive outcome (Bishop and Gagne,
499 2018). Thus, inhibiting a response may be especially difficult given a combination of high
500 anxiety scores and a decreased tolerance for stress in women compared to men. Such a
501 gender difference in diathesis could drive a reduced ability to inhibit effort when needed - an
502 impairment in shifting from an active to an inhibitory strategy given higher levels of anxiety
503 scores (Gustavson, Altamirano, Johnson, Whisman, and Miyake, 2017). Response inhibition
504 can also require cognitive effort. People may have differing tendencies to make physically
505 effortful responses to avoid aversive outcomes or obtain rewards, and to maintain an
506 awareness that a cue is associated with withholding a response. Mood disorders have been
507 associated with undervaluation of the reward of a cognitively effortful outcome (Grahek,
508 Musslick, and Shenhav, 2020). Most of these findings have been associated with depression
509 and reward-seeking. However, the reduced sensitivity with higher BAI scores observed in
510 women in our avoidance task could reflect not only reduced motivation for physical effort on
511 active trials with higher levels of anxiety but also reduced motivation to deploy cognitive

512 effort to inhibit one's response on inhibitory trials.

513 Gender differences in avoidance were also moderated by depression scores, such that
514 women with higher depression scores performed worse on the avoidance task. Effects of
515 depression scores, as measured by BDI scores, on task performance mostly reflected effects of
516 anxiety. This is consistent with past findings that negative effects of anxiety and depression
517 on motivated behaviours like avoidance and reward-seeking are often similar (Ottenbreit,
518 Dobson, and Quigley, 2014), emphasizing the importance of a transdiagnostic approach when
519 evaluating the impact of anxiety and depression on these behaviours (Culbreth, Moran, and
520 Barch, 2018). It may also reflect the extent to which the BAI and BDI measure overlapping
521 constructs, as reflected by the high correlation between BAI and BDI scores we observed
522 ($t(852) = 23.86, p = < .001, r = 0.63$).

523 *Effects of gender and anxiety on effort deployment in reward-seeking and*
524 *avoidance*

525 In reward-seeking, we observed an opposing relationship between gender and effort
526 deployment to that in avoidance. Women deployed more effort relative to criterion at higher
527 anxiety scores than men, while men continued to deploy less effort with higher anxiety scores.
528 The diathesis effects that may impair effective effort deployment in avoidance may not be
529 present in reward-seeking, as effects of an error are likely to be less stressful to participants.
530 Therefore, the observed effort impairments in women may be valence-specific.

531 On active reward-seeking trials, men deployed more effort relative to criterion across
532 the task than women. This could be caused by women having smaller wrists with which to
533 generate physical force than men (Morse, Jung, Bashford, and Hallbeck, 2006), as well as
534 men having - on average - higher levels of testosterone levels compared to women - which is
535 associated with increased physical effort (Losecaat Vermeer, Riečanský, and Eisenegger,
536 2016) and risk tolerance (Cooper, Goings, Kim, and Wood, 2014). This initial difference in

537 effort deployment capability is reflected in the finding that men pressed significantly more
538 than women in the pre-task effort calibration across all tasks ($t(814.99) = 7.02, p = < .001$).
539 Although our tasks did not have competitive elements, participants may still have completed
540 the task with an eye towards maximizing performance. Since deploying more effort in the
541 task would increase one's chance of staying above criterion, this increased effort deployment
542 in men could explain the increased active trial accuracy for men across the avoidance and
543 reward-seeking tasks. It is important to qualify that gender has a significant cultural
544 component, and cultural factors could also play a role in gender differences in effort
545 deployment - perhaps via effects of a lower tolerance for stress on effort deployment (Parker
546 and Brotchie, 2010). Importantly, in both tasks gender interacted with anxiety levels and, in
547 the avoidance task, gender differences in effort was qualified by a relationship with anxiety
548 early in the task, with women higher in anxiety scores deploying higher effort levels early on.
549 Thus any gender differences in effort are complex, and vary with anxiety levels, motivational
550 context, and likely other boundary conditions as well.

551 It should be noted that the relationship between higher anxiety scores and reduced
552 avoidance sensitivity, while qualified by gender and sample, differs from previous predictions
553 of improved avoidance in anxiety, such as those of Bishop and Gagne (2018). Bishop and
554 Gagne framed this relationship in terms of active and not inhibitory avoidance, as they
555 predicted that underestimations of effort cost would drive excessive avoidance behaviours.
556 Anxiety scores may be associated with impairments to inhibitory avoidance precisely because
557 of this bias towards action given the possibility of aversive outcomes, an effect that could be
558 driven by a perceived lack of control over outcomes in the task (Wang and Delgado, 2021).
559 Additionally, we did not observe a relationship between depression scores and accuracy or
560 effort deployment in reward-seeking, as has previously been observed (Bishop and Gagne,
561 2018). As depression scores did not influence effort deployment, we can speculate that, in
562 this task, the effort demands of the task did not deter those with higher depression scores
563 from working for a reward.

564 Overall, participants deployed less effort in avoidance compared to reward-seeking;
565 this could be a function of differences in motivation to engage in avoidance or reward-seeking.
566 Motivation to complete the tasks can be driven in part by participants' valuations of
567 task-relevant stimuli (Bishop and Gagne, 2018). A major difference between our tasks arises
568 in the outcome of an incorrect response. In avoidance, an incorrect response is associated
569 with an aversive sound; in reward-seeking, it is associated with not receiving points.
570 Although the salience of an aversive sound may suggest that it is more motivating and would
571 therefore be associated with increased accuracy, hearing it may also be more demotivating -
572 especially for participants with mood disorder symptoms. Hearing the aversive sound
573 repeatedly could be a salient indicator of a lack of control over task outcomes (Wang and
574 Delgado, 2021).

575 **Limitations**

576 There are some limitations to our interpretation of our findings. First, since the
577 dichotomy of the task demands is between effortful active trials and inhibitory trials that
578 require no effort, we cannot compare the effects of high vs. low effort demands on inhibitory
579 avoidance or reward-seeking behaviours. As such, our interpretation of the relationship
580 between effort deployment and mood disorder symptoms only extends to active trials.
581 Accuracy in the task was likely tied to participants' effort capabilities, as increased effort
582 deployment was required throughout the task on active trials to meet the criterion level of
583 effort and make the correct response on the trial. However, we calibrated the criterion to
584 participants' effort ability and considered performance on inhibitory as well as active trials
585 to reduce the reliance of task outcomes on individual differences in effort deployment.
586 Additionally, as the proportion of active trials was greater than that of inhibitory trials,
587 participants may have become increasingly fatigued on the majority of trials in the task.
588 This fatigue from effort deployment, combined with boredom (from the task being repetitive)
589 could be difficult to disentangle from other shifts in motivation to deploy effort throughout

590 the task (e.g. those related to the value of avoidance or reward-seeking). However, as fatigue
591 is likely to arise in most physically effortful tasks, our tasks still reflect real-world physical
592 effort demands. Furthermore, as this study took place online, the study had to use repeated
593 keyboard presses instead of other, more continuous or better-controlled measures of physical
594 effort such as a grip squeeze (Aridan, Malecek, Poldrack, and Schonberg, 2019). However,
595 repeated button presses have been validated as being physically effortful and have been used
596 in in-person contexts (Gold, Strauss, Waltz, Robinson, Brown, and Frank, 2013).

597 When predicting avoidance sensitivity, we observed interactions between BAI and
598 BDI scores and sample; when predicting reward-seeking effort, we observed an interaction
599 between gender and sample. This suggests that performance differences related to anxiety,
600 depression, or gender differ according to the demographic makeup of each sample. For
601 example, women reported overall higher levels of anxiety than men. The interaction we
602 observed between BAI scores and sample in predicting d' in the avoidance task may suggest
603 a differing relationship between performance and anxiety levels between the younger,
604 female-skewed online undergraduates and older, male-skewed online workers. As online
605 workers were paid in money for participation while undergraduates received course credit,
606 motivations for completing the task may also have differed between samples. In addition, the
607 online workers were likely a more heterogeneous sample in terms of the devices and contexts
608 in which they completed the task. It should also be noted that, whereas the avoidance study
609 was well-balanced between males and females, the reward-seeking study had a substantially
610 higher proportion of male to female participants - as a result of the higher proportion of
611 males in the larger, online worker sample in this study. It may be that the interactions we
612 observed between sample and gender in predicting reward-seeking effort deployment can be
613 explained by this substantially higher proportion of male to female participants. However,
614 the presence of significant effects that do not interact with sample in both studies suggest
615 that sample differences did not explain a large proportion of the variance in our findings.

616 Additionally, with a final N of 310 participants' data analyzed, the reward-seeking
617 study fell short of our target sample size because of limitations in availability of the
618 undergraduate sample. For this reason, it may have been underpowered to reliably detect
619 higher-order interactions.

620 **Future work**

621 Future studies could build on our findings by investigating how patterns of
622 information about specific aspects of effortful avoidance and reward-seeking are instantiated
623 in key brain regions. The posterior anterior cingulate cortex (pACC) and ventral striatum
624 encode information about prospective gains given physical effort requirements (Aridan,
625 Malecek, Poldrack, and Schonberg, 2019). These regions - and their homologues in rodents -
626 have been shown to be differentially necessary for active vs. inhibitory avoidance (Piantadosi,
627 Yeates, and Floresco, 2018) and reward-seeking (Capuzzo and Floresco, 2020). Investigating
628 how these regions represent information on prospective threats and gains relative to effort
629 costs could illuminate how we weigh the benefits and costs of deploying effort to obtain
630 rewards and avoid aversive outcomes. Additionally, separating out different factors
631 contributing to effort deployment through a computational modelling approach would be
632 important to understand the individual contributions of various factors to participants'
633 performance. These factors could include action biases (Mkrtchian, Aylward, Dayan, Roiser,
634 and Robinson, 2017), perceived value of avoidance or reward (Bishop and Gagne, 2018), or
635 fatigue (Pessiglione, Vinckier, Bouret, Daunizeau, and Le Bouc, 2018). Furthermore, it
636 would be helpful to evaluate whether subscales of mood disorder symptoms - potentially
637 linked to subtypes such as anxious depression (Wurst, Schiele, Stonawski, Weiß, Nitschke,
638 Hommers, Domschke, Herrmann, Pauli, Deckert, and Menke, 2021) - pull out factors that
639 drive participants' behaviours in avoidance and reward seeking. This analysis could further
640 illuminate our observed gender differences - for example, to evaluate whether reduced
641 avoidance sensitivity in women given increased anxiety scores is reflective of an anxious

642 subtype of depression (Wurst, Schiele, Stonawski, Weiß, Nitschke, Hommers, Domschke,
643 Herrmann, Pauli, Deckert, and Menke, 2021).

644 **Conclusion**

645 Our studies address outstanding questions of whether a range of anxiety and
646 depression scores predict performance (sensitivity) and effort deployment in avoidance and
647 reward-seeking, and whether the relationship between performance and anxiety/depression
648 levels is impacted by gender. We elicit both active and inhibitory avoidance and
649 reward-seeking behaviours in a context that allows for direct comparisons between them,
650 instead of considering avoidance and reward-seeking behaviours as unitary wholes. We
651 highlight gender differences in each of these subtypes of avoidance and reward-seeking given
652 varying levels of anxiety and depression scores, contextualizing past work on gender
653 differences (Parker and Brotchie, 2010). In particular, we are the first to examine these
654 proposed gender differences in an active and inhibitory avoidance and reward-seeking
655 context. These findings could inform clinical interventions to address maladaptive
656 deployment of avoidance and lack of motivation for reward-seeking, targeted by gender.
657 Additionally, we link active avoidance and reward-seeking to motivation for physical effort
658 deployment given varying levels of mood and anxiety disorder severity. As many tasks in life
659 require physical effort deployment, understanding where it can be impaired is an important
660 pursuit. Our findings underscore the importance of considering individual differences in the
661 ways in which avoidance and reward-seeking can be impaired in life.

662 **Data and code availability**

663 The data and materials for all experiments, as well as the code used to generate this
664 manuscript and conduct all analyses, are available at <https://osf.io/2rd3f/>.

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803 Legend

804 Figure 1: Trial layout diagram. A diagram of the active and inhibitory avoidance and
805 reward-seeking tasks. In the avoidance task (A), after an inter-stimulus interval (ISI) with a
806 fixation cross onscreen, participants were presented with a cue associated with active or
807 inhibitory avoidance. For the active avoidance cue, participants had to respond with
808 repeated spacebar presses to avoid hearing an aversive sound. For the inhibitory avoidance
809 cue, participants had to withhold responding to avoid hearing an aversive sound. In the
810 reward-seeking task (B), after the ISI, participants were presented with a cue associated with
811 active or inhibitory reward-seeking. For the active reward-seeking cue, participants had to
812 respond with repeated spacebar presses to obtain points towards a monetary reward. For the
813 inhibitory reward-seeking cue, participants had to withhold responding to obtain points
814 towards a monetary reward. ISI = Inter-stimulus interval.

815 Figure 2: Avoidance demographics. Distribution of anxiety (BAI) and depression
816 (BDI) scores by gender and sample. Proportion scores are scores divided by total possible
817 score. BAI = Beck Anxiety Inventory, BDI = Beck Depression Inventory II.

818 Figure 3: Linear model significant effects for sensitivity in avoidance. (A) Gender
819 interacted with anxiety scores (BAI proportion scores) to explain sensitivity (d') in the
820 avoidance task. (B) Gender interacted with depression scores (BDI proportion scores) to
821 explain sensitivity (d') in the avoidance task. BAI = Beck Anxiety Inventory. BDI = Beck
822 Depression Inventory II. Proportion scores are scores divided by total possible score.

823 Figure 4: Avoidance effort deployment. (A) Multi-level model significant effects and
824 interactions for effort in avoidance. Effort decreased relative to criterion as the avoidance

825 task progressed, an effect that (B) interacted with anxiety scores (BAI) and gender.

826 Proportion scores are scores divided by total possible score.

827 Figure 5: Reward-seeking demographics. Distribution of anxiety (BAI) and
828 depressive (BDI) scores by gender and sample. Proportion scores are scores divided by total
829 possible score. BAI = Beck Anxiety Inventory, BDI = Beck Depression Inventory II.

830 Figure 6: Linear model significant effects for sensitivity in reward-seeking. Gender
831 explained sensitivity (d') in the reward-seeking task. BAI = Beck Anxiety Inventory.
832 Proportion scores are scores divided by total possible score.

833 Figure 7: Reward-seeking effort deployment. (A) Multi-level model significant effects
834 and interactions for effort in reward-seeking. Effort decreased relative to criterion as the
835 reward-seeking task progressed, an effect that (B) interacted with anxiety scores (BAI) and
836 gender. Proportion scores are scores divided by total possible score.

837 Table 1: Demographic information for all participants.

838 Table 2: Mood disorder symptom statistics. Mean and SD Beck Depression Inventory
839 II (BDI) and Beck Anxiety Inventory (BAI) proportion scores (score divided by total
840 possible score).

841 Table 3: Linear model analysis coefficients and standard errors for sensitivity (d') in
842 avoidance. BAI (prop. score) = anxiety score on the Beck Anxiety Inventory. Proportion
843 scores are scores divided by total possible score. AIC = Akaike information criterion, BIC =
844 Bayesian information criterion, Log. Lik. = log likelihood, RMSE = root mean squared
845 error.

846 Table 4: Linear model analysis coefficients and standard errors for sensitivity (d') in
847 avoidance. BDI (prop. score) = depression score on the Beck Depression Inventory II.
848 Proportion scores are scores divided by total possible score. AIC = Akaike information

849 criterion, BIC = Bayesian information criterion, Log. Lik. = log likelihood, RMSE = root
850 mean squared error.

851 Table 5: Multi-level model analysis coefficients and standard errors for effort in
852 avoidance. BAI (prop. score) = anxiety score on the Beck Anxiety Inventory. Proportion
853 scores are scores divided by total possible score. AIC = Akaike information criterion, BIC =
854 Bayesian information criterion, ICC = intraclass correlation, RMSE = root mean squared
855 error.

856 Table 6: Multi-level model analysis coefficients and standard errors for effort in
857 avoidance. BDI (prop. score) = depression score on the Beck Depression Inventory II.
858 Proportion scores are scores divided by total possible score. AIC = Akaike information
859 criterion, BIC = Bayesian information criterion, ICC = intraclass correlation, RMSE = root
860 mean squared error.

861 Table 7: Linear model analysis coefficients and standard errors for breakpoint in
862 avoidance. BAI (prop. score) = anxiety score on the Beck Anxiety Inventory. Proportion
863 scores are scores divided by total possible score. AIC = Akaike information criterion, BIC =
864 Bayesian information criterion, Log. Lik. = log likelihood, RMSE = root mean squared
865 error.

866 Table 8: Linear model analysis coefficients and standard errors for breakpoint in
867 avoidance. BDI (prop. score) = depression score on the Beck Depression Inventory II.
868 Proportion scores are scores divided by total possible score. AIC = Akaike information
869 criterion, BIC = Bayesian information criterion, Log. Lik. = log likelihood, RMSE = root
870 mean squared error.

871 Table 9: Linear model analysis coefficients and standard errors for sensitivity (d') in
872 reward-seeking. BAI (prop. score) = anxiety score on the Beck Anxiety Inventory.
873 Proportion scores are scores divided by total possible score. AIC = Akaike information

874 criterion, BIC = Bayesian information criterion, Log. Lik. = log likelihood, RMSE = root
875 mean squared error.

876 Table 10: Linear model analysis coefficients and standard errors for sensitivity (d') in
877 reward-seeking. BDI (prop. score) = anxiety score on the Beck Depression Inventory II.
878 Proportion scores are scores divided by total possible score. AIC = Akaike information
879 criterion, BIC = Bayesian information criterion, Log. Lik. = log likelihood, RMSE = root
880 mean squared error.

881 Table 11: Multi-level model analysis coefficients and standard errors for effort in
882 reward-seeking. BAI (prop. score) = anxiety score on the Beck Anxiety Inventory.
883 Proportion scores are scores divided by total possible score. AIC = Akaike information
884 criterion, BIC = Bayesian information criterion, ICC = intraclass correlation, RMSE = root
885 mean squared error.

886 Table 12: Multi-level model analysis coefficients and standard errors for effort in
887 reward-seeking. BDI (prop. score) = depression score on the Beck Depression Inventory II.
888 Proportion scores are scores divided by total possible score. AIC = Akaike information
889 criterion, BIC = Bayesian information criterion, ICC = intraclass correlation, RMSE = root
890 mean squared error.

891 Table 13: Linear model analysis coefficients and standard errors for breakpoint in
892 reward-seeking. BAI (prop. score) = anxiety score on the Beck Anxiety Inventory.
893 Proportion scores are scores divided by total possible score. AIC = Akaike information
894 criterion, BIC = Bayesian information criterion, Log. Lik. = log likelihood, RMSE = root
895 mean squared error.

896 Table 14: Linear model analysis coefficients and standard errors for breakpoint in
897 reward-seeking. BDI (prop. score) = depression score on the Beck Depression Inventory II.
898 Proportion scores are scores divided by total possible score. AIC = Akaike information

899 criterion, BIC = Bayesian information criterion, Log. Lik. = log likelihood, RMSE = root
900 mean squared error.

Table 1

Demographic information for all participants.

Study	N _{recruited}	N _{analyzed}	N _{female}	N _{male}	N _{other}	M _{age}	Range _{age}
1A (Avoidance, undergraduate)			357	272	174	86	12 20.42 17-32
1B (Avoidance, paid global)			310	272	87	176	9 24.06 18-57
2A (Reward-seeking, undergraduate)			114	36	28	8	0 20.67 18-26
2B (Reward-seeking, paid global)			309	274	78	180	16 25.18 18-62

Table 2

Mean and SD Beck Depression Inventory II (BDI) and Beck Anxiety Inventory (BAI) proportion scores (score divided by total possible score).

Task	Gender	$M_{BDIprop}$	$SD_{BDIprop}$	$M_{BAIprop}$	$SD_{BAIprop}$
Avoidance	Female	0.30	0.19	0.29	0.22
	Male	0.23	0.16	0.23	0.19
Reward-seeking	Female	0.29	0.19	0.28	0.21
	Male	0.26	0.17	0.22	0.17

Table 3

Linear model analysis coefficients and standard errors for sensitivity (d') in avoidance. BAI (prop. score) = anxiety score on the Beck Anxiety Inventory. Proportion scores are scores divided by total possible score. AIC = Akaike information criterion, BIC = Bayesian information criterion, Log. Lik. = log likelihood, RMSE = root mean squared error.

	Linear model: BAI pred. Sensitivity (d')
(Intercept)	2.46*** (0.09)
BAI (prop. score)	-0.94*** (0.23)
Gender	-0.07 (0.11)
Sample	-0.17 (0.11)
BAI (prop. score) x Gender	0.74* (0.31)
BAI (prop. score) x Sample	0.73* (0.29)
Gender x Sample	0.06 (0.15)
BAI (prop. score) x Gender x Sample	-0.69 (0.46)
Num.Obs.	523
R ²	0.050
R ² Adj.	0.037
AIC	769.8
BIC	808.2
Log.Lik.	-375.910
F	3.893
RMSE	0.50

+ $p < 0.1$, * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table 4

Linear model analysis coefficients and standard errors for sensitivity (d') in avoidance. *BDI (prop. score)* = depression score on the Beck Depression Inventory II. *Proportion scores* are scores divided by total possible score. *AIC* = Akaike information criterion, *BIC* = Bayesian information criterion, *Log. Lik.* = log likelihood, *RMSE* = root mean squared error.

	Linear model: BDI pred. Sensitivity (d')
(Intercept)	2.52*** (0.11)
BDI (prop. score)	-1.09*** (0.29)
Gender	-0.13 (0.13)
Sample	-0.29* (0.13)
BDI (prop. score) x Gender	0.88* (0.38)
BDI (prop. score) x Sample	1.11** (0.35)
Gender x Sample	0.16 (0.17)
BDI (prop. score) x Gender x Sample	-0.93+ (0.53)
Num.Obs.	523
R2	0.042
R2 Adj.	0.029
AIC	774.1
BIC	812.4
Log.Lik.	-378.038
F	3.265
RMSE	0.50

+ p < 0.1, * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001

Table 5

Multi-level model analysis coefficients and standard errors for effort in avoidance. BAI (prop. score) = anxiety score on the Beck Anxiety Inventory. Proportion scores are scores divided by total possible score. AIC = Akaike information criterion, BIC = Bayesian information criterion, ICC = intraclass correlation, RMSE = root mean squared error.

	Multi-level model: BAI pred. Effort
(Intercept)	5.74*** (0.26)
BAI (prop. score)	-0.63 (0.68)
Block	-0.91*** (0.02)
Gender	0.29 (0.32)
Sample	-0.42 (0.33)
BAI (prop. score) x Block	0.16*** (0.05)
BAI (prop. score) x Gender	0.97 (0.92)
Block x Gender	0.04* (0.02)
BAI (prop. score) x Sample	-0.65 (0.87)
Block x Sample	-0.01 (0.03)
Gender x Sample	-0.19 (0.44)
BAI (prop. score) x Block x Gender	-0.19** (0.06)
BAI (prop. score) x Block x Sample	-0.06 (0.07)
BAI (prop. score) x Gender x Sample	0.94 (1.36)
Block x Gender x Sample	0.04 (0.04)
BAI (prop. score) x Block x Gender x Sample	-0.08 (0.11)
SD (Intercept participant)	1.42
SD (Observations)	1.91
Num.Obs.	52261
R2 Marg.	0.289
R2 Cond.	0.542
AIC	218248.5
BIC	218408.1
ICC	0.4
RMSE	1.90

+ p < 0.1, * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001

Table 6

Multi-level model analysis coefficients and standard errors for effort in avoidance. BDI (prop. score) = depression score on the Beck Depression Inventory II. Proportion scores are scores divided by total possible score. AIC = Akaike information criterion, BIC = Bayesian information criterion, ICC = intraclass correlation, RMSE = root mean squared error.

	Multi-level model: BDI pred. Effort
(Intercept)	5.67*** (0.32)
BDI (prop. score)	-0.41 (0.86)
Block	-0.92*** (0.02)
Gender	0.24 (0.38)
Sample	-0.40 (0.38)
BDI (prop. score) x Block	0.19** (0.06)
BDI (prop. score) x Gender	1.21 (1.11)
Block x Gender	0.08** (0.03)
BDI (prop. score) x Sample	-0.70 (1.04)
Block x Sample	0.01 (0.03)
Gender x Sample	-0.31 (0.50)
BDI (prop. score) x Block x Gender	-0.34*** (0.08)
BDI (prop. score) x Block x Sample	-0.12 (0.08)
BDI (prop. score) x Gender x Sample	1.54 (1.59)
Block x Gender x Sample	-0.01 (0.04)
BDI (prop. score) x Block x Gender x Sample	0.12 (0.13)
SD (Intercept participant)	1.42
SD (Observations)	1.91
Num.Obs.	52261
R2 Marg.	0.289
R2 Cond.	0.542
AIC	218241.9
BIC	218401.4
ICC	0.4
RMSE	1.90

+ p < 0.1, * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001

Table 7

Linear model analysis coefficients and standard errors for breakpoint in avoidance. BAI (prop. score) = anxiety score on the Beck Anxiety Inventory. Proportion scores are scores divided by total possible score. AIC = Akaike information criterion, BIC = Bayesian information criterion, Log. Lik. = log likelihood, RMSE = root mean squared error.

	Linear model: BAI pred. Sensitivity (d')
(Intercept)	133.41*** (7.78)
BAI (prop. score)	-18.55 (20.00)
Gender	12.52 (9.52)
Sample	-5.39 (9.53)
BAI (prop. score) x Gender	42.11 (27.05)
BAI (prop. score) x Sample	-12.37 (25.25)
Gender x Sample	5.42 (12.91)
BAI (prop. score) x Gender x Sample	-30.85 (39.58)
Num.Obs.	523
R ²	0.105
R ² Adj.	0.093
AIC	5440.4
BIC	5478.7
Log.Lik.	-2711.198
F	8.668
RMSE	43.16

+ p < 0.1, * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001

Table 8

Linear model analysis coefficients and standard errors for breakpoint in avoidance. BDI (prop. score) = depression score on the Beck Depression Inventory II. Proportion scores are scores divided by total possible score. AIC = Akaike information criterion, BIC = Bayesian information criterion, Log. Lik. = log likelihood, RMSE = root mean squared error.

	Linear model: BDI pred. Sensitivity (d')
(Intercept)	136.99*** (9.46)
BDI (prop. score)	-28.79 (25.30)
Gender	11.13 (11.28)
Sample	-10.46 (11.10)
BDI (prop. score) x Gender	42.87 (32.83)
BDI (prop. score) x Sample	2.96 (30.35)
Gender x Sample	0.59 (14.72)
BDI (prop. score) x Gender x Sample	1.39 (46.40)
Num.Obs.	523
R2	0.101
R2 Adj.	0.089
AIC	5443.1
BIC	5481.4
Log.Lik.	-2712.530
F	8.250
RMSE	43.27

+ p < 0.1, * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001

Table 9

Linear model analysis coefficients and standard errors for sensitivity (d') in reward-seeking. BAI (prop. score) = anxiety score on the Beck Anxiety Inventory. Proportion scores are scores divided by total possible score. AIC = Akaike information criterion, BIC = Bayesian information criterion, Log. Lik. = log likelihood, RMSE = root mean squared error.

	Linear model: BAI pred. Sensitivity (d')
(Intercept)	3.12*** (0.15)
BAI (prop. score)	-0.16 (0.40)
Gender	0.34* (0.17)
Sample	0.15 (0.27)
BAI (prop. score) x Gender	-0.75 (0.52)
BAI (prop. score) x Sample	-0.48 (0.84)
Gender x Sample	-0.53 (0.42)
BAI (prop. score) x Gender x Sample	3.16 (2.69)
Num.Obs.	294
R2	0.041
R2 Adj.	0.017
AIC	686.9
BIC	720.1
Log.Lik.	-334.458
F	1.739
RMSE	0.75

+ p < 0.1, * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001

Table 10

Linear model analysis coefficients and standard errors for sensitivity (d') in reward-seeking. BDI (prop. score) = depression score on the Beck Depression Inventory II. Proportion scores are scores divided by total possible score. AIC = Akaike information criterion, BIC = Bayesian information criterion, Log. Lik. = log likelihood, RMSE = root mean squared error.

	Linear model: BDI pred. Sensitivity (d')
(Intercept)	3.09*** (0.16)
BDI (prop. score)	-0.05 (0.46)
Gender	0.26 (0.20)
Sample	0.07 (0.30)
BDI (prop. score) x Gender	-0.28 (0.58)
BDI (prop. score) x Sample	-0.15 (0.92)
Gender x Sample	-0.35 (0.50)
BDI (prop. score) x Gender x Sample	1.27 (2.13)
Num.Obs.	294
R2	0.016
R2 Adj.	-0.008
AIC	694.5
BIC	727.6
Log.Lik.	-338.246
F	0.655
RMSE	0.76

+ p < 0.1, * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001

Table 11

Multi-level model analysis coefficients and standard errors for effort in reward-seeking. BAI (prop. score) = anxiety score on the Beck Anxiety Inventory. Proportion scores are scores divided by total possible score. AIC = Akaike information criterion, BIC = Bayesian information criterion, ICC = intraclass correlation, RMSE = root mean squared error.

	Multi-level model: BAI pred. Effort
(Intercept)	5.27*** (0.26)
BAI (prop. score)	1.44* (0.71)
Block	-0.87*** (0.02)
Gender	1.30*** (0.31)
Sample	1.08* (0.49)
BAI (prop. score) x Block	0.00 (0.05)
BAI (prop. score) x Gender	-3.35*** (0.93)
Block x Gender	-0.03 (0.02)
BAI (prop. score) x Sample	-2.92+ (1.52)
Block x Sample	-0.12** (0.04)
Gender x Sample	-2.05** (0.76)
BAI (prop. score) x Block x Gender	0.15* (0.07)
BAI (prop. score) x Block x Sample	0.39** (0.13)
BAI (prop. score) x Gender x Sample	3.62 (4.81)
Block x Gender x Sample	0.22*** (0.06)
BAI (prop. score) x Block x Gender x Sample	-0.79+ (0.42)
SD (Intercept participant)	1.30
SD (Observations)	1.98
Num.Obs.	37677
R2 Marg.	0.282
R2 Cond.	0.498
AIC	159770.0
BIC	159923.7
ICC	0.3
RMSE	1.98

+ p < 0.1, * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001

Table 12

Multi-level model analysis coefficients and standard errors for effort in reward-seeking. BDI (prop. score) = depression score on the Beck Depression Inventory II. Proportion scores are scores divided by total possible score. AIC = Akaike information criterion, BIC = Bayesian information criterion, ICC = intraclass correlation, RMSE = root mean squared error.

	Multi-level model: BDI pred. Effort
(Intercept)	5.64*** (0.29)
BDI (prop. score)	0.15 (0.82)
Block	-0.88*** (0.02)
Gender	0.73* (0.35)
Sample	0.44 (0.53)
BDI (prop. score) x Block	0.03 (0.06)
BDI (prop. score) x Gender	-1.01 (1.03)
Block x Gender	0.01 (0.03)
BDI (prop. score) x Sample	-0.51 (1.64)
Block x Sample	-0.07 (0.04)
Gender x Sample	-1.29 (0.89)
BDI (prop. score) x Block x Gender	0.00 (0.08)
BDI (prop. score) x Block x Sample	0.17 (0.13)
BDI (prop. score) x Gender x Sample	1.45 (3.81)
Block x Gender x Sample	0.14+ (0.07)
BDI (prop. score) x Block x Gender x Sample	-0.25 (0.32)
SD (Intercept participant)	1.32
SD (Observations)	1.98
Num.Obs.	37677
R2 Marg.	0.276
R2 Cond.	0.499
AIC	159796.9
BIC	159950.6
ICC	0.3
RMSE	1.98

+ p < 0.1, * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001

Table 13

Linear model analysis coefficients and standard errors for breakpoint in reward-seeking. BAI (prop. score) = anxiety score on the Beck Anxiety Inventory. Proportion scores are scores divided by total possible score. AIC = Akaike information criterion, BIC = Bayesian information criterion, Log. Lik. = log likelihood, RMSE = root mean squared error.

	Linear model: BAI pred. Sensitivity (d')
(Intercept)	113.69*** (3.21)
BAI (prop. score)	7.21 (8.83)
Gender	6.73+ (3.84)
Sample	-2.79 (6.05)
BAI (prop. score) x Gender	-13.91 (11.57)
BAI (prop. score) x Sample	9.61 (18.66)
Gender x Sample	3.79 (9.34)
BAI (prop. score) x Gender x Sample	-3.59 (59.57)
Num.Obs.	294
R2	0.019
R2 Adj.	-0.005
AIC	2507.8
BIC	2540.9
Log.Lik.	-1244.881
F	0.786
RMSE	16.70

+ p < 0.1, * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001

Table 14

Linear model analysis coefficients and standard errors for breakpoint in reward-seeking. BDI (prop. score) = depression score on the Beck Depression Inventory II. Proportion scores are scores divided by total possible score. AIC = Akaike information criterion, BIC = Bayesian information criterion, Log. Lik. = log likelihood, RMSE = root mean squared error.

	Linear model: BDI pred. Sensitivity (d')
(Intercept)	114.96*** (3.56)
BDI (prop. score)	2.79 (10.06)
Gender	6.66 (4.30)
Sample	-3.31 (6.45)
BDI (prop. score) x Gender	-12.94 (12.64)
BDI (prop. score) x Sample	10.64 (20.01)
Gender x Sample	3.16 (10.88)
BDI (prop. score) x Gender x Sample	-1.17 (46.44)
Num.Obs.	294
R2	0.019
R2 Adj.	-0.005
AIC	2507.8
BIC	2541.0
Log.Lik.	-1244.920
F	0.775
RMSE	16.70

+ p < 0.1, * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001

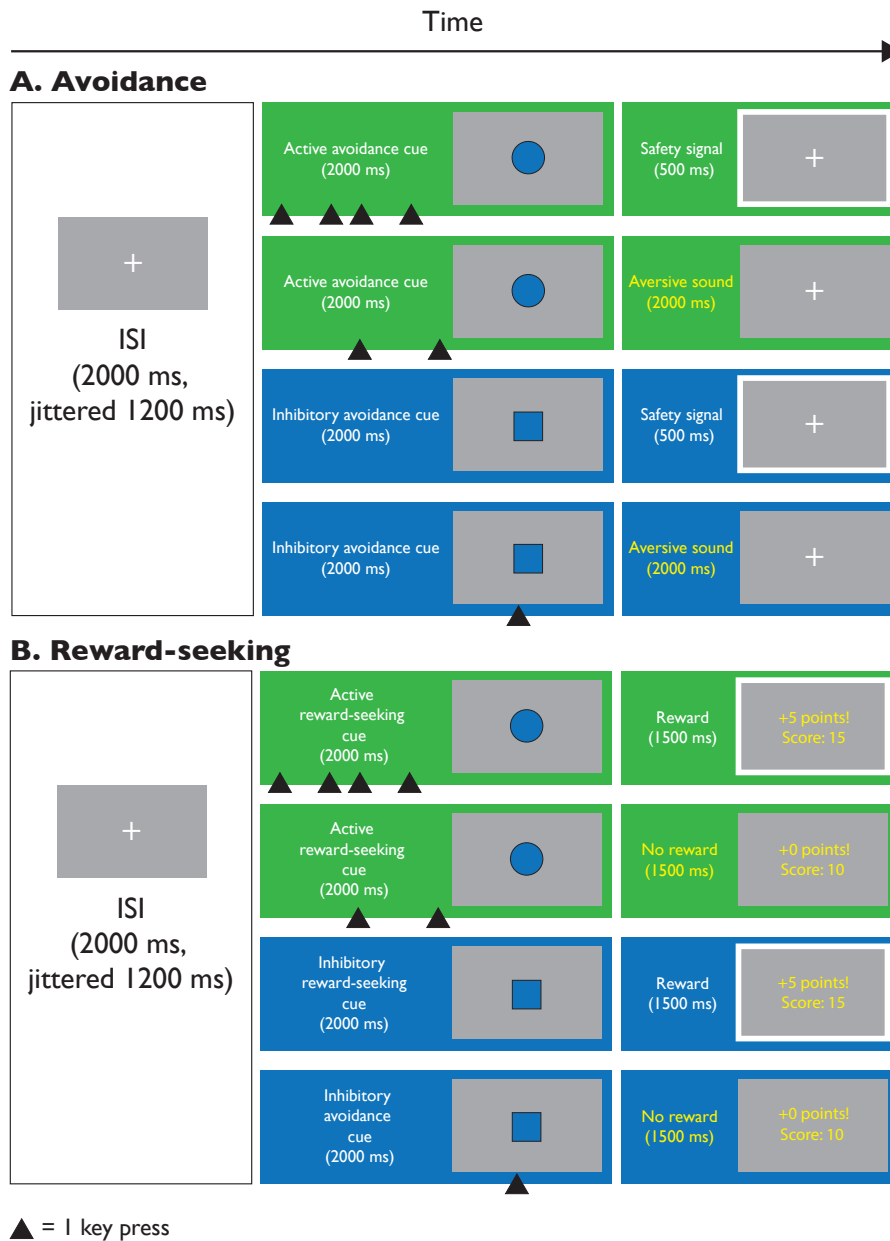


Figure 1

A diagram of the active and inhibitory avoidance and reward-seeking tasks. In the avoidance task (A), after an inter-stimulus interval (ISI) with a fixation cross onscreen, participants were presented with a cue associated with active or inhibitory avoidance. For the active avoidance cue, participants had to respond with repeated spacebar presses to avoid hearing an aversive sound. For the inhibitory avoidance cue, participants had to withhold responding to avoid hearing an aversive sound. In the reward-seeking task (B), after the ISI, participants were presented with a cue associated with active or inhibitory reward-seeking. For the active reward-seeking cue, participants had to respond with repeated spacebar presses to obtain points towards a monetary reward. For the inhibitory reward-seeking cue, participants had to withhold responding to obtain points towards a monetary reward. ISI = Inter-stimulus interval.

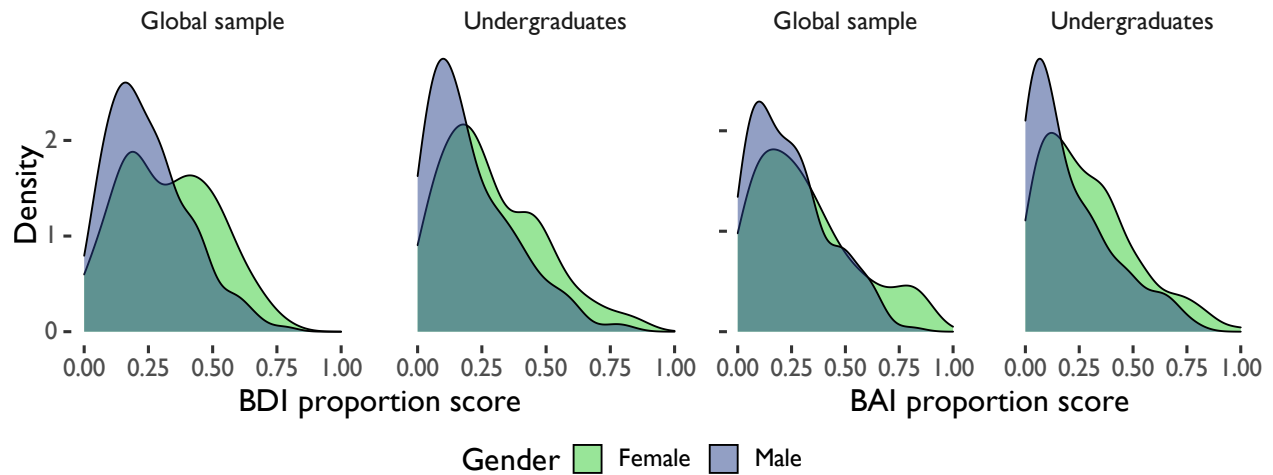


Figure 2

Avoidance demographics: Distribution of anxiety (BAI) and depressive symptom (BDI) proportion scores (score divided by total possible score) by gender and sample. BAI = Beck Anxiety Inventory, BDI = Beck Depression Inventory.

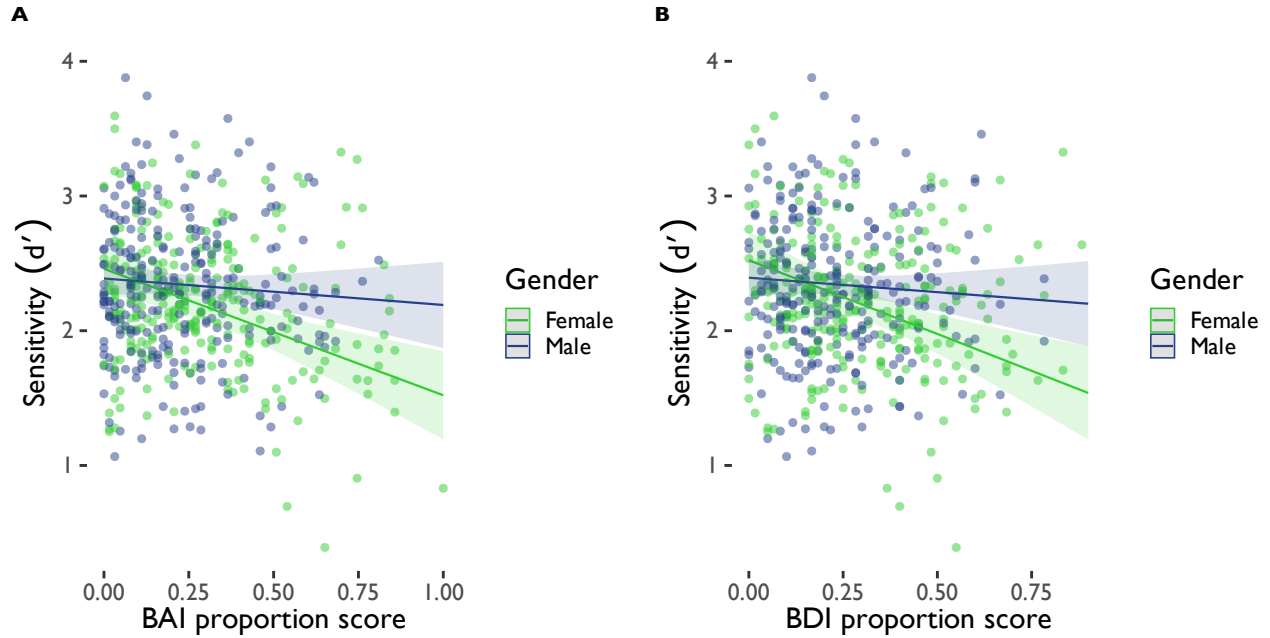


Figure 3

Linear models revealed gender interacted with anxiety and depression scores to predict avoidance task performance. (A) Gender interacted with anxiety scores (BAI proportion scores) to explain sensitivity (d') in the avoidance task. (B) Gender interacted with depression scores (BDI proportion scores) to explain sensitivity (d') in the avoidance task. BAI = Beck Anxiety Inventory. BDI = Beck Depression Inventory II. Proportion scores are scores divided by total possible score.

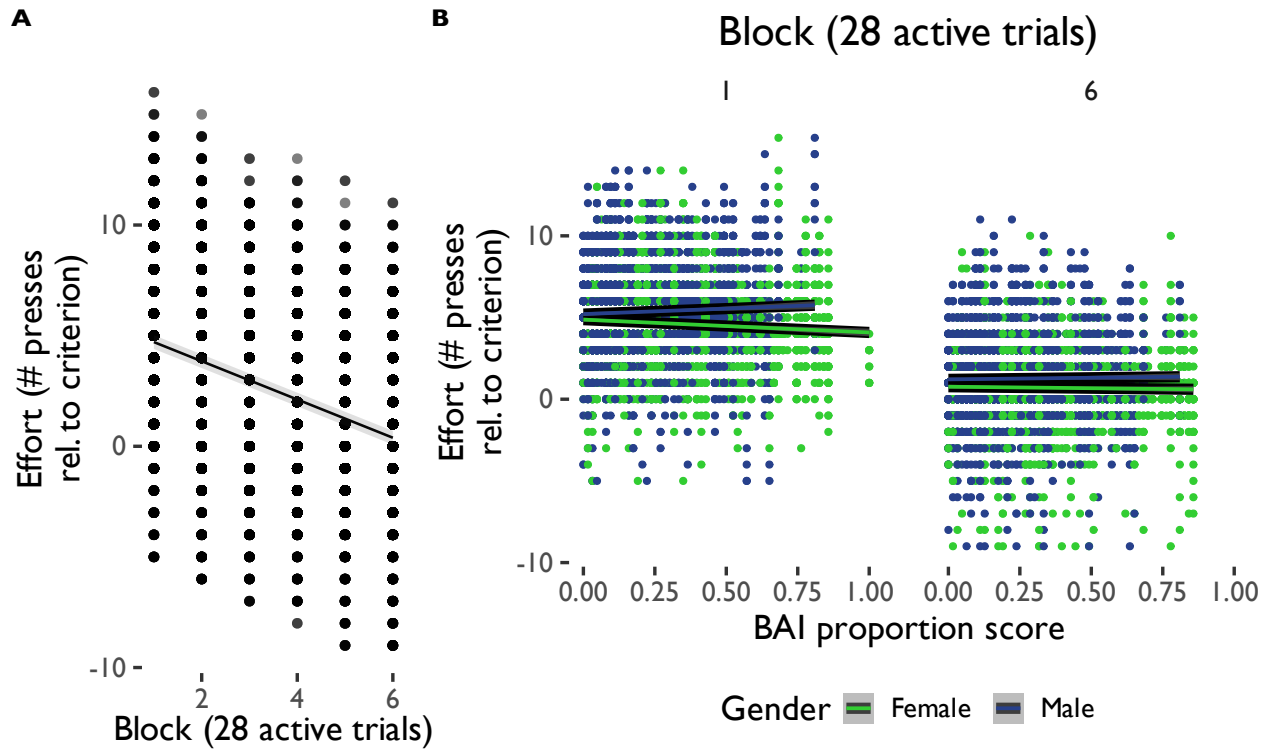


Figure 4

Avoidance effort deployment. (A) Multi-level model significant effects and interactions for effort in avoidance. Effort decreased relative to criterion as the avoidance task progressed. (B) Effort deployment interacted with anxiety scores (BAI) and gender. Proportion scores are scores divided by total possible score.

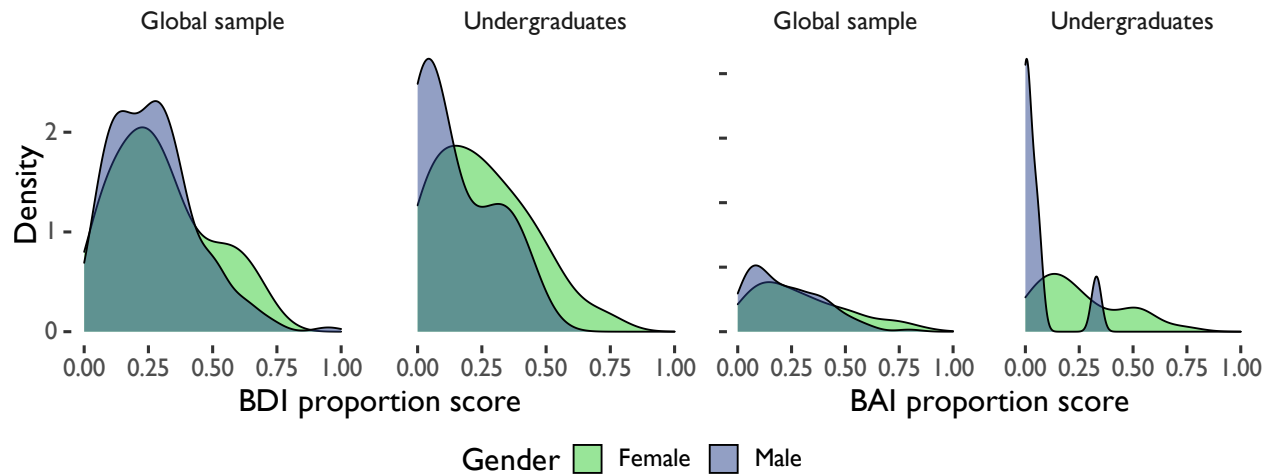


Figure 5

Reward-seeking demographics: Distribution of anxiety (BAI) and depressive symptom (BDI) scores by gender and sample. BAI = Beck Anxiety Inventory, BDI = Beck Depression Inventory II.

GENDER AND EFFORTFUL AVOIDANCE

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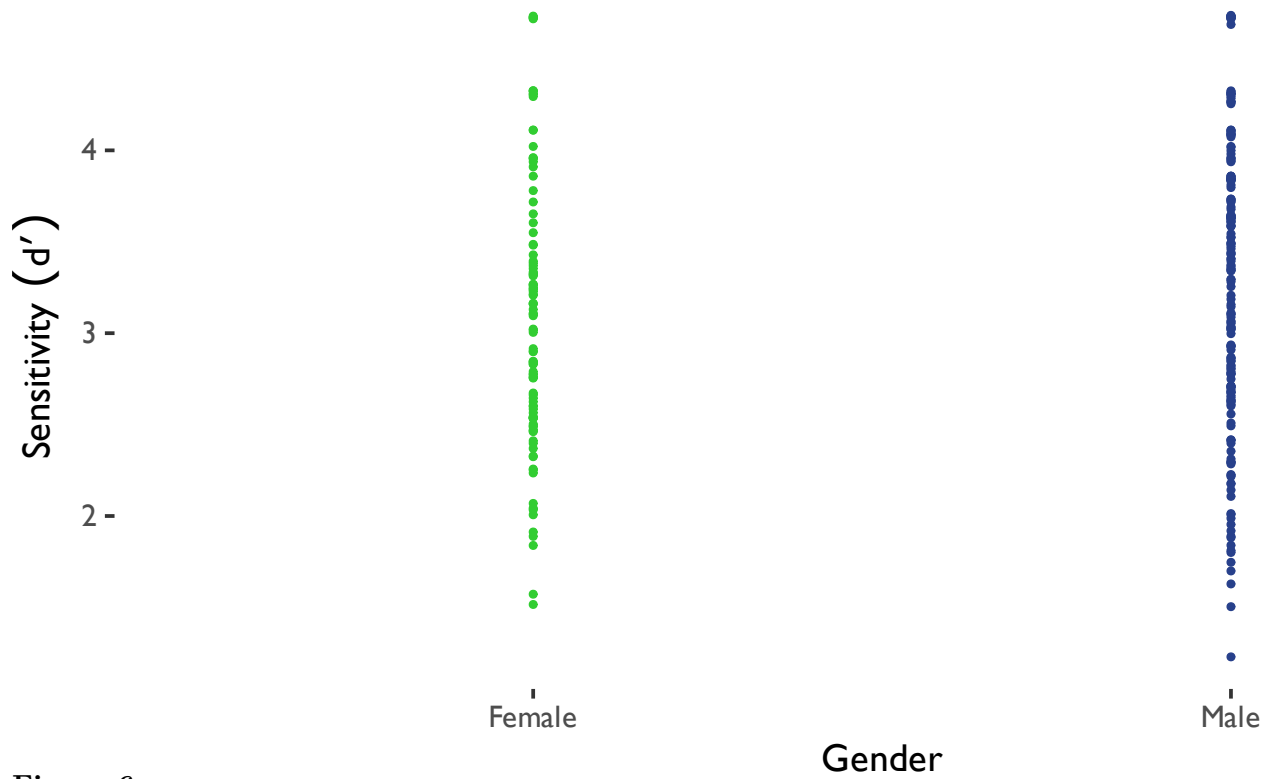


Figure 6

Linear model significant effects for sensitivity in reward-seeking. Gender explained sensitivity (d') in the reward-seeking task. BAI = Beck Anxiety Inventory. Proportion scores are scores divided by total possible score.

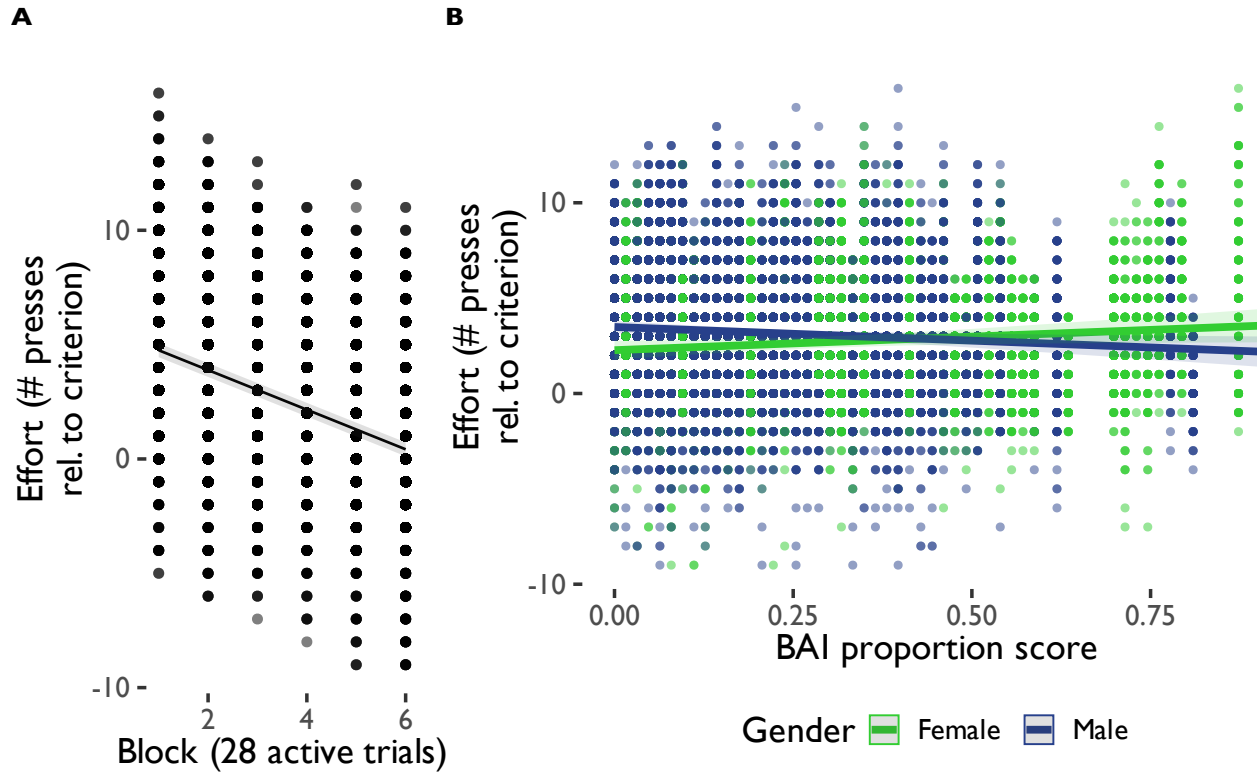
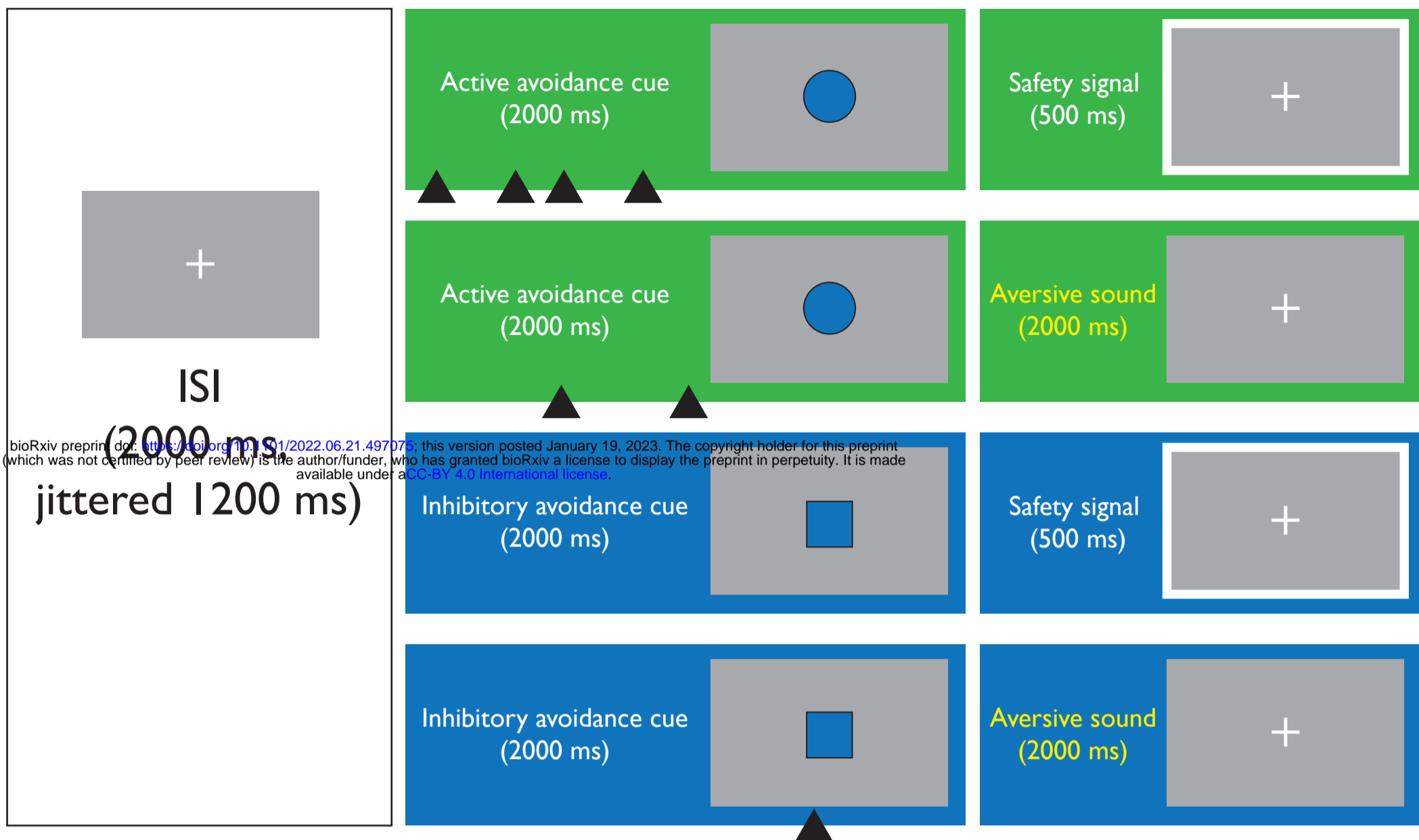


Figure 7

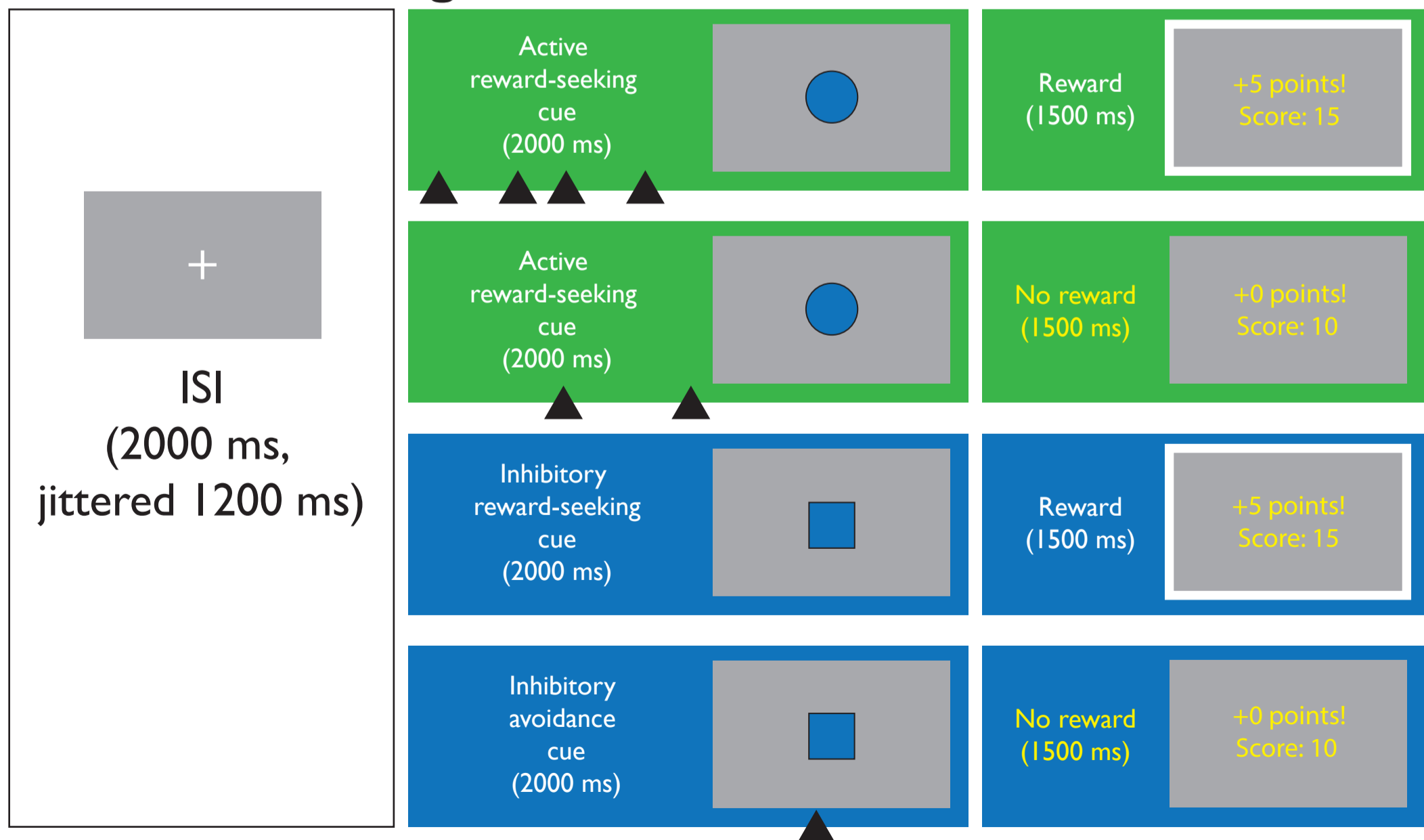
Reward-seeking effort deployment. (A) Multi-level model significant effects and interactions for effort in reward-seeking. Effort decreased relative to criterion as the reward-seeking task progressed, an effect that (B) interacted with anxiety scores (BAI) and gender. Proportion scores are scores divided by total possible score.

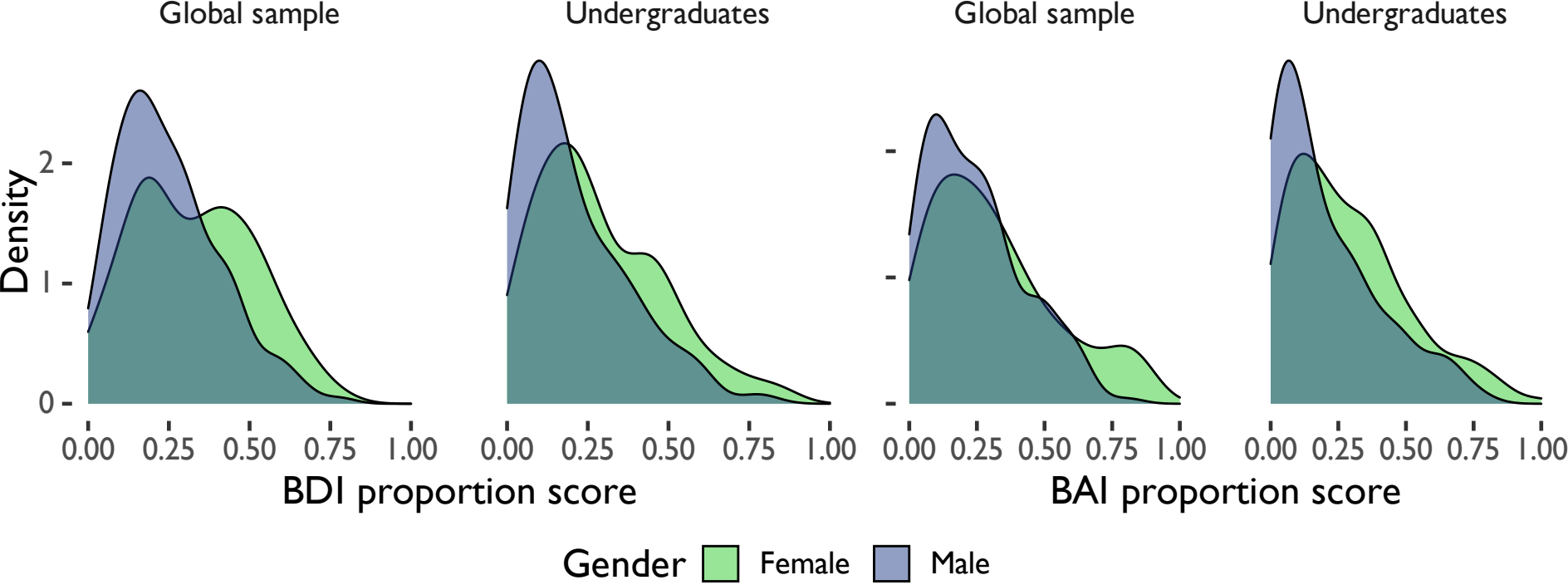
Time →

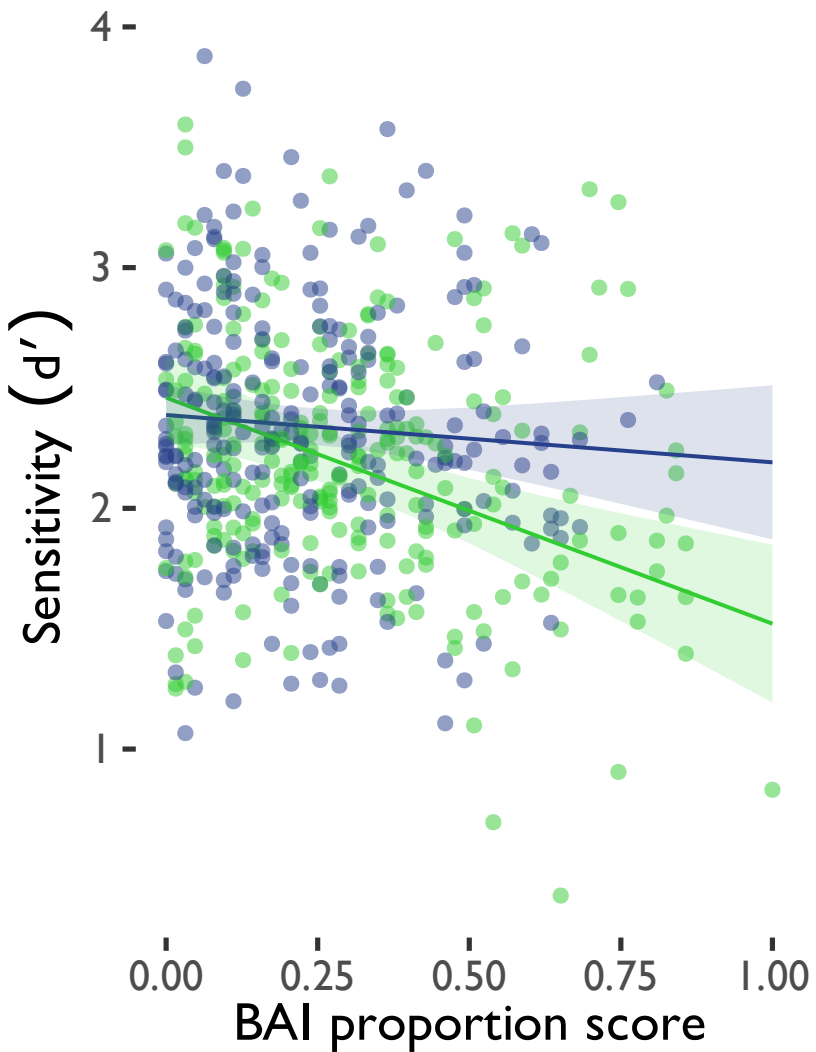
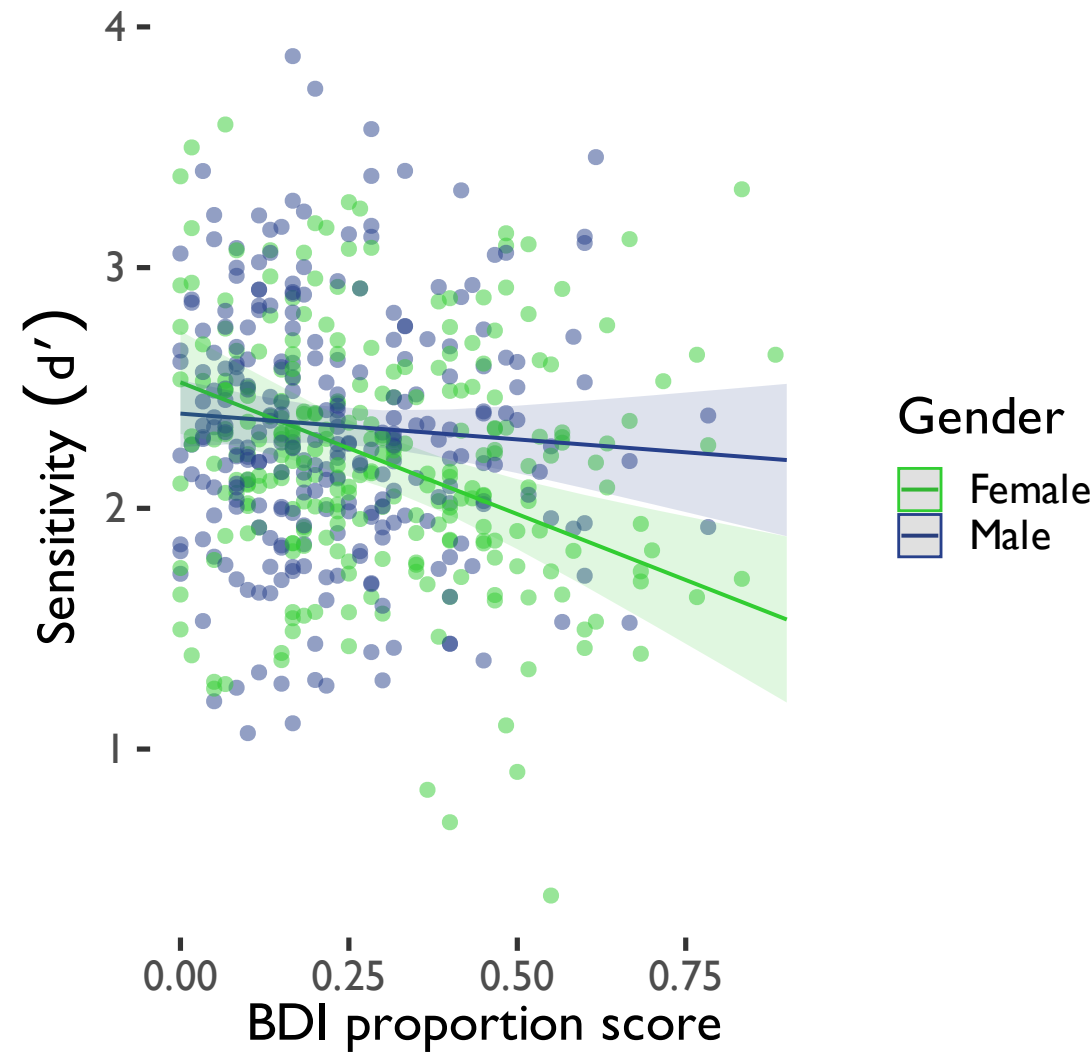
A. Avoidance

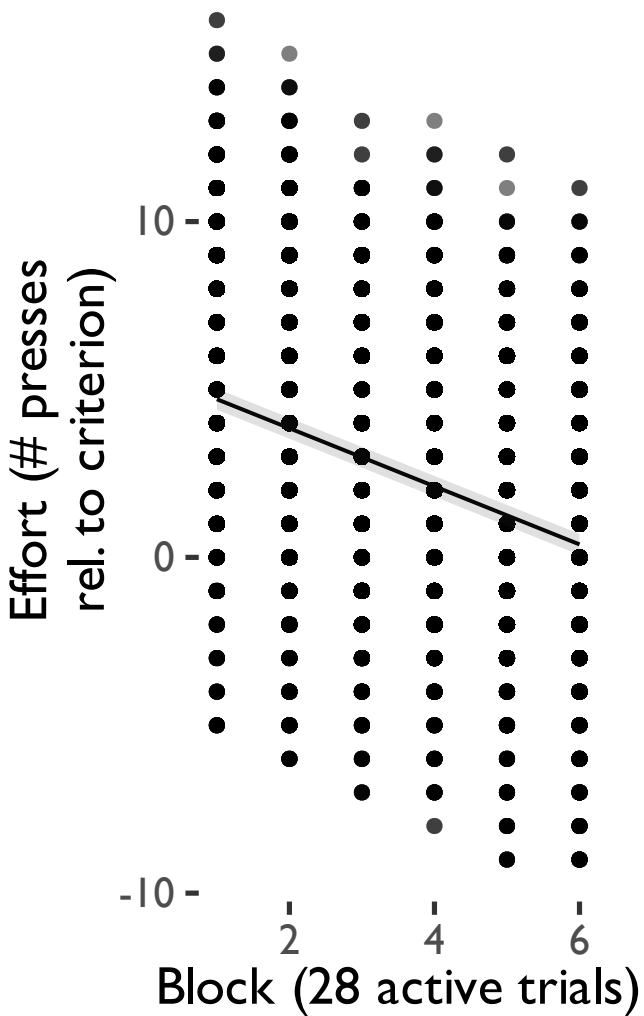
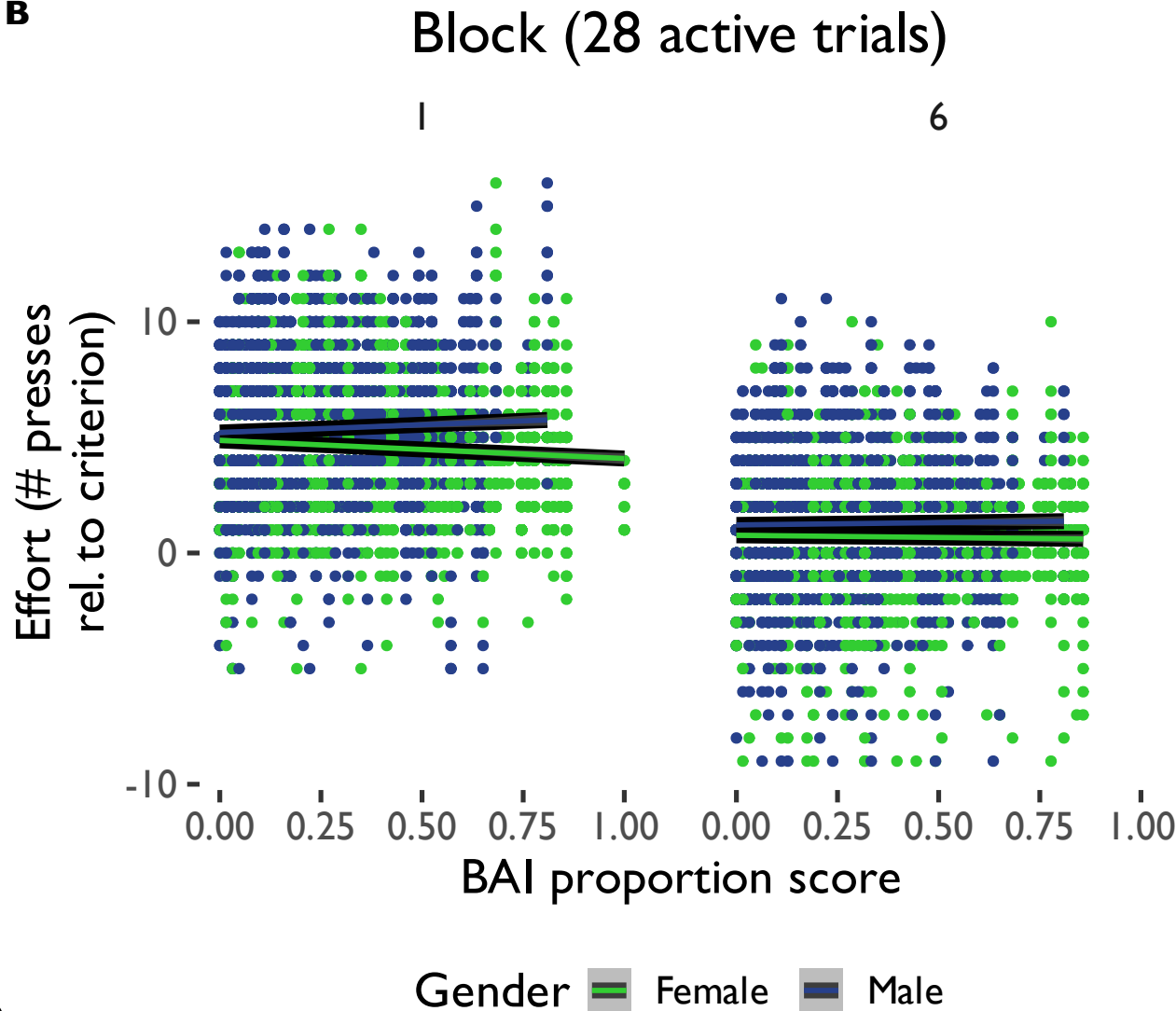


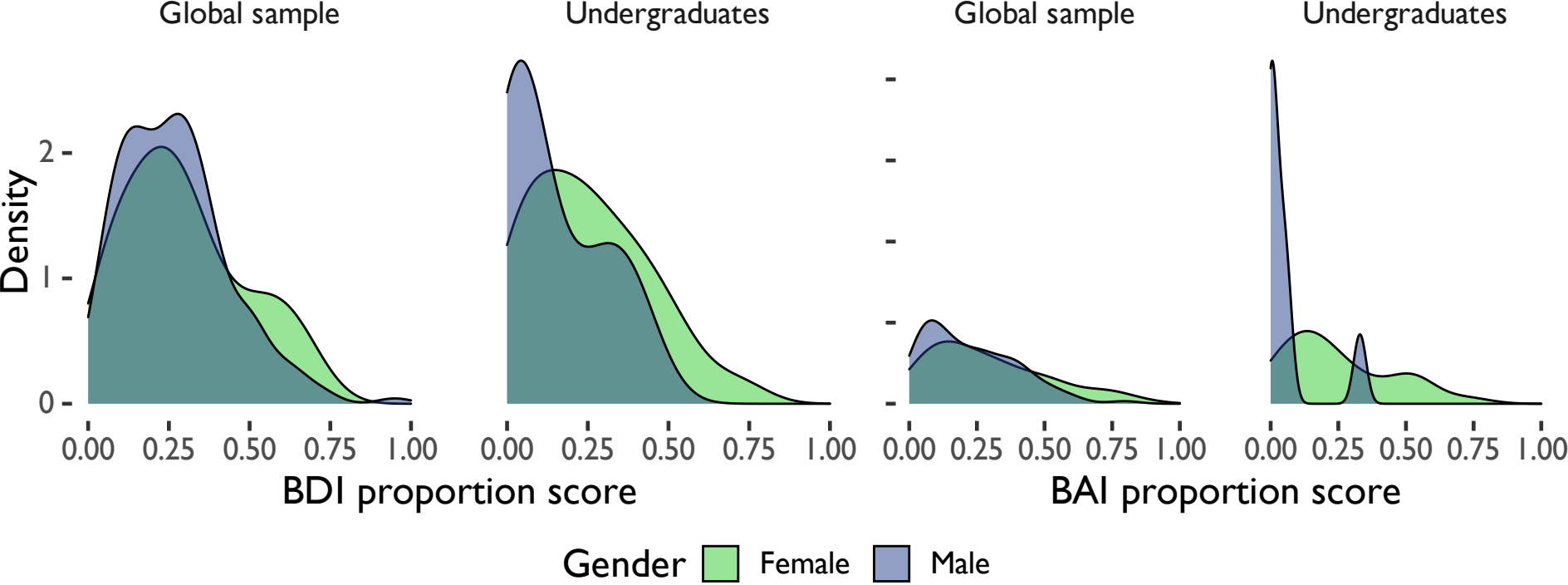
B. Reward-seeking

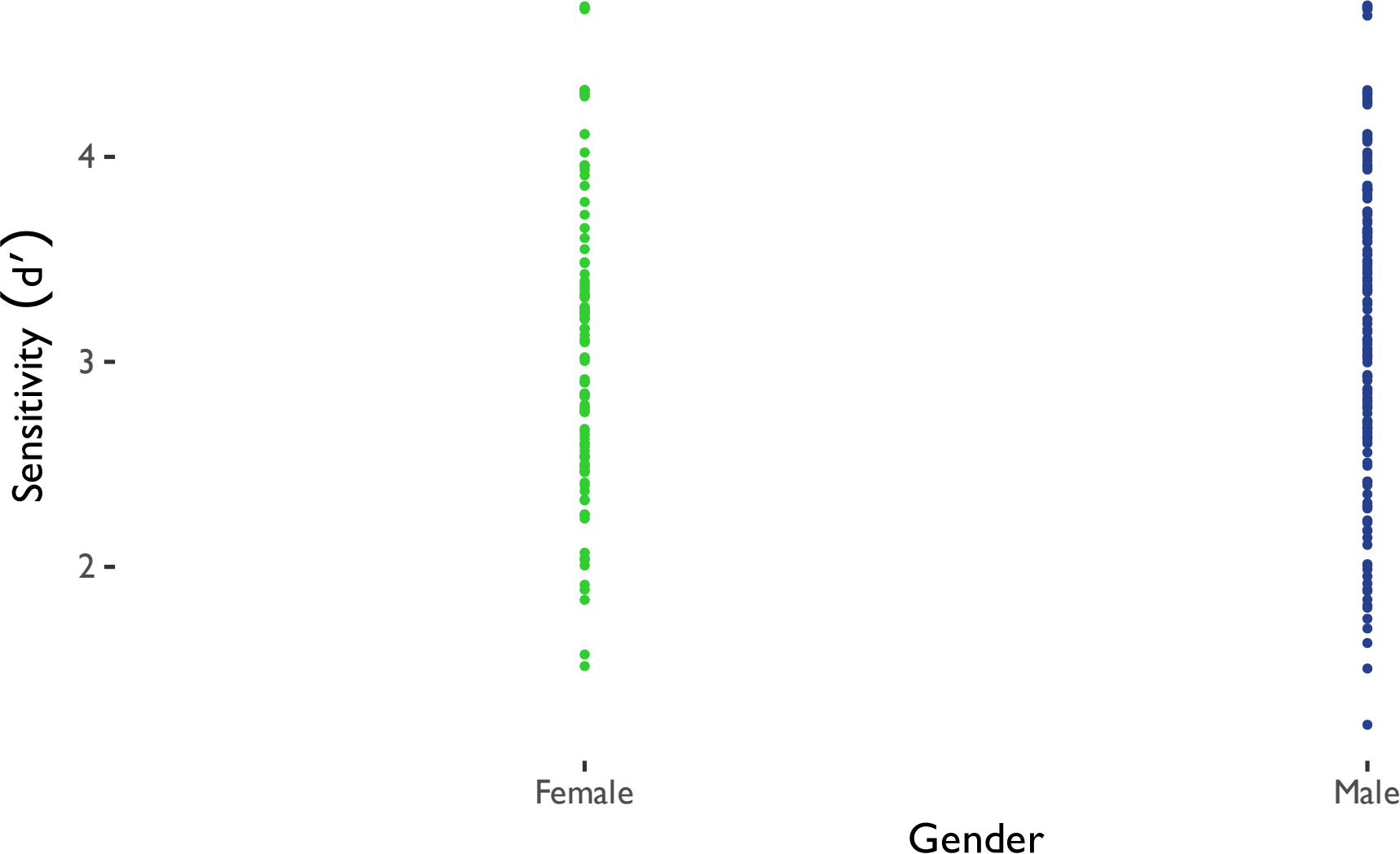


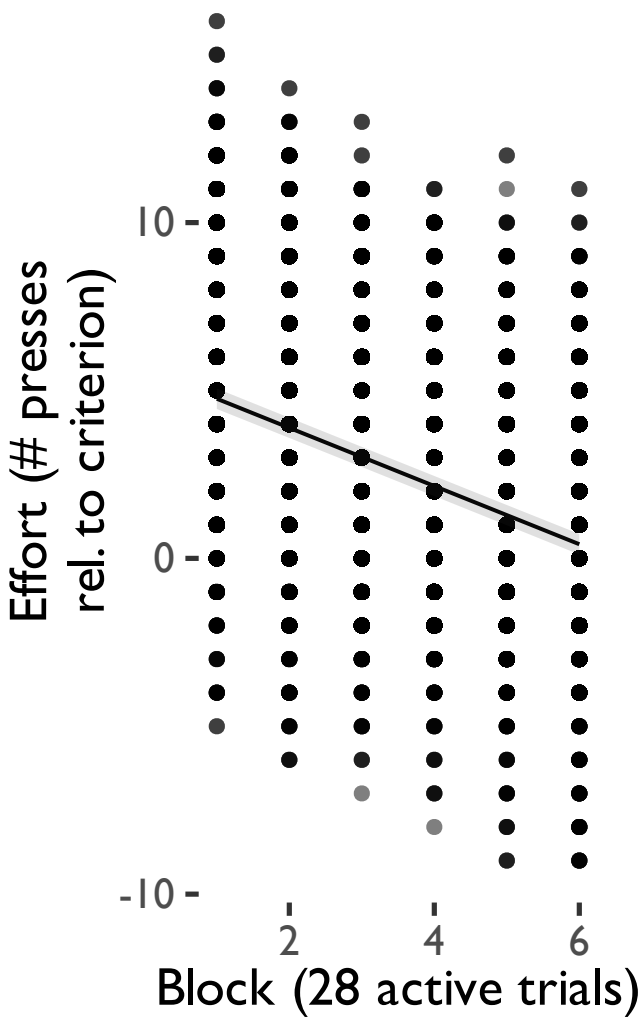


A**Gender****B****Gender**

A**B**





A**B**