

Learning to Let Go: A Cognitive-Behavioral Model of How Psychedelic Therapy Promotes Acceptance

Max Wolff^{1, 2, 3*}, Felix Betzler⁴, Ricarda Evens⁴, Gerhard Gründer⁵, Michael Koslowski⁴, Lea J. Mertens⁵, Henrik Jungaberle¹

¹MIND Foundation, Germany, ²Faculty of Psychology, Dresden University of Technology, Germany, ³Institute of Clinical Psychology and Psychotherapy, Faculty of Psychology, Technical University Dresden, Germany, ⁴Department of Psychiatry and Psychotherapy, Charité University Medicine Berlin, Germany, ⁵Department of Molecular Neuroimaging, Central Institute of Mental Health, Medical Faculty Mannheim, University of Heidelberg, Germany

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Provisional

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1 Max Wolff^{1,2,3*}, Ricarda Evens⁴, Lea J. Mertens⁵, Michael Koslowski⁴, Felix Betzler⁴, Gerhard
2 Gründer⁵, & Henrik Jungaberle³

3 ¹Faculty of Psychology, Technische Universität Dresden, Germany

4 ²Department of Psychiatry and Psychotherapy, Technische Universität Dresden, Germany

5 ³MIND Foundation, Berlin, Germany

6 ⁴Department of Psychiatry and Psychotherapy, Charité Universitätsmedizin Berlin, Germany

7 ⁵Department of Molecular Neuroimaging, Central Institute of Mental Health, Medical Faculty
8 Mannheim, University of Heidelberg, Mannheim, Germany

9 * **Correspondence:**

10 Dr. rer. nat. Max Wolff

11 max.wolff@tu-dresden.de

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16 **Abstract**

17 The efficacy of psychedelic-assisted therapies for mental disorders has been attributed to the lasting
18 change from experiential avoidance to acceptance that these treatments appear to facilitate. This
19 article presents a conceptual model that specifies the psychological mechanisms underlying such
20 change, and that shows substantial parallels between psychedelic therapy and cognitive behavioral
21 therapy: We propose that under the carefully controlled conditions of psychedelic therapy as applied
22 in contemporary clinical research, psychedelic-induced belief relaxation can increase motivation for
23 acceptance via operant conditioning, thus engendering episodes of relatively avoidance-free exposure
24 to greatly intensified private events. Under these unique learning conditions, relaxed avoidance-
25 related beliefs can be exposed to corrective experiences and become revised accordingly, which may
26 explain to long-term increases in acceptance and corresponding reductions in psychopathology. Open
27 research questions and implications for clinical practice are discussed.

28 1 Introduction

29 In recent years, several early-phase clinical trials have provided evidence that serotonergic
 30 psychedelics – in most cases psilocybin, but also lysergic acid diethylamide (LSD) and the
 31 dimethyltryptamine-(DMT)-containing potion ayahuasca – may occasion substantial and often
 32 sustained symptom reductions in patients treated for depression (Carhart-Harris et al., 2018; Palhano-
 33 Fontes et al., 2019), psychological distress related to life-threatening illness (Gasser et al., 2014;
 34 Griffiths et al., 2016; Grob et al., 2011; Ross et al., 2016), obsessive-compulsive disorder (Moreno,
 35 Wiegand, Taitano, & Delgado, 2006), and substance use disorders (Bogenschutz et al., 2015;
 36 Johnson, Garcia-Romeu, & Griffiths, 2017). It has been proposed that psychedelic therapy works by
 37 reducing patterns of *experiential avoidance* and promoting more adaptive *acceptance* (Watts, Day,
 38 Krzanowski, Nutt, & Carhart-Harris, 2017; see below for definitions of these terms). However, it
 39 remains largely unclear how psychedelic therapy may produce such change. Taking the perspective
 40 of cognitive behavioral therapy (CBT), and building on the recently proposed relaxed-beliefs account
 41 of psychedelics' acute brain action (Carhart-Harris & Friston, 2019), the present article aims to
 42 clarify the psychological mechanisms underlying the acceptance-promoting effects of psychedelic
 43 therapy. We propose a conceptual model describing how psychedelic-induced belief relaxation, when
 44 combined with specific context factors that are typically present in psychedelic therapy, facilitates the
 45 same acceptance-promoting learning process as that targeted by CBT interventions. In the following,
 46 we introduce the concepts of avoidance and acceptance, outline how CBT aims to promote
 47 acceptance, and review evidence that psychedelic therapy also promotes acceptance. We then briefly
 48 introduce the relaxed-beliefs account and, based on this, present our conceptual model of how
 49 psychedelic therapy promotes acceptance. This is followed by a discussion of open research
 50 questions and implications for clinical practice.

51 1.1 Promoting Acceptance in Cognitive Behavioral Therapy

52 Many symptoms of mental disorders can be interpreted in terms of avoidance. This is most obvious
 53 in anxiety disorders, for which avoidance of anxiety-provoking situations is a cardinal symptom, but
 54 it is also the case for many other diagnostic categories (Bullis, Boettcher, Sauer-Zavala, & Barlow,
 55 2019; Harvey, Watkins, & Mansell, 2004): In depression, passivity, withdrawal, and rumination may
 56 serve to avoid unwelcome emotional experiences (Brockmeyer, Kulesa, Hautzinger, Bents, &
 57 Backenstrass, 2015; Carvalho & Hopko, 2011; Ottenbreit & Dobson, 2008; Trew, 2011). In
 58 substance use disorders, intoxication may serve a similar purpose (Baker, Piper, McCarthy, Majeskie,
 59 & Fiore, 2004). In obsessive-compulsive disorder, washing rituals may neutralize worries about
 60 contamination (Salkovskis, 1985), etc.. All these strategies “work” in the sense that they diminish the
 61 threat of aversive experiences in the very short run. However, this small benefit often comes at the
 62 immense longer-term cost of constraining the individual's personal liberty and perpetuating the
 63 disorder.

64 While the relevance of avoidance in psychopathology is recognized by all major schools of
 65 psychotherapy (Hayes, Wilson, Gifford, Follette, & Strosahl, 1996), it is especially emphasized in the
 66 so-called third wave of CBT. Here, experiential avoidance – defined as the attempt to evade, escape,
 67 or otherwise alter *private events* (i.e., emotions, thoughts, memories, physical sensations, etc.) despite
 68 harmful long-term consequences – is considered a central factor underlying the development and
 69 maintenance of a wide range of psychopathologies (Chawla & Ostafin, 2007; Hayes et al., 1996).
 70 Acceptance refers to the converse ability to allow private events to unfold without attempting to
 71 control them. Acceptance thus relates closely to the concept of mindfulness (Baer, 2003), and is
 72 considered a core mechanism of positive behavior change in third-wave CBTs, including dialectical

73 behavior therapy (DBT; Linehan, 1994), mindfulness-based cognitive therapy (MBCT; Segal,
74 Williams, & Teasdale, 2002), and acceptance and commitment therapy (ACT; Hayes & Wilson,
75 1994). Beyond these *acceptance-based* approaches, CBT emphasizes the role of avoidance in anxiety
76 disorders, but seeks to reduce harmful behaviors, including maladaptive patterns of avoidance, across
77 diagnostic boundaries.

78 To facilitate lasting change from experiential avoidance to acceptance, behavior therapists use
79 interventions aimed at different interdependent aspects of an acceptance-promoting learning process
80 (see Figure 1). On a cognitive level, CBT seeks to enable the revision of avoidance-related beliefs,
81 i.e. belief structures that motivate (and are sustained by) experiential avoidance. These may involve
82 rather implicit negative expectancies (Rief et al., 2015) as well as preconscious assumptions and
83 more explicit beliefs about private events (e.g., “Anxiety is dangerous”), related self-
84 conceptualizations (e.g., “I cannot handle anxiety”), and corresponding rules (e.g., “I must avoid
85 anxiety at all costs”). Verbal interventions aimed at facilitating the revision of such beliefs can focus
86 on changing either their content or their functional impact on behavior, and may involve disputation
87 via Socratic dialogue (Beck, 2011), metaphors (Hayes, Luoma, Bond, Masuda, & Lillis, 2006),
88 “decentering” or psychological distancing (Safran & Segal, 1996), “defusion” exercises (Hayes et al.,
89 2006), etc..

90 On a behavioral level, avoidance-free exposure is applied to induce corrective experiences with
91 otherwise avoided private events. A prototypical case of exposure treatment is found in classical
92 CBT of anxiety disorders, which aims to reduce conditioned fear via extinction learning, i.e. by
93 repeatedly confronting the patient with fear-provoking stimuli in the absence of aversive outcomes
94 (Craske, Treanor, Conway, Zbozinek, & Vervliet, 2014). Exposure in the form of behavioral
95 experiments, i.e. gentle confrontation with avoided experiences to revise avoidance-related beliefs, is
96 also applied beyond anxiety disorders (e.g., in depression; Moore & Garland, 2008). Acceptance-
97 based CBTs commonly pursue exposure through mindfulness-based exercises, which resemble
98 classical exposure treatment of anxiety disorders in that a stimulus (in this case private events such as
99 emotions, thoughts, memories, or physical sensations) is openly attended to while desisting from
100 avoidant responses (Baer, 2003; Segal et al., 2002; Shapiro, Carlson, Astin, & Freedman, 2006). The
101 similarity between mindfulness and other exposure treatments is reflected in that regular exercise in
102 mindfulness structurally and functionally affects the same network of brain regions that is also
103 assumed to support fear extinction (Tang, Hölzel, & Posner, 2015; Wielgosz, Goldberg, Kral, Dunne,
104 & Davidson, 2018), suggesting that this type of “internal” exposure reduces avoidance via the
105 extinction of threat responses to private events. Note that these events may still be unpleasant or
106 painful even when they are no longer experienced as threatening. Importantly, acceptance-based
107 CBTs do not primarily aim to change the form or frequency of aversive experiences, but to reduce
108 harmful patterns of experiential avoidance (Hayes, Follette, & Linehan, 2004).

109 On a motivational level, exposure is typically impeded by the fact that avoidant responses have been
110 conditioned through reinforcement learning: As illustrated by the introductory examples above,
111 avoidance often leads to immediate reductions in aversion. This negative reinforcement (i.e.
112 removing an aversive stimulus or preventing an aversive event from happening) strengthens the
113 avoidant response, meaning it will subsequently tend to occur with higher frequency, longer duration,
114 greater magnitude, and/or shorter latency. By contrast, negative consequences of avoidance typically
115 unfold more slowly, and thus have relatively little impact on operant learning. CBT seeks to
116 counteract conditioned avoidance by increasing the patient’s readiness to engage with aversive
117 experiences (Grosse Holtforth, 2008), i.e. by building motivation for acceptance. This can be done by
118 promoting insight into the longer-term costs of avoidance agendas (Clark & Beck, 2011), particularly

119 with respect to their incompatibility with personally valued goals (Hayes et al., 2004), and may
 120 involve motivational interviewing techniques (Slagle & Gray, 2007). Likewise, avoidance motivation
 121 can be reduced through metaphors and experiential methods that demonstrate negative consequences
 122 or the futility of avoidance (Hayes et al., 2004).

123 --- insert Figure 1 here ---

124 1.2 Avoidance and Acceptance in Psychedelic Therapy

125 Psychedelic therapy refers to treatments for mental disorders where the patient is administered
 126 between one and a few moderate or high doses of a classic serotonergic psychedelic (psilocybin,
 127 LSD, or ayahuasca) under carefully controlled conditions in a professional clinical setting (Garcia-
 128 Romeu & Richards, 2018). During dosing sessions, which are commonly embedded in a brief
 129 intervention model with preparatory and integrative counseling sessions, therapists usually take a
 130 non-directive approach. The patient, who has been instructed to turn attention inward, is mostly lying
 131 down, wearing eyeshades, and listening to a carefully selected playlist of music over headphones as
 132 the acute psychedelic experience unfolds (for concise summaries of the phenomenology of
 133 psychedelic states see Garcia-Romeu & Richards, 2018; Swanson, 2018).

134 There is mounting evidence that the positive long-term effects of psychedelic therapy are mediated
 135 by the quality of the psychedelic experience (Carhart-Harris & Nutt, 2017; Griffiths et al., 2011;
 136 Roseman, Nutt, & Carhart-Harris, 2018). Qualitative interviews with patients have shown that
 137 avoidance and acceptance are often central themes of their psychedelic experiences (Belser et al.,
 138 2017; Gasser, Kirchner, & Passie, 2015; Nielson, May, Forchimes, & Bogenschutz, 2018; Swift et
 139 al., 2017; Watts et al., 2017), and patients commonly report transient episodes of struggle with
 140 intense aversion. These *challenging experiences*¹ (Barrett, Bradstreet, Leoutsakos, Johnson, &
 141 Griffiths, 2016; Carbonaro et al., 2016; Garcia-Romeu & Richards, 2018) are often characterized by
 142 extreme fear or panic, and may involve frightening imagery, unsettling body sensations, and the
 143 apprehension of immediate threat. This is the case even though patients are usually aware of their
 144 physical safety and the transitory nature of the experience. Attempts to exert control over challenging
 145 experiences (i.e., experiential avoidance) typically fail to bring the intended relief. Instead, patients
 146 frequently report that the experience only – and often immediately – assumed a more positive
 147 character when they eventually “surrendered” or “let go”, i.e., when they adopted an accepting
 148 attitude. The associated experience of an *emotional breakthrough* is commonly described as
 149 insightful and rewarding, and has been proposed to constitute a key component of psychedelic
 150 therapy (Roseman et al., 2019; Roseman, Nutt, et al., 2018; Watts et al., 2017). Patients often
 151 experience episodes of unique openness to greatly intensified emotions during dosing sessions, and
 152 commonly describe the sensation that previously “hidden” or “suppressed” feelings became
 153 “accessible” or were “released” (Belser et al., 2017; Gasser et al., 2015; Watts et al., 2017). Many
 154 patients report increases in emotional openness that last long after acute drug effects subside (Watts
 155 et al., 2017), and symptom reductions after psychedelic therapy are associated with enhanced neural
 156 measures of emotional responsiveness (Mertens et al., n.d.; Roseman, Demetriou, Wall, Nutt, &
 157 Carhart-Harris, 2018). This is in line with quantitative evidence for lasting psychedelic-induced
 158 increases in the personality trait openness to experience (a negative correlate of experiential
 159 avoidance; Gámez et al., 2014) observed in clinical (Erritzoe et al., 2018) and non-clinical samples
 160 (Lebedev et al., 2016; MacLean, Johnson, & Griffiths, 2011; Nour, Evans, & Carhart-Harris, 2017).

¹Contrasting the colloquial “bad trip”, this intentionally neutral term accommodates the possibility that these experiences may in fact, as discussed below, be therapeutically valuable.

161 Psychedelic therapy thus appears to promote lasting change from experiential avoidance to
 162 acceptance (Watts et al., 2017). It has been proposed that this effect is causally related to the
 163 mentioned emotional breakthrough experiences, and a recent survey study lends preliminary support
 164 to this view (Roseman et al., 2019). However, the underlying psychological processes have not been
 165 specified so far. Further below, we will present a conceptual model according to which psychedelic
 166 therapy facilitates the same acceptance-promoting learning process as that targeted by CBT
 167 interventions (Figure 1). We base this argument on the recently proposed relaxed-beliefs account of
 168 the acute brain action of psychedelics (Carhart-Harris & Friston, 2019).

169 **1.3 The Relaxed-Beliefs Account of Psychedelics' Acute Brain Action**

170 Carhart-Harris and Friston (2019) proposed a unified account of the acute brain action of
 171 psychedelics. Although this recent theory still requires further empirical support, it widely
 172 accommodates the current state of knowledge about these substances' psychopharmacology, and
 173 parsimoniously explains their various psychotropic effects as the result of psychedelic-induced belief
 174 relaxation. The theory's neurobiological details are beyond the scope of this article, but
 175 understanding belief relaxation sufficiently to follow our argument requires a basic concept of
 176 *predictive processing*, arguably the leading unified account of brain and mind function (Clark, 2013;
 177 Friston, 2010). According to predictive processing, the brain with its hierarchical architecture creates
 178 and constantly updates a hierarchically organized generative model of the current and general state of
 179 the world. At lower levels in the hierarchy, this model comprises rather momentary hypotheses about
 180 the causes of current sensory inputs (e.g., the perceptual belief that one is looking at a tree). At higher
 181 levels, the model becomes increasingly abstract, and forms more enduring hypotheses about the
 182 general state of the world. At the highest levels, far removed from the sensorium, these beliefs (which
 183 do not need to be consciously held) are usually highly stable, such as the belief that a self exists and
 184 has certain properties.

185 To fulfill its biological function and inform adaptive behavior in a complex changing environment,
 186 the brain needs the ability to form new beliefs and change existing ones. This ongoing process of
 187 belief updating is guided by the principle of prediction error minimization: At each level of the
 188 hierarchy, probabilistic top-down predictions based on current beliefs are continuously compared
 189 with bottom-up inputs (basic sensory information at the lowest levels), and beliefs are adjusted in
 190 such a way that prediction errors (mismatches between predictions and inputs) are minimized. This
 191 process underlies the flexibility of the generative model, and ensures its correspondence with the
 192 external world. However, the sensitivity of beliefs toward ascending prediction errors may vary.
 193 Heavily-weighted (i.e. insensitive or "confident") high-level beliefs are not easily updated, and often
 194 exert far-reaching constraining effects: They suppress prediction errors from certain lower-level parts
 195 of the model and keep them from impressing on higher levels. Thereby, these so-called compressive
 196 beliefs give the model stability and drastically reduce the number of its possible states, thus
 197 constraining phenomenal experience. For instance, the experience of seeing sounds (a case of visual-
 198 auditory synesthesia) should be largely prevented by heavily-weighted compressive beliefs along the
 199 lines of "sound is invisible" (the default state for non-synesthetes in normal waking consciousness).

200 The relaxed-beliefs account states that psychedelics acutely reduce the weight (i.e. confidence) of
 201 higher-level beliefs: By increasing their sensitivity toward prediction errors, otherwise stable beliefs
 202 are more easily updated. Furthermore, bottom-up information that is normally inhibited by
 203 compressive beliefs becomes liberated and is allowed to "travel up the hierarchy with greater latitude
 204 and compass" (Carhart-Harris & Friston, 2019). This leads to a less constrained, more flexible state
 205 of mind which the authors refer to as the "anarchic brain". A central characteristic of this state is

206 increased context sensitivity, i.e. a heightened susceptibility toward ongoing processes in the internal
 207 and external context (or "set" and "setting"; see Carhart-Harris et al., 2018; Hartogsohn, 2017).
 208 Processing domains which under normal circumstances are largely kept apart thus become more
 209 strongly interconnected. As a result, context-sensitivity phenomena such as visual-auditory
 210 synesthesia (i.e. sensitivity of visual processes toward the auditory processing context, reflecting the
 211 relaxation of beliefs such as "sound is invisible") are characteristic of psychedelic states. Beyond
 212 that, belief relaxation arguably accounts for the full spectrum of subjective phenomena associated
 213 with the psychedelic experience, including not only perceptual alterations but also visionary
 214 experiences, emotional lability, noetic insight, compromised sense of self, etc.. In the following
 215 sections, we describe some possible corollaries of belief relaxation that, in our view, can explain how
 216 psychedelic therapy promotes lasting change from experiential avoidance to acceptance: operant
 217 conditioning of acceptance, the elicitation and intensification of private events, and the relaxation of
 218 avoidance-related beliefs. According to our conceptual model (Figure 2), synergies between these
 219 psychedelic-therapy-specific factors facilitate the same acceptance-promoting learning process as that
 220 targeted by CBT interventions.

221 **2 A Cognitive-Behavioral Model of How Psychedelic Therapy Promotes Acceptance**

222 --- insert Figure 2 here ---

223 **2.1 Operant Conditioning of Acceptance**

224 A central cause of the stability of pathological avoidance is, as previously mentioned, that avoidant
 225 responses have often been repeatedly strengthened by negative reinforcement. It appears that this
 226 circumstance can be essentially reversed in psychedelic therapy, with the result that acceptance is
 227 conditioned instead of avoidance. Consider the following report of a psilocybin experience by a
 228 patient treated for depression:

229 *There was this huge terrifying creature with a rifle, and instead of running away, I looked at*
 230 *it, and it wasn't as scary as it had seemed. [My] fear subsided, it suddenly seemed ridiculous,*
 231 *I started laughing. If I had avoided it, it would have got more terrifying.*

232 Patient #4 (Watts et al., 2017)

233 Here, the patient's curious, accepting response to an aversive aspect of the experience (looking at the
 234 terrifying creature instead of running away) is immediately negatively reinforced (the creature
 235 appearing less scary). Moreover, the patient has apparently somehow learned that an avoidant
 236 response (running away) would have been punished (the creature becoming even more terrifying). In
 237 what follows, we show that psychedelic-induced belief relaxation can account for such operant
 238 conditioning of acceptance.

239 **2.1.1 Avoidance Sensitivity**

240 As explained above, belief relaxation is thought to produce a relatively unconstrained state of mind
 241 characterized by increased sensitivity to context. This context sensitivity should emerge not only
 242 within perception (e.g., synesthesia between visual and auditory processes) but also between
 243 perceptual and affective-motivational processes. In the anarchic brain, increased bottom-up
 244 information flow from limbic into higher cortical areas (Carhart-Harris & Friston, 2019) may allow
 245 avoidance-related processes to infiltrate and distort perception in ways that resemble synesthetic
 246 phenomena. Hence, avoidant states may bias perceptual belief updating towards what is (innately or

247 by learning) associated with avoidance, leading to the emergence of threat-related perceptual content.
248 For instance, the attempt to suppress a certain emotion may give rise to (more) unpleasant body
249 sensations or repulsive imagery. The psychedelic state may thus involve a feedback loop whereby
250 avoidant responses to aversive private events tend to increase aversion. We refer to this presumed
251 circumstance as *avoidance sensitivity*, and propose that it constitutes a vital factor in psychedelic
252 therapy.

253 Due to avoidance sensitivity, the psychedelic state may be characterized by an intrinsic tendency to
254 punish avoidance and reward acceptance. To prevent misunderstandings, this should not mean that
255 avoidant behaviors always increase aversion in psychedelic states. For instance, physically escaping
256 from a threatening external stimulus may in fact often be rewarded by decreased fear and feelings of
257 relief (due to removal of the stimulus). We assume that punishment of avoidance via avoidance
258 sensitivity is most likely to occur when avoidance is directed toward private events that are relatively
259 unrelated to the immediate stimulus environment, i.e. in introspection as is encouraged in psychedelic
260 therapy. Here, covert avoidance (e.g., trying to suppress aversive visual imagery by imagining
261 something else) may produce more aversive content than it can eliminate. This is presumably
262 amplified by additional context factors that are usually present in psychedelic therapy, where the
263 patient is mostly lying down and wearing eyeshades. The resulting uncertain stimulus environment
264 and associated deprivation from the grounding influence of well-defined sensory input (the notable
265 exception being auditory stimulation with music, which is discussed below) can be assumed to
266 strongly increase hallucinatory aspects of the experience (Pink-Hashkes, van Rooij, & Kwisthout,
267 2017), and thus increase avoidance sensitivity. This should be further enhanced by the lying-down
268 body position, as reduced movement forbids many uses of active inference (i.e. acting on the
269 environment to reduce uncertainty; Brown, Friston, & Bestmann, 2011).

270 **2.1.2 Shaping Acceptance**

271 Given that avoidance sensitivity is presumably affected by the stimulus environment, the patient may
272 use overt avoidance behaviors (removing the eyeshades, getting up and moving around, etc.) to seek
273 distraction and tune down the intensity of aversive experiences. Such strategies, which can be
274 actively supported by therapists, may in fact often reduce aversion to some degree. Nevertheless, due
275 to encouragement by therapists and information provided in preparatory sessions, the patient may try
276 and continue within introspection. Initial attempts at engaging with challenging experiences will
277 likely reflect the patient's habitual patterns of responding, and may often rely on what has previously
278 "worked" in everyday life: experiential avoidance. However, due to avoidance sensitivity, the attempt
279 to exert control over the flow of events will likely aggravate aversive features of the experience,
280 which may in turn elicit an even more vigorous avoidant response. Such escalation can be expected
281 to proceed until the patient either resorts to overt avoidance or begins to desist from avoidance
282 altogether. If neither occurs, the patient may soon find themselves in an intensely aversive state of
283 panic².

284 As soon as the patient spontaneously shows a minimum of acceptance toward an aversive aspect of
285 the experience, this may initiate an operant process that can be described as an automatic form of
286 shaping³. At first, the patient may only partially refrain from avoidance. Such a nuanced change in set

²The described process bears some resemblance to the escalation of anxiety in panic attacks, which is assumed to be driven by catastrophic misinterpretation of (and associated avoidant responses to) body sensations (Clark, 1986).

³Shaping is a conditioning paradigm where the subject's spontaneous behavior is gradually changed towards a target behavior by differential reinforcement of successive approximations (Skinner, 1953).

287 may noticeably attenuate the emergence of threat-related perceptual content, thereby slightly
 288 reducing aversion. In the above example, as little as one curious glance at the terrifying creature
 289 (instead of thinking about how to best run away from it) could already have made it appear slightly
 290 less frightening. Strengthened by such negative reinforcement, the spontaneous partial acceptance
 291 may subsequently generalize. Avoidance strategies are then increasingly let go of, and acceptance is
 292 brought to additional aspects of the experience. Here, broader acceptance can be assumed to yield
 293 stronger reinforcement. Under favorable conditions, this may allow the patient to rapidly achieve
 294 high levels of acceptance, even toward types of private events that are otherwise rigorously avoided.
 295 The common phenomenon that a challenging experience is suddenly resolved in a moment of
 296 breakthrough (Roseman et al., 2019) could be explained as the result of such rapid shaping-like
 297 processes.

298 Certain additional context factors that are commonly present in psychedelic therapy (Garcia-Romeu
 299 & Richards, 2018) can be assumed to be crucial for the described process: The importance of
 300 assuming an accepting attitude toward the experience is explicitly explained to the patient in
 301 preparatory sessions. The patient is instructed accordingly, and is encouraged to set an intention to
 302 “trust, let go, and be open” (Pahnke, 1969). Furthermore, therapists may serve as models for
 303 acceptance throughout the treatment, and cue acceptance to the patient in dosing sessions. Patients
 304 have also attributed increases in acceptance of challenging psychedelic experiences to the
 305 encouraging influence of music (Kaelen et al., 2018). Not least, the purposefully created atmosphere
 306 of support, safety, and trust should be considered necessary for acceptance to be learned in
 307 psychedelic therapy.

308 2.2 Elicitation and Intensification of Private Events

309 *Excursions into grief, loneliness and rage, abandonment. Once I went into the anger it went*
 310 *‘pouf’ and evaporated.*

311 Patient #3 (Watts et al., 2017)

312 Such reports of exceptional openness to previously “hidden” or “suppressed” feelings during dosing
 313 sessions (Belser et al., 2017; Gasser et al., 2015; Watts et al., 2017) suggest that conditioned
 314 acceptance may yield unique opportunities for exposure to private events that are otherwise avoided.
 315 Apart from the necessity to desist from avoidant responses, successful exposure treatment requires
 316 that suitable exposure targets (i.e. avoidance-related private events that are meaningfully related to
 317 the patient’s psychopathology) are elicited and experienced with sufficient intensity. Hence, it
 318 appears advantageous that psychedelic-induced belief relaxation should involve the dissolution of
 319 top-down constraints on emotional, mnemonic, and perceptual processes (Carhart-Harris & Friston,
 320 2019). The resulting emotional effects, including the intensification of feelings, increased conscious
 321 access to emotions, and broadening of emotional range (Swanson, 2018), may be of particular
 322 therapeutic value in this regard.

323 Considering that dosing sessions in psychedelic therapy usually last several hours, one might assume
 324 that the long duration alone ensures that therapeutically valuable exposure targets will sooner or later
 325 emerge. Furthermore, it is possible that the patient simply knows where in life avoidance is harming
 326 them (this could be further facilitated by the insight-promoting effects of belief relaxation; Carhart-
 327 Harris & Friston, 2019), and actively engages with the respective topics. However, patients often
 328 report a sense of being drawn into or guided towards “necessary” experiences, bearing the notion of
 329 an “inner therapist” (Watts et al., 2017), and suggesting the possibility that some highly efficient
 330 involuntary process of exposure target selection may be at work. It is an interesting possibility that

331 such a process could be driven by periodic returns to avoidant responding (in behaviorist terms:
 332 *resurgences*): When an avoidant set is (re-)established for a brief moment, perceptual belief updating
 333 should be transiently biased towards what is associated with avoidance in the individual's memory.
 334 Thereby, periodic resurgences of avoidance may somewhat inevitably direct the flow of private
 335 events to what the patient most vigorously avoids in everyday life – which will likely relate to their
 336 individual psychopathology. Although speculative at present, it is conceivable that the surfacing of
 337 “forgotten” emotional memories (a regular occurrence in psychedelic therapy; Garcia-Romeu &
 338 Richards, 2018) and other phenomena that patients may attribute to an inner therapist would be
 339 facilitated by such a mechanism.

340 In the controlled context of psychedelic therapy, it can be expected that sensory deprivation in the
 341 visual, tactile, and proprioceptive domains will enhance the elicitation and intensification of private
 342 events. Another context factor of particular importance is music (Barrett et al., 2018): Music
 343 increases psychedelic-induced visual imagery, which then often involves autobiographical memories
 344 (Kaelen et al., 2016), and can interact with self-referential processing in such a way that the personal
 345 meaningfulness of psychedelic experiences is increased (Preller et al., 2017). Perhaps most
 346 importantly, music has a powerful ability to evoke and amplify emotions (Kaelen et al., 2015, 2018;
 347 Kaelen et al., 2017). Due to its central role in psychedelic therapy as a source of emotionality and
 348 meaning, music has been metaphorically referred to as “the hidden therapist” (Kaelen et al., 2018).

349 **2.3 Relaxation of Avoidance-Related Beliefs**

350 Patterns of pathological avoidance are, as explained above, sustained by avoidance-related beliefs
 351 that motivate avoidant behavior and thereby impede corrective experiences. In terms of predictive
 352 processing, such rigid pathological beliefs are characterized by excessive weight (confidence), i.e.
 353 strong suppression of bottom-up information and insensitivity to prediction errors. In line with the
 354 notion that psychedelic therapy works by making rigid pathological belief systems malleable
 355 (Carhart-Harris & Friston, 2019), we propose that the relaxation of avoidance-related beliefs opens a
 356 temporary window of plasticity through which these beliefs may undergo revision. However, this by
 357 itself should not warrant that avoidance-related beliefs are revised, let alone with beneficial results.
 358 From a CBT perspective, positive results should be expected only when prediction errors
 359 encountered under belief relaxation are actually corrective with regard to dysfunctional beliefs. As
 360 explained in the previous sections, this may in fact often be the case in psychedelic therapy: Enabled
 361 by operant conditioning of acceptance, relatively avoidance-free exposure to a multitude of greatly
 362 intensified private events should often produce experiences that strongly contradict negative
 363 expectancies. When the resulting prediction errors impinge upon relaxed avoidance-related beliefs,
 364 they may exert a uniquely therapeutic corrective influence. Under favorable conditions, this could
 365 give rise to heavily-weighted and highly generalized *acceptance beliefs* (e.g. “Anxiety is not
 366 dangerous”). Apart from changes in explicit attitudes, belief relaxation may also facilitate the
 367 revision of more implicit expectancies, and reduce threat responses to private events through
 368 mechanisms related to extinction learning. In this respect, psychedelic therapy may resemble fear
 369 exposure treatment in CBT. Similar mechanisms have been proposed to underlie the therapeutic
 370 effects of mindfulness, which aims to broadly reduce reactivity to private events and is widely
 371 applied as a means of exposure in third-wave CBTs (Baer, 2003; Shapiro et al., 2006; Tang et al.,
 372 2015; Wielgosz et al., 2018). In line with the idea that psychedelic states can resemble the exposure-
 373 like quality of exercising mindfulness, psychedelics appear to enhance mindfulness capabilities
 374 (Smigielski, Scheidegger, Kometer, & Vollenweider, 2019; Soler et al., 2018, 2016), and
 375 mindfulness-related practices can enhance positive effects of psychedelics (Griffiths et al., 2018). It
 376 is well established that extinction learning in exposure treatments is most effective when negative

377 expectancies regarding the outcomes of exposure are maximally violated (Craske et al., 2014).
 378 Psychedelic therapy appears to provide favorable conditions in this regard: First, the intense and
 379 often disturbing nature of the psychedelic experience may induce particularly negative expectancies
 380 about the outcomes of desisting from avoidance (e.g., “If I stop trying to control it, the anxiety will
 381 become absolutely unbearable”). By contrast, actual outcomes of avoidance-free exposure will often
 382 comprise a sense of breakthrough that is experienced as strongly rewarding, thus maximally violating
 383 negative expectancies. Following the relaxed-beliefs account, the effects of such expectancy violation
 384 on extinction learning should be further amplified by psychedelic-induced increases in sensitivity to
 385 prediction errors.

386 To summarize, psychedelic experiences that involve breakthrough experiences and episodes of
 387 relatively avoidance-free exposure to otherwise avoided private events may constitute unique
 388 learning conditions where relaxed avoidance-related beliefs can be revised with beneficial results.
 389 Corresponding changes in explicit attitudes, preconscious assumptions, and more implicit
 390 expectancies may profoundly transform the patient’s way of relating to private events. The following
 391 patient report illustrates how these changes may lead to long-term increases in acceptance:

392 *I took away from the experience that I used to get angry about having anxiety, now I think I*
 393 *can have the anxiety, I can just feel it and it will go, I don’t have to have the fear or run away.*

394 Patient #2 (Watts et al., 2017)

395 **3 Implications for Research**

396 **3.1 Measuring Acceptance-Related Processes in Psychedelic Therapy**

397 The proposed conceptual model (Figure 2) can be understood as a specific formulation of the more
 398 generic extra-pharmacological (EP) model of psychedelic drug action by Carhart-Harris and Nutt
 399 (2017). At its core, the EP model assumes that long-term responses to psychedelics are predicted by
 400 relevant aspects of the acute drug response (which in turn results from interactions between drug-
 401 related, personal, and environmental factors). Applied to our model, long-term increases in
 402 acceptance and corresponding reductions in psychopathology should be especially pronounced
 403 following psychedelic experiences where operant processes engender episodes of relatively
 404 avoidance-free exposure to otherwise avoided private events, thereby enabling revision of avoidance-
 405 related beliefs. Qualitative analyses of patient interviews (Belser et al., 2017; Gasser et al., 2015;
 406 Swift et al., 2017; Watts et al., 2017) are compatible with this view. Quantitative studies are needed
 407 to test and further develop the proposed model. This requires that relevant aspects of the acute
 408 psychedelic experience are adequately measured. To this end, we are currently developing a new
 409 questionnaire with separate scales for measuring the proposed acceptance-related processes in
 410 psychedelic states. To further clarify the role of acceptance as an underlying mechanism of change in
 411 psychedelic therapy, baseline and follow-up assessments in future clinical studies should include
 412 instruments for measuring experiential avoidance (e.g., Gámez et al., 2014; Ottenbreit & Dobson,
 413 2004) and related phenomena such as avoidant coping (e.g., Finset, Steine, Haugli, Steen, & Laerum,
 414 2002), thought suppression (Wells & Davies, 1994), or beliefs about the unacceptability of emotions
 415 (Rimes & Chalder, 2010). Assuming that acceptance is a central factor in psychedelic therapy, one
 416 should expect positive clinical outcomes such as symptom reductions to be at least partially mediated
 417 by decreases in experiential avoidance. Furthermore, research into the predictability of treatment
 418 outcomes based on pre-treatment avoidance levels could be an important basis for future clinical
 419 decisions (see our discussion of clinical targets below).

420 3.2 Examining the Role of Challenging and Breakthrough Experiences

421 Challenging psychedelic experiences are potential starting points for acceptance-promoting learning
 422 processes, but are by no means always therapeutically valuable. In line with this, previous studies
 423 have found mixed results regarding long-term effects of challenging experiences: Roseman et al.
 424 (2018) found that levels of anxiety and impaired cognition during psilocybin sessions predicted less
 425 positive clinical outcomes in depression patients. Likewise, a prospective survey study in a non-
 426 clinical sample (Haijen et al., 2018) found that challenging psychedelic experiences had negative
 427 effects on well-being. Another survey (Carbonaro et al., 2016) found that subsequent well-being was
 428 negatively related to the duration of challenging experiences, but positively related to their intensity.
 429 These seemingly contradictory results have been interpreted in the sense that “challenging
 430 experiences can indeed be therapeutically beneficial, but only if personal insight and/or emotional
 431 catharsis follows the relevant experience(s) of psychological struggle” (Carhart-Harris et al., 2018).
 432 The same authors have recently developed a questionnaire for measuring this breakthrough quality of
 433 challenging experiences, and observed that emotional breakthrough predicted increases in well-being
 434 after naturalistic psychedelic use (Roseman et al., 2019). We acknowledge that the intense relief
 435 inherent in such experiences may act as a massive reinforcement of acceptance. However, according
 436 to our tentative model, the therapeutic value of breakthrough experiences may lie not only in
 437 breakthrough itself but also in the preceding shaping of acceptance, subsequent exposure to otherwise
 438 avoided private events, and corresponding changes in avoidance-related beliefs. This distinction may
 439 be irrelevant in some cases, but it could be important in situations where the patient undergoes
 440 episodes of relatively avoidance-free exposure without previously having a challenging experience
 441 (and thus perhaps without experiencing breakthrough). This relates to the important question how the
 442 acute psychedelic experience and clinical outcomes are affected by a repetition of active dosing
 443 sessions. Modern clinical trials have involved between one and three active dosing sessions, but to
 444 date no comparative studies have directly investigated the effects of repeated dosing on acute and
 445 long-term outcomes. From the learning perspective presented here, challenging experiences in a
 446 second or third dosing session might be reduced to the degree that previous sessions involved the
 447 revision of avoidance-related beliefs. However, the patient may still – or even more than in previous
 448 sessions – undergo episodes of therapeutically valuable exposure. Hence, to differentiate between the
 449 interrelated but distinct aspects of the proposed acceptance-promoting learning process, it should be
 450 attempted to assess these aspects separately and across repeated dosing sessions.

451 3.3 Examining the Role of Ego-Dissolution Experiences

452 To date, most of the evidence supporting the EP model’s core assumption that acute responses to
 453 psychedelics predict longer-term outcomes relates to acute *ego-dissolution*, i.e. a transiently
 454 compromised experience of self that is characterized by a sense of unity with one’s surroundings
 455 (Nour, Evans, Nutt, & Carhart-Harris, 2016). This can be explained in terms of a disruption of self-
 456 related high-level beliefs (Carhart-Harris & Friston, 2019). Ego-dissolution and related phenomena
 457 such as “oceanic boundlessness” and “mystical-type experiences” have been shown to predict not
 458 only long-term increases in well-being (Griffiths et al., 2018; Haijen et al., 2018) and trait openness
 459 in non-clinical samples (Carhart-Harris et al., 2016; Lebedev et al., 2016; MacLean et al., 2011) but
 460 also positive clinical outcomes (Griffiths et al., 2016; Johnson et al., 2017; Roseman, Nutt, et al.,
 461 2018; Ross et al., 2016). We propose the following interpretation for these findings: As discussed
 462 above, the patient may engage in overt avoidance behaviors (e.g., removing eyeshades or
 463 headphones) to reduce the intensity of acute drug effects, thereby reducing the likelihood of ego-
 464 dissolution. Likewise, covert (internal) avoidance strategies that involve self-referential processing
 465 (e.g., worrying) may to some extent impede the disruption of self-related high-level beliefs. By

466 implication, ego-dissolution phenomena are less likely to occur when personal or contextual factors
 467 hinder the acceptance-promoting learning process outlined in our conceptual model. Hence, the
 468 occurrence of mystical-type experiences or oceanic boundlessness can be seen as a (massively
 469 rewarding) consequence of having learned to let go of avoidance strategies (see Russ et al., 2019, for
 470 recent evidence supporting this view). The observation that blissful ego-dissolution is followed by
 471 long-term reductions in psychopathology, greater well-being, and increased openness may thus, at
 472 least in part, be explained in terms of reduced avoidance. In line with this idea, a recent survey study
 473 (Davis, Barrett, & Griffiths, 2019) found that the impact of acute mystical-type effects on decreases
 474 in depression and anxiety after naturalistic psychedelic use was entirely mediated by increases in
 475 psychological flexibility (a construct that is closely related to acceptance). Some positive effects of
 476 ego-dissolution could nonetheless be relatively unrelated to acceptance (e.g., see Hendricks, 2018).
 477 To further investigate the therapeutic role of ego-dissolution experiences, future clinical studies
 478 should complement measures of ego-dissolution with measures of acceptance-related processes in the
 479 psychedelic state.

480 **4 Clinical Considerations**

481 **4.1 Integrating Psychedelic Interventions within Cognitive-Behavioral Treatment Models**

482 According to the proposed model (Figure 2), psychedelics can facilitate the same acceptance-
 483 promoting learning process as that targeted by CBT interventions. This suggests that there are large
 484 potential synergies between CBT and psychedelic therapy. In line with this, it has been proposed that
 485 psychedelics could be fruitfully integrated within acceptance-based CBTs, most notably ACT
 486 (Garcia-Romeu & Richards, 2018; Hayes, Law, Malady, Zhu, & Bai, 2019; Luoma, Sabucedo,
 487 Eriksson, Gates, & Pilecki, 2019; Walsh & Thiessen, 2018; Watts et al., 2017; Zeifman & Wagner,
 488 2020; for a recent ACT-based protocol for psilocybin-assisted treatment of depression see Slosower
 489 et al., 2020). We agree with this view, but emphasize that the proposed model is suited as a
 490 theoretical framework for integrating psychedelic therapy with not only ACT and other acceptance-
 491 based approaches but CBT more generally⁴. After all, all cognitive-behavioral treatment models seek
 492 to help patients find more adaptive (less avoidant) ways of relating to private events. Apparent
 493 disparities between third-wave and second-wave CBT models may be more accurately described as
 494 differences in viewing angles and preferred therapeutic techniques than differences in targeted
 495 psychological processes (Collard, 2019): Just as acceptance techniques used in ACT can be
 496 understood as methods for challenging avoidance-related beliefs, cognitive restructuring techniques
 497 in traditional CBT can be seen as ways of encouraging acceptance (Ellis, 2005). From this
 498 perspective, it appears that limiting the integration between psychedelic therapy and CBT to
 499 techniques belonging to one or the other CBT model would unnecessarily narrow down the repertoire
 500 of available interventions. Hence, we propose an empirical approach to the question of which
 501 particular CBT interventions are best suited to amplify the acceptance-promoting effects of
 502 psychedelic therapy: Future clinical studies with psychedelics should investigate how effect sizes are
 503 affected by systematically varying psychological interventions, and assess whether these effects are
 504 moderated by patient characteristics. Such variations should not be restricted to preparatory and
 505 integration sessions, but may also involve gentle deviations from the prevailing traditional non-

⁴ Beyond CBT, most other schools of psychotherapy also recognize the role of experiential avoidance or related concepts in human suffering (Hayes et al., 1996). Therefore, although our model is formulated in CBT terms, it may still add a valuable perspective to how proponents of other schools (e.g., psychodynamic therapy) understand psychedelic states.

506 directive approach for dosing sessions (e.g., therapists actively addressing avoidance-related beliefs
507 towards the end of the session).

508 Whenever considering acceptance as a mechanism of positive change, it is important to note that
509 acceptance should not be seen as an end in itself, but rather as a requirement for living in accordance
510 with one's chosen values (Ellis, 2005; Hayes et al., 2004). The reciprocal relationship between
511 acceptance and values is reflected in the observation that patients commonly report reconnecting with
512 personal values or discovering new ones through the psychedelic experience (Belser et al., 2017;
513 Carhart-Harris, Erritzoe, Haijen, Kaelen, & Watts, 2018; Noorani, Garcia-Romeu, Swift, Griffiths, &
514 Johnson, 2018; Watts et al., 2017). On this basis, it can be assumed that treatment outcomes could be
515 optimized by including values work in treatment models. Psychedelic therapy protocols that involve
516 values-based interventions have been described (e.g., Bogenschutz & Forcehimes, 2017; Sloshower
517 et al., 2020). To further improve treatment models, the impact of such interventions on treatment
518 outcomes should be investigated systematically.

519 **4.2 Direct Implications of the Model for Clinical Practice**

520 A central hypothesis presented here is that psychedelics can transiently compromise the effectiveness
521 of avoidance strategies for (in the very short run) reducing aversive states. This constitutes a major
522 difference between psychedelic therapy and more conventional methods in psychotherapy (where the
523 patient can more easily reduce aversion by resorting to avoidance), and has important ethical
524 implications for clinical practice. Most importantly, for the patient to be able to provide informed
525 consent, they should be thoroughly informed about potential avoidance-impeding effects of the
526 treatment. This requires that patients are given the opportunity to learn what avoidance is, and may
527 involve not only educational but also experiential elements. Hence, the process of enabling informed
528 consent may already necessarily involve substantial elements of psychotherapy.

529 According to our model, operant conditioning of acceptance requires the patient to “start the ball
530 rolling” by spontaneously showing a minimum of acceptance toward an aversive aspect of the
531 experience at some point. Apart from the obvious implications that are already accommodated by
532 current protocols for preparatory sessions (e.g., building an atmosphere of safety and trust; training
533 mindfulness; setting intentions for acceptance), this may inform strategies for dealing with
534 challenging experiences: Whereas therapists may initially attempt to facilitate breakthrough by
535 encouraging acceptance, challenging experiences that persist for longer periods of time may indicate
536 that the patient cannot (at present) desist from avoidance sufficiently to induce shaping of acceptance.
537 This situation entails the risk that motivation for acceptance is markedly decreased and further
538 attempts are impeded. It may therefore be therapeutically beneficial to actually support the patient's
539 decision for avoidant responding before encouraging acceptance again. The ability to gauge the
540 individual patient's distress tolerance on a moment-to-moment basis and strike a sensible balance
541 between encouraging acceptance and supporting avoidance is a key requirement for psychedelic
542 therapists, and should be trained accordingly. It can be argued that such perspective-taking requires
543 first-hand experience with psychedelic states (see Nielson & Guss, 2018, for a discussion of this
544 matter).

545 The proposed model explains increases in acceptance after psychedelic therapy in terms of revised
546 avoidance-related beliefs. After the dosing session, newly established acceptance beliefs and
547 corresponding behavior change may be more or less enduring depending on how generalized and
548 heavily-weighted those beliefs are. In any case, long-term outcomes should be substantially affected
549 by the learning conditions that the patient is exposed to after acute drug effects subside. In most

550 cases, the patient will soon return to an environment that has been to some extent organized around
551 avoidance goals. Psychotherapy may then help identify and change persistent habits and routines that
552 impede the pursuit of more acceptance-oriented approach goals. The same applies to individual
553 deficits that hinder the abandonment of avoidant coping strategies (e.g., deficient social competencies
554 or problem-solving abilities). Therapists should also pay attention to how the patient's social
555 environment responds to changes in behavior and attitudes. For instance, returning to an emotionally
556 invalidating or dismissive environment without appropriate therapeutic support may result in rapid
557 re-establishment of pathological avoidance-related beliefs. It appears unlikely that two or three
558 integration sessions suffice to address such challenges in all cases. Hence, the prevailing brief
559 intervention models employed in contemporary psychedelic therapy studies (Garcia-Romeu &
560 Richards, 2018) may not adequately address the needs of all patients, particularly those with limited
561 personal or social resources.

562 **4.2.1 Clinical Targets**

563 Assuming that promoting acceptance is one of its core mechanisms, psychedelic therapy can be
564 expected to have most pronounced positive effects in those mental disorders that are typically
565 characterized by excessive experiential avoidance. This encompasses many of the most prevalent
566 mental disorders, including some that are already in the focus of psychedelic research (e.g.,
567 depression and addiction) and others for which modern clinical trials have not yet been conducted,
568 such as panic disorder, posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD), or psychosomatic disorders.
569 Psychedelic therapy may hold less promise for conditions where avoidance is not considered a
570 central factor, such as attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) or psychotic disorders (Bullis
571 et al., 2019). Especially in the latter patient group, this may shift the risk-benefit ratio against
572 psychedelic interventions. In line with this, pre-prohibition clinical studies, which tested psychedelics
573 for mental disorders across the board, found positive results mostly in (then so-called)
574 “psychoneurotic” disorders (Rucker, Iliff, & Nutt, 2018).

575 Within suitable diagnostic categories such as depression or addiction, how to determine if an
576 individual patient is likely to benefit from acceptance-informed psychedelic therapy? On the one
577 hand, it can be speculated that those patients who exhibit particularly high levels of experiential
578 avoidance at baseline have the greatest potential for improvement. On the other hand, there may be a
579 tipping point at which patterns of avoidance are too inflexible to make use of challenging psychedelic
580 experiences. According to the proposed model, the shaping-like operant process of conditioning
581 acceptance is initiated only when the patient spontaneously shows a minimum of acceptance at some
582 point. If this is impossible due to personal (or contextual) factors, this may give rise to prolonged
583 challenging experiences that have no therapeutic value or could even aggravate avoidance-related
584 beliefs. One might assume that such tipping points could be localized around the threshold where the
585 inflexibility and pervasiveness of experiential avoidance and related patterns of emotion
586 dysregulation justify the diagnosis of a personality disorder (e.g., avoidant personality disorder or
587 borderline personality disorder). However, excluding patient populations based on such ideas seems
588 premature without empirical support, especially when considering the substantial need to improve
589 current treatments for personality disorders. Zeifman and Wagner (2020) made a strong case for
590 exploring the incorporation of psychedelics within interventions for borderline personality disorder
591 (e.g., DBT), basing their argument partly on these substances' acceptance-promoting effects. Further
592 research into the predictability of acute and long-term responses to psychedelics is needed to
593 determine criteria for psychedelic treatment eligibility. While it is common practice in clinical trials
594 to exclude patients based on rather trait-like attributes (e.g. diagnosis of a personality disorder), state

595 measures (e.g. quality of the therapeutic relationship or clarity of acceptance-oriented intentions) may
596 eventually emerge as more robust (and perhaps mediating) predictors of treatment outcomes.

597 **4.3 Applicability to MDMA-Assisted Psychotherapy**

598 Although not a classic psychedelic, the entactogen 3,4-methylenedioxymethamphetamine (MDMA)
599 is applied in therapeutic interventions following protocols which closely resemble those used for
600 psychedelic therapy (Sessa, Higbed, & Nutt, 2019). For some patients who are unsuited (or
601 unwilling) to undergo treatment with classic psychedelics, MDMA may be considered as a more
602 easily tolerable alternative. MDMA-assisted psychotherapy shows remarkable promise as a treatment
603 for PTSD (Bahji, Forsyth, Groll, & Hawken, 2020), and appears to work by facilitating engagement
604 with traumatic memories and supporting fear extinction (Feduccia & Mithoefer, 2018). Thus, as is
605 proposed here for psychedelic therapy, MDMA-assisted psychotherapy may parallel CBT in
606 promoting motivation for acceptance, avoidance-free exposure, and the revision of avoidance-related
607 beliefs. However, the mechanisms underlying these processes are likely different for MDMA and
608 classic psychedelics due to their distinct psychopharmacological action. Many of these differences,
609 which cannot be discussed at length here, are potentially relevant for clinical decisions. Perhaps most
610 importantly, whereas we propose that psychedelics increase motivation for acceptance via avoidance
611 sensitivity (making avoidance more aversive), MDMA seems to facilitate engagement with otherwise
612 avoided private events primarily by attenuating the fear response (making acceptance less aversive).
613 Clinical applications of MDMA-assisted psychotherapy are currently being extended beyond PTSD
614 (Sessa et al., 2019), and PTSD may become a target of treatments with classic psychedelics in the
615 future (Nielson & Megler, 2014). Hence, commonalities and differences in the psychological
616 mechanisms underlying MDMA- and psychedelic-assisted therapies may become important
617 considerations in future clinical decision making, and should be investigated accordingly.

618 **5 Conclusion**

619 The therapeutic effects of psychedelics appear to depend on psychological processes that are evoked
620 by synergies between these substances' pharmacological action and the context in which they are
621 administered. To better understand and further develop psychedelic therapy, theoretical models that
622 specify these psychological processes are needed. Here we took a CBT perspective and proposed
623 such a model based on Carhart-Harris and Friston's (2019) relaxed-beliefs account of psychedelics'
624 acute brain action: When combined with specific context factors that are typically present in
625 psychedelic therapy, belief relaxation can increase motivation for acceptance via operant
626 conditioning, thus engendering episodes of relatively avoidance-free exposure to greatly intensified
627 private events. Under these unique learning conditions, relaxed avoidance-related beliefs can be
628 exposed to corrective experiences and become revised accordingly, potentially leading to long-term
629 increases in acceptance and associated reductions in psychopathology. This model shows substantial
630 parallels between psychedelic therapy and CBT that may be harnessed by using CBT as a therapeutic
631 framework for psychedelic interventions. Empirical research is needed to validate and further
632 develop the proposed model and, more generally, to examine the relative importance of acceptance as
633 a mechanism of action in psychedelic therapy. Therefore, appropriate assessment tools for measuring
634 processes related to avoidance and acceptance in psychedelic states must be developed. Although still
635 requiring further empirical support, the proposed model demonstrates the usefulness of the relaxed-
636 beliefs account as a basis for building theories of the therapeutic effects of psychedelic drugs.

637 **6 Conflict of Interest**

638 None declared.

639 **7 Author Contributions**

640 MW and HJ conceived the central theoretical ideas presented in this article. RE, LM, MK, FB, GG,
641 and HJ provided critical feedback. The manuscript was written primarily by MW with contributions
642 from RE, LM, MK, FB, GG, and HJ.

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648

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- 956

Provisional

957 **Legends**

958 *Figure 1.* Interdependent cognitive, behavioral, and motivational aspects of an acceptance-promoting
959 learning process. CBT aims to facilitate this learning process in order to promote lasting change from
960 experiential avoidance to acceptance.

961 *Figure 2.* The proposed cognitive-behavioral model of how psychedelic therapy promotes
962 acceptance. According to the model, psychedelic therapy facilitates the same learning process as that
963 targeted by CBT interventions (see Figure 1). The proposed psychedelic-therapy-specific factors
964 (white arrows) are assumed to arise from synergies between psychedelic-induced belief relaxation
965 (Carhart-Harris & Friston, 2019) and the particular context that is established according to
966 psychedelic therapy protocols employed in contemporary research.

Provisional

Figure 01.JPEG

Provisional

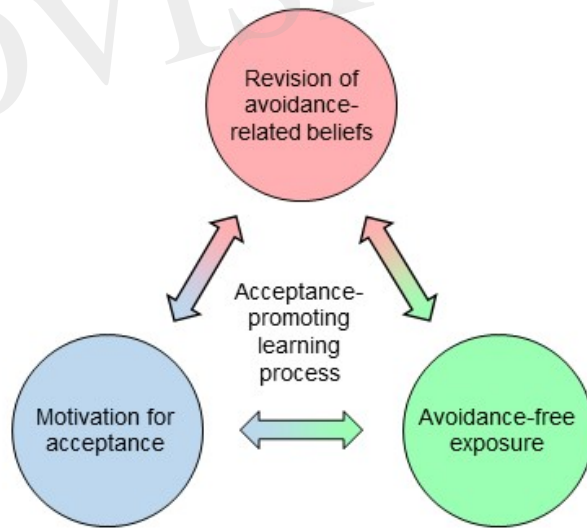


Figure 02.JPEG

