

A big-data and experimental analysis of the relationship between time perspective, and
anxiety and depression

Cole Robertson*

Radboud University

James Carney

The London Interdisciplinary School

Shane Trudell

TKTK

Additional authors: TBC

Additional affiliations: TBC

Author Note

*corresponding author: The Center for Language Studies, Radboud University,
PO Box 9103 6500 HD, Nijmegen, cbjrobertson@gmail.com

Abstract

Anxiety and depression are mood disorders which negatively impact the lives of many. Future time horizons, or how “far” into the future people tend to think, are a significant marker of depression, while conflicting results suggest that how much people devalue delayed future rewards “temporal discounting” may be a significant marker of anxiety. At the same time, cross-linguistic differences in future time reference grammar, individual differences in future time reference language use, and temporal horizons have been found to predict temporal discounting. However, as far as we know, no one has investigated whether future time reference use is a significant marker of anxiety and/or depression. In study 1, we therefore analysed data from the social media website Reddit to explore any potential relationships between these variables. We found that users who had posted popular contributions to forums dedicated to anxiety and depression referenced the future and the past more often than controls, had more proximal future and past time horizons, and significantly differed in their linguistic future time reference patterns. They used fewer future tense constructions (e.g. *will*), more low-certainty constructions (e.g. *possibly*, *could*), more bouletic modal constructions (e.g. *hope*, *wish*) and more deontic modal constructions (e.g. *must*, *need to*). These findings motivated study 2, a survey-based mediation analysis in which we found participants who scored high in anxiety represented the future as more temporally distal and therefore temporally discounted to a greater degree. The same was not true of depression. We suggest such methods which combine descriptive big-data approaches with experimental paradigms may help identify novel markers of mental illness, including anxiety and depression, which can then aid in the development of new therapies and diagnostic criteria.

Keywords: future time reference, temporal discounting, mood disorders, anxiety, depression, big-data, time perspective

1 Introduction

2 Millions of people suffer from mental illness world wide. For example, in North
3 America the prevalence of mental health disorders in adults may be as high as 25%. In
4 addition to the impacts on well-being – important in their own right – the estimated
5 economic costs of mental illness in North America are as much as US\$83.1bn (Dewa &
6 McDaid, 2011). At the same time, medical science has struggled to predict the onset of
7 mental illness from physiological markers which has made preventative medicine
8 difficult to implement (Kapur, Phillips, & Insel, 2012). A potentially promising avenue
9 of research has been to use data from social media to predict various aspects of
10 personality, including the onset and diagnosis of mental illness (Guntuku, Yaden, Kern,
11 Ungar, & Eichstaedt, 2017).

12 Such approaches have met with success. For instance, past posts on the social
13 media site Reddit were successfully used to predict whether a user would later post to a
14 forum dedicated to mental illness (Thorstad & Wolff, 2019); tweets made by Twitter
15 users who had self-diagnosed as suffering from depression or post traumatic stress
16 disorder were successfully classified above chance levels (Coppersmith, Dredze, Harman,
17 Hollingshead, & Mitchell, 2015); and posts to 11 different Reddit forums dedicated to
18 mental illness were successfully differentiated with an average of 72% precision (Gkotsis
19 et al., 2017). For general reviews of these approaches see (Guntuku et al., 2017;
20 Goldstone & Lupyán, 2016).

21 Many predictive studies have tended to implement “black box” machine learning
22 algorithms, which focus on predicting mental health outcomes from prior social media
23 data. While predictive approaches are undoubtedly valuable, model parameters may
24 not always be usefully interpreted by human practitioners (Rai, 2020). Another strand
25 of research therefore seeks to complement predictive approaches with descriptive ones
26 which attempt to generate psychological insights from the analysis of social media data.
27 For instance, Thorstad and Wolff (2019) used per-word model weights to understand
28 which words were most predictive of a user later posting to a Reddit forum focused on
29 depression; and De Choudhury, Counts, Horvitz, and Hoff (2014) report language use

30 differences on Facebook posts as a function of whether survey respondents had been
31 clinically diagnosed with postpartum depression.

32 In the present study we therefore implemented a hybrid methodology, using a
33 combination of machine-learning and descriptive natural language processing to explore
34 the complex relationships between future time horizons, linguistic future time reference
35 patterns, and anxiety and depression. The choice of these variables was motivated by
36 previous research which suggests that how people construe future events – their future
37 time perspective – may be a key marker of anxious and/or depressive tendencies
38 (Dilling & Rabin, 1967; Pulcu et al., 2014; Steinglass et al., 2017).

39 Future time perspective encompasses how people tend think about and relate to
40 future events. It includes questions such as: do people tend to save for the future or
41 spend resources now, do they conceive of future events as proximal or distal, and do
42 they tend to imagine temporally proximal or distal future events? Measures of future
43 time perspective have been found to be significant markers of anxiety (Papastamatelou,
44 Unger, Giotakos, & Athanasiadou, 2015), major depressive disorder (Pulcu et al., 2014)
45 and social anxiety disorder (Steinglass et al., 2017).

46 Particularly, people suffering from depression have been found to have shorted
47 “future time horizons” relative to controls (Dilling & Rabin, 1967). This is usually
48 measured using the Wallace task (Wallace, 1956). In this task, participants are asked to
49 think of 10 events that are likely to occur in their future lives, and what age they
50 expect to be when these events will occur. Their future time horizon is then calculated
51 by subtracting their current age from the ages they give. This approximates how far
52 into the future participants tend to imagine themselves.

53 Pathological gamblers (Hodgins & Engel, 2002), alcoholics (Smart, 1968), and
54 heroin addicts (Petry, Bickel, & Arnett, 1998) were all found to have shortened future
55 time horizons compared with healthy controls. While these studies do not explicitly
56 study depression, substance abuse disorders and depression co-occur often enough to
57 warrant potential connections between these results and underlying depressive
58 tendencies (Barrault & Varescon, 2013; Blaszczynski & McConaghay, 1989; Felton et al.,

59 2020).

60 Since anxiety tends to involve excessive “anticipation of future threat” (American
61 Psychiatric Association, 2015, p. 1), the subjective experience of future events seems
62 almost inherently salient to the experience of anxiety. However, the relationship between
63 anxiety and future time perspective seems less well understood than for depression.

64 Most research into anxiety and time perspective has used temporal discounting
65 paradigms. Temporal discounting captures the extent to which people devalue delayed
66 future rewards. In general, people tend to devalue delayed rewards as a function of wait
67 time, but the extent of such devaluation differs between individuals (Green & Myerson,
68 2004). These differences are usually measured by giving participants a series of binary
69 choices between immediate and delayed rewards, for instance \$10 now vs. \$20 in a
70 month. “Present-oriented” people tend to devalue future outcomes and would therefore
71 opt for the immediate \$10, while “future-oriented” people tend to devalue less steeply
72 and would therefore opt to wait for the \$20. These measures are not unrelated to time
73 horizons; shorter time horizons tend to be associated with increased discounting

74 (Thorstad & Wolff, 2018; Thorstad, Nie, & Wolff, 2015), and researchers are increasingly
75 understanding temporal discounting processes in terms of subjective experiences of
76 future time (Kim & Zauberman, 2009; Zauberman, Kim, Malkoc, & Bettman, 2009).

77 While people suffering from major depressive disorder have been found to
78 temporally discount more than healthy individuals (Felton et al., 2020; Pulcu et al.,
79 2014), the results around anxiety have been mixed. Some findings suggest people
80 suffering from social anxiety discount more (Rounds, Beck, & Grant, 2007), while others
81 report the effect goes in the opposite direction (Steinglass et al., 2017), or that there is
82 no significant relationship (Jenks & Lawyer, 2015). This suggests more research may be
83 needed to untangle how future time perspective may relate to the experience of anxiety.

84 To add further complexity to this nexus of relationships, a growing body of
85 research indicates that linguistic FTR may be an important factor in shaping future
86 time perspective. FTR is a catch-all term used to refer to any linguistic statement
87 which refers to future events, whether future-tensed or not (Dahl, 1985, 2000). For

88 instance, “it could rain tomorrow,” “it will rain tomorrow”, and “I hope it rains
89 tomorrow” are all FTR. A growing body of research suggests that how languages differ
90 in terms of their FTR grammars may impact speakers’ future time perspective as
91 indicated by temporal discounting tendencies. Chen (2013) provides a framework for
92 how this might occur. He hypothesized that languages which oblige speakers to use the
93 future tense for FTR might cause speakers to perceive the future as farther away and
94 therefore discount more. To get a feel for this, note that in English, speakers are obliged
95 to use *will* in the sentence “it *will* rain tomorrow.” On the other hand, speakers of
96 Dutch are free to use the present tense, “Het regent morgen”, ‘it rains tomorrow.’ Chen
97 (2013) theorized that consistently using the present tense for FTR would essentially
98 collapse future into present time, effectively causing speakers to construe objective
99 future dates as subjectively more proximal and therefore temporally discount less (i.e.
100 be more willing to wait for subjectively more proximal future rewards). To support this
101 hypothesis, he found that speakers of languages like Dutch were more likely to have
102 saved each year, and retired with more assets. Since then, multiple other studies have
103 found that speakers of languages like Dutch tend to behave as though they discount less
104 (Chi, Su, Tang, & Xu, 2018; Falk et al., 2018; Fasan, Gotti, Kang, & Liu, 2016; Figlio,
105 Giuliano, Özek, & Sapienza, 2016; Hübner & Vannoorenberghe, 2015b, 2015a; Liang,
106 Marquis, Renneboog, & Sun, 2018; Mavisakalyan, Tarverdi, & Weber, 2018; Pérez &
107 Tavits, 2017; Zhu, Hu, Wang, & Zheng, 2020).

108 However, recent typological research into cross-linguistic differences in FTR
109 grammar has found that linguistic FTR may involve not just binary differences in the
110 extent to which the future tense is obliged, but differences in degree in the extent to
111 which the encoding of the future probability is obliged (Robertson & Roberts, 2020).
112 For instance, it is not actually obligatory to use *will* in the sentence “it *will* rain
113 tomorrow”. Rather English grammar obliges speakers to use one of “it
114 *could/may/might/should* rain tomorrow.” This encoding of probability is referred to as
115 “modality”. In unpublished results (chapters 3,4) we have found that the obligatory use
116 of low-certainty FTR terminology in English may actually be driving observed

117 differences in temporal discounting between English and Dutch speakers. These findings
118 suggest that future time perspective may not simply involve how far into the future
119 people tend to think, but how certain they tend to be about future events. Moreover,
120 we have found (chapters 3,4) that individual-level differences in FTR usage is a strong
121 predictor of temporal discounting behavior, indicating that FTR may reflect latent
122 beliefs about the probability and/or temporal distance of future events.

123 Despite this, and evidence that future time perceptive may be related to anxiety
124 and/or depression, the relationship between FTR habits and anxiety and depression has
125 not been studied. We therefore undertook an exploratory study which sought to use
126 big-data methodology to understand whether people who had posted to Reddit forums
127 dedicated to anxiety and depression differed from a random sample in terms of their
128 FTR habits and future time horizons.

129 2 Study 1

130 The basis of study 1 is an analysis of data downloaded from Reddit. Reddit is a
131 social media platform with over 430m average monthly users
132 (<https://www.redditinc.com/advertising/audience>, accessed December, 2020). The site is
133 similar to a message board or traditional forum; users (“redditors”), communicate in
134 forums (“subreddits”) dedicated to specific topics. There are no character limits to user
135 contributions (“posts”), entailing that users are free to comment in as much detail as
136 they desire. Subreddits including topic focus and rules on acceptable behavior are
137 created and self-monitored by moderator teams comprised of leading subreddit
138 members. Comments are “upvoted” and “downvoted”, and can be sorted by various
139 criteria, for instance most upvoted of all time. The names of subreddits usually reflect
140 their topical focus and are prefaced with *r/*, for instance, *r/news* is dedicated to sharing
141 US and international news stories.

142 The largest subreddits dedicated to anxiety and depression are *r/Anxiety* and
143 *r/depression*. In December, 2020, *r/Anxiety* had 417k members, and *r/depression* had
144 712k members (reddit.com, accessed December, 2020). Both are focused on providing

145 support and advice for people dealing with issues related to anxiety and depression
146 (respectively), and both allow posts by sufferers or those close to them.

147 **2.1 Methods and materials**

148 **2.1.1 Data acquisition.** Data were downloaded between TKTK and TKTK,
149 TKTK, and ethical approval for the study was granted by the Brunel University
150 Research Ethics Committee, ref. no. TKTK.

151 We were concerned that language used when posting to *r/Anxiety* and
152 *r/depression* might differ from a random sample not due to the habits of speech of the
153 posters, but due to rules of discourse imposed by the moderators. We therefore
154 implemented a “snowball” sampling approach, first constructing a “seed” sample of
155 redditors who had posted to *r/Anxiety* and *r/depression*, and then a final sample
156 comprised of these same redditors’ top posts in any subreddit.

157 Data were obtained using PRAW, the [Reddit Python Reddit API Wrapper](#)
158 (<https://praw.readthedocs.io/en/latest/#>). This interface allows contributions
159 and contribution metadata to be programmatically extracted by way of specific
160 subreddits, Redditors, and comments. We extracted our data on October 30 2019 by
161 taking the “hottest” 1,000 posts on the the anxiety and depression subreddits. “Hot”, in
162 this connection, is part of the Reddit proprietary algorithm for ranking content. It is
163 calculated by taking the base 10 log of the net number of upvotes and adding it to the
164 number of 12.5 hour periods that have passed since the first ever Reddit post. This
165 means that, for each successive 12.5 hour period, a post must get ten times the number
166 of upvotes than it had in the previous 12.5 hour period to be as “hot” as something 12.5
167 hours younger. The value of the “hot” metric is that it captures content specific to a
168 given subreddit : measures like “top” that count total number of upvotes are
169 disproportionately captured by stickied content that is permanently visible.

170 Specifically, we used PRAW, the [Python Reddit API Wrapper](#), to download up to
171 the top 1,000 “hot” ranked submissions in each of *r/Anxiety* ($n = 910$ posts) and
172 *r/depression* ($n = 902$ posts). (As scores for user-deleted submissions are still returned

173 by the API, the number of usable posts was less than than 1,000 rate-limit cap.) “Hot”,
174 in this connection, is part of the Reddit algorithm for ranking content. It is calculated
175 by taking the base 10 log of the net number of upvotes and adding it to the number of
176 12.5 hour periods that have passed since the first ever Reddit post. This means that, for
177 each successive 12.5 hour period, a post must get ten times the number of upvotes than
178 it had in the previous 12.5 hour period to retain the “hot” score it had when it was 12.5
179 hours younger. The value of the “hot” metric is that it captures topical content specific
180 to a given subreddit: other measures like “top” that count total number of upvotes are
181 disproportionately captured by stickied content that is permanently visible, and hence
182 less topical.

183 We then downloaded up to the top 1,000 most recent posts for each unique
184 redditor in these data. This resulted in $n = 224,009$ posts made by redditors who had
185 posted popular content in *r/Anxiety* (the “anxiety” condition), and $n = 182,555$ posts
186 made by redditors who had posted popular content in *r/depression* (the “depression”
187 condition). However, we found no differences between these conditions on any measure,
188 and so combined these into a single “mental health” condition. We constructed a
189 control sample of $n = 213,132$ posts by repeating an identical process with the *r/All*
190 subreddit, which is a compendium of all content generated on Reddit.

191 This meant our final sample was comprised of $N = 619,696$ posts, drawn from
192 $N = 13,651$ unique subreddits ($n = 6,978$ [mental health], $n = 2,781$ [control], and
193 $n = 3,856$ crossovers), and $N = 4,205$ unique redditors ($n = 1,810$ [mental health],
194 $n = 2,395$ [control], no crossovers). It should be noted that this process resulted in
195 some posts from the original seed subreddits still being retained in the final sample
196 ($n = 10,145$ posts from *r/Anxiety*, and $n = 17,319$ from *r/depression*). In unreported
197 analyses, we found excluding these data did not substantively change any results, i.e.
198 cause significance to cross critical thresholds or coefficients to change sign, so we did not
199 exclude them.

200 **2.1.2 Data preprocessing.** Inspection of the data indicated that due to their
201 unrestricted length a non-negligible number of posts appeared to contain references to

both past and future time. We therefore split posts into constituent sentences using a non-monotonic transition system dependency parsing algorithm system (Honnibal & Johnson, 2015) implemented Python (Python Software Foundation, 2017) in the open source natural language processing package *spaCy* (Explosion AI, 2020). This resulted in $N = 2,029,956$ sentences ($n = 1,561,713$ [mental health], $n = 468,243$ [control]).

2.1.3 Temporal horizons. To estimate temporal horizons, we used the SUTime temporal tagger (Chang & Manning, 2012). SUTime is a rule-based deterministic natural language tagging system which uses regular expressions which combine both key-words (e.g. “yesterday”) and rules (e.g. “[DATE] at [TIME]”) to identify temporal expressions and convert them to numerical data. It processes absolute dates (e.g. November 7, 2012), relative dates (e.g. “this Friday”), and combinations of these (e.g. “tomorrow at 3pm”). For relative dates, we used time of posting (available from the Reddit API) as the reference date. For instance, if a redditor referenced “tomorrow” on 10-06-2020, SUTime would return 11-06-2020. To calculate time horizons (days), we subtracted time of posting from the SUTime reference values. In cases where there was more than one time reference in one sentence, we took the mean, i.e. $H(s) = \sum_r \frac{D(r)}{n}$; where $H(s)$ is the time horizon for a given s sentence, r is a temporal reference, $D(r)$ is the number of days from time of posting, and n is the number of temporal references in the sentence (Thorstad & Wolff, 2018). Such methods with data from Twitter have been found to positively and significantly correlate with participants’ future time horizons as measured by the Wallace task, as well as predict both collective and individual intertemporal decision making (i.e. temporal discounting) (Thorstad & Wolff, 2018).

2.1.4 Time reference classification. To estimate whether sentences referred to the future (FTR) or past (PTR), we used an active learning paradigm implemented in *prodigy* (Montani & Honnibal, 2020) to train a machine learning “time reference” classifier. Active learning is a way of reducing the number of annotated examples machine learning models need to generate reliable predictions in supervised learning paradigms. In supervised learning, human raters annotate data and machine learning

231 models are then trained to predict the annotations from the input data (in this case raw
 232 text). Active learning speeds up this process by keeping a machine learning model “in
 233 the loop” during the annotation process, and selecting the un-annotated data about
 234 which the model is most uncertain. This increases the number of annotations which are
 235 near the boundary criteria of the unknown function the model is attempting to
 236 approximate, and reduces the number of annotations the model is already able to
 237 confidently predict, thereby reducing the total number annotations needed. The authors
 238 used *prodigy* to annotate text examples for both FTR ($n = 4002$ [$n_{accept} = 1403$,
 239 $n_{reject} = 2406$, $n_{ignore} = 193$ ¹]), and PTR ($n = 2382$ [$n_{accept} = 660$, $n_{reject} = 1704$,
 240 $n_{ignore} = 18$]). Because the active learning process resulted in some overlaps, this meant
 241 there were $N = 4,947$ unique text examples. For PTR, all annotations were drawn from
 242 our reddit data; for FTR annotations, were drawn from a combination of a Twitter
 243 dataset (see SM) and from our reddit data. Because we wanted to cast as wide a net as
 244 possible to better understand linguistic usage within the broad notional domains of
 245 future and past time reference, our annotation criteria were semantic rather than
 246 formal. Any statement which made FTR/PTR was classed positively, regardless of
 247 formal tensing. For instance, “they could win”, “it will be ok”, “it rains tomorrow”, “I
 248 go in three weeks”, “my train is arriving soon”, and (in November) “Christmas is soon”
 249 would all be classed as FTR. Similarly, “it has rained”, “I saw her”, “it was tiresome”,
 250 “I’m walking along the other day”, and “I’m tired from my run this morning” would all
 251 be classed as PTR.

252 Using *prodigy*, we trained a model on these data using 80%/20% train/evaluate
 253 split, 10 iterations over the data, a dropout rate of 0.2, and exclusive categories. The
 254 *prodigy* text classification system wraps a *spaCy* ensemble model comprised bag of
 255 words model and a 1 dimensional convolution neutral net (CNN) where token vectors
 256 are calculated using a CNN, mean pooled and used as features in a feed forward network
 257 (Explosion AI, 2020). Our trained model can be loaded as a *spaCy* module in *Python*
 258 and is available at *URL TO COME*. Because not all the FTR annotations had been

¹For indeterminable cases.

259 drawn from the reddit data, and because we wanted to make sure the model’s out of
 260 sample performance was acceptable, we annotated two additional “test” datasets drawn
 261 exclusively from the reddit data ($N_{FTR} = 477$, and $N_{PTR} = 489$). Model performance
 262 on these withheld data was generally good, *Table 1*. In particular, we note that high
 263 precision indicates high agreement between positive predictions and ground truth.

264 **2.1.5 FTR type classification.** To establish FTR usage patterns, we used
 265 what we will refer to here as the FTR type classifier (Robertson, 2019). It is
 266 closed-vocabulary deterministic key-word based classification program the authors
 267 wrote in Python (Python Software Foundation, 2017). It classifies short future-referring
 268 text documents into 7 exclusive categories based on the presence of key-words which
 269 encode semantic domains most salient to FTR. One of these categories is further broken
 270 down according to the word classes of the keywords involved. See Robertson and
 271 Roberts (2020) for a full description and justification of these categories for English
 272 FTR. Each category is dichotomous, and coded with (1) to indicate a response is a
 273 positive example, otherwise (0).

274 Two categories are tense-based, and the other 5 are based on modal semantics.
 275 Modality generally involves quantifying what is possible and/or necessary relative to
 276 any of several common modal “bases” (Palmer, 2001). For instance, epistemic modality
 277 involves speakers expressing what they think is probable or unlikely relative to an
 278 epistemic “base”, i.e. what they know and believe about the world (Nuyts, 2000);
 279 bouletic modality involves speakers quantifying what they think is possible or desirable
 280 relative to a desiderative base, i.e. what they hope or want to occur (Palmer, 2001); and
 281 deontic modality involves speakers quantifying what they think is obligatory or
 282 necessary relative to a normative base, i.e. what they think *must* or *should* occur
 283 (Palmer, 2001). With that in mind, the 7 categories are as follows:

284 THE FUTURE TENSE, for sentences which use the future tense without any other
 285 modal words, e.g. “tomorrow it *will/is going to/shall* rain” would be classed as future
 286 tense because it uses any of *will*, *is going to*, or *shall* and *not also* any modal class
 287 criterion words (see below).

288 **THE PRESENT TENSE**, for sentences which are FTR but fail to be classed in any
 289 other category, e.g. “tomorrow it rains” would be classed as present tense because it
 290 does not use the future tense or any other modal class criterion words (see below).

291 **LOW-CERTAINTY EPISTEMIC MODALITY**, for sentences which express
 292 low-certainty about future events. This category is further broken down depending on
 293 whether a modal verb or some other key-word class is used, e.g. “it
 294 *could/may/might/should* rain tomorrow” would all be classed as verbal low-certainty
 295 because they use the low-certainty modal verbs *could*, *may*, *might* or *should*, while “it
 296 will *possibly/probably/potentially* rain tomorrow” and “I *think* it will rain tomorrow”
 297 would be classed as lexical low-certainty because they express low-certainty without
 298 using a modal verb. The reason for this subdivision is that our typological research
 299 (Robertson & Roberts, 2020) as well as review of the literature (Nuyts, 2000), suggests
 300 that modal verb use is more constrained by features of English grammar, so we
 301 reasoned that individual differences in FTR usage would be more likely to manifest in
 302 the lexical categories which are freer to reflect speaker beliefs and intentions.

303 **HIGH-CERTAINTY EPISTEMIC MODALITY**, for sentences which express
 304 high-certainty. In English FTR, this domain is typically encoded using high-certainty
 305 epistemic adjectival or adverbial modifiers, i.e. “it will *definitely/certainty/absolutely*
 306 rain tomorrow” would be classed as lexical high-certainty.

307 **DEONTIC MODALITY**, for sentence which express necessity and/or obligation. In
 308 English FTR, this is usually accomplished using the modal verb *must* and/or *have*
 309 *to/need to* constructions (Nuyts, 2000), e.g. “you *must* come tomorrow” and “I *have*
 310 *to/need to* pick up more groceries tomorrow” would be classed as deontic because they use
 311 the deontic modal verb *must*, and deontic *have to/need to* constructions.

312 **BOULETIC MODALITY**, for responses which express desires and hopes for the
 313 future, e.g. “I *hope* it rains tomorrow, “I *want* it to rain tomorrow”, and “I *wish* it
 314 would rain tomorrow” would all be classed as bouletic modality because they use the
 315 bouletic modal verbs *hope*, *want*, and *wish*.

316 **IRREALIS**, for responses which express counterfactual realities, e.g. “*If* it rains, I’ll

317 go out”, “*if* he *would* only go out with me, I *would* be happy” would both be classed as
 318 irrealis because they express non-factual realities using the conditional *if*, and *would*.

319 Since the FTR type classifier is intended to classify based on semantics, responses
 320 in the present tense which expressed modal semantics (e.g. “tomorrow it could rain”)
 321 were classed according to the modal notions, and not formal tense categories. Similarly,
 322 responses in the future tense but which expressed modal notions (e.g. “tomorrow it *will*
 323 *possibly* rain”) were classed according to the modal notions and not the tense category.
 324 This is because it seems obvious to us that e.g. “it will possibly rain” and “it will rain”
 325 express different semantics and we wanted this to be reflected by our classification
 326 scheme.

327 To check FTR type classification accuracy on our Reddit data, we had trained
 328 assistants hand-annotate an evaluation dataset. To select data, we randomly selected
 329 from sentences for which $p(FTR) > 50\%$, $n = 50$ from each FTR type category, plus
 330 $n = 50$ uncoded sentences, and $n = 50$ randomly selected sentences (no overlaps). After
 331 exclusions for negations this resulted in $N = 447$ sentences. We checked predictions
 332 against this evaluation dataset, and updated the FTR type classification code to fix any
 333 discrepancies. In order to check that this had not resulted in over-fitting to the
 334 evaluation dataset, we repeated this process with a second test dataset, this time
 335 randomly selecting $n = 30$ sentences as described above ($N = 299$ total sentences).
 336 Accuracy metrics against this test dataset are presented in *Table 1*.

337 2.2 Results

338 **2.2.1 Analytic approach.** The data contained multiple sentences from
 339 individual posts, multiple posts from individual redditors, and multiple redditors across
 340 various subreddits. Using ordinary regressions which assume observations are
 341 independent might therefore have risked underestimating actual standard errors and
 342 increasing Type I error rates. Our analytic solution to this issue was to calculate the
 343 “design effect” ($deff$) for each potential source of within-group variation (posts,
 344 redditor, subreddits) for each dependent variable, and use this to ascertain whether it

345 was necessary to employ mixed regression techniques to address these data structures.
 346 Kish (1965) defined the *deff* of some sample statistic as “the ratio of the actual variance
 347 of a sample to the variance of a simple random sample of the same number of elements”
 348 (p. 258). In mixed regression modeling, *deff* can be calculated using the ratio of
 349 within-group to total variance, (the Intraclass Correlation Coefficient ICC), and the
 350 average cluster size, c , such that (Muthén & Satorra, 1995):

$$deff = 1 + (c - 1) \times ICC \quad (1)$$

351 *Deff* is sensitive to either high *ICCs* or high group sizes; a widely accepted cut-off
 352 criteria is that for $deff < 2$, error bias will be within 10% and no mixed modeling is
 353 necessary (Lai & Kwok, 2015). However, recent research suggests lower cut offs may be
 354 appropriate (Lai & Kwok, 2015).

355 *Deffs* for posts and subreddits were low, $1.01 \leq deff_{posts} \leq 1.12$,
 356 $1.03 \leq deff_{subred} \leq 1.27$. According to *Table 3* in Lai and Kwok (2015), this meant
 357 were justified in ignoring group-wise correlation by posts and subreddits and could
 358 expect standard errors to be biased by no more than $\approx 10\%$. However, *deffs* for
 359 redditors tended to be higher, $1.10 \leq deff_{red} \leq 4.48$. We therefore estimated multilevel
 360 regressions of the following general form, with random intercepts clustered by redditor:

$$y_{ij} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 m.heal_{ij} + u_j + e_{ij} \quad (2)$$

361 where the error, $e_{ij} \sim N(0, \sigma_e^2)$, and random terms, $u_j \sim N(0, \sigma_u^2)$, are assumed to be
 362 drawn from the normal distributions with means of 0 and standard deviations drawn
 363 from the sample. Our predictor of interest, *m.heal*, was a dummy for mental health (1)
 364 vs. control (0) condition.

365 **2.2.2 Frequency of time reference.** The first thing we were interested in
 366 was how much redditors made non-present time reference. To answer this question, we
 367 created a unified time reference variable based the time reference classifier; observations
 368 where $p(FTR/ptr) > 50\%$ were treated as positive (1) examples, otherwise (0). We

369 then used mixed regressions with a logistic link function and random intercepts
 370 clustered by redditor to regress the resultant binary time reference variables over our
 371 condition dummy:

$$\ln\left(\frac{\pi_{ij}}{1 - \pi_{ij}}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 m.heal_{ij} + u_j \quad (3)$$

372 where π_{ij} is the probability that $y_{FTR/ptr} = 1$ for observation i and redditor j . For
 373 mixed effects models like these, standard calculation of R^2 is complicated by the fact
 374 that there are multiple variance components explained by the model (i.e. fixed:
 375 $\beta_0 + \beta_1 m.heal_{ij}$ and random: u_j). We therefore report $R^2_{marginal}$, which represents the
 376 variance explained by the fixed effects, and $R^2_{conditional}$, which represents the variance
 377 explained by the random effects + the fixed effects (Nakagawa, Johnson, & Schielzeth,
 378 2017). For the FTR model, $R^2_m = 0.001$, $R^2_c = 0.019$ (where more than one method to
 379 calculate these quantities was available, we report the mean). This indicates that
 380 approximately 0.1% of the variance was explained by mental health condition. For the
 381 PTR model $R^2_m = 0.007$, $R^2_c = 0.05$, indicating approximately 0.7% of variance was
 382 explained.

383 We nonetheless found that redditors in the mental health condition were
 384 significantly more likely to make FTR, $e^\beta = 1.23$, $SE = 0.02$, $z = 10.41$, $p < .001$, and
 385 PTR, $e^\beta = 1.58$, $SE = 0.03$, $z = 17.11$, $p < .001$ (β s are exponentiated so represent
 386 changes in odds ratios). This indicates that redditors who had posted popular
 387 contributions to *r/Anxiety* and *r/depression* had approximately 23% higher odds of
 388 referencing the future and approximately 58% higher odds of referencing the past, see
 389 *Fig. 1*.

390 **2.2.3 Future and past time horizons.** Next we investigated whether there
 391 were differences in temporal horizons. We excluded observations with no temporal
 392 expressions according to SUTime (leaving $n = 35,248$ sentences). We then created a
 393 dichotomous “time reference” dummy for whether time horizons were positive for FTR
 394 (0) or negative for PTR (1). Temporal horizons were highly right skewed, $skew = 13.44$,
 395 and truncated at zero so log transformation was appropriate. We therefore regressed

396 the natural log of the absolute value of time horizon over our predictor variables and
 397 their interaction, in case effects of condition differed by time reference:

$$\ln(H)_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 m.heal_{ij} + \beta_2 t.ref_{ij} + \beta_3 m.heal_{ij}t.ref_{ij} + e_{ij} + u_j \quad (4)$$

398 Inspection of regression residuals indicated the log transformation had resulted in
 399 a better approximation of regression assumptions of error normality than untransformed
 400 time horizons, so we proceeded. We found that the fixed components of the model
 401 explained approximately 8% of the variance, $R_m^2 = 0.08$, $R_c^2 = 0.16$, and that redditors
 402 in the mental health condition had significantly shorter time horizons,

403 $(e^\beta - 1) \times 100 = -24.42$, $SE = 0.08$, $t(2791.38) = -3.56$, $p < .001$ (β s are transformed
 404 as indicated so represent percentage change in y). This indicates that time horizons
 405 were approximately 24% shorter in the the mental health condition, *Fig. 2a*. There was
 406 also a significant effect of time reference. Compared with FTR, time horizons for PTR
 407 were approximately 4 times longer, $(e^\beta - 1) \times 100 = 400.28$, $SE = 0.07$,
 408 $t(35247.58) = 24.69$, $p < .001$. The interaction term was not significant,
 409 $(e^\beta - 1) \times 100 = -1.98$, $SE = 0.07$, $t(35242.89) = -0.27$, $p = .786$.

410 **2.2.4 FTR type analysis.** We next wanted to understand whether there
 411 were any differences in how redditors were referring to the future, i.e. in FTR type. We
 412 excluded all sentences where $p(FTR) \leq 50\%$ according to the time reference classifier.
 413 This left $n = 145, 130$. However, because of the key-word methods it employs, the FTR
 414 type classifier cannot handle negations. For instance, “rain tomorrow is not possible”
 415 expresses high-certainty but would be classed as low-certainty because of the presence
 416 of the low-certainty key-word “possible”. We therefore detected the presence of
 417 negations using an averaged perceptron tagger following Collins (2002) but with Brown
 418 cluster features as described by Koo, Carreras, and Collins (2008) and using greedy
 419 decoding (implemented in *spaCy* (Explosion AI, 2020)). We excluded any sentences
 420 which used negations ($n = 24, 399$), which left a final sample of $n = 120, 731$.

421 We report FTR type usage proportions in *Fig. 3*. These suggest that, rather than
 422 the future tense marking the preponderance of FTR statements, FTR marking in

423 English tends to be fairly equitably distributed across the different semantic categories
424 estimated by the FTR type classifier.

425 To investigate effect of condition, we regressed each FTR type over mental health
426 condition with a logit link function and random intercepts clustered by redditor, i.e.
427 equation 3 but for FTR type. Results are reported in *Table 2* and *Fig. 4*.

428 We found that redditors in the mental health condition were less likely to use the
429 future tense, *Fig. 4a*, lexical high-certainty constructions, *Fig. 4e*, the present tense
430 (though only at trend levels, $p < .1$), *Fig. 4b*. At the same time, they were more likely
431 to use low-certainty terminology (whether lexical or verbal, *Fig. 4c-d*), more likely to
432 use deontic modal terms, which encode future obligations and notions of permission and
433 necessity, *Fig. 4f*; and more likely to use of bouleptic modal terms, which relate to
434 hopes, plans, and intentions for the future, *Fig. 4g*. We found no differences for unrealis
435 terms, *Fig. 4g*.

436 2.3 Discussion

437 The semantic domain encoded by the future tense, the present tense, and lexical
438 high-certainty terms is high-certainty (Giannakidou & Mari, 2018; Robertson &
439 Roberts, 2020; Salkie, 2010). In combination with higher use of low-certainty terms,
440 lower use of these FTR types suggests that the experience of anxiety and/or depression
441 may be characterized in increased uncertainty about future events. Additionally higher
442 use of bouleptic terminology suggests increased desire for future change.

443 We also found they were more likely to make non-present time reference (past and
444 future), but that their time horizons were shortened relative to control. This suggests
445 that anxiety and depression may be characterized by heightened salience of future and
446 past events, but within a shorter temporal window.

447 However, we found no differences between the anxiety and depression conditions.
448 We reasoned that self-selecting to post in *r/Anxiety* and *r/depression* was a weak
449 diagnostic criteria, especially given high comorbidity rates between the two conditions
450 (Groen et al., 2020). We therefore undertook to differentiate the relationships between

451 anxiety, depression, temporal horizons, and temporal discounting in a survey paradigm
452 over which we could exert a greater degree of control.

453 **3 Study 2**

454 Our goals for study 2 were twofold. Firstly, reasoning that individuals who only
455 tend to imagine themselves in proximal future event might be doing so because they
456 perceived such proximal events as subjectively distal, we hypothesized future time
457 horizons might be negatively correlated with the subjective representation of future
458 distance. In other words, if sufferers of anxiety and depression tend to think of more
459 temporally proximal objective dates, this might be because they represent such dates as
460 more subjectively distal. Since distal representations of subjective temporal distance
461 have been found to be a consistent predictor of increased temporal discounting
462 (Thorstad et al., 2015; Kim & Zauberman, 2009; Zauberman et al., 2009), we
463 hypothesized and that such perceptual biases might actually be driving previously
464 reported tendencies for sufferers of anxiety to temporally discount to a greater degree.
465 Secondly, we wanted to disambiguate whether such cognitive biases were characteristic
466 of anxiety, depression, or both.

467 **3.1 Materials and methods**

468 **3.1.1 Participants.** Participants who failed attention checks during study 2
469 were ejected immediately (see SM). After these ejections, a sample of $N = 202$
470 participants ($n = 103$ females, $n = 98$ males, and $n = 1$ other) completed study 2. Data
471 were collected in March, 2020. All participants were English speakers residing in the
472 United Kingdom and were 18 or over. Participants were recruited from Amazon
473 Mechanical Turk Prime and completed the survey online. Ethical approval for the study
474 was granted by the Brunel University Research Ethics Committee, ref. no.
475 22348-MHR-Jan/2020-24407-1. All participants were remunerated.

476 **3.1.2 Materials and procedures.** The survey was hosted on Qualtrics. It
477 had a within-subjects correlational design, and consisted of 3 tasks. Firstly, participants
478 completed an intertemporal choice task designed to establish temporal discounting,

479 then they completed the “slider” task designed to establish subjective representations of
 480 future time (Kim & Zauberman, 2009; Zauberman et al., 2009), and finally the
 481 Depression Anxiety and Stress Scales 21 item measure (DASS-21) to establish
 482 depression, and anxiety levels (Lovibond & Lovibond, 1995). For all 3 tasks, item order
 483 was randomized and one item was displayed per page.

484 In the intertemporal choice task, participants made repeated binary decisions
 485 between a larger reward (the “larger-later reward”) offered after a delay and a smaller
 486 reward (the “smaller-sooner reward”) offered immediately; for instance, “Would you
 487 prefer \$50 now or \$100 in six months?” The smaller-sooner reward was always smaller
 488 than the larger-later reward, which was fixed at \$100. The factors of this task were the
 489 amounts of the smaller-sooner reward (\$50-\$95 by increments of \$5), and the delays of
 490 the larger-later reward (later today, tomorrow, one week, one month, two months, three
 491 months, six months, one year, two years, five years, and ten years). If participants chose
 492 the larger-later reward, this was scored with (1), otherwise (0). Amounts and delays
 493 were fully crossed to produce a test battery of $10_{\text{amounts}} \times 11_{\text{delays}} = 110_{\text{items}}$. Prior to
 494 starting, participants were told to “Try to answer quickly and intuitively, without
 495 thinking about it too much.”

496 To be able to model linear relationships between discounting (which is non-linear
 497 over time (Green & Myerson, 2004)) and participant-level variables (anxiety,
 498 depression), we needed to calculate a participant-level measure of discounting. Research
 499 has shown that the following hyperbolic function fits real and hypothetical delay
 500 discounted value very well (Mazur, 1987; Kirby, Petry, & Bickel, 1999):

$$V = \frac{A}{1 + kD} \quad (5)$$

501 where V is the subjective value of a delayed reward A at a given delay D , and k is a
 502 scaling parameter which captures individual differences in discounting. Higher values of
 503 k imply lower V , i.e. more discounting. To derive participant-level k s, we followed
 504 Kirby et al. (1999). This involved calculating hypothetical values of k and retaining for
 505 each participant some k which best predicted empirical choices. Specifically, we

506 calculated all k_{1-n} at indifference between LLR and SSR for each D and SSR, i.e. all k_s
507 such that $SSR = LLR/(1 + k_i D)$ for all values of SSR and D under the study. We
508 then predicted hypothetical intertemporal choices for each k_{1-n} and retained k_i for each
509 participant p_j which had the highest proportion of matches against p_j empirical choices.
510 When more than one k had an equal number of matches, we took the geometric mean
511 (Kirby et al., 1999). Since k tends to be non-normally distributed, we used $\log_e(k)$ as
512 our participant-level measure of discounting (Kirby et al., 1999).

513 Participants then completed the slider task. Rather than establishing how far into
514 the future participants tend to think, it was designed to establish how subjectively
515 distant participants felt given objective time distances to be. Following Zauberman et
516 al. (2009) and Kim and Zauberman (2009), participants used a slider to rate whether
517 they construed a given objective temporal distance as “close to now” (0) or “far from
518 now” (100). The only factor of this task was the objective distances, which matched
519 those in the intertemporal choice task. For each item, participants were directed to
520 “indicate with the slider how far away from NOW the given time feels to you.” Prior to
521 starting the task, participants were given a training example involving a past time
522 reference (9 months ago), and were told to “try to answer quickly and intuitively,
523 without thinking about it too much.” To increase a sense of subjectivity, numbered
524 slider increments were not displayed.

525 Finally, participants completed the DASS-21 (Lovibond & Lovibond, 1995). The
526 DASS-21 is a self-report questionnaire in which participants rated to what extent a
527 given statement applied to them between “did not apply to me at all” (0) and “applied
528 to me very much or most of the time” (3). For each item, participants were instructed
529 to “Please read each statement use the scale provided to indicate how much the
530 statement applied to you over THE PAST WEEK. There are no right or wrong
531 answers. Do not spend too much time on any statement.” The DASS-21 is broken down
532 into 3 dimensions, each comprising 7 items, designed to separately measure depression,
533 anxiety, and stress. Example items from each dimension are as follows: “I felt I wasn’t
534 worth much as a person” (depression), “I felt I was close to panic” (anxiety), and “I

535 found it difficult to relax” (stress). See SM for the full questionnaire. It is not a
 536 diagnostic tool *visa-vi* the discrete diagnostic categories of, for instance, the Diagnostic
 537 and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (American Psychiatric Association, 2013).
 538 Rather, it is based on research which suggests that the differences in depression,
 539 anxiety, and stress experienced by healthy and clinical populations are a matter of
 540 degree (Lovibond & Lovibond, 1995). It is therefore designed to span the boundaries
 541 between clinical and healthy populations. Dependent variables are the the sum of scores
 542 for each dimension multiplied by 2, and therefore theoretically range between (0) and
 543 (42) (in our data the max score was 40).

544 3.2 Results

545 Since we wanted to understand the conditional relationship of anxiety and
 546 depression on discounting via subjective temporal distance, we conducted a mediation
 547 analysis. In mediation analyses, a predictor X is assumed to effect an outcome Y via a
 548 mediating variable M . In mediation terminology, the $X \rightarrow M$ path is referred to as α ,
 549 the $M \rightarrow Y$ path is referred to as β , and the $X \rightarrow Y$ path is referred to as τ' . The
 550 “indirect effect”, $X \rightarrow M \rightarrow Y$, can be estimated as the product of the paths involved,
 551 $\alpha\beta$, and captures the effect of X on Y via M while controlling for the “direct effect”, τ' .
 552 Similarly, the direct effect captures the effect of X on Y while controlling for the
 553 indirect effect. The “total effect” is the sum of $\alpha\beta$ and τ' , and captures the total effect
 554 of X on Y , as in a normal regression (Yuan & MacKinnon, 2009).

555 We used $\log_e(k)$ as our outcome variable, anxiety and depression scores from the
 556 DASS-21 as our predictor variables, and participant-level mean subjective temporal
 557 distance scores as our mediating variable. The model therefore took the following form:

$$subj.dist_i = \lambda_1 + \alpha_1 anx_i + \alpha_2 dep_i + \gamma_{k1} X_{ki} + e_{1i} \quad (6)$$

$$\log_e(k)_i = \lambda_2 + \tau'_1 anx_i + \tau'_2 dep_i + \beta subj.dist_i + \gamma_{j2} X_{ji} + e_{2i} \quad (7)$$

558 where $\lambda_{1,2}$ are intercepts, $\gamma_{j1,2}$ are parameters for a vector X_j of covariates (demographic

559 measures, see SM), and $\alpha_{1,2}$, $\tau'_{1,2}$, and β are slope coefficients as described.

560 We used a Bayesian approach to estimation. Bayesian statistics are well-suited to
 561 mediation analyses; as well as making no assumptions about the normality of sampling
 562 statistics, they allow for straight-forward inferences about any transformation of model
 563 parameters (i.e. path products) through simply carrying out the desired operation on
 564 posterior probability distributions (Vehtari, Gelman, Simpson, Carpenter, & Bürkner,
 565 2019). We therefore used the *brms* package (Bürkner, 2017) to estimate model
 566 parameters using a no U-Turn Hamiltonian Monte Carlo sampling procedure (Hoffman
 567 & Gelman, 2014; Stan Development Team, 2020) with uninformative priors (i.e.
 568 $Unif(-\infty - \infty)$), 4 chains, 16,000 iterations, a burn in discard of 4,000, and a max
 569 tree-depth of 15. Inspection of caterpillar plots and \hat{R} s indicated that the estimation
 570 procedure had converged (Vehtari et al., 2019).

571 We report a conceptual diagram including point estimates and 95% Credibility
 572 Intervals (CIs), *Fig. 5b*, and path products of interest, *Fig. 5a*. Since we had made the
 573 directional hypotheses that anxiety and/or depression would be associated with more
 574 distal subjective temporal distances and therefore increased discounting (higher
 575 $\log_e(k)$), we tested the one-tailed hypotheses that these effects would be positive. As we
 576 had predicted for anxiety, we found significant positive indirect, $Est. = 0.04$,
 577 $Er. = 0.02$, $90\%CI = [0.02, 0.07]$, $pp > .999$, direct, $Est. = 0.07$, $Er. = 0.03$,
 578 $90\%CI = [0.02, 0.13]$, $pp = .982$, and total, $Est. = 0.11$, $Er. = 0.03$,
 579 $90\%CI = [0.06, 0.17]$, $pp > .999$, effects. However, we found no significant effects for
 580 depression (indirect: $Est. = -0.01$, $Er. = 0.01$, $90\%CI = [-0.02, 0]$, $pp = .158$, direct:
 581 $Est. = -0.02$, $Er. = 0.02$, $90\%CI = [-0.06, 0.01]$, $pp = .146$, total: $Est. = -0.03$,
 582 $Er. = 0.02$, $90\%CI = [-0.07, 0.01]$, $pp = .103$). If anything, effects tend to go in the
 583 opposite direction, though not significantly. In these parameter summaries, *Est.* and
 584 *Er.* are the mean and standard deviation of the posterior probability distribution,
 585 and “*pp*” reports the probability that the posterior estimate of the effect matches the
 586 direction of the hypothesis. In contrast to frequentist *p* values, $pp > .95$ indicates that
 587 evidence that the parameter matched the prediction exceeds 95% (Bürkner, 2017).

588 **3.2.1 Discussion.** These findings suggest that anxious participants tended to
589 construe future events more distally, and that this in turn caused them to temporally
590 discount to a greater degree. The significant direct effect also suggests anxiety may be
591 associated with increased temporal discounting independently of temporal construals –
592 or at least our measurements of them. On the other hand, we found no significant
593 relationships between depression and subjective temporal distance or temporal
594 discounting.

595 4 General discussion

596 In study 1, we found that language used by redditors who had posted to *r/Anxiety*
597 and *r/depression* differed significantly from control. Firstly, we found they were more
598 likely to make non-present time reference, both past and future. This suggests that
599 sufferers of anxiety and/or depression may spend more time thinking about future and
600 past events rather than present ones. It may be important to note that we did not build
601 a tri-class past/present/future time reference classifier, so the reference category in
602 these analyses is not present time reference. Rather it is anything that is not
603 future/past time reference, for instance statements of ability “it can rain a lot here”;
604 statements of fact, “the sun is hot”; or present time reference, “I am hot”. In light of
605 this, it would be incorrect to infer that redditors in the mental health condition spent
606 less time making present time reference. Rather, they spent more time making past and
607 future time reference.

608 While relationships between future time perspective and anxiety and depression
609 have been established, such research does not illuminate the extent to which the future
610 is salient to sufferers from these mood disorders. As far as we know, ours is the first
611 study to find that the experience of anxiety and depression may be characterized by an
612 increased amount of time spent thinking about the future and the past.

613 We also found significant (though small) differences in FTR type. This suggests
614 that habits of thinking about the future may differ between healthy populations and
615 sufferers of anxiety and/or depression. The largest differences seemed to be driven by

616 lower use of the future tense and higher use of bouletic language relative to control, *Fig.*
617 3. The semantic domain which bouletic modal language encodes in desiderative, having
618 to do with hopes, desires, and plans for change. This suggest that future thinking in
619 sufferers of anxiety and/or depression tends to be characterized by desire for future
620 change rather than simply statements of fact.

621 The other major difference was that we found higher use of low-certainty language
622 relative to control; this suggests that sufferers of anxiety and/or depression may
623 construe the future more uncertainly then healthy populations. This raises the
624 possibility that probability discounting may be a relevant marker of anxiety and/or
625 depression. Probability discounting is similar to delay discounting, but involves the
626 devaluation of uncertain rather than delayed rewards (Green & Myerson, 2004). It is
627 measured in a similar way, by giving participants binary choices, but rather than
628 immediate and delayed, the choice is between certain and uncertain rewards; for
629 instance a 100% chance of receiving \$10 vs. a 50% chance of receiving \$20. People who
630 probabilistically discount more would tend to choose high-certainty options because
631 they devalue low-certainty ones to a greater degree. Recent research involving rewards
632 which are both probabilistic and delayed, e.g. a 100% chance of receiving \$10 vs. a 50%
633 chance of receiving \$20 in three months, has found that these factors interactively
634 predict discounting rates (Vanderveldt, Green, & Myerson, 2015). This suggests that
635 real-world intertemporal decision making (in which people must balance present vs.
636 future options as in delay discounting paradigms) which usually involves some degree of
637 uncertainty about the future may be driven by both probabilistic and temporal
638 discounting rates.

639 The relationship between probability discounting and anxiety and/or depression is
640 understudied relative to temporal discounting. While one study found probability
641 discounting was not a significant marker of major depressive disorder (Hart, Brown,
642 Roffman, & Perlis, 2019), our results suggest that anxiety and/or depression may be
643 characterized by low-certainty construals of future events, which may warrant further
644 investigation into potential relationships between anxiety, depression, and low-certainty

645 future construals which may impact probabilistic intertemporal decision making
646 processes.

647 Additionally, we found higher use of deontic modal language relative to control.
648 The primary deontic modal verb in English is *must*, and the other criterion key-words
649 in the FTR type classifier in this category are *have to*, *need to*, and variants thereof.
650 This suggests that redditors in the mental health condition were more likely to encode
651 *obligation* and *necessity*, and that therefore their experience of future events may feel
652 simultaneously lower-certainty and more constrained by future obligations.

653 It is unclear whether these patterns are causal or descriptive. In other words,
654 habitually construing future events in low-certainty, highly-constrained, bouletic terms
655 may actually contribute to the development and maintenance of anxiety and/or
656 depression. On the other hand, such FTR usage differences may simply be symptomatic
657 of anxiety and/or depression. In either case, we appear to have isolated isolated new
658 markers of these mood disorders vis-à-vis FTR. A functionalist perspective may help
659 clarify this particular pattern of results.... SHANE?

660 Finally, in both study 1 and 2, we found differences in terms of time horizons. In
661 study 1, we found contracted time horizons relative to control. In other words, redditors
662 in the mental health condition referenced more proximal future and past times. In
663 study 2, we operationalized time horizons in a slightly different way; rather than using
664 the Wallace task to establish how far into the future people tend to imagine (i.e. time
665 horizon) we used a slider paradigm to establish far into the future participants felt to be
666 a given objective distance. We found that anxious participants tended to rate future
667 events as farther away. If the study populations are comparable, this suggests that time
668 horizons and subjective future distance may be negatively related, as we had
669 hypothesized. In other words, shortened objective time horizons may arise because
670 objective future dates are represented as subjectively more distant. An intriguing
671 possibility is that over subjective time future time horizons are constant. More research
672 using slider type tasks as well as the Wallace task might explore whether this is the case.

673 We also found that distal future distance representations in anxious individuals

674 mediated a relationship between anxiety and temporal discounting. This suggests that
675 subjective representations of future time may be partially driving reported links
676 between anxiety and temporal discounting (Rounds et al., 2007), and adds evidence to
677 the inference that the relationship is significant and positive (contra: Jenks & Lawyer,
678 2015; Steinglass et al., 2017).

679 On the other hand, we found no relationship between our measures of discounting
680 and depression, despite the fact that depression has been previously linked to shorted
681 future time horizons (Dilling & Rabin, 1967), and increased temporal discounting
682 (Felton et al., 2020; Pulcu et al., 2014). This may be driven by symptom severity
683 and/or reward size effects. Reward size has a well-established effect on discounting
684 rates; larger future rewards are discounted less, i.e. people are more willing to wait
685 when future rewards are large even when present rewards are proportionally identical
686 (Green & Myerson, 2004). Different reward sizes may therefore be responsible for
687 differences in reported findings.

688 Indeed, reward size may affect discounting in depressive individuals differently to
689 health ones. Pulcu et al. (2014) compared discounting between clinically diagnosed
690 present sufferers of Major Depressive Disorder (MDD), remitted MMD (rMDD), and
691 healthy controls, with small (£30), medium (£55) and large (£80) rewards. They found
692 no significant differences between MDD participants and controls, and only found
693 significant differences between MDD and controls for large rewards. Since we used a
694 comparable reward size (\$100), this suggests that depressive symptom severity in our
695 sample was not high enough to detect an effect. On the other hand, the fact we found
696 no relationship between subjective temporal representations and depression despite
697 previously reported links between depression and shortened time horizons (Dilling &
698 Rabin, 1967) suggests more work might be done using slider-type subjective distance
699 task and the Wallace task in sufferers of depression.

700 **4.1 Construal level theory**

701 How are we to make sense of the overall pattern of results across both studies?

702 Construal Level Theory (CLT) offers one theoretical framework which may help explain
703 the seemingly disparate findings. In this connection, CLT posits that there exists a
704 relationship between psychological distance and abstraction. Specifically, the claim is
705 that events that are perceived as distant on the dimensions of space, time, likelihood,
706 and social familiarity are perceived as more abstract, with nearer events being perceived
707 as more concrete. Reciprocally, it is hypothesized that abstraction cues expectations of
708 psychological distance, and concreteness expectations of psychological proximity (Trope
709 & Liberman, 2010). Thus, far-future or culturally alien scenarios are imagined as more
710 abstract than temporally or culturally proximal scenarios. The value of CLT for our
711 purposes is that its claims provide an empirically supported link between temporal
712 distance and areas of cognition like moral orientation, self-perception, emotionality,
713 tolerance, conformity, and creativity.

714 The first finding the CLT might explain is the discovery that redditors in
715 *r/Anxiety* and *r/depression* are more likely to make non-present time reference.

716 **4.2 Therapeutic applications**

717 How might our results be leveraged to better inform therapeutic approaches to the
718 treatment of anxiety and depression.... SHANE?

719 **4.3 Conclusions**

720 Anxiety and depression continue to affect the lives of many (Dewa & McDaid,
721 2011). In combining descriptive big-data analyses with survey-based paradigms we used
722 the information available on social media to develop novel insights into the habits of
723 speech and thought which may characterize anxiety and depression. We were able to
724 show that redditors who has once posted to forums dedicated to discussion of anxiety
725 and depression made more frequent past and future time reference, and used a different
726 distribution of FTR type; they used more bouleptic, more low-certainty, more deontic,

727 and fewer future tense constructions. While these effects were small, they might be
728 further developed as markers of these disorders. Additionally, we found once posters to
729 mental health forums exhibited contracted time horizons relative to control. This
730 motivated a mediation analysis in study 2 in which we found that subjective
731 representations of future temporal distance mediated a relationship between anxiety
732 and temporal discounting; anxious participants construed future events as more distant,
733 and therefore were less likely to wait for future rewards.

734 If progress is to be made in understanding and treating these disorders, new
735 markers need to be explored which may help develop more accurate diagnostic criteria.
736 Additionally, predictive approaches to online social data need to be complemented by
737 descriptive ones which allow insights from the analysis of social media data to be tested
738 in controlled environments, and applied in novel therapies. Our results suggest that
739 such approaches may yield fruitful insights. In particular they suggest a multimodal
740 approach to future time perceptive may be useful and that ongoing research should
741 attempt to disentangle how these dimensions may contribute to the etiology of anxiety
742 and depression.

5 Tables

Table 1
Time reference and FTR type classifier performance metrics

classifier	category	sub-category	accuracy	precision	recall	f1
time reference	FTR	-	.91	.93	.73	.82
	PTR	-	.81	.83	.35	.49
FTR-type	future tense	-	.84	.81	.92	.86
	present tense	-	.93	.94	.99	.96
low-certainty	verbal		.99	> .99	.99	.99
	lexical		.96	> .99	.97	.98
	high-certainty	verbal	.98	> .99	.98	.99
	lexical		.98	.99	.98	.99
bouletic modality	-		.94	.99	.94	.97
irrealis	-		.89	.99	.89	.94

Accuracy is defined as $a = (tp + tn) / (tp + fp + fn + tn)$ where tp is the number of true positives, tn is the number of true negatives, fp is the number of false positives and fn is the number of false negatives. Accuracy captures the classifier's performance without prioritizing either positive or negative examples. Precision is $p = tp / (tp + fp)$; it captures the model's likelihood of being correct if it makes a positive prediction and is therefore sensitive to the model's type I error rate. Conversely, denominator in recall is the false negatives, $r = tp / (tp + fn)$; it therefore captures whether the model tends to miss true examples, and is sensitive to the model's type II error rate. F1 is the harmonic mean of recall and precision, $F1 = (2rp) / (r + p)$, and attempts to balance the two.

Table 2
FTR type by condition on Reddit (study 1)

DV	IV	e^β	SE	<i>z-score</i>	
future tense $R_m^2 < .001$, $R_c^2 = .023$	(Intercept) mental health cond.	0.37 0.92	0.02 0.03	-41.96 -3.11	*** **
present tense $R_m^2 < .001$, $R_c^2 = .016$	(Intercept) mental health cond.	0.19 0.95	0.02 0.03	-67.42 -1.89	*** ·
lexical low-certainty $R_m^2 = .001$, $R_c^2 = .028$	(Intercept) mental health cond.	0.11 1.22	0.03 0.04	-70.7 5.56	*** ***
verbal low-certainty $R_m^2 < .001$, $R_c^2 = .025$	(Intercept) mental health cond.	0.09 1.14	0.03 0.04	-74.01 3.71	*** ***
lexical certainty $R_m^2 < .001$, $R_c^2 = .042$	(Intercept) mental health cond.	0.04 0.9	0.05 0.05	-69.4 -2.07	*** *
deontic $R_m^2 < .001$, $R_c^2 = .021$	(Intercept) mental health cond.	0.03 1.14	0.04 0.05	-80.02 2.71	*** **
bouletic modality $R_m^2 = .007$, $R_c^2 = .041$	(Intercept) mental health cond.	0.14 1.57	0.03 0.04	-63.61 12.72	*** ***
irrealis $R_m^2 < .001$, $R_c^2 = .025$	(Intercept) mental health cond.	0.15 1.03	0.03 0.03	-65.91 0.88	***

Coefficients represent the change in odds ratio of each predictor compared to the intercept.

*** $p < .001$; ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$; · $p < .1$

6 Figures

Non-present time reference (FTR & PTR) on Reddit by condition (study 1)

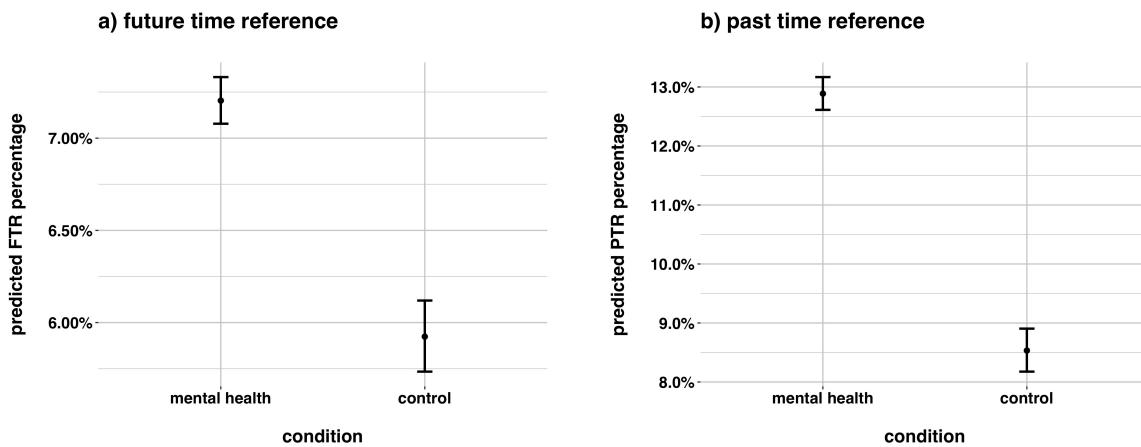


Figure 1. Differences in probability of making FTR (a) and PTR (b) as a function of condition. Redditors in the mental health condition exhibited higher probability of referencing the past and future relative to control. Above and in *Figs. 2,4*, confidence intervals account for random effect variance by matrix-multiplying a predictor vector X by the parameter vector B to get the predictions, then extracting the variance-covariance matrix V of the parameters and computing XVX' to get the variance-covariance matrix of the predictions. The square-root of the diagonal of this matrix represents the standard errors of the predictions, which are then multiplied by ± 1.96 (Lüdecke, 2019).

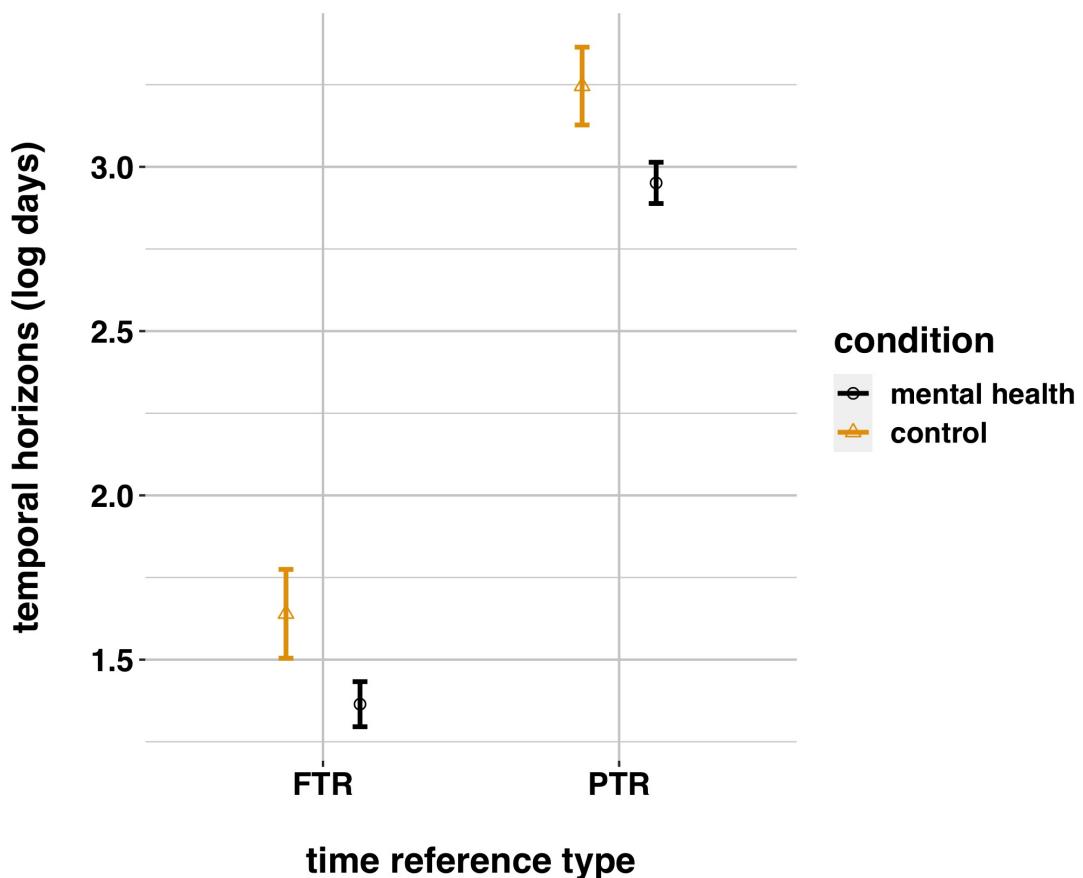
Temporal horizons by condition on Reddit (study 1)

Figure 2. Differences in temporal horizons as a function of time reference type and condition. Redditors in the mental health condition exhibited contracted time horizons relative to control.

FTR-type proportions by condition on Reddit (study 1)

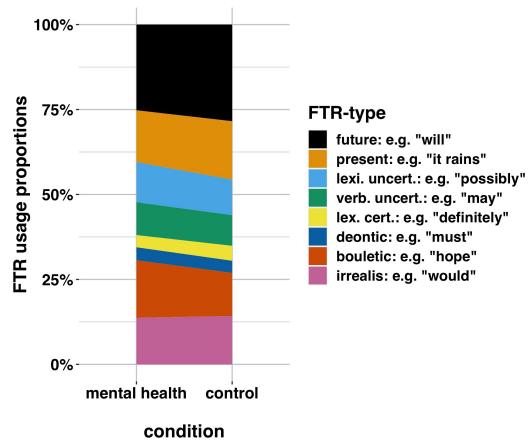


Figure 3. Plotted values are the proportional breakdown of FTR type, i.e. the proportions per type normalized to sum to 1, $x_k = ((\sum_{i=1}^{n_k} x_{ik})/n_k)/\sum_{i=1}^k x_k$ for k FTR-types. This suggests FTR is spread across multiple semantic domains, not just tense (results are similar even when modality does not dominate tense (see SM).

FTR type usage differences on Reddit by condition (study 1)

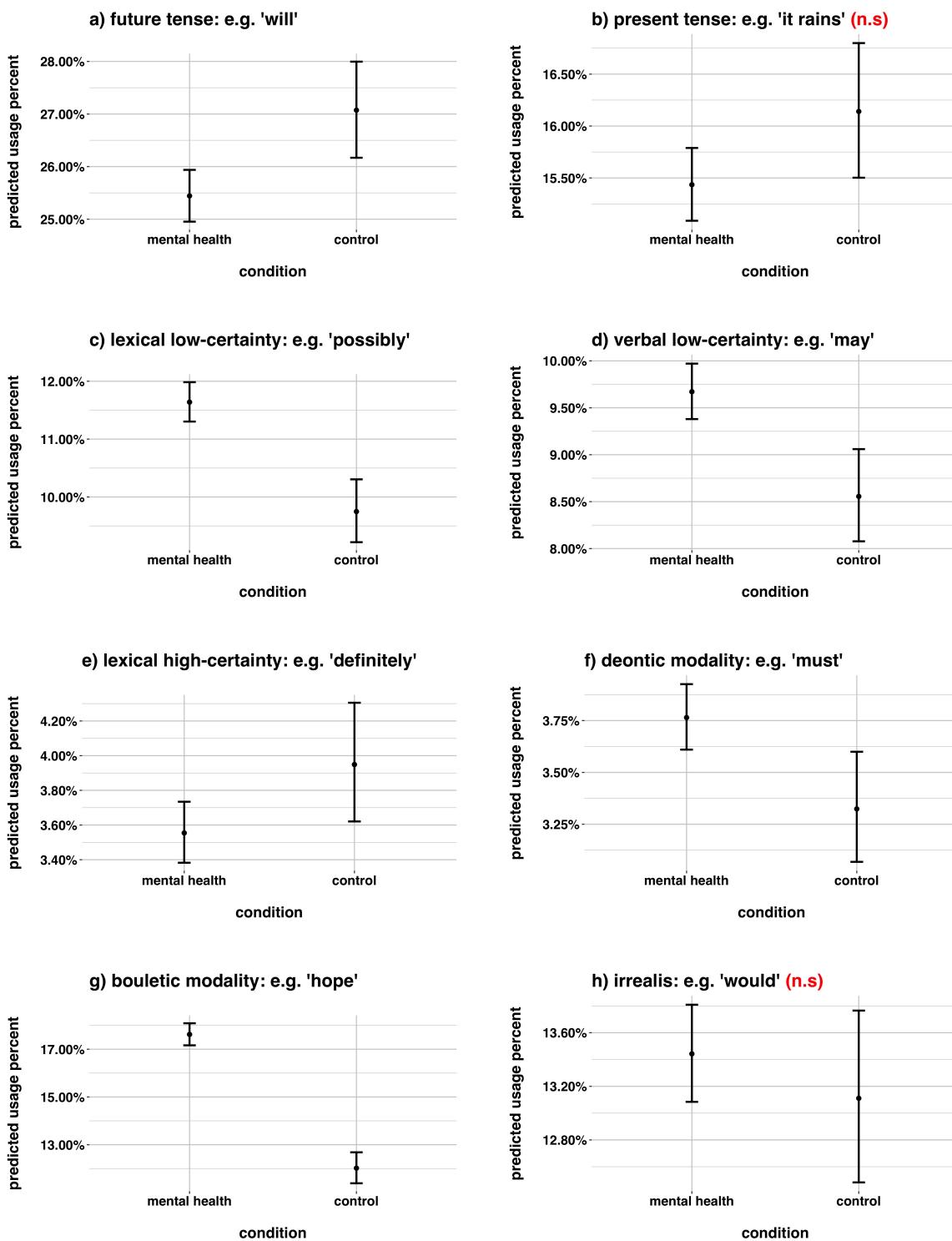
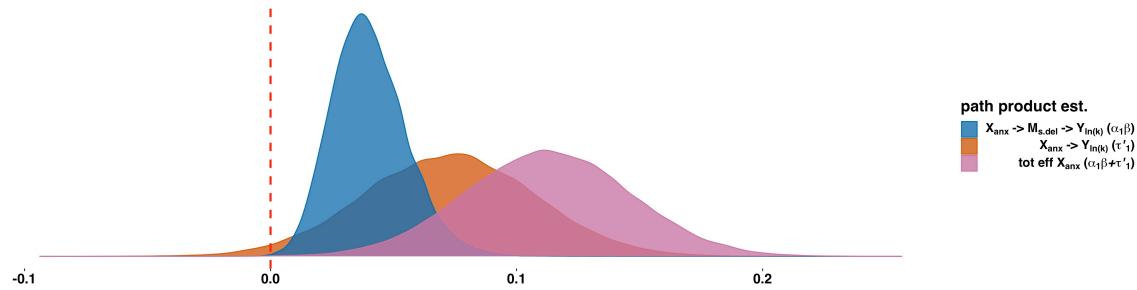


Figure 4. Differences in probability of using different FTR types when referring to the future as a function of condition. Redditors in the mental health condition exhibited higher probability of using low-certainty language, bouletic language, and verbal deontic language, and lower probability of using the future tense and lexical high-certainty language.

Posterior estimates for mediation model (study 2)

a) Direct, indirect, and total effect estimates for anxiety



b) Conceptual diagram and coefficients

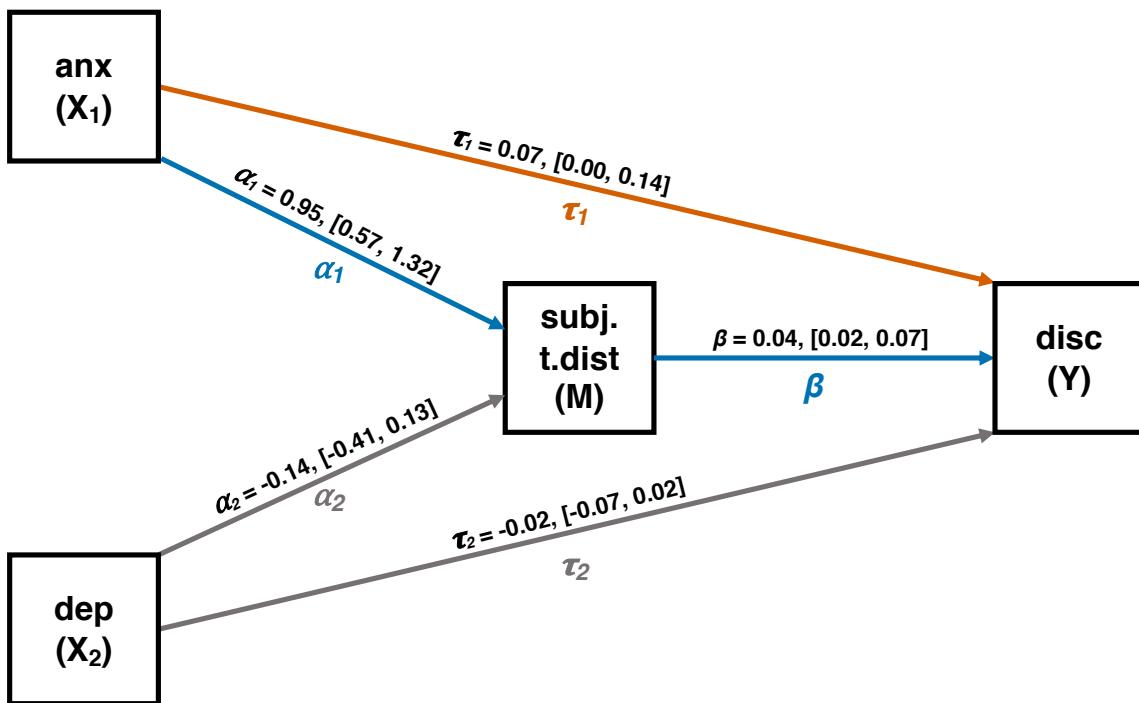


Figure 5. a) posterior estimates for paths and path products for the effects of anxiety on discounting $\ln(k)$ via mean ratings of subjective future temporal distance. No effects of depression were significant so for easier viewing are not depicted.

b) Conceptual diagram, with parameter point estimates and Bayesian 95% Credibility Intervals (CI). If the CI does not contain zero, parameters are considered to be significantly different from zero.

745

Acknowledgments

746 This research was supported TKTK. Additionally, CR is supported by a Natural
747 Sciences and Engineering Council of Canada doctoral fellowship (PGSD2 - 517110 -
748 2018) and by EU's Horizon 2020 FET Open RIA 662725 IBSEN project. We thank
749 Arran Davis and Bronwyn Tarr for editing and advice on manuscript structure.

PRE-PUBLICATION DRAFT

7 References

- 750
- 751 American Psychiatric Association. (2013). *Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental*
752 *disorders: DSM-5*. Washington: American Psychiatric Publishing.
- 753 American Psychiatric Association. (2015). *Anxiety Disorders: DSM-5 Selections*.
754 Philadelphia: American Psychiatric Publishing.
- 755 Barrault, S., & Varescon, I. (2013). Cognitive distortions, anxiety, and depression
756 among regular and pathological gambling online poker players. *Cyberpsychology,
757 Behavior, and Social Networking*, 16(3), 183–188. doi: 10.1089/cyber.2012.0150
- 758 Blaszczynski, A., & McConaghy, N. (1989). Anxiety and/or depression in the
759 pathogenesis of addictive gambling. *Substance Use and Misuse*, 24(4), 337–350.
760 doi: 10.3109/10826088909047292
- 761 Bürkner, P.-C. (2017). brms: An R package for Bayesian multilevel models using stan.
762 *Journal of Statistical Software*, 10(1), 1–28. doi: 10.18637/jss.v080.i01
- 763 Chang, A. X., & Manning, C. D. (2012). SUTIME: A library for recognizing and
764 normalizing time expressions. In *Proceedings of the 8th international conference
765 on language resources and evaluation, lrec 2012* (pp. 3735–3740).
- 766 Chen, K. (2013). The effect of language on economic behavior: Evidence from savings
767 rates, health behaviors, and retirement assets. *American Economic Review*,
768 103(2), 690–731. doi: 10.1257/aer.103.2.690
- 769 Chi, J. D., Su, X., Tang, Y., & Xu, B. (2018). Is language an economic institution?
770 Evidence from R&D investment. *SSRN Electronic Journal*, 1–48. doi:
771 10.2139/ssrn.3262822
- 772 Collins, M. (2002). Discriminative training methods for hidden markov models: theory
773 and experiments with perceptron algorithms. In *Proceedings of the conference on
774 empirical methods in natural language processing (emnlp)* (pp. 1–8). Philadelphia:
775 Association for Computational Linguistics.
- 776 Coppersmith, G., Dredze, M., Harman, C., Hollingshead, K., & Mitchell, M. (2015).
777 CLPsych 2015 Shared Task: Depression and PTSD on Twitter. In *Proceedings
778 of the 2nd workshop on computational linguistics and clinical psychology: From*

- 779 *linguistic signal to clinical reality* (pp. 31–39). Denver: Association for
780 Computational Linguistics. doi: 10.3115/v1/w15-1204
- 781 Dahl, Ö. (1985). *Tense and Aspect Systems*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- 782 Dahl, Ö. (2000). The grammar of future time reference in European languages. In
783 Ö. Dahl (Ed.), *Tense and aspect in the languages of europe* (pp. 309–328).
784 Berlin/New York: Mouton de Gruyter.
- 785 De Choudhury, M., Counts, S., Horvitz, E. J., & Hoff, A. (2014). Characterizing and
786 predicting postpartum depression from shared facebook data. *Proceedings of the*
787 *ACM Conference on Computer Supported Cooperative Work, CSCW*, 625–637.
788 doi: 10.1145/2531602.2531675
- 789 Dowa, C. S., & McDaid, D. (2011). Investing in the Mental Health of the Labor Force:
790 Epidemiological and Economic Impact of Mental Health Disabilities in the
791 Workplace. In I. Z. Schultz & E. Sally Rogers (Eds.), *Work accommodation and*
792 *retention in mental health* (pp. 33–51). Berlin: Springer Science+Business Media.
793 doi: 10.1007/978-1-4419-0428-7
- 794 Dilling, C. A., & Rabin, A. I. (1967). Temporal experiences in depressive states and
795 schizophrenia. *Journal of Consulting Psychology*, 31(6), 604–608.
- 796 Explosion AI. (2020). *spaCy*. Berlin: Explosion AI. Retrieved from
797 <https://spacy.io/>
- 798 Falk, A., Becker, A., Dohmen, T., Enke, B., Huffman, D., & Sunde, U. (2018). Global
799 evidence on economic preferences. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 133(4),
800 1645–1692. doi: 10.1093/qje/qjy013
- 801 Fasan, M., Gotti, G., Kang, T., & Liu, Y. (2016). Language FTR and earnings
802 management: International evidence. *SSRN Electronic Journal*, 1–49. doi:
803 10.2139/ssrn.2763922
- 804 Felton, J. W., Strutz, K. L., McCauley, H. L., Poland, C. A., Barnhart, K. J., & Lejuez,
805 C. W. (2020). Delay Discounting Interacts with Distress Tolerance to Predict
806 Depression and Alcohol Use Disorders among Individuals Receiving Inpatient
807 Substance Use Services. *International Journal of Mental Health and Addiction*,

- 808 18(5), 1416–1421. doi: 10.1007/s11469-019-00163-5
- 809 Figlio, D., Giuliano, P., Özek, U., & Sapienza, P. (2016). Long-term orientation and
810 educational performance. *National beureau of economic research working paper*
811 series(10147). doi: 10.3386/w22541
- 812 Giannakidou, A., & Mari, A. (2018). A unified analysis of the future as epistemic
813 modality: The view from Greek and Italian. *Natural language and tinguistic*
814 Theory, 36(1), 85–129.
- 815 Gkotsis, G., Oellrich, A., Velupillai, S., Liakata, M., Hubbard, T. J., Dobson, R. J., &
816 Dutta, R. (2017). Characterisation of mental health conditions in social media
817 using Informed Deep Learning. *Scientific Reports*, 7(March). doi:
818 10.1038/srep45141
- 819 Goldstone, R. L., & Lupyan, G. (2016). Discovering Psychological Principles by Mining
820 Naturally Occurring Data Sets. *Topics in Cognitive Science*, 8(3), 548–568. doi:
821 10.1111/tops.12212
- 822 Green, L., & Myerson, J. (2004). A discounting framework for choice with delayed and
823 probabilistic rewards. *Psychological Bulletin*, 130(5), 769–792. doi:
824 10.1037/0033-2909.130.5.769
- 825 Groen, R. N., Ryan, O., Wigman, J. T., Riese, H., Penninx, B. W., Giltay, E. J., ...
826 Hartman, C. A. (2020). Comorbidity between depression and anxiety: Assessing
827 the role of bridge mental states in dynamic psychological networks. *BMC*
828 *Medicine*, 18(1), 1–17. doi: 10.1186/s12916-020-01738-z
- 829 Guntuku, S. C., Yaden, D. B., Kern, M. L., Ungar, L. H., & Eichstaedt, J. C. (2017).
830 Detecting depression and mental illness on social media: an integrative review.
831 *Current Opinion in Behavioral Sciences*, 18, 43–49. doi:
832 10.1016/j.cobeha.2017.07.005
- 833 Hart, K. L., Brown, H. E., Roffman, J. L., & Perlis, R. H. (2019). Risk tolerance
834 measured by probability discounting among individuals with primary mood and
835 psychotic disorders. *Neuropsychology*, 33(3), 417–424. doi: 10.1037/neu0000506
- 836 Hodgins, D. C., & Engel, A. (2002). Future time perspective in pathological gamblers.

- 837 *Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease*, 190(11), 775–780. doi:
838 10.1097/00005053-200211000-00008
- 839 Hoffman, M. D., & Gelman, A. (2014). The No-U-turn Sampler: Adaptively setting
840 path lengths in Hamiltonian Monte Carlo. *Journal of Machine Learning Research*,
841 15(2008), 1593–1623.
- 842 Honnibal, M., & Johnson, M. (2015). An Improved Non-monotonic Transition System
843 for Dependency Parsing. In *Proceedings of the 2015 conference on empirical
844 methods in natural language processing* (pp. 1373—1378). Lisbon, Portugal:
845 Association for Computational Linguistics. Retrieved from
846 <https://aclweb.org/anthology/D/D15/D15-1162>
- 847 <https://www.redditinc.com/advertising/audience>. (n.d.). Retrieved 2020-12-22, from
848 <https://www.redditinc.com/advertising/audience>
- 849 Hübner, M., & Vannoorenberghe, G. (2015a). Patience and Inflation. *Munich Personal
850 RePEc Archive*(65811). doi: 10.1227/01.NEU.0000349921.14519.2A
- 851 Hübner, M., & Vannoorenberghe, G. (2015b). Patience and long-run growth.
852 *Economics Letters*, 137, 163–167. doi: 10.1016/j.econlet.2015.10.011
- 853 Jenks, C. W., & Lawyer, S. R. (2015). Using delay discounting to understand impulsive
854 choice in socially anxious individuals: Failure to replicate. *Journal of Behavior
855 Therapy and Experimental Psychiatry*, 46, 198–201. doi:
856 10.1016/j.jbtep.2014.10.010
- 857 Kapur, S., Phillips, A. G., & Insel, T. R. (2012). Why has it taken so long for biological
858 psychiatry to develop clinical tests and what to do about it. *Molecular Psychiatry*,
859 17(12), 1174–1179. doi: 10.1038/mp.2012.105
- 860 Kim, B. K., & Zauberman, G. (2009). Perception of Anticipatory Time in Temporal
861 Discounting. *Journal of Neuroscience, Psychology, and Economics*, 2(2), 91–101.
862 doi: 10.1037/a0017686
- 863 Kirby, K. N., Petry, N. M., & Bickel, W. K. (1999). Heroin addicts have higher discount
864 rates for delayed rewards than non-drug-using controls. *Journal of Experimental
865 Psychology: General*, 128(1), 78–87. doi: 10.1037/0096-3445.128.1.78

- 866 Kish, L. (1965). *Survey sampling*. New York: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.
- 867 Koo, T., Carreras, X., & Collins, M. (2008). Simple Semi-supervised Dependency
868 Parsing. In *Proceedings ofacl-08: Hlt* (pp. 595–603). Columbus, Ohio: Association
869 for Computational Linguistics.
- 870 Lai, M. H., & Kwok, O. M. (2015). Examining the rule of thumb of not using multilevel
871 modeling: The "design effect smaller than two" rule. *Journal of Experimental
872 Education*, 83(3), 423–438. doi: 10.1080/00220973.2014.907229
- 873 Liang, H., Marquis, C., Renneboog, L., & Sun, S. L. (2018). Future-time framing: The
874 effect of language on corporate future orientation. *Organization Science*, 29(6),
875 1093–1111. doi: 10.1287/orsc.2018.1217
- 876 Lovibond, S. H., & Lovibond, P. F. (1995). *Manual for the Depression Anxiety and
877 Stress Scales* (2nd ed.). Sydney: Psychology Foundation.
- 878 Lüdecke, D. (2019). *Ggeffects: Marginal effects of regression models*. Retrieved from
879 <https://strengejacket.github.io/ggeffects/articles/ggeffects.html>
- 880 Mavisakalyan, A., Tarverdi, Y., & Weber, C. (2018). Talking in the present, caring for
881 the future: Language and environment. *Journal of Comparative Economics*,
882 46(4), 1370–1387. doi: 10.1016/j.jce.2018.01.003
- 883 Mazur, J. E. (1987). An adjusting procedure for studying delayed reinforcement. In
884 M. Commons, J. E. Mazur, J. A. Nevin, & H. Rachlin (Eds.), *The effect of delay
885 and of intervening events on reinforcement value: Quantitative analyses of
886 behavior*, vol. 5 (pp. 55–73). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- 887 Montani, I., & Honnibal, M. (2020). *Prodigy: A new annotation tool for radically
888 efficient machine learning*. Berlin: Explosion AI. Retrieved from
889 <https://prod.gy>
- 890 Muthén, B. O., & Satorra, A. (1995). Complex Sample Data in Structural Equation
891 Modeling. *Sociological Methodology*, 25, 267–316. doi: 10.2307/271070
- 892 Nakagawa, S., Johnson, P. C., & Schielzeth, H. (2017). The coefficient of determination
893 R2 and intra-class correlation coefficient from generalized linear mixed-effects
894 models revisited and expanded. *Journal of the Royal Society Interface*, 14(134).

- doi: 10.1098/rsif.2017.0213
- Nuyts, J. (2000). *Epistemic modality, language, and conceptualization*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins. doi: 10.1075/hcp.5
- Palmer, R. F. (2001). *Mood and modality* (2nd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Papastamatelou, J., Unger, A., Giotakos, O., & Athanasiadou, F. (2015). Is Time Perspective a Predictor of Anxiety and Perceived Stress? Some Preliminary Results from Greece. *Psychological Studies*, 60(4), 468–477. doi: 10.1007/s12646-015-0342-6
- Pérez, E. O., & Tavits, M. (2017). Language shapes people's time perspective and support for future-oriented policies. *American Journal of Political Science*, 00(0), 1–13. doi: 10.1111/ajps.12290
- Petry, N. M., Bickel, W. K., & Arnett, M. (1998). Shortened time horizons and insensitivity to future consequences in heroin addicts. *Addiction*, 93(5), 729–738. doi: 10.1046/j.1360-0443.1998.9357298.x
- Pulcu, E., Trotter, P. D., Thomas, E. J., McFarquhar, M., Juhasz, G., Sahakian, B. J., ... Elliott, R. (2014). Temporal discounting in major depressive disorder. *Psychological Medicine*, 44(9), 1825–1834. doi: 10.1017/S0033291713002584
- Python Software Foundation. (2017). *Python language reference*. Retrieved from <http://www.python.org>
- Rai, A. (2020). Explainable AI: from black box to glass box. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 48(1), 137–141. doi: 10.1007/s11747-019-00710-5
- reddit.com. (2020).
- Robertson, C. (2019). *FTR-classifier*. Retrieved from <https://pypi.org/project/ftr-classifier/>
- Robertson, C., & Roberts, S. G. (2020). Not when but if: Modality and future time reference in English, Dutch and German. *PsyArXiv*. doi: 10.31234/osf.io/gdr8e
- Rounds, J. S., Beck, J. G., & Grant, D. M. M. (2007). Is the delay discounting paradigm useful in understanding social anxiety? *Behaviour Research and*

- 924 *Therapy*, 45(4), 729–735. doi: 10.1016/j.brat.2006.06.007
- 925 Salkie, R. (2010). Will: Tense or modal or both? *English Language and Linguistics*,
926 14(2), 187–215. doi: 10.1017/S1360674310000055
- 927 Smart, R. G. (1968). Future Time Perspectives in Alcoholics and Social Drinkers.
928 *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, 73(1), 81–83. doi: 10.1037/h0025449
- 929 Stan Development Team. (2020). *Stan modeling language users guide and reference
930 manual*. Retrieved from <https://mc-stan.org>
- 931 Steinglass, J. E., Lempert, K. M., Choo, T. H., Kimeldorf, M. B., Wall, M., Walsh,
932 B. T., . . . Simpson, H. B. (2017). Temporal discounting across three psychiatric
933 disorders: Anorexia nervosa, obsessive compulsive disorder, and social anxiety
934 disorder. *Depression and Anxiety*, 34(5), 463–470. doi: 10.1002/da.22586
- 935 Thorstad, R., Nie, A., & Wolff, P. (2015). Representations of Time Affect Willingness
936 to Wait for Future Rewards. In *Proceedings of the annual meeting of the cognitive
937 science society* (pp. 2392–2397).
- 938 Thorstad, R., & Wolff, P. (2018). A big data analysis of the relationship between future
939 thinking and decision-making. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*,
940 E1741. doi: 10.1073/pnas.1706589115/
- 941 Thorstad, R., & Wolff, P. (2019). Predicting future mental illness from social media: A
942 big-data approach. *Behavior Research Methods*, 51(4), 1586–1600. doi:
943 10.3758/s13428-019-01235-z
- 944 Trope, Y., & Liberman, N. (2010). Construal-level theory of psychological distance.
945 *Psychological Review*, 117(2), 440–463. doi: 10.1037/a0018963
- 946 Vanderveldt, A., Green, L., & Myerson, J. (2015). Discounting of monetary rewards
947 that are both delayed and probabilistic: Delay and probability combine
948 multiplicatively, not additively. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning
949 Memory and Cognition*, 41(1), 148–162. doi: 10.1037/xlm0000029
- 950 Vehtari, A., Gelman, A., Simpson, D., Carpenter, B., & Bürkner, P. C. (2019).
951 Rank-normalization, folding, and localization: An improved \hat{R} for assessing
952 convergence of MCMC. *arXiv*, 1–27. doi: 10.1214/20-ba1221

- 953 Wallace, M. (1956). Future time perspective in schizophrenia. *Journal of Abnormal and*
954 *Social Psychology*, 52(2), 240–245. doi: 10.1037/h0039899
- 955 Yuan, Y., & MacKinnon, D. P. (2009). Bayesian mediation analysis. *Psychological*
956 *Methods*, 14(4), 301–322. doi: 10.1037/a0016972
- 957 Zaiberman, G., Kim, B. K., Malkoc, S. A., & Bettman, J. R. (2009). Discounting time
958 and time discounting: Subjective time perception and intertemporal preferences.
959 *Journal of Marketing Research*, 46(4), 543–556. doi: 10.1509/jmkr.46.4.543
- 960 Zhu, J., Hu, S., Wang, J., & Zheng, X. (2020). Future orientation promotes climate
961 concern and mitigation. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 262, 1–10. doi:
962 10.1016/j.jclepro.2020.121212