

# I overthink—therefore I am not: An Active Inference Account of Altered Sense of Self and Agency in Depersonalisation Disorder

Authors: Anna Ciaunica\*<sup>1,2,3</sup>, Anil Seth<sup>4,5</sup>, Jakub Limanowski<sup>6,7</sup>, Casper Hesp<sup>8,9,10,11</sup> Karl J. Friston<sup>8</sup>

**Corresponding Author: Anna Ciaunica\* – [a.ciaunica@ucl.ac.uk](mailto:a.ciaunica@ucl.ac.uk)**

1 Centre for Philosophy of Science, University of Lisbon, Campo Grande, 1749-016 Lisbon, Portugal

2 Institute of Philosophy, University of Porto, via Panoramica s/n 4150-564, Porto Portugal

3 Institute of Cognitive Neuroscience, University College London, WC1N 3AR, London, UK

4. Sackler Centre for Consciousness Science and School of Engineering and Informatics, University of Sussex, Brighton, BN1 9QJ, UK

5. Canadian Institute for Advanced Research (CIFAR) Program on Brain, Mind, and Consciousness, Toronto, Ontario, Canada

6. Lifespan and Developmental Neuroscience, Faculty of Psychology, Technical University Dresden, 01069 Dresden

7. Centre for Tactile Internet with Human-in-the-Loop CeTI – Cluster of Excellence, Technical University Dresden, 01062 Dresden

8. Wellcome Centre for Human Neuroimaging, University College London, WC1N 3AR, London, UK

9. Department of Developmental Psychology, University of Amsterdam, Science Park 904, 1098 XH Amsterdam, Netherlands

10. Amsterdam Brain and Cognition Centre, University of Amsterdam, Science Park 904, 1098 XH Amsterdam, Netherlands

11. Institute for Advanced Study, University of Amsterdam, Oude Turfmarkt 147, 1012 GC Amsterdam, Netherlands

## **Abstract:**

This paper considers the phenomenology of depersonalisation disorder, in relation to predictive processing and its associated pathophysiology. To do this, we first establish a few mechanistic tenets of predictive processing that are necessary to talk about phenomenal transparency, mental action, and self as subject. We briefly review the important role of ‘predicting precision’ and how this affords mental action and the loss of phenomenal transparency. We then turn to sensory attenuation and the phenomenal consequences of (pathophysiological) failures to attenuate or modulate sensory precision. We then consider this failure in the context of depersonalisation disorder. The key idea here is that depersonalisation disorder reflects the remarkable capacity to explain perceptual engagement with the world via the hypothesis that “I am an embodied perceiver, but I am not in control of my perception”. We suggest that individuals with depersonalisation may believe that ‘another agent’ is controlling their thoughts, perceptions or actions, while maintaining full insight that

48 the 'other agent' *is* 'me' (the self). Finally, we rehearse the predictions of this formal analysis,  
49 with a special focus on the psychophysical and physiological abnormalities that may  
50 underwrite the phenomenology of depersonalisation.

51  
52 Keywords: sense of self, agency, sensory attenuation, active inference, predictive processing,  
53 depersonalisation

54

55

## 56 Introduction

57  
58 *“If I quieten my mind, I can still almost taste the colour and richness of life as I knew*  
59 *it before that point; the feeling of being your own agent of change, the feeling of*  
60 *plotting a course through life, and the sense of expectation”.* (Ciaunica & Charlton  
61 2018).  
62

63  
64 In daily life, our brains constantly receive a cascade of sensory information arising from both  
65 inside our bodies and our lived environment. For most of us, most of the time, these  
66 experiences seem to be tacitly accompanied by a *sense of self* – a sense of being an embodied  
67 agent within a world, among but distinct from others (Gallagher 2000; Zahavi 2008, Hohwy  
68 2007; Limanowski and Blankenburg 2013, Seth 2013). Everyday experience also seems to  
69 involve experiences of *agency*; namely, the feeling that I am in control of my own bodily  
70 actions, that I can leverage them to access and change the external world’ (Gallagher 2000;  
71 Haggard 2017).  
72

73 Depersonalisation Disorder (DPD henceforth) is a condition characterised by profound  
74 alterations of one’s sense of self (Sierra & David 2011), typically inducing distressing  
75 feelings of detachment or estrangement from one’s self (depersonalization) and/or one’s  
76 surroundings (derealisation) (DSM IV-TR fourth edition, text revision 2000)<sup>1</sup>.  
77

78 Described already by Dugas in 1898 (Berrios and Sierra 1997), these dramatic alterations are  
79 typically experienced as a ‘split’ or a ‘fracture’ between a detached ‘witness’ or an observing  
80 agent, and an observed acting self, body and world: *“When I’m having an episode of*  
81 *depersonalisation, it feels more like I’m watching myself doing things, but I’m not present for*  
82 *it. I’m witnessing myself... I ‘know’ I’m in control, but I’m not ‘feeling’ in control”* (Perkins  
83 2021:44). Or : *“My perception felt as though it had been drawn back inside my head, almost*  
84 *as though I was looking at the world from the back of my head, and could see the back of my*  
85 *own eye sockets. (...) Essentially, it felt like there was a divorce or fracture between the world*  
86 *and me so that although my body was still in the world, my mind was only an observer”*  
87 (Ciaunica et al. 2020: 6).  
88

89  
90 The experience of a self-split can manifest as a self-detachment from (a) one’s body or body  
91 parts (low-level sensory and bodily aspects of the self); (b) one’s subjective feelings and  
92 emotions (affective aspects); and (c) one’s personal stories, memories, thoughts and future  
93 plans, often described by sufferers as a lack of a narrative or a ‘plot’ in one’s life (see Simeon  
94 and Abugel 2006; Sierra 2009; Billon 2016; Ciaunica & Charlton 2018). The overall impact  
95 of this ‘self-split’ makes people feel “not fully real” (Simeon and Abugel 2006; Medford  
96 2012), and living on ‘automatic pilot’ (Perkins 2021).  
97

98 DPD often co-occurs in relation to traumatic events, severe stress and are associated with  
99 symptoms of anxiety, panic, and depression (Hunter et al., 2004; Michal et al. 2016; Lyssenko

---

<sup>1</sup> The other major classificatory system used in contemporary psychiatry is the ICD-10 (International Classification of Diseases, World Health Organization). While there are some important differences between DSM and ICD (e.g., the latter list DPD under neurotic disorders), both they largely agree upon the diagnostic criteria for DPD, which are the following: a) persistent symptoms of DP/DR not occurring as part of another disorder or be directly substance-induced; b) the individual should not be suffering from psychosis (which would imply a different diagnosis, such as schizophrenia). DSM adds the criterion c) there should be significant distress and/or functional impairment. This seems appropriate, as otherwise it is hard to argue that the phenomena can usefully be seen as pathological (Medford et al. 2005).

100 et al. 2018; Millman et al. 2021). The prevalence of DPD is around 1-2% in the general  
101 population (Hunter et al. 2004), with onset typically occurring before age 25. Strikingly,  
102 feelings of depersonalization are the third most common psychological symptom reported in  
103 the general population (after anxiety and low mood), especially among young people (Simeon  
104 et al. 2003). Yet its underlying neurocomputational mechanisms, and therefore, the link  
105 between biology and phenomenological markers remains poorly understood (see Seth et al.,  
106 2011 for an early attempt).

107  
108 In this paper we propose a novel conceptual model of disrupted sense of selfhood in DPD  
109 through the lens of the active inference framework (AIF henceforth). We suggest that failures  
110 of somatosensory attenuation and consequent abnormal percepts—and beliefs—may  
111 underwrite aberrant self-model in DPD. This may lead to a disruption of agentic control over  
112 both (sensory attention) perception and (sensory attenuation) action, triggering abnormal  
113 perceptions, and consequent aberrant beliefs of self-detachment.

114  
115 AIF is a process theory that aims to capture the capacity of biological organisms such as  
116 human bodies to survive and thrive in volatile environments (Friston et al., 2017). It builds  
117 upon the Free Energy Principle (FEP) (Friston 2005), i.e., a formalisation and extension of the  
118 Schrödinger's (1956) seminal idea that living organisms avoid entropy, by engaging in self-  
119 organisation with the goal of maintaining their homeostasis<sup>2</sup> within optimal limits for survival  
120 (Clark 2013; Hohwy 2013). Within this framework, it has been proposed that the experience  
121 of a self is underwritten by an inferential hierarchy, whereby the self is an inferred model of  
122 endogenous, deeply hidden causes of behaviour (Seth 2013; Apps & Tsakiris 2014).

123 Embodied agents act as self-modelling systems in the game of maximizing evidence for their  
124 self-model (Limanowski & Blankenburg 2013; Limanowski and Friston 2018, 2020; Hohwy  
125 2016).

126  
127  
128 Importantly however, the homeostatic balance of a self-organising system crucially depends  
129 on the system's ability to engage with their environment, and cannot be achieved in isolation  
130 from it. Allostasis or anticipatory homeostatic control, is the process whereby agents select  
131 actions that (will most probably) bring about desired sensory outcomes, explicitly or  
132 implicitly modifying the causal structure of the environment, so as to guarantee the recurrence  
133 of desired outcomes in the future (Sterling 2012).

134  
135  
136  
137 The emphasis on the dynamic component of the selfhood is key for our argument. While  
138 previous predictive processing approaches outlined the interoceptive (i.e., the perception of  
139 visceral signals, Craig 2002; Seth 2012) or affective facets of selfhood (Gerrans 2018; 2020),  
140 our model takes into account the idea that the human body cannot achieve self-regulation  
141 without maintaining and engaging in active exchanges with its proximal environment ( De  
142 Jaegher & di Paolo 2017; Ciaunica et al. 2021c). Crucially, unlike internal processing of  
143 automatic homeostatic regulation of visceral inputs—over which we have little control (e.g.  
144 we do not typically choose whether our heart will beat, or our bowels will make a noise)—the

---

<sup>2</sup> Homeostasis is defined as “the regulation by an organism of the chemical composition of its body fluids and other aspects of its internal environment so that physiological processes can proceed at optimum rates. It involves monitoring changes in the external and internal environments by means of receptors and adjusting the composition of the body fluids accordingly; excretion and (osmotic) regulation are important in this process” (Martin and Hine 2000).

145 process of taking action in the world to secure survival is something that agents *can* control.  
146 Hence, the sense of self and agency in typical humans may be inextricably linked to the  
147 ability to feel in control over one’s bodily self, engaging in actions and movement ‘out there’  
148 in the world.

149  
150  
151 Given that our bodily self is not a static and closed entity, but rather a dynamic and open  
152 system, literally constituted in relation to a proximal environment (Ciaunica & Fotopoulou  
153 2017; Ciaunica et al. 2021c) then somatosensory attenuation becomes a key part of the story  
154 of understanding how the self emerges as differentiated and yet related to its surroundings.

155  
156 Indeed, in order to successfully prepare and engage in perception and action ‘out there’ in the  
157 world, the human brain needs to be able to attenuate and process much self-related  
158 information ‘transparently’, in the background; e.g., bodily signals (Limanowski and Friston  
159 2018; Ciaunica et al. 2020). For example, in order to catch a ball, I need to be able to rely on  
160 fast and automatic somatosensory processing of my leg movements, i.e., ‘doing’ the running  
161 ‘without thinking’. The fact that I do not pay explicit attention to my leg movements while  
162 running does not mean that my brain is not keeping track of them. It simply means that it does  
163 the task so well, processing somatosensory information so smoothly, that I can afford to  
164 process it in the background, allowing me to successfully focus on salient events: catching the  
165 ball. It should be noted that, of course, not all kinds of self-related information are attenuated  
166 or ‘transparent’. On the contrary: the mere ability to make self-related representations  
167 ‘opaque’ is what may enable conceptual, narrative, or reflective self-experiences—it is in  
168 parts what makes human self-experience unique (cf. Metzinger, 2004). But this mechanism  
169 can go awry: If self-modelling is thus altered (i.e., disrupted somatosensory attenuation) this  
170 may lead to aberrant self-focus, i.e., the experience of a self-detachment or split between the  
171 ‘I’ who is doing the running, and the ‘I’ who is observing the running.

172  
173 If our hypotheses are correct, then depersonalisation symptoms, although typically couched as  
174 “losing” one’s sense of self, may be the linked, on the contrary, to an inability to attenuate  
175 self-related inputs and hence to ‘forget’ the self in the background. Alterations in the ability to  
176 attenuate self-related information in order to optimally perceive, engage and act in the world  
177 may further lead to increased reflexivity or ‘hyper-reflexivity’ (Parnas & Sass, 2003; Fuchs  
178 2005; Ciaunica et al. 2020). In our example: over-attending to one’s leg movements while  
179 running may prompt people to detach themselves from the action, and see themselves from  
180 ‘above’. As we will see below, this bias towards self-related over-thinking and hyper-  
181 reflexivity, offsets diminished body-related processing. This hypothesis is consistent with  
182 subjective reports outlining feelings of being simultaneously trapped in one’s head (mind) and  
183 outside one’s body (disembodiment) ( Ciaunica et al. 2020; Ciaunica et al. 2021a). Perhaps  
184 paradoxically, this imbalance may entail an abnormal elevation of higher-order self-related  
185 processing, rather than a ‘loss’ of the sense of self.

186  
187  
188 We unpack these hypotheses below as follows. In section 1 we briefly introduce the notions  
189 of somatosensory attenuation and transparent pre-reflective self. We then move in section 2 to  
190 present the active inference conceptual toolbox and its relation to the sense of self and the  
191 sense of agency over one’s actions. Sections 3 and 4 develop and motivate the claim that  
192 disrupted sensory attenuation and aberrant self-focus may trigger a ‘split’ in the sense of  
193 agentive control over one’s own perceptions and actions in DPD. We show how this is  
194 intimately related to the attentional augmentation and attenuation of sensory precision in the

195 setting of active inference. We then connect these claims with the phenomenology of  
196 depersonalisation symptoms focusing on phenomenal transparency and qualitative  
197 experience. We conclude with a non-exhaustive list of testable predictions that our hypotheses  
198 imply. We also suggest some potential therapeutical implications of our approach that could  
199 usefully be explored, with the aim of improving the day-to-day life of people experiencing  
200 this distressing condition.

201  
202

## 203 **1 The Importance of ‘Self-Attenuating’:** 204 **Somatosensory Attenuation and the Transparent** 205 **Pre-reflective Self**

206  
207  
208

209 When picking a ripe cherry from a tree to borrow an example from Limanowski and  
210 colleagues (2020), we seem to be quite sensitive to the feel of the cherry, as we touch and  
211 grasp it. Yet we are almost insensitive to the feelings of our arm and eye movements while  
212 reaching the cherry, despite the fact these signals are essential in ensuring we successfully  
213 pick the ripe cherry, and not the green one next to it. Somatosensation (from ‘soma’ (body) +  
214 sensation) is an umbrella term referring to processing of tactile, thermic, proprioceptive,  
215 pleasure and pain signals through neural receptors in the skin. In our example, somatosensory  
216 information would include a set of signals about both the tactile perception of the cherry  
217 (softness, humidity, etc.) and the perception of one’s body in space and movement (position  
218 of fingers, kinaesthetic trajectory of the arm, etc.).

219

220 Seminal studies illustrated that we automatically anticipate the sensory effects of self-initiated  
221 actions (Post et al. 1994; Wolpert & Kawato 1998), which explains why people typically  
222 cannot tickle themselves (Blakemore et al., 1998). There is mounting psychophysiological  
223 and brain imaging evidence for this requisite attenuation of somatosensation during and prior  
224 to action is typically accompanied by a decrease in the primary somatosensory cortex  
225 responses (Bays et al. 2005; Voss et al. 2006; Palmer et al. 2016)<sup>3</sup>. These findings suggest that  
226 sensory attenuation plays a key role in action-initiation (Brown, Adams et al. 2013, Hughes,  
227 Desantis et al. 2013, Parees, Brown et al. 2014, Oestreich, Mifsud et al. 2015, Zeller, Litvak  
228 et al. 2015, Bhatt, Bowen et al. 2016).

229

230

231 The close relationship between somatosensory attenuation, top-down precision control, and  
232 the flexible updating of body representation has been documented in scenarios like  
233 visuomotor adaptation and visuo-proprioceptive integration under conflict (see Limanowski,  
234 2021, for a review). "Importantly, somatosensory attenuation is key for building multisensory  
235 bodily-self representations, especially when sensory signals from multiple sensory modalities  
236 are conflicting (Paton, Hohwy et al. 2012, Zeller, Litvak et al. 2015, Limanowski and Friston  
237 2020). It has been argued that attenuation of self-generated inputs gives rise to the feeling that  
238 one is in control of one’s own actions, or the sense of agency (Gallagher 2002; Leptourgos &

---

<sup>3</sup> At higher levels of the somatosensory hierarchy, it is not clear whether an attention or an enhancement of ascending sensory information may be at work. It has been proposed that these higher-level regions are the best candidates for an implementation of action-dependent weighting of self-generated versus externally caused somatosensory components (e.g., Edwards, et al. 2012; Parees et al. 2014).

239 Corlett 2020). Thus, it has been proposed that somatosensory attenuation (Haggard, 2017),  
240 and, generally, the comparison of predicted and actual somatosensory feedback underpins the  
241 distinction between oneself and the world (Frith et al., 2000; Blakemore and Frith, 2003;  
242 Fletcher and Frith, 2009); and specifically, self-other distinction (Haggard, 2017). While the  
243 relationship between sensory attenuation and the sense of agency is complex (Seth et al.,  
244 2012), it has been shown that agency over movements that generate sensation may be  
245 necessary for sensory attenuation to occur (Desantis et al. 2012; Gentsch & Schutz-Bosback  
246 2011).

247  
248

249 According to a longstanding phenomenological tradition, all our experiences imply a pre-  
250 reflective self or a ‘minimal self’ that makes my experiences immediately and tacitly given as  
251 *mine* (Merleau-Ponty 1962; Zahavi 2005; Fuchs 2015). Importantly, pre-reflective self-  
252 consciousness should not be regarded as an extra layer added to the on-going experience;  
253 rather it essentially constitutes the very mode of being of *any* conscious experience (Sartre  
254 1943/1956). In other words, there cannot be an experience without a pre-reflective self at its  
255 very core.

256

257 Interestingly, this classic phenomenological approach echoes recent trends in mind and brain  
258 research stipulating that our perceptions, cognitions and actions are geared towards *self*-  
259 preservation (Panksepp, 1998; Wolpert & Kawato 1998; Gallagher 2000; Thompson 2007;  
260 Northoff & Panksepp, 2008; Barrett & Simmons 2015; Ciaunica & Fotopoulou 2017; Seth &  
261 Tsakiris, 2018; Azzalini et al. 2019). By maintaining and regulating the physiological needs  
262 and integrity of the organism (the human body), perceptual and sensory awareness at the most  
263 basic sensory level is inherently “selfish” (Seth & Tsakiris, 2018; Ciaunica & Crucianelli,  
264 2019; Seth, 2021). A comprehensive review of this rich literature—on the different facets of  
265 the selfhood—lies beyond the scope of this paper (see Gallagher 2013; Allen & Friston 2016;  
266 Quin et al. 2020 for a review).

267

268 For our discussion here we retain the idea that a self-organising system such as the human  
269 body is most intimately acquainted with *self*-related signals. This means that the problem the  
270 brain has to solve is often “not which sensory evidence to *emphasise*, but which to *attenuate*  
271 “(Parr et al. 2018)” (Limanowski & Friston 2020:8, original italics) in order to optimally act  
272 in the world. This is because survival of an open and vulnerable self-organising system—such  
273 as the human body—depends on the ability to engage in homeostatic and allostatic regulation,  
274 via active exchange with one’s surroundings (Sterling 2016; Allen & Friston 2016).

275

276

277 This means that the most basic parts of the self-model are unique, in the sense that they are  
278 “necessarily transparent” (Limanowski & Friston 2018). Transparency is an interesting and  
279 peculiar property of our experiences which has been theoretically spelled out in different  
280 ways by different theorists (Moore 1903; Harman 1997; Tye 1999; Metzinger 2003; Fuchs  
281 2005; Ciaunica et al; 2020) and a detailed review of these accounts<sup>4</sup> lies beyond the scope of  
282 this paper. In a nutshell, transparency can be intuitively grasped via the so-called ‘window’

---

<sup>4</sup> For example, representationalists argue that while we typically have access only the representation’s intentional content (something in the world which it’s about) without noticing its non-intentional carrier properties (Moore 1903; Harman 1990; Tye 1999), the process itself of constructing inner representations can become available to our introspective attention. Whenever we consciously direct our attention introspectively inwards, so to speak, the transparent processing of mental representations (typically taken for granted and hence “invisible”) becomes “opaque”, that is, “visible” and available to our attention (cf. the window metaphor described above).

283 metaphor. For example: a perfectly clear and transparent window glass or sliding door can  
284 give us the illusion of an unmediated access to a landscape, say. The landscape seems present  
285 and reachable paradoxically because the window’s glass is transparent, invisible and taken for  
286 granted: it is there without us being aware that it is there. However, in some cases, as we will  
287 see later, one *can* become aware of the existence of the invisible and mediating transparency  
288 of the window itself so to speak. Indeed, suppose there is a crack in the pane of glass. Two  
289 important observations emerge here: a) first, we become aware of the cracked window itself  
290 as a *visible* observable entity: we realize that there was something there without us being  
291 aware of its presence in the first place. b) Second, while the cracks in the window’s glass  
292 make the latter visible, they also make our access to the landscape more ‘opaque’ or  
293 ‘mediated’. We may still perceive the outer landscape through the cracked window, but its  
294 clarity is hindered. Now we are aware that something stands in the way, and disrupts our full  
295 immersion into the reality of the landscape. In sum, two key points are to be retained: (a) the  
296 property of transparency enables the subjective feeling that we are in immediate contact with  
297 our self and the world, and (b) that consequently both self and world are felt as being real and  
298 present.

299  
300  
301 Importantly, this idea can be applied to self-modelling as well : “just as a transparent world-  
302 model grants the experience of being in immediate touch with the world, a transparent  
303 phenomenal self-model...affords the experience of being in immediate relation to a self”  
304 (Metzinger, 2003; Limanowski & Friston 2018, p. 2.). We call this basic default-mode of self-  
305 processing ‘transparent self-modelling’, as developed below. We postulate that this may  
306 correspond to the pre-reflective self as defined by the phenomenological tradition (Sartre  
307 1943; Fuchs 2005).

308  
309 In what follows, we rehearse the key concepts of self- and world-modelling, ‘precision’ and  
310 ‘precision weighting’ and review suggestions that aberrant precision control may disrupt the  
311 ability to infer accurate self- and world models in various conditions. We then turn to the case  
312 of DPD (section 3) and suggest that aberrant precision estimation—biased towards ego-  
313 centric priors—means that the luxury to engage in transparent self-modelling is denied. We  
314 turn to this discussion now.

315  
316  
317  
318

## 319 **2 Prediction (Im)Precision: Altered Self-Models** 320 **through an Active Inference Lens**

321  
322  
323 Active inference draws on von Helmholtz’s (2005) seminal idea the brain constructs a mental  
324 representation of sensory inputs via perceptual inference, whereby prior percepts  
325 automatically shape the percept that is generated by the incoming sensory information. This  
326 idea has inspired the modern approach of perception as predictive processing (Rao & Ballard  
327 1999; Knill & Pouget 2004; Friston 2005; Clark 2013; Hohwy 2013). As we saw earlier, the  
328 most ‘newsworthy’ and pervasive information that our brain receives and needs to process  
329 optimally is *self*-related information.

330  
331

332 Within this framework, self- and world-modelling is organised in a dynamic and hierarchical  
333 fashion. Prior beliefs<sup>5</sup> about the self and world generate predictions that are conveyed by the  
334 top-down (backward) connections to lower hierarchical levels. Bottom-up (forward  
335 connections) return prediction errors to update prior beliefs — into posterior beliefs — until  
336 prediction errors are explained away by ensuing belief updating. In a hierarchical setting, this  
337 enables sensory input at the lowest level of the hierarchy to be assimilated through prediction.  
338 Posterior beliefs are hypotheses concerning the causes of sensory input at any hierarchical  
339 level that therefore rest on (1) *prior beliefs* about the self and world and (2) *current sensory*  
340 *evidence* gathered from a volatile and ever-changing environment.

341  
342 In updating the self- and world-models in order to optimally adapt within a dynamic and  
343 potentially threatening world, much depends on the ‘*precision*’ of the prior prediction and the  
344 sensory prediction error induced by sensations. Prior beliefs and sensory data are represented  
345 as probability distributions with (a) mean value (expectations) and (b) precision (inverse  
346 variance). Now, if prediction errors are based on precise sensory data and relatively imprecise  
347 prior beliefs, the mean of the posterior will be closer to the mean of the sensory data. By  
348 contrast, if sensory information is deemed imprecise, posterior beliefs will be much closer to  
349 prior beliefs. This means that predictions of precision—or predictions of predictability—can  
350 have a profound effect on hierarchical belief updating in the brain.

351  
352 Because of the inherent volatility of the incoming sensory information from both inside and  
353 outside one’s body, the process of updating self- and world-modelling needs to be flexible  
354 enough to allow the system to assess which input is more ‘trustworthy’. Now, in updating  
355 one’s self- and world-models, much depends on the relative precision of expectations versus  
356 sensory evidence. Fine-tuning the weighting of prior beliefs and sensory evidence is often  
357 called *precision weighting*, which translates to selectively attending to (or ignoring) particular  
358 sources of evidence. Note that precision control has a fundamental role in the construction of  
359 self-representations. The challenge that an adaptive living organism faces is to ‘decide on the  
360 fly’ whether the weight of the balance—the ‘gain’ of the updating process—is afforded to the  
361 (a) sensory evidence from various modalities or (b) to the prior beliefs (or expectations) that  
362 have to explain the sensory inputs.

363  
364 It is important to note that the system is also trying to predict precision. Precision weighting  
365 has been linked to *attention* as the process of affording precision to (i.e., placing confidence  
366 in) certain aspects of the sensorium (Feldman and Friston 2010; Hohwy 2019). Precision  
367 optimisation is a mechanism that allocates ‘weight’ or ‘gain’ either to sensory input or  
368 prediction errors higher in the hierarchy. Given that precision-weighted works as a kind of  
369 ‘searchlight’, this makes it a “promising candidate for the mechanism for *attention*“ (Hohwy  
370 2019:9, original italics). Indeed, the precision of sensory data and prior beliefs is not fixed: it  
371 can be optimized by attention to best reflect uncertainty about their contribution in any given  
372 context. In short, attention may be underpinned by (context sensitive) mechanisms assigning  
373 greater or lesser precision to prediction errors at various levels of the hierarchical processing.

374  
375 The other side of this coin is the attenuation of sensory precision that undergirds sensory  
376 attenuation. This selective *dis-attention* may be a crucial faculty that enables us to ignore  
377 sensory evidence that we have not acted, when we think we are acting. This transient  
378 suspension of attention to the consequences of action enables reflexes to realise our predicted  
379 (i.e., intended) actions in both motor and autonomic domains. In short, precision optimisation  
380 plays a key role in action-initiation. In acting, the agent simultaneously generates a prediction

---

<sup>5</sup> The terms ‘prior beliefs’, ‘expectations’, ‘predictions’ are used here interchangeably.

381 of the sensory input expected to result from the intended movement, and ‘self-fulfils’ this  
382 prediction by *doing* the movement. This involves successful suppression of the prediction  
383 errors that would otherwise subvert movement: namely, provide irrefutable evidence that “I  
384 am not moving”, despite my prior belief or intention to move (Friston et al. 2010; Adams et  
385 al. 2013; Brown et al. 2013; Seth & Friston 2016).

386  
387 What happens if the process of precision estimation itself gets disrupted? For example, what  
388 happens if the precision weighting gets ‘stuck’ and tilts systematically towards one of the two  
389 branches (i.e., bottom-up sensory evidence or top-down prior belief) at various hierarchical  
390 levels? Such aberrant precision control precludes the flexibility afforded by an adaptive  
391 modulation of ascending prediction errors, typically associated with optimal synaptic gain  
392 control and successful belief updating. More importantly, as we will see shortly, disruptions at  
393 the level of precision prediction means that we no longer have the luxury to ‘ignore’ or dis-  
394 attend certain levels of the hierarchical processing of the self-model (i.e., we lose the ability to  
395 see the sensorium for what it is).

396  
397  
398 The idea that aberrant precision control disrupts the ability to infer accurate self- and world  
399 models—thereby triggering abnormal perceptions and beliefs—has been linked to various  
400 conditions (see Heinz and Schlagenhauf 2010; Corlett and Fletcher 2015; Friston 2017,  
401 Sterzer, Adams et al. 2018, Smith, Lane et al. 2019).

402  
403 For example, it has been suggested that prior knowledge about the world is under-emphasized  
404 relative to incoming sensory information in patients with autistic spectrum condition (ASC).  
405 The primary source of these alterations however remains an open question: some authors  
406 argue for attenuated priors (Karaminis et al., 2016; Pellicano and Burr, 2012a; 2012b; Powell  
407 et al., 2016), while others argue for aberrant weighting of sensory inputs (Karvelis et al.,  
408 2018; Lawson et al., 2014; Palmer et al., 2017; Brock, 2012; Van de Cruys et al., 2013).  
409 These views may be compatible if the emphasis is placed at different levels at the hierarchical  
410 processing depending on the targeted phenomenon (e.g., sound processing, tactile perception,  
411 memory, emotion, etc.)

412  
413 A recent study suggested that apathy—a pathological lack of motivation to initiate purposeful  
414 actions—results from imprecise prior beliefs about the consequences of action (Hezemans et  
415 al. 2020:8). The authors found that higher traits of apathy were associated with lower  
416 precision of prior beliefs about action outcomes and suggested that this loss leads to an  
417 impairment of goal-directed behaviour (cf. Friston et al., 2010, 2014).

418  
419 In a similar vein, depression has been linked to a shift in the (precision of) prior beliefs about  
420 self-efficacy, as a consequence of prolonged interoceptive surprise (Stephan et al., 2016;  
421 Barrett et al. 2016; Badcock et al. 2017). In this view, fatigue<sup>6</sup> might initially represent an  
422 adaptive response to unexpected sensory input about metabolic states or bodily integrity (i.e.,  
423 dyshomeostasis), in the sense that it promotes passivity and rest, while chronic  
424 dyshomeostasis leads to a generalized belief of lack of control, as in “learned helplessness”  
425 (Stephan et al., 2016).

426  
427

---

<sup>6</sup> This model of fatigue and depression is separable from the model of apathy mentioned above, as individual differences in behaviour are accounted for by variation in the prior mean or prior precision, respectively (Stephan & Mathys, 2014).

428 Crucially, disrupted precision balance has been related to disorders of selfhood such as  
429 psychosis and schizophrenia. For example, there are current debates regarding psychosis as  
430 linked to an increased or decreased precision in the encoding of prior beliefs relative to the  
431 sensory evidence (c.f., a failure of sensory attenuation), thereby engendering maladaptive  
432 inferences (e.g., misattribution of one’s voice to an ‘other’) (Corlett et al 2006, Corlett et al  
433 2007, Corlett et al 2009, Fletcher & Frith 2009; Sterzer et al. 2018). While further work is  
434 needed to disentangle these aspects, one may speculate that these approaches are compatible  
435 insofar as different experimental designs tackle distinct levels of the hierarchical processing.  
436 For example, if one endorses a developmental perspective in understanding the “first priors”  
437 (Ciaunica et al. 2021b), then one may argue that different senses (e.g., tactile versus visual  
438 inputs) may have preferential access to higher levels of the hierarchy. For example, affiliative  
439 touch may be afforded more precision than visual afferents, and this may trigger distinct  
440 precision weighting at further levels of hierarchical processing.

441  
442 A significant body of work found that sensory attenuation is also reduced in schizophrenia,  
443 yet another dissociative condition (Blakemore et al. 2000; Brown et al. 2013; Shergill et al.  
444 2005; Fletcher & Frith 2009). More specifically, this deficit transpires to be a failure of  
445 sensory attenuation that can be attributed to aberrant precision control that confounds  
446 inference about the causes of self-generated sensations (Brown, Adams et al. 2013, Parees,  
447 Brown et al. 2014, Oestreich, Mifsud et al. 2015). Failures of sensory attenuation mean that  
448 the percepts of schizophrenic people can be less malleable and more veridical than controls;  
449 hence, their characteristic resistance to illusory phenomena. A key symptom of schizophrenia  
450 is aberrant perception of agency (Frith 2005) with the delusion that one’s actions are  
451 controlled by others. This has been linked to deficits in the patients’ generative model (Frith,  
452 2005), and an inability to retune their model to elude cognitive deficits and psychiatric  
453 symptoms (Kilteni et al. 2019).

454  
455  
456 In the remainder of this paper, we suggest that aberrant (pathophysiological) precision control  
457 underwrites a failure of somatosensory attenuation in DPD, which precludes the processing of  
458 self-generated sensations ‘transparently’ in the background. These disruptions may lead to  
459 feelings of ‘overthinking’, hyper-reflexivity, opacity and consequent lack of presence in the  
460 world or ‘realness’ of one’s experiences. Disconnection from one’s body may also explain the  
461 sensations of being unreal, and navigating through the world surrounded by a ‘pane of glass’,  
462 ‘experiential airbag’ or ‘opaque veil’ interposed between one’s self, body and the world  
463 (Simeon & Abugel, 2006; Sierra 2009; Ciaunica & Charlton, 2018).

### 466 **3 Over-inferencing the Self – from aberrant self-** 467 **modelling to agentive self-split**

468  
469 Previous work used the predictive processing framework to link DPD symptoms to  
470 pathologically imprecise interoceptive signalling – the perception of visceral signals (Craig  
471 2002) – which consequently fails to update higher-level beliefs and thus perpetuates a sense  
472 of ‘unrealness’ (Seth et al. 2011). More recently, impaired self-related affective processing  
473 has been advocated as core feature of DPD symptoms (Gerrans, 2018; 2020).

474  
475

476 Our proposal takes this line of work a step further and suggests that altered sense of self in  
477 DDD may be linked to disrupted self-modelling in relation to somatosensory attenuation of  
478 one's bodily self in action. We have seen above that sensory attenuation may underwrite a  
479 feeling that one is in control of one's perceptions and actions (i.e., feelings of agency): 'I infer  
480 that I am the agent of these sensed actions' because any evidence to the contrary is attenuated.  
481 To put it differently: in order to successfully engage in actions out there in the world, the  
482 brain needs to attenuate *self*-related information. Because self-related and self-generated  
483 inputs are so pervasive, in typical cases, they are processed "transparently", as highly  
484 predictable and hence 'boring' information. This relates nicely with previous work on why  
485 people typically cannot tickle themselves: self-generated action and perception is anticipated.  
486 The key idea is that in order to be able to focus on newsworthy information (e.g., there is an  
487 edible cherry within arm's reach), the brain can afford to process self-related information  
488 transparently in the background ( i.e., self-attenuation).

489  
490  
491 Now, let us imagine that the brain has to deal with high levels of imprecision or  
492 unpredictability on a constant basis. Consequently, self-related information is often taking the  
493 'headlines' of the newsworthy inputs, so to speak, and thus self-attenuation is impaired. For  
494 example, let us imagine you need to move in a radically new culture, where the levels of new  
495 information are significantly higher than before, and you have to constantly update your self-  
496 and world-models. Or you need to face constant stress related to a demanding work or study  
497 environment. Or you need to process a highly unexpected and traumatic event: you went for a  
498 ride with your partner, but you had a car crash and your partner died. Or you went to a party  
499 to have fun, you took some recreational drugs, but the changes in your perception are so  
500 radical that your brain is overwhelmed, and you experience panic attacks instead. All these  
501 experiences, although triggered by different type of events, have in common the fact that they  
502 involve high levels of uncertainty and unpredictability processing (either short and intense,  
503 either long and systematic), and hence a perceived loss of control over one's bodily self and  
504 actions.

505  
506  
507 Yet, as we saw earlier, one key idea within the active inference framework is that the brain's  
508 main task is to keep track of self-related information in order to ensure bodily survival.  
509 Consequently, if the latter is considered to be in danger, then the brain will allocate more  
510 computational resources to harvest this highly newsworthy information: endangered self-  
511 preservation. In typical cases, if I need to do a new and delicate task (e.g., opening a bottle of  
512 champagne for the first time), I may pay extra attention to my bodily actions and ensure I do  
513 not hurt my partner with the cork. But what if every single action I do in the world is  
514 perceived by my brain as new and potentially dangerous? What if I cannot afford to "forget"  
515 about my self, but rather I need to keep track of it constantly?

516  
517 Here, we propose that high levels of uncertainty and unpredictability may result in feelings of  
518 "losing control" over one's bodily self and actions, triggering compensatory sub-optimal  
519 mechanisms of over-control of one's self and bodily actions. Paradoxically however, as we  
520 saw earlier, sense of agency crucially depends on the ability to leave the self in the  
521 background (i.e., sensory attenuation).

522  
523  
524 Aberrant precision control—of ascending prediction errors—will lead the system, as a side-  
525 effect, to 'over-attend' to its own self-models. Going back to our initial metaphor: if there is a

526 loss of the window’s transparency, opacity will ensue and sensations are ‘experienced’.  
527 Considerable computational resources are mobilised during these situations, which shift the  
528 self-model from the ‘transparent’ invisible background to the visible and ‘opaque’ upfront.  
529 The resulting self-model in this case will most likely infer altered self-experiences and  
530 consequent hyper-reflexivity. At the experiential level, this process may correspond to what  
531 phenomenologists call ‘self-objectification’ (Fuchs 2005): by allocating extra resources to the  
532 processing of its own model, the self treats itself as an object to be controlled and ‘grasped’—  
533 very much like the cherry in the previous example  
534  
535

536 Crucially for our thesis, increasing sensory precision entails a reduction of sensory  
537 attenuation, which is especially prescient when modelling oneself. As Limanowski & Friston  
538 put the point: “The temporary attenuation of the precision of sensory “self-evidence” – which  
539 is necessary to entertain an alternative (and yet counterfactual, c.f., Seth 2014) hypothesis  
540 about myself – is effectively a form of “self-attenuation” (2020: 10).  
541  
542

543 It is important to retain that the fine-grained predictive model of the moment-to-moment  
544 changes in sensory input—that are expected on the basis of one’s own planned movement—  
545 usually attenuate the sensory consequences of action. This enables us to ignore the fact that  
546 we are not moving prior to the execution of a movement. If this sensory attenuation fails, the  
547 inability to ignore the sensory consequences of self-made acts may result in a false attribution  
548 of agency: i.e., ‘you did that, not me’ (Synofzik et al 2010, Voss et al 2010). Thus, the  
549 sensory consequences of one’s own actions generate unattenuated prediction errors that are  
550 read as evidence by the brain that this was not one’s own agentic movement (Sterger et al.  
551 2018). Indeed, as we saw above, a common feature of disorders of selfhood—such as  
552 psychosis and schizophrenia—is a perceived loss of agency: e.g., one’s actions and thoughts  
553 are experienced as controlled by external agents, the so-called passivity phenomena (Waters  
554 & Badcock 2010). For example, it has been argued that the fine-grained predictive model of  
555 the moment-to-moment changes in sensory input that are expected on the basis of one’s own  
556 planned movement is relatively imprecise (Synofzik et al 2010, Voss et al 2010). Thus, the  
557 sensory consequences of one’s own actions are associated with an unusually high prediction  
558 errors at this level, suggesting that this was not one’s own agentic movement (Sterger et al.  
559 2018). This hypothesis seems supported by several lines of evidence. For example, psychosis  
560 has been associated with a greater resistance to visual illusions (which rely on prior beliefs for  
561 their effects), a failure to attenuate sensory consequences of self-generated actions, impaired  
562 smooth visual pursuit of a moving target, but improved tracking of unpredictable changes in  
563 target motion, a decreased influence of stimulus predictability on brain responses [e.g., N400,  
564 P300, mismatch negativity; and a loss of corticothalamic connectivity (see Adams et al. 2013  
565 and Notredame et al. 2014 for reviews).<sup>7</sup>  
566  
567  
568

569 Our proposal is that failures of sensory attenuation in DPD may therefore disrupt the sense of  
570 agency over the perceived consequences of action. Indeed, if significant deviation from the  
571 predicted sensory consequences of my actions occurs—or sensory evidence is unattenuated  
572 before the consequences are sensed—then the most plausible explanation for the system may  
573 be that ‘I am not in control of my actions’, but ‘some other agent is’.

---

<sup>7</sup> There is also debate over the question whether a loss of prior precision (e.g., prefrontal hypoconnectivity) and gain in sensory precision (e.g., sensory hyperconnectivity) may indeed be two separate factors in the illness (see Sterzer et al. 2018).

574  
575 If this is so, then DPD may reflect the remarkable capacity to explain perceptual and active  
576 engagement with the world with two mutually exclusive but equally plausible hypotheses. (1)  
577 First, a hypothesis that the best explanation for all the evidence at hand is that “I am an  
578 embodied perceiver, and I am in control of my perceptual processing”. (2) The alternative  
579 hypothesis is that “I am an embodied perceiver, but I am not in control of my perceptual  
580 processing”. These permit a dissociation between controlled perception and the agency of that  
581 control.

582  
583 By treating self- and world-modelling itself as a process being controlled by a ‘self’, the latter  
584 is perceived simultaneously as being (a) an ‘other’ external agent; and (b) *my* internal self. An  
585 important corollary of having alternative self-models in play is that one immediately  
586 introduces uncertainty about which model is fit for purpose in explaining the sensory data.  
587 The capacity to entertain uncertainty about ‘what sort of self I am’, may also explain the  
588 stress and negative effective valence associated with depersonalisation. This follows from the  
589 fact that all the available evidence suggests that negatively valenced experiences and stress  
590 can be traced back to a loss of confidence or certainty in representations of how to engage  
591 actively with the world (Badcock, Davey et al. 2017, Peters, McEwen et al. 2017). In one  
592 sense, perhaps the most fundamental sort of anxiety and stress would be associated with the  
593 existential uncertainty about “the sort of self that I am”.

594  
595  
596 Our proposal is consistent with previous work highlighting a close relationship between  
597 anxiety and DPD (Simeon et al. 2003; Baker et al. 2003; Hunter et al. 2013; Michal et al.  
598 2016) although this link is complex and needs further investigation. For example, Sierra and  
599 colleagues assessed levels of anxiety and depersonalization in 291 consecutive DPD cases.  
600 'High' and 'low' depersonalization groups, were compared according to anxiety severity. They  
601 reported that a low but significant association between depersonalization and anxiety was  
602 only apparent in those patients with low intensity depersonalization, but not in those with  
603 severe depersonalization. A more recent study (Millman et al. 2021) assessed the extent to  
604 which symptom heterogeneity in DPD reflects the presence of five discrete latent classes (  
605 low-, moderate- and high DPD severity, High depersonalisation and High dissociation  
606 (Brown 2006). The authors found that anxiety was not a strong indicator of class differences  
607 within their sample. Specifically, all five classes were relatively comparable in anxiety scores  
608 with the exception of High severity class, which showed the most severe score. As the authors  
609 note, their findings are at odd with the study by Sierra and colleagues (2012) mentioned  
610 above. Further work needs to disentangle which aspects of DPD are intrinsically related to  
611 anxiety.

612  
613 In the last section, we explore potential links between the mechanisms subserving altered  
614 somatosensory attenuation in DPD and its associated phenomenology. We will then conclude  
615 with some testable hypotheses that our model entails, and future directions.

616  
617

## 618 **4 The Split ‘I’: Linking Mechanisms and** 619 **Phenomenology of Altered Somatosensory** 620 **Attenuation in Depersonalisation** 621

622  
623 Hitherto, we have seen that dealing with high levels of uncertainty may alter the brain's  
624 ability to attenuate self-related information, which in turn may lead to a compensatory  
625 emphasis on metacognitive, higher-level modes of self-awareness or 'hyper-reflexivity' (Sass  
626 & Parnas 2003; Fuchs 2005; Ciaunica et al. 2020). If one feels that things are 'out of control',  
627 the natural reaction is to try to regain control, by allocating extra perceptual and  
628 computational resources to ensure self-preservation (i.e. enhanced attention to the 'I'). This  
629 compensatory mechanism constitutes an optimal response to a potential threat, as long as it  
630 remains transient (e.g., "I pay extra attention while I open a bottle of champagne to ensure I  
631 will not harm myself and others"). However, prolonged allocation of extra perceptual and  
632 computational resources to the self—to the detriment of relating to the world and others—  
633 may result in feelings of being detached; not only from the world and others, but more  
634 importantly from one's self as well. This paradox may be explained by the fact that our sense  
635 of self is an open-ended process, constantly fuelled and transformed via dynamic exchanges  
636 with the physical and prosocial world. Impoverished exchanges with the environment and  
637 feelings of being 'cut off' from the outer world may lead not only to overly ruminative inner  
638 workings, but also to feelings of being 'cut off' from oneself (Ciaunica et al. 2021).

639  
640 At the experiential level, this process may correspond to what phenomenologists call 'self-  
641 objectification' accompanied by a loss of transparency of one's basic pre-reflective sense of  
642 self (Sass & Parnas 2003; Fuchs 2005). One could see this as a loss of phenomenal  
643 transparency, not concerning only the contents of perception, but regarding the normally  
644 transparent control of sensory attenuation and ensuing attention. The 'I' becomes overly self-  
645 aware and 'stands in the way'—so to speak—between the agent and its own bodily self and  
646 actions. Such an overt metacognitive self-awareness will contribute to a 'split' between the 'I'  
647 as a subject of an experience and the 'me' as an object of my awareness : "*I feel sometimes*  
648 *that it's not me who sees the things I see in a way. I know it's me, but it feels like my*  
649 *consciousness is somewhere else, as if I'm not experiencing the things I see"* (Værnes et al.  
650 2018: 202).

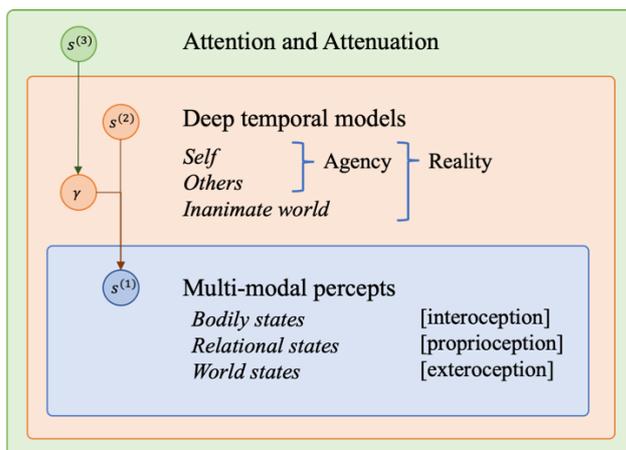
651  
652 Consistent with this view, an enhanced tendency towards obsessional self-checking of one's  
653 internal states has been consistently reported by DPD patients (Torch 1978; Hunter et al. 2003,  
654 2004; Medford et al. 2005; Simeon & Abugel 2006; Ciaunica, Pienkos et al. 2021). 'How do I  
655 feel now?', 'Who am I', 'Why do I feel the way I feel?': these existential, philosophical  
656 questions on the nature of the 'mind', 'self', 'existence' and 'reality' are quite common in DPD,  
657 who are often drawn to rumination and over-intellectualization of their inner workings.  
658 Patients' attention is monopolized by the strangeness of one's internal states, triggering  
659 simultaneously inner turmoil and non-responsiveness to external world (Hunter et al. 2003).

660  
661  
662 Here we hypothesize that alterations of the ability to attenuate self-related sensory processing  
663 are key to the pathophysiology of DPD. Our proposal is also consistent with previous work  
664 outlining that DPD may be related to a form of *pathological attentional bias* and atypical  
665 multisensory integration of self-related information, in which *aberrant salience* is misattributed  
666 either to internal (interoceptive) bodily signals or external (exteroceptive) information (Hunter  
667 et al. 2003; Medford 2012; Sass et al. 2013).

668  
669 To put it simply, depersonalization may be seen as a type of 'passivity phenomenon': if my  
670 perceived bodily sensations depart from my expectations all the time, I could start believing  
671 that they are not mine: c.f., delusions of control. However, I were able to downregulate my

672 confidence in my own expectations (i.e., a form of metacognition), I could maintain a higher-  
 673 level belief that I am still in control of my sensations, even though it does not feel like that: *I*  
 674 *feel like a robot, like I am listening to someone else talking, like I am looking at myself from*  
 675 *the outside, but it is not another voice or body - it is mine, it is me, it just doesn't feel like it.*"  
 676 (Baker et al., 2003). Interestingly, these observations are in line with previous research showing  
 677 that passivity symptoms can be linked to an altered sense of agency in schizophrenia patients.  
 678 For example, a stronger self-attribution bias—individuals' misperception of a limb as being  
 679 their own (Farrer et al. 2003; Tsakiris et al. 2005)—has been found in schizophrenia (Daprati  
 680 et al. 1997; Franck et al. 2001). Crucially however, while there is a significant overlap of  
 681 dissociative symptoms between depersonalization and psychosis (Sass et al. 2013), reality  
 682 testing remains intact in DPD.

683  
 684 The specific neural and computational mechanism behind a failure of sensory attenuation in  
 685 DPD is currently an open question. Here, we speculate that a core mechanism involves  
 686 imbalanced precision weighting towards self-priors, leading to the inability to flexibly update  
 687 the self- and world-models as new information is accumulated. These disruptions may be  
 688 linked with an aberrant higher precision allocated to internal milieu (e.g., interoceptive)  
 689 signals, resulting in enhanced self-focus and inability to attenuate self-induced stimulation  
 690 and actions. A detailed mathematical description of aberrant self-modelling in DPD is beyond  
 691 the scope of this paper and will be explored in future work (Authors et al., in prep. See Fig 1.).  
 692  
 693  
 694



695  
 696  
 697 Figure 1. This simplified generative model illustrates the inferential process of explaining *multi-modal percepts*  
 698 ( $s^{(1)}$ ; blue) in terms of *deep temporal models* ( $s^{(2)}$ ; orange) for which the precisions  $\gamma$  are set by higher-level  
 699 states of *attention and attenuation* ( $s^{(3)}$ ; green). Self and Others are models of agency (or intuitive psychology),  
 700 which often exhibit large degrees of overlap (Friston & Frith, 2015), while one's model of the inanimate world is  
 701 governed by intuitive physics (see Ullman et al., 2017). The highest level performs Bayesian model selection to  
 702 guide inferences about which combination of the deep temporal models (Friston et al., 2017) provides the best  
 703 explanation of the multi-modal percepts of one's body (interoception; Seth et al. 2013; Allen et al., 2019), world  
 704 (exteroception; Parr et al., 2019). For a computational implementation of Bayesian filtering with multiple  
 705 internal models, see the work by Isomura, Parr, & Friston (2019). Such models are temporally deep in the sense  
 706 that they involve Bayesian inference on multiple time scales (Ramstead, Badcock, & Friston, 2018; Hesp et al.,  
 707 2020): observations in 'real-time' inform beliefs about lower-level parameters (intermediate time scales), which  
 708 in turn allow for updating beliefs about higher-level parameters (successively larger time scales).  
 709  
 710

711 Our model builds upon the premise that adaptive behaviour depends on keeping an optimal  
 712 balance between top-down and bottom-up driven attention over self- and world-induced

713 sensory signals. The hypothesis that DPD seems to be imbalanced towards bottom-up modes  
714 is supported by evidence suggesting a stronger impact of exogenous attention and underlying  
715 neuronal abnormalities in these pathways in DPD (Corbetta & Shulman 2002; Simeon et al.  
716 2000). Empirical support for this disrupted bodily sensory processing comes from studies that  
717 demonstrate disrupted physiological responses in patients with DPD, compared to healthy  
718 participants ( Sierra et al., 2002; Dewe et al., 2018; Owens et al., 2015). Another study found  
719 altered attentional functioning at early sensory stages in depersonalisation (Adler et al. 2016)  
720 but not in anxiety-and depression-matched patients (Schabinger et al. 2018). DPD has also  
721 been linked to disrupted activity in neuronal regions underlying somatic processing (Lemche,  
722 Brammer, et al., 2013; Medford et al., 2016) and the vestibular system (Jáuregui Renaud,  
723 2015), which is responsible for providing information about the body's position in space  
724 (Ferre et al. 2014; Ferrè & Haggard, 2016).

725  
726

727 The core mechanistic pathophysiology of aberrant precision weighting underlies a number of  
728 specific hypotheses connecting this mechanism to the phenomenology of DPD.

729

730 First, a failure to attenuate interoceptive and exteroceptive self-related sensory signals would  
731 lead to an increase in interoceptive sensitivity and accuracy, to the detriment of a balanced  
732 and optimal coupling between signals coming from inside and outside one's body, which is  
733 considered to be a key component of bodily self-consciousness (Park & Blanke 2009). This  
734 may also transcend into the exteroceptive domain. For example, we anticipate that DPD  
735 correlates positively with over-sensitivity to visual and auditory sensory self-related signals  
736 (e.g., seeing one's face in a mirror, or hearing one's voice on a recorder). These alterations  
737 may trigger sub-optimal behaviours, which may lead to inhibitory, uncanny effects. As one  
738 patient with DPD puts it: "*The loss of the sense of self is a constantly perturbing experience.*  
739 *Looking at my face in the mirror feels like an uncomfortable staring contest with a total*  
740 *stranger*" (Perkins 2021:41). Intriguingly, these sensations of self-estrangement seem to be  
741 closely linked with feelings of disembodiment and detachment from the reality: "*I look in the*  
742 *mirror and it doesn't feel like myself I'm looking at. It's like I'm floating, not actually*  
743 *experiencing the world, and slowly fading away into nothing. It's like I'm on autopilot in*  
744 *somebody's else body*" (Perkins 2021 :198) (see also Simeon and Abugel 2006; Sierra 2009).

745

746

747

748 Second, given that aberrant somatosensory attenuation may lead to hyper-reflexivity and  
749 over-intellectualisation of one's experiences, we predict that people with depersonalisation  
750 will report to feel closer to their 'former' or 'normal' self during their dreams (Gillmeister &  
751 Ciaunica, in prep). This is because in their awake life, over-mentalization fuels abnormally  
752 their self-models, preventing them to feel fully in touch or immersed in their daily lives. By  
753 contrast, this hyper-reflexivity is diminished during the non-awake life, which should lead to  
754 an increase of their transparent self-modelling and consequent feelings of being again in touch  
755 with their 'former' self.

756

757 In fact, preliminary data from our ongoing studies suggest that people with high-levels of  
758 depersonalisation experiences will show a modulation of the magnitude of self-prioritization  
759 of self-associated bodily (avatar faces) versus abstract stimuli (geometrical shapes) in the  
760 sequential matching task (Woźniak et al. in prep; Woźniak, Kourtis, Knoblich, 2018;  
761 Woźniak, Hohwy, 2021). For example, several studies demonstrate that self-related stimuli  
762 (e.g., one's face or name) are processed faster and more accurately than others' names and

763 faces (Alexopoulos, et al. 2012; Woźniak & Hohwy, 2020). Specifically, our preliminary  
764 results indicate that depersonalisation individuals show less of the self-prioritization effect  
765 than the typical controls in the self-associated *bodily* task (avatar faces). However, they  
766 perform equally as the typical controls in the self-associated *abstract* task (geometrical  
767 shapes) (Woźniak et al. in prep). This is due to the fact that processing and integrations of  
768 bodily-related signals is impaired in DPD, while the processing of mentalistic (abstract) self-  
769 related processing is enhanced (hyper reflexivity). Along the same lines, the authors also  
770 found that activities involving high level and abstract cognitive abilities (e.g., participating in  
771 e-meetings via digital platforms such as Zoom, Teams, playing computer game, etc.) are  
772 positively correlated with higher levels of depersonalisation. By contrast, more basic and  
773 ‘humble’, body- and movement-based abilities (e.g., manual workings, physical exercise, etc.)  
774 will be positively correlated with low levels of depersonalisation (Ciaunica et al. 2021c).  
775 Again, experimental tests of these ideas will have to be carefully assessed in order to exclude  
776 potential confounding effects of demand characteristics (Lush et al. 2020; 2021).  
777  
778

779 Finally, one would anticipate that people with depersonalisation disorder should show failures  
780 of sensory attenuation. In other words, they will show reduced psychophysical and  
781 electrophysiological response to stimuli caused by self and other, in relation to typical  
782 controls. They will also show a different pattern of responsiveness regarding affective touch.  
783 From previous literature, gently stroking the skin at a medium velocity (3-10m/s, Löken et al.,  
784 2009) activates a special subclass of receptors that code for pleasant touch. We predict that  
785 people with high levels of depersonalisation experiences will rate affective touch experiences  
786 as significantly less pleasant and less vivid than the typical controls (Ciaunica et al. under  
787 review). As above, demand characteristics would again have to be controlled for, or ruled out,  
788 in experimental tests (Lush et al. 2020; 2021).  
789

790 Crucially, unlike in the case of psychosis, in DPD the meta-awareness state ‘It is I who  
791 experiences this split’ remains intact, which may explain why the depersonalisation patients  
792 don’t ‘buy’ into the self-detachment story itself, and remain dramatically aware of the  
793 subjective nature of the experienced split (i.e., reality testing intact). This intact awareness  
794 may explain why “the distressing complaints of patients with depersonalization do not seem  
795 to be accompanied by observable changes in behavior” (Sierra 2009:132). It is crucial  
796 however to better understand the experience of depersonalization because, as one person with  
797 DPD strikingly puts it “*a disorder that makes you feel invisible, is invisible in society*”  
798 (Perkins 2021:193).  
799  
800  
801

## 802 **Conclusion and Outlook**

803  
804 In this paper, we have examined some potential mechanisms behind an atypical sense of self  
805 and sense of agency in Depersonalisation Disorder (DPD), a condition in which people  
806 experience a ‘split’ or detachment from oneself, one’s body and the world.  
807

808 We used the Active Inference framework to argue that atypical self-modelling—underpinned  
809 by aberrant precision control and sub-optimal sensory attenuation—disrupts the *transparency*  
810 of basic, pre-reflective forms of self-awareness in Depersonalisation Disorder.  
811  
812

813 If our argument is correct, then future research could usefully assess whether active  
814 multisensory engagements with the world and others via body-based, dynamic proximal  
815 (tactile and olfactory) interactions enhance the sense of self, realness and presence in people  
816 with DPD. We hypothesise that close and dynamic physical and synchronous interactions  
817 with their environment will make DPD people feel more present in their bodies, and less  
818 ‘trapped’ in their minds. This is because, paradoxically, in order to get closer to oneself, one  
819 needs to feel safe enough to be able to ‘forget’ oneself, and to focus instead on (inter)acting  
820 with the world and others, via proximal multisensory interactions (Ciaunica et al. 2021).

821  
822

823 The emphasis thus needs to be placed on what connects us to ourselves and reality, as  
824 opposed to what separates us from it. As Ratcliffe insightfully notes: “talk of feeling detached  
825 from body and world might best express an all-pervasive feeling of estrangement but,  
826 importantly, that feeling is *itself* a way of experiencing the body-world relationship and so  
827 one has not actually escaped from body and world at all” (2008:131). We must thus use this  
828 fundamental openness to the world as a powerful tool to repair the ‘lost’ connectedness to  
829 oneself. For example, by training people to repair and adjust the overweighted balance  
830 towards the inner mentalistic self, by actively and dynamically engaging with their close  
831 sensory environment via their bodily self.

832

833 This observation is supported by self-reports from DPD individuals indicating that their  
834 dissociative experiences usually trigger distressing existential questions about the nature of  
835 their ‘self’, of the reality and the meaning of the existence itself. This existential questioning  
836 is, in most of the cases, overwhelming, and impede the individual to simply ‘be there’ and  
837 enjoy life and experiences directly, as they unfold. As a recovering DPD patient strikingly  
838 expresses it:

839

840 *“It came the moment where I realised that I was fully inhabiting every moment of my*  
841 *life, and that I couldn’t induce a feeling of depersonalisation if I tried. That was a*  
842 *moment of such indescribable joy, and it’s a memory that I try to hang on to when*  
843 *things get tough. I remember sitting at my tiny kitchen table in my studio flat, and not*  
844 *feeling the need to achieve or function or engage. I sat at the kitchen table for over an*  
845 *hour, just being. Just living”* (Ciaunica & Charlton 2018).

846

847

848

849

850

851

852

853

854

855

856

857

858

859

860

861

862

863  
864  
865

## 866 References

867  
868  
869  
870  
871  
872  
873  
874  
875  
876  
877  
878  
879  
880  
881  
882  
883  
884  
885  
886  
887  
888  
889  
890  
891  
892  
893  
894  
895  
896  
897  
898  
899  
900  
901  
902  
903  
904  
905  
906  
907  
908  
909  
910

- Ackner, B. (1954). Depersonalization. I. Aetiology and phenomenology. II. Clinical syndromes. *Journal of Mental Science*, 100, 838–872.
- Adams, R. A., Stephan, K. E., Brown, H. R., Frith, C. D., & Friston, K. J. (2013). The computational anatomy of psychosis. *Frontiers in psychiatry*, 4, 47.
- Allen, M., Friston K. (2016), From cognitivism to autopoiesis: towards a computational framework for the embodied mind. *Synthese*. doi:10.1007/s11229-016-1288-5.
- Alexopoulos, T., Muller, D., Ric, F., & Marendaz, C. (2012). I, me, mine: Automatic attentional capture by self-related stimuli. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 42, 770-779. doi:DOI: 10.1002/ejsp.1882
- Apps, M. A. & M. Tsakiris (2014). The free-energy self: a predictive coding account of self-recognition. *Neuroscience & Biobehavioral Reviews*, 41: 85–97.
- Azzalini, D., Rebollo, I. & Tallon-Baudry, C. (2019). Visceral Signals Shape Brain Dynamics and Cognition. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences* , 23(6), 488-509. doi:10.1016/j.tics.2019.03.007
- Badcock PB, Davey CG, Whittle S, Allen NB, Friston KJ. The Depressed Brain: An Evolutionary Systems Theory. *Trends Cogn Sci*. 2017 Mar;21(3):182-194. doi: 10.1016/j.tics.2017.01.005.
- Baker, D., Hunter, E. C. M., Lawrence, E., Medford, N., Patel, M., Senior, C., ... David, A. S. (2003). Depersonalisation disorder: Clinical features of 204 cases. *British Journal of Psychiatry*, 182: 428–433.
- Bays, P.M., Wolpert, D.M., and Flanagan, J.R. (2005). Perception of the consequences of self- action is temporally tuned and event driven. *Curr. Biol.* 15, 1125–1128.
- Barrett, L. F. & Simmons, W. K. (2015). Interoceptive predictions in the brain. *Nature Reviews Neuroscience*, 16, 419-429.
- Barrett, L. F., Quigley K. S., & Hamilton P. (2016). An active inference theory of allostasis and interoception in depression. *Phil. Trans. R. Soc. B*, 371, 20160001. doi <http://dx.doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2016.0011>.
- Bhatt, M. B., S. Bowen, H. E. Rossiter, J. Dupont-Hadwen, R. J. Moran, K. J. Friston and N. S. Ward (2016). "Computational modelling of movement-related beta-oscillatory dynamics in human motor cortex." *Neuroimage* 133: 224-232.
- Billon, A. (2016), 'Making Sense of the Cotard Syndrome: Insights from the Study of Depersonalisation', *Mind and Language*, 31: 356–91.
- Blakemore, S., Wolpert, D. M., & Frith, C. D. (1998). Central cancellation of self-produced tickle sensation. *Nature Neuroscience*, 1(7), 635–640. <https://doi.org/10.1038/2870>
- Blakemore, S., Wolpert, C. A. D., & Frith, C. (2000). Why can't you tickle yourself? *NeuroReport*, 11(11), 11–16.
- Brown, H., R. A. Adams, I. Parees, M. Edwards and K. Friston (2013). "Active inference, sensory attenuation and illusions." *Cogn Process* 14(4): 411-427.
- Ciaunica, A. (2016). Basic Forms of Pre-reflective Self-Consciousness: a Developmental Perspective. In *Pre-reflective Self-Consciousness: Sartre and Contemporary Philosophy of Mind*, eds. S. Miguens, G. Preyer, and C. Morando, 422–438. London: Routledge.
- Ciaunica, A. & Fotopoulou, A. (2017). 'The Touched Self: Psychological and Philosophical Perspectives on Proximal Intersubjectivity and the Self'. In Durt C., Fuchs T., and Tewes

- 911 C. (eds). *Embodiment, Enaction, and Culture—Investigating the Constitution of the Shared*  
 912 *World*. Cambridge MA: MIT Press, p. 173-192.
- 913 Ciaunica, A., Charlton, J. (2018). When the self slips: what depersonalization can say about  
 914 the self - <https://aeon.co/essays/what-can-depersonalisation-disorder-say-about-the-self>
- 915 Ciaunica, A., & Crucianelli, L. (2019). Minimal self-awareness: from within a developmental  
 916 perspective. *Journal of Consciousness Studies*, 26(3–4), 207–226.
- 917 Ciaunica, A., Charlton, J. and Farmer, H., (2020). When the Window Cracks: Transparency  
 918 and the Fractured Self in Depersonalisation. *Phenomenology and the Cognitive*  
 919 *Sciences*, pp.1-19. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11097-020-09677-z>
- 920 Ciaunica A, Roepstorff A, Fotopoulou AK and Petreca B (2021a) Whatever Next and Close  
 921 to My Self—The Transparent Senses and the “Second Skin”: Implications for the Case  
 922 of Depersonalization. *Front. Psychol.* 12:613587. doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2021.613587
- 923 Ciaunica, A., Constant, A., Preissl, H., & Fotopoulou, K. (2021b). The first prior: From co-  
 924 embodiment to co-homeostasis in early life. *Consciousness and cognition*, 91, 103117.  
 925 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.concog.2021.103117>
- 926 Corbetta, M., Shulman, G. Control of goal-directed and stimulus-driven attention in the brain.  
 927 *Nat Rev Neurosci* 3, 201–215 (2002). <https://doi.org/10.1038/nrn755>
- 928 Corlett, P. R., Horga, G., Fletcher, P. C., Alderson-Day, B., Schmack, K., & Powers, A. R.  
 929 (2019). Hallucinations and Strong Priors. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, 23(2), 114–127.  
 930 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tics.2018.12.001>
- 931 Corlett PR, Frith CD, Fletcher PC. (2009b). From drugs to deprivation: a Bayesian framework  
 932 for understanding models of psychosis. *Psychopharmacology* (Berl). Nov;206(4):515-  
 933 30. doi: 10.1007/s00213-009-1561-0
- 934 Daprati, E., Franck, N., Georgieff, N., Proust, J., Pacherie, E., Dalery, J., & Jeannerod, M.  
 935 (1997). Looking for the agent: an investigation into consciousness of action and self-  
 936 consciousness in schizophrenic patients. *Cognition*, 65, 71–86.
- 937 Damasio, A., (2000): *The Feeling of What Happens. Body, Emotion and the Making of*  
 938 *Consciousness*, London: Vintage.
- 939 Dewe, H., Watson, D. G., Kessler, K., & Braithwaite, J. J. (2018). The depersonalized brain:  
 940 New evidence supporting a distinction between depersonalization and derealization  
 941 from discrete patterns of autonomic suppression observed in a non-clinical sample.  
 942 *Consciousness and Cognition*, 63: 29–46.
- 943 Dienes, Z., Palfi, B., & Lush, P. (2020). Controlling phenomenology by being unaware of  
 944 intentions. In J. Weisberg (Ed.), *Qualitative consciousness: Themes from the philosophy*  
 945 *of David Rosenthal*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- 946 Edwards, M. J., R. A. Adams, H. Brown, I. Parees & K. J. Friston (2012). A Bayesian account  
 947 of 'hysteria'. *Brain*, 135(11): 3495–3512.
- 948 Ehrsson, H.H., Spence, C., & Passingham, R.E. (2004). That's my hand! Activity in premotor  
 949 cortex reflects feeling of ownership of a limb. *Science*, 305 5685, 875-7.
- 950 Farmer, H., Cataldo, A., Adel, N., Wignall, E., Gallese, V., Deroy, O., Hamilton, A., &  
 951 Ciaunica, A. (2020). The Detached Self: Investigating the Effect of Depersonalisation  
 952 on Self-Bias in the Visual Remapping of Touch, *Multisensory Research*, 1-22.
- 953 Farrer, C., Franck, N., Georgieff, N., Frith, C. D., Decety, J., & Jeannerod, M. (2003).  
 954 Modulating the experience of agency: a positron emission tomography study.  
 955 *Neuroimage*, 18: 324–333.
- 956 Feldman, H., & Friston, K. J. (2010). Attention, uncertainty, and free-energy. *Frontiers in*  
 957 *Human Neuroscience*, 4, 1–23. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fnhum.2010.00215>
- 958 Ferrè, E. R., Lopez, C., & Haggard, P. (2014). Anchoring the self to the body: vestibular  
 959 contribution to the sense of self. *Psychological science*, 25(11), 2106-2108.

960 Ferrè, E. R., & Haggard, P. (2016). The vestibular body: Vestibular contributions to bodily  
961 representations. *Cognitive Neuropsychology*, 33(1–2), 67–81.  
962 <https://doi.org/10.1080/02643294.2016.1168390>

963 Fletcher, P., Frith, C. (2009a). Perceiving is believing: a Bayesian approach to explaining the  
964 positive symptoms of schizophrenia. *Nat Rev Neurosci* 10, 48–58  
965 <https://doi.org/10.1038/nrn2536>

966 Franck, N., Farrer, C., Georgieff, N., Marie-cardine, M., Dalery, J., d’Amato, T., &  
967 Jeannerod, M. (2001). Defective recognition of one’s own actions in schizophrenic  
968 patients. *American Journal of Psychiatry*, 158, 454–459.

969 Farrer, C., Franck, N., Paillard, J., & Jeannerod, M. (2003). The role of proprioception in  
970 action recognition. *Consciousness and Cognition*, 12, 609–619.  
971 [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1053-8100\(03\)00047-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1053-8100(03)00047-3)

972 Friston, K. 2010. The free-energy principle: a unified brain theory. *Nature Reviews*  
973 *Neuroscience*, 11: 127–138.

974 Friston K. J., Daunizeau J., Kilner J., & Kiebel S. J. (2010). Action and behavior: A free-  
975 energy formulation. *Biological Cybernetics*, 102, 227–260. 10.1007/s00422-010-0364-z

976 Friston, K., Schwartenbeck P., FitzGerald T., Moutoussis M., Behrens T., & Dolan R. J.  
977 (2014). The anatomy of choice: Dopamine and decision-making. *Philosophical*  
978 *Transactions of the Royal Society of London. Series B, Biological Sciences*, 369,  
979 20130481 10.1098/rstb.2013.0481

980 Friston, K. J., & Frith, C. D. (2015). Active inference, Communication and hermeneutics.  
981 *Cortex*, 68, 129–143. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cortex.2015.03.025>

982 Friston, K. J. (2017). Precision Psychiatry. *Biological Psychiatry – Cognitive Neuroscience*  
983 *and Neuroimaging*, 2(8): 640–643.

984 Friston, K., FitzGerald, T., Rigoli, F., Schwartenbeck, P., & Pezzulo, G. (2017). Active  
985 inference: A process theory. *Neural Computation*, 29(1): 1–49.

986 Frith C. (2005) The self in action: lessons from delusions of control. *Conscious Cogn.*  
987 Dec;14(4):752-70. doi: 10.1016/j.concog.2005.04.002.

988 Fuchs T (2005) Corporealized and disembodied minds. A phenomenological view of the body  
989 in melancholia and schizophrenia. *Philos Psychiatry Psychol* 12:95–107

990 Fuchs, T. (2015). From Self-Disorders to Ego Disorders. *Psychopathology* 48: 324-331.

991 Gallagher, S. (2000). Philosophical conceptions of the self: implications for cognitive science.  
992 *Trends in cognitive sciences*, 4(1): 14–21.

993 Gallagher, S. (2013). A Pattern Theory of Self. *Frontiers in Human Neuroscience*, 7: 443.

994 Gerrans, P. (2018). Depersonalisation Disorder Affective Processing and Predictive Coding.  
995 *Review of Psychology and Philosophy*. doi.org/10.1007/s13164-018-0415-2 25

996 Griffin JD, & Fletcher PC. Predictive Processing, Source Monitoring, and Psychosis (2017).  
997 *Annu Rev Clin Psychol*. 2017 May 8;13:265-289.

998 Guralnik, O., Schmeidler, J., & Simeon, D. (2000). Feeling unreal: Cognitive processes in  
999 depersonalization. *American Journal of Psychiatry*, 157(1): 103–109.

1000 Haggard, P. (2017). Sense of agency in the human brain. *Nature Reviews Neuroscience*, 18,  
1001 197–208. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nrn.2017.14>

1002 Hesp, C., Smith, R., Parr, T., Allen, M., Friston, K., & Ramstead, M. (2020). Deeply Felt  
1003 Affect: The Emergence of Valence in Deep Active Inference. *Neural Computation*.  
1004 <https://doi.org/10.31234/osf.io/62pfd>

1005 Hohwy, J. (2007) The Sense of Self in the Phenomenology of Agency and Perception, *Psyche*  
1006 13 (1), pp. 1-20.

1007 Hohwy, J. (2020). New directions in predictive processing. *Mind & Language* 35(2): 209-  
1008 223. doi: 10.1111/mila.12281

- 1009 Hughes, G., A. Desantis & F. Waszak (2013). Mechanisms of intentional binding and sensory  
 1010 attenuation: the role of temporal prediction, temporal control, identity prediction, and  
 1011 motor prediction. *Psychological Bulletin*, 139(1): 133–151.
- 1012 Hunter, E. C. M., Phillips, M. L., Chalder, T. et al (2003) Depersonalisation disorder: a  
 1013 cognitive–behavioural conceptualization. *Behaviour Research and Therapy*, 41, 1451–  
 1014 1467
- 1015 Hunter EC., Sierra M, David AS (2004). The epidemiology of depersonalization and  
 1016 derealisation. A systematic review. *Society of Psychiatry Psychiatric Epidemiology*, 39:  
 1017 9–18.
- 1018 Isomura, T., Parr, T., & Friston, K. J. (2019). Bayesian filtering with multiple internal models:  
 1019 Toward a theory of social intelligence. *Neural Computation*. MIT Press Journals.  
 1020 [https://doi.org/10.1162/neco\\_a\\_01239](https://doi.org/10.1162/neco_a_01239)
- 1021 Karaminis, T., Cicchini, G., Neil, L. et al. Central tendency effects in time interval  
 1022 reproduction in autism. *Sci Rep* 6, 28570 (2016). <https://doi.org/10.1038/srep28570>
- 1023 Kamps, F. S., Julian, J. B., Battaglia, P., Landau, B., Kanwisher, N., & Dilks, D. D. (2017).  
 1024 Dissociating intuitive physics from intuitive psychology: Evidence from Williams  
 1025 syndrome. *Cognition*, 168: 146–153.
- 1026 Kiltani K, Houborg C, Ehrsson HH. (2019) Rapid learning and unlearning of predicted  
 1027 sensory delays in self-generated touch. *Elife*. 2019 Nov 18;8:e42888.
- 1028 Knill, D. C., & Pouget, A. (2004). The Bayesian brain: The role of uncertainty in neural  
 1029 coding and computation. *Trends in Neurosciences*, 27(12), 712–719.
- 1030 Lawson RP, Rees G, Friston KJ. An aberrant precision account of autism. *Front Hum*  
 1031 *Neurosci*. 2014 May 14;8:302.
- 1032 Legrand, D. (2006). The bodily self: The sensorimotor roots of pre-reflective self-  
 1033 consciousness. *Phenomenology and the Cognitive Sciences*, 5(1): 89-118.
- 1034 Lemche, E., Brammer, M. J., David, A. S., Surguladze, S. A., Phillips, M. L., Sierra, M., ...  
 1035 Giampietro, V. P. (2013). Interoceptive-reflective regions differentiate alexithymia  
 1036 traits in depersonalization disorder. *Psychiatry Research - Neuroimaging*, 214(1), 66–  
 1037 72.
- 1038 Lemche E, Surguladze SA, Brammer MJ, Phillips ML, Sierra M, David AS, Williams SC,  
 1039 Giampietro VP (2016). Dissociable brain correlates for depression, anxiety,  
 1040 dissociation, and somatization in depersonalization-derealization disorder. *CNS Spectr*.  
 1041 2016 Feb;21(1):35-42.
- 1042 Limanowski, J. (2017). (Dis-)Attending to the Body – Action and Self-Experience in the  
 1043 Active Inference Framework. In: T. Metzinger & W. Wiese (Eds.). *Philosophy and*  
 1044 *Predictive Processing*, 18. Frankfurt am Main: MIND Group.
- 1045 Limanowski, J. & F. Blankenburg (2013). Minimal self-models and the free energy principle.  
 1046 *Frontiers in Human Neuroscience*, 7: 1–12.
- 1047 Limanowski, J. and Friston, K., (2018). ‘Seeing the dark’: Grounding phenomenal  
 1048 transparency and opacity in precision estimation for active inference. *Frontiers in*  
 1049 *psychology*, 9, p.643.
- 1050 Limanowski, J. & K. Friston (2020). Active inference under visuo-proprioceptive conflict:  
 1051 Simulation and empirical results. *Scientific reports*, 10(1): 4010–4010.
- 1052 Limanowski J. (2021). Precision control for a flexible body representation. *Neuroscience and*  
 1053 *biobehavioral reviews*, S0149-7634(21)00465-6. Advance online publication.  
 1054 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neubiorev.2021.10.023>
- 1055 Lush, P., Botan, V., Scott, R.B. et al. Trait phenomenological control predicts experience of  
 1056 mirror synaesthesia and the rubber hand illusion. *Nat Commun* 11, 4853 (2020).  
 1057 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-020-18591-6>

- 1058 Medford, N., 2012. Emotion and the unreal self: depersonalization disorder and de-  
 1059 affectualization. *Emotion Review*, 4(2), pp.139-144.
- 1060 Medford, N., Sierra, M., Baker, D., & David, A. (2005). Understanding and treating  
 1061 depersonalisation disorder. *Advances in Psychiatric Treatment*, 11(2), 92-100.  
 1062 doi:10.1192/apt.11.2.92
- 1063 Medford N, Sierra M, Stringaris A, Giampietro V, Brammer MJ, David AS (2012). Emotional  
 1064 Experience and Awareness of Self: Functional MRI Studies of Depersonalization  
 1065 Disorder *Front Psychol.* 2016 Jun 2;7:432. doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2016.00432.
- 1066 Merleau-Ponty, M. (1945/1962). *Phénoménologie de la perception* Paris: Éditions Gallimard;  
 1067 English translation: C. Smith (1962). *Phenomenology of Perception*. London: Routledge  
 1068 and Kegan Paul.
- 1069 Metzinger, T. (2003). *Being No One: The Self-Model Theory of Subjectivity*. Cambridge,  
 1070 MASS: MIT Press.
- 1071 Millman, L., Hunter, E., Orgs, G., David, A. S., & Terhune, D. B. (2021). Symptom  
 1072 variability in depersonalization-derealization disorder: A latent profile analysis. *Journal*  
 1073 *of clinical psychology*, 10.1002/jclp.23241. Advance online publication.  
 1074 <https://doi.org/10.1002/jclp.23241>  
 1075
- 1076 Northoff, G., and Panksepp, J. (2008). The trans-species concept of self and the subcortical-  
 1077 cortical midline system. *Trends Cogn. Sci.* 12, 259–264. doi: 10.1016/j.tics.2008.04.007
- 1078 Notredame CE, Pins D, Deneve S, Jardri R. What visual illusions teach us about  
 1079 schizophrenia (2014). *Front Integr Neurosci.* 2014 Aug 12;8:63.
- 1080 Oestreich, L. K., N. G. Mifsud, J. M. Ford, B. J. Roach, D. H. Mathalon & T. J. Whitford  
 1081 (2015). Subnormal sensory attenuation to self-generated speech in schizotypy:  
 1082 Electrophysiological evidence for a 'continuum of psychosis'. *International Journal of*  
 1083 *Psychophysiology*, 97(2): 131–138.
- 1084 Owens, A. P., David, A. S., Low, D. A., Mathias, C. J., & Sierra-Siegert, M. (2015).  
 1085 Abnormal cardiovascular sympathetic and parasympathetic responses to physical and  
 1086 emotional stimuli in depersonalization disorder. *Frontiers in Neuroscience*, 9, 89.
- 1087 Palmer, C.E., Davare, M., and Kilner, J.M. (2016). Physiological and perceptual sensory  
 1088 attenuation have different underlying neurophysiological correlates. *J. Neurosci.* 36,  
 1089 10803–10812.
- 1090 Parr T, Rees G, Friston KJ. (2018). Computational Neuropsychology and Bayesian Inference.  
 1091 *Front Hum Neurosci.* Feb 23;12:61.
- 1092 Parr, T., Corcoran, A.W., Friston, K. J., Hohwy, J. (2019) Perceptual awareness and active  
 1093 inference, *Neuroscience of Consciousness*, 1, <https://doi.org/10.1093/nc/niz012>
- 1094 Panksepp, J. (1998). *Affective Neuroscience: The Foundations of Human and Animal*  
 1095 *Emotions*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- 1096 Parees, I., H. Brown, A. Nuruki, R. A. Adams, M. Davare, K. P. Bhatia, K. Friston & M. J.  
 1097 Edwards (2014). Loss of sensory attenuation in patients with functional (psychogenic)  
 1098 movement disorders. *Brain*, 137(Pt 11): 2916–2921.
- 1099 Paton, B., J. Hohwy & P. G. Enticott (2012). The rubber hand illusion reveals proprioceptive  
 1100 and sensorimotor differences in autism spectrum disorders. *Journal of Autism and*  
 1101 *Developmental Disorders*, 42(9): 1870–1883.
- 1102 Pellicano, E., Burr, D. (2012). When the world becomes ‘too real’: a Bayesian explanation of  
 1103 autistic perception. *Trends in Cognitive Science*, 16: 504–510.
- 1104 Perkins, J. (2021). *Life on Autopilot: A Guide to Living with Depersonalisation Disorder*.  
 1105 London & Philadelphia, Jessica Kingsley Publishers.
- 1106 Post, L. J., Zompa, I. C., & Chapman, C. E. (1994). Perception of vibrotactile stimuli during  
 1107 motor activity in human subjects. *Experimental brain research*, 100(1), 107-120.

- 1108 Powell G, Wass SV, Erichsen JT, Leekam SR. First evidence of the feasibility of gaze-  
 1109 contingent attention training for school children with autism. *Autism*. 2016  
 1110 Nov;20(8):927-937.
- 1111 Qin P, Wang M, Northoff G. Linking bodily, environmental and mental states in the self-A  
 1112 three-level model based on a meta-analysis. *Neuroscience and Biobehavioral Reviews*.  
 1113 2020 May;115:77-95.
- 1114 Rao, R. P. N., & Ballard, D. H. (1999). Predictive coding in the visual cortex: A  
 1115 functional interpretation of some extra-classical receptive-field effects. *Nature Neuroscience*,  
 1116 2, 79–87.
- 1117 Ramstead, M. J. D., Kirchhoff, M. D., Constant, A., & Friston, K. J. (2019). Multiscale  
 1118 integration: beyond internalism and externalism. *Synthese*: 1–30.
- 1119 Sartre, J.-P. (1943). *L'Être et le néant*. Paris: Tel Gallimard; English translation: H. E. Barnes  
 1120 (1956). *Being and Nothingness*. New York: Philosophical Library.
- 1121 Sass, L.A., & Parnas, J. (2003). Schizophrenia, Consciousness, and the Self. *Schizophrenia*  
 1122 *Bulletin*, 29(3): 427–444.
- 1123 Sass L, Pienkos E, Nelson B, Medford N. (2013) Anomalous self-experience in  
 1124 depersonalization and schizophrenia: a comparative investigation. *Conscious Cogn*.  
 1125 Jun;22(2):430-41.
- 1126 Schabinger N, Gillmeister H, Berti S, Michal M, Beutel ME, Adler J. Detached and  
 1127 distracted: ERP correlates of altered attentional function in depersonalisation. *Biol*  
 1128 *Psychol*. 2018 Apr;134:64-71.
- 1129 Schulz A, Köster S, Beutel ME, Schächinger H, Vögele C, Rost S, Rauh M, Michal M.  
 1130 (2015). Altered patterns of heartbeat-evoked potentials in  
 1131 depersonalization/derealization disorder: neurophysiological evidence for impaired  
 1132 cortical representation of bodily signals. *Psychosom Med*. 2015 Jun;77(5):506-16.
- 1133 Sedeño L, Couto B, Melloni M, Canales-Johnson A, Yoris A, Baez S, et al. (2014) How Do  
 1134 You Feel when You Can't Feel Your Body? Interoception, Functional Connectivity and  
 1135 Emotional Processing in Depersonalization-Derealisation Disorder. *PLoS ONE* 9(6):  
 1136 e98769.
- 1137 Seth, A. K. (2013). Interoceptive inference, emotion, and the embodied self. *Trends in*  
 1138 *Cognitive Sciences*, 17(11): 565–573.
- 1139 Seth, A. K., Suzuki, K., & Critchley, H. D. (2011). An Interoceptive Predictive Coding Model  
 1140 of Conscious Presence. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 2: 395.
- 1141 Seth, A. K., & Tsakiris, M. (2018). Being a beast machine: The somatic basis of selfhood.  
 1142 *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, 22(11): 969–981.
- 1143 Seth, A.K. (2021). *Being You. A New Science of Consciousness*. London: Dutton.
- 1144 Shadmehr, R., and Krakauer, J.W. (2008). A computational neuroanatomy for motor control.  
 1145 *Exp. Brain Res*. 185, 359–381.
- 1146 Shergill, S. S., G. Samson, P. M. Bays, C. D. Frith & D. M. Wolpert (2005). Evidence for  
 1147 sensory prediction deficits in schizophrenia. *American Journal of Psychiatry* 162:  
 1148 2384–2386.
- 1149 Sierra M. (2009). *Depersonalisation: A New Look at a Neglected Syndrome*. Cambridge:  
 1150 Cambridge University Press.
- 1151 Sierra M. & Berrios GE. (1998). Depersonalization: neurobiological perspectives. *Biological*  
 1152 *Psychiatry*, 44: 898–908.
- 1153 Sierra, M., & Berrios, G. E. (2000). The Cambridge Depersonalization Scale: A new  
 1154 instrument for the measurement of depersonalization. *Psychiatry Research*, 93: 153–  
 1155 164.
- 1156 Sierra, M., Senior, C., Dalton, J., McDonough, M., Bond, A., Phillips, M. L., ... David, A. S.  
 1157 (2002). Autonomic response in depersonalization disorder. *Archives of General*

1158           Psychiatry, 59(9), 833–838.

1159       Sierra, M., Baker, D., Medford, N., & David, A. S. (2005). Unpacking the depersonalization  
1160           syndrome: An exploratory factor analysis on the Cambridge Depersonalization Scale.  
1161           *Psychological Medicine*, 35(10): 1523–1532.

1162       Sierra, M., & David, A. S. (2011). Depersonalization: A selective impairment of self-  
1163           awareness. *Consciousness and Cognition*, 20(1): 99–108.

1164       Sierra M, Medford N, Wyatt G, David AS. Depersonalization disorder and anxiety: a special  
1165           relationship? *Psychiatry Res*. 2012 May 15;197(1-2):123-7.

1166       Simeon, D., & Abugel, J. (2006). *Feeling Unreal: Depersonalization Disorder and the Loss*  
1167           *of the Self*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

1168       Simeon, D., Guralnik, O., Hazlett, E. A., Spiegel-Cohen, J., Hollander, E., & Buchsbaum, M.  
1169           S. (2000). Feeling unreal: A PET study of depersonalization disorder. *American Journal*  
1170           *of Psychiatry*, 157(11): 1782–1788.

1171       Simeon, D., Knutelska, M., Nelson, D., & Guralnik, O. (2003). Feeling Unreal: A  
1172           Depersonalization Disorder Update of 117 Cases. *The Journal of Clinical Psychiatry*,  
1173           64(9): 990–997.

1174       Smith, R., R. D. Lane, T. Parr & K. J. Friston (2019). Neurocomputational mechanisms  
1175           underlying emotional awareness: Insights afforded by deep active inference and their  
1176           potential clinical relevance. *Neuroscience and Biobehavioral Reviews*, 107: 473–491.

1177       Stephan KE, Mathys C. (2014) Computational approaches to psychiatry. *Curr Opin*  
1178           *Neurobiol*. 2014 Apr;25:85-92.

1179       Stephan KE, Manjaly ZM, Mathys CD, Weber LA, Paliwal S, Gard T, Tittgemeyer M,  
1180           Fleming SM, Haker H, Seth AK, Petzschner FH (2016). Allostatic Self-efficacy: A  
1181           Metacognitive Theory of Dyshomeostasis-Induced Fatigue and Depression. *Front Hum*  
1182           *Neurosci*. Nov 15;10:550.

1183       Synofzik M, Thier P, Leube DT, Schlotterbeck P, Lindner A. (2010). Misattributions of  
1184           agency in schizophrenia are based on imprecise predictions about the sensory  
1185           consequences of one's actions. *Brain*. 2010 Jan;133(Pt 1):262-71.

1186       Sterling P. (2012). Allostasis: a model of predictive regulation. *Physiology & behavior*,  
1187           106(1), 5–15. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.physbeh.2011.06.004>

1188       Sterzer, P., R. A. Adams, P. Fletcher, C. Frith, S. M. Lawrie, L. Muckli, P. Petrovic, P.  
1189           Uhlhaas, M. Voss & P. R. Corlett (2018). The Predictive Coding Account of Psychosis.  
1190           *Biological Psychiatry*, 84(9): 634–643.

1191       Tsakiris, M., Haggard, P., Franck, N., Mainy, N., & Sirigu, A. (2005). A specific role for  
1192           efferent information in self-recognition. *Cognition*, 96, 215–231.

1193       Ullman, T. D., Spelke, E., Battaglia, P., & Tenenbaum, J. B. (2017). Mind Games: Game  
1194           Engines as an Architecture for Intuitive Physics. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, 21(9):  
1195           649–665.

1196       Værnes T, G, Røssberg J, I, Møller P. (2018) Anomalous Self-Experiences: Markers of  
1197           Schizophrenia Vulnerability or Symptoms of Depersonalization Disorder? A  
1198           Phenomenological Investigation of Two Cases. *Psychopathology* 198-209.

1199       Van de Cruys, S., Evers, K., Van der Hallen, R., Van Eylen, L., Boets, B., de-Wit, L.,  
1200           Wagemans, J., 2013. Precise minds in uncertain worlds: predictive coding in autism.  
1201           *Psychological Review* 121, 649–675.

1202       von Helmholtz, H. (2005). *Treatise on physiological optics*. Courier Corporation.

1203       Waters, F. A. V, & Badcock, J. C. (2010). First-Rank Symptoms in Schizophrenia:  
1204           Reexamining Mechanisms of self-recognition. *Schizophrenia Bulletin*, 36(3), 510–517.

1205       Wolpert DM, Flanagan JR. Motor prediction. *Curr Biol*. 2001; 11(18):729–32.

1206 Woźniak M, Hohwy J (2020) Stranger to my face: Top-down and bottom-up effects  
1207 underlying prioritization of images of one's face. PLoS ONE 15(7): e0235627.  
1208 [https://doi.org/ 10.1371/journal.pone.0235627](https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0235627)  
1209 Zahavi, D. (2005). *Subjectivity and selfhood: Investigating the first-person perspective*.  
1210 Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.  
1211 Zahavi D. and Gallagher S. (2010). Phenomenological Approaches to Self-Consciousness.  
1212 <http://plato.stanford.edu/entries/self-consciousness-phenomenological/>  
1213 Zeller, D., V. Litvak, K. J. Friston & J. Classen (2015). Sensory processing and the rubber  
1214 hand illusion--an evoked potentials study. *Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience*, 27(3):  
1215 573–582.  
1216  
1217  
1218 Competing interests statement: Authors have no competing interests to declare