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Digital Biomarkers of Mood Disorders and Symptom Change

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19 Abstract

20 Current approaches to psychiatric assessment are resource-intensive, requiring time-consuming
21 evaluation by a trained clinician. Development of digital biomarkers holds promise for enabling
22 scalable, time-sensitive, and cost-effective assessment of both psychiatric diagnosis and
23 symptom change. The present study aimed to identify robust digital biomarkers of diagnostic
24 status and changes in symptom severity over approximately 2 weeks, through re-analysis of
25 public-use actigraphy data collected in patients with major depressive or bipolar disorder and
26 healthy controls. Results suggest that participants' diagnostic group status (i.e., mood disorder,
27 control) can be predicted with a high degree of accuracy (predicted correctly 89% of the time,
28 $\kappa=0.773$), using features extracted from actigraphy data alone. Results also suggest that
29 actigraphy data can be used to predict symptom change across approximately 2 weeks ($r=0.782$,
30 $p=1.04e-05$). Through inclusion of digital biomarkers in our statistical model that are
31 generalizable to new samples, results may be replicated by other research groups in order to
32 validate and extend this work.

33 Keywords: digital phenotyping, machine learning, major depression, bipolar disorder

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35 Digital Biomarkers of Mood Disorders and Symptom Change

36 Mood disorders (i.e. major depressive disorder [MDD], bipolar I, bipolar II) occur in
37 12% of the population in their lifetime, resulting in substantial functional and economic burden.¹
38 To reduce burden, it is critical to diagnose and monitor mood disorders using widely accessible
39 methods, which enable timely detection of clinical deterioration. However, standard clinical
40 assessments require time-consuming and resource-heavy evaluation by a trained specialist.

41 Use of passive digital biomarkers offers an alternative approach to assessing mood
42 disorders that is scalable, unobtrusive, time-sensitive, and cost-effective. Movement data from
43 actigraphs (which measure gross motor activity from a sensor typically worn on the wrist,
44 capturing both activity and rest) may be especially useful for detecting MDD or bipolar
45 disorders, because these disorders are characterized by notable increases (i.e., in bipolar disorder)
46 or decreases (i.e., in MDD) in goal-directed behavior, energy level, and movement, in addition to
47 disruption in sleep – behavioral shifts which are likely to be captured via actigraph.

48 A small base of research has explored using actigraphy data for mood disorder
49 diagnosis.^{2,3} One investigation used daytime and nighttime movement data from actigraphs worn
50 on wrists of patients with primary bipolar disorder or MDD and controls to classify participants'
51 diagnostic group (kappa=0.443, accuracy=72.7%) using support vector machines (a machine
52 learning algorithm which attempts to create the greatest difference between groups on
53 dimensional hyperplanes).⁴ However, the authors utilized features that were context-dependent
54 (data were directly referenced to time within study, e.g. movement on minute 1 within the study),
55 rather than time-relative (e.g., the consistency of movement between one day to the next on
56 average within the sample). This limits the generalizability of their methods to new samples,
57 because linking data to absolute time does not allow for generalization to shorter or larger

58 timespans. Indeed, most such studies to-date yield only modest results³ and oftentimes are not
59 replicable. Moreover, while most biomarker research has focused on detecting diagnosis, very
60 few studies have aimed to detect symptom change.³ Developing unobtrusive, timely methods to
61 detect symptom change has potential to enable just-in-time interventions to prevent clinical
62 deterioration as a next step.

63 To extend current research, we re-analyzed public-use data⁴ using novel methods, with
64 the aim of identifying digital biomarkers of MDD and bipolar disorder diagnostic status and
65 changes in symptom severity over approximately 2 weeks. We sought to use methods that are
66 generalizable to new samples, so that results may be replicated by other research groups.

67 **Results**

68 Using actigraphy features alone, the machine learning algorithm correctly predicted the
69 diagnostic status 89% of the time ($p=5.5e-07$), with a corresponding Cohen's kappa of 0.773,
70 sensitivity of 0.937, and specificity of 0.826 (see Figure 1). The correlation between predicted
71 and actual change in depression severity was strong ($r=0.782$, $p=1.04e-05$; see Figure 2).

72 **Discussion**

73 The present study aimed to identify digital biomarkers of MDD and bipolar disorder. Up
74 to 2 weeks of actigraphy data distinguished patients from healthy controls with high accuracy.
75 The current approach substantially improved upon earlier results,⁴ and it classified diagnostic
76 status more accurately than published inter-reliability rates for second raters using the SCID-
77 I/P.¹⁰ Results suggest that unobtrusive, passive actigraphy data hold potential to supplement
78 traditional diagnostic assessments of MDD and bipolar disorder. By reducing reliance on
79 resource-intensive assessment approaches in favor of low-burden, low-cost digital data, it may be
80 possible to detect MDD and bipolar disorder earlier and more broadly.

81 Results also showed that actigraphy data predicted the majority of variation in patients'
82 depression severity over approximately 2 weeks. Whereas most digital biomarker research has
83 focused on diagnostics,³ use of passive monitoring to detect symptom change may enable just-in-
84 time interventions as a next step. For example, temporally-sensitive detection of clinical
85 deterioration via passive sensors could be used to alert the patient and suggest use of therapeutic
86 skills (e.g., behavioral activation), as well as to alert the clinician, prompting timely clinical
87 intervention.

88 In addition to the strong predictive ability of our model, another strength of the present
89 approach was its use of features that are generalizable, so that methods may be replicated in new
90 samples. The field is in early stages of using passive data to enhance diagnostics. As such, this
91 early study should also be interpreted bearing in mind its limitations. We elected to examine
92 MDD and bipolar disorder together, rather than dividing them into smaller groups, to enhance
93 power. On one hand, our ability to differentiate one's broad mood disorder status from healthy
94 controls points to detection of potential transdiagnostic characteristics, enhancing the
95 generalizability of results. Alternatively, predicting patients with MDD separately from those
96 with bipolar disorder may enhance detection accuracy further, as a next step in a larger sample.
97 Additionally, because the public-use dataset did not report participants' medication data or other
98 treatment received, we were unable to assess how study movement might have been related to
99 medication or psychotherapy. Further, five patients were in an inpatient facility during data
100 collection, which likely constricted their movement. Finally, diagnostic status was established at
101 baseline; it is possible that prospective studies designed to predict later diagnostic status would
102 yield different results. Although chances of overfitting are reduced using LOOCV and boosting
103 models,¹¹ current results are preliminary and require replication by independent research groups,

104 in larger samples. If replicated, results suggest that passive digital assessment show promise for
105 reducing the burden of MDD and bipolar disorder.

106 **Method**

107 **Participants**

108 Twenty-three patients (22% inpatient, 78% outpatient, $M_{Age}=42.8$, $SD_{Age}=11.0$, 65% with
109 primary MDD, 30% with primary bipolar II, and 4% with primary bipolar I, 57% male, 13%
110 currently working) were invited to participate by study staff when they came for clinical care in
111 the medical setting and 32 controls ($M_{Age}=38.2$, $SD_{Age}=13.0$, 37.5% male) without a history of
112 mood or psychotic symptoms were invited to participate by study staff from hospital employee,
113 university, or primary care settings.⁵ Fifteen patients received antidepressants, and some were
114 co-medicated with lithium, mood stabilizers, antipsychotics, anxiolytics, or hypnotics. Eight
115 patients did not use psychotropic medications. All participants were consented and the study
116 received local ethics committee approval (REK III, Health -West, Norway).⁶ Data were collected
117 from May 2002 through February 2006.

118 **Clinical Assessment**

119 Participants were assessed for mood disorder diagnosis by a psychiatrist using the
120 Structured Clinical Interview for DSM-IV (SCID-I).⁶ The psychiatrist also administered the
121 Montgomery-Asberg Depression Scale (MADRS) to patients, to assess depressive symptoms
122 before and after the actigraphy study.⁶ Change was evaluated using pre-post differences scores in
123 depressive symptoms and were then sample-standardized for graphical visualization.

124 **Actigraphy**

125 Participants wore an actigraph on their right wrist (Actiwatch) for up to 2 weeks, to
126 continuously monitor movement. Actigraphs were worn at all times, except when bathing. The

127 sampling frequency was 32 Hz and movements of $\geq 0.05g$ were recorded. Voltage of movement
128 was recorded for each minute. A timeframe of 2 weeks was selected balancing device battery life
129 and amount of time considered sufficient, as an early study on motor activation.⁵

130 **Planned Analyses**

131 Prior to analyses, features were extracted from actigraphy data to form a set of
132 generalizable digital biomarkers. Digital biomarkers included person-level measures of (1)
133 movement intensity distribution (i.e., minimum, maximum, mean, median, modal, skewness,
134 kurtosis, and 1st-99th quantiles), (2) movement intensity variability (i.e., root mean-square of
135 successive differences [RMSSD] between movement 1 to 2 minutes later, which is an index of
136 sharp shifts in movement across short time intervals), and the standard deviation of movement),
137 (3) autoregressive lags of movement intensity (i.e., consistency of movement 1 to 100 minutes
138 later across a smooth continuum using the differential time-varying effect model),⁷ and (4)
139 oscillatory pattern (i.e. spectral densities of the movement patterns), resulting in a total of 9,929
140 features. Features were not reliant on absolute time in the study but rather used relative time
141 differences among patterns in the data. Biomarkers were created based on the minimum number
142 of minutes of actigraphy data that were available for all participants (i.e. all participants had
143 19,299 minutes of actigraphy data), and consequently, there was no missing data in any derived
144 biomarkers.

145 Results were analyzed using extreme gradient boosting (xgboost), which is a tree-based
146 boosting system⁸ that offers high precision.⁹ Diagnostic group membership (i.e., patient, control)
147 and change in depressive symptoms were predicted from the digital biomarkers. Model
148 regularization methods, leave-one-out cross-validation (LOOCV) and permutation tests
149 controlled for over-fitting. Primary outcome measures were percentage of diagnostic agreement,

150 sensitivity, specificity, and Cohen's kappa when predicting diagnostic group membership, and
151 the correlation between predicted and actual values for change in depressive symptoms (i.e. the
152 models predicted pre-post difference scores, then standardized to sample z-scores for
153 visualization).

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158 **Data Availability**

159 Data and scripts used to reproduce results are available at
160 http://www.nicholasjacobson.com/post/digital_biomarkers_mood_disorders/.

161 **Competing Interests**

162 Mr. Jacobson is the owner of a free application published on the Google Play Store
163 entitled "Mood Triggers". He does not receive any direct or indirect revenue from his ownership
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174 journal, as well as from John Wiley & Sons, Inc. for her role as Associate Editor for the journal
175 *Depression & Anxiety*.

176 **Contributions**

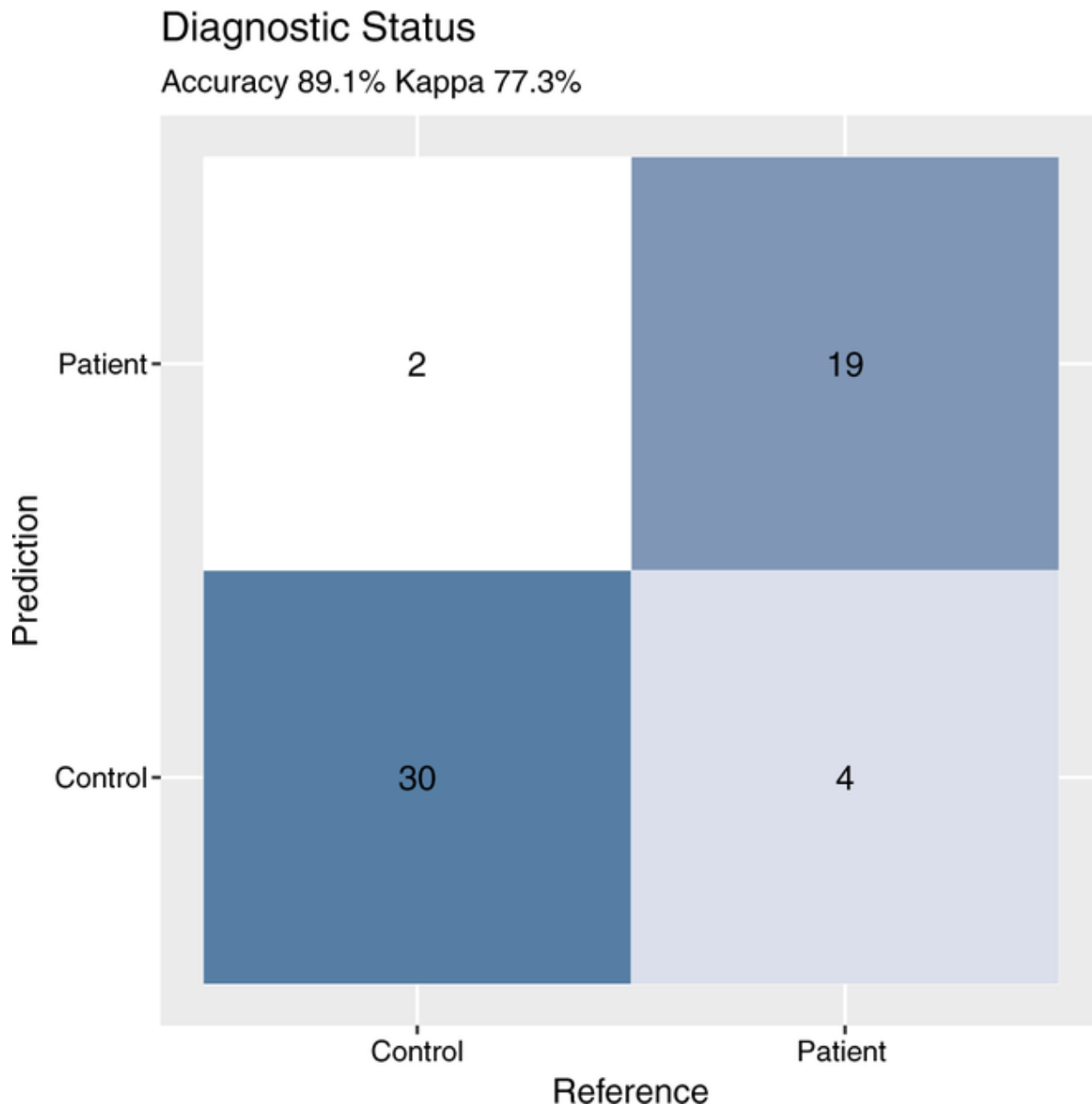
177 All authors contributed to the study design, result interpretation, and manuscript
178 revisions. Mr. Jacobson conducted the data cleaning, and data analysis. Mr. Jacobson and Dr.
179 Weingarden drafted the manuscript. All authors approved the completed version.

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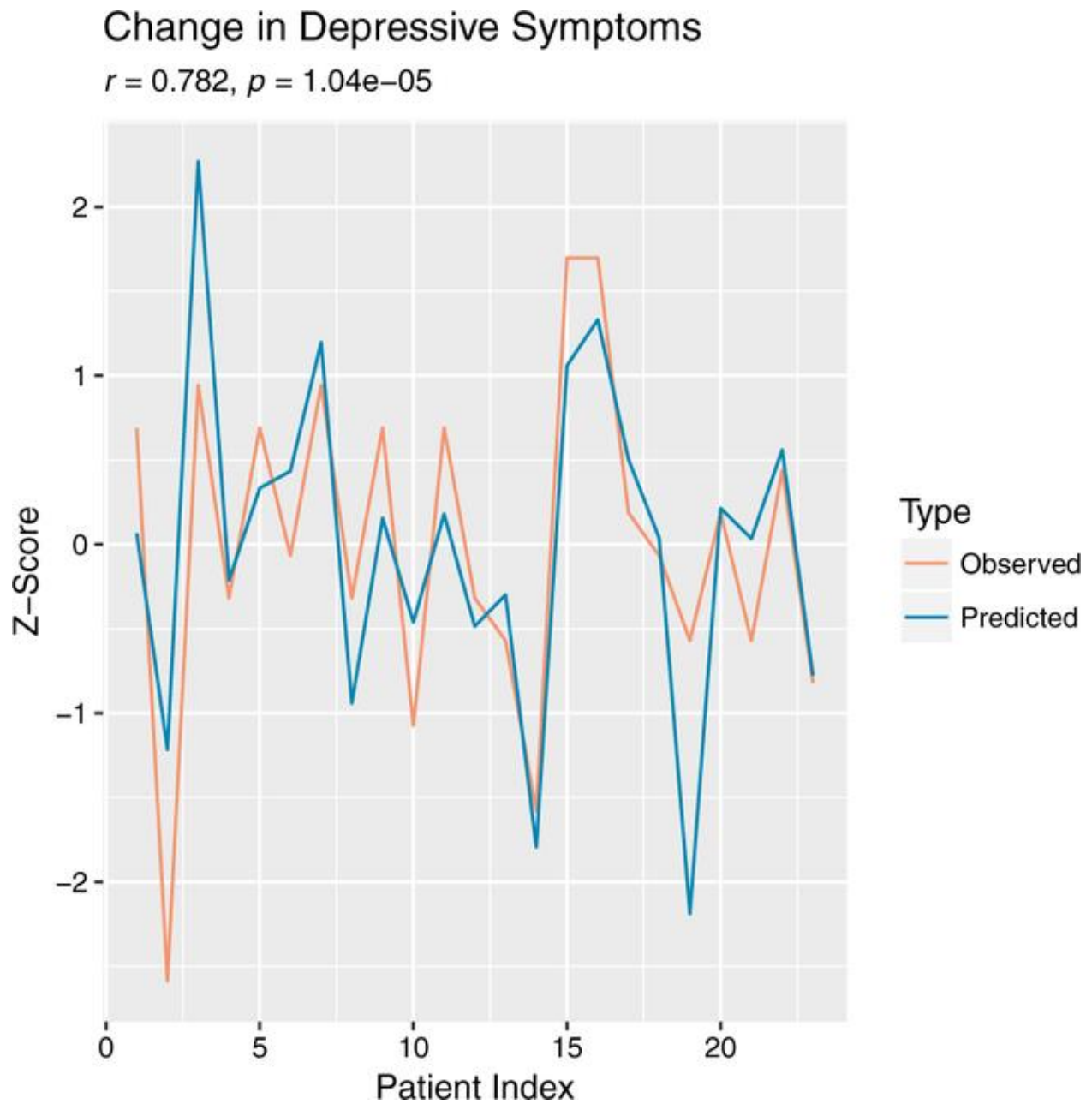


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215 *Figure 1.* This plot depicts the predictions the confusion matrix between the predicted group (i.e.

216 control or patient) and the observed reference group.

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218

219 *Figure 2.* This plot depicts the predicted and actual pre-post differences scores in depressive

220 symptoms which were sample-standardized for visualization for each of the 23 patients.