

10+ YEARS OF AI IN MENTAL HEALTH

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A All ages

Leading causes 1990

Percentage of DALYs 1990

Leading causes 2019

Percentage of DALYs 2019

Percentage change in number of DALYs, 1990-2019

Percentage change in age-standardised DALY rate, 1990-2019

Leading causes 1990	Percentage of DALYs 1990	Leading causes 2019	Percentage of DALYs 2019	Percentage change in number of DALYs, 1990-2019	Percentage change in age-standardised DALY rate, 1990-2019
1 Neonatal disorders	10.6 (9.9 to 11.4)	1 Neonatal disorders	7.3 (6.4 to 8.4)	-32.3 (-41.7 to -20.8)	-32.6 (-42.1 to -21.2)
2 Lower respiratory infections	8.7 (7.6 to 10.0)	2 Ischaemic heart disease	7.2 (6.5 to 7.9)	50.4 (39.9 to 60.2)	-28.6 (-33.3 to -24.2)
3 Diarrhoeal diseases	7.3 (5.9 to 8.8)	3 Stroke	5.7 (5.1 to 6.2)	32.4 (22.0 to 42.2)	-35.2 (-40.5 to -30.5)
4 Ischaemic heart disease	4.7 (4.4 to 5.0)	4 Lower respiratory infections	3.8 (3.3 to 4.3)	-56.7 (-64.2 to -47.5)	-62.5 (-69.1 to -54.0)
5 Stroke	4.2 (3.9 to 4.5)	5 Diarrhoeal diseases	3.2 (2.6 to 4.0)	-57.5 (-66.2 to -44.7)	-64.6 (-71.2 to -58.0)
6 Congenital birth defects	3.2 (2.3 to 4.8)	6 COPD	2.9 (2.6 to 3.2)	25.6 (15.1 to 46.0)	-39.8 (-46.4 to -33.2)
7 Tuberculosis	3.1 (2.8 to 3.4)	7 Road injuries	2.9 (2.6 to 3.0)	2.4 (-6.9 to 10.8)	-31.0 (-37.6 to -24.4)
8 Road injuries	2.7 (2.6 to 3.0)	8 Diabetes	2.8 (2.5 to 3.1)	147.9 (135.9 to 158.9)	24.4 (18.0 to 30.8)
9 Measles	2.7 (0.9 to 5.6)	9 Low back pain	2.5 (1.9 to 3.1)	46.9 (43.3 to 50.5)	-16.3 (-17.9 to -14.7)
10 Malaria	2.5 (1.4 to 4.1)	10 Congenital birth defects	2.1 (1.7 to 2.6)	-37.3 (-50.6 to -12.8)	-40.0 (-50.0 to -30.0)
11 COPD	2.3 (1.9 to 2.5)	11 HIV/AIDS	1.9 (1.6 to 2.2)	127.7 (97.3 to 171.7)	58.5 (37.0 to 80.0)
12 Protein-energy malnutrition	2.0 (1.6 to 2.7)	12 Tuberculosis	1.9 (1.7 to 2.0)	41.0 (47.2 to 33.5)	62.8 (64.0 to 61.6)
13 Low back pain	1.7 (1.2 to 2.1)	13 Depressive disorders	1.8 (1.4 to 2.4)	61.1 (56.9 to 65.0)	-1.8 (-2.2 to -1.4)
14 Self-harm	1.4 (1.2 to 1.5)	14 Malara	1.8 (0.9 to 3.1)	-29.4 (-56.9 to 6.6)	-37.8 (-6.6 to -69.0)
15 Cirrhosis	1.3 (1.2 to 1.5)	15 Headache disorders	1.8 (0.4 to 3.8)	56.7 (52.4 to 62.1)	1.1 (-4.0 to 6.2)
16 Meningitis	1.3 (1.1 to 1.5)	16 Cirrhosis	1.8 (1.6 to 2.0)	33.0 (22.4 to 48.2)	-26.8 (-33.3 to -20.3)
17 Drowning	1.3 (1.1 to 1.4)	17 Lung cancer	1.8 (1.6 to 2.0)	69.1 (53.1 to 85.4)	-16.2 (-24.4 to -8.0)
18 Headache disorders	1.1 (0.2 to 2.4)	18 Chronic kidney disease	1.6 (1.5 to 1.8)	93.2 (81.6 to 105.0)	6.3 (0.2 to 12.4)
19 Depressive disorders	1.1 (0.8 to 1.5)	19 Other musculoskeletal	1.6 (1.2 to 2.1)	128.9 (122.0 to 136.3)	30.7 (27.0 to 34.4)
20 Diabetes	1.1 (1.0 to 1.2)	20 Age-related hearing loss	1.6 (1.2 to 2.1)	82.8 (75.2 to 88.9)	-1.8 (-3.3 to -0.3)
21 Lung cancer	1.0 (1.0 to 1.1)	21 Falls	1.5 (1.4 to 1.7)	47.1 (31.5 to 61.0)	-14.5 (-22.7 to -6.3)
22 Falls	1.0 (0.9 to 1.2)	22 Self-harm	1.3 (1.2 to 1.5)	-5.6 (-14.2 to 3.7)	-38.9 (-44.4 to -33.4)
23 Dietary iron deficiency	1.0 (0.7 to 1.3)	23 Gynaecological diseases	1.3 (0.9 to 1.5)	48.7 (45.8 to 51.8)	6.8 (8.0 to 5.6)
24 Interpersonal violence	0.9 (0.9 to 1.0)	24 Anxiety disorders	1.1 (0.8 to 1.5)	53.7 (48.8 to 59.1)	-0.1 (-1.1 to 0.9)
25 Whooping cough	0.9 (0.4 to 1.7)	25 Dietary iron deficiency	1.1 (0.8 to 1.5)	13.8 (10.5 to 17.2)	-16.4 (-18.9 to -13.9)
27 Age-related hearing loss	0.8 (0.6 to 1.1)	26 Interpersonal violence	1.1 (1.0 to 1.2)	10.2 (3.2 to 19.2)	-23.8 (-28.6 to -17.8)
29 Chronic kidney disease	0.8 (0.8 to 0.9)	40 Meningitis	0.6 (0.5 to 0.8)	-51.3 (-59.4 to -42.0)	-57.2 (-64.4 to -48.6)
30 HIV/AIDS	0.8 (0.6 to 1.0)	41 Protein-energy malnutrition	0.6 (0.5 to 0.7)	-71.1 (-79.6 to -59.7)	-74.5 (-82.0 to -64.5)
32 Gynaecological diseases	0.8 (0.6 to 1.0)	46 Drowning	0.5 (0.5 to 0.6)	-60.6 (-65.2 to -53.6)	-68.2 (-71.9 to -62.8)
34 Anxiety disorders	0.7 (0.5 to 1.0)	55 Whooping cough	0.4 (0.2 to 0.7)	-54.5 (-74.6 to -16.9)	-56.3 (-75.6 to -20.3)
35 Other musculoskeletal	0.7 (0.5 to 1.0)	71 Measles	0.3 (0.1 to 0.6)	-89.8 (-92.3 to -86.8)	-90.4 (-92.8 to -87.5)

Global Health Metrics

Global burden of 369 diseases and injuries in 204 countries and territories, 1990-2019: a systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2019

GBD 2019 Diseases and Injuries Collaborators*

Summary

Background In an era of shifting global agendas and expanded emphasis on non-communicable diseases and injuries along with communicable diseases, sound evidence on trends by cause at the national level is essential. The Global Burden of Diseases, Injuries, and Risk Factors Study (GBD) provides a systematic scientific assessment of published, publicly available, and contributed data on incidence, prevalence, and mortality for a mutually exclusive and collectively exhaustive list of diseases and injuries.

Methods GBD estimates incidence, prevalence, mortality, years of life lost (YLLs), years lived with disability (YLDs), and disability-adjusted life-years (DALYs) due to 369 diseases and injuries, for two sexes, and for 204 countries and territories. Input data were extracted from censuses, household surveys, civil registration and vital statistics, disease registries, health service use, air pollution monitors, satellite imaging, disease notifications, and other sources. Cause-specific death rates and cause fractions were calculated using the Cause of Death Ensemble model and spatiotemporal Gaussian process regression. Cause-specific deaths were adjusted to match the total all-cause deaths calculated as part of the GBD population, fertility, and mortality estimates. Deaths were multiplied by standard life expectancy at each age to calculate YLLs. A Bayesian meta-regression modelling tool, DisMod-MR 2.1, was used to ensure consistency between incidence, prevalence, remission, excess mortality, and cause-specific mortality for most causes. Prevalence estimates were multiplied by disability weights for mutually exclusive sequelae of diseases and injuries to calculate YLDs. We considered results in the context of the Socio-demographic Index (SDI), a composite indicator of income per capita, years of schooling, and fertility rate in females younger than 25 years. Uncertainty intervals (UIs) were generated for every metric using the 25th and 975th ordered 1000 draw values of the posterior distribution.

Findings Global health has steadily improved over the past 30 years as measured by age-standardised DALY rates. After taking into account population growth and ageing, the absolute number of DALYs has remained stable. Since 2010, the pace of decline in global age-standardised DALY rates has accelerated in age groups younger than 50 years compared with the 1990-2010 time period, with the greatest annualised rate of decline occurring in the 0-9-year age group. Six infectious diseases were among the top ten causes of DALYs in children younger than 10 years in 2019: lower respiratory infections (ranked second), diarrhoeal diseases (third), malaria (fifth), meningitis (sixth), whooping cough (ninth), and sexually transmitted infections (which, in this age group, is fully accounted for by congenital syphilis; ranked tenth). In adolescents aged 10-24 years, three injury causes were among the top causes of DALYs: road injuries (ranked first), self-harm (third), and interpersonal violence (fifth). Five of the causes that were in the top ten for ages 10-24 years were also in the top ten in the 25-49-year age group: road injuries (ranked first), HIV/AIDS (second), low back pain (fourth), headache disorders (fifth), and depressive disorders (sixth). In 2019, ischaemic heart disease and stroke were the top-ranked causes of DALYs in both the 50-74-year and 75-years-and-older age groups. Since 1990, there has been a marked shift towards a greater proportion of burden due to YLDs from non-communicable diseases and injuries.

2007



2009



Opportunities for UbiComp in Mental Health?

“**Continuous multimodal monitoring** is of particular importance for preventing mental disorders. A relevant example is prevention of clinical depression. An early assessment of risk factors or an early detection of negative vital signs could significantly reduce this cost through early prevention.” (2010)

• Core Research Topics

- mobile sensing
- ecological momentary assessment
- mood & episode prediction
- psycho-education
- clinical diagnosis

B Amrich, O Mayora, JE Bardram, G Tröster. Pervasive healthcare: paving the way for a pervasive, user-centered and preventive healthcare model. *Methods Inf Med.* 2010;49(1):67-73.

Special Topic – Original Articles
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Pervasive Healthcare

Paving the Way for a Pervasive, User-centered and Preventive Healthcare Model

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Keywords
Pervasive healthcare, pervasive sensing, pervasive prevention, pervasive technology evaluation, ubiquitous computing

Summary
Objectives: The aging of the population creates pressure on the healthcare systems in various ways. A massive increase of chronic disease conditions and age-related illness are predicted as the dominant forces driving the future health care. The objective of this paper is to present future research demands in pervasive healthcare with the goal to meet the healthcare challenges by paving the way for a pervasive, user-centered and preventive healthcare model.
Methods: This paper presents recent methodological approaches and proposes future research topics in three areas: i) pervasive, continuous and reliable long-term monitoring systems; ii) prevention through pervasive technology as a key element to maintain life-long wellness; and iii) design and evaluation methods for ubiquitous, patient-centric technologies.
Results: Pervasive technology has been identified as a strong asset for achieving the vision of user-centered preventive healthcare. In order to make this vision a reality, new strategies for design, development and evaluation of technology have to find a common denominator and consequently interoperate. Moreover, the potential of pervasive healthcare technologies offers new opportunities beyond traditional disease treatment and may play a major role in prevention, e.g. motivate healthy behavior and disease prevention throughout all stages of life. In this sense, open challenges in future research have to be addressed such as the variability of health indicators between individuals and the manner in which relevant health indicators are provided to the users in order to maximize their motivation to mitigate or prevent unhealthy behaviors. Additionally, collecting evidence that pervasive technology improves health is seen as one of the toughest challenges. Promising approaches are recently introduced, such as “clinical proof-of-concept” and balanced observational studies.
Conclusions: The paper concludes that pervasive healthcare will enable a paradigm shift from the established centralized healthcare model to a pervasive, user-centered and preventive overall lifestyle health management. In order to provide these new opportunities everywhere, anytime and to anyone, future research in the fields of pervasive sensing, pervasive prevention and evaluation of pervasive technology is inevitably needed.

1. Introduction

Before the 20th century, medical care was delivered at home, through visits from mobile family physicians who packed the necessary medical technology into a doctor’s bag. In the 20th century rare and expensive resources, such as heavy technology and specialist providers, had to be centralized in hospitals to make their utilization effective [1]. Nowadays, the ageing of the population exerts pressure on the healthcare systems in various ways: increasing of chronic diseases and co-morbidity, problems of compliance to medication and lifestyle guidance among the elderly, and the need for long-term care and assistance of elderly people [2]. According to [3], a massive increase of chronic disease conditions and age-related illnesses are predicted as the dominant forces driving the future health care. Driven by quality and cost issues, the healthcare systems have to change radically in the near future from current healthcare professional-centric systems to distributed networked healthcare systems in which the individual becomes an active partner in the care process [4]. According to [5], there is the need to move from managing illness to maintaining wellness. In this transformation, pervasive technologies will play a major role [6]. Research on pervasive computing technologies for healthcare does not aim to replace traditional healthcare but is rather directed towards paving the way for a pervasive, user-centered and preventive healthcare model.

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1.1 Pervasive Healthcare Definition

Pervasive healthcare may be defined from two perspectives: 1) as the application of

Methods Inf Med 1/2010

MONARCA Project

- **Bipolar disorder** (manio-depressive)
- EU STREP project | **2010-2014** | 13 partners
- **Copenhagen team**
 - Psychiatric Center Copenhagen (RegionH)
 - IT University of Copenhagen
- **MONARCA system**
 - **Self-assessment** – mood | sleep | stress | medicine | ...
 - **Auto-assessment** – physical activity | mobility | social activity | phone usage
 - **Feedback** – visualizations | medication | actions-to-take | triggers | early-warning-signs | impact factors
 - **Mood forecast** – predict mood for next 5 days



User-centered Design



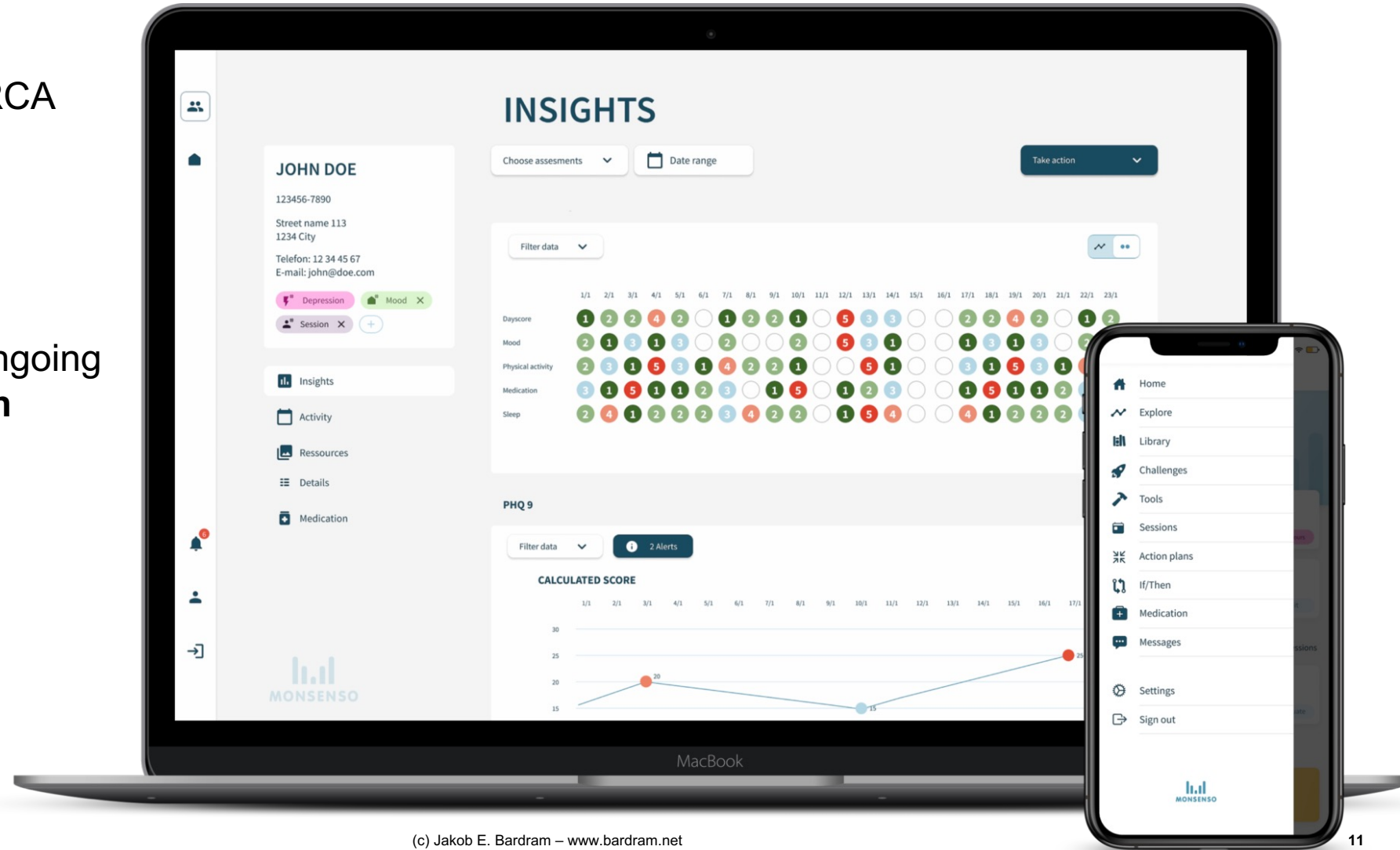
Double Loop



JE Bardram, MM Frost (2018). Double-loop health technology: enabling socio-technical design of personal health technology in clinical practice. In *Designing Healthcare That Works* (pp. 167-186). Academic Press.

Monsenso A/S

- **Founded 2015** based on the research done in the MONARCA project
- CE marked medical device
- Customers in 5+ countries
- The technological basis for ongoing **AI research in mental health**



AI IN MENTAL HEALTH

EXAMPLES



“AI” in Mental Health

Correlation

- self-reported mood
- mobility
- social activity
- physical activity
- voice

Classification

- disease classification
- state (e.g., manic/depressive episodes)

Prediction

- mood forecasting (1-5 days)
- relapse / remission
- readmission



X-Ray machine ca. 1950 [Wikipedia]

Correlations – Clinical

- Clinical Study
 - N=61 | 6 m | 19 m
 - HDRS-17 (depression) and YMRS (manic)
 - 400+ clinical ratings (monthly)
- Results
 - significant correlations between self-rated symptoms and YMRS
 - significant correlations between smartphone activity and clinical ratings on both HDRS-17 and YMRS
 - especially when grouped into 'states' (3 states)

"Smartphones provide an **easy and objective way** to monitor illness activity and could serve as an **electronic biomarker** for depressive and manic symptoms in patients with bipolar disorder."

Table 2. Correlations between self-monitored data^a collected using smartphones and depressive and manic symptoms measured using the HDRS-17 and YMRS, respectively^b

	Unadjusted			Adjusted ^c		
	Coefficient	95% CI	p-value	Coefficient	95% CI	p-value
Mood (scale: -3 to +3)						
HDRS-17	-0.055	-0.067 to -0.042	<0.001	-0.058	-0.071 to -0.045	<0.001
HDRS-17 sub-item 1 (mood)	-0.38	-0.45 to -0.30	<0.001	-0.38	-0.46 to -0.31	<0.001
YMRS	0.39	0.016-0.062	<0.001	0.039	0.017-0.062	<0.001
YMRS sub-item 1 (mood)	0.38	0.24-0.53	<0.001	0.38	0.24-0.53	<0.001
Sleep (hours/night)						
HDRS-17	-0.017	-0.048 to 0.014	0.28	-0.02	-0.052 to 0.011	0.21
YMRS	-0.047	-0.088 to -0.005	0.027	-0.047	-0.088 to -0.006	0.026
Activity						
HDRS-17	-0.037	-0.053 to -0.020	<0.001	-0.042	-0.059 to -0.025	<0.001
YMRS	0.047	0.022-0.072	<0.001	0.048	0.023-0.072	<0.001
HDRS-17	0.047	0.029-0.065	<0.001	0.046	0.027-0.064	<0.001
YMRS	0.12	-0.013 to 0.033	0.34	0.012	-0.013 to 0.037	0.35

^aAverages of the smartphone data were analyzed for the current day and three days before ratings with the HDRS-17 and YMRS, as these rating scales address symptoms over the last four days.

Table 5. Correlations between automatically generated objective data^a collected using smartphones and affective states according to the HDRS-17 and YMRS presented as categorical data^b, respectively^c

	Unadjusted			Adjusted ^d		
	Coefficient	95% CI	p-value	Coefficient	95% CI	p-value
Incoming calls (no./day)						
Asymptomatic versus mania	0.95	0.076-1.82	0.033	0.97	0.10-1.84	0.029
Duration incoming calls (sec/day)						
Asymptomatic versus hypomania	729.51	334.87-1124.13	<0.001	768.10	374.34-1161.86	<0.001
Outgoing calls (no./day)						
Asymptomatic versus hypomania	2.09	0.38-3.80	0.016	2.08	0.37-3.80	0.017
Duration outgoing calls (sec/day)						
Asymptomatic versus moderate to severe depression	452.17	149.56-754.78	0.003	421.57	111.55-731.60	0.008
Asymptomatic versus hypomania	623.15	173.63-1072.67	0.007	641.53	190.41-1092.65	0.005
Outgoing text messages (no./day)						
Asymptomatic versus mania	4.14	-0.38 to 8.67	0.073	4.42	-0.10 to 8.95	0.055

CI = confidence interval; HDRS-17 = Hamilton Depression Rating Scale-17 item; YMRS = Young Mania Rating Scale.
^aAverages of the smartphone data were analyzed for the current day and three days before ratings with the HDRS-17 and YMRS, as these rating scales address symptoms over the last four days.
^bScores on the HDRS-17 or YMRS ≤ 7 were defined as asymptomatic. Scores on the HDRS-17 or YMRS from 7 to 14 were defined as mild depression or hypomania. Scores on the HDRS-17 or YMRS ≥ 14 were defined as moderate to severe depression or mania.
^cAnalyses including all study participants; total N = 61.
^dAdjusted for age and sex.

M Faurholt-Jepsen, M Vinberg, M Frost, EM Christensen, JE Bardram, LV Kessing. Smartphone data as an electronic biomarker of illness activity in bipolar disorder. *Bipolar Disorders*. 17(1): 2015

Correlations – Mobility & Depression

Study

- N = 28 | healthy / non-diagnosed subjects
- PHQ-8 self-rated depression score

Mobility Metrics

- The total distance covered D_T
- The maximum distance between two locations D_H
- The radius of gyration G
- The standard deviation of the distance between consecutive locations σ_{dis}
- The maximum distance between two consecutive locations D_H
- The number of different places visited N_{dif}
- The number of different significant places visited N_{sig}
- The routine index R

"significant correlation between mobility trace characteristics and depressive moods."

Trajectories of Depression: Unobtrusive Monitoring of Depressive States by means of Smartphone Mobility Traces Analysis

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Mobility Metric	Average p-value		
	$T_{HIST} = 1$	$T_{HIST} = 14$	$T_{HIST} = 14$
D_T	0.152	0.402	0.401
D_H	0.160	0.432	0.425
G	0.147	0.343	0.422
σ_{dis}	0.199	0.417	0.431
D_H	0.191	0.358	0.297
N_{dif}	0.201	0.360	0.335
N_{sig}	0.227	0.336	0.385
R		0.368	0.262

Table 1: The averages of the absolute values of the correlations and of the p-values for different mobility metrics, for $T_{HIST} = 1$ day and $T_{HIST} = 14$ days.

L Canzian, M Musolesi. Trajectories of Depression: Unobtrusive Monitoring of Depressive States by means of Smartphone Mobility Traces Analysis. In: *Proceedings of the 2015 ACM International Joint Conference on Pervasive and Ubiquitous Computing (ACM UbiComp'15)*. ACM; 2015.

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need to quantitatively measure the user over a certain time period. For this reason, we first extract mobility traces for a user and we define and compute mobility metrics that summarize key features of the user movement pattern.

Correlations – Sensing & Mood

- Systematic review
 - behavioral features – mobile and wearable devices
 - depressive mood symptoms
 - patient w. affective disorders (unipolar & bipolar)
- 2,644 unique papers identified
 - 929 full papers screened
 - 46 papers included
- Studies divided into
 - clinical (i.e. , diagnosed) **N = 20**
 - non-clinical (“healthy individuals”) **N = 26**

AD Rohani, M Faurholt-Jepsen, LV Kessing, JE Bardram. Correlations Between Objective Behavioral Features Collected From Mobile and Wearable Devices and Depressive Mood Symptoms in Patients With Affective Disorders: Systematic Review. *JMIR Mhealth Uhealth*. 2018;6(8):e165.

Review

Correlations Between Objective Behavioral Features Collected From Mobile and Wearable Devices and Depressive Mood Symptoms in Patients With Affective Disorders: Systematic Review

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Abstract

Background: Several studies have recently reported on the correlation between objective behavioral features collected via mobile and wearable devices and depressive mood symptoms in patients with affective disorders (unipolar and bipolar disorders). However, individual studies have reported on different and sometimes contradicting results, and no quantitative systematic review of the correlation between objective behavioral features and depressive mood symptoms has been published.

Objective: The objectives of this systematic review were to (1) provide an overview of the correlations between objective behavioral features and depressive mood symptoms reported in the literature and (2) investigate the strength and statistical significance of these correlations across studies. The answers to these questions could potentially help identify which objective features have shown most promising results across studies.

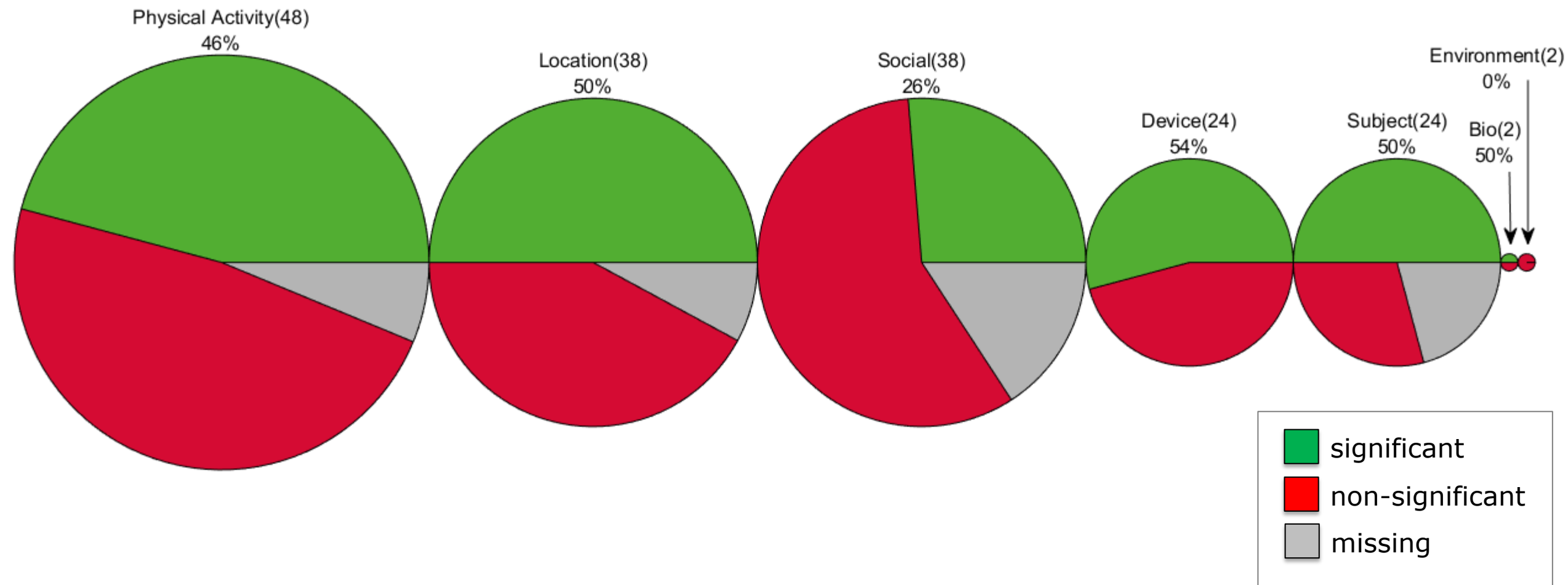
Methods: We conducted a systematic review of the scientific literature, reported according to the preferred reporting items for systematic reviews and meta-analyses guidelines. IEEE Xplore, ACM Digital Library, Web of Sciences, PsychINFO, PubMed, DBLP computer science bibliography, HTA, DARE, Scopus, and Science Direct were searched and supplemented by hand examination of reference lists. The search ended on April 27, 2017, and was limited to studies published between 2007 and 2017.

Results: A total of 46 studies were eligible for the review. These studies identified and investigated 85 unique objective behavioral features, covering 17 various sensor data inputs. These features were divided into 7 categories. Several features were found to have statistically significant and consistent correlation directionality with mood assessment (eg, the amount of home stay, sleep duration, and vigorous activity), while others showed directionality discrepancies across the studies (eg, amount of text messages [short message service] sent, time spent between locations, and frequency of mobile phone screen activity).

Conclusions: Several studies showed consistent and statistically significant correlations between objective behavioral features collected via mobile and wearable devices and depressive mood symptoms. Hence, continuous and everyday monitoring of behavioral aspects in affective disorders could be a promising supplementary objective measure for estimating depressive mood symptoms. However, the evidence is limited by methodological issues in individual studies and by a lack of standardization of (1) the collected objective features, (2) the mood assessment methodology, and (3) the statistical methods applied. Therefore, consistency in data collection and analysis in future studies is needed, making replication studies as well as meta-analyses possible.

(*JMIR Mhealth Uhealth* 2018;6(8):e165) doi:[10.2196/mhealth.9691](https://doi.org/10.2196/mhealth.9691)

Feature Categories



Classification – Bipolar vs. Healthy

- Bipolar Disorder (BD) vs. Healthy Controls (HC)
- N = 29 (BD) | 37 (HC)
- Sensitivity
 - BD vs. HC : (0.76)
 - euthymic vs. HC (0.66)

Table 3. Differences in smartphone data generated objective smartphone data between patients with bipolar disorder (BD; n=29) and healthy controls (HC; n=37).

Model ^b	Coefficient	95% confidence interval	p-value ^c	Snijders and Bosker
Manic or mixed state/HC	46.55	[3.00, 86.70]	0.013	0.050
BD, overall/HC	6.80	[-22.65, 36.25]	0.009	0.050
Euthymic state/HC	-72.44	[-112.70, -32.16]	0.020	0.050
Depressive state/HC	-36.67	[-79.72, 6.37]	0.021	0.050
Manic or mixed state/HC	12.24	[-43.06, 67.54]	0.003	0.050
BD, overall/HC	-50.00	[-86.82, -13.19]	0.007	0.050
Duration screen is 'on' (min/day)				
Euthymic state/HC	-72.44	[-112.70, -32.16]	<0.001	0.14
Depressive state/HC	-36.67	[-79.72, 6.37]	<0.001	0.14
Manic or mixed state/HC	12.24	[-43.06, 67.54]	<0.001	0.14
BD, overall/HC	-50.00	[-86.82, -13.19]	<0.001	0.14

Table 4. Classification of BD versus HC based on smartphone data.

Model ^b	AUC
Manic or mixed state/HC	0.76
BD, overall/HC	0.66
Euthymic state/HC	0.73
Depressive state/HC	0.64
Manic or mixed state/HC	0.76
BD, overall/HC	0.75

BD: Bipolar Disorder; HC: Healthy Controls; AUC: Area Under the Curve; NPV: negative predictive value; HDRS: Hamilton Depression Rating Scale; YMRS: Young Manic Rating Scale. HDRS ≥ 13 and YMRS < 13; manic state: YMRS score ≥ 13.

^aNumber of clinical assessments according to affective states: a depressive state – n=62; a manic or mixed state – n=21; a euthymic state – n=99; healthy control individuals – n=37.

^bAnalyses adjusted for age and gender.

^cp-values < 0.005 were considered statistically significant (Bonferroni correction).

“Objective smartphone data may represent a potential diagnostic marker in bipolar disorder and may be a candidate supplementary method to the diagnostic process in the future.”

M Faurholt-Jepsen, J Busk, H Þórarinsdóttir, M Frost, JE Bardram, M Vinberg, LV Kessing (2019). Objective smartphone data as a potential diagnostic marker of bipolar disorder. *Australian & New Zealand Journal of Psychiatry*, 53(2), 119-128.

Classification – Mobility & Affective Disorders

- Classification of affective disorders based on mobility patterns
 - bipolar disorder (mania-depression)
 - unipolar disorder (depression)
- T = 6 months
- N = 65 (BD) | N = 75 (UD)
- Mobility Features
 - no. stops
 - duration stops
 - ...
 - location entrophy

M Faurholt-Jepsen, J Busk, DA Rohani, M Frost, M Tønning, JE Bardram, LV Kessing (2022). Differences in mobility patterns according to machine learning models in patients with bipolar disorder and patients with unipolar disorder. *Journal of Affective Disorders*, 306, 246-253.



Table 3
Classification of patients with bipolar disorder (BD) versus patients with unipolar disorder (UD) based on combined passively collected smartphone-based location data.^a

	Sensitivity (SD) ^b	Specificity (SD) ^c	PPV ^d	NPV ^e	AUC ^f
UD, overall vs. BD, overall	0.70 (0.04)	0.65 (0.03)	0.70 (0.02)	0.64 (0.03)	0.75 (0.02)
UD, euthymic state vs. BD, euthymic state	0.78 (0.04)	0.65 (0.06)	0.81 (0.03)	0.61 (0.05)	0.79 (0.04)
UD, depressive state vs. BD, depressive state	0.70 (0.07)	0.77 (0.07)	0.68 (0.06)	0.78 (0.05)	0.79 (0.05)

^a Overall was defined as regardless the affective state; A euthymic state was defined as smartphone-based self-assessed mood < 1 and > -1; a depressive state was defined as smartphone-based self-assessed mood ≤ -1.

- ^b Sensitivity = true positive / positive.
- ^c Specificity = true negative / negative.
- ^d Positive predictive value.
- ^e Negative predictive value.
- ^f Area under the curve.

Machine learning models in bipolar disorder

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LV Kessing^{a,b}

^a Copenhagen, Denmark

bipolar disorder (BD) from unipolar disorder (UD) as the course of the two disorders. Measurements of activity and mobility could stigate differences in smartphone-based location data between BD specificity, and AUC of combined location data in classifying BD and

smartphone-based self-assessments of mood for six months, along with data on location reflecting mobility patterns, routine and location data and 75 patients with UD were included. and 2088 (patients with UD) observations of smartphone-based depressive state, compared with patients with UD, patients with BD (e.g., total duration of moves per day (e⁰ 0.74, 95% CI 0.57; 0.97, p depressive state, patients with BD versus patients with UD, there was a difference of 0.77 (SD 0.07), and an AUC of 0.79 (SD 0.03).

in the present study may have contributed to the magnitude of the difference. Mobile location data is a promising digital diagnostic marker in UD.

episodes. In this way, the diagnosis of BD could be overruled be helpful for clinicians to add a supplementary measure that could assist in the discrimination between the disorders considering the current state of illness.

Abilities in psychomotor activity are core features of affective disorders and have been addressed in several studies (Sobin and Sack-Kupfer et al., 1974; Kuls and Reschke, 1992; Beigel and 7/1). Results suggest that depression as part of BD is more manifest with psychomotor retardation and other atypical compared to depression as part of UD (Kupfer et al., 1974; Murphy, 1971; Mitchell et al., 2008; Nelson and Charney,

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0165-0327/© 2022 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved.

Classification – Voice & Mood (2016 & 2021)

Collection of voice features in naturalistic setting

- N=180 | 972 days
- clinical rating :: HDRS-17 (depression) and YMRS (mania)
- openSMILE (emolarge)

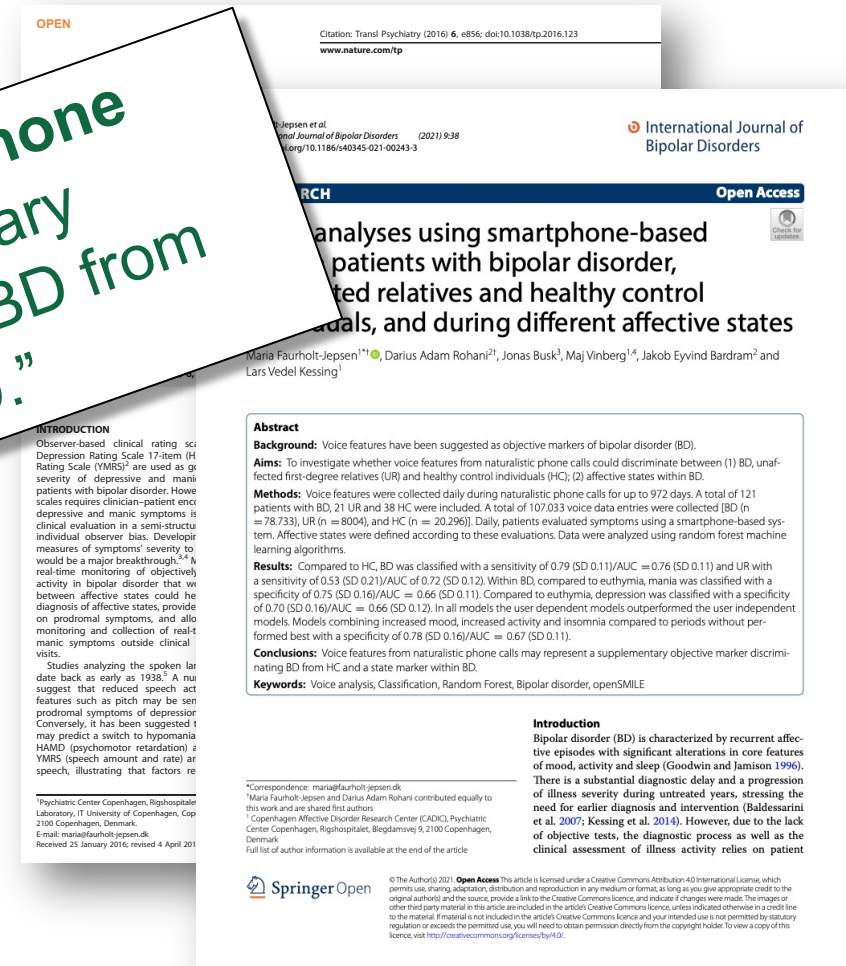
Classification results (user-defined)

- depressive state : 75% (100%)
- manic state : 75% (100%)
- bipolar state : 79% (100%)

“Voice features from naturalistic phone calls may represent a supplementary objective marker discriminating BD from HC and a state marker within BD.”

M Faurholt-Jepsen, J Busk, M Frost, M Vinberg, EM Christensen, O Winther, JE Bardram, LV Kessing (2016,). Voice analysis as an objective state marker in bipolar disorder. *Transl Psychiatry*. Macmillan Publishers Limited.

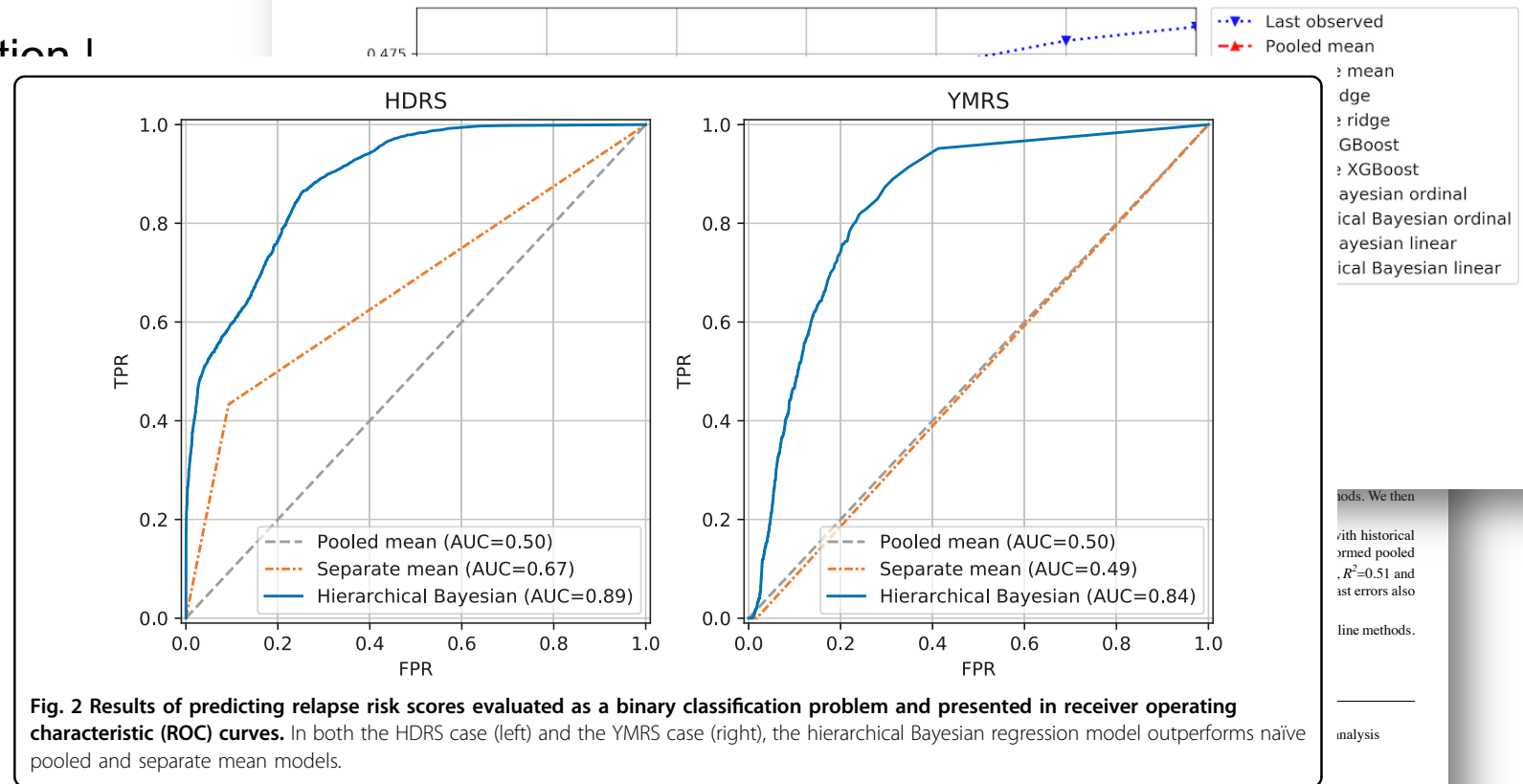
M Faurholt-Jepsen, DA Rohani, J Busk, M Vinberg, JE Bardram, LV Kessing (2021). Voice analyses using smartphone-based data in patients with bipolar disorder, unaffected relatives and healthy control individuals, and during different affective states. *International Journal of Bipolar Disorders*, 9, 1-13.



Prediction – Mood & Clinical Rating

- N=84 bipolar patients
- Self-reported data
 - activity | alcohol | mood | cognition |
- Prediction of **mood** up to 7 days
- Prediction of **clinical ratings**

Figure 6. Results of forecasting mood for up to seven days. The root mean squared error (RMSE) was evaluated in time-series cross-validation experiments for $w=4$ and $h=1$ through 7. As expected, the RMSE increases when forecasting further ahead. The proposed hierarchical models achieved consistently lower RMSEs than the baseline models.



J Busk, M Faurholt-Jepsen, M Frost, JE Bardram, LV Kessing, O Winther (2020). Forecasting mood in bipolar disorder from smartphone self-assessments: hierarchical bayesian approach. *JMIR mHealth and uHealth*, 8(4), e15028.

Prediction – Mobility & Depression

“Is it possible to monitor and diagnose a depressed mood by looking at the mobility trace collected from a smartphone of an individual?”

Study

- N = 28 | healthy / non-diagnosed subjects
- Predict the situation in which the use of a smartphone is significantly larger than its usual value

“It is possible to develop inference algorithms for unobtrusive monitoring and prediction of depressive mood disorders.”

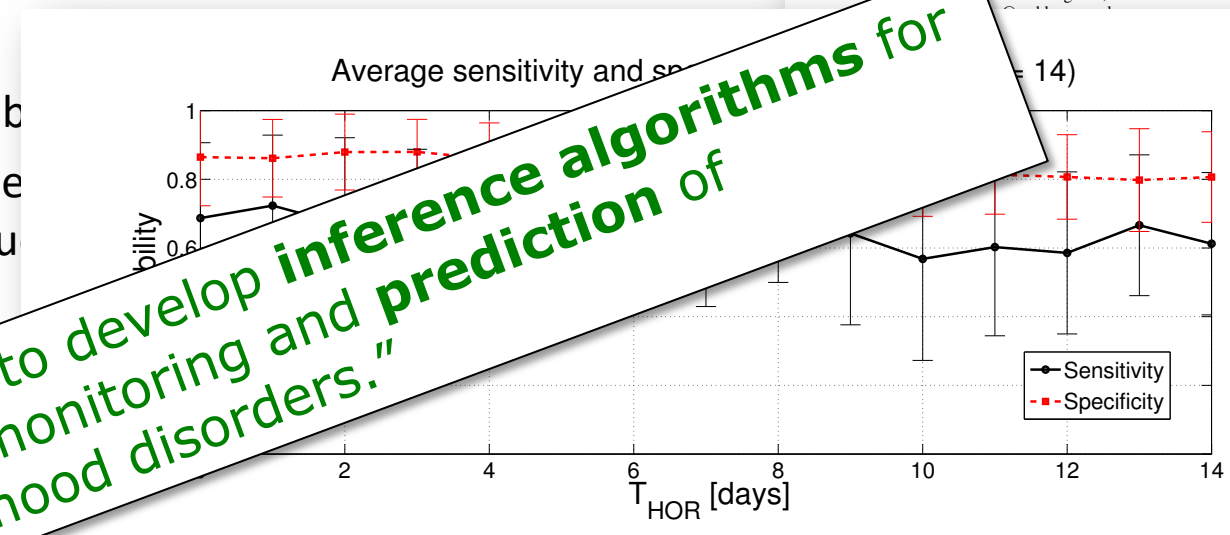


Figure 9: Average sensitivity and specificity values vs. T_{HOR} , for $T_{HIST} = 14$ days.

Trajectories of Depression: Unobtrusive Monitoring of Depressive States by means of Smartphone Mobility Traces Analysis

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to diagnose depression and mon-
tology is time-consuming, ex-
s, since it often relies on the
if-representation. As a conse-
sion state may be detected with
on and treatment more difficult.

investigated the potential use
onitoring stress, depression and
r example, [25, 6, 31, 24, 36, 1,
or supporting both patients and
lead, mobile phones are ubiqui-
ces, equipped with sensing cap-
y their owners during their daily
works mostly rely on periodic
ring. Our goal is to build sys-
sible, remove the need for user

of data that can be reliably col-
hone in a robust way, namely
investigate how it is possible
human mobility and depressive
d studies have shown that de-
of mobility and activity levels
vious work has shown that de-
phone sensor modalities to as-
ever, the focus was on the ac-
celerometer sensor [31], voice
e [24], colocation using Blue-
tterns [25], and call logs [5]. In
the characterization (also from
d exploitation of mobility data
s receivers embedded in today's
ally, this work for the first time
uestions: is there any correla-
extracted from GPS traces and
le to devise unobtrusive smart-
and exploit only mobility data
a potential depressed mood of

tions, we need to quantitatively
characterize the movements of the user over a certain time
interval and correlate them to a numeric indicator of the de-
pressed mood of a user. For this reason, we first extract mobil-
ity traces for a user and we define and compute mobility met-
rics that summarize key features of the user movement pat-

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WHAT DOES ALL THIS MEAN?



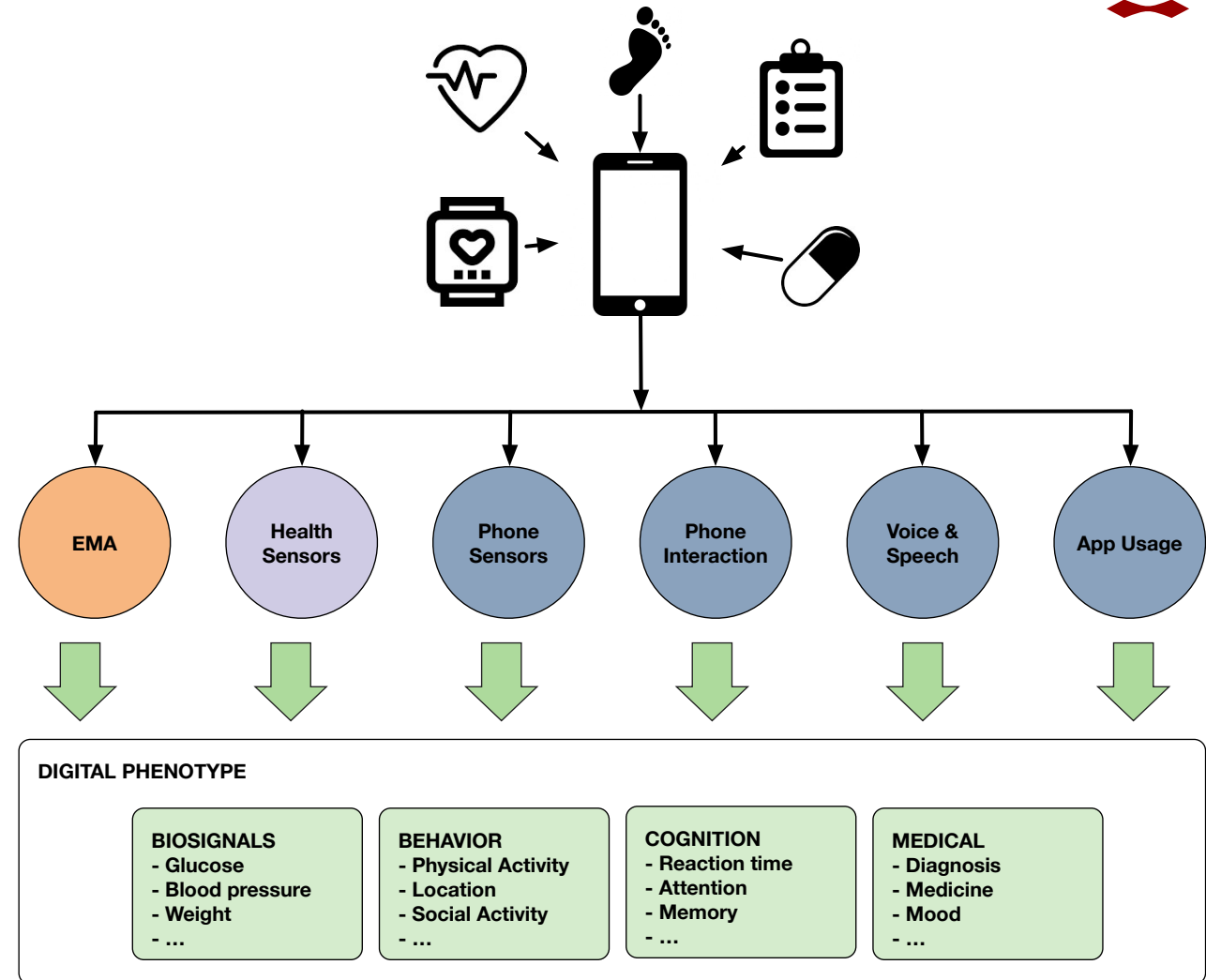
Status 2024 (Affective Disorders)

- Can smartphone-based **self-assessment** of mood be used clinically?
- Is there a correlation between **automatically sensed behavioral** markers and mental health?
- Can we **classify persons with mental health problems** compared to healthy subjects?
- Can we **classify the state** of mental health problems?
- Can we **predict the mood of a patient** with mental health problems?



Digital Phenotyping

- **Continuous**
 - 24/7, longitudinal,
- **Ambulatory**
 - “in-the-wild”, at home, ...
- **Unobtrusive**
 - consumer / everyday technology
 - mobile / wearable sensing
- **Large N’s**
 - large-scale deployment
 - “cheap” technology
- **Inference**
 - of behavior, cognition, health
 - based on health data science (AI/ML)



SH Jain, BW Powers, JB Hawkins, JS Brownstein (2015). The digital phenotype. *Nat Biotech*, 33(5), 462–463.

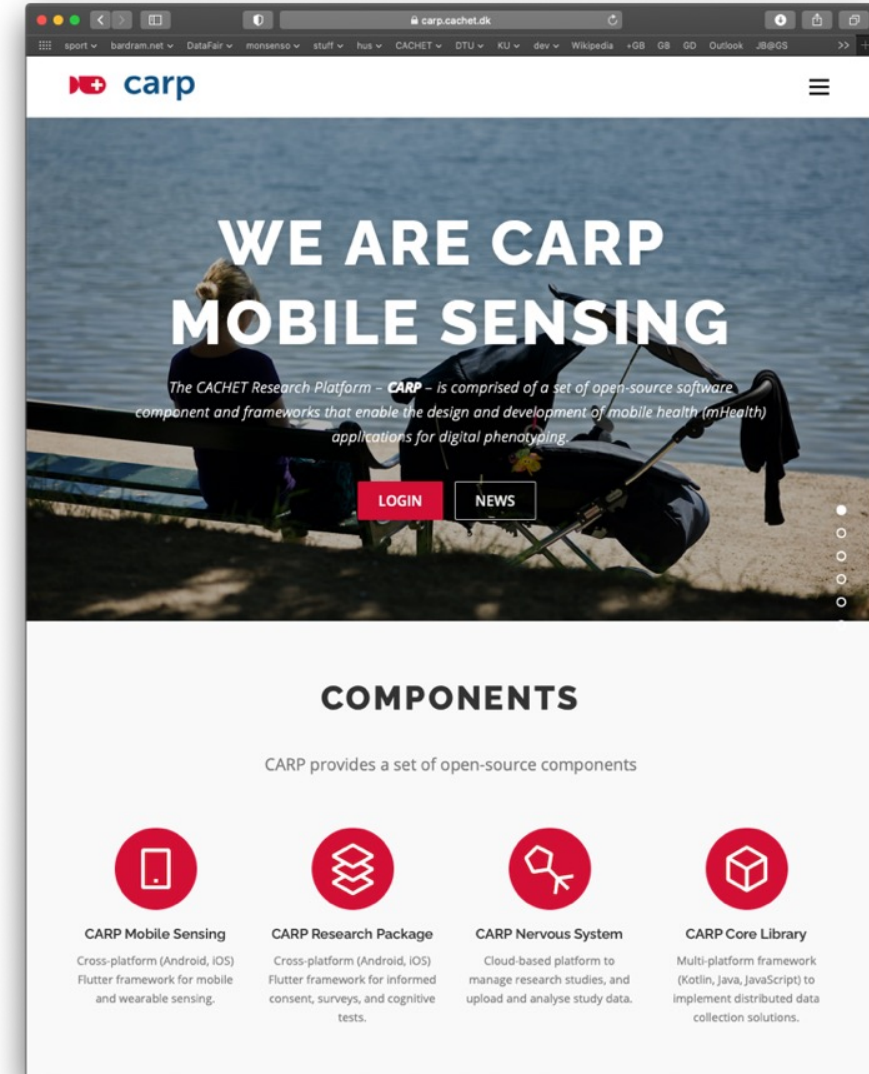
TR Insel (2017). Digital phenotyping: Technology for a new science of behavior. *JAMA*, 318(13), 1215–1216.

Copenhagen Research Platform – CARP

carp.cachet.dk

Large-scale data science platform for digital phenotyping and personal health technology

- **Open source [programming] framework**
 - multi-project platform used in many mHealth applications
 - developed and shared w industry partners
- **Sharing**
 - multi-study platform
 - analysis of data across multiple studies
- **Privacy & Security**
 - enabling privacy & security as part of platform (GDPR)
 - secure local hosting @ DTU Computerome
- **Standardization**
 - part of open international standards
 - FHIR, IEEE 1752, ORK, ORS, ...



QUESTIONS?



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