

## Review

# Digital Health Technology to Measure Drug Efficacy in Clinical Trials for Parkinson's Disease: A Regulatory Perspective

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**Abstract.** Digital health technology (DHT), including wearable and environmental sensors, video cameras and other electronic tools, has provided new opportunities for the measurement of movement and functionality in Parkinson's disease. Compared to current standards for evaluation of the disease (MDS-UPDRS), DHT may offer new possibilities for more frequent objective measurements of the duration, severity and frequency of disease manifestations over time, that may provide more information than periodic clinic visits. However, DHT measurement are only scientifically and medically useful if they are accurate, reliable and clinically meaningful. Verification and validation, also known as analytical validation and clinical validation, of DHT performance is important to ensure the accuracy and precision of measurements, and the specificity of findings. Given the wide range of clinical manifestations associated with Parkinson's disease and the many tools and metrics to assess them, the challenge is to identify those that may represent a standard for use in clinical trials, and to confirm when digital measurements succeed or fall short of capturing meaningful benefits during drug development.

**Keywords:** Parkinson's disease, digital health technology, wearable, mobile technology, drug development, FDA, regulatory

Digital health technology (DHT), that includes wearable and environmental sensors, video cameras and other electronic tools to evaluate disease remotely, has provided new opportunities for the measurement of movement and functionality. Accelerometers are present in our actigraphy gadgets, smart watches and smart phones. They can also

be customized to provide a continuous 3-dimensional measurement of limb and trunk movement in patients that would not be observed during an examination [1]. Some commercial systems combine accelerometers, gyroscopes and magnetometers into an algorithm, known as inertial measurement units (IMUs) to analyse spatio-temporal parameters [2]. Video cameras, wearable systems, gloves, and other environmental sensors can capture activity and movement.

The impact of Parkinson's disease (PD) on movement is profound and protean. Current standards for evaluating disease severity (e.g., Movement Disorder Society - Unified Parkinson's Disease Rating Scale, MDS-UPDRS) rely on subjective reporting, and some disagreement has been shown between assessments made by investigators and those made by study subjects [3, 4]. Disease rating scales are

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Table 1

Sensors Being Investigated for Measurement of Parkinson's Disease Symptoms and Assessments (Adapted from Rovini et al. and Rusz et al. [5, 6])

Parkinson's Disease Symptom/Assessment	Sensors and sensor-derived measurements	Type of DHT incorporating sensors
Tremor	accelerometer, electromyograph (EMG), gyroscope, inertial measurement unit (IMU)	smart clothes, smart phone, smart watch, wearable glove systems
Gait and Timed Up and Go (TUG) Test	accelerometer, electrocardiogram (ECG), force sensor, galvanic skin resistance (GSR) sensor, gyroscope, IMU	smart phone, smart watch
Freezing of Gait	ECG, electroencephalogram (EEG), EMG, force sensor, GSR sensor, IMU	earphones, headsets, smart phone, smart watch
Postural Instability	accelerometer, force sensor, gyroscope, IMU	smart phone, smart watch
Upper Limb Motion	accelerometer, EMG, force sensor, gyroscope, IMU	fingers, gloves, pens, smart phone, smart watch, wrists
Other Gait Symptoms (leg agility, rigidity, arm swing)	accelerometer, EMG, inertial sensor	smart phone, smart watch
Motor Fluctuations and On/Off Phases	accelerometer, ECG, EMG, gyroscope, IMU, micro-electromechanical system (MEMS)	smart home, smart phone, smart watch
Functionality Assessments	accelerometer, EMG, environmental sensor, gyroscope, IMU, MEMS	placed in the home environment, smart phone, smart watch, wearable systems
Speech Assessments	acoustic sensor	smart phone, smart watch

also limited by the periodicity of the measurement and recall bias. DHTs now offer the potential for objective measurement of tremor, gait deficits, freezing of gait, postural instability, upper limb motion, leg agility, rigidity, and motor fluctuations. Besides movement, abnormalities in cadence, tonal variation and fluency of speech in PD patients can also be analysed by DHTs. Table 1 describes the spectrum of sensors that are being investigated to capture symptoms and other assessments of PD [5, 6]. In addition to these passive measurements, sensors have been used to challenge patient performance. Tapping tests on a cell phone have distinguished patients with PD from healthy controls while motion detectors can be used to perform timed up-and-go tests [7, 8].

There is a large spectrum of DHT available for use in a clinical trial. Some DHT meet the definition of a medical device under the Federal Food, Drug and Cosmetic Act while some DHT do not [9, 10]. Generally, clearance or approval of the DHT for use in a clinical trial conducted under an Investigational New Drug (IND) application or an Investigational Device Exemption (IDE) [11, 12] is not a requirement unless the DHT will be marketed independently or as a combination product.

With seemingly limitless combinations of measurements, sensors, tests and algorithms, how are we to choose those that are most useful for drug development?

The first goal is to obtain measurements that have been demonstrated to be accurate and reliable over time and across patients, leading to solid scientific conclusions on drug efficacy. For the approval of drugs, the Food, Drug and Cosmetic Act requires that substantial evidence of effectiveness be provided that would allow experts to conclude that a drug would have the effect described in labelling [13]. To satisfy this regulation, DHTs should allow for a well-defined and reliable assessment of a patient's response to treatment. Verification and validation are important to confirm the accuracy and precision of measurements. Analytical validation and clinical validation ensure the reliability of algorithms that translate accelerometry or other sensor readings into clinical observations (e.g., tremor, falls, steps) [14]. Current standards for measurement of drug effect rely largely on patient reported outcomes, neurological examinations and face-to-face consultations and these are useful benchmarks against which to evaluate new measurements.

Not all the manifestations of PD are equally amenable to measurement by DHTs. Some aspects of functionality may be best assessed during in-person visits. On the other hand, for some manifestations, DHT measurements may outperform the assessments of observers. Experiments manipulating the intensity of deep-brain stimulation in PD patients have shown that some sensor measurements are more sensitive and less variable than human scoring on components

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103 of the UPDRS. Some disease features such as free-  
104 zing of gait are unpredictable and difficult to assess  
105 during clinic visits. These have been successfully  
106 evaluated using DHT in laboratory conditions and  
107 DHT may allow for greater opportunities for detec-  
108 tion when used to monitor patients at home [15].

109 Clinical validation of DHT should ensure that  
110 individuals with and without PD can be clearly dis-  
111 tinguished. Depending on the characteristic being  
112 measured, specificity of measurements may be chal-  
113 lenging. Tremor in PD varies in frequency and  
114 amplitude. A study by Hossen et al. showed that  
115 accelerometers failed to distinguish between the  
116 tremor of PD and essential tremor in 10% of subjects  
117 [16]. In a review of studies comparing accelero-  
118 meters to video-recordings to capture freezing of gait,  
119 validity values ranged from 73 to 100% for sensitiv-  
120 ity, and from 67 to 100% for specificity. The authors  
121 concluded that there is a lack of consistency in out-  
122 comes measured, methods of assessing validity, and  
123 reported results. Given these limitations, the valida-  
124 tion of sensor-derived assessments of PD features  
125 would benefit from increased collaboration among  
126 researchers, aligning data collection protocols, and  
127 sharing data sets [17]. Many DHT measurements are  
128 in the early stages of research and warrant larger sam-  
129 ple sizes with patients with varying stages of disease  
130 progression.

131 Shortfalls in the specificity of sensors suggest that  
132 using more than one modality of measurement may  
133 be an important strategy, just as current clinical scor-  
134 ing systems measure many facets of the disease. In  
135 a study using smartphones to measure five different  
136 tasks (voice test, posture test, gait test, finger tapping  
137 test and reaction time test) performed by 10 patients  
138 with PD and 10 healthy controls, the mean sensitivity  
139 of the smartphone measurements for detection of PD  
140 was 96.2% (SD 2%) and mean specificity was 96.9%  
141 (SD 1.9%) [18]. While multiple measurements add to  
142 the richness and specificity of the assessment, the sta-  
143 tistical plan used to determine the outcome of a trial  
144 using multiple measurements must be prespecified  
145 to avoid the pitfalls of multiplicity and the increas-  
146 ing risk of false positive findings when many tests of  
147 efficacy are combined [19].

148 The ability to capture the impact of known effec-  
149 tive treatments is another indication that the DHT  
150 will be useful in evaluating new treatments. Using  
151 wrist and ankle sensors, Pulliam et al. were able to  
152 quantify the effect of a dose of levodopa on tremor,  
153 bradykinesia and dyskinesia in 13 patients with PD.  
154 The measurements made by these sensors correlated

155 with video-recording evaluations made by clinicians  
156 [20]. Investigators have reported the ability to distin-  
157 guish on from off periods, which is another indication  
158 the drug effect is captured [21].

159 A second goal is to ensure that trial endpoints  
160 involving DHT measurements represent clinically  
161 meaningful responses to a drug; interpreted in FDA  
162 regulations as those with an impact on how patients  
163 feel, function or survive. The clinical benefit of some  
164 sensor readings is self-evident. Weiss et al. found  
165 that a 3-day sample of gait recordings using a 3-  
166 D accelerometer placed in the middle of the back  
167 served as a predictor of falls within the next year  
168 [22]. The clinical meaningfulness of other sensor  
169 measurements may be less obvious. For example,  
170 measurements of tremor may not reflect the func-  
171 tional impairments that patients find most disabling.  
172 Early engagement of patients is a cornerstone in  
173 determining the relevance of endpoints that involve  
174 functional measurements made by DHT [23]. “The  
175 Voice of the Patient” is part of FDA’s Patient-Focused  
176 Drug Development initiative to incorporate perspec-  
177 tives from patients, caretakers and other patient  
178 representatives on the most significant effects of  
179 PD on their daily lives and experiences with cur-  
180 rently available therapies [24]. In addition to patients,  
181 engagement of a variety of stakeholders, including  
182 caregivers, disease experts and regulatory authorities  
183 would be necessary to determine the meaningfulness  
184 of certain measurements in a clinical trial.

185 Challenge tests are helpful to assess activities of  
186 daily living in patients with PD. Using a mobile app,  
187 Zhan et al. challenged individuals with and with-  
188 out PD to perform various tasks reflecting speech,  
189 dexterity, gait, balance, and reaction time and used  
190 machine-learning on these tasks to create a PD sever-  
191 ity score. The authors aimed to provide a clinically  
192 meaningful assessment of patients in their real-world  
193 environments [25]. Extensive research has been con-  
194 ducted with machine learning to analyse and predict  
195 freezing of gait, tremors and falls. Machine learning  
196 algorithms provide new opportunities for long-term  
197 monitoring of a drug’s effectiveness as well as disease  
198 progression [26, 27].

199 Selection of the metrics best suited to disease eval-  
200 uation presents another challenge. Just looking at  
201 gait characteristics using machine learning, Rehman  
202 et al. identified five different clinical characteristics  
203 (step velocity, mean step length, step length variabil-  
204 ity, mean step width, and step width variability) that  
205 classified PD [28]. Among the plethora of possible  
206 measurements, principle component analyses have

207 been helpful to whittle down to those that account  
208 for most of the variance in the data [29].

209 Given the complexity of PD and the innumerable  
210 possible measurements that can be made, the chal-  
211 lenge is to find those that best reflect meaningful  
212 responses to treatment and that can be used as a stan-  
213 dard in clinical studies. What is an optimal sampling  
214 interval to obtain a stable estimate of function? Do  
215 we focus on average measurements or outlying mea-  
216 surements? Where do we position sensors, and how  
217 many do we need? Not all the pathological features  
218 will be captured even when multiple sensors are used,  
219 and drugs may also only affect some of these features.  
220 Different measurements may be needed for different  
221 stages of the disease, and for drugs with different  
222 mechanisms of action.

223 Finally, DHTs should be useable and safe for  
224 study participants. In general, large uncomfortable  
225 wearables, or DHTs that require fine-motor skills to  
226 use them and those that need technological know-  
227 how are unlikely to get the necessary cooperation  
228 from patients. DHTs need to be physically safe  
229 to use, electronically secure, and trustworthy when  
230 recording personally identifiable information. FDA  
231 regulations are designed to ensure the safety and  
232 welfare of subjects enrolled in clinical investiga-  
233 tions, detailing requirements for safety reporting and  
234 Institutional Review Board supervision and allowing  
235 clinical holds when “human subjects are or would  
236 be exposed to an unreasonable and significant risk of  
237 illness or injury” [30].

238 From a regulatory perspective, adequate and well-  
239 controlled studies are the basis of determining  
240 whether there is “substantial evidence” to support  
241 the claims of effectiveness for new drugs [31]. The  
242 comparative structure of a clinical trial is important  
243 to be able to conclude that the measured effect can  
244 be attributed to the drug. Randomized and blinded  
245 trials showing superiority of the investigational treat-  
246 ment to control, inherently confirm that the sensor is  
247 detecting an effect. Such studies may involve parallel  
248 arm controls or crossover within individuals. Absent  
249 substantial experience with sensors, non-inferiority  
250 studies are likely to be difficult to interpret since the  
251 effects of comparator drug on the proposed sensor  
252 measurements may not be known. Consequently, we  
253 may not know whether both arms were effective or  
254 ineffective.

255 Besides their potential for scientific improvements  
256 in measurement, DHTs may be able to gather much of  
257 the needed study measurements from participants in  
258 their home environments, offering a new dimension

259 of convenience for patients. Such decentralized clin-  
260 ical trials may make it much easier for patients with  
261 mobility challenges and other personal and practical  
262 obstacles in getting to study sites, to participate in  
263 clinical research.

264 Sensors cannot capture certain aspects of a face-  
265 to-face interview, a physical examination of patient’s  
266 balance or muscle tone. With increasing use of digital  
267 measurements in clinical trials, it will be important  
268 to ensure that we do not ignore these aspects of the  
269 disease. There are situations where sensors are more  
270 accurate and sensitive than human raters, and situ-  
271 ations where human raters are more discerning and  
272 specific than sensors. Careful studies will be needed  
273 to demonstrate when digital measurements succeed  
274 or fall short of capturing meaningful benefits during  
275 drug development.

## 276 CONFLICT OF INTEREST

277 The authors have no conflicts of interest to report.

## 278 DISCLAIMER

279 The opinions expressed in this article are those of  
280 the authors and are not intended to reflect the position  
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