

Demographic and clinical characteristics of patients with borderline personality disorder: Real-world insights from a retrospective observational study

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1 **Abstract**

2 **Background:** Current treatment modalities demonstrate variable effectiveness across patients with
3 borderline personality disorder (BPD). Here, we describe the presenting clinical characteristics of
4 patients with BPD based on approximately 20 years of real-world data.

5 **Methods:** This retrospective, observational study was based on de-identified MindLinc electronic
6 health records of individuals (aged ≥ 12 years with ≥ 1 diagnosis of BPD) receiving mental healthcare
7 between 1999 and 2020 across 15 US states using the NeuroBlu database (vRel21R2). Demographic
8 and clinical characteristics at first recorded BPD diagnosis (index date), baseline (index date ± 14
9 days), and in the 12 months prior to diagnosis were described. BPD symptoms were derived by
10 natural language processing (NLP) of unstructured clinician-documented mental state examination
11 (MSE) data.

12 **Results:** Across the 13,444 patients analysed at baseline (mean [SD] age 33 [12.8] years; 83.6%
13 female; 97.5% with psychiatric comorbidities), the most frequent comorbid psychiatric conditions
14 were major depressive disorder (45.7%), substance use disorder (34.6%) and post-traumatic stress
15 disorder (29.2%). Emotional dysregulation (35.8%) and suicidal intent/ideation (31.3%) were the
16 most frequent NLP-derived BPD symptoms. Emotional dysregulation was more common in older
17 patients, whereas suicidal intent/ideation/attempt/self-injury were more prevalent in younger
18 patients. Mean (SD) length of hospitalisation was 2.9 (4.2) days, with 46.5% of patients requiring ≥ 1
19 psychiatric hospitalisation. At diagnosis, 67.7% of patients were prescribed pharmacological
20 treatment, including antidepressants (51.1%), second-generation antipsychotics (34.0%) and
21 anticonvulsants (33.7%).

22 **Conclusion:** BPD symptoms varied according to patient characteristics, including age and gender.
23 These insights may enable patient-specific treatment planning in the future and improve therapeutic
24 outcomes.

25 **Keywords:** Borderline personality disorder, emotional dysregulation, patient characteristics,
26 psychiatric comorbidities, real-world

27 **Introduction**

28 Borderline personality disorder (BPD) is a serious psychiatric disorder characterised by a pervasive
29 pattern of emotional dysregulation and instability in relationships and identity (APA, 2013). Patients
30 also often experience marked impulsivity, in addition to fear of abandonment, intense anger and
31 suicidal thoughts/behaviours (APA, 2013). In the US, the estimated lifetime prevalence of BPD is 1.4–
32 2.7% (APA, 2023). Typically, BPD manifests in adolescence with predominant symptoms of emotional
33 dysregulation and impulsivity, and develops further in early adulthood with maladaptive
34 interpersonal functioning and enduring functional impairment (Videler et al., 2019). Furthering the
35 complex symptomatology of BPD among the patient population is the frequent presentation of
36 comorbid mental health disorders, such as mood disorders (82.7%), anxiety disorders (84.8%),
37 substance use disorders (SUD) (78.2%) and eating disorders (33.1%) (Barnow et al., 2007; Tomko et
38 al., 2014).

39 Interestingly, gender-related differences have been observed in BPD, with diagnosis predominantly
40 in females and gender-specific variation displayed in symptom expression and comorbidity (APA,
41 2013; Barnow et al., 2007; Grant et al., 2008; Herpertz et al., 2017; Johnson et al., 2003; Zlotnick et
42 al., 2002). While females show an increased prevalence of comorbid mood disorders, eating
43 disorders, and post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), males have a higher prevalence of comorbid
44 SUD and antisocial personality disorder, along with symptoms related to aggression, anger and
45 impulsivity (Barnow et al., 2007; Grant et al., 2008; Herpertz et al., 2017; Johnson et al., 2003;
46 Zlotnick et al., 2002).

47 There are currently no approved pharmacological treatments for BPD. Instead, psychotherapy is
48 considered the first-line treatment option, but is limited by significant costs, availability of specialist
49 clinicians, and the need for high levels of patient commitment (Hastrup et al., 2019; McMMain et al.,
50 2022; Paris, 2015; Stoffers-Winterling et al., 2022). Despite this, pharmacological treatment is
51 common in patients with BPD due to off-label use and the prescribing of medications for comorbid
52 mental health conditions, such as selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors, mood stabilisers, second-
53 generation antipsychotics and benzodiazepines (APA, 2023; Pascual et al., 2023; Stoffers-Winterling
54 et al., 2022). However, evidence is inconsistent for the efficacy of these medications in reducing the
55 severity of BPD (Gartlehner et al., 2021).

56 BPD is associated with substantial personal and economic burden on patients and their families.
57 According to a Danish study, the total average annual costs for healthcare and lost productivity are
58 16-fold higher than for individuals without BPD (Hastrup et al., 2019). The burden of BPD is largely

59 attributable to its complex symptomatology, which creates diagnostic and therapeutic challenges.
60 Accordingly, diagnosis of BPD requires comprehensive evaluation of patient history and
61 presentation, and many diagnosable cases of BPD are missed in routine clinical practice (Tedesco et
62 al., 2024; Zimmerman and Mattia, 1999).

63 The multifaceted nature of BPD in terms of its clinical characteristics, comorbidities, and potential
64 subtypes contributes to individual variations in the effectiveness of pharmacological treatments.
65 However, limited data from large observational studies are available that describe BPD symptoms
66 and treatment responses. Through the use of real-world observational data, this study aimed to
67 explore the characteristics, symptoms and treatment patterns of patients with BPD within a large US
68 dataset. Here, we describe the clinical and demographic characteristics of US patients with BPD in
69 the 12 months prior to, and at the time of, first diagnosis based on approximately 20 years of real-
70 world observational data that include mental state examination (MSE) data. It was hypothesised that
71 the study population would be typical of patients with BPD: female to male ratio of approximately
72 3:1, first presentation during early adulthood (APA, 2013) and frequent occurrence of comorbid
73 psychiatric disorders, in particular anxiety disorder, major depressive disorder (MDD), PTSD and SUD
74 (Shah and Zanarini, 2018). By gaining a deeper understanding of the clinical and demographic
75 characteristics of patients at the time of diagnosis, both the design of clinical trials evaluating new
76 treatments and patient care could be improved.

77 **Methods**

78 *Data source*

79 This retrospective, observational study utilised de-identified electronic health record (EHR) data
80 from US mental healthcare providers operating the MindLinc EHR system contained within the
81 NeuroBlu database (version Rel21R2) (Patel et al., 2022).

82 *Study design and setting*

83 Data between 1999 and 2020 were assessed. The index date was defined as the first date of BPD
84 diagnosis (International Classification of Diseases [ICD]-9: 301.83/ICD-10: F60.3) recorded in the
85 database. Due to variations in the frequency and/or timing of patient visits, a 14-day window on
86 either side of the index date (baseline period) was applied to capture demographic and clinical
87 characteristics. Data were collected at the time of diagnosis and for the 12 months preceding
88 diagnosis. EHR data were analysed from individuals receiving mental healthcare from outpatient,
89 inpatient (including emergency room [ER] visit) and residential care facilities across 15 states in the

90 US. Data extracted from the EHR database comprised structured patient-level data, including
91 demographic information (e.g. age) and quantitatively measured clinical variables (e.g. Clinical
92 Global Impression – Severity [CGI-S] score) (Patel et al., 2022), and unstructured free text, including
93 a semi structured ‘status assessment’ field in which clinicians could document features associated
94 with a patient’s MSE. The status assessment field allowed clinicians to choose predefined features
95 from a list of options. However, because predefined features do not adequately capture the
96 complexity and variability of MSE between different individuals, clinicians could also document
97 features using the aforementioned unstructured free text. This unstructured free text was then
98 transformed into structured, quantifiable data using natural language processing (NLP) (Mukherjee
99 et al., 2020), including social stressor data that are not commonly available in real-world datasets.

100 The full details of the NLP pipeline extraction methods and accuracy statistics have been previously
101 published (Mukherjee et al., 2020). The original 69 categories from the clinical status assessment in
102 the MindLinc EHR are reclassified into 27 standardised categories by a subject matter expert
103 (Mukherjee et al., 2020). Within each category, the most common sentences in the free text are
104 subcategorised into factors (Mukherjee et al., 2020). An optimiser trains the NLP model in an
105 iterative process to learn these classifications and predict new classifications which are validated by
106 the subject matter expert (Mukherjee et al., 2020). For this study, the raw MSE data for each patient
107 are “cleaned” and passed through the NLP model. This model identifies certain text strings which
108 may reflect a particular MSE feature and extracts this information. The final output is a data table for
109 each patient, which represents whether a given MSE feature is present or absent within their EHR.
110 For the long short-term memory-based NLP model, Mukherjee et al. reported a median area under
111 the receiver operating characteristics (AUROC) curve of approximately 0.9 for the 241 individual MSE
112 features (or symptoms) in the NeuroBlu dataset (Mukherjee et al., 2020). The current study
113 identified 18 of these MSE features as reflective of key symptoms of BPD (**Supplementary Table 1**).

114 *Participants*

115 Data were analysed for patients who met the prespecified inclusion criteria of at least one diagnosis
116 of BPD (ICD-9: 301.83/ICD-10: F60.3) recorded between 2001 and 2020, and age ≥ 12 years at the
117 time of first recorded diagnosis. The requirement for only one recorded diagnosis of BPD was based
118 on the relative underdiagnosis of BPD in clinical practice, thus providing a larger and therefore
119 better-powered sample size. No exclusion criteria were defined for this analysis.

120 *Ethical considerations*

121 This study was conducted in accordance with the 1964 Declaration of Helsinki and its subsequent
122 amendments (October 2013). A waiver of HIPAA authorisation was obtained prior to study conduct
123 and covers data originating from all sites represented. Approval was granted by the Western-
124 Copernicus Group (WCG) Institutional Review Board (The Holmusk Real-World Evidence Parent
125 Protocol; IRB registration number 1-1470336-1; Protocol ID HolmuskRWE_1.0).

126 *Variables*

127 The variables analysed were baseline demographic and clinical characteristics, including illness
128 severity (CGI-S) and psychiatric comorbidities, and in the 12 months prior to diagnosis. Clinically
129 relevant symptoms indicative of BPD, as derived by NLP of clinician-documented information in the
130 MSE fields of clinical notes, were also assessed for the overall population and by age subgroup.
131 Additional endpoints included psychiatric hospitalisation (days) in the 12 months before and after
132 diagnosis (calculated by hospital inpatient episode end date minus hospital inpatient episode start
133 date + 1 day), and pharmacological treatment for the 12 months prior to baseline and at baseline.
134 For patients who did not receive pharmacological treatment at baseline, time to first treatment was
135 analysed. For subgroup analysis, patients were categorised by age as 12–17 / 18–25 / 26–35 / 36–45
136 / 46–55 / 56–65 / >65 years.

137 *Bias*

138 Since data from real-world clinical practice are not recorded in a uniformly structured manner, the
139 missing data may introduce a selection bias if certain types of patients are more likely to have
140 missing data. In the case of mental healthcare, patients who are more unwell may have increased
141 contact with mental healthcare services and therefore have more data recorded and are more likely
142 to meet inclusion criteria for entry into the study cohort. Conversely, patients who are more unwell
143 may disengage from services and therefore have more missing data. Potential sources of bias were
144 addressed where feasible. Data interpretation was conducted with input from clinical experts with
145 experience in EHR data analytics to identify where results could be biased by confounding or other
146 artefactual findings. The term 'gender' was subject to the interpretation of the reporting clinician.

147 *Statistical analysis*

148 Data were reported as descriptive statistics from a cross-sectional analysis of baseline clinical and
149 demographic variables, with continuous variables summarised by mean (standard deviation; SD) or
150 median (interquartile range; IQR). Categorical and ordinal variables were summarised by frequency

151 and percentage. Between-group comparisons were performed to compare demographic and clinical
152 characteristics between subgroups. Chi-square analysis or Mann-Whitney U tests were used to
153 compare distributions between categorical subgroups. A significance level of 0.05 was used for all
154 analyses.

155 **Results**

156 *Participants*

157 Of the 13,788 patients in the database with a diagnosis of BPD, 13,444 patients met the inclusion
158 criteria for the study (**Supplementary Figure 1**).

159 *Patient characteristics*

160 Mean (SD) age at the index date was 33 (12.8) years, 83.6% of patients were female and the majority
161 of patients (59.1%) were white (**Table 1**). Over half of patients were aged 18–35 years; 3591 (26.7%)
162 in the 18–25-year category and 3654 (27.2%) in the 26–35-year category. BPD diagnosis was most
163 commonly made in an outpatient setting (n=9650; 71.8%). The mean (SD) CGI-S score was 4.6 (1.1),
164 with the majority of patients (n=9064; 67.4%) having CGI-S scores of 4–5, reflecting moderate to
165 marked illness. Nearly all patients (97.5%) had ≥ 1 psychiatric comorbidity at baseline (index date \pm
166 14 days). MDD was the most common comorbidity both in the 12 months prior to baseline (42.7%)
167 and at baseline (45.7%) (**Table 2 and Supplementary Table 2**). Other common comorbidities
168 included anxiety disorders, SUD and PTSD.

169 Emotional dysregulation (characterised by symptom labels identified by NLP: affect - aggressive,
170 affect - irritable/angry, affect - labile, affect - intense, mood - irritable/angry, mood - labile) was the
171 most frequently reported symptom of BPD at baseline (35.8% of patients, n=4370), followed by
172 suicidal intent/ideation (31.3%, n=3819) (**Table 3**). Suicidal attempt/self-injury was reported in 14.0%
173 of patients (n=1706) and impulsivity in 0.3% of patients (n=42). A high proportion of all 13,444
174 patients had a history of negative family (50.7%) and social (26.7%) stressors. Negative family stress
175 was mainly attributed to physical (13.7%), sexual (10.8%) and emotional (7.1%) abuse or isolation
176 (12.5%) and separation (13.6%). In addition, there was a high occurrence of poverty (21.1%),
177 unemployment (18.6%) and victims of crime (17.0%) among patients with a BPD diagnosis.

178 *BPD symptoms by age group*

179 When BPD symptoms at baseline were analysed by age, emotional dysregulation was more
180 pronounced in patients aged ≥ 46 years (39.0–39.9%) than those aged 12–45 years (34.0–36.0%),
181 with significant differences across all age categories ($p < 0.05$) (**Table 3**). Significant differences

182 between age group categories were also found in irritable/angry and labile affect and irritable/angry
183 mood (all $p < 0.05$). A greater proportion of patients with suicidal intent/ideation was observed
184 among the 12–25 year age group (33.9–37.6%) compared with those aged ≥ 26 years (28.6–30.2%),
185 with a similar trend being observed for suicidal attempt/self-injury (17.4–18.5% for the 12–25 year
186 group and 7.1–13.3% for those aged ≥ 26 years); the differences across age categories for both these
187 parameters were statistically significant ($p < 0.05$). Patients aged 56–65 years had the lowest
188 tendency for suicidal intent/ideation (28.6%), whereas patients aged > 65 years had the lowest
189 tendency for suicidal attempt/self-injury (7.1%).

190 *Hospitalisation*

191 Approximately half of patients (46.5%) had been hospitalised at least once in the 12 months prior to
192 diagnosis (**Table 4**). In patients with ≥ 1 psychiatric hospitalisation in the 12 months prior to
193 diagnosis, mean (SD) length of stay was 2.9 (4.2) days. An increase in hospitalisations was observed
194 in the 12 months following diagnosis; among patients with ≥ 1 psychiatric hospitalisation, the
195 proportion with > 3 psychiatric hospitalisations increased from 3.6% at baseline to 11.5% at 12
196 months post diagnosis.

197 *Treatment patterns*

198 **Figure 1** shows pharmacological treatment during the baseline period categorised under
199 prespecified treatment groups. In the overall population, 9101 (67.7%) patients were prescribed
200 pharmacological treatment during the baseline period. For the 4343 (32.3%) patients with no
201 pharmacological treatment during baseline, mean (SD) time to first treatment was 211 (439) days
202 (median [IQR] 57 [149] days). In both the 12 months prior to and including baseline and at baseline
203 alone, the most common medication classes prescribed were antidepressants, second-generation
204 antipsychotics and anticonvulsants (**Figure 1**). The proportion of patients that received treatment in
205 the 12 months prior to and including baseline (79.5%) was higher than at baseline alone (67.7%).

206 **Discussion**

207 This retrospective, observational study analysed the demographic and clinical characteristics of a
208 large cohort of patients with BPD in the US to better understand the disorder and gain real-world
209 insights that may help inform future study designs and improve patient care.

210 At 33 years, the mean age of patients at baseline (index date ± 14 days) is slightly older than reports
211 in the wider literature, where BPD symptoms have been described to develop throughout
212 adolescence and typically “peak” during late adolescence or early adulthood. This suggests that

213 there may be a long interval between onset and diagnosis of BPD (Bohus et al., 2021; Videler et al.,
214 2019). While 18.9% of patients in the dataset were diagnosed after age 45, it is unclear if these were
215 first-time diagnoses. It should also be considered that younger individuals with BPD may be
216 underrepresented in the study population. Although diagnostic criteria for BPD are consistent across
217 age groups, current clinical guidelines, such as those from the National Institute for Health and Care
218 Excellence, recommend caution in formally diagnosing individuals age <18 years due to its stigma
219 and limited temporal stability (Garland and Miller, 2020). Given that the data assessed in this study
220 span 20 years, earlier BPD diagnoses may not have been captured, including initial diagnoses in
221 other healthcare settings where EHR data were not captured. Nonetheless, the finding does align
222 with the update from ICD-10 to ICD-11 which implies that personality disorders are not necessarily
223 stable after adolescence and may onset later in life (Bach and First, 2018; Jo et al., 2023). This has
224 led to the description of late-onset personality disorders which may be triggered by a significant life
225 event such as illness, the death of a spouse or transition to a nursing home (Rosowsky et al., 2019).

226 Previous studies have shown personality disorders, particularly BPD, to have low diagnostic stability
227 compared with other psychiatric disorders (Baca-Garcia et al., 2007; d'Huart et al., 2023). This
228 exemplifies limitations of the categorical model of personality disorders, which has persisted in the
229 Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, Fifth Edition (DSM-5) and in the ICD until the
230 ICD-11, which introduced a dimensional classification model (d'Huart et al., 2023; Garland and
231 Miller, 2020). BPD, like many DSM-5 disorders, is diagnosed using a polythetic approach. This means
232 that while multiple diagnostic criteria are listed, not all are required for a diagnosis. Specifically, a
233 diagnosis of BPD requires the presence of 5 out of 9 possible criteria, resulting in 151 different
234 potential ways to make the diagnosis (APA, 2013). Consequently, the high degree of variability in the
235 clinical presentation of BPD, as seen in other DSM-5 disorders, may lead to diagnostic variability
236 among clinicians and create barriers to diagnosis and treatment.

237 However, the patient population in this study generally reflects what is seen in the existing
238 literature, suggesting that the dataset captures a representative sample of patients with BPD.
239 Consistent with previous studies, we found that most patients with BPD were female, received a
240 diagnosis in early adulthood, presented with a moderate illness severity, had a high level of
241 psychiatric comorbidity and were frequently prescribed pharmacological treatments. The
242 predominance of female patients in this study can be attributed to several factors including a
243 diagnostic bias amongst clinicians (Adler et al., 1990; Özel et al., 2024), the likelihood of females to
244 seek treatment for mental disorders, or the diagnostic criteria employed (O'Brien et al., 2005; Smith
245 et al., 2018; Tedstone-Doherty and Kartalova-O'Doherty, 2010). Indeed, the DSM-5 criteria contain

246 more items based on internalising symptoms than externalising symptoms, and females are more
247 likely to present internalising symptoms (e.g., emotional instability), whereas males are more likely
248 to present externalising symptoms (e.g., aggressiveness) (APA, 2013) (Qian et al., 2022). Males are
249 also less likely than females to seek help and are unlikely to fully disclose all the symptoms they are
250 experiencing (Courtenay, 2000), often due to socialisation and fear of stigma.

251 The general conceptualisation of BPD as a diagnostic entity is a common point of contention in
252 research, owing to its debated reliability and validity. Existing research has highlighted disparities
253 between the diagnostic rating of personality disorders by general practitioners (GPs) and
254 standardised assessment in research, with GPs more likely to diagnose personality disorders for
255 individuals perceived as less compliant or stressful to manage (Moran et al., 2001). This diagnostic
256 bias has been suggested to extend beyond individual behaviour to personal identities, with sexual or
257 gender minorities disproportionately overrepresented in the BPD patient population due to the
258 overpathologising of these individuals with psychiatric disorders (Denning et al., 2022).

259 BPD was most commonly diagnosed in an outpatient setting in the dataset analysed, which contrasts
260 with previous reports that have shown higher prevalence in an inpatient setting (Tomko et al., 2014).
261 Over two-thirds of patients (67.4%) had moderate to marked illness at baseline, as defined by CGI-S
262 scores of 4–5. Almost all patients in the present study had ≥ 1 psychiatric comorbidity, most
263 commonly MDD, which agrees with the high rates of comorbid mood disorders (82.7%) that have
264 been previously observed in patients with BPD (Tomko et al., 2014). The proportion of patients with
265 anxiety disorders was lower than that seen in other studies (e.g., 27.6% of patients in this study vs
266 84.8% of patients in others) (Tomko et al., 2014). This discrepancy may be due to different
267 categorisations of groups of disorders (e.g. anxiety disorder vs generalised anxiety disorder), or
268 because BPD symptoms overlap with other psychiatric conditions, making it difficult to distinguish
269 distinct disorders and identify comorbidities. Alternatively, due to the time-consuming nature of
270 diagnostic interviews, it is possible that clinicians did not conduct extensive investigations at the
271 time of BPD diagnosis, particularly when patients were experiencing a high degree of illness severity.
272 Additionally, variation in the frequency of observed comorbidities may reflect differences in the
273 timing of psychiatric comorbidity recording (lifetime vs at diagnosis) (Chapman et al., 2023).

274 In patients with MSE-derived symptoms indicative of BPD at baseline, the most frequently reported
275 symptom was emotional dysregulation (35.8%; characterised by aggression, anger, irritability,
276 intensity, lability), followed by suicidal intent/ideation (31.3%) and suicidal attempt/self-injury
277 (14.0%). Impulsivity was notably low (0.3%). However, one possible explanation for this is that
278 suicidal symptoms are a high priority for treatment, thus assessment of other symptoms, such as

279 impulsivity, may have been overshadowed and less likely documented by clinicians during the MSE.
280 Further, since the MSE provides a description of the current clinical presentation of the patient,
281 symptoms such as impulsivity that need to be observed over a longer clinical history may not have
282 been captured. Future studies assessing impulsivity in EHR data may consider other locations within
283 the clinical record, such as the subjective, assessment and plan portions of clinical notes.

284 Results of subgroup analysis indicated variation in BPD symptoms according to age. For example,
285 emotional dysregulation was more common in older age groups: 39.7% in patients aged >65 years
286 and 39.9% in those aged 56–65 years, compared with 34.0% in those aged 26–35 years. However,
287 these findings contrast with observations in a smaller cross-sectional analysis of 93 patients, in which
288 similar levels of emotional dysregulation were reported in younger and older patients ($p>0.05$) on
289 various indicators of emotional dysregulation, including avoidance of abandonment, unstable
290 relationship, identity disturbances and impulsiveness, among others (Martino et al., 2020). Another
291 study, which examined 1477 patients aged 15–82, showed a decline in emotional turmoil with
292 increasing age, although the rate and pattern of decline across patients was asymmetrical (Gutiérrez
293 et al., 2012). The increase in emotional dysregulation symptoms (aggression, anger, irritability,
294 intensity, lability) with age observed in our analysis could represent effect modification between
295 BPD and other comorbidities. This potential interplay is supported by previous studies, which have
296 proposed BPD as a clinical manifestation of the psychopathology underpinning other mental health
297 conditions, such as MDD (Eaton et al., 2011; Gunderson et al., 2004). Alternatively, our observation
298 of frequent emotional dysregulation in older patients with BPD may be attributable to greater
299 symptom persistence across the treatment journey relative to symptoms such as impulsivity, as
300 demonstrated in a 6-year longitudinal study (Zanarini et al., 2003). Younger patients with BPD have
301 been shown to have a high risk of suicide (Paris, 2019; Pompili et al., 2005), while older patients
302 were less likely to report suicidal/self-harm behaviour (Martino et al., 2020). These previous results
303 align with our findings, where suicidal intent/ideation was most common in 12–17-year-olds and
304 least common in 55–65-year-olds. Similarly, suicidal attempt/self-injury was highest in 12–17-year-
305 olds and lowest in patients >65 years old. Overall, these data highlight the need for an age-reflective
306 management strategy for this high-risk population.

307 In the 12 months prior to diagnosis, 6251 patients had at least one psychiatric hospital stay, with a
308 mean duration of 2.9 days. This length of stay contrasts with other research reporting an average of
309 16.5 days (Paruk and Janse van Rensburg, 2016) in a small study of young females. The short length
310 of stay identified in the current study may be indicative of a high rate of ER visits experienced by
311 patients with BPD. Our results also showed that the number of hospital visits per patient increased

312 over the analysis period, suggesting that the burden of BPD on healthcare systems may increase
313 over time.

314 Interestingly, the patients that received pharmacological treatment generally had more BPD
315 symptoms at baseline than those without treatment. This might reflect clinician prescribing
316 decisions, whereby more BPD symptoms reflect a worse illness severity and increased risk to life.
317 With this in mind, the perceived risk to life may have been elevated in the group receiving
318 pharmacological treatment as these patients were more likely to have had symptoms of suicidality
319 attempt and self-harm. The high illness severity, poor functioning and high symptom burden
320 reinforces the need for novel therapeutic compounds.

321 In the absence of an approved pharmacological treatment for BPD, off-label prescribing remains a
322 common practice despite limited evidence of treatment efficacy of the medications typically
323 prescribed (Stoffers-Winterling et al., 2022) (Gartlehner et al., 2021). Over two-thirds (67.7%) of
324 patients in our study were receiving pharmacological treatments. Although this prescribing pattern
325 may be partially attributable to the management of comorbidities, a recent 10-year analysis in
326 Sweden highlighted persistent polypharmacy in individuals with personality disorders, including
327 those without co-occurring psychiatric comorbidities (Di Leone et al., 2025). Further complicating
328 the understanding of real-world prescribing practices in BPD is the variable definition of
329 polypharmacy in existing literature (Masnoon et al., 2017). This demonstrates a clear lack of
330 consensus and emphasises the need for a standardised definition for polypharmacy to
331 comprehensively examine its prevalence and clinical implications for the BPD population.

332 When examining medication classes in the present study, antidepressants, second-generation
333 antipsychotics and anticonvulsants were the most commonly recorded treatment around the time of
334 diagnosis. Our findings are similar to those from a small study where psychotropic drug use in 87
335 patients with BPD was analysed over a 4-year period (Timäus et al., 2019). The study found that
336 antidepressants (50.6%), antipsychotics (34.5%) and hypnotics (29.9%) were the most frequently
337 prescribed drug classes. This could be explained by differences in the drug classifications; Timäus et
338 al. classified diazepam and lorazepam as hypnotics (Timäus et al., 2019), whereas they were classed
339 as anticonvulsants in the present study; furthermore, the patients exhibited different comorbidities
340 in these studies, which could have impacted the results.

341 This study has several strengths and weaknesses. A major strength was that the analyses were
342 conducted on a large cohort of patients (n= 13,444) from 15 states across the US and are
343 representative of patients receiving mental healthcare in the US. However, as this study uses EHR

344 data from real-world clinical practice, data were not recorded in a uniformly structured manner,
345 thus selection bias may have been introduced. EHR data are subject to limitations stemming from
346 clinician input, meaning that diagnoses may not always be accurate, could reflect a patient in
347 remission, or fail to capture diagnoses that are established in healthcare settings not covered by
348 NeuroBlu data. Furthermore, the clinical history for patients prior to entering the EHR was not
349 available. Therefore, patients may have received healthcare interventions in other clinical services,
350 which may have impacted the recorded age of diagnosis, symptom presentation recorded during the
351 MSE, or the frequency and duration of hospitalisation. Additionally, it should be noted that while the
352 database provided information on prescribed medication class, the indication for which it was
353 prescribed was not known. Data on the use of non-pharmacological treatments and adherence were
354 also not available. Potential diagnostic bias should also be acknowledged. The database used in this
355 study was slightly skewed towards a population with greater disease severity, as the available data
356 originated from specialty psychiatry sites rather than general practitioners at the time of the study.
357 Although limitations related to the risk of bias are present in all real-world studies, the present study
358 benefited from a large sample size representative of real-world clinical practice. Subsequently, the
359 study design helped to mitigate risks related to data completion and quality by enabling sensitivity
360 analyses/stratification to evaluate noise/bias/confounding within the dataset. However, it should be
361 noted that the study did not adjust for potential confounders.

362 There are also limitations inherent to the use of NLP models to obtain clinical information from the
363 MSE documented in free text records. Such models are not necessarily 100% accurate and may
364 include false positive or negative examples, whereas clinical measurements would have been more
365 reliable if these were available. Although the NLP approach (Mukherjee et al., 2020) has restricted
366 generalisability for impulsivity symptoms due to limited training examples, the present study used
367 only patient data that were used in the NLP development. A further limitation of the approach
368 concerns the use of word2vec embeddings, which can present issues when handling out-of-
369 vocabulary words. Despite these limitations, the overall accuracy of the NLP model is considered
370 acceptable (median AUROC ranging from 1.0 to 0.71) (Berrar, 2019; Hosmer Jr et al., 2013). Although
371 the AUROC interval (1.0 to 0.71) appears broad, it represents the performance across several
372 different symptom categories (27 in total). In view of this, while the generalisability of the results for
373 smaller groups with smaller sample sizes may be limited, the other groups included a sufficient
374 number of samples to report AUROC values with confidence. Therefore, the AUROC values reported
375 for these groups are less likely to be overfitted. Finally, the exploration of symptoms within the MSE
376 is only 1 source within the clinical notes where clinicians will document symptoms. As highlighted by
377 Mukherjee et al., the reliance on unstructured MSE text produces a frequent number of unique

378 descriptors in certain categories, hindering the iterative training and validation of the NLP model
379 (Mukherjee et al., 2020). Future studies might explore NLP approaches to the subjective portion of
380 the clinical notes, or the assessment and plan fields, which may contain richer descriptions of
381 symptoms than the MSE.

382 **Conclusions**

383 This real-world, observational study of patients with BPD found that the majority were female, had
384 disease severity indicative of moderate to marked illness and a high level of psychiatric comorbidity.
385 Patients were also commonly prescribed pharmacological treatments and half required at least one
386 psychiatric hospitalisation, highlighting the dual burden of BPD on patients and healthcare systems.
387 BPD symptoms were variable by patient age group, with emotional dysregulation being more
388 frequent in older age groups, and suicidal intent/ideation/attempt/self-injury more frequent in
389 younger age groups. Therefore, continuing research into the clinical manifestations of BPD by age
390 may allow for future therapies to be more tailored to patients' needs and characteristics and help to
391 alleviate the overall burden of BPD.

Glossary

AUROC, Area Under Receiver Operating Characteristic Curve

BPD, borderline personality disorder

CGI-S, Clinical Global Impression – Severity

DSM-5, Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, Fifth Edition

EHR, electronic health records

ER, emergency room

ICD, International Classification of Diseases

MDD, major depressive disorder

MSE, mental state examination

NLP, natural language processing

PTSD, posttraumatic stress disorder

SUD, substance use disorder

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CRedit authorship contribution statement

All authors are responsible for the work described in this article and meet International Committee of Medical Journal Editors (ICMJE) authorship criteria. CW: Conceptualization, methodology, project administration, supervision, visualization, writing - review and editing. SSR: Conceptualization, funding acquisition, supervision, writing - review and editing. JBD: Conceptualization, investigation, project administration, resources, supervision, writing - review and editing. EOCP: Investigation, methodology, project administration, visualization, writing - original draft, writing - review and editing. JY: Formal analysis, methodology. KG: Methodology, visualization, writing – review and editing. BC: Data curation, formal analysis. MO: Investigation, writing - original draft, writing - review and editing. RP: Conceptualization, investigation, methodology, supervision, writing - review and editing. All authors drafted the work, or reviewed it critically for important intellectual content, gave final approval of the version to be published, and agreed to be accountable for all aspects of the work.

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Declaration of competing interest

CW, SSR and JBD are employees of Boehringer Ingelheim.

EOCP, JY, MO, KG and BC are employees of Holmusk Technologies Inc.

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Appendix A: Supplementary data

Data sharing statement

To ensure independent interpretation of observational study results and enable authors to fulfil their role and obligations under the ICMJE criteria, Boehringer Ingelheim grants all external authors access to observational study data pertinent to the development of the publication. In adherence with the Boehringer Ingelheim Policy on Transparency and Publication of Clinical Study Data, scientific and medical researchers can request access to clinical study data when it becomes available on Vivli - Center for Global Clinical Research Data, and earliest after publication of the primary manuscript in a peer-reviewed journal, regulatory activities are complete, and other criteria are met. Please visit [Medical & Clinical Trials | Clinical Research | MyStudyWindow](#) for further information. The data supporting this study originate with Holmusk Technologies, Inc. These de-identified data may be made available upon request and are subject to license agreement with Holmusk. Interested parties should contact publications@holmusk.com to determine licensing terms.

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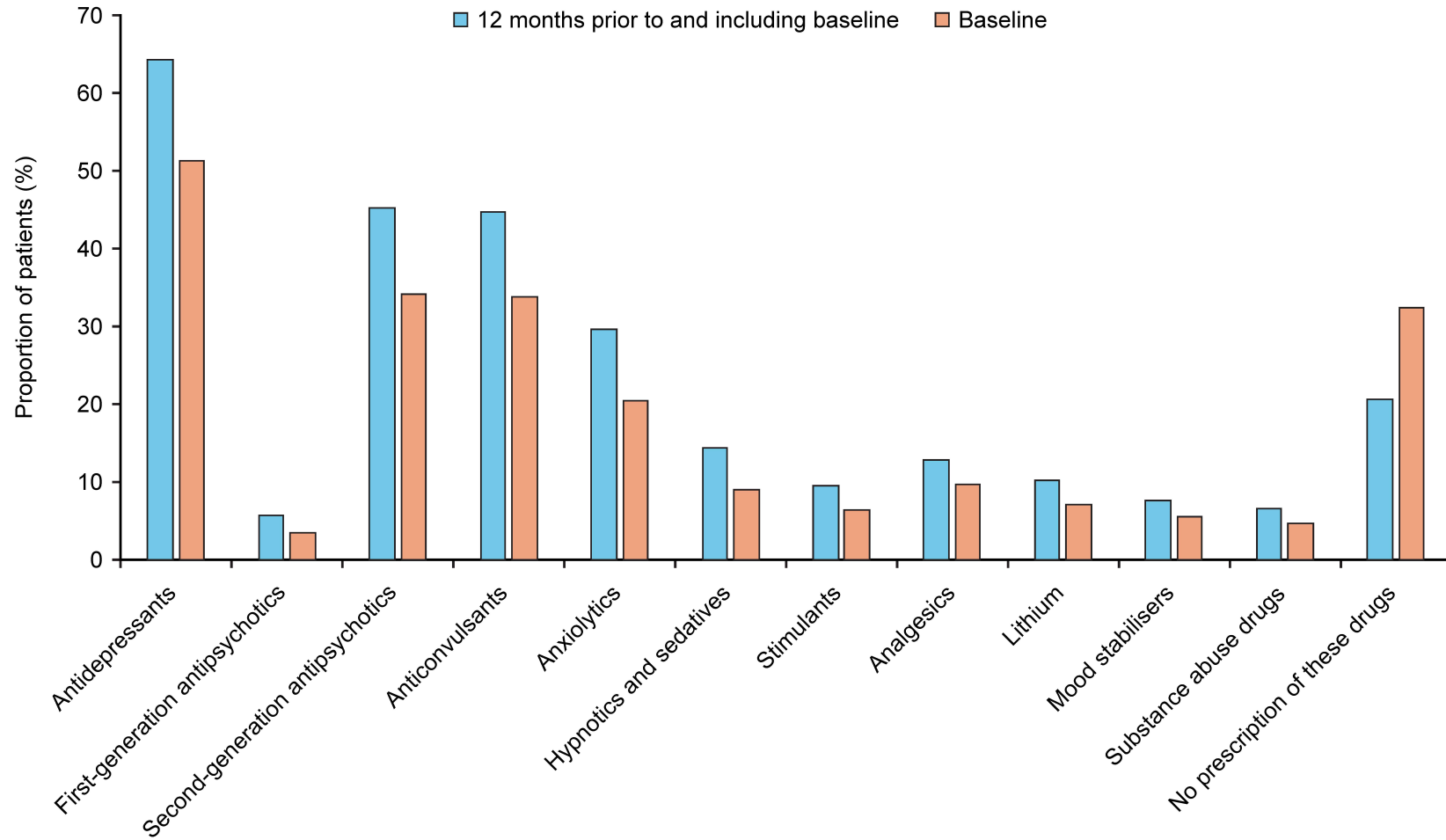
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Figures

Figure 1. Pharmacological treatment based on prespecified treatment groups in the 12 months prior to and including baseline, and at baseline



Tables

Table 1. Demographics and clinical characteristics at baseline

Study population (N=13,444)	
Age at baseline, years	
Mean (SD)	33 (12.8)
Median (IQR)	31 (23–42)
Age category at baseline, years, n (%)	
12–17	1084 (8.1)
18–25	3591 (26.7)
26–35	3654 (27.2)
36–45	2573 (19.1)
46–55	1789 (13.3)
56–65	617 (4.6)
>65	136 (1.0)
Gender	
Female	11,241 (83.6)
Male	2180 (16.2)
Unknown	23 (0.2)
Race, n (%)	
White	7940 (59.1)
Black or African American	1394 (10.4)
Other ^a	795 (5.9)
Unknown	3315 (24.7)
Ethnicity, n (%)	
Hispanic or Latino	1412 (10.5)
Not Hispanic or Latino	5402 (40.2)
Unknown	6630 (49.3)
Clinical setting at diagnosis, n (%)^b	
Outpatient	9650 (71.8)
Inpatient	3011 (22.4)
Emergency room	2163 (16.1)
CGI-S mean score (SD)^c	
	4.6 (1.1)
CGI-S category, n (%)^c	
1–3	1543 (11.5)
4–5	9064 (67.4)
6–7	2101 (15.6)
Not recorded	736 (5.5)

^aOther includes Asian, Native American Indian, and Pacific Islander.

^bPatients could have ≥1 recorded clinical setting if ≥1 was recorded within 14 days of baseline.

^c1–3, normal to mildly ill; 4–5, moderately to markedly ill; 6–7, severely to most ill.

CGI-S, Clinical Global Impression – Severity; IQR, interquartile range; SD, standard deviation.

Table 2. Psychiatric comorbidities experienced by $\geq 5\%$ patients in the 12 months prior to baseline and at baseline

Psychiatric comorbidity^a, n (%)	12 months prior to baseline (N=4860)	At baseline (N=13,033)
Major depressive disorder	2075 (42.7)	5960 (45.7)
Other psychiatric disorders	1901 (39.1)	4214 (32.3)
Anxiety disorders	1484 (30.5)	3602 (27.6)
SUD	1449 (29.8)	4514 (34.6)
PTSD	1245 (25.6)	3804 (29.2)
Other bipolar disorders	1071 (22.0)	3179 (24.4)
Other mood disorders	958 (19.7)	2318 (17.8)
Bipolar 1 disorder	859 (17.7)	2451 (18.8)
Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder	371 (7.6)	849 (6.5)
Schizoaffective disorder	307 (6.3)	816 (6.3)
Eating-related disorders	208 (4.3)	663 (5.1)
No psychiatric comorbidities	486 (10.0)	332 (2.5)

^aComorbidities reported are not mutually exclusive.

SUD, substance use disorder; PTSD, posttraumatic stress disorder.

Table 3. Symptoms indicative of BPD at baseline in all ages and stratified by age group^a

BPD symptom, n (%)	All (N=12,205)	Age group, years							p-value ^b
		12–17 (n=1048)	18–25 (n=3291)	26–35 (n=3280)	36–45 (n=2297)	46–55 (n=1617)	56–65 (n=546)	>65 (n=126)	
Impulsivity	42 (0.3)	4 (0.4)	10 (0.3)	15 (0.5)	9 (0.4)	4 (0.2)	0	0	0.63
Impulse control – limited/some issues	13 (0.1)	3 (0.3)	1 (0.0)	5 (0.2)	2 (0.1)	2 (0.1)	0	0	0.37
Impulse control – poor/serious issues	33 (0.3)	2 (0.2)	9 (0.3)	11 (0.3)	9 (0.4)	2 (0.1)	0	0	0.53
Emotional dysregulation	4370 (35.8)	377 (36.0)	1157 (35.2)	1115 (34.0)	823 (35.8)	630 (39.0)	218 (39.9)	50 (39.7)	<0.05
Affect – Aggressive	698 (5.7)	58 (5.5)	208 (6.3)	174 (5.3)	122 (5.3)	92 (5.7)	35 (6.4)	9 (7.1)	0.55
Affect – Irritable/angry	1367 (11.2)	141 (13.5)	350 (10.6)	337 (10.3)	240 (10.4)	211 (13.0)	72 (13.2)	16 (12.7)	<0.05
Affect – Labile	1578 (12.9)	105 (10.0)	413 (12.5)	403 (12.3)	300 (13.1)	246 (15.2)	92 (16.8)	19 (15.1)	<0.05
Affect – Intense	360 (2.9)	31 (3.0)	89 (2.7)	88 (2.7)	74 (3.2)	55 (3.4)	22 (4.0)	1 (0.8)	0.28
Mood – Irritable, angry	2607 (21.4)	233 (22.2)	686 (20.9)	656 (20.0)	485 (21.1)	391 (24.2)	119 (21.8)	37 (29.4)	<0.05
Mood – Labile	386 (3.2)	42 (4.0)	98 (3.0)	107 (3.3)	62 (2.7)	52 (3.2)	22 (4.0)	3 (2.4)	0.41
Suicidal intent/ideation	3819 (31.3)	394 (37.6)	1117 (33.9)	982 (29.9)	666 (29.0)	466 (28.8)	156 (28.6)	38 (30.2)	<0.05
Mood – Suicidal	72 (0.6)	11 (1.0)	15 (0.5)	18 (0.5)	16 (0.7)	10 (0.6)	2 (0.4)	0	0.36
Suicidality – Suicidal ideation	3479 (28.5)	340 (32.4)	1,017 (30.9)	898 (27.4)	613 (26.7)	435 (26.9)	140 (25.6)	36 (28.6)	<0.05
Suicidality – Suicidal with intent	612 (5.0)	73 (7.0)	187 (5.7)	148 (4.5)	101 (4.4)	77 (4.8)	20 (3.7)	6 (4.8)	<0.05

Suicidality – Suicidal with plan	906 (7.4)	112 (10.7)	255 (7.7)	237 (7.2)	152 (6.6)	107 (6.6)	38 (7.0)	5 (4.0)	<0.05
Suicidality – History of ideation	46 (0.4)	8 (0.8)	13 (0.4)	11 (0.3)	6 (0.3)	4 (0.2)	4 (0.7)	0	0.22
Suicidality – Suicidal ideation with means	182 (1.5)	10 (1.0)	52 (1.6)	47 (1.4)	32 (1.4)	24 (1.5)	14 (2.6)	3 (2.4)	0.28
Suicidal attempt/self-injury	1706 (14.0)	194 (18.5)	574 (17.4)	408 (12.4)	305 (13.3)	171 (10.6)	45 (8.2)	9 (7.1)	<0.05
Suicidality – Suicide attempt	119 (1.0)	6 (0.6)	38 (1.2)	33 (1.0)	24 (1.0)	14 (0.9)	3 (0.5)	1 (0.8)	0.64
Suicidality – History of attempt	1258 (10.3)	114 (10.9)	396 (12.0)	312 (9.5)	246 (10.7)	146 (9.0)	38 (7.0)	6 (4.8)	<0.05
Suicidality – Self-injurious	528 (4.3)	110 (10.5)	216 (6.6)	105 (3.2)	62 (2.7)	27 (1.7)	6 (1.1)	2 (1.6)	<0.05
Suicidality – History of self-injury	1 (0.0)	1 (0.1)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.10
Patients with MSE data and no BPD symptoms	5412 (44.3)	402 (38.4)	1421 (43.2)	1498 (45.7)	1059 (46.1)	732 (45.3)	243 (44.5)	57 (45.2)	<0.05

^aData shown for patients with at least one symptom indicative of BPD documented in the mental state examination at baseline using natural language processing.

^bp-value represents difference in distribution of a specific BPD symptom across all age groups.

BPD, borderline personality disorder; MSE, mental state examination.

Table 4. Psychiatric hospitalisations in the 12 months prior to BPD diagnosis

Hospitalisation details	12 months prior to BPD diagnosis ^b (N=6251)	At baseline (N=5174)	12 months post diagnosis (N=7780)
Number of psychiatric hospitalisations^a per patient, n (%)			
1	3177 (50.8)	3016 (58.3)	4262 (54.8)
2	1903 (30.4)	1654 (32.0)	1949 (25.1)
3	521 (8.3)	318 (6.1)	674 (8.6)
>3	650 (10.4)	186 (3.6)	895 (11.5)
Average length of stay for each psychiatric hospitalisation (days)			
Mean (SD)	2.9 (4.2)	3.2 (3.9)	2.8 (5.2)
Median (IQR)	1 (2.5)	1 (3.0)	1 (2.0)

^aPsychiatric hospitalisations includes both inpatient and emergency room visits.

^bPatients with ≥1 recorded psychiatric hospitalisation in the 12 months prior to baseline were included. BPD, borderline personality disorder; IQR, interquartile range; SD, standard deviation.

Supplementary material

Supplementary Table 1. MSE Features by BPD symptom category and individual symptoms

Symptom Category	MSE Feature (BPD symptom)
Impulsivity	Impulse control - limited / some issues
	Impulse control - poor / serious issues
Emotional dysregulation	Affect - aggressive
	Affect - irritable / angry
	Affect - liable
	Affect - intense
	Mood - irritable / angry
	Mood - liable
Suicidal intent or ideation	Mood - suicidal
	Suicidality - suicidal ideation
	Suicidality - suicidal with intent
	Suicidality - suicidal with plan
	Suicidality - history of ideation
	Suicidality - suicidal ideation with means
Suicide attempt or self-injury	Suicidality - suicide attempt
	Suicidality - history of suicide attempt
	Suicidality - self-injurious
	Suicidality - history of self-injury

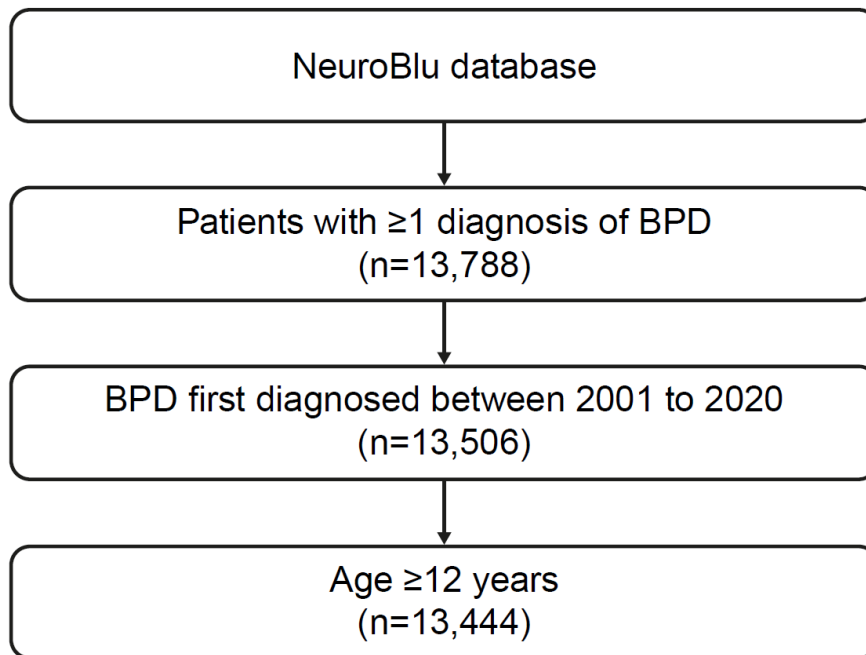
BPD, borderline personality disorder; MSE, mental state examination.

Supplementary Table 2. Psychiatric comorbidities experienced by <5% patients in the 12 months prior to baseline and at baseline

Psychiatric comorbidity^a, n (%)	12 months prior to baseline (N=4860)	At baseline (N=13,033)
Obsessive compulsive disorders	193 (4.0)	513 (3.9)
Schizophrenia	93 (1.9)	199 (1.5)
Antisocial personality disorders	43 (0.9)	295 (2.3)
Paranoid, schizoid, schizotypal personality disorders	34 (0.7)	79 (0.6)
Delusional disorders	20 (0.4)	27 (0.2)
Schizophreniform disorders	4 (0.1)	11 (0.1)

^aComorbidities reported are not mutually exclusive.

Supplementary Figure 1. Patient flow chart



BPD, borderline personality disorder.