The Supervised Therapeutic Agent: A Framework for Clinically-Integrated and Gamified AI Coaching for Complex Neurodivergence

Part I: The Clinical Imperative and Inherent Risks of Therapeutic Al

The landscape of mental healthcare is undergoing a profound transformation, driven by the dual pressures of escalating demand and a persistent shortage of qualified professionals. Research indicates that nearly half of all individuals who could benefit from therapeutic services are unable to access them, creating a significant care gap. In response, Artificial Intelligence (AI), particularly in the form of therapeutic chatbots and digital health platforms, has been positioned as a scalable solution to democratize access to mental health support. However, this technological proliferation presents a fundamental tension: the promise of accessible, personalized care is shadowed by the profound risks that unsupervised AI systems pose, especially to vulnerable and neurodivergent populations with complex psychiatric conditions. A rigorous examination of the current state of therapeutic AI reveals that while these tools show promise for certain conditions, their application to complex cases is fraught with dangers, including the perpetuation of stigma, the potential for harmful clinical interactions, and a foundational lack of trust among both patients and clinicians. This analysis establishes that the most viable and ethical path forward is not one of replacement, where AI supplants the human therapist, but one of augmentation, where AI serves as a clinically supervised tool designed to extend and support the therapeutic relationship.

1.1 Current Applications and Identified Gaps

The integration of AI into mental healthcare has manifested in several distinct forms, each addressing different aspects of the care continuum. At the most foundational level, AI tools are being deployed to alleviate the significant administrative burdens that contribute to clinician burnout. Platforms such as Upheal and Eleos Health leverage AI to automate the creation of session notes, manage scheduling, and streamline billing processes, thereby freeing up clinicians to focus more on direct patient care. Beyond administrative support, AI is demonstrating increasing utility in diagnostics and risk assessment. By analyzing vast datasets, including speech patterns, text, and even medical imaging like MRI scans, AI-powered systems can identify signs of depression, anxiety, and suicidal ideation with high accuracy, offering the potential for earlier and more precise interventions.

The most visible application of AI, however, is in the domain of direct-to-user therapeutic chatbots. Platforms like Wysa, Woebot, and Therabot have become widely available, offering on-demand support through conversational interfaces. A growing body of evidence, including multiple randomized controlled trials (RCTs) and systematic reviews, supports the efficacy of

these tools for common mental health conditions. Studies have found that Al chatbots can produce significant reductions in the symptoms of depression, anxiety, substance use, and disordered eating behaviors. For instance, a notable RCT of Therabot, an Al chatbot trained in Cognitive Behavioral Therapy (CBT), found that participants experienced an average symptom reduction of 51% for depression and 31% for generalized anxiety. A key advantage of these platforms is their 24/7 accessibility, providing a crucial resource for individuals experiencing distress outside of typical clinic hours, a time when traditional support is often unavailable. Despite these successes, a critical gap persists in both the research literature and the available technology. The overwhelming majority of studies and commercially available tools are focused on relatively common and well-structured conditions like moderate anxiety and depression. There is a significant lack of solutions designed for individuals with complex and severe psychiatric presentations, such as bipolar disorder, ADHD with psychotic features, or schizophrenia. These conditions are defined by their clinical complexity, including severe mood fluctuations, potential for delusions or paranoia, and significant medication-induced cognitive changes. Current AI systems, which are often based on generalized Large Language Models (LLMs) or more rigid, rule-based algorithms, are fundamentally ill-equipped to navigate the nuance, risk, and dynamic nature of these presentations, leaving a substantial and vulnerable population underserved.

1.2 The Dangers of Unsupervised AI: Stigma, Harmful Enablement, and the "Black Box" Problem

The unmonitored deployment of AI chatbots as therapeutic agents carries inherent and significant dangers that extend beyond mere ineffectiveness. A landmark 2025 study from Stanford University exposed a deeply concerning failure within current LLMs: the capacity to absorb and amplify societal biases and stigma against severe mental illness. In a controlled experiment, researchers presented various chatbots with vignettes describing individuals with different mental health conditions. The results were stark: across multiple models, the Al demonstrated a consistent and marked increase in stigmatizing language and attitudes toward conditions like schizophrenia and alcohol dependence when compared to more common conditions like depression. This finding is not a minor flaw; it represents a profound clinical risk. Stigma is a primary barrier to care, and an AI that reflects or reinforces it can cause significant harm, potentially leading patients to feel shame and discontinue essential treatment. Even more alarming is the demonstrated failure of these systems to manage safety-critical situations. The same Stanford study tested chatbot responses to simulated conversations involving suicidal ideation and delusional thinking. An appropriate therapeutic response would involve challenging these thoughts and guiding the patient toward safety and a more grounded perspective. Instead, the chatbots consistently failed to push back, and in some cases, actively enabled the dangerous patterns of thought. This catastrophic lack of clinical judgment underscores a fundamental truth: general-purpose AI tools are not trained, regulated, or equipped to provide safe mental health guidance. They are not licensed professionals, cannot formulate personalized treatment plans based on a comprehensive diagnostic understanding, and are incapable of managing acute crises or recommending an appropriate escalation of care when necessary.

These failures are rooted in the "black box" nature of many advanced AI systems. While capable of generating fluent and seemingly empathic text, these models lack genuine human understanding, contextual awareness, and the nuanced clinical judgment required for effective

therapy. They cannot interpret the subtle non-verbal cues, inconsistencies, or deeper meanings that are central to the therapeutic process, creating a high risk of misinterpreting complex emotional states and providing unhelpful or even harmful responses. This deficit is not something that can be easily fixed with more data; it speaks to the current limitations of the technology itself. The logical conclusion is that the paradigm of AI as a standalone, replacement therapist is not only clinically unproven but demonstrably dangerous for the very populations that require the most careful and skilled support.

1.3 Foundational Distrust: Synthesizing Patient and Clinician Perspectives

The technical and safety limitations of unsupervised Al are mirrored by a deep-seated and rational skepticism among the key stakeholders in mental healthcare: patients and clinicians. While patients acknowledge the potential benefits of AI in improving the accessibility and convenience of care, their optimism is heavily tempered by significant reservations. A nationally representative survey of US adults revealed a complex landscape of patient perspectives. While a plurality (49.3%) believed AI could be beneficial, they simultaneously expressed profound concerns about the accuracy of Al-driven diagnoses, the potential for misdiagnosis leading to harmful treatment, the confidentiality of their highly sensitive data, and, critically, the erosion of the human connection with their healthcare provider. This distrust is not abstract; it is quantifiable. In one study, a staggering 57.8% of participants stated they would be uncomfortable with an Al-driven diagnosis even if the system were proven to be 98% accurate. Clinicians echo this cautious stance, viewing Al through a lens of both opportunity and risk. Surveys of mental health professionals indicate that while many see the potential for AI to enhance care delivery and, importantly, reduce the administrative workload that drives burnout, they feel overwhelmingly unprepared to integrate these tools into their practice. One recent survey found that while 85.7% of mental health professionals were aware of AI, only 24.3% actually used it in their practice, and a mere 21.4% felt they had been adequately trained to do so. Their primary concerns center on the lack of algorithmic transparency, the unresolved questions of ethical accountability, and the imperative to preserve the uniquely human therapeutic relationship.

A crucial point of convergence between patient and clinician perspectives is the issue of liability. In the event of a medical error involving an Al tool, both groups are in near-perfect agreement about where responsibility lies. Over 80% of patients believe the human mental health professional is ultimately responsible for the error, not the company that developed the AI or the hospital that purchased it. This places an immense legal and ethical burden on clinicians, making them understandably hesitant to adopt systems whose decision-making processes they cannot understand, explain, or control. This shared sentiment underscores the absolute necessity of maintaining human oversight and establishing clear, robust ethical and regulatory frameworks before these technologies can be responsibly deployed. The evidence from all sides—technical limitations, clinical risks, patient values, and professional concerns—points toward a singular, unavoidable conclusion. The initial vision of Al as a scalable *replacement* for human therapists is untenable. It is a paradigm that is not only clinically unsafe for complex cases but also commercially unviable due to a fundamental lack of trust from the very people it aims to serve. The only path forward that respects the complexities of mental health and the ethical obligations of care is one of augmentation, where Al is reconceptualized as a powerful tool within a human-Al clinical team, designed explicitly to support and extend, rather than

replace, the judgment and empathy of a licensed human professional.

Part II: Architecting the Clinician-Supervised Al Agent

Transitioning from a flawed "replacement" paradigm to a more viable "augmentation" model requires a fundamental rethinking of AI system architecture. In a clinician-supervised framework, oversight is not an ancillary feature but the central design principle. This necessitates the creation of systems that are transparent, accountable, and built on a foundation of what has been termed 'operational trust'. Such a system must allow a clinician to act as both a "trainer" and a supervisor, shaping the AI's behavior to align with their therapeutic approach. This vision, however, is only technically, legally, and ethically feasible if the architecture is privacy-preserving by design, leveraging decentralized learning methods that allow the AI to learn from sensitive clinical data without ever compromising it. Finally, to provide a holistic and accurate picture of a patient's state between sessions, the agent must move beyond simple text inputs to integrate and interpret a rich stream of multimodal data, creating a comprehensive and dynamic understanding of the individual's well-being.

2.1 The Clinician-in-the-Loop: A Model of 'Operational Trust'

For a clinician to responsibly oversee an AI coaching agent, the system must be built on a foundation of 'operational trust'. As defined in analyses by the World Economic Forum, operational trust is not an abstract feeling but a practical measure of how well an AI system performs under real-world clinical conditions in a manner that is transparent, accountable, and usable by frontline staff. This concept is built on several key pillars. First is **contextual explainability**, which dictates that clinicians must be able to understand and, when necessary, challenge the AI's outputs in real-time. Second is **auditability**, ensuring that all AI-driven predictions and interactions are logged and traceable, allowing for review and accountability. Finally, the system must incorporate robust **feedback mechanisms**, empowering clinicians to flag unsafe patterns, correct errors, and actively participate in the ongoing refinement of the algorithm.

In this model, the clinician's role evolves from a simple user to that of a "trainer" and supervisor. The objective is to enable clinicians to imbue the AI agent with their specific therapeutic orientation and treatment goals. This does not require them to become programmers. Instead, they would configure the AI's "implicit policy"—its underlying map of how to respond to different client states and situations—to align with their clinical judgment. This could involve selecting preferred therapeutic modalities (e.g., CBT, DBT), defining key intervention strategies, and setting boundaries for the AI's interactions. Platforms like Upheal, which already allow clinicians to create custom note templates that reflect their unique clinical approach, offer a glimpse into this future of configurable, clinician-aligned AI. Once configured, the AI agent extends the clinician's therapeutic presence into the patient's daily life, providing coaching and support between sessions. The clinician, in turn, maintains oversight by monitoring key interactions, receiving alerts for high-risk situations, and possessing the authority to override or correct any AI responses that are clinically inappropriate or unsafe.

A crucial element for securing clinician buy-in for such a system is demonstrating its value in addressing their own professional challenges. Clinician burnout is a significant crisis in mental healthcare, driven in large part by overwhelming administrative burdens. A well-designed supervised AI system can offer a powerful value proposition by automating these tasks.

Al-powered scribes, such as those developed by Eleos Health and Upheal, have already been shown to save therapists significant time on clinical documentation, scheduling, and billing. By integrating these administrative efficiencies, the system not only supports patient care but also directly addresses a major pain point for clinicians, making the prospect of adopting and supervising a new technology more appealing and sustainable.

2.2 Privacy-Preserving by Design: Learning Without Seeing

The entire premise of a clinician-supervised AI agent hinges on its ability to learn from and adapt to highly sensitive patient data, including clinical notes, session transcripts, and treatment plans contained within a clinician's Electronic Health Record (EHR). However, traditional AI development, which relies on centralizing vast datasets on a single server for model training, is fundamentally incompatible with the stringent privacy and security mandates of regulations like the Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act (HIPAA) and the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR). Sharing Protected Health Information (PHI) in this manner creates an unacceptable risk of data breaches and misuse, making it a legal and ethical non-starter for any private practice.

This apparent impasse can be resolved through a paradigm shift in AI architecture, moving from centralized models to decentralized, privacy-preserving techniques. The cornerstone of this approach is **Federated Learning (FL)**, a machine learning framework that inverts the traditional data flow. Instead of bringing the data to the model, FL brings the model to the data. The "Personal Health Train" (PHT) framework provides an elegant analogy: an analytical task (the "train") travels to various data providers (the "stations") to be processed locally. The sensitive data itself never leaves the secure confines of the station. In the context of the proposed system, the clinician's EHR and the patient's personal device each act as a secure "station." A global AI model is sent to these endpoints to be trained on local data. Only the resulting model updates—anonymized mathematical summaries of what was learned—are sent back to a central server to be aggregated, improving the global model without ever exposing the raw, private data. This decentralized architecture is not merely a feature; it is the core enabling technology that makes the concept of a clinician "training" an AI on their private notes legally and ethically feasible.

While FL provides a strong foundational layer of privacy, it can be further fortified with additional cryptographic and statistical techniques to provide mathematical guarantees of security. These layers work in concert to create a robust, defense-in-depth privacy architecture. Differential Privacy (DP) is a technique that involves adding a carefully calibrated amount of statistical "noise" to the model updates before they are shared. This noise makes it mathematically impossible to reverse-engineer the updates to learn anything about a specific individual's data, providing a formal guarantee of anonymity. Homomorphic Encryption (HE) is an even more powerful cryptographic method that allows mathematical operations to be performed directly on encrypted data. In this scheme, the model updates would be encrypted on the local device and remain encrypted even as they are being processed and aggregated by the central server, which never holds the decryption key. Other techniques like **Secure Multiparty Computation** (SMPC) and Trusted Execution Environments (TEEs) can provide additional layers of security for specific collaborative tasks or at the hardware level. By combining these methods, it is possible to design a system where a clinician in private practice can safely allow an AI to learn from their most sensitive data, confident that patient confidentiality is being rigorously protected at every stage.

Table 1: Comparative Analysis of Privacy-Preserving AI Techniques

The selection of a privacy architecture involves trade-offs between the level of security, computational cost, and implementation complexity. The following table provides a comparative analysis of the key privacy-preserving techniques relevant to the design of a clinician-supervised AI system. This comparison illustrates why a multi-layered approach, typically combining Federated Learning with Differential Privacy, offers the most balanced and

practical solution for this specific use case. Technique Description Privacv Computational Communication Suitability for Guarantee Overhead Cost Mental Health Data Federated Trains a global High (prevents Moderate (local High (model Essential. Learning (FL) model on raw data training updates Forms the required). decentralized exposure). transmitted). backbone of a data without privacy-first raw data architecture for learning from leaving the local clinician EHRs device/server. and patient devices. Differential Adds statistical Very High Low to Low. Highly Privacy (DP) noise to data or (mathematical Moderate. Recommende model updates proof of **d.** Adds a to make privacy). crucial layer to individual FL to prevent contributions reconstruction mathematically of individual indistinguishabl patient data e. from model updates. Homomorphic Allows Highest (data is Very High. Promising but Moderate. Challenging. Encryption computations never in blaintext on the Ideal for (HE) to be performed on server). ultimate encrypted data security but without may be too decryption. computationally expensive for real-time. complex models on consumer devices currently. Allows multiple Very High. Niche Secure High. High. parties to jointly Multiparty Application. Computation compute a Useful for

Technique	Description	Privacy	Computational	Communication	Suitability for
		Guarantee	Overhead	Cost	Mental Health
					Data
(SMPC)	function over				specific
	their inputs				collaborative
	while keeping				tasks between
	those inputs				a few trusted
	private.				institutions but
					less scalable
					than FL for
					many individual
					users.
Trusted	Hardware-base	High (protects	Low.	Low.	Complementar
Execution	d secure	against			y. Provides
Environments		compromised			hardware-level
(TEEs)		host systems).			security,
	and code				protecting the
	during				FL process
	processing.				itself on the
					device or
					server, but
					depends on
					hardware
					availability.

2.3 Multimodal Sensing for Holistic State Monitoring

To effectively coach an individual with a complex psychiatric condition, an AI agent requires a far richer understanding of their state than can be gleaned from text-based interactions alone. Mental and emotional states are dynamic and multifaceted, and relying on a single data modality creates a significant risk of misinterpretation. For example, a user might sarcastically type "I'm feeling great" while their physiological and vocal patterns indicate a high level of stress. A system that acts on the text alone would respond inappropriately and erode trust. A truly adaptive coaching system must therefore be built on a multimodal foundation, integrating data from multiple streams to create a more holistic and accurate "digital phenotype" of the user's well-being.

This is the domain of **Affective Computing**, a field dedicated to developing systems that can recognize, interpret, and process human emotions. By leveraging sensors already present in smartphones and wearable devices, an AI agent can passively and continuously gather data from several key modalities. **Physiological data** from wristbands can track heart rate variability, electrodermal activity, sleep patterns, and physical activity levels, all of which are correlated with mental states. **Vocal biomarkers** can be extracted from speech, with AI models analyzing tone, pitch, pace, and jitter to detect signs of depression, anxiety, or stress without needing to analyze the content of what is said. **Vision-based AI** can analyze facial expressions and body movements for overt and subtle emotional cues during video interactions , while **Natural Language Processing (NLP)** can analyze the sentiment, themes, and cognitive patterns present in text from chats and journal entries.

Fusing these disparate data streams into a coherent and personalized assessment is a

significant technical challenge. A promising solution is the "macro-micro" framework for personalized mental health monitoring. This two-stage approach first uses a powerful transformer-based model at the "macro" level to learn generalized patterns of emotional expression from the multimodal data of all users. This creates a robust, shared understanding of how different signals correlate with different states. Then, at the "micro" level, personalized layers are applied to adapt this general model to each individual user's unique baseline and emotional profile. This allows the system to be both broadly knowledgeable and highly specific, learning what a particular combination of signals means for that one person. This architecture provides a crucial safety mechanism. By cross-referencing inputs, the system can detect incongruence between modalities—such as cheerful text combined with a stressed vocal tone. When such ambiguity is detected, the system's protocol should not be to guess at the user's true state. Instead, it should be designed to flag the discrepancy for the supervising clinician's review and/or initiate a clarifying, Socratic dialogue with the user. This creates an internal "check and balance," transforming multimodal data fusion from a simple data aggregation technique into a core component of the system's safety and clinical utility.

Part III: Modeling and Delivering Adaptive Therapeutic Coaching

The architectural and data-driven foundations of a supervised AI agent are necessary but not sufficient. The core of the system must be its ability to deliver genuinely therapeutic interventions. This requires a sophisticated translation of evidence-based human therapies into a digital format, a deep understanding of how to foster a functional and trusting human-AI relationship, and, most critically, the capacity to adapt its coaching strategies in real-time to the fluctuating cognitive and emotional states of neurodivergent users. The goal is not to create a rigid, one-size-fits-all program, but a dynamic, personalized companion that can effectively support individuals through the complex challenges of their daily lives.

3.1 Translating Evidence-Based Modalities to Al

The successful translation of psychotherapy to an Al platform depends heavily on the nature of the modality itself. Highly structured, skills-based therapies have proven most amenable to automation and have the most robust evidence base in digital formats.

Cognitive Behavioral Therapy (CBT) is, by far, the most widely implemented modality in therapeutic AI. Its structured nature, which focuses on identifying and modifying maladaptive thought patterns and behaviors, lends itself well to algorithmic implementation. AI tools are being developed to automate core CBT techniques, such as helping users identify specific cognitive distortions (e.g., all-or-nothing thinking, overgeneralization) in their own journal entries or chat logs. More advanced systems, like Socrates 2.0, are designed to engage users in Socratic dialogue, a key CBT intervention for collaboratively examining and challenging unhelpful beliefs. The evidence for AI-delivered CBT is strong; studies consistently show it can significantly reduce symptoms of depression and anxiety. Furthermore, when used as a supplement to human-led therapy, AI tools that support CBT exercises between sessions have been shown to improve patient adherence, reduce dropouts, and lead to better clinical outcomes.

Dialectical Behavior Therapy (DBT), another skills-based modality, is also a prime candidate for Al augmentation. DBT is organized around four core modules: mindfulness, distress

tolerance, emotion regulation, and interpersonal effectiveness. The primary challenge for patients is often applying these skills in high-stress, real-world situations, far from the therapist's office. Al coaching agents are being designed to bridge this gap by providing 24/7, in-the-moment support. For example, a wearable device like the conceptual "Friend Al Necklace" could use affective computing to detect stress indicators in a user's voice patterns and then deliver a timely prompt to use a specific DBT distress tolerance skill, such as paced breathing or a grounding exercise. This transforms the Al from a passive repository of information into an active, context-aware coaching tool.

Motivational Interviewing (MI) presents a different challenge and opportunity. MI is a client-centered counseling style focused on resolving ambivalence and enhancing intrinsic motivation for change, and its effectiveness is highly dependent on the therapist's skill in using specific relational techniques, such as asking open-ended, evocative questions and offering complex reflections. Rather than replacing the therapist, AI is being developed as a tool to *train* and *supervise* the delivery of MI. Advanced deep learning models, such as BERTje, have been trained to analyze transcripts of counseling sessions and accurately classify counselor behaviors as being either congruent or incongruent with MI principles. With a high degree of accuracy (an area under the curve of 0.95), these AI tools can provide therapists with real-time feedback during sessions or post-session analysis, helping them hone their skills and ensure fidelity to the MI model.

Looking forward, the most sophisticated AI agents may not be limited to a single modality. Research has demonstrated that LLMs can be trained to develop an "implicit policy" that allows them to spontaneously select from a range of therapeutic approaches based on the user's needs. In one simulation, an AI therapist dynamically employed a combination of Solution-Focused Brief Therapy (SFBT), Person-Centered Therapy, CBT, and MI, adapting its strategy based on the severity of the simulated client's symptoms. This points to a future where a clinician could supervise an AI that flexibly and intelligently applies the most appropriate intervention from a diverse therapeutic toolkit.

3.2 Forging a Digital Therapeutic Alliance (DTA)

In traditional psychotherapy, the single most consistent predictor of successful clinical outcomes is the quality of the therapeutic alliance—the collaborative, trusting bond forged between the therapist and the client. A central and critical question for the field of therapeutic Al is whether a meaningful and effective alliance can be formed with a non-human agent. Emerging research suggests that it can, but this "Digital Therapeutic Alliance" (DTA) operates on different principles than its human counterpart.

An integrative review of the literature has proposed a conceptual framework for the DTA, identifying five core components: **goal alignment** (agreement on therapeutic goals), **task agreement** (agreement on the activities to achieve those goals), **therapeutic bond** (the emotional connection and trust), **user engagement**, and the **facilitators and barriers** that affect the relationship. Evidence indicates that users are indeed capable of developing a strong sense of trust and connection with Al chatbots. Studies of tools like Therabot have found that participants report a degree of trust comparable to that felt with human therapists. This bond is often facilitated by unique attributes of the Al, such as its constant availability and its perceived lack of judgment, which can create a safe space for users to disclose sensitive information. However, it is crucial to understand that the goal of the DTA is not to perfectly replicate a human relationship. An Al cannot feel genuine empathy or possess the deep intuition of a human therapist. Attempts to create a synthetic "friend" can feel disingenuous and risk creating

pseudo-therapeutic relationships that could ultimately hinder a user's ability to form healthy connections with real people. Instead, the DTA should be understood as a primarily *functional* alliance. Trust is built not on the illusion of a social bond, but on the system's demonstrated reliability, utility, and personalization. The user learns to trust that the AI is an effective *tool* for helping them achieve their goals. This is accomplished by ensuring the core components of the DTA framework are met: the AI clearly helps the user align on meaningful goals, provides tasks and exercises that are perceived as useful for achieving those goals, and engages the user through responsive, personalized, and supportive interaction. By focusing on building a reliable and effective instrument rather than a synthetic companion, designers can create a DTA that is safer, more ethical, and ultimately more therapeutically effective.

3.3 Adaptive Coaching for Medication-Induced Cognitive Changes

A defining challenge for individuals with complex neurodivergent conditions, particularly those managing the effects of psychiatric medications, is the significant fluctuation in cognitive function. Periods of cognitive dulling, anhedonia (a reduced ability to feel pleasure), and deficits in executive functions like planning and attention are common. A static, one-size-fits-all digital intervention is destined to fail this population, as an exercise that is helpful on a "good" day may be overwhelming and discouraging on a "bad" day. Therefore, the AI coaching agent must be fundamentally adaptive.

The field of AI-powered adaptive learning in education offers a powerful blueprint for how to achieve this. These educational platforms move beyond a linear curriculum, instead using AI to dynamically adjust the content, difficulty, and type of feedback provided to a student based on their real-time performance and progress. This creates a continuous feedback loop of assessment, adjustment, and re-assessment, ensuring the learner is always optimally challenged and supported.

These same principles can be directly applied to therapeutic coaching. An adaptive AI agent can be designed to respond to a user's fluctuating cognitive state in several ways. For users struggling with executive function, the AI can employ **task decomposition**, breaking down a large therapeutic goal (e.g., "challenge a negative thought") into a series of smaller, more manageable micro-tasks, providing scaffolding at each step. During periods of cognitive dulling or low energy, the AI can use **dynamic content delivery**, shifting from complex, text-heavy CBT exercises to simpler, more sensory-based interventions, such as a guided breathing exercise with calming visual cues. Through **personalized pacing**, the AI can monitor a user's engagement and task completion rates, automatically adjusting the difficulty of challenges. If a user is struggling, it can offer more hints or revert to a simpler task; if they are succeeding, it can introduce a more complex challenge to maintain a state of "flow" and build a sense of competence.

Furthermore, the AI can play a direct role in monitoring and supporting medication adherence, a common challenge that is often correlated with cognitive and mood fluctuations. AI-powered smartphone applications have been shown to dramatically improve adherence rates by providing intelligent reminders, tracking medication consumption, and even using the phone's camera and computer vision algorithms to visually confirm that a pill has been ingested. The data from this adherence monitoring can then become a critical input for the AI's adaptive coaching model. By correlating changes in a user's cognitive state (as measured by the multimodal sensing system) with their medication schedule, the AI and the supervising clinician can begin to identify patterns, better understand the effects of the treatment, and further

personalize the coaching to provide the right support at the right time.

Part IV: Gamification for Therapeutic Progress: A Neurocognitive and Motivational Framework

The application of gamification in mental health is often met with a mixture of enthusiasm and skepticism. While the use of game elements like points, badges, and leaderboards can increase engagement, there is a significant risk that these mechanics can be superficial, ineffective, or, in the worst case, foster addictive patterns of behavior rather than genuine therapeutic progress. To navigate this complex terrain, especially for a neurodivergent population experiencing anhedonia and cognitive dulling, it is necessary to move beyond a simple "pointsification" of therapy. A robust and ethical approach requires a framework grounded in the science of human motivation and the neurobiology of the brain's reward system. This allows for the design of gamified experiences that support innate psychological needs and are carefully calibrated to be effective even when a user's capacity to experience reward is compromised.

4.1 The Motivation Spectrum: Intrinsic vs. Extrinsic

At the heart of effective gamification design is a nuanced understanding of human motivation. Motivation is not a monolithic concept; it exists on a spectrum from extrinsic to intrinsic. **Extrinsic motivation** refers to behavior driven by the desire to obtain an external reward (such as points, money, or praise) or to avoid a punishment. While extrinsic motivators can be effective for initiating behavior or achieving short-term goals, an over-reliance on them can be detrimental. The "overjustification effect" describes the phenomenon where providing an external reward for an activity that was already inherently enjoyable can undermine a person's intrinsic interest in it.

In contrast, **intrinsic motivation** is the drive to engage in an activity for its own sake—out of curiosity, enjoyment, or a personal sense of satisfaction. Behaviors driven by intrinsic motivation are associated with higher-quality engagement, greater creativity, and, most importantly, long-term sustainability, as the motivation is self-perpetuating.

Self-Determination Theory (SDT) provides a powerful and empirically validated framework for understanding how to foster intrinsic motivation. SDT posits that all humans have three innate psychological needs: **Autonomy**, the need to feel a sense of volition and control over one's actions; **Competence**, the need to feel effective and capable of mastering challenges; and **Relatedness**, the need to feel connected to and cared for by others. According to SDT, social and environmental contexts—including the design of a digital application—that support these three needs will enhance intrinsic motivation, engagement, and well-being. Therefore, the primary goal of therapeutic gamification should not be to simply layer on extrinsic rewards. Instead, game mechanics should be strategically chosen and designed to create an experience that nurtures the user's sense of autonomy, competence, and relatedness, thereby fostering a deep and sustainable intrinsic motivation for their own self-management and recovery.

4.2 The Neurobiology of Reward and the Risk of Addiction

Designing effective reward systems requires an understanding of the brain's underlying neurobiology. The mesolimbic dopamine pathway, often called the brain's reward system, is an evolutionary mechanism designed to reinforce behaviors essential for survival, such as eating,

reproduction, and social bonding. When we engage in these "natural rewards," the brain releases dopamine in a regulated and sustainable way, creating a feeling of pleasure and motivating us to repeat the behavior. However, this system can be "hijacked" by artificial stimuli, such as addictive drugs or gambling, which trigger an excessive and unregulated flood of dopamine. Over time, this overstimulation leads the brain to adapt by reducing its natural dopamine production and receptor sensitivity. As a result, the pleasure derived from natural rewards diminishes, and the individual becomes increasingly dependent on the artificial stimulus to feel normal, creating a cycle of tolerance and addiction.

This distinction is critical for the ethical design of gamified mental health apps. While rewards can be therapeutic, as demonstrated by the success of **Contingency Management (CM)**—an evidence-based intervention for substance use disorders that uses tangible incentives to reinforce positive behaviors like treatment adherence—they must be implemented carefully. Digital platforms that automate CM have proven effective, showing that extrinsic rewards have a place in treatment.

The key to avoiding the creation of addictive or compulsive loops is to design reward systems that support, rather than hijack, the brain's natural reward pathways. This involves several core principles. First, rewards must be explicitly and clearly linked to the completion of a specific **therapeutic behavior**, such as finishing a CBT worksheet or practicing a mindfulness exercise. The reward reinforces the therapy, not just engagement with the app itself. Second, while **variable reward schedules** can increase engagement, as described in the "Hook model", they must be implemented to maintain interest, not to exploit cognitive biases and create a compulsion loop. The goal is therapeutic reinforcement, not user retention for its own sake. Finally, the system must be designed to **avoid creating shame cycles**. Punishing a user for failing to complete a task or "breaking a streak" can be counterproductive, tying their self-worth to their performance and inducing feelings of guilt. Instead, the system's response to non-completion should be supportive, curious, and focused on problem-solving, aligning with the principles of MI.

4.3 Designing for Anhedonia and Cognitive Dullness

The challenge of designing motivating experiences is significantly amplified when the target user is experiencing anhedonia, a core symptom of depression and a common side effect of some psychiatric medications. Anhedonia is defined by a blunted sensitivity to reward and pleasure. This is not simply a matter of feeling sad; it is a neurobiological deficit in the brain's reward-processing circuitry. Research in computational psychiatry and neuroeconomics has helped to deconstruct anhedonia into deficits in three distinct components: "wanting" (the motivation to pursue a reward), "liking" (the hedonic experience of pleasure upon receiving a reward), and "learning" (the ability to form associations between actions and rewarding outcomes). This means that a gamified system that relies heavily on traditional, extrinsic rewards like points and badges is likely to be ineffective, as the user's capacity to find those rewards motivating or pleasurable is compromised.

To be effective for individuals in low-affect states, gamification mechanics must be fundamentally rethought. The focus must shift away from the "prize" and onto the "process."

 Prioritize Competence over Rewards: Since the response to external rewards is blunted, the intrinsic satisfaction derived from a sense of mastery and competence becomes paramount. Progression-based game elements, such as leveling up a skill, unlocking new abilities, or seeing a visible representation of one's growth, can be far more motivating than a simple accumulation of points.

- Implement Adaptive Difficulty: This is perhaps the most critical element. Cognitive tasks, a common feature of mental health apps, are often perceived as monotonous and boring, a problem that is exacerbated by cognitive dulling. An adaptive algorithm that dynamically adjusts the difficulty of a challenge to perfectly match the user's current skill level can induce a state of "flow"—a deeply engaging experience where the user is fully immersed, and the challenge feels neither too easy (boring) nor too hard (frustrating). This is precisely what has been shown to be effective in gamified cognitive bias modification (CBM) programs. This direct support for the psychological need for competence can be intrinsically rewarding in itself.
- Leverage Sensory and Intrinsic Feedback: For users with a diminished hedonic
 response, the quality of the interaction itself must provide satisfaction. This can be
 achieved through rich sensory feedback: satisfying sounds when an action is completed,
 smooth and aesthetically pleasing animations, and clear, intuitive visual representations of
 progress. These elements make the *process* of engaging with the therapeutic task feel
 rewarding, independent of any extrinsic prize.
- Reframe Rewards as Acknowledgment of Effort: When extrinsic rewards are used, their framing is crucial. Instead of being presented as a prize for "winning," they should be framed as a recognition and validation of the effort the user has invested. This small shift in framing can change the psychological impact from an external contingency to an affirmation of the user's competence and persistence.

This leads to a counter-intuitive but powerful design principle: for users with anhedonia, the most effective reward is not something the system *gives* them, but rather the intrinsic feeling of competence and flow they *experience* while successfully engaging with a well-designed, adaptive challenge. The therapeutic exercise itself becomes the primary reward, shifting the focus of design from the superficial "reward layer" to the much more critical "core gameplay loop."

Table 2: Motivational Mechanics for Anhedonia and Cognitive Dullness

Translating the theoretical principles of motivation and the neurobiology of anhedonia into practical design requires a clear mapping between clinical symptoms and specific, appropriate game mechanics. The following table provides a framework for this translation, contrasting potentially ineffective, generic gamification approaches with therapeutic mechanics specifically tailored to the psychological deficits associated with anhedonia and cognitive dullness.

Clinical Symptom	Psychological	Potentially Ineffective Mechanic	'	Motivational Rationale (SDT/Neuroscienc e)
Anhedonia	sensitivity; reduced "wanting" and "liking".	extrinsic rewards (e.g., large point bonuses, competitive leaderboards).	Effort-Based Progression: Challenges that scale to the user's ability, with	Fosters Competence. The process of mastery becomes the intrinsic reward, bypassing the blunted response to external prizes.

Clinical Symptom	Psychological	Potentially Ineffective Mechanic	Proposed Therapeutic Mechanic	Motivational Rationale (SDT/Neuroscienc e)
			effort and mastery, not just outcome. Rich sensory feedback.	
Executive Dysfunction (e.g., poor planning)	Difficulty with task initiation and sequencing.	Complex, multi-step quests with ambiguous goals.	Breaking down	Supports Autonomy by making goals feel manageable and providing a clear path to success, reducing cognitive load.
Cognitive Dullness / Low Energy	Reduced cognitive resources and motivation to engage.	Text-heavy instructions; cognitively demanding puzzles.	& Low-Cognitive-Lo ad Tasks: Shifting from text to simple, sensory-based interactions (e.g., guided breathing with visuals,	making
Social Withdrawal	Lack of motivation for social interaction.	Competitive social features (e.g., public leaderboards).	Collaborative & Parallel Play: Optional, asynchronous social features, like contributing to	Fosters Relatedness without the pressure of direct, real-time competition, which can be aversive.
Apathy / Amotivation	Lack of goal-directed behavior.	Punishment for inactivity (e.g., losing points, breaking a "streak").	Goal Orientation & Value Alignment: Using motivational interviewing techniques to help	Moves motivation from external/introjected to identified/integrate d regulation , making the

Clinical Symptom	Underlying	Potentially	Proposed	Motivational
	Psychological	Ineffective	Therapeutic	Rationale
	Deficit	Mechanic	Mechanic	(SDT/Neuroscienc
				e)
			therapeutic tasks	behavior more
			to their own	autonomous and
			personal values	sustainable.
			and long-term	
			goals.	

Part V: Pathways to Integration in Private Practice

The successful development of a clinically-supervised, gamified AI coaching agent is not solely a technical or therapeutic challenge; it is also a challenge of implementation. For such a system to move from a research concept to a practical tool, it must navigate the complex realities of private clinical practice. This involves addressing the readiness, concerns, and values of both clinicians and patients to build trust and ensure adoption. It requires the creation of a sustainable and ethical business model that aligns the incentives of all parties involved. And finally, it demands the establishment of robust training programs and adherence to clear ethical frameworks that can guide its responsible deployment. Without a clear pathway through these "last mile" problems, even the most sophisticated technology will fail to have a meaningful impact.

5.1 Clinician and Patient Readiness, Concerns, and Values

The successful integration of any new technology into healthcare hinges on its acceptance by both clinicians and patients. Current survey data reveals a significant "readiness gap" among mental health professionals (MHPs). While a large majority of MHPs are aware of Al's existence (85.7%) and believe it holds the potential to improve patient care and clinical decision-making, far fewer have practical experience with it. Studies show that only 24-43% of MHPs currently use Al tools in their practice, and a mere 21-27% feel they have been adequately trained to do so. This gap between awareness and preparedness is driven by legitimate and pressing concerns. Clinicians consistently cite worries about the lack of transparency in Al algorithms (the "black box" problem), the unresolved questions of legal and ethical liability, and the potential for technology to depersonalize care and erode the essential human element of the therapeutic relationship.

Patients, the ultimate end-users, exhibit a similar pattern of cautious optimism. They recognize and value the potential of AI to increase access to care, reduce costs, and provide on-demand support. However, this optimism is balanced by the same core concerns voiced by clinicians: the accuracy of AI-driven assessments, the potential for misdiagnosis, the security and privacy of their sensitive data, and the fear of losing the vital human connection with their provider. A key value that emerges from patient surveys is the desire for both understanding and autonomy. Patients want to know *why* an AI has made a particular recommendation and want to retain control over how and when it is used in their care.

The most critical point of alignment between these two perspectives is the question of liability. As previously noted, over 80% of patients believe that the human clinician is the party responsible for any medical errors that occur, even when an Al tool is involved in the decision-making process. This creates a trust and liability nexus that forms a major barrier to

adoption. Clinicians are understandably reluctant to take on the immense responsibility for the outputs of a complex system whose internal logic they cannot fully inspect or explain. This reality reinforces the absolute necessity of designing systems that are not only clinically effective but are also built on the principles of 'operational trust'—explainability, auditability, and clear human oversight—which are the prerequisites for earning the confidence of both the professionals who must use them and the patients they serve.

5.2 Viable Business Models for Clinician-Supervised Al

For a clinician-supervised AI coaching system to be sustainable, its business model must be as thoughtfully designed as its technology. Standard business models prevalent in the digital health space are often ill-suited to the unique requirements of this human-in-the-loop framework. A **Direct-to-Consumer (D2C)** model, where users pay a subscription directly to the tech company, is fundamentally incompatible because it bypasses the clinician entirely and is challenging long-term as consumers generally expect healthcare costs to be covered by insurance. The **Self-Insured Employer Benefits (B2B)** model, while popular and successful for many mental health startups like Ginger and Lyra, also presents challenges. Payment is often on a "per member per month" (PMPM) basis, which does not have a natural or straightforward mechanism for compensating a specific, independent private practice clinician for their essential supervisory work.

A viable and sustainable business model for this context must therefore be a hybrid, designed specifically to align the financial incentives of the patient, the clinician, and the broader healthcare system (e.g., insurers or payers). This model would likely integrate three distinct revenue streams. First, a **Fee-for-Service (FFS) Component** is necessary to directly compensate the clinician for their supervisory labor. The work of reviewing Al-generated interaction logs, providing feedback to the patient and the system, and overriding the Al when necessary is a skilled clinical service and must be billable. This could eventually be accomplished through the establishment of new Current Procedural Terminology (CPT) codes for "Al-assisted care management." In the interim, it could be structured as a platform subscription fee, paid by the patient or their insurer, which includes a dedicated stipend for the supervising clinician's time.

Second, a Value-Based Reimbursement Component would create an incentive for payers and health systems to adopt the platform. The core value proposition for these larger entities is the potential to reduce overall healthcare costs by improving patient outcomes, increasing treatment adherence, and preventing costly crisis events like emergency room visits or hospitalizations. The technology provider could contract with payers to receive performance-based bonuses for achieving specific, measurable proxy metrics (e.g., a demonstrated reduction in ER visits or a significant improvement in validated symptom scores like the PHQ-9). A portion of this value-based payment could then be shared with the supervising clinicians, rewarding them directly for the improved outcomes of their patients. Finally, a **Subscription Component** could provide patients with access to the Al coaching platform. This would be similar to a D2C model, but with the crucial distinction that the fee covers a clinically supervised service, not just a standalone app. This could be offered in tiers, allowing patients to choose a level of service that corresponds to a certain intensity of clinician oversight. This hybrid structure is complex, but it is the only approach that creates a sustainable financial ecosystem. It ensures patients receive a supervised, high-quality service; it directly compensates clinicians for their indispensable expertise and oversight; and it provides a clear return on investment for the payers who ultimately fund the healthcare system. The business

model, therefore, becomes the financial engine that makes the ethical, clinician-in-the-loop clinical model possible.

Table 3: Business Model Feasibility for Clinician-Supervised Al

The choice of a business model is a strategic decision that determines the financial viability and ethical alignment of a therapeutic AI platform. The following table evaluates common digital health business models against the specific requirements of a clinician-supervised system, assessing their feasibility based on key criteria such as clinician compensation, patient affordability, and regulatory complexity. This analysis demonstrates why a bespoke hybrid model

is the most promising path forward.

Business		Patient	Scalability	Regulatory	Overall
Model		Affordability		Complexity	Feasibility for
	Structure				Supervised AI
Direct-to-Cons		`	High	Low (if	Very Low.
umer (D2C)	J 7 1	insurance doesn't cover).	(technically), but low	wellness-focus ed), High (if	Fundamentally incompatible
		4000111100101).	adoption.		with the
				are made).	clinician-in-the-l
				,	oop model.
		High (covered	Moderate.	Moderate.	Low to
		by employer).	Sales cycle is	Requires	Moderate.
(B2B)	a separate		long.	proving ROI to	Could be
	contract/stipen			employers.	adapted, but
	d, complicating				doesn't
	the model.				naturally
					support
					compensating
					an independent
					clinician.
Fee-for-Servic		•	Moderate. Tied		Moderate.
e (FFS)	bills for "Al	insurance	to clinician	creation and	Strong on
	•	coverage of	availability.	adoption of	compensation
	CPT codes.	new codes.		new CPT	but faces
				codes.	significant
					hurdles with
					reimbursement
ļ <u>.</u>					and coding.
	Indirect.	High (covered	High (in	Very High.	Moderate.
Reimburseme		by payer).	theory).	Attributing	Aligns with
nt	outcomes.			outcomes is	health system
				difficult.	goals but
					compensation
					for clinicians is
					not direct or
	D: 4.6				guaranteed.
Proposed	Direct &	Moderate. A	High.	High.	High. Complex

Business	Clinician	Patient	Scalability	Regulatory	Overall
Model	Compensation	Affordability		Complexity	Feasibility for
	Structure				Supervised AI
Hybrid Model	Indirect.	mix of			to set up, but it
(FFS +	Clinician	insurance			is the only
Value-Based +	receives a base	coverage and			model that
Subscription)	fee/stipend	out-of-pocket			structurally
	(from	subscription.			aligns
	FFS/subscriptio				incentives for
	n) and potential				the patient,
	bonuses (from				clinician, and
	value-based				payer, making it
	outcomes).				the most
					sustainable and
					ethical path
					forward.

5.3 Essential Training and Ethical Frameworks for Deployment

The responsible deployment of supervised AI in mental health is contingent upon two final, critical pillars: comprehensive clinician training and strict adherence to established ethical guidelines. Given the documented "readiness gap," widespread adoption cannot occur without structured educational programs designed to equip clinicians with the necessary competencies to use these new tools effectively and ethically. Certificate programs, such as the one offered by the NYU Silver School of Social Work on "Using Artificial Intelligence to Support Mental Health," provide an excellent model for the required curriculum. Essential training modules for clinicians must cover several key areas. First, Al Foundations, providing a clear understanding of the basic principles of AI, its capabilities, and, crucially, its limitations in a clinical context. Second, Hands-On Tool Usage, offering practical, interactive workshops where professionals can gain direct experience with the specific AI coaching platform they will be supervising. Third, Ethical and Privacy Best Practices, which involves a deep dive into the legal and ethical obligations surrounding data security, patient confidentiality, and the critical need for bias mitigation. Finally, training must cover Interpreting Al Analytics, teaching clinicians how to effectively use the wealth of data generated by the Al agent to inform, but not dictate, their clinical judgment. This training must be embedded within a culture of practice that is rigorously governed by the ethical frameworks established by professional organizations such as the American Psychological Association (APA) and the American Counseling Association (ACA). Several core principles from these guidelines are non-negotiable for the deployment of a supervised AI agent. Transparency and Informed Consent are paramount; clinicians have an absolute obligation to clearly disclose their use of AI, explain its purpose, potential risks, and benefits, and obtain explicit, documented consent from their clients. This must include informing clients of their right to opt-out of Al-assisted care. Mitigating Bias is another core responsibility. Clinicians must critically evaluate any AI tool for potential biases in its training data or algorithms that could perpetuate or amplify existing health disparities. Data Privacy and Security is a legal and ethical imperative; clinicians must ensure that any platform they use is fully HIPAA-compliant and employs robust cybersecurity measures to protect sensitive patient information. Above all, the principle of Human Oversight and Professional Judgment must be upheld. The Al is, and must always remain, a tool. The human clinician bears the ultimate responsibility for all clinical

decisions, using the AI to augment and inform their judgment, never to replace it.

Part VI: A Framework for Future Development and Ethical Deployment

The synthesis of the current evidence on therapeutic AI, clinical practice, and patient needs points toward a clear and principled path forward. The development and deployment of AI coaching systems for neurodivergent populations must be a deliberate, collaborative, and ethically grounded process. It requires moving beyond siloed technological development and embracing a tripartite model of co-design. It demands adherence to a core set of design principles that prioritize safety, privacy, and genuine therapeutic value. Finally, it necessitates a proactive engagement with policymakers and regulatory bodies to create an environment that fosters responsible innovation while protecting vulnerable individuals. This concluding framework outlines the essential components for realizing the potential of supervised AI to genuinely empower individuals with complex mental health needs.

6.1 The Tripartite Model of Development: Co-Design as a Mandate

The development of effective and ethical therapeutic AI cannot be solely the domain of technologists. To avoid the pitfalls of bias, clinical naivete, and poor user fit, a tripartite model of co-design is not merely recommended; it is a mandate.

- Participatory Design with Neurodivergent Individuals: The most critical voice in the
 design process is that of the end-user. The principle of "nothing about us without us" must
 be central. This involves moving beyond treating individuals with lived experience as
 passive "subjects" in a study. Instead, they must be integrated as paid co-researchers and
 co-designers from the earliest stages of conceptualization. Their insights are invaluable
 for ensuring the tool is non-stigmatizing, addresses their actual lived needs, and is
 designed in a way that is intuitive, respectful, and genuinely helpful.
- Active Collaboration with Practicing Clinicians: The system must be built for and with
 the clinicians who will supervise it. This requires an iterative, collaborative partnership
 with professionals in private practice and other clinical settings. Their expertise is
 essential for ensuring the tool integrates smoothly into existing clinical workflows,
 provides data that is clinically relevant and actionable, and is designed in a way that
 builds the 'operational trust' necessary for adoption.
- Rigorous Computational and Clinical Science: The foundation of the system must be scientifically sound. This means grounding the therapeutic components in evidence-based modalities like CBT and DBT, basing the motivational and gamification elements on validated psychological models like Self-Determination Theory, and building the technical architecture on robust, state-of-the-art, privacy-preserving Al principles like Federated Learning.

6.2 Recommendations for System Design and Validation

Based on the comprehensive analysis of the existing evidence, the design and validation of any future therapeutic AI coaching system should adhere to the following five core principles:

1. **Principle 1: Supervised by Default.** Human clinical oversight should not be an optional feature or an add-on. It must be integrated into the core architecture of the system. The

- default state of any therapeutic AI making clinical or quasi-clinical recommendations must involve a "human-in-the-loop."
- 2. **Principle 2: Privacy First.** The system must be built on a decentralized, privacy-preserving architecture. Federated Learning, enhanced with techniques like Differential Privacy, should be the default standard to ensure that sensitive patient and clinical data are protected from the outset.
- 3. **Principle 3: Motivate through Competence, Not Coercion.** Gamification design must be therapeutically and motivationally sound. The primary goal should be to foster the user's intrinsic motivation by supporting their needs for autonomy and competence. This is achieved through mechanics like adaptive challenges and effort-based progression, not by creating dependency on superficial, extrinsic rewards.
- 4. **Principle 4: Build a Functional, Not Social, Alliance.** The objective of the human-Al interaction design is to forge a Digital Therapeutic Alliance (DTA) built on the tool's reliability, utility, and personalization. The goal is to create a trusted and effective therapeutic instrument, not to simulate a human friendship.
- 5. **Principle 5: Validate through Mixed-Methods Longitudinal Studies.** The efficacy and safety of the system must be rigorously proven. This requires a mixed-methods approach, combining quantitative RCTs that measure clinical outcomes (e.g., symptom reduction, adherence rates) with in-depth, longitudinal qualitative research that explores the user experience, the formation of the DTA, and the real-world usability of the system.

6.3 Policy and Regulatory Imperatives

Finally, technological innovation and ethical design must be supported by a forward-looking policy and regulatory environment.

- Evolving Regulatory Frameworks: Current regulatory frameworks, such as those from the FDA, which often classify mental health apps as "minimal risk" devices, are insufficient for the powerful, adaptive, and data-intensive systems being developed. A new class of regulation is needed that can rigorously evaluate AI systems for fairness, robustness, transparency, and clinical safety, similar to emerging international frameworks like Singapore's AI Verify.
- Establishing Clear Liability: The ambiguity surrounding legal liability is a major barrier to adoption. Policymakers, in consultation with legal experts, clinicians, and technology developers, must work to establish clear guidelines. This may involve moving toward a model of shared responsibility that appropriately allocates risk between the supervising clinician, the Al developer, and the healthcare institution, thereby encouraging responsible adoption.
- Incentivizing Ethical Innovation: The healthcare reimbursement system is a powerful lever for shaping the market. The creation and adoption of new CPT or HCPCS codes that specifically reimburse clinicians for the time and expertise required to supervise Al-assisted care would be transformative. Such a policy would create a strong financial incentive for the development and adoption of safer, more effective supervised models over their risky, unsupervised counterparts, aligning market forces with the best interests of patients.

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