

An Innovative System for Monitoring Emotional Health to Identify Individuals at Risk of Psychological Disturbances

D.Shine Rajesh¹, A.Kalyani², G.Keerthi², G.Tejaswi², Ch. Naga Shilpa²

¹ Assistant Professor, Department of Information Technology, Mallareddy Engineering College for Women, (UGC-Autonomous), Hyderabad, India, shinerajesh@gmail.com.

² Student, Department of Information Technology, Mallareddy Engineering College for Women, (UGC-Autonomous), Hyderabad, India.

Abstract

Mental health issues, such as anxiety, depression, and other psychological disturbances, have become a significant public health concern globally. Identifying individuals at risk of these conditions early on can lead to timely interventions and improved outcomes. With the rise of technology and the increasing use of smartphones and wearable devices, there is an opportunity to develop an innovative system that can monitor emotional health in real-time, helping to detect potential psychological disturbances before they escalate. Traditionally, mental health assessments relied on self-reporting and periodic check-ins with mental health professionals. These approaches often had limitations, as individuals may not always accurately report their emotional state, and there could be significant delays between assessments. Additionally, access to mental health services was not always readily available, leading to potential delays in diagnosis and treatment. Therefore, the need for an innovative system for monitoring emotional health arises from the desire to overcome the limitations of traditional approaches. By leveraging technology, such as machine learning, natural language processing, we can create a continuous and unobtrusive monitoring system. Such a system could gather real-time data on an individual's emotional state, behavior, and physiological responses. Early detection of emotional disturbances can lead to timely intervention and support, improving the overall mental well-being of individuals and reducing the burden on mental health services. This innovative monitoring system has the potential to significantly improve mental health outcomes on a broader scale. It offers a proactive approach to emotional well-being, empowering individuals to take control of their mental health and providing an invaluable tool for mental health professionals in identifying and supporting those at risk of psychological disturbances.

1. Introduction

Mental illness is a health problem that undoubtedly impacts emotions, reasoning, and social interaction of a person. These issues have shown that mental illness gives serious consequences across societies and demands new strategies for prevention and intervention. To accomplish these strategies, early detection of mental health is an essential procedure. Medical predictive analytics will reform the healthcare field broadly as discussed by Miner et al. [1]. Mental illness is usually diagnosed based on the individual self-report that requires questionnaires designed for the detection of the specific patterns of feeling or social interactions [2]. With proper care and treatment, many individuals will hopefully be able to recover from mental illness or emotional disorder [3]. Machine learning is a technique that aims to construct systems that can improve through experience by using advanced statistical and probabilistic techniques. It is believed to be a significantly useful tool to help in predicting mental health. It is allowing many researchers to acquire important information from the data, provide personalized experiences, and develop automated intelligent systems [4]. The widely used algorithms in the field of machine learning such as support vector machine, random forest, and artificial neural networks have been utilized to forecast and categorize the future events [5]. Supervised learning in machine learning is the most widely applied approach in many types of

research, studies, and experiments, especially in predicting illness in the medical field. In supervised learning, the terms, attributes, and values should be reflected in all data instances [6]. More precisely, supervised learning is a classification technique using structured training data [7]. Meanwhile, unsupervised learning does not need supervision to predict. The main goal of unsupervised learning is handling data without supervision. It is very limited for the researchers to apply unsupervised learning methods in the clinical field.

The World Health Organization (WHO) reports the region-wise status of different barriers in diagnosing mental health problems and encourages researchers to be equipped with the scientific knowledge to address the issue of mental health [9]. Now, there are various techniques to predict the state of mental health due to advancement of technology. Research in the field of mental health has increased recently and contributed to the information and publications about different features of mental health, which can be applied in a wide range of problems [10]. Many steps are involved in diagnosing mental health problems, and it is not a straightforward process that can be done quickly. Generally, the diagnosis will begin with a specific interview that is filled with questions about symptoms, medical history, and physical examination. Besides that, psychological tests and assessment tools are also available and are used to diagnose a person for mental health problems. There are several types of research carried out to investigate and examine the movements of the face to identify certain mental disorders [11]. The increase of research in the mental health field has led to the rise of information in the form of finding suitable solutions to reduce mental health problems. However, the precise reasons for mental illnesses are still unclear and uncertain.

2. Literature Survey

According to the paper by Greenstein et al., classification of childhood-onset schizophrenia has been performed [12]. The data consist of genetic information, clinical information, and brain magnetic resonance imaging. The authors use a random forest method to calculate the probability of mental disorder. Random forest is being used in this paper because it has lower error rates compared with other methods. The accuracy of 73.7% is obtained after the classification. In one of the research projects works conducted by Jo et al., they used network analysis and machine learning approaches to identify 48 schizophrenia patients and 24 healthy controls [13]. The network properties were rebuilt using the probabilistic brain tractography. After that, machine learning is being applied to label schizophrenia patients and health controls. Based on the result, the highest accuracy is achieved by the random forest model with an accuracy of 68.6% followed by the multinomial naive Bayes with an accuracy of 66.9%. Then, the XGBoost accuracy score is 66.3% and the support vector machine shows an accuracy of 58.2%. Most of the machine learning algorithms show promising levels of performance in predicting schizophrenia patients and healthy controls.

The support vector machine, which is a machine learning model, has been implemented to classify schizophrenia patients [14]. The data set is obtained from the 20 schizophrenia patients and 20 healthy controls. Then, the support vector machine algorithm is used for classification with the help of functional magnetic resonance imaging and single nucleotide polymorphism. After the classification, an accuracy of 0.82 is achieved with the functional magnetic resonance imaging. For the single nucleotide polymorphism, an accuracy of 74% is obtained. Srinivasagopalan et al. [15] used a deep learning model to diagnose schizophrenia. The National Institute of Health provides the data set for the experiments. The accuracy of each machine learning algorithm is obtained and recorded. The results obtained from the experiment show that deep learning showed the highest accuracy with 94.44%. The random forest recorded an accuracy of 83.33% followed by logistic regression with an accuracy of 82.77%. Then, the support vector machine showed an accuracy of 82.68% in this experiment. In another study conducted by Plašchke et al., the schizophrenia patients were

distinguished from the matched health controls based on the resting-state functional connectivity [16]. Resting-state functional connectivity could be used as a spot of functional dysregulation in specific networks that are affected in schizophrenia. The authors have used support vector machine classification and achieved 68% accuracy. Pinaya et al. applied the deep belief network to interpret features from neuromorphometry data that consist of 83 healthy controls and 143 schizophrenia patients [17]. The model can achieve an accuracy of 73.6%; meanwhile, the support vector machine obtains an accuracy of 68.1%. The model can detect the massive difference between classes involving cerebrum components. In 2018, Pinaya et al. proposed a practical approach to examine the brain-based disorders that do not require a variety of cases [18]. The authors used a deep autoencoder and can produce different values and patterns of neuroanatomical deviations.

A machine learning algorithm is developed to predict the clinical remission from a 12-week course of citalopram [19]. Data are collected from the 1949 patients that experience depression of level 1. A total of 25 variables from the data set are selected to make a better prediction outcome. Then, the gradient boosting method is being deployed for the prediction because of its characteristics that combine the weak predictive models when built. An accuracy of 64.6% is obtained by using the gradient boosting method. To identify depression and anxiety at an early age, a model has been proposed by Ahmed et al. [20]. The model involves psychological testing, and machine learning algorithms such as convolutional neural network, support vector machine, linear discriminant analysis, and K-nearest neighbour have been used to classify the intensity level of the anxiety and depression, which consists of two data sets. Based on the results obtained, the convolutional neural network achieved the highest accuracy of 96% for anxiety and 96.8% for depression. The support vector machine showed a great result and was able to obtain an accuracy of 95% for anxiety and 95.8% for depression. Besides that, the linear discriminant analysis reached the accuracy of 93% for anxiety and 87.9% for depression. Meanwhile, the K-nearest neighbour obtained the lowest accuracy among the models with 70.96% for anxiety and 81.82% for depression. Hence the convolutional neural network can be a helpful model to assist psychologists and counsellors for making the treatments efficient.

3. Proposed System Model

A data flow diagram (DFD) is a graphical or visual representation using a standardized set of symbols and notations to describe a business's operations through data movement as shown in Figure 1.

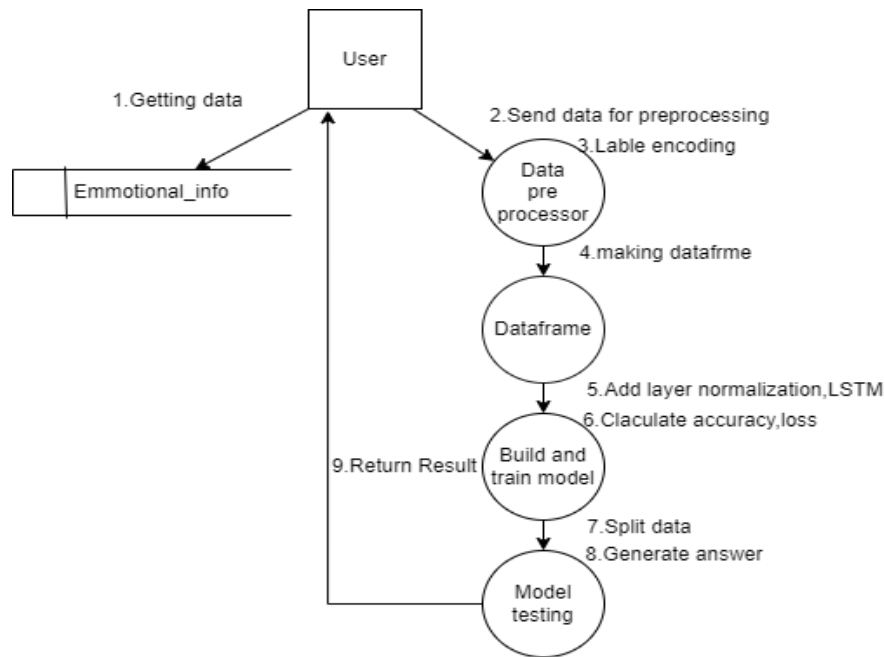


Figure 1. Proposed system model.

TF-IDF, short for Term Frequency-Inverse Document Frequency, is a commonly used technique in NLP to determine the significance of words in a document or corpus. To give some background context, a survey conducted in 2015 showed that 83% of text-based recommender systems in digital libraries use TF-IDF for extracting textual features. That's how popular the technique is. Essentially, it measures the importance of a word by comparing its frequency within a specific document with the frequency to its frequency in the entire corpus. The underlying assumption is that a word that occurs more frequently within a document but rarely in the corpus is particularly important in that document.

4.4.1 Mathematical formula for calculating TF-IDF

TF (Term Frequency) is determined by calculating the frequency of a word in a document and dividing it by the total number of words in the document.

- $TF = (\text{Number of times the word appears in the document}) / (\text{Total number of words in the document})$
- IDF (Inverse Document Frequency), on the other hand, measures the importance of a word within the corpus as a whole. It is calculated as:
- $IDF = \log((\text{Total number of documents in the corpus}) / (\text{Number of documents containing the word}))$

The tf-idf value increases in proportion to the number of times a word appears in the document but is often offset by the frequency of the word in the corpus, which helps to adjust with respect to the fact that some words appear more frequently in general. TF-IDF use two statistical methods, first is Term Frequency and the other is Inverse Document Frequency. Term frequency refers to the total number of times a given term t appears in the document doc against (per) the total number of all words in the document and The inverse document frequency measure of how much information the word provides. It measures the weight of a given word in the entire document. IDF show how common or rare a given word is across all documents. TF-IDF can be computed as $tf * idf$

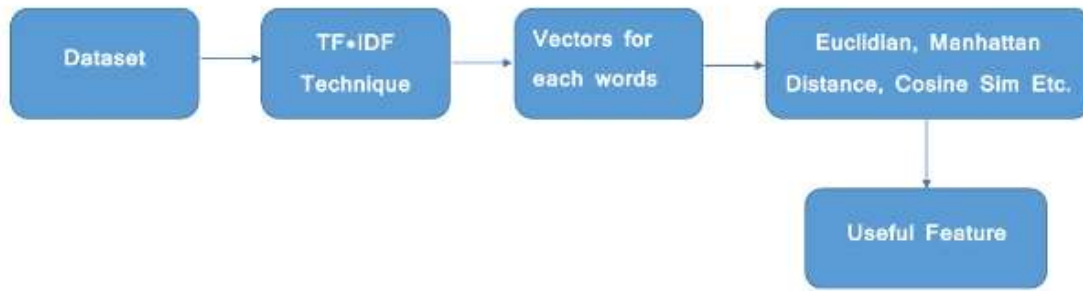


Fig. 2: TF-IDF block diagram.

TF-IDF do not convert directly raw data into useful features. Firstly, it converts raw strings or dataset into vectors and each word has its own vector. Then we'll use a particular technique for retrieving the feature like Cosine Similarity which works on vectors, etc.

Terminology

t — term (word)

d — document (set of words)

N — count of corpus

corpus — the total document set

Step 1: Term Frequency (TF): Suppose we have a set of English text documents and wish to rank which document is most relevant to the query, “Data Science is awesome!” A simple way to start out is by eliminating documents that do not contain all three words “Data” is”, “Science”, and “awesome”, but this still leaves many documents. To further distinguish them, we might count the number of times each term occurs in each document; the number of times a term occurs in a document is called its term frequency. The weight of a term that occurs in a document is simply proportional to the term frequency.

$$tf(t, d) = \text{count of } t \text{ in } d / \text{number of words in } d$$

Step 2: Document Frequency: This measures the importance of document in whole set of corpora, this is very similar to TF. The only difference is that TF is frequency counter for a term t in document d, whereas DF is the count of occurrences of term t in the document set N. In other words, DF is the number of documents in which the word is present. We consider one occurrence if the term consists in the document at least once, we do not need to know the number of times the term is present.

$$df(t) = \text{occurrence of } t \text{ in documents}$$

Step 3: Inverse Document Frequency (IDF): While computing TF, all terms are considered equally important. However, it is known that certain terms, such as “is”, “of”, and “that”, may appear a lot of times but have little importance. Thus, we need to weigh down the frequent terms while scale up the rare ones, by computing IDF, an inverse document frequency factor is incorporated which diminishes the weight of terms that occur very frequently in the document set and increases the weight of terms that occur rarely. The IDF is the inverse of the document frequency which measures the informativeness of term t. When we calculate IDF, it will be very low for the most occurring words such as stop words (because stop words such as “is” is present in almost all of the documents, and N/df will give a very low value to that word). This finally gives what we want, a relative weightage.

$$idf(t) = N/df$$

Now there are few other problems with the IDF, in case of a large corpus, say 100,000,000, the IDF value explodes, to avoid the effect we take the log of idf . During the query time, when a word which is not in vocab occurs, the df will be 0. As we cannot divide by 0, we smoothen the value by adding 1 to the denominator.

$$idf(t) = \log(N/(df + 1))$$

The TF-IDF now is at the right measure to evaluate how important a word is to a document in a collection or corpus. Here are many different variations of TF-IDF but for now let us concentrate on this basic version.

$$tf - idf(t, d) = tf(t, d) * \log(N/(df + 1))$$

Step 4: Implementing TF-IDF: To make TF-IDF from scratch in python, let’s imagine those two sentences from different document:

first sentence: “Data Science is the sexiest job of the 21st century”.

second sentence: “machine learning is the key for data science”.

4. Dataset results

Figure 3(a) displays a portion of the original dataset used for training the chatbot. It shows examples of intents or patterns along with their corresponding tags and responses. Figure 1(b) shows how the original dataset has been structured after converting it into a panda DataFrame. It focuses on the 'patterns' and 'tags' columns. The 'patterns' column contains the input text or user queries. The 'tags' column contains labels or categories associated with the input patterns.

	tag	patterns	responses
0	greeting	[Hi, Hey, Is anyone there?, Hi there, Hello, H...	[Hello there. Tell me how are you feeling toda...
1	morning	[Good morning]	[Good morning. I hope you had a good night's s...
2	afternoon	[Good afternoon]	[Good afternoon. How is your day going?]
3	evening	[Good evening]	[Good evening. How has your day been?]
4	night	[Good night]	[Good night. Get some proper sleep, Good night...
...
75	fact-28	[What do I do if I'm worried about my mental h...	[The most important thing is to talk to someon...
76	fact-29	[How do I know if I'm unwell?]	[If your beliefs , thoughts , feelings or beha...
77	fact-30	[How can I maintain social connections? What i...	[A lot of people are alone right now, but we d...
78	fact-31	[What's the difference between anxiety and str...	[Stress and anxiety are often used interchange...
79	fact-32	[What's the difference between sadness and dep...	[Sadness is a normal reaction to a loss, disap...

80 rows × 3 columns

(a)

	tag	patterns	responses
0	greeting	Hi	[Hello there. Tell me how are you feeling toda...
1	greeting	Hey	[Hello there. Tell me how are you feeling toda...
2	greeting	Is anyone there?	[Hello there. Tell me how are you feeling toda...
3	greeting	Hi there	[Hello there. Tell me how are you feeling toda...
4	greeting	Hello	[Hello there. Tell me how are you feeling toda...
...
227	fact-29	How do I know if I'm unwell?	[If your beliefs , thoughts , feelings or beha...
228	fact-30	How can I maintain social connections? What if...	[A lot of people are alone right now, but we d...
229	fact-31	What's the difference between anxiety and stress?	[Stress and anxiety are often used interchange...
230	fact-32	What's the difference between sadness and depr...	[Sadness is a normal reaction to a loss, disap...
231	fact-32	difference between sadness and depression	[Sadness is a normal reaction to a loss, disap...

232 rows × 3 columns

(b)

Figure 3: Display of the sample dataset. (a) original dataset. (b) dataset after converting into a data frame with patterns and tags.

5. Conclusion

In conclusion, the implementation of an LSTM-based chatbot designed to monitor emotional health and identify individuals at risk of psychological disturbances represents a significant step forward in the utilization of technology for mental health support. This chatbot showcases its ability to effectively engage in conversations with users and provide responses based on patterns learned from the 'intents.json' dataset. This highlights the potential of natural language processing (NLP) techniques to comprehend and address user emotions and concerns, offering a unique avenue for mental health assistance. One of the standout features of this chatbot is its capability to detect individuals at risk of psychological disturbances. By analyzing user input, it can promptly identify potential issues, enabling timely intervention and support. This proactive approach holds the promise of early intervention, which is crucial for preventing the escalation of mental health challenges and ensuring individuals receive the necessary assistance when they need it most. Moreover, the accessibility offered by chatbots is a key advantage. Users can comfortably express their emotions and seek help through this platform, which can alleviate some of the barriers and stigma associated with discussing mental health concerns. This accessibility aspect is especially valuable in reaching individuals who may be hesitant to seek help through traditional channels. Additionally, the chatbot system has the potential to amass a substantial dataset of user interactions. Analyzing this data can yield valuable insights into user behavior, common mental health issues, and the effectiveness of various interventions. Such data-driven insights can inform the ongoing development and refinement of mental health support systems.

References

- [1] G. Miner, L. Miner, M. Goldstein et al., Practical Predictive Analytics and Decisioning Systems for Medicine: Informatics Accuracy and Cost-Effectiveness for Healthcare Administration and Delivery Including Medical Research, Academic Press, Inc., Cambridge, MA, USA, 1st edition, 2016.
- [2] M. Hamilton, "Development of a rating scale for primary depressive illness," British Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, vol. 6, no. 4, pp. 278–296, 1967.

- [3] American Psychiatric Association, *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders*, American Psychiatric Association, Reston, VA, USA, 2013.
- [4] M. I. Jordan and T. M. Mitchell, "Machine learning: trends, perspectives, and prospects," *Science*, vol. 349, no. 6245, pp. 255–260, 2015.
- [5] F. Dabek and J. J. Caban, "A neural network-based model for predicting psychological conditions," in *Brain Informatics and Health*, pp. 252–261, Springer International Publishing, Berlin, Germany, 2015.
- [6] G. Cho, J. Yim, Y. Choi, J. Ko, and S.-H. Lee, "Review of machine learning algorithms for diagnosing mental illness," *Psychiatry Investigation*, vol. 16, no. 4, pp. 262–269, 2019.
- [7] E. G. Pintelas, T. Kotsilieris, I. E. Livieris, and P. Pintelas, "A review of machine learning prediction methods for anxiety disorders," in *Proceedings of the 8th International Conference on Software Development and Technologies for Enhancing Accessibility and Fighting Info-Exclusion—DSAI 2018*, The-ssaloniki, Greece, 2018.
- [8] R. B. Rutledge, A. M. Chekroud, and Q. J. Huys, "Machine learning and big data in psychiatry: toward clinical applications," *Current Opinion in Neurobiology*, vol. 55, pp. 152–159, 2019.
- [9] 130 Executive Board, "Global burden of mental disorders and the need for a comprehensive, coordinated response from health and social workers at the country level," 2012, <https://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/23741>.
- [10] M. Hadzic, M. Chen, and T. S. Dillon, "Towards the mental health ontology," in *Proceedings of the 2008 IEEE International Conference on Bioinformatics and Biomedicine*, Philadelphia, PA, USA, 2008.
- [11] J. Diederich, A. Al-Ajmi, and P. Yellowlees, "Ex-ray: data mining and mental health," *Applied Soft Computing*, vol. 7, no. 3, pp. 923–928, 2007.
- [12] D. Greenstein, J. D. Malley, B. Weisinger, L. Clasen, and N. Gogtay, "Using multivariate machine learning methods and structural MRI to classify childhood onset schizophrenia and healthy controls," *Frontiers in Psychiatry*, vol. 3, 2012.
- [13] Y. T. Jo, S. W. Joo, S. H. Shon, H. Kim, Y. Kim, and J. Lee, "Diagnosing schizophrenia with network analysis and a machine learning method," *International Journal of Methods in Psychiatric Research*, vol. 29, no. 1, 2020.
- [14] H. Yang, J. Liu, J. Sui, G. Pearlson, and V. D. Calhoun, "A hybrid machine learning method for fusing fMRI and genetic data: combining both improves classification of schizophrenia," *Frontiers in Human Neuroscience*, vol. 4, 2010.
- [15] S. Srinivasagopalan, J. Barry, V. Gurupur, and S. Thankachan, "A deep learning approach for diagnosing schizophrenic patients," *Journal of Experimental & Aeoritical Artificial Intelligence*, vol. 31, no. 6, pp. 803–816, 2019.
- [16] R. N. Plaschke, E. C. Cieslik, V. I. Müller et al., "On the integrity of functional brain networks in schizophrenia, Parkinson's disease, and advanced age: evidence from connectivity-based single-subject classification," *Human Brain Mapping*, vol. 38, no. 12, pp. 5845–5858, 2017.
- [17] W. H. L. Pinaya, A. Gadelha, O. M. Doyle et al., "Using deep belief network modelling to characterize differences in brain morphometry in schizophrenia," *Scientific Reports*, vol. 6, no. 1, 2016.

- [18] W. H. L. Pinaya, A. Mechelli, and J. R. Sato, "Using deep autoencoders to identify abnormal brain structural patterns in neuropsychiatric disorders: a large-scale multi-sample study," *Human Brain Mapping*, vol. 40, no. 3, pp. 944–954, 2018.
- [19] A. M. Chekroud, R. J. Zotti, Z. Shehzad et al., "Cross-trial prediction of treatment outcome in depression: a machine learning approach," *Ae Lancet Psychiatry*, vol. 3, no. 3, pp. 243–250, 2016.
- [20] A. Ahmed, R. Sultana, M. T. R. Ullas, M. Begom, M. M. I. Rahi, and M. A. Alam, "A machine learning approach to detect depression and anxiety using supervised learning," in *Proceedings of the 2020 IEEE Asia-Pacific Conference on Computer Science and Data Engineering (CSDE)*, Gold Coast, Australia, 2019.