

# Identifying Depression Clues using Emotions and AI

Ricardo Martins<sup>a</sup>, José João Almeida<sup>b</sup>, Pedro Henriques<sup>c</sup> and Paulo Novais<sup>d</sup>

*Department of Informatics, Algoritmi Centre, University of Minho, Braga, Portugal*

**Keywords:** Sentiment Analysis, Natural Language Processing, Machine Learning.

**Abstract:** According to the World Health Organization (WHO), close to 300 million people of all ages suffer from depression. Also, for WHO, depression is the leading reason for disability worldwide and is a major contributor to the global burden of disease. Different than the mood fluctuation raised by the common life's activities, depression can be a serious health problem, particularly when it is a long-term and mid/high intensity. Luckily, despite depression is a silent disease, people when suffering leaves some clues. Due to the massive use of social media, these clues can be collected through the texts posted on social media, such as Twitter, Facebook, Instagram, and later, analysed to identify if the writing style matches with a depressive pattern. This paper presents an approach that can be applied by Machine Learning models to help psychologists to identify depressive clues in texts. The model examines profiles on Twitter based on clues provided by users in their posts. Combining Sentiment Analysis, Machine Learning and Natural Language Processing techniques, we achieved a precision of 98% by Machine Learning models when identifying Twitter profiles that post potential depressive texts.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

In our social relationships, the chance of knowing someone who is suffering or suffered from depressive disorders is high. According to United Nations (UN), the worldwide population is about 7.6 billion<sup>1</sup> habitants, when compared to 300 million<sup>2</sup> of depressive people according to WHO (Organization et al., 2017), draws attention to the fact that every 25 people in the world, 1 suffers from depression. Yet according to WHO, “depressive disorders are characterized by sadness, loss of interest or pleasure, feelings of guilt or low self-worth, disturbed sleep or appetite, feelings of tiredness, and poor concentration. Depression can be longlasting or recurrent, substantially impairing an individual’s ability to function at work or school or cope with daily life. At its most severe, depression can lead to suicide.”

Having the words of Schafer (Schafer, 2011) in

<sup>a</sup> <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1993-5343>

<sup>b</sup> <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0722-2031>

<sup>c</sup> <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3208-0207>

<sup>d</sup> <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3549-0754>

<sup>1</sup> <https://news.un.org/pt/story/2017/06/1589091-populacao-mundial-atingiu-76-bilhoes-de-habitantes>

<sup>2</sup> <https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/depression>

mind (“if the eyes are the window to the soul, then words are the gateway to the mind”), the symptoms associated with depressive disorders are evident in texts produced by depressive people. So, Twitter, Facebook and web forums are an excellent source of information to collect clues about the messages authors’ mental wellness. Automated analysis of social media can provide detection methods, and, once identified an individual as depressive, an assessment, support and treatment can be provided sooner.

In this paper, we present an approach based on Machine Learning, Sentiment Analysis and Natural Language Processing to identify depressive profiles on Twitter, based on the messages posted. It is not our intention to identify different levels of depression which authors can have. To reach this objective, we adopted the emotion model defined by Plutchik (Plutchik, 1984), because we consider more realistic due to it differentiate the emotions in more categories than Ekman (Ekman, 1992), despite easy to use and able to represent different emotions through dyads emotion.

The remainder of this paper is as follows: Section 2 presents some recent research works on depression identification and points out the most relevant differences holding among them and our proposal. Section 3 introduces the concept of emotional profile, and

the dataset creation process. Section 4 presents an exploratory data analysis to understand in detail the dataset and its potential, using classification and clustering techniques; this section also discusses a different analysis regarding the collected dataset based on a deep learning approach. The paper ends at Section 5, where the conclusion and future work are presented.

## 2 RELATED WORK

Identifying depression using artificial intelligence is not a new research area. During the last years, works that handled aspects of depression, such as identification, degree estimation and treatment monitoring, through Machine Learning or Deep Learning techniques have been produced.

De Choudhury et al (De Choudhury et al., 2013) was a pioneer to describe how to construct a classifier to identify Twitter depressive users based on the analysis of their activities in social media. That research introduced social media as a source of data for recognizing symptoms of depression in a user, using measures as user engagement and emotion, egocentric social graph, linguistic style, depressive language use, and mentions of antidepressant medications, reaching 70% accuracy and precision of 0.74.

The work of Tsugawa introduced an approach to identify the level of depression in Twitter users with an accuracy of 69% (Tsugawa et al., 2015). Based on the user's historical activities, he constructed an SVM model fed by topics inferred from word frequencies. These words were supplied by volunteers, which filled a questionnaire to analyse the degree of depression, and the history activities were gathered through the Twitter API.

Orabi presented an approach using the CLPsych 2015 Shared task data that considers Twitter posts from authors to detect depression (Orabi et al., 2018). His approach created different word vectors approaches (Skip-Gram, CBOW, Optimized and Random) and applied these word vectors to different Deep Learning architectures, such as a Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) and Recurrent Neural Network (RNN), reaching an accuracy of 87.957% and precision of 87.435% as better results.

The works of Arora (Arora and Arora, 2019), Ziwei (Ziwei and Chua, 2019), Tao (Tao et al., 2019) and others, despite handling depression in Twitter using sentiment analysis, only consider the sentences polarities (positive, negative or neutral).

All these works inspired and contributed with some thoughts to our solution, but they do not consider emotions as important information to identify

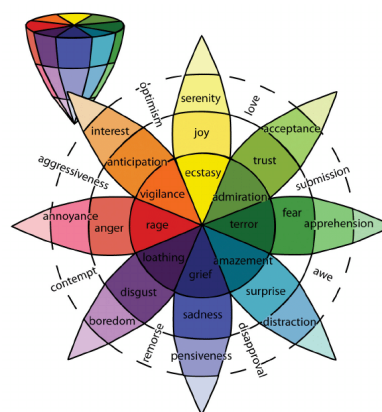


Figure 1: Plutchik's wheel of emotions. Source (Maupomé and Isyutina, 2013).

depression, that is our contribution to this approach.

## 3 IDENTIFICATION OF DEPRESSIVE PROFILES

People have in their personalities, characteristics that distinguish them from others. Some people are shy, others more enthusiastic or sarcastic in its remarks. All these characteristics determine their personalities, and according to discrete emotional theorists, this personality is present in our expressions - facial, speech, dress - and can be described as a set of independent and basic emotions.

In the literature, a well-known model proposed by Ekman states that all emotion is composed of 6 basic emotions: happiness, sadness, fear, anger, surprise, and disgust (Ekman, 1992). For Plutchik, any sentiment is a combination of 8 basic emotions: *Anger, Anticipation, Disgust, Fear, Joy, Sadness, Surprise and Trust*, and can be mapped as a wheel in emotions". Additionally, Plutchik introduces a dimension of *intensity* which differentiates all basic emotions according to the intensity degree, introducing a 3D emotional model, as exhibited in Fig. 1.

### 3.1 Emotional Profile

When handling with emotions, there is common thinking that exists a straight connection between emotions and mood, and it is true because mood expresses emotions. However, the mood is different from the emotional profile: while the emotional profile of a person stays rigid throughout our life, the mood is more open to change, influenced by the current emotions. Therefore, it is not possible to consider

that the emotional profile could be detected in a short period. Moreover, when reminding the definition of WHO about depression (*depression can be longlasting or recurrent*), we must consider a relevant time interval to detect the emotional profile of an individual. Moreover the depression affects the emotional profile of a person, not his mood.

In this work, we considered the emotional profile of an individual as the set of the eight Plutchik's basic emotions, in a distribution where the sum of all these emotions results in 100%. We decided to use Plutchik's model because we believe that it represents better a way to handle the emotions and provides mechanisms to differentiate levels of each emotion.

### 3.2 Data Sample Creation

Dealing with depression in social media requires the ability to identify a pattern in the writings of someone who is suffering. However, as well as depression is known as the “silent killer” illness, it is very difficult to find data on social media posted by clinically identified people with depression. For this reason, we have adopted the strategy of searching in Twitter all messages containing the text “**I have depression**” in English. The objective of this approach is to collect messages from authors self-declared depressives for training a model using Natural Language Processing and Machine Learning to identify the depressive emotional profile. Of course that this approach can lead some undesired messages or some “fake depressive messages” - i.e. people posting that has depression but it is not true. For this reason, in this study, we consider that all messages in Twitter are veridical (i.e. they are not ironic and not lying) and each author which posted “I have depression” in Twitter is a potential depressive. However, to minimize the possibility of fake depressive authors, we decide to perform an **emotional profile validation** across a reliable source. An example of a collected tweet is presented in Fig. 2.

I have depression and anxiety in general. I been down this road. Just got to stay strong and stay positive.

Figure 2: Example of tweet collected.

The results from Twitter were manually analysed to identify in which context the sentence was mentioned, the authors of these sentences classified as “depressives”, and they had all their tweets collected in a time interval of 9 months.

For identifying non-depressive authors, we collected messages from aleatory authors (initially identified these authors searching authors who posted any

sentence containing the aleatory word “tree”) in a time interval of 9 months, as performed for depressive authors.

During the tweets gathering, we discarded all re-tweets and tweets containing mentions or links. This is because we intend to detect the emotional profile of the depressive author with no interferences, i.e., we wanted the messages those are not a chat with others, advertisements, neither posts from an influencer (in case of re-tweets).

The data sample resulted in 622339 tweets of 10416 different profiles.

### 3.3 Tweets Preprocessing

After collecting a set of tweets messages from self-declared depressive authors (128745 tweets from 3890 authors) and non-depressive authors ( tweets from 6526 authors), the next step consisted of a text preprocessing pipeline to remove unnecessary information from the texts. This pipeline, as presented in Fig. 3 have their steps as:

- Tokenization: converts the texts into a list of single words, or *tokens*;
- Part of Speech: processes all messages for grammatical identification and cleaning all tokens those grammatical categories are different from nouns, verbs, adverbs and adjectives;
- Lemmatization: identifies the lemma for each token and saves it for later use;
- Undesired words removal: removes all words contained in a “blacklist” (*stopwords*) and those with 3 or fewer characters.

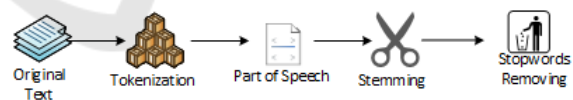


Figure 3: Preprocessing tasks.

The final result of this pipeline (therefore called preprocessed text) is a new sentence containing only the lemmas of words contained in tweets texts classified as verbs, adverbs, adjectives and nouns, containing at least 4 characters.

All preprocessing steps were developed under Python using the Spacy<sup>3</sup> module for automatizing the processes. We decided to use Spacy due to our experience in using this library.

<sup>3</sup><https://spacy.io/>

### 3.4 Sentiment Analysis

When the preprocessing is finished, the following step in the dataset creation was to analyse the emotions contained in the preprocessed texts. Regarding this purpose, we developed a tool in Python that identifies the frequency of each word on the preprocessed text and compares it with an emotional lexicon. The existence of the word into the lexicon results in the information of the word has an emotional context. Using the NRC Emotion lexicon (Mohammad and Turney, 2013) and NRC Affect Intensity lexicon (Mohammad, 2018), we identified the frequencies of all emotional words according to Plutchik's emotional definition and extracted the distribution of each emotion in a text. Regarding the affect intensity, the approach was to sum all intensities of each emotion for each preprocessed text.

Later, we identified the mean emotional profile from each Twitter depressive author (TAMEP) to validate the depressive authors (and avoid the fake self-identified depressive). This measure is calculated by the normalization of each emotion (summation of each emotion divided by the sum of all emotions). It results in a 12-dimension vector having values between 0 and 1, representing the average of each emotion/intensity in a post.

For the emotional profile validation of depressive authors, we created a depressive emotional baseline using the solution presented by Kim (Kim et al., 2020), that analysed Reddit's community r/depression as a source for depressive texts. In our case, we identified the mean emotional profile (RMEP) of depressive posts from the last 600 Reddit's posts and performed the same steps described earlier to create the emotional profile validator.

To validate if a Twitter depressive author is a valid depressive profile, we performed a hypothesis test for each author having TAMEP and RMEP. When the null hypothesis could not be rejected (i.e., the p-value between TAMEP and RMEP was less than 0.05), the author profile in TAMEP was considered as depressive.

For the other hand, to identify the non-depressive profiles, we adopted a solution of measuring the cosine distance between the non-depressive authors in TAMEP and RMEP. Once each emotional profile is a 12-dimensional vector (each Plutchik's basic emotion + intensities), we defined as non-depressive profile the ones that cosine distance between TAMEP and RMEP is less or equal to 0.

This approach resulted in a set of 1788 authors (947 classified as non-depressive and 841 classified as depressive) and 492178 tweets collected.

Finally, we created a dataset containing the mean of all emotions and intensities grouped by author and trimester, where each author must have posted at least 150 messages. This minimal limit of 150 messages was defined empirically because it is necessary to collect as many messages as possible, so, authors having less than this amount could bias the analysis due to less information about their emotions.

This approach - known as bag-of-words - was adopted because we intended to identify which emotions and intensities are relevant to detect depression, besides creating a "depressive emotional fingerprint" through the words used in the texts.

Some recent NLP techniques - such as Word Vectors and Transfer Learning - were discarded for this study due to the nature of the problem detection in the real world. Since a depressive person can be characterized by negative emotions in their comments in almost all situations in their lives, these techniques, which can capture the context better than a bag of words, are not relevant because the context of the sentences is not relevant too. We consider that when someone is depressive, their words are loaded of negative emotions in all situations, and for this reason, it is relevant an author's emotional profile snapshot over the time - exactly as a psychologist does during the treatment.

The final result was a dataset containing 1250 registers, divided into 686 non-depressive and 564 depressive authors, indicating the average of emotions and intensities of all your posts during the trimester. To avoid problems with data unbalanced, we decided to remove 11 aleatory non-depressive authors, resulting in 564 depressive and non-depressive authors. An overview of the dataset is presented in Fig. 4.

## 4 DATA ANALYSIS

The data analysis was divided into two different analysis: Exploratory Analysis, and Machine Learning-based analysis.

### 4.1 Exploratory Analysis

Exploratory analysis is the approach aimed at analysing datasets to summarize their main features, often with visual methods, aiming to find pieces of information hidden in the data.

In this work, the initial approach in the exploratory analysis was to identify if the emotional data are represented by a normal distribution. For this purpose, we performed a Shapiro-Wilk test for each emotion and intensity in the dataset. During our tests, all



Depressive, IAnger, IFear, IJoy, ISadness, Anger, Fear, Joy, Sadness, Anticip, Disgust, Surprise, Trust  
 1, 0.307881, 0.178609, 0.290166, 0.195166, 0.1241, 0.1633, 0.1453, 0.1495, 0.1294, 0.0923, 0.0944, 0.1018  
 1, 0.338536, 0.23027, 0.263468, 0.193108, 0.1584, 0.1463, 0.1318, 0.1143, 0.1191, 0.1227, 0.0828, 0.1245  
 0, 0.206103, 0.174085, 0.23, 0.151455, 0.0976, 0.144, 0.1424, 0.1392, 0.1472, 0.0592, 0.1232, 0.1472  
 0, 0.220147, 0.205588, 0.297647, 0.189265, 0.0985, 0.1286, 0.1472, 0.1031, 0.1796, 0.0823, 0.0904, 0.1703  
 0, 0.236933, 0.244311, 0.289778, 0.192222, 0.1059, 0.1187, 0.1257, 0.1129, 0.1816, 0.0931, 0.092, 0.17  
 1, 0.28194, 0.169526, 0.283966, 0.173276, 0.1187, 0.1288, 0.1602, 0.1216, 0.1416, 0.0973, 0.0687, 0.1631

Figure 4: Dataset created.

p-value results were less than 0.05, confirming that the data are represented as a normal distribution.

Later, the outliers in each emotion and intensity were identified to remove them from the sample. For this reason, we created a boxplot to identify visually the range of each dataset's dimension and their respective number of outliers, as presented in Fig. 5. Each emotion was considered as an outlier when its value was out of the range  $[-2\sigma \leq \bar{x} \leq 2\sigma]$ .

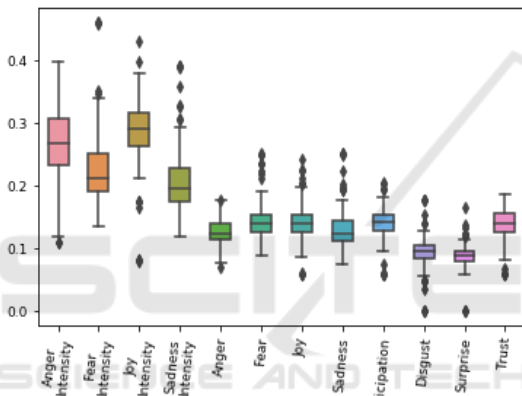


Figure 5: Outliers identification.

Regarding outliers handling, our approach was to change each outlier value for the mean of each emotion or intensity category (depressive or non-depressive). The reason was to avoid that outliers in some emotion (for example) affect others in case of removing the entire register.

The next step was to identify the relationship between the dataset dimensions and the depression indication. For this purpose, we measured the correlation between the depressive flag and the emotions, as presented in Table 1.

These outcomes show that negative emotions (anger, fear and sadness) have a moderated correlation ( $r^2$ ) with depression, whereas positive emotions (in this case, anticipation and joy) have an inverse moderated correlation. The same analysis was performed for the emotional intensities, as presented in Table 2, confirming the same results.

Despite the data values analysed in the correlation are different in their characteristics - emotions have continuous values while the information about

depression has a nominal value - the Pearson correlation can be applied because these data can be interpreted as a **biserial correlation**. This is justified because the depression indicative can only have 2 values, assuming binary characteristics.

### 4.2 Clustering Analysis

The objective of the Clustering Analysis is to perform data transformations to understand if and how the data can be grouped. To achieve this, the initial step was to transform the 12-dimension dataset into a 2-dimension dataset for visualizing the data as a scatter plot, and this would be impossible using 12-dimension data.

Initially, we performed a Principal Component Analysis (PCA) to reduce the dataset (with no information about depressive classification) dimensionality. The PCA algorithm identified that the most relevant dimensions in the dataset were *Fear* and *Disgust*, which can contain 72.33% of the information.

Next, the dataset resultant from PCA analysis fed the KMeans algorithm used to cluster into two categories the data and generated a scatter plot. The resultant graphic is presented in Figure 6.

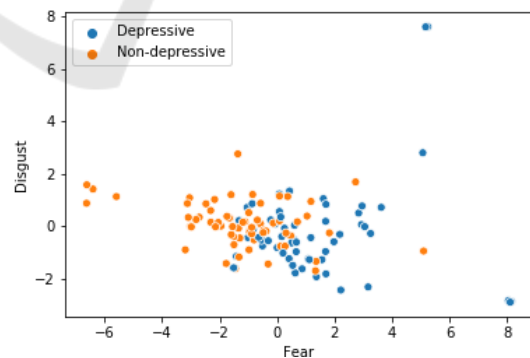


Figure 6: Clusters of information.

This information is important because it shows that the emotional data about depressive and non-depressive can be divided into 2 distinct categories, visually distant, and reinforced the WHO's definition about depression (*depressive disorders are characterized by sadness, loss of interest or pleasure, feelings of guilt or low self-worth, disturbed sleep or ap-*

Table 1: Correlations between depressive status and basic emotions.

Basic emotions							
Anger	Anticipation	Disgust	Fear	Joy	Sadness	Surprise	Trust
0.47	-0.43	0.17	0.45	-0.56	0.32	-0.28	-0.19

Table 2: Correlation between depressive status and intensities.

Intensities			
Anger	Fear	Joy	Sadness
0.49	0.49	-0.43	0.41

*petite, feelings of tiredness, and poor concentration*") because it shows that emotions fear and disgust are relevant to identify depression.

### 4.3 Machine and Deep Learning Analysis

The next analysis consisted of the creation of a classification model able to identify the depressive emotional profile in messages. To achieve this objective, we used the dataset created in section 3.4 in some Machine Learning and Deep Learning algorithms, aiming to identify the best model to classify depression.

Some characteristics from the problem (depression classification) and the dataset - as few examples - were relevant in the choice of the algorithms analysed. Algorithms like LDA (Linear Discriminant Analysis) and Fisher Linear Discriminant were discarded because we believe that the problem is not represented by a linear function.

So, in our analysis, the following algorithms were considered: Support Vector Machines (SVM), Random Forests, Naive Bayes, DNN and 1-D CNN. In our analysis we just considered the algorithm's in their standard configuration and having as input each emotion and intensities, in a dataset's division of 30% for testing and 70% for training. For the Deep Learning models, we created some different model architectures using Tensorflow to evaluate the better results. For DNN, the architecture whose got the best precision was a 5-layer neural model (12-12-8-6-2 layers), having a dropout of 0.5 between each tier to avoid overfitting, respectively. Regarding CNN architectures, the most accurate was a 5-tier 1-D Convolutional Neural Network, using the same strategy of dropout 0.5 on each tier to avoid overfitting.

The precision and mean squared error (MSE) for each algorithm with its best result and network architecture is presented in Table 3.

As a baseline comparison, we performed classification using the same algorithms and the same configuration to identify the influence of emotional la-

Table 3: Benchmark of Machine and Deep Learning algorithms.

Algorithm	Precision	MSE	Recall
SVM	0.984	0.126	0.858
Random Forest	0.8	0.176	0.869
Naive Bayes	0.76	0.45	0.745
DNN	0.939	0.076	0.793
CNN	0.915	0.071	0.746

bels on the classification. As input values, all tweets were transformed to 12-dimension word vectors using Word2Vec trained for 50 epochs. To calculate the word embedding representation for each tweet, we calculated the mean of all 12-dimension vector words contained in the message. The resulting vector is considered the 12-dimension representation of the sentence. The results of each algorithm are presented in Table 4.

Table 4: Benchmark of Machine and Deep Learning algorithms - Word2Vec.

Algorithm	Precision	MSE	Recall
SVM	0.642	0.463	0.642
Random Forest	0.636	0.411	0.509
Naive Bayes	0.731	0.56	0.74
DNN	0.836	0.351	0.698
CNN	0.779	0.221	0.764

These results show that some Machine Learning algorithms such as SVM and Deep Learning algorithms as DNN can identify the depressive emotional pattern with good precision. These results are better than the results observed in Section 2, and the values obtained in Table 4, reinforcing that the emotional text analysis to identify depressives can be a promising alternative to help people that are suffering silently.

## 5 CONCLUSION

Day after day, depression is becoming an epidemic disease that affects people of different social levels, cultures and ethnicities. Due to the nature of silence, identifying people who ask for help because of this illness but cannot verbalize that request is quite complicated, and often goes unnoticed even by the person suffering from depression.

The use of textual sentiment analysis can help

identify the disease as it is a non-invasive method that can be continuously monitored. This is a huge help in the war against depression because it enables us to identify periods of wellness and sadness without a necessity to visit a psychologist, enabling a quick action when necessary.

Despite many works in this research area, the results obtained for this emotional model to identify depression are promising when compared to the previous efforts, principally when the precision of 0.984 on depression classification is presented. However, once the information was data collected from social media, we cannot discard the hypothesis of biased data, because it is not possible to assure that the authors were true when writing their posts. However, we believe that this approach when using texts from clinically depressive authors - as the psychologists do - tend to confirm the depression diagnostic identified by the psychologist.

As future work, we plan to use this approach on clinically identified depressive patients, to identify their emotional profiles and confirm that the precision-based in social data remains when using data collected from a controlled situation, as an appointment with the psychologist.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We would like to thank to Loggi<sup>4</sup> data team for all interesting discussions about metrics and profile identification.

This work has been supported by FCT – Fundação para a Ciência e Tecnologia within the R&D Units Project Scope: UIDB/00319/2020.

## REFERENCES

- Arora, P. and Arora, P. (2019). Mining twitter data for depression detection. In *2019 International Conference on Signal Processing and Communication (ICSC)*, pages 186–189. IEEE.
- De Choudhury, M., Gamon, M., Counts, S., and Horvitz, E. (2013). Predicting depression via social media. In *Seventh international AAI conference on weblogs and social media*.
- Ekman, P. (1992). An argument for basic emotions. *Cognition & emotion*, 6(3-4):169–200.
- Kim, J., Lee, J., Park, E., and Han, J. (2020). A deep learning model for detecting mental illness from user content on social media. *Scientific Reports*, 10(1):1–6.
- Maupomé, G. and Isyutina, O. (2013). Dental students' and faculty members' concepts and emotions associated with a caries risk assessment program. *Journal of dental education*, 77:1477–87.
- Mohammad, S. M. (2018). Word affect intensities. In *Proceedings of the 11th Edition of the Language Resources and Evaluation Conference (LREC-2018)*, Miyazaki, Japan.
- Mohammad, S. M. and Turney, P. D. (2013). Crowdsourcing a word-emotion association lexicon. 29(3):436–465.
- Orabi, A. H., Buddhitha, P., Orabi, M. H., and Inkpen, D. (2018). Deep learning for depression detection of twitter users. In *Proceedings of the Fifth Workshop on Computational Linguistics and Clinical Psychology: From Keyboard to Clinic*, pages 88–97.
- Organization, W. H. et al. (2017). Depression and other common mental disorders: global health estimates. Technical report, World Health Organization.
- Plutchik, R. (1984). Emotions: A general psychoevolutionary theory. *Approaches to emotion*, 1984:197–219.
- Schafer, J. (2011). Reading people by the words they speak — psychology today. <https://www.psychologytoday.com/us/blog/let-their-words-do-the-talking/201106/reading-people-the-words-they-speak>. (Accessed on 04/13/2020).
- Tao, X., Dharmalingam, R., Zhang, J., Zhou, X., Li, L., and Gururajan, R. (2019). Twitter analysis for depression on social networks based on sentiment and stress. In *2019 6th International Conference on Behavioral, Economic and Socio-Cultural Computing (BESCom)*, pages 1–4. IEEE.
- Tsugawa, S., Kikuchi, Y., Kishino, F., Nakajima, K., Itoh, Y., and Ohsaki, H. (2015). Recognizing depression from twitter activity. In *Proceedings of the 33rd annual ACM conference on human factors in computing systems*, pages 3187–3196. ACM.
- Ziwei, B. Y. and Chua, H. N. (2019). An application for classifying depression in tweets. In *Proceedings of the 2nd International Conference on Computing and Big Data*, pages 37–41.

<sup>4</sup><https://www.loggi.com>