

# Ensembles of BERT for Depression Classification

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**Abstract**—Depression is among the most prevalent mental health disorders and increasing prevalence worldwide. While early detection is critical for the prognosis of depression treatment, detecting depression is challenging. Previous deep learning research has thus begun to detect depression with the transcripts of clinical interview questions. Since approaches using Bidirectional Encoder Representations from Transformers (BERT) have demonstrated particular promise, we hypothesize that ensembles of BERT variants will improve depression detection. Thus, in this research, we compare the depression classification abilities of three BERT variants and four ensembles of BERT variants on the transcripts of responses to 12 clinical interview questions. Specifically, we implement the ensembles with different ensemble strategies, number of model components, and architectural layer combinations. Our results demonstrate that ensembles increase mean F1 scores and robustness across clinical interview data.

**Clinical relevance**— This research highlights the potential of ensembles to detect depression with text which is important to guide future development of healthcare application ecosystems.

## I. INTRODUCTION

Depression is one of the most prevalent mental illnesses, according to World Health Organisation (WHO) [1]. The number of people living with this mental illness increased by more than 18% between 2005 and 2015. Approximately 280 million people in the world are living with a depressive disorder [1]. As a result of an ongoing depression, the abilities of a person in performing daily activities can be critically decreased and negatively impact the patients life severely. In the worst case, depression can lead to suicide. Every year, more than 700 thousand people globally die by suicide which is the fourth leading cause of death among people aged 15-29 [1]. Early detection is crucial for the prognosis of depression treatment [2], nevertheless diagnosis is difficult so depression often remains undiagnosed for many years [3]. Thus, research [4], [5], [6], [7], [8], [9], [10] has begun exploring the modeling of voice recordings and transcripts as a strategy to detect depression earlier.

For instance, Audio-Assisted BERT (AudiBERT) [8] was recently leveraged to optimize depression classification from

clinical interview recordings. While the Bidirectional Encoder Representations from Transformers (BERT) models [11] for text classification were combined with audio classification architectures, the ablation study indicates that the BERT component was most influential to AudiBERT’s success. However, RoBERTa, a more robustly trained BERT model, has demonstrated better performance than BERT for mental health applications [12]. Also, previous studies have revealed ensembles of machine learning models can produce more robust classifications than individual models [13], [14].

Thus, within the scope of this research, we investigate the ability of BERT variants and BERT ensembles to classify depression from the transcripts of responses to 12 clinical interview questions. In particular, we hypothesize that ensembling several BERT variants will result in better performance. We notably compare the depression classification ability of:

- 1) three different individual BERT variants,
- 2) two different ensemble method strategies,
- 3) ensembles containing different BERT models, and
- 4) three different combinations of architectural layers.

## II. CLINICAL INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPT DATA

For this research, we use the transcripts from the Distress Analysis Interview Corpus - Wizard of Oz (DAIC-WOZ) [15], [16]. The DAIC-WOZ corpus consists of 189 clinical interviews conducted by a virtual agent. Participants were virtually asked a subset of *core* questions with varying amounts of follow-up questions to elicit more details [16].

The interviews are labeled with PHQ-8 depression screening scores. The PHQ-8 contains the first eight Likert scales in the PHQ-9 [17]. The PHQ-8 score ranges from 0 to 24 with a score of 10 being indicative of depression.

We treat each core question in DAIC-WOZ as an individual thematic dataset, as defined in the related literature [8]. Each dataset contains the responses to a single core question and related follow-up questions. In this research, we use the 12 thematic datasets with the most responses, as detailed in Table I. These datasets contain 94 to 105 responses with 21% to 31% of respondents labeled as depressed ( $\text{PHQ-8} \geq 10$ ).

## III. DEEP LEARNING METHODOLOGY

Our goal is to predict depression with transcripts of responses to clinical interview questions asked by a virtual agent. To accomplish this, we explore the depression screening capabilities of 3 BERT variants and 4 ensembles of BERT variants. Further, we compare two different ensemble method architectures. We focus on BERT classifiers in this research given their demonstrated success with smaller datasets and mental health applications [12], [8].

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TABLE I  
THEMATIC DATASET DESCRIPTIONS.

| Core Question Description                     | Count | Depressed |
|---|-------|-----------|
| How are you doing today?                      | 105   | 28.6%     |
| The last time you argued with someone?        | 103   | 29.1%     |
| What advice would you give yourself?          | 102   | 28.4%     |
| What are you most proud of?                   | 100   | 28.0%     |
| How are you at controlling your temper?       | 100   | 30.0%     |
| When was the last time you felt really happy? | 99    | 28.3%     |
| How easy is it for you to get good sleep?     | 98    | 27.6%     |
| How would your best friend describe you?      | 96    | 26.0%     |
| What's your dream job?                        | 95    | 30.5%     |
| What'd you study at school?                   | 95    | 30.5%     |
| Do you travel a lot?                          | 94    | 27.7%     |
| Have you been diagnosed with depression?      | 94    | 21.3%     |

#### A. Individual BERT Variants

**BERT.** The Bidirectional Encoder Representations of Transformers is a pretrained model for language representation [11]. BERT was revealed to have a superior performance due to its architecture leveraging multi-layer bidirectional Transformer encoder combined with multiple attention heads. The model is pretrained on BooksCorpus and English Wikipedia (16GB) using Masked Language Modeling (MLM) and Next Sentence Prediction (NSP). This pretraining allows for previously unprecedented success when classifying smaller datasets.

**RoBERTa.** A previous study [12] suggests that the Robustly Optimized BERT Pretraining Approach (RoBERTa) model [18] is better than BERT for mental health applications. The training approach for RoBERTa is different from BERT base model as there is no NSP and instead an extended MLM procedure is integrated. Pretrained on a bigger corpus than BERT, RoBERTa includes more informal text data in the pretraining such as a Reddit corpus.

**DistilBERT.** DistilBERT [19] is a less computationally costly alternative to the BERT base model. Retaining 97% of BERT's language understanding and general-purpose pretraining, DistilBERT reduces the size of the BERT model by 40%. Thus, to reduce computational costs, DistilBERT is more attractive than the BERT base model in ensembles.

#### B. Ensemble Strategies

**Simple Averaging.** For the simple averaging ensemble strategy, the final logit result is created by averaging the numeric results in the classification layer of the models, as depicted in Fig.1. As with the individual models, the resulting average is then classified with a threshold of 0.5.

**One Final Classifier.** For the one final classifier ensemble strategy [8], we concatenated the CLS tokens from all of the individual classifiers in the ensemble, as depicted in Fig.1. The final classification layer is then applied to this concatenated vector to output the final logit for the ensemble.

#### C. Ensembles of BERT Models

We experiment with four different ensembles, noted in Table 2. In particular, to determine the impact of the ensemble strategy, we ensemble BERT and RoBERTa with both strategies, resulting in Ens 1 and Ens 2. Further, we

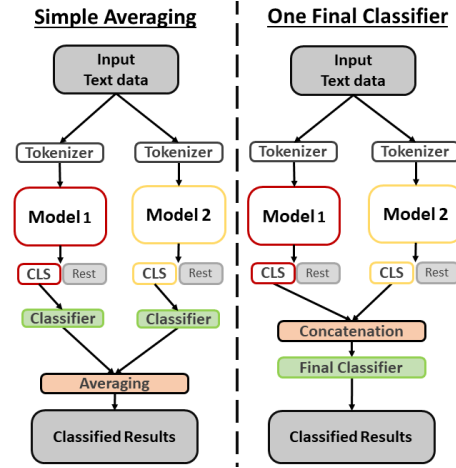


Fig. 1. Comparison of the two ensemble method strategies.

TABLE 2  
THE COMPONENTS COMPRISING EACH OF THE DIFFERENT ENSEMBLES.

| Ensemble | Method               | BERT | RoBERTa | DistilBERT |
|----------|----------------------|------|---------|------------|
| Ens 1    | Simple Averaging     | ✓    | ✓       |            |
| Ens 2    | One Final Classifier | ✓    | ✓       |            |
| Ens 3    | One Final Classifier |      | ✓       | ✓          |
| Ens 4    | One Final Classifier | ✓    | ✓       | ✓          |

determine whether BERT can be replaced with the less computationally costly DistilBERT by comparing the results of Ens 2 and Ens 3. Lastly, we explore the impact of adding a third model to the ensemble by comparing Ens 2 and Ens 3 with Ens 4.

#### D. Combinations of Architectural Layers

We fine-tuned our models to increase classification ability by implementing each of the aforementioned classifiers with three different combinations of architectural layers. Notably, these included the base model (B), base model with an extra self-attention layer (BA), and the base model with an LSTM layer and an extra self-attention layer (BLA). This fine-tuning is performed on top of the concatenated vector for the *One Final Classifier* ensembles and on top of each *CLS* token for the *Simple Averaging* ensembles and BERT variants.

#### E. Model Implementation and Evaluation

Due to our hyperparameter tuning, we ran models with batchsize=8, learning rate= $2 \times 10^{-5}$ , and step size= $2 \times 10^8$ . Our models used 128 tokens, a cross entropy loss function, and an Adam optimizer with weight decay. Each model is trained for 10 epochs. For each thematic dataset, the test sets contain 20% of the responses [8]. To mitigate bias from unequal classes, training sets were upsampled. Experiments are repeated 10 times with randomly initialized weights.

Model performance is evaluated based on metrics calculated with the number of true positive *TP*, false positive *FP*, false negative *FN*, and true negative *TN* predictions. Our goal is to maximize *F1* (Eq. 1), a popular metric for diagnostic tasks with unbalanced data. *F1* is the harmonic mean between the positive predictive value and sensitivity.

TABLE 3

RESULTING MEAN METRICS  $\pm$  STANDARD DEVIATION ACROSS ALL 12 THEMATIC DATASETS. B REFERS TO BASE MODEL, BA REFERS TO BASE MODEL WITH ADDITIONAL ATTENTION LAYER, AND BLA REFERS TO BASE MODEL WITH ADDITIONAL LSTM AND ATTENTION LAYERS.

| Model Architecture | F1              |                 |                        | Sensitivity            |                 |                 | Specificity     |                        |                 |
|--------------------|-----------------|-----------------|------------------------|------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|------------------------|-----------------|
|                    | B               | BA              | BLA                    | B                      | BA              | BLA             | B               | BA                     | BLA             |
| BERT               | 0.35 $\pm$ 0.29 | 0.47 $\pm$ 0.24 | 0.60 $\pm$ 0.18        | 0.31 $\pm$ 0.27        | 0.45 $\pm$ 0.25 | 0.61 $\pm$ 0.19 | 0.52 $\pm$ 0.39 | 0.62 $\pm$ 0.30        | 0.60 $\pm$ 0.25 |
| RoBERTa            | 0.58 $\pm$ 0.22 | 0.43 $\pm$ 0.33 | 0.47 $\pm$ 0.31        | <b>0.73</b> $\pm$ 0.29 | 0.56 $\pm$ 0.44 | 0.54 $\pm$ 0.36 | 0.30 $\pm$ 0.32 | 0.17 $\pm$ 0.29        | 0.34 $\pm$ 0.32 |
| DistilBERT         | 0.54 $\pm$ 0.21 | 0.50 $\pm$ 0.18 | 0.59 $\pm$ 0.16        | 0.49 $\pm$ 0.22        | 0.44 $\pm$ 0.20 | 0.59 $\pm$ 0.18 | 0.73 $\pm$ 0.22 | 0.74 $\pm$ 0.19        | 0.62 $\pm$ 0.23 |
| Ens 1              | 0.52 $\pm$ 0.18 | 0.49 $\pm$ 0.20 | 0.60 $\pm$ 0.13        | 0.47 $\pm$ 0.19        | 0.43 $\pm$ 0.22 | 0.62 $\pm$ 0.15 | 0.75 $\pm$ 0.18 | <b>0.76</b> $\pm$ 0.16 | 0.61 $\pm$ 0.21 |
| Ens 2              | 0.53 $\pm$ 0.17 | 0.49 $\pm$ 0.20 | <b>0.62</b> $\pm$ 0.12 | 0.49 $\pm$ 0.17        | 0.44 $\pm$ 0.21 | 0.64 $\pm$ 0.14 | 0.74 $\pm$ 0.18 | <b>0.76</b> $\pm$ 0.18 | 0.61 $\pm$ 0.20 |
| Ens 3              | 0.51 $\pm$ 0.18 | 0.51 $\pm$ 0.18 | <b>0.62</b> $\pm$ 0.13 | 0.47 $\pm$ 0.19        | 0.48 $\pm$ 0.19 | 0.64 $\pm$ 0.14 | 0.73 $\pm$ 0.19 | 0.72 $\pm$ 0.18        | 0.61 $\pm$ 0.26 |
| Ens 4              | 0.49 $\pm$ 0.21 | 0.48 $\pm$ 0.20 | 0.60 $\pm$ 0.14        | 0.46 $\pm$ 0.21        | 0.44 $\pm$ 0.22 | 0.63 $\pm$ 0.15 | 0.75 $\pm$ 0.19 | 0.75 $\pm$ 0.18        | 0.57 $\pm$ 0.20 |

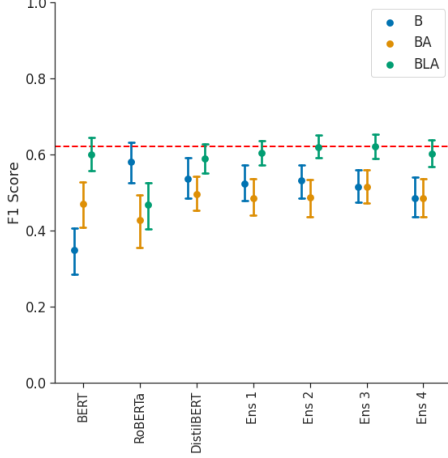


Fig. 2. Mean  $F1 \pm$  standard deviation for all thematic datasets. Red line indicates highest mean value of 0.62.

Also popular for diagnostics, *sensitivity* is the true positive rate and *specificity* is the true negative rate. We report the metrics for models with the five highest  $F1$  scores.

$$F1 = \frac{2TP}{2TP + FP + FN} \quad (1)$$

$$Sensitivity = \frac{TP}{TP + FN}; Specificity = \frac{TN}{TN + FP} \quad (2)$$

#### F. Availability

Upon publication, we will release the ensemble code at [github.com/sennsaskia/EnsemblesBERT.git](https://github.com/sennsaskia/EnsemblesBERT.git). Further research updates will be available at [emutivo.wpi.edu](http://emutivo.wpi.edu).

#### IV. RESULTS

The models performances aggregated across the 12 thematic datasets are shown in Table 3 and Fig. 2. We observe the highest mean  $F1$  of 0.62 for our ensemble models Ens 2 (BLA) and Ens 3 (BLA). These ensembles also have the lowest standard deviations, indicating robustness. Both ensembles have mean sensitivities of 0.64 and specificities of 0.61 which are well balanced for inversely related metrics. Given that DistilBERT in Ens 3 is less computationally costly than BERT in Ens 2, we consider Ens 3 to be the most preferable of our ensembles.

**BERT Variants.** The individual BERT (BLA), RoBERTa (B), and DistilBERT (BLA) models performs almost as well

as best performing ensembles with mean  $F1$  scores of 0.60, 0.58, and 0.59, respectively. However, the standard deviation of these individual models are larger so they are less robust than the ensembles. Unlike for the other individual models, RoBERTa performed better with the basic architecture than with additional LSTM and attention layers. The extra fine tuning layers had the most impact for the individual BERT model, increasing the mean  $F1$  from 0.35 to 0.60.

**Ensemble Strategies.** To determine the effect of the ensemble strategy, we compared the  $F1$  scores for Ens 1 with the Simple Averaging strategy and Ens 2 with the One Final Classifier strategy. Ens 2 (BLA) has a slightly higher mean  $F1$  than Ens 1 (BLA), thus we proceed with the Simple Averaging ensemble strategy for further ensembles.

**Ensembles of BERT Variants.** The effect different model combinations is further explored by comparing the  $F1$  scores of Ens 2 and Ens 3. Both ensembles (BLA) achieved mean  $F1$  of 0.62 and similar standard deviations. Hence, our results suggest that BERT can be successfully substituted in ensembles by the less computationally expensive DistilBERT. Interestingly, adding a third model to the ensemble decreased the mean  $F1$  slightly to 0.60, so more models is not better.

**Architectural Layers.** The performance of all the ensembles are greatly improved by adding addition LSTM and attention layers (BLA); the mean  $F1$  scores are increased and the standard deviations decreased. While also true for BERT and DistilBERT, adding both extra layers notably decreases the mean  $F1$  of RoBERTa. Apart from BERT, adding an extra attention layer without an LSTM layer is not advantageous.

**Individual Thematic Datasets.** Fig.3 compares the  $F1$  scores for the 12 individual thematic datasets. We observe that the ensembles (BLA) have very small standard deviation and never perform comparatively poorly for any dataset, though they may not always achieve the highest mean  $F1$  scores. This indicates that the ensembles produce robust results, even for small datasets. However, there is a huge variation in depression detection capabilities across different datasets. For example, all models for the blunt diagnosed\_depression dataset have very high mean  $F1$  scores, up to 0.93 for BERT (BLA); the ensembles achieved a maximum mean  $F1$  of 0.92 with smaller standard deviation. The ensembles (BLA) slightly outperformed BERT (BLA) for the controlling\_temper dataset with mean  $F1$  scores up to 0.65. This dataset highlights the importance of adding LSTM and attention layers to ensembles.

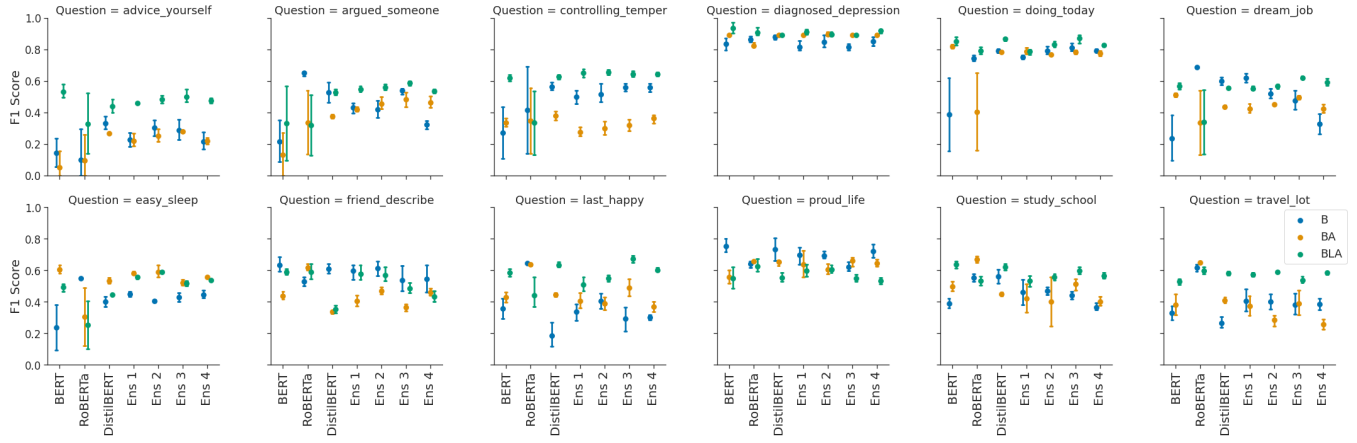


Fig. 3. Mean  $F1 \pm$  standard deviation for each of the individual datasets, ordered alphabetically.

## V. DISCUSSION, LIMITATIONS, & FUTURE WORK

The results support our hypothesis and previous research [13], [14] that ensembles of BERT variants perform better than individual models for depression classification. While the mean  $F1$  scores of our ensembles (BLA) were only slightly higher than those of the best performing individual models, our ensembles were notably more robust, as evidenced by their small standard deviations. As suggested by related literature [12], the base RoBERTa model performed decently for the mental health datasets. RoBERTa did not benefit from fine tuning so BERT (BLA) surpassed its performance. Yet, RoBERTa proved to be a critical component of the successful ensembles (BLA).

AudiBERT [8] improved depression detection ability by combining BERT with an audio model. We discovered that ensembling BERT models can also improve classification. Thus, integrating multiple text models with multiple audio models could further enhance the performance of AudiBERT.

While DAIC-WOZ [15], [16] is the best available dataset for this research, the small number of participants limits model performance. Our ensemble models were quite stable on the small datasets but collecting larger datasets will help further establish the robustness of our ensembles in this domain. While we used transcripts, our ensembles are applicable to any text data such as social media posts.

## VI. CONCLUSION

Our research demonstrates that ensembling text classification models indeed improves performance for depression screening. In particular, we recommend ensembling AudiBERT and DistilBERT with One Final Classifier strategy for this task. While not always advantageous for individual models, fine-tuning with an additional LSTM and attention layers before classification benefited the ensembles. This research could guide future development of successful depression classification models for healthcare application ecosystems.

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