

An adaptive data-driven architecture for mental health care applications: a systematic review

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Background. In an era of rapid technology innovations our lives are getting increasingly associated with digital systems. Eventually, every human action leaves a digital data which makes it an invaluable resource. In such context, data driven architectures are crucial in organizing, manipulation and presenting data for positive computing through ensemble machine learning models. Furthermore, the covid pandemic stressed a significant need of an adaptable mental health care architecture inclusive of machine learning predictive models which has the potential to benefit vast population which identify individuals at higher risk of developing various mental health disorders.

Objective. Hence, the research is to develop an adaptable mental health care architecture that leverages data-driven approaches and ensemble machine learning models, to effectively organize, manipulate, and present data for positive computing. The adaptive data-driven architecture enables interventions tailored to various types of mental health disorders and promoting positive computing. This, in turn, would reflect improved mental health care outcomes and increased accessibility for individuals with diverse mental health conditions.

Method. Following PRISMA guidelines, we conducted a systematic literature review in the WoS database to identify the existing strengths and limitations of software architecture relevant to our adaptive design. The systematic review was registered in PROSPERO (CRD42023444661). Additionally, a mapping process was employed to derive essential paradigms serving as the foundation for our architecture design. To validate the architecture based on its features, a Likert scale was utilized by the professional experts.

Results. Through the review we identified six fundamental paradigms crucial for designing the architecture. Building upon these paradigms, we designed an adaptive data-driven architecture, which was subsequently validated by professional experts which yielded a mean score above 4 for each assessed feature, affirming the architecture's effectiveness. To further test the architecture's practical application, a pandemic anxiety prediction prototype architecture was designed.

1 **An adaptive data-driven architecture for mental health care** 2 **applications: a systematic review**

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15 ABSTRACT

16 **Background.** In an era of rapid technology innovations our lives are getting increasingly
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19 organizing, manipulation and presenting data for positive computing through ensemble machine
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40 architecture's practical application, a pandemic anxiety prediction prototype architecture was
41 designed.

42 INTRODUCTION

43 In recent years, there has been a growing awareness of the importance of mental health and well-
44 being. With the rise of mental health issues worldwide, policymakers, scholars, and healthcare
45 professionals are actively seeking innovative approaches to offer effective care and support to
46 those who require it. A promising and evolving method involves the implementation of data-
47 driven mental health care systems and machine learning algorithms. The aim of data-driven
48 mental health care systems is to harness vast amounts of information collected from various
49 sources, including electronic health records, wearable devices, and patient-reported outcomes.
50 (Aggarwal & Girdhar 2022) (An et al. 2022). Data-driven mental health care systems gather,
51 analyze, and interpret data to generate valuable insights that provide decision-making in mental
52 health care. Within these systems, machine learning models play a crucial role by uncovering
53 patterns that healthcare practitioners could potentially overlook. By applying complex algorithms
54 to the collected data, these models can then make predictions based on their data analysis. The
55 capacity of data-driven mental health care systems to offer customized and precise interventions
56 is a notable advantage, particularly during pandemics like covid (Arivoli et al. 2022). The
57 machine learning data-driven systems have the potential to significantly impact each patient's
58 specific needs by analyzing individual data, including socio-demographic information, medical
59 history, and behavioral patterns. The complexity of this task would be overwhelming for human
60 efforts alone. In this data-driven system, machine learning algorithms undergo a series of events,
61 which include data collection and dataset extraction. Subsequently, they handle various aspects
62 such as data preprocessing, encompassing data filtration, handling missing values, noise
63 reduction, tokenization, vectorization, manipulation, data presentation, and final report
64 visualization. Data-driven systems and machine learning are inherently interconnected (Thieme
65 et al. 2020), serving as the foundation of any decision support system that depends on valuable
66 data (Khumprom & Yodo 2019). The data within these systems is typically classified into
67 structured, unstructured, and semi-structured formats (Siriyaatien et al. 2018) which is then
68 processed and analyzed. The initial stage of the data collection process for decision-making
69 involves gathering data from sources like social networking sites (e.g., Facebook, Twitter)
70 (Alharbi & Fkih 2022), existing datasets acquired through surveys, cohort studies, etc., or
71 through direct face-to-face interviews, among other methods. The subsequent step involves
72 comprehending and interpreting this diverse data, which may include spatial data, sensor data,
73 graphs, and real-time transactions (Burkom et al. 2021). Data-driven decision support systems
74 offer user-friendly access, enabling the integration of various data sources, intuitive data
75 manipulation, and diverse conceptual reporting of the interpreted results. The significance of
76 data-driven systems lies in the reliability of Data-driven Decision Making (DDDM). The DDDM
77 framework comprises various stages, including data collection, organization, analysis,
78 summarization, synthesis, and prioritization (Yu et al. 2021). Consequently, the healthcare

79 domain will persist in relying on data and machine learning models to steer the transformation
80 process, necessitating a dependable and adaptive machine learning data-driven architectural
81 framework. As data is collected from diverse sources through multiple channels and in various
82 formats, it becomes crucial to design an interoperable framework that ensures a smooth and
83 secure process flow prior to the actual manipulation by ensemble models. It should promote
84 reusability, automated machine learning prediction and human decision support (Alreshidi &
85 Ahmad 2019). As revealed from the initial search, limited research focused on architecture for
86 mental health care systems particularly on machine learning based data-driven systems.
87 Therefore, this research investigates various existing data-driven architectural patterns, not
88 limited to mental health care but also encompassing other health care applications. By doing so,
89 the study aims to identify strengths and limitations, enabling the development of an adaptive
90 architecture that addresses these issues effectively.

91 BACKGROUND STUDY

92 This study aims on design of an adaptive data-driven architectures, which focuses to conduct a
93 systematic review to identify key architectural strengths and limitations in this domain. (Kaur et
94 al. 2018) centered around big data analytics in the healthcare domain, leading to the design of
95 four crucial pillars: Patient-Centric Care, incorporating health records, drug history, patient
96 behavior, and preferences, Real-time Patient Monitoring through wearable sensors, Predictive
97 Analysis of diseases, and Enhancement of treatment methods. A healthcare architecture was
98 developed, comprising four layers: data source, storage, security, and a machine learning-based
99 application layer. The primary emphasis was placed on security and privacy within this
100 architecture. (Patel & Gandhi 2018) focused on big data analytics in the healthcare domain,
101 employing ensemble models. Despite the notable advantages of using big data analytics
102 combined with machine learning, the review highlighted key challenges associated with
103 managing the variety of data structures, data storage and management, as well as data integration
104 and processing. A systematic literature review was carried out on cyber-physical systems (CPS)
105 that encompass the integration of sensing, computing, and communication to monitor, control,
106 and interact with physical processes. The main objective was to identify successful solutions that
107 could serve as valuable guidance for architects and practitioners in their healthcare projects. The
108 synthesis of the search results generated a knowledge base of software architectures for
109 healthcare CPS, encompassing stakeholders' interests, functional and non-functional
110 requirements, quality aspects, architectural views and styles, and the components of architectural
111 designs (Plaza et al. 2018). On the other hand, (Avci et al. 2020) focuses on discussing software
112 architectures for extensive data systems, carefully considering the application domain,
113 architectural viewpoints, architectural patterns, architectural concerns, quality attributes, design
114 methods, technologies, and stakeholders. This systematic literature review thoroughly examines
115 big data software designs, assessing evidence while also exploring the interrelationship between
116 the data extraction area and quality parameters. A survey and comparison of Big Data
117 architectures are carried out, covering multiple application domains (Macak et al. 2020). The

118 study involves selecting representative architectures from each domain to provide guidance to
119 researchers and practitioners in their respective fields. Furthermore, a cross-domain comparison
120 is conducted to identify similarities and differences among the domain-specific architectures.
121 The study concludes by presenting practical guidelines to aid Big Data researchers and
122 practitioners in constructing and improving their architectures, leveraging insights gathered from
123 this research. (Schymanietz et al. 2022) focuses on Data-Driven Service Innovation (DDSI),
124 which involves integrating data and analytics into the domain as an analytical unit. The research
125 involved systematic and expert reviews, with data as the primary source, exploring and
126 synthesizing various attributes and terms related to data science to enhance organizational
127 capabilities. (Mukhiya et al. 2022) study introduced a user profiling model for reference
128 architecture, aiming to adapt and personalize interventions according to individual user needs.
129 Building upon the proposed reference architecture, an open-source framework for an adaptive
130 Intervention Design and Planning Tool was developed. The framework underwent evaluation
131 through a combination of case study, expert evaluation, and software quality metrics, assessing
132 factors such as adaptability, scalability, reusability, security, interoperability, and modifiability.
133 However, it is worth noting that the evaluation did not cover other critical metrics on reliability,
134 data quality, and performance. (Khan et al. 2022) conducted comprehensive and systematic
135 research, encompassing articles from 2011 to 2021, focusing on the analysis of the healthcare
136 domain in disease diagnosis using data analytics. The findings from this study indicated that
137 integrating advanced hybrid machine learning-based models and cloud computing applications
138 could lead to several benefits in the healthcare sector. These advantages include cost reduction in
139 treatments, decreased simulation time, and improved quality of care. Policymakers can promote
140 the adoption of these technologies to encourage researchers and practitioners to develop more
141 sophisticated disease diagnosing models, ultimately elevating the overall quality of patient
142 treatment. The study also emphasized that architectures for cognitive computing with hybrid
143 machine learning are essential tools for the data-driven analysis of healthcare big data, offering
144 promising avenues for the future. Based on the above background study, several key findings
145 emerge. Firstly, it is evident that there is a lack of extensive research conducted on mental health
146 care applications. Secondly, there exists a research gap in analyzing data-driven architecture
147 from the perspective of machine learning which is critical contributor in mental health care.
148 Lastly, recent trends highlight the need for an adaptive architecture capable of accommodating
149 various mental health disorders to achieve cost and time savings. These identified research gaps
150 serve as the basis for undertaking this systematic literature review.

151 METHODOLOGY

152 The systematic review draws inspiration from (Xiao & Watson 2017) and Preferred reporting
153 items for systematic reviews and meta-analyses (Moher et al. 2009). Figure 1 depicts the
154 complete PRISMA flowchart, detailing the stages from the initial phases to the ultimate article
155 selection. Figure 2 presents a visual representation of the method we employed for conducting
156 our systematic literature review. The initial phase of our systematic literature review involves

157 identifying research problems and questions using the PICOC model provided in Table 1. Next,
158 search strings and online repositories are identified to conduct the initial extraction of research
159 articles. Subsequently, a set of inclusion and exclusion criteria are established to filter the
160 relevant literary works from these primary studies. The final step entails literature extraction
161 based on this filtering process, involving the setup of a quality checklist to assess the literature
162 works and assign them a quality score.

163 Figure 1. PRISMA Flow chart

164 Figure 2. Systematic literature review method

165 The initial design of the data extraction form and quality assessment checklist, as well as the
166 development of the search strategy, were done by the first two authors. A review meeting
167 involving all four authors was conducted to assess the research design strategy. During this
168 meeting, the two remaining authors provided valuable suggestions and recommendations to
169 address any discrepancies.

170 Table 1. PICOC model

171 Data preparation, analysis, and interpretation were the responsibilities of the third and fourth
172 authors. All collected data was meticulously recorded and stored in an Excel spreadsheet to
173 ensure accuracy and transparency. To minimize bias, the first and second authors independently
174 validated the extracted data. In a subsequent review meeting, all final studies were compared,
175 and each author expressed their agreement or disagreement with the identified results. These
176 findings were thoroughly discussed among the authors. In cases where differences in opinions
177 arose, the variations were carefully examined and deliberated upon until a consensus was
178 reached among the team.

179 **Research problem and questions**

180 The purpose of the systematic literature review is to identify key challenges in existing data-
181 driven architectures in mental health care domain. This is achieved after conducting an initial
182 background study on data-driven systems and machine learning models. The research questions
183 were formulated based on the PICOC model, as presented in Table 1. The background study and
184 PICOC model led to the framing of the following research questions.

185 RQ 1: What are the strengths and limitations in existing data-driven architecture studies?

186 RQ 2: What are key essential paradigms (KEP) for designing adaptive data-driven architecture?

187 The knowledge synthesized from RQ1 becomes the foundation for addressing RQ2. The insights
188 gained from understanding the strengths and limitations of existing architecture studies help in
189 formulating the key essential paradigms required for designing adaptive data-driven architectures
190 that can overcome the identified limitations and build on the strengths. The process of mapping
191 strengths and limitations to derive KEP is illustrated in Figure 3.

192 Figure 3: Mapping process of review results to derive KEP

- 193 1. Identify strengths and limitations: Review each study individually and identify the strengths
194 and limitations of the data-driven architectural patterns discussed in the study.
- 195 2. Thematic categorization: Group together the identified strengths and limitations that have
196 similar implications or characteristics. For example, if multiple studies mention

- 197 "interoperability", "exchangeability" as a strength or limitation, categorize it under the theme
198 of "Data service".
- 199 3. Frame KEP: Based on the categorized strengths and limitations, frame KEP that are critical
200 for a data-driven architectural pattern. These paradigms represent the necessary aspects that
201 should be present in any effective data-driven architecture.
- 202 4. Validate and refine: Ensure that the identified KEP which foster design of data-driven
203 architectural patterns. Validate the mapping with relevant experts to refine and improve the
204 clarity and comprehensiveness of KEP.

205 **Literature search and screening**

206 The literature search involved identifying search strings and selecting appropriate standard
207 repositories. Initially, the focus of the literature review was on architectural frameworks in
208 mental health care data-driven systems. However, this preliminary search yielded very few
209 relevant literary works within our scope. As a result, the search was broadened to encompass the
210 health care domain, and the search strings identified were data-driven, mental health care
211 architecture, health care architecture, and machine learning. To ensure reliability, the Web of
212 Science (WoS) was chosen as the repository collection for accessing credible studies. The search
213 strings were utilized to extract articles published between 2016 and 2023. A specific set of
214 inclusion and exclusion criteria was employed to scrutinize the relevant articles initially, as listed
215 in Table 2.

216 Table 2. Inclusion and exclusion criteria

217 **Extraction and data synthesis**

218 An initial screening on title and abstract is done, 419 articles were included for quality
219 assessment. After validation of the inclusion and exclusion criteria, there were 122 records. A set
220 of quality assessment questions was framed based on which the articles were assessed and
221 selected for the final research study which is given in Table 3.

222 Table 3. Quality checklist

223 Score for each assessment question is given in range 0-1, where 0 is doesn't meet quality
224 checklist, 0.5 partial meets the checklist and 1 meets the quality questions. Finally, the articles
225 with an average score of more than 70% is taken for final study. Table 4 illustrates the quality
226 assessment score for the final 17 articles for review study.

227 Table 4. Quality assessment

228 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

229 **RQ1 assessment**

230 To address RQ1, the review and discussion of results for each article included in the final study
231 for the research questions are discussed here. (Shalom et al. 2016) designed a new PICARD
232 architecture for practical continuous clinical guideline (GL) based decision support for multiple
233 task types for data-driven and user-driven modes. The architecture was designed with a key
234 emphasis on interoperability facilitated by APIs and continuous evaluation, which incorporated
235 clinicians' input rather than relying solely on simulation tools. Validation efforts encompassed
236 technical competency, functionality, and direct clinical evaluation. Given the system's reliance

237 on critical patient data, the architecture would have been detailed to incorporate robust data
238 privacy measures. (Vinci et al. 2016) outlines different perspective of research methods
239 employed to propose an enterprise architecture as evaluation model for the municipal and
240 regional management of a Mental Health Care Network that includes computerized information
241 systems and specific indicators of spatial and temporal dimensions of mental health care matrix.
242 This theoretical model aids in expansion of mental health improvement in localities where its
243 poorly managed. The key limitation is that it relies on the specific context of the Psychosocial
244 Care Network, and its applicability to other regions or countries may vary. Furthermore, the
245 availability and accuracy of data needed for real-time monitoring and evaluation could pose
246 challenges which would demand digitalized system for continuous evaluation and data analytics.
247 A common smart object architecture, which liberates data and meta-data for re-use across the
248 various components and layers in the architecture, serves as the cornerstone for a data-centric
249 architectural vision for the IoT. (Schooler et al. 2017) examined the correlation between Edge
250 and Fog computing, employing data-centric networking as a model to optimize meta-data-driven
251 processes. It explored software-defined strategies to control data flows upstream, including the
252 placement of analytics and data caching in the network. The study recommended implementing
253 software-defined techniques to manage upstream data flows, facilitating improved decision-
254 making regarding the placement of data analytics and caching in the network. It is focused on
255 specific environments, like edge and fog computing which could limit the generalizability of the
256 findings to other contexts and feasibility in all network infrastructures. (Olsen 2017) focus is on
257 implementing enterprise architecture (EA) in the Norwegian health sector through exploratory
258 study. It identifies several challenges that hindered the establishment of a generalized EA, such
259 as unclear roles, ineffective communication, low EA maturity and commitment, and complex EA
260 tools. These challenges ultimately attributed to three main factors: the lack of clarity in the EA
261 concept, difficult EA terminology, and the complexity of EA frameworks. This thrives a need for
262 a generalized architecture addressing the challenges, which could be customized based on
263 complete and clear requirements communication from health care stakeholders.

264
265 (Mendez & Jabba 2018) investigated on the IoT health architecture concerning communication
266 protocols to tackle the crucial issue of interoperability. It proposed an IoT connected healthcare
267 architecture for heart monitoring, utilizing the Constrained Application Protocol and Message
268 Queue Telemetry Transport communication protocols. The architecture comprises key elements
269 such as personal IoT devices, gateways, communication protocols, fog computing, and cloud
270 computing. Although a hybrid solution is proposed to address this, there might still be challenges
271 in optimizing the system's integration and performance and require further investigation on
272 impact of the Manager component's location in the Fog stage of the architecture, which could
273 have implications for the system's overall effectiveness. (Chmielewski et al. 2018) investigated
274 the practical experiences and architectural concepts used to collect and process biomedical data
275 in a large-scale system aimed at monitoring elderly patients. Key requirements for healthcare
276 applications, such as data security, authorized access, reliability, efficiency, and context
277 awareness, were achieved through user authorization, sensor configurations, patient profile
278 management, and biomedical data monitoring with reliable wireless transmission to server
279 services. The study implemented an architecture for a mobile application that integrated data
280 from diverse sources, including Microsoft BS Band 2 through Microsoft Health API,
281 FreeStyleLibre Sensor via NFC protocol, and various mobile phone sensors on the Android OS.
282 But the architecture limits in exploring the interoperability requirement of health care

283 applications. The integration of heterogeneous data sources from different manufacturers, might
284 present data consistency and integration challenges in ensuring seamless compatibility and
285 interoperability among these devices due to differences in data formats, communication
286 protocols and APIs. (Handayani et al. 2019) implemented a health referral information system
287 (HRIS) for patient, specimen and health care professional referral and adhered to TOGAF Open
288 Group Architecture Framework. Qualitative methods through interviews and observations were
289 conducted to frame the basic principles and scenario viewpoints. The study's effectiveness has
290 not been assessed, and it fails to adequately address significant technical concerns regarding data
291 scaling and security in the referral process. These aspects need careful consideration to ensure
292 the reliability and safety of the system. A five-layer stakeholder-based blockchain architecture
293 was developed for managing health records, encompassing primary, secondary, and tertiary
294 stakeholders to validate approximately 30 requirements for a blockchain-based electronic health
295 record (Beinke et al. 2019). The study also identified several major challenges in blockchain
296 healthcare, such as low processing speed, data verification, access and authorization issues,
297 limited scalability, and inadequate computational power. (Zhuang et al. 2020) primarily
298 addressed the significant challenge of data coordination, with a particular focus on ensuring
299 security and privacy rules are maintained among health information systems. The proposed
300 three-layer architecture involves the use of smart contracts functions within the interfacing layer
301 to facilitate specific actions when health facilities request data from one another. To ensure data
302 security during the exchange between layers, reliable metadata becomes crucial for the
303 interfacing layer to authenticate and retrieve the original data. The primary limitation is the setup
304 requirement for each participating health care facility which must provide at least one blockchain
305 node to the system Patients may also need to contribute blockchain nodes, like mobile devices, to
306 exchange and store their personal health records from medical devices. The model's performance
307 can be influenced by the properties of the blockchain nodes. If a single node generates a massive
308 number of transactions simultaneously through the blockchain adapter, it can exhaust all memory
309 and cause the node to malfunction before data is sent to the blockchain.

310 Health Information Systems (HIS) reference architecture was designed, and domain analysis was
311 conducted on various sub-domains, including hospital, primary care, outpatient care, pediatric,
312 and diabetic care, to explore stakeholder issues and concerns. Feature modeling was utilized to
313 represent the extracted domain features, using views and a comprehensive approach that
314 incorporated 17 predefined stakeholder viewpoints (Tummers et al. 2021). While the study
315 demonstrated the effectiveness of applying software architecture design methods in the
316 healthcare domain and derived an architecture adaptation for a University hospital in Japan,
317 scalability of the RA were not extensively tested across multiple different HIS scenarios.
318 (Nadhamuni et al. 2021) proposed an enterprise architecture to tackle the challenges of
319 interoperability and standardization. This architecture adopts a five-layer model: source layer,
320 datastore layer, event integration layer, distributed processing layer, and data analytics layer. It
321 also incorporates a consent layer for individual consent management, adhering to the digital
322 lifecare security strategy in compliance with government policies. However, effectively handling
323 the significant heterogeneity of data and facilitating smooth data exchange among different
324 channels requires further in-depth investigation and exploration. A fog-based 4+1 view
325 architecture was devised to improve real-time data transmission and minimize network latency
326 among IoT devices (Ilyas et al. 2022). In IoT-enabled healthcare systems, a major obstacle is the
327 traffic delay caused by distant cloud servers. To overcome this limitation, a decentralized fog
328 computing paradigm is adopted, placing computing resources like storage, processing models,

329 network devices, and infrastructure at the network edge, in close proximity to the data sources
330 and end-users. Although the research has shown improved performance by reducing network
331 latency, it does have limitations in terms of security and privacy quality aspects. (Blobe et al.
332 2022) proposed an ontology-based generic reference architecture utilizing Universal Type
333 Theory and system-theoretical approaches, to address the challenges of multi-disciplinary
334 interoperability in various domains. The proposed architecture model allows for harmonizing and
335 mapping diverse specifications and standards without requiring revisions. It offers a policy-
336 driven, system-oriented solution to transform health and social care ecosystems, bridging gaps
337 between different languages and provide various representation styles. Conceptualization,
338 security, natural language processing through AI models, semantic interoperability are core
339 factors for technology adaptation for transforming health care systems. Developing and
340 maintaining a comprehensive ontology-based reference architecture model can be time-
341 consuming and complex, especially when integrating multiple domains and communities.
342 Additionally, ensuring the interoperability of diverse systems and specifications may encounter
343 technical challenges and compatibility issues.

344
345 (Aldabbas et al. 2022) designed an architecture of IoT healthcare systems which analyses real
346 time health data of the patients for personalized drug recommendations. The main challenge of
347 such smart health care systems is mining significant data from sensor devices over network
348 traffic. It collaborated clustering and machine learning models for disease identification. The
349 primary emphasis of the study was on employing ensemble models for data mining and
350 manipulation but lacks to address the security concerns pertaining to cloud-based application.
351 (Perez et al. 2023) proposed distributed architecture, aimed at providing an accompaniment
352 service for the elderly and dependents. The significant contribution is a comprehensive set of
353 architectural patterns, which streamline the deployment of the service across various
354 technologies, actors, and development scenarios. The architecture was evaluated for different
355 parameters including quality and commercial aspects. While the work has introduced conceptual,
356 technical, and deployment architectures to support implementation and scalability, there may still
357 be constraints in addressing interoperability as it relies on numerous technologies and
358 manufacturers, making it challenging to integrate diverse functionalities. In the healthcare sector,
359 the adoption of healthcare-specific APIs has been increasing, enabling interoperability and
360 secure electronic data transfer between health IT systems and third-party applications. Although
361 these APIs offer valuable benefits, there are also challenges and weaknesses that need to be
362 addressed for achieving full interoperability (Mishra et al. 2023). It proposed a framework to
363 enhance interoperability which is crucial factor in health care systems through the use of
364 Application Programming Interface. The framework uses API LED Connectivity based proposed
365 for health care systems for API integration in experience, process and system layers. The study
366 falls short in adequately addressing data privacy and security concerns during the transfer of
367 information between various health IT systems and third-party applications. (Upadhyay et al.
368 2023) proposed an IoT architecture integrated with cloud system which aids the medical center
369 to monitor the individuals at home through wearable sensors. It explores the limitations of an
370 existing system concerning transfer of sensor data to control devices and monitoring centers that
371 are affected by external noise, error prone survival tracking techniques using ECG, which could
372 be reduced by machine learning models, improving sensor quality, managing data, real-time
373 communication and patient monitoring. While the study suggests improving IoT systems with a
374 suitable power absorption through conceptual model, the practical implementation and

375 effectiveness of such models through narrowband IoT and scheduling mechanisms require
376 further investigation. Table 5 below shows the summary of strength and limitation features
377 identified in each review study.

378 Table 5. RQ1 summary

379 RQ2 assessment

380

381 KEP are important for architecture design because they serve as foundational principles and
382 guidelines that ensure the effectiveness, efficiency, and reliability of the designed architecture.
383 By integrating these KEP into the architecture design, organizations can construct data-driven
384 systems that exhibit robustness, reliability, and adaptability to cater to the dynamic requirements
385 of users and stakeholders. Figure 4 illustrates KEP for data-driven architectural framework
386 derived from our review studies to answer RQ2. In our proposed approach, we have identified
387 six essential elements that form the foundation of any data-driven architectural pattern:
388

389

- 389 1. Data Security: Ensuring data security is of utmost importance, including proper
390 authentication and authorization, as well as maintaining the privacy of medical data.
- 391 2. Data Availability: Ensuring data availability is crucial for scalability, performance and
392 preventing failures. Load balancing techniques are employed to distribute the data load
393 efficiently.
- 394 3. Data Quality: Maintaining data quality is essential to enable effective data manipulation.
395 This includes handling missing data through imputation techniques and data
396 augmentation for completeness, ensuring consistency by standardizing data formats and
397 performing data cleaning to address inconsistencies, outliers, and errors. Additionally,
398 data validity is ensured through outlier detection and expert verification, which serves as
399 the basis for machine learning manipulations.
- 400 4. Data Manipulation: Data manipulation is critical for machine learning algorithms to
401 enable automated prediction and analysis which involves parameter tuning, feature
402 selection, model selection and evaluation for machine learning models.
- 403 5. Data as a Service: Implementing data as a service ensures distributed data management,
404 promoting interoperability and exchangeability between different applications.
- 405 6. Data Representation: Proper data representation is necessary for contextualization,
406 allowing for insightful comparisons and trend analytics.

407 These six KEP foster designing robust and effective data-driven architectures that can address
408 various challenges and requirements in healthcare domain.

409 The mapping matrix of RQ1 results to RQ2 KEP is given in Table 6. In this representation, a
410 checkmark (✓) indicates the presence of a strength or limitation in the corresponding study for a
411 specific KEP. The matrix allows for a clear visualization of the strengths and limitations
412 identified in each study and how they are mapped to KEP. Figure 5 provides frequency chart
413 between different studies and KEP. From the figure, we can determine data manipulation aspects
414 have been relatively less emphasized which provides scope for further research and
415 development. Therefore, our proposed adaptive data-driven architecture incorporates dedicated
416 layers specifically designed for data manipulation.

417

418

Figure 4: KEP for data-driven architecture

Table 6. Mapping matrix between studies and KEP
Figure 5: Frequency chart of studies and KEP

419
420
421

422 Designing an adaptive data-driven architecture based on KEP involves creating a flexible and
423 responsive system that can dynamically adjust and optimize its processes based on the mental
424 health care requirements. KEP identified in Figure 4 serve as guiding principles for shaping the
425 architecture's structure and functionalities. The adaptive data-driven architecture for mental
426 health care application is given in Figure 6. KEP is distributed across the designed adaptive data-
427 driven mental health care architecture. The KEP based distribution is as follows. Data security is
428 of utmost importance in any organization, especially in mental health care, where sensitive and
429 personal information is being handled. Role-based access control (RBAC) and multi-factor
430 authentication (MFA) are two crucial data security measures that play a pivotal role in
431 safeguarding sensitive data. RBAC allows mental health care organizations to assign specific
432 access privileges to different users based on their roles and responsibilities (Garg et al. 2023).
433 This helps prevent unauthorized access to sensitive data and ensures that each user can only
434 access the information necessary for their job functions. MFA adds an extra layer of security by
435 requiring users to provide multiple forms of authentication, like using hash functions (Midha et
436 al. 2023). Data anonymization is another critical aspect of data security. By removing or
437 encrypting personally identity from datasets, organizations can protect the privacy of individuals
438 while still allowing data analysis and research. However, the challenge lies in maintaining data
439 utility while anonymizing, as overly aggressive anonymization can compromise data integrity
440 and research potential. Mental health organizations must comply with relevant laws and
441 regulations, to protect patient confidentiality and avoid legal repercussions. Audit logs and
442 monitoring play a crucial role in detecting and responding to potential security breaches. By
443 monitoring access logs and system activities, organizations can identify suspicious behavior and
444 take appropriate action promptly. Fraud analytics is an emerging field that uses advanced data
445 analytics techniques to detect and prevent fraudulent activities (Ai et al. 2022). By applying
446 machine learning algorithms and anomaly detection methods to transaction data, mental health
447 organizations can proactively identify and mitigate fraudulent behavior.

448 Figure 6: Adaptive data-driven mental health care architecture

449 Data availability is vital in mental health care to ensure that critical information is accessible
450 when needed. Auto-scaling infrastructure allows the system to dynamically allocate resources
451 based on demand (Santos et al. 2020). This ensures that the system can handle varying
452 workloads and maintain high availability, even during peak times. Geo proximity routing is a
453 technique used to route data traffic to the nearest data center or server location based on the
454 user's geographical location (Meena et al. 2021). This reduces latency and ensures faster data
455 access for users from different regions. Data sharding involves horizontally partitioning data
456 across multiple servers or databases. This improves data retrieval and scalability (Niya et al.
457 2020).

458

459 Data quality is essential for accurate analysis and decision-making in mental health care. Data
460 cleaning involves identifying and correcting errors, inconsistencies, and missing values in the
461 dataset (Sorkhabi et al. 2020). Data standardization is the process of transforming data into a
462 consistent format and structure. Standardized data allows for easier integration and analysis
463 across different systems. Data validation ensures that data meets specific criteria and conforms to
464 predefined rules. Automated validation checks help identify data discrepancies and ensure data

465 accuracy, but validation rules must be regularly updated to adapt to changing data requirements.
466 Ethical data handling compliances involve adhering to ethical principles and regulations related
467 to data collection, usage, and storage (Wilton 2017). Mental health care organizations must
468 prioritize data privacy, informed consent, and data anonymization to protect patient rights.

469
470 Data manipulation is a critical part of machine learning model development. Parameter tuning
471 involves fine-tuning model parameters to optimize performance. Feature engineering focuses on
472 selecting or creating relevant features to enhance model accuracy and predictive power. Model
473 selection and training involve choosing the most suitable machine learning algorithm and
474 training the model on the dataset. Evaluation is the process of assessing the model's performance
475 on a separate test dataset to measure its accuracy, precision, recall, and other metrics (Nithya et
476 al. 2017). The feedback loop enables continuous improvement by incorporating new data and
477 refining the model based on mental health professional feedback and real-world scenarios.

478 Monitoring and maintenance ensure that the model remains accurate and up-to-date over time.
479 Regular model monitoring helps identify concept drift and data changes that might affect model
480 performance, while maintenance involves periodic retraining and updates.
481 Data service involves making data accessible and usable across different platforms and systems.
482 Platform-agnostic compatibility ensures that data services are not tied to any specific platform,
483 allowing seamless integration with various devices and applications. Interoperability standards
484 facilitate data exchange and communication between different systems (Fysarakis et al. 2019).
485 Adopting common data formats and protocols ensures smooth data flow and reduces integration
486 challenges. API Integration enables data services to interact with external applications and
487 services, promoting collaboration and information sharing across different platforms.

488
489 Data representation plays a crucial role in conveying insights and information to stakeholders.
490 Report and data visualization present data in a visually appealing and easy-to-understand
491 manner, making it simpler for users to interpret complex data. Epidemiological analysis involves
492 analyzing and interpreting health-related data to identify patterns and trends, facilitating
493 evidence-based decision-making in mental health care. Trend Analytics enables the identification
494 of long-term patterns and developments in data, allowing organizations to make informed
495 predictions and strategic decisions. Counsellor and patient profiles store important information
496 about mental health professionals and patients, supporting personalized and effective treatment
497 plans. Scheduling and referral features help manage appointments and referrals efficiently,
498 ensuring smooth coordination among healthcare providers and optimizing patient care.
499 Assessment and treatment features assist mental health professionals in evaluating patients'
500 conditions and delivering appropriate treatments based on data-driven insights.

501 **Expert review of proposed data-driven architecture**

502 We have gathered around 10 professional experts for evaluation of adaptive data-driven
503 architecture for mental health care. Following the completion of the architectural design, expert
504 evaluations were carried out to validate the suitability of the proposed architecture. The
505 architecture assessment instrument focused on maturity levels, process and practices, ease of use,
506 applicability and flexibility. Table 7 shows compilation of validating criteria covering 11
507 features which are used during the expert review session and the mean value of each criterion.

508 We used 5-points Likert scale (van den Bergh et al. 2020) (Perez-Benito et al. 2020) (Paes et al.
509 2021) (Tungpantong et al. 2022) to record the feedback from experts.

510

511 Table 7. Expert review analysis instrument

512 Figure 7: Radar chart of architecture evaluation results

513 Radar chart of evaluation results ins provided in Figure 7. The radar values represent validating
514 feature and their respective mean values. The features are essential factors that have been
515 evaluated in the context of the system or application under consideration. Each feature is
516 assigned a numerical mean value, ranging from 1 to 5, where 1 indicates the strongly disagree
517 level, and 5 represents strongly agree level. Upon analyzing the radar chart, we observe that the
518 mean values for the constraints are generally high, with most falling above the point of 4.0. This
519 implies that the identified features have been largely well-handled and do not impose significant
520 limitations on the architecture. Among the features, feasibility stands out with the highest mean
521 value of 4.712, suggesting that the architecture is highly feasible for implementation in mental
522 health care domain. Conversely, constraint accuracy has the lowest mean value of 4.01, implying
523 that it might be an area requiring further attention to encompass machine learning prediction.
524 The radar chart also demonstrates an interesting pattern, with constraints comprehensiveness,
525 mutual exclusion, and adaptability forming a cluster of similar mean values (4.62, 4.375, and
526 4.702, respectively). This indicates that these constraints share common characteristics and might
527 be interconnected in some way, warranting a more in-depth investigation. Furthermore, features
528 relevancy, understandability and applicability display moderate mean values (4.31, 4.106, and
529 4.405, respectively), signifying that they are adequately addressed but may still have room for
530 enhancement to optimize the system's overall performance.

531 CASE STUDY

532 Pandemic anxiety prediction application (PAPA) was prototyped from the proposed adaptive
533 data-driven mental health care architecture. During pandemic, anxiety disorders are major
534 concern and it requires machine learning predictions to be applied on huge population sample
535 (Albagmi et al. 2022). In event of pandemic, government could use PAPA, where it triggers
536 mental health screening of vulnerable populations in targeted high-risk premises. It uses machine
537 learning anxiety prediction models to predict anxiety levels and suggest online or nearby mental
538 health counselling services. This also keeps track of mental health analytics which helps
539 government in data driven decision making. Basic process flow diagram of PAPA is given in
540 Figure 8. Data sources of PAPA are from online data sets, anxiety assessments instruments like
541 Generalized Anxiety Disorder-7 (Camargo et al. 2021), and reports from mental health care
542 centers. All these sources are categorized accordingly would help to render this data as an
543 independent service for other functionalities to facilitate data exchangeability and
544 interoperability between government health care institutions for referral. The data security is
545 achieved through multi-factor authentication. Authorization is achieved through restricted user
546 role base access only for government entity, respective health care professional and user. Privacy
547 is maintained through encryption mechanisms and consent management to store data. Also, user
548 identity is masked as anonymous for machine learning training data set. It is periodically
549 archived and backed up in cloud servers for scalability and load balancing. Standard processes of
550 ML algorithm like data cleaning, pre-processing, parameter tuning, feature and model selection,
551 and prediction are done in anxiety prediction model. Based on the participant's assessment
552 response and social media data like tweet, Facebook, anxiety prediction model is continuously

553 trained. This application could potentially aid in the early identification of individuals
554 experiencing pandemic-related anxiety. Early prediction would allow for timely intervention and
555 support to mitigate the impact on mental health. Also, accurate prediction of pandemic anxiety
556 levels could help allocate mental health resources more efficiently, directing support to those
557 who need it the most during periods of heightened anxiety. By predicting pandemic anxiety
558 levels for individuals, mental health care providers could offer more personalized and tailored
559 treatment plans to address specific needs and coping mechanisms.

560 Figure 8: Process flow of pandemic anxiety prediction application

561 CONCLUSION

562 In conclusion, the adaptive data-driven architecture for mental health care applications represents
563 a transformative leap towards personalized, efficient, and compassionate healthcare services. By
564 harnessing the power of data analytics, machine learning, and advanced technologies, this
565 architecture empowers mental health professionals, government agencies with data-driven
566 insights and evidence-based decision-making capabilities. The main goal of this study was to
567 investigate the prominent strengths and limitations encountered in current healthcare software
568 architectures. The research revolves around formulating an adaptive, data-driven architecture
569 capable of effectively mitigating these identified limitations and enhancing on strengths using
570 key essential paradigms. The adoption of an adaptive data-driven architecture for mental health
571 care applications could have several significant impacts like personalized Treatment to provide
572 personalized treatment plans considering patients' profile, and responses to interventions, leading
573 to more effective and tailored mental health care. The architecture's adaptability enables real-
574 time monitoring of patients' mental health indicators through assessment tools. In cases of
575 deterioration, timely interventions can be initiated, preventing potential harm and ensuring
576 prompt support. By analyzing large-scale mental health data, the adaptive architecture can
577 identify patterns and trends that may contribute to improved diagnostic accuracy and prognosis
578 for mental health disorders and its ability to optimize resources and treatment plans can lead to
579 cost-effective mental health care, reducing unnecessary expenditures and maximizing the impact
580 of interventions. With personalized customization from the adaptive architecture and remote
581 mental health care options, it can help reduce stigma and access barriers. Patients can access
582 support discreetly, enhancing mental health care utilization. Overall, an adaptive data-driven
583 architecture in mental health care applications has the potential to revolutionize the delivery of
584 mental health services, providing more effective, personalized, and accessible care to individuals
585 in need. The proposed architecture underwent thorough evaluation by subject matter experts,
586 which confirmed its adaptability for diverse mental health disorders. The radar values provided
587 valuable insights into the strengths and weaknesses of the proposed architecture concerning the
588 identified features. The high mean values for most constraints demonstrate the effectiveness of
589 the system design in addressing these factors. However, the disparities in mean values prompt
590 further analysis and refinement to ensure the architecture's robustness. By leveraging these
591 insights, application designers and stakeholders can make informed decisions to fine-tune the
592 architecture, ultimately enhancing its adaptability and effectiveness in dealing with various
593 mental health disorders. However, it is important to note that the review's scope was limited to
594 peer-reviewed journal articles accessible through the Web of Science databases. Therefore, it did
595 not encompass other types of publications from other databases which could be considered as a
596 limitation of this study. Moving forward, the future scope of research involves in development of

597 pandemic anxiety prediction application, aiming to identify the technical challenges associated
598 with implementation of proposed adaptive architecture. This would provide valuable insights
599 into refining and enhancing the software architecture to effectively address real-world scenarios
600 and to improve mental health care.

601 **Author Contributions:** Experiment design, including the establishment of inclusion/exclusion
602 criteria and search keywords, was conducted by A.S. and H.S. They also focused on developing
603 a quality assessment checklist and designing data extraction form for extracting relevant data
604 from selected studies. A review meeting was then organized with all authors to verify and obtain
605 their consent. Data preparation, analysis, and interpretation were carried out by S.H.A.H. and
606 A.M.N. A.S. drafted the manuscript and incorporated feedback from co-authors during the
607 revision process. H.S., S.H.A.H., and A.M.N. were responsible for overseeing the review process
608 and subsequent revisions of the manuscript. All authors have read and agreed to the published
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Figure 1

PRISMA Flow chart

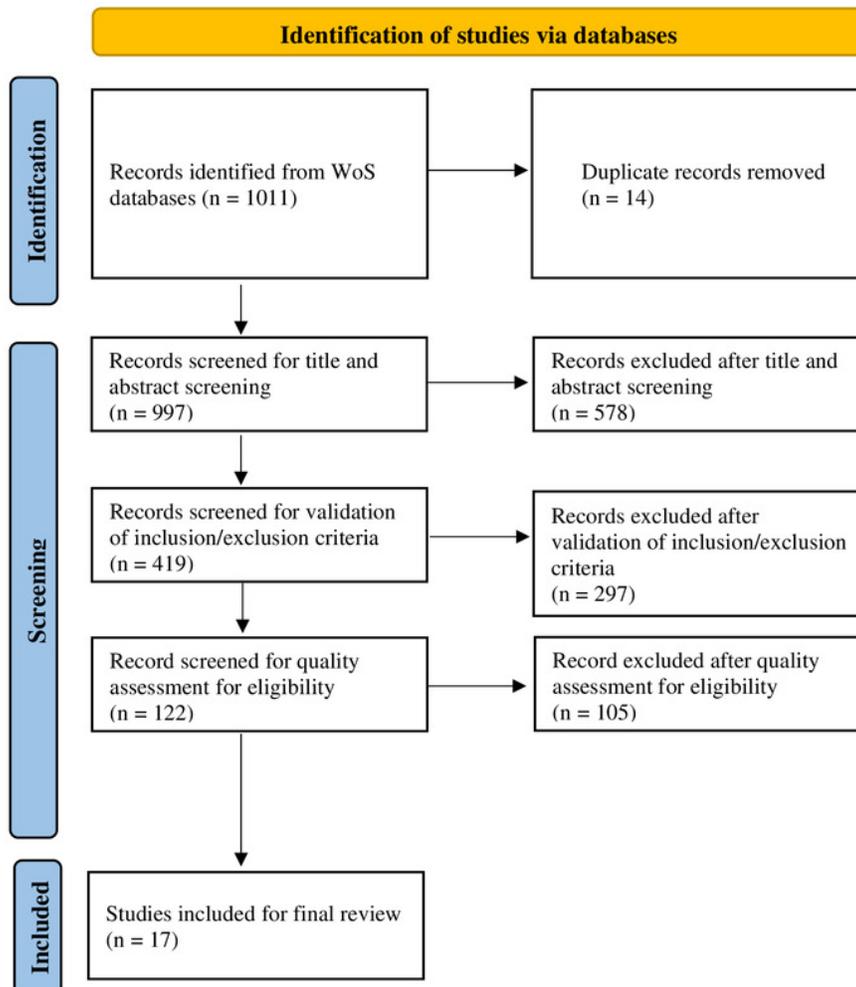


Figure 2

Systematic literature review method

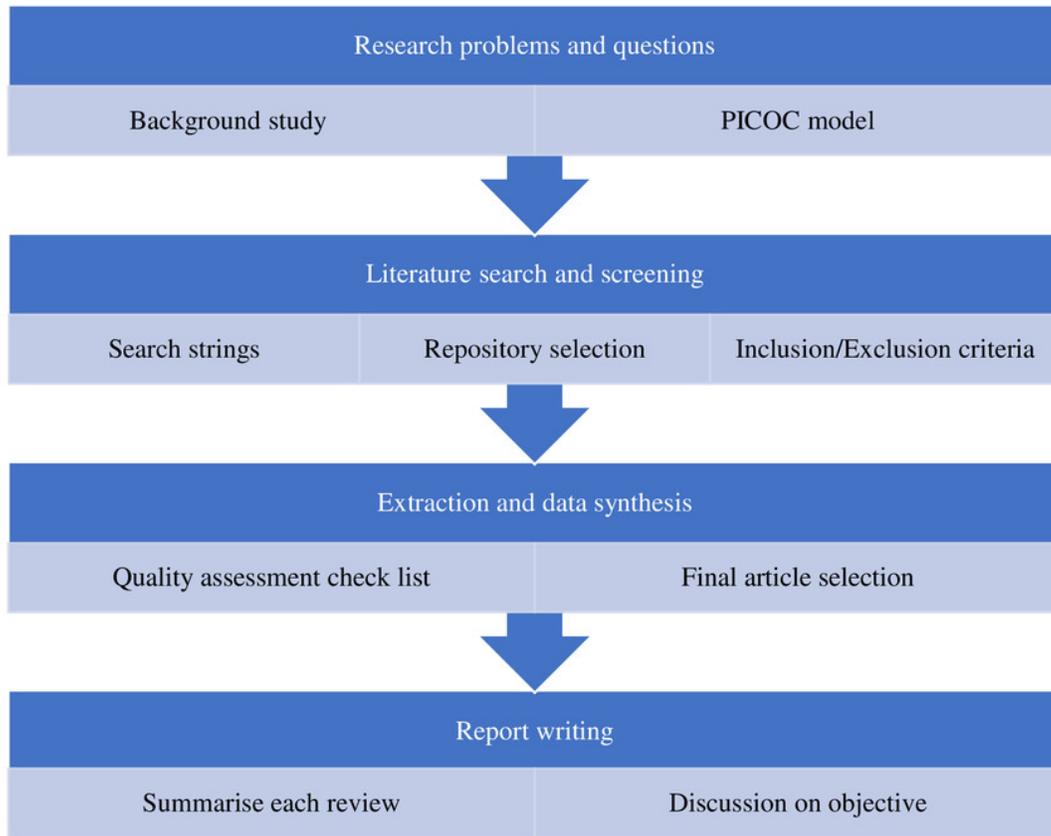


Figure 3

Mapping process of review results to derive KEP

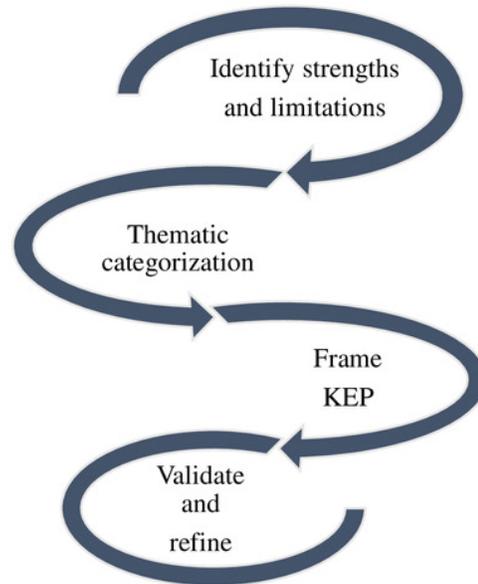


Figure 4

KEP for data-driven architecture

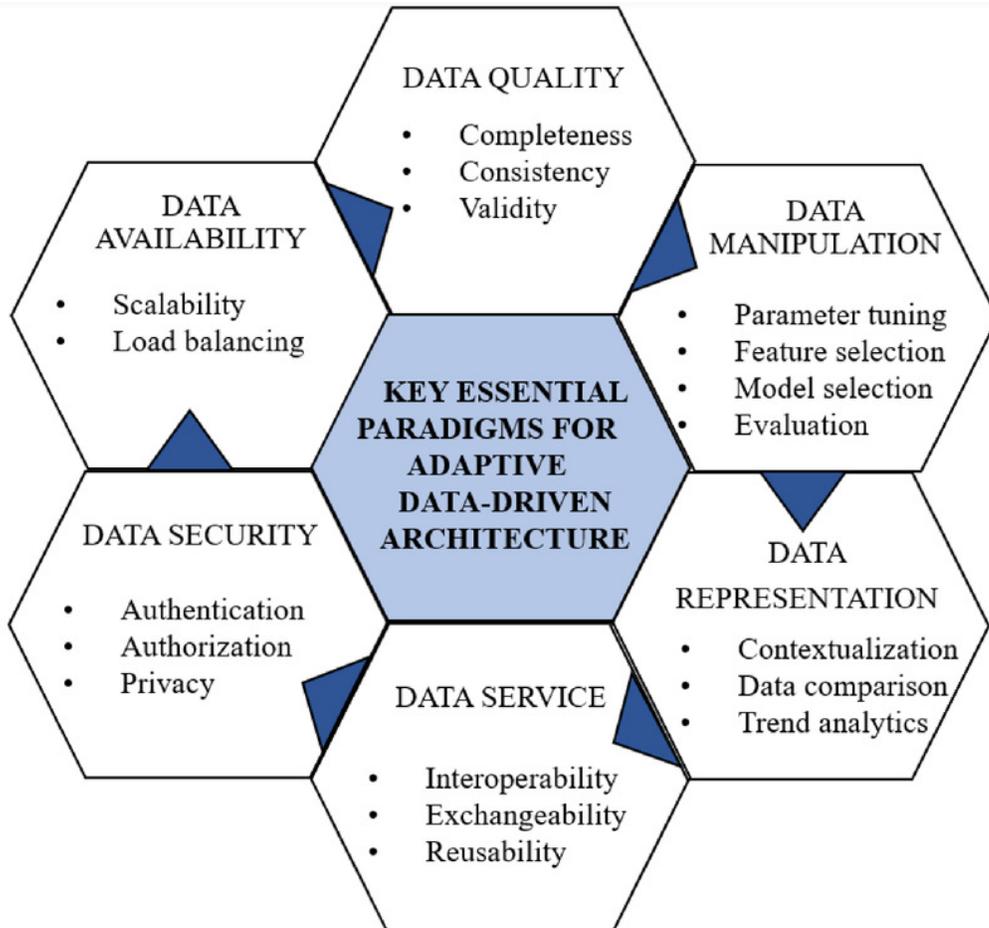


Figure 5

Frequency chart of studies and KEP

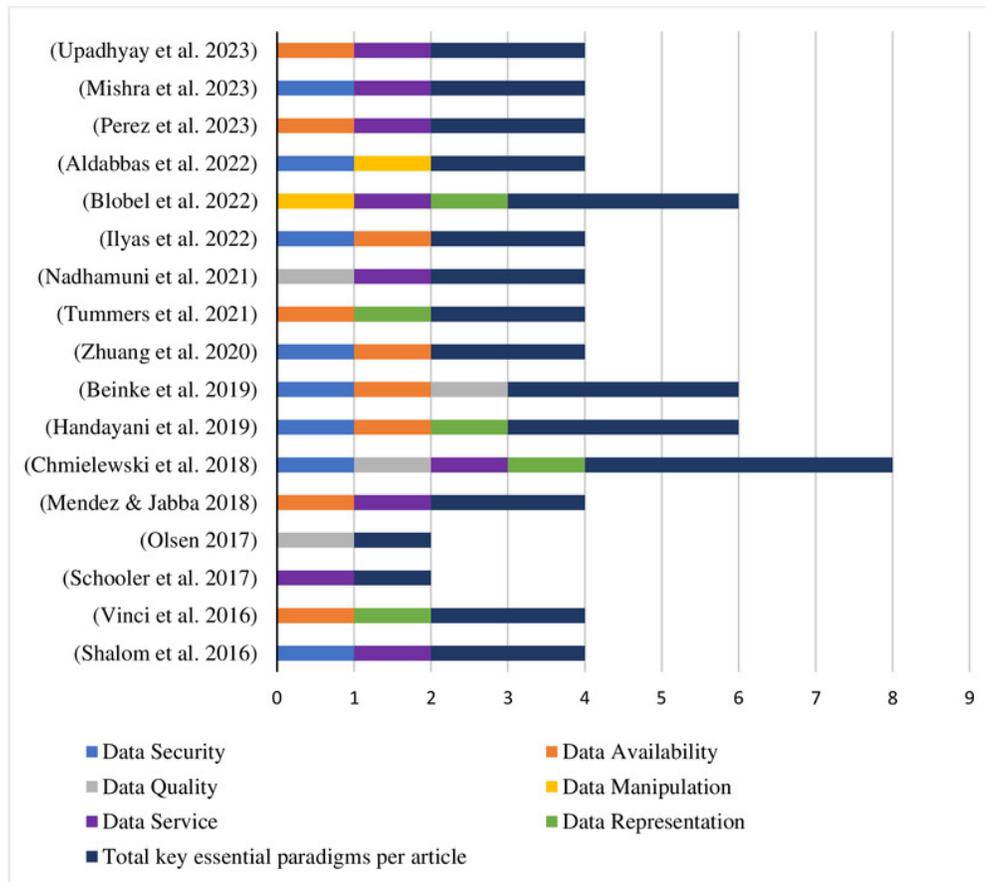


Figure 6

Adaptive data-driven mental health care architecture



Figure 7

Radar chart of architecture evaluation results

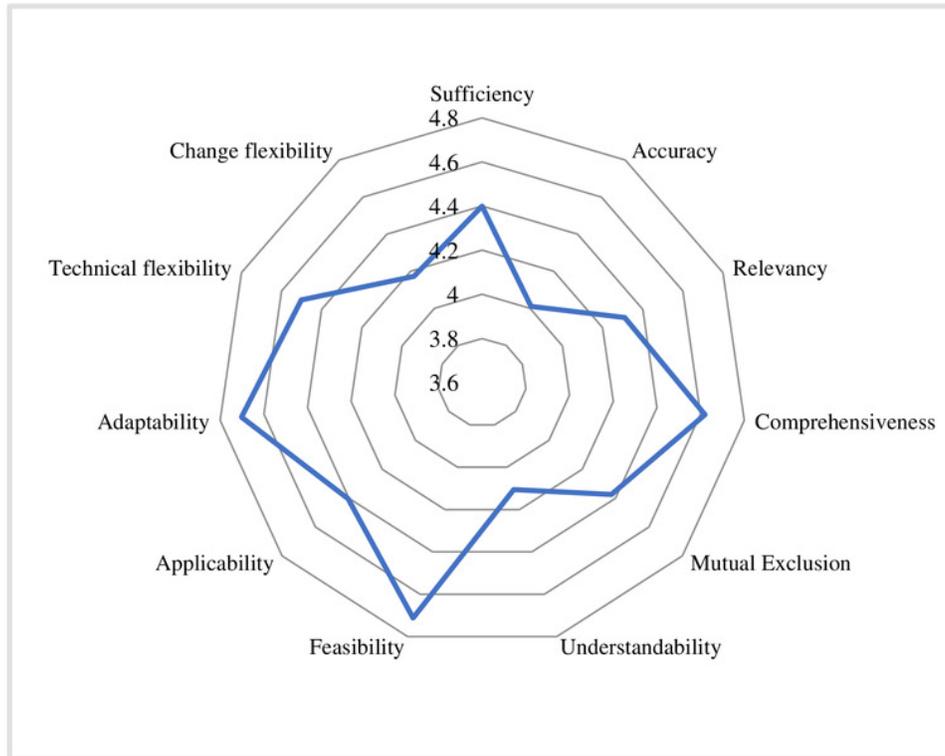


Figure 8

Process flow of pandemic anxiety prediction application

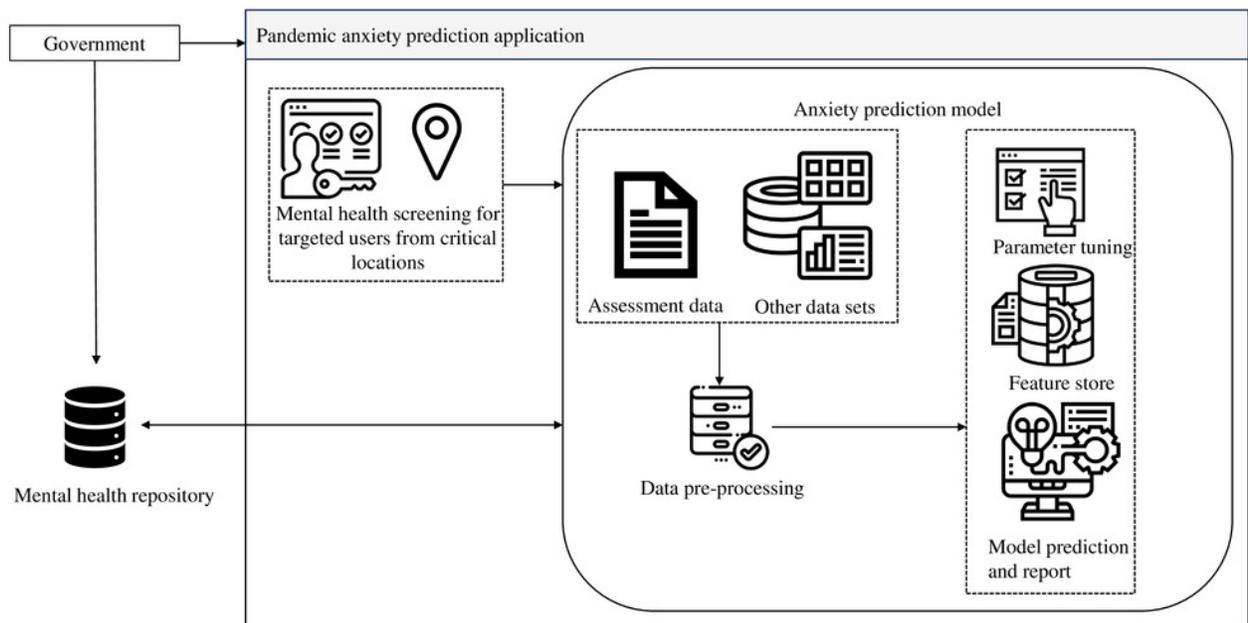


Table 1 (on next page)

PICOC model

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Table 1. PICOC model

Components	Description
Population	Architectural patterns
Intervention	Data-driven health care systems
Comparison	NA
Outcomes	Identifying the strengths and weaknesses of data-driven systems architecture
Contexts	Review of strength and weaknesses of different architectural patterns used in data-driven systems

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Table 2 (on next page)

Inclusion and exclusion criteria

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Table 2. Inclusion and exclusion criteria

Inclusion criteria	Exclusion criteria
Article corresponds to data-driven architectural framework in healthcare domain	Articles only with machine learning algorithms without any architectural study
Article corresponds to data-driven architecture using machine learning algorithms	Articles which do not focus on data-driven architecture
Articles including referential architecture for data driven systems	Editorial notes/letters/mini -review
Articles in English	Duplicate publications
Articles which are fully accessible	Restricted access

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Table 3 (on next page)

Quality checklist

1

Table 3. Quality checklist

Quality assessment	Answer
Is there practical implementation of data-driven architecture?	Yes/Partly/No
Is machine learning aspect of data-driven systems covered?	Yes/Partly/No
How relevant is the article with respect to research objectives?	
Is research methodology clearly explained?	Yes/Partly/No
Is results and analysis referenced with existing works?	Yes/Partly/No
Are all the study questions answered?	Yes/Partly/No

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Table 4 (on next page)

Quality assessment

1

Table 4. Quality assessment

Index	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Q6	Total	%
1	1	0	0.5	1	1	1	4.5	0.75
2	0.5	0	1	1	1	1	4.5	0.75
3	1	0.5	1	0.5	1	0.5	4.5	0.75
4	1	0	1	1	1	1	5	0.83
5	0.5	0.5	1	1	0.5	1	4.5	0.75
6	1	0	0.5	1	1	1	4.5	0.75
7	0.5	1	1	0.5	1	1	5	0.83
8	1	0	1	1	1	1	5	0.83
9	0.5	1	1	1	1	1	5.5	0.92
10	1	0.5	0.5	1	0.5	1	4.5	0.75
11	1	0.5	1	0.5	1	0.5	4.5	0.75
12	1	0	1	1	0.5	1	4.5	0.75
13	1	0	1	1	1	0.5	4.5	0.75
14	1	0	1	1	0.5	1	4.5	0.75
15	1	0	1	1	1	0.5	4.5	0.75
16	1	1	1	1	1	0.5	5.5	0.92
17	1	0	0.5	1	1	1	4.5	0.75

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Table 5 (on next page)

RQ1 summary

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Table 5. RQ1 summary

Study	Strengths	Limitations
(Shalom et al. 2016)	Interoperability	Security and privacy
(Vinci et al. 2016)	Contextualization	Availability & Accuracy
(Schooler et al. 2017)	Reusability	Scalability
(Olsen 2017)	Consistency	Clarity and completeness
(Mendez & Jabba 2018)	Interoperability	Performance
(Chmielewski et al. 2018)	Security, authorized access, reliability, efficiency, and context	Data consistency and interoperability
(Handayani et al. 2019)	View point contextualization	Data scaling and security
(Beinke et al. 2019)	Security and privacy	Performance, data validation, and scalability
(Zhuang et al. 2020)	Security and privacy	Performance
(Tummers et al. 2021)	View point contextualization	Scalability
(Nadhamuni et al. 2021)	Interoperability and standardization	Data consistency and interoperability
(Ilyas et al. 2022)	Performance	Security and privacy
(Blobel et al. 2022)	Interoperability, Contextualization, Security, Data manipulation	Interoperability
(Aldabbas et al. 2022)	Data manipulation	Security and privacy
(Perez et al. 2023)	Scalability	Interoperability
(Mishra et al. 2023)	Interoperability	Data privacy and security
(Upadhyay et al. 2023)	Data exchangeability	Performance

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Table 6 (on next page)

Mapping matrix between studies and KEP

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Table 6. Mapping matrix between studies and KEP

Study	Data Security	Data Availability	Data Quality	Data Manipulation	Data Service	Data Representation
(Shalom et al. 2016)	√				√	
(Vinci et al. 2016)		√				√
(Schooler et al. 2017)					√	
(Olsen 2017)			√			
(Mendez & Jabba 2018)		√			√	
(Chmielewski et al. 2018)	√		√		√	√
(Handayani et al. 2019)	√	√				√
(Beinke et al. 2019)	√	√	√			
(Zhuang et al. 2020)	√	√				
(Tummers et al. 2021)		√				√
(Nadhamuni et al. 2021)			√		√	
(Ilyas et al. 2022)	√	√				
(Blobel et al. 2022)				√	√	√
(Aldabbas et al. 2022)	√			√		
(Perez et al. 2023)		√			√	
(Mishra et al. 2023)	√				√	
(Upadhyay et al. 2023)		√			√	

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Table 7 (on next page)

Expert review analysis elements

Table 7. Expert review analysis elements

Element	Validating criterion (feature)	Mean Value
Maturity Levels	The maturity levels are compliant in all stages of data processing (Sufficiency)	4.400
Process and Practices	Is data redundancy and noise reduction achieved (Accuracy)	4.010
	All processes and practices are generalizable to domain-relevant application (Relevancy)	4.310
	It covers all processes impacting the domain (Comprehensiveness)	4.620
Ease of use	Process and Practices are analyzed, and they are distinct (Mutual Exclusion)	4.375
	Is the architectural framework easy to understand (Understandability)	4.106
Applicability	Is the architecture feasible to implement (Feasibility)	4.712
	Is it practically applicable to mental health care domain (Applicability)	4.405
Flexibility	Is it adaptable to different mental health care systems (Adaptability)	4.702
	Technical flexibility to adapt different technologies (Technical flexibility)	4.501
	Flexible to be customized for accommodating changes (Change flexibility)	4.172

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