









Healful Dataset: Integrating Wearable Data with Self-Reported Quality of Life Assessments

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Abstract: This paper proposes a novel dataset – called Healful Dataset – correlating real data acquired from wearable health-tracking devices with Self-reported Quality of Life (SRQoL) measures collected using the WHOQOL-BREF questionnaire. Recently, increasing interest has been shown in using technology for Quality of Life (QoL) monitoring and improvement, significantly leveraging the Internet of Health Things (IoHT). Although several tools have been developed to quantify QoL, such as the SF-36 and WHOQOL-BREF, most are based on static and bothersome questionnaires rather than ubiquitous real-time data collection. Our database addresses this gap by integrating sensor-generated data with QoL assessment, enhancing the research path focused on intelligent models for QoL monitoring that use Machine Learning techniques to predict and improve QoL. In this paper, we describe the methodology used to build this database, the scenarios in which it can be applied, and discuss its relevance for future IoHT-driven health solutions toward improving people’s QoL through personalized monitoring and interventions.


1 INTRODUCTION


As a consequence of the increasing phenomenon of population aging in several countries in recent decades (Robbins et al., 2018) with the increasing interest in using technology allied to health (WHO, 2016), we have observed the growth of studies that propose solutions for monitoring and improving many aspects of Quality of Life (QoL). According to the World Health Organization (WHO), Quality of Life is


“the individual’s perception of life in the context of the culture and value systems in which he/she lives and about his/her goals, expectations, standards, and concerns” (Orley and Kuyken, 1994). Therefore, Quality of Life is directly related to health, and measuring its level can provide valuable information for medical practice (Estrada-Galinanes and Wac, 2018; Mate, 2022).


We have also witnessed a growing interest in computational technologies to develop health applications and QoL monitoring (Zeadally et al., 2020; Oliveira et al., 2022a; Oliveira et al., 2022b). In line with this trend, the use of computational devices capable of collecting real-time data has gained strength, enabling the identification of various aspects of a person’s health (Peimankar et al., 2023; Magno et al., 2018; Oliveira et al., 2022c). These devices – capable of collecting data and transferring information through


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the Internet – are part of the Internet of Things (Sundmaecker et al., 2020), which, when applied to health, is called the Internet of Health Things (Rodrigues et al., 2018).

To develop Internet of Health Things solutions focused on monitoring, measuring, and improving people’s Quality of Life, it is essential to first understand how QoL can be assessed. Over the past decades, many mechanisms to evaluate people’s QoL have been proposed. For example, SF-36 (Ware Jr, 1999), KIDSCREEN-52 (Ravens-Sieberer et al., 2005), EQ-SD (Rabin and Charro, 2001), and many others (Aday and Cornelius, 2006). However, most of these mechanisms are based on questionnaires.

Despite solid medical knowledge on measuring people’s QoL using them, the continuous application of this kind of questionnaire is tedious, bothersome (Sanchez et al., 2015) (Oliveira et al., 2022b), and can also include a bias as the patient needs to actively provide data, making it challenging to ensure consistent patient adherence (Hao et al., 2017).

Recently, some studies have proposed IoHT solutions for measuring QoL, especially using Machine Learning models (Abdulmalek et al., 2022; Oliveira et al., 2023a). However, this kind of solution requires an appropriate database to train these models effectively and analyze QoL indicators. To the best of our knowledge, there are no public databases focused on this purpose, containing data produced from wearable devices and correlated with Self-reported Quality of Life Questionnaires.

In light of this scenario, we present a novel dataset that correlates Health Tracking Features with SRQoL (Sjögren’s Related Quality of Life) (Marvel et al., 2024). This database¹ – called Healful dataset – was designed to enable the training of intelligent models for inferring QoL.

In this paper, we introduce the Healful dataset and present more in Section 4. We also describe how this database was built (Section 3) and can be used (Section 5). Additionally, we discuss related work (Section 2) and explore how sensor databases can support the development of new Internet of Health Things solutions for monitoring and enhancing people’s Quality of Life (Section 6).

2 RELATED WORK

Many public datasets with IoT data focused on health applications have been proposed recently. Some of

¹Although the literature presents distinct definitions for the terms dataset and database, this paper uses these terms as synonyms to avoid tiresome repetitions of the same term.

them focus on movement data or daily activities (Henriksen et al., 2022; Galdino et al., 2023). Others focus on cardiac data (Biswas and Ashili, 2023; Sinha, 2023), and some combine different data types, including movement, cardiac, and respiratory data (Raghunath, 2024; Dutta and Puthal, 2023).

(Henriksen et al., 2022) presents a dataset containing data from 423 wearable devices collected between May and July 2017. The goal was to build a dataset with diverse data for characterizing physical activities. Twelve attributes were collected: wearable name, company/brand name, release year, country of origin, whether the wearable was crowd-funded, form factor (fitness tracker or smartwatch), and the sensors supported. Their dataset mapped the following sensors: accelerometer, magnetometer, gyroscope, altimeter or barometer, global positioning system, and optical pulse sensor (*i.e.*, photoplethysmography).

(Galdino et al., 2023) presents a dataset with location data generated based on WiFi Channel State Information (CSI) sensors for monitoring physical activities. The data were collected through an experiment with 118 participants, 88 men and 30 women, who performed several routines divided into 17 different activities.

The dataset proposed by (Biswas and Ashili, 2023) contains heart rate data from a 48-year-old volunteer of Asian descent collected over several days through a smartwatch. Sinha (Sinha, 2023) presents a dataset of wearable devices containing information for analyzing heart rate and pulse variation in several volunteer patients.

(Raghunath, 2024), in turn, presents a dataset with extensive health-related data gathered from remote monitoring systems between June 4, 2023, and October 4, 2023. This dataset comprises 10,000 examples containing data on heart rate (bpm), blood pressure (systolic/diastolic mmHg), respiratory rate (breaths per minute), body temperature (°C), blood oxygen level (SpO₂), and glucose level (mg/dL). According to the author, these parameters are fundamental indicators for understanding individuals’ health and physiological status.

(Dutta and Puthal, 2023) also presents a dataset created based on experiments with two volunteers containing 120,000 data instances. Each instance contains data on the following features: pulse rate, breathing rate, distance traveled, speed, and oxygen level. Their dataset goal is to support the training of intelligent models for IoT solutions.

Table 1 compares our proposed dataset and those from related works. The latter datasets are generally not explicitly focused on Quality of Life monitoring. Nevertheless, their information can be used to

Table 1: Comparison between our proposal and the related works.

Work	Number of Participants	Technology used to collect data	Main Objective
(Henriksen et al., 2022)	423 participants	Wearables	Characterize Physical Activities
(Galdino et al., 2023)	118 participants	WiFi CSI	Motion analysis based on Location
(Biswas and Ashili, 2023)	1 participant	Wearables	Heart Rate Analysis
(Sinha, 2023)	Unidentified	Wearables	Heart Rate Analysis
(Raghunath, 2024)	Unidentified	Multiple Embedded Sensors	Heart Rate Analysis
(Dutta and Puthal, 2023)	2 participants	Wearables and Environment Sensors	Support ML Models for IoT Apps
Our work	44 participants	Smartphone and Wearables	QoL Analysis

train and evaluate intelligent models for QoL with the appropriate adjustments. The key distinction of our dataset lies in its adaptation for monitoring patients’ QoL, using a WHO questionnaire as a reference. Our dataset contains information on physical activity data, as found in (Henriksen et al., 2022) (Galdino et al., 2023), heart rate data similar to (Biswas and Ashili, 2023; Sinha, 2023), and additional information such as sleep quality and the frequency of smart mobile app usage. Furthermore, like the datasets proposed in (Raghunath, 2024; Dutta and Puthal, 2023) and (Biswas and Ashili, 2023), our study collected wearable device data from subjects over several days. It is worth noting that we also collected other data from the volunteers’ smartphones and that all collected data was anonymized.

3 METHODOLOGY

According to the International Society for Quality of Life Research (ISOQOL), research into Quality of Life can make a significant contribution to improving health programs and helping policymakers allocate resources more efficiently. For this reason, Quality of Life has attracted the attention of many researchers. However, as pointed out in (Banaee et al., 2013) and (Oliveira et al., 2023a), there is still a need to develop less intrusive methods. Therefore, this study opted to use commercial wearable devices to collect users’ health data more discreetly and conveniently, as well as Self-Reported questionnaires to correlate health measures with QoL indicators.

Furthermore, the Cross Industry Standard Process for Data Mining (CRISP-DM) (Wirth and Hipp, 2000) was used as a reference methodology to create the Healful dataset. This methodology offers a robust framework for data mining projects, consisting of well-defined phases that guide the process from understanding the business objectives to implementing and evaluating the results.

Additionally, it was developed to support researchers and professionals in carrying out data min-

ing projects. This is because it provides a comprehensive, technology-independent process model that offers structure and flexibility to experienced and less qualified professionals (Wirth and Hipp, 2000). In this way, it has become an industry standard, guiding the application of data mining techniques across various sectors (Nodeh et al., 2020; Schneider et al., 2023; Durango Vanegas et al., 2023).

In addition to the previously mentioned characteristics, it was also chosen because of the possibility of an iterative approach, which allows for continuous process refinement and the generation of artifacts ready for implementation. As illustrated in Figure 1, the CRISP-DM methodology is composed of six sequential phases: Business Understanding, Data Understanding, Data Preparation, Modeling, Evaluation, and Deployment (Wirth and Hipp, 2000; Nodeh et al., 2020).

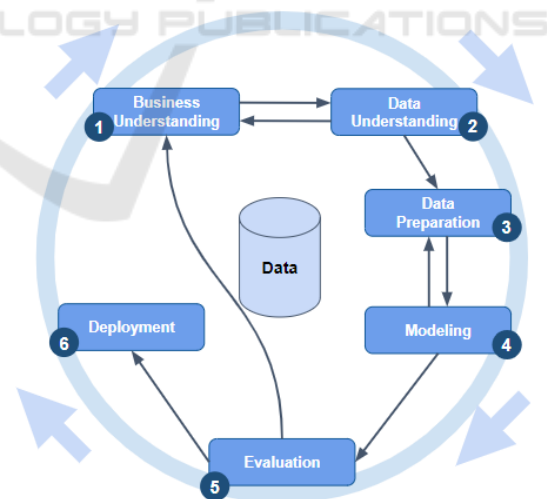


Figure 1: Cross Industry Standard Process for Data Mining.

The CRISP-DM process has six steps. The first step – Business Understanding – focuses on understanding the goals and particularities of the target project. The second step – Data Understanding – involves the initial search for data to become familiar

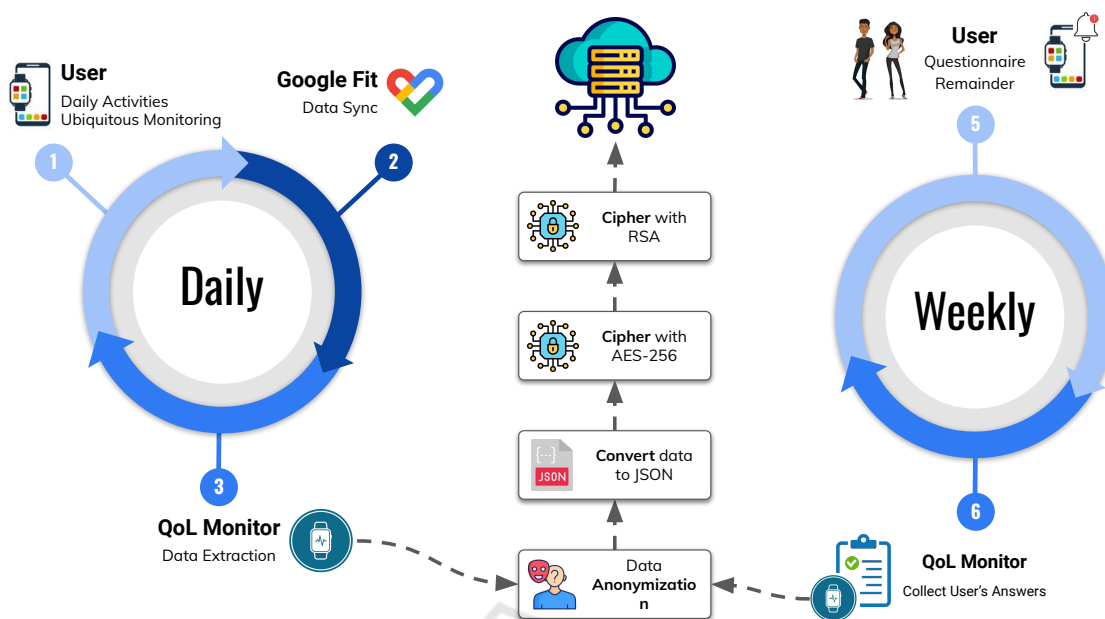


Figure 2: Data flow to collect health measures and self-reported QoL questionnaires.

with it. The first two steps are closely related because understanding the business requires initial data, and this initial analysis of data can impact project goals. The third step – Data Preparation – encloses activities related to the dataset construction, such as attribute selection, data cleaning, building new attributes, and data transformation. In the fourth step – Modeling – a set of Machine Learning algorithms is selected to build intelligent models. The fifth step – Evaluation – uses statistical tests to identify the models’ performance. The final phase, deployment, involves implementing the model in a real-world setting. This can include deploying the model to production, creating reports, or developing tools for end-users. It also involves planning for ongoing maintenance and updates. Below we will detail more about business and data understanding.

3.1 Business and Data Understanding

As mentioned above, the first stage of CRISP-DM is to understand the business, which in this case is the Internet of Things applied to Quality of Life. This understanding was obtained by investigating the IoT literature in a previous study, which provides a broad understanding of the main issues when using the IoHT applied to QoL (Oliveira et al., 2022b).

For the data understanding, initial studies explored how to collect health data in real-world settings (Oliveira et al., 2022a) and reviewed existing datasets that could support the project (Junior et al., 2022).

These studies identified challenges such as device heterogeneity, the lack of native APIs for wearables, and the absence of public datasets linking health metrics with self-assessed QoL questionnaires. To address these challenges, a mobile app – QoL Monitor (Oliveira et al., 2022c) – was developed. The app retrieves health data from “Health & Fitness Data Containers” (with Google Fit chosen for its more straightforward data integration) and correlates it with the Quality of Life questionnaires.

The questionnaire chosen to assess QoL was the WHOQOL-BREF questionnaire (Skevington et al., 2004). The WHOQOL-BREF is an abbreviated version of the World Health Organization’s Quality of Life assessment. It is designed to measure an individual’s perception of their well-being across four key domains: physical, psychological, social, and environmental. It is one of the most widely used instruments for evaluating quality of life due to its reliability and cultural adaptability. The WHOQOL-BREF has been validated in 23 countries and is available in 19 languages, making it suitable for cross-cultural research (Skevington et al., 2004). The psychological domain relates to body image, negative and positive feelings, self-esteem, and other mental aspects. The social domain observes social relationships, and the environment domain aims to evaluate the environmental facets.

Therefore, the WHOQOL-BREF questionnaire was selected due to its validity and comprehensiveness in assessing various dimensions of well-being.

Data collection through the WHOQOL-BREF questionnaire is essential, as it provides reference values for QoL variables, allowing supervised machine learning to be applied. The subjective data provided by the questionnaires is essential for labeling and training machine learning models, while objective data collected by wearable devices complement the analysis. Combining these data provides a more comprehensive approach to assessing participants' quality of life and improves the accuracy of predictive models.

Figure 2 shows the data flow to create the data set correlating health measures and self-reported QoL questionnaires. Initially, the user had to connect their wearables' native app to synchronize the data with the Google Fit platform, which was essential to deal with the heterogeneity of the devices. Once the data had been recorded in Google Fit, it could be extracted using Google Fit's public API. The QoL Monitor application collected this Google Fit data daily, anonymized it, encrypted it (using the AES-256 and RSA algorithms), and uploaded it to a cloud service. In addition, the app asked the user to answer the QoL questionnaire every week, and these answers were stored along with the health data.

For data collection, participants were recruited based on specific criteria: age between 18 and 65 years old, prior knowledge about using smartphones and/or smartwatches, and availability for continuous use of wearable devices. Participants were selected by convenience, prioritizing those who already owned a smart band or smartwatch, which helped to reduce the acquisition costs of the devices.

The process was conducted in two phases. In the first phase, 20 participants were recruited for a three-month evaluation, which began on March 14, 2022, and concluded on June 14, 2022. In the second phase, 24 additional participants were included in a three-month evaluation period from October 10, 2022, to January 10, 2023. Among these new participants, eight were undergraduate students from the Federal University of Ceará (UFC) and 16 from the Federal University of Piauí (UFPI). In total, 44 subjects participated in the study.

In summary, as shown in Tables 2 and 3, the participant profile consisted of 33 men and 11 women, ranging from 19 to 47 years. Around 77% of participants (34) were single, while 23% (10 individuals) were married. The majority identified themselves as university students. Regarding income, 22 participants reported earning between 0 and 1 minimum wage², and only one resided in a rural area. Regard-

²For this collection, Brazilian minimum wage was considered to be R\$1,100.00 reais.

ing family structure, most participants lived with one or two other people in their households. Additionally, there were two significant groups regarding the number of children: 35 participants had no children, and 9 participants had one or two children.

Table 2: Participants' profile (part 1).

Category	Attribute	Percentage (%)
Gender	Female	25.00
	Male	75.00
Age	18-29	70.45
	30-39	25.00
	40-49	4.55
Marital Status	Single	77.27
	Married	22.73
Children	None	79.55
	1 to 2	20.45
Educational Level	Secondary	22.73
	Undergraduate	47.73
	Graduate	29.54
Profession	Part-time worker	11.36
	Self-employed	4.55
	Student	54.55
	Full-time worker	29.54

Concerning wearable devices, thirty-six (36) Xiaomi Mi Band devices were acquired by the researchers and distributed to the participants. Then, the remaining participants (8) joined the study using their own devices.

Table 3: Participants' profile (part 2).

Category	Attribute	Percentage (%)
Income	0 to 1	50.00
	2 to 4	31.81
	5 to 7	4.56
	8 to 10	11.36
	More than 10	2.27
Residence	Rural	2.27
	Urban	97.73
Wearable	Mi Band	84.09
	AmazFit	9.09
	Galaxy Fit	2.27
	Galaxy Watch	2.27
	P70-Pro	2.27
Family Arrangement	Lives alone	6.82
	Lives with 1 or 2	40.91
	Lives with 3 or 4	36.36
	Lives with 5 or more	15.91

Upon accepting the invitation, the study initiation process followed six steps:

1. Participants were required to read and agree to the informed consent form;

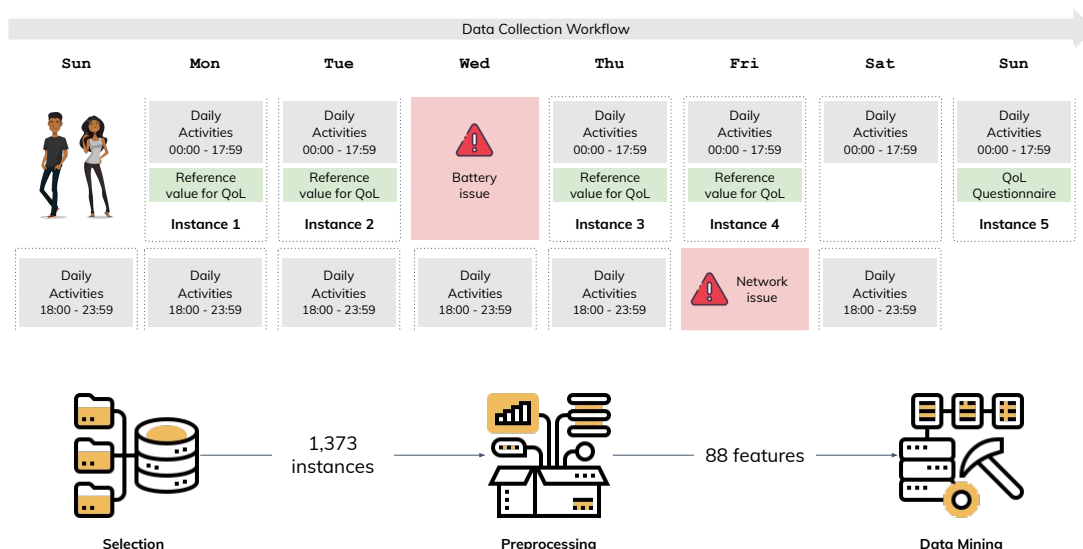


Figure 3: A representation of how the instances are created.

2. They then completed the WHOQOL-BREF questionnaire in the presence of the responsible researcher, who was available to address any potential questions or concerns;
3. The smartwatch or smart band was configured to sync data with Google Fit;
4. Participants installed the QoL Monitor application;
5. They granted the necessary permissions for health data monitoring and
6. The monitoring process officially began.

After completing these steps, participants were instructed to continue their daily routines, thus executing the process described previously in Figure 2.

Figure 4 provides an overview of the data collected. Sociodemographic and anthropometric data are essential to better understand the characteristics of the users, while the other data points are directly tied to the health indicators selected for this research. Furthermore, it is worth noting that the location data stored only includes the number of points visited throughout the day, *i.e.*, the application does not record specific locations. The same logic was applied to identifying WiFi networks. The app records the number of different WiFi networks connected throughout the day. This strategy was adopted to ensure user privacy.

3.2 Data Preparation

Data preparation involves a series of steps to build the dataset used in the modeling process. These steps in-

Socio-Demographic			Anthropometric		Sleep Duration		
Age	Children	Profession	Height	Weight	Light	Deep	
Gender	Education	Residence			REM	Awake	
Income	Marital Status	Family Arrange					
Physical Activity		Apps Usage		Calls		Heart Rate bpm	
Type	Duration	Package	Duration	Phone and WhatsApp		Raw	Min
				Incoming	Max		Average
				Outgoing			
Steps		Calories		Locations		WiFi Networks	

Figure 4: Raw data collected from subjects.

clude defining how the data will be segmented, selecting relevant attributes, cleaning it, and transforming it for analysis (Wirth and Hipp, 2000).

Figure 3 illustrates how instances in the dataset are created. Each sample includes predictors based on data collected from 6:00 PM on the previous day to 5:59 PM on the current day. This time window was chosen because the quality of sleep from the previous night often directly impacts the activities of the following day. The value to be predicted comes from the user’s response to a weekly questionnaire, typically completed on Sundays. Since the questionnaire requires participants to reflect on the past week, the data collected throughout that week can be used as a reliable reference. However, network outages or device battery problems can arise during data collection. If data is not recorded during these times, no new instances are generated for those intervals.

After obtaining the raw data, preprocessing activities are performed to prepare the dataset for the modeling stage. These activities included:

- removing inconsistencies (*e.g.*, duplicate entries);
- removing outliers, such as extremely high values for the daily steps. To remove these outliers, it was used three standard deviations below and

The screenshot shows the Kaggle project page for 'Healful: Wearable Data vs Self-Reported QoL'. At the top, there is a search bar and a navigation menu with options like 'Data Card', 'Code (0)', 'Discussion (0)', 'Suggestions (0)', and 'Settings'. The main content area is titled 'About Dataset' and includes an 'Edit' button. The text describes the data collection process, participant selection criteria, and the use of the QoL Monitor app. It mentions that 1,373 instances were built after data pre-processing. The interface also displays a 'Usability' score of 9.41, a 'License' of CC BY-NC-SA 4.0, and an 'Expected update frequency' of 'Annually Edit'. There are 'Tags' for 'Health', 'Regression', 'Advanced', 'Brazil', and 'Multimodal'.

Figure 5: Project dataset interface in Kaggle.

above the mean;

- removing data gaps, for example, days without sleep or heart rate data;
- categorical variables encoding like socio-demographic data;
- data sync since users forgot to answer the QoL questionnaire on Sundays;
- computation of QoL scores based on the questionnaire responses;
- data transformation, such as summarizing time spent in each application category.

Finally, two datasets are obtained: i) a dataset in which the last column is the QoL score for the physical domain; and ii) a dataset in which the last column has the QoL score for the psychological domain. The last column changes because it is used as a reference for the learning process.

Thus, it was possible to build a dataset with 1,373 instances after data pre-processing. In addition, it is essential to highlight that this investigation (registered under the ID number 56153322.0.0000.5054) was approved by the ethics committee of the Federal University of Ceará (UFC) on March 9, 2022 (legal opinion number 5.282.056).

4 HEALFUL DATASET

As previously mentioned in the methodology, the dataset was collected during two extraction periods

and includes data from 44 volunteers aged between 18 and 65 years. The dataset comprises information generated by smart devices from six different companies, as well as data from Quality of Life questionnaires collected via the QoL Monitor app.

The chosen platform for storing the dataset was Kaggle due to its social network features, which facilitate data sharing and dissemination. Additionally, its capability to create notebooks for the development and training of models used for quality-of-life prediction is a distinguishing factor not found with the same quality in other data storage platforms. The repository overview can be seen in Figure 5.

After processing the raw data obtained from the extraction phase, two datasets were generated. The first dataset includes the QoL Score for the physical domain in its last column, while the second contains the QoL Score for the psychological domain. Both datasets have 88 features used to calculate the respective QoL Scores for their corresponding domains.

The dataset consists of 11 files, 9 of which are CSV files containing data generated by wearable devices and responses from the QoL questionnaire. Additionally, there are 2 pickle files, each containing a model built using the data for the respective domain (physical and psychological).

Each of the 9 CSV files contains several columns clustered by topic, and the overview of its content is present in table 4.

Table 4: Overview of files, domains, and content.

File Name	Domain	Content Overview
20230120-data-collector-WHOQOL-BREF.csv	Psychological	Data from responses to the QoL questionnaire
20230120-data-collector-appsCategory.csv	Both	Information on apps and their usage categories on users' devices
20230120-data-collector-appsUsage.csv	Both	Daily usage time of each app by users and its respective category
20230120-data-collector-dailyRegister.csv	Physical	Daily health registers collected from smartphones and wearables
20230120-data-collector-dailyStress.csv	Psychological	Daily feedback from users about their stress levels
20230120-data-collector-participant.csv	Both	Basic information about the study participants
20230120-data-collector-physicalActivities.csv	Physical	Data related to users' physical activities
20230625-processed-physical-qol.csv	Physical	Physical and psychological health data focused on the physical domain
20230625-processed-psychological-qol.csv	Psychological	Physical and psychological health data focused on the psychological domain

5 USAGE SCENARIO

As previously discussed, wearable devices have gained popularity in the last years for health and fitness tracking, providing a bounty of data on users' daily activities, physiological metrics, and sleep patterns. However, while such data can provide rich insights into one's physical state, entailing these metrics with SRQoL measures can increase understanding of daily behavior and physiological parameters even more about the overall Quality of Life. This database fills this gap by integrating wearable data with the WHOQOL-BREF questionnaire in an in-depth analysis of the correlations between objective health data and QoL self-assessments.

In this section, we present three scenarios for using the Healful dataset. The first scenario is part of the author's doctoral thesis (de Oliveira, 2024) and represents the first practical use of the database. The other scenarios are illustrative and serve to understand the potential application of this data source.

The first application of this dataset analyzed QoL inference in the physical and psychological domains using data collected from users' smartphones and wearables. Based on this goal, we chose RMSE (Root mean square error) as the main metric to validate the accuracy of the QoL regressors since most of the regression tasks use it due to the same units for the result variable (Ian and Eibe, 2005). Even though the RMSE was the leading metric, the Mean Absolute Error-Mae (MAE) and training time in seconds were also gathered to measure the precision of the prediction and time complexity for building each Machine Learning model. However, since these models matched values obtained through the WHOQOL-BREF questionnaire, defining a clear threshold for comparison became mandatory since a perfect fit is unfeasible. No thresholds for similar values were found in the literature (Oliveira et al., 2022b). Thus, A 10% error margin was chosen for references of

Quality of Life scores ranging between 0, the worst score, and 100, the best score.

Five regression machine learning algorithms have been implemented using Scikit-learn (Pedregosa et al., 2011): Linear Regression, Decision Tree Regressor, Random Forest Regressor, Gradient Boosting Regressor, and Extra Trees Regressor. The choice of those models comes from good practices that recommend starting with more straightforward to complex algorithms. A randomized hyper-parameter search has been done for this analysis. Moreover, feature selection has been done based on feature importance. For this evaluation, it was also applied a randomized search on hyperparameters and a feature selection based on their relevance.

Each Machine Learning algorithm was coded in Python using Jupyter notebooks³ hosted on the Kaggle platform⁴ and was run 30 times using 10-fold cross-validation, resulting in 300 fits. All codes are available together with the Healful dataset in the Kaggle platform.

Table 5 summarizes the preliminary findings of this first application. It can be seen in both the physical and psychological datasets that with increased classifier complexity, the training time generally increases. Simultaneously, the errors – the metric being minimized – tend to decrease for more advanced regression models. It can be observed from Table 5 that the best performance in both MAE and RMSE metrics was the regressor of Extra Trees. Also, regarding training time, the Extra Trees regressor was the fastest

³The Jupyter Notebook is an open-source web-based interactive computing platform. A notebook can be written in Julia, Python, or R, combining live code, equations, narrative text, and visualizations.

⁴Jupyter notebooks hosted on Kaggle run in a remote computational environment. Each running session has 12 hours of execution time for the CPU and 20 Gigabytes of auto-saved disk space. CPU Specifications: 4 CPU cores and 30 Gigabytes of RAM.

among the three algorithms, which gave the best performance regarding error.

By applying statistical tests, namely the Anderson-Darling test for normality and the Kruskal-Wallis non-parametric hypothesis test, it can be asserted with 95% confidence that the samples of RMSE are drawn from distributions that differ significantly (p -value < 0.0001). Applying Dunn's test for posthoc analysis, one can observe that Random Forest and Extra Trees differ significantly in their means from those obtained by the Linear Regression, Decision Tree, and GBoost regressors (p -value < 0.0001 for both datasets). However, the RMSE means of Extra Trees and Random Forest are not significantly different for both datasets (p -value = 0.07017).

The Random Forest was selected for the hyperparameter tuning effort, as the Extra Trees model sometimes presented over-fitting (Ying, 2019). In optimizing the Random Forest, the random search method (Bergstra and Bengio, 2012) was employed, in which hyperparameters are randomly sampled until a stopping condition - in this case, 30 executions of 10-fold cross-validation, counting for 300 fits.

After the random search optimization, the RMSE was improved to 1.19% for the physical dataset and to 3.01% for the psychological dataset. The RMSE for the physical dataset had reduced from 8.0745 to 7.9793, while the same had been reduced for the psychological dataset from 7.7493 to 7.5162. Besides, some feature selection experiments were conducted to further enhance the performance of Random Forest in terms of RMSE. The SelectKBest method was chosen due to its proven effectiveness in practical scenarios (Ratmana et al., 2020). It worked best when applying mutual_info_regression, whereby it selected 70 out of the 88 features in the physical dataset and improved RMSE by about 1.47% and selected 50 out of 88 features in psychological datasets that improved the RMSE by approximately 0.76%. After that, the RMSE of a physical dataset was reduced from 7.9793 to 7.8618, while for the psychological one, it was reduced from 7.5162 to 7.4591.

Table 5: Initial results regarding MAE, RMSE, and training time for the physical and psychological datasets.

ML Techniques	Physical Dataset			Psychological Dataset		
	MAE	RMSE	Time	MAE	RMSE	Time
Linear Regression	9.5658	14.4308	0.7544	10.6868	17.6120	0.8286
Decision Tree	6.9889	10.4243	1.4479	6.8111	10.5715	1.5317
Random Forest	5.6870	8.0745	92.0384	5.4534	7.7493	98.3695
GBoost	6.0078	8.1860	528.8100	5.7768	8.0693	438.2732
Extra Trees	5.3672	7.4918	16.8884	5.1965	7.3320	16.7467

It is worth mentioning that Pearson's correlation analysis between the dataset features and the predicted outcome (QoL score) showed all correlations below 0.39, indicating weak or negligible relationships (Schober et al., 2018). Consequently, it is not possible to define a definitive subset of features that can accurately infer users' Quality of Life.

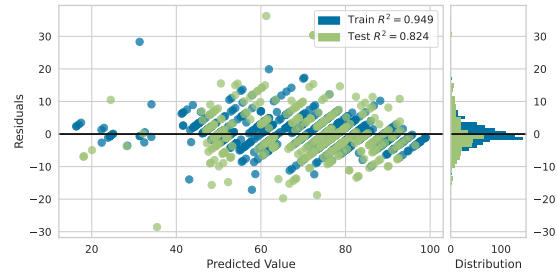


Figure 6: Residual plot for physical dataset.

Figures 6 and 7 present the residual plots for the Random Forest applied to the physical and psychological datasets, respectively. It displays the residuals as the difference between actual values - resulting from the current WHOQOL-BREF questionnaire - and the predicted ones - regressor output. Residuals are mainly in the $[-10, +10]$ range. Some outliers exist in the test subset, but the error histogram is normally distributed, centered around zero. In summary, this result is acceptable for Machine Learning models predicting users' Quality of Life.

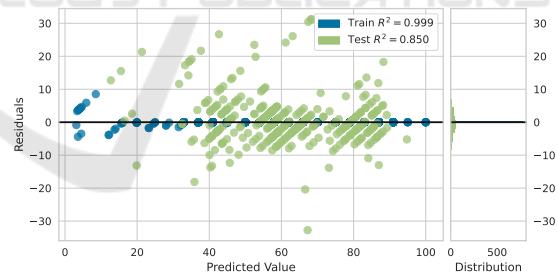


Figure 7: Residual plot for psychological dataset.

In addition to the scenario presented, which could easily be expanded by testing new algorithms or new processing strategies, it is possible to use the presenter data in the Healful dataset to search for correlations between the socioeconomic profile of the participants and the Quality of Life score. As previously presented, the database contains information on age, gender, income, educational level, and others. This analysis can be used to compare with previously published results (Alwhaibi, 2024).

Another possible application of the Healful database is identifying features related to the participants' daily perception of stress. Throughout the

data collection, the volunteers were asked to report their stress levels daily, making it possible to study biomarkers for stress perception (Qi et al., 2020).

Since data was collected on the time spent using applications on the volunteers' smartphones, it is also possible to investigate the use of clustering techniques to find patterns related to the use of apps and other features related to mobility or mental health. Similarly, (Pappot et al., 2019) present a study about HRQoL and the use of smartphones by adolescents.

Finally, the database availability on the Kaggle platform will enable its reuse in several studies, strengthening this line of research and promoting the development of solutions to improve the population's Quality of Life.

6 DISCUSSION

Inferring Quality of Life from data gathered through wearable devices represents a significant advancement in health monitoring compared to traditional self-report questionnaires like the WHOQOL-BREF. While questionnaires about an individual's well-being provide valid insights, they have inherent limitations. The biggest weakness of questionnaires is that they rely on perception and the cooperation ability of the particular individual. Additionally, they are difficult to administer frequently, leading to respondent fatigue, incomplete data, or inconsistent self-reporting, resulting in potential bias. In contrast, wearables mitigate these issues by continuously recording data non-intrusively.

Wearable sensors continuously monitor, in real-time, a wide range of health indicators, such as heart rate, sleep patterns, and physical activity, for advanced data analytics and intelligent model creation to predict QoL without requiring active participation from the subject (Oliveira et al., 2022c). Hence, wearable devices can complement traditional QoL questionnaires by enabling more frequent, objective measurements of health indicators. However, transitioning from SRQoL to Smart Quality of Life (Oliveira et al., 2023b) is challenging.

One significant barrier to the widespread use of wearable data in QoL assessments is the need for large, high-quality datasets to develop robust and intelligent models. This study addressed this gap, in part, by proposing the Healful dataset, which includes both wearables data and responses to the WHOQOL-BREF questionnaire.

Our dataset provides opportunities for researchers to explore the relationship between physiological data and perceived QoL, enabling the development of

more accurate predictive models that can help clarify how objective health metrics relate to subjective well-being. While wearable devices undoubtedly hold great potential for enhancing QoL assessments, further research is needed to address significant challenges, including the current reliance on self-reported data and the difficulty of integrating wearable data into intelligent models.

As limitations, it was observed that each volunteer has unique characteristics (age, sex, health status, habits) that can influence the collected data. However, the profile of the volunteers is quite narrow, as the data is collected only from healthy individuals, and the total number of participants is small. Furthermore, the accuracy of the data relies on the continuous adherence of volunteers to wearing the bracelets. Some participants reported discomfort while using them, which may result in incomplete data.

Regarding the validity of the dataset construction, the integrity of the data can be compromised by inadequate collection practices. This is due to issues such as some participants stopping using the device or losing it. The identified limitations are being analyzed to be addressed in future work.

7 FINAL REMARKS

In this paper, we have discussed the development of the Healful dataset, a health dataset built by integrating wearable data with Self-reported Quality of Life measures using the WHOQOL-BREF questionnaire. This study shows that IoHT data can help enhance QoL models' predictive ability. The key contribution of this work is to provide a complete anonymized dataset that researchers and practitioners can use to study new Machine Learning models targeted at QoL prediction for facilitating development in health monitoring based on IoHT. The Healful dataset significantly contributes to health informatics, especially toward a more continuous real-time monitoring method for QoL indicators.

Future work on the Healful dataset includes increasing the volume of data through a new round of data collection with 100 volunteers, aiming for greater diversity across demographic groups. Exploring new features to enhance the predictive model is another direction for future research. Moreover, applying and comparing new Machine Learning algorithms can enhance the accuracy and reliability of the prediction. These steps will help maintain the dataset's value and support the development of models that improve personalized health interventions and QoL assessments.

CODE AND DATA AVAILABILITY

All codes and data are publicly available on kaggle.com/datasets/ppedroalmir/self-reported-qol.

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