

Mobile devices' low charge, high CPU load, number of sensors, and OS features delay sensor data readings.

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Abstract—Sensor data reliability plays a critical role in applications that collect and uses this data. The types of effects that can invalidate the data could be physical data drift, bias, missing data or outliers, to name a few. These can arise from several factors, where power management and operating systems, that are built to conserve the power, are of the most concern. This study assessed an impact of the battery charge, functional state of the device and a number of sensors listened to on variability in the timestamps of the sensor data readings, that reflects the quality of the data acquired. It has been found that lower battery charge and high CPU loads have significantly impacted a mean interval between the sensor data readings, however at a very small scale 1-2ms but in different ways on different devices. The number of sensors included in experiments and device movement significantly changed the variability as well but not on all devices tested. The most critical finding was that the intervals between sensor readings showed introduction of occasional very long up to 60ms increases in duration that crucially decreased sampling bandwidth that can introduce aliasing distortions. These findings indicate that the timing of sensor data reading is not consistent but highly dependent on the device's conditions that decreases the reliability of the data. Accounting for these delays and resampling the data, though at the cost of accuracy, may resolve this issue.

Keywords—mobile devices, sensors, power management, data reliability.

I. INTRODUCTION

Sensors are always or periodically active. They produce data at certain acquisition frequency in real time that are digitized and put it in a memory buffer for reading [1]. The most reliable way of obtaining continuous data is to read sensors with an app or a tool being in foreground state. This may interfere with the user experience and introduce gaps in data sets. However, reading these data when the tool is in background state also presents its own challenges. In cases where the sensors are managed by the Android OS, that is heavily designed to conserve resources, the sensor raw data acquisition can be delayed causing forward shifts in the timestamps. That delay can appear randomly and be not constant and is rather a variable that depends on many parameters [2]. In this study we are concentrating on how device's power management affects sensor data quality while accessing it in the background mode. While we can control the sensor data reading frequency, we do not have access to the wait in a queue for the buffer reading. Therefore, we do not

have access to the time when sensor updates the buffer. However, sensing is much faster ($>100\text{Hz}$) [3] than we will read the sensor data (5Hz), hence, should not introduce significant differences in the timestamps by itself. In addition, and for the future research, we do have access to the Qualcomm sensing information through the QSEE API. For the QSEE supported sensors, we can compare OS (Android) reported sensing with the QSEE hardware timestamps for all supported sensors [3][4].

The timestamp variability will be used to estimate reliability of the sensors data timestamps under different conditions to understand better sensing data quality. Data quality, in terms of its timing consistency, can be assessed by evaluating the time interval between captured sensor data. We will use in-house designed mobile app to listen for specific sensor(s) at a given polling rate. App will be kept in the background during recordings, thus data collection does not preclude user from using their device. Since, the time when data are read from the sensor buffer are not going to be exactly equal to preset polling rate but dependent on OS queuing it, that ultimately will introduce a variability between the readings. We plan to quantify the sensors data timestamps quality for a single and a multiple sensors under normal conditions and when the device exhibits low power and high CPU utilization or heavy user's activity. Initially, we select to monitor accelerometer and gyroscope sensors, which are most commonly used for health and other research [4][5][6][7].

II. METHODS

For this study we chose Google Pixel 6a and Samsung S22 smart phones with Android 11 operating system. These are modern and powerful devices with variety of sensors from which we can capture the data. They also have advanced power management system and should be ideal for the experiments we are planning to conduct. Data from sensors will be acquired in two modes, when device is stationary or moving, with the later meant to provide more realistic data sets. Device's displacement will be accomplished using Elephant robotic arm myCobot 280 using the same trajectory stored in the arm's memory.

A. Single-sensor study

The *first condition* is 100% charged not plugged-in device, this condition will provide preferable conditions in the course of relatively consistent data collection. This should reveal timestamp intervals variability that one should expect during a daily use of their devices. In real-world 100% charged battery is quite rare or does not last for very long but for our study we choose it to this extreme to maximize the expected

progressive differences when compared to low charge devices.

The *second condition* is 10% battery charge remaining not plugged-in to imitate data recording under the various power conserving mechanisms utilized by the device's hardware and OS. This is expected to produce the greatest variability in the readings that will provide insight into power management control of and access to the sensor's data.

The *third condition*, 100% charged device under a heavy nearly 100% computational load to reveal how device's power management systems enforce task threads depending on their power consumption. In this experiment our app tasks power consumption should be negligible to the load we are going to artificially introduce. The results will show what kind of competition profile is implemented there and how users' activity may impact accuracy of the data coming from sensors.

B. Multi-sensor study

In the next set of experiments, we will simultaneously record data from two sensors using the same recording paradigms. The variability of timestamps in accelerometer and gyroscope sensors will be assessed. This data will elucidate the impact on reliability of reading from multiple sensors in various conditions. In addition to the sensor readings variability we can assess their cross-correlation (lag). If in fact it is pronounced and increased or decreased that would indicate that there is a relationship that a hardware and/or power management introduces to multi-sensor data readings.

C. Data and Statistical analyses

Data on variability expressed as means and standard deviations can be compiled from our experiments and statistically assessed for significant differences. The variability of the mean interval between sensor readings across different acquisition conditions will be analyzed for the significant changes using 2-tailed t-test function. To show significant changes in the distributions of the intervals between sensor readings, data will be analyzed using two sample Z-score test formula written in Excel. 3D sensor data converted into a simple geometrical distance or rather acceleration or rotational speed for gyroscope absolute value would be routinely tested against the intervals between sensor readings for cross correlation to ensure that there are no underlying relationships between them. Cross correlation function (CCF) vs. lag relationships will be calculated with no data wrapping and plotted out in Excel using custom written macros. Throughout the text of this manuscript averages will be expressed as a mean \pm standard deviation (SD) followed by number of measurements in parentheses.

D. Application design

Our app to collect sensor data was developed in Android Studio (v.2022.1.1). Briefly, app is designed to listen to single or multiple sensors without buffering every 200ms or 5Hz polling rate. When sensor OnSensorChanged listener receives the input from the sensor, app checks if the time, since the last data was recorded for this sensor, is greater than our default polling of 200ms, then x, y, z metrics of the sensor data are stored in local database. To make OS not to suspend our app, when it goes into background, or interfere with the app functionality depending on the battery status, the Wake Lock mechanism was implemented and battery optimization was disabled in the app. Experiments under each condition were run for 5min, that was determined to be the maximum time

during which battery percentage did not change under the high CPU load. Middle 3min portion of that was used for further off-line analyses.

III. RESULTS

In general, intervals between the reading were very close to the polling rate of 200ms. Despite that, variability of the intervals between sensor data readings showed significant differences in means across all the conditions, albeit a small one, on a scale of 0.1-0.2ms, perhaps due to the great number of data points. Although, most importantly, under certain conditions, intervals showed whopping, however intermittent, up to 60ms increase. So, despite the Wake Lock being engaged there are still times where it fails or pauses continuous app operations. Moreover, occurrence of long intervals showed opposing tendencies between the sensors tested. These great outliers, ultimately, changed statistics between the interval distributions. Their nature may require further study. CCF analyses between the intervals and the values from sensor readings did not show correlation, normally R was less than 0.1, meaning that sensor activity itself did not, as expected, impose significant stress on sensor functionality [1].

A. Google 6a phone

Accelerometer study has revealed that when Google Pixel 6a device was 100% charged and stationary intervals between the sensor data reading were significantly different from 10% and 100% charged with CPU working at a high load (Fig.1 A vs C and E). These results were based on the comparisons of both interval means with t-test and interval distributions with Z-test. Moving device showed significant difference only between 100% charged and high CPU load cases, again in both interval means and distributions (Fig.1 B vs F). Moving vs. stationary comparisons were significant only in 10% charged device and only in interval distributions (Fig.1 C vs D).

Again, we acknowledge that the absolute differences between the means were small on a scale of the 0.1-0.2ms (e.g., Fig.1 A, C, and E showed 200.35 ± 0.58 ms, 200.46 ± 0.6 ms, and 200.43 ± 0.52 ms, respectively) but significant, as previously mentioned. Nevertheless, we are documenting all of them here and in the sections below, so all the data analyses are available to the readers.

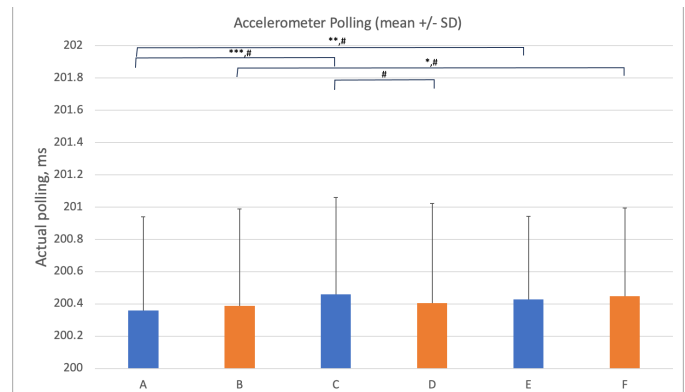


Fig. 1. 100% charged Pixel6a shows slightly lower intervals between the sensor readings. * - significant mean difference obtained by t-test (* - $p < 0.05$, ** - $p < 0.01$, *** - $p < 0.001$, $n = 898$). # - significant difference in interval distributions obtained by Z-test (score > 1.645 , $\alpha < 0.05$). Blue A - 100% charged battery, C - 10% charged battery, E - 100% charged battery with CPU at high load when device was stationary. Orange B, D, F - same conditions but when device was moving.

Closer inspection of the sample interval distributions (Fig.2) showed occasional longer intervals up to 9ms in duration (10, in total, points outside of upper extreme of the whisker box plot). In general Google 6a accelerometer data showed longer intervals among all but one condition.

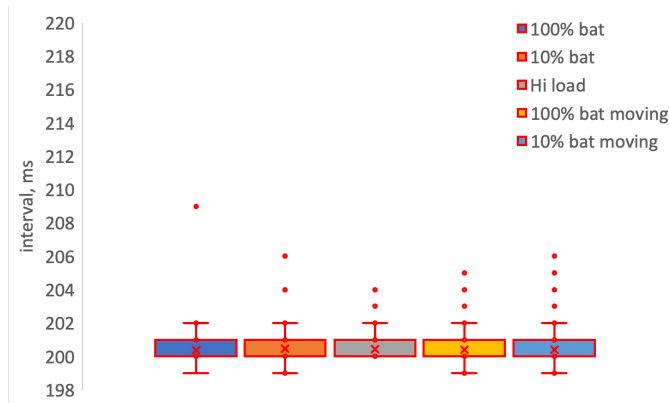


Fig. 2. Interval distributions of accelerometer sensor data access in stationary and moving Pixel6a. Hi load CPU moving device did not show long intervals (not show).

Gyroscope study, unlike accelerometer one, mostly showed significant differences in moving devices and not the stationary ones (Fig.3). Stationary devices showed no significant differences in means between different conditions. The only statistical difference was detected between interval distributions in 100% charged vs. high CPU load comparison (Fig.3 A vs. E). However, there were differences between stationary and moving devices in 100% charged and high CPU load cases both in means and interval distributions (Fig.3 A vs. B, E vs F). On the other hand, moving devices revealed that intervals between the sensor readings in 10% charged device were significantly different from 100% and high CPU load cases (Fig.3 D vs B, D vs F). That tendency was just the opposite to the Accelerometer study.

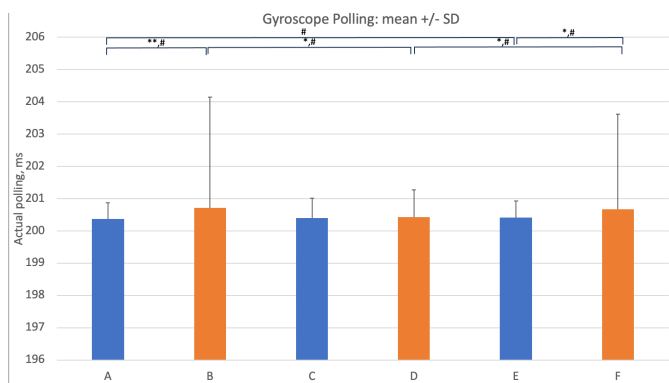


Fig. 3. Gyroscope data reading intervals were slightly higher when Pixel6a was moving. * - significant mean difference obtained by t-test (* - $p < 0.05$, ** - $p < 0.01$, *** - $p < 0.001$, $n=898$). # - significant difference in interval distributions obtained by Z-test (score > 1.645 , $\alpha < 0.05$). Blue A - 100% charged battery, C - 10% charged battery, E - 100% charged battery with CPU at high load when device was stationary. Orange B, D, F - same conditions but when device was moving.

To get an insight into low battery charge impact on the longer intervals we plotted out the distributions for all experiments where they were detected (Fig.4). It is clearly can be seen that high SDs in 100% charged and high CPU load were caused by occasional long up to 58ms intervals, i.e.,

Figure 3B, D, and F showed 200.7 ± 3.4 ms, 200.4 ± 0.9 ms, and 200.7 ± 3.0 ms, respectively. Long intervals appeared in gyroscope sensor data much more often 23 vs 10 in accelerometer and not as uniformly. Also, two stationary conditions (100% charged and Hi load) did not show longer (than upper extreme) intervals.

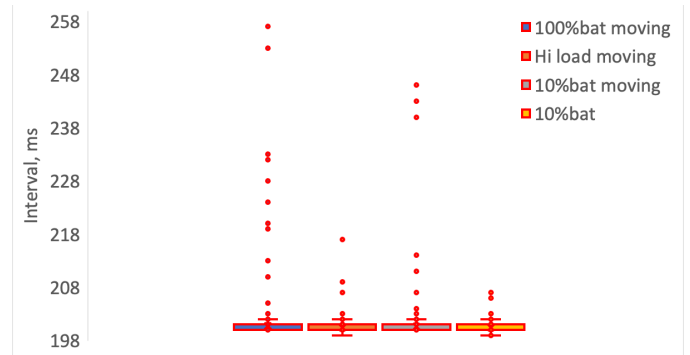


Fig. 4. Interval distributions of gyroscope sensor data access in stationary and moving Pixel6a. 100% charged and Hi load CPU stationary devices did not show long intervals (not show).

Accelerometer and Gyroscope study, when two sensors were simultaneously recorded from, revealed no significant differences in means in the contrast to the single sensor recordings (Fig.5). However, there were significant differences between the distributions of the intervals. Firstly, there was significant difference in interval distributions between stationary and moving devices when they were 100% charged for both accelerometer and gyroscope, and at high CPU load but only for accelerometer. There was no difference between the cases when device was stationary. However, there were differences when device was moving but only between 10% charged device and both 100% charged and high CPU load for the accelerometer reading intervals. For gyroscope, the difference was detected only when compared with high CPU load. The later observation was reminiscent of the one that we saw in gyroscope alone study, although not for the accelerometer. Somehow, accelerometer data acquisition began acting similar to gyroscope, or perhaps it was influenced by it. But this observation needs further investigation.

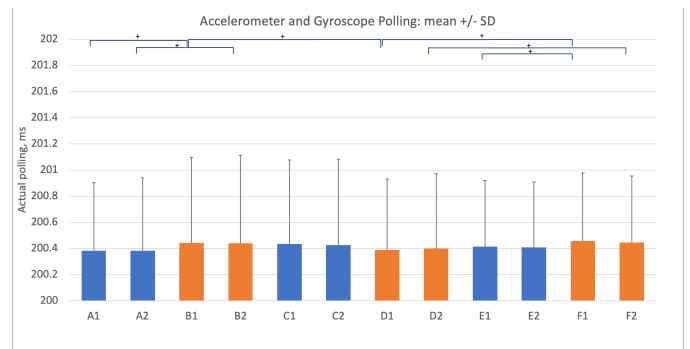


Fig. 5. Mean intervals between data reading recorded from Pixel6a accelerometer and gyroscope simultaneously. ± - significant difference in interval distributions obtained by Z-test (score > 1.645 , $\alpha < 0.05$). Blue A - 100% charged battery, C - 10% charged battery, E - 100% charged battery with CPU at high load when device was stationary. Orange B, D, F - same conditions but when device was moving. Indexes 1 or 2 denote Accelerometer or Gyroscope sensor readings, respectively.

Whisker plot of distributions revealed that longer up to 10ms intervals were again present but to the moderate extent of 15 in total, with 7 for accelerometer and 8 for gyroscope. It seems that these long intervals always appear, however their number depends on sensor type. Moreover, it depends on the number of sensors read, because they appeared more uniformly under the current conditions.

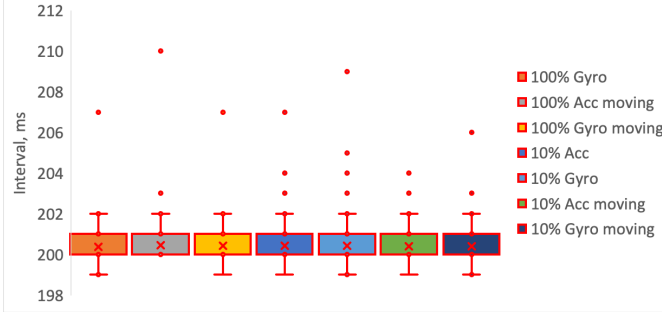


Fig. 6. Interval distributions of accelerometer and gyroscope sensor data accessed simultaneously in stationary and moving Pixel6a. 100% charged Accelerometer in stationary device and either of Hi Loads did not show long intervals (not show).

Since in this study we collected pairs of data sets, i.e. intervals between sensor data access for both gyroscope and accelerometer, in the course of one experiment, we can investigate if there is any degree of relationship between them. Fig.7 shows cross-correlation vs lag plot for each condition for moving or stationary device. The highest and very distinctive, though low to be considered as significant ($r=0.2$), correlation peak appeared for stationary device when battery was at 10%. Thus, there seems to be a distinct interplay between the sensors, however statistically insignificant.

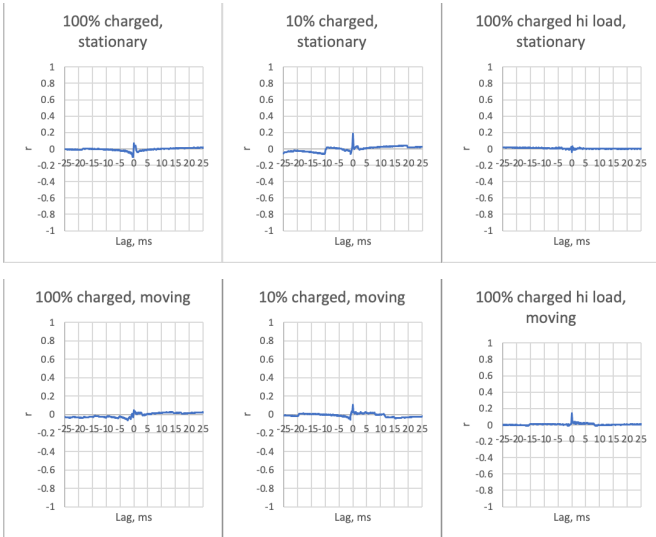


Fig. 7. Cross-correlation analyses of accelerometer vs. gyroscope intervals in stationary and moving Pixel6a. Cross-correlation between gyroscope and accelerometer reading intervals showed weak interplay when device was 10% charged and stationary.

So, it clearly can be seen that multi-sensor reading introduced changes in the data collected on Google Pixel 6a device. Whether it is due to the application design or hardware implementation will require further investigation.

B. Samsung S22 phone

To investigate differences between manufactures, we have collected the same as above data sets on a different, but comparable to Google Pixel 6a by its specs, Samsung S22 device. Results as described below appeared to be quite different between the different manufactures despite that we made all the efforts to keep environment as similar as possible, i.e. same OS version, same set of default applications, etc. The following presents the data for Samsung S22 in the same fashion as for Google Pixel 6a.

Accelerometer study revealed that sensor data collected when phone was 100% charged and operating at high CPU load were highly and significantly different from both 100% and 10% charged phones judging by the means and interval distributions (Fig.8). Mean values were different by up to 2ms, as seen on a Fig.8 (e.g., Fig. 8 A, C, and E showed 201.9 ± 1.8 ms, 202.0 ± 2.2 ms, and 200.9 ± 0.9 ms, respectively).

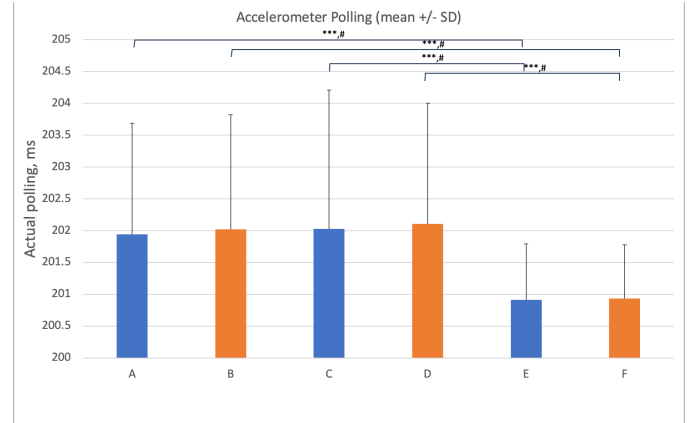


Fig. 8. SamsungS22 accelerometer data reading intervals were the lowest at high CPU load. * - significant mean difference obtained by t-test (* - $p < 0.05$, ** - $p < 0.01$, *** - $p < 0.001$, $n=898$). # - significant difference in interval distributions obtained by Z-test (score > 1.645 , $\alpha < 0.05$). Blue A - 100% charged battery, C - 10% charged battery, E - 100% charged battery with CPU at high load when device was stationary. Orange B, D, F - same conditions but when device was moving.

Whisker plots (Fig.9) showed existence of the longer intervals with 11 in total and with up to 36ms in duration. This was comparable with Pixel 6a device in numbers, durations, and uniformity, except for the 10% charged condition, where very long (36ms) interval was documented.

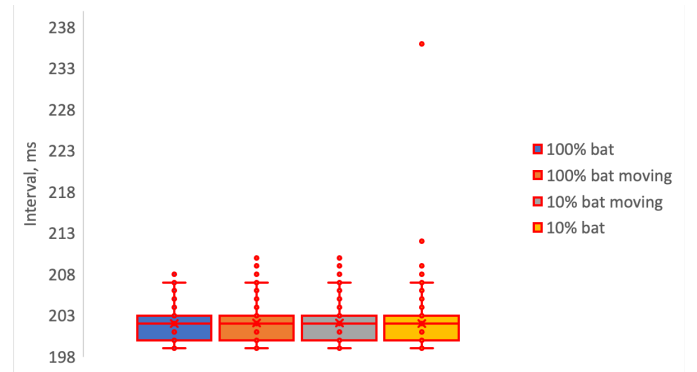


Fig. 9. Interval distributions of accelerometer sensor data access in stationary and moving SamsungS22. Hi load CPU both stationary and moving devices did not show long intervals (not show).

Gyroscope study on Samsung S22 phone revealed similar tendencies, i.e. the high CPU load showed the lowest and highly significant values by means (around 1ms, i.e., Fig.10 A, C, and E showed $202.0 \pm 1.8\text{ms}$, $202.0 \pm 1.9\text{ms}$, and $201.0 \pm 2.0\text{ms}$, respectively) and interval distributions (Fig.10). Moreover, there was a significant difference between stationary and moving devices in high CPU load case (Fig.10 E vs F).

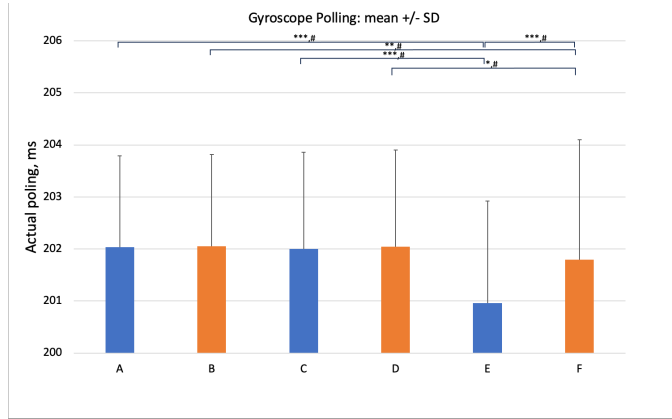


Fig. 10. SamsungS22 gyroscope data reading intervals were the lowest at high CPU load. * - significant mean difference obtained by t-test (* - $p < 0.05$, ** - $p < 0.01$, *** - $p < 0.001$, $n=898$). # - significant difference in interval distributions obtained by Z-test (score > 1.645 , $\alpha < 0.05$). Blue A - 100% charged battery, C - 10% charged battery, E - 100% charged battery with CPU at high load when device was stationary. Orange B, D, F - same conditions but when device was moving.

Whisker plots (Fig.11) showed existence of the longer intervals, 16 in total, with up to 52ms in duration. This was not the same in numbers and durations when compared with Pixel 6a device that showed substantially greater number of long intervals and in different conditions.

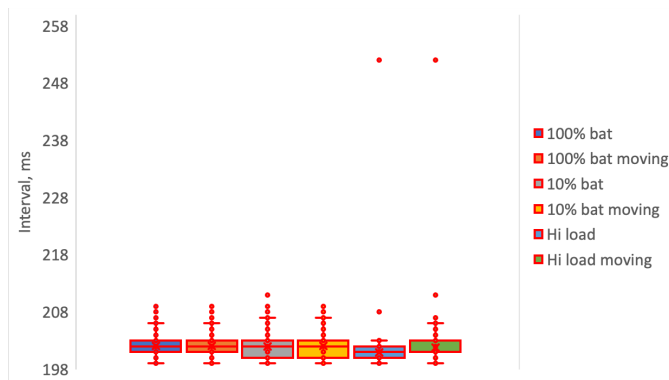


Fig. 11. Interval distributions of gyroscope sensor data access in stationary and moving SamsungS22.

Accelerometer and Gyroscope study in general produced very analogous results as single sensors studies (Fig.12). Namely, data obtained for the high CPU load, however only for stationary devices, were highly significant for 100% and 10% charged devices. Moreover, data from 100% charged moving device showed significant change in the distribution when compared with high CPU load (Fig. 13).

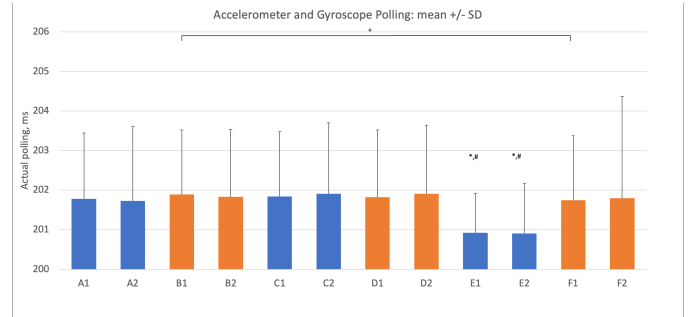


Fig. 12. Accelerometer and gyroscope data reading intervals were the lowest at high CPU load in stationary SamsungS22. ± - significant difference in interval distributions obtained by Z-test (score > 1.645 , $\alpha < 0.05$). * - significant mean difference obtained by t-test ($p < 0.001$, $n=898$). # - significant difference in interval distributions obtained by Z-test (score > 1.645 , $\alpha < 0.05$) between E1,2 and A1,2 or C1,2. Blue A - 100% charged battery, C - 10% charged battery, E - 100% charged battery with CPU at high load when device was stationary. Orange B, D, F - same conditions but when device was moving. Indexes 1 or 2 denote Accelerometer or Gyroscope sensor readings, respectively.

Whisker plot of distributions revealed that longer up to 60ms intervals were again present but to the moderate extent of 17 in total, with 6 for accelerometer and 11 for gyroscope. Main difference from Pixel 6a device was the relatively higher duration of these long intervals in Samsung S22 and the presence of much longer, up to 60ms interval in Hi load CPU conditions in gyroscope sensor data.

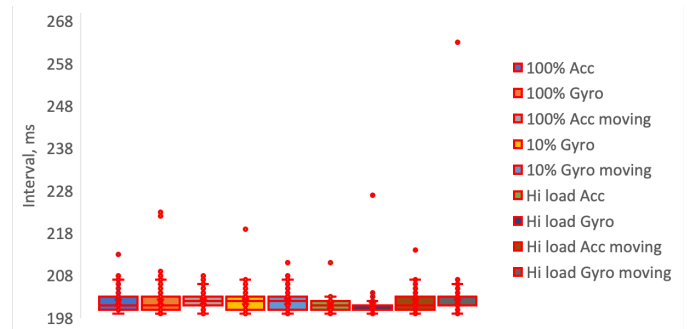


Fig. 13. Interval distributions of accelerometer and gyroscope sensor data accessed simultaneously in stationary and moving SamsungS22. Gyroscope in 100% charged moving devices, and Accelerometer in 10% charged stationary and moving devices did not show long intervals (not show).

Clearly, Samsung S22 phone showed the same tendency in average polling rates in both multi and single sensor data acquisitions. Google Pixel 6a phone, on a contrary, did not show that. Moreover, occurrence of the longer intervals was found to be different in both devices. Perhaps that may have been caused by the differences in the hardware design of these devices.

To be consistent with Google Pixel 6a phone study we investigated if there had been any degree of relationship between gyroscope and accelerometer data. Figure 14 shows cross-correlation vs. lag plot for each condition for moving or stationary device. In contrast to Google Pixel 6a that had highly distinctive peak with $r=0.2$ and various others around 0.1, Samsung S22 did not show the same or anything close to that. All cross-correlations vs. lag plot were rather unimpressive. That may account for the lack of any relationships between gyroscope and accelerometer (as it

should be) in Samsung, however Google might have displayed some background interplay between the sensors (but it should not have).

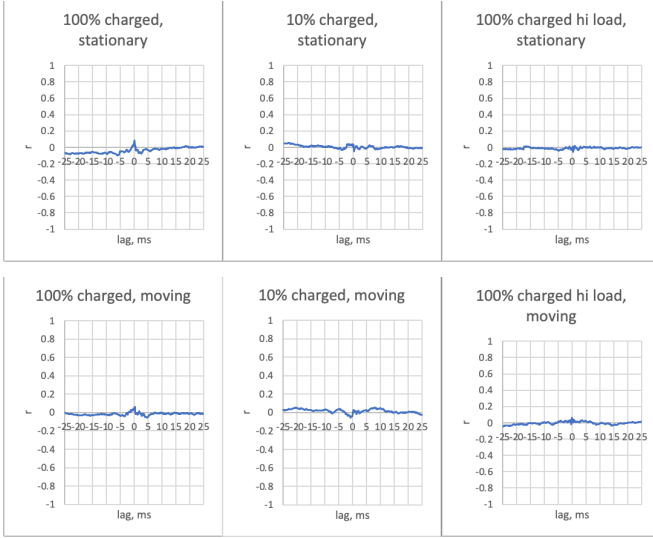


Fig. 14. Cross-correlation analyses of the accelerometer vs gyroscope intervals in stationary and moving SamsungS22. Cross-correlation between gyroscope and accelerometer reading intervals showed they were accessed mostly independently.

IV. DISCUSSION

Utilization of the sensors data is still limited and resorted to specific and easily identifiable phenomena, step, fall, jump etc. [8][9][10]. In more complicated tasks for medical research or day-to-day life activities, sensor's data reliability is becoming very important. Many factors can interfere with that. In our study we documented two, generally expected uncertainty due to the processing delays and an unexpected much longer (up to 30% of the polling rate) delays that, presumably, were imposed by the OS battery conserving features.

A. Average polling rates

Pixel 6a showed on average about 0.5ms difference from our demanded 200ms polling period with SDs ranging from 0.5-1.0ms. Samsung S22 revealed longer 1-2ms difference from that 200ms polling period with SDs ranging from 1-2ms. These delays are determined by the processing power of the devices showing that Pixel 6a was 2 time faster than Samsung S22.

The absolute differences between the means caused by the different conditions were small on a scale of the 0.5 and 2ms, for Pixel 6a and Samsung S22, respectively, however significant, as it has been acknowledged above. At our 200ms polling period these were negligible, though at a faster data acquisition, to achieve greater accuracy about the device and/or owner activities [11], might play a crucial role.

On the other hand, these times are on the scale of jitter effect in smartphones that seem to have a significant impact on our data [13][14][17]. Perhaps, one of the explanations could be because sometimes they were accessed from the cache and not actually from the memory buffer that is managed by PMI and OS.

B. Long between reading intervals

As it has been discovered our data reading from sensors showed substantial random gaps in timing, up to around 60ms. They did not seem to be related to the physical state of the device, but the number of sensors read, at least in Pixel 6a. Perhaps, this had to mostly do with OS features. Whether actual x, y, and z metrics of accelerometer and gyroscope were reflecting real device movement could not be answered by this study, however, that brought a question if, or to what extent this intermittent paucity can affect the research that rely on data consistency, e.g., signaling analysis, continuous monitoring, etc. From the Nyquist sampling theorem to avoid aliasing one has to ensure at least 2 fold acquisition frequency over the possible bandwidth of the signals. Discovered 60ms gaps, or decrease in sampling frequency, may drastically shift an upper cut off limit down to 8.3Hz, however intermittent. This limitation may impact high frequency data analyses where the bandwidth of the sampled signals may drop suddenly all the way down to about 8Hz and lead to a missing signals or activity, and essentially introduce erroneous lower frequency activity. Obviously, in our sensor data acquisition it did not have an impact since sampling frequency was much lower, only 5Hz.

If app is tracking the movements and visualizing it via world coordinate system transformation for acceleration, trajectories will drift of course because of those longer accelerations at certain times. As reported by authors [12], acquisition for detecting subject's movement ranges from 20Hz-200Hz. With 60ms extra, it easily may, even for the lowest 20Hz frequency, double the time subject spent ac/decelerating at selected instances that would quadruple the displacements. Authors in [12] actually reported over estimation limitations in their research that might as well have been caused by those extra long intervals. High-pass digital filter was proposed as a remedy to attenuate lower part of the spectrum but it only would minimize it. So, technically, one needs to discard this point as a continuous and devise a reset point for trajectory integration routine or resample the data set.

When reviewing available online open-source sensor data sets (e.g., [15,16]) one can see that data were collected with the applications being in foreground on a smartphone, i.e., app was kept in background but to report a behavior it had to be brought up, and for a short period of time 3min or 20sec with relatively high acquisition frequencies of 40-50Hz. These data sets were very consistent and did not have gaps in data. We calculated the intervals between the data timestamps and were very surprised to see virtually constant interval representing acquisition frequency throughout whole 20s recording session [16]. This could not be replicated by our app, even if it ran in foreground. Clearly, the app design is different and simply collects raw data at the fastest sensor refresh rate (50Hz), however, for a short period of time. Later, we assume, data were resampled to the desired rate of 40Hz for the later analyses. Our app conserves activity using onSensorChange method with preset polling period limit that is more suitable for continuous applications. Ultimately, in our case, that introduced variability and long gaps between the sensor data readings.

Another approach to this limitation would be switching to collecting raw timestamps from the sensor itself and not from the OS. This task is technically difficult because raw sensor timestamps are not uniform and counted from the specific

time epoch, so it does not specifically reflect the time when the event happened. That feature is set by the manufacturer, so it too may vary from device to device.

V. CONCLUSION

Low battery charge, functional state of the device and different hardware may introduce an unwanted data inconsistencies and jitters when capturing sensor information. Moreover, OS may greatly delay sensor data acquisition that can cause aliasing at higher than 8Hz frequency. Devices from different manufacturers and a number of sensors monitored may exacerbate that. Certain data acquisition algorithms, validation and/or resampling procedures have to be put in place before data can be deemed clean and usable for the high accuracy research.

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