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001 **DIFFERENTIALLY AND INTEGRALLY ATTENTIVE**
002 **CONVOLUTIONAL-BASED PHOTOPLETHYSMOGRAPHY**
003 **SIGNAL QUALITY CLASSIFICATION**
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011 **ABSTRACT**
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013

014 Photoplethysmography (PPG) is a non-intrusive and cost-effective optical technology
015 that detects changes in blood volume within tissues, providing insights
016 into the body's physiological dynamics over time. By analyzing PPG data as a
017 time series, valuable information about cardiovascular health and other physio-
018 logical parameters such as Heart Rate Variability (HRV), Peripheral Oxygen Sat-
019 uration (SpO₂), and sleep status can be estimated. With the ever increasing user
020 adoption of wearable devices like smartwatches, Health Monitoring Applications
021 (HMA) are gaining popularity due to their ability to track various health metrics,
022 including sleep patterns, heart rate, and activity tracking, by making use of PPG
023 sensors to monitor different aspects of an individual's health and wellness. How-
024 ever, reliable health indicators require high-quality PPG signals, which are often
025 contaminated with noise and artifacts caused by movement when using wearables.
026 Hence, Signal Quality Assessment (SQA) is crucial in determining the trustwor-
027 thiness of PPG data for HMA applications. We present a new PPG SQA approach,
028 leveraging recent advancements in differential and integral attention-based strate-
029 gies coupled with a two-stage procedure for promptly discarding highly anomalous
030 segments, as a means of enhancing the performance of Convolutional Neural
031 Network (CNN)-based SQA classifiers, balancing storage size and classifier accu-
032 racy in resulting models of increased robustness across PPG signals from differ-
033 ent devices. Our methods are capable of achieving F1-scores between 0.9194 and
034 0.9865 across four expert-annotated datasets from different wearable devices.

035
036 **1 INTRODUCTION**
037

038 The growing influence and widespread acceptance of continuous health monitoring on the market of
039 smart wearable devices, ranging from fitness bands to smartwatches and smart rings, is remarkable.
040 The global increase in wearable usage is evident, with projections indicating over 1 billion wearables
041 worldwide by 2022 and annual expenditures exceeding \$80 billion (Cisco, 2019; Gartner, 2021).
042 Such devices allow customization and integration of diverse sensor types, communication units,
043 and remote computing resources, offering holistic health solutions to users. In this line, mobile
044 applications embedded in such devices are increasingly utilized to estimate several physiological
045 factors from users, such as Heart Rate Variability (HRV), Peripheral Oxygen Saturation (SpO₂), and
046 sleep quality.

047 In this context, Photoplethysmography (PPG) emerges as a convenient technique, playing a sig-
048 nificant part in wearable health monitoring systems, offering potentially valuable insights into the
049 cardiovascular system. It continuously provides physiological parameters that can be utilized to es-
050 timate health information, including heart rate, respiratory rate, and oxygen saturation, contributing
051 to the comprehensive nature of these health-focused wearables. PPG signal plays a central role in
052 these estimations due to its non-invasive nature and cost-effective implementation on devices. PPG
053 works by emitting a light signal onto the user's skin surface and capturing its reflection/transmission,
054 which varies proportionally to the blood volume flow in the tissue.

054 A major challenge impacting PPG’s on-device and real-world performance is its susceptibility to
 055 noise, including motion artifacts (Chatterjee et al., 2022), which can distort the signal’s morpholog-
 056 ical properties and result in incorrect estimation of the aforementioned physiological variables. Given
 057 the potentially life-threatening consequences associated with inaccurate assessments derived from
 058 these signals, such unreliable performance would be highly inadequate to real-world applications.
 059 The presence of noisy signal sections is the main driving force behind the development of Signal
 060 Quality Assessment (SQA) techniques. This is vital to prevent misinterpretation by distinguishing
 061 between clinically validated trustworthy and untrustworthy segments in PPG. In essence, to enhance
 062 the reliability of such applications, a Signal Quality Classifier (SQC) step is commonly employed,
 063 enabling the differentiation of high-quality signal segments, i.e., suitable for physiological variables’
 064 estimation, from low-quality ones.

065 1.1 RELATED WORK

066 Given the significance of classifying signal segments into reliable or unreliable, several researchers
 067 have dedicated valuable efforts to developing classification techniques for signal quality assessment,
 068 as reviewed by Gambarotta et al. (2016). For example, Elgendi (2016) proposed a technique em-
 069 ploying indices to assess quality. Selvaraj et al. (2011) presented a statistical method involving the
 070 calculation of kurtosis and Shannon Entropy to identify motion artifacts and noise in PPG data. Li
 071 & Clifford (2012) introduced an alternate statistical approach, leveraging dynamic time warping to
 072 stretch each heartbeat for alignment with a dynamic template. This method incorporates various
 073 features associated with signal quality. Regarding frequency domain, (?) proposes a classification
 074 method making use of Deep Fourier Magnitude Spectrum. In the classification phase of the ap-
 075 proach described in (Li & Clifford, 2012), a multi-layer perceptron is utilized to comprehend the
 076 correlations among parameters in the context of both high- and low-quality pulses.

077 Sun et al. (2012) introduced an approach that exploits the morphological features of the signal for
 078 evaluating its quality. Li et al. (2011) identified four waveform characteristics to evaluate signal
 079 quality through the application of a decision tree. Similarly, Sukor et al. (2011) utilized a basic
 080 decision-tree classifier to determine, with pulse-by-pulse precision, whether a particular pulse is
 081 suitable for use or not. Naeini et al. (2019) introduced one of the earliest ML-based methods to
 082 categorize the signal into ‘reliable’ or ‘unreliable’ categories. Recently, Freitas et al. (2023a) and
 083 Freitas et al. (2023b) introduced a SQA technique that transforms PPG signals into two-dimensional
 084 representations and subsequently employs a vision transformer to evaluate their quality. (?) proposes
 085 an ensemble of local magnitude comparison-based feature descriptors for subsequently feeding into
 086 a linear classifier.

087 Additionally, the work in (Silva et al., 2024) explored the usage of attention-based approaches
 088 of (Bahdanau et al., 2015; Luong et al., 2015; Vaswani et al., 2017) in conjunction with a
 089 Convolutional-based strategy to find an efficient Signal Quality Classifier (SQC) under strict trade-
 090 offs among memory and classification performance, as well as considerations regarding overall
 091 power consumption. In the present work, we enhance the performance and efficiency of CNN-based
 092 approach to PPG SQA by jointly leveraging differential and integral attention layers (Ye et al., 2024)
 093 prior to the final dense layer, as a way to develop an effective SQC capable of being deployed in
 094 real-time HMA of resource-constrained embedded devices.

095 2 PROPOSED METHOD

096 2.1 OVERVIEW

100 In the present work, we concern ourselves with the binary quality classification of online unidimen-
 101 sional PPG signal segments, which is the predominant case for wearable-based PPG sensing. Our
 102 aim is to enhance the capabilities of a compact CNN using a differential attention mechanism (Ye
 103 et al., 2024) for quality classification of PPG sensor data, a functionality widely used in wearable
 104 apps for heart rate and sleep assessment.

105 Initially, CNNs were proposed for computer vision tasks, automatically extracting local and global
 106 features from images or frames for classification. However, they have expanded to other domains,
 107 including time series classification, such as biomedical ones (Lucafo et al., 2022). Meanwhile, atten-
 108 tion mechanisms originated in natural language processing to overcome the issue of vanishing gra-

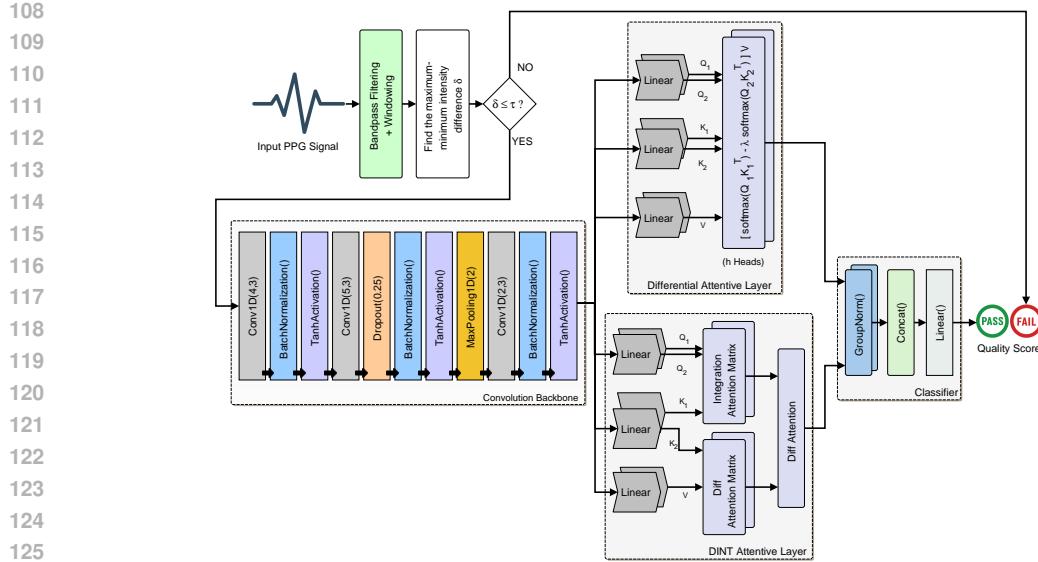


Figure 1: Overview of the proposed PPG classification method.

dients in long-term dependency learning of sequential models (Bahdanau et al., 2015), like RNNs. They have achieved state-of-the-art performance across various domains, including LLMs (Brown et al., 2020) and vision-related tasks (Freitas et al., 2023b;a).

We utilize Neural Architecture Search (NAS) techniques and attention mechanisms to identify neural network solutions that are lightweight yet deliver competitive performance within strict memory and computational constraints, as shown in Figure 1. Our baseline CNN, also detailed in Figure 1, was discovered through a NAS process similar to (Lima et al., 2023), specifically tailored for PPG signal quality assessment rather than systolic peak classification. The additional attention mechanisms we exploit — Differential Attention and Differential-Integral Attention Layers — will be discussed in Sections 2.4 and 2.5.

2.2 PREPROCESSING

Regarding the preprocessing used in this work, we start from the Discrete 1-D PPG vector

$$\mathbf{Y} = \{y_k\}_{k=0}^{N_{samples}-1} \in \mathbb{R}^{N_{samples}}, \quad (1)$$

collected with sampling frequency $f_s = 25\text{Hz}$.

The considered vector is subject to a windowing operation, resulting in segments of 9 seconds with 3 seconds overlap on each edge, after which we apply an order-2 zero-phase Butterworth bandpass filter with cutoff frequencies of 0.8 and 4.5Hz. The lower cutoff frequency aims to remove the baseline wandering while the higher frequency removes environmental noise of high frequency nature.

The segments are, then, further converted to a dataset $\mathcal{Y} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times L}$ composed of N non-overlapping segments of 3-seconds with signal length of L samples, in the form

$$\mathcal{Y} = \{Y_k\}_{k=0}^{N-1}, \text{ with } Y_k = \{y_{N \cdot k + j}\}_{j=0}^{L-1} \quad (2)$$

with $L = 3 \cdot f_s = 75$ samples, and $N = \left\lfloor \frac{N_{samples}}{L} \right\rfloor$, for $N_{samples}$ the total number of samples.

Each segment is associated with a corresponding binary label, with 0 meaning low-quality (unreliable) PPG data and 1 meaning high-quality (reliable) PPG data. A cardiologist provided a sample-by-sample ground truth of 0s and 1s for the entire dataset. The label of the entire 3-seconds segment ($= 75$ samples) could be computed by evaluating the prevalence of samples labelled as 1. If it is equal or higher than 50%, then the entire segment is considered as having a label 1. Otherwise, the segment label is assigned to 0.

162 2.3 TWO-STAGE SIGNAL CLASSIFICATION
163

164 A proposed Two-Stage Signal Quality Classification (SQC) pipeline, inspired by (Lucafo et al.,
165 2022), was considered as a starting point. It has a hierarchical structure composed of an initial
166 decision stage with the purpose of discarding PPG windows that are most likely to be of low quality
167 based on the empirical observation of a given valid signal interval. The second stage of the SQC
168 consists of the classification of the PPG window by a designed Attentive-CNN.

169 The idea behind the discriminator in the first stage is to analyze each PPG window provided as input
170 and decide, based on its difference between maximum and minimum values δ , if the whole window
171 will be considered to be of low quality or possibly a high quality one, as previously presented in the
172 Materials and Methods section. This decision is assisted by the threshold τ chosen from the earlier
173 mentioned methods. The results regarding the most empirically reliable thresholds will be further
174 discussed in the Results section.

175 The principle of the Attentive-CNN of the second stage is to process the data considered to be of
176 possibly high quality based on the discrimination stage described above. The stage acts on a more
177 limited interval, when a more refine analysis is requested to detect subtle waveform differences of
178 the signal, in order to classify it. Such analysis was found to be more suitable for learning-based
179 methods.

180 In this work, we also investigate the impact of this two-stage classification on three state-of-the-art
181 attention-based PPG classification methods: Additive Attention Layer (AAL), Dot Product Atten-
182 tion Layer (DPAL) and Non-Scaled Dot Product Attention Layer (NSDPAL), described on (Silva
183 et al., 2024), besides the composite classifiers Differential Attention and Differential-Integral Atten-
184 tion Layers to be defined in Sections 2.4 and 2.5, respectively.

185 2.4 DIFFERENTIAL ATTENTION
186

187 The Differential (DIFF) attention mechanism (Ye et al., 2024) works through mapping query, key,
188 and value vectors to the final outputs, using query and key vectors to compute intermediate attention
189 scores, which are then used to compute a final weighted sum of value vectors. The most crucial
190 step of the proposed design is using paired softmax functions for noise canceling in the intermediate
191 attention scores. The last tanh layer of the CNN from first stage produces vectors $X \in R^{N \times d_{model}}$,
192 with d_{model} the hidden dimension of the model, which are considered inputs to the differential
193 attention mechanism. Such inputs are initially projected to corresponding query vectors $Q_1, Q_2 \in$
194 $R^{N \times d}$, key vectors $K_1, K_2 \in R^{N \times d}$, and value vectors $V \in R^{N \times 2d}$. The dimension factor d is
195 given by $d = d_{model}/2h$, with h the number of attention heads, here set to $h = 1$. Afterwards, the
196 differential attention operator $\text{DiffAttn}(\cdot)$ calculates the respective outputs as:

$$[Q_1; Q_2] = XW^Q, [K_1; K_2] = XW^K, V = XW^V \quad (3)$$

$$\text{DiffAttn}(X) = \left(\sigma \left(\frac{Q_1 K_1^T}{\sqrt{d}} \right) - \lambda \sigma \left(\frac{Q_2 K_2^T}{\sqrt{d}} \right) \right) V, \quad (4)$$

200 where $\sigma(\cdot)$ is the softmax function

$$\sigma(z_i) = \frac{e^{z_i}}{\sum_{j=1}^K e^{z_j}}, \quad \text{for } i = 1, 2, \dots, K \quad (5)$$

204 with $W^Q, W^K, W^V \in R^{d_{model} \times 2d}$ being trainable parameters, while λ is a learnable scalar value.
205 With the purpose of synchronizing the learning dynamics, the scalar λ is reparameterized as:

$$\lambda = e^{(\lambda_{q1} \cdot \lambda_{k1})} - e^{(\lambda_{q2} \cdot \lambda_{k2})} + \lambda_{init} \quad (6)$$

208 where $\{\lambda_{q1}, \lambda_{k1}, \lambda_{q2}, \lambda_{k2}\} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ are learnable vectors, and $\lambda_{init} \in [0, 1]$ is a constant used for
209 the initialization of λ . The best value of λ_{init} was empirically searched along the range of $[0, 1]$,
210 reporting each tested value in the metric tables. The experimental results show that the performance
211 varies slightly along different values of initialization.

212 Thus, the Differential attention mechanism computes the difference between two softmax attention
213 functions, as a way of eliminating attention noise. The proposed idea can be shown to be analogous
214 to that of differential amplifiers (Laplante, 2018), more commonly studied in the electrical engineer-
215 ing domain, in which the difference between two signals being taken as output, as a way to do away
with the so-called common-mode noise of the input.

216 2.5 DIFFERENTIAL INTEGRAL ATTENTION
217

218 Differential Integral (DINT) attention (Cang et al., 2025) is an extension of the differential (DIFF)
219 attention which introduces an additional integral mechanism, that enhances the model’s capability
220 of extracting globally relevant information while retaining numerical stability through the normal-
221 ization of rows in the corresponding final attention matrix. The attention matrix A_1 of the signal is
222 calculated using Q_1 and K_1 :

$$223 \quad A_1 = \sigma \left(\frac{Q_1 K_1^T}{\sqrt{d}} \right) \quad (7)$$

225 The integral mechanism computes the global attention importance scores through averaging the
226 signal attention weights across each column:

$$227 \quad 228 \quad G = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{m=1}^N A_1 [m, n], \quad (8)$$

229 with $G \in \mathbf{R}^{1 \times N}$ then being expanded for matching the dimensions of the differential mechanism:

$$230 \quad 231 \quad G_{expanded} = \text{repeat}(G, N), \quad (9)$$

232 with $G_{expanded} \in \mathbf{R}^{N \times N}$ being constructed by repeating G along N rows. Thus, the full
233 Differential-Integral attention mechanism, represented by the DINT operator, calculates the output
234 as:

$$235 \quad 236 \quad DINT(X) = (A_{diff} + \gamma G_{expanded}) V, \quad (10)$$

237 with γ being a scalar, A_{diff} being the differential attention mechanism, and $G_{expanded}$ being the
238 expanded matrix of global importance scores. Usually, λ and γ are set to equal values for ensuring
239 that the resulting attention matrix A_{final} has rows summing up to 1. This normalization of rows
240 assures numerical stability and consistency along the model, what increases data stability across
241 layers. This unified configuration follows the method of parameterization used in the original DIFF
242 Transformer, as a means of further increasing stability during training.

243 In the present work, we proposed to enhance one-stage and two-stage CNN-based PPG classifica-
244 tion (Luca et al., 2022) by adopting both Differential and Differential-Integral attention mecha-
245 nisms replacing the GlobalAveragePooling1D layer of the NAS-optimized CNN. We hereby refer to
246 the two composite classifiers as Differential Dot-Product Attention Layer (DFPAL) and Differential-
247 Integral Dot-Product Attention Layer (DINTAL), respectively.

249 3 EXPERIMENTAL SETUP
250

251 To assess the performance of the proposed architectures outlined in Figure 3, we compare the iden-
252 tified neural network classifiers against the state-of-the-art SQC method using the same evaluation
253 process on four distinct datasets:

- 254 • GW5: Comprising 149 sessions lasting approximately 35 minutes each, with 119 utilized
255 for training and 30 for testing. PPG samples were obtained with Samsung Galaxy Watch 5.
- 256 • GW6: Consisting of 94 sessions lasting around 35 minutes each, with 75 dedicated to train-
257 ing and 19 assigned to testing. PPG readings were collected utilizing a Samsung Galaxy
258 Watch 6.
- 259 • GW7: Including 37 sessions lasting approximately 35 minutes each, with 30 allocated for
260 training and 7 designated for testing. PPG readings were acquired using a Samsung Galaxy
261 Watch 7.
- 262 • RING: Comprised of 73 sessions lasting roughly 35 minutes each, with 59 reserved for
263 training and 14 set aside for testing. PPG readings were obtained using a Samsung Galaxy
264 Ring.
- 265

266 For each Galaxy Watch subject, the PPG sensor was carefully positioned on the wrist over the radial
267 artery to optimize signal acquisition. For Galaxy Ring subjects, the device was inserted in the
268 finger which provided the best adherence to the skin. Data was gathered under resting conditions,
269 with participants instructed to sit or lie down in a quiet environment. The quality of the signals

270 in the datasets was manually labeled by a cardiologist expert, taking into account the waveform
 271 characteristics and the dataset’s purpose of measuring Interbeat Intervals (IBIs).

272 The PPG signals were partitioned into non-overlapping 3-second windows, each containing 75 samples.
 273 To prepare for the learning phase, each segment was labeled depending on whether the proportion
 274 of high-quality samples exceeded a given threshold: segments with more than or equal to 50%
 275 high-quality signal were classified as ‘reliable’, while others were deemed ‘unreliable’.

276 For the experiments, we separated the data into training and test sets. Validation subsets were ran-
 277 domly selected from the training set. During training, we utilized data and corresponding labels
 278 from 64% of the subjects in each assessment group. For validation, we chose data from 16% of
 279 the subjects in each group. The remaining 20% of subjects in each group were reserved for testing
 280 the proposed methods and the entire pipeline. It is crucial to note that the signal segments used in
 281 the experiments were organized according to the subject they belonged to. This ensured that there
 282 was no overlap between training and testing sets, preventing potential training biases from influen-
 283 cing testing results. For our proposed method, we concurrently performed an ablation of the λ_{init}
 284 parameters across the range of values in $\{0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4, 0.5, 0.6, 0.7, 0.8, 0.9, 0.99\}$.

285 For implementing the DL models, we used Keras 2.9.0 and Python 3.8.17. For the remaining classi-
 286 fiers, we used scikit-learn 1.3.0. All models underwent 5 trials of 100 training epochs each, with the
 287 resulting test set performance metrics being averaged across all trials. To gauge the performance of
 288 both the proposed and state-of-the-art methods, we compared the predicted quality indices with the
 289 pre-labeled indices provided in the benchmark dataset using Accuracy, Precision, Recall, F1-Score,
 290 AUC, Coverage, Matthews Correlation Coefficient (MCC), and Cohen’s Kappa metrics. For more
 291 information on these metrics, refer to (Dalianis & Dalianis, 2018).

293 4 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

294 We have implemented 10 models adopting additive attention (AAL), dot-product attention (DPAL),
 295 non-scaled dot-product attention (NSDPAL), differential dot-product attention (DFPAL) and
 296 differential-integral dot-product attention (DINTAL) mechanisms in Attentive-CNN or Two-Stage
 297 architectures. Then, their performance was compared against 6 benchmarks based on convolutional
 298 neural networks (Lucafo1 and Lucafo 2), descriptor features (CASLBP SGD, CASLTP SGD and
 299 LBP SGD) and sets of rules (Hao & Bo), considering the cardiologist label as the ground-truth.

300 The average performance metrics for our proposed method with DFPAL, as well as baseline out-
 301 of-the-box classifiers and state-of-the-art attention-based PPG classification methods, are shown in
 302 Table 1. It can be observed that architectures adopting DINTAL and DFPAL mechanisms generally
 303 outperform other methods in terms of accuracy, F1-score, AUC, MCC and Cohen’s Kappa.

304 Regarding model size, Figure 2 shows that the required increase in the model total size of the pro-
 305 posed composite DFPAL and DINTAL methods is not proportionally substantial when compared to
 306 the attention-based state-of-the-art comparison methods. The increase in model size is significative
 307 when compared with lower-performing methods, such as LBP, CASLBP and CASLTP. When mem-
 308 ory and computational burden restrictions are too strict, such memory-performance trade-offs may
 309 have to be taken into consideration.

310 Analysing the impact of λ_{init} parameter on the test set metrics of the model, Figures 3, 4, 5, and
 311 6 show how the performance metrics vary with such free parameter in each dataset. The values of
 312 accuracy, precision, recall and F1-score are generally stable, while AUC, MCC and Cohen’s Kappa
 313 may vary substantially. Two-Stage architectures adopting DFPAL and DINTAL mechanisms are
 314 considerably more sensitive to λ_{init} selection than Attention-CNN architectures. Hence, fine-tuning
 315 step can be critical for the desirable high performance in such cases.

316 5 CONCLUSIONS

317 Wearable health monitoring apps benefit greatly from PPG technology, especially when worn on
 318 the wrist. Its configuration is simple, convenient, low-complexity, and cost-effective. Despite these
 319 advantages, PPG signals are vulnerable to significant degradation due to various factors, primarily
 320 motion artifacts, which can distort the waveform morphology, impacting subsequent signal analysis.

324	Dataset	Model	Accuracy	Precision	Recall	F1-Score	AUC	Coverage	MCC	Kappa
325	GW5	Att-CNN+DFPAL	0.9736	0.9797	0.9964	0.9864	0.7330	0.9830	0.5714	0.5562
326		Att-CNN+DINTAL	0.9737	0.9796	0.9961	0.9865	0.7318	0.9825	0.5740	0.5584
327		Two-Stage+DFPAL	0.9709	0.9887	0.9914	0.9849	0.8406	0.9761	0.5829	0.5778
328		Two-Stage+DINTAL	0.9695	0.9873	0.9871	0.9842	0.8265	0.9697	0.6020	0.5979
329		Att-CNN+AAL	0.9722	0.9765	0.9951	0.9857	0.6904	0.9808	0.5285	0.4937
330		Att-CNN+DPAL	0.9732	0.9783	0.9942	0.9862	0.7148	0.9781	0.5582	0.5352
331		Att-CNN+NSDPAL	0.9734	0.9791	0.9936	0.9863	0.7249	0.9767	0.5676	0.5500
332		Two-Stage+AAL	0.9707	0.9803	0.9895	0.9848	0.7396	0.9715	0.5462	0.5325
333		Two-Stage+DPAL	0.9632	0.9816	0.9803	0.9808	0.7523	0.9614	0.5124	0.4911
334		Two-Stage+NSDPAL	0.9708	0.9801	0.9897	0.9849	0.7376	0.9719	0.5466	0.5333
335	GW6	Lucaf01 (Lucafo et al., 2022)	0.9720	0.9794	0.9918	0.9855	0.7284	0.9746	0.5526	0.5398
336		Lucaf02 (Lucafo et al., 2022)	0.9677	0.9778	0.9890	0.9833	0.7056	0.9736	0.4866	0.4622
337		CASLBP SGD (Garcia Freitas et al., 2025)	0.9647	0.9710	0.9930	0.9819	0.6174	0.9841	0.3584	0.3238
338		CASLTP SGD (Garcia Freitas et al., 2025)	0.9631	0.9643	0.9986	0.9812	0.5260	0.9967	0.0774	0.0711
339		LBP SGD (Garcia Freitas et al., 2025)	0.9638	0.9700	0.9932	0.9814	0.6033	0.9854	0.2944	0.2740
340		Hao & Bo (Hao & Bo, 2021)	0.5808	0.9702	0.5823	0.7278	0.5619	0.5776	0.0477	0.0209
341		Att-CNN+DFPAL	0.7212	0.7351	0.9985	0.8147	0.6378	0.9806	0.3342	0.2841
342		Att-CNN+DINTAL	0.7194	0.7571	0.9982	0.8104	0.6484	0.9825	0.3367	0.2922
343		Two-Stage+DFPAL	0.8967	0.9301	0.9234	0.9192	0.8925	0.6468	0.7786	0.7776
344		Two-Stage+DINTAL	0.8952	0.9274	0.9227	0.9183	0.8897	0.6475	0.7733	0.7733
345	GW7	Att-CNN+AAL	0.6915	0.7033	0.9511	0.7996	0.5909	0.8857	0.2703	0.1910
346		Att-CNN+DPAL	0.6598	0.6563	0.9832	0.7871	0.5345	0.9583	0.1713	0.0853
347		Att-CNN+NSDPAL	0.6891	0.6911	0.9691	0.8017	0.5806	0.9110	0.2528	0.1737
348		Two-Stage+AAL	0.8967	0.9183	0.9210	0.9194	0.8872	0.6419	0.7765	0.7755
349		Two-Stage+DPAL	0.8931	0.9158	0.9174	0.9165	0.8837	0.6409	0.7684	0.7679
350		Two-Stage+NSDPAL	0.8962	0.9172	0.9210	0.9190	0.8866	0.6423	0.7748	0.7745
351		Lucaf01 (Lucafo et al., 2022)	0.7006	0.7069	0.9427	0.8035	0.6068	0.8657	0.2847	0.2318
352		Lucaf02 (Lucafo et al., 2022)	0.8960	0.9266	0.9099	0.9179	0.8906	0.6284	0.7767	0.7758
353		CASLBP SGD (Garcia Freitas et al., 2025)	0.8487	0.8709	0.8965	0.8835	0.8302	0.6586	0.6688	0.6681
354		CASLTP SGD (Garcia Freitas et al., 2025)	0.6396	0.6396	1.0000	0.7802	0.5000	1.0000	0.0000	0.0000
355	RING	LBP SGD (Garcia Freitas et al., 2025)	0.8545	0.8794	0.8954	0.8873	0.8386	0.6514	0.6824	0.6821
356		Hao & Bo (Hao & Bo, 2021)	0.4109	0.9395	0.0844	0.1549	0.5374	0.0575	0.1542	0.0552
357		Att-CNN+DFPAL	0.9555	0.9551	1.0000	0.9762	0.7473	0.9942	0.6738	0.6325
358		Att-CNN+DINTAL	0.9533	0.9547	0.9996	0.9750	0.7444	0.9709	0.6569	0.6202
359		Two-Stage+DFPAL	0.9623	0.9765	0.9895	0.9796	0.8625	0.9333	0.7405	0.7356
360		Two-Stage+DINTAL	0.9626	0.9752	0.9887	0.9979	0.8551	0.9327	0.7465	0.7416
361		Att-CNN+AAL	0.9532	0.9526	0.9985	0.9750	0.7325	0.9589	0.6527	0.6044
362		Att-CNN+DPAL	0.9521	0.9520	0.9980	0.9745	0.7290	0.9590	0.6444	0.5982
363		Att-CNN+NSDPAL	0.9503	0.9491	0.9993	0.9735	0.7117	0.9633	0.6276	0.5694
364		Two-Stage+AAL	0.9599	0.9759	0.9805	0.9782	0.8600	0.9191	0.7380	0.7367
365	RING	Two-Stage+DPAL	0.9608	0.9677	0.9902	0.9788	0.8176	0.9361	0.7255	0.7153
366		Two-Stage+NSDPAL	0.9607	0.9754	0.9819	0.9786	0.8580	0.9209	0.7416	0.7393
367		Lucaf01 (Lucafo et al., 2022)	0.9536	0.9616	0.9888	0.9750	0.7822	0.9407	0.6750	0.6574
368		Lucaf02 (Lucafo et al., 2022)	0.9607	0.9698	0.9879	0.9788	0.8284	0.9320	0.7290	0.7201
369		CASLBP SGD (Garcia Freitas et al., 2025)	0.9295	0.9297	0.9984	0.9628	0.5938	0.9824	0.3971	0.2901
370		CASLTP SGD (Garcia Freitas et al., 2025)	0.9231	0.9231	0.9993	0.9596	0.5517	0.9905	0.1896	0.1535
371		LBP SGD (Garcia Freitas et al., 2025)	0.9296	0.9292	0.9992	0.9629	0.5904	0.9838	0.3580	0.2760
372		Hao & Bo (Hao & Bo, 2021)	0.6383	0.9302	0.6536	0.7678	0.5634	0.6428	0.0739	0.0518
373		Att-CNN+DFPAL	0.8794	0.8761	0.9940	0.9279	0.7381	0.9017	0.6105	0.5707
374		Att-CNN+DINTAL	0.8784	0.8760	0.9934	0.9275	0.7372	0.9013	0.6082	0.5666
375	RING	Two-Stage+DFPAL	0.9030	0.9479	0.9349	0.9380	0.8663	0.7803	0.7154	0.7152
376		Two-Stage+DINTAL	0.9045	0.9494	0.9374	0.9390	0.8679	0.7824	0.7183	0.7181
377		Att-CNN+AAL	0.8776	0.8706	0.9918	0.9272	0.7260	0.8947	0.6043	0.5526
378		Att-CNN+DPAL	0.8764	0.8696	0.9912	0.9264	0.7240	0.8950	0.6004	0.5500
379		Att-CNN+NSDPAL	0.8794	0.8723	0.9915	0.9281	0.7306	0.8924	0.6115	0.5632
380		Two-Stage+AAL	0.8936	0.9492	0.9134	0.9308	0.8673	0.7555	0.7033	0.7003
381		Two-Stage+DPAL	0.8958	0.9412	0.9252	0.9331	0.8568	0.7718	0.6990	0.6980
382		Two-Stage+NSDPAL	0.8917	0.9471	0.9133	0.9297	0.8631	0.7572	0.6973	0.6941
383		Lucaf01 (Lucafo et al., 2022)	0.8836	0.8787	0.9883	0.9302	0.7446	0.8831	0.6262	0.5860
384		Lucaf02 (Lucafo et al., 2022)	0.8994	0.9417	0.9297	0.9355	0.8592	0.7753	0.7081	0.7066
385	RING	CASLBP SGD (Garcia Freitas et al., 2025)	0.8424	0.8602	0.9545	0.9048	0.6936	0.8713	0.4753	0.4528
386		CASLTP SGD (Garcia Freitas et al., 2025)	0.8148	0.8218	0.9821	0.8935	0.5930	0.9421	0.2171	0.2110
387		LBP SGD (Garcia Freitas et al., 2025)	0.8492	0.8704	0.9493	0.9081	0.7164	0.8563	0.5068	0.4919
388		Hao & Bo (Hao & Bo, 2021)	0.6180	0.8368	0.6379	0.7239	0.5917	0.5985	0.1536	0.1394

Table 1: Performance comparison of the best DFPAL and DINTAL models, with and without the Two-Stage Classification pipeline, alongside baseline attention layers (AAL, DPAL, NSDPAL) and other state-of-the-art methods on benchmark datasets. All methods were trained for five trials over 1000 epochs, with test metrics averaged across trials.



Figure 2: Model Size Comparison across proposed attention-based solutions and state-of-the-art comparison methods. Both one-stage and two-stage compositions are considered.

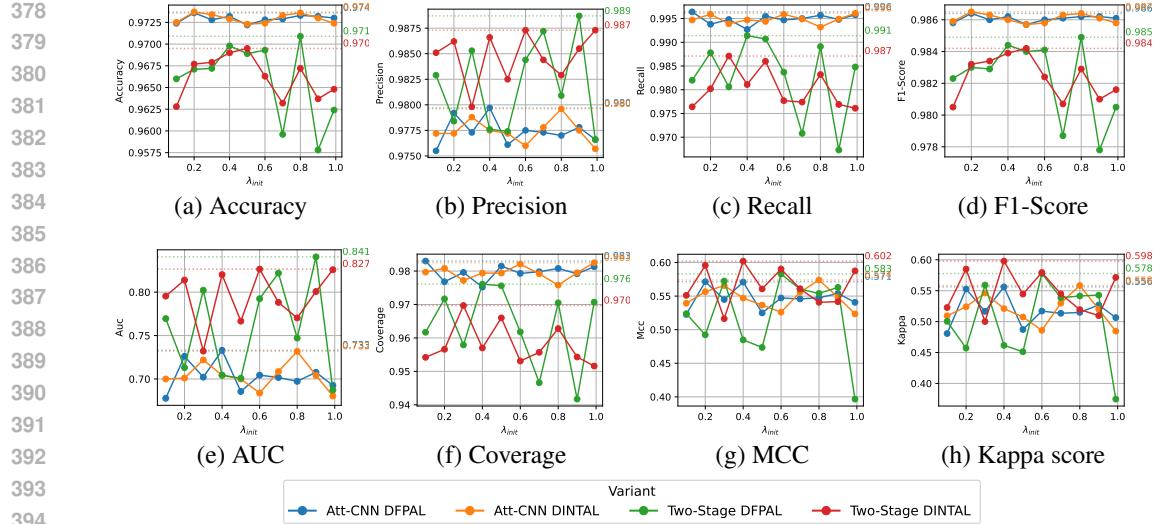


Figure 3: Performance comparison of DFPAL and DINTAL, with and without Two-Stage Classification pipeline, across several values of λ_{init} on **GW5** PPG dataset. All the methods were trained for 5 trials and 1000 epochs. The test set performance metrics were then averaged across all trials.

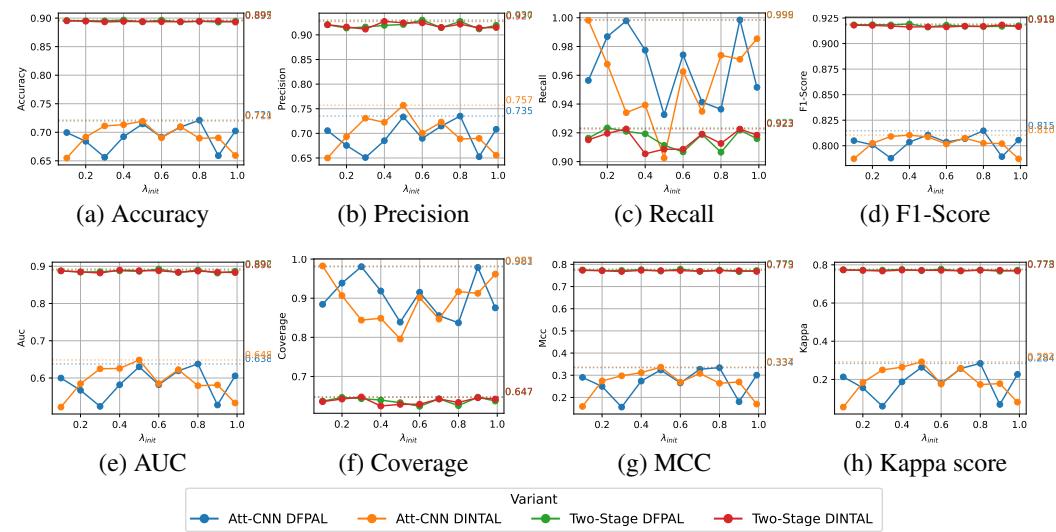


Figure 4: Performance comparison of DFPAL and DINTAL, with and without Two-Stage Classification pipeline, across several values of λ_{init} on **GW6** PPG dataset. All the methods were trained for 5 trials and 1000 epochs. The test set performance metrics were then averaged across all trials.

Erroneous decisions and misjudgments resulting from unreliable signals are unacceptable for HMA. Thus, assessing PPG signal quality is essential to prevent misinterpretation and differentiate between reliable and noisy signals. To address this, in this study we leveraged ML models to develop robust and high-performing models for classifying PPG segments with the purpose of estimating SQA.

Efficient Differential and Differential-Integral Attentive and Convolutional (CNN)-based approaches have been explored in this work to classify PPG signal segments as usable or not, further verifying their effectiveness by applying them to four distinct expert-annotated photoplethysmographic datasets. The task they performed is framed as a binary classification problem and plays a vital role in enabling reliable HMA, particularly in wearable devices. By employing NAS-based techniques, we discovered a baseline CNN architecture that is small enough to be deployed on embedded devices, facilitating real-time wearable HMA. Furthermore, we demonstrate that incorpo-

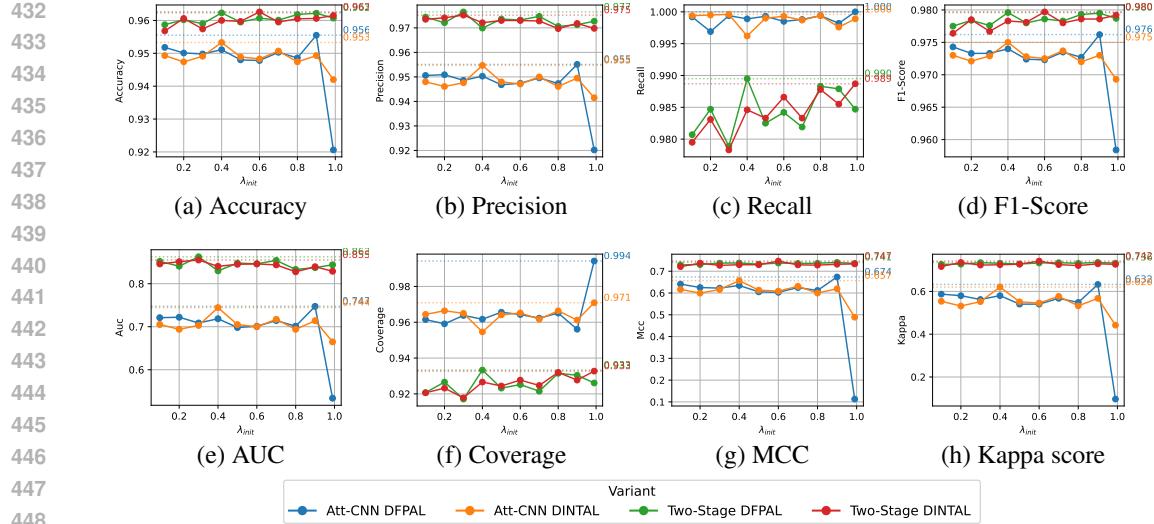


Figure 5: Performance comparison of DFPAL and DINTAL, with and without Two-Stage Classification pipeline, across several values of λ_{init} on GW7 PPG dataset. All the methods were trained for 5 trials and 1000 epochs. The test set performance metrics were then averaged across all trials.

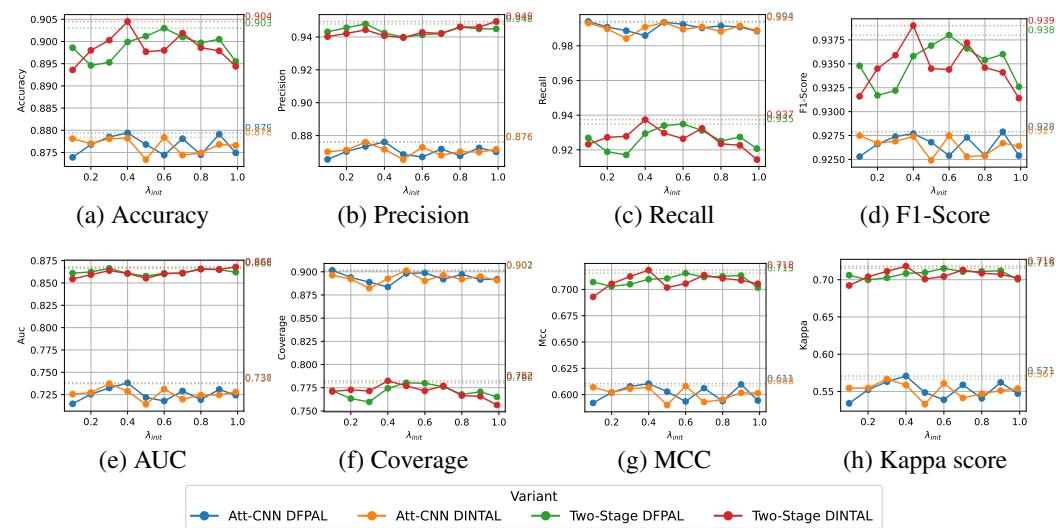


Figure 6: Performance comparison of DFPAL and DINTAL, with and without Two-Stage Classification pipeline, across several values of λ_{init} on RING PPG dataset. All the methods were trained for 5 trials and 1000 epochs. The test set performance metrics were then averaged across all trials.

rating an additional fine-tuned differential attention layer enhances the performance of the baseline CNN, effectively boosting classification metrics without incurring significant additional computational costs.

DECLARATION OF GENERATIVE AI AND AI-ASSISTED TECHNOLOGIES IN THE WRITING

During the preparation of this work the authors used ChatGPT™ and Grammarly™ to review English usage and grammatical correction. After using these tools, the authors reviewed and edited the content as needed and take full responsibility for the content of the publication.

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