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Understanding smartphone notifications' user interactions and content importance☆

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ABSTRACT

We present the results of our experiment aimed to comprehensively understand the combination of 1) how smartphone users interact with their notifications, 2) what notification content is considered important, 3) the complex relationship between the interaction choices and content importance, and lastly 4) establish an intelligent method to predict user's preference to seeing an incoming notification. We use a dataset of notifications received by 40 anonymous users in-the-wild, which consists of 1) qualitative user-labelled information about their preferences on notification's contents, 2) notification source, and 3) the context in which the notification was received. We assess the effectiveness of personalised prediction models generated using a combination of self-reported content importance and contextual information. We uncover four distinct user types, based on the number of daily notifications and interaction choices. We showcase how usage traits of these groups highlight the requirement for notification filtering approaches, *e.g.*, when specific users habitually neglect to manually filter out unimportant notifications. Our machine learning-based predictor, based on both contextual sensing and notification contents can predict the user's preference for successfully acknowledging an incoming notification with 91.1% mean accuracy, crucial for time-critical user engagement and interventions.

1. Introduction

Mobile notifications allow applications to inform users of incoming messages, new system events, and reminders, without requiring explicit interaction. Users receive upwards from 60 daily notifications (Pielot et al., 2014; Shirazi et al., 2014), of which many are considered unimportant by the recipient. In response, researchers aim to reduce the interruptive nature of unwanted notifications (Mehrotra et al., 2016; Okoshi et al., 2015; Oliveira et al., 2014; Poppinga et al., 2014) via sensing technologies or by understanding the qualitative nature of notifications. While a large body of work exists on predicting notification-driven interruptibility through situational context, these methods fail to capture the other side of the challenge - is a notification important to the user. Thus, there is a need for better understanding of the relationship between interacting with notifications – how users choose to interact – and the perceived importance of the notification contents.

Here, we aim to understand the underlying importance of individual notifications, how users interact with them, and which factors influence their interaction choices. To investigate the motivation for interacting with notifications, we use self-reported information about the importance of notification contents, notification source, as well as the context of presentation. We capture the motivation in terms of notifications the user would prefer to see regardless of the interaction, *e.g.*, notifications that should be presented even if habitually ignored or dismissed, and the notifications that the user might consider irrelevant or disrupting. Our findings highlight the diverse nature of users'

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Our submission consists of total of 11.5K words and is included in this document starting from page four. All figures should be colorized, when applicable, and are included within the submission.

☆ We hereby declare that we, the authors, nor any corresponding financial or governing body affiliated with this submission have no competing or other interests that might influence our work.

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strategy for manually filtering out notifications in terms of how often users opt to interact with notifications and the interaction choices, and the ever-present need for a notification management system, aiming to prevent information overload - especially considering how frequently users neglect to manually filter out excess notifications.

We also evaluate a notification management system based on these principles. Our system predicts notification importance based on semantic analysis of the similarity of arriving notification and previous notifications. The system also passively collects information about the user's context and combines the aforementioned importance with user context to create a detailed prediction model used to assess whether the user wishes to see the new notification or not. This combined approach shows vast improvements over previous similar systems, highlighting how understanding notification contents can further increase prediction accuracy in filtering out unwanted notifications.

2. Related work

The role of smartphones has moved away from simple messaging and news-reading to an extended tool aiming to help the user in other aspects of life, *e.g.*, personal health, work, or keeping up with larger social circles, noteworthy when presenting notifications from different, but equally important sources (Gouveia et al., 2015). The notification content (Fischer et al., 2010) and the identification of opportune moments for presenting notifications (Fischer et al., 2011; Iqbal and Bailey, 2008; Pejovic and Musolesi, 2014; Poppinga et al., 2014) both play a vital role in notifications' receptivity. Additional factors also impact the pursuant interactions, such as social relationships in case of messaging applications (Mehrotra et al., 2016).

Mehrotra et al.'s PrefMiner (Mehrotra et al., 2016) is a tool for mining user's notification preferences and to generate intelligent and easily understandable rules to hide or show selected notifications. PrefMiner generates suggestions like ("Stop notifications from Facebook that contain 'candy' and 'crush' words in the title"). The article also confirms the notion of reminder notifications; notifications that contain important information from the calendar or alarm events, and that such notifications are habitually dismissed. Other work uses context-awareness (Ho and Intille, 2005; Oliveira et al., 2014) and identified breakpoints (*e.g.*, breaks between application use) in smartphone usage activities (Fischer et al., 2011) to predict user interruptibility. Clark (Clark, 1996) finds that the user's response to an interruption can be: a) acknowledgment and an agreement to handle the interruption later (*i.e.*, defer) or b) a decline to handle the interruption (*i.e.*, dismiss). The previous work on interruptibility focus on three methods for mitigating interruptive effects of *e.g.*, notifications or incoming calls. These are i) defer (Dingler and Pielot, 2015; Iqbal and Bailey, 2008), ii) dismiss (Mehrotra et al., 2016), or iii) identifying opportune moments for interruption delivery (Pielot et al., 2017).

Applications rely on mobile notifications to present information to the user, to request their attention, or to elicit phone use. As more applications trigger notifications, the amount of daily notifications is drastically increased (Pielot et al., 2014; Shirazi et al., 2014). Users select which notifications to interact with (*i.e.*, click) and which to dismiss (*i.e.*, swipe away). Such choice can depend on a multitude of factors associated with either notification contents or presentation context (Fischer et al., 2010; Mehrotra et al., 2016). Notifications are inherently disruptive and distractive (Shirazi et al., 2014). Leiva et al. (2012) tried to overcome disruptions by either preparing the user to be interrupted or guiding the user when returning to the task. Alas, users do place value on receiving notifications, as long as the sources are of importance to them (Shirazi et al., 2014). For example, Samahi Shirazi et al.'s large-scale assessment of mobile notifications validates that users value notifications differently depending on the notifications' source. Some notifications are expected to be swiped away – triggered by user-initiated actions (*e.g.*, download completed) or from system events (*e.g.*, battery running low) – accomplishing a simple goal of informing the user. While a portion of notifications are deemed as unimportant or unwanted, only a fraction of mobile phone users consciously manage their notification settings (Westermann et al., 2015).

Notifications from messaging applications and updates on people or events, such as the news, are deemed important (Fischer et al., 2010; Shirazi et al., 2014). Meanwhile, notifications not associated with communication applications are often received less favorably (Lopez-Tovar et al., 2015; Mehrotra et. al., 2015). Whether this reduced attention is due to being overwhelmed with other (mainly communication) notifications, or because of the actual content is perceived as less useful, is yet to be explored. The use of computer-mediated communication is also shown to be an indicator of user availability and openness to further cues (Mathur et al., 2016; Pielot, 2014; Pielot et al., 2015), which begs to question whether the user's current state of mind is influenced by communication applications to be more receptacle to interruptions, or whether the use of communication applications showcases breaks in concentrations and other tasks. Identifying such breakpoints in smartphone usage has been shown to be a valuable tool in recognising opportune moments for notification delivery (Fischer et al., 2011).

From the viewpoint of context influencing attentiveness, previous literature has taken either the approach of evaluating the influence of single variables, or comprehensive systems considering a combination of contextual factors. The effect of time of day alone has been shown not to be a sufficient variable (Westermann et al.,2016). Another consideration was the influence of the user's physical location on notification attentiveness, but while a user was shown to be more available while at work (Sarker et al., 2014), the response times to notifications to did not vary depending on location (Mehrotra et al., 2015). Physical activity, namely the breaks between activities, often indicate attentiveness (Ho and Intille, 2005). Similarly, any task or activity requiring concentration is shown to be a poor moment for interruptions (Pejovic et al., 2015). Other smartphone-based sensors can also extend this understanding, *e.g.*, the ringer mode and vibration settings are shown to influence the speed at which people attend to new messages and notifications (Pielot et al., 2014; Oliveira et al., 2014). Pielot et al. (Oliveira et al., 2014) show that simple features extracted from the phone can predict attentiveness to mobile instant messages and reduce the interruptive nature of such generated notifications. The user's attentiveness to presented notifications and engaging with notifications can be measured in more detail via machine learning models (Pielot et al., 2017). Fischer et al. (2010) analyse the impact of mobile notifications' content and their timing on user receptivity and conclude that content is a more important factor than timing when considering the interruptive nature of notifications. Okoshi et al. (2017) deployed a large-scale interruptibility estimation logic and demonstrated that by deferring notifications to a more appropriate time of the day the response time can be significantly reduced. Previously, they investigated ways to reduce the user's cognitive load due to interrupting notifications (Okoshi, 2017). Lastly, De Russis and Roffarello considered ways to include user preferences, in addition to context, in notification delivery (Russis and Roffarello, 2017).

While a larger portion of previous work aims at identifying opportune moments for delivering notifications similar to the opt-in concept (*i.e.*, when should a notification be shown), another approach is aimed at comprehensively managing notifications through opting out of unwanted notifications. Mehrotra et al. (2016) suggest that usable interruptibility and notification management systems should attempt to achieve the goal of reducing interruptions without compromising the reception of any useful and important information. Useful measurements for notifications' acceptance include response time (Fischer et al., 2011; Oliveira et al., 2014), and click rates (Mehrotra et al., 2016; Shirazi et al., 2014). Dismissed notifications are considered either rejected or unwanted by the user. However, the content of such notifications can still be of value to the user - we argue that dismissed

notifications may contain valuable content and should be considered as acknowledged and having fulfilled their purpose. Assuming these notifications are always unwanted will undeniably lead to reducing the amount of useful and important information to the user, thus compromising the main goal of notification management systems.

2.1. Contribution

Previous literature has analysed smartphone notifications from the stance of i) notifications as a source of distraction, or ii) methods to mitigate notifications as distractions with the use of notification management techniques. The end outcomes of notifications in terms of interactions - *"what happens to notifications and why?"* - and which factors influence this decision, remain underexplored. The main contribution of our work is to develop a systematic understanding of notifications – *which types of notifications* are considered important, *how* users interact with notifications, and *why*. Finally, our contributions include a deeper understanding of the underlying reasons for interaction choices via combining contextual and qualitative information and showcase how to improve the intelligence of notification management systems by merging these two information sources.

The paper is structured as follows: first, we start by describing the data collection methodology and analysis used to determine the relationship between content importance and user's interaction choices with notifications. Second, we uncover distinct manual notification filtering mechanisms identified from within our study participants. Third, we describe our implemented combined notification management system and its effectiveness. While each section briefly discusses the significance of these results, a full-fledged discussion is included at the end of the paper.

3. Notification diary

We developed an application called Notification Diary to collect contextual and user-originated qualitative information about notifications - the user-perceived importance of the notifications - and how users interacted with those notifications. We deployed Notification Diary on Google's Play Store and made intermittent advertisement campaigns using social media, and on our university campus. The data collection occurred during the first quarter of 2017 (*i.e.*, January - March). The application contains a consent form and information about the purpose of the application, *i.e.*, data collection for research purposes, and includes both a short tutorial and guidelines on how to appropriately use the application. These ensure all participants are equally informed of the experiment and the capabilities of the application. A total of 40 anonymous users installed and used the application for an average of 12.2 days (SD = 14.41, ranging from 3 to 73 days, IQR = 4–7). We collected the demographic information available in Google's Play Store application analytics, but this information merely shows the installation country, and thus we have no further information on the users.

The Notification Diary application essentially has three modalities, which overlap during use. We will briefly introduce each mode here, and then explain further details of the application in the following sections.

- **Mode A - Data Collection and Training**: The application initially begins by simply collecting notification-related information and requests the user to periodically rate past notifications according to their content importance and timing of delivery.
- **Mode B – Predictive Modelling**: After the user has rated 50 past notifications, he is asked to activate the predictive modelling, which will then generate machine learning classifiers that use the historical data collected to predict whether the user would deem an incoming notification important or not – essentially whether the user would wish to see the new notification or not.
- **Mode C – Predictive Intervention**: Lastly, the user has the option to allow the application to intervene with incoming notifications in an experimental mode: based on the predictive modelling, the application will hide incoming notifications it deems unimportant.

Mode A is ubiquitous during use, as it is always activated. The other modes require their predecessors, the user needs to opt into them when prompted, and the user is allowed to opt out at any given time. Thus, the application essentially has three combined modes of operation (mode A activated, $A + B$ activated, or $A + B + C$ activated). **Mode C** is an experimental mode, and it was up to the user to activate and deactivate the mode at their leisure. We did not log when this mode was active, which could be considered a limitation to our experiment. For **Mode B**, we can detect when the mode was activated based on i) the generated machine learning classifiers, and ii) the predictions made by the classifiers (each notification entry is embedded with a prediction even if there is an intervention). The inclusion of **Mode C** also generates a complexity within the experiment, as now the experiment is potentially both observational (**Mode A** and/or **B** activated) and interventional (when **Mode C** is activated).

3.1. Data collection

Notification Diary collects data from notifications on the user's smartphone passively (using background processes and sensor readings) and actively (using retroactive user-reported information). We collect four different types of information: 1) quantitative information logged from the smartphone, 2) contextual information of the situation when the notification arrived, 3) notification information and content (only stored locally on the phone to ensure privacy) and 4) qualitative annotations about the notification content and timing of its presentation, provided by the user. We also collect the end outcome for each notification, *i.e.,* how was it eventually removed – whether the user interacted with the notification via *clicking* or *dismissing* it. The summary of the collected sensor and the user-reported information is presented in Table 1.

3.2. Extracting notification interactions

On Android, access to notifications' state is limited across applications. We implement a method that indirectly infers user interaction via the foreground applications on the smartphone by means of an Accessibility Service. Most notifications allow only simple interactions, *i.e.*, swipe to dismiss, or click to launch the application. Based on this assessment, notification interactions can be extracted by collecting data on the active foreground application after a notification is removed from the notification tray, as shown in Fig. 1.

When a notification is removed from the notification tray (upper part of Android's main interface), it is either removed programmatically or by user interaction. When a notification is removed, we analyse potential foreground activities taking place within the subsequent 7.5 s. Most Android applications can cold start within this time.[1] If the notification's source application package exists as one of the foreground activities within this threshold the interaction is labeled as a *click*. Some edge-cases exist, such as if the foreground application is already the same package as the notification source (*e.g.,* you receive a WhatsApp notification from another group discussion while already actively using the application). In this case when the notification is removed, and the user remains in the same application, we are unable to verify whether the notification was *clicked* or *dismissed*. The interaction for this notification is marked, but not included in either click or dismiss class. We acknowledge that not all notifications are interacted with (*i.e.,*

[1] http://blog.nimbledroid.com/2016/02/17/cold-start-times-of-top-apps.html

Table 1
List of the relevant sensor and user-reported information collected by Notification Diary application.

Contextual information	
Location	User's physical location using geofences that annotate encrypted location identifiers (for *e.g.*, work, home)
Physical activity	Physical activity of the user, using Google Awareness API (walking, still, running, in a vehicle, *etc.*)
Headphone jack	Boolean state of the device headphone jack (whether earphones are plugged in or not)
Ringer mode	State of the device ringer mode (silent, vibration, normal)
Screen state	State of the device screen mode (off, on, locked, unlocked)
Battery information	The battery level (%) of the device, and the charging state (whether the charging cable is plugged in or not)
Network information	Boolean state of Internet connectivity and Wi-Fi availability
Foreground application	The current foreground application on the smartphone, stored as the unique application package name
Notification information	
Source application	The package name of the application emitting the notification
Contents	The title and message text extracted from the notification contents, configured by the application that emitted the notification
Notification outcome	How the notification was eventually removed from the notification tray; due to user clicking or swiping away the notification, being automatically discarded by the system, being replaced, or being hidden by Notification Diary's predictions (refer to Fig. 1)
User labels (UL)	
UL1: importance	The user–perceived importance and/or relevance of the notification contents on scale of 0–5
UL2: timing of notification	The user–perceived interruptive nature of the notification on a scale of 0–5

manually filtered out or clicked), as some are automatically removed or *replaced*. These events are sub-categorised as automated events. Automatically removed notifications are labeled as *system dismissed* and can be removed for various reasons, *e.g.,* the notification timing out, or the information being received on another device.

Replaced notifications are sent by applications that leverage notification stacks[2] (*e.g.* 'You have 4 new messages') to combine multiple notifications. The notifications included in the stack are posted repeatedly and update the same 'title' notification repeatedly. Each individual notification within a stack is also posted repeatedly, causing the amount of arriving notifications to inflate quickly if this behaviour is unaccounted for. Creating a stack of four messages requires an initial message (**1 notification arrived**), the second message (the stack title – You have 2 new messages – arrived, and the two message notifications get repeated resulting in **3 new arriving notifications**), the third (**4 new messages** including the stack title), and the fourth (**5 new messages**). Thus, instead of just receiving four individual notification(s), the stack mechanism results in 13 notifications logged, with the same notifications repeating over and over. With our approach of identifying the replaced notifications, 12 out of these 13 (and beyond) notification events are, in fact, from four individual notifications which become marked as *replaced* and will not interfere with the overall notification count appearing in the user's notification tray. Replaced notifications are also updated in the database instead of the same entry inserted multiple times as an entry. Thus, the *replaced* notifications are effectively child-elements of a notification, can no longer be interacted with, will remain flagged as replaced, but will not artificially inflate the overall notification count.

All applications do not send their notifications according to the standard Android-defined theme and functionality. For example, clicking the Facebook Messenger notification does not create new foreground activity because the application itself is not launched. Clicking on a Google Play Store download and update notification does not launch the application that generated the notification but still eventually causes the notification to be discarded. Thus, we disregard notifications from the following applications: clock, Android system, Play Store downloads, and Facebook Messenger. Processing notifications from these sources would not yield the proper interactions for our analysis. Some notifications also allow interactions within the notification - *e.g.* Spotify ('Next song), Chromecast ('Play'), and WhatsApp ('Reply') - without removing the notification from the tray. The context and notification contents of all notifications that arrive on the device are stored.

Notification Diary can also optionally automatically hide arriving notifications; thus, these notifications are labeled as *hidden*. The process of hiding notifications is based on machine learning predictions, using contextual features, semantic analysis, and information given by the user on content and timing to categorise arriving notification as either *shown* or *hidden*. This process and the associated results are presented later in this paper.

3.3. Labeling notification information

The application stores locally the information from each notification, and retroactively asks the user to label each *dismissed* and *clicked* notification in terms of how important it was (UL1, Table 1), and whether or not the notification was presented at an appropriate time (UL2) in a diary view. Diary view can be accessed by launching the application, or clicking a notification sent occasionally by Notification Diary informing the user of notifications with missing labels. When labeling, the user is given information about the contents of the notification, source application, and the time when the notification was interacted with. An example of the labeling interface - the main screen of the application - is shown inFig. 2. The user can also ignore labeling a certain notification if uncertain ('Unsure' option) of either timing or notification contents, or simply wishes not to give labels for any particular notification ('Skip' option). Lastly, the application includes the option to add comments on each labeled notification.

4. Furthering the knowledge in notification interactions

Total of 40 individuals contributed during our data collection period. 113,197 notifications were generated in the dataset. Summary of the logged notifications and their interactions are displayed in Table 2. On average, users interacted with 12.3% of all notifications (results of rows E and F in Table 2), and the majority of the interactions (78.9%) are swipes. Daily notifications ranged from one notification to 2073 (M = 313.4, SD = 803.2, median = 185, IQR = 64 - 393), and number of daily interactions from zero to 1057 (M = 49.8, SD = 138.6, median = 12.0, IQR = 3.0 - 36.0) *clicks* or *dismisses* (*ie.*, interaction events). Majority of the notifications are *replaced* notifications – indicating that user did not have the opportunity to react to the notification or chose not to - or notifications dismissed by the OS (*'system dismiss'*)

4.1. Content importance

Notifications arriving from different sources are perceived and preferred differently by users (Shirazi et al., 2014). It is considered that user interactions with notifications are directly indicative of the perceived importance or usefulness of the notification (Mehrotra et al.,

[2] https://developer.android.com/guide/topics/ui/notifiers/notifications.html

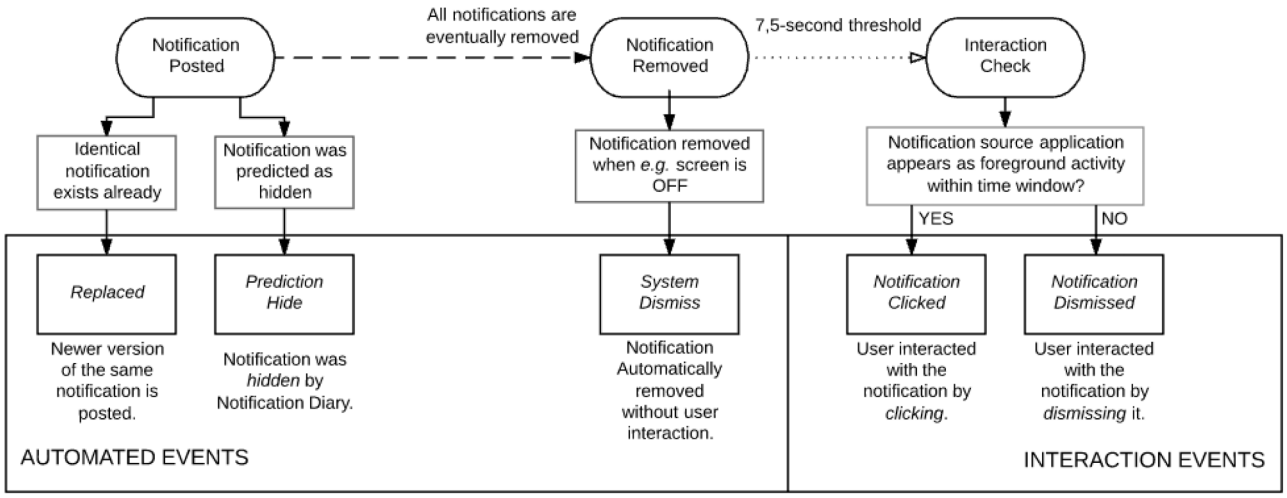

Fig. 1. Overview of notifications' interaction states and events. When a notification is initially posted by the OS, Notification Diary keeps track of already existing notifications and bundles replicated notifications to the 'replaced' class. Once a notification is ultimately discarded, each notification is classified to either being automatically discarded ('System dismiss') or being interacted with via either clicking ('Clicked') or swiping ('Dismissed'). The classification further includes automated events and events where the user explicitly interacts with the nofication.

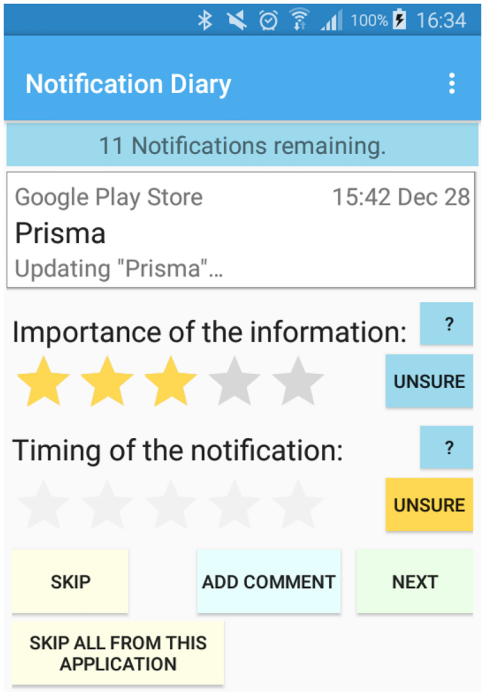

Fig. 2. Interface from Notification Diary application highlighting the user-report process. The top side shows the current assessed notification, then the importance and timing of said notification are evaluated, and the 'Skip' and 'Skip all from this application' allow the user to discard notifications he opts not to evaluate. The default Android Likert scale interface allows a scale of 0–5 Stars at 0.5 star interval, thus 'four and a half-stars' is a possible input. The question mark icon shows a help dialog. User's current choices (3 out of 5, and 'unsure') are highlighted in yellow. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

2016; Okoshi et al., 2017). We first investigate if the relationship between notifications and user interactions is more complex than we previously assumed - *i.e.* is the choice of interaction directly indicative of the notification's perceived importance.

Using the Chi-Squared test, we verify that the distribution of reported content importance (on a scale from 0.5 to 5) is significantly different for the clicked and dismissed notifications ($N = 2077$, $x^2 = 207.9$, df = 10, $p < .05$). The average importance for clicked notifications is 3.91, and 3.22 for the dismissed. However, while 49.2% of the clicked notifications are ranked as high importance (5), 44.2% of the dismissed notifications are similarly ranked as high importance. The significant difference lies in the other end, as 12.6% of the clicked notifications and 28.6% of the dismissed are ranked as low importance (1 or below). As not every notification was labeled with user-provided information, we verify the relationship between reported content importance and interaction choice by investigating the labeled notifications specifically. Using the Chi-Squared test we can verify significance between the two variables ($N = 2077$, $x^2 = 211.07$, df = 9, $p < .05$) and measure an acceptable effect size using Cramer's V (= 0.216).

As it is also reported that the source application of the notification plays a role in its importance, we also wanted to explore whether the interaction choice can apply to determining the importance of a notification, based solely on its source category. We apply an application categorisation of each notification, according to its source application package, resulting in a generic application category (*e.g.,* "Social and Internet", "Productivity", "Games", *etc.*). The application category is retrieved from the Google Play Store and then an additional generic category is applied according to the original category. This gives each notification a source application category from the Play Store, and a more generic category where similar categories are bundled together (*e.g.*, all games, or social media applications). Using the user-given labels of content importance, we measure the effect using Pearson's Chi-Squared test between the reported content importance values, and the application categories. We can verify that the category has an impact on the *content importance* ($N = 2077$, $x^2 = 1517$, df = 190, $p < .05$). However, as seen in Fig. 3 where the categories are ranked according to their mean content importance ('News' highest, 'Weather' lowest), the interactions with notifications (or the user's neglect to interact) from different sources differ drastically, and the reported content importance does not correlate with the interaction selections.

The interaction decision is clearly made separately on a notification-to-notification basis and driven by a combination of factors. Previous work suggests that users selectively prefer notifications from different sources (Fischer et al., 2010; Shirazi et al., 2014), and explicit interaction with the notification is indicative of user preference on ultimately seeing particular notifications (Mehrotra et al., 2016). Here, we show that the interaction alone does not describe these user preferences comprehensively, and larger factors impact the interaction decisions. Consider the following combination of results:

Table 2
An overview of logged notifications, their interactions, and user-labelled information. A more detailed statistical analysis of notifications and their interaction frequency, and different interaction tendencies (*ie.*, neglecting to click certain or all notifications) is presented later in this article.

A	Number of study participants:	40	
B	Total number of logged notifications:	113,197	
C	Average number of daily notifications:	313.4 (SD = 803.2, median = 185, IQR = 64–393)	
D	Average number of daily interactions:	49.8 (SD = 138.6, median = 12.0, IQR = 3.0–36.0)	15.8% of row C
	Total number of:		% of row B
E	*Clicked* notifications	2968	2.6%
F	*Dismissed* notifications	11,019	9.7%
G	*Replaced* notifications	93,563	82.7%
H	*Automatically removed* notifications	5614	5.0%
I	User-labelled content importance	4520	

- A high number of daily notifications (row C in Table 2), low interaction ratio with notifications (row D), and high number of ignored or missed notifications (row G).
- Strong likelihood of swiping notifications considered important.
- Discrepancy between source application importance and interaction choice (Fig. 3).

With these results we can reasonably say that the binary classification of desired notifications using merely the interactions (click or dismiss) as measurements is not only inadequate (based on how infrequently users interact), but also likely incorrect, as surely users place value on more than just the 21.1% of notifications they opt to click, as showcased by the high frequency of dismissed yet important notifications. As a side note, we do not advocate that measuring notification importance by identifying clicked notifications is a faulty method, as the 'click' an interaction choice is clearly indicative of importance. Our results merely highlight the opposite – that assessing 'dismissed' notifications as unwanted is unreliable and an incomplete method.

4.2. Understanding interaction choices

Aside from delivery context in terms of device usage and notification contents, several other factors can influence the interaction choice. Time of day can play a role in user availability and activeness to respond (Berkel et al., 2017; Ferreira et al., 2014; Visuri et al., 2017), as can fatigue due to information overload (Hiltz and Turoff, 1985; Speier et al., 1999).

According to the Chi-Squared test there are differences in number of notifications across different hours of the day ($N = 113{,}197$, $x^2 = 33{,}189$, df = 23, $p < .05$) and using Pearson's correlation, we can observe a reasonable effect size ($r = 0.38$, $p < .05$) between the time of day (hour using a 24-hour clock) and the number of hourly notifications. Majority of the notifications arrive after work hours (44.2% of all notification arrive between 5 pm and 12 midnight). While there is a significant effect on the hour of the day on user's interaction choice (*click, dismiss, replaced, system dismiss* for each hour) with a notification (Chi-Squared, $N = 113{,}197$, $x^2 = 283{,}010$, df = 95, $p < .05$), the only noticeable difference in ratios between the interaction choices is from 4 pm to 6 pm, when users are more likely to *click* notifications. Our assessment of the source of this behaviour is that it is likely associated with daily work hours, and due to users *e.g.*, actively responding to messages received earlier during the day.

We hypothesise that one other factor influencing user's interaction choice is being overloaded with information, *i.e.*, becoming fatigued and neglecting to interact when presented with larger quantities of notifications. Initially, we use Pearson's product-moment correlation to observe a weak correlation ($r = 0.192$, $p < .05$) between the daily number of arriving notifications and the daily number of clicked notifications, and a strong correlation ($r = 0.833$, $p < .05$) on the daily number of dismissed notifications. Investigating this behaviour further, both interaction types show increases in interactions, when the number of daily notifications is relatively low compared to the average (*e.g.*, below hundred daily notifications). However, user's attention span seems to diminish as the number of daily notifications increase, as the frequency at which notifications are interacted strongly dips beyond this threshold.

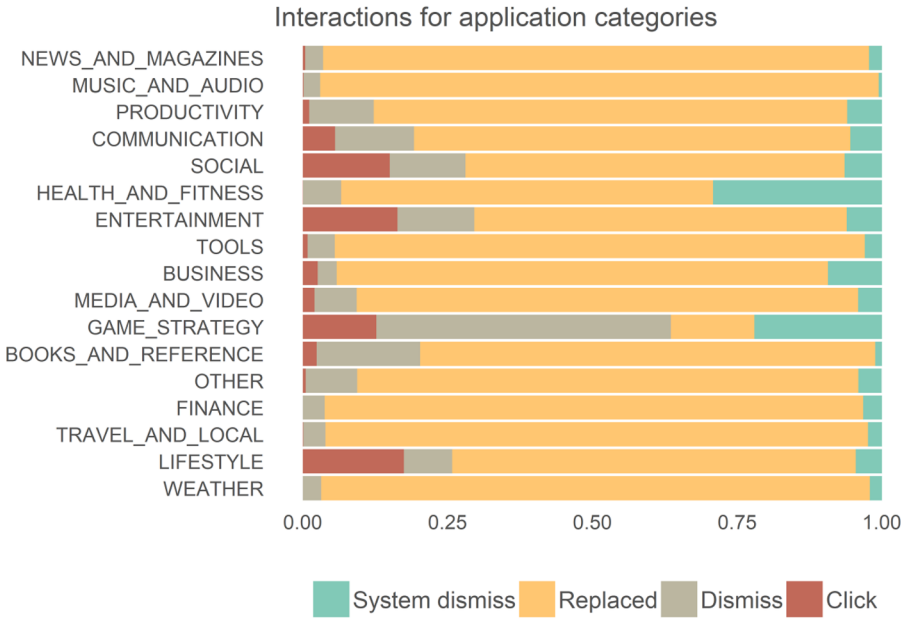

Fig. 3. Interaction choices for different Play Store application categories, ordered based on mean content importance. From most important (top) to least important (bottom). The selected categories are those which show statistically significant results, and the content importance ranges from 4.5 (News and Magazines) to 2.05 (Weather). (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

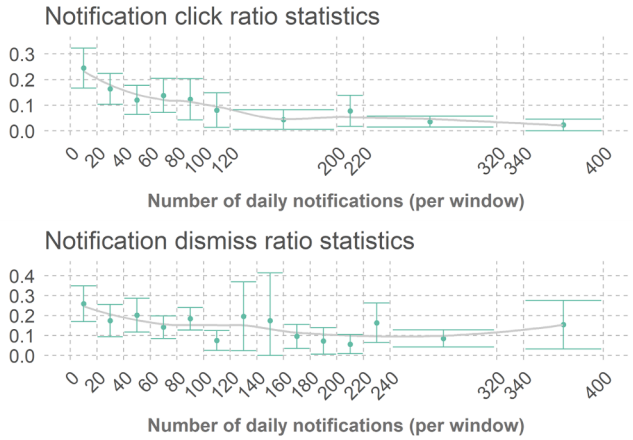

Fig. 4. Interaction ratios for clicking and dismissing notifications, according to the total number of received daily notifications. Interacting via 'click' shows a sharp decline when receiving more than 100–120 daily notifications.

To verify this impact on interaction frequencies, we apply a window size of 20 on the number of arriving daily notifications and merge data within each window (*i.e.*, 0–20, 20–40, …). We combine windows with mathematically insufficient number of samples for significant analysis together to produce a significant mean ratio within each window of size 20 or larger. We then measure the interaction ratios using Pearson's correlation and can reveal a negative correlation for both ratio of clicked notifications ($r = -0.85, p < .05$) and dismissed notifications ($r = -0.82, p < .05$). Analysing the different windows and the window size's impact on the ratio, we can see that the overall willingness to interact diminishes beyond the aforementioned 100 daily notifications, although the effect is not as drastic for willingness to dismiss. The difference in interaction ratio beyond and after the 100 notifications received threshold is -0.106 for clicking, and -0.073 for dismissing, and the dismiss ratio levels higher (at 0.119) than the click ratio (at 0.052). The different window sizes and corresponding interaction ratios are visualised in Fig. 4. This implies that when users receive a higher number of notifications, they more frequently neglect to interact with these notifications.

Proving our hypothesis is still incomplete, as the previous results merely generalises the behaviour, but the longitudinal effect of information overload is yet to be explored – how does the number of notifications received affect the interaction choice for an individual notification?

For each notification, we crawl the dataset for the number of notifications that arrived at that specific user within six distinct time windows – during the previous 60 s, 5 min, 10 min, 30 min, 60 min, and 4 h. We then combine the information from all users within each time window and calculate an interaction ratio: the number of notifications that the user interacted with within that time window *vs.* the total number of notifications that arrived within that time window – and a click ratio, according to the number of notifications within the time window. For example, when two notifications were received within the previous 60 s, users interacted with the new notification 70 times and neglected to interact 1239 times, thus resulting in an interaction ratio of 0.053 for a 60-second time window and two notifications received. This process is replicated for each time window and each number of previous notifications. In each window, we observe the effect of more notifications arriving resulting in less interactions by first verifying the existence of the difference with Chi-Squared ($x^2 = [750 \ldots 6115]$ and $p < .05$ for all windows) and measuring the size of the effect with Cramer's V (value ranging from 0.081 to 0.232). Fig. 4 shows a comprehensive overview of this effect within the different time windows.

Next, we analyse where (for which time window) the effect of the higher number of notifications resulting in fewer interactions is potentially strongest, using Pearson's correlation. The effect is smallest ($r = -0.37$) within a 60-second time window, increases up to 30 min ($r = -0.66$), and then gradually diminishes again until it reaches similar value than for the first window ($r = -0.36$, $p < .05$ for all window sizes). As this indicates a significant effect, we then calculate the interaction ratio in ten quantiles within each window. The results are visualised in Fig. 5 with the red line annotating the overall mean interaction ratio (12.3%).

Within all these time windows, users are significantly more likely to interact with a new notification *if no previous notifications had arrived during the time window*. The interaction ratio in these cases surpasses the overall mean. The user's willingness to repeatedly interact also diminishes beyond 60 s, only to return at 30 min or more and even there it is only apparent if only a small number of notifications had previously arrived. For the first 60-second window, we see that the users remain active, even if numerous (*e.g.*, 15–20) notifications just arrived. Thus, the average attention span regarding incoming notifications can seemingly be measured in seconds rather than minutes. This behaviour often revolves around the use of communication applications and

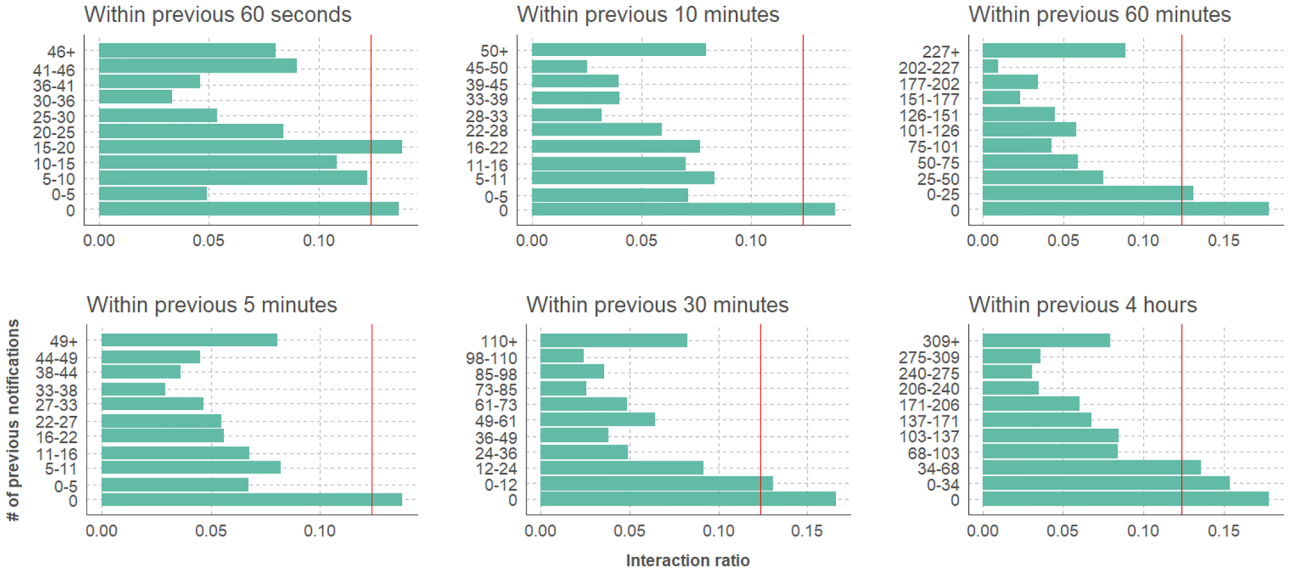

Fig. 5. Likelihood of a user interacting with a new notification according to number of previously arrived notifications within a specific time window. The red line annotates the overall mean interaction ratio (12.3%).

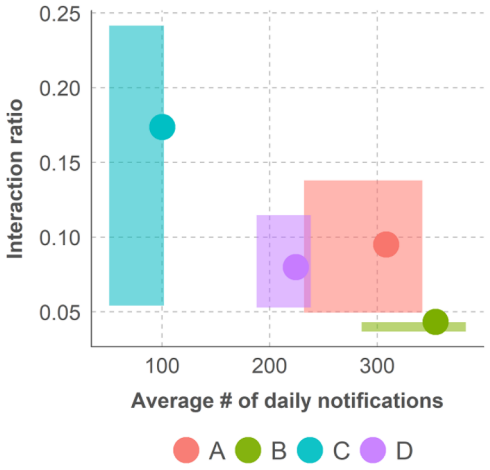

Fig. 6. Usage styles of different user groups according to the number of daily notifications and the frequency of user interacting with notifications. Areas denote the inner quantile range (IQR) and circles the mean values of each group.

related correspondence. Overall, the results in Fig. 5 indicate that:

a) Users exhibit **interaction fatigue** quickly, *i.e.*, users become reluctant to interact with arriving notifications.
b) The important **information** in the notification tray **gets lost** when numerous notifications arrive simultaneously - or within a brief time window, *e.g.*, 5–30 s - and the users are unable to locate and interact with specific notifications they otherwise would interact with.
c) The effects of b) **can compound** when and **if users neglect to interact** (manually filter) away unnecessary information from the notification tray.

In the next chapter, we aim to identify distinct usage styles and their associated problems related to lack of interacting, and how prominent those problems are. Lack of interaction with notifications quickly leads to users' devices being overwhelmed with notifications, which reduces the usefulness of the medium and the amount of information provided by notifications in general. Lack of interaction also highlights the need for an automatic management system – as humans seemingly often neglect or opt not to do so.

4.3. Limitations

As our experiment can be considered both an investigative and it also partially intervenes with our study subjects, it is important to note that intervening with the user's notifications (hiding unwanted ones) leads to influence on interaction ratios. Effectively hiding unwanted notifications can thus potentially increase the interaction ratios. We also do not have concrete information on how often interventions happened, as the activation and deactivation of Mode C was not logged in our data set. However, based on the email feedback received from our users Mode C was seen as disruptive and confusing. This leads us to believe that it was merely experimented with, not continuously used, and thus has no large impact on the interaction data.

Additionally, as the analysis presented in Sections 4 and 5 largely evaluated one factor to another (*e.g.*, likelihood of interaction and number of previous notifications, as in Fig. 5) and thereby ignored any external factors which may affect user decisions in opening notifications. Maybe the user was having a conversation when the notification arrived, or maybe the user was expecting a message and the decision for any individual notification was not influenced by simply the number of prior notifications. Similarly, our intervention is an external factor already embedded within the analysed data, and we argue that the statistical significance of our revealed findings ultimately trumps these combined external factors.

5. Distinct notification filtering styles and habits

As the interaction choices differ for each individual user, with each user having personal preferences and configurations – such as installed applications and generic smartphone usage traits, we next aim to differentiate between different types of users. Identifying *groups* of users as opposed to generalising, or treating each user individually, can be an effective mean of identifying similarities in users (Meyer et al., 2017), and in developing accurate and autonomous intelligent systems (Visuri et al., 2017). Clustering methods allow us to differentiate between different usage styles according to, in our case, the *interaction frequencies* and the *number of arriving notifications*.

With our dataset of 40 users, we apply a *k*-means clustering algorithm and iterate with varying number of clusters with $k = [2{:}10]$ to represent a varying number of *different user types*. Since the centroids generated by k-means can have slight internal variance (*i.e.,* the results for the same dataset for *k* value x can produce slightly different results), we also iterate through each value of *k* ten times. We then measure an *evaluation score* for each cluster configuration using a scoring mechanism using both Davies-Bouldin and Dunn indices. Both indices measure the level of internal agreement of the clusters (intra-cluster similarity) and the separation between clusters (distances between generated clusters). Both indices have the same (50%) weight for the evaluation score. As the Davies-Bouldin index is minimised, the score is inverted for the calculation of the evaluation score. Thus, the variables help us identify a cluster configuration (which user belong to which group) where each cluster contains users with similar usage styles, each cluster contains a similar number of users, and the overall configuration is not needlessly fragmented, *i.e.*, some clusters only containing one or two users. Based on the calculated evaluation scores for each unique cluster configuration and a value of *k*, we identify the best configuration to be the following four different user types, with their differences highlighted in Fig. 6. As seen in the figure, the separation of clusters is clear and evident.

These groups show not only differences in the number of notifications, but significant differences in ways to respond to and manually filter out notifications. The results seem to indicate similarities to the previous chapter, as a high number of notifications seems to lead to less frequent interactions, but similar low interaction frequency does not exist for usage styles where only a handful of notifications were received during the day. Personal differences are also showcased in more detail, as the Group A members retain their interaction activity even with a high number of daily notifications. The four groups and their details are:

- **Group A ($N = 5$)**: Users who interact with notifications most frequently (16.87% of all notifications), while receiving the second highest number of daily notifications ($M = 242.5$, SD = 86.8).
- **Group B (5)**: Show the highest negligence towards notifications (87.6% replaced ratio) while also receiving the highest number of daily notifications ($M = 329.9$, SD = 159.8).
- **Group C (17)**: Receive the least notifications ($M = 60.2$, SD = 49.9), and interact reasonable frequently (13.9%)
- **Group D (13)**: Least active in *clicking* notifications ($M = 6.91$ daily clicks, < 20.3, 11.4, 9.8 for groups A, B, C, respectively), and neglect notifications often (82.5%), with a reasonable number of daily notifications ($M = 151.2$, SD = 142.6).

The most notable result is the high frequency of replaced notifications for all usage styles. Dividing the usage styles further into those with passive interaction style (groups B and D) and active interaction style (A and C), all groups still maintain retain relatively high negligence to notifications. The lowest of which are A with 77.6% and C with

83.2% replaced ratio. The problem with neglecting to filter away notifications is not necessarily with information being directly lost, as surely the notifications are at some point still *seen* by the user. The problem relies more in the notification tray becoming overly cluttered, at which point the information available in the notification tray significantly diminishes. Imagine the notification tray containing more than a few items, at which point some notifications shift away from the initial view and become hidden in the bottom of the list. Optionally, the information in *bundled* notifications is also limited, as the user has no direct access to the notification contents (*e.g.*, single messages), only to the top-level notifications (*e.g.*, '*You have 12 new messages*'). This behaviour, recognised quantitatively for the first time in this paper, signifies the importance of either active manual (via interaction) or intelligently autonomous notification filter mechanisms. In the next chapter we explore this notion of intelligent filtering based on notification contents, in addition to the more traditional purely contextual filtering.

6. Combined (Content-Contextual) intelligent notification filtering

In our application, the user can enable two options within the prediction mode – an intelligent method for hiding unwanted notifications – which can be enabled once a required amount (50 labelled samples) of training data is collected by the application. The first option (prediction mode) enables the application to generate machine learning models, and the second option (notification hiding) hides incoming notifications according to the insight provided by the generated models. We use both clicked notifications, and user-given labels as training data for the models, and the prediction mode can be enabled once a minimum of 50 training data points is acquired. The choice of 50 data points is arbitrary, as the choice's goal is to provide predictions as soon as possible after the beginning of use (within few days preferably) with some (albeit limited) understanding of user's preferences in different contexts. How the number of training data influences the model performance can be highly individual and there can be significant variations, thus selecting an appropriate generalised value for all cases would likely be unreasonable. The value could also be adapted accordingly and the process of initially enabling and testing the predictions could also be automated.

Based on the user reported labeling of context and timing, and the user interaction with the notification, we can map the preferred action for each notification based on previous work: show, hide, or defer (Clark, 1996; Mehrotra et al., 2015) (Table 3).

It is not intuitively clear what should be done about notifications that are non-interrupting but contain no important information (third result column marked with a *). To solve this ambiguity, we use a 70% (contents) - 30% (timing) weighted average, based on the effect of *content* and *time of delivery* of mobile interruptions, originally presented in (Fischer et al., 2010). We choose the action (*show* or *hide*) according to the value with a threshold of three (mean on a five-point scale used for evaluation both variables) - values less than three indicate *hide*, and higher than three indicate *show*. Clicked notifications are assumed to be both of importance to the user and appropriately timed and are categorised as *show*. The action for *deferring* (*i.e.,* delaying) notifications to a later time was omitted from our application. We opted to use a binary classification to *show* and *hide* to simplify the application, and our experiment - adding the defer option would make both the prediction mode functionality, as well as post-experiment analysis, overly complex, as there would exist a subset of notifications functioning differently (deferred) than other notifications. To create a machine learning model to predict whether a specific notification should be shown or hidden to the user, in addition to the context we wish to also understand the semantic characteristics of the arriving notifications and process the data of existing notifications.

6.1. Text pre-processing

Our analysis identifies clusters (or bins) of related keywords that appear in notifications, and then characterises each notification based on which clusters of keywords it uses. This analysis is conducted for each user independently and locally on their phone, and therefore the keyword clusters vary between users.

All notification text is first pre-processed by transforming it to lowercase, removing all non-alphabetical or numerical symbols and stop-words (commonly used words) such as 'and', 'to', or 'be'. We then create a graph of related words, where *nodes* denote **words**, and **words that appear together** in the same notification are connected by *edges*. The *weight* of an edge is the frequency of those two words appearing together. Each node also includes the frequency of a given word being used within the dataset (*'size'*). The nodes with the largest *size* are then selected as $k = \{10,15,20,25,30\}$ *centroids* with a minimum *distance* of at least two nodes apart from each other. Words that never appear with other words (*i.e.* "islands") are then discarded. The range of k values is based on evaluating the prediction accuracy from data collected in our pilot study, which showed that with k-values outside (above or below) of this range the prediction accuracy rapidly deteriorates.

We then shuffle the nodes and create k *clusters* by assigning each non-centroid node to a centroid (*cluster*) within distance $d = \{1,2,3\ldots\}$ and removing it from the next round of iteration, until no more nodes remain. Shuffling ensures no bias based on *e.g.*, first character of a node (word). In case of a tie, nodes are placed in clusters based on their weight (frequency of appearing together) to the node they share their edge with. This operation creates k-*word bins* containing words that appear together in the notification contents. Each word bin is then used as an individual factor for the machine learning model, and the value of the bin is the number of words in the notification contents that match the contents of the bin.

6.2. Combined prediction analysis

After the user has labeled 50 notifications – the minimum amount of training data we assume to create a somewhat accurate classifier – the user has the option to enable predictions, resulting in the application creating the first prediction model and then automatically updating this model periodically every 48 h. At this point the user is also given another option to enable, which is to purposedly intervene with incoming notifications, selecting to hide them when they are deemed unwanted. The prediction mode was typically activated 1–3 days after installation.

Since the computations are performed on the client we opted to evaluate and rely on lightweight classifiers, which we evaluated using data collected during our pilot testing. We use the C4.5 classifier, using

Table 3
Proposed actions for notification filtering based on user-reported information.

		Was the notification appropriately timed?	
		Yes	No
Are the contents important or relevant?	Yes	Always show the notification	Defer until next use
	No	Preferably hide*	Always hide the notification

the WEKA java library (Hall et al., 2009), due to its efficiency in previous work using similar factor types (Matic et al., 2015), and perform all calculations during run-time in the application, as a background process. The choice of more complex classifiers, e.g., Random Forest or SVM, was due to mobile run-time analysis, *e.g.*, battery over increased computation time.

Using the combination of contextual variables and the notification content analysis we built a machine learning classifier using the dismissed and clicked notifications as training data. The classifier uses two classes (*show* and *hide*) to determine the outcome of each notification. For dismissed notifications, the class label is based on the weighted average (Fischer et al., 2010) of the importance (0.7 wt) and timing (0.3 wt) provided by the user, or the value of an individual entry (importance or timing) if the user was unsure for either value. For clicked notifications, the class is directly set as *show*.

The model is trained and created on the client, as we wanted to ensure the user's privacy and withhold them from having to share notification contents (*e.g.*, private messages, emails) with the researchers. The calculations for creating new models are automatically performed every 48 h and updated if the new model is considered more accurate than the previously used model. The process is performed as a background activity and is only performed when the device is charging.

The application creates the training data from the available information on the device and performs balancing of the data by down sampling the majority class appropriately. This reduces the bias due to overfitting. A classifier is then generated for each cluster size $k = \{10,15,20,25,30\}$ and each classifier is evaluated using 10-fold cross-validation. We use a combination of correctly classified instances, ROC-area, ratio of false negatives and false positives, and Kappa to compare between evaluation results. Classifier accuracy and ROC describe the overall accuracy of the model, while the Kappa statistic indicates how much better the model performs compared to a random guess (0…1, higher is better). Each of the five features is normalised to [0,1] range (if not in that range already, *e.g.*, the ROC-area) and has an equal weight in determining the evaluation score, which – similarly to determining the cluster configuration – has a value ranging from zero to one. The classifier with the best evaluation score is then stored alongside the training data, and the generated word bins (clusters) for selected cluster size k. The process of iterating through different k (word bin) values, generating the word bins, and training and evaluating each created classifier takes approximately 1–5 min (measured during our piloting phase), depending on the amount of training data and device capabilities. The user is presented with statistics (such as overall accuracy and the estimated probability of important notifications being falsely hidden) of the generated model, and a summary of words that were either considered important and unimportant. This creates some sense of transparency to the user regarding what information is influencing the predictions.

Arriving notifications are classified using the currently stored classifier and the word bins associated with each classifier. The current device usage context is extracted when the notification arrives, and the notification contents are mapped to the corresponding word bins. The notification instance is then classified as *show* or *hide* by the stored machine learning model and the decision is sent to the OS in case the notification is deemed as unwanted and should be discarded. The notifications classified as *hide* are automatically discarded from the notification tray by Notification Diary. The process of handling an arriving notification is detailed in Fig. 7.

However, Android's NotificationListener class only allows access to notifications that are pending by other applications. The user still receives cues of these incoming notifications if unattended - since Notification Diary only observes them after they are already posted with any accompanied cues. When the prediction mode is enabled, by default Notification Diary mutes all alarms, vibrations, and sounds, and plays corresponding sound cues or vibration when needed (*e.g.,* if a notification with a cue arrives, or if there is an incoming call), similar to (Rosenthal et al., 2011). This approach ensures that the user does not receive these cues when notifications arrive, and unwanted notifications can then be silently discarded.

6.3. Predicting notification relevance

As enabling the prediction mode in the Notification Diary application partly interferes with normal smartphone use by silencing the device, not every user felt comfortable using this mode. A total of 33 users generated a total of 313 machine learning models ($M = 9.28$, SD = 15.75, IQR = 1–5) during their use, with an average of 215.69 (SD = 289.55, IQR = 101.5–251.0) training data points. Classifier accuracy and ROC describe the overall accuracy of the model, while the Kappa statistic indicates how much better the model performs compared to a random guess (0…1, higher is better). The mean classifier accuracy is 91.1% (SD = 5.8%), ROC 81.1% (SD = 15.4%), and Kappa 0.65 (SD = 0.25).

Table 4 shows the summary of the different groups, and the generated models and their accuracy. Analysing the accuracy characteristics of different user groups with the use of one-way ANOVA we can identify significant ($F = 3.88$, $p < .05$) differences in the Kappa values across the groups. We use ANOVA as each sub-group has its own distribution of accuracy features. In this case, lower Kappa values indicate overfitting to displaying notifications too frequently, and this occurs more in models generated by members of Group C and Group D – the groups of users who generally received fewer notifications. As both clicked notifications, indicating user preference to said notification, and the user-provided labels are used to train the models, we can also see the added influence of user-given labels on the models' performance. This effect is highlighted on group A on the ROC-area and kappa statistic, which are more reliable indicators of model performance than accuracy, as the accuracy can be more strongly influenced by overfitting.

While our models are accurate, the false positive rates of either *showing* or *hiding* a notification indicate differences in performance. The false positive rate (FPR) of showing an unwanted notification is significantly higher than the false negative ratio ($0.29 > 0.04$, $t = 17.85$, $p < .05$ using Student's *t*-test), indicating that the generated models are likely biased towards showing notifications. This can be due to multiple reasons, of which one likely candidate is the user indicating high content importance for the majority of the notifications, causing the training data to be overfitted for the *show* class. The best performing models, however, are the ones where such bias does not exist and FPR is significantly lower. There is a strong negative correlation between both Kappa and FPR ($r = -0.95$, $p < .05$) and ROC and FPR ($r = -0.87$, $p < .05$), which indicates the importance of FPR in overall model performance. The overall model accuracy is highlighted by measuring the number of clicks for notifications shown without predictions, compared to those shown when the prediction model and automatic filtering is enabled.

The relationship between the interventions being active and how the user perceives the usefulness of this mode is complicated, as it is partly seen as both intrusive and rather confusing. The confusion likely revolves due to the suboptimal implementation due to OS limitations – the mode intervenes with user's normal ringer modes etc. The problem of intrusiveness, however, likely stems from the inaccuracies. When the prediction model – or the "AI" as a term that the user would likely use – functions accurately it does so without causing any sense of intrusiveness or hindrance to the user, but human cognition reacts strongly to any mistake such system makes. Thus, even if the system works appropriately majority of the time, the user could still experience it as intrusive if it performs a sufficient number of "mistakes".

Although the activations of interventions (Mode C) were not measured – thus giving us no verifiable data into the relationships between click ratios and performed interventions, a Chi-Squared test indicates increases ($N = 113{,}197$, $p < .05$, $x^2 = 34{,}376$, df = 4) in click ratios

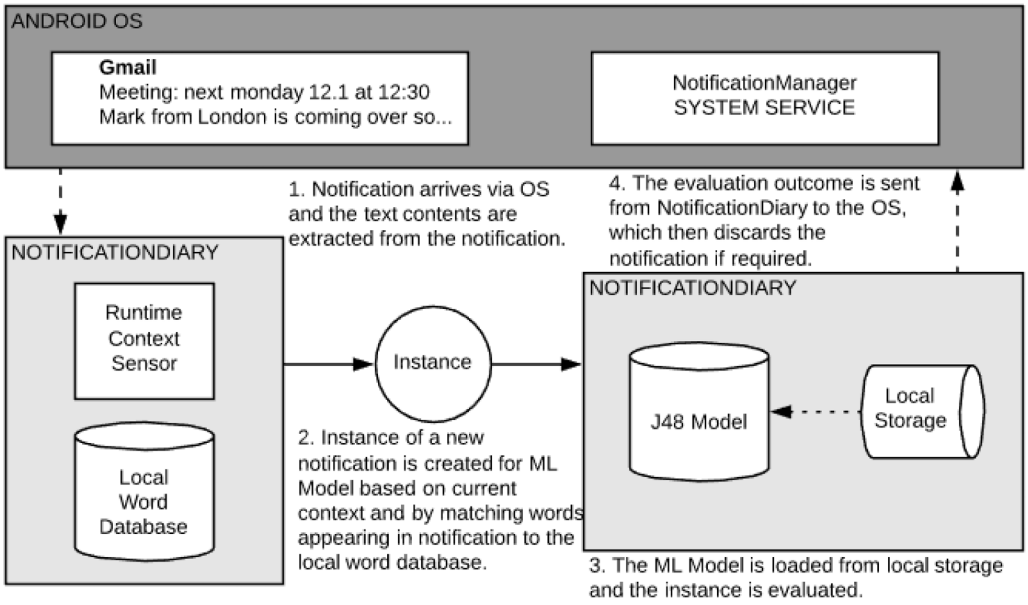

Fig. 7. Stages of the prediction analysis from the beginning (Top left: new notification arrives in the notification tray) to the end (Top right: the notification is handled). Once the notification arrives, the text contents and the current context are extracted, the text is matched to the local word database consisting of word bins for the current best performing classifier (Bottom-left), and then this new notification instance is classifier to either 'show' or 'hide' (Bottom-right).

Table 4
Summary of collected variables and statistics of generated machine learning models.

	Group A	*Group B*	*Group C*	*Group D*	*Total*
Total # of users	5	5	17	13	40
Total # of notifications	16,599	12,121	20,995	63,482	113,197
Total # of labelled notifications	1658 (10.0%)	130 (1.1%)	1252 (6.0%)	1503 (2.4%)	4543 (4.0%)
Mean # of daily notifications	1185.643	527.0	134.58	377.87	313.4
Machine Learning Model Accuracy					
Total # of created models	18	86	166	41	313
Mean # of training data per model	302 ± 779	221 ± 69	128 ± 90	300 ± 488	186 ± 272
Mean accuracy	90.6% ± 5.4%	90.4% ± 4.9%	92.0% ± 5.6%	89.6% ± 7.0%	91.1% ± 5.8%
Mean ROC-area	87.0% ± 11.4%	82.7% ± 8.0%	79.3% ± 18.0%	83.0% ± 15.9%	81.1% ± 15.4%
Mean Kappa	0.74 ± 0.21	0.70 ± 0.16	0.62 ± 0.30	0.66 ± 0.28	0.65 ± 0.27

($0.07 > 0.01$, $N = 27{,}385$ for notifications including predictions, $N = 85{,}812$ for notifications without predictions) for automatic filtering. This strongly indicates an influence and further investigations should be taken to measure how such interventions actually elicit interaction responses in all, or specific types of, users.

Exploring the table and the previously reported differences in interaction frequencies in more detail, it becomes evident that the models generated by Group A are most accurate likely due to a) high number of labelled notifications indicating in more detail how users perceive the notification content, and b) high interaction frequency, again enabling more detailed training data. The lower labeling frequencies cause the generated models to likely suffer from overfitting. If most the information gained in the training data are the clicked notifications, *i.e.* desired notifications, this leads to lower values in kappa statistic and artificially high accuracy.

7. Discussion

Intelligent notification management systems traditionally assess the user's situation via usage context for delivering notifications. The importance of individual notifications (and their delivery context) is measured via click-ratios under the binary assumption that clicked notifications are desired and important, while dismissed notifications are not seen as important. This notion has been the basis of multiple works (Mehrotra et al., 2016; Okoshi et al., 2017; Pielot et al., 2017), and while the importance of individual notifications' contents has been revealed to hold more information about the user's preference than the situation, it has proven difficult to effectively train autonomous intelligent management mechanisms to understand the importance of individual notifications. We set out to investigate this binary nature of notification interactions in more detail, hoping to both verify the validity of previous assumptions and to collect more detailed information about notification interactions in general.

Previous work suggests (Fischer et al., 2010; Shirazi et al., 2014) that a notification's source plays a big role in the user's preference to see a notification. While certainly true, individual details play a much larger role in the user's preferences, as indicated by the data collected in our study. The ratio of clicking, dismissing, or 'ignoring' notifications vary significantly across different notification source categories, and even for individual notifications that are labeled according to their perceived importance. Thus, drawing conclusions on notification importance solely from the interactions *or* the source is not supported by our results. The interaction choice is likely a result of a much larger set of features including the notification source, notification contents, perceived importance of the type of notifications, and the enveloping context (*i.e.*, the situation in which the smartphone was used).

The notion of click ratios as evaluators of user's preference or attentiveness to notifications is warranted in some cases – namely when the users opt in to certain notifications, *e.g.*, to particular news items or prompts in (Okoshi et al., 2015; Pielot et al., 2017) – but can be inefficient when attempting to comprehensively manage notifications. Such systems require the knowledge of which notifications are considered *unwanted*. Considering the binary categorisation of clicked notifications as inherently desired, and the ambiguous nature of dismissed

(or ignored) notifications, it is not possible to correctly assess which notifications are actually unwanted (and thus should be opted out). More details are required to correctly assess which notifications should be filtered out.

7.1. Enhancing automatic notification filtering with semantic analysis

Previously generated and neglected notifications often ending up taking unnecessary space in the notification tray. According to our findings portion of users completely neglect to interact with notifications. This can lead to the notification tray becoming overcrowded, and severely diminishing the quality of future information. When multiple notifications are persistently bundled together the information provided by a new notification is minimal. New notifications are simply added up to the bundle of notifications, and the item on the notification tray offers no detailed information on the individual notifications. For example, consider a case where you only see a notification with (*e.g., 'You have 37 messages in 4 chats'* as the informative text. Similarly, too many individual items in the notification tray can hide portions of the information as only a limited amount of them can be shown at a time. This further increases the need for ways to automatically filter out unnecessary notifications.

Poppinga et al. (2014) used contextual variables to predict opportune moments to interrupt the user by presenting a notification and reached a reasonable accuracy of 77%. Including semantic analysis of the notification's content can increase accuracy by 14.8 percentage points, resulting in an average accuracy of 91.1% in our experiment. Okoshi et al. (2015) deployed a similar model in a real-world application combining both notification contents (Yahoo news) and contextual analysis to assess moments for delivering new items. Their work reports that deferring the notifications accurately decreases the click delay and that their approach continuously increased the click rate throughout the experiment. We can observe similar results in increased click rates (from 0.01 to 0.07) with the prediction mode enabled.

In (Fischer et al., 2011), a comparison was performed between user-provided rules and personalised models, with the use of user given labels to notifications, as well as the user's social circles. Our results show an increase in comparison to the user-defined rules with the use of Random Forest, which reached approximately 61% accuracy in filtering out unwanted predictions. The computationally generated rule-based approach used in PrefMiner (Ferreira et al., 2014) analysed the **contents** and **source** of each notification, and while being highly sensitive (*i.e.*, was careful not to hide important notifications) reduced the number of unwanted notifications by 48% overall. The measurement used in PrefMiner (Ferreira et al., 2014) determined how many of the dismissed notifications could be pre-filtered as unwanted. Combination of these approaches results in a significantly higher prediction accuracy, and our best performing models highlight a low False Positive Ratio (FPR), indicating that the users would receive significantly less unwanted notifications.

7.2. User types and interaction burden

We showcase improvements in prediction accuracy using a combination of contextual features, and semantic analysis of notification contents based on the *varying content importance*. The user perception of notifications is based on details of individual notifications, as well as *personal preferences* - after all, most notifications contain highly personal content. It is known that smartphone users show diversity in their application selections (Meyer et al., 2017), application use (Okoshi, 2017), and responsiveness to prompts (Okoshi et al., 2017). Our assumption is that this should be true for interacting with arriving notifications as well. Our analysis reveals four distinct user groups, and we can show diversity in *the number of notifications* different smartphone user groups receive, as well as *how different user groups interact* with the incoming notifications.

The differences between the groups follow a common observation: the potential information overload caused from *too many* notifications tends to decrease both click ratios (significantly) and dismiss ratios (less significantly). This means the burden caused by notification overload influences smartphone use by both *reducing user experience* and *reducing the amount of received information*. The threshold for reduced click ratio seems to be at around 100–120 daily notifications, after which the click frequency drops significantly. For dismissing notifications, users begin to feel burdened at around 140–160 daily notifications. There is also need for a balance for these notifications to arrive at appropriate times, but overall the burden of too many notifications during a full day seems to carry on throughout the day. This result could be further investigated in detail and could highlight some new findings in our level of attention throughout our daily lives.

During our pilot testing of the Notification Diary application, we noticed one of the researchers used as test subjects habitually ignoring all incoming notifications and leaving them present in the notification diary for extended periods of time. We thought this behaviour was peculiar, but surprisingly, this behaviour also existed within actual experimental subjects. A large portion of subjects habitually neglected to interact with arriving notifications, meaning notifications or notification stacks remain in the notification tray until they become updated. Part of the explanation could be the presence of a communication app sending constant flow of messages, but the total number of notifications arriving for these groups (especially Group D) does not indicate that they received exceedingly many notifications. Note that the Android OS uses an internal threshold to block certain applications from obsessive notification spam and does not send cues for *all* arriving notifications. This delay can range from a few seconds to a few minutes. Other culprits for lack of interaction can be *e.g.*, group chats with content that is generally deemed unimportant.

Ignored notifications clearly signify the need for notification management overall, as they cause unnecessary overhead and depreciation of the quality of information presented by notifications. After all, the notification tray has limited space and while the applications can request priority (and OS can assign priority) to notifications that should be shown at the top, if the notifications are not handled (*i.e.*, dismissed by the user, dismissed by the system, or filtered automatically), the notification tray will quickly become overpopulated by unimportant content. This signifies the importance of content analysis done on an individual notification-by-notification basis when filtering out unwanted notifications. Two of our application users contacted us during the experiment via email, and wanted to emphasise the usefulness of our approach - even if the approach for hiding notifications and notification cues of our application could be considered somewhat crude: *"I really liked the idea of the application and it was the reason why the joined the study. An application that can hide unwanted notifications and **can understand notification contents would be extremely useful**."*

7.3. Do not Block, Clean, and going forward

This issue of crowded notification trays and the users' frequent neglect to manually filter out unwanted notifications should lead to new methods for notification management. Especially for users who habitually ignore and do not filter out and interact with notifications themselves, it becomes increasingly important to manage their notifications to reduce information overload - in order to ensure new and important notifications do not simply get lost in the notification tray

The current ranking system for displaying notifications in order of importance is limited, as the priority value can be specified by the application, and not by the notification contents - which is essentially the thing that matters the most, especially when the importance is highly contested between similar notifications. A better approach would be to both a) *filter out unnecessary notifications* (methodology most commonly researched), and to also b) *ensure that the notification tray is not overloaded* by **limiting the number of shown notifications** –

i.e., cleaning when the tray becomes overcrowded. If the user only has two notifications showing, there is no immediate need to filter anything out, since the user has access to all presented information. But when the number of concurrent notifications increases, precedence should be given to the ones with important content. This approach would also allow the notification management system to *filter out old notifications*, which are no longer considered high priority, but was displayed because there was no immediate need for cleaning. Lastly, newer notifications could also be given preference over notifications that have already existed on the notification tray for longer periods of time with the information already likely consumed.

Android 8.0 (Oreo) offers developers a new method for designing notifications, *i.e., notification channels*, allowing developers to discern notifications' importance and group them by content similarity. While promising customisability, it still lacks an understanding of *what the user ultimately deems as important*. In other words, it should not be the developer imposing the rules, but the user! Admittedly, understanding the importance of notification contents to individual users without relying on user feedback is challenging, however core to our findings. Relying solely on binary interactions like the click or dismiss ratios is not enough: dismissing notifications does not indicate low importance (and that most notifications are dismissed anyway). Thus, new metrics for evaluating the perceived importance need to be considered. The new application-side management methods, presented by the new notification channels, potentially offer solutions to this as users can interact with notifications with more extensive methods and developers can design notifications with more details.

8. Conclusion

We collected smartphone notification data in combination with user-labelled information on the importance and timing of notifications. Our results highlight that previous work, which assumed that user's perceived importance of a notification correlates with the notification's interaction, is unfounded in generating knowledge for automatically filtering out unwanted notifications. Many users frequently and habitually dismiss or ignore the majority of their notifications – regardless of their perceived importance. This further complicates notification filtering mechanisms relying solely on user interaction. Understanding notification content preference via semantic analysis increases the accuracy of prediction models aimed at automatically detecting unwanted notifications. Our work challenges researchers of notification management systems to understand user's personal preferences of notification contents and interaction choices more accurately. Future work must focus on developing user-driven notification management systems.

Declaration of interests

none

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