

— WS501 · WI-FI CSI SENSING FROM FIRST PRINCIPLES · WEEK 1

The Wireless Channel From a Signal to a Fingerprint

How a Wi-Fi signal bouncing around a room becomes a measurable fingerprint — and why that fingerprint changes when people move. No prior knowledge needed.

This whole week in one sentence

A Wi-Fi signal bounces off the walls, floor, and people in a room. All those echoes add up into one number per frequency — the **channel** — and when a person moves, that number changes. **That change is our sensor.**

Everything else this week is detail under this one sentence.

Lecture 0 · First, the words

What this field is, the words you need, and why bother

What is Wi-Fi sensing?

One plain sentence.

THE FIELD IN A SENTENCE

Wi-Fi sensing uses the way radio waves bounce around a room to detect, count, or locate people — without a camera and without anyone carrying a device.

 **Shout in an empty gym** and you hear one clean echo. **Fill it with milling people** and the echoes blur into a constant, shifting mush. Radio does exactly the same thing — and this week is about how we **measure that mush**.

The words you need (1 / 2)

Channel — the single summary of everything that happens to a radio signal between the transmitter and the receiver: every echo, every bit of power lost on the way, rolled into one number (per frequency).

Multipath — radio does not travel in one straight line. It bounces off walls, floor, and furniture and arrives by **many paths at once**. Each path is one echo.

CSI — Channel State Information — the measured snapshot of that channel: how the signal arrived, across many tiny sub-channels at once. Think of it as the signal's **fingerprint** of the room.

LOS / NLOS — line-of-sight means a clear straight path exists between transmitter and receiver. **Non-line-of-sight** means that path is blocked, so only bounced echoes arrive.

The words you need (2 / 2)

dB — decibel — a unit for ratios of power, on a logarithmic scale. Rule of thumb: **+3 dB = double the power**, **-10 dB = one tenth** the power. It lets us add losses instead of multiplying them.

Fourier transform — a tool that asks "what mix of steady tones makes up this pattern?" It turns a pattern over **time** into a pattern over **frequency** — like splitting white light through a prism into colours.

Phasor — a way to draw a wave as a little **rotating arrow**: its length is the wave's strength, its angle is the wave's phase (where it is in its cycle). Adding waves becomes adding arrows.

OFDM — the Wi-Fi waveform that splits one channel into many narrow **sub-channels** (subcarriers) carried at once. Week 2 covers it; for now, just "Wi-Fi sends many tones side by side."

Why bother counting people?

SAFETY

Spot dangerous crowding
before it becomes a crush.

COMFORT

Know which rooms are full
and which are free.

ENERGY

Heat, cool, and ventilate
only the rooms people are
actually in.

Can we do it for free, with the Wi-Fi signals already in the air — no camera, no app?

To even attempt that, we first have to understand what a Wi-Fi signal turns into on its way across a room. That is the whole job of Week 1.

Five things you will be able to do

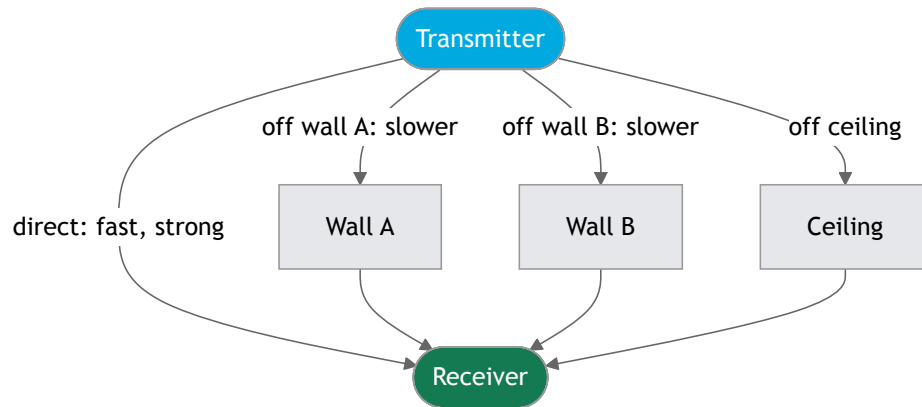
1. Explain how a Wi-Fi signal bouncing off walls becomes a mathematical fingerprint of the room — and build the formula for it from scratch.
2. Tell apart a steady link from a wandering one, and read off a single number (the K-factor) that says which it is.
3. Say how much power a plasterboard wall steals from a Wi-Fi signal at 2.4 GHz versus 5.0 GHz, using the lab's measured data.
4. Argue why the shape of a floorplan decides which measurements are even possible — using a real campaign that failed one of its own design goals.
5. Explain why a person walking through a room is detectable as a change in the channel — the bridge to next week.

Part 1 · From bounces to a channel

Building the channel formula, one step at a time

A signal arrives many times over

- The transmitter sends out a wave at one instant
- A **direct** copy arrives first, by the short straight path
- **Reflected** copies bounce off walls, ceiling, floor — each takes longer and is weaker
- **Diffacted** copies bend around edges and corners
- The receiver hears **all the copies added together, at once**



Like shouting in a canyon: you hear your own voice, then the cliff echo a moment later, then a fainter echo off the far wall — all overlapping.

The first formula: adding up the echoes

Give each echo two numbers: how late it arrives, and how strong it is.

- 1 Call echo number i 's **delay** τ_i (Greek "tau") — how many seconds late it arrives.
- 2 Call its **strength** r_i — how much of the original wave survived that path.
- 3 The received signal is just every delayed, shrunk copy of the sent signal x , added up — plus a little background **noise** n .

$$y(t) = \sum_i r_i x(t - \tau_i) + n(t)$$

The big Σ means "add them all up." y is what we receive over time t ; x is what was sent; each echo i is the sent wave delayed by τ_i and scaled by r_i . The last term n is thermal noise.

A picture before the next tool

 **A Fourier transform** asks: what mix of steady tones makes up this pattern over time? Like an audio equaliser splitting a song into bass, mid, and treble — or a prism splitting white light into colours. We use it to turn our "echoes over time" into a "channel across frequencies."

Time-shift property — the one fact we borrow from the Fourier transform: a **delay in time** becomes a **steady rotation in frequency**. The later an echo, the faster its arrow spins as you sweep across frequency.

Delay in time → rotation in frequency. That is the whole trick on the next slide.

Building $H(f)$ — step by step

Apply the Fourier transform to the echo sum. A delay becomes a phase rotation.

Step 5 — Add noise: the model we use all semester

$$Y = H \cdot X + N \quad (\text{at one frequency / one subcarrier})$$

$$H(f) = \sum_i r_i \cdot e^{(-j2\pi f \tau_i)}$$

The channel H multiplies what we sent, then noise is added on top.

What that formula means: the channel is a number per frequency

$$H(f) = \sum_i r_i e^{-j2\pi f \tau_i}$$

At each frequency f , the channel H is the sum of all the echoes. Each echo is a rotating arrow (a phasor) of length r_i ; its angle grows with frequency $\times$ that echo's delay τ_i .

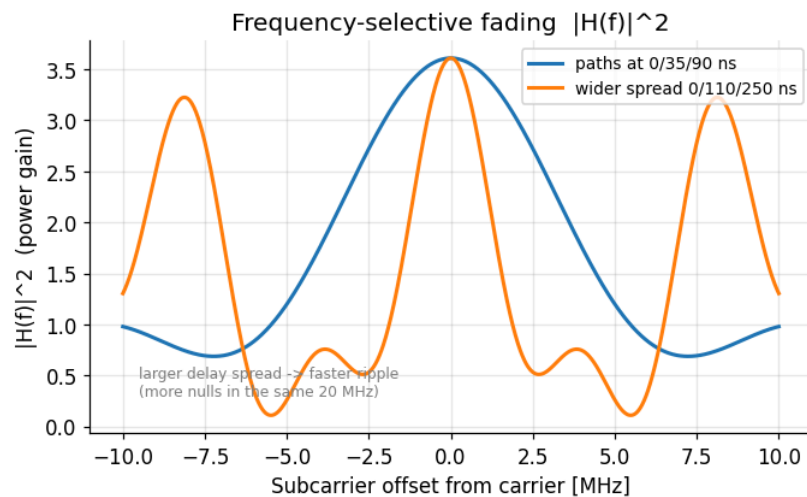
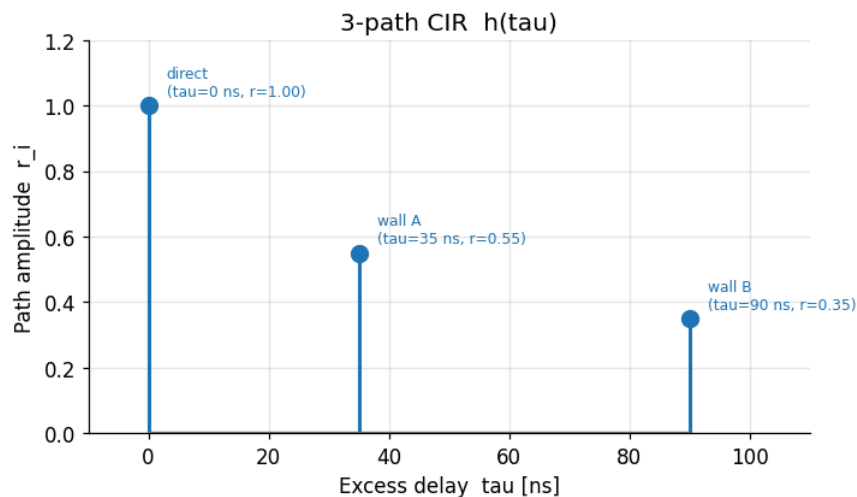
Reminder — phasor — a wave drawn as a rotating arrow: length = strength, angle = phase. Adding waves = adding arrows tip-to-tail.

**And the system model, in plain words: what you receive = (the channel)
 $\times$ (what you sent) + noise.**

Why the channel ripples across frequency

Picture several musicians playing the same note but starting at slightly different times. At some pitches they line up and swell; at others they fall out of step and cancel. Sweep across pitches and you hear a rippling loud-soft pattern — that is exactly what the channel does across frequency.

Figure 1 - A 3-path channel and the frequency-selective $|H(f)|^2$ it produces



The channel is set entirely by the echoes — their strengths and delays

Move a person, open a door, and the echoes change. So the channel changes.

That is why the Wi-Fi channel quietly carries information about the room.

Part 2 · Steady link or wandering link?

Reading one number — the K-factor — off the channel

Two kinds of link — an everyday picture



A torch in a dark room: one strong, steady beam plus faint glints off the walls. The total stays roughly constant — you can rely on it. This is a **line-of-sight (LOS)** link.



Light through fog: no single dominant ray, just scattered glow arriving from everywhere. The brightness flickers and can briefly drop near zero. This is a **non-line-of-sight (NLOS)**, scatter-only link.

Fading — the channel strength going up and down. **Rayleigh fading** = the foggy case (no dominant ray). **Rician fading** = the torch case (one dominant ray plus scatter).

Rayleigh fading — the foggy, no-anchor case

Many comparable echoes, none dominant. The channel-arrow wanders randomly around the origin.

$$p(r) = \frac{r}{\sigma^2} e^{-r^2/2\sigma^2}, \quad r \geq 0$$

This curve says how likely each channel strength r is. σ^2 (sigma-squared) is the average scatter power. The shape: moderate strengths are most common, but the channel can occasionally collapse to near zero — a deep fade.

This describes a link cut off from any direct path — behind heavy obstruction, deep into a building. A link like this is unreliable on its own.

Rician fading — one dominant ray steadies the link

A strong direct ray, plus the usual scatter around it. The channel-arrow now wanders around a fixed point, not the origin.

K-factor — the single number that captures this: how much power is in the one dominant ray versus all the scattered echoes.

$$K = \frac{\text{power in the dominant ray}}{\text{power in the scatter}}$$

Big $K \rightarrow$ a strong ray dominates $\rightarrow$ steady, reliable link (torch). K near zero $\rightarrow$ no ray wins $\rightarrow$ the channel behaves like Rayleigh (fog).

In decibels: $K(\text{dB}) = 10 \cdot \log_{10} K$. So $K = 10$ in power is +10 dB; $K = 1$ is 0 dB; K below 0 dB means scatter wins.

Measuring K from data — and the full curve (optional)

HOW WE READ K OFF REAL DATA

The **Greenstein moment estimator**: watch how jittery the channel *power* is over time. A steady link (torch) barely jitters → big K. A wandering link (fog) jitters a lot → K near zero. No curve-fitting needed.

Moment estimator — a recipe that reads a quantity (here K) straight from simple summaries of the data: its average and its spread.

THE FULL RICIAN CURVE (FOR COMPLETENESS)

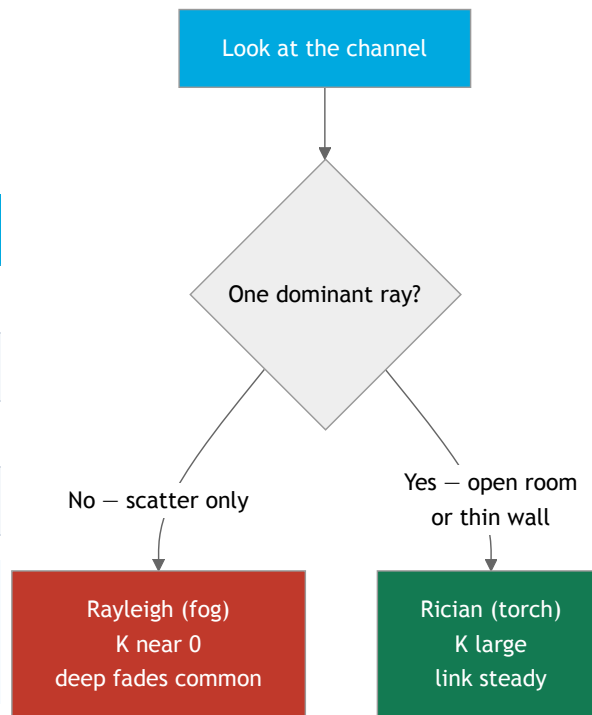
$$p(r) = \frac{r}{\sigma^2} e^{-(r^2+v^2)/2\sigma^2} I_0\left(\frac{rv}{\sigma^2}\right)$$

v is the dominant-ray strength; σ^2 is the scatter power. I_0 is a standard mathematical function — you never evaluate it by hand. As $v \rightarrow 0$ (dominant ray gone), this collapses back to the Rayleigh curve.

What the lab actually measured for K

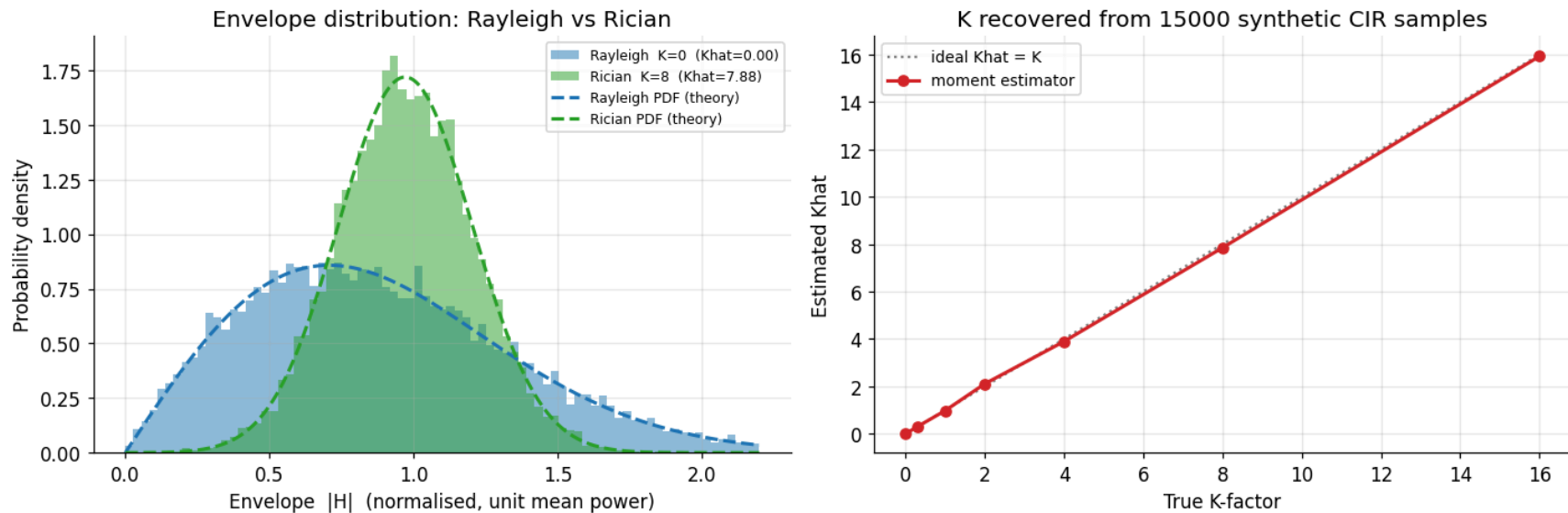
Where the link runs	K (in dB)
Open room, clear line of sight	10 – 15
Through one plasterboard wall	weakly steady
Through the wall, scatter-dominated	below 0 (fog-like)
Deep inside, no direct path	→ 0 (Rayleigh)

A clear-LOS link is firmly "torch" ($K = 10\text{--}15$ dB). A through-wall link in this lab drifts toward "fog" (K below 0 dB) — because the scattered field wins once the direct ray is weakened.



Recovering K from data — the figure

Figure 2 - Rayleigh vs Rician fading and K-factor estimation



Left: simulated channel-strength histograms for a foggy ($K = 0$) and a torch-like ($K = 8$) link, with the theory curves overlaid. Right: the moment estimator recovers the true K across two decades — accurate to about **1%** over $K = 0$ to 16, from 15 000 simulated samples. Reproduce in workbook §2.

Part 3 · What a wall costs

How much power a plasterboard wall steals — measured

First, free space: power spreads out

☀ A light bulb looks dimmer the farther you stand — its energy spreads over an ever-bigger sphere. Radio does the same: the farther the receiver, the smaller the slice of signal it catches.

dB — reminder — a ratio of power on a log scale: +3 dB doubles the power, -10 dB cuts it to a tenth. We measure every loss in dB so we can add them up.

ONE FACT FOR LATER

At a fixed distance, the higher band (5.0 GHz) starts out with roughly **6.5 dB more** free-space loss than the lower band (2.4 GHz), because a fixed-size antenna catches a smaller slice of a shorter wavelength.

The headline number: loss per wall

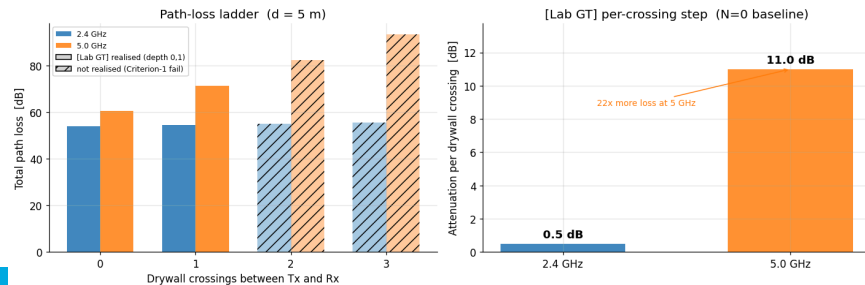
From the empty-room baseline (no people), each wall the signal crosses adds a fixed power penalty.

Band	Loss per plasterboard wall
2.4 GHz	≈ 0.5 dB
5.0 GHz	11.0 dB



At 2.4 GHz a plasterboard wall is **almost transparent** — it barely dims the signal. At 5.0 GHz the same wall is like frosted glass — it costs 11 dB, a roughly **22-fold** drop in power.

Figure 3 - Through-wall path loss: 2.4 GHz vs 5.0 GHz [Lab GT c-si-through-wall-blockage]



Total loss versus walls crossed, at 2.4 vs 5.0 GHz. The two-or-more-wall bars are hatched because the lab never managed to build such a link — the reason is Part 4. Reproduce in workbook §3.

Why the band choice can break an algorithm

THE TRAP

Some crowd-counting methods work by detecting the sharp **dip** when a person crosses the direct line. Those methods were validated in **concrete** buildings, where one wall removes 10–20 dB and the dip is obvious.

Part 4 · The floorplan is an experiment variable

A campaign that failed one of its own design goals

The lab's through-wall campaign, in plain words

WHAT WAS MEASURED

- **52 measurement runs** on one test floor
- Crowd size swept from **0 to 6 people**
- Two bands: **2.4 and 5.0 GHz**
- Three repeats (seeds) per setting, for robustness

THE FIVE RADIO LINKS

- **One in-room link** — crosses no walls
- **Four through-wall links** — cross one wall each

Holding distance roughly fixed isolates the wall effect from plain free-space spreading.

The empty-room runs give the per-wall loss (Part 3). The crowd runs give the per-person effect (a slide from now). But notice: only **two** kinds of link were ever physically built. Why? That is the next slide.

A design goal that failed

THE GOAL (SET IN ADVANCE)

At least one link should cross **two or more walls**, so we could measure the two-wall penalty and check the loss-per-wall pattern keeps going.



The number of walls a signal crosses depends on the exact shape of the floor — not on the room names.

Three lessons from a result that "failed"

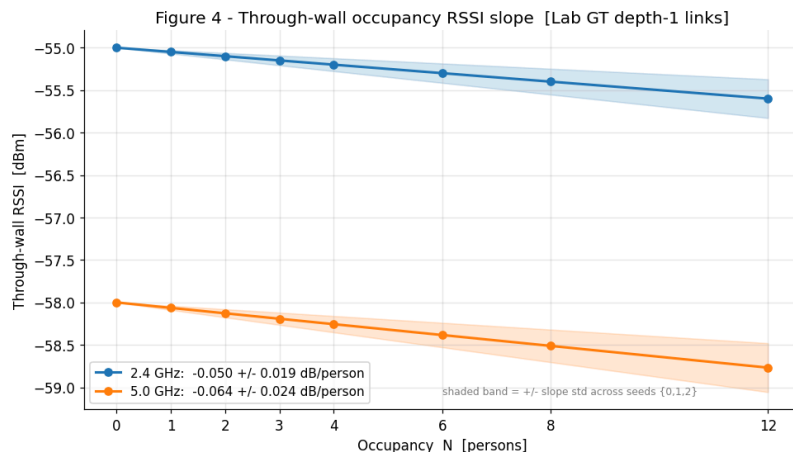
1. **The floorplan decides what is measurable.** Which wall-counts are even possible depends on where you place transmitter and receiver in the actual room shapes. Shift a receiver 10 cm past a doorway and the wall-count — and 11 dB at 5 GHz — changes.
2. **Ground truth needs checking, not guessing.** "This link crosses two walls" guessed from a room map can be wrong. You have to trace the signal's path through the real wall outlines. The workbook does exactly this (§3) and recovers the true crossing counts.
3. **A negative result is still a measurement.** The shortfall was recorded, not buried, with a recommendation to move the far receiver off the doorway line before any re-test. Reporting only the conditions that worked would hide the limits of the method.

How a crowd shows up: the per-person effect

Each extra person in the room takes a little more power out of a through-wall link.

$$\frac{\text{change in signal}}{\text{per person}} = \begin{cases} -0.050 \pm 0.019 \text{ dB} & (2.4 \text{ GHz}) \\ -0.064 \pm 0.024 \text{ dB} & (5.0 \text{ GHz}) \end{cases}$$

Each added person costs the through-wall link about a twentieth of a dB at 2.4 GHz, a touch more at 5 GHz. The $\pm$ is the spread across repeats — small, noisy, but consistent.



Part 5 · Why a moving person is visible

Coherence time and coherence bandwidth

Coherence bandwidth — an everyday picture

 Press two **neighbouring** piano keys and they sound almost the same — they rise and fall together. Press two keys **far apart** and they behave independently. Subcarriers in Wi-Fi are the same: those close enough together fade together; those far apart fade on their own.

Coherence bandwidth (B_0) — how far apart in frequency two subcarriers must be before they fade independently. Closer than B_0 → they move together. Farther → they are on their own.

Delay spread (σ_τ) — how spread out in time the echoes are: the gap between the earliest and the stragglers.

Coherence bandwidth — the number

$$B_0 \approx \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_\tau}$$

The more spread out the echoes (bigger σ_τ), the smaller the band B_0 over which two subcarriers fade together. Long echoes → fast ripple → narrow B_0 .

A typical room (about 20 m across) has echoes spread over $\sigma_\tau \approx 20\text{--}50$ ns, which gives:

WORKED NUMBERS

$B_0 \approx \mathbf{3 - 8\text{ MHz}}$. A 20 MHz Wi-Fi channel is several B_0 wide — so it is **frequency-selective**: different parts of the band fade differently.

WHY THIS MATTERS FOR CSI

Subcarriers closer than B_0 are **not** independent — they fade in groups. With $B_0 \approx 6$ MHz and Wi-Fi subcarriers spaced 312.5 kHz apart, about **19 neighbouring subcarriers** move together.

Recovering the echoes from the channel (and its limit)

Run the Fourier transform backwards (an IFFT) on the measured channel and you get the echoes back — but only coarsely.

$$\text{echoes over time} = \text{IFFT} \{ \text{channel across frequency} \}$$

IFFT = inverse Fourier transform: frequency view $\rightarrow$ time view. This recovers the echo pattern (the channel impulse response).

THE RESOLUTION LIMIT

With a 20 MHz channel, the finest time-gap we can resolve is about **50 ns** — which is a path-length difference of **$c \cdot 50 \text{ ns} \approx 15 \text{ m}$** . Echoes closer than that blur into one. Coarse and aliased — Week 2 makes this precise for real hardware.

Coherence time — an everyday picture

 An ambulance siren rises in pitch as it races toward you and drops as it passes — the **Doppler effect**. A person walking through the room shifts the radio echoes the same way; the faster they move, the bigger the shift, and the quicker the channel changes.

Coherence time (T_0) — how long the channel stays roughly the same before motion changes it. Fast motion → short coherence time.

Doppler shift — the change in a wave's frequency caused by something moving. For radio and a walker, it sets how fast the channel evolves.

Coherence time — the worked numbers

$$f_{\max} = \frac{v}{\lambda}, \quad T_0 \approx \frac{1}{2f_a}$$

$f_{\max}$ is the biggest Doppler shift, set by walking speed v over wavelength λ . The channel changes over the Doppler spread $f_a \approx 2 \cdot f_{\max}$, and T_0 is roughly its inverse.

WALKING AT 2.4 GHZ

$$\begin{aligned} v &= 1.2 \text{ m/s} & \lambda &= 12.5 \text{ cm} \\ f_{\max} &= v/\lambda \approx 9.6 \text{ Hz} \\ f_a &\approx 2 \cdot f_{\max} \approx 19 \text{ Hz} \\ T_0 &\approx 1/(2 \cdot 19) \approx 26 \text{ ms} \end{aligned}$$

CAN WE KEEP UP?

A typical access point takes a fresh CSI snapshot every **10 ms** (100 times a second). The channel holds still for about **26 ms** — so we capture it several times before it changes. Comfortably fast enough.

So why is a slow walker so easy to detect?

THE PUZZLE

A person at 1.2 m/s moves only **4.8 cm** between two snapshots taken 10 ms apart. That is tiny. Why isn't it invisible?

THE ANSWER: PHASE IS A FINE RULER

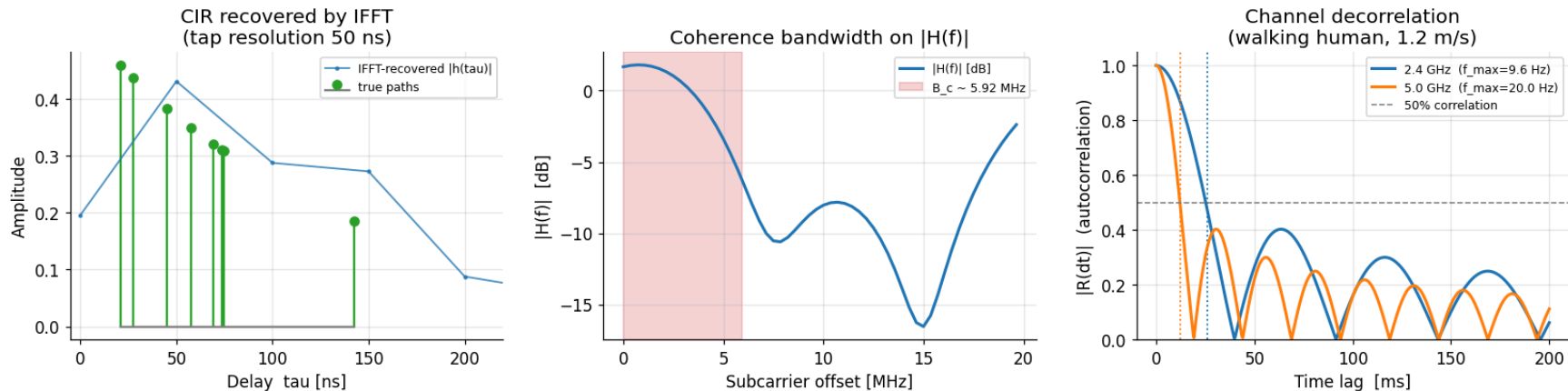
Moving an echo's path by just **3 cm** (a quarter wavelength at 2.4 GHz) rotates its arrow by a quarter turn — a **big** change in the summed channel.

Detectable not because the person moves far — but because the channel is phase-sensitive.

This same phase sensitivity is why CSI can later pick up **breathing** — chest motion of well under a centimetre.

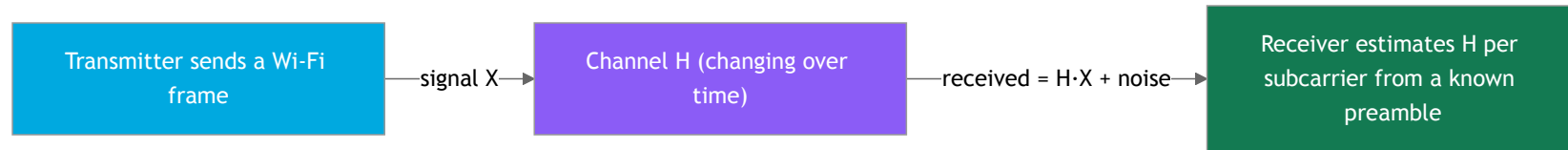
The CIR figure and channel decorrelation

Figure 5 - CIR recovery by IFFT, coherence bandwidth and coherence time



Left: the echo pattern recovered by inverse Fourier transform (blue) versus the true echoes (green) — the 50 ns grid blurs nearby ones. Centre: the coherence bandwidth shaded on the channel. Right: how fast the channel decorrelates as time passes for a walking person, with the coherence time marked on each band. Reproduce in workbook §5.

Bridge to Week 2: from the channel to the CSI matrix



WEEK 1 ✓

Built the channel from echoes. Steady vs wandering links, wall loss, coherence.

WEEK 2 →

How a Wi-Fi card actually samples the channel: OFDM, the preamble, the CSI matrix.

WEEK 3+

Turning CSI into answers: occupancy, activity, location.

A receiver recovers the channel by sending a **known** block of symbols (a *preamble*) and dividing the received signal by what it knows it sent. The full story — OFDM structure, the errors that creep in — is Week 2.

Week 1 — recap, against the five goals

- **Goal 1 — the formula.** The channel = the sum of all echo-arrows: each has a strength and a delay. We built it step by step, not asserted it.
- **Goal 2 — steady vs wandering.** One number, the K-factor, says whether a dominant ray steadies the link (big K, "torch") or scatter wins (K near 0, "fog"). We read it off the data.
- **Goal 3 — what a wall costs.** Measured: **0.5 dB per wall at 2.4 GHz, 11.0 dB at 5.0 GHz** — a 22-fold gap that decides which band to use.
- **Goal 4 — geometry is a variable.** A planned two-wall link didn't exist, because a doorway gap broke the second wall. The floor's shape, not the room labels, sets what you can measure.
- **Goal 5 — why motion shows.** The channel holds still for about **26 ms** while a person walks, and a 3 cm move swings it hugely — so a 100 Hz sampler catches it easily.

Try it yourself — the workbook

`workbook.ipynb` — five sections, five figures

§1 (Goal 1): build the channel formula; plot the channel strength for a 3-echo room and watch the dips appear.

§2 (Goal 2): simulate steady and wandering links at known K ; recover K with the moment estimator; overlay the theory curves.

§3 (Goal 3): reproduce the loss-per-wall ladder; confirm the 0.5 and 11.0 dB steps.

§4 (Goal 4): plot the per-person effect (-0.050 / -0.064 dB) with its repeat-to-repeat spread.

§5 (Goal 5): recover the echoes by inverse transform; compute B_0 and T_0 ; show why motion is detectable.

Further reading

The sources behind this week

Further reading

- **Fallani et al. 2026** — derivation of the echo pattern and the channel in indoor multipath; how Wi-Fi cards acquire CSI from the preamble. (*fallani2026_04be*)
- **Ma et al. 2020** — broad survey of Wi-Fi sensing; free-space path loss; the Rician K-factor. *ACM Computing Surveys*. (*ma2020_4782*)
- **Wang et al. 2015** — multipath geometry for activity recognition; the path diagrams behind the echo-sum model. *MobiCom*. (*wang2015_48cf*)
- **Xie et al. 2015** — recovering the echo pattern from commodity hardware; coherence time and Doppler for walking people; resolution limits. *MobiCom*. (*xie2015_0389*)
- **Guarino et al. 2026** — the system model in element-wise form; reproducibility principles for sensing datasets. (*guarino2026_e72c*)
- **Depatla & Mostofi 2018** — counting people through walls with Wi-Fi; the line-crossing model, validated in concrete buildings — the contrast case for our plasterboard result. *PerCom*. (*depatla2018_97a9*)
- **Halperin et al. 2010** — the Linux 802.11n CSI Tool; how real hardware estimates the channel from the preamble. *SIGCOMM*. (*halperin2010_94f8*)
- **Zhang et al. 2024** — baseband channel formulation; carrier-frequency phase making the channel frequency-selective; indoor ray tracing. *ICNC*. (*zhang2024_df4a*)

Week 2: From OFDM to CSI — how a Wi-Fi receiver samples the channel on its subcarriers and turns it into the matrix the card reports.

Questions → course forum, tag #week1