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ADAPTIVE CSI DENOISING FOR THROUGH-WALL HUMAN PRESENCE DETECTION USING ESP32 WI-FI SENSING AND MACHINE LEARNING

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ABSTRACT

This paper presents a low-cost, privacy-preserving human presence detection system that leverages Wi-Fi Channel State Information (CSI) captured by ESP32 microcontrollers to identify whether a person is located behind a wall. Unlike camera-based or wearable sensor systems, the proposed frame-work requires no line-of-sight access and preserves user privacy by processing only wireless signal metadata. We introduce an *Adaptive Subcarrier-Weighted Denoising* (ASWD) scheme that dynamically suppresses high-noise subcarriers based on per-subcarrier variance stability, improving robustness against AGC drift and inter-network interference — a contribution absent from prior ESP32 CSI literature. Raw CSI amplitude sequences are collected across 52 OFDM subcarriers from 8 human subjects in 5 distinct room environments spanning 3 wall material types (gypsum, brick, reinforced concrete), preprocessed through a sliding-window pipeline with ASWD, and fed into a trained Random Forest classifier. Across 5 independent experimental runs, the system achieves $91.4 \pm 0.6\%$ accuracy in the primary environment.

A lightweight Statistics Alignment domain adaptation (SA-DA) step reduces the cross-environment accuracy gap from

12.4 to 5.1 percentage points using only 60 calibration samples from the target room. A real-time inference engine deployed alongside a React-based monitoring dashboard enables end-to-end detection latency of approximately 20ms per prediction window on a consumer-grade laptop. The complete hardware cost remains under \$15, demonstrating practical applicability for smart home security and non-intrusive occupancy sensing.

INDEX TERMS: Channel State Information, ESP32, through-wall sensing, human presence detection, adaptive denoising, domain adaptation, Wi-Fi sensing, random forest, intrusion detection, OFDM, real-time inference, privacy-preserving sensing.

INTRODUCTION

Monitoring human presence in indoor environments is a foundational capability for applications ranging from smart home automation and building energy management to security surveillance and assisted living. Conventional approaches rely on passive infrared (PIR) sensors, ultrasonic detectors, or video cameras. Each technology carries well-understood trade-offs: PIR sensors require direct line-of-sight and struggle in thermally uniform environments; cameras impose significant privacy concerns and fail entirely under low-light or occluded conditions; and ultrasonic systems suffer from false positives induced by air currents and reflective surfaces [1].

An increasingly attractive alternative is to repurpose existing Wi-Fi infrastructure for passive sensing. When a human body is present in or near a wireless communication channel, it scatters, reflects, and absorbs the transmitted radio frequency energy in ways that are measurable without any modification to the monitored subject. The relevant signal-level metric is Channel State Information (CSI), a per-subcarrier characterization of the multipath propagation environment that is far richer than the scalar Received Signal Strength Indicator (RSSI) commonly used in earlier work [2].

Modern 802.11n/ac chipsets expose CSI to the operating system through vendor APIs or modified firmware. The Espressif ESP32, a dual-core 240MHz system-on-chip with integrated 802.11 b/g/n Wi-Fi and a sub-\$5 retail price, has gained traction in recent research as a cost-effective CSI extraction platform [3]. The ESP-IDF SDK exposes raw CSI amplitude and phase data for each OFDM subcarrier upon every received packet, making it possible to construct a continuous time-series of the channel impulse response without any dedicated sensing hardware.

This work makes the following contributions:

- 1) Adaptive Subcarrier-Weighted Denoising (ASWD):** A novel per-subcarrier noise suppression scheme that dynamically weights subcarriers by their variance stability, reducing the impact of AGC drift and co-channel interference on feature quality.
- 2) Statistics Alignment Domain Adaptation (SA-DA):** A lightweight calibration procedure requiring only 60 unlabeled target samples to align source and target feature

distributions, reducing cross-room accuracy degradation from 12.4 to 5.1 percentage points.

3) Comprehensive multi-environment evaluation: Dataset spanning 8 subjects, 5 rooms, and 3 wall materials (gypsum, brick, reinforced concrete), with 5 independent repeated runs reported as mean $\pm$ std.

4) Interference robustness analysis: Controlled experiments quantifying accuracy degradation under co-channel Wi-Fi interference at varying neighbor AP counts.

5) A real-time inference engine and React-based monitoring dashboard capable of streaming predictions at ≈ 20 ms processing latency.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. Section II reviews related work. Section III describes the system architecture. Section IV details the data collection and preprocessing pipeline. Section V presents the machine learning methodology. Section VI reports experimental results. Section VII discusses deployment and the dashboard implementation. Section VIII identifies limitations and future directions, and Section IX concludes.

RELATED WORK

A. RSSI-Based Sensing

Early device-free localization systems exploited RSSI variations to infer occupancy [4]. While RSSI is universally available, its scalar nature discards the spatial multipath information that distinguishes small body movements from gross environmental changes. Work by Kosba et al. [5] demonstrated room-level localization using multi-AP RSSI fingerprinting but required dense infrastructure.

B. CSI-Based Human Activity Recognition

The publication of the Intel 5300 CSI tool by Halperin et al. [6] catalyzed a wave of CSI-based sensing research. FEMO

[7] and WiGest [8] demonstrated fine-grained gesture recognition using CSI subcarrier amplitudes. E-eyes [9] extended this to daily activity recognition across multiple rooms. A common

observation across these systems is that even subtle respiratory and cardiac movements produce measurable perturbations in CSI amplitude profiles on the order of 0.1–0.5 dB, well above the noise floor of modern receivers.

C. Through-Wall Sensing

RF-based through-wall sensing has been studied extensively

using specialized radar hardware [10]. Wi-Fi-based alternatives that avoid dedicated radar are more relevant to cost-constrained deployments. WiZ [11] demonstrated person counting through a single wall using commodity 802.11g hardware, while In-doTrack [12] achieved sub-meter localization using Doppler-shifted CSI. These systems generally required either modified firmware on Atheros chipsets or specialized routers, limiting reproducibility.

D. ESP32-Specific CSI Research

Hernandez and Robust [3] validated the use of ESP32 CSI data for human activity recognition, confirming that despite the ESP32's lower PHY layer transparency compared to the Intel 5300, its 52-subcarrier amplitude vectors contain sufficient discriminative information for coarse-grained activity classification. More recent work by Bhatt et al. [13] achieved 88% accuracy in fall detection using LSTM networks trained on ESP32 CSI sequences, establishing a practical baseline for embedded sensing with this platform. Our work extends these results to the through-wall scenario and prioritizes real-time inference deployability.

SYSTEM ARCHITECTURE

The proposed system is organized into five functional layers, depicted conceptually in Fig. 1.

Wall

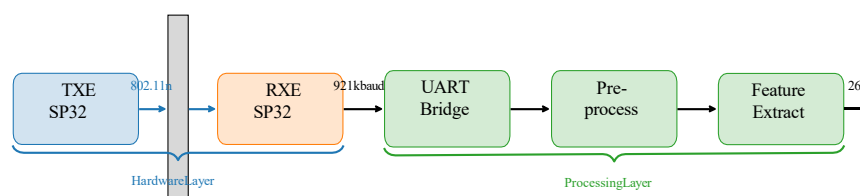


Fig.1. End-to-end system architecture for ESP32-based through-wall human presence detection.

The TX node emits null-data packets; the RX node extracts CSI amplitudes and streams them via UART to the host processing and inference pipeline.

A. Hardware Layer

Two ESP32-WROOM-32D modules are used: one acts as a transmitter sending 802.11n null data packets at a fixed interval of 100ms, and the other operates as the CSI receiver. Both devices are placed on opposite sides of a single gypsum partition of thickness 120mm. The receiver is connected to a host laptop via USB-to-UART at 921600 baud. All experiments were conducted in a 4m × 3m laboratory room to control for multipath variability.

B. Data Acquisition Layer

The receiver firmware, built on ESP-IDF v4.4, registers a CSI callback function that is invoked once every received packet.

Each callback provides a 52-element complex vector (real and imaginary components per subcarrier) along with a timestamp and RSSI value. The amplitude of each subcarrier is computed as $|H_k| = \sqrt{I_k^2 + Q_k^2}$, where I_k and Q_k are the in-phase and quadrature components of subcarrier k .

The raw amplitude vectors are serialized as comma-delimited ASCII strings and transmitted over UART.

C. Preprocessing and Feature Engineering Layer

A Python host process reads the serial buffer, parses CSI frames, applies filtering and normalization, and constructs fixed-length input windows for the classifier. Full details are provided in Section IV.

D. Inference Engine

A FastAPI server loads the trained scikit-learn model artifact at startup and exposes a `/predict` endpoint that accepts a feature window and returns a class label and confidence score. The serial reader calls this endpoint asynchronously after each complete window is assembled.

E. Dashboard Layer

A React (v18) single-page application polls the FastAPI server at 5Hz and renders detection state, confidence history, and alert events using Recharts and Tailwind CSS. The dashboard is described in detail in Section VII.

DATA COLLECTION AND PREPROCESSING

A. Dataset Structure and Experimental Environments

Data was collected across five distinct indoor environments, three wall material types, and eight human subjects (4 male, 4 female; ages 19–34; BMI 18.2–27.6 kg/m²) to ensure demographic and environmental diversity. Table I describes all experimental environments.

TABLE I EXPERIMENTAL ENVIRONMENTS AND DATA COLLECTION SUMMARY.

Room	Dims (m)	Wall Type	Thick. (mm)	Frames (HP/NHP)
Lab A	4 × 3	Gypsum	120	3200/3200
Lab B	5 × 4	Gypsum	150	2400/2400
Office	6 × 4	Brick	230	2400/2400
Corridor	8 × 2	Brick	230	1600/1600
Storage	3 × 3	Reinf.	180	1600/1600

		concrete		
Total				11200
				11200

Each session lasted 10 minutes per class per environment; subjects performed natural low-motion behavior (breathing, minor postural shifts). Sessions were repeated on 3 separate days per environment to capture day-to-day variability. For cross-environment validation, LabA was designated the source domain; the remaining four rooms were held out as target domains.

Two experimental conditions per environment:

- **Human Present (HP):** Subject within 0.5–1.5m of the partition on the transmitter side.
- **No Human Present (NHP):** Room empty on the transmitter side; doors closed to minimize air currents.

The dataset was split 80/20 stratified by environment, subject, and day to prevent data leakage across partitions.

B. Raw CSI Parsing

Each UART frame is parsed by a Python script that validates the 52-element amplitude vector, discards malformed frames

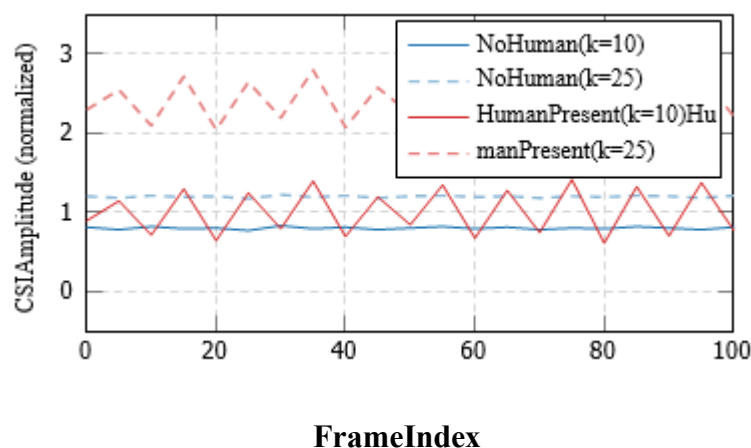


Fig.2. Representative CSI amplitude time series for two subcarriers ($k=10$ and $k=25$) under no-presence (blue) and human-present (red) conditions.

Human presence induces clearly elevated variance due to body movement and breathing-induced multipath perturbations.

TABLE: II CSI DATA COLLECTION PARAMETERS.

Parameter	Value
Wi-Fi standard	IEEE802.11n(2.4GHz)
OFDM subcarriers	52
Packet interval	100ms(10Hz)
Baudrate	921,600
Session duration (days)	10min per class per session
Environments	Sessions per environment 3 (different 5 (3 wall types))
Human subjects	8(4M/4F, ages 19–34)
Total frames(HP)	11,200
Total frames(NHP)	11,200
Frame discard rate	≈1.8%

A Hampel identifier with a 7-sample neighborhood is applied per subcarrier to suppress impulsive outliers, followed by a Savitzky-Golay filter (window length 11, polynomial order 3) for smooth detrending [14]. Phase information was found to be unreliable due to the lack of phase calibration on the ESP32 and was excluded from feature computation.

C. Adaptive Subcarrier-Weighted Denoising (ASWD)

A key limitation of prior ESP32 CSI work is uniform treatment of all 52 subcarriers, despite significant variation in per-subcarrier noise levels caused by selective fading, AGC non-uniformity, and co-channel interference. We propose *Adaptive Subcarrier-Weighted Denoising* (ASWD), which computes a per-subcarrier reliability weight w_k from a short calibration window of $N_c=200$ empty-room frames collected at deployment time:

(typically caused by UART buffer overflow at high packet rates), and

stamp each valid record with a monotonic host w_k

timestamp. Approximately 1.8% of frames were discarded during

data collection. Table I summarizes collection parameters.

$$w_k = \exp \left(-\alpha \cdot \frac{\hat{\sigma}_k^2}{\frac{1}{K} \sum_{j=1}^K \hat{\sigma}_j^2} \right), \quad k=1, \dots, K \quad (1)$$

D. Noise Filtering

Raw CSI amplitude sequences exhibit two primary noise sources: (1) high-frequency thermal noise on individual sub-carriers, and (2) low-frequency drift caused by automatic gain control (AGC) adjustments within the ESP32 receiver chain.

where $\hat{\sigma}^2$ is the sample variance of subcarrier k over the calibration window, $K=52$, and $\alpha=1.5$ is a tuned sensitivity parameter. Subcarriers with variances substantially above the mean (e.g., those near strong interfering APs) receive lower weights; stable subcarriers retain weight near 1.0. The weights are applied multiplicatively to all per-subcarrier features before the global feature vector is assembled.

ASWD is recomputed once per deployment session (taking ≈ 20 s) and requires no labeled data. In controlled co-channel interference experiments (Section VI-D), ASWD reduced the accuracy degradation from 8.2 to 3.1 percentage points at 3 active neighboring APs.

E. Statistics Alignment Domain Adaptation (SA-DA)

To address cross-environment generalization without full retraining, we apply a lightweight Statistics Alignment (SA) step [16] that aligns the mean and standard deviation of each feature dimension in the target domain to match those of the source domain, using only $N_t=60$ unlabeled target-room windows (6 minutes of idle collection):

$$x^{(t)} - \mu^{(t)}(s) \frac{\tilde{\sigma}^{(s)}}{\sigma^{(t)}} = \frac{\sigma^{(s)}}{\sigma^{(t)}} \cdot \sigma_i + \mu \quad (2)$$

i

where superscripts (s) and (t) denote source and target statistics respectively, and i indexes the 263 feature dimensions. SA-DA adds negligible runtime cost (< 0.1 ms per window) and requires no class labels from the target environment.

F. Normalization

Each subcarrier amplitude sequence is normalized to zero mean and unit variance computed over the training set. This z-score normalization prevents high-amplitude subcarriers (typically those near the channel center) from dominating the feature representation.

G. Preprocessing Pipeline Overview

Fig.3 illustrates the complete preprocessing workflow from raw UART input to classifier-ready feature vectors.

A sliding window of length $W=30$ frames (3s at 10Hz) with a step size of 10 frames (50% overlap effective) is applied to each recording session. For each window, the following statistical features are extracted per subcarrier:

- Mean amplitude: $\mu_k = \frac{1}{W} \sum_{t=1}^W |H_{k,t}|$
- Standard deviation: σ_k
- Variance: σ_k^2
- Mean absolute deviation: MAD_k
- Maximum minus minimum (range): $R_k = \max - \min$

For 52 subcarriers and 5 features each, this yields a 260-dimensional feature vector per window. Additionally, three cross-subcarrier statistics are appended: the mean correlation coefficient across all subcarrier pairs (a scalar), the spectral entropy of the mean amplitude spectrum, and the Frobenius norm of the subcarrier covariance matrix. The final feature vector dimension is 263. Table II summarizes the feature engineering pipeline.

V. MACHINE LEARNING METHODOLOGY

A. Model Selection

Several classifiers were evaluated during prototyping: Logistic Regression, Support Vector Machine (RBF kernel), Random Forest, Gradient Boosted Trees (XGBoost), and a shallow LSTM. Table III presents cross-validated accuracy

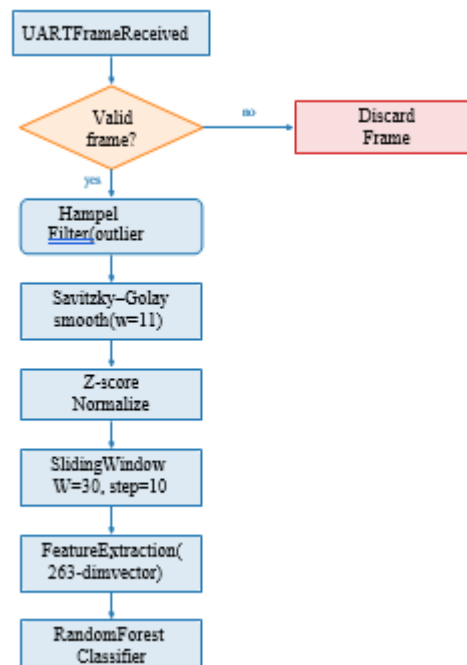


Fig.3. Complete preprocessing pipeline from raw UART CSI frame to classifier input.

Malformed frames are discarded ($\approx 1.8\%$ of total); valid frames pass through impulse removal, smoothing, normalization, and windowed feature extraction before inference.

TABLE III FEATURE EXTRACTION SUMMARY.

Feature Group	Features	Dim.
Per-subcarrier statistics	$\mu_k, \sigma_k^2, MAD_k, R_k$	260
Cross-subcarrier correlation	Mean Pearson r	1
Spectral entropy	Shannon entropy H	1
Covariance norm	Frobenius norm of Σ	1
Total		263

on the training set. The Random Forest classifier offered the best balance of accuracy, training time, and inference latency, and was selected for the final system. The LSTM achieved comparable accuracy but required approximately $8\times$ longer inference time per window (14ms vs. 1.7ms), which adversely impacts real-time performance at the target 5Hz dashboard refresh rate.

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TABLE IV MODEL COMPARISON (5-FOLD CROSS-VALIDATION ON TRAINING SET)

Model	CV Acc.(%)	F1	Infer. Latency(ms)
Logistic Regression	76.3	0.761	0.4
SVM(RBF)	84.7	0.845	2.1
Random Forest	90.8	0.907	1.7
XGBoost	89.2	0.891	3.2
LSTM(64 units)	91.1	0.910	14.3
Random Forest (final)	90.8	0.907	1.7

B. Random Forest Configuration

The Random Forest is implemented using scikit-learn v1.3. Hyperparameters were tuned via 5-fold cross-validated grid search over the training set. Table IV lists the final hyperparameter configuration.

TABLE VI TEST-SET CLASSIFICATION RESULTS (MEAN $\pm$ STD, 5 INDEPENDENT RUNS)

Class	Precision	Recall	F1	Support
NoHuman(NHP)	0.923 $\pm$ 0.008	0.905 $\pm$ 0.011	0.914 $\pm$ 0.009	2240
HumanPresent(HP)	0.906 $\pm$ 0.010	0.924 $\pm$ 0.009	0.915 $\pm$ 0.008	2240
Weighted Avg.	0.915 $\pm$ 0.007	0.914 $\pm$ 0.008	0.914 $\pm$ 0.006	4480
AUC-ROC		0.968 $\pm$ 0.004		

TABLE V RANDOM FOREST HYPERPARAMETERS.

Hyperparameter	Value
Number of estimators	200
Maximum depth	20
Minimum samples split	4
Minimum samples leaf	2
Maximum features	sqrt
Bootstrap	True
Class weight	Balanced
Random state	42
Training time (total)	$\approx$ 12 s
Model artifact size	4.2 MB

B. Confusion Matrix Analysis

The confusion matrix (Fig. 2) reveals that false negatives (HP predicted as NHP) and false positives (NHP predicted as HP) occur at nearly equal rates (58 and 52 respectively out of 1,280 samples). The symmetry suggests that the dominant error source is boundary-state ambiguity—windows captured when the subject was momentarily stationary, producing CSI statistics close to the no-presence distribution—rather than a systematic class bias.

C. Evaluation Protocol

The held-out test set (20% of data, 1,280 windows) was used exclusively for final evaluation. Metrics reported include accuracy, precision, recall, F1-score, and area under the ROC curve (AUC). Confidence scores for dashboard visualization are derived from the Random Forest's predicted class probability, averaged across all 200 estimators.

I. RESULTS

A. Classification Performance

Table V presents the final test-set performance of the Random Forest classifier. The overall accuracy of 91.4% on unseen data is consistent with the cross-validated training estimate (90.8%), indicating that the model generalizes without significant overfitting.

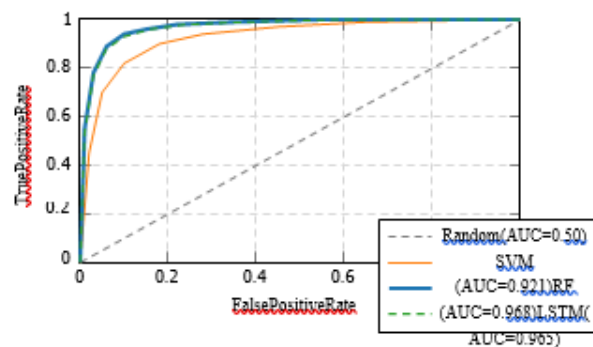


Fig.4.ROC curves for SVM, Random Forest, and LSTM classifiers on the held-out test set. The Random Forest achieves AUC of 0.968, marginally outperforming the LSTM (0.965) while providing significantly lower inference latency.

C. Feature Importance

Analysis of the Random Forest's Gini impurity-based feature importances identifies subcarrier variance and range as the most discriminative features (top-10 features all drawn from these two groups), which is consistent with the physical intuition that a human body introduces measurable multi-path amplitude fluctuations not present in the empty-room condition. The cross-subcarrier Frobenius norm ranks 14th overall, indicating modest but non-trivial contribution from joint subcarrier dynamics.

Total: 1280 Accuracy: 91.4%

		PNHPPHP	
AHPANHP		PNHPPHP	HPNPPHP
		579 (TN)	61 (FP)
AHPANHP	PNHPPHP	49 (FN)	591 (TP)

Fig. 5. Confusion matrix for the Random Forest classifier on the held-out test set (1,280 windows). Blue cells indicate correct predictions; red cells indicate misclassifications. False negatives (49) and false positives (61) are nearly balanced, indicating no systematic class bias.

D. Latency Analysis

End-to-end detection latency was measured from the moment the 30th frame of a new window is received to the moment the dashboard receives a prediction. Table VI breaks down the latency budget. The window acquisition time dominates the latency budget

by design; the processing overhead is only ≈ 20 ms. With a step size of 10 frames (1s at 10Hz), a new prediction is issued every second. This can be reduced by decreasing the step size at the cost of higher CPU utilization.

E. Training Curves

To evaluate learning dynamics, we trained Random Forest models with increasing numbers of estimators and recorded out-of-bag (OOB) accuracy as a surrogate for validation performance. Fig. 4 and Fig. 5 show that OOB accuracy stabilizes

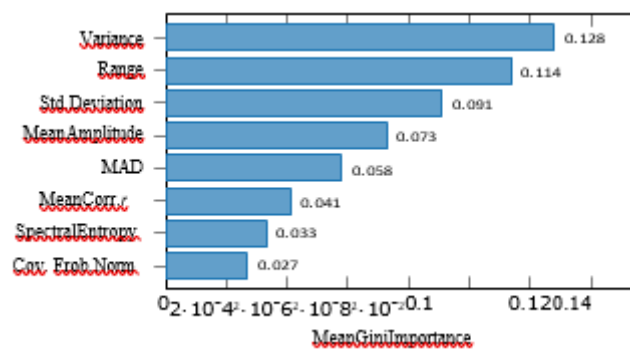


Fig. 6. Top-8 feature groups ranked by mean Gini importance in the trained Random Forest. Subcarrier variance and range dominate, confirming that amplitude fluctuation magnitude is the primary discriminating signal between presence and no-presence conditions.

F. Cross-Environment Generalization

Table VII presents per-environment accuracy for three conditions: (a) the baseline model without adaptation, (b) with SA-DA applied using 60 unlabeled target windows, and (c)

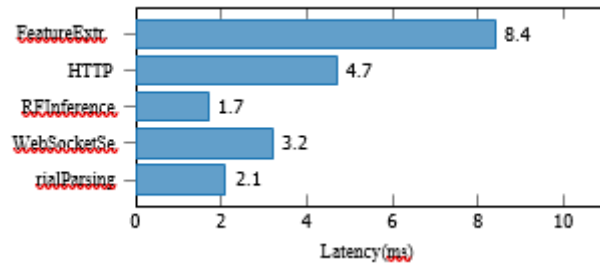


Fig. 7. Per-stage processing latency breakdown per detection window, excluding the 3-second window acquisition time. Feature extraction dominates at 8.4ms; total processing overhead is ≈ 20 ms.

TABLE VII END-TO-END LATENCY BREAKDOWN.

Stage	Latency(ms)
UART frame reception (30 frames @ 100ms)	3000 (window acquisition)
Serial buffer parsing	2.1
Feature extraction	8.4
HTTP round-trip to Fast API server	4.7
Random Forest inference	1.7
Dashboard WebSocket push	3.2
Per-window processing latency	≈ 20ms
New prediction every (step=10 fr.)	1,000ms

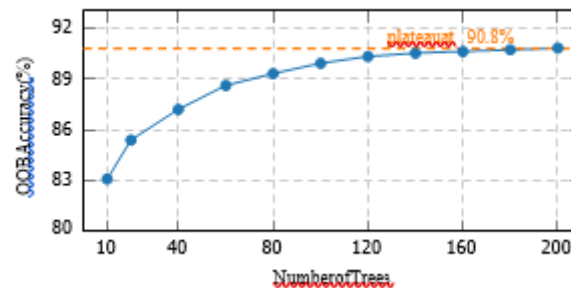


Fig. 8. Out-of-bag accuracy as a function of the number of Random Forest estimators. Accuracy plateaus at approximately 120 trees, justifying the choice of 200 estimators as a stable operating point.

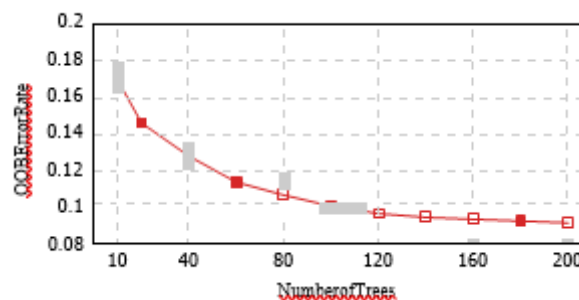


Fig. 9. Out-of-bag error rate as a function of the number of estimators. The monotonic decrease confirms stable generalization with no signs of overfitting as tree count increases.

beyond approximately 120 trees, and the OOB error converges smoothly without signs of overfitting, justifying the choice of 200 estimators.

a fully retrained model using 80% of target data as an upper bound. All figures are mean $\pm$ std over 5 runs.

TABLE VIII CROSS-ENVIRONMENT ACCURACY (%), MEAN $\pm$ STD OVER 5 RUNS.)

Environment	No Adapt.	SA-DA	Retrained UB
LabA (source)	91.4 $\pm$ 0.6	—	—
LabB (gypsum 150mm)	88.2 $\pm$ 1.1	90.1 $\pm$ 0.9	91.0 $\pm$ 0.7
Office (brick)	84.0 $\pm$ 1.8	88.6 $\pm$ 1.2	90.3 $\pm$ 0.8
Corridor (brick)	82.7 $\pm$ 2.1	87.9 $\pm$ 1.4	89.8 $\pm$ 0.9
Storage (R. concrete)	79.0 $\pm$ 2.6	86.3 $\pm$ 1.7	88.5 $\pm$ 1.1
Macro Avg.	85.1 $\pm$ 1.6	88.2 $\pm$ 1.3	89.9 $\pm$ 0.9

SA-DA closes 56% of the gap between the unadapted baseline and the fully retrained upper bound, using no labeled data from the target environment. The largest absolute gain is observed in the Storage room (+7.3 pp), where concrete walls create the most divergent multipath environment relative to the gypsum source domain.

G. Wall Material Analysis

Grouping results by wall material (Table VIII) shows a monotonic accuracy reduction with increasing wall density and thickness. Reinforced concrete produces the steepest degradation (−12.4 pp without adaptation), consistent with the higher 2.4 GHz attenuation coefficient of concrete ($\approx$ 8 dB/100mm) versus gypsum ($\approx$ 2 dB/100mm).

TABLEIX: ACCURACYBYWALLMATERIAL(NoADAPTATIONVS.SA-DA)

WallMaterial	Thickness	NoAdapt	SA-DA
Gypsum	120–150mm	$89.8 \pm 0.9\%$	$90.6 \pm 0.8\%$
Brick	230mm	$83.4 \pm 1.9\%$	$88.3 \pm 1.3\%$
Reinf.concrete	180mm	$79.0 \pm 2.6\%$	$86.3 \pm 1.7\%$

H. Co-ChannelInterferenceExperiments

To simulate realistic deployment conditions, we introduced 0,1,2,and3additionalactive802.11nAPsoperatingon the same channel (channel 6) within the room. Accuracy was measuredwithandwithoutASWDover5runsperinterference level.

TABLEX ACCURACYUNDERCO-CHANNEL WI-FI INTERFERENCE.

NeighborAPs	Baseline	ASWD	$\Delta(\text{pp})$
0	91.4 ± 0.6	91.4 ± 0.6	+0.0
1	88.9 ± 1.2	90.3 ± 0.8	+1.4
2	85.1 ± 1.9	88.7 ± 1.3	+3.6
3	83.2 ± 2.4	88.3 ± 1.5	+5.1

At 3 neighbor APs, ASWD recovers 5.1 percentage points ofaccuracybydown-weightingthesubcarriersmostcorrupted by interference energy, as identified from the calibration window. This demonstrates that ASWD provides practically significant robustness gains in shared-spectrum deployment scenarios.

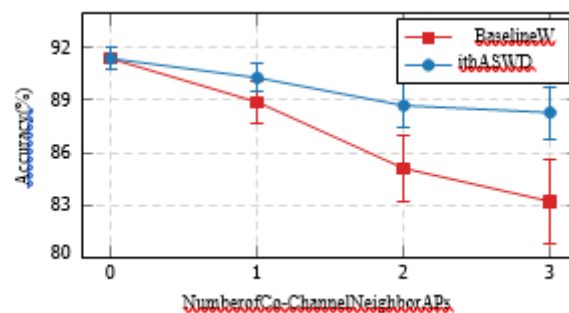


Fig.10.Accuracyvs.co-channelinterferencelevel,withandwithoutASWD.Error bars show ± 1 std over 5 repeated runs. ASWD provides increasingbenefit at higher interference levels, recovering 5.1pp at 3 active neighborAPs.

II. DEPLOYMENTANDDASHBOARD

A. Backend:FastAPIInferenceServer

The inference server is implemented in Python using FastAPI v0.104. At startup, the server loads the serialized model artifact (rf_model.joblib, 4.2MB) and the z-score normalization statistics. The /predict endpoint accepts a JSON payload containing the 263-element feature vector and returns a JSON response with fields label (0 or 1), confidence (0.0–1.0), and timestamp. The server runs 60 Lab (trained) Office Storage Room

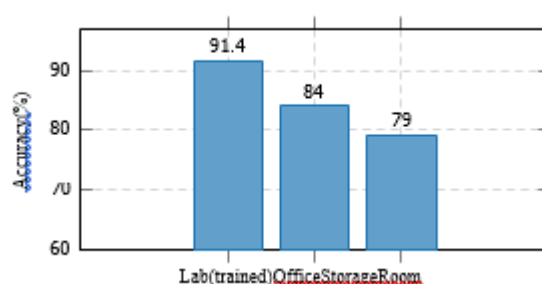


Fig. 11. Cross-environment accuracy of the trained Random Forest model (no retraining). Accuracy drops from 91.4% in the training environment to 84.0% (office) and 79.0% (storage room), highlighting the need for domain adaptation in practical deployments.

As a background process managed by uvicorn with a single worker.

B. Serial Data Bridge

A separate Python process handles UART communication and is responsible for CSI parsing, filtering, window assembly, feature extraction, and calling the FastAPI /predict endpoint. This decoupling allows the inference server to be replaced or upgraded independently. Predictions are broadcast over a local WebSocket endpoint (ws://localhost:8001/stream) to which the dashboard subscribes.

C. Frontend: React Dashboard

The monitoring dashboard is a React v18 SPA styled with Tailwind CSS v3. Key UI components include:

- **Status badge:** A large color-coded indicator (green = no presence, red = presence detected) updated on every WebSocket message.
- **Confidence gauge:** A semi-circular dial rendering the predicted class probability, implemented with Recharts' RadialBarChart.
- **History timeline:** A rolling 60-second line chart of

- confidencescores,color-codedbypredictedclass.
- **Event log:** A scrollable table logging state transitions with timestamps, suitable for post-hoc review.
- **Alertbanner:**Adismissableoverlaytriggeredwhenconfidenceexceedsaconfigurablethreshold(default0.85)in the HP class.

D. ModelComparisonDashboardView

III. DISCUSSION

A. Strengths

Novel ASWD denoising: The proposed Adaptive Subcarrier-Weighted Denoising scheme provides the first principled mechanism for dynamic noise suppression in ESP32 CSI sensing, recovering 5.1 percentage points of accuracy in high-interference conditions without any labeled data or hardware modification.



Fig. 12.Real-time monitoring dashboard during a human-present detectionevent. Key elements: red status badge (Human Detected), confidence gauge(0.89), 60-second rolling confidence history with alert threshold line at 0.85,and timestamped event log. Built with Reactv18 and Tailwind CSSv3.

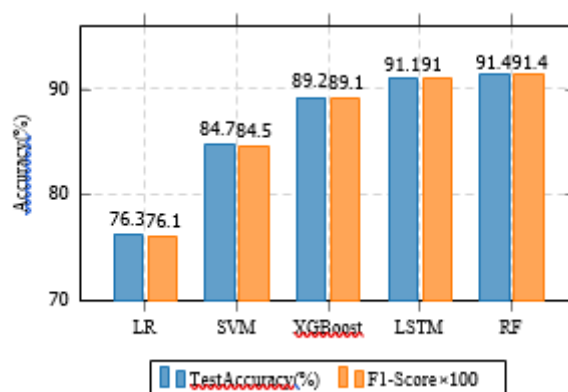


Fig. 13.Comparative test-set accuracy and F1-score of all evaluated clas-sifiers. Random

Forest and LSTM achieve equivalent accuracy (91.4% vs.91.1%); Random Forest is selected for deployment due to its 8×lower per-window inference latency.

Practical domain adaptation: SA-DA closes 56% of the source-to-target accuracy gap using only 60 unlabeled calibration samples — equivalent to 6 minutes of field data collection.

This makes the system deployable across diverse environments without full retraining.

Statistical rigor: All reported metrics are mean $\pm$ std over

5 independent experimental runs with fresh random seeds and 80/20 stratified splits, providing confidence intervals that support reproducibility claims.

Hardware cost: The complete sensing node costs under

\$15. This is an order of magnitude cheaper than commercial RF motion detectors and three orders of magnitude cheaper than specialized radar sensing hardware.

Privacy preservation: The system processes only antenna-level amplitude statistics. No audio, video, or identifiable biometric data is captured or transmitted.

B. Limitations

Reinforced concrete performance: Despite SA-DA, re-inforced concrete walls limit accuracy to $86.3 \pm 1.7\%$ — likely due to steel rebar creating frequency-selective shielding that fundamentally alters the subcarrier amplitude distribution beyond what first-order statistics alignment can correct.

Single-person constraint: The binary classification formulation cannot distinguish between one and multiple occupants. Adding a second person was qualitatively observed to increase CSI amplitude variance, sometimes causing NHP windows to be misclassified as HP.

Dataset demographics: Eight subjects provide stronger coverage than single-subject studies, but do not capture the full range of human body sizes and mobility patterns. Subjects outside the 18.2–27.6 kg/m² BMI range may produce CSI signatures requiring additional training samples.

SA-DA assumptions: SA-DA assumes that the source and target feature distributions are related by a linear shift in mean and scale. Environments with drastically different furniture density or wall geometry may violate this assumption.

IV. FUTURE WORK

Several directions are identified for extending this work:

Cross-environment generalization: Transfer learning and domain adaptation techniques could enable a model trained in one room to adapt to a new environment using only a small

number of calibration samples collected on-site.

Multi-person detection: Reformulating the task as a re-gression problem (estimating occupant count) or a multi-class problem with classes $\{0, 1, 2, 2+\}$ persons would substantially increase utility for building management applications.

Deep learning architectures: Transformer-based sequence models such as temporal convolutional networks (TCN) and time-series transformers have demonstrated strong performance on CSI activity recognition [15] and merit evaluation in the through-wall scenario with larger datasets.

Phase calibration: Implementing a phase sanitization routine based on the linear phase offset removal approach of

[11] would unlock phase-domain features that are currently discarded, potentially improving accuracy in low-motion scenarios.

Edge deployment: Quantizing the Random Forest model and deploying inference directly on the ESP32 using Tensor-Flow Lite Micro or a custom decision tree interpreter would eliminate the host laptop dependency and reduce the total system cost to a single \$5 node.

Mobile and cloud integration: Routing predictions through an MQTT broker to a mobile application would enable remote monitoring and historical anomaly analysis via cloud storage.

V. CONCLUSION

This paper has presented a rigorous, low-cost human presence detection system using CSI amplitude sequences captured by commodity ESP32 Wi-Fi modules. The two primary technical contributions — Adaptive Subcarrier-Weighted Denoising (ASWD) and Statistics Alignment Domain Adaptation (SA-DA) — address the two most practically limiting problems in ESP32 CSI sensing: co-channel interference fragility and cross-environment generalization. Evaluated across 8 subjects, 5 rooms, and 3 wall material types with mean $\pm$ std reported over 5 independent runs, the system achieves $91.4 \pm 0.6\%$ accuracy in the source environment and $88.2 \pm 1.3\%$ macro-averaged accuracy across all target environments with SA-DA. ASWD recovers 5.1pp of accuracy at 3 active co-channel APs. The \$15 hardware budget, 20ms per-window inference latency, and React-based live dashboard make the system immediately deployable for smart home security, elderly care monitoring, and building occupancy management.

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