Received 18 August 2022; revised 16 September 2022; accepted 17 September 2022. Date of publication 21 September 2022; date of current version 3 October 2022.

Digital Object Identifier 10.1109/OJCOMS.2022.3208323

Machine Learning for CSI Recreation in the Digital Twin Based on Prior Knowledge

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This work was supported in part by the German Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF) under Grant 16KIS1184 (FunKI).

ABSTRACT Knowledge of channel state information (CSI) is fundamental to many functionalities for mobile communication systems. With the advance of machine learning (ML) and digital maps, i.e., digital twins, we have a big opportunity to learn the propagation environment and design novel methods to derive and report CSI. In this work, we propose to combine untrained neural networks (UNNs) and conditional generative adversarial networks (cGANs) for MIMO channel recreation based on prior knowledge. The UNNs learn the prior-CSI for some locations which are used to build the input to a cGAN. Based on the prior-CSI estimates, their locations and the location of the desired channel, the cGAN is trained to output the channel expected at the desired location. This combined approach can be used for low overhead CSI reporting as, after training, we only need to report the desired location. Our results show that our CSI recreation method is successful in modelling the wireless channel under different configurations of prior-CSI spatial sampling. In addition, the results consider a real world measurement campaign for indoor line of sight and non-line of sight channels. The signal to noise ratio (SNR) achieved by our CSI recreation is better than the SNR reported by the measured campaign providers. Moreover, our CSI recreation provides means for low overhead CSI reporting as the UNN structure is underparameterized compared to the full explicit CSI, and only the desired location is needed for the cGAN to recreate the desired CSI.

INDEX TERMS Channel estimation, channel interpolation, UNN, cGAN, digital twin.

I. INTRODUCTION

V ISIONS for the 6th generation of mobile communications point towards the fusion of the real and the digital worlds, e.g., mixed-reality experiences, where the network needs to develop useful knowledge of the physical world based on collected data [1]. In that context, artificial intelligence and machine learning (AI/ML) applications play an important role for the design of 6G systems. Today, AI/ML applications for physical layer are gaining momentum in standardization bodies, such as 3GPP [2] and O-RAN [3]. Specifically for 3GPP release 18, a study item was initiated in the physical layer working group (RAN 1) to discuss AI/ML for the new radio (NR) air interface [4].

A digital twin is a virtual model that represents at least in some relevant and predefined aspects a real object. The digital model conveys real measurements, e.g., from sensors, and simulations which allow to generate insights about the physical object [5]. The concept arose from the product life-cycle management area within NASA where different sensed data would be conveyed in the digital twin to continuously monitor the health of the system, i.e., a flying vehicle [6]. From a wireless communications prospective, combining AI/ML capabilities with virtual representations of the real world, enables a variety of possibilities for wireless network planning, deployment, and management. For the radio access network (RAN), the digital twin could run at the base station (BS) side processing collected data to store environmental characteristics. For instance, the collected data can be user equipment (UE) measurements, LIDAR data, or ray-tracing simulations. This aggregated memory is used in our case as prior knowledge to interpolate the channel state information (CSI) and to reduce the reporting overhead. In

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order to leverage the potential of a digital twin for the wireless propagation environment, full knowledge of the CSI for a set of known locations is desired such that most of the real propagation effects can be represented. In this work, CSI recreation refers to the combination of channel estimation and channel interpolation for the purpose of reducing the CSI reporting overhead. We propose to combine two AI/ML methods, untrained neural networks (UNNs) and a conditional generative adversarial network (cGAN), for channel recreation on the digital twin. The main goal is to minimize the overall complexity of the neural networks (NNs), reduce the training time, and enable low CSI reporting overhead. In that context, the UNNs provide accurate CSI for some known locations, while the cGAN provides some interpolation functionality to minimize the required number of locations with accurate CSI.

The works in [7], [8], [9], and [10] have shown how to combine multi-modal data from ray-tracing simulations, lidar, and environment images for beam selection, either in vehicular scenarios or in scenarios with unmanned aerial vehicles. In all those papers, the CSI is generated from raytracing and constitutes a feature for deciding on the best beam. Furthermore, [10] shows an idea of what a digital twin of the wireless propagation scenario should look like. The authors in [11] propose to estimate large scale fading maps based on top-view images of the propagation environment. Their FadeNet method is inspired by the U-Net NN architecture, and it is trained under supervised learning using ray-tracing simulations as ground truth. In contrast to the state of the art, our solution does not rely on multimodal data, such as lidar or environment images, which allow us to reduce the complexity of our NN architectures. Our CSI recreation method is different from RF fingerprinting algorithms mainly because we are interested in the smallscaling fading characteristics of the propagation environment, and RF fingerprinting usually relies on the received signal strength [12], [13].

UNNs were first proposed in [14] to solve inverse problems, such as denoising, super-resolution and inpainting. The term 'untrained' refers to an algorithm that avoids a huge data collection phase as the updates of the gradient descent are for a single image measurement. The *deep decoder* architecture as proposed in [15] simplifies the structure of a UNN, making it underparameterized. For wireless communications, this means that we can fit a UNN to directly estimate the wireless channel based on a small noisy measurement campaign, i.e., a few time snapshots, without the need of noiseless labels. The work in [16] has proposed the use of UNNs for MIMO channel estimation under pilot contamination. Despite the limitation to statistical channel models, UNNs could reduce the noise level of the measured signal. In our recent work [17], we have shown that UNNs store prior knowledge on the propagation environment. Our UNN estimator provided an estimation gain of about 10 dB in the low SNR regime when compared with the minimum mean squared error (MMSE) estimator. Moreover, the stored

prior knowledge can be accessed by transfer learning, which improves the MIMO channel estimation performance. Our current work differentiates from [16] in the usage of the UNN algorithm and its architecture. The novelty of our work consists in using the UNN structures for low overhead CSI reporting and taking their CSI estimates as prior information for the cGAN.

The simplicity of UNNs comes at the cost of a lack of generalization. Since there is no dataset collection for the updates of the weights update, iterating the gradient descent algorithm is always needed when a new set of channel measurements is acquired [17]. Different from UNNs, generative adversarial networks (GANs) need a big data collection and training phases, which steers the generator neural network to mimic the data distribution [18] and leads to a high generalization capability. For wireless mobile radio systems, GANs are often concerned with physical layer issues such as channel modeling and data augmentation [19], [20]. Recently, [21] has proposed to use a Wasserstein GAN to estimate the wireless channel and later adjust the GAN's input random vector to improve the channel estimates. In [22], the authors study the GAN for wideband channel estimation. Conditional GANs (cGANs) provide some prior-knowledge to their generator and discriminator NNs which should ease the mapping task [23]. A cGAN is used in [24] to estimate the millimeter wave (mm-Wave) virtual channel covariance matrix based on prior knowledge of a training sequence. A cGAN and a variational autoencoder (VAE) GAN are used in [25], [26], but in a context of end-to-end learning where the final objective is to predict the transmitted symbols, not the wireless channel. In our recent work [27], we have proposed to use a cGAN for channel estimation in MIMO arrays with mixed radio frequency chains, where in a part of the array, antenna elements were turned-off. Our results demonstrated the good generalization capability of cGANs. Our current work differentiates from applications of GANs, such as in [21], because the input to the algorithm is random noise, while in cGANs the input contains information with physical meaning to the problem, e.g., CSI of neighbouring UEs. The use case of cGANs proposed here is completely different from [27], where the missing parts, aimed to be estimated, were the channels of some antenna elements within a single time snapshot MIMO orthogonal frequency-division multiplexing (OFDM) radio channel.

Motivated by the generalization capabilities of cGANs and the underparameterization of UNNs, we propose to combine them for MIMO channel recreation within a digital twin of a propagation area. The main contributions of this paper are:

• We introduce a new CSI recreation method where, first, the UNNs are used to generate prior-CSI estimates for a set of locations. Second, the cGAN uses the prior-CSI estimates together with their locations to recreate the CSI in a desired location. Hence, our approach can be used to add the small scale fading characteristics of the wireless channels to the digital twin. To the best of the authors' knowledge, this is the first work proposing to combine UNNs with cGANs for CSI recreation.

- We present how to perform regular grid-like CSI interpolation with UNNs and, based on these results, motivate the choice of cGANs for CSI recreation. This is the first work that shows the applicability of UNNs for the purpose of channel interpolation. Moreover, we compare them with standard interpolation using FIR filters.
- We present results for CSI recreation using real world channel measurements of line of sight (LOS) and non-line of sight (NLOS) indoor propagation environments. Moreover, we evaluate the performance of CSI recreation under different spatial sampling strategies of prior-CSI measurements for the UNN CSI estimators. In addition, we set up experiments to assess the importance of the location matrix to the cGAN models, and the effect of inaccurate location estimates on the CSI recreation performance.
- Moreover, after deriving the weights for all the AI/ML models, only the desired location needs to be reported. Therefore, our solution enables low CSI reporting overhead if the AI/ML models are exchanged between the UEs and the BS.

In this paper, Section II introduces our proposed method, Section III presents details about our UNN for prior knowledge CSI estimation and how to derive a UNN CSI interpolator from a UNN CSI estimator. Next, Section IV shows the processing performed at the cGAN for CSI recreation using location and prior-CSI, Section V presents our simulation methodology and results, and Section VI concludes our paper.

Regarding the notation, *a*, **a**, **A** and \mathcal{A} represent, respectively, scalars, column vectors, matrices and *D*-dimensional tensors. The superscript ^{*T*}, denotes transposition. For a tensor $\mathcal{A} \in \mathbb{C}^{M_1 \times M_2 \times \dots M_D}$, M_d refers to the tensor dimension in the *d*th mode. A *d*-mode unfolding of a tensor is written as $[\mathcal{A}]_{(d)} \in \mathbb{C}^{M_d \times M_1 \dots M_{d-1} M_{d+1} \dots M_D}$ where all *d*-mode vectors are aligned as columns of a matrix following a forward cyclical index ordering. The *d*-mode vectors of \mathcal{A} are obtained by varying the *d*th index from 1 to M_D and keeping all other indices fixed. Moreover, $\mathcal{Y} = \mathcal{A} \times_d \mathbf{U} \in \mathbb{C}^{M_1 \times M_2 \times \dots \times M_{d-1} \times J \times M_{d+1} \times \dots \times M_D}$ is the *d*-mode product between a *D*-way tensor $\mathcal{A} \in \mathbb{C}^{M_1 \times M_2 \dots \times M_D}$ and a matrix $\mathbf{U} \in \mathbb{C}^{J \times M_d}$ [28] In addition, the concatenation operation $[\mathcal{A} \sqcup_d \mathcal{B}]$ denotes the concatenation of \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{B} along the *d*th mode. The concatenation \sqcup_d operation also applies to matrices.

II. CSI RECREATION WITH PRIOR KNOWLEDGE

Here, we propose a functionality to the digital twin that we name *CSI recreation*. In the simplest case, the digital twin is a map that we need to populate with channel measurements to allow better performance of other functions, such as beam management, hand over, and network management.



FIGURE 1. Schematic of our proposed ML solution for CSI recreation for a digital twin. Each measurement campaign is represented by a blue box where the UNN performs channel estimation. In purple, we show the second ML part where a cGAN is trained with knowledge of the prior-CSI (in blue), and the location of the desired channels. The cGAN output is the CSI recreation of the desired channels.

The channels that characterize the digital twin can be collected from measurement campaigns or realistic simulations. Depending on the size of the propagation area that we consider, this data collection phase may take a long time, which is not desired. Hence, we propose the CSI recreation, where a neural network (NN) is trained to recreate wireless channels based on the knowledge of a few real channel measurements. More specifically, we combine a UNN for channel estimation of the prior-CSI with a cGAN for the final channel recreation at the desired locations, as illustrated in Figure 1.

In this work, we consider a massive MIMO OFDM wireless channel $\mathcal{H} \in \mathbb{C}^{N_{sp} \times N_{sub} \times N_{ant}}$, at a fixed BS equipped with an uniform rectangular array (URA) containing N_{ant} antenna elements, a single-antenna UE that is moving along a prescribed trajectory, operating with N_{sub} OFDM subcarriers, and collecting N_{sp} time snapshots. Each time snapshot is collected in a Cartesian location point $\Gamma = \{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}\} \in \mathbb{R}^{N_{sp} \times 3}$ relative to the BS position. The wireless channels for the total area of the digital twin under consideration is referred as \mathcal{H} , from which a small part \mathcal{H}_{mes} is selected for the prior-CSI estimation.

Figure 1 shows our proposed AI/ML framework to recreate CSI in a certain location area (in purple) based on channel measurements of neighboring UEs (in blue). There are two AI/ML instances which collaborate to recreate the CSI at a desired location, the first in blue and the second in purple. The first AI/ML instance aims to find the prior-CSI $\mathcal{H}_p \in \mathbb{C}^{N'_{sp} \times N_{sub} \times N_{ant}}$ based on the measured channels $\mathcal{H}_{mes} \in \mathbb{C}^{N'_{sp} \times N_{sub} \times N_{ant}}$, where $N'_{sp} \ll N_{sp}$. We employ a UNN for this purpose where each UNN estimates $\mathcal{H}_p = [\mathfrak{Re}{\mathcal{H}_p} \sqcup_3 \mathfrak{Im}{\mathcal{H}_p}] \in \mathbb{R}^{N'_{sp} \times N_{sub} \times 2N_{ant}}$, the channel of a single UE over multiple time snapshots. Even though UNNs are structures with low complexity [15], deriving one UNN model for each possible location in a propagation environment is unfeasible as the weights should be adapted by new gradient iterations [17]. Therefore, we propose to use a second AI/ML instance based on a cGAN for the interpolation functionality due to its generalization capabilities. The second AI/ML instance is trained to compute the recreated-CSI $\mathcal{H}_r \in \mathbb{R}^{(S+1) \times N_{sub} \times (2N_{ant}+1)}$ in the desired location $\Gamma_r \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times 3}$ based on the knowledge of a sub-set of *S* selected prior-CSI $\mathcal{H}_c \in \mathbb{R}^{(S+1) \times N_{sub} \times (2N_{ant}+1)}$ and their respective locations $\Gamma_p \in \mathbb{R}^{S \times 3}$, more details will be provided in Section IV.

Since UNNs do not need 'labels' to find their best weights, we can perform a small measurement campaign and use the UNN-estimated channels as conditional input to the cGAN. In a 'day-zero' operation where not many CSI measurements are available, the cGAN can be trained with target channels (purple area in Figure 1) derived from simulations. Then, the prior-CSI from the UNNs can help to adjust the model to real propagation conditions. In the long run, we could update the cGAN model based on collected real world measurements. In this scenario, the availability of priors at the conditional input reduces the complexity of the NN structure and its training time if compared to common GANs. In the following sections, we explain in detail how each part of the algorithm is trained.

Due to the low computational complexity of UNNs, the UE can derive the UNN weights and send it to the BS. Then, the BS is able to reconstruct the prior-CSI and can train a cGAN to recreate the CSI at a desired location, which is different from the prior-CSI locations. Since the BS collects and stores all the reported prior-CSI, there is no direct collaboration between the UEs for CSI recreation. After deriving the optimum weights of the cGAN, the UEs within the representation area can report their location Γ_r to the BS instead of the full explicit CSI, which reduces the CSI feedback overhead. Currently, the 3GPP type II CSI reporting is a codebook based feedback that does not allow to recover all the channel coefficients, which limits the use of these reports. Once the CSI recreation is trained and the digital twin is populated with environment knowledge, such as the propagation channel, a map of the scenario, and other side information, there is plenty of information available within the digital twin that can be exploited for CSI prediction or other applications. For improved reliability of the CSI recreation method, the BS can send a trained cGAN model to the UE. Hence, the UE is able to identify when the BS will fail on its CSI recreation and may trigger a correction procedure.

III. ESTIMATION OF PRIOR-CSI WITH UNNS

The underparametrization of a deep decoder [15] and its capability to optimize noisy measurements and recover missing pixels of an image have motivated us to investigate UNNs for prior-CSI estimation and prior-CSI interpolation. Since a UNN does not need the true-labels for computing the gradient iterations, the UE can perform a small measurement campaign and directly use the channel measurements for finding the best UNN weights. Different from prior art, in



FIGURE 2. General layer structure of a UNN *P* used to estimate the prior-CSI $\mathcal{H}_p = P(\mathcal{K}^*, \mathcal{Z}_0)$, where \mathcal{K}^* is the collection of optimum weights for the *L* layers. There are L - 2 inner layers in orange, one pre-output layer in yellow, and one output layer in olive. In blue, we represent \mathcal{Z}_0 the random input tensor.

this section we also describe how UNNs can be used for CSI interpolation. In Section V, we show that this interpolation capability is limited to successive close by measurements. The following sections present the data pre-processing, the UNN architecture and how the gradient descent algorithm is used to update the UNN weights for channel estimation and channel interpolation.

A. DATA PRE-PROCESSING FOR UNN

The input signal to a UNN is a random noise seed $\mathcal{Z}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^{b \times c \times k_1}$, where $b = N'_{sp}/2^{L-2}$, $c = N_{sub}/2^{L-2}$, k_1 is the number of filters in the first layer, and *L* is the number of layers. The input tensor \mathcal{Z}_0 is drawn from a uniform distribution U(-a, +a) defined on the interval [-a, +a] and kept fixed during the iterations to update the gradient descent. The measured channel \mathcal{H}_{mes} is preprocessed as:

• \mathcal{H}_{mes} is normalized by its Frobenius norm, which is computed as

$$\|\mathcal{H}_{\rm mes}\|_{\rm F} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{N_{\rm sp}'} \sum_{j=1}^{N_{\rm sub}} \sum_{m=1}^{N_{\rm ant}} |h_{{\rm mes}_{i,j,m}}|^2}, \qquad (1)$$

and then multiplied by a scaling factor. This procedure is taken to control the range of the values of the channel coefficients. The values should not be too small and should be within the operational range of the activation function in the output layer. Hence, this preprocessing step helps to ease convergence.

*H*_{mes} ∈ C<sup>N'_{sp}×N_{sub}×N_{ant} is rearranged by concatenating [ℜe{*H*_{mes}}⊔₃ ℑm{*H*_{mes}}] in the dimension corresponding to the antenna elements.
</sup>

After those operations, $\mathcal{H}_{\text{mes}} \in \mathbb{R}^{N_{\text{sp}}^{\prime} \times N_{\text{sub}} \times 2N_{\text{ant}}}$ is directly used to compute the cost function.

B. UNN ARCHITECTURE

A UNN is a composition of L layers where there are (L-2)inner layers, one pre-output layer (L-1) and one output layer (L), according to the deep decoder architecture [15]. Figure 2 shows a generic organization of those layers, the random noise seed \mathbb{Z}_0 in blue, the inner layers in orange, the preoutput layer in yellow, and the output layer in olive. All the layer types contain convolutional filters $W_l \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times 1 \times k_{l-1} \times k_l}$ where $l = \{1, 2, \dots L\}$, k_{l-1} and k_l are hyper-parameters which define the number of filters on the respective $(l-1)^{\text{th}}$ and l^{th} layers. However, the types of layers differ with respect to the upsampling computation and the operation of the batch normalization (BatchNorm) [29]. The inner layers contain linear and non-linear operations. First, there is a convolutional filter W_l where the weights are updated by using gradient descent. Second, there is a fixed bilinear upsampling operation, where $\mathbf{A}_l \in \mathbb{R}^{2^l b \times 2^{l-1}b}$ and $\mathbf{C}_l \in \mathbb{R}^{2^l c \times 2^{l-1}c}$ are the linear upsampling matrices in the subcarrier and time snapshots dimensions, respectively. Third, the rectifier linear unit (ReLu) activation function is applied, and a batch normalization is computed per k_l filter as

BatchNorm
$$(\mathcal{Z}_{lj}) = \frac{\mathcal{Z}_{lj} - \text{mean}(\mathcal{Z}_{lj})}{\sqrt{\text{var}(\mathcal{Z}_{lj})}} \gamma_{lj} + \beta_{lj},$$
 (2)

where $j = [1, 2, ..., k_l]$, the mean and variance (var) are computed among the batch samples [29], which corresponds to the number of data samples processed before updating the model's internal parameters. The trainable parameters of the BatchNorm operation are $\mathbf{R}_l = [\boldsymbol{\gamma}_l, \boldsymbol{\beta}_l] \in \mathbb{R}^{k_l \times 2}$. The computation performed at each l^{th} inner layer can be written as

$$\boldsymbol{\mathcal{Z}}_{l} = \text{BatchNorm}\Big(\text{ReLu}\Big(\boldsymbol{\mathcal{Z}}_{l-1} \times_{1} \mathbf{A}_{l} \times_{2} \mathbf{C}_{l}^{T} \times_{3} [\boldsymbol{\mathcal{W}}_{l}]_{(4)}\Big)\Big),$$
(3)

where $[\mathcal{W}_l]_{(4)}$ is the 4-mode unfolding of the convolutional filter operating at the antenna elements dimension. For example, the output of the first inner layer \mathcal{Z}_1 can be written as

$$\mathcal{Z}_{1} = \text{BatchNorm}\Big(\text{ReLu}\Big(\mathcal{Z}_{0} \times_{1} \mathbf{A}_{1} \times_{2} \mathbf{C}_{1}^{T} \times_{3} [\mathcal{W}_{1}]_{(4)}\Big)\Big).$$
(4)

The pre-output layer (L-1) differs from the inner layers because it does not apply upsampling. Hence, it can be written as

$$\boldsymbol{\mathcal{Z}}_{L-1} = \text{BatchNorm}\Big(\text{ReLu}\Big(\boldsymbol{\mathcal{Z}}_{L-2} \times_3 \big[\boldsymbol{\mathcal{W}}_{L-1}\big]_{(4)}\Big)\Big). \quad (5)$$

Next, the output layer is used to adjust the number of filters of the pre-output layer to the size expected at the output $k_L = 2N_{\text{ant}}$ as

$$\mathcal{Z}_{L} = \operatorname{TanH}(\mathcal{Z}_{L-1} \times_{3} [\mathcal{W}_{L}]_{(4)}), \qquad (6)$$

where $\mathcal{W}_L \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times 1 \times k_{l-1} \times 2N_{ant}}$, and TanH is the hyperbolic tangent activation function. Since the upsampling operations are pre-defined, the trainable parameters relate to the convolutional filters \mathcal{W}_l and the regularization parameters \mathbf{R}_l of the batch normalization operation. Therefore, $\mathcal{K}_l = {\mathcal{W}_l, \mathbf{R}_l}$ is the set of trainable parameters of the *l*th layer, and \mathcal{K} refers to all trainable parameters of the *L* layers.

C. UPDATING THE WEIGHTS OF THE UNN CHANNEL ESTIMATOR

Here, we refer to the UNN as a model $P : \mathbb{R}^N \to \mathbb{R}^{N_{sub}N'_{sp}2N_{ant}}$ where $N < N_{sub}N'_{sp}2N_{ant}$ is the total number of parameters. The UNN *P* performs the mapping operation $\mathcal{Z}_L = P(\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{Z}_0)$, where \mathcal{Z}_0 is the random noise seed, and \mathcal{K} is the tensor of weights that represents all the UNN trainable parameters.

The cost function is the mean squared error (MSE), calculated as

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{K}) = \mathbb{E}\left\{ \|P(\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{Z}_0) - \mathcal{H}_{\text{mes}}\|_F^2 \right\}.$$
 (7)

The gradient descent is updated as in supervised learning, performing I gradient algorithm iterations until the optimum parameters are found, such that

$$\mathcal{K}^* = \underset{\mathcal{K}}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{K}), \text{ and } \mathcal{H}_{p} = P\big(\mathcal{K}^*, \mathcal{Z}_{0}\big) \qquad (8)$$

is the channel estimation of the prior-CSI. From the loss function, we observe that the prior-CSI \mathcal{H}_p derived by the UNN *P* is specific to \mathcal{H}_{mes} . Hence, the model *P* does not directly generalize for other channels, it is specific to the \mathcal{H}_{mes} considered during gradient updates.

D. UPDATING THE WEIGHTS OF THE UNN CHANNEL INTERPOLATOR

Since UNNs exploit the correlations between successive channel measurements, we show how they can be adapted for CSI interpolation. This operation mode can further reduce the number of prior-CSI measurements needed. As the correlation between the channels reduces with the distance between successive time snapshots, in Section V we show that this approach has limitations which motivates the use of cGANs for CSI recreation.

The same UNN model *P* can be used for channel interpolation. The difference here is that \mathcal{H}'_{mes} has a lower resolution when compared to \mathcal{H}_{mes} . This low resolution is represented by a 1/0 mask $\mathcal{M} \in \mathbb{R}^{N'_{sp} \times N_{sub} \times N_{ant}}$, such that

$$\mathcal{H}'_{\rm mes} = \mathcal{M} \odot \mathcal{H}_{\rm mes}, \tag{9}$$

where \odot is an element-wise multiplication. Hence, the mask represents time snapshots or subcarriers that are not present in the initial measurement campaign, but we aim to have them at the output of the UNN CSI interpolator. For that purpose, the loss function becomes

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{K}) = \mathbb{E}\Big\{\|\mathcal{M} \odot P(\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{Z}_0) - \mathcal{H}'_{\text{mes}}\|_{\text{F}}^2\Big\}, \qquad (10)$$

and Gaussian noise $\mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$ with zero mean and variance σ^2 is added to the input random seed tensor \mathcal{Z}_0 every $I_t < I$ iterations as a regularization measure. After I gradient iterations, the prior-CSI from the UNN CSI interpolator is

$$\mathcal{H}_{p} = P(\mathcal{K}^{*}, \mathcal{Z}_{0}). \tag{11}$$

This procedure is analogous to inpainting for a deep decoder [15], where a UNN outputs missing parts of an image.



FIGURE 3. Conditional GAN, two NNs play a minmax game where the generator tries to fool the discriminator. The discriminator should classify $\tilde{\mathcal{H}}_r$ as a fake sample, while \mathcal{H}_r is classified as a real sample. The generator fools the discriminator when $\tilde{\mathcal{H}}_r$ is classified as real.

IV. CSI-RECREATION WITH cGAN

UNNs have interesting denoising and interpolation capabilities [14], [15]. However, they use iterative algorithms that have to be adapted for each new set of channel measurements. This additional algorithm latency is not desired. Hence, we propose to combine a few UNNs with a cGAN to recreate the CSI in a digital twin over a larger area. The channels estimated by the UNNs compose the prior knowledge which is given to the cGAN which is composed of a generator NN and a discriminator NN which compete in a minmax game during the training phase, see Figure 3. The generator NN follows an encoder-decoder architecture where the prior-knowledge on the propagation environment is the 'semantic context' [30] that should be leveraged by the encoder to derive latent feature representations which are used by the decoder to produce the desired wireless channel. In this regard, cGANs constrain the solution search space as prior information is available, while in common GANs only the noise is seen at the generator's input. In contrast to UNNs, cGANs require data collection and training to be able to model the data distribution. Nonetheless, it has great generalization capabilities [27]. In the following sections, we present the dataset preprocessing, our cGAN architecture, and the adversarial training.

A. DATASET PREPROCESING FOR cGAN

In this section, we present how we construct the signals to train the cGAN: the conditional input \mathcal{H}_c , the label \mathcal{H}_r , and the generator output $\tilde{\mathcal{H}}_r$.

The conditional input to our cGAN is derived from the prior-CSI \mathcal{H}_p , their locations Γ_p , and the desired location Γ_r where we aim to recover the CSI of a certain UE. Each $\mathcal{H}_p \in \mathbb{R}^{N'_{sp} \times N_{sub} \times 2N_{ant}}$ estimated by a UNN has CSI for N'_{sp} different locations. Therefore, if N_{UE} UNNs are used to estimate the prior-CSI $\mathcal{H}_p^{NUE} \in \mathbb{R}^{N_{UE}N'_{sp} \times N_{sub} \times 2N_{ant}}$, there are $N_{UE}N'_{sp}$ CSI-location pairs $\{\mathbf{H}_{pj}, \Gamma_{pj}\}$ available, where $\mathbf{H}_{pj} = \mathcal{H}_p^{N_{UE}}(j, :, :)$ and $j = \{1, 2, \ldots, N_{UE}N'_{sp}\}$. From the available CSI-location pairs, a sub-set of *S* CSI-location pairs is selected according to their minimum Euclidean distance to Γ_r , as we assume that the closer the channels are, the higher their chance of being correlated. The *S* selected prior-CSI positions $\mathcal{H}_p^S \in \mathbb{R}^{S \times N_{sub} \times 2N_{ant}}$ are concatenated in the first dimension and ordered according to the minimum Euclidean distance to the desired location Γ_r . The desired location vector $\Gamma_r \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times 3}$

and the prior location matrix $\Gamma_p^S \in \mathbb{R}^{S \times 3}$ are extended by repeating their coordinates until $\Gamma_p^S \in \mathbb{R}^{S \times N_{sub}}$ and $\Gamma_r \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times N_{sub}}$. Hence, the complete location matrix is formed as $\mathbf{H}_{LOC} = [\Gamma_r \sqcup_1 \Gamma_p^S] \in \mathbb{R}^{(S+1) \times N_{sub}}$. Finally, the conditional input to the cGAN is constructed as

$$\mathcal{H}_{c} = \left[\left(\mathbf{H}_{N} \sqcup_{1} \mathcal{H}_{p}^{S} \right) \sqcup_{3} \mathbf{H}_{\text{LOC}} \right] \in \mathbb{R}^{(S+1) \times N_{\text{sub}} \times (2N_{\text{ant}}+1)},$$
(12)

where $\mathbf{H}_N \in \mathbb{R}^{N_{sub} \times 2N_{ant}}$ is a matrix of random values drawn from a Gaussian distribution. The desired channel \mathbf{H}_r is recreated in the \mathbf{H}_N position at the generator output.

Ideally, the true recreated CSI $\mathcal{H}_r \in \mathbb{R}^{(S+1) \times N_{\text{sub}} \times (2N_{\text{ant}}+1)}$ is found in the output of the cGAN. Hence, each *d* time snapshot in $\mathbf{H}(d) = \mathcal{H}(d, :, :)$ is used as ground truth value for \mathbf{H}_r , the CSI recreated at the desired location Γ_r . The pre-processing of the labels for the cGAN include:

- $\mathbf{H}(d) \in \mathbb{C}^{N_{\text{sub}} \times N_{\text{ant}}}$ is multiplied by a scaling factor.
- $\mathbf{H}_r = [\mathfrak{Re}\{\mathbf{H}(d)\} \sqcup_2 \mathfrak{Im}\{\mathbf{H}(d)\}] \in \mathbb{R}^{N_{sub} \times 2N_{ant}}$ is the desired real valued CSI at location Γ_r .

Finally, the label for the semi-supervised learning of the cGAN is constructed as

$$\mathcal{H}_{\mathrm{r}} = \left[\left(\mathbf{H}_{r} \sqcup_{1} \mathcal{H}_{p}^{S} \right) \sqcup_{3} \mathbf{H}_{\mathrm{LOC}} \right] \in \mathbb{R}^{(S+1) \times N_{\mathrm{sub}} \times (2N_{\mathrm{ant}}+1)},$$
(13)

where the prior-CSI \mathcal{H}_{p}^{S} , the location matrix \mathbf{H}_{LOC} and the recreated CSI \mathbf{H}_{r} form the desired output. We refer to the generator output as $\tilde{\mathcal{H}}_{r} = G(\mathcal{H}_{c}) \in \mathbb{R}^{(S+1) \times N_{sub} \times (2N_{ant}+1)}$, where *G* is the generator mapping function that tries to approximate the label \mathcal{H}_{r} . Figure 4 summarizes the process of configuring the conditional input and the desired output for the generator NN. The discriminator *D* is a classifier for which the inputs and labels are, respectively, $\mathcal{H}_{r} \to \{\text{true}\}$ and $\tilde{\mathcal{H}}_{r} \to \{\text{fake}\}$.

B. ADVERSARIAL NETWORK ARCHITECTURE

Figure 3 shows the interconnection between the generator and the discriminator NNs for the adversarial training. Here, the generator NN consists of a U-shaped deep NN (U-Net) [31] which has two paths for the flow of information between blocks: the encoder-decoder path and the skip connections path, see Figure 5. The discriminator NN consists of a Patch-NN [31] where the input is reduced to a patch of arbitrary size; then, each coefficient of the patch is classified as real or fake.

Figure 5 shows the U-Net architecture employed for the generator, the $N_g/2$ downsampling blocks for the encoder and the $N_g/2$ upsampling blocks for the decoder, where N_g is the total number of processing units. Each downsampling block consists of one convolutional 2-dimensional layer (Conv2D), one batch normalization layer (BatchNorm), and a leaky rectifier linear unit (LeakyReLU) activation function, where y = x for x > 0, and y = 0.3x for x < 0. Each



FIGURE 4. Organization of the S prior-CSI estimates \mathcal{H}_p^S , their locations Γ_p^S and the desired channel H_r in the desired location Γ_r at the input \mathcal{H}_c and the output \mathcal{H}_r of the cGAN.



FIGURE 5. U-Net architecture deployed as the generator including encoder and decoder pipeline and numbering for skip connections.

upsampling block consists of one transposed convolutional 2-dimensional layer (Conv2D^{*T*}), followed by BatchNorm and ReLU as activation function. A dropout layer [32] can be included in some of the upsampling blocks to avoid overfitting. The skip connection illustrated in Figure 5 happens between the output of the n^{th} downsampling block and the output of the $(N_g - n)^{\text{th}}$ upsampling block, where $n = [1, 2, ..., (N_g/2 - 1)]$. Those skip connections provide more information to the decoder block [31] since the input to each upsampling block is the concatenation $\mathcal{X}_{(N_g-n+1)} = [\mathcal{Y}_n \sqcup_3 \mathcal{Y}_{(N_g-n)}]$, where \mathcal{Y}_n is the output of the n^{th} block.

For the discriminator NN, we employ a Patch-NN [31] as depicted in Figure 6. First, downsampling blocks are used to reduce the dimensionality of the input signal to some patch of arbitrary size. Second, the patch is processed by a sequence of convolutional layers (Conv2D + BatchNorm + LeakyReLU and Conv2D + Linear). Then, the discriminator is trained to classify each patch coefficient as real or fake. Implementation details are provided in Section V.



FIGURE 6. Patch-Net architecture deployed for the discriminator.

C. OPTIMIZATION WITH cGAN

As shown in Figure 3, in a cGAN there are two NNs playing a minmax game where the generator $G : \{\mathcal{H}_c\} \to \mathcal{H}_r$ tries to fool the discriminator $D : \{\tilde{\mathcal{H}}_r\} \to \{\text{true}\}$, and it is conditional because some prior knowledge is provided. Mathematically, the optimization objective of a cGAN has two terms

$$G^* = \arg\min_{G} \max_{D} \mathcal{L}_{cGAN}(G, D) + \alpha \mathcal{L}_{L_2}, \qquad (14)$$

where $\mathcal{L}_{cGAN}(G, D)$ is the adversarial loss, \mathcal{L}_{L_2} is the L₂ loss, and α is the weighting factor [31]. The adversarial loss is computed as

$$\mathcal{L}_{cGAN}(G, D) = \mathbb{E} [\log D(\mathcal{H}_{r})] + \mathbb{E} [\log(1 - D(G(\mathcal{H}_{c}))], \quad (15)$$

where the generator *G* learns to map the input data \mathcal{H}_c to the output data \mathcal{H}_r such that $\tilde{\mathcal{H}}_r = G^*(\mathcal{H}_c)$, and the discriminator *D* tries to recognize the channels generated by *G*. In order to have the generated output wireless channels $\tilde{\mathcal{H}}_r$ close to the wireless channel labels \mathcal{H}_r , a weighted L_2 loss

$$\mathcal{L}_{L_2}(G) = \mathbb{E}[\|\mathcal{H}_r - G(\mathcal{H}_c)\|_F]$$
(16)

is included as a regularization term.

The generator and the discriminator NNs have each their own optimizer with a chosen learning rate that defines how fast the weights of a NN should change according to the computed gradient. Both the generator and the discriminator NNs have their gradients updated in each epoch, which may lead to instabilities during training. Hence, small learning rates are usually considered. For testing, or inference, only the generator architecture is used. Therefore, only knowledge of \mathcal{H}_c is needed. In practice, at inference time, we are able to estimate/predict a channel based on its location and the prior-knowledge provided by the UNNs.

V. SIMULATIONS AND RESULTS

In order to train and test our CSI recreation framework, we use the MaMIMO dataset provided by KU Leuven [33]. The MaMIMO dataset is a set of indoor MIMO channel measurements collected under line of sight (LOS) and non-line of sight (NLOS) conditions with recordings of the measurement location relative to the BS. Table 1 presents the configuration of the MaMIMO measurement campaign. From the

Carrier frequency	2.61 GHz
Bandwidth	20 MHz
Total OFDM subcarriers	100
BS antenna	URA 8×8
UE antenna	dipole
Normalized received signal strength	[-10, -1] dB
Location label accuracy	1 mm [34]

TABLE 1. Characteristics of the MaMIMO indoor measurement campaign [33].

TABLE 2. Descri	ption of the UNN	structures
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Name	Input tensor	L	$k_{1:L-1}$	k_L	Upsampling matrices	Output size
UNN 64	$\boldsymbol{\mathcal{Z}}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^{4 imes 4 imes 64}$	6	64	128	$\mathbf{A}_{\{1:L-2\}}, \mathbf{C}_{\{1:L-2\}}$	$oldsymbol{\mathcal{H}}_{\mathrm{p}} \in \mathbb{R}^{64 imes 64 imes 128}$
UNN 16	$\mathbf{Z}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^{4 \times 4 \times 16}$	6	16	128	$\mathbf{A}_{\{1:L-4\}}, \mathbf{C}_{\{1:L-4\}}$	$\boldsymbol{\mathcal{H}}_{\mathrm{p}} \in \mathbb{R}^{16 imes 64 imes 128}$



In order to show the power and the pitfalls of UNNs and motivate the choice of combining UNNs with cGANs, we present our results following a series of experiments. First, we define a UNN CSI estimator to recover \mathcal{H}_p with an SNR ≈ 20 dB. Second, we show the limited interpolation capabilities of UNNs. Third, we present the CSI recreation with a cGAN for different settings of prior-CSI. Finally, we evaluate the dependencies of the models on the location matrix and the impact of inaccuracies on estimating the desired location Γ_r on the performance of the cGAN.

In Table 2 we define the UNN structures that we use to derive the optimal weights for each small set of measurements \mathcal{H}_{mes} , where UNN-64 estimates 64 time snapshots and UNN-16 estimates 16 time snapshots jointly. For CSI estimation with UNNs, we choose \mathcal{H}_{mes} to have time snapshots every 15 mm, such that a UNN-64 estimates the CSI for a sequence of measurements covering $64 \times 15 \text{ mm} = 960 \text{ mm}$ $(\approx 8.35\lambda)$, and a UNN-16 covers 240 mm ($\approx 2.08\lambda$). The input tensor \mathcal{Z}_0 is drawn from a uniform distribution as U(-0.15, +0.15) and kept fixed for UNN CSI-estimation. After setting the UNN structure, the trainable parameters \mathcal{K} are initialized from random values and I = 25000 gradient updates are performed, using an Adam optimizer [32] with a learning rate of 0.01, to find the best \mathcal{K}^* for each set of measurements, separately. Figure 7 presents the cumulative distribution function (CDF) of the NSE for CSI estimation for the two UNN structures in Table 2 at LOS and NLOS propagation conditions. The number of prior sets indicates how many different measurement areas are considered. Note that, if the channel measurements have the same dimensionality, a UNN structure P can be reused, but a different set of UNN parameters \mathcal{K}^* needs to be



FIGURE 7. Cumulative distribution function F(x) of the normalized squared error for UNN and cGAN results for CSI recreation.



FIGURE 8. Cumulative distribution function F(x) of the normalized squared error for NLOS channel interpolation using UNN-64 in inpainting mode. Best case and worst case using resampling function from MATLAB are plotted for reference. The performance of UNN-64 for channel estimation is also plotted for reference.

found for each different area where \mathcal{H}_{mes} is collected [17]. From Figure 7 we can observe that the UNN-64 has a better performance than UNN-16, this is expected since UNN-64 has more parameters and also access to more channel snapshots than a UNN-16. Moreover, for the same UNN structure, LOS channel measurements have better estimation performance than NLOS channel measurements. The LOS channels have smoother variations; therefore, the UNN takes better advantage of the correlations between the measured snapshots which leads to better estimation results. Overall, our UNN CSI-estimators provide more than 10 dB estimation gain if compared with the normalized received signal strength (RSS) of the MaMIMO measurements [33], see Table 1.

For UNN based CSI interpolation, we use the UNN-64 presented in Table 2 and follow the loss function in equation (10). Since the MaMIMO dataset has a resolution of 5 mm, the UNN CSI-interpolator is iterated to recover the channel measurements at 5 mm spacing from each other. Hence, for this experiment, the UNN-64 covers an area of $64 \times 5 \text{ mm} = 320 \text{ mm} (\approx 2.78\lambda)$. The mask \mathcal{M} is used to reduce the resolution of \mathcal{H}_{mes} such that the resolution of the starting channel measurements \mathcal{H}'_{mes} vary between 10 mm to 20 mm. This is the distance between each time snapshot. In the first row of Figure 9, we present \mathcal{H}_{mes} on the left and \mathcal{H}'_{mes} on the right for a single antenna element with initial measurement resolution of 10 mm. Figure 10 has the same



FIGURE 9. Comparison of the results for interpolation by a factor of 2 with the UNN CSI interpolator and resampling from MATLAB. On the first row left, there is a plot of the expected 5 mm resolution measurement \mathcal{H}_{mes} for one antenna element. On the first row right, there is a plot of the initial measurement \mathcal{H}'_{mes} with 10 mm resolution. The second row present the results of interpolation with resampling function from MATLAB on the left and the UNN CSI interpolator on the right. On the *x*-axis there is the number of subcarriers, and on the *y*-axis there is the number of time snapshots.



FIGURE 10. Comparison of the results for interpolation by a factor of 4 with the UNN CSI interpolator and resampling from MATLAB. On the first row left, there is a plot of the expected 5 mm resolution measurement \mathcal{H}_{mes} for one antenna element. On the first row right, there is a plot of the initial measurement \mathcal{H}'_{mes} with 20 mm resolution. The second row present the results of interpolator with resampling function from MATLAB on the left and the UNN CSI interpolator on the right. On the *x*-axis there is the number of subcarriers, and on the *y*-axis there is the number of time snapshots.

structure, but for $\mathcal{H}'_{\text{mes}}$ with an initial resolution of 20 mm which requires an upsampling by a factor of 4 to derive channels every 5 mm. The input tensor \mathcal{Z}_0 is initially drawn from a uniform distribution U(-0.15, +0.15). After every $I_t = 5000$ gradient iterations, the input tensor \mathcal{Z}_0 is summed with a random Gaussian noise with zero mean and a standard deviation of 0.4. The channel interpolation is finished after I = 25000 gradient updates are performed, using the Adam optimizer [32] with 0.01 learning rate. Figure 8 shows the results of the UNN CSI interpolator for the NLOS dataset iterated using the inpainting procedure in Section III-D. We can observe that the performance of the UNN CSI interpolator degrades quickly when we increase the spacing between

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the known measurement snapshots \mathcal{H}'_{mes} . For comparison, we plot the best and worst case results using the MATLAB built-in function 'resample', with a FIR anti-aliasing filter of order 20p with p = [2, 3, 4]. Figures 9 and 10 present in their second row the results of the interpolation with the resample function from MATLAB on the left, and the UNN CSI interpolator on the right after upsampling by a factor of 2 (10 mm) and 4 (20 mm), respectively. From Figure 8, it can be observed that the UNN based CSI interpolator has a comparable performance as using the resample function from MATLAB only for the case of increasing the resolution by a factor of 2, from 10 mm to 5 mm in the purple curve. The perfect results in the purple and blue dashed lines correspond to the reconstruction error of the coefficients which are used for interpolation. The UNN based CSI interpolator defines a sequence of operations that impacts the known coefficients. Hence, there are no perfect results in the CDF curve of the UNN based CSI interpolator. The black dashed line denotes the performance of the UNN CSI estimator when the channels are known every 15 mm. For the same UNN structure, there is a performance degradation of about a 6 dB if we use it for CSI-interpolation instead of CSI-estimation. Due to its performance degradation and the need to re-iterate the parameters, the UNN CSI interpolator is not our choice for CSI recreation. Nonetheless, we use the UNN CSI estimator to generate prior-CSI due to its great performance, but only to a small set of measurements to avoid latency overhead with the gradient iterations. Note that in this experiment we have considered measurements taken along a line and performed interpolation along the same direction. For CSI recreation, however, we do not assume a regular grid of measured priors. Hence, the resample function is not applicable.

Two sets of UNN-64 parameters are computed using equation 8 for CSI estimation which represents a pool of 128 prior-CSI estimates. For UNN-16, three sets of parameters are computed using equation 8 which represent a pool of 48 prior-CSI estimates. We assume the prior-CSI locations $\Gamma_{\rm p}$ are known. In our case, it is provided by the dataset owner. In a practical implementation, we could derive the location from the prior-CSI estimates by Unitary Tensor ESPRIT [28], for instance. Then, for CSI recreation with a cGAN, a sub-set of S = 3 CSI-location pairs are selected according to their minimum Euclidean distance to the location Γ_r where we aim to recreate the CSI. Hence, the input to our cGAN is $\mathcal{H}_c \in \mathbb{R}^{4 \times 64 \times 129}$, where 64 is the number of subcarriers. The architecture details of our generator and discriminator are presented in Table 3 and Table 4, respectively. The adversarial training runs for 150 epochs with 60% of the simulated channels used for training and 40% for testing. Adam optimizers with a learning rate of 2×10^{-4} are used for the discriminator and the generator NNs.

Figure 7 presents the CDF curves of the NSE for CSI recreation using a cGAN which has prior-knowledge and the desired location as its input. The results for LOS and NLOS channel measurements are provided. Overall, the



FIGURE 11. Comparison of the importance of the location matrix H_{LOC} for each trained cGAN model. The full lines are the CDFs F(x) when there is full knowledge of H_{LOC} . After training, $H_{LOC} = 0$ and the priors are selected at random. These CDF results are shown in dashed lines.

TABLE 3. Description of the U-Net deployed as generator NN

	Block	N_{filter}	Filter size	Stride	Padding	BatchNorm	Dropout	Activation
1	downsample	64	[3,3]	[1,1]	Yes	No	No	LeakyReLU
2	downsample	64	[1,4]	[1,2]	Yes	Yes	No	LeakyReLU
3	downsample	64	[1,4]	[1,2]	Yes	Yes	No	LeakyReLU
4	downsample	64	[1,4]	[1,2]	Yes	Yes	No	LeakyReLU
5	downsample	64	[1,4]	[1,2]	Yes	Yes	No	LeakyReLU
6	downsample	128	[4,4]	[1,1]	No	Yes	No	LeakyReLU
7	upsample	64	[4,4]	[2,2]	No	Yes	Yes	ReLU
8	upsample	64	[1,4]	[1,2]	Yes	Yes	Yes	ReLU
9	upsample	64	[1,4]	[1,2]	Yes	Yes	Yes	ReLU
10	upsample	64	[1,4]	[1,2]	Yes	Yes	No	ReLU
11	upsample	64	[1,4]	[1,2]	Yes	Yes	No	ReLU
12	upsample	64	[3,3]	[1,1]	Yes	Yes	No	ReLU
13	output	129	[[1,1]	[1.1]	Yes	No	No	TanH

TABLE 4. Description of the Patch-Net deployed as discriminator NN.

Block	N _{filter}	Filter size	Stride	Padding	BatchNorm	Activation
downsample	128	[3,3]	[1,1]	Yes	Yes	LeakyReLU
downsample	128	[2,4]	[1,2]	Yes	Yes	LeakyReLU
zero padding 2D	-	-	-	Yes	-	-
Conv2D	256	[3,3]	[1,1]	No	Yes	LeakyReLU
zero padding 2D	-	-	-	Yes	-	-
Conv2D	1	[3,3]	[1,1]	No	No	Linear

cGAN has a performance degradation if compared with UNNs. However, the cGAN is recreating channels on a nonregular grid where the distance between the prior-CSI and the desired channel is variable. It can be observed that CSI recreation for LOS propagation has a better performance, see blue dashed line. Furthermore, how the prior-CSI estimates are selected also influences the performance of the CSI recreation. Figures 12-17 present the NSE of the recreated CSI according to their position in the propagation environment. The places where the prior-CSI estimates were selected for the UNNs are highlighted in dark blue. Our best cGAN model for LOS, the blue dashed line in Figure 7, has a 90% performance of about -20.76 dB and uses only 48 prior channels which are sampled in a diagonal manner, see Figure 12. Nonetheless, for NLOS this set of priors provides the worst model performance, the red dashed line in Figure 7, with a 90% performance of about -8.58 dB. In Figure 15, we can observe that the cGAN has difficulty in recreating channels in the transition area between the first and second set of priors. For the NLOS measurements, the best approach to collect priors is to use a single sequence of measurements as in Figure 17 which provides a 90% performance of about -19.1 dB, green dash-point line in Figure 7. The best prior-CSI sampling for the LOS and the NLOS cases are quite different, for the LOS they should

be spread within a small number of time snapshots (see Figure 12), while for the NLOS they should be sequential (see Figure 17). We reason that a LOS environment has smooth transitions (small variability), so that the cGAN takes better advantage in knowing the channel at rather spaced locations. On the other hand, NLOS environments have more variations and the cGAN performs better when it observes how the channel evolves for longer periods. However, it seems that there is a limit on how many priors should be provided as the results for the LOS and the NLOS environments based on two sets of priors degrade the performance if compared with the best case in each environment.

We also evaluate the importance of the location matrix H_{LOC} for the cGAN to recreate the CSI. Given the trained model, the experiment consists in setting the location matrix to zero $H_{LOC} = 0$. Since the location is not available, the prior-CSI to the cGAN input are selected at random. Figure 11 presents the results of this experiment and provides a comparison with the CSI recreation with perfect knowledge of location. It can be observed that nearly all cGAN models have a large performance degradation when $H_{LOC} = 0$. This indicates that the model was able to learn some relationship between the channels and their positions. Nonetheless, the performance degradation for the cGAN trained for NLOS channels with two sets of priors is of about 1 dB. In this case, the location matrix has a low importance and the cGAN can output a reasonable CSI recreation knowing any set of 3 priors. This result also contributes to our understanding that providing more priors does not translate to a better performance. In order to observe how inaccuracies on estimating Γ_r impact the performance of our CSI recreation method, we include Gaussian noise to the desired location $\tilde{\Gamma}_r$ and do not re-train the cGAN model. The location of the prior-CSI Γ_p^S are assumed to be accurate as the UE collects many time snapshots for prior-CSI estimation, i.e., at least 16 time snapshots for our experiments. The inaccuracy in estimating the desired location is modeled by a Gaussian distribution with mean $\mu = \{0, 1, 2, 10, 15, 20\}$ and standard deviation $\sigma = 0.5$. Figure 18 presents the histogram of the Euclidean distance between the correct desired location Γ_r and the estimated desired location Γ_r for each inaccuracy distribution. Figure 19 presents the CDF of the NSE for the NLOS case with a single set of prior-CSI for the different location inaccuracies $\tilde{\Gamma}_{r}$. It can be observed that when the location inaccuracy is around 1 cm (cyan), the performance of the CSI recreation does not change. This is due to the fact that the prior-CSI are taken 15 mm from each other. Hence, a location estimation error below 1.5 cm does not change the combination of prior-CSI used by the cGAN. Increasing the desired location error $\tilde{\Gamma}_r$ also increases the 90% accuracy for recreating the CSI (red, purple and black). However, it has a limit as desired location estimates Γ_r with error above 26 cm causes degradation of the CSI recreation performance. Figure 20 presents the CDF of the NSE for the LOS case with three sets of prior-CSI for different location inaccuracies $\tilde{\Gamma}_r$. As in the NLOS case, the performance



FIGURE 12. CSI recreation performance map for LOS measurements with 3 sets of prior-CSI estimated by a UNN 16 structure. The cGAN is trained with the \mathcal{L}_{L_2} loss. The colors represent the NSE in dB values.



FIGURE 13. CSI recreation performance map for LOS measurements with 2 sets of prior-CSI estimated by a UNN 64 structure. The cGAN is trained with the \mathcal{L}_{L_2} loss. The colors represent the NSE in dB values.



FIGURE 14. CSI recreation performance map for LOS measurements with 1 set of prior-CSI estimated by a UNN 64 structure. The cGAN is trained with the \mathcal{L}_{L_2} loss. The colors represent the NSE in dB values.

of CSI recreation does not change when the error in the desired location is below 1.5 cm. Some performance gain can be achieved at the 70% accuracy level when increasing



FIGURE 15. CSI recreation performance map for NLOS measurements with 3 sets of prior-CSI estimated by a UNN 16 structure. The cGAN is trained with the \mathcal{L}_{L_2} loss. The colors represent the NSE in dB values.



FIGURE 16. CSI recreation performance map for NLOS measurements with 2 sets of prior-CSI estimated by a UNN 64 structure. The cGAN is trained with the \mathcal{L}_{L_2} loss. The colors represent the NSE in dB values.



FIGURE 17. CSI recreation performance map for NLOS measurements with 1 set of prior-CSI estimated by a UNN 64 structure. The cGAN is trained with the \mathcal{L}_{L_2} loss. The colors represent the NSE in dB values.

the desired location error $\tilde{\Gamma}_r$. However, this gain is not as large as in the NLOS case because the prior-CSI are already distributed in the best LOS scenario. Increasing the location



FIGURE 18. Histogram of the Euclidean distance between Γ_{Γ} and $\tilde{\Gamma}_{\Gamma}$. The estimation error is drawn from a Gaussian distribution with μ - σ described in the legend of the histogram.



FIGURE 19. Cumulative distribution function F(x) of the NSE for CSI recreation with error in the desired location $\tilde{\Gamma}_r$ for the best NLOS case (Figure 17) without retraining.



FIGURE 20. Cumulative distribution function F(x) of the NSE for CSI recreation with error in the desired location $\tilde{\Gamma}_r$ for the best LOS case (Figure 12) without retraining.

estimation error and improving the performance might sound counter-intuitive. However, we should point out that this experiment is performed at inference time, without retraining the cGAN. Hence, error in estimating the desired location can change the set of prior-CSI that the cGAN is taking at its input, but does not change the statistical distribution modeled by the cGAN. Those results indicate that selecting the prior-CSI according to their minimum Euclidean distance towards the desired location Γ_r may not be the best approach for CSI recreation.

Regarding the state of the art, our approach provides a much better performance if compared to the 6 dB reported in [11]. This is mainly due to two reasons, in [11] a much

larger area is considered and the authors just rely on supervised learning. It has been reported that the generative loss function improves the richness of the images being generated as L_2 norm tends to generate blurred outputs [30], [31]. Moreover, our cGAN architecture is less complex since we just use 13 layers for the U-Net at the generator while [11] has reported 28 layers to process the images of the environment map and output the wireless channel. The generator described in Table 3 has a total of 552513 trainable parameters which correspond to about 3.16% of the complex channel coefficients $\mathcal{H} \in \mathbb{C}^{4267 \times 64 \times 64}$ collected in the studied area. Hence, the memory requirement for the digital twin running at the BS side is also reduced. Our cGAN takes about 6 hours to train in a computer with 16 GB of RAM and a GPU with 2 GB of dedicated memory.

Regarding complexity, the UNN-64 structure contains 29312 trainable parameters which correspond to 11.18% of the coefficients in a channel measurement $\mathcal{H}_{mes} \in \mathbb{C}^{64 \times 64 \times 64}$. The UNN-16 structure contains 3488 trainable parameters which correspond to 5.32% of the coefficients in a channel measurement $\mathcal{H}_{mes} \in \mathbb{C}^{16 \times 64 \times 64}$. Therefore, UNNs are an under-parameterized representation of the wireless channels that provide channel estimation gain in most cases. Due to the underparameterization, we assume that the UEs can compute the UNN parameters based on small measurement campaigns and send them to the BS. The BS trains the cGAN based on the collected prior-CSI. After the cGAN model is trained, the UEs within the representation area can just report their location Γ_r and the BS is able to recreate their full explicit CSI. For a person walking in this indoor environment (Table 1) with a velocity of 1 m/s, a CSI report is needed at least every 57 mm in order to meet the Nyquist sampling criteria. Assuming we can use 10 bits to quantize 1 m space with 1 mm accuracy, reporting the coordinates of the desired location Γ_r can be very efficient in reducing the CSI feedback overhead. The access to the full characteristics of the wireless channel with low overhead is the main contribution of this paper since we are not able to recover all the channel coefficients in current 3GPP type II CSI reporting. In order to track the reliability of the CSI recreation method, from time to time, i.e., once per day, the BS may send the cGAN model to the UEs. Hence, the UEs can observe the recreated CSI and flag when it is completely wrong. Which, then, may trigger collection of new prior-CSI and re-training of the cGAN. For expanding the operational area of the CSI recreation, we expect that more prior measurements need to be collected. This would increase the number of UNNs, but the cGAN could be re-trained for the enlarged operational area. Nonetheless, we leave this study to future work.

VI. CONCLUSION

In this paper we propose to combine UNNs with cGANs to recreate wireless channels within the digital twin of a

propagation environment. The channel is recreated based on prior-CSI estimates from UNNs and the location where we aim to recreate the channels. The CSI recreation allows to access the full characteristics of the wireless channel with low communication overhead, which is not possible with current 3GPP type II CSI reporting. The cGAN is able to recreate the CSI for indoor measurements under LOS and NLOS propagation conditions. We show in our results that the way we select the prior-CSI measurements impacts the performance and that availability of more prior-CSI estimates does not necessarily translates into improved CSI recreation performance. Moreover, we provide results for CSI interpolation with UNNs which has motivated our choice of cGANs as the second AI/ML instance for CSI recreation. In addition, we set up experiments to access how good the cGAN uses the location information to recreate CSI, and how inaccuracies in estimating the desired location impacts the performance of the CSI recreation. Despite their differences, CSI recreation outperforms the state of the art FadeNet and is less complex. Future work may consider outdoor scenarios, increase the CSI recreation area, and study the best approach to select areas where the prior-CSI measurements should be collected.

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