

Deep Learning Models for Wireless Signal Classification With Distributed Low-Cost Spectrum Sensors

Sreeraj Rajendran¹, Student Member, IEEE, Wannes Meert, Member, IEEE,
Domenico Giustiniano², Senior Member, IEEE, Vincent Lenders³, Member, IEEE,
and Sofie Pollin, Senior Member, IEEE

Abstract—This paper looks into the modulation classification problem for a distributed wireless spectrum sensing network. First, a new data-driven model for automatic modulation classification based on long short term memory (LSTM) is proposed. The model learns from the time domain amplitude and phase information of the modulation schemes present in the training data without requiring expert features like higher order cyclic moments. Analyses show that the proposed model yields an average classification accuracy of close to 90% at varying signal-to-noise ratio conditions ranging from 0 dB to 20 dB. Further, we explore the utility of this LSTM model for a variable symbol rate scenario. We show that a LSTM based model can learn good representations of variable length time domain sequences, which is useful in classifying modulation signals with different symbol rates. The achieved accuracy of 75% on an input sample length of 64 for which it was not trained, substantiates the representation power of the model. To reduce the data communication overhead from distributed sensors, the feasibility of classification using averaged magnitude spectrum data and on-line classification on the low-cost spectrum sensors are studied. Furthermore, quantized realizations of the proposed models are analyzed for deployment on sensors with low processing power.

Index Terms—Deep learning, modulation classification, LSTM, CNN, spectrum sensing.

I. INTRODUCTION

WIRELESS spectrum monitoring over frequency, time and space is important for a wide range of applications such as spectrum enforcement for regulatory bodies, generating coverage maps for wireless operators, and applications including wireless signal detection and positioning. Continuous spectrum monitoring over a large geographical area is extremely challenging mainly due to the multidisciplinary nature of the solution. The monitoring infrastructure

Manuscript received July 27, 2017; revised December 16, 2017 and April 13, 2018; accepted April 14, 2018. This work was supported in part by the FWO SBO Project SAMURAI. The associate editor coordinating the review of this paper and approving it for publication was A. Zanella. (Corresponding author: Sreeraj Rajendran.)

S. Rajendran and S. Pollin are with the Department of Electrical Engineering, KU Leuven, 3001 Leuven, Belgium (e-mail: sreeraj.rajendran@esat.kuleuven.be).

W. Meert is with the Department of Computer Science, KU Leuven, 3001 Leuven, Belgium.

D. Giustiniano is with IMDEA Networks Institute, 28918 Madrid, Spain.

V. Lenders is with Cyberspace and Information, armasuisse, 3602 Thun, Switzerland.

Digital Object Identifier 10.1109/TCCN.2018.2835460

requires proper integration of new disruptive technologies that can flexibly address the variability and cost of the used sensors, large spectrum data management, sensor reliability, security and privacy concerns, which can also target a wide variety of the use cases. Electrosense was designed to address these challenges and support a diverse set of applications [1]. Electrosense is a crowd-sourced spectrum monitoring solution deployed on a large scale using low cost sensors.

One of the main goals of Electrosense is to accomplish automated wireless spectrum anomaly detection, thus enabling efficient spectrum enforcement. Technology classification or specifically Automatic Modulation Classification (AMC) is an integral part of spectrum enforcement. Such a classifier can help in identifying suspicious transmissions in a particular wireless band. Furthermore, technology classification modules are fundamental for interference detection and wireless environment analysis. Considering the aforementioned large application space this paper looks into two key aspects: Is efficient wireless technology classification achievable on a large scale with low cost sensor networks and limited uplink communication bandwidth? If possible, which are the key classification models suitable for the same.

The number of publications related to AMC appearing in literature is large [2]–[7] mainly due to the broad range of problems associated with AMC and huge interest in the problem itself for surveillance applications. AMC helps a radio system for environment identification, defining policies and taking actions for throughput or reliability improvements. It is also used for applications like transmitter identification, anomaly detection and localization of interference [2], [3].

Various approaches for modulation classification discussed in literature can be brought down to two categories [4], one being the *decision theoretic* approach and the other the *feature based* approach. In decision-theoretic approaches the modulation classification problem is presented as a multiple hypothesis testing problem [4]. The maximum likelihood criterion is applied to the received signal directly or after some simple transformations such as averaging. Even though decision-theoretic classifiers are optimal in the sense that they minimize the probability of miss-classifications, practical implementations of such systems suffer from computational complexity as they typically require buffering a large number of samples.

77 These methods are also not robust in the presence of unknown
78 channel conditions and other receiver discrepancies like clock
79 frequency offset.

80 Conventional feature-based approaches for AMC make use
81 of expert features like cyclic moments [5]. Spectral corre-
82 lation functions of various analog and digital modulation
83 schemes covered in [8] and [9] respectively are the popularly
84 used features for classification. Detailed analysis of various
85 methods using these cyclostationary features for modulation
86 classification are presented in [6]. Various statistical tests for
87 detecting the presence of cycles in the k th-order cyclic cumu-
88 lants without assuming any specific distribution on the data
89 are presented in [7]. Fehske *et al.* [10] used a multilayer linear
90 perceptron network over spectral correlation functions for clas-
91 sifying some basic modulation types. Another method makes
92 use of the cyclic prefix [11] to distinguish between multi-
93 carrier and single carrier modulation schemes which is used for
94 Orthogonal Frequency Division Multiplexing (OFDM) signal
95 identification.

96 All these aforementioned model driven approaches exploit
97 knowledge about the structure of different modulation schemes
98 to define the rules for AMC. This manual selection of expert
99 features is tedious which makes it difficult to model all channel
100 discrepancies. For instance, it is quite challenging to develop
101 models which are robust to fading, pathloss, time shift and
102 sample rate variations. In addition, a distributed collection of
103 in-phase and quadrature phase (IQ) data over frequency, space
104 and time is expensive in terms of transmission bandwidth and
105 storage. Furthermore, most of these algorithms are proces-
106 sor intensive and could not be easily deployed on low-end
107 distributed sensors.

108 Recently, deep learning has been shown to be effective in
109 various tasks such as image classification, machine translation,
110 automatic speech recognition [12] and network optimiza-
111 tion [13], thanks to multiple hidden layers with non-linear
112 logistic functions which enable learning higher-level informa-
113 tion hidden in the data. A recently proposed deep learning
114 based model for AMC makes use of a Convolutional Neural
115 Network (CNN) based classifier [14]. The CNN model oper-
116 ates on the time domain IQ data and learns different matched
117 filters for various signal-to-noise ratio (SNR). However, this
118 model may not be efficient on data with unknown sampling
119 rates and pulse shaping filters which the model has never
120 encountered during the training phase. Also being a fixed
121 input length model, the number of modulated symbols the
122 model can process remains limited across various symbol
123 rates. Furthermore, the training and computational complexity
124 of the model increases with increasing input sample length.
125 West and O'Shea [15] extended the analysis on the effect of
126 CNN layer sizes and depths on classification accuracy. They
127 also proposed complex inception modules combining CNN
128 and Long Short Term Memory (LSTM) modules for improv-
129 ing the classification results. In this paper we show that simple
130 LSTM models can itself achieve good accuracy, if input data is
131 formatted as amplitude and phase (polar coordinates) instead
132 of IQ samples (rectangular coordinates).

133 This paper proposes a LSTM [16] based deep learn-
134 ing classifier solution, which can learn long term temporal

representations, to address the aforementioned issues. The pro- 135
posed variable input length model can capture sample rate 136
variations without explicit feature extraction. We first train the 137
LSTM model to classify 11 typical modulation types, as also 138
used in [17], and show our approach outperforms the state- 139
of-the-art (SoA). Being a variable input length model we also 140
show that the model enables efficient classification on variable 141
sample rates and sequence lengths. Even though these deep 142
learning models can provide good classification accuracies on 143
lower input sample lengths, their computational power require- 144
ments are still high preventing them from low-end sensor 145
deployment as Electrosense. 146

The wireless sensing nodes deployed in the Electrosense 147
network consist of a low-cost and bandwidth limited Software 148
Defined Radio (SDR) interfaced with a small sized embedded 149
platform [1]. Power Spectral Density (PSD) and IQ pipelines 150
are enabled in the sensor to support various applications 151
producing data in the order of 50-100 Kbps and 50 Mbps 152
respectively. First, the embedded hardware of the sensors is 153
not powerful enough to handle performance intensive AMC 154
algorithms. Second, transferring IQ samples to the backend 155
for classification by enabling the IQ pipeline is not a scalable 156
solution as it is expensive in terms of data transfer and stor- 157
age. Finally, the sensors are bandwidth limited which prevents 158
them from acquiring wideband signals. 159

To enable instantiation of the newly proposed LSTM model 160
for modulation classification in a large distributed network 161
of low cost sensor nodes, we compare various approaches to 162
decrease the implementation cost of the classifier. In the first 163
approach we study the advantages and limitations of classi- 164
fication models for modulation classification on a deployed 165
distributed sensor network with limited bandwidth sensors 166
based on averaged magnitude Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) 167
data which decreases the communication cost by a factor 168
1000. Moreover, quantized versions of the proposed models 169
are studied in detail for sensor deployment. These quantized 170
versions can be run on a low cost sensor and do not require 171
the instantiation of the classifier in the cloud. As a result, 172
the sensor should only communicate the decision variable, 173
which further decreases the communication cost. The *code* 174
and datasets for all the deep learning models are *made pub-* 175
lic for future research.¹ The models are also available for use 176
through Electrosense. 177

The contribution of this paper is thus threefold. First, we 178
develop a new LSTM based deep learning solution using 179
time domain amplitude and phase samples which provides 180
SoA results for high SNRs on a standard dataset. Second, 181
we explore the use of deep learning models for technology 182
classification task in a distributed sensor network only using 183
averaged magnitude FFT data. Finally, we explore the model 184
performance by quantizing the deep neural networks for sensor 185
deployment. 186

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. The classifica- 187
tion problem is clearly stated in Section II. A brief overview of 188
the modulation dataset and the channel models used are pre- 189
sented in Section III. Section IV explains the LSTM model 190

¹https://github.com/zeroXzero/modulation_classif

191 used for classification and the parameters used for training
 192 along with other implementation details. Section V details the
 193 classification results and discusses the advantages of the pro-
 194 posed model. Low-implementation cost models are discussed
 195 in Section VI. Conclusions and future work are presented in
 196 Section VII.

197 II. PROBLEM STATEMENT

198 Technology or modulation recognition can be framed as a
 199 N-class classification problem in general. A general represen-
 200 tation for the received signal is given by

$$201 \quad r(t) = s(t) * c(t) + n(t), \quad (1)$$

202 where $s(t)$ is the noise free complex baseband envelope of
 203 the received signal, $n(t)$ is Additive White Gaussian Noise
 204 (AWGN) with zero mean and variance σ_n^2 and $c(t)$ is the time
 205 varying impulse response of the transmitted wireless chan-
 206 nel. The basic aim of any modulation classifier is to give
 207 out $P(s(t) \in N_i | r(t))$ with $r(t)$ as the only signal for refer-
 208 ence and N_i represents the i th class. The received signal
 209 $r(t)$ is commonly represented in IQ format due to its flexibil-
 210 ity and simplicity for mathematical operations and hardware
 211 design. The in-phase and quadrature components are expressed
 212 as $I = A \cos(\phi)$ and $Q = A \sin(\phi)$, where A and ϕ are the
 213 instantaneous amplitude and phase of the received signal $r(t)$.

214 The RadioML and modified RadioML datasets used for test-
 215 ing the proposed model, presented in the next section of this
 216 paper, follow the signal representation as given in equation (1).
 217 These datasets make a practical assumption that the sensor's
 218 sampling rate is high enough to receive the full-bandwidth
 219 signal of interest at the receiver end as $r(t)$. The datasets also
 220 take into account complex receiver imperfections which are
 221 explained in detail in Section III. The *samples per symbol*
 222 parameter used in the Tables I and II specify the number
 223 of samples representing each modulated symbol which is a
 224 modulation characteristic. Similarly *sample length* param-
 225 eter specifies the number of received signal samples used for
 226 classification.

227 III. MODULATION DATASETS

228 A publicly available dataset used for evaluating the perfor-
 229 mance of the proposed model is detailed in this section. The
 230 standard dataset is also extended to evaluate the sample rate
 231 dependence of the proposed model.

232 A. RadioML Dataset

233 A standard modulation dataset presented in [17] is used as
 234 the baseline for training and evaluating the performance of
 235 the proposed classifier. The used RadioML2016.10a dataset is
 236 a synthetically generated dataset using GNU Radio [18] with
 237 commercially used modulation parameters. This dataset also
 238 includes a number of realistic channel imperfections such as
 239 channel frequency offset, sample rate offset, additive white
 240 Gaussian noise along with multipath fading. It contains mod-
 241 ulated signals with 4 samples/symbol (sps) and a sample length
 242 of 128 samples. Used modulations along with the complete
 243 parameter list can be found in Table I. Detailed specifications
 244 and generation details of the dataset can be found in [17].

TABLE I
RADIOML2016.10A DATASET PARAMETERS

Modulations	8PSK, AM-DSB, AM-SSB, BPSK, CPFSK, GFSK, PAM4, QAM16, QAM64, QPSK, WBFM
Samples per symbol	4
Sample length	128
SNR Range	-20dB to +20dB
Number of training samples	82500 vectors
Number of test samples	82500 vectors

TABLE II
MODIFIED COMPLEX RADIOML DATASET PARAMETERS

Modulations	8PSK, AM-DSB, AM-SSB, BPSK, CPFSK, GFSK, PAM4, QAM16, QAM64, QPSK, WBFM
Samples per symbol	4 and 8 sps
Sample length	128 to 512
SNR Range	-20dB to +20dB
Number of training samples	165000 vectors
Number of test samples	165000 vectors

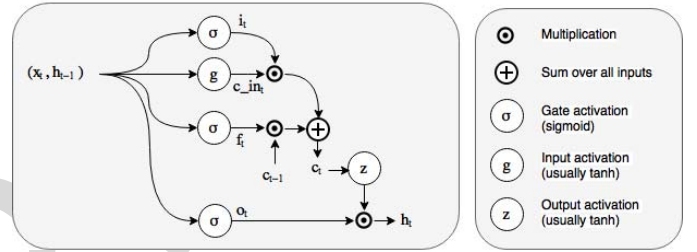


Fig. 1. LSTM cell used in the hidden layers of the model.

245 B. Modified RadioML Dataset

246 The standard radioML dataset is extended using the gen-
 247 eration code² by varying the *samples per symbol* and *sample*
 248 *length* parameters for evaluating the sample rate dependencies
 249 of the LSTM model. The extended parameters of the used
 250 dataset are listed in the Table II. The extended dataset con-
 251 tains signals with 4 and 8 samples per symbol. This dataset is
 252 generated to evaluate the robustness of the model in varying
 253 symbol rate scenarios.

254 IV. MODEL DESCRIPTION

255 The proposed LSTM model, that works on the time domain
 256 amplitude and phase signal, is introduced in the following
 257 subsection. In addition, the baseline CNN model used for
 258 comparisons is also detailed.

259 A. LSTM Primer

260 Recurrent Neural Networks (RNN) are heavily used for
 261 learning persistent features from time series data. LSTM [16]
 262 is a special type of RNN which is efficient in learning long-
 263 term dependencies. The block diagram of a basic version of
 264 a LSTM cell is presented in Figure 1 along with the
 265 corresponding equations (2-7).

- Gates

$$266 \quad i_t = \sigma(W_{xi}x_t + W_{hi}h_{t-1} + b_i) \quad (2) \quad 267$$

²<https://github.com/radioML/dataset>

$$f_t = \sigma(W_{xf}x_t + W_{hf}h_{t-1} + b_f) \quad (3)$$

$$o_t = \sigma(W_{xo}x_t + W_{ho}h_{t-1} + b_o) \quad (4)$$

- Input transform

$$c_{in_t} = \tanh(W_{xc}x_t + W_{hc}h_{t-1} + b_{c_{in}}) \quad (5)$$

- State update

$$c_t = f_t \cdot c_{t-1} + i_t \cdot c_{in_t} \quad (6)$$

$$h_t = o_t \cdot \tanh(c_t) \quad (7)$$

LSTM cells have an internal state or memory (c_t) along with three gates namely input gate (i_t), forget gate (f_t) and output gate (o_t). Based on the previous state and the input data the cells can learn the gate weights for the specified problem. This gating mechanism helps LSTM cells to store information for longer duration thereby enabling persistent feature learning.

B. Model for Complex Signals

A LSTM network with different layers is used for complex data classification as shown in Figure 2. The amplitude and phase of the time domain modulated signal are fed to all cells of the LSTM model as a two dimensional vector, at each time step for classification. The amplitude vector is L2 normalized and the phase, which is in radians is normalized between -1 and 1 . The first two layers are comprised of 128 LSTM cells each. The final output from the second LSTM layer, a vector of dimension 128, after all time steps, is fed to the last dense layer of the model. The final layer is a dense softmax layer which maps the classified features to one of the 11 output classes representing the modulation schemes. The two layer model is selected after detailed analysis varying the cell size and layer depths which are detailed in Section V-D.

The intuition to use a LSTM model for classification is based on the fact that different modulation schemes exhibit different amplitude and phase characteristics and the model can learn these temporal dependencies effectively. Even though fading and other real world effects may slightly hamper the characteristics of the signal, we expect the model to classify signals efficiently by learning good fading resistant representations. Since the proposed model can work on variable length input time domain samples, we expect the model to learn useful symbol rate independent representations for classification. In addition, the importance of the number of LSTM cells and layer depth are further investigated by varying these parameters. Model classification accuracies are analyzed with varying layer depth from 1 to 3 and number of cells from 16 to 256. We further analyze these aspects in detail in Section V.

C. Baseline IQ Model

The two layer CNN 8 tap model presented in [15] is used as the baseline model for further comparisons. The baseline model uses 256 and 80 filters in the first two convolutional layers respectively. A publicly available training model is used for generating the baseline performance graph [14].

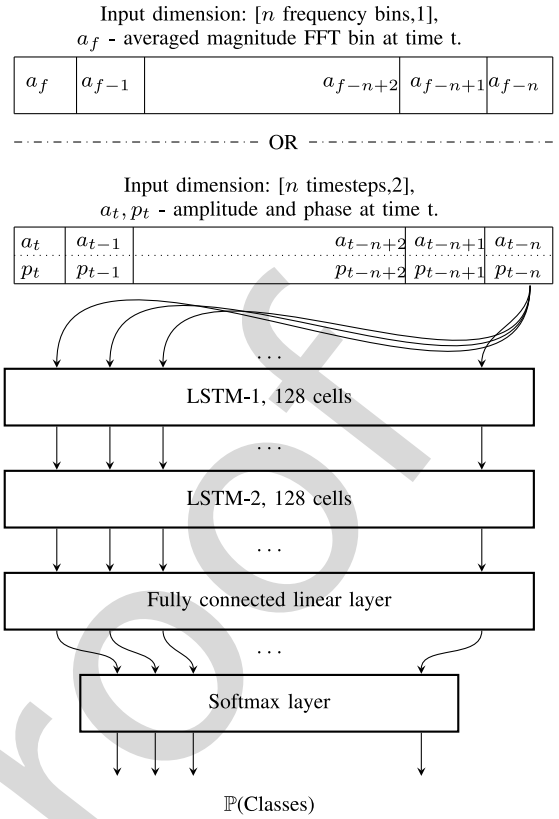


Fig. 2. Two layer LSTM model for classification. The model is trained and deployed for modulation classification using either amplitude-phase signal or the averaged magnitude-FFT signal as input.

D. Model Training and Testing

Each of the datasets mentioned in Tables I and II are split into two, one training set and the other testing set. A seed is used to generate random mutually exclusive array indices, which are then used to split the data into two ascertaining the training and testing sets are entirely different. The number of the training and testing vectors are listed in the corresponding tables. A softmax cross entropy with logits,³ that measures the probability error in discrete classification tasks in which the classes are mutually exclusive, is used as the loss function. Stochastic gradient descent with a minibatch size of 400 vectors is used to avoid local optima. We use the Adam optimizer [19], a first-order gradient based optimizer with a learning rate of 0.001. The complex two layer LSTM network is trained for 70 epochs which takes around an hour of training time on a x86 PC with Nvidia GeForce GTX 980 Ti graphics card. We use a basic LSTM cell with starting training forget bias set to one. While initializing the network, it is helpful to keep the scale of the input variance constant, so that it does not explode or diminish by reaching the final layer. To achieve this LSTM weights are initialized with a default uniform unit scaling initializer which generates weights with a uniform variance. All the models use the same training parameters unless specified explicitly.

³https://www.tensorflow.org/api_docs/python/tf/nn/softmax_cross_entropy_with_logits

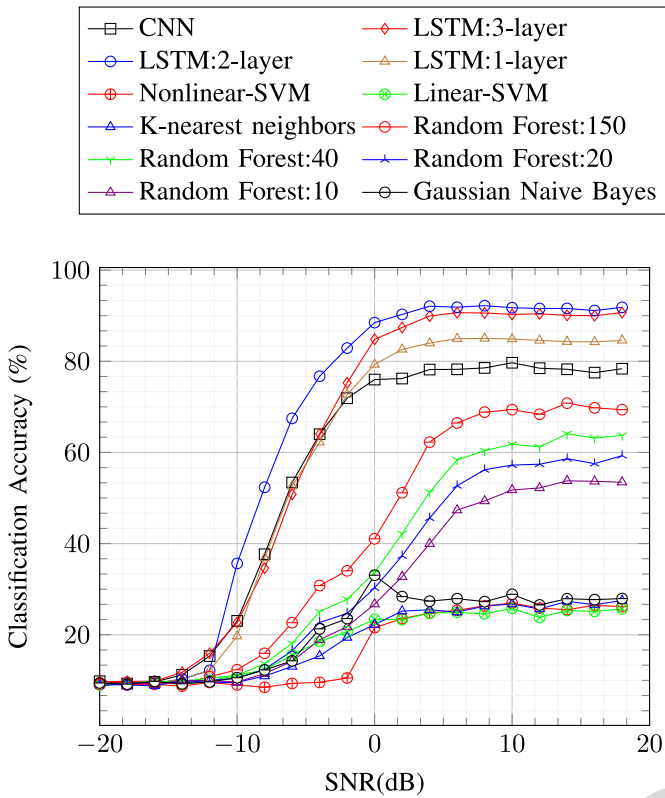


Fig. 3. Classification accuracy comparison of hyper-parameter optimized 2-layer amplitude-phase LSTM model with others on RadioML dataset.

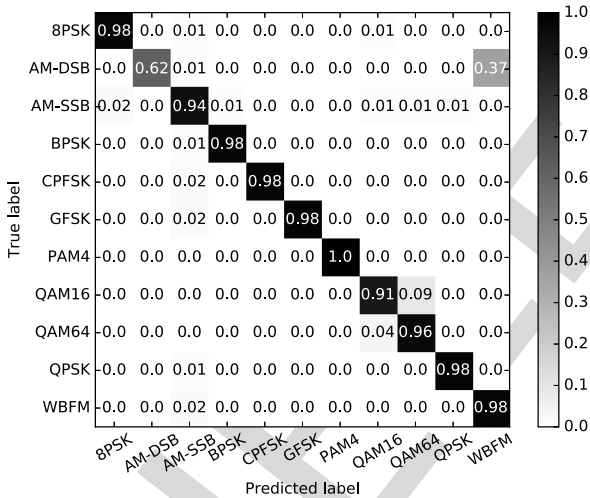


Fig. 4. Confusion matrix for 2-layer amplitude-phase LSTM model on RadioML dataset at 18dB SNR.

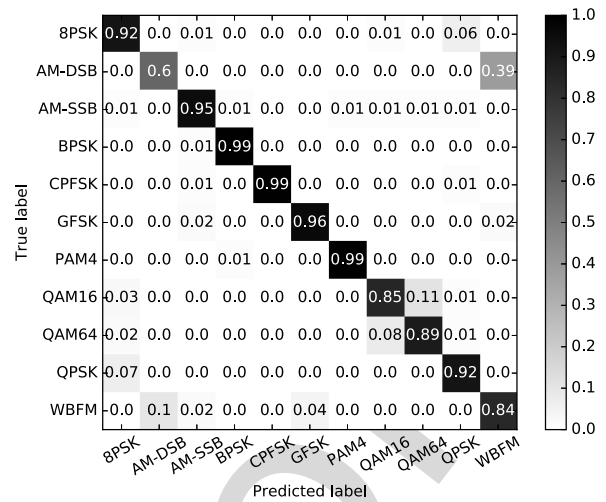


Fig. 5. Confusion matrix for 2-layer amplitude-phase LSTM model on RadioML dataset at 0dB SNR.

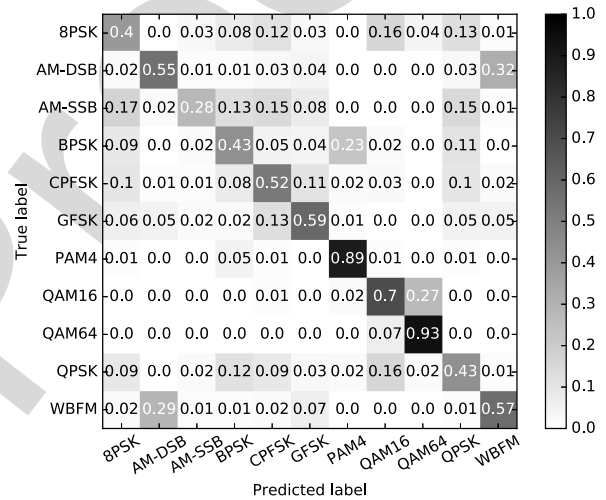


Fig. 6. Confusion matrix for 2-layer amplitude-phase LSTM model on RadioML dataset at -8dB SNR.

341 *E. Implementation Details*

342 The neural network is implemented using TensorFlow [20],
 343 a data flow graph based numerical computation library from
 344 Google. Python and C++ bindings of Tensorflow makes the
 345 usage of the final trained model easily portable to host based
 346 SDR frameworks like GNU Radio [18]. The trained model
 347 can be easily imported as a block in GNU Radio which
 348 can be readily used in practice with any supported hardware
 349 front-end.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

350
 351 The classification accuracies of the model for the afore-
 352 mentioned datasets along with the learned representations are
 353 discussed in the following subsections.

A. Classification Accuracy on RadioML Dataset

354
 355 The two layer amplitude-phase LSTM model, shown in
 356 Figure 2, is trained on SNR ranges from -10dB to 20dB.
 357 Training vectors with SNR ranges below -10dB were not
 358 used as the model was converging slowly when those vectors
 359 were used. Alternate models with varying LSTM layer depths
 360 are also trained to understand the performance improvements
 361 provided by the different layer depths. The classification accu-
 362 racy of all the four models are presented in Figure 3. The two
 363 layer LSTM model gave an average accuracy of 90% in SNR
 364 ranges from 0dB to 20dB. It can be noticed that the single
 365 layer LSTM also reaches a high accuracy at high SNRs, 6%
 366 less than the two layer model. It was also noticed that the clas-
 367 sification accuracy saturates for layer depths of two. Hence,

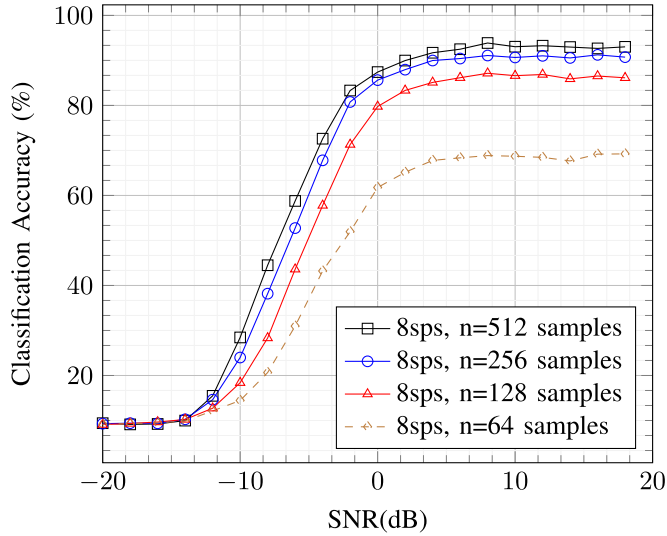


Fig. 7. Classification accuracy of amplitude-phase LSTM model on modified RadioML dataset for 8 samples/symbol. The model is trained only on input sample lengths (n) from 128 to 512. The model gives close to 70% accuracy on 64 input samples (dashed line) which it is not trained for.

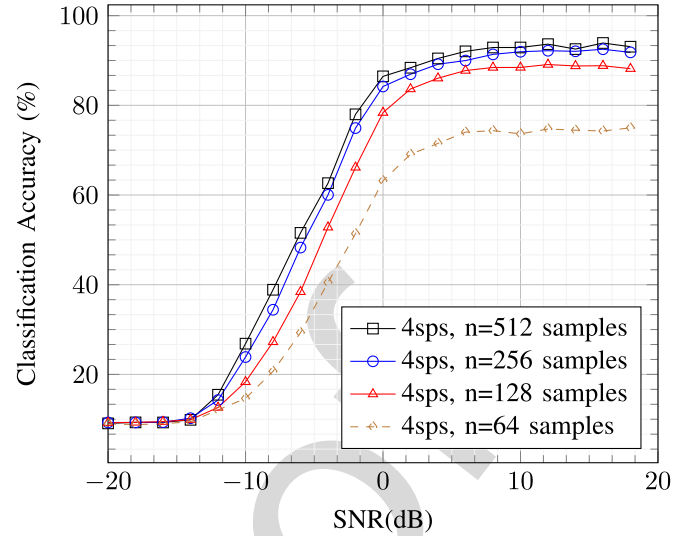


Fig. 8. Classification accuracy of amplitude-phase LSTM model on modified RadioML dataset for 4 samples/symbol. The model is trained only on input sample lengths (n) from 128 to 512. The model gives close to 75% accuracy on 64 input samples (dashed line) which it is not trained for.

layer depth of two is selected for the final model and its parameters are fine tuned (dropout = 0.8 and learning rate = 0.001) to achieve the best test performance as shown in Figure 3. Rigorous fine tuning was not performed on layer depths other than two accounting for a slightly lower accuracy levels, for instance the accuracy level for layer depth 3 is slightly lower than layer depth two. The performance of the baseline CNN model was shown to be much better on the low SNR regions in [15]. We were not able to reproduce the reported results on the low SNR regions after various attempts, which may be because of the difference in hyper-parameter tuning. Though, the high SNR results of the baseline model matches with that of the reported ones in the paper. Detailed discussions on the effect of layer depth and number of LSTM cells are presented in Section V-D.

Classification performance of other standard machine learning models such as Support Vector Machines (SVM), random forest, k-nearest neighbors and Gaussian Naive Bayes are also summarized in Figure 3. All models are fed with the same amplitude-phase training and test data for this comparison. Random forest with 150 decision trees is able to provide close to 70% of accuracy at very high SNR conditions while others could reach only around 26%. It could be clearly noticed that the deep learning models perform superior to the other standard techniques when fed with the raw sensed data. The deep learning models can classify signals very efficiently with a very low number of symbols, usually with hundreds of samples (tens of modulated symbols) when compared to the classical cyclostationary based expert feature models which requires samples in thousands range (hundreds of modulated symbols) for averaging. Similarly extracting expert cyclostationary features using tens of symbols is very suboptimal, which substantiate the use of deep learning models.

To understand the results better confusion matrices for the two layer LSTM model for various SNRs are also included.

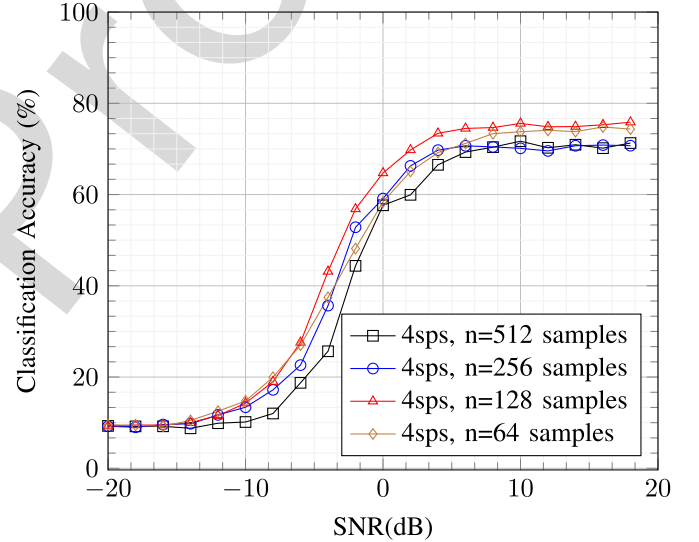


Fig. 9. Classification accuracy of amplitude-phase LSTM model for non-trained data lengths on modified RadioML dataset with 4 samples/symbol.

It can be seen in Figure 4 that at a high SNR of 18dB the diagonal is much more sharp even though there are difficulties in separating AM-DSB and WBFM signals. This is mainly due to the silence periods of audio as the modulated signals are generated from real audio streams. Similarly in Figure 5, at 0dB SNR it is noticed that there is some level of confusion regarding QAM16 and QAM64 as the former is a subset of the latter. The confusion increases further at low SNRs as shown in Figure 6. From these basic analysis it is clear that deep complex structures as mentioned in [15] are not required to achieved good SoA classification accuracy at high SNRs. However, use of convolutional layers might turn useful at low SNRs as reported in [15]. In our experiments we also noticed that simply providing IQ samples to the LSTM model yielded poor results while normalized amplitude and phase

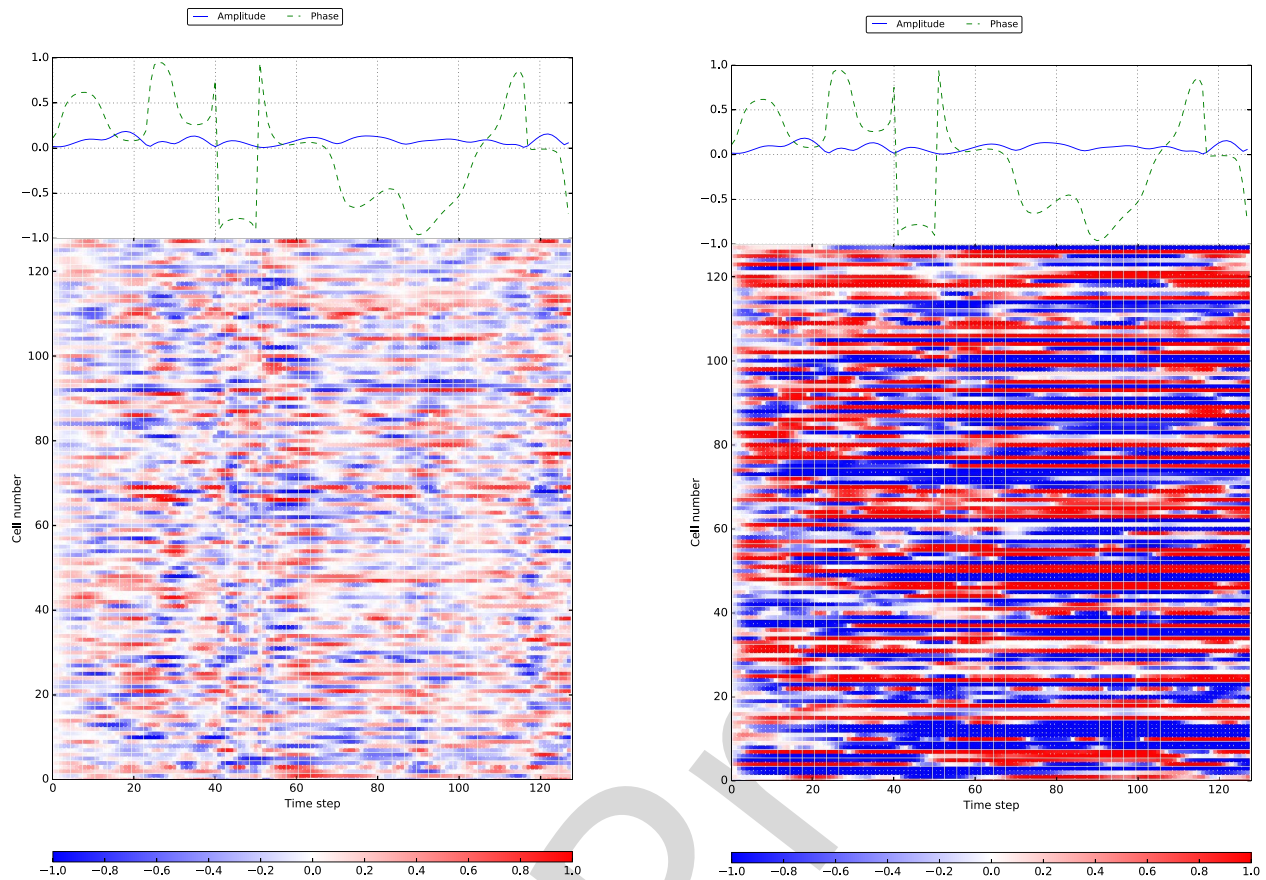


Fig. 10. Layer-1 (left) and layer-2 (right) LSTM temporal activations for a QAM64 input vector. On the top the amplitude and phase of the input signal (y-axis) is plotted at each time step (x-axis). Below the amplitude and phase of the signal, temporal activations for all cells in the LSTM model for each time step are shown. Blue denotes $\tanh(c)$ activations of value -1 and red denotes a value of $+1$.

418 interpretation provided good results. The models even failed
 419 to reduce the training loss when fed with time domain IQ sam-
 420 ples, giving a constant accuracy of 9% on the radiomL dataset,
 421 as the LSTMs were not able to extract any meaningful rep-
 422 resentations. Similarly feeding amplitude-phase information
 423 to the CNN model did not provide any accuracy improve-
 424 ments over the IQ-CNN model. The classification accuracy
 425 improvement is achieved from the combined benefits of using
 426 amplitude-phase information along with 2-layer LSTM model.

427 B. Classification Accuracy on Modified RadiomL Dataset

428 The same two layer LSTM model is trained on SNRs rang-
 429 ing from -20 dB to 20 dB and input sample lengths from 128
 430 to 512 samples. The accuracy of the model is tested on the full
 431 range of SNRs and also on input sample length that is smaller
 432 than the training set (e.g., 64). It is evident from the results
 433 in Figures 7 and 8 that the classification accuracy improves
 434 as the model sees more modulated symbols. Even though the
 435 model is trained on varying data lengths from 128 to 512
 436 samples, it gives an average accuracy of 75% with 64 sam-
 437 ples and 4 samples per symbol scenario for which it was not
 438 trained, which confirms the model's generalization capabili-
 439 ties. To further analyze the generalization capabilities of the
 440 model on unseen sample lengths, four balanced folds of data
 441 each containing sequences with sample lengths of 64, 128,

256 and 512 are created. The model is then trained only on
 three folds, and the left-out fold is used to test generaliza-
 tion to the unseen length. This process is repeated for all four
 sample lengths and the results are presented in Figure 9. The
 model consistently gives an average accuracy above 70% for
 high SNR conditions.

C. Learned Representations

448 The inherent non-linearity and deep structures makes under-
 449 standing the representations learned by LSTMs difficult. In
 450 order to obtain some good insights we use visualization
 451 techniques similar to the ones presented in [21]. These visu-
 452 alizations can help to understand how LSTM cells behave
 453 for an input signal, for instance which cells gets activated
 454 at each time step and how long each gate remains open.
 455 Figures 10 and 11 presents the gate activation and saturation
 456 of the trained two layer LSTM model for a QAM64 input sig-
 457 nal with 18dB SNR. As explained in Section IV-A the gates of
 458 LSTM cells have sigmoid activation functions, giving an out-
 459 put value between 0 and 1. A gate is said to be left saturated
 460 if its activation is less than 0.1 and right saturated if the acti-
 461 vation is greater than 0.9. The fraction of time for which the
 462 gate is in left or right saturated mode in the entire 128 sam-
 463 ples time is plotted in Figure 11. On the first layer, it can be noticed
 464 that all the three gates are confined close to the origin showing
 465

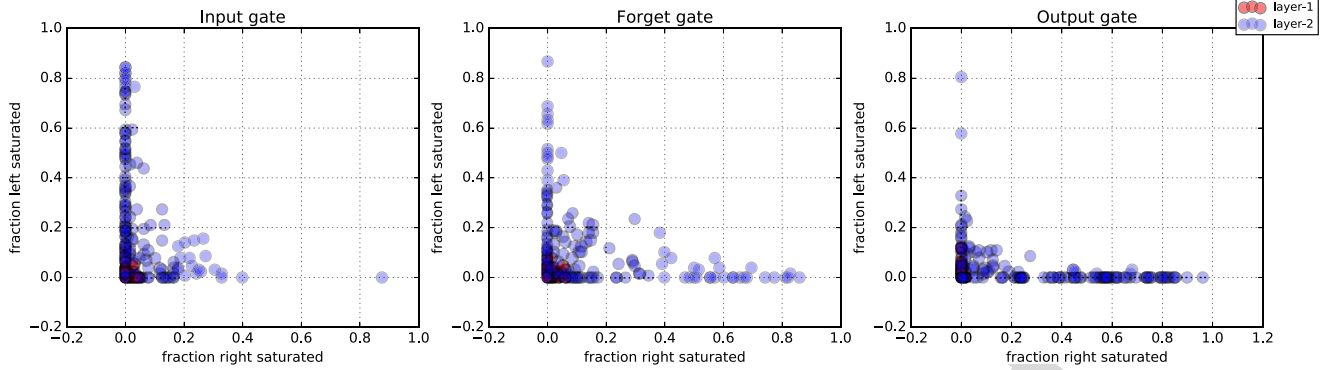


Fig. 11. Gate saturation plots for LSTM for the same a QAM64 input vector. A circle represents a gate in a particular LSTM cell.

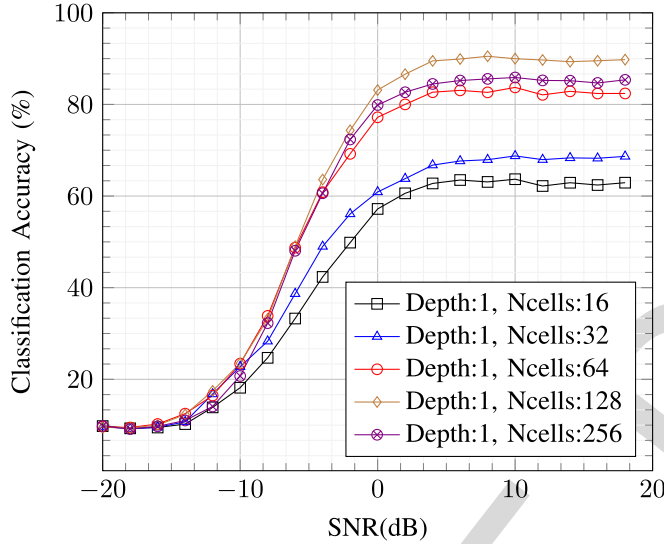


Fig. 12. Classification accuracy of single layer amplitude-phase LSTM model for different cell size on RadioML dataset.

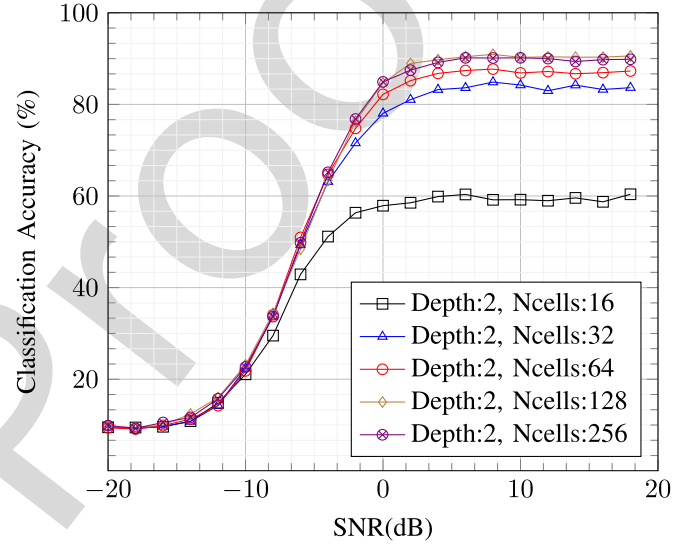


Fig. 13. Classification accuracy of two layer amplitude-phase LSTM model for different cell sizes on RadioML dataset.

466 that they are not highly left or right saturated. The absence of
 467 right saturation in the first layer forget gates, confirms that the
 468 cells do not store information for long term. There are no cells
 469 in the first layer that function in purely feed-forward fashion,
 470 since their forget gates would show up as consistently left-
 471 saturated. The output gate plots in the first layer also show
 472 that there are no cells that are revealed or blocked to the hid-
 473 den state. This is also visible in the activation plots of the first
 474 layer in Figure 10. The activations are short when compared
 475 to the second layer and it can be noticed in Figure 10 that
 476 many cell activations follow the input amplitude and phase
 477 changes in the input waveform. The second layer stores much
 478 long term dependencies from the fine grained representations
 479 generated from the first layer.

480 D. Effect of Cell Size and Layer Depth

481 A comprehensive study is also performed to understand the
 482 effect of the number cells and layer depth on the model perfor-
 483 mance. The number of LSTM cells and layer depth are varied
 484 from 16 to 256 and 1 to 3 respectively. The models are trained
 485 on RadioML dataset on all SNRs. The accuracy levels for

486 various layer depths are presented in Figures 12, 13 and 14. An
 487 initial analysis clearly shows that the model accuracy increases
 488 with increasing layer depth for mostly all cell sizes. It can be
 489 also noted that as the depth of the model increases, increasing
 490 the number of cells doesn't give much performance improve-
 491 ments. For instance, at depths 2 and 3 increasing the cell
 492 numbers from 128 to 256 doesn't provide any performance
 493 improvements.

494 VI. RESOURCE FRIENDLY MODELS

495 As mentioned earlier in the introduction, it is quite difficult
 496 to deploy SoA AMC algorithms on low-end distributed sensors
 497 such as the ones in Electrosense. We extend our study in
 498 two directions to reduce the resource requirements in terms of
 499 data transfer rate to the cloud, data storage and computational
 500 power. First, a study is conducted to understand to what extent
 501 technology classification based on AMC can be done using
 502 averaged magnitude FFT data, as the PSD pipeline being the
 503 default enabled one in the Electrosense sensors with medium
 504 data transfer costs. As the sensors are sequentially scanning the
 505 spectrum, they are capable of generating magnitude spectrum

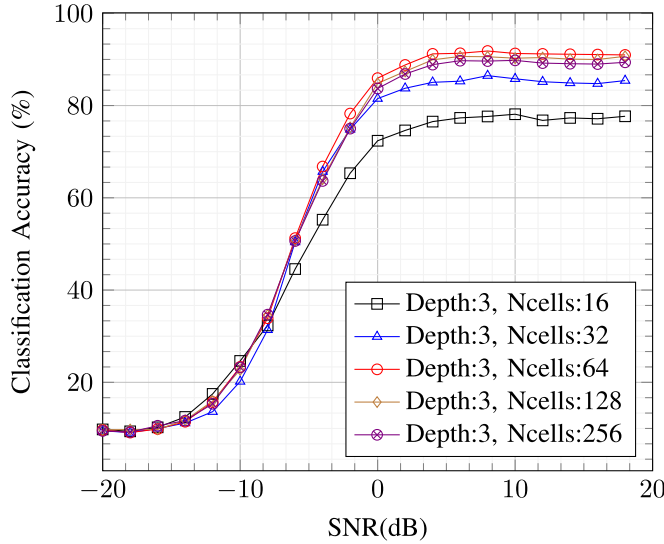


Fig. 14. Classification accuracy of three layer amplitude-phase LSTM model for different cell sizes on RadioML dataset.

information for wideband signals which is an added advantage. Second, the performance of quantized versions of the proposed deep learning models are analyzed which can reduce the computational cost of the models enabling deployment of these models on the sensors itself. The averaged magnitude FFT signal sent by the sensor, the selected dataset for testing the model, averaged magnitude FFT classification model, other quantized models and the classification results are detailed in the following subsections.

A. Received Averaged Magnitude FFT Signal

Electrosense sensors scan the wireless spectrum sequentially. The sensor samples the wireless spectrum at a fixed sampling rate $N = 2.4$ MS/s tuned to a particular centre frequency f_x . As the sensor's sampling rate is limited, a wideband signal's magnitude spectrum can be received only by sequential scans to cover the entire bandwidth as given in equation (8).

$$R(f) = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=0}^M \left| FFT_m \left(e^{-j2\pi f_1(t_0+mD_t)} s(t_0+mD_t) * c(t_0+mD_t) + n(t_0+mD_t) \right) \right| \left| \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=0}^M \left| FFT_m \left(e^{-j2\pi f_2(t_1+mD_t)} s(t_1+mD_t) * c(t_1+mD_t) + n(t_1+mD_t) \right) \right| \right| \dots \quad (8)$$

In equation (8) \parallel represents the concatenation operation where the full bandwidth of the signal of interest is captured by a sequentially scanning sensor sampling at a lower sampling rate, similar to the Electrosense dataset mentioned in the following subsection. The averaged magnitude FFT signal at centre frequencies f_i , where $f_i \in \{50 \text{ MHz}, 6 \text{ GHz}\}$ based on the sensor sampling rate and frequency range, are sent to the cloud where they are concatenated together. In equation (8),

M represents the magnitude-FFT averaging factor and t_x the sequential sampling time. For instance, $t_n = t_{n-1} + T$, where $T = MD_t$ is the amount of time spent at a particular centre frequency and D_t being the time for collecting fft_size samples for a single FFT input.

B. Electrosense Dataset

Six commercially deployed technologies are selected to validate the classification accuracy using averaged magnitude FFT data as given in Table III. Over-the-air data from multiple Electrosense sensors are retrieved through the Electrosense API⁴ with a spectral resolution of 10 kHz and time resolution of 60 seconds. The data is collected from sensors with omnidirectional antennas which are deployed indoors. The sensors follow sequential scanning of the spectrum with an FFT size set to 256 giving a frequency resolution close to 10 kHz. With a FFT size of 256 and sensor ADC bit-width of 8, we get an effective bitwidth of 12 resulting in a theoretical dynamic range of 74dB. Practical dynamic range depends on the ADC frontend stages and the noise level, which may vary between 60 to 65dB. Five FFT vectors are averaged for reducing the thermal noise of the receiver. Some of the selected technologies such as LTE and DVB have an effective bandwidth which is higher than the sampling bandwidth of the of the low-end SDR. As the sensor is sequentially scanning, full spectrum shapes of these wideband signals are obtained by combining FFT outputs of these sequential scans. The entire data is split into two, one half for training and the other half for testing the model.

C. Averaged Magnitude FFT Model

Sequentially sensed frequency spectrum data from the sensors contain signals of different bandwidth. The model should be able to process this variable length data and classify them to proper groups. We use the same LSTM model used for classifying complex input data as shown in Figure 2. The averaged magnitude FFT signal is fed to the model as a sequence as presented in Figure 2. The same LSTM model is chosen as it can handle variable length input signals and is also good at learning long term dependencies. The final output of the LSTM model after feeding n frequency bins is given as input to the softmax layer through a fully connected linear layer. The softmax layer outputs the probability $P(y = l|a; \theta)$ for $l \in \{0, 1, \dots, 5\}$ where a denotes the input averaged FFT bins, θ the model parameters and l the enumerated label for one of the six technologies as listed in Table III.

D. Classification Results

An initial study is conducted to understand the technology classification accuracy of the averaged magnitude FFT model when compared to full IQ information. On the Electrosense dataset (Section VI-B) the proposed model achieves a classification accuracy of 80%. The confusion matrix for the same is shown in Figure 15. From the confusion matrix it is clear that there is a large confusion between LTE and DVB. This

⁴<https://electrosense.org/open-api-spec.html>

TABLE III
AVERAGED MAGNITUDE FFT DATASET PARAMETERS

Technology	WFM, TETRA, DVB, RADAR, LTE, GSM
Time resolution	60s
Frequency resolution	10 kHz
Sensor sampling rate	2.4 MS/s
Scanning strategy	Sequential
FFT averaging factor	5
Sensor location and antenna type	Indoor, Omni-directional
Number of training samples	3100 vectors
Number of test samples	3100 vectors

is expected as the power spectra of both DVB and LTE looks very similar as both of them are based on OFDM. As multiple technologies might share the same modulation types, the assumption that a modulation classifier can be used for technology classification is not always valid with the current deployed technologies. We also investigated the effect of number of LSTM cells and layer depth on this dataset whose results are summarized in Table IV. Increasing the layer depth did not contribute significantly to the classification accuracy as there might be no more low level abstract features to be learned from the magnitude spectrum information. Furthermore, there are a large number of modulation schemes which exhibit the same power spectral density making averaged spectrum a sub-optimal feature for classification. For instance, the power spectral densities of different modulations schemes such as 8PSK, QAM16 and QPSK are identical once passed through a pulse shaping filter with a fixed roll-off factor. This can be theoretically shown and easily verified with manual inspection [22].

To further validate the argument, magnitude-FFT is calculated on the same RadioML dataset which was used for testing the performance of the amplitude-phase model. As the RadioML dataset consists of modulations with same bandwidths passed through the same pulse shaping filter, their magnitude-FFTs looks identical giving very low classification accuracy of only 19% for all 11 modulations even at high SNRs. To get a better understanding of the generated magnitude-FFT dataset, a visualization of a subset of the data in two dimensions is provided. For reducing the dimensionality of the data to 2 and for the ease of plotting, the t-SNE technique [23] is used. A small subset of the radioML dataset of 5000 vectors, containing 128 point magnitude FFT of all generated modulation schemes with varying SNR ranges from +20dB to +20dB are fed to the t-SNE algorithm. t-SNE is useful for a preliminary analysis to check whether classes are separable in some linear or nonlinear representation. The representation generated by t-SNE on the data subset is presented in Figure 16. It can be seen that the representation overlap is very high and t-SNE could not generate any meaningful clustering as the phase information is completely lost when computing magnitude-FFT, leaving identical magnitude spectrum for many modulation schemes. The obvious solution is to switch to IQ pipeline and deploy optimized versions of complex input signal models on the sensors itself, thus reducing the uplink data transfer rate. This is further investigated in the following subsection.

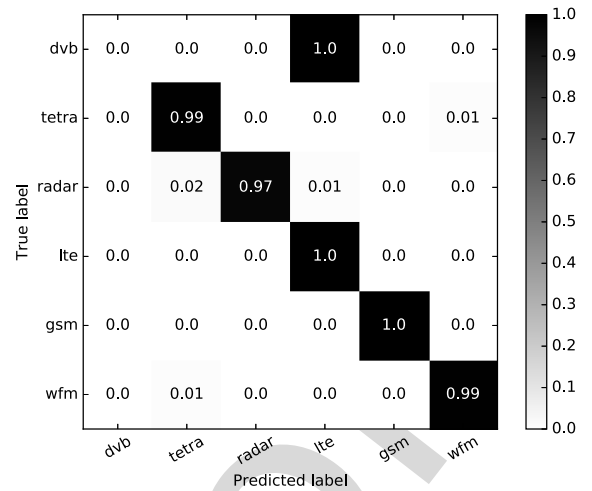


Fig. 15. Confusion matrix for technology classification on Electrosense dataset.

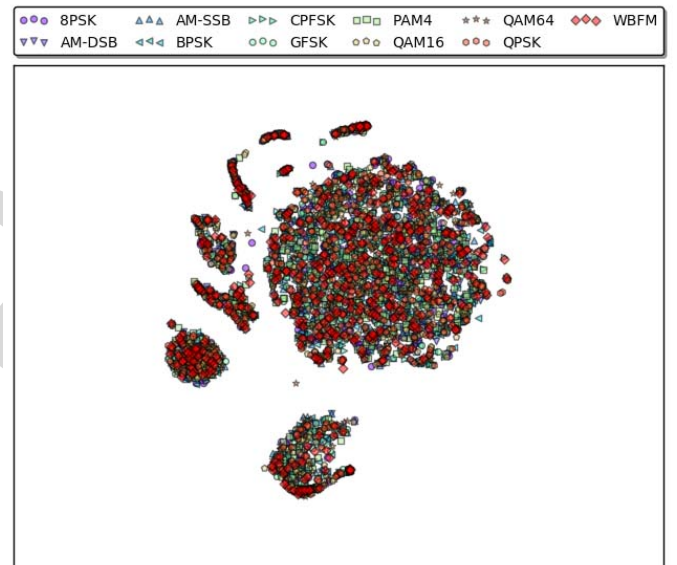


Fig. 16. t-SNE plot for magnitude FFT output on radioml dataset.

TABLE IV
CLASSIFICATION ACCURACY ON ELECTROSENSE DATASET FOR VARYING LAYER DEPTHS AND CELL NUMBERS

Layer-depth	Number of cells			
	16	32	64	128
1	70.02%	74.39%	79.38%	81.05%
2	72.69%	75.93%	80.92%	81.68%

E. Quantized Models

Deep learning models are processor intensive which makes them quite difficult to be deployed on low-end sensor networks. As mentioned in the introduction, transferring pure IQ data to the backend server is not a scalable solution. In addition, our results indicate that some signals require IQ information for correct classification. To enable low-end sensor deployment, a feasibility study is conducted by quantizing the weights and activations of the newly proposed as well as baseline neural network models. Binarized networks

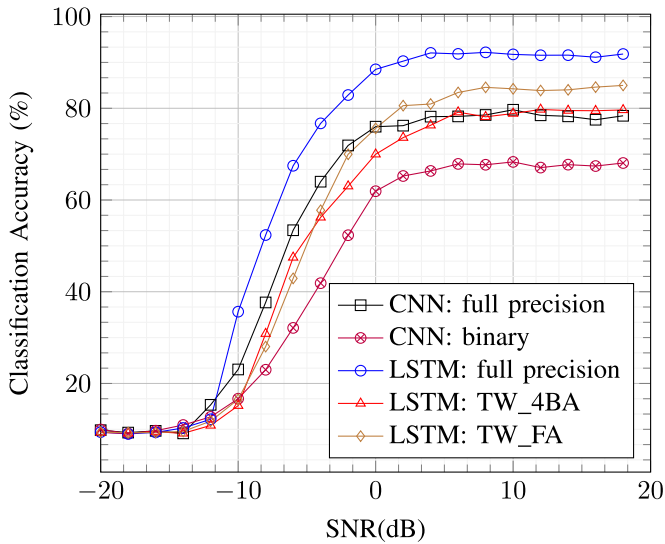


Fig. 17. Classification accuracy of two layer quantized models on RadioML dataset.

can exceptionally reduce the required memory size for holding intermediate results and replace most of the arithmetic operations with bitwise operations [24]. For instance, when compared to a full precision network with 32 bits weights and activation, a binarized network only needs 32 times smaller memory resulting in a reduced required memory size and memory access cost. Hubara *et al.* [24] had already noticed that binarizing LSTMs results in very poor accuracy. We confirm the same observation with our LSTM models too. However, models with binarized CNNs have been reported to provide accuracy close to their full precision variants. To validate this, the performance of the binarized baseline CNN model is also investigated on the radioML modulation dataset. Furthermore, by allowing more quantization levels on the LSTM models a higher accuracy can be achieved while still reducing the computational cost. Two quantized LSTM model variants are tested, one with ternary weights (-1, 0, +1) and full precision activation (TW_FA) and the other with ternary weights and four bits activation (TW_4BA). The accuracy results of these models are summarized in Figure 17. Results show that LSTM models with ternary weights and 4bit activation can provide close to 80% accuracy reducing the very high computational power required for full precision models. Binary CNN models also provided an accuracy level 10% below the full precision variants. We believe the classification accuracy can be further improved by proper hyper-parameter tuning and longer training.

The theoretical memory requirements for the trained weights along with number of multiplications required for the entire model, excluding activations, are summarized in Table V. A binarized neural network can drastically reduce the processing power requirements of the model. For instance, in a binarized network all weights and activation are either -1 or +1, replacing all multiply operations by XNORs. The multiply-accumulate, which is the core operation in neural networks, can be replaced by 1-bit XNOR-count operation [24].

TABLE V
MEMORY SIZE AND NUMBER OF MULTIPLICATIONS FOR THE DISCUSSED MODELS (EXCLUDING NONLINEAR ACTIVATIONS)

Model	Weights count	MUL/XNOR count	Memory
CNN: full precision	5451096	5451096	174.44 MB
CNN: binary	5451096	5451096	5.45 MB
LSTM: full precision	200075	262144	6.4 MB
LSTM: TW_4BA	200075	262144	400.15 KB
LSTM: TW_FA	200075	262144	400.15 KB

TABLE VI
INFERENCE ENGINE PERFORMANCE IN NUMBER OF CLASSIFICATION PER SECOND ON DIFFERENT PLATFORMS

Platform	Model			
	CNN-FP	CNN-8b	LSTM-FP	LSTM-8b
Nvidia GeForce GTX 1060	15239	85	12874	76
Nvidia Tegra TX2	2342	205	2785	127
Intel i7-3770	1039	85	1035	81
Jetson board (ARMv8)	264	217	275	164
Raspberry pi-2 (ARMv7)	36	30	24	21

Convolutions also comprises of multiply and accumulate operations which can also be replaced by its binarized variants. Thus the baseline CNN model can provide very good performance improvements on the general purpose ARM based Electrosense sensors. For the CNN models the convolutional layer output numbers are high, as we are not using any pooling layers, which accounts for the larger memory size in the succeeding dense layers. We would like to emphasize the fact that the given memory sizes are for the entire model and the weights that should be hold in the memory might vary based on practical implementations.

As binarized LSTM models did not provide good accuracy, we are forced to use 4-bit quantized variants of the same. Even though the performance improvements are not that extreme similar to binarized models, quantized LSTMs can also reduce the resource consumption. First of all, as no large dynamic range is required all the 4-bit multiply-accumulate operations can be implemented in fixed point arithmetic, which is much more faster in ARM CPUs when compared to their floating point versions. Secondly, routines can also be implemented to reduce the space requirements to hold intermediate results and the activations can be implemented as look-up tables. We would also like to emphasize the fact that on a special purpose hardware, such as FPGAs, quantized models can obviously reduce the space used and power-consumption as the multiply-accumulate units have smaller bit-widths.

Most of the machine learning frameworks such as Tensorflow have started supporting quantized models for low-end processor deployment. The quantized kernels are under active development at the time of writing this paper which currently only supports a minimum quantization of 8 bit. Quantized kernels for all operations in all platforms are not available in these libraries resulting in low performance than expected. The full IQ information model classification performances on various platforms such as Nvidia GPUs, Intel and ARM processors for full precision and 8bit precision models are summarized in Table VI. To avoid implementation mismatches across various models and platforms all the

717 comparisons are done using quantization tools provided by
 718 Google's Tensorflow which is currently under active devel-
 719 opment. These tools allow to freeze and compress a trained
 720 model to a single file and then test it on various platforms
 721 easily. These values in the table are performance indicators
 722 in number of classifications per second for 128 sample length
 723 vectors. It can be noticed that the quantized models perform
 724 very bad on GPUs and Intel PCs due to lack of support. The
 725 quantized models currently provide performance very close to
 726 floating point variants on ARM processors. Quantized kernel
 727 support is improving for ARM processors due to increased
 728 demand for deploying these models on mobile devices. The
 729 aforementioned advantages of quantized models is expected to
 730 be available in the near future through these standard libraries.

731 VII. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

732 Wireless spectrum monitoring and signal classification over
 733 frequency, time and space dimensions is still an active research
 734 problem. In this paper we proposed a new LSTM based model
 735 which can classify signals with time domain amplitude and
 736 phase as input. SoA results on high SNRs (0 to 20dB) is
 737 achieved without using complex CNN-LSTM models as men-
 738 tioned in [15]. Being a recurrent model we showed that the
 739 model can handle variable length inputs thus can capture
 740 sample rate variations effectively.

741 Though neural networks are good at function approxima-
 742 tion, our experiments emphasize the fact that *data prepro-*
 743 *cessing* and *proper representation* are equally important. This
 744 claim is substantiated from our experiments with the LSTM
 745 model where the model gave poor results when fed with time
 746 domain IQ samples while it gave accuracies close to 90%
 747 for high SNRs when provided with time domain amplitude
 748 and phase information. As shown by various SoA models in
 749 speech and image domains, performance improvements are
 750 seen with increasing layer depth which saturates after a few
 751 levels. In addition, we showed that basic technology clas-
 752 sification is achievable by only using averaged magnitude
 753 FFT information over a distributed set of sensors complying
 754 with the uplink bandwidth resource constraints. Furthermore,
 755 experiments showed that quantized LSTM models can achieve
 756 good classification results thus reducing the processing power
 757 requirements at the cost of 10% accuracy loss. This allows
 758 the deployment of these models on low cost sensors networks
 759 such as Electrosense enabling a wide area deployment. It is
 760 also remarkable that these deep learning models can classify
 761 signals with a fewer number of samples when compared to
 762 the expert feature variants, such as cyclic frequency estima-
 763 tors, enabling faster classification. Furthermore, deep learning
 764 allows for incremental learning, thus it would not be required
 765 to retrain the entire network from scratch for the new wireless
 766 non-idealities like antenna patterns and sensitivity. In addi-
 767 tion, dedicated hardware is gaining popularity to reduce the
 768 deep learning model's energy and memory footprints which
 769 demands quantized versions of the models.

770 Although the LSTM models perform very well at high SNR
 771 conditions, CNN models seems to provide an additional 5-10%
 772 accuracy on the low SNR conditions (SNRs below -2 dB) as

shown in [15]. Even though we are not able to replicate the
 results in [15] (because of hyperparameter tuning), it is rea-
 sonable to conclude that the learned filters in CNN for a fixed
 sample rate might give performance improvements for low
 SNR values. Furthermore, all the implemented code for the
 proposed models are made publicly available for reproduc-
 ing and verifying the results presented in this paper and for
 supporting future research.

Low SNR performance of these SoA deep learning mod-
 els could be further improved with the help of efficient blind
 denoising models. Models which can perform automated chan-
 nel equalization and compensate receiver imperfections such
 as frequency offset can further improve the classification per-
 formance. The current radio deep learning models make use
 of layers which basically applies non-linearity after simple
 multiply-accumulate-add operations while it is well estab-
 lished in the research community that cyclic cumulants, which
 are generated by time-shifted multiplication and averaging of
 the input itself, performs well in the expert feature space. Deep
 learning models which can extract features similar to cyclic
 cumulants might improve the performance metrics.

The analysis would not be complete without emphasiz-
 ing the limitations of the SoA deep learning models. First,
 the current complex models are tested on a dataset with
 normalized bandwidth parameters. Real life transmitted sig-
 nals generally have varying symbol rates and bandwidths.
 Even though the variable length LSTM model is shown to
 be capable of adapting to these scenarios, further analysis is
 required to validate the claim. In future, models that can han-
 dle all possible spread spectrum modulations should be also
 tested. Second, the generalization capabilities of these mod-
 els should be further investigated, in terms of performance
 of these models in unknown channel conditions and modula-
 tion parameters. Finally, most of the successful SoA models
 are supervised models which requires labeled training data.
 Labeling is a very tedious task which projects the importance
 of semi-supervised models for classification tasks. Published
 studies [25] on semi-supervised machine learning models for
 cellular network resource management validates the need for
 more semi-supervised models, which is also an active direction
 for future research. We believe deep learning models adapted
 to radio domain can help in understanding, analyzing and
 decision making in future complex radio environments.

816 REFERENCES

- [1] S. Rajendran *et al.*, "Electrosense: Open and big spectrum data," *IEEE*
Commun. Mag., vol. 56, no. 1, pp. 210–217, Jan. 2018. 817
- [2] M. Zheleva, R. Chandra, A. Chowdhery, A. Kapoor, and P. Garnett,
 "Txminer: Identifying transmitters in real-world spectrum measure-
 ments," in *Proc. IEEE Int. Symp. Dyn. Spectr. Access Netw. (DySPAN)*,
 Stockholm, Sweden, Sep. 2015, pp. 94–105. 818
- [3] S. S. Hong and S. R. Katti, "DOF: A local wireless infor-
 mation plane," in *Proc. ACM SIGCOMM Conf. (SIGCOMM)*,
 Toronto, ON, Canada, 2011, pp. 230–241. [Online]. Available:
<http://doi.acm.org/10.1145/2018436.2018463> 819
- [4] O. A. Dobre, A. Abdi, Y. Bar-Ness, and W. Su, "Survey of auto-
 matic modulation classification techniques: Classical approaches and
 new trends," *IET Commun.*, vol. 1, no. 2, pp. 137–156, Apr. 2007. 820
- [5] W. A. Gardner, "Signal interception: A unifying theoretical frame-
 work for feature detection," *IEEE Trans. Commun.*, vol. 36, no. 8,
 pp. 897–906, Aug. 1988. 821

833 [6] Z. Yu, "Automatic modulation classification of communication signals,"
 834 Ph.D. dissertation, Dept. Elect. Comput. Eng., New Jersey Inst. Technol.,
 835 Newark, NJ, USA, 2006.

836 [7] A. V. Dandawate and G. B. Giannakis, "Statistical tests for pres-
 837 ence of cyclostationarity," *IEEE Trans. Signal Process.*, vol. 42, no. 9,
 838 pp. 2355–2369, Sep. 1994.

839 [8] W. Gardner, "Spectral correlation of modulated signals: Part I—Analog
 840 modulation," *IEEE Trans. Commun.*, vol. COM-35, no. 6, pp. 584–594,
 841 Jun. 1987.

842 [9] W. Gardner, W. Brown, and C.-K. Chen, "Spectral correlation of mod-
 843 ulated signals: Part II—Digital modulation," *IEEE Trans. Commun.*,
 844 vol. COM-35, no. 6, pp. 595–601, Jun. 1987.

845 [10] A. Fehske, J. Gaedert, and J. H. Reed, "A new approach to signal clas-
 846 sification using spectral correlation and neural networks," in *Proc. 1st*
 847 *IEEE Int. Symp. New Front. Dyn. Spectr. Access Netw. (DySPAN)*,
 848 Nov. 2005, pp. 144–150.

849 [11] T. Yucek and H. Arslan, "OFDM signal identification and transmission
 850 parameter estimation for cognitive radio applications," in *Proc. IEEE*
 851 *Glob. Telecommun. Conf. (IEEE GLOBECOM)*, Washington, DC, USA,
 852 Nov. 2007, pp. 4056–4060.

853 [12] Y. LeCun, Y. Bengio, and G. Hinton, "Deep learning," *Nature*, vol. 521,
 854 no. 7553, pp. 436–444, May 2015, doi: [10.1038/nature14539](https://doi.org/10.1038/nature14539).

855 [13] M. Zorzi, A. Zanella, A. Testolin, M. D. F. D. Grazia, and M. Zorzi,
 856 "Cognition-based networks: A new perspective on network optimiza-
 857 tion using learning and distributed intelligence," *IEEE Access*, vol. 3,
 858 pp. 1512–1530, 2015.

859 [14] T. J. O'Shea, J. Corgan, and T. C. Clancy, "Convolutional radio modula-
 860 tion recognition networks," in *Proc. Int. Conf. Eng. Appl. Neural Netw.*,
 861 2016, pp. 213–226.

862 [15] N. E. West and T. O'Shea, "Deep architectures for modulation recog-
 863 nition," in *Proc. IEEE Int. Symp. Dyn. Spectr. Access Netw. (DySPAN)*,
 864 Piscataway, NJ, USA, Mar. 2017, pp. 1–6.

865 [16] S. Hochreiter and J. Schmidhuber, "Long short-term mem-
 866 ory," *Neural Comput.*, vol. 9, no. 8, pp. 1735–1780, Nov. 1997,
 867 doi: [10.1162/neco.1997.9.8.1735](https://doi.org/10.1162/neco.1997.9.8.1735).

868 [17] T. J. O'Shea and N. West, "Radio machine learning dataset generation
 869 with GNU radio," in *Proc. GNU Radio Conf.*, vol. 1, no. 1, Sep. 2016.

870 [18] *GNU Radio*. Accessed: Apr. 4, 2017. [Online]. Available:
 871 <http://www.gnuradio.org>

872 [19] D. P. Kingma and J. Ba, "Adam: A method for stochastic opti-
 873 mization," *CoRR*, vol. abs/1412.6980, 2014. [Online]. Available:
 874 <http://arxiv.org/abs/1412.6980>

875 [20] M. Abadi *et al.*, "Tensorflow: Large-scale machine learning on heteroge-
 876 neous distributed systems," *CORR*, vol. abs/1603.04467, 2016. [Online].
 877 Available: <http://arxiv.org/abs/1603.04467>

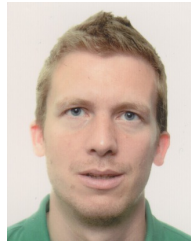
878 [21] A. Karpathy, J. Johnson, and F. Li, "Visualizing and understanding
 879 recurrent networks," *CoRR*, vol. abs/1506.02078, Nov. 2015. [Online].
 880 Available: <http://arxiv.org/abs/1506.02078>

881 [22] D. Divsalar and M. Simon, "The power spectral density of digital mod-
 882 ulations transmitted over nonlinear channels," *IEEE Trans. Commun.*,
 883 vol. COM-30, no. 1, pp. 142–151, Jan. 1982.

884 [23] L. V. D. Maaten and G. Hinton, "Visualizing data using t-SNE," *J. Mach.*
 885 *Learn. Res.*, vol. 9, pp. 2579–2605, Nov. 2008.

886 [24] I. Hubara, M. Courbariaux, D. Soudry, R. El-Yaniv, and Y. Bengio,
 887 "Quantized neural networks: Training neural networks with low pre-
 888 cision weights and activations," *CORR*, vol. abs/1609.07061, 2016.
 889 [Online]. Available: <http://arxiv.org/abs/1609.07061>

890 [25] A. Testolin *et al.*, "A machine learning approach to QoE-based video
 891 admission control and resource allocation in wireless systems," in
 892 *Proc. 13th Annu. Mediterr. Ad Hoc Netw. Workshop (MED-HOC-NET)*,
 893 Jun. 2014, pp. 31–38.



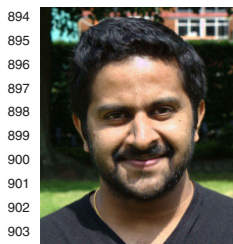
905 **Wannes Meert** received the Master of
 906 Electrotechnical Engineering degree in micro-
 907 electronics, the Master of Artificial Intelligence,
 908 and the Ph.D. degree in computer science from KU
 909 Leuven in 2005, 2006, and 2011, respectively. He
 910 is currently a Research Manager with the DTAI
 911 Research Group, KU Leuven. His work is focused
 912 on applying machine learning, artificial intelligence,
 913 and anomaly detection technology to industrial
 914 application domains.
 915



916 **Domenico Giustiniano** received the Ph.D. degree
 917 from the University of Rome Tor Vergata in 2008.
 918 He is a Research Associate Professor with IMDEA
 919 Networks Institute and a Leader of the Pervasive
 920 Wireless Systems Group. He was formerly a Senior
 921 Researcher and a Lecturer with ETH Zurich and
 922 a Post-Doctoral Researcher with Disney Research
 923 Zurich and Telefonica Research Barcelona. He has
 924 authored over 70 international papers, a Leader of
 925 the OpenVLC Project and a Co-Founder of the non-
 926 profit Electrosense Association. He devotes most of
 927 his current research to visible light communication,
 928 mobile indoor localization, and collaborative spectrum sensing systems.



929 **Vincent Lenders** received the M.Sc. and Ph.D.
 930 degrees in electrical engineering from ETH Zurich.
 931 He is a Research Director with armasuisse, where he
 932 leads the cyber and information sciences research
 933 of the Swiss Federal Department of Defense. He
 934 was a Post-Doctoral Research Fellow with Princeton
 935 University. He is the Co-Founder and on the
 936 board of the OpenSky Network and Electrosense
 937 Associations. His current research interests are in the
 938 fields of cyber security, information management,
 939 big data, and crowdsourcing.



894 **Sreeraj Rajendran** received the master's degree
 895 in communication and signal processing from the
 896 Indian Institute of Technology Bombay, in 2013.
 897 He is currently pursuing the Ph.D. degree with the
 898 Department of Electrical Engineering, KU Leuven,
 899 Belgium. He was a Senior Design Engineer with
 900 the baseband team of Cadence and as an ASIC
 901 Verification Engineer in Wipro Technologies. His
 902 main research interests include machine learning
 903 algorithms for wireless and low power wireless
 904 sensor networks.



940 **Sofie Pollin** (S'02–M'06–SM'13) received the Ph.D.
 941 degree (Hons.) from KU Leuven in 2006. From 2006
 942 to 2008, she continued her research on wireless com-
 943 munication, energy-efficient networks, cross-layer
 944 design, coexistence, and cognitive radio with the
 945 University of California Berkeley. In 2008, she
 946 returned to imec to become a Principal Scientist with
 947 the Green Radio Team. Since 2012, she has been a
 948 Tenure Track Assistant Professor with the Electrical
 949 Engineering Department, KU Leuven. Her research
 950 centers around networked systems that require net-
 951 works that are ever more dense, heterogeneous, battery powered, and spectrum
 952 constrained. She is a BAEF and Marie Curie Fellow.