

Appendix A

A.1 Differentiation of real-valued functions of complex variables

Some properties of functions which map complex-valued variables to real-valued images is reviewed here. For details and applications of such an analysis, [57] is referred to. Suppose $\mathcal{A} \subset \mathbb{C}$ is an open set and a complex function $f(u) : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is defined. The function $f(u)$ is said to be differentiable at $\hat{u} \in \mathcal{A}$ if its derivative at \hat{u} defined as

$$(A.1) \quad \left. \frac{d}{du} f(u) \right|_{\hat{u}} = \lim_{u \rightarrow \hat{u}} \frac{f(u) - f(\hat{u})}{u - \hat{u}},$$

exists. The function $f(u)$ is said to be analytical if the derivative exists for all $\hat{u} \in \mathcal{A}$. For analytical functions, the stationary points are located wherever

$$(A.2) \quad \frac{d}{du} f(u) = 0.$$

The differential of an analytical $f(u)$ is given by

$$(A.3) \quad df(u) = \frac{\partial}{\partial u} f(u) du + \frac{\partial}{\partial \bar{u}} f(u) d\bar{u},$$

where $\bar{u} = u_1 - iu_2$ is the complex conjugate of $u = u_1 + iu_2$, where $u_1, u_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ and

$$(A.4) \quad \begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial u} &= \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial u_1} - i \frac{\partial}{\partial u_2} \right), \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial \bar{u}} &= \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial u_1} + i \frac{\partial}{\partial u_2} \right) \end{aligned}$$

are called Wirtinger derivatives. Also, note a direct consequence of (A.4) that

$$(A.5) \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial \bar{u}} u = \frac{\partial}{\partial u} \bar{u} = 0,$$

or \bar{u} may be regarded as a constant when differentiating with respect to u , and vice-versa.

For any $f(u)$ that is not necessarily analytical, based on the condition (A.2), the stationary points may now be found by searching where

$$(A.6) \quad df(u) = 0.$$

Let $f(u) = f_1(u_1, u_2) + if_2(u_1, u_2)$, where $f_1, f_2 : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. For $f(u)$ to be analytical, it is necessary that it satisfies the Cauchy-Riemann conditions

$$(A.7) \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial u_1} f_1 = \frac{\partial}{\partial u_2} f_2, \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial u_2} f_1 = -\frac{\partial}{\partial u_1} f_2.$$

Now, focus the situation in which $f(u) : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Firstly, the conditions (A.7) show that $f(u)$ is analytical if and only if $f(u)$ is constant. Secondly, $df = 2\Re\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial u} f(u) du\right) = 2\Re\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \bar{u}} f(u) d\bar{u}\right)$, which vanishes if and only if

$$(A.8) \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial u} f(u) = 0.$$

Hence, for finding the stationary points of a non-analytical function, the trick involves writing the differential in the form of (A.3) and set the term corresponding to $\frac{\partial}{\partial u} f(u)$ to zero.

In the multivariate case [71, 59], for the complex-valued function $f(u) : \mathcal{A} \subset \mathbb{C}$ with $\mathcal{A} \subset \mathbb{C}^r$,

$$(A.9) \quad df = \frac{\partial}{\partial u'} f(u) du + \frac{\partial}{\partial u^*} f(u) d(\bar{u}),$$

where $u^* \equiv \bar{u}'$ is the conjugate transpose of u . It then easily follows that the differential df of a real-valued function $f(u) : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \forall u \in \mathcal{A} \subset \mathbb{C}^n$ vanishes if and only if the Wirtinger derivative is zero, i.e.,

$$(A.10) \quad df(u) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \frac{\partial}{\partial u} f(u) = 0.$$

Appendix B

B.1 Certain details of the EM Algorithm

To enable a smooth reading of the EM Algorithm developed in Section 3.5, certain details are let to reside separately. They are elucidated here:

B.1.1 Log-likelihood as summation of logarithms

The following lemma is well-known; refer §16.5.4 of [30]:

Lemma B.1. *Suppose that u_1, \dots, u_m are points in the interval \mathcal{U} and $c_1, \dots, c_m \geq 0$ are such that $\sum_{l=1}^m c_l = 1$ and f is a concave function in \mathcal{U} . According to **Jensen's inequality** $f(c_1 u_1 + \dots + c_m u_m) \geq c_1 f(u_1) + \dots + c_m f(u_m)$.*

With $f \leftarrow \log_e$, $c_l \leftarrow g(x_l)$, and $u_l \leftarrow p^{y, x_l | \theta}(\mathcal{D}, x_l | \theta) / g(x_l)$, (3.32) is got.

B.1.2 Decomposition of the complete log-likelihood

Using Theorem B.1, $p^{y, x | \theta}(\mathcal{D}, x | \theta) = p^{y | \theta}(\mathcal{D} | \theta) p^{x | y, \theta}(x | \mathcal{D}, \theta)$ is obtained. Hence, the right side of (3.32) may be factorized so that

$$L(\theta, g) \geq \sum_x g(x) \log_e p^{y | \theta}(\mathcal{D} | \theta) + \sum_x g(x) \log_e \frac{p^{x | y, \theta}(x | \mathcal{D}, \theta)}{g(x)},$$

where the first term reduces to $L(\theta)$ due to (3.5) and (3.30).

B.1.3 Maximization of an expectation

If \hat{g}_i of (3.35) is substituted in (3.32)

$$L(\theta, \hat{g}_i) = \sum_x p^{x | y, \theta}(x | \mathcal{D}, \theta_i) \log_e \frac{p^{y, x | \theta}(\mathcal{D}, x | \theta)}{p^{x | y, \theta}(x | \mathcal{D}, \theta_i)},$$

where the denominator in the logarithm being independent of θ may be eliminated. As a result, (3.37) boils down to

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\theta}_{i+1} &= \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta_i} L(\theta_i, \hat{g}_i) \\ &= \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta_i} \sum_x p^{x|y, \theta}(x | \mathcal{D}, \theta_i) \log_e p^{y, x|\theta}(\mathcal{D}, x | \theta_i), \\ &= \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta_i} E^{x|y, \theta}[\log_e p^{y, x|\theta}(\mathcal{D}, x | \theta_i)].\end{aligned}$$

B.2 Posterior density with a Gaussian prior

Refer [113, 74] and §6.2 of [95] for the following theorem:

Theorem B.1. *According to the **Bayes theorem** for continuous probability density functions, the conditional distribution of a random variable y with any realization y given a set of random variables x with any realization x is related to the conditional distribution of x given y according to*

$$p^x(x)p^{y|x}(y | x) = p^y(y)p^{x|y}(x | y) \equiv p^{y, x}(y, x).$$

Due to Theorem B.1, $p^{x|y}(x | y) = \frac{p^x(x)p^{y|x}(y|x)}{p^y(y)}$; so, given the parameters θ , it follows that $p^{x|y, \theta}(x | y, \theta) = \frac{p^{x|\theta}(x|\theta)p^{y|x}(y|x, \theta)}{p^y(y|\theta)}$. While a Gaussian has been accepted for the denominator $p^y(y | \theta)$ according to (3.18), $p^{y|x}(y | x, \theta)$ in the numerator is also a Gaussian as per (3.39). Assuming yet another Gaussian for

$$p^{x|\theta}(x | \theta) = p^x(x) = \mathcal{N}(x | 0, I_q).$$

Therefore,

$$(B.1) \quad p^{x|y, \theta}(x | y, \theta) = \frac{\mathcal{N}(x | 0, I_q)\mathcal{N}(y | Wx, \Gamma^z)}{\mathcal{N}(y | \mu^y, \Gamma^y)}.$$

Suppose c_1, \dots, c_4 are factors independent of x such that

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{N}(x | 0, I_q) &= c_1 \exp(-0.5 x'x), \\ \mathcal{N}(y | Wx, \Gamma^z) &= c_2 \exp(-0.5 x'W'(\Gamma^z)^{-1}Wx + x'W'(\Gamma^z)^{-1}y), \\ \mathcal{N}(y | \mu^y, \Gamma^y) &= c_3, \\ c_4 &= \frac{c_1 c_2}{c_3}.\end{aligned}$$

Then, (B.1) may be written as

$$p^{x|y, \theta}(x | y, \theta) = c_4 \exp(-0.5 x'\Omega^{-1}x + x'\Omega^{-1}\Omega W'(\Gamma^z)^{-1}y),$$

where

$$\Omega^{-1} = I_q + W'(\Gamma^z)^{-1}W.$$

The probability density function of a Gaussian ξ with mean a and covariance matrix B may be written as $\mathcal{N}(\xi | a, B) = c \exp(-0.5 \xi' B^{-1} \xi + \xi' B^{-1} a)$, where c is a factor independent of ξ . Thus, $p^{x|y,\theta}(x | y, \theta)$ is a Gaussian with mean $\Omega W'(\Gamma^z)^{-1} y$ and covariance matrix Ω . It can be seen that

$$p^{x|y,\theta}(x | y, \theta) = \mathcal{N}(x | \Omega W'(\Gamma^z)^{-1} y, \Omega).$$

B.3 Posterior density with a complex Gaussian prior

The extension of Section B.2 to complex Gaussian densities is straightforward. In that order of equations and interpretations therein, the following relations hold:

$$(B.2) \quad p^{x|y,\theta}(\mathbf{x} | \mathbf{y}, \theta) = \frac{\mathcal{N}_{\mathbb{C}}(\mathbf{x} | 0, I_q) \mathcal{N}_{\mathbb{C}}(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{W}\mathbf{x}, \mathcal{S}^z)}{\mathcal{N}_{\mathbb{C}}(\mathbf{y} | 0, \mathcal{S}^y)}.$$

Suppose c_1, \dots, c_4 are factors independent of \mathbf{x} such that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{N}_{\mathbb{C}}(\mathbf{x} | 0, I_q) &= c_1 \exp(-\mathbf{x}^* \mathbf{x}), \\ \mathcal{N}_{\mathbb{C}}(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{W}\mathbf{x}, \mathcal{S}^z) &= c_2 \exp(-\mathbf{x}^* \mathbf{W}^* (\mathcal{S}^z)^{-1} \mathbf{W}\mathbf{x} + 2\Re(\mathbf{x}^* \mathbf{W}^* (\mathcal{S}^z)^{-1} \mathbf{y})), \\ \mathcal{N}_{\mathbb{C}}(\mathbf{y} | 0, \mathcal{S}^y) &= c_3, \\ c_4 &= \frac{c_1 c_2}{c_3}. \end{aligned}$$

Then, (B.2) may be written using

$$\Omega^{-1} = I_q + \mathbf{W}^* (\mathcal{S}^z)^{-1} \mathbf{W}.$$

as

$$p^{x|y,\theta}(\mathbf{x} | \mathbf{y}, \theta) = c_4 \exp(-\mathbf{x}^* \Omega^{-1} \mathbf{x} + 2\Re(\mathbf{x}^* \Omega^{-1} \mathbf{W}^* (\mathcal{S}^z)^{-1} \mathbf{y}))$$

The probability density function of a complex Gaussian ξ with mean a and covariance matrix B may be written as $\mathcal{N}_{\mathbb{C}}(\xi | a, B) = c \exp(-\xi^* B^{-1} \xi + 2\Re(\xi^* B^{-1} a))$, where c consists of the normalization factor of the distribution independent of ξ . This shows that $p^{x|y,\theta}(\mathbf{x} | \mathbf{y}, \theta)$ above is a complex Gaussian with mean $\Omega \mathbf{W}^* (\mathcal{S}^z)^{-1} \mathbf{y}$ and covariance matrix Ω , i.e.,

$$p^{x|y,\theta}(\mathbf{x} | \mathbf{y}, \theta) = \mathcal{N}_{\mathbb{C}}(\mathbf{x} | \Omega \mathbf{W}^* (\mathcal{S}^z)^{-1} \mathbf{y}, \Omega).$$