Problem Set #3

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Exercise 2

Let $V = span(1, x, x^2)$ be a subspace of the inner product space $L^2([0, 1]; \mathbb{R})$ given by D[p](x) = p'(x). Find the eigenvalues and eigenspaces of D and their algebraic and geometric multiplicities.

We start by evaluating D on the basis vectors: D[1](x) = 0, Dx = 1, $D[x^2](x) = 2x$. The matrix representation of D with respect to this basis is

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The eigenvalues of a triangular matrix are the elements on the diagonal $\implies \lambda = 0$ is the only eigenvalue.

To find the eigenspace spaces of λ we solve $\mathcal{N}(D - \lambda I)$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \implies \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The geometric multiplicity of λ is 1, while the algebraic multiplicity is 3.

Exercise 4

Recall that a matrix $A \in M_n(\mathbb{F})$ is Hermitian if $A^H = A$ and skew-Hermitian if $A^H = -A$. From Exercise 4.3, we know that the characteristic polynomial of any 2×2 matrix has the form

$$p(\lambda) = \lambda^2 - tr(A)\lambda + det(A).$$

Prove that

(i) a Hermitian 2×2 matrix has only real eigenvalues.

Proof:

The eigenvalues of the matrix are

$$\lambda = \frac{tr(A) \pm \sqrt{(tr(A))^2 - 4det(A)}}{2}.$$

To see if the matrix has only real eigenvalues, we need to check that

$$(tr(A))^2 - 4det(A) \ge 0 \tag{1}$$

Note that the diagonal elements of a Hermitian matrix must be real, and the off-diagonal elements must be conjugates. Consider the matrix A with $a, c \in \mathbb{R}, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & \beta \\ \bar{\beta} & c \end{bmatrix} \implies tr(A) = a + c \text{ and } det(A) = ac - \beta \bar{\beta} = ac - \|\beta\|^2$$

Substituting into the inequality in (1), we have that

$$(a+c)^{2} - 4(ac - \|\beta\|^{2}) = a^{2} + c^{2} + 2ac - 4ac + 4\|\beta\|^{2}$$
$$= a^{2} + c^{2} - 2ac + 4\|\beta\|^{2}$$
$$= (a-c)^{2} + 4\|\beta\|^{2} > 0.$$

Therefore, the eigenvalues of the matrix must be real.

(ii) a skew-Hermitian 2×2 matrix has only imaginary eigenvalues. *Proof:*

Similarly, to see if the matrix has only imaginary eigenvalues, we need to check that

$$(tr(A))^2 - 4det(A) < 0 \tag{2}$$

. Consider the matrix B with $a, c \in \mathbb{R}, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} ai & \beta \\ -\bar{\beta} & ci \end{bmatrix} \implies tr(B) = ai + ci = (a+c)i \text{ and } det(B) = -ac + \beta\bar{\beta} = -ac + \|\beta\|^2$$

Substituting into the inequality in (2), we have that

$$((a+c)i)^{2} - 4(-ac + ||\beta||^{2}) = -(a+c)^{2} + 4ac - 4||\beta||^{2}$$

$$= -a^{2} - c^{2} - 2ac + 4ac - 4||\beta||^{2}$$

$$= -a^{2} - c^{2} + 2ac - 4||\beta||^{2}$$

$$= -(a-c)^{2} - 4||\beta||^{2} < 0.$$

Therefore, the eigenvalues of the matrix must be imaginary.

Exercise 6

The diagonal entries of an upper-triangular (or lower-triangular) matrix are its eigenvalues.

Proof:

Let A be upper-triangular,

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{1,1} & a_{1,2} & \cdots & a_{1,n} \\ 0 & a_{2,2} & \cdots & a_{2,n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & a_{n,n} \end{bmatrix}$$

Then the eigenvalues of A are given by

$$det(A-\lambda I) = \begin{vmatrix} a_{1,1} - \lambda & a_{1,2} & \cdots & a_{1,n} \\ 0 & a_{2,2} - \lambda & \cdots & a_{2,n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & a_{n,n} - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = (a_{1,1} - \lambda)(a_{2,2} - \lambda)\cdots(a_{n,n} - \lambda) = 0$$

$$\implies \lambda_1 = a_{1,1}, \lambda_2 = a_{2,2}, ..., \lambda_n = a_{n,n}$$

We can see that these are exactly the diagonal elements of A.

Exercise 8

Let V be the span of the set $S = \{\sin(x), \cos(x), \sin(2x), \cos(2x)\}$ in the vector space $C^{\infty}(\mathbb{R}; \mathbb{R})$.

(i) S is a basis for V.

Proof:

By definition, we know that S spans the space V. To show that S is a basis for V, we only need to show that the elements of S are linearly independent. If this is true, then we know that there do not exist nonzero constants $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t.

$$a\sin(x) + b\cos(x) + c\sin(2x) + d\cos(2x) = 0.$$

Evaluating at x = 0 and $x = \pi$, we get

$$b + d = 0$$
$$-b + d = 0$$
$$\implies b = d = 0.$$

Similarly, if we evaluate at $x = \frac{\pi}{2}$, we get a = 0. Since we have already showed that a, b, d = 0, we are left with $c\sin(2x) = 0$. Clearly we must have that c = 0 for this equation to hold $\forall x$.

(ii) Let D be the derivative operator. The matrix representation of D in the basis S is

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

(iii) Two complementary *D*-invariant subspaces in *V* are $W_1 = span\{\sin(x), \cos(x)\}$ and $W_2 = span\{\sin(2x), \cos(2x)\}$.

Exercise 13

Let

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 & 0.4 \\ 0.2 & 0.6 \end{bmatrix}$$

First, we find the eigenvalues of A by solving

$$det(A - \lambda I) = \begin{vmatrix} 0.8 - \lambda & 0.4 \\ 0.2 & 0.6 - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = \lambda^2 - 1.4\lambda + 0.4 \implies \lambda_1 = 0.4, \lambda_2 = 1$$

Next, we find the eigenvectors corresponding to these eigenvalues.

$$\lambda_1 = 0.4 : \begin{bmatrix} 0.4 & 0.4 \\ 0.2 & 0.2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \implies \mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_2 = 1 : \begin{bmatrix} -0.2 & 0.4 \\ 0.2 & -0.4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \implies \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\implies P = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \implies P^{-1}AP = \begin{bmatrix} 0.4 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Exercise 15

If $(\lambda_i)_{i=1}^n$ are the eigenvalues of a semisimple matrix $A \in M_n(\mathbb{F})$ and $f(x) = a_0 + a_1x + \cdots + a_nx^n$ is a polynomial, then $(f(\lambda_i))_{i=1}^n$ are the eigenvalues of $f(A) = a_0I + a_1A + \cdots + a_nA^n$.

Proof:

Since A is semisimple, we know that it is diagonalizable, i.e. there exist a nonsingular matrix P and a diagonalizable matrix D s.t. $A = P^{-1}DP$. We want to find the eigenvalues of

$$f(A) = a_0 I + a_1 A + \dots + a_n A^n$$

= $a_0 I + a_1 P^{-1} D P + \dots + a_n P^{-1} D^n P$
= $P^{-1} (a_0 I + a_1 D + \dots + a_n D^n) P$
= $P^{-1} f(D) P$.

Since f(A) and f(D) are similar matrices, we know that they have the same eigenvalues, and thus it suffices to show that the eigenvalues of f(D) are $(f(\lambda_i))_{i=1}^n$. To prove this, we use the fact that f(D) is diagonal, which means that its eigenvalues are its diagonal entries. Since we know that the eigenvalues of D^k are $(\lambda_i^k)_{i=1}^n$, we can see that the matrix

$$f(D) = a_0 I + a_1 D + \dots + a_n D^n$$

has as its diagonal entries

$$a_0I + a_1\lambda_i + \dots + a_n\lambda_i^n = f(\lambda_i).$$

These $(f(\lambda_i))_{i=1}^n$ are the eigenvalues of f(D) and therefore of f(A).

Exercise 16

Let

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 & 0.4 \\ 0.2 & 0.6 \end{bmatrix}$$

(i) We want to compute $\lim_{n\to\infty} A^n$ with respect to the 1-norm, i.e, find a matrix B s.t. for any $\epsilon > 0$, there exists an N > 0 with

$$||A^k - B||_1 < \epsilon$$
 whenever $k > N \implies ||PD^k P^{-1} - B||_1 < \epsilon$

Using the diagonal matrix we found in Exercise 13,

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} 0.4 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \implies D^k = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{as} \quad k \to \infty$$

we see that

$$PD^{k}P^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2\\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0\\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{1}{3} & \frac{2}{3}\\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{2}{3} & \frac{2}{3}\\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix} = B$$

- (ii) The 1-norm, the ∞ -norm, and the Frobenius norm are topologically equivalent, so the answer does not depend on the choice of norm.
- (iii) We want to find all the eigenvalues of the matrix $3I + 5A + A^3$. Since A is diagonalizable, we know that it is semisimple. Then we can apply the Semisimple Spectral Mapping Theorem. The eigenvalues of A are $\{0.4, 1\}$, so the eigenvalues of $f(A) = 3I + 5A + A^3$ are $f(0.4) = 3 + 5(0.4) + 0.4^3 = 5.064$ and $f(1) = 3 + 5(1) + 1^3 = 9$.

Exercise 18

If λ is an eigenvalue of the matrix $A \in M_n(\mathbb{F})$, then there exists a nonzero row vector \mathbf{x}^T s.t. $\mathbf{x}^T = \lambda \mathbf{x}^T$.

Proof:

Let \mathbf{x} be the eigenvector of the matrix A^T corresponding to the eigenvalue λ . Then we know that \mathbf{x} is nonzero and $A^T\mathbf{x} = \lambda \mathbf{x}$. Taking the transpose of both sides, we see that $\mathbf{x}^T A = \lambda \mathbf{x}^T$.

Exercise 20

If A is Hermitian and orthonormally similar to B, then B is also Hermitian. *Proof:*

Since B is orthonormally similar to A, we know that there exists an orthonormal matrix U s.t. $B = U^H A U$. Then

$$B^{H} = (U^{H}AU)^{H} = U^{H}A^{H}U = U^{H}AU = B.$$

Exercise 24

Given $A \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$, define the Rayleigh quotient as

$$\rho(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\langle \mathbf{x}, A\mathbf{x} \rangle}{\|\mathbf{x}\|^2},$$

where $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ is the usual inner product on \mathbb{F}^n . The Rayleigh quotient can only take on real values for Hermitian matrices and only imaginary values for skew-Hermitian matrices.

Proof:

The denominator of the Rayleigh quotient is real and strictly positive for $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$. Therefore, we want to analyze the numerator $\langle \mathbf{x}, A\mathbf{x} \rangle$. Taking the standard inner on \mathbb{F}^n , we have that

$$\langle \mathbf{x}, A\mathbf{x} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{x}, \lambda \mathbf{x} \rangle$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \bar{x}_i \lambda x_i$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \|x_i\|^2 \lambda$$

for the eigenvalue λ of A corresponding to \mathbf{x} . Since Hermitian matrices have only real eigenvalues and skew-Hermitian matrices have only imaginary eigenvalues, we know that the same holds for the Rayleigh quotient.

Exercise 25

Let $A \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$ be a normal matrix with eigenvalues $(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$ and corresponding orthonormal eigenvectors $[\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n]$.

(i) The identity matrix can be written $I = \mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{x}_1^H + \cdots + \mathbf{x}_n \mathbf{x}_n^H$. *Proof:*

Since the vectors $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n$ are orthonormal, we know that $||x_i^H x_j|| = 0$ for $i \neq j$. Then,

$$(\mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{x}_1^H + \dots + \mathbf{x}_n \mathbf{x}_n^H) \mathbf{x}_j = \mathbf{x}_1 (\mathbf{x}_1^H \mathbf{x}_j) + \dots + \mathbf{x}_j (\mathbf{x}_j^H \mathbf{x}_j) + \dots + \mathbf{x}_n (\mathbf{x}_n^H \mathbf{x}_j)$$
$$= 0 + \dots + 1 \cdot \mathbf{x}_j + \dots + 0$$
$$= \mathbf{x}_j.$$

Thus $\mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{x}_1^H + \cdots + \mathbf{x}_n \mathbf{x}_n^H$ must be equal to I.

(ii) A can be written as $A = \lambda_1 \mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{x}_1^H + \dots + \lambda_n \mathbf{x}_n \mathbf{x}_n^H$. *Proof:*

As before, we can write

$$(\lambda_1 \mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{x}_1^H + \dots + \lambda_n \mathbf{x}_n \mathbf{x}_n^H) \mathbf{x}_j = \lambda_1 \mathbf{x}_1 (\mathbf{x}_1^H \mathbf{x}_j) + \dots + \lambda_j \mathbf{x}_j (\mathbf{x}_j^H \mathbf{x}_j) + \dots + \mathbf{x}_n \lambda_n (\mathbf{x}_n^H \mathbf{x}_j)$$

$$= 0 + \dots + 1 \cdot \lambda_j \mathbf{x}_j + \dots + 0$$

$$= \lambda_j \mathbf{x}_j$$

$$= A \mathbf{x}_j.$$

Thus $\lambda_1 \mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{x}_1^H + \cdots + \lambda_n \mathbf{x}_n \mathbf{x}_n^H$ must be equal to A.

Exercise 27

Assume $A \in M_n(\mathbb{F})$ is positive definite. Then all its diagonal entries are real and positive.

Proof:

Since A is positive definite, we know that $\langle \mathbf{x}, A\mathbf{x} \rangle > 0 \ \forall \mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$. Consider the unit vector e_i . We can access the diagonal entries of A as follows:

$$e_i^H A e_i = a_{i,i} > 0$$

This guarantees that the diagonal entries of A are strictly positive.

Exercise 28

Assume $A, B \in M_n(\mathbb{F})$ are positive semidefinite. Then

$$0 \le tr(AB) \le tr(A)tr(B),$$

and $\|\cdot\|_F$ is a matrix norm.

Proof:

Since A, B are positive semidefinite, we know that there exist matrices S_A and S_B s.t. $A = S_A^H S_A$ and $B = S_B^H S_B$. Then

$$tr(AB) = tr(S_{A}^{H}S_{A}S_{B}^{H}S_{B})$$

$$= tr(S_{B}S_{A}^{H}S_{A}S_{B}^{H})$$

$$= tr((S_{A}S_{B}^{H})^{H}(S_{A}S_{B}^{H}))$$

$$= ||S_{A}S_{B}^{H}||_{F}^{2} \ge 0$$

which proves the first inequality. We also know that if A, B are positive semidefinite, then A, B are orthonormally similar to some diagonal matrices D_A , D_B . Since trace is invariant with respect to changes of bases, we know that

$$tr(A)tr(B) = tr(D_A)tr(D_B)$$

$$= \left(\sum_{i=1}^p \lambda_i^A\right) \left(\sum_{i=1}^1 \lambda_i^B\right)$$

$$\geq \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i^A \lambda_i^B$$

$$= tr(D_A D_B)$$

$$= tr(AB)$$

Exercise 33

Assume $A \in M_n(\mathbb{F})$. Then

$$||A||_2 = \sup_{\|\mathbf{x}\|_2 = 1, \|\mathbf{y}\|_2 = 1} |\mathbf{y}^H A \mathbf{x}|$$

Proof:

$$\sup_{\|\mathbf{x}\|_2=1, \|\mathbf{y}\|_2=1} |\mathbf{y}^H A \mathbf{x}| = \sup_{\|\mathbf{x}\|_2=1, \|\mathbf{y}\|_2=1} \langle \mathbf{y}, A \mathbf{x} \rangle$$

$$= \sup_{\|\mathbf{x}\|_2=1, \|\mathbf{y}\|_2=1} \|\mathbf{y}\|_2 \|A \mathbf{x}\|_2$$

$$= \sup_{\|\mathbf{x}\|_2=1} \|A \mathbf{x}\|_2$$

Exercise 36

Give an example of a 2×2 matrix whose determinant is nonzero and whose singular values are not equal to any of its eigenvalues:

$$\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

The eigenvalue of the matrix is $\lambda = -1$, and the singular value is $\sigma = 1$.

Exercise 38

If $A \in M_{m \times n}(\mathbb{F})$, then the Moore-Penrose pseudoinverse of A satisfies the following: (i) $AA^{\dagger}A = A$ Proof:

$$AA^{\dagger}A = (U_{1}\Sigma_{1}V_{1}^{H})(V_{1}\Sigma_{1}^{-1}U_{1}^{H})(U_{1}\Sigma_{1}V_{1}^{H})$$

$$= U_{1}\Sigma_{1}V_{1}^{H}V_{1}\Sigma_{1}^{-1}U_{1}^{H}U_{1}\Sigma_{1}V_{1}^{H}$$

$$= U_{1}\Sigma_{1}\Sigma_{1}^{-1}\Sigma_{1}V_{1}^{H}$$

$$= U_{1}\Sigma_{1}V_{1}^{H}$$

$$= A$$

(ii) $A^{\dagger}AA^{\dagger} = A^{\dagger}$ Proof:

$$\begin{split} A^{\dagger}AA^{\dagger} &= (V_{1}\Sigma_{1}^{-1}U_{1}^{H})(U_{1}\Sigma_{1}V_{1}^{H})(V_{1}\Sigma_{1}^{-1}U_{1}^{H}) \\ &= V_{1}\Sigma_{1}^{-1}U_{1}^{H}U_{1}\Sigma_{1}V_{1}^{H}V_{1}\Sigma_{1}^{-1}U_{1}^{H} \\ &= V_{1}\Sigma_{1}^{-1}\Sigma_{1}\Sigma_{1}^{-1}U_{1}^{H} \\ &= V_{1}\Sigma_{1}^{-1}U_{1}^{H} \\ &= A^{\dagger} \end{split}$$

(iii) $(AA^{\dagger})^H = AA^{\dagger}$ Proof:

$$(AA^{\dagger})^{H} = ((U_{1}\Sigma_{1}V_{1}^{H})(V_{1}\Sigma_{1}^{-1}U_{1}^{H}))^{H}$$

$$= (V_{1}\Sigma_{1}^{-1}U_{1}^{H})^{H}(U_{1}\Sigma_{1}V_{1}^{H})^{H}$$

$$= U_{1}(\Sigma_{1}^{-1})^{H}V_{1}^{H}V_{1}\Sigma_{1}^{H}U_{1}^{H}$$

$$= U_{1}(\Sigma_{1}^{-1})^{H}\Sigma_{1}^{H}U_{1}^{H}$$

$$= U_{1}(\Sigma_{1}^{H})^{-1}\Sigma_{1}^{H}U_{1}^{H}$$

$$= U_{1}U_{1}^{H}$$

$$= U_{1}\Sigma_{1}\Sigma_{1}^{-1}U_{1}^{H}$$

$$= U_{1}\Sigma_{1}V_{1}^{H}V_{1}\Sigma_{1}^{-1}U_{1}^{H}$$

$$= (U_{1}\Sigma_{1}V_{1}^{H})(V_{1}\Sigma_{1}^{-1}U_{1}^{H})$$

$$= AA^{\dagger}$$

(iv)
$$(A^{\dagger}A)^H = A^{\dagger}A$$

Proof:

$$(A^{\dagger}A)^{H} = (V_{1}\Sigma_{1}^{-1}U_{1}^{H})(U_{1}\Sigma_{1}V_{1}^{H})$$

$$= V_{1}\Sigma_{1}^{-1}U_{1}^{H}U_{1}\Sigma_{1}V_{1}^{H}$$

$$= V_{1}V_{1}^{H}$$

$$= V_{1}\Sigma_{1}^{-1}\Sigma_{1}V_{1}^{H}$$

$$= V_{1}\Sigma_{1}^{-1}U_{1}^{H}U_{1}\Sigma_{1}V_{1}^{H}$$

$$= (V_{1}\Sigma_{1}^{-1}U_{1}^{H})(U_{1}\Sigma_{1}V_{1}^{H})$$

$$= A^{\dagger}A$$

(v) $AA^{\dagger} = proj_{\mathscr{R}(A)}$ is the orthogonal projection onto $\mathscr{R}(A)$ *Proof:*

By part (i), we can see that $AA^{\dagger}AA^{\dagger} = AA^{\dagger}$, so AA^{\dagger} is idempotent. From part(iii), we see that $AA^{\dagger} = U_1U_1^H$ s.t. the columns of U_1 form an orthonormal basis for $\mathcal{R}(A)$. Then for some vector \mathbf{x} , we have that

$$U_1 U_1^H \mathbf{x} = U_1 \left[\mathbf{u}_1^H \mathbf{x} \cdots \mathbf{u}_r^H \mathbf{x} \right]^H = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{u}_i^H \mathbf{x} \mathbf{u}_i = \sum_{i=1}^n \langle \mathbf{u}_i^H \mathbf{x} \rangle \mathbf{u}_i = proj_{\mathcal{R}(A)} \mathbf{x}$$

(vi) $A^{\dagger}A=proj_{\mathscr{R}(A^H)}$ is the orthogonal projection onto $\mathscr{R}(A^H)$ *Proof:*

As with part (v), we note that $A^{\dagger}AA^{\dagger}=A^{\dagger}A$, so it is idempotent. Also, we can see from part (iv) that $V_1A^{\dagger}A=V_1^H$ s.t. the columns of V_1 form an orthonormal basis for $\mathcal{R}(A^H)$. Then for some vector \mathbf{x} , we have that

$$V_1 V_1^H \mathbf{x} = V_1 \left[\mathbf{v}_1^H \mathbf{x} \cdots \mathbf{v}_r^H \mathbf{x} \right]^H = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{v}_i^H \mathbf{x} \mathbf{v}_i = \sum_{i=1}^n \langle \mathbf{v}_i^H \mathbf{x} \rangle \mathbf{v}_i = proj_{\mathscr{R}(A^H)} \mathbf{x}$$