Name: Huan Q. Bui

Course: 8.321 - Quantum Theory I

Problem set: #2

1. Let A be a skew-Hermitian operator, i.e., $A^{\dagger} = -A$.

(a) Let λ and $|\lambda\rangle$ be an eigenvalue and eigenvector of A, respectively. Then we have

$$A |\lambda\rangle = \lambda |\lambda\rangle \implies \lambda \langle \lambda |\lambda\rangle = \langle \lambda |A|\lambda\rangle = -\langle \lambda |A^{\dagger}|\lambda\rangle = -\lambda^* \langle \lambda |\lambda\rangle \implies -\lambda = \lambda^*.$$

If λ is real, then the only solution is $\lambda = 0$. So, up to degeneracy A has at most one real eigenvalue which is 0.

(b) Let A, B be Hermitian operators. Then

$$[A, B] = AB - BA = A^{\dagger}B^{\dagger} - B^{\dagger}A^{\dagger} = (BA - AB)^{\dagger} = -(AB - BA)^{\dagger} = -[A, B]^{\dagger}.$$

Thus [A, B] is skew-Hermitian.

2. Let H, K be Hermitian operators with non-negative eigenvalues and assume that the trace is defined throughout this problem. Since H, K are Hermitian we may assume that there exist complete orthonormal bases $\{|h_i\rangle\}$ and $|k_i\rangle$ for H, K respectively with H $|h_i\rangle = h_i$ $|h_i\rangle$ and K $|k_i\rangle = k_i$ $|k_i\rangle$, and h_i , $k_i \ge 0$ for all i. With this, we can spectrally decompose H, K in their product as follows

$$HK = \sum_{n} h_{n} \left| h_{n} \right\rangle \left\langle h_{n} \right| \sum_{m} k_{m} \left| k_{m} \right\rangle \left\langle k_{m} \right| = \sum_{n,m} h_{n} k_{m} \left| h_{n} \right\rangle \left\langle h_{n} \left| k_{m} \right\rangle \left\langle k_{m} \right|.$$

Since $\operatorname{tr}(A) = \sum_{i} \langle \phi_i | A | \phi_i \rangle$ for any matrix A and orthonormal basis $\{\phi_i\}$, we have

$$\operatorname{tr}(HK) = \sum_{j} \langle h_{j} | \left[\sum_{n,m} h_{n} k_{m} | h_{n} \rangle \langle h_{n} | k_{m} \rangle \langle k_{m} | \right] | h_{j} \rangle$$

$$= \sum_{n,m} h_{n} k_{m} \langle h_{n} | k_{m} \rangle \langle k_{m} | h_{n} \rangle, \quad \text{by orthonormality}$$

$$= \sum_{n,m} h_{n} k_{m} |\langle h_{n} | k_{m} \rangle|^{2}.$$

Since $h_i, k_i \ge 0$ for all i, and that the modulus square is always nonnegative, we see that $\operatorname{tr}(HK) \ge 0$, as desired. Moreover, suppose $\operatorname{tr}(HK) = 0$, then by the nonnegativity of each term in the sum above we must have $h_n k_m |\langle h_n | k_m \rangle|^2 = 0$ for all n, m, or equivalently $h_n k_m \langle h_n | k_m \rangle = 0$ for all n, m, i.e., HK = 0.

- **3.** Let a Hermitian operator *H* be given with positive spectrum and a complete orthonormal basis.
 - (a) We want to prove that for any two vectors $|\alpha\rangle$, $|\beta\rangle$

$$\left|\left\langle \alpha\right|H\left|\beta\right\rangle\right|^{2}\leq\left\langle \alpha\right|H\left|\alpha\right\rangle\left\langle \beta\right|H\left|\beta\right\rangle .$$

There are two ways to go about this proof, but both approaches are actually the same and only differ by appearance. I will present the notationally "light" version first. This goes as follows: Since H is Hermitian with positive spectrum, we may find a complete orthonormal basis in which H is diagonal. The transformation between H and its diagonalization D is given by a unitary operator U as $H = U^{\dagger}DU$. Since D is diagonal with positive entries, we can define its square root \sqrt{D} . From here, we can also define the square root of H, denoted \sqrt{H} , by $U^{\dagger}\sqrt{D}U$. We can check:

$$\sqrt{H}\sqrt{H} = U^{\dagger}\sqrt{D}UU^{\dagger}\sqrt{D}U = U^{\dagger}\sqrt{D}\sqrt{D}U = U^{\dagger}DU = H.$$

It is easy to show that \sqrt{H} is also Hermitian:

$$\sqrt{H}^{\dagger} = \left(U^{\dagger}\sqrt{D}U\right)^{\dagger} = U^{\dagger}\sqrt{D}^{\dagger}U = U^{\dagger}\sqrt{D}U = \sqrt{H},$$

where we have used the fact that \sqrt{D} is strictly diagonal and positive, thus Hermitian. The rest of the proof is now a simple application of the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality for inner products:

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \left\langle \alpha \right| H \left| \beta \right\rangle \right|^{2} &= \left| \left\langle \alpha \right| \sqrt{H} \sqrt{H} \left| \beta \right\rangle \right|^{2} = \left| \left\langle \alpha \right| \sqrt{H}^{\dagger} \sqrt{H} \left| \beta \right\rangle \right|^{2} = \left| \left\langle \sqrt{H} \alpha \right| \sqrt{H} \beta \right\rangle \right|^{2} \\ &\leq \left\langle \sqrt{H} \alpha \right| \sqrt{H} \alpha \right\rangle \left\langle \sqrt{H} \beta \right| \sqrt{H} \beta \right\rangle \\ &= \left\langle \alpha \right| \sqrt{H}^{\dagger} \sqrt{H} \left| \alpha \right\rangle \left\langle \beta \right| \sqrt{H}^{\dagger} \sqrt{H} \left| \beta \right\rangle = \left\langle \alpha \right| H \left| \alpha \right\rangle \left\langle \beta \right| H \left| \beta \right\rangle \end{aligned}$$

as desired.

The more notationally heavy approach is to consider a complete orthonormal eigenbasis for H, which we may call $\{|\lambda_i\rangle\}$ where $\{\lambda_i\}$ are the eigenvalues of H. Under this basis, we have

$$|\alpha\rangle = \sum_{i} a_{i} |\lambda_{i}\rangle$$
 $|\beta\rangle = \sum_{i} b_{i} |\lambda_{i}\rangle$

and so

$$\left|\left\langle \alpha\right|H\left|\beta\right\rangle\right|^{2}=\left|\sum_{i,j}a_{i}^{*}\left\langle \lambda_{i}\right|\lambda_{j}b_{j}\left|\lambda_{j}\right\rangle\right|^{2}=\left|\sum_{i}a_{i}^{*}\lambda_{i}b_{i}\right|^{2}=\left|\sum_{i}\left(a_{i}\sqrt{\lambda_{i}}\right)^{*}\left(b_{i}\sqrt{\lambda_{i}}\right)\right|^{2}.$$

Note that $\sqrt{\lambda_i} \in \mathbb{R}^+$, which is possible because $\lambda_i > 0$. Now, call

$$|\alpha'\rangle = \sum_i a_i \sqrt{\lambda_i} |\lambda_i\rangle \qquad \qquad |\beta'\rangle = \sum_i b_i \sqrt{\lambda_i} |\lambda_i\rangle \,.$$

It is clear that

$$\left| \langle \alpha | H | \beta \rangle \right|^2 = \left| \langle \alpha' | \beta' \rangle \right|^2.$$

On the other hand, we have

$$\langle \alpha | H | \alpha \rangle = \sum_{i,j} a_i^* a_j \lambda_j \langle \lambda_i | \lambda_j \rangle = \sum_i |a_i|^2 \lambda_i = \langle \alpha' | \alpha' \rangle$$
$$\langle \beta | H | \beta \rangle = \sum_{i,j} b_i^* b_j \lambda_j \langle \lambda_i | \lambda_j \rangle = \sum_i |b_i|^2 \lambda_i = \langle \beta' | \beta' \rangle.$$

Applying the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality,

$$\left| \langle \alpha | H | \beta \rangle \right|^2 = \left| \langle \alpha' | \beta' \rangle \right|^2 \le \langle \alpha' | \alpha' \rangle \langle \beta' | \beta' \rangle = \langle \alpha | H | \alpha \rangle \langle \beta | H | \beta \rangle$$

and we're done.

(b) The trace of H is simply the sum of its eigenvalues, so tr(H) > 0. To show explicitly, we use the orthonormal basis introduced in Part (a). Since $\lambda_i > 0$ for all i, we have

$$\operatorname{tr}(H) = \sum_{i} \langle \lambda_{i} | H | \lambda_{i} \rangle = \sum_{i} \lambda_{i} \langle \lambda_{i} | \lambda_{i} \rangle = \sum_{i} \lambda_{i} > 0.$$

4. Let a unitary operator *U* be given which satisfies the eigenvalue equation $U | \lambda \rangle = \lambda | \lambda \rangle$.

(a) Since $\langle \lambda | \lambda \rangle \neq 0$ (because $| \lambda \rangle$ is an eigenvector), we have

$$\langle \lambda | \lambda \rangle = \langle \lambda | U^{\dagger} U | \lambda \rangle = |\lambda|^2 \langle \lambda | \lambda \rangle \implies |\lambda|^2 = 1.$$

Since $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$, it must be of the form $\lambda = e^{i\theta}$ where $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$.

(b) Let distinct eigenvectors $|\mu\rangle$ and $|\lambda\rangle$ be given with corresponding (distinct) eigenvalues $e^{i\theta_{\mu}}$ and $e^{i\theta_{\lambda}}$. We have

$$\langle \mu | \lambda \rangle = \langle \mu | U^{\dagger} U | \lambda \rangle = e^{-i\theta_{\mu}} e^{i\theta_{\lambda}} \langle \mu | \lambda \rangle.$$

Since $e^{-i\theta_{\mu}}e^{i\theta_{\lambda}} \neq 1$, equality holds only if $\langle \mu | \lambda \rangle = 0$.

5.

- (a) First, we will show that the set of $N \times N$ complex matrices form a vector space (over the complex numbers).
 - The zero matrix *O* is the identity for vector (matrix) addition.
 - For every matrix A, the matrix -A exists and A + (-A) = O, so every matrix has an additive inverse.
 - Matrix addition is associative.
 - Matrix addition is commutative.
 - Scalar multiplication: For $a, b \in \mathbb{C}$ and a matrix A, we have a(bA) = (ab)A = (ab)A, as usual.
 - The number $1 \in \mathbb{C}$ is the identity for scalar multiplication.
 - Scalar multiplication is distributive with respect to matrix addition. Given $a \in \mathbb{C}$ and matrices A, B we have a(A + B) = aA + aB.
 - Finally, for $a, b \in \mathbb{C}$ and a matrix A, we have (a + b)A = aA + bA.

Basically, the rules for matrix addition show that the set of $N \times N$ complex matrices form a vector space. To show that the dimension of this space is N^2 , we consider the following set of N^2 matrices $\{M(ij)\}_{i,j=1}^N$ where each M(ij) is an $N \times N$ matrix whose entries are all zeros except for a 1 in the ij position. It is clear that there exists no non-trivial linear combination of the M(ij)'s that gives the zero matrix. Thus, $\{M(ij)\}_{i,j=1}^N$ is a linearly independent set. Moreover, it is also obvious that any $N \times N$ matrix can be written as a linear combination of the M(ij) matrices (i.e., given a matrix $A = [a_{ij}]$ we have $A = \sum a_{ij} M(ij)$). Therefore, the vector space of $N \times N$ complex matrices is N^2 -dimensional.

- (b) Let $(A, B) = \text{Tr}(A^{\dagger}B)$. We will show that (\cdot, \cdot) defines an inner product over the vector space $\mathcal V$ above.
 - Positive semidefinite: Given $A \in \mathcal{V}$. Then

$$\operatorname{Tr}(A^{\dagger}A) = (A^{\dagger}A)_{ii} = A_{ij}^{\dagger}A_{ji} = A_{ji}^{*}A_{ji} = \sum_{i,j=1}^{N} |A_{ij}|^{2} \ge 0,$$

with equality occurring if and only if $A_{ij} = 0$ for all i, j, i.e., A = 0.

• Linear in the second argument: For $\beta \in \mathbb{C}$ and $A, B \in \mathcal{V}$, we have, by the linearity of the trace function, $\text{Tr}(A^{\dagger}\beta B) = \beta \text{Tr}(A^{\dagger}B)$. Moreover, given $C \in \mathcal{V}$, we have

$$\operatorname{Tr}\left(A^{\dagger}(B+C)\right) = \operatorname{Tr}\left(A^{\dagger}B + A^{\dagger}C\right) = \operatorname{Tr}\left(A^{\dagger}B\right) + \operatorname{Tr}\left(A^{\dagger}C\right).$$

• Conjugate-linear in the first argument (optional since the previous condition suffices): For $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ and $A, B \in \mathcal{V}$, we have, by the linearity of the trace function, $\text{Tr}((\alpha A)^{\dagger}B) = \text{Tr}(\alpha^*A^{\dagger}B) = \alpha^* \text{Tr}(A^{\dagger}B)$. Similarly, given $C \in \mathcal{V}$,

$$\operatorname{Tr}\left((A+C)^{\dagger}B\right) = \operatorname{Tr}\left(A^{\dagger}B+C^{\dagger}B\right) = \operatorname{Tr}\left(A^{\dagger}B\right) + \operatorname{Tr}\left(C^{\dagger}B\right).$$

- Conjugate symmetry: Given $A, B \in \mathcal{V}$, we have $\text{Tr}(B^{\dagger}A) = \text{Tr}((A^{\dagger}B)^{\dagger}) = \overline{\text{Tr}((A^{\dagger}B)^{\top})} = \overline{\text{Tr}(A^{\dagger}B)}$, using the fact that $\text{Tr}(X) = \text{Tr}(X^{\top})$ for a square matrix X.
- (c) By inspection, we can see that the collection $\{\mathbb{I}, \sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3\}$ is linearly independent. It remains to show that it spans the space of 2×2 complex matrices. To this end, let a 2×2 matrix A be given.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}.$$

We may write *A* as a linear combination of $\{\mathbb{I}, \sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3\}$ as

$$A = \left(\frac{a+d}{2}\right)\mathbb{I} + \left(\frac{b+c}{2}\right)\sigma_1 + \left(\frac{c-b}{2i}\right)\sigma_3 + \left(\frac{a-d}{2}\right)\sigma_3.$$

Therefore, $\{\mathbb{I}, \sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3\}$ also spans the space and so it is a basis for this space. Now, we claim that this basis under the normalization factor $1/\sqrt{2}$

$$B = \left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \mathbb{I}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sigma_1, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sigma_2, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sigma_3 \right\}$$

is orthonormal with respect to the inner product defined in Part (b). To see this, we observe that each element of the basis B is already Hermitian and that $\sigma_i^2 = \mathbb{I} = \mathbb{I}^2$ for i = 1, 2, 3. So, we have that $\text{Tr}\left((\sigma_i^\dagger/\sqrt{2})(\sigma_i/\sqrt{2})\right) = \text{Tr}(\sigma_i^2)/2 = \text{Tr}(\mathbb{I}^2)/2 = \text{Tr}(\mathbb{I}^2)/2 = 1$, as desired. Moreover, since each of σ_1 , σ_2 , σ_3 is traceless, and that

$$\sigma_1 \sigma_2 = i \sigma_3$$
 $\sigma_2 \sigma_3 = i \sigma_1$ $\sigma_3 \sigma_1 = i \sigma_2$

all of which are traceless, we have $\text{Tr}(\sigma_i^{\dagger}\sigma_j) = \text{Tr}(\sigma_i\sigma_j) \propto \text{Tr}(\sigma_k) = \text{Tr}(\mathbb{I}\sigma_k) = 0$ for all $i \neq j$. Therefore, B is mutually orthogonal collection of unit norm. In view of the previous result, B is an orthonormal basis.

(d) Let $\Sigma(\cdot)$ denote the spectrum and \mathcal{E} the set of eigenvectors for each matrix. Note: to avoid confusion, we use the capital Σ rather than the lowercase. Except for the case of \mathbb{I} , the characteristic polynomial for each of σ_1 , σ_2 , σ_3 is $\lambda^2 = 1$, so $\lambda = \pm 1$.

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{I}: \quad & \Sigma(\mathbb{I}) = \{1,1\} & \mathcal{E}(\mathbb{I}) = \{\vec{v}: \vec{v} \in \mathbb{C}^2, \vec{v} \neq 0\} \\ & \sigma_1: \Sigma(\sigma_1) = \{1,-1\} & \mathcal{E}(\sigma_1) = \left\{(1 \quad 1)^\top, (1 \quad -1)^\top\right\} \\ & \sigma_2: \Sigma(\sigma_2) = \{1,-1\} & \mathcal{E}(\sigma_2) = \left\{(1 \quad i)^\top, (1 \quad -i)^\top\right\} \\ & \sigma_3: \Sigma(\sigma_3) = \{1,-1\} & \mathcal{E}(\sigma_3) = \left\{(1 \quad 0)^\top, (0 \quad 1)^\top\right\}, \end{split}$$

where the eigenvectors are ordered to match their corresponding eigenvalues.

(e) Let $\mathbf{A} = (A_1, A_2, A_3)$ and $\mathbf{B} = (B_1, B_2, B_3)$ be given such that $[A_j, \sigma_i] = 0$ and $[B_n, \sigma_m] = 0$ for all i, j, m, n. Then, using the following identities

$$\sigma_1\sigma_2=i\sigma_3,\quad \sigma_2\sigma_3=i\sigma_1,\quad \sigma_3\sigma_1=i\sigma_2,\quad \sigma_2\sigma_1=-i\sigma_3,\quad \sigma_3\sigma_2=-i\sigma_1,\quad \sigma_1\sigma_3=-i\sigma_2,\quad \sigma_i^2=\mathbb{I},$$

we find

$$(\sigma \cdot \mathbf{A}) (\sigma \cdot \mathbf{B}) = (\sigma_1 A_1 + \sigma_2 A_2 + \sigma_3 A_3) (\sigma_1 B_1 + \sigma_2 B_2 + \sigma_3 B_3)$$

$$= (A_1 B_1 + A_2 B_2 + A_3 B_3) + i \sigma_1 (A_2 B_3 - A_3 B_2) + i \sigma_2 (A_3 B_1 - A_1 B_3) + i \sigma_3 (A_1 B_2 - A_2 B_1)$$

$$= (\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}) \mathbb{I} + i \sigma \cdot (\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B})$$

as desired.

(f) We claim:

$$\exp(i\theta\sigma\cdot\mathbf{n})=\cos\theta\,\mathbb{I}+i\sigma\cdot\mathbf{n}\sin\theta.$$

In view of Part (e), we observe that $[\sigma \cdot \mathbf{n}]^{2n} = [(\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{n})\mathbb{I}]^n = \mathbb{I}$ and thus $[\sigma \cdot \mathbf{n}]^{2n+1} = \sigma \cdot \mathbf{n}$. This will help with simplifying the power series expansion of $\exp(i\theta\sigma \cdot \mathbf{n})$ below by splitting up the odd-powered and even-powered terms:

$$\begin{split} \exp\left(i\theta\sigma\cdot\mathbf{n}\right) &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(i\theta)^n}{n!} \left[\sigma\cdot\mathbf{n}\right]^n \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(i\theta)^{2k}}{(2k)!} \mathbb{I} + \left[\sigma\cdot\mathbf{n}\right] \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{(i\theta)^{2j+1}}{(2j+1)!} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k \theta^{2k}}{(2k)!} \mathbb{I} + i \left[\sigma\cdot\mathbf{n}\right] \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^j \theta^{2j+1}}{(2j+1)!} \\ &= \cos\theta \, \mathbb{I} + i\sigma\cdot\mathbf{n} \sin\theta. \end{split}$$

And we're done with the proof.

6.

(a) To see that $R := (1/\sqrt{2})(\mathbb{I} + i\sigma_x)$ is a rotation by $-\pi/2$ around the *x*-axis, it suffices to show that (1) R keeps the σ_x eigenstates invariant and (2) R rotates clockwise the σ_z eigenstates into the σ_y eigenstates.

It is clear from the definition of R that $R \mid \pm, x \rangle = \mid \pm, x \rangle$ (since $\mid \pm, x \rangle$ is a simultaneous eigenket of both \mathbb{I} and σ_x). So R keeps the x-axis the same. Now, the matrix representation of this operator in the z basis is

$$R = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & i \\ i & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Consider $|+,z\rangle = (1 \ 0)^{\top}$. We see that $R|+,z\rangle = (1/\sqrt{2})(1 \ i)^{\top} = |+,y\rangle$. Applying R one more time, we find $R|+,y\rangle = R^2|+,z\rangle = i\sigma_x|+,z\rangle = i|-,z\rangle \equiv |-,z\rangle$. The total effect is that +z gets rotated into +y and +y gets rotated into -z, all with x fixed. As a result, R is a rotation by $-\pi/2$ about the x-axis.

To see this even more clearly, plot the yz-plane with the x-axis pointing out of the paper. Let the state $|+,z\rangle$ represent the +z direction and $|+,y\rangle$ represent the +y direction. Because $R|+,z\rangle=|+,y\rangle$, $R|+,y\rangle\equiv|-,z\rangle$ and $R|\pm,x\rangle=|\pm,x\rangle$, we have that +z gets sent to +y, and +y gets sent to -z. So, the yz-plane gets rotated by $-\pi/2$ about the x-axis.

Alternatively, one could also do this problem by explicitly consider the *x*-rotation matrix $\exp(-i\theta\sigma_x/2)$ where $\theta = -\pi/2$. The matrix exponentiation is straightforward. One finds that

$$\exp\left(+\frac{i\pi}{4}\sigma_x\right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & i \\ i & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\mathbb{I} + i\sigma_x\right).$$

(b) We will set $\hbar/2 \equiv 1$ for convenience. The matrix elements of S_z in the y-basis are given by $\langle y_i | S_z | y_j \rangle$. So, in the y-basis, S_z is

$$S_{z}|_{y} = \begin{pmatrix} \langle +, y \mid S_{z} \mid +, y \rangle & \langle +, y \mid S_{z} \mid -, y \rangle \\ \langle -, y \mid S_{z} \mid +, y \rangle & \langle -, y \mid S_{z} \mid -, y \rangle \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \equiv \frac{\hbar}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

where we have used the fact that $S_z \mid +, y \rangle = \mid -, y \rangle$ and $S_z \mid -, y \rangle = \mid +, y \rangle$. Alternatively, we could calculate the matrix elements exclusively using known results in the *z*-basis (see Part (d)).

7. We want to construct a matrix which connects the *z*-basis to the *x*-basis. To do this, we must know how $|\pm,z\rangle$ appears in the *x*-basis:

$$|+,z\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} |+,x\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} |-,x\rangle$$
$$|-,z\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} |+,x\rangle - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} |-,x\rangle.$$

To see what vectors in the z-basis look like in the x-basis, we apply the following matrix to those vectors:

$$U = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Compare this with the given formula:

$$\begin{split} U &= \sum_{r} |x_{r}\rangle \langle z_{r}| \\ &= |+, x\rangle \langle +, z| + |-, x\rangle \langle -, z| \\ &= |+, x\rangle \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \langle +, x| + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \langle -, x| \right) + |-, x\rangle \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \langle +, x| - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \langle -, x| \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \end{split}$$

which is consistent with what we found before.