

Lecture 8

Compatibility of Observable

8.1 Background Materials

Suppose that \hat{A} is the Hermitian operator representing an observable A of a quantum system. The eigenkets of \hat{A} form a complete set of orthonormal basis states. Let $|\psi\rangle$ be the state vector of the system. We can expand $|\psi\rangle$ in the eigenbasis of the operator \hat{A} :

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_a |a\rangle \langle a|\psi\rangle, \quad (8.1)$$

where a runs over all the eigenvalues of \hat{A} .

In Eq. (8.1), we have assumed that each eigenvalue a is non-degenerate, i.e., for each a there exists only one linearly independent eigenvector $|a\rangle$. Therefore, the eigenvalue itself can be used to label the corresponding eigenket unambiguously.

However, it may so happen that some or all of the eigenvalues of \hat{A} are degenerate, i.e., there may be more than one linearly independent eigenvector corresponding to the same eigenvalue. The number of linearly independent eigenvectors corresponding to a particular eigenvalue a is called the order of degeneracy of the eigenvalue and is denoted by g_a . If the eigenvalue a is degenerate, then just the eigenvalue itself is not enough to label the eigenstates uniquely. We need another index to distinguish between the g_a linearly independent eigenvectors.

Thus the eigenvectors belonging to a degenerate eigenvalue a may be denoted by $|a, i\rangle$, where the index i can take discrete values $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, g_a$. The index i may be called the degeneracy index. Later we will see that we can improve the notation by replacing i by the eigenvalues of other Hermitian operators \hat{B}, \hat{C}, \dots , which commute with \hat{A} .

The set of linearly independent eigenvectors $\{|a, i\rangle, i = 1, 2, \dots, g_a\}$, all with the same eigenvalue a , span a g_a -dimensional subspace of the Hilbert space. This subspace is called the eigensubspace of a , and is denoted by H_a . The totality of all the eigensubspaces of the operator \hat{A} constitutes the full Hilbert space.

It is easy to see that any linear combination of the eigenvectors $\{|a, i\rangle, i = 1, 2, \dots, g_a\}$ is also an eigenvector of \hat{A} with the same eigenvalue a . Thus

$$\hat{A} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{g_a} c_i |a, i\rangle \right) = a \left(\sum_{i=1}^{g_a} c_i |a, i\rangle \right), \quad (8.2)$$

where c_i 's are constants. The set of eigenvectors $\{|a, i\rangle, i = 1, 2, \dots, g_a\}$, even though linearly independent, may not be orthogonal to each other because they belong to the same eigenvalue. However, following the Schmidt orthonormalization procedure, we can take linear combinations of the above set of vectors in a special way and obtain a set of g_a orthonormal vectors. The new set of orthonormal (and hence linearly independent) vectors remain eigenvectors of \hat{A} with the same eigenvalue a .

We assume that the Schmidt procedure has been carried out in each eigensubspace. So, in each eigensubspace, we can write

$$\langle a, i | a, j \rangle = \delta_{ij}, \quad (8.3)$$

where $i, j = 1, 2, 3, \dots, g_a$. The orthonormal set of eigenvectors $\{|a, i\rangle, i = 1, 2, \dots, g_a\}$ can be said to span the eigensubspace H_a . The eigenvectors in different eigensubspaces are automatically orthogonal because \hat{A} is Hermitian. Hence, we can assume that **all** eigenvectors of \hat{A} are orthonormal, i.e.,

$$\langle a', i' | a, i \rangle = \delta_{aa'} \delta_{ii'}. \quad (8.4)$$

The full set $\{|a, i\rangle, i = 1, 2, \dots, g_a; a = a_1, a_2, \dots\}$ of eigenvectors of \hat{A} form a complete orthonormal set, i.e., they constitute a basis set for the Hilbert

space. The completeness condition of this basis set can be written as

$$\sum_a \sum_{i=1}^{g_a} |a, i\rangle \langle a, i| = \hat{I}. \quad (8.5)$$

Thus the state vector $|\psi\rangle$ of the system can be expanded as

$$\begin{aligned} |\psi\rangle &= \hat{I}|\psi\rangle \\ &= \sum_a \sum_{i=1}^{g_a} |a, i\rangle \langle a, i|\psi\rangle. \end{aligned} \quad (8.6)$$

For simplicity, we will continue to use Eq. (8.1) as the expansion for $|\psi\rangle$ in the eigenbasis of \hat{A} assuming that all the eigenvalues are non-degenerate. In case of degeneracy, notations can be generalized in a straightforward manner, as discussed above.

8.2 Measurement of Two Observables in Quick Succession

Suppose that a quantum system is in the state $|\psi\rangle$. Let A be an observable of the system with corresponding Hermitian operator \hat{A} . We can always expand $|\psi\rangle$ using the eigenbasis of \hat{A} :

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_a |a\rangle \langle a|\psi\rangle, \quad (8.7)$$

where a runs over the eigenvalue spectrum of \hat{A} . The complex number $\langle a|\psi\rangle$ is the ‘component’ of $|\psi\rangle$ along $|a\rangle$.

We now make a measurement of the observable A on the system in the state $|\psi\rangle$. Since a general state $|\psi\rangle$ may be a superposition of many (perhaps infinitely many) eigenkets of \hat{A} with different eigenvalues, we cannot exactly predict the result of the experiment but can only say that the experiment would yield any of the eigenvalues of \hat{A} for which $\langle a|\psi\rangle \neq 0$.

The outcome is random, i.e., probabilistic, because we cannot predict exactly which eigenvalue will be obtained, but we can assign a probability for obtaining a particular eigenvalue a provided we know the state $|\psi\rangle$ before the measurement. The probability is

$$P_{|\psi\rangle}(a) = |\langle a|\psi\rangle|^2. \quad (8.8)$$

In the course of the measurement, the state of the system collapses to the eigenket $|a\rangle$ if the eigenvalue a is obtained in the measurement. Thus

$$|\psi\rangle \xrightarrow{\text{measurement of A}} |a\rangle. \quad (8.9)$$

A note on the notation is now in order. More generally, the eigenvalue a may be degenerate, and we should say that $|\psi\rangle$ collapses to its normalized projection in the eigensubspace H_a . Thus letting \hat{P}_a denote the projection operator on H_a , we have

$$\hat{P}_a = \sum_{i=1}^{g_a} |a, i\rangle\langle a, i|, \quad (8.10)$$

where i is the degeneracy index. If the eigenvalue a is non-degenerate, the eigensubspace H_a is one-dimensional and the extra index i is not needed, so that the projection operator is simply

$$\hat{P}_a = |a\rangle\langle a| \quad (a \text{ is nondegenerate}). \quad (8.11)$$

Note that \hat{P}_a is Hermitian and satisfies the relation

$$\hat{P}_a^2 = \hat{P}_a. \quad (8.12)$$

After the A-measurement, if the eigenvalue a is obtained, then the collapsed state can be written as

$$|\psi\rangle \longrightarrow \frac{\hat{P}_a|\psi\rangle}{\sqrt{\langle\hat{P}_a\psi|\hat{P}_a\psi\rangle}} = \frac{\hat{P}_a|\psi\rangle}{\sqrt{\langle\psi|\hat{P}_a|\psi\rangle}} \quad (8.13)$$

Using Eq. (8.10), the collapsed state can be written as

$$\psi \longrightarrow \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{g_a} |a, i\rangle\langle a, i|\psi\rangle}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{g_a} |\langle a, i|\psi\rangle|^2}} \quad (8.14)$$

If the eigenvalue a is non-degenerate, then the collapsed state is simply

$$\psi \longrightarrow \frac{|a\rangle\langle a|\psi\rangle}{\sqrt{|\langle a|\psi\rangle|^2}} = |a\rangle. \quad (8.15)$$

In any case, whether the eigenvalue a is degenerate or not, the state of the system collapses to an eigenstate of the operator \hat{A} . Now the system is in a state with a definite value for the observable A . Further successive measurements of A will yield the same eigenvalue a with 100% certainty.

Next, consider another observable B of the system with corresponding Hermitian operator \hat{B} . If, immediately after the measurement of A , we measure B , are we certain to get a particular eigenvalue b of the operator \hat{B} ? We know that the state of the system after the measurement of A is an eigenstate of \hat{A} , i.e., a state with a definite value a of the observable A . The question we have asked can be restated as follows: in this collapsed state $|a\rangle$, does B have a definite value, i.e., is the collapsed state an eigenstate of \hat{B} also? The answer to this question is, in general, in the negative, i.e., $|a\rangle$ is not an eigenket of \hat{B} in general. The very important exceptional case where $|a\rangle$ is also an eigenstate of \hat{B} is discussed later.

Since the eigenkets of \hat{B} form a basis set, we can expand $|a\rangle$ as

$$|a\rangle = \sum_b |b\rangle\langle b|a\rangle. \quad (8.16)$$

Therefore, a measurement of B can yield any one of the eigenvalues b for which $\langle b|a\rangle \neq 0$. The probability of obtaining a particular eigenvalue b while the system is in the state $|a\rangle$ is

$$P_{|a\rangle}(b) = |\langle b|a\rangle|^2. \quad (8.17)$$

The state of the system after B is measured collapses from $|a\rangle$ to $|b\rangle$:

$$|a\rangle \xrightarrow{\text{measurement of } B} |b\rangle. \quad (8.18)$$

Thus, the measurement of B generally alters the state of the system because due to the measurement the system is thrown into the eigenstate $|b\rangle$, where b is the eigenvalue of \hat{B} obtained in the measurement. But, since $|b\rangle$ is not, in general, an eigenstate of \hat{A} , the system is no longer in a state with a definite value for the observable A .

If we measure A again immediately after B is measured, we will not get the answer we got the first time, namely a , with certainty. In the second measurement of A there is the possibility of getting any eigenvalue for which $|\langle a|b\rangle| \neq 0$. Therefore, it is not possible, in general, to get the system in a state in which both the observables A and B to have definite values.

Now, in successive measurements of A and B , first A then B , on a system initially in the state $|\psi\rangle$, the probability of obtaining the results a and b is

$$P(a, b) = P_{|\psi\rangle}(a)P_{|a\rangle}(b) = |\langle a|\psi\rangle|^2 |\langle b|a\rangle|^2. \quad (8.19)$$

If we reversed the order of measurements, first B and then A , the probability for obtaining the results b for the observable B and a for the observable A would be

$$P(b, a) = P_{|\psi\rangle}(b)P_{|b\rangle}(a) = |\langle b|\psi\rangle|^2 |\langle a|b\rangle|^2. \quad (8.20)$$

We note that, since $|\langle a|\psi\rangle|^2 \neq |\langle b|\psi\rangle|^2$, the two probabilities are not equal in general, i.e., $P(a, b) \neq P(b, a)$.

8.3 Compatible Observables

Now, let us return to the exceptional situation mentioned in the the previous section. To recapitulate, let us make two measurements of two observables A and B in quick succession on a system in the state $|\psi\rangle$. First, we measure A , and if the eigenvalue a is obtained, the system's state collapses to an eigenstate of the operator \hat{A} belonging to the eigenvalue a . Then if we measure B immediately afterward, would we be certain to get a particular eigenvalue b

of \hat{B} ? Further, if a second measurement of A is made immediately after the measurement of B , what conditions need be fulfilled in order that the result of the first measurement is unaltered, i.e., we will be certain to get the same result a again? We will first consider the case when all eigenvalues of \hat{A} are non-degenerate and then we will consider degeneracy of the eigenvalues.

8.3.1 Nondegenerate Case

Suppose all eigenvalues of \hat{A} are nondegenerate, i.e., for every eigenvalue a , there is only one linearly independent eigenvector $|a\rangle$. Now, as we mentioned earlier, the system's initial state $|\psi\rangle$ collapses to the eigenstate $|a\rangle$ if the eigenvalue a is obtained in the measurement of A . In general, the observable B does not have a definite value in the state $|a\rangle$.

An exception occurs if $|a\rangle$ is also an eigenstate of \hat{B} with some eigenvalue b , i.e.,

$$\hat{B}|a\rangle = b|a\rangle. \quad (8.21)$$

Since $|a\rangle$ is an eigenvector of both \hat{A} and \hat{B} with eigenvalues a and b , respectively, it is more expressive to label the eigenket by both the eigenvalues, i.e.,

$$|a\rangle \equiv |a, b\rangle.$$

Hence

$$\hat{A}|a, b\rangle = a|a, b\rangle \quad (8.22)$$

and

$$\hat{B}|a, b\rangle = b|a, b\rangle. \quad (8.23)$$

Now, the measurement of B immediately after A , is certain to yield b and the state of the system would remain unaltered due to the B -measurement. The change of the state of the system in the two measurements is shown below:

$$|\psi\rangle \xrightarrow{\text{Measure } \hat{A}} |a, b\rangle \xrightarrow{\text{Measure } \hat{B}} |a, b\rangle.$$

There is no change of the state of the system due to the measurement of B because the system was in an eigenstate of \hat{B} prior to the measurement. Since the state of the system has collapsed to a simultaneous eigenstate of both \hat{A} and \hat{B} after the measurement of A , the system is now in a state where both the observables have definite values, namely, a and b . Further, since the measurement of B does not alter the state, a second measurement of A is certain to yield the previous value a .

If the scenario just described holds in all situations, no matter what is the outcome of the first measurement of A , we say that the observables A and B are compatible. Thus, in summary, if we perform the following sequence of measurements in rapid succession on a system:

1. measure A
2. measure B
3. remeasure A

then, if the result of 3 is certain to be the same as the result of 1, we say that A and B are compatible variables. The condition for compatibility in the nondegenerate case is that every eigenvector of \hat{A} is also an eigenvector of \hat{B} so that the common eigenvectors form a basis of the Hilbert space. Therefore, if observables A and B are compatible, it is always possible to find states of the system, namely the simultaneous eigenstates of \hat{A} and \hat{B} , in which both the observables have definite values.

Note that in our discussions we have assumed the eigenvalues of \hat{A} , the first observable to be measured, are nondegenerate and nothing has been assumed about the degeneracy of the eigenvalues of second observable \hat{B} . The arguments above would be equally valid if we assumed that the eigenvalues of \hat{B} are nondegenerate and no assumptions were made about the degeneracy of the eigenvalues of \hat{A} .

Next, if A and B are compatible, the probability of getting the results a and b in the sequence of measurements: A followed by B , would be

$$P(a, b) = P_{|\psi\rangle}(a)P_{|a,b\rangle}(b) = |\langle a, b | \psi \rangle|^2 \times 1 = |\langle a, b | \psi \rangle|^2. \quad (8.24)$$

If we reverse the order of measurements and assume that the eigenvalues of \hat{B} are also nondegenerate like those of \hat{A} , then $P(b, a)$ would be the same as $P(a, b)$. This result is general for two compatible variables and is true even when the eigenvalues of \hat{A} and \hat{B} are degenerate. This will be discussed in the next section. For non-compatible observables $P(a, b)$ would not be equal to $P(b, a)$.

8.3.2 Degenerate Case

Let us next assume that the eigenvalues of \hat{A} are degenerate. We make no assumption about the degeneracy of the eigenvalues of \hat{B} . As before, we measure A and B in rapid succession, in the order A then B , on a system in the state $|\psi\rangle$. If a particular eigenvalue a of the operator \hat{A} is obtained in the measurement, the state of the system collapses to the normalized projection of $|\psi\rangle$ onto the eigensubspace H_a i.e.,

$$|\psi\rangle \xrightarrow{\text{Measure } A} |\psi'\rangle = \frac{\hat{P}_a|\psi\rangle}{\sqrt{\langle\psi|\hat{P}_a|\psi\rangle}} \in H_a. \quad (8.25)$$

The eigensubspace H_a is g_a -dimensional. The basis vectors of H_a could be chosen as the g_a linearly independent eigenvectors of \hat{A} with the same eigenvalue a , i.e. $\{|a, i\rangle, i = 1, 2, \dots, g_a\}$. Any vector in H_a (infinitely many of them) is an eigenvector of \hat{A} with eigenvalue a , but there are only g_a linearly independent vectors in H_a .

In general, no vector lying wholly in H_a may be an eigenvector of \hat{B} . So, a subsequent measurement of B yielding some eigenvalue b will throw the system into the eigenstate $|b\rangle$, and this state lying in the eigensubspace H_b , will have components both in H_a and H_a^\perp , where H_a^\perp , called the orthogonal complement of H_a , is the subspace orthogonal to H_a . The subspace H_a^\perp consists of (is the union of) all eigensubspaces of \hat{A} other than H_a . So, a second measurement of A will not yield a , the value obtained in the first measurement, with uncertainty, i.e., A and B would be incompatible.

However, in exceptional cases it may be possible to find g_a linearly independent eigenvectors of the operator \hat{B} with eigenvalues b_1, b_2, \dots in each eigensubspace H_a and, being linearly independent, the eigenvectors can span the eigensubspace H_a . These eigenvectors of \hat{B} , since they lie wholly in H_a , are also eigenvectors of \hat{A} with the same eigenvalue a . We may denote these simultaneous eigenvectors of \hat{A} and \hat{B} as follows:

$$|a, b_i, \alpha_i\rangle, \alpha_i = 1, 2, \dots, g_{b_i}^{(a)},$$

where $g_{b_i}^{(a)}$ represents the order of degeneracy of the eigenvalue b_i in the eigensubspace H_a . The order of degeneracy of b_i in the entire Hilbert space may be greater, for some of the linearly independent eigenvectors of \hat{B} with the same degenerate eigenvalue b_i may lie in eigensubspaces other than H_a .

Thus, in the special case we are considering, we can find simultaneous eigenvectors of both \hat{A} and \hat{B} which span each eigensubspace and so the whole Hilbert space can also be spanned by simultaneous eigenvectors of the two operators. All eigenvectors of \hat{B} , lie wholly in one of the eigensubspaces H_a of the operator \hat{A} , i.e., no eigenvector of \hat{B} has components in more than one eigensubspace H_a .

Now, the state $|\psi'\rangle \in H_a$ immediately after the measurement of A is the normalized projection of the state prior to the measurement, i.e., $|\psi\rangle$, on to H_a and so can be expressed as a linear combination of the simultaneous eigenstates of \hat{A} and \hat{B} which span H_a . Therefore, a subsequent measurement of B would give one of the eigenvalues b_i of the eigenvectors $\{|a, b_i, \alpha_i\rangle\}$ which span H_a . After the B -measurement, the state changes to

$$\begin{aligned} |\psi'\rangle &\rightarrow |\psi''\rangle \\ &= \frac{\hat{P}_{b_i}|\psi'\rangle}{\sqrt{\langle \hat{P}_{b_i}\psi' | \hat{P}_{b_i}\psi' \rangle}} \\ &= \frac{\sum_{\alpha_i=1}^{g_{b_i}^{(a)}} |a, b_i, \alpha_i\rangle \langle a, b_i, \alpha_i | \psi' \rangle}{\sqrt{\langle \psi' | \hat{P}_{b_i} | \psi' \rangle}} \end{aligned} \tag{8.26}$$

In the above formula \hat{P}_{b_i} is the projection operator onto the eigensubspace of b_i i.e., onto H_{b_i} . If b_i is degenerate, then some of the linearly independent eigenvectors with the same eigenvalue b_i may lie in H_a and some may lie in the eigensubspace H_a^\perp orthogonal to H_a and, in the special case under consideration, no eigenvector lies partly in H_a and partly in H_a^\perp . We can therefore write \hat{P}_{b_i} as

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{P}_{b_i} &= \sum_{a', \alpha_i} |a', b_i, \alpha_i\rangle \langle a', b_i, \alpha_i| \\ &= \sum_{\alpha_i} |a, b_i, \alpha_i\rangle \langle a, b_i, \alpha_i| + \sum_{a' \neq a, \alpha_i} |a', b_i, \alpha_i\rangle \langle a', b_i, \alpha_i| \quad (8.27)\end{aligned}$$

where α_i is any additional index required to label the states uniquely. The first term on the right side of the above equation can be considered as the restriction of \hat{P}_{b_i} in H_a and the second term the restriction in H_a^\perp .

Now, the ket the projection operator \hat{P}_{b_i} acts on, i.e., $|\psi'\rangle$, is in H_a and hence cannot be projected onto H_a^\perp . In other words, the second term of Eq. (8.27) acting on $|\psi'\rangle$ gives zero while the first term projects $|\psi'\rangle$ on to that part of H_a which is also a part of H_{b_i} . Therefore, \hat{P}_{b_i} is really the projection of $|\psi'\rangle$ onto the intersection of the eigensubspaces H_a and H_{b_i} . So $|\psi''\rangle$ is in H_a like $|\psi'\rangle$.

We note that the measurement of B has changed the state from $|\psi'\rangle$ to $|\psi''\rangle$, unlike in the nondegenerate case, but the changed state is still in H_a . So, a second measurement of A would certainly give the same eigenvalue a as was obtained in the first measurement of the observable. Therefore, the observables A and B would be compatible.

To summarize, if in every eigensubspace H_a of the eigenvalues of \hat{A} , it is possible to find g_a linearly independent of eigenvectors of the operator \hat{B} , then the totality of all the simultaneous eigenvectors in the entire Hilbert space form a complete basis set of vectors. The two observables would then be compatible. We could equally well have said: if in every eigensubspace

H_b of the eigenvalues of \hat{B} , we can find g_b linearly independent eigenvectors which are also eigenvectors of \hat{A} , then the two observables A and B are compatible.

This is not to say that any eigenvector of \hat{A} is also an eigenvector of \hat{B} . For example, if we take any vector in H_a , the vector is guaranteed to be an eigenvector of \hat{A} , but not necessarily an eigenvector of \hat{B} . To see this let us consider the vector

$$|\psi\rangle = c_1|a, b_1\rangle + c_2|a, b_2\rangle \in H_a. \quad (8.28)$$

This is a vector in H_a and therefore an eigenvector of \hat{A} with eigenvalue a , but not an eigenvector of \hat{B} . There are infinity of different vectors in H_a but only g_a linearly independent ones which can act as basis for H_a . These linearly independent vectors, though eigenvectors of \hat{A} with eigenvalue a , may not in general be eigenvectors of \hat{B} also. However, by taking appropriate linear combinations of these linearly independent eigenvectors if it is possible to get another set of g_a linearly independent vectors which are also eigenvectors of \hat{B} , then the two observables are compatible. Therefore, for two observables to be compatible, they must have simultaneous eigenvectors which form a complete set of basis states for the Hilbert space.

8.4 Condition for Compatibility of Observables

In the previous section we have stated what we mean when we say two observables are compatible with each other. To recapitulate, if two observables have simultaneous eigenvectors that span the entire Hilbert space, i.e., if the simultaneous eigenvectors form a basis for the Hilbert space, then the observables are said to be compatible.

We will now prove that two observables A and B with corresponding Hermitian operators \hat{A} and \hat{B} , respectively, are compatible if and only if $[\hat{A}, \hat{B}] = 0$. Thus we prove the following theorem:

Theorem:

Two Hermitian operators representing two observables have a complete set of simultaneous eigenvectors if and only if they commute.

An alternative statement of the theorem could be: The necessary and sufficient condition that two observables are compatible is that their operators commute.

Proof:

The proof proceeds in two parts. First, we prove the necessary condition, i.e., we assume that the operators have simultaneous eigenvectors, then we show that the operators commute. Next, we prove the converse (the sufficiency condition), i.e., we assume that the operators commute, then we show they have simultaneous eigenvectors.

(a) Necessary Condition

Let us assume that \hat{A} and \hat{B} have a complete set of simultaneous eigenvectors $|u_n\rangle, n = 1, 2, \dots$. Here each u_n represents a unique set of numbers $\{a, b, i\}$, where a and b are eigenvalues of \hat{A} and \hat{B} , respectively, and i is any other parameter which would be required to label the states uniquely should there be more than one linearly independent eigenvectors with the same values for a and b . Since the complete set of vectors $\{|u_n\rangle, n = 1, 2, \dots\}$ are eigenvectors of both \hat{A} and \hat{B} , we have

$$\hat{A}|u_n\rangle = a_n|u_n\rangle, \quad (8.29)$$

and

$$\hat{B}|u_n\rangle = b_n|u_n\rangle. \quad (8.30)$$

Now, using Eq. (8.29) and (8.30), we can write

$$\begin{aligned} [\hat{A}, \hat{B}]|u_n\rangle &= (\hat{A}\hat{B} - \hat{B}\hat{A})|u_n\rangle \\ &= (a_n b_n - b_n a_n)|u_n\rangle \\ &= 0. \end{aligned} \tag{8.31}$$

Since the simultaneous eigenvectors $\{|u_n\rangle, i = 1, 2, \dots\}$ form a complete set, it follows that

$$[\hat{A}, \hat{B}]|\psi\rangle = 0, \tag{8.32}$$

where $|\psi\rangle$ is an arbitrary vector in the Hilbert space. Hence we have

$$[\hat{A}, \hat{B}] = 0. \tag{8.33}$$

Thus, we have proved that commutivity is a necessary condition for compatibility.

(b) Sufficiency Condition

We now prove the converse, i.e., if \hat{A} and \hat{B} commute, they have simultaneous eigenvectors. First, we will assume that all eigenvalues of \hat{A} are non-degenerate. Next, we will consider the more general situation, namely that, some or all of the eigenvalues of \hat{A} may be degenerate.

Non-degenerate case

If all eigenvalues of \hat{A} are non-degenerate, then it is possible to uniquely label the eigenstates of \hat{A} by the eigenvalues only. Thus let $|a\rangle$ be the eigenstate of the operator \hat{A} belonging to some eigenvalue a . Therefore,

$$\hat{A}|a\rangle = a|a\rangle. \tag{8.34}$$

We start the proof by applying the operator \hat{B} to Eq. (8.34) to get

$$\hat{B}\hat{A}|a\rangle = a\hat{B}|a\rangle. \tag{8.35}$$

Since our assumption is that \hat{A} and \hat{B} commute, we can interchange the order of \hat{A} and \hat{B} on the left hand side of the above equation getting

$$\hat{A}(\hat{B}|a\rangle) = a(\hat{B}|a\rangle). \tag{8.36}$$

From Eq. (8.36) we can conclude that $\hat{B}|a\rangle$ is also an eigenvector of \hat{A} with the same eigenvalue a . Since we have supposed the eigenvalues of \hat{A} are non-degenerate, the vectors $|a\rangle$ and $\hat{B}|a\rangle$ represent the same physical state, i.e., $\hat{B}|a\rangle$ differs from $|a\rangle$ by a constant multiplier which we denote by b . Therefore,

$$\hat{B}|a\rangle = b|a\rangle, \quad (8.37)$$

i.e., all eigenvectors $\{|a\rangle\}$ of \hat{A} are also eigenvectors of \hat{B} . Therefore, we may label these states by both eigenvalues a and b , rather than the single eigenvalue a , i.e., $|a\rangle \equiv |a, b\rangle$.

Degenerate Case

Now, we allow for the more general case that some or all eigenvalues of \hat{A} may be degenerate. In case of degeneracy, the eigenvalue equation for a particular eigenvalue a is written as

$$\hat{A}|a, i\rangle = a|a, i\rangle; \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, g_a, \quad (8.38)$$

where g_a is the order of degeneracy of a . Here a is an element of the set of all the eigenvalues of \hat{A} , i.e., $a \in \{a_1, a_2, \dots\}$. The g_a linearly independent eigenvectors $\{|a, i\rangle; i = 1, 2, \dots, g_a\}$ spanning the eigensubspace H_a are made orthonormal.

If we choose the eigenvectors of \hat{A} belonging to all the eigensubspaces, i.e., the set of eigenvectors $\{|a, i\rangle, i = 1, 2, \dots, g_a; a = a_1, a_2, \dots\}$, as the basis for the Hilbert space, then obviously, the matrix representation of \hat{A} is diagonal. Denoting the matrix representing the operator \hat{A} by \underline{A} , we have

$$\underline{A} = \begin{array}{c|ccc} & H_{a_1} & H_{a_2} & H_{a_3} \\ \hline H_{a_1} & \begin{array}{c} a_1 \quad \cdot \quad 0 \\ 0 \quad \cdot \quad a_1 \end{array} & \bigcirc & \bigcirc \\ \hline H_{a_2} & \bigcirc & \begin{array}{c} a_2 \quad a_2 \quad \cdot \quad 0 \\ 0 \quad a_2 \quad \cdot \quad a_2 \end{array} & \bigcirc \\ \hline H_{a_3} & \bigcirc & \bigcirc & \begin{array}{c} a_3 \quad a_3 \quad \cdot \quad 0 \\ 0 \quad \cdot \quad a_3 \end{array} \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Figure 8.1: The matrix representation of \hat{A} in the eigenbasis of \hat{A} .

where each diagonal block H_{a_n} is a $g_{a_n} \times g_{a_n}$ dimensional diagonal matrix with the eigenvalue a_n running along the diagonal, other entries being zero.

Next, we ask what would be the matrix representation of \hat{B} in the eigenbasis of \hat{A} . The matrix elements of \hat{B} are written as $\langle a', i' | \hat{B} | a, i \rangle$. Using our assumption that \hat{A} and \hat{B} commute, we have

$$\langle a', i' | [\hat{A}, \hat{B}] | a, i \rangle = 0,$$

i.e.,

$$\langle a', i' | \hat{A}\hat{B} - \hat{B}\hat{A} | a, i \rangle = 0,$$

or,

$$(a' - a) \langle a', i' | \hat{B} | a, i \rangle = 0. \quad (8.39)$$

If $a \neq a'$, then $(a' - a) \neq 0$ and we must have

$$\langle a', i' | \hat{B} | a, i \rangle = 0, \quad \text{if } a' \neq a, \quad (8.40)$$

i.e., \hat{B} does not connect states with different eigenvalues of \hat{A} . In other words, \hat{B} acting on any of the eigenvectors of \hat{A} in the eigensubspace H_a ,

produces another vector which is also in H_a with no components in other eigensubspaces orthogonal to H_a . The new vector, being in H_a , remains an eigenvector of \hat{A} . Thus, \hat{B} acting on any eigenvector of \hat{A} produces a state which is also an eigenvector of \hat{A} with the same eigenvalue. This is a consequence of the fact that \hat{A} and \hat{B} commute.

From the above arguments, we can conclude that the matrix representation of \hat{B} in the eigenbasis of \hat{A} will be block diagonal as shown below.

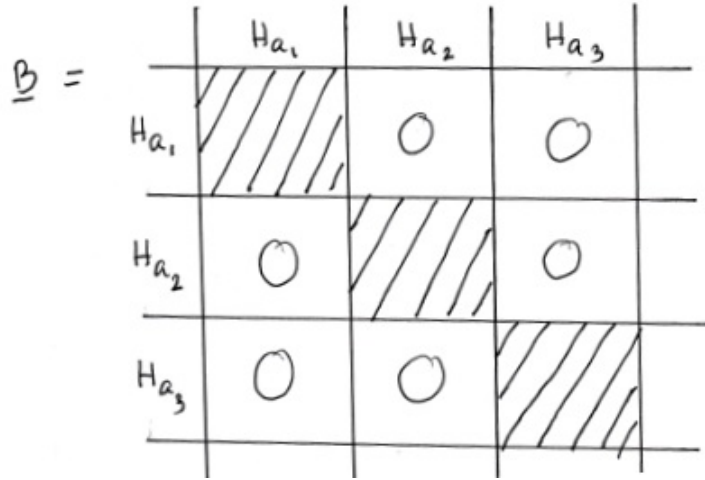


Figure 8.2: The matrix representation of \hat{B} in the eigenbasis of \hat{A} .

In each eigensubspace H_a , the matrix $\underline{B}^{(a)}$ is a $g_a \times g_a$ square matrix, which itself need not be diagonal if we choose an arbitrary basis for H_a . To see this we refer to Eq. (8.40). This equation tells us that, if \hat{A} and \hat{B} commute, the matrix elements of B are zero if $a \neq a'$, but nothing is concluded about the matrix elements of \hat{B} in any eigensubspace H_a , i.e., when $a = a'$.

However, since \hat{B} is a Hermitian operator, its matrix representation in every eigensubspace H_a , is a finite dimensional square Hermitian matrix. We can always diagonalize a finite dimensional Hermitian matrix by a change of basis. The new set of g_a basis vectors in the eigensubspace H_a are linear combinations of the old basis vectors $\{|a, i\rangle, i = 1, 2, \dots, g_a\}$. Therefore, the

vectors of the new basis set remain eigenvectors of \hat{A} with the same eigenvalue a . But, the vectors in new basis set, since it diagonalizes \hat{B} , must also be eigenvectors of \hat{B} with eigenvalues b_1, b_2, \dots, b_{g_a} .

Since the vectors in the new basis set are simultaneous eigenvectors of \hat{A} and \hat{B} , we can label them by the eigenvalues of both \hat{A} and \hat{B} . Thus the common eigenvectors, which form the new basis set of H_a , can be written as $\{|a, b_1\rangle, |a, b_2\rangle, \dots, |a, b_{g_a}\rangle\}$. Some of the eigenvalues of \hat{B} may be repeated, in which case we will need another index to distinguish between the linearly independent simultaneous eigenvectors with the same eigenvalues for \hat{A} and \hat{B} . We diagonalize each diagonal block $\underline{B}^{(a_i)}$ of the matrix \underline{B} in the old basis, thereby obtaining simultaneous eigenvectors for both \hat{A} and \hat{B} in the entire Hilbert space. In the new basis consisting of the simultaneous eigenvectors, the matrix representation of \hat{B} is diagonal as shown in figure (8.3).

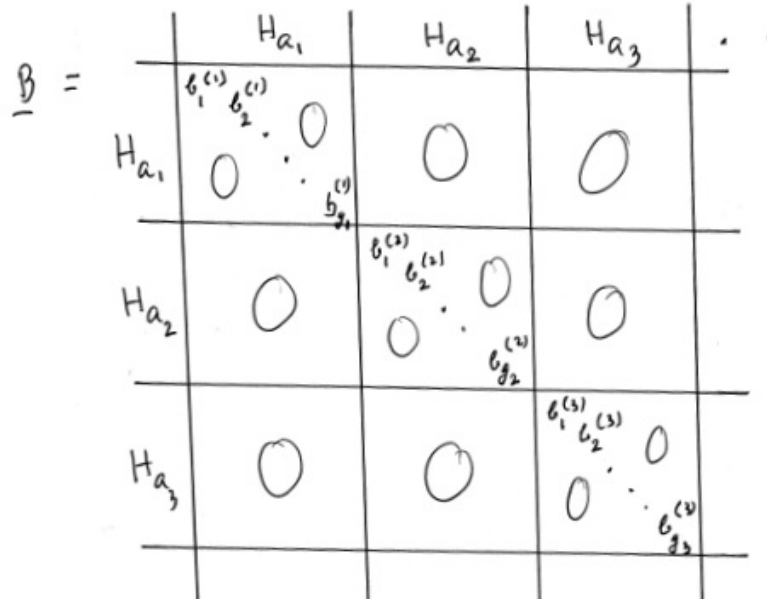


Figure 8.3: The matrix representation of \hat{B} in the eigenbasis consisting of simultaneous eigenvectors of \hat{A} and \hat{B} .

The matrix representation of \hat{A} in the new basis is also diagonal and remains the same as in Fig. (8.1).

The diagonal entries $b_i^{(n)}, i = 1, 2, \dots, g_n$ in each eigensubspace H_{a_n} in figure (8.3) are the various eigenvalues of the operator \hat{B} , i.e., $b_i^{(n)} \in \{b_1, b_2, \dots\}$. In a given eigensubspace H_{a_n} , some of the eigenvalues of \hat{B} may be repeated. Further, a particular eigenvalue of \hat{B} may also be repeated in several eigensubspaces H_{a_n} .

Thus, in summary, what we have shown is that, given two Hermitian operators \hat{A} and \hat{B} representing two observables of a quantum system, it is possible to construct a complete set of simultaneous eigenvectors spanning the entire Hilbert space provided $[\hat{A}, \hat{B}] = 0$. Hence, we have proved that $[\hat{A}, \hat{B}] = 0$ is a sufficient condition for two Hermitian operators \hat{A} and \hat{B} to be compatible.

8.5 Labeling of Quantum Mechanical Basis States

Since eigenvectors of a Hermitian operator corresponding to an observable form a complete set, we can label the members of the set by the eigenvalues. Thus, suppose that an observable \hat{A} has eigenvalues

$$a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots$$

The basis states are then labeled as

$$|a_1\rangle, |a_2\rangle, |a_3\rangle, \dots$$

The labeling would be unambiguous if the eigenvalues were all non-degenerate. However, if some or all eigenvalues are degenerate, we will need another mark of distinction for the eigenvectors.

For example, if an eigenvalue a_n is g_n -fold degenerate, the corresponding eigenvectors may be denoted as

$$|a_n, i\rangle, i = 1, 2, \dots, g_n.$$

An alternative, and better, notation is based on the fact that two compatible observables whose Hermitian operators commute, may be assumed to have the same set of eigenvectors. Hence, if we can find a second observable \hat{B} commuting with the first, such that

$$\hat{B}|a_n, i\rangle = b_i|a_n, i\rangle, i = 1, 2, \dots, g_n \quad (8.41)$$

with eigenvalues b_i all different, then the eigenvalues of \hat{B} may serve to distinguish the eigenvectors. So, we can write

$$\begin{aligned} |a_n, 1\rangle &\equiv |a_n, b_1\rangle \\ |a_n, 2\rangle &\equiv |a_n, b_2\rangle \\ \cdot &\quad \cdot \\ \cdot &\quad \cdot \\ \cdot &\quad \cdot \\ |a_n, g_n\rangle &\equiv |a_n, b_{g_n}\rangle. \end{aligned}$$

But, if some of the eigenvalues $b_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, g_n$ are equal, we will need a third mark to distinguish the eigenvectors. The third mark may be obtained if we can find a third observable whose operator \hat{C} commutes with both \hat{A} and \hat{B} . Then \hat{A} , \hat{B} and \hat{C} have simultaneous eigenvectors and the eigenvalues of \hat{C} may also be used to label the eigenvectors.

Thus, in general, if we can find a set of mutually commuting Hermitian operators, $\hat{A}, \hat{B}, \hat{C}, \hat{D}, \dots$ whose common eigenvectors can be characterized completely by the eigenvalues a, b, c, d, \dots such that no two eigenvectors have exactly identical set of eigenvalues, then the eigenvalues of these operators can uniquely label the common eigenvectors. Such a set of Hermitian operators is said to be complete. We refer to this set of operators as a complete set of commuting observables (CSCO).

In the new notation, the basis vectors are written as

$$|a, b, c, d, \dots\rangle.$$

The normalization and completeness conditions are then

$$\langle a', b', c', d' \cdots | a, b, c, d, \cdots \rangle = \delta_{aa'} \delta_{bb'} \cdots , \quad (8.42)$$

and

$$\sum_{(a,b,c,d,\cdots)} |a, b, c, d, \cdots \rangle \langle a, b, c, d, \cdots | = \hat{I} . \quad (8.43)$$