



RAPPORT DE STAGE 3A

Stage de recherche au CEREMADE : Résultats mathématiques sur la condensation de Bose–Einstein pour un gaz de bosons sans interaction

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PRÉSENTATION DU DOCUMENT

Ce document est constitué de deux rapports attachés, rédigés lors d'un stage de quatre mois à l'Université Paris–Dauphine, entre avril et juillet 2021, au sein du Centre de Recherche en Mathématiques de la Décision (CEREMADE), et sous la direction de Mathieu Lewin (CNRS). Ce stage de recherche s'inscrit dans la troisième année de scolarité à l'École polytechnique, avec l'aide de François Golse en tant que référent, que nous tenons à remercier chaleureusement pour son aide dans la recherche et la concrétisation de ce stage qui s'est révélé une opportunité idéale.

Le rapport principal, constitué de 33 pages, placé en premier dans la suite et intitulé *Mathematical results on Bose–Einstein condensation for the Free Bose Gas*, expose divers résultats d'ordre mathématique sur un phénomène physique prédit par Albert Einstein en 1925, mathématiquement défini par Oliver Penrose en 1956 et mis en évidence expérimentalement par Eric Cornell et Carl Wieman en 1995 : il s'agit de la condensation de Bose–Einstein. Ce phénomène, mieux détaillé dans la suite, consiste en la formation macroscopique, au sein d'un gaz de bosons, d'un condensat formé d'un nombre significatif de particules dans le même état quantique. Certains résultats existaient déjà sur la description mathématique de ce phénomène considéré comme largement connu, mais ils n'avaient pas fait l'objet d'une uniformisation et d'une mise en cohérence au sein d'un même article. Dans le présent document, on s'intéresse donc à exposer de quels résultats on dispose au sujet de cette condensation en fonction du formalisme de physique statistique et des conditions aux bords considérées, en utilisant parfois des preuves adaptées, ou complètement différentes de celles préexistantes, notamment par des résultats de théorie spectrale sur les opérateurs.

Trois théorèmes majeurs ressortent : le *premier* ne présente pas de condensation, mais permet de poser les bases du type de convergence que l'on considère dans notre étude mathématique, le *second* décrit la condensation de Bose–Einstein dans le cadre — plus simple — du formalisme *grand-canonique*, et le *troisième* utilise les précédents résultats et diverses relations entre les formalismes canonique et grand-canonique pour décrire la condensation de Bose–Einstein dans le cadre du formalisme *canonique*.

Le second rapport, constitué de 21 pages et intitulé *Des bases de l'analyse fonctionnelle aux algèbres de Schatten*, est un complément technique du premier : il s'agit essentiellement d'un travail d'étude bibliographique et de rédaction. Il présente les bases de l'analyse fonctionnelle, qui est l'outil majeur utilisé dans le rapport principal, et donne finalement un cadre précis à l'étude des opérateurs principalement étudiés dans ledit rapport (les *matrices de densité*), à travers l'introduction des algèbres de Schatten (aussi appelées algèbres des opérateurs à trace). Ces résultats sont des préliminaires généralement bien connus.

Mathematical results on Bose–Einstein condensation for the Free Bose Gas

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Contents

Introduction	2
1 Density Matrices	3
2 Bose–Einstein Condensation	5
2.1 Asymptotic behavior at fixed chemical potential	6
2.2 Condensation at fixed density: grand canonical case	10
2.3 Condensation at fixed density: canonical case	17
Conclusion	23
3 Appendix	24



Introduction

Within the framework of statistical physics, the phenomenon known as *Bose–Einstein condensation* has been studied since its theoretical prediction by Albert Einstein in 1925, based on Satyendra Nath Bose previous studies. The precise mathematical definition of this phenomenon is due to Oliver Penrose and Lars Onsager in a 1956 article [1]. The study of this condensation of bosonic particles has been then deepened – mostly between 1960 and 1980 by mathematicians like Mark Kac and many others – until its experimental discovery in 1995 by Eric Cornell and Carl Wieman.

This phenomenon describes the formation of a macroscopic condensate composed of a significant fraction of particles in the same quantum state, either for high densities or low temperatures. This structure yields peculiar matter properties like superfluidity, condensate interferences or condensate vortices.

Mathematically, this phenomenon is described by specific operators called *density matrices*, linked to the physical idea of density. Penrose and Onsager define condensation as the asymptotic emergence of an eigenvalue of the first density matrix growing significantly with the size of the system.

However, though the study of this phenomenon is ancient and considered run-of-the-mill by the scientific community, rigorous results on the behavior of the operators that describe the state of the system in the quantum mechanics theory seem not to have been all clarified and unified in the mathematical literature. Hence, in this document one deals with the description of Bose–Einstein condensation through the asymptotic convergence of the sooner introduced specific operators called density matrices, using mostly spectral theory results, and exhibiting the relations between the canonical and grand canonical descriptions of the system.

The convergence results in this document are thus about both canonical and grand canonical condensations, holding for a description based on a Laplacian with Dirichlet, Neumann and periodic boundary conditions.

An additional document, written in French, contains a summary of well-known results in functional analysis, some of which are useful in the body of the text. Specifically, one there discusses the Schatten spaces which are useful to define density matrices.

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In this document, one uses the quantum mechanical formalism, which describes the properties of matter at a microscopic scale. For a given particle located in an open domain $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^d$, one can describe its state by a wave function $\psi \in \mathbb{L}^2(\Omega, \mathbb{C})$, the absolute square of which corresponds to the probability density of finding the particle at a given position. In what follows, one considers that the particle is confined to a domain Ω (which could in principle be the whole space \mathbb{R}^d), so that the wave function is normalized: $\|\psi\|_{\mathbb{L}^2}^2 = \int_{\Omega} |\psi|^2 = 1$.

1 Density Matrices

So as to represent n identical particles, one may consider the normalized wave function $\psi \in \mathbb{L}^2(\Omega^n)$ such that $|\psi(x_1, \dots, x_n)|^2$ may be the probability density of finding the i -th particle at $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ for all $1 \leq i \leq n$:

$$\|\psi\|_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega^n)}^2 = \int_{\Omega^n} |\psi(x_1, \dots, x_n)|^2 dx_1, \dots, dx_n = 1.$$

In this document, one will study bosons: ψ is symmetric. As n becomes very large, this function defined on Ω^n becomes impossible to manipulate. Thus, one now defines the following operators:

Definition 1.1. The k -particle *density matrix* of ψ is the Hilbert–Schmidt operator on $\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega^k)$ (see the preliminary document) whose kernel is

$$\gamma^{(k)}(x_1, \dots, x_k, y_1, \dots, y_k) = \binom{n}{k} \int_{\Omega^{n-k}} \psi(x_1, \dots, x_k, x_{k+1}, \dots, x_n) \overline{\psi}(y_1, \dots, y_k, x_{k+1}, \dots, x_n) dx_{k+1} \dots dx_n.$$

For simplicity, one uses the same notation for the operator $\gamma^{(k)} \in \mathfrak{S}^2(\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega^k))$, which is self-adjoint and compact, and its integral kernel $\gamma^{(k)}(x_1, \dots, y_k)$.

Remark. The factor $\binom{n}{k}$ stems from the symmetry of ψ .

Proposition 1.1. $\gamma^{(k)} \in \mathfrak{S}^1$ and $\text{tr}(\gamma^{(k)}) = \binom{n}{k}$.

Proof. By Fubini’s theorem,

$$\begin{aligned} \forall \phi \in \mathbb{L}^2(\Omega^k), \langle \phi, \gamma^{(k)} \phi \rangle &= \binom{n}{k} \int_{\Omega^k} \phi(x) \left(\int_{\Omega^k} \overline{\phi}(y) \int_{\Omega^{n-k}} \overline{\psi}(x, \alpha) \psi(y, \alpha) d\alpha dy \right) dx \\ &= \binom{n}{k} \int_{\Omega^{n-k}} d\alpha \left| \int_{\Omega^k} \overline{\phi}(y) \psi(y, \alpha) dy \right|^2 \geq 0, \end{aligned}$$

which allows us to define the trace of $\gamma^{(k)}$ in $[0, \infty]$. In particular, for $(\phi_j)_{j \geq 1}$ an orthonormal basis,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{tr}(\gamma^{(k)}) &= \sum_{n \geq 1} \langle \phi_j, \gamma^{(k)} \phi_j \rangle = \binom{n}{k} \sum_{j \geq 1} \int_{\Omega^{n-k}} \left| \int_{\Omega^k} \overline{\phi_j}(y) \psi(y, \alpha) dy \right|^2 d\alpha \\ &= \binom{n}{k} \int_{\Omega^{n-k}} \|\psi(\cdot, \alpha)\|_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega^k)}^2 d\alpha = \binom{n}{k} \|\psi\|_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega^n)}^2 = \binom{n}{k} < \infty. \end{aligned}$$

Remarks. 1. Alternative definition. For $A \in \mathcal{K}(\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega))$, one can define the operator $A^{(n)} = \sum_{i=1}^n A_i$ over $\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega^n)$ where $A_i = I \otimes \dots \otimes I \otimes \overset{(i)}{A} \otimes I \dots \otimes I$ corresponds to the operator that simply applies A along the i -th coordinate. Thus, in an orthonormal basis $(\phi_j)_{j \geq 1}$ of $\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)$, one has

$$\mathrm{tr}_\Omega(\gamma^{(1)} A) = n \sum_{j \geq 1} \int_{\Omega^{n-1}} d\alpha \int_\Omega \int_\Omega \phi_j(x) \bar{\psi}(x, \alpha) \psi(y, \alpha) \overline{A \phi_j}(y) dx dy = n \langle \psi, A_1 \psi \rangle,$$

which allows us to provide an alternative definition of $\gamma^{(1)} \in \mathfrak{S}^1(\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega))$ using the duality with $\mathcal{K}(\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega))$ (see the preliminary document) and the following linear form, continuous as a function of $A \in \mathcal{K}$:

$$n \langle \psi, A_1 \psi \rangle = \langle \psi, A^{(n)} \psi \rangle = \mathrm{tr}_{\Omega^n} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n A_i |\psi\rangle \langle \psi| \right) = \mathrm{tr}_\Omega(A \gamma^{(1)}). \quad (1)$$

2. Extended definition. For an operator Γ on $\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega^n)$, diagonalized in an orthonormal basis of eigenvectors $\Gamma = \sum_{i \geq 0} n_i |\psi_i\rangle \langle \psi_i|$, one can extend the definition of $\gamma^{(1)}$ for operators by linearity:

$$\gamma_\Gamma^{(1)} = \sum_{i \geq 1} n_i \gamma_{\psi_i}^{(1)}. \quad (2)$$

Finally, both definitions coincide: $\gamma_\psi^{(1)} = \gamma_{|\psi\rangle \langle \psi|}^{(1)}$.

Definition 1.2. From the definition of the first density matrix, one may define the *density related to the state ψ at $x \in \Omega$* by

$$\rho(x) = \gamma^{(1)}(x, x) = n \int_{\Omega^{n-1}} |\psi(x, x_2, \dots, x_n)|^2 dx_2, \dots, dx_n,$$

which satisfies $\int_\Omega \rho(x) dx = n$: the density is effectively counting the number of particles.

For non-interacting bosons, let us consider the Hamiltonian

$$H_n = \sum_{i=1}^n (-\Delta)_i,$$

with certain conditions at the boundary of Ω . In this document, one only considers three common boundary conditions for the Laplacians $(-\Delta)_i$ used in the definition of the Hamiltonian: the *periodic boundary conditions* for a hypercubic domain, the *Dirichlet Laplacian* defined on the quadratic form domain $H_0^1(\Omega)$ (which is the closure of \mathcal{C}_c^∞ for the H^1 -norm), and the *Neumann Laplacian* with the quadratic form domain $H^1(\Omega)$. The quadratic form is always the same, defined as

$$\forall \psi \in \bigotimes_{i=1}^n \mathcal{Q}(-\Delta), \quad \langle \psi, H \psi \rangle = \int_{\Omega^n} |\nabla \psi|^2.$$

Let us consider particles distributed in an open set $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^d$, and study the asymptotic behavior of the system when Ω gets very large. Hence, let us denote by $L\Omega$ the dilatation of Ω fixed, for

$L > 0$ converging to infinity. The open set Ω will be chosen piecewise- \mathcal{C}^∞ with a zero-measure boundary, in the sense that

$$|\partial\Omega + B(0, \varepsilon)| \xrightarrow{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} 0. \quad (3)$$

A simple example, on which applies the periodic Laplacian, is $\Omega =]-1/2, 1/2[^d$, so that $L\Omega$ is the hypercube of \mathbb{R}^d , of which edge length and volume are L and $V = L^d$, centered at 0. Finally, let us fix a temperature T and denote its inverse by

$$\beta = \frac{1}{T}.$$

For a bounded domain Ω , H is diagonalizable in an orthonormal basis of eigenvectors $\forall i \in \mathbb{N}^*$, $H\psi_i = \lambda_i\psi_i$. Then, $\Gamma = \sum_{n \geq 0} n_i |\psi_i\rangle\langle\psi_i|$ with $\text{tr}(\Gamma) = \sum_{i \geq 1} n_i = \sum_{i \geq 1} \frac{e^{-\beta\lambda_i}}{\sum_{k \geq 1} e^{-\beta\lambda_k}} = 1$. One may thus define as in (2) the density matrix

$$\gamma_\Gamma^{(1)} = \sum_{i \geq 1} n_i \gamma_{\psi_i}^{(1)}.$$

One has $\sum_n e^{-\beta\lambda_n} < \infty$, so that $\Gamma \in \mathfrak{S}^1$, because one explicitly knows the eigenvalues of the Hamiltonian H in the studied boundary conditions when Ω is a hypercube, which allows to control the eigenvalues for a general bounded Ω .

Reminder (can be read in the spectral theory course by Mathieu Lewin at École polytechnique [7], as most of the spectral theory results): On $\Omega = [-L/2, L/2]^d$, H has a compact resolvent, so in particular it is diagonalizable in an orthonormal basis of eigenvalues $\left(\frac{\pi^2}{L^2} \sum_{j=1}^d k_j^2\right)_{k \in (\mathbb{N}^*)^d}$.

2 Bose–Einstein Condensation

Within the framework of statistical physics, one has different macroscopic representations of a system of particles, which asymptotically coincide in the thermodynamic limit where the system gets very large. The first of these representations is called the *canonical ensemble*. One chooses to represent the system with its parameters \mathbf{n} , \mathbf{V} and \mathbf{T} : the number of particles, the volume of the system and the temperature, with $\rho = \frac{n}{V}$ fixed. Then, the state of the system is represented by the Gibbs operator

$$\Gamma_n = \frac{e^{-\beta H_n}}{Z_n}, \quad (4)$$

where $Z_n = \text{tr}(e^{-\beta H_n})$ is a normalization factor called the partition function. If (λ_j) are the eigenvalues of $(-\Delta)$, one can represent all the possible configurations of occupation of the energy levels by all the $m \in \ell^1(\mathbb{N}, \mathbb{N})$ such that $\|m\|_{\ell^1} = \sum_i m_i = n$. Using the lighter notation $|m| = \sum_i m_i$, one has

$$Z_n = \sum_{|m|=n} e^{-\beta \sum m_j \lambda_j}, \quad (5)$$

since the eigenvalues of H_n are the $\sum_j m_j \lambda_j$, $|m| = n$.

The second representation is called the *grand canonical ensemble*. There, one chooses to represent the system with its parameters μ, \mathbf{V} and \mathbf{T} : the chemical potential, the volume and the temperature. As the number of particles is not fixed anymore, one hence must consider a theoretical construction called *Fock space*. Denoting $\mathcal{H}_n \simeq \otimes_{i=1}^n \mathcal{H}$ the Hilbert space describing an n -particle system, one defines

$$\mathcal{F} = \bigoplus_{n \geq 0} \mathcal{H}_n$$

the associated Fock space, on which one will consider the operator

$$\mathbb{P}_\mu = \bigoplus_n \frac{e^{\beta\mu n} e^{-\beta H_n}}{Z_\mu}, \quad (6)$$

where, denoting $z = e^{\beta\mu}$,

$$Z_\mu = \text{tr}_{\mathcal{F}} \left(\bigoplus_n e^{\beta\mu n} e^{-\beta H_n} \right) = \sum_n \text{tr} \left(e^{-\beta(H_n - \mu n)} \right) = \sum_n z^n Z_n.$$

NB: This is a sort of Laplace transform.

The Fock space is equipped with an exponential structure: if the core Hilbert space can be written as $\mathcal{H} = \bigoplus_i E_i$, one has

$$\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{H}} = \bigotimes_i \mathcal{F}_{E_i}. \quad (7)$$

This especially allows one to show that the one-particle density of \mathbb{P}_μ in (6) is explicitly given by

$$\gamma_{\mathbb{P}_\mu}^{(1)} = \frac{1}{e^{\beta(-\Delta - \mu)} - 1}.$$

These results may be found in the unpublished course by Jan Philip Solovej [8, section G.5].

Finally, one considers the density of the grand canonical state on $L\Omega$:

$$\rho_L(\mu) = \frac{\langle \mathcal{N} \rangle_{L,\mu}}{|L\Omega|} = \frac{1}{|L\Omega|} \frac{\sum_n n z^n Z_n}{\sum_n z^n Z_n} = \frac{\text{tr}(\gamma_{\mathbb{P}_\mu}^{(1)})}{|L\Omega|}.$$

2.1 Asymptotic behavior at fixed chemical potential

This first theorem is about the convergence of the one-particle density matrix in the grand canonical case, with a fixed chemical potential μ , as the domain gets very big until reaching the whole space \mathbb{R}^d . It is true for all three Laplacian boundary conditions one deals with in this document: periodic, Dirichlet and Neumann, which determine the first density matrix on bounded open sets of the form $L\Omega$, $L > 0$ (see the discussion p. 5). As the chemical potential is fixed, one will not observe any condensation yet.

Let us denote by $\gamma_{L,\mu}^{(1)}$ the density matrix $\gamma_{\mathbb{P}_\mu}^{(1)}$ on the domain $L\Omega$ with Ω piecewise- \mathcal{C}^∞ with a zero-measure boundary [see (3)]. In the case of periodic boundary conditions, Ω is a hypercube of volume 1.

Theorem 2.1. *Let $\mu < 0$ be fixed. Then,*

$$\forall \varphi \in \mathbb{L}^2(\mathbb{R}^d), \quad \gamma_{L,\mu}^{(1)}(\chi_{L\Omega}\varphi) \xrightarrow[L \rightarrow \infty]{\mathbb{L}^2} \frac{1}{e^{\beta(-\Delta-\mu)} - 1} \varphi,$$

while

$$\rho_L(\mu) = \frac{\text{tr}(\gamma_{L,\mu}^{(1)})}{|L\Omega|} \xrightarrow[L \rightarrow +\infty]{} \frac{1}{(2\pi)^d} \int \frac{dk}{e^{\beta(k^2-\mu)} - 1}.$$

Hence, let us denote $\rho(\mu) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^d} \int \frac{dk}{e^{\beta(k^2-\mu)} - 1}$ and $\gamma_{gas}^{(1)}(\mu) = \frac{1}{e^{\beta(-\Delta-\mu)} - 1}$.

Proof. In the case of Dirichlet and Neumann boundary conditions, this theorem follows from two more general theorems (2.2 and 2.3) presented afterward.

In the case of periodic boundary conditions, the proof is an explicit computation. This computation is presented here for $\Omega =]-1/2, 1/2[^d$ to begin getting familiar with both the periodic boundary conditions and the explicit expression of $\gamma^{(1)}$.

For $\varphi \in \mathcal{C}_c^\infty(\mathbb{R}^d)$, one has

$$\gamma_{L,\mu}^{(1)}\varphi = \sum_{k \in \frac{2\pi}{L}\mathbb{Z}^d} \frac{1}{e^{\beta(k^2-\mu)} - 1} \langle \varphi, e_k \rangle e_k,$$

where

$$\langle \varphi, e_k \rangle = \frac{1}{L^{d/2}} \int_{L\Omega} \varphi(x) e^{-ikx} dx = \left(\frac{2\pi}{L} \right)^{\frac{d}{2}} \hat{\varphi}(k) \text{ for } \text{supp}(\varphi) \subset L\Omega.$$

Hence, almost for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$,

$$\gamma_{L,\mu}^{(1)}\varphi(x) = \frac{(2\pi)^{d/2}}{L^d} \sum_{k \in \frac{2\pi}{L}\mathbb{Z}^d} \mathcal{F} \left[\frac{1}{e^{\beta(-\Delta-\mu)} - 1} \varphi \right] (k) e^{ikx},$$

and eventually, as the function of k is integrable for $\mu < 0$ and by Riemann approximation,

$$\gamma_{L,\mu}^{(1)}\varphi(x) \xrightarrow[L \rightarrow +\infty]{} \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{d/2}} \int \mathcal{F} \left[\frac{1}{e^{\beta(-\Delta-\mu)} - 1} \varphi \right] (k) e^{ikx} dk = \left[\frac{1}{e^{\beta(-\Delta-\mu)} - 1} \varphi \right] (x).$$

By density and uniqueness of the limit, as all the operators are bounded uniformly in L , one can extend the result for all $\varphi \in \mathbb{L}^2$.

The second convergence is calculated in the same way, having

$$\langle \mathcal{N} \rangle_{L,\mu} = \text{tr}(\gamma_{L,\mu}^{(1)}) = \sum_{k \in \frac{2\pi}{L}\mathbb{Z}^d} \frac{1}{e^{\beta(k^2-\mu)} - 1}. \quad \square$$

As announced, these are the two general theorems that imply Theorem 2.1 for the Dirichlet boundary condition. Their proofs are presented in the appendix (p. 24).

Theorem 2.2. *Let Ω be an open set of \mathbb{R}^d , piecewise- C^∞ and with zero-measure boundary [see (3)]. Let us denote by $L\Omega$ its dilatation by a factor $L > 0$. Let $(-\Delta)_{|L\Omega}$ denote the Dirichlet Laplacian over $L\Omega$, and $-\Delta$ the Laplacian over \mathbb{R}^d .*

Then, for $f \in C^0(\mathbb{R}^+)$ such that $f(x) \xrightarrow{x \rightarrow +\infty} 0$, one has the following convergence :

$$\forall u \in \mathbb{L}^2(\mathbb{R}^d), f \left((-\Delta)_{|L\Omega} \right) \cdot (\chi_{L\Omega} u) \xrightarrow[L \rightarrow \infty]{\mathbb{L}^2(\mathbb{R}^d)} f(-\Delta)u.$$

Theorem 2.3. *Using the same notations as in Theorem 2.2 previously stated, and denoting $(\lambda_i^L)_i$ the eigenvalues of the Dirichlet Laplacian $(-\Delta)_{|L\Omega}$ repeated according to their multiplicity, one has the convergence, when the following integral is well-defined,*

$$\frac{1}{|L\Omega|} \sum_i f(\lambda_i^L) \xrightarrow[L \rightarrow +\infty]{} \frac{1}{(2\pi)^d} \int f(|k|^2) dk.$$

This theorem is also true for the Neumann Laplacian, though the proof is more involved.

Remark. In the case $\mu = 0$, in the explicit proof of Theorem 2.1 one has found

$$\langle \mathcal{N} \rangle_{L,0} = \sum_{\lambda_i} \frac{1}{e^{\beta\lambda_i} - 1}.$$

One can observe there is a diverging problem when $\lambda_{\min} = 0$. However, omitting 0 as an eigenvalue, one still has the wanted convergence to $\rho_c = \rho(0)$, which is explained in the following theorem.

Theorem 2.4. *Denoting $(\lambda_i^L)_i$ the eigenvalues of one of the three considered Laplacians $(-\Delta)_{|L\Omega}$, and omitting the zero one if any, one has the convergence*

$$\frac{1}{|L\Omega|} \sum_{\lambda_i > 0} \frac{1}{e^{\beta\lambda_i^L} - 1} \xrightarrow[L \rightarrow +\infty]{} \frac{1}{(2\pi)^d} \int \frac{dk}{e^{\beta k^2} - 1} = \rho_c.$$

Proof. Let us denote

$$\rho_L^*(\mu) = \frac{1}{|L\Omega|} \sum_{\lambda_i > 0} \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\lambda_i^L - \mu)} - 1}.$$

For all $L > 0$, as $\rho_L^*(\mu)$ is increasing,

$$\forall \mu < 0, \rho_L^*(\mu) \leq \rho_L^*(0).$$

By continuity and Theorem 2.1, $\rho_c \leq \liminf_{L \rightarrow \infty} \rho_L^*(0)$. Thus, it remains to show that $\limsup_{L \rightarrow \infty} \rho_L^*(0) \leq \rho_c$. When Ω is a hypercube, this convergence is simply a Riemann convergence, exactly as in the explicit proof of Theorem 2.1.

For the Dirichlet Laplacian,

$$\rho_L^*(0) = \frac{1}{|L\Omega|} \text{tr}(f(-\Delta_{L\Omega})).$$

In this case, one can prove and use the Li-Yau Lemma to prove the result. For a fixed $L > 0$, as $f : x \mapsto \frac{1}{e^{\beta(x-\mu)} - 1}$ is convex on \mathbb{R}_+^* , and denoting ϕ_i the eigenfunctions of $(-\Delta)_{L\Omega}$, one has by Jensen's inequality

$$\begin{aligned} \text{tr}_{\mathbb{L}^2(L\Omega)}(f(-\Delta)_{L\Omega}) &= \sum_i f(\langle \phi_i, -\Delta \phi_i \rangle) = \sum_i f\left(\int_{\mathbb{R}^d} |k|^2 |\hat{\phi}_i(k)|^2 dk\right) \\ &\leq \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(|k|^2) \left[\sum_i |\hat{\phi}_i(k)|^2\right] dk \\ &\leq \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(|k|^2) \left[\sum_i \left|\int_{L\Omega} \frac{\phi_i(x) e^{-ik \cdot x}}{(2\pi)^{\frac{d}{2}}} dx\right|^2\right] dk \\ &\leq \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(|k|^2) \left\| \frac{e^{+ik \cdot x}}{(2\pi)^{\frac{d}{2}}} \right\|_{\mathbb{L}^2}^2 dk = \frac{|L\Omega|}{(2\pi)^d} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(|k|^2) dk. \end{aligned}$$

One may propose another method that works for both Dirichlet and Neumann Laplacians, using Theorem 2.3. The idea of the proof is to decompose the function $f : x \mapsto \frac{1}{e^x - 1}$ into a part around 0 and a part which is not perturbed by the singularity of f , and to control the perturbation around 0. To that extent, let us consider $\chi \in C^\infty(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R}^+)$ that is equal to 1 on $[-1/4, 1/4]$ and to 0 on $\mathbb{R} \setminus]-1/2, 1/2[$. For every $0 < \varepsilon < 1$, let us denote $\chi_\varepsilon : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+, x \mapsto \chi\left(\frac{|x|}{\varepsilon}\right)$. Let us control the singularity around 0, denoted by

$$S_\varepsilon^L = \frac{1}{|L\Omega|} \sum_{\lambda_i > 0} \chi_\varepsilon(\beta \lambda_i^L) f(\beta \lambda_i^L).$$

One has

$$S_\varepsilon^L = \frac{1}{|L\Omega|} \sum_{\lambda_i > 0} \frac{\chi_\varepsilon(\beta \lambda_i^L)}{e^{\beta \lambda_i^L} - 1} \leq \frac{1}{|L\Omega|} \sum_{\lambda_i > 0} \frac{\chi_\varepsilon(\beta \lambda_i^L)}{\beta \lambda_i^L} \leq \sum_{2^{-(k+1)} \leq \varepsilon/2} 2^{k+1} \frac{\#\{2^{-(k+1)} \leq \beta \lambda_i^L < 2^{-k}\}}{|L\Omega|}.$$

On the one hand, by Theorem 2.3 and its proof, there exists a constant $C > 0$ such that

$$\frac{\#\{2^{-(k+1)} \leq \beta \lambda_i^L < 2^{-k}\}}{|L\Omega|} \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow +\infty} C \left(2^{\frac{-kd}{2}} - 2^{\frac{-(k+1)d}{2}}\right).$$

On the other hand, $2^{-(k_0+1)} < \varepsilon/2$ is equivalent to $k_0 \geq -(\ln \varepsilon)/\ln 2$. Thus, one can get

$$\limsup_{L \rightarrow \infty} S_\varepsilon^L \leq C 2^{-k_0(\frac{d}{2}-1)} \leq C \varepsilon^{\frac{d}{2}-1}. \quad (8)$$

Eventually, one can decompose the density as

$$\forall \varepsilon \in]0, 1[, \forall L > 0, \rho_L^*(0) = \frac{1}{|L\Omega|} \sum_{\lambda_i > 0} \chi_\varepsilon(\beta \lambda_i^L) f(\beta \lambda_i^L) + \frac{1}{|L\Omega|} \sum_{\lambda_i > 0} (1 - \chi_\varepsilon(\beta \lambda_i^L)) f(\beta \lambda_i^L).$$

As $f(1 - \chi_\varepsilon)$ is continuous, one can apply Theorem 2.3 to get

$$\frac{1}{|L\Omega|} \sum_{\lambda_i > 0} f(\beta\lambda_i^L)(1 - \chi_\varepsilon(\beta\lambda_i^L)) \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow +\infty} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} (1 - \chi_\varepsilon(|k|^2)) f(|k|^2) dk,$$

and one gets (8):

$$\forall \varepsilon \in]0, 1[, \limsup_{L \rightarrow \infty} \rho_L^*(0) \leq C\varepsilon^{\frac{d}{2}-1} + \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} (1 - \chi_\varepsilon(|k|^2)) f(|k|^2) dk.$$

The result is deduced by taking the limit $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ and using the dominated convergence theorem. □

2.2 Condensation at fixed density: grand canonical case

This second main theorem is about the convergence of the grand canonical first density matrix, in the same way as in the first theorem, though fixing the density ρ instead of the chemical potential.

Thus this time, one will observe an alternative based on the value of the density, compared to a critical value $\rho_c(\beta)$ depending on the temperature: for high densities (or low temperatures), this represents the Bose–Einstein condensation. As stated in the introduction, this phenomenon corresponds exactly to the definition given by Penrose and Onsager [1]: denoting by $\gamma_L^{(1)}$ the first density matrix defined on the open set $L\Omega$, one will effectively notice that the first eigenvalue of $\gamma_L^{(1)}$ is asymptotically of order L^d .

Theorem 2.5. Bose–Einstein Condensation in the grand canonical formalism

Let $\rho > 0$ be fixed. For each $L \in \mathbb{R}^+$, let us consider $\mu_L < \lambda_{\min}^L$ such that $\frac{\langle \mathcal{N} \rangle_{L, \mu_L}}{|L\Omega|} = \rho$. Then, denoting $\rho_c = \rho(0) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^d} \int \frac{dk}{e^{\beta k^2} - 1} \in \overline{\mathbb{R}^+}$, one has the following alternative:

If $\rho \leq \rho_c$, then $\mu_L \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow +\infty} \mu < 0$ uniquely defined by $\rho(\mu) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^d} \int \frac{dk}{e^{\beta(k^2 - \mu)} - 1} = \rho$.

Moreover, as in Theorem 2.1,

$$\forall \varphi \in \mathbb{L}^2(\mathbb{R}^d), \gamma_{L, \mu_L}^{(1)}(\chi_{L\Omega}\varphi) \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow \infty} \gamma_{gas}^{(1)}(\mu)\varphi = \frac{1}{e^{\beta(-\Delta - \mu)} - 1}\varphi.$$

If $\rho > \rho_c$, ($d \geq 3$) then $\mu_L \rightarrow_{L \rightarrow \infty} 0$ with the behavior

$$\mu_L \underset{L \rightarrow \infty}{\sim} \lambda_{\min}^{L\Omega} - \frac{1}{\beta|L\Omega|(\rho - \rho_c)}.$$

Moreover, denoting e_{\min} the state of lowest energy (non-degenerate by Perron–Frobenius theorem), one has

$$\left\langle \phi, \left(\gamma_{L, \mu_L}^{(1)} - |L\Omega| \cdot (\rho - \rho_c) |e_{\min}\rangle \langle e_{\min}| \right) (\chi_{L\Omega} \psi) \right\rangle \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow +\infty} \langle \phi, \gamma_{gas}^{(1)}(0) \psi \rangle$$

for all $\phi, \psi \in \mathcal{Q}\left(\frac{1}{e^{\beta\Delta} - 1}\right)$ the domain of the quadratic form associated to this operator.

Remarks. 1. One can see that in the case $\rho > \rho_c$, the convergence is weaker than in the previous theorems. One shall see in the proof, in the case of periodic boundary conditions, the reasons of this choice.

2. For a fixed L , $\rho_L(\mu) = \frac{\langle \mathcal{N} \rangle_{L, \mu}}{|L\Omega|} = \frac{\text{tr}(\gamma_{L, \mu}^{(1)})}{|L\Omega|} = \frac{1}{|L\Omega|} \sum_i \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\lambda_i - \mu)} - 1}$, is continuous as a function of μ , from $(-\infty, \lambda_{\min})$ reaching \mathbb{R}_+^* , which allows one to choose $\mu_L < \lambda_{\min}^L$ in the statement of the theorem, by the intermediate value theorem.

3. The phenomenon described in this theorem is known as *Bose–Einstein condensation*. Indeed, for a small density, the particles constitute a translation invariant gas in all space, as described in Theorem 2.1. However, when the particle density surpasses the critical density ρ_c , which represents kind of a gas saturation, then all the surplus bosons (of which number is $|L\Omega| \cdot [\rho - \rho_c]$) are condensing in the same single state, which is the one of lowest energy.

In the case of dimensions 1 or 2, ρ_c is infinite, so that condensation never occurs. In dimension 3 or higher, ρ_c is finite and one can observe a condensation at high densities.

Proof. For one of the three Laplacians studied here (Dirichet, Neumann or periodic), let us denote its eigenvectors and eigenvalues by $(-\Delta)|_{L\Omega} e_i = \lambda_i e_i$, with $\lambda_i \geq 0$, $\lambda_i \rightarrow_{i \rightarrow \infty} +\infty$, and $\lambda_i = \lambda_i^{L\Omega} = \lambda_i^\Omega / L^2$.

Case $\rho < \rho_c$. As $\rho(\mu)$ is increasing with μ , for all $\varepsilon > 0$ small enough, there exists

$$\mu_\varepsilon^- < 0 \text{ such that } \rho(\mu_\varepsilon^-) = \rho - \varepsilon \text{ and } \mu_\varepsilon^+ < 0 \text{ such that } \rho(\mu_\varepsilon^+) = \rho + \varepsilon.$$

Hence, for all $L > 0$,

$$\lim_{\ell \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{\ell^d |\Omega|} \sum_i \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\lambda_i - \mu_\varepsilon^-)} - 1} < \rho = \frac{1}{L^d |\Omega|} \sum_i \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\lambda_i - \mu_L)} - 1} < \lim_{\ell \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{\ell^d |\Omega|} \sum_i \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\lambda_i - \mu_\varepsilon^+)} - 1}.$$

Thus, there exists $L_\varepsilon > 0$ such that for all $L \geq L_\varepsilon$,

$$\frac{1}{L^d |\Omega|} \sum_i \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\lambda_i - \mu_\varepsilon^-)} - 1} < \frac{1}{L^d |\Omega|} \sum_i \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\lambda_i - \mu_L)} - 1} < \frac{1}{L^d |\Omega|} \sum_i \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\lambda_i - \mu_\varepsilon^+)} - 1}.$$

Therefore for all $L \geq L_\varepsilon$, one has $\mu_\varepsilon^- < \mu_L < \mu_\varepsilon^+$, which implies that μ_L converges to μ . For $\varphi \in \mathbb{L}^1$, one has

$$\left\| \gamma_{L, \mu_L}^{(1)} \varphi - \gamma_{gas}^{(1)}(\mu) \varphi \right\| \leq \left\| \gamma_{L, \mu_L}^{(1)} \varphi - \gamma_{L, \mu}^{(1)} \varphi \right\| + \left\| \gamma_{L, \mu}^{(1)} \varphi - \gamma_{gas}^{(1)}(\mu) \varphi \right\|.$$

The second term converges to 0 by Theorem 2.1, and the first term also converges to 0 since $\mu_L \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow \infty} \mu < 0$ and because the functions $f_k(x) = \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\lambda_k - x)} - 1}$ are uniformly differentiable enough with k . Indeed, on an interval $[\mu - \varepsilon, \mu + \varepsilon] \subset \mathbb{R}_-$,

$$f'_k(x) = \frac{\beta e^{\beta(\lambda_k - x)}}{(e^{\beta(\lambda_k - x)} - 1)^2} \leq \frac{\beta e^{\beta(\lambda_k - \mu + \varepsilon)}}{(e^{\beta(\lambda_k - \mu - \varepsilon)} - 1)^2} \xrightarrow{\lambda_k \rightarrow +\infty} 0,$$

so that, by continuity in $\lambda_k \geq 0$ and Taylor's inequality,

$$\exists M \geq 0 : \forall (x, y) \in [\mu - \varepsilon, \mu + \varepsilon]^2, \forall k, |f_k(x) - f_k(y)| \leq M|x - y|.$$

For L large enough so that $\mu_L \in [\mu - \varepsilon, \mu + \varepsilon]$, one has

$$\left\| \gamma_{L, \mu_L}^{(1)} \varphi - \gamma_{L, \mu}^{(1)} \varphi \right\| = \sqrt{\sum_i \left| \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\lambda_i - \mu_L)} - 1} - \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\lambda_i - \mu)} - 1} \right|^2 \cdot |\langle \varphi, e_i \rangle|^2} \leq M|\mu - \mu_L| \cdot \|\phi\|_{\mathbb{L}^2} \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow +\infty} 0.$$

□

Case $\rho > \rho_c$ (only for dimensions higher or equal to 3).

For all $L > 0$, one has

$$\rho = \frac{1}{|L\Omega|} \sum_i \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\lambda_i - \mu_L)} - 1} = \frac{1}{|L\Omega|} \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\lambda_{\min} - \mu_L)} - 1} + \frac{1}{|L\Omega|} \sum_{i > i_{\min}} \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\lambda_i - \mu_L)} - 1}. \quad (9)$$

Denoting

$$\rho_L^{(0)} = \rho_L^{(0)}(\mu_L) = \frac{1}{|L\Omega|} \sum_{i > i_{\min}} \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\lambda_i - \mu_L)} - 1}, \quad (10)$$

the key point of the proof is to show that $\rho_L^{(0)} \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow \infty} \rho_c$, since then one will asymptotically have

$$\frac{1}{e^{\beta(\lambda_{\min} - \mu_L)} - 1} \underset{L \rightarrow \infty}{\sim} |L\Omega| \cdot (\rho - \rho_c).$$

One will see that the proof is different depending on whether the lowest eigenvalue λ_{\min} is zero or not. In the two cases, one will separately study the limits inferior and superior of $\rho_L^{(0)}$.

In the case $\lambda_{\min} > 0$, let us start by showing that $\mu_L \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow +\infty} 0^+$. If $\limsup \mu_L < 0$, one has

$$\rho_c < \rho = \frac{1}{|L\Omega|} \sum_i \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\lambda_i - \mu_L)} - 1} \leq \rho(\mu_L) \leq \rho(0) = \rho_c,$$

(in the first inequality one has used the fact that pseudo-Riemann approximation of a radial convex function is made by below, and in the second one the fact that $\rho(\mu)$ is increasing) which leads to a contradiction, so $0 \leq \mu_L < \lambda_{\min}^L \rightarrow 0$. Now, for all $L > 0$, as $\rho_L^{(0)}(\mu)$ is increasing, one has

$$\rho_L^{(0)} \geq \rho_L^{(0)}(0) = \rho_L(0) - \frac{1}{|L\Omega| (e^{\beta\lambda_{\min}^L} - 1)} \geq \rho_L(0) - \frac{L^2}{L^d |\Omega| \beta \lambda_{\min}^\Omega},$$

therefore, by Theorem 2.4, $\liminf_{L \rightarrow \infty} \rho_L^{(0)} \geq \rho_c$.

It remains to show that $\limsup_{L \rightarrow \infty} \rho_L^{(0)} \leq \rho_c$. Denoting

$$\rho_L^{(k)}(\mu) = \frac{1}{|L\Omega|} \sum_{i>k} \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\lambda_i^L - \mu)} - 1},$$

as $\mu_L < \lambda_{\min}$ one has

$$\forall k > i_{\min}, \frac{1}{|L\Omega|} \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\lambda_k - \mu_L)} - 1} \leq \frac{1}{|L\Omega|} \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\lambda_k - \lambda_{\min})} - 1} \leq \frac{L^2}{L^d |\Omega| \beta (\lambda_k^\Omega - \lambda_{\min}^\Omega)} \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow +\infty} 0. \quad (11)$$

So the only eigenvalue that contributes to the density is the lowest, λ_{\min} . This way, one has

$$\forall k > i_{\min}, \limsup_{L \rightarrow \infty} \rho_L^{(0)} = \limsup_{L \rightarrow \infty} \rho_L^{(k)}(\mu_L).$$

To study $\rho_L^{(k)}(\mu)$, let us introduce $z = e^{\beta\mu} \in (0, e^{\beta\lambda_{\min}})$. One can write

$$\rho_L^{(k)}(\mu) = \frac{1}{|L\Omega|} \sum_{i>k} \frac{ze^{-\beta\lambda_i}}{1 - ze^{-\beta\lambda_i}},$$

and can easily check that $\rho_L^{(k)}$ is convex as a function of z , with $\frac{\partial \rho_L^{(k)}}{\partial z}(\mu) \leq \frac{\rho_L^{(k)}(\mu)}{z(1 - ze^{-\beta\lambda_k})}$, so that for $\mu_1 < \mu_2$ (i.e. $z_1 < z_2$),

$$\frac{\rho_L^{(k)}(\mu_1) - \rho_L^{(k)}(\mu_2)}{z_1 - z_2} \leq \frac{\rho_L^{(k)}(\mu_2)}{z_2(1 - z_2 e^{-\beta\lambda_k})}. \quad (12)$$

Therefore, for $1 < z_L$ (i.e. $\mu_L > 0$) one has

$$\frac{\rho_L^{(k)}(\mu_L) - \rho_L^{(k)}(0)}{z_L - 1} \leq \frac{\rho_L(\mu_L)}{z_L(1 - z_L e^{-\beta\lambda_k})},$$

which is equivalent to

$$\rho_L^{(k)}(\mu_L) \leq \rho_L^{(k)}(0) \frac{z_L(1 - z_L e^{-\beta\lambda_k})}{1 - z_L^2 e^{-\beta\lambda_k}}.$$

Hence, one eventually gets

$$\rho_L^{(k)}(\mu_L) \leq \rho_L(0) \times \frac{z_L^{-1} - e^{-\beta\lambda_k}}{z_L^{-2} - e^{-\beta\lambda_k}}.$$

Using the fact that $1 \leq z_L \leq e^{\beta\lambda_{\min}}$ and by some convexity inequalities, one can deduce that

$$\rho_L^{(k)}(\mu_L) \leq \rho_L(0) \frac{1 - e^{-\beta\lambda_k}}{e^{-2\beta\lambda_{\min}} - e^{-\beta\lambda_k}} \leq \rho_L(0) \frac{\beta\lambda_k}{e^{-\beta\lambda_k} \beta(\lambda_k - 2\lambda_{\min})} = \rho_L(0) \frac{e^{\beta\lambda_k^{\Omega}/L^2}}{1 - 2\frac{\lambda_{\min}^{\Omega}}{\lambda_k^{\Omega}}}.$$

Thus, one gets

$$\limsup_{L \rightarrow \infty} \rho_L^{(0)} = \limsup_{L \rightarrow \infty} \rho_L^{(k)}(\mu_L) \leq \frac{\rho_c}{1 - 2\frac{\lambda_{\min}^{\Omega}}{\lambda_k^{\Omega}}},$$

which yields the result as the left side does not depend on k and as $\lambda_k^{\Omega} \rightarrow +\infty$.

One has shown that $\rho_L^{(0)} \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow +\infty} \rho_c$, which means that

$$\frac{1}{|L\Omega|} \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\lambda_{\min} - \mu_L)} - 1} \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow +\infty} \rho - \rho_c.$$

In particular, this provides the equivalent

$$\mu_L \underset{L \rightarrow \infty}{\sim} \lambda_{\min}^{L\Omega} - \frac{1}{\beta|L\Omega| \cdot (\rho - \rho_c)}.$$

In the case $\lambda_{\min} = 0$, implying $\mu_L < 0$, Theorem 2.4 provides

$$\rho_L^{(0)}(0) = \frac{1}{|L\Omega|} \sum_{i > i_{\min}} \frac{1}{e^{\beta\lambda_i^L} - 1} \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow +\infty} \rho_c,$$

which implies that asymptotically, $\rho_L^{(0)} \leq \rho_L^{(0)}(0) \leq \frac{\rho_c + \rho}{2} < \rho$, i.e.

$$\exists \eta > 0, L_0 > 0 : (L > L_0) \Rightarrow \rho - \rho_L^{(0)} > \eta.$$

Thus, since

$$\frac{1}{|L\Omega|} \frac{1}{e^{-\beta\mu_L} - 1} = \rho - \rho_L^{(0)} (> 0),$$

one has, for $L > L_0$,

$$\mu_L = -\frac{1}{\beta} \ln \left(\frac{1}{|L\Omega|(\rho - \rho_L^{(0)})} + 1 \right) > -\frac{1}{\beta} \ln \left(\frac{1}{\eta|L\Omega|} + 1 \right), \quad (13)$$

thus $\mu_L \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow +\infty} 0^-$. Now, using $\rho_L^{(0)} \leq \rho_L^{(0)}(0)$, and Theorem 2.4, one obtains $\limsup_{L \rightarrow \infty} \rho_L^{(0)} \leq \rho_c$.

As in the case $\lambda_{\min} > 0$, one can use the convexity inequality (12) but for $z_L < 1$, which yields

$$\frac{\rho_L^{(0)}(0) - \rho_L^{(0)}(\mu_L)}{1 - z_L} \leq \frac{\rho_L^{(0)}(0)}{1 - e^{-\beta\lambda_1}},$$

that is,

$$\rho_L^{(0)} \geq \rho_L^{(0)}(0) \left[1 - \frac{1 - z_L}{1 - e^{-\beta\lambda_1^\Omega/L^2}} \right].$$

Therefore, as inequality (13) implies that asymptotically $1 - z_L < \frac{1}{\eta|L\Omega|} = \frac{1}{\eta L^d |\Omega|}$, one obtains

$$\liminf_{L \rightarrow \infty} \rho_L^{(0)} \geq \rho_c.$$

Let us now study the second part, that is the **weak convergence of $\gamma_{L,\mu_L}^{(1)}$** . As announced in the first remark following the statement of the theorem, one can see in the **case of the periodic boundary conditions** that for $\phi, \psi \in \mathbb{L}^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$,

$$\langle \phi, \gamma_{L,\mu}^{(1)} \psi \rangle = \left(\frac{2\pi}{L} \right)^d \frac{\widehat{\psi}(0) \widehat{\phi}(0)}{e^{-\beta\mu_L} - 1} + \left(\frac{2\pi}{L} \right)^d \sum_{k \in \frac{2\pi}{L} \mathbb{Z}^d \setminus \{0\}} \frac{\widehat{\psi}(k) \widehat{\phi}(k)}{e^{\beta(k^2 - \mu_L)} - 1}.$$

Thus, to get the convergence of the second term to $\int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \frac{\widehat{\psi}(k) \widehat{\phi}(k)}{e^{\beta k^2 - 1}} dk$ by Riemann convergence, one will need additional conditions on ψ and ϕ . Let us remind the domains of the considered operators and of its quadratic form:

$$\mathcal{D} \left(\frac{1}{e^{\beta\Delta} - 1} \right) = \mathcal{D} \left(\frac{1}{-\Delta} \right) = \left\{ \phi \in \mathbb{L}^2(\mathbb{R}^d) \left| \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \frac{|\widehat{\phi}(k)|^2}{|k|^4} dk < \infty \right. \right\},$$

and

$$\mathcal{Q} \left(\frac{1}{e^{\beta\Delta} - 1} \right) = \mathcal{Q} \left(\frac{1}{-\Delta} \right) = \left\{ \phi \in \mathbb{L}^2(\mathbb{R}^d) \left| \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \frac{|\widehat{\phi}(k)|^2}{|k|^2} dk < \infty \right. \right\}.$$

First, one can see that in dimension $d = 3$ any function $\phi \in \mathcal{D} \left(\frac{1}{e^{\beta\Delta} - 1} \right)$ verifies $\langle \phi, e_0 \rangle = \widehat{\phi}(0) = 0$, so this function ϕ would be orthogonal to the condensate: one thus needs to focus on a smaller domain, for example the domain of the quadratic form. This implies that the interesting convergences one can get are only convergences of the inner product, weaker, and not convergences of the norm.

Hence, for $\phi, \psi \in \mathcal{Q} \left(\frac{1}{e^{\beta\Delta} - 1} \right)$, by Riemann approximation of a finite integral and the squeeze theorem, the wanted convergence and the case of periodic boundary conditions are proved.

In the **case of Neumann boundary conditions**, on $L\Omega$, let us consider the restriction of the Neumann Laplacian to the orthogonal space $\text{Vect}(e_{\min})^\perp$, denoted $(-\Delta)_\perp$ and allowing to define $(-\Delta)_\perp^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ on the domain of the quadratic form. Thus, for $\phi, \psi \in \mathcal{Q} \left(\frac{1}{e^{\beta\Delta} - 1} \right)$,

$$\langle \phi, \gamma_{L,\mu_L}^{(1)} \psi \rangle = \frac{\langle \phi, e_{\min} \rangle \langle e_{\min}, \psi \rangle}{e^{\beta\mu_L} - 1} + \left\langle (-\Delta)_\perp^{-\frac{1}{2}} \phi, (-\Delta)_\perp \gamma_{L,\mu_L}^{(1)} (-\Delta)_\perp^{-\frac{1}{2}} \psi \right\rangle.$$

In fact, when one writes $(-\Delta)_\perp^{-\frac{1}{2}} \psi$ for ψ defined on \mathbb{R}^d in the previous equation, it means that one considers the Laplacian applied to the restriction of ψ to $L\Omega$: $(-\Delta)_\perp^{-\frac{1}{2}} \chi_{L\Omega} \psi$. Hence, as $x \mapsto \frac{x}{e^x - 1}$ is continuous on \mathbb{R}^+ , one can apply Theorem 2.2 to get the convergence of the second term to

$$\left\langle (-\Delta)_\perp^{-\frac{1}{2}} \phi, (-\Delta) \gamma_{gas}^{(1)}(0) (-\Delta)_\perp^{-\frac{1}{2}} \psi \right\rangle = \left\langle \phi, \gamma_{gas}^{(1)}(0) \psi \right\rangle,$$

assuming that $(-\Delta)_\perp^{-\frac{1}{2}} \chi_{L\Omega} \psi \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow \infty} (-\Delta)^{-\frac{1}{2}} \psi$. First of all, the Laplacian over \mathbb{R}^d is orthogonal to e_{\min} that is constant, thus not in $\mathbb{L}^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$.

Then, this convergence is deduced using the Green function of the considered Laplacian, i.e. its kernel, the function G_L (see for example the article by Lieb-Simon [9]) such that

$$\forall \phi \in \mathcal{Q} \left(\frac{1}{e^{\beta\Delta} - 1} \right), (-\Delta)_\perp^{-\frac{1}{2}} \chi_{L\Omega} \phi = \int_{L\Omega} G_L(x, y) \phi(y) dy.$$

Explicitly, for (ϕ_k) an orthonormal basis of eigenvectors of $(-\Delta)_\perp^\Omega$, for all $L > 0$,

$$G_L(x, y) = \sum_i \frac{L}{\sqrt{\lambda_i^\Omega}} \cdot \frac{\phi_k\left(\frac{x}{L}\right) \overline{\phi_k\left(\frac{y}{L}\right)}}{L^d} = L^{1-d} G_\Omega\left(\frac{x}{L}, \frac{y}{L}\right).$$

Then, the behavior of $G_L(x, y)$ asymptotically is linked to the behavior of $G_\Omega(x, y)$ around 0. This kind of approximation exists in the literature and may be, for example, found tardily in the article by Chen-Kim-Song [10], coming after Widman [11], for instance: for $L \rightarrow \infty$, around any interior point,

$$G_\Omega\left(\frac{x}{L}, \frac{y}{L}\right) \sim \frac{L^{d-1}}{|x-y|^{d-1}}. \quad (14)$$

Thus, $G_L(x, y)$ behaves asymptotically as $\frac{1}{|x-y|^{d-1}}$ which is exactly the Green function of $(-\Delta)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ over the whole space, which is enough to deduce the wanted convergence and conclude the proof.

To briefly explain equation (14), one may propose a very simple proof in the case of the Laplacian, inspired by the 6th section of Lieb-Simon article [9], using only the definition of G :

$$(-\Delta_x) \left(G(x, y) - \frac{1}{|x-y|^{d-2}} \right) = 4\pi\delta(x-y) - 4\pi\delta(x-y) = 0,$$

so that the difference is harmonic and so \mathcal{C}^∞ , which proves the result.

In the case of the Dirichlet Laplacian, the proof is similar, and even simpler since all the Laplacian eigenvalues are already positive. This concludes the proof of Theorem 2.5. \square

To conclude this first part about the grand canonical formalism, one has exhibited the critical density

$$\rho_c = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^d} \int \frac{d\xi}{e^{\beta|\xi|^2} - 1}$$

which represents the Bose gas saturation, above which occurs the condensation of all surplus particles, in the state of lowest energy. The considerate operators converges strongly when no condensation occurs, and weakly otherwise to

$$\gamma_{gas}^{(1)}(0) = \frac{1}{e^{\beta\Delta} - 1},$$

which describes the saturated gas when condensation occurs.

In the following part, one studies what happens in the canonical formalism.

2.3 Condensation at fixed density: canonical case

Our third main theorem is the canonical equivalent of the second one. Its proof uses the grand canonical theorem to a large degree. Now the first density matrix has no closed form anymore, which makes it harder to study, but thankfully there exist some relations between both representations, which allow one to prove the following theorem.

Theorem 2.6. Bose–Einstein Condensation in the canonical formalism

Let $\bar{\rho} > 0$ be fixed. For each $L \in \mathbb{R}^+$, let us denote $N_L = \bar{\rho} \times |L\Omega|$ when it is a integer. Let $\gamma_{L,N_L}^{(1)}$ denote the density matrix $\gamma_{\Gamma_n}^{(1)}$ on the domain $L\Omega$ with Ω piecewise- \mathcal{C}^∞ with a zero-measure boundary [see (3)]. In the case of periodic boundary conditions, Ω is a hypercube of volume 1. Then, denoting $\rho_c = \rho(0) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^d} \int \frac{dk}{e^{\beta k^2} - 1} \in [0, \infty]$, one has the following alternative:

If $\bar{\rho} \leq \rho_c$, then for $\phi, \psi \in \mathbb{L}^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$,

$$\langle \phi, \gamma_{L,N_L}^{(1)}(\chi_{L\Omega}\psi) \rangle \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow \infty} \langle \phi, \gamma_{gas}^{(1)}(\mu)\psi \rangle = \langle \phi, \frac{1}{e^{\beta(-\Delta-\mu)} - 1} \psi \rangle,$$

where $\mu < 0$ is uniquely defined by $\rho(\mu) = \bar{\rho}$.

If $\bar{\rho} > \rho_c$, denoting e_{\min} the state of lowest energy, one has

$$\langle \phi, \left(\gamma_{L,N_L}^{(1)} - |L\Omega| \cdot (\bar{\rho} - \rho_c) |e_{\min}\rangle \langle e_{\min}| \right) (\chi_{L\Omega}\psi) \rangle \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow +\infty} \langle \phi, \gamma_{gas}^{(1)}(0)\psi \rangle$$

for all $\phi, \psi \in \mathbb{L}^1 \cap \mathbb{L}^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$.

Remark. One can see that in the case $\rho > \rho_c$ this theorem is very similar to the previous Theorem 2.5 about the grand canonical case. However, the tools used in the following proof provide a weaker convergence than in Theorem 2.5 for both cases $\rho < \rho_c$ and $\rho > \rho_c$.

Proof. As this theorem is very similar to the precedent one concerning the grand canonical case, one will start by relating both representations. First of all, the canonical average occupation number of the i -th state $\langle e_i, \gamma^{(1)} e_i \rangle$, denoted $\langle n_i \rangle_\rho^c$, is locally bounded for $i > 0$ since it may be controlled by its value in the grand canonical ensemble, which is explicit and has been studied before (see th. 2.5 and its proof). Indeed, one has the following result that can be found in a recent article by Deuchert, Seiringer and Yngvason [12].

Lemma 2.1. At a given $\bar{\rho} > 0$, for a fixed $\mu < 0$ such that $\bar{N}_\mu = \sum_{N \geq 0} N \langle P_N \rangle_{\mu,L}^{g.c.} \in \mathbb{N}$, one has

$$\langle n_i \rangle_{\bar{N}_\mu, L}^c \leq 25 \langle n_i \rangle_{\mu, L}^{g.c.}$$

Proof. First of all, let us state a preliminary lemma, containing two common results that may be found for example in an article written by Lewis, Zagrebnov and Pulé [13] in 1988 for the first one, and in a recent article of András Sütö [14] for the second one. Its proof is presented in the appendix (p. 26).

Lemma 2.2. *The map $N \mapsto Z_N$ is log-concave, i.e. $\forall N \geq 1, Z_{N+1}Z_{N-1} \leq Z_N^2$. Moreover, for all non-decreasing map $f : \mathbb{N} \mapsto \mathbb{R}^+$ and for all $i \in \mathbb{N}$, the map $N \mapsto \langle f(n_i) \rangle_N^c$ is non-decreasing.*

By the monotonicity of $\langle n_i \rangle_N^c$, omitting the subscript μ in the notation \bar{N}_μ , one has

$$\langle n_i \rangle_{\mu,L}^{g.c.} = \sum_{N \geq 0} \langle P_N \rangle_{\mu,L}^{g.c.} \langle n_i \rangle_{N,L}^c \geq \langle n_i \rangle_{\bar{N},L}^c \sum_{N \geq \bar{N}} \langle P_N \rangle_{\mu,L}^{g.c.}$$

Now, one has to study the distribution $(\langle P_N \rangle_{\mu,L}^{g.c.})_N$ inducing a probability measure \mathbb{P} such that

$$\mathbb{P}(N \geq \bar{N}) = \sum_{N \geq \bar{N}} \langle P_N \rangle_{\mu,L}^{g.c.}$$

It is proved in [12, Lemma A.1] that one has the following relation between the moments of N :

$$\sum_{N \geq 0} \langle P_N \rangle_{\mu,L}^{g.c.} (N - \bar{N})^4 \leq 10 \left(\sum_{N \geq 0} \langle P_N \rangle_{\mu,L}^{g.c.} (N - \bar{N})^2 \right)^2.$$

Hence, let us introduce the random variable $X = \frac{N - \bar{N}}{\sqrt{\mathbb{E}[(N - \bar{N})^2]}}$ verifying $\begin{cases} \mathbb{E}[X] = 0 \\ \mathbb{E}[X^2] = 1 \\ \mathbb{E}[X^4] \leq 10 \end{cases}$.

Denoting by \mathbb{P}_X the probability induced by X on \mathbb{R} , and for any real function $f(x) = ax + bx^2 - dx^4$ such that $f \leq \chi_{\mathbb{R}^+}$ on \mathbb{R} , one has

$$\sum_{N \geq \bar{N}} \langle P_N \rangle_{\mu,L}^{g.c.} = \mathbb{P}(N \geq \bar{N}) = \mathbb{P}(X \geq 0) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \chi_{\mathbb{R}^+}(s) d\mathbb{P}_X(s) \geq \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(s) d\mathbb{P}_X(s) = b - \mathbb{E}[X^4]d.$$

When one optimizes explicitly the value of $(a, b, d) \in \mathbb{R}^3$ under the constraint $f \leq \chi_{\mathbb{R}^+}$ to get an optimal bound on $\mathbb{P}(N \geq \bar{N})$, one gets according to [12]

$$\sum_{N \geq \bar{N}} \langle P_N \rangle_{\mu,L}^{g.c.} \geq \frac{2\sqrt{3} - 3}{\mathbb{E}[X^4]} \geq \frac{2\sqrt{3} - 3}{10} \geq \frac{1}{25}.$$

For example, one may verify that $(a, b, d) = \left(\frac{0.533}{\sqrt{\mathbb{E}[X^4]}}, \frac{1.033}{\mathbb{E}[X^4]}, \frac{0.575}{\mathbb{E}[X^4]^2} \right)$ verifies the constraint and $b - \mathbb{E}[X^4]d \geq \frac{1.8}{4} \frac{1}{\mathbb{E}[X^4]} \geq \frac{1.8}{40} \geq \frac{1}{25}$.

□

Then, to prove the theorem, one quickly outlines two different proofs and details a bit more the second one.

Idea of a proof using the Kac density.

The first proof consists in relating further the canonical ensemble to the grand canonical ensemble, thanks to a relation due to Kac (15). For any $N \in \mathbb{N}$, one can define

$$P_N : \mathcal{F} = \bigotimes_{n \geq 0} \mathcal{H}_n \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_N$$

the projector of the grand canonical ensemble to the canonical ensemble containing N particles. Then, for any observable A , one has the following relation between the means in the grand canonical and canonical ensembles:

$$\langle A \rangle_{\bar{\rho}, L}^{g.c.} = \sum_{n \geq 0} \langle P_n \rangle_{\bar{\rho}, L}^{g.c.} \langle A \rangle_{\rho=n/V_L, L}^c.$$

Hence, denoting for all $\rho \in \mathbb{R}^+$

$$K_L^{\bar{\rho}}(\rho) = \sum_{n \geq 0} \langle P_n \rangle_{\bar{\rho}, L}^{g.c.} \times \delta\left(\rho - \frac{n}{V_L}\right)$$

where δ is the Dirac distribution at 0, and continuing linearly $\langle A \rangle_{\rho, L}^c$ for $\rho V_L \notin \mathbb{N}$, one can write

$$\langle A \rangle_{\bar{\rho}, L}^{g.c.} = \int_{\mathbb{R}^+} K_L^{\bar{\rho}}(\rho) \langle A \rangle_{\rho, L}^c. \quad (15)$$

The density $\rho \mapsto K_L^{\bar{\rho}}(\rho)$ is called the *Kac density at L* .

For a function $\phi \in \mathbb{L}^2$ under certain conditions, one can consider the Weyl observable $A = W(\phi) = \exp\left(i(a^\dagger(\phi) + a(\bar{\phi}))\right)$. Cannon has shown in 1972 [15] that its average value in the canonical ensemble $\langle W(\phi) \rangle_L^c$ behaves asymptotically like the one in the grand canonical ensemble $\langle W(\phi) \rangle_L^{g.c.}$. To prove this point, the first result is the following, due to Mark Kac, and whose proof is in the appendix (p. 28).

Lemma 2.3. . As $L \rightarrow \infty$, the Kac density Fourier transform $\hat{K}_L^{\bar{\rho}}(\xi)$ converges uniformly in ξ on bounded sets to $\hat{K}^{\bar{\rho}}(\xi) = \begin{cases} \frac{e^{i\xi\bar{\rho}}}{(2\pi)^{\frac{d}{2}}} & \text{if } \bar{\rho} \leq \rho_c \\ \frac{e^{i\xi\rho_c}}{(2\pi)^{\frac{d}{2}}(1 - (\bar{\rho} - \rho_c)i\xi)} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$. Hence, $K_L^{\bar{\rho}}(\rho)$ converges towards $\delta(\rho - \bar{\rho})$ if $\bar{\rho} \leq \rho_c$ and towards $\frac{\chi_{\rho \geq \rho_c}}{\bar{\rho} - \rho_c} \exp\left(-\frac{\rho - \rho_c}{\bar{\rho} - \rho_c}\right)$ otherwise.

Then, to be able to conclude about the convergence of the integral (15), the foremost point is to prove that the linear continuation of $\langle A \rangle_{\rho, L}^c$ converges towards a regular enough function. As one studies $A = W(\phi)$ the Weyl observable, $\langle A \rangle_{\rho, L}^c = \langle W(\phi) \rangle_{L, N_L}^c$ is continued for $\lambda \in [0, 1]$ as

$$\langle W(\phi) \rangle_{L, N_L + \lambda V_L}^c = (1 - \lambda) \langle W(\phi) \rangle_{L, N_L}^c + \langle W(\phi) \rangle_{L, N_L + 1}^c.$$

To show that the limit is continuous, one must show that $V_L \left[\langle W(\phi) \rangle_{L, N_L + 1}^c - \langle W(\phi) \rangle_{L, N_L}^c \right]$ is bounded, that is to say, locally in ρ , that $N_L \left[\langle W(\phi) \rangle_{L, N_L + 1}^c - \langle W(\phi) \rangle_{L, N_L}^c \right]$ is bounded. In other words, one must show that

$$\exists C \geq 0 : \forall N \in \mathbb{N}^*, \left| \langle W(\phi) \rangle_{L, N+1}^c - \langle W(\phi) \rangle_{L, N}^c \right| \leq \frac{C}{N}, \quad (16)$$

which is proved in [15]. Then, denoting $\Phi_L(\rho) = \langle W(\phi) \rangle_{\bar{\rho}, L}^c$, and for any $h \in \mathcal{C}_c^\infty(\mathbb{R}^+)$,

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_{\mathbb{R}^+} (K_L^{\bar{\rho}}(\rho) - K^{\bar{\rho}}(\rho)) h \Phi_L(\rho) d\rho \right| &= \left| \int_{\mathbb{R}} (\hat{K}_L^{\bar{\rho}}(\xi) - \hat{K}^{\bar{\rho}}(\xi)) \widehat{h\Phi}_L(\xi) d\xi \right| \\ &\leq \int_{-R}^R \left| \hat{K}_L^{\bar{\rho}}(-\xi) - \hat{K}^{\bar{\rho}}(-\xi) \right| |\widehat{h\Phi}_L(\xi)| d\xi + 2 \int_{|\xi| > R} |\widehat{h\Phi}_L(\xi)| d\xi. \end{aligned}$$

The first term may be dominated by the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality:

$$\int_{|\xi|>R} |\widehat{h\Phi}_L(\xi)| d\xi = \int_{|\xi|>R} \frac{(1+\xi)}{(1+\xi)} |\widehat{h\Phi}_L(\xi)| d\xi \leq \sqrt{\int_{|\xi|>R} \frac{d\xi}{(1+\xi)^2}} \sqrt{\int_{\mathbb{R}} (1+\xi)^2 |\widehat{h\Phi}_L(\xi)|^2 d\xi}.$$

Thus, it is arbitrary small for R large enough since the second factor is bounded in L by (16).

Then, since Φ_L is unitary, the first term is arbitrary small for L large enough, which proves the convergence of the integral, and eventually proves that $\langle W(\phi) \rangle_L^c$ behaves like $\langle W(\phi) \rangle_L^{g.c.}$ [15].

Once Cannon's result has been proved, one may study $G(t) = \langle e^{it(a^\dagger(\phi)+a(\bar{\phi}))} \rangle = \text{tr} \left[e^{it(a^\dagger(\phi)+a(\bar{\phi}))} \Gamma \right]$, of which one can control the derivatives

$$\begin{aligned} |\partial_t G(t)| &= \left| i \text{tr} \left[e^{it(a^\dagger(\phi)+a(\bar{\phi}))} (a^\dagger(\phi) + a(\bar{\phi})) \Gamma \right] \right| \\ &= \left| \text{tr} \left[e^{it(a^\dagger(\phi)+a(\bar{\phi}))} (a^\dagger(\phi) + a(\bar{\phi})) \sqrt{\Gamma} \sqrt{\Gamma} \right] \right| \\ &\leq \left(\|a^\dagger(\phi) \sqrt{\Gamma}\|_{\mathfrak{S}^2} + \|a(\bar{\phi}) \sqrt{\Gamma}\|_{\mathfrak{S}^2} \right) \|\sqrt{\Gamma}\|_{\mathfrak{S}^2} \\ &\leq 2\sqrt{\text{tr}(a^\dagger(\phi) \Gamma a(\bar{\phi}))} \|\sqrt{\Gamma}\|_{\mathfrak{S}^2} = 2\sqrt{\langle \phi, \gamma^{(1)} \phi \rangle} \|\sqrt{\Gamma}\|_{\mathfrak{S}^2}, \end{aligned}$$

and similarly at higher orders, thanks to the relation

$$\text{tr} \left(a^\dagger(\phi) \Gamma a^\dagger(\bar{\phi}) \right) = \text{tr} \left(a(\phi) \Gamma a(\bar{\phi}) \right) = 0,$$

because for any $\psi \in \mathcal{H}_n$, $\langle \psi, a^\dagger(\phi) \Gamma a^\dagger(\bar{\phi}) \psi \rangle = 0$ since the right function belongs to \mathcal{H}_{n+2} .

Finally, $G(t)$ is regular enough for its derivatives in 0 to provide information on $\langle \phi, \gamma^{(1)} \phi \rangle$ in the canonical ensemble compared to its grand canonical version, thanks to the convergence of $G(t)$ proved by Cannon within both representations. This allows to prove the theorem for $\phi = \psi$, from what one can deduce the general case by polarization.

Detailed proof using eigenvalues alteration.

For the second proof, which will be more detailed in this document than the first one (but only in the simpler case of periodic boundary conditions), let us consider the canonical free energy with an altered i -th energy level ($i > 0$) with a coefficient $t \geq 0$:

$$F_N^{[i]}(t) = -\log Z_N^{[i]}(t) = -\log \left(\sum_{|n|=N} n_i e^{-\beta \sum n_j (\lambda_j + \delta_{ij} t)} \right).$$

Remark: the true form of F_N is $-\frac{1}{\beta} \log Z_N$, but as this does not change most of the results, one will omit the factor $\frac{1}{\beta}$ most of the time. Then, its derivatives are

$$\partial_t F_N^{[i]}(t) = \frac{\sum_{|n|=N} n_i e^{-\beta \sum n_j (\lambda_j + \delta_{ij} t)}}{\sum_{|n|=N} e^{-\beta \sum n_j (\lambda_j + \delta_{ij} t)}} = \langle n_i \rangle_N^c(t),$$

and

$$\partial_t^2 F_N^{[i]}(t) = \frac{\sum_{|n|=N} n_i^2 e^{-\beta \sum n_j (\lambda_j + \delta_{ij} t)}}{\sum_{|n|=N} e^{-\beta \sum \lambda_j n_j}} - \left(\frac{\sum_{|n|=N} n_i e^{-\beta \sum n_j (\lambda_j + \delta_{ij} t)}}{\sum_{|n|=N} e^{-\beta \sum \lambda_j n_j}} \right)^2 = \langle n_i^2 \rangle_N^c(t) - \langle n_i(t) \rangle_N^c{}^2(t).$$

According to Lemma 2.2, as $n \mapsto n^2$ is increasing and positive, the map $N \mapsto \langle n_i^2 \rangle_N^c(t)$ is non-decreasing, which shows with the same proof as for Lemma 2.1 (p. 17) that

$$\langle n_i^2 \rangle_N^c(t) \leq 25 \langle n_i^2 \rangle_\mu^{g.c.}(t),$$

so that both two first derivatives of $F_N^{[i]}(t)$ are bounded in N for t around 0, since the grand canonical case is already known. This remains true for the canonical free energy with all its energy levels altered by a coefficient $t \geq 0$ and a certain bounded function $\check{A} : \mathbb{R}^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+, 0 \mapsto 0$:

$$\tilde{F}_N(t) = -\log \tilde{Z}_N(t) = -\log \sum_{|n|=N} \left(\sum_j n_j \check{A}(\lambda_j) \right) e^{-\beta \sum n_j [\lambda_j + t \check{A}(\lambda_j)]}.$$

In the case of periodic boundary conditions, as the eigenvalues are in the form $|k|^2$, $k \in \mathbb{R}^d$, one will rather choose $A : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ and consider the altered eigenvalues $|k|^2 + tA(k)$.

Henceforth, let us state certain results about the free energy in the grand canonical and the canonical ensembles, with altered eigenvalues. For a fixed $\mu < 0$, still denoting $(\lambda_k)_k$ the eigenvalues of the considered Laplacian, the explicit free energy in the grand canonical ensemble is given by

$$F_{\mu,L}^{g.c.} = \sum_k \log(1 - e^{-\beta(\lambda_k + \mu)}).$$

By Theorem 2.3, one already has the following convergence, defining the free energy per unit volume $f_\mu^{g.c.}$:

$$\frac{F_{\mu,L}^{g.c.}}{|L\Omega|} \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{1}{(2\pi)^d} \int \log(1 - e^{-\beta(|k|^2 - \mu)}) dk = f_\mu^{g.c.}, \quad (17)$$

which remains true considering altered energy levels:

$$\frac{\tilde{F}_{\mu,L}^{g.c.}}{|L\Omega|}(t) \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{1}{(2\pi)^d} \int \log(1 - e^{-\beta(|k|^2 + tA(k) - \mu)}) dk = \tilde{f}_\mu^{g.c.}(t).$$

Then, the following very powerful lemma yields a clear relation between the canonical and the grand canonical volumetric free energies. In the case $A = 0$, this result is well-known and may be partially found for instance in Ruelle's book [16]. A simplified proof of the general case, very similar to the case $A = 0$, is presented in the appendix (p.29).

Lemma 2.4. *For $A \in C^\infty(\mathbb{R}^d, \mathbb{R})$ bounded with bounded derivatives, and equal to 0 in a neighbourhood of 0, for $t > 0$ small enough one has*

$$\frac{\tilde{F}_{N,L}^c(t)}{|L\Omega|} \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow +\infty} \sup_\mu \left\{ \tilde{f}_\mu^{g.c.}(t) + \mu \bar{\rho} \right\} = \begin{cases} \tilde{f}_0^{g.c.}(t) & \text{if } \bar{\rho} > \rho_c \\ \tilde{f}_{\mu_{\bar{\rho}}}^{g.c.}(t) + \mu_{\bar{\rho}} \bar{\rho} & \text{if } \bar{\rho} < \rho_c \end{cases},$$

where $\mu_{\bar{\rho}}$ is such that $\rho(\mu_{\bar{\rho}}) = \bar{\rho}$.

Hence, in the case $\bar{\rho} > \rho_c$, as the two first derivatives of $t \mapsto \tilde{F}_{N_L, L}^c(t)$ are bounded in N for t around 0, one has by the Ascoli theorem that

$$\frac{\partial_t \tilde{F}_{N_L, L}^c(0)}{L^d} \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{1}{(2\pi)^d} \int \frac{A(k) e^{-\beta(|k|^2 + 0 \times A(k))}}{(1 - e^{-\beta(|k|^2 + 0 \times A(k))})} dk.$$

Thus, for any $A \in \mathcal{C}^\infty(\mathbb{R}^d, \mathbb{R})$ bounded with bounded derivatives, and equal to 0 around 0,

$$\frac{1}{L^d} \sum_k A(k) \langle n_k \rangle_{N_L, L}^c = \frac{\partial_t \tilde{F}_{N_L, L}^c(0)}{L^d} \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{1}{(2\pi)^d} \int \frac{A(k)}{e^{\beta|k|^2} - 1} dk. \quad (18)$$

Hence, one can estimate the following difference:

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \frac{1}{L^d} \sum_{k \neq 0} \langle n_k \rangle_{N_L, L}^c - \frac{1}{(2\pi)^d} \int \frac{dk}{e^{\beta|k|^2} - 1} \right| &\leq \frac{1}{L^d} \left| \sum_{k \neq 0} \langle n_k \rangle_{N_L, L}^c - \sum_k A(k) \langle n_k \rangle_{N_L, L}^c \right| \\ &+ \left| \frac{1}{L^d} \sum_k A(k) \langle n_k \rangle_{N_L, L}^c - \frac{1}{(2\pi)^d} \int \frac{A(k) dk}{e^{\beta|k|^2} - 1} \right| \\ &+ \frac{1}{(2\pi)^d} \left| \int \frac{A(k) dk}{e^{\beta|k|^2} - 1} - \int \frac{dk}{e^{\beta|k|^2} - 1} \right|. \end{aligned}$$

By (18), the second term is converging to 0. Then, considering for any $\varepsilon > 0$, $A_\varepsilon \in \mathcal{C}^\infty(\mathbb{R}^d, [0, 1])$ equal to 0 on $\mathcal{B}_{\varepsilon/2}$ and to 1 on $\mathcal{B}_\varepsilon^c$, one can write the first term as

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{L^d} \left| \sum_{k \neq 0} \langle n_k \rangle_{N_L, L}^c - \sum_k A_\varepsilon(k) \langle n_k \rangle_{N_L, L}^c \right| &\leq \frac{1}{L^d} \sum_{0 < |k| < \varepsilon} \langle n_k \rangle_{N_L, L}^c \\ &\leq \frac{25}{L^d} \sum_{0 < |k| < \varepsilon} \langle n_k \rangle_{0, L}^{g.c.} \\ &\leq \frac{25}{L^d} \sum_{0 < |k| < \varepsilon} \frac{1}{e^{\beta|k|^2} - 1}, \end{aligned}$$

with

$$\frac{25}{L^d} \sum_{0 < |k| < \varepsilon} \frac{1}{e^{\beta|k|^2} - 1} \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{25}{(2\pi)^d} \int_{|k| < \varepsilon} \frac{dk}{e^{\beta|k|^2} - 1}.$$

Similarly, the last term converges to 0 as ε converges to 0, which proves the convergence

$$\frac{1}{L^d} \sum_{k \neq 0} \langle n_k \rangle_{N_L, L}^c \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{1}{(2\pi)^d} \int \frac{dk}{e^{\beta|k|^2} - 1} = \rho_c.$$

Finally, from the relation

$$\bar{\rho} = \frac{N_L}{L^d} = \frac{1}{L^d} \left(\langle n_0 \rangle_{N_L, L}^c + \sum_{k \neq 0} \langle n_k \rangle_{N_L, L}^c \right),$$

one has

$$\langle n_0 \rangle_{N_L, L}^c = L^d \cdot \left(\bar{\rho} - \frac{1}{L^d} \sum_{k \neq 0} \langle n_k \rangle_{N_L, L}^c \right)$$

where, according to what precedes,

$$\frac{1}{L^d} \sum_{k \neq 0} \langle n_k \rangle_{N_L, L}^c \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow +\infty} \rho_c.$$

Then, it remains to show that

$$\left\langle \phi, \left(\sum_{i>0} \langle n_i \rangle_{N_L, L}^c |e_i\rangle \langle e_i| \right) \psi \right\rangle \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow +\infty} \langle \phi, \gamma_{gas}^{(1)}(0) \psi \rangle.$$

In the periodic case, for $\phi, \psi \in \mathbb{L}^2$ such that $\hat{\phi} \times \overline{\hat{\psi}} \in \mathcal{C}^\infty(\mathbb{R}^d, \mathbb{R})$ is bounded with bounded derivatives, and equal to 0 around 0, by (18) one has

$$\frac{1}{L^d} \sum_{k \neq 0} \hat{\phi}(k) \overline{\hat{\psi}(k)} \langle n_k \rangle_{N_L, L}^c \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{1}{(2\pi)^d} \int \frac{\hat{\phi}(k) \overline{\hat{\psi}(k)}}{e^{\beta|k|^2} - 1} dk = \langle \phi, \gamma_{gas}^{(1)}(0) \psi \rangle.$$

As the first eigenvalue is not counted and as the support of $\hat{\phi} \times \overline{\hat{\psi}}$ may be chosen as close to zero as wanted, this is enough to end the proof for the case $\rho > \rho_c$. The case $\rho < \rho_c$ is similar and even simpler. □

Conclusion

As announced, the three main theorems contained in this document are about the convergence of the first density matrix. The last two ones (Theorems 2.5 and 2.6) correspond to the phenomenon of Bose–Einstein condensation, respectively in the grand canonical case (which is explicit – and so easier to study) and in the canonical case (which uses the results about the grand canonical ensemble and various relations between those two representations mostly thanks to the Kac density, to the Deuchert-Seiringer-Yngvason domination (Lemma 2.1) and to the relation between the two asymptotic volumetric free energies (Lemma 2.4)). These theorems correspond to Penrose’s definition of Bose–Einstein condensation.

This phenomenon, which is asymptotically the same for both representations, may be seen as a saturation: as the density reaches a critical value ρ_c (depending on the temperature), the gas distribution stop changing and all the surplus particles condensate in the same state, which is the one of lowest energy. This condensate provides multiple peculiar macroscopic matter properties, as exposed in the introduction.

3 Appendix

The first two theorems proved in this appendix are using spectral theory results that may be found in Mathieu Lewin's course at École polytechnique [7].

Theorem. (2.2) *Let Ω be an open set of \mathbb{R}^d , piecewise- \mathcal{C}^∞ and with zero-measure boundary [see (3)]. Let us denote by $L\Omega$ its dilatation by a factor $L > 0$. Let us denote $(-\Delta)_{|L\Omega}$ the Dirichlet Laplacian over $L\Omega$, and $-\Delta$ the Laplacian over \mathbb{R}^d .*

Then, for $f \in \mathcal{C}^0(\mathbb{R}^+)$ such that $f(x) \xrightarrow{x \rightarrow \infty} 0$, one has the following convergence :

$$\forall u \in \mathbb{L}^2(\mathbb{R}^d), f \left((-\Delta)_{|L\Omega} \right) \cdot (\chi_{L\Omega} u) \xrightarrow[L \rightarrow \infty]{\mathbb{L}^2(\mathbb{R}^d)} f(-\Delta)u.$$

Proof. According to the functional calculus theorem for operators [7], it is enough to prove the result for the functions $f : x \mapsto \frac{1}{x-z}$, pour $z \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \mathbb{R}$.

For all $L > 0$, let us denote $v_L = \frac{1}{(-\Delta)_{|L\Omega} - z} (\chi_{L\Omega} u)$. Extending v_L by zero, one can consider it as an $\mathbb{L}^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$ function. By the properties of functional calculus, one then has

$$\|v_L\|_{\mathbb{L}^2} \leq \left\| \frac{1}{(-\Delta)_{|L\Omega} - z} \right\| \cdot \|u\| \leq \frac{1}{|\Im(z)|} \|u\|.$$

By construction,

$$v_L \in D((-\Delta)_{|L\Omega}) = \left\{ v \in H_0^1(L\Omega) \mid \exists g \in \mathbb{L}^2 : \forall \varphi \in H_0^1(L\Omega), \int_{L\Omega} \nabla \bar{\varphi} \nabla v = \int_{L\Omega} \bar{\varphi} g \right\},$$

where $g = (-\Delta)_{|L\Omega} v$ with this same notations, so that, using the following relation

$$\left((-\Delta)_{|L\Omega} - z \right) v_L = \chi_{L\Omega} u, \tag{19}$$

and taking $\varphi = v_L$ in the definition of $g = (-\Delta)_{|L\Omega} v_L$, one gets

$$\int_{L\Omega} |\nabla v_L|^2 - z \int_{L\Omega} |v_L|^2 = \int_{L\Omega} \bar{v}_L u.$$

This proves that (v_L) is bounded in $H_0^1(L\Omega)$, so in $H_0^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$ also (extending by 0 outside of $L\Omega$). Up to extract a subsequence, one gets the weak convergence $v_L \rightharpoonup v$ in $H_0^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$.

Let now $\varphi \in \mathcal{C}_c^\infty(\mathbb{R}^d)$, and let L be large enough to have $\text{supp}(\varphi) \subset L\Omega$. By (19), one has

$$\int_{L\Omega} (-\Delta - \bar{z}) \bar{\varphi} v_L = \int_{L\Omega} \bar{\varphi} u.$$

Taking the limit $L \rightarrow \infty$, one obtains $(-\Delta - z)v = u$ in \mathcal{D}' , so that $\Delta v \in \mathbb{L}^2$ and $v \in H^2 = D(-\Delta)$. As $v = (-\Delta - z)^{-1}u$ is the only allowed limit point of the sequence, the desired result is proved for the weak convergence.

To show the strong convergence, as it is locally true by Rellich-Kondrashov [7] theorem, it is enough to show that v_L has no weight far enough from 0.

To that extent, let us consider $\eta \in \mathcal{C}_c^\infty(\mathbb{R}^d)$ that is 0 on $\overline{\mathcal{B}_1}$ and 1 on $\mathbb{R}^d \setminus \mathcal{B}_2$. Let us denote $\eta_R : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, x \mapsto \eta\left(\frac{x}{R}\right)$. Hence, by the previous results applied to $\eta_R v_L$,

$$\int \eta_R \overline{v_L} u = \int \nabla(\eta_R \overline{v_L}) \nabla v_L - z \int \eta_R |v_L|^2 = \int \nabla(\eta_R) \overline{v_L} \nabla v_L + \int \eta_R |\nabla(\overline{v_L})|^2 - z \int \eta_R |v_L|^2.$$

Taking the imaginary part of the equation, one gets:

$$\Im \int \eta_R \overline{v_L} u = \Im \int \nabla(\eta_R) \overline{v_L} \nabla v_L + 0 - \Im(z) \int \eta_R |v_L|^2,$$

and one can conclude with the following inequality since (v_L) is bounded in H_0^1 :

$$\int \eta_R |v_L|^2 \leq \frac{1}{|\Im(z)|} \left[\frac{\|\nabla \eta\|_\infty \int \overline{v_L} \nabla v_L}{R} + \|v_L\|_{\mathbb{L}^2} \cdot \|\eta_R u\|_{\mathbb{L}^2} \right] \xrightarrow{R \rightarrow +\infty} 0.$$

□

Theorem. (2.3) *Using the same notations as in the previous Theorem 2.2, and denoting $(\lambda_i^L)_i$ the Dirichlet Laplacian $(-\Delta)_{|L\Omega}$ eigenvalues, one has the convergence*

$$\frac{1}{|L\Omega|} \sum_i f(\lambda_i^L) \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{1}{(2\pi)^d} \int f(|k|^2) dk.$$

Proof. The idea of this proof is to approximate f by indicator functions of the form $\chi_{]-\infty, E[}$. Denoting $N(E, \Omega)$ the number of Dirichlet Laplacian eigenvalues on Ω that are strictly inferior to E , counted with their multiplicity, it is thus equivalent to show that for every energy $E > 0$ one has

$$\frac{1}{L^d |\Omega|} N(E, L\Omega) \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{1}{(2\pi)^d} E^{\frac{d}{2}} |\mathcal{B}_1|,$$

which, denoting $E' = EL^2$, is equivalent to

$$\frac{N(E', \Omega)}{E'^{\frac{d}{2}}} \xrightarrow{E' \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{|\mathcal{B}_1|}{(2\pi)^d} |\Omega|.$$

Let us consider a tiling of the space by cubes of side $\varepsilon > 0$ denoting, for $\underline{k} \in \mathbb{Z}^d$,

$$C_{\underline{k}}^\varepsilon = \prod_{j=1}^d [\varepsilon k_j, \varepsilon(k_j + 1)].$$

Denoting $V \subset H_0^1(\Omega)$ the vector space generated by all the Dirichlet Laplacian eigenvectors on the cubes that are strictly included within Ω and of which associated eigenvalue is strictly inferior to E , as the Laplacien is translation-invariant and as the eigenvectors stemming from two different cubes are orthogonal, one may bound the quadratic form of $(-\Delta)_{|\Omega}$:

$$\forall v \in V, q_\Omega(v) < E \int_\Omega |v|^2.$$

By the Courant–Fischer theorem, this means that the $\dim(V)$ –th eigenvalue of the Dirichlet Laplacian $(-\Delta)|_{\Omega}$ on Ω (counted with their multiplicity) is strictly less than E , so that :

$$N(E, \Omega) \geq \dim(V) = N(E, C_{\underline{k}}^{\varepsilon}) \times \#\{\underline{k} \in \mathbb{Z}^d \mid C_{\underline{k}}^{\varepsilon} \subset \Omega\}.$$

As the cubes that intersect Ω without being included in it are at most at a distance $\varepsilon\sqrt{d}$ (length of the cubes diagonal) of Ω , one has the bound

$$\varepsilon^d \#\{\underline{k} \in \mathbb{Z}^d \mid C_{\underline{k}}^{\varepsilon} \subset \Omega\} \geq |\Omega| - |\partial\Omega + \mathcal{B}_{\varepsilon\sqrt{d}}|.$$

Hence, on each cube, one explicitly knows the eigenvalues of the Laplacian. The Weyl approximation [7, asymptotique de Weyl, th. 5.50] asserts that

$$N(E, C_{\underline{k}}^{\varepsilon}) \geq \frac{|\mathcal{B}_1|}{(2\pi)^d} E^{\frac{d}{2}} \varepsilon^d - \varepsilon^d O\left(\varepsilon^{-1} E^{\frac{d-1}{2}}\right),$$

so that the two last equations yield

$$N(E, \Omega) \geq \frac{|\mathcal{B}_1|}{(2\pi)^d} E^{\frac{d}{2}} \left(|\Omega| - |\partial\Omega + \mathcal{B}_{\varepsilon\sqrt{d}}|\right) + O\left(\varepsilon^{-1} E^{\frac{d-1}{2}}\right).$$

Taking the limit, one obtains

$$\liminf_{E \rightarrow \infty} \frac{N(E, \Omega)}{E^{\frac{d}{2}}} \geq \frac{|\mathcal{B}_1|}{(2\pi)^d} |\Omega|.$$

To get an upper bound, one will now use the Neumann boundary conditions, which also verifies the Weyl approximation. As previously, let us denote by $W \subset H^1(\Omega)$ the vector space generated by all the Neumann Laplacian eigenvectors on the cubes that intersect Ω and of which associated eigenvalue is strictly inferior to E , so that Weyl approximation yields the bound

$$\begin{aligned} \dim(W) &= N_{Neu}(E, C_{\underline{k}}^{\varepsilon}) \times \#\{\underline{k} \in \mathbb{Z}^d \mid C_{\underline{k}}^{\varepsilon} \cap \Omega \neq \emptyset\} \\ &\leq \frac{|\mathcal{B}_1|}{(2\pi)^d} E^{\frac{d}{2}} \left(|\Omega| + |\partial\Omega + \mathcal{B}_{\varepsilon\sqrt{d}}|\right) + O\left(\varepsilon^{-1} E^{\frac{d-1}{2}}\right). \end{aligned}$$

Hence, for all $v \in W^{\perp} \cap H_0^1(\Omega)$, by the spectral theorem

$$\int_{\Omega} |\nabla v|^2 = \sum_{\underline{k}} \int_{C_{\underline{k}}^{\varepsilon} \cap \Omega} |\nabla v|^2 \geq \sum_{\underline{k}} E \int_{C_{\underline{k}}^{\varepsilon} \cap \Omega} |v|^2 = E \int_{\Omega} |v|^2.$$

Since $W = (W^{\perp} \cap H_0^1(\Omega))^{\perp}$ and by the second Courant–Fischer formula, the $\dim(W)$ –th eigenvalue of the Dirichlet Laplacian is superior or equal to E , so that

$$N(E, \Omega) \leq \dim(W).$$

□

Lemma. (2.2)

The map $N \mapsto Z_N$ is log-concave, i.e. $\forall N \geq 1, Z_{N+1} Z_{N-1} \leq Z_N^2$. Moreover, for all non-decreasing map $f : \mathbb{N} \mapsto \mathbb{R}^+$ and for all $i \in \mathbb{N}$, the map $N \mapsto \langle f(n_i) \rangle_N^c$ is non-decreasing.

Remark. This result remains true for any sequence of eigenvalues (λ_i) such that $\sum_i e^{-\beta\lambda_i} < \infty$.

Proof. Let us prove the first result by induction on the number of available energy levels $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k$ when one writes (see (5, p. 5))

$$Z_N = \sum_{|n|=N} e^{-\beta \sum_j \lambda_j n_j}.$$

The case $k = 0$ is trivial. Let us suppose that the result is true for $k \in \mathbb{N}$:

$$\forall N \geq 1, Z_{N-1}^{(k)} Z_{N+1}^{(k)} \leq Z_N^{(k)2}, \quad (20)$$

where $Z_N^{(k)}$ corresponds to Z_N with all λ_i -states supposed unoccupied for $i > k$. Multiplying the inequalities (20) for N and $N + 1$, one gets

$$\forall N \geq 1, Z_{N-1}^{(k)} Z_{N+1}^{(k)} Z_N^{(k)} Z_{N+2}^{(k)} \leq Z_N^{(k)2} Z_{N+1}^{(k)2}.$$

Iterating, one gets

$$\forall 1 \leq N \leq M, Z_{N-1}^{(k)} Z_{M+1}^{(k)} \leq Z_N^{(k)} Z_M^{(k)}. \quad (21)$$

Then, denoting $z = e^{-\beta\lambda_{k+1}}$, one has

$$Z_N^{(k+1)} = \sum_{m=0}^N z^{N-m} Z_m^{(k)},$$

so that

$$Z_N^{(k+1)2} = \sum_{m,n=0}^N z^{2N-m-n} Z_m^{(k)} Z_n^{(k)},$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} Z_N^{(k+1)2} - Z_{N-1}^{(k+1)} Z_{N+1}^{(k+1)} &= \sum_{m=0}^{N-1} \sum_{n=0}^N z^{2N-m-n} Z_m^{(k)} Z_n^{(k)} + \sum_{n=0}^N z^{N-n} Z_N^{(k)} Z_n^{(k)} \\ &\quad - \sum_{n=0}^N \sum_{m=0}^{N-1} z^{2N-m-n} Z_m^{(k)} Z_n^{(k)} - \sum_{m=0}^{N-1} z^{N-1-m} Z_{N+1}^{(k)} Z_m^{(k)} \\ &= z^N Z_N^{(k)} + \sum_{n=1}^N z^{N-n} \left[Z_N^{(k)} Z_n^{(k)} - Z_{N+1}^{(k)} Z_{n-1}^{(k)} \right] \stackrel{(21)}{\geq} 0. \end{aligned}$$

□

Let us now use this result to prove the second one in the case $f = id_N$, which works in the same way. Denoting $Z_N^{[i]} = \sum_{|n|=N; n_i=0} e^{-\beta \sum_{j \neq i} n_j \lambda_j}$, which corresponds to removing the i -th energy level. It also verifies (21) and the relation

$$Z_N = \sum_{k=0}^N e^{-\beta k \lambda_i} Z_{N-k}^{[i]},$$

one has

$$\begin{aligned}
\langle n_i \rangle_{N+1} - \langle n_i \rangle_N &= \frac{1}{Z_{N+1}} \sum_{n=1}^{N+1} n e^{-\beta n \lambda_i} Z_{N+1-n}^{[i]} - \frac{1}{Z_N} \sum_{n=1}^N n e^{-\beta n \lambda_i} Z_{N-n}^{[i]} \\
&= \frac{1}{Z_N Z_{N+1}} \left[\sum_{k=0}^N \sum_{n=1}^{N+1} n e^{-\beta(k+n)\lambda_i} Z_{N+1-n}^{[i]} Z_{N-k}^{[i]} - \sum_{k=0}^{N+1} \sum_{n=1}^N n e^{-\beta(k+n)\lambda_i} Z_{N-n}^{[i]} Z_{N+1-k}^{[i]} \right] \\
&= \frac{1}{Z_N Z_{N+1}} \left[\sum_{k=1}^N \sum_{n=1}^N n e^{-\beta(k+n)\lambda_i} \left(Z_{N+1-n}^{[i]} Z_{N-k}^{[i]} - Z_{N-n}^{[i]} Z_{N+1-k}^{[i]} \right) \right. \\
&\quad (k=0) \quad \left. + \sum_{n=1}^N n e^{-\beta n \lambda_i} \left(Z_{N+1-n}^{[i]} Z_N^{[i]} - Z_{N-n}^{[i]} Z_{N+1}^{[i]} \right) \right. \\
&\quad (k=N+1) \quad \left. + \sum_{n=1}^N n e^{-\beta(N+1+n)\lambda_i} Z_{N-m}^{[i]} \right. \\
&\quad (n=N+1) \quad \left. + \sum_{k=0}^N (N+1) e^{-\beta(N+1+k)\lambda_i} Z_{N-k}^{[i]} \right].
\end{aligned}$$

The second term is non-negative by log-concavity (21). The sum of the two last ones is

$$(N+1) e^{-\beta(N+1)\lambda_i} Z_N^{[i]} + \sum_{j=1}^N (N+1-j) e^{-\beta(N+1+j)\lambda_i} Z_{N-j}^{[i]} \geq 0,$$

and the first term may be written differently using the symmetry of the square $(k, n) \in \llbracket 1, n \rrbracket^2$:

$$\sum_{1 \leq k < n \leq N} (n-k) e^{-\beta(k+n)\lambda_i} \left(Z_{N-n+1}^{[i]} Z_{N-k}^{[i]} - Z_{N-n}^{[i]} Z_{N-k+1}^{[i]} \right) \geq 0,$$

since now the smallest subscript is $N-n$ for all the terms of the sum, and by the inequality (21). \square

Lemma. (2.3) *As $L \rightarrow \infty$, the Kac density Fourier transform $\hat{K}_L^{\bar{\rho}}(\xi)$ converges uniformly in ξ on*

$$\text{bounded sets to } \hat{K}^{\bar{\rho}}(\xi) = \begin{cases} \frac{e^{i\xi\bar{\rho}}}{(2\pi)^{\frac{d}{2}}} & \text{if } \bar{\rho} \leq \rho_c \\ \frac{e^{i\xi\rho_c}}{(2\pi)^{\frac{d}{2}}(1 - (\bar{\rho} - \rho_c)i\xi)} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

Proof. One has

$$\hat{K}_L^{\bar{\rho}}(\xi) = \sum_{n \geq 0} \langle P_n \rangle_{\bar{\rho}, L}^{g.c.} e^{-\frac{i n \xi}{V_L}} = \langle e^{-\frac{i N \xi}{V_L}} \rangle_{\bar{\rho}, L}^{g.c.} = \frac{\text{tr}_{\mathcal{F}} \left(e^{-\frac{i N \xi}{V_L}} e^{-\beta(H_n - \mu_L N)} \right)}{\text{tr}_{\mathcal{F}} \left(e^{-\beta(H_n - \mu_L N)} \right)}.$$

Let us denote the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of H (one of the three studied Laplacians) by $H\psi_k = \lambda_k \psi_k$. Then, let us observe that

$$H_n \left(\bigotimes_{i=1}^n \psi_k \right) = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_k \right) \bigotimes_{i=1}^n \psi_k = n \lambda_k \psi_k^{\otimes n}.$$

Thus, using the exponential structure of $\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{H}) = \mathcal{F}(\bigoplus_k \text{Vect } \psi_k) = \bigotimes_k \mathcal{F}(\text{Vect } \psi_k)$, (p. 6, 7) one gets

$$\begin{aligned} \text{tr}_{\mathcal{F}} \left(e^{-\beta(H-\mu N)} \right) &= \prod_k \text{tr}_{\mathcal{F}(\text{Vect } \psi_k)} \left(e^{-\beta(H-\mu N)} \right) \\ &= \prod_k \sum_{n \geq 0} e^{-\beta n(\lambda_k - \mu)} \\ &= \prod_k \frac{1}{1 - e^{-\beta(\lambda_k - \mu)}}. \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, $\text{tr}_{\mathcal{F}} \left(e^{-\frac{iN\xi}{V_L}} e^{-\beta(H-\mu N)} \right) = \prod_k \left(1 - e^{-\beta(\lambda_k - \mu) + i\frac{\xi}{V_L}} \right)^{-1}$, so that eventually

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{K}_L^{\bar{\rho}}(\xi) &= \prod_k \frac{1 - e^{-\beta(\lambda_k - \mu_L)}}{1 - e^{-\beta(\lambda_k - \mu_L) + i\frac{\xi}{V_L}}} \\ &= \frac{1 - e^{-\beta(\lambda_{\min} - \mu_L)}}{1 - e^{-\beta(\lambda_{\min} - \mu_L) + i\frac{\xi}{V_L}}} \exp \left(- \sum_{k \neq k_{\min}} \ln \frac{1 - e^{-\beta(\lambda_k - \mu_L)}}{1 - e^{-\beta(\lambda_k - \mu_L) + i\frac{\xi}{V_L}}} \right). \end{aligned}$$

One may now use the results about the grand canonical ensemble (Theorem 2.5). Let us study the inverse of the first factor:

$$\frac{1 - e^{-\beta(\lambda_{\min} - \mu_L) + i\frac{\xi}{V_L}}}{1 - e^{-\beta(\lambda_{\min} - \mu_L)}} = 1 - \frac{e^{-\beta(\lambda_{\min} - \mu_L)} (e^{i\frac{\xi}{V_L}} - 1)}{1 - e^{-\beta(\lambda_{\min} - \mu_L)}} = 1 - \frac{e^{-\beta(\lambda_{\min} - \mu_L)}}{V_L (1 - e^{-\beta(\lambda_{\min} - \mu_L)})} \left(i\xi + O\left(\frac{1}{V_L}\right) \right),$$

which converges to 1 if $\bar{\rho} < \rho_c$ and to $1 - i\xi(\bar{\rho} - \rho_c)$ otherwise, by Theorem 2.5 and its proof.

Then, by the same argument and a Taylor expansion of the logarithm about 1, Theorem 2.5 and its proof assert that the second factor converges to $\exp(i\xi\rho_c)$ as L goes to infinity. □

Lemma. (2.4) *For $A \in \mathcal{C}^\infty(\mathbb{R}^d, \mathbb{R})$ bounded with bounded derivatives, and equal to 0 in a neighbourhood of 0, considering that the eigenvalues are altered by A in the way $\lambda_k \rightarrow \lambda_k + tA(k)$ for small values of t , one has*

$$\frac{F_{N_L, L}^c(t)}{|L\Omega|} \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow +\infty} \sup_{\mu} \left\{ f_{\mu}^{g.c.}(t) + \mu\rho \right\} = \begin{cases} f_0^{g.c.}(t) & \text{if } \bar{\rho} > \rho_c \\ f_{\mu_{\bar{\rho}}}^{g.c.}(t) + \mu_{\bar{\rho}}\bar{\rho} & \text{if } \bar{\rho} < \rho_c \end{cases},$$

where $\mu_{\bar{\rho}}$ is such that $\rho(\mu_{\bar{\rho}}) = \bar{\rho}$.

Proof. One will prove this result for specific simpler conditions within 3 steps.

a) The canonical case converges uniformly in ρ -compact sets towards a certain convex function:

$$\frac{F_{L, N_L, \rho}^c}{|L\Omega|} \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow +\infty} f_{\rho}^c.$$

This result is well known when the eigenvalues are not altered ($A = \tilde{0}$). In the case of a general function A verifying the hypotheses, one will prove it only in the case of periodic boundary conditions, for the particular sequences $\begin{cases} N_i = N_0(2^d)^i \\ L_i = \left(\frac{N_i}{\rho}\right)^{\frac{1}{d}} = \left(\frac{N_0}{\rho}\right)^{\frac{1}{d}} 2^i \end{cases}, i \in \mathbb{N}.$

Denoting $w(k) = |k|^2 + tA(k)$, one has

$$Z(L, N) = \sum_{|n|=N} e^{-\beta \sum_k n_k w(k)},$$

where the eigenvalues stem from the lattice $k \in \frac{2\pi}{L}\mathbb{Z}^d$. Thus, one may consider the 2^d sub-lattices corresponding to a size $L/2$: denoting $R_L = \frac{2\pi}{L}\{0, 1\}^d$ a set of representatives of the 2^d sub-lattices,

$$k \in \left[R_L + \frac{4\pi}{L}\mathbb{Z}^d \right] = \bigsqcup_{k' \in R_L} k' + \frac{4\pi}{L}\mathbb{Z}^d.$$

Among all the configurations $|n| = N$, one may consider only the ones such that on every sub-lattice $k' + \frac{4\pi}{L}\mathbb{Z}^d$, one has $|n'| = \frac{N}{2^d}$. As these sub-systems are independent, one has

$$Z_w(L, N) \geq \sum_{|n|=N; |n'|=N/2^d} e^{-\beta \sum_k n_k w(k)} = \prod_{k' \in R_L} Z_{w(\cdot+k')} \left(\frac{L}{2}, \frac{N}{2^d} \right),$$

where the function $w(k) = |k|^2 + tA(k)$ has been translated by k' .

Similarly, one could have chosen $-D_L$ as set of representatives and got the same result, so that

$$Z_w(L, N) \geq \prod_{k' \in R_L} \left[Z_{w(\cdot+k')} \left(\frac{L}{2}, \frac{N}{2^d} \right) \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} \left[Z_{w(\cdot-k')} \left(\frac{L}{2}, \frac{N}{2^d} \right) \right]^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

By Hölder inequality (which corresponds here to a log-convex inequality),

$$\left[Z_{w(\cdot+k')} \left(\frac{L}{2}, \frac{N}{2^d} \right) \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} \left[Z_{w(\cdot-k')} \left(\frac{L}{2}, \frac{N}{2^d} \right) \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} \geq Z_{\frac{w(\cdot+k') + w(\cdot-k')}{2}} \left(\frac{L}{2}, \frac{N}{2^d} \right).$$

Then, thanks to the Taylor's theorem for $A \in \mathcal{C}^\infty(\mathbb{R}^d, \mathbb{R})$ with bounded derivatives,

$$\begin{aligned} \forall k \in \frac{4\pi}{L}\mathbb{Z}^d, \frac{w(k+k') + w(k-k')}{2} &= |k|^2 + |k'|^2 + t \frac{A(k+k') + A(k-k')}{2} \\ &\leq |k|^2 + tA(k) + |k'|^2 + tO(|k'|^2) \\ &\leq w(k) + \frac{d4\pi^2}{L^2} + tO\left(\frac{1}{L^2}\right), \end{aligned}$$

one eventually gets the lower bound, for t bounded,

$$Z_w(L, N) \geq \left(e^{-\beta \frac{N}{2^d} O(L^{-2})} \right)^{2^d} Z_w \left(\frac{L}{2}, \frac{N}{2^d} \right)^{2^d}$$

i.e. for all $i \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$\frac{F(L_{i+1}, N_{i+1})}{L_{i+1}^d} \leq \frac{F(L_i, N_i)}{L_i^d} + O\left(\frac{N_{i+1}}{L_i^{d+2}}\right) = \frac{F(L_i, N_i)}{L_i^d} + O\left(\frac{1}{L_i^2}\right).$$

Hence, as the left side of the last inequality is bounded from below (for example by the inequality (23), p. 32) and the fact that $\sum_i \frac{1}{L_i^2} < \infty$,

$$\frac{F(L_k, N_i)}{L_i^d} \text{ converges.}$$

b) The grand canonical case converges towards the Legendre transform of the canonical case on the one hand, and converges explicitly on the other hand:

$$\frac{F_{L,\mu}^{g.c.}}{|L\Omega|} \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow +\infty} \inf_{\rho} \{f_{\rho}^c - \mu\rho\}.$$

This result is presented in the Lewis-Pulé-Zagrebnoy article [13] as a consequence of Varadhan's Large Deviation Principle. The proof presented below is adapted from the one in the classical case written by Ruelle [16].

First of all,

$$\frac{F_{L,\mu}^{g.c.}}{|L\Omega|} = \frac{-\log \sum_{n \geq 0} e^{\beta \mu n} Z_{L,n}}{\beta |L\Omega|} = \frac{-\log \sum_{n \geq 0} e^{\beta[\mu n - F_{L,n}]}}{\beta |L\Omega|} \leq -\mu \frac{N_L}{|L\Omega|} + \frac{F_{L,N_L}}{|L\Omega|},$$

so that for all $\rho \in \mathbb{R}^+$,

$$\limsup_{L \rightarrow \infty} \frac{F_{L,\mu}^{g.c.}}{|L\Omega|} \leq f_{\rho}^c - \mu\rho.$$

As the convergence at step **(a)** is uniform in compact sets, for $\varepsilon > 0$ and any constant $C > 0$,

$$\exists L_0 > 0 : \forall L \geq L_0, \forall \rho \in [0, C], \frac{F_{L,\rho L^d}}{|L\Omega|} \geq f_{\rho}^c - \frac{\varepsilon}{\beta}.$$

Hence, for $L \geq L_0$, $n \in [0, C \times L^d]$,

$$F_{L,n} \geq |L\Omega| \left(f_{\frac{n}{|L\Omega|}}^c - \frac{\varepsilon}{\beta} \right),$$

so that

$$e^{\beta[\mu n - F_{L,n}]} \leq \exp \left[\beta L^d \left(\mu \frac{n}{|L\Omega|} - f_{\frac{n}{|L\Omega|}}^c + \varepsilon \right) \right] \leq \exp \left[\beta |L\Omega| \left(-\inf_{\rho} \{f_{\rho}^c - \mu\rho\} + \varepsilon \right) \right].$$

Thus,

$$\frac{-\log \sum_{0 \leq n \leq C} e^{\beta[\mu n - F_{L,n}]}}{\beta |L\Omega|} \geq -\frac{\log C |L\Omega|}{\beta |L\Omega|} - \left(-\inf_{\rho} \{f_{\rho}^c - \mu\rho\} + \varepsilon \right) \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow +\infty} \inf_{\rho} \{f_{\rho}^c - \mu\rho\}. \quad (22)$$

For the reverse inequality, one has to find a constant C such that $-\frac{1}{\beta|L\Omega|} \log \sum_{n \geq C|L\Omega|} e^{\beta[\mu n - F_{L,n}]}$ goes to 0 as L goes to infinity. To that purpose, let us observe that for any $\nu < 0$,

$$\begin{aligned}
F_{L,n}^c &= -T \log Z_{L,n}^c \\
&= -T \log \left(\sum_{|m|=n} e^{-\beta \sum_k m_k (\lambda_k + tA(k) - \nu + \nu)} \right) \\
&= \nu n - T \log \left(\sum_{|m|=n} e^{-\beta \sum_k m_k (\lambda_k + tA(k) - \nu)} \right) \\
&\geq \nu n - T \log \left(\sum_{n \geq 0} e^{\beta \nu n} \sum_{|m|=n} e^{-\beta \sum_k m_k (\lambda_k + tA(k))} \right) \\
&\geq \nu n + F_{L,\nu}^{g.c.}
\end{aligned} \tag{23}$$

According to the convergence of $F_{L,\nu}$ (see (17), p. 21), $F_{L,\nu}$ is asymptotically equivalent to $f_\nu^{g.c.} |L\Omega|$, so that when $n \geq C|L\Omega|$, there exists a constant $K_\nu \geq 0$ such that

$$F_{L,n}^c \geq \left(-\frac{K_\nu}{C} + \nu \right) n.$$

Hence, one may choose ν close enough to 0, then C large enough for $\left| -\frac{K_\nu}{C} + \nu \right|$ to be smaller than $|\mu|$, so that there exists $z_0 < 1$ such that

$$-\frac{1}{\beta|L\Omega|} \log \sum_{n \geq C|L\Omega|} e^{\beta[\mu n - F_{L,n}]} \leq -\frac{1}{\beta|L\Omega|} \log \sum_{n \geq C|L\Omega|} z_0^n \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow +\infty} 0.$$

Finally, putting together this limit and (22) for the same constant C , one gets

$$\liminf_{L \rightarrow \infty} \frac{F_{L,\mu}^{g.c.}}{|L\Omega|} \geq \inf_{\rho} \left\{ f_{\rho}^c - \mu \rho \right\}.$$

□

Explicitly (see (17), p. 21), and identifying the limit,

$$\frac{F_{L,\mu}^{g.c.}}{|L\Omega|} \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow +\infty} f_{\mu}^{g.c.} = \inf_{\rho} \left\{ f_{\rho}^c - \mu \rho \right\}.$$

c) Using the facts that the Legendre transform is involutive for convex and lower semi-continuous functions, one finally gets

$$\frac{F_{L,N_{L,\rho}}^c}{|L\Omega|} \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow +\infty} \sup_{\mu} \left\{ f_{\mu}^{g.c.} + \mu \rho \right\}.$$

□

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Des bases de l'analyse fonctionnelle aux algèbres de Schatten

Addition to *Mathematical results on Bose–Einstein condensation for the Free Bose Gas*

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Table des matières

Introduction	2
1 Préliminaires d'analyse fonctionnelle	2
2 Application aux espaces \mathbb{L}^p et ℓ^p , espaces de Hilbert	8
2.1 Espaces \mathbb{L}^p	8
2.2 Espaces ℓ^p	13
3 Algèbres de Schatten	14



Introduction

Ce document sert de complément technique à son attaché *Mathematical results on Bose–Einstein condensation for the Free Bose Gas*, rédigé pendant le même temps. Ce dernier expose divers résultats de convergence sur les opérateurs particuliers, appelés *matrices de densité*, qui décrivent la condensation de Bose-Einstein pour un gaz de bosons sans interaction, à la fois dans les formalismes canonique et grand canonique, et pour des Laplaciens avec conditions aux limites de Dirichlet, Neumann et périodiques.

Le présent document présente quelques outils fondamentaux d'analyse fonctionnelle qui permettent de définir ces opérateurs. On introduira notamment certains espaces de Banach et de Hilbert spécifiques qui formeront donc la base de la modélisation des problèmes considérés dans le document attaché.

1 Préliminaires d'analyse fonctionnelle

Cette partie présente les espaces de Banach, leurs espaces duals et leurs topologies, ainsi que les propriétés remarquables de ces topologies, qui permettent de trouver des conditions pour que les espaces de Banach possèdent certaines propriétés particulières (comme notamment la réflexivité ou la séparabilité). Ces résultats généraux seront très utiles dans la suite lorsque l'on s'intéressera à des espaces de Banach particuliers, notamment aux espaces ℓ^p , \mathbb{L}^p et \mathfrak{S}^p , de Hilbert pour $p = 2$.

Les résultats présentés dans cette partie sont pour la plupart détaillés dans les premiers chapitres du livre de Brézis [1].

Définitions élémentaires

Définition 1.1. Un *espace de Banach* est un espace vectoriel normé, complet pour sa norme.

Définition 1.2. Pour un espace vectoriel normé $(E, \|\cdot\|_E)$ quelconque sur le corps \mathbb{K} , on appelle son *dual topologique* (ou tout simplement son dual lorsqu'il n'y a pas d'ambiguïté) l'ensemble des formes linéaires continues sur E , et on note

$$E' = \mathcal{L}(E, \mathbb{K}).$$

On munit canoniquement l'espace E' de la norme

$$\|l\|_{E'} = \sup_{x \in E} \frac{|l(x)|}{\|x\|} = \sup_{x \in \mathcal{B}_E} |l(x)|,$$

où $\mathcal{B}_E = \{x \in E \mid \|x\| \leq 1\}$ désigne la boule unité de E .

Remarques. 1. Le dual topologique $(E', \|\cdot\|_{E'})$ est toujours un espace de Banach si le corps \mathbb{K} est complet. La complétude de \mathbb{K} permet en effet de montrer la convergence simple des suites de Cauchy de E' , et il suffit alors de vérifier que la limite reste dans E' et que la convergence se fait pour la norme de E' .

2. On différencie le dual topologique par rapport au dual *algébrique*, qui est l'ensemble des formes linéaires sur E (qui ne nécessite pas de topologie).

On s'intéresse également souvent au *bidual* de E , noté $E'' = (E')'$.

Propriétés remarquables des espaces vectoriels normés - définitions

E espace vectoriel normé s'injecte naturellement dans son bidual par l'isométrie

$$J : \begin{array}{ccc} E & \longrightarrow & E'' \\ x & \longmapsto & \left[\begin{array}{ccc} E' & \longrightarrow & \mathbb{K} \\ l & \longmapsto & l(x) \end{array} \right]. \end{array}$$

Définition 1.3. Si l'isométrie $J : E \rightarrow E''$ est surjective, alors E est isomorphe à son bidual et on dit que E est *réflexif*.

Définition 1.4. E est dit *séparable* s'il possède un sous-ensemble dénombrable et dense.

Définition 1.5. Un espace topologique est dit *métrisable* si sa topologie découle d'une métrique.

Remarque. Mise en garde : il existe des espaces pathologiques qui s'injectent dans leur bidual par une isométrie bijective différente de J mais qui ne sont pas réflexifs.

Propriétés remarquables des espaces vectoriels normés – propriétés

Propriété 1.1. *Un espace de Banach est réflexif si et seulement si son dual est réflexif.*

Propriété 1.2. *Un espace de Banach dont le dual est séparable est lui-même séparable.*

Cette proposition n'admet pas de réciproque sans conditions supplémentaires.

Propriété 1.3. *Cependant, si un espace de Banach est séparable ET réflexif, alors son dual l'est également (c'est donc aussi une condition nécessaire).*

Preuve. 1.1. Modulo l'identification par l'isométrie J , on a facilement $E = E'' \Rightarrow E' = E'''$.

Pour le sens réciproque, le sens direct implique que E'' est réflexif. Alors, $J(E)$ est aussi réflexif en tant que sous-espace fermé de E'' (c'est une conséquence du théorème de Hahn-Banach [1], du théorème de Kakutani (1.2) et du théorème 1.3, énoncés dans la suite), ce qui prouve que E est réflexif.

1.2. Soit $(l_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ dense dans E' . Par définition de la norme sur E' , il existe $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \in E^{\mathbb{N}}$ telle que

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \|x_n\| = 1 \text{ et } l_n(x_n) \geq \frac{1}{2} \|l_n\|.$$

On pose alors $D = \text{Vect}_{\mathbb{Q}}(x_n)$, dénombrable et dense dans $V = \text{Vect}_{\mathbb{R}}(x_n)$. Montrons que V est dense dans E . Pour cela, considérons une forme $l \in E'$ s'annulant sur V et montrons qu'elle est nécessairement nulle sur E . Pour $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}_+^*$, $\exists N \in \mathbb{N} : \|l - l_N\| \leq \varepsilon$. Alors,

$$\|l\| \leq \|l - l_N\| + \|l_N\| \leq \varepsilon + 2(l_N - l)(x_N) \leq 3\varepsilon.$$

□

1.3. Si E est réflexif et séparable, $E'' = J(E)$ l'est aussi, et donc E' également par 1.2.

Pour la preuve du 1.2, on a utilisé des théorèmes qui reposent sur des topologies plus faibles que la topologie découlant de la norme.

Topologies faibles

On note $x_n \xrightarrow[n]{E} x$, ou tout simplement $x_n \rightarrow x$ pour signifier que la suite $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \in E^{\mathbb{N}}$ converge vers $x \in E$ pour la norme de E .

Définition 1.6. On munit l'espace E de la *topologie faible* définie comme suit :

$$x_n \xrightarrow{E} x \text{ si } \left[\forall l \in E', l(x_n) \xrightarrow{\mathbb{K}} l(x) \right].$$

Similairement, on munit E' de la *topologie faible-** définie par :

$$l_n \xrightarrow{*}_{E'} l \text{ si } \left[\forall x \in E, l_n(x) \xrightarrow{\mathbb{K}} l(x) \right].$$

Remarque. Si E est réflexif, il peut être vu comme le dual de son dual, et alors les topologies faible et faible- $*$ sont les mêmes.

Propriété 1.4. i. *La convergence forte implique la convergence faible.*

ii. Si $x_n \xrightarrow{E} x$, alors $(\|x_n\|)$ est bornée et $\|x\| \leq \liminf \|x_n\|$.

iii. Si $x_n \xrightarrow{E} x$ faiblement et $l_n \xrightarrow{E'} l$ fortement, alors $l_n(x_n) \xrightarrow{\mathbb{K}} l(x)$.

Preuve. i. Pour $l \in E'$, $|l(x_n) - l(x)| = |l(x_n - x)| \leq \|l\| \cdot \|x_n - x\|$

ii. Pour tout $l \in E'$, $(l(x_n)) = (J(x_n) \cdot l)$ est bornée. Par le théorème de la borne uniforme [1] (Banach–Steinhaus), $(\|x_n\|)$ est bornée. L'inégalité $|l(x_n)| \leq \|l\| \cdot \|x_n\|$ donne à la limite $|l(x)| \leq \|l\| \cdot \liminf \|x_n\|$, ce qui permet de conclure car $\|x\| = \sup_{l \in \mathcal{B}_{E'}} |l(x)|$.

iii. $|l_n(x_n) - l(x)| \leq |l_n(x_n) - l(x_n)| + |l(x_n) - l(x)| \leq \|l_n - l\| \cdot \sup \|x_n\| + |l(x_n - x)|$.

□

La topologie associée à la convergence faible, appelée topologie faible, est la plus grossière telle que toutes les formes $(l : E \rightarrow \mathbb{K}) \in E'$ restent continues. C'est une construction classique en mathématiques lorsque, comme ici, on dispose d'un ensemble de fonctions à rendre continues. On rappelle que la topologie est définie par ses ouverts qui doivent être stable par intersection finie et

réunion arbitraire. On considère donc toutes les intersections finies d'ensemble de la forme $l^{-1}(\mathcal{O})$ avec \mathcal{O} ouvert de \mathbb{K} , puis on ajoute toutes les réunions arbitraires de ces ensembles. Par un résultat développé dans le livre de Folland [2, section 4.1], ces ensembles restent stables par intersection finie et définissent donc bien une topologie. Dans notre cas de figure, cette construction offre la base d'ouverts suivante

$$\left(\{x \in E \mid \forall i \in \llbracket 1, k \rrbracket, |l_i(x - x_0)| < \varepsilon\} \right)_{\varepsilon > 0, k \in \mathbb{N}, (l_i) \in (E')^k}$$

pour la topologie faible, qui repose sur des *familles finies* d'éléments de E' . Une construction similaire s'applique également à la topologie faible- \star et fournit une base d'ouverts comparable.

Lemme 1.1. (Goldstine) $J(\mathcal{B}_E)$ est dense dans $\mathcal{B}_{E''}$ pour la topologie faible- \star de E'' .

Preuve. Soit $\xi \in \mathcal{B}_{E''}$. D'après ce que l'on a énoncé sur la construction de la topologie faible- \star , il suffit de montrer que pour un voisinage quelconque de ξ de la forme $\mathcal{V} = \{\eta \in E'' \mid \forall i \in \llbracket 1, k \rrbracket, |(\xi - \eta)(l_i)| < \varepsilon\}$, $\mathcal{V} \cap J(\mathcal{B}_E) \neq \emptyset$, i.e. $\exists x \in \mathcal{B}_E : \forall i \in \llbracket 1, k \rrbracket, |(\xi - J(x))(l_i)| < \varepsilon$.

Supposons par l'absurde que $\forall x \in \mathcal{B}_E, \exists i \in \llbracket 1, k \rrbracket : |(\xi - J(x))(l_i)| \geq \varepsilon$. En posant

$$\varphi : \begin{array}{ccc} E & \longrightarrow & \mathbb{K}^k \\ x & \longmapsto & (l_i(x))_{1 \leq i \leq k} \end{array},$$

cela revient à dire que le vecteur $\alpha = (\xi(l_i))_{1 \leq i \leq k}$ n'est pas dans l'adhérence de $\varphi(\mathcal{B}_E)$. On peut donc séparer le singleton $\{\alpha\}$ et $\varphi(\mathcal{B}_E)$ par un hyperplan :

$$\exists (\beta, \gamma) \in \mathbb{K}^k \times \mathbb{K} : \forall x \in \mathcal{B}_E, \sum_{i=1}^k \beta_i l_i(x) = \beta \cdot \varphi(x) < \gamma < \beta \cdot \alpha = \sum_{i=1}^k \beta_i \xi(l_i).$$

Il en suit finalement que

$$\left\| \sum_{i=1}^k \beta_i l_i \right\| \leq \gamma < \sum_{i=1}^k \beta_i \xi(l_i),$$

d'où la contradiction, car étant donné que ξ est linéaire et de norme 1, on a en fait

$$\forall (\beta_i) \in \mathbb{K}^k, \left| \sum_{i=1}^k \beta_i \xi(l_i) \right| \leq \left\| \sum_{i=1}^k \beta_i l_i \right\|. \quad (1)$$

□

NB : on a en fait démontré une partie du lemme de Helly qui montre que (1) est suffisant [1].

Théorème de Kakutani par le théorème de Banach–Alaoglu–Bourbaki

Théorème 1.1. $\mathcal{B}_{E'}$ est compacte pour la topologie faible- \star de E' .

Théorème 1.2. (Kakutani)

Un espace de Banach E est réflexif si et seulement si \mathcal{B}_E est compact pour la topologie faible.

Preuve. Commençons par montrer le théorème 1.1. Observons $Y = \mathbb{K}^E = \{(\omega_x)_{x \in E} \in Y\}$ l'ensemble des applications de E dans \mathbb{K} , muni de la topologie produit i.e. la plus grossière telle que les projections $(\omega \mapsto \omega_x)_{x \in \mathbb{K}}$ soient continues. C'est en fait la topologie de la convergence simple.

L'espace E' s'injecte naturellement dans Y par $\Phi : l \mapsto (l(x))_{x \in E}$, qui est continue de E' muni de la topologie faible- \star dans Y . Φ^{-1} est également continue ($\Phi^{-1}(\omega)(x) = \omega_x$) vis-à-vis des mêmes topologies : Φ est un homéomorphisme de E' dans $\Phi(E')$, où

$$\Phi(E') = \{\omega \in Y \mid \forall (x, y, \lambda) \in E^2 \times \mathbb{K}, \omega_{x+\lambda y} = \omega_x + \lambda \omega_y \text{ et } |\omega_x| \leq \|x\|\} := \mathcal{K}$$

Et enfin \mathcal{K} est un compact de Y comme intersection de $\{\omega_{x+\lambda y} = \omega_x + \lambda \omega_y\}$ qui est fermé et $\{\omega \in Y \mid \forall x \in E, |\omega_x| \leq \|x\|\} = \prod_{x \in E} [-\|x\|, \|x\|]$ qui est compact. \square

On peut désormais montrer le théorème 1.2. Si l'on suppose la réflexivité, alors $J(\mathcal{B}_E) = \mathcal{B}_{E''}$ est compacte pour la topologie faible- \star de E'' d'après le théorème que l'on vient de démontrer, or J^{-1} est continue de E'' muni de la topologie faible- \star dans E muni de la topologie faible, car pour tout $l \in E', [\xi \mapsto l(J^{-1}(\xi)) = \xi(l)]$ est continue sur E'' munie de la topologie faible- \star , donc \mathcal{B}_E est compacte pour la topologie faible.

Pour le sens retour, en supposant la compacité faible de la boule unité et par continuité de J par rapport aux mêmes topologies que précédemment ($(E, \text{faible}) \rightarrow (E'', \text{faible-}\star)$), $J(\mathcal{B}_E)$ est compacte dans E'' , donc en particulier fermée. D'après le lemme de Goldstine (1.1), $J(\mathcal{B}_E)$ est dense dans $\mathcal{B}_{E''}$, d'où finalement $J(\mathcal{B}_E) = \mathcal{B}_{E''}$. \square

Théorème 1.3. *Une partie convexe de E fortement fermée est fermée pour la topologie faible.*

Preuve. Soit C une partie convexe E fermée pour la topologie forte. On va montrer que le complémentaire de C est ouvert pour la topologie faible. Soit donc $x \in C^c$. Par le théorème de Hahn-Banach [1], il existe $(l, \alpha) \in E' \times \mathbb{R}$ tel que

$$\forall y \in E, l(x) < \alpha < l(y).$$

On considère

$$\mathcal{O} = \{z \in E \mid l(z) < \alpha\},$$

de sorte que $x \in \mathcal{O}, C \cap \mathcal{O} = \emptyset$, et \mathcal{O} est un ouvert de E pour la topologie faible. \square

Uniforme convexité et théorème de Milman–Pettis

Définition 1.7. Un espace de Banach est dit *uniformément convexe* si

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0 : \forall (x, y) \in \mathcal{B}_E^2, [\|x - y\| > \varepsilon] \Rightarrow \left[\left\| \frac{x + y}{2} \right\| < 1 - \delta \right].$$

Théorème 1.4. *Un espace de Banach uniformément convexe est réflexif.*

Remarque. L'uniforme convexité signifie que la sphère unité $\mathcal{S}_E = \{x \in E \mid \|x\| = 1\}$ ne contient pas de ligne droite, elle est en quelque sorte *arrondie*. Il est très surprenant qu'une telle propriété, d'ordre géométrique et qui dépend de la norme choisie, implique une propriété topologique forte, qui quant à elle ne dépend pas de la norme tant que l'on reste dans une même classe d'équivalence.

Preuve. On va montrer que $\mathcal{S}_{E''} \subset J(\mathcal{B}_E)$. Pour cela, il suffit de montrer que pour $\xi \in \mathcal{S}_{E''}$,

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists x \in \mathcal{B}_E : \|\xi - J(x)\| \leq \varepsilon.$$

Soit donc $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}_+^*$. On note $\delta > 0$ le module d'uniforme convexité donné par ε . Prenons $l \in \mathcal{S}_{E'}$ telle que $\xi(l) > 1 - \frac{\delta}{2}$ (ce qui est possible par définition de la norme de E''). On considère

$$\mathcal{V} = \left\{ \eta \in E'' \mid |(\eta - \xi)(l)| < \frac{\delta}{2} \right\}$$

qui est un voisinage de ξ pour la topologie faible- \star de E'' .

D'après le lemme de Goldstine (1.1, résultat de densité), il existe $x \in \mathcal{B}_E$ tel que $J(x) \in \mathcal{V}$.

Supposons par l'absurde que $\|\xi - J(x)\| > \varepsilon$. On peut alors observer

$$\mathcal{W} = (J(x) + \varepsilon\mathcal{B}_{E''})^c$$

qui est également un voisinage de ξ , de même que $\mathcal{W} \cap \mathcal{V}$. En réappliquant le lemme de Goldstine,

$$\exists y \in \mathcal{B}_E : J(y) \in \mathcal{W} \cap \mathcal{V}.$$

Comme $J(x), J(y) \in \mathcal{V}$ et grâce aux propriétés de l'isométrie J ,

$$2\xi(l) - l(x + y) < \delta, \tag{2}$$

d'où

$$\left\| \frac{x + y}{2} \right\| \stackrel{C.S}{\geq} \frac{1}{2}l(x + y) \stackrel{(2)}{>} \xi(l) - \frac{\delta}{2} \stackrel{(*)}{>} 1 - \delta,$$

(C.S) par l'inégalité de Cauchy-Schwarz, (*) par choix de l . Il reste alors à utiliser la forte convexité que

$$\|x - y\| \leq \varepsilon,$$

ce qui conduit à une contradiction puisque $J(y) \in \mathcal{W}$. □

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2 Application aux espaces \mathbb{L}^p et ℓ^p , espaces de Hilbert

Dans cette partie, on définit les espaces de Hilbert, qui sont des espaces de Banach particulier, en présentant les exemples des fonctions et suites de puissance intégrable ou sommable.

On utilise les résultats de la partie précédente pour étudier leurs topologies et leurs duals, pour obtenir des résultats à la fois similaires et préparatoires pour la partie suivante sur les espaces de Schatten.

Définition 2.1. On appelle *espace de Hilbert* un espace vectoriel sur \mathbb{R} ou \mathbb{C} , muni d'un produit hermitien $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$, et complet pour la norme associée à ce produit hermitien.

Remarque. On choisit comme convention pour le produit hermitien qu'il est *linéaire à gauche* et *semi-linéaire à droite*.

Théorème 2.1. (Théorème de représentation de Riesz) Soit \mathcal{H} un espace de Hilbert.

Pour toute forme $l \in \mathcal{H}'$, il existe un unique $a_l \in \mathcal{H}$ tel que

$$\forall x \in \mathcal{H}, l(x) = \langle x, a_l \rangle.$$

Ainsi, tout espace de Hilbert \mathcal{H} est isomorphe à son dual par l'isométrie semi-linéaire

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathcal{H}' & \longrightarrow & \mathcal{H} \\ l & \longmapsto & a_l \end{array},$$

ce qui permet d'identifier l'un et l'autre et de noter simplement $l(x) = \langle x, l \rangle$.

Preuve. Soit $l \in \mathcal{H}' \setminus \{0\}$ ($a_0 = 0$ est trivial). Pour $a \in (\ker l)^\perp$ non-nul,

$$\forall x \in (\ker l)^\perp, l\left(x - \frac{l(x)}{l(a)}a\right) = 0,$$

donc

$$\forall x \in (\ker l)^\perp, x - \frac{l(x)}{l(a)}a \in (\ker l)^\perp \cap \ker l = \{0\}.$$

Ce qui signifie que $\langle x, a \rangle = \|a\|^2 \frac{l(x)}{l(a)}$, et on vérifie que $a_l = \frac{\overline{l(a)} \cdot a}{\|a\|^2}$ convient (l'unicité est facile à voir par semi-linéarité, de même que la préservation de la norme).

2.1 Espaces \mathbb{L}^p

Cette partie présente les espaces des fonctions de puissance intégrable \mathbb{L}^p . La définition de l'intégrale, ainsi que les résultats d'intégration essentiels (théorème de convergence monotone de Beppo-Levi, théorème de convergence dominée de Lebesgue, lemme de Fatou, théorème de Fubini) ne sont pas rappelés ici mais pourront être trouvés dans l'ouvrage de Faraut [3].

Soit $(\Omega, \mathcal{T}, \mu)$ un espace mesuré. On note $\mathcal{F}_{mes}(\Omega, \mathbb{C})$ l'espace des fonctions mesurables à valeurs complexes sur $(\Omega, \mathcal{T}, \mu)$ [3].

On introduit la notation $(\mu\forall)$ qui signifie " μ -presque pour tout...".

Définition des espaces \mathbb{L}^p

Définition 2.2. On définit les sous-espaces de \mathcal{F}_{mes} suivants, dans lesquels les fonctions sont identifiées presque partout :

$$\mathbb{L}^\infty(\Omega) = \{f \in \mathcal{F}_{mes} \mid \exists C \in \mathbb{R} : \mu(f(x) > C) = 0\},$$

muni de la norme

$$\|f\|_\infty = \inf\{C \in \mathbb{R} \mid \mu(f(x) > C) = 0\},$$

et pour $1 \leq p < \infty$

$$\mathbb{L}^p(\Omega) = \left\{f \in \mathcal{F}_{mes} \mid \int_\Omega |f|^p d\mu < \infty\right\},$$

muni de la norme

$$\|f\|_p = \left(\int_\Omega |f|^p d\mu\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}.$$

Propriétés élémentaires

Propriété 2.1. (Inégalité de Hölder) Soit $p, q \in [1, \infty]$ tels que $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$.

Pour $(f, g) \in \mathbb{L}^p \times \mathbb{L}^q$, $fg \in \mathbb{L}^1$ et $\|fg\|_1 \leq \|f\|_p \|g\|_q$.

Propriété 2.2. (Inégalité de Minkowski)

$\|\cdot\|_p$ est effectivement une norme sur \mathbb{L}^p , qui définit donc bien un espace vectoriel normé.

Remarque. Pour $f \in \mathbb{L}^p$ et $g \in \mathbb{L}^q$, l'inégalité de Hölder permet de définir le produit scalaire

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_\Omega f \bar{g}.$$

Preuve. 2.1. dans le cas non-trivial $1 < p, q < \infty$.

Presque pour tout $x \in \Omega$, l'inégalité de Young donne (par concavité du logarithme)

$$|f(x)g(x)| \leq \frac{1}{p}|f(x)|^p + \frac{1}{q}|g(x)|^q.$$

On a donc $fg \in \mathbb{L}^1$ et, en dilatant f d'un paramètre $\lambda > 0$,

$$\int_\Omega |\lambda f(x)g(x)| \leq \frac{\lambda^p}{p} \|f\|_p^p + \frac{1}{q} \|g\|_q^q.$$

En choisissant $\lambda = \|f\|_p^{-1} \cdot \|g\|_q^{\frac{q}{p}}$ qui minimise le terme de droite divisé par λ , on obtient

$$\|fg\|_1 \leq \frac{\|f\|_p^{1-p+p} \cdot \|g\|_q^{q(1-\frac{1}{p})}}{p} + \frac{1}{q} \|g\|_q^{q-\frac{q}{p}} \cdot \|f\|_p = \left(\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q}\right) \|f\|_p \cdot \|g\|_q.$$

□

2.2. dans le cas non-trivial $1 < p < \infty$. Soit $f, g \in \mathbb{L}^p$.

Presque pour tout $x \in \Omega$, par croissance de $x \mapsto x^p$ sur \mathbb{R}^+ ,

$$|f(x) + g(x)|^p \leq (|f(x)| + |g(x)|)^p \leq (2 \max\{|f(x)|, |g(x)|\})^p \leq 2^p(|f(x)|^p + |g(x)|^p),$$

de sorte que $f + g \in \mathbb{L}^p$. De plus,

$$\|f + g\|_p^p = \int_{\Omega} |f + g|^{p-1} |f + g| \leq \|f + g\|_p^{p-1} (\|f\|_p + \|g\|_p)$$

par l'inégalité de Hölder avec $|f + g|^{p-1} \in \mathbb{L}^q$ [identité remarquable : $q(p-1) = p$].

Théorème 2.2. (Fischer–Riesz) Pour $1 \leq p \leq \infty$, \mathbb{L}^p est un espace de Banach.

Preuve. On prouve le théorème dans le cas $1 \leq p < \infty$ plus compliqué. D'après ce qui précède, il suffit de montrer la complétude.

Soit une suite de Cauchy $(f_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ dans $(\mathbb{L}^p, \|\cdot\|_p)$. Modulo l'extraction d'une sous-suite, on peut supposer

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \|f_{n+1} - f_n\|_p < \frac{1}{2^n}.$$

On pose, pour $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$:

$$(\mu \forall) x \in \Omega, g_n(x) = \sum_{k=1}^n |f_{k+1}(x) - f_k(x)|,$$

de sorte que $\|g_n\|_p \leq 1$. Par le théorème de convergence monotone, la suite (g_n) converge ponctuellement presque partout vers une fonction $g \in \mathbb{L}^p$.

De plus, presque partout, pour $n \leq m \in \mathbb{N}^*$,

$$|f_n(x) - f_m(x)| \leq \sum_{k=n}^{m-1} |f_{k+1}(x) - f_k(x)| \leq |g(x) - g_{n-1}(x)|, \quad (3)$$

donc $(f_n(x))$ est presque partout de Cauchy donc converge ponctuellement vers une fonction f qui vérifie presque partout, d'après (3), pour $n \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$|f(x) - f_n(x)| \leq g(x).$$

Ainsi, $f \in \mathbb{L}^p$ et la convergence se fait également dans \mathbb{L}^p d'après le théorème de convergence dominée : presque partout, $|f_n(x) - f(x)|^p \rightarrow_{n \rightarrow \infty} 0$ avec $|f_n(x) - f(x)|^p \leq g(x)^p \in \mathbb{L}^1$.

□

Dualité des espaces \mathbb{L}^p

Propriété 2.3. Pour $1 < p < \infty$, en posant $q = \frac{p}{p-1}$ de sorte que $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$, on a

$$(\mathbb{L}^p)' = \mathbb{L}^q.$$

En particulier, \mathbb{L}^p est réflexif.

Propriété 2.4. $(\mathbb{L}^1)' = \mathbb{L}^\infty$.

Remarque. Dans les deux cas, $E' = F$ est à prendre au sens que

$$\forall l \in E', \exists ! f \in F : \forall \phi \in E, l(\phi) = \int_{\Omega} \bar{f}\phi,$$

avec $l \mapsto f$ isométrique.

Preuve. 2.3. On commence par montrer la réflexivité pour $p \geq 2$ en utilisant l'uniforme convexité (th. 1.4). Pour $f, g \in \mathbb{L}^p(\Omega)$, par croissance de $x \mapsto (x^2 + 1)^{\frac{p}{2}} - x^p - 1$ sur \mathbb{R}^+ , ($\mu \forall$) $x \in \Omega$,

$$\left| \frac{f(x) + g(x)}{2} \right|^p + \left| \frac{f(x) - g(x)}{2} \right|^p \leq \left(\left| \frac{f(x) + g(x)}{2} \right|^2 + \left| \frac{f(x) - g(x)}{2} \right|^2 \right)^{\frac{p}{2}} = \left(\frac{f(x)^2 + g(x)^2}{2} \right)^{\frac{p}{2}},$$

d'où par convexité de $x \mapsto |x|^{p-2}$ ($p \geq 2$),

$$\left\| \frac{f+g}{2} \right\|_p^p + \left\| \frac{f-g}{2} \right\|_p^p \leq \frac{1}{2} (\|f\|_p^p + \|g\|_p^p).$$

D'après cette dernière inégalité, pour $f, g \in \mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{L}^p}$ telles que $\|f - g\|_p > \varepsilon$,

$$\left\| \frac{f+g}{2} \right\|_p^p \leq 1 - \left(\frac{\varepsilon}{2} \right)^p,$$

d'où le résultat.

Dans le cas $1 < p \leq 2$, pour $u \in \mathbb{L}^p$, on définit $T : \mathbb{L}^p \rightarrow (\mathbb{L}^q)'$ tel que $\forall f \in \mathbb{L}^q$, $Tu(f) = \int \bar{u}f$ est semi-linéaire continu. Par l'inégalité de Hölder, $|Tu(f)| \leq \|u\|_p \|f\|_q$ donc $\|Tu\|_{(\mathbb{L}^q)'} \leq \|u\|_p$. En prenant $f_0 = \frac{u}{|u|^{2-p}} \in \mathbb{L}^q$ (avec $f_0 = 0$ quand $u = 0$), on a $Tu(f_0) = \|u\|_p^p$, et

$$\|f_0\|_q = \left(\int_{\Omega} |u|^{q-2q+pq} \right)^{\frac{p-1}{p}} = \|u\|_p^{p-1},$$

d'où $\|Tu\|_{(\mathbb{L}^q)'} = \|u\|_p$. Ainsi, $T(\mathbb{L}^p)$ est un sous-espace fermé de $(\mathbb{L}^q)'$ (car \mathbb{L}^p est complet), qui est réflexif car $q \geq 2$. Cela implique que $T(\mathbb{L}^p)$ est réflexif (on a déjà utilisé ce résultat dans la preuve de la propriété 1.1) et donc que \mathbb{L}^p l'est également.

Il reste à montrer que T est surjective. Son image étant fermée, il suffit qu'elle soit dense. Prenons donc $h \in (\mathbb{L}^p)''$ tel que

$$\forall u \in \mathbb{L}^q, \langle Tu, h \rangle = 0.$$

Si on choisit en particulier $u = \frac{h}{|h|^{2-p}}$, on obtient bien que $\|h\|_p$ est nul : $h = 0$.

2.4. On travaille plus facilement sur des ensembles de mesure finie. On prend donc $(\Omega_n) \in \mathcal{T}^{\mathbb{N}}$ croissante telle que $|\Omega_n| < \infty$ et $\Omega = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \Omega_n$. On note χ_n la fonction caractéristique de Ω_n . L'unicité de la correspondance se fait facilement par linéarité, sur les Ω_n puis sur Ω .

Pour $\varphi \in (\mathbb{L}^1)'$, il reste donc à construire l'élément $u \in \mathbb{L}^{\infty}$ qui correspondra. Pour une suite de réels $(\varepsilon_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \in (\mathbb{R}_+^*)^{\mathbb{N}}$, on prend $\theta \in \mathbb{L}^2(\Omega, \mathbb{R})$ telle que $\theta \geq \varepsilon_n$ sur Ω_n .

$\left(\begin{array}{l} \mathbb{L}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{C} \\ f \longmapsto \varphi(\theta f) \end{array} \right)$ est une forme linéaire continue ($\theta f \in \mathbb{L}^1$), d'où par le théorème de Riesz :

$$\exists v \in \mathbb{L}^2 : \forall f \in \mathbb{L}^2, \varphi(\theta f) = \int_{\Omega} v \bar{f}.$$

On pose :

$$u = \frac{v}{\theta}.$$

Alors, on a le premier résultat suivant :

$$\forall g \in \mathbb{L}^\infty, \varphi(\chi_n g) = \int u(\chi_n g) \quad (4)$$

en prenant $f = \frac{\chi_n g}{\theta}$.

Pour montrer l'isométrie de la correspondance, montrons que $\|u\|_\infty \leq \|\varphi\|_{(\mathbb{L}^1)'}.$ Quel que soit $C > \|\varphi\|_{(\mathbb{L}^1)'}$, en posant $A = \{x \in \Omega / |u(x)| > C\}$ et $g = \text{signe}(u) \cdot \chi_A$, on obtient (4)

$$\int_{A \cap \Omega_n} |u| \leq \|\varphi\|_{(\mathbb{L}^1)'} |A \cap \Omega_n|,$$

soit finalement $C|A \cap \Omega_n| \leq \|\varphi\|_{(\mathbb{L}^1)'} |A \cap \Omega_n|$ donc $A \cap \Omega_n = \emptyset$, ce qui permet de conclure.

Enfin, pour étendre le résultat (4) aux fonctions $h \in \mathbb{L}^1$, on s'intéresse aux troncatures de h : $h_n(x) = |h(x)|\chi_{(|h(x)| < n)} + \text{signe}(h(x)) \cdot n\chi_{(|h(x)| \leq n)}$, en observant $\chi_n h_n \rightarrow_{n \rightarrow \infty} h$ en norme \mathbb{L}^1 par convergence dominée. \square

Propriété 2.5. *Si la mesure μ n'est pas composée d'un nombre fini d'atomes, alors \mathbb{L}^∞ n'est pas séparable.*

Preuve. En prenant des ensembles $(\omega_i)_{i \in I}$ mesurables distincts du point de vue de μ avec I indénombrable, on pose – en notant χ_A la fonction caractéristique de l'ensemble A

$$\mathcal{O}_i = \left\{ f \in \mathbb{L}^\infty(\Omega) \mid \|f - \chi_{\omega_i}\|_\infty < \frac{1}{2} \right\}.$$

Ces ensembles sont des ouverts disjoints. Dès lors, si $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ est dénombrable dense dans \mathbb{L}^∞ , alors $\forall i \in I, \exists n(i) \in \mathbb{N} : u_{n(i)} \in \mathcal{O}_i$ ce qui est impossible car I est indénombrable. \square

Propriété 2.6. *Si Ω est séparable, alors $\mathbb{L}^p(\Omega)$ est séparable pour $1 \leq p < \infty$.*

Preuve. Dans le cas $\Omega = \mathbb{R}^d$ plus simple, on montre que $\text{Vect}_{\mathbb{Q}} \left(\chi_{\prod_{i=1}^d]a_k, b_k[} \mid a_k, b_k \in \mathbb{Q} \right)$ est dénombrable dense (voir la preuve complète dans [1]).

2.2 Espaces ℓ^p

Définition des espaces $\ell^p(\mathbb{C})$

Définition 2.3. Des cas particuliers des espaces \mathbb{L}^p sont les sous-espaces de l'espace des suites complexes définis ainsi :

$$\ell^\infty(\mathbb{C}) = \{u \in \mathbb{C}^{\mathbb{N}} \mid \exists C \in \mathbb{R} : \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, |u_n| \leq C\},$$

muni de la norme

$$\|u\|_\infty = \inf\{C \in \mathbb{R} \mid \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, |u_n| \leq C\},$$

et pour $1 \leq p < \infty$

$$\ell^p(\mathbb{C}) = \{u \in \mathbb{C}^{\mathbb{N}} \mid \sum_{n \geq 0} |u_n|^p < \infty\},$$

muni de la norme

$$\|u\|_p = \left(\sum_{n \geq 0} |u_n|^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}.$$

Remarque. On remarque immédiatement que les espaces ℓ^p sont exactement les espaces \mathbb{L}^p pour une certaine mesure atomique sur \mathbb{N} . Ainsi, tous les résultats de la partie précédente se répercutent sur ces espaces.

Comparaison des normes ℓ^p

Propriété 2.7. Soient $1 \leq p \leq q \leq \infty$. Alors $\ell^p \subset \ell^q$ et

$$\forall u \in \ell^p, \|u\|_q \leq \|u\|_p$$

et

$$\forall u \in \ell^p, \|u\|_q \xrightarrow{q \rightarrow +\infty} \|u\|_\infty.$$

Preuve. Soit $u \in \ell^p$. $\forall k \in \mathbb{N}$, $\frac{|u_k|}{\|u\|_p} \leq 1$. Alors, par décroissance de $\left(\frac{|u_k|}{\|u\|_p}\right)^n$, $\frac{|u_k|^q}{\|u\|_p^q} \leq \frac{|u_k|^p}{\|u\|_p^p}$.

On s'aperçoit en sommant cette grandeur que $u \in \ell^q$ avec $\|u\|_q \leq \|u\|_p$.

De plus,

$$\|u\|_q^q = \sum_{n \geq 1} |u_n|^{p+(q-p)} \leq \|u\|_p^p \cdot \|u\|_\infty^{q-p},$$

donc

$$\liminf_q \|u\|_q \leq \|u\|_\infty \leq \limsup_q \|u\|_q.$$

□

Propriété 2.8. ℓ^1 n'est pas réflexif.

Preuve. Procédons par l'absurde. Si ℓ^1 est réflexif, alors la boule unité est compacte pour la topologie faible (th. 1.2). En prenant un ensemble orthonormé (e_n) et à extraction près, on a :

$$\exists x \in \mathcal{B}_{\ell^1} : \forall \varphi \in \ell^\infty, \langle \varphi, e_n \rangle \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow +\infty} \langle \varphi, x \rangle.$$

$$\text{En choisissant } \varphi_j = (0, \dots, 0, \overset{(j)}{1}, 1, 1, \dots), \text{ on a } \begin{cases} \forall j \in \mathbb{N}, \langle \varphi_j, x \rangle = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \langle \varphi_j, e_n \rangle = 1 \\ \langle \varphi_j, x \rangle = 1 \xrightarrow{j \rightarrow +\infty} 0 \text{ car } x \in \ell^1 \end{cases} . \square$$

Corollaire 2.1. \mathbb{L}^1 n'est pas réflexif si Ω n'est pas vide.

Preuve. La proposition précédente traite le cas où μ est atomique. Dans le cas contraire, on peut affirmer :

$$\forall \varepsilon, \exists \omega \in \mathcal{T} : 0 < \mu(\omega) < \varepsilon.$$

On peut donc construire $(\omega_n) \in \mathcal{T}^{\mathbb{N}}$ décroissante telle que $\mu(\omega_n) \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow +\infty} 0$. On pose $u_n = \frac{\chi_{\omega_n}}{|\omega_n|} \in \mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{L}^1}$.

Désormais, supposons par l'absurde que \mathbb{L}^1 est réflexif. Alors par compacité de la boule unité,

$$\exists u \in \mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{L}^1} : \forall \varphi \in \mathbb{L}^\infty, \int \varphi \bar{u}_n \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow +\infty} \int \varphi \bar{u}.$$

$$\text{Alors, } \begin{cases} \forall j \in \mathbb{N}, \int u \chi_{\omega_j} = \lim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \int u_n \chi_{\omega_j} = \lim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \int u_n = 1 \\ \int u \chi_{\omega_j} \xrightarrow{j \rightarrow +\infty} 0 \text{ par convergence dominée} \end{cases} . \square$$

3 Algèbres de Schatten

Enfin, la dernière et plus aboutie des structures que l'on présente dans ces préliminaires sont les algèbres de Schatten, équivalents non-commutatifs des espaces ℓ^p pour les opérateurs compacts. Ce sont de tels opérateurs que l'on étudiera pour décrire le comportement de systèmes physiques comme le gaz de bosons.

On considère un espace de Hilbert $(\mathcal{H}, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle)$. On s'intéresse en particulier aux opérateurs bornés sur \mathcal{H} , notés $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$, et compacts sur \mathcal{H} , notés $\mathcal{K}(\mathcal{H})$.

Rappel (voir le cours de Mathieu Lewin [4] : les opérateurs compacts sont ceux qui envoient la boule unité sur un ensemble d'adhérence compacte. $\mathcal{K}(\mathcal{H})$ est un idéal bilatère fermé de $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$, et la fermeture de l'ensemble des opérateurs de rang fini.

On note A^* l'adjoint de A . Ces notions sont détaillées dans le cours de Simon [5, chapitre 3].

Définition 3.1. Soit $A \in \mathcal{K}(\mathcal{H})$. Alors l'opérateur *valeur absolue* de A : $|A| = \sqrt{A^*A}$ est auto-adjoint compact, en particulier il est diagonalisable dans une base orthonormale de vecteurs propres.

On note ses valeurs propres $(\mu_i(A))$. Celles qui sont non-nulles sont les mêmes que les $(\mu_i(A^*))$ qui sont non-nulles ; on les appelle *valeurs singulières* de A .

Définition des algèbres de Schatten \mathfrak{S}^p

Définition 3.2. On définit les sous-espaces suivants de l'espace $\mathcal{K}(\mathcal{H})$:

Pour $1 \leq p < \infty$,

$$\mathfrak{S}^p(\mathcal{H}) = \{A \in \mathcal{K}(\mathcal{H}) \mid (\mu_i(A)) \in \ell^p\},$$

muni de la norme

$$\|A\|_p = \|(\mu_i(A))_i\|_{\ell^p}.$$

On notera parfois $\mathfrak{S}^\infty = \mathcal{K}$ muni de la norme d'opérateur classique $\|A\| = \|\mu(A)\|_{\ell^\infty} = \|A\|_\infty$.

Remarques. 1. On montre dans la suite qu'il s'agit bien de normes (prop. 3.3), que ces espaces sont des *algèbres* (cor. 3.1) et des *espaces de Banach* (prop. 3.6, par dualité).

2. Les algèbres de Schatten sont comparables aux espaces ℓ^p , à la différence notable qu'elles ne sont *pas commutatives*. Cependant, certains résultats sur les espaces ℓ^p tiennent toujours : on peut par exemple inférer la comparaison des normes (prop. 2.7 et 3.1).

Propriété 3.1. Soient $1 \leq p \leq q \leq \infty$. Alors $\mathfrak{S}^p \subset \mathfrak{S}^q$ et

$$\forall A \in \mathfrak{S}^p, \|A\|_q \leq \|A\|_p$$

et

$$\forall A \in \mathfrak{S}^p, \|A\|_q \xrightarrow{q \rightarrow +\infty} \|A\|.$$

Un résultat utile : la décomposition polaire [5, partie 3.5]

Théorème 3.1. Pour $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$, il existe une unique isométrie partielle U de $\ker(A)^\perp$ dans $\ker(A^*)^\perp$ et telle que

$$A = U|A|.$$

Si A est compact, et que l'on diagonalise $|A|$ dans une base orthonormée de vecteurs propres :

$$|A| = \sum_{n \geq 1} \mu_n(A) |\psi_n\rangle\langle\psi_n|,$$

on peut alors écrire

$$A = \sum_{n \geq 1} \mu_n(A) |U\psi_n\rangle\langle\psi_n| = \sum_{n \geq 1} \mu_n(A) |\phi_n\rangle\langle\psi_n| \quad (5)$$

où $(\phi_n = U\psi_n)$ reste une base orthonormée (BOn) car $\psi_i \in \ker(|A|)^\perp = \ker(A)^\perp$.

Propriété 3.2. Conséquence du théorème de Courant–Fischer [5, Max-Min criterion]

Les valeurs singulières d'un opérateur A borné vérifient :

$$\forall j \in \mathbb{N}^*, \mu_j(A) = \inf_{\dim V = j-1} \left[\sup_{\varphi \perp V} \frac{\|A\varphi\|}{\|\varphi\|} \right].$$

Corollaire 3.1. *Pour A et B deux opérateurs bornés,*

$$\mu_j(BA) \leq \|B\| \mu_j(A) \text{ et } \mu_j(AB) \leq \|A\| \mu_j(B),$$

de sorte que pour $A \in \mathfrak{S}^p, B \in \mathcal{B}$, on a $AB \in \mathfrak{S}^p, BA \in \mathfrak{S}^p$ et

$$\|AB\|_p \leq \|A\|_p \|B\| \text{ et } \|BA\|_p \leq \|B\| \|A\|_p.$$

\mathfrak{S}^p est donc un idéal bilatère de \mathcal{B} , et en particulier une algèbre.

La norme $\|\cdot\|_p$ est une norme d'algèbre car $\|AB\|_p \leq \|A\|_p \|B\| \leq \|A\|_p \|B\|_p$ (prop. 3.1).

Preuve. La première inégalité est une conséquence directe de la proposition 3.2 et la seconde s'en déduit car

$$\mu_j(AB) = \mu_j((AB)^*) = \mu_j(B^*A^*) \leq \|B^*\| \mu_j(A^*) = \|B\| \mu_j(A).$$

On en déduit alors le second point.

Propriété 3.3. Écritures différentes pour la norme $\|\cdot\|_p$.

Pour tout $1 \leq p \leq \infty, A \in \mathfrak{S}^p$, on a :

$$\|A\|_p^p = \max_{(\phi_n), (\psi_n) \text{ BOn}} \left(\sum_{n \geq 1} |\langle \psi_n, A\phi_n \rangle|^p \right). \quad (6)$$

On en déduit notamment qu'elle vérifie l'inégalité triangulaire (autre inégalité de Minkowski).

Pour $1 \leq p \leq 2, A \in \mathfrak{S}^p$, on a :

$$\|A\|_p^p = \min_{(\phi_n) \text{ BOn}} \left(\sum_{n \geq 1} \|A\phi_n\|^p \right). \quad (7)$$

Pour $2 \leq p < \infty, A \in \mathfrak{S}^p$, on a :

$$\|A\|_p^p = \max_{(\phi_n) \text{ BOn}} \left(\sum_{n \geq 1} \|A\phi_n\|^p \right). \quad (8)$$

Remarque. À partir de la définition (6) de la norme, on peut définir les espaces de Schatten comme des sous-espaces de $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$:

$$\mathfrak{S}^p(\mathcal{H}) = \{A \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H}) \mid \|A\|_p < \infty\},$$

et il est remarquable que ces ensembles restent inclus dans $\mathcal{K}(\mathcal{H})$ car pour toutes BOn (ψ_n) et (ϕ_n) ,

$\langle \psi_n, A\phi_n \rangle \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow +\infty} 0$, et on peut alors écrire A comme limite d'opérateurs de rang fini [5].

Preuve. Le fait que ces extrema sont atteints est trivial en choisissant de bonnes BOn.

Reste à montrer les inégalités qui correspondent : chacune procède d'un lemme plus général.

Lemme 3.1. *Pour des coefficients $(c_{nm})_{1 \leq n, m \leq \infty}$ tels que $\begin{cases} \forall n \geq 1, \sum_{m \geq 1} |c_{nm}| \leq 1 \\ \forall m \geq 1, \sum_{n \geq 1} |c_{nm}| \leq 1 \end{cases}$, on a :*

$$\forall (u_n)_{n \geq 1} \in \ell^p, \left\| \left(\sum_{m \geq 1} c_{nm} u_m \right) \right\|_n \leq \|(u_n)_n\|_{\ell^p}.$$

Preuve du lemme Pour $y \in \ell^q$, en utilisant deux fois l'inégalité de Hölder,

$$\sum_{m,n \geq 1} |c_{nm}|^{\frac{1}{p}} |c_{nm}|^{\frac{1}{q}} |u_m| |y_n| \leq \left(\sum_{n \geq 1} |c_{nm}| |u_n|^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \left(\sum_{m \geq 1} |c_{nm}| |y_m|^q \right)^{\frac{1}{q}} \leq \|u\|_p \|y\|_q$$

et on conclut par dualité $\ell^p : \|x\|_p = \sup_{y \in \mathcal{B}_{\ell^q}} |\sum_{n \geq 1} x_n y_n|$. \square

Ainsi, si $A = \sum_{n \geq 1} \mu_n(A) |\alpha_n\rangle\langle a_n|$,

$$\sum_{m \geq 1} |\langle \psi_m, A \phi_m \rangle|^p \leq \sum_{m,n \geq 1} |\mu_n(A)|^p \cdot |\langle \psi_m, \alpha_n \rangle \langle a_n, \phi_m \rangle|^p \leq \sum_{n \geq 1} \mu_n(A)^p = \|A\|_p^p$$

avec $c_{nm} = \langle \psi_m, \alpha_n \rangle \langle a_n, \phi_m \rangle$ qui en vérifient les conditions par Cauchy-Schwarz dans ℓ^2 .

Lemme 3.2. Pour A un opérateur positif ($A \geq 0 : \forall x \in \mathcal{H}, \langle x, Ax \rangle \geq 0$), et $y \in \mathcal{H}$,

$$\begin{aligned} \forall 0 < \gamma \leq 1, \quad \langle y, A^\gamma y \rangle &\leq \langle y, Ay \rangle^\gamma |y|^{2(1-\gamma)} \\ \forall 1 \leq \gamma < \infty, \quad \langle y, A^\gamma y \rangle &\geq \langle y, Ay \rangle^\gamma |y|^{2(1-\gamma)}. \end{aligned}$$

Les inégalités se déduisent alors du cas $\gamma = \frac{p}{2}$ (les preuves détaillées sont dans l'article de Charles McCarthy [6]).

Le cas \mathfrak{S}^1 : définition de la trace

Pour $A \in \mathfrak{S}^1$,

$$\|A\|_1 = \sum_{n \geq 1} \mu_n(A) \stackrel{(6)}{=} \max_{(\phi_n), (\psi_n)} \left(\sum_{n \geq 1} |\langle \psi_n, A \phi_n \rangle| \right),$$

ce qui implique que la série

$$\sum_{n \geq 1} \langle \phi_n, A \phi_n \rangle$$

est absolument convergente pour toute BOn (ϕ_n) , et est indépendante de la base orthonormée choisie. On appelle alors cette quantité *trace de A* , notée $\text{tr}(A)$. Elle est évidemment linéaire et $\|A\|_1 = \text{tr}(|A|)$.

Propriété 3.4. La trace est continue sur \mathfrak{S}^1 : pour $A \in \mathfrak{S}^1$, $|\text{tr}(A)| \leq \|A\|_1$.

Preuve. Comme la trace est indépendante de la base choisie, si $A = \sum_{n \geq 1} \mu_n(A) |\alpha_n\rangle\langle a_n|$,

$$|\text{tr}(A)| = \left| \sum_{n,m \geq 1} \mu_n(A) \langle \alpha_m, \alpha_n \rangle \langle a_n, \alpha_m \rangle \right| \leq \sum_{n \geq 1} |\mu_n(A) \langle a_n, \alpha_n \rangle| \leq \|A\|_1$$

Propriété 3.5. *La trace est symétrique. Plus précisément, pour $A, B \in \mathfrak{S}^1$, en notant (voir (5))*

$$A = \sum_{m \geq 1} \mu_m(A) |\alpha_m\rangle \langle a_m| \text{ et } B = \sum_{n \geq 1} \mu_n(B) |\beta_n\rangle \langle b_n|,$$

on a

$$\operatorname{tr}(AB) = \sum_{n \geq 1} \langle \phi_n, AB\phi_n \rangle = \sum_{n, m \geq 1} \mu_m(A) \mu_n(B) \langle b_n, \alpha_m \rangle \langle a_m, \beta_n \rangle = \operatorname{tr}(BA).$$

Remarque. La preuve du lemme 3.1 permet de montrer que pour $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$, $A \in \mathfrak{S}^p$, $B \in \mathfrak{S}^q$,

$$AB \in \mathfrak{S}^1 \text{ et } \|AB\|_1 \leq \|A\|_p \cdot \|B\|_q.$$

Cela permet de définir la trace de AB . Dans le cas $p = q = 2$, cela construit un *produit scalaire* sur \mathfrak{S}^2 . Plus généralement, la trace étant continue et linéaire, cela permet de définir une dualité entre les espaces \mathfrak{S}^p et \mathfrak{S}^q , qui est l'objet de la propriété suivante.

Dualité des espaces \mathfrak{S}^p

Propriété 3.6. *Pour $1 < p < \infty$, en posant $q = \frac{p}{p-1}$ de sorte que $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$, on a*

$$(\mathfrak{S}^p)' = \mathfrak{S}^q.$$

En particulier, \mathfrak{S}^p est réflexif et complet.

Propriété 3.7. *$(\mathfrak{S}^1)' = \mathcal{B}$, il est complet.*

Propriété 3.8. *$\mathfrak{S}^1 = \mathcal{K}'$, il est aussi complet.*

Preuve. On a déjà vu (prop. 3.4 et remarque préliminaire) que $|\operatorname{tr}(AB)| \leq \|AB\|_1 \leq \|A\|_p \cdot \|B\|_q$.

3.7 Soit $\lambda \in (\mathfrak{S}^1)'$. Montrons qu'il existe $B \in \mathcal{B}$ tel que $\lambda = (A \mapsto \operatorname{tr}(AB))$ avec $\|B\| = \|\lambda\|$. Pour tous $(\phi, \psi) \in \mathcal{H}^2$, on pose $\beta(\phi, \psi) = \lambda(|\psi\rangle \langle \phi|) \in \mathbb{K}$, qui vérifie

$$\forall (\phi, \psi) \in \mathcal{H}^2, \beta(\phi, \psi) \leq \|\lambda\|_{\mathfrak{S}^1} \|\phi\|_{\mathcal{H}} \|\psi\|_{\mathcal{H}},$$

donc par le théorème de représentation de Riesz, il existe $B \in \mathcal{B}$ tel que

$$\forall (\phi, \psi) \in \mathcal{H}^2, |\beta(\phi, \psi)| = \langle \phi, B\psi \rangle.$$

Enfin, si $A = \sum_{n \geq 1} \mu_n(A) |\alpha_n\rangle \langle a_n| \in \mathfrak{S}^1$, comme $(\mu_n(A))_{n \geq 1} \in \ell^1$, par linéarité et continuité,

$$\forall A \in \mathfrak{S}^1, \lambda(A) = \sum_{n \geq 0} \mu_n(A) \lambda(|\alpha_n\rangle \langle a_n|) = \sum_{n \geq 0} \mu_n(A) \langle a_n, B\alpha_n \rangle \stackrel{(\text{prop 3.5})}{=} \operatorname{tr}(AB).$$

3.6 Comme $\mathfrak{S}^1 \subset \mathfrak{S}^p$ avec domination de la norme, $\lambda \in (\mathfrak{S}^p)'$ se restreint à \mathfrak{S}^1 où $\lambda : A \mapsto \text{tr}(AB)$. Montrons alors que $B \in \mathfrak{S}^q$. Pour montrer qu'il est compact, supposons par l'absurde qu'à phase et extraction près, $\langle \phi_n, B\psi_n \rangle \geq 0$ pour certaines BOn, avec $\langle \phi_n, B\psi_n \rangle \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow +\infty} a > 0$.

Alors, pour $\beta \in]0, 1[$ tel que $\beta p < 1$, en posant $A_N = \sum_{k=1}^N k^{-\beta} |\psi_k\rangle\langle \phi_k| \in \mathfrak{S}^p$, on observe que

$$\lambda(A_N) = \text{tr}(A_N B) = \sum_{k=1}^N k^{-\beta} \langle \phi_k, B\psi_k \rangle \xrightarrow{N \rightarrow +\infty} +\infty,$$

d'où la contradiction. Comme B est compact, on peut écrire $B \stackrel{(5)}{=} \sum_{n \geq 1} \mu_n(B) |\beta_n\rangle\langle b_n|$.

Alors, $\lambda\left(\sum_{k=1}^N x_k |\beta_k\rangle\langle b_k|\right) = \sum_{k=1}^N x_k \mu_k(B)$, mais $\exists C \geq 0 : \forall A \in \mathfrak{S}^p, |\lambda(A)| \leq C \|A\|_1$, donc en prenant $x_n = \mu_n(B)^{q-1}$,

$$\sum_{k=1}^N \mu_n(B)^q \leq C \left(\sum_{k=1}^N \mu_n(B)^{(q-1)p} \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \text{ i.e. } \left(\sum_{k=1}^N \mu_n(B)^q \right)^{\frac{1}{q}} \leq C.$$

□

3.8 Soit $\lambda \in \mathcal{K}'$. Comme dans la preuve du 3.7, on pose on pose $\beta(\phi, \psi) = \lambda(|\psi\rangle\langle \phi|) \in \mathbb{K}$, qui définit $B \in \mathcal{B}$ tel que

$$\forall (\phi, \psi) \in \mathcal{H}^2, \beta(\phi, \psi) = \langle \phi, B\psi \rangle.$$

On va montrer que B est à trace. On observe la suite d'opérateurs compacts $K_{\phi, \psi}^N = \sum_{k=1}^N |\psi_j\rangle\langle \phi_j|$ de norme inférieure à 1 pour $(\psi_n)_n, (\phi_n)_n$ des BOn. À partir de deux telles BOn, on peut en construire une troisième $(\eta_n)_n$ en changeant la phase de façon à ce que $\forall n \geq 1, \langle \eta_n, \psi_n \rangle = |\langle \phi_j, \psi_j \rangle|$. Alors,

$$\lambda\left(B_{\eta, \psi}^N\right) = \sum_{k=1}^N |\langle \phi_k, A\psi_k \rangle| \leq \|\lambda\|,$$

de sorte que (prop. 3.3, (6)) $A \in \mathfrak{S}^1$ avec $\|A\|_1 \leq \|\lambda\|$.

Le fait que l'identification de ces espaces soit isométrique se déduit aisément des calculs.

Théorème 3.2. Inégalité de Hölder pour les espaces \mathfrak{S}^p

Soit $(p, q, r) \in [1, \infty]^3$ tel que $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = \frac{1}{r}$. Soient $A \in \mathfrak{S}^p$ et $B \in \mathfrak{S}^q$. Alors,

$$AB \in \mathfrak{S}^r \text{ et } \|AB\|_r \leq \|A\|_p \cdot \|B\|_q.$$

Preuve. Le manque de commutativité empêche de se ramener au cas $r = 1$. Ce cas est d'ailleurs une conséquence directe de la preuve du lemme 3.1, et le cas $p = \infty$ a déjà été traité (cor. 3.1).

Supposons alors $p, q < \infty, r > 1$. Soit $r' = \frac{r}{r-1}$. Par dualité et densité, il suffit de montrer

$$|\text{tr}(ABC)| \leq \|A\|_p \cdot \|B\|_q \cdot \|C\|_{r'}$$

pour des opérateurs de rang fini. On se ramène enfin au cas $\|A\|_p = \|B\|_q = \|C\|_{r'} = 1$.

On écrit donc $A = \sum_{k=1}^N \mu_k(A) |\alpha_k\rangle \langle a_k|$, $B = \sum_{k=1}^N \mu_k(B) |\beta_k\rangle \langle b_k|$, $C = \sum_{k=1}^N \mu_k(C) |\gamma_k\rangle \langle c_k|$, et pour $z \in \mathbb{C}$ on pose $A(z) = \sum_{k=1}^N \mu_k(A) \frac{z}{r} |\alpha_k\rangle \langle a_k|$, $B(z) = \sum_{k=1}^N \mu_k(B) \frac{q(1-z)}{r} |\alpha_k\rangle \langle a_k|$, $f(z) = \text{tr}(B(z)CA(z))$.

Alors, pour $z \in i\mathbb{R}$, $A(z)$ est une isométrie partielle et $\|B(z)\|_r = 1$, de sorte que $\|CB(z)\|_1 \leq \|C\|_{r'} \cdot \|B\|_r \leq 1$ par le cas $r = 1$, et donc $|f(z)| \leq 1$. Pour $z \in 1 + i\mathbb{R}$, le rôle de A et B est inversé et la conclusion la même.

Pour des opérateurs de rang fini, f est analytique et bornée sur $\{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid 0 \leq \Re(z) \leq 1\}$, d'où par le principe du maximum (e.g. [5, partie 2]) $|f| \leq 1$ sur cet ensemble, et $z = \frac{r}{p}$ permet de conclure. □

Opérateurs Hilbert–Schmidt

Pour finir, on s'intéresse spécifiquement à l'algèbre $\mathfrak{S}^2(\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega, \mu))$ pour un domaine $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^d$, appelés les opérateurs Hilbert–Schmidt. On remarque au passage que $\|A\|_2^2 = \sum_{n \geq 1} \|A\phi_n\|^2 = \sum_{n,m \geq 1} |\langle \phi_n, A\psi_m \rangle|^2$ ne dépend pas des BOB $(\phi_n)_n$ et $(\psi_m)_m$ choisies (cf. prop. 3.3).

Théorème 3.3. Caractérisation des opérateurs Hilbert–Schmidt. Soit $A \in \mathcal{K}(\mathcal{H})$. On a l'équivalence

$$A \in \mathfrak{S}^2 \Leftrightarrow \exists K_A \in \mathbb{L}^2(\Omega^2) : \forall f \in \mathbb{L}^2(\Omega), (\mu \forall) x \in \Omega, (Af)(x) = \int_{\Omega} K_A(x, y) f(y) dy,$$

et dans ce cas on a l'isométrie

$$\|A\|_2^2 = \|K_A\|_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega^2)} = \int_{\Omega^2} |K_A(x, y)| d\mu(x) d\mu(y).$$

Preuve. \Rightarrow On écrit une fois de plus $A \stackrel{(5)}{=} \sum_{n \geq 1} \mu_n(A) |\alpha_n\rangle \langle a_n|$. On pose alors

$$\forall (x, y) \in \Omega^2, K_A(x, y) = \sum_{n \geq 1} \mu_n(A) \alpha_n(x) \overline{a_n(y)},$$

qui définit une fonction $\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega^2)$. Et on vérifie que pour $f \in \mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)$, $x \in \Omega$, par Fubini,

$$\int_{\Omega} K_A(x, y) f(y) dy = \sum_{n \geq 1} \mu_n(A) \alpha_n(x) \int_{\Omega} f(y) \overline{a_n(y)} dy = Af(x).$$

\Leftarrow Par l'inégalité de Cauchy-Schwarz, $\|Af\|_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)} \leq \|K_A\|_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega^2)} \|f\|_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)}$. Soit $(\phi_n)_{n \geq 1}$ une base orthonormée de $\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)$. Comme $(\phi_n \otimes \overline{\phi_m})_{n,m \geq 1}$ est une base orthonormée de $\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega^2)$ [5],

$$\langle \phi_n, A\phi_m \rangle = \int_{\Omega^2} \phi_n(x) \overline{\phi_m(y)} K_A(x, y) dx dy = \langle \phi_n \otimes \overline{\phi_m}, K \rangle,$$

et finalement $\|A\|_2^2 = \sum_{n,m \geq 1} |\langle \phi_n, A\phi_m \rangle|^2 = \sum_{n,m \geq 1} |\langle \phi_n \otimes \overline{\phi_m}, K \rangle|^2 = \|K\|_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega^2)}^2$. □

Finalement, on a introduit les espaces \mathbb{L}^p , ℓ^p et \mathfrak{S}^p , dont on a étudié la structure et la dualité en fonction de p . Voici un tableau récapitulatif de ces préliminaires, qui met en exergue les analogies entre les différents espaces étudiés.

Tableau récapitulatif des dualités				
$\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$	$1 < p < \infty$	$(\ell^p)' = \ell^q$	$(\mathbb{L}^p)' = \mathbb{L}^q$	$(\mathfrak{S}^p)' = \mathfrak{S}^q$
	$p = 1$	$(\ell^1)' = \ell^\infty$	$(\mathbb{L}^1)' = \mathbb{L}^\infty$	$(\mathfrak{S}^1)' = \mathcal{B}$
	$p = \infty$	$\ell^1 \subsetneq (\ell^\infty)'$	$\mathbb{L}^1 \subsetneq (\mathbb{L}^\infty)'$	$\mathfrak{S}^1 = \mathcal{K}'$

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