

Fourier decay for homogeneous self-affine measures

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Abstract. We show that for Lebesgue almost all d -tuples $(\theta_1, \dots, \theta_d)$, with $|\theta_j| > 1$, any self-affine measure for a homogeneous non-degenerate iterated function system $\{Ax + a_j\}_{j=1}^m$ in \mathbb{R}^d , where A^{-1} is a diagonal matrix with the entries $(\theta_1, \dots, \theta_d)$, has power Fourier decay at infinity.

1. Introduction

For a finite positive Borel measure μ on \mathbb{R}^d , consider the Fourier transform

$$\hat{\mu}(\xi) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} e^{-2\pi i \langle \xi, x \rangle} d\mu(x).$$

We are interested in the decay properties of $\hat{\mu}$ at infinity. The measure μ is called *Rajchman* if

$$\lim_{|\xi| \rightarrow \infty} \hat{\mu}(\xi) = 0,$$

where $|\xi|$ is a norm (say, the Euclidean norm) of $\xi \in \mathbb{R}^d$. Whereas absolutely continuous measures are Rajchman by the Riemann–Lebesgue lemma, it is a subtle question to decide which singular measures are such; see, e.g., the survey of Lyons [14]. A much stronger property, which is useful for many applications, is the following.

Definition 1.1. For $\alpha > 0$, let

$$\mathcal{D}_d(\alpha) = \{ \nu \text{ finite positive measure on } \mathbb{R}^d : |\hat{\nu}(t)| = O_\nu(|t|^{-\alpha}) \text{ as } |t| \rightarrow \infty \},$$

and define $\mathcal{D}_d = \bigcup_{\alpha > 0} \mathcal{D}_d(\alpha)$. A measure ν is said to have *power Fourier decay* if $\nu \in \mathcal{D}_d$.

Many recent papers have been devoted to the question of Fourier decay for classes of “fractal” measures; see, e.g., [1–3, 9, 11–13, 17, 19, 23, 25]. Here, we continue this line of research, focusing on the class of *homogeneous self-affine measures* in \mathbb{R}^d . A measure μ is called *self-affine* if it is the invariant measure for a self-affine iterated

function system (IFS) $\{f_j\}_{j=1}^m$, with $m \geq 2$, where $f_j(x) = A_jx + a_j$, the matrices $A_j : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$ are invertible linear contractions (in some norm), and $a_j \in \mathbb{R}^d$ are “digit” vectors. This means that for some probability vector $\mathbf{p} = (p_j)_{j \leq m}$ holds

$$\mu = \sum_{j=1}^m p_j (\mu \circ f_j^{-1}). \tag{1.1}$$

It is well known that this equation defines a unique probability Borel measure. The self-affine IFS is *homogeneous* if all A_j are equal to each other: $A = A_j$ for $j \leq m$. Denote the digit set by $\mathcal{D} := \{a_1, \dots, a_m\}$ and the corresponding self-affine measure by $\mu(A, \mathcal{D}, \mathbf{p})$. We will write $\mathbf{p} > 0$ if all $p_j > 0$. Following [8], we say that the IFS is *affinely irreducible* if the attractor is not contained in a proper affine subspace of \mathbb{R}^d . It is easy to see that this is a necessary condition for the self-affine measure to be Rajchman, so this will always be our assumption. By a conjugation with a translation, we can always assume that $0 \in \mathcal{D}$. In this case, affine irreducibility is equivalent to the digit set \mathcal{D} being a *cyclic family* for A , that is, \mathbb{R}^d being the smallest A -invariant subspace containing \mathcal{D} .

The IFS is *self-similar* if all A_j are contracting similitudes, that is, $A_j = \lambda_j \mathcal{O}_j$ for some $\lambda_j \in (0, 1)$ and orthogonal matrices \mathcal{O}_j . In many aspects, “genuine” (i.e., non-self-similar) self-affine and self-similar IFS are very different; of course, the distinction exists only for $d \geq 2$.

Every homogeneous self-affine measure can be expressed as an infinite convolution product

$$\mu(A, \mathcal{D}, \mathbf{p}) = \bigstar_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum_{j=1}^m p_j \delta_{A^n a_j}, \tag{1.2}$$

and for every $\mathbf{p} > 0$, it is supported on the attractor (self-affine set)

$$K_{A, \mathcal{D}} := \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}^d : x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} A^n b_n, b_n \in \mathcal{D} \right\}.$$

By the definition of the self-affine measure,

$$\hat{\mu}(\xi) = \sum_{j=1}^m p_j \int e^{-2\pi i \langle \xi, Ax + a_j \rangle} d\mu = \left(\sum_{j=1}^m p_j e^{-2\pi i \langle \xi, a_j \rangle} \right) \hat{\mu}(A^t \xi),$$

where A^t is the matrix transpose of A . Iterating, we obtain

$$\hat{\mu}(\xi) = \prod_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\sum_{j=1}^m p_j e^{-2\pi i \langle (A^t)^n \xi, a_j \rangle} \right) = \prod_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\sum_{j=1}^m p_j e^{-2\pi i \langle \xi, A^n a_j \rangle} \right), \tag{1.3}$$

where the infinite product converges, since $\|A^n\| \rightarrow 0$ exponentially fast as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

1.1. Background

We start with the known results on Fourier decay for classical Bernoulli convolutions ν_λ , namely, self-similar measures on the line, corresponding to the IFS $\{\lambda x, \lambda x + 1\}$, with $\lambda \in (0, 1)$ and probabilities $(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$ (often the digits ± 1 are used instead; it is easy to see that taking any two distinct digits results in the same measure, up to an affine change of variable). Erdős [5] proved that $\widehat{\nu}_\lambda(t) \not\rightarrow 0$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$ when $\theta = 1/\lambda$ is a Pisot number. Recall that a *Pisot number* is an algebraic integer greater than one, whose algebraic (Galois) conjugates are all less than one in modulus. Salem [18] showed that if $1/\lambda$ is not a Pisot number, then $\widehat{\nu}_\lambda$ is a Rajchman measure. In the other direction, Erdős [6] proved that for any $[a, b] \subset (0, 1)$, there exists $\alpha > 0$ such that $\nu_\lambda \in \mathcal{D}_1(\alpha)$ for a.e. $\lambda \in [a, b]$. Later, Kahane [10] indicated that Erdős' argument actually gives that $\nu_\lambda \in \mathcal{D}_1$ for all $\lambda \in (0, 1)$ outside a set of zero Hausdorff dimension. (We should mention that very few specific λ are known, for which ν_λ has power Fourier decay; see Dai, Feng, and Wang [4].) In the original papers of Erdős and Kahane, there were no explicit quantitative bounds; this was done in the survey [15], where the expression “Erdős–Kahane argument” was used first. The general case of a homogeneous self-similar measure on the line is treated analogously to that of Bernoulli convolutions: the self-similar measure is still an infinite convolution and the Erdős–Kahane argument on power Fourier decay goes through with minor modifications; see [4, 22]. Although one of the main motivations for the study of the Fourier transform has been the question of absolute continuity/singularity of ν_λ , here we do not discuss it but refer the reader to the recent survey [24].

Next, we turn to the non-homogeneous case on the line. Li and Sahlsten [13] proved that if μ is a self-similar measure on the line with contraction ratios $\{r_i\}_{i=1}^m$ and there exist $i \neq j$ such that $\log r_i / \log r_j$ is irrational, then μ is Rajchman. Moreover, they showed logarithmic decay of the Fourier transform under a Diophantine condition. A related result for self-conformal measures was recently obtained by Algom, Rodriguez Hertz, and Wang [1]. Brémont [3] obtained an (almost) complete characterization of (non-)Rajchman self-similar measures in the case when $r_j = \lambda^{n_j}$ for $j \leq m$. To be non-Rajchman, it is necessary for $1/\lambda$ to be Pisot. For “generic” choices of the probability vector \mathbf{p} , assuming that $\mathcal{D} \subset \mathbb{Q}(\lambda)$ after an affine conjugation, this is also sufficient, but there are some exceptional cases of positive co-dimension. Varjú and Yu [25] proved logarithmic decay of the Fourier transform in the case when $r_j = \lambda^{n_j}$ for $j \leq m$ and $1/\lambda$ is algebraic, but not a Pisot or Salem number. In [23], we showed that outside a zero Hausdorff dimension exceptional set of parameters, all self-similar measures on \mathbb{R} belong to \mathcal{D}_1 ; however, the exceptional set is not explicit.

Turning to higher dimensions, we mention the recent paper by Rapaport [17], where he gives an algebraic characterization of self-similar IFS for which there exists

a probability vector yielding a non-Rajchman self-similar measure. Li and Sahlsten [12] investigated self-affine measures in \mathbb{R}^d and obtained power Fourier decay under some algebraic conditions, which never hold for a homogeneous self-affine IFS. Their main assumptions are total irreducibility of the closed group generated by the contraction linear maps A_j and non-compactness of the projection of this group to $\text{PGL}(d, \mathbb{R})$. For $d = 2, 3$ they showed that this is sufficient.

1.2. Statement of the results

We assume that A is a matrix diagonalizable over \mathbb{R} . Then we can reduce the IFS, via a linear change of variable, to one where A is a diagonal matrix with real entries. Given $A = \text{Diag}[\theta_1^{-1}, \dots, \theta_d^{-1}]$, with $|\theta_j| > 1$, a set of digits $\mathcal{D} = \{a_1, \dots, a_m\} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$, and a probability vector \mathbf{p} , we write $\boldsymbol{\theta} = (\theta_1, \dots, \theta_d)$ and denote by $\mu(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathcal{D}, \mathbf{p})$ the self-affine measure defined by (1.1). Our main motivation is the class of measures which can be viewed as “self-affine Bernoulli convolutions”, with $A = \text{Diag}[\theta_1^{-1}, \dots, \theta_d^{-1}]$ a diagonal matrix with distinct real entries and $\mathcal{D} = \{0, (1, \dots, 1)\}$. In this special case, we denote the self-affine measure by $\mu(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{p})$.

Theorem 1.2. *There exists an exceptional set $E \subset \mathbb{R}^d$, with $\mathcal{L}^d(E) = 0$, such that for all $\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \mathbb{R}^d \setminus E$, with $\min_j |\theta_j| > 1$, for all sets of digits \mathcal{D} , such that the IFS is affinely irreducible, and all $\mathbf{p} > 0$, holds $\mu(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathcal{D}, \mathbf{p}) \in \mathcal{D}_d$.*

The theorem is a consequence of a more quantitative statement.

Theorem 1.3. *Fix $1 < b_1 < b_2 < \infty$ and $c_1, \varepsilon > 0$. Then there exist $\alpha > 0$ and $\mathcal{E} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$, depending on these parameters, such that $\mathcal{L}^d(\mathcal{E}) = 0$ and for all $\boldsymbol{\theta} \notin \mathcal{E}$ satisfying*

$$b_1 \leq \min_j |\theta_j| < \max_j |\theta_j| \leq b_2 \quad \text{and} \quad |\theta_i - \theta_j| \geq c_1, \quad i \neq j,$$

for all digit sets \mathcal{D} such that the IFS is affinely irreducible, and all \mathbf{p} such that $\min_j p_j \geq \varepsilon$, we have $\mu(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathcal{D}, \mathbf{p}) \in \mathcal{D}_d(\alpha)$.

Reduction of Theorem 1.2 to Theorem 1.3. For $M \in \mathbb{N}$, let $\mathcal{E}^{(M)}$ be the exceptional set obtained from Theorem 1.3 with $b_1 = 1 + M^{-1}$, $b_2 = M$, and $\varepsilon = c_1 = M^{-1}$. Then the set

$$E = \bigcup_{M=2}^{\infty} \mathcal{E}^{(M)} \cup \{\boldsymbol{\theta} : \exists i \neq j, \theta_i = \theta_j\}.$$

has the desired properties. ■

The proof of Theorem 1.3 uses a version of the Erdős–Kahane technique. We follow the general scheme of [15, 22], but this is not a trivial extension.

In view of the convolution structure, Theorem 1.3 yields some information on absolute continuity of self-affine measures, by a standard argument.

Corollary 1.4. Fix $1 < b_1 < b_2 < \infty$ and $c_1, \varepsilon > 0$. Then there exist a sequence (n_k) with $n_k \rightarrow \infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ and a set $\tilde{\mathcal{E}}_k \subset \mathbb{R}^d$, depending on these parameters, such that $\mathcal{L}^d(\tilde{\mathcal{E}}_k) = 0$ and for all $\theta \notin \tilde{\mathcal{E}}_k$, satisfying

$$b_1 \leq \min_j |\theta_j^{n_k}| < \max_j |\theta_j^{n_k}| \leq b_2 \quad \text{and} \quad |\theta_i^{n_k} - \theta_j^{n_k}| \geq c_1, \quad i \neq j,$$

for all digit sets \mathcal{D} such that the IFS is affinely irreducible, and all \mathbf{p} such that $\min_j p_j \geq \varepsilon$, the measure $\mu(\theta, \mathcal{D}, \mathbf{p})$ is absolutely continuous with respect to \mathcal{L}^d , with a Radon–Nikodym derivative in $C^k(\mathbb{R}^d)$, $k \geq 0$.

Derivation of Corollary 1.4 from Theorem 1.3. Let $n \geq 2$. It follows from (1.2) that

$$\mu(A, \mathcal{D}, \mathbf{p}) = \mu(A^n, \mathcal{D}, \mathbf{p}) * \mu(A^n, A\mathcal{D}, \mathbf{p}) * \cdots * \mu(A^n, A^{n-1}\mathcal{D}, \mathbf{p}).$$

It is easy to see that if the original IFS is affinely irreducible, then so are the IFS associated with $(A^n, A^j \mathcal{D})$ and, moreover, these IFS are all affine conjugate to each other. Therefore, if $\mu(A^n, \mathcal{D}, \mathbf{p}) \in \mathcal{D}_d(\alpha)$, then $\mu(A, \mathcal{D}, \mathbf{p}) \in \mathcal{D}_d(n\alpha)$. As it is well known,

$$\mu \in \mathcal{D}_d(\beta), \beta > d + k \quad \implies \quad \frac{d\mu}{d\mathcal{L}^d} \in C^k(\mathbb{R}^d),$$

so we can take n_k such that $n_k\alpha > d + k$, and $\tilde{\mathcal{E}}_k = \{\theta : \theta^{n_k} \in \mathcal{E}\}$, where α and \mathcal{E} are from Theorem 1.3. ■

Remark 1.5. (a) In general, the power decay cannot hold for all θ ; for instance, it is easy to see that the measure $\mu(\theta, \mathbf{p})$ is not Rajchman if at least one of θ_k is a Pisot number. Thus, in the most basic case with two digits, the exceptional set has Hausdorff dimension at least $d - 1$.

(b) It is natural to ask what happens if A is not diagonalizable over \mathbb{R} . A complex eigenvalue of A corresponds to a 2-dimensional homogeneous self-similar IFS with rotation, or an IFS of the form $\{\lambda z + a_j\}_{j=1}^m$, with $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$, $|\lambda| < 1$, and $a_j \in \mathbb{C}$. In [21], it was shown that for all λ outside a set of Hausdorff dimension zero, the corresponding self-similar measure belongs to \mathcal{D}_2 . It may be possible to combine the methods of [21] with those of the current paper to obtain power Fourier decay for a typical A diagonalizable over \mathbb{C} . It would also be interesting to consider the case of non-diagonalizable A , starting with a single Jordan block.

(c) In the special case of $d = 2$ and $m = 2$, our system reduces to a planar self-affine IFS, conjugate to $\{(\lambda x, \gamma y) \pm (-1, 1)\}$ for $0 < \gamma < \lambda < 1$. This system has been studied by many authors, especially the dimension and topological properties of its attractor, see [7] and the references therein. For our work, the most relevant is the paper by Shmerkin [20]. Among other results, he proved absolute continuity with a density in L^2 of the self-affine measure (with some fixed probabilities) almost

everywhere in some region, in particular, in some explicit neighborhood of $(1, 1)$. He also showed that if $(\lambda^{-1}, \gamma^{-1})$ forms a *Pisot pair*, then the measure is not Rajchman and hence singular.

1.3. Rajchman self-affine measures

The question “when is $\mu(A, \mathcal{D}, \mathbf{p})$ Rajchman?” is not addressed here. Recently, Rapa-
port [17] obtained an (almost) complete characterization of *self-similar* Rajchman
measures in \mathbb{R}^d . Of course, our situation is vastly simplified by the assumption that
the IFS is homogeneous, but still it is not completely straightforward. The key notion
here is the following.

Definition 1.6. A collection of numbers $(\theta_1, \dots, \theta_m)$ (real or complex) is called a
Pisot family or a *P.V. m -tuple* if

- (i) $|\theta_j| > 1$ for all $j \leq m$, and
- (ii) there is a monic integer polynomial $P(t)$, such that $P(\theta_j) = 0$ for all $j \leq m$,
whereas every other root θ' of $P(t)$ satisfies $|\theta'| < 1$.

It is not difficult to show, using the classical techniques of Pisot [16] and Salem
[18], as well as some ideas from [17, Section 5], that

- if $\mu(A, \mathcal{D}, \mathbf{p})$ is not a Rajchman measure and the IFS is affinely irreducible, then
the spectrum $\text{Spec}(A^{-1})$ contains a Pisot family;
- if $\text{Spec}(A^{-1})$ contains a Pisot family, then for a “generic” choice of \mathcal{D} , with $m \geq 3$,
the measure $\mu(A, \mathcal{D}, \mathbf{p})$ is Rajchman; however,
- if $\text{Spec}(A^{-1})$ contains a Pisot family, then under appropriate conditions the meas-
ure $\mu(A, \mathcal{D}, \mathbf{p})$ is not Rajchman. For instance, this holds if there is at least one
conjugate of the elements of the Pisot family less than 1 in absolute value, $m = 2$,
and A is diagonalizable over \mathbb{R} .

We omit the details.

2. Proofs

The following is an elementary inequality.

Lemma 2.1. Let $\mathbf{p} = (p_1, \dots, p_m) > 0$ be a probability vector and $\alpha_1 = 0$, $\alpha_j \in \mathbb{R}$,
 $j = 2, \dots, m$. Denote $\varepsilon = \min_j p_j$ and write $\|x\| = \text{dist}(x, \mathbb{Z})$. Then for any $k \leq m$,

$$\left| \sum_{j=1}^m p_j e^{-2\pi i \alpha_j} \right| \leq 1 - 2\pi \varepsilon \|\alpha_k\|^2. \tag{2.1}$$

Proof. Fix $k \in \{2, \dots, m\}$. We can estimate

$$\left| \sum_{j=1}^m p_j e^{-2\pi\alpha_j} \right| = \left| p_1 + \sum_{j=2}^m p_j e^{-2\pi\alpha_j} \right| \leq |p_1 + p_k e^{-2\pi i\alpha_k}| + (1 - p_1 - p_k).$$

Assume that $p_1 \geq p_k$; otherwise, write $|p_1 + p_k e^{-2\pi i\alpha_k}| = |p_1 e^{2\pi i\alpha_k} + p_k|$ and repeat the argument. Then observe that

$$\begin{aligned} |p_1 + p_k e^{-2\pi i\alpha_k}| &\leq (p_1 - p_k) + p_k |1 + e^{-2\pi i\alpha_k}|, \\ |1 + e^{-2\pi i\alpha_k}| &= 2|\cos(\pi\alpha_k)| \leq 2(1 - \pi\|\alpha_k\|^2). \end{aligned}$$

This implies the desired inequality. ■

Recall from (1.3) that

$$\hat{\mu}(\xi) = \prod_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\sum_{j=1}^m p_j e^{-2\pi i(\xi, A^n a_j)} \right).$$

For $\xi \in \mathbb{R}^d$, with $\|\xi\|_{\infty} \geq 1$, let $\eta(\xi) = (A^t)^{N(\xi)}\xi$, where $N(\xi) \geq 0$ is maximal, such that $\|\eta(\xi)\|_{\infty} \geq 1$. Then $\|\eta(\xi)\|_{\infty} \in [1, \|A^{-1}\|_{\infty}]$ and (1.3) implies

$$\hat{\mu}(\xi) = \hat{\mu}(\eta(\xi)) \cdot \prod_{n=1}^{N(\xi)} \left(\sum_{j=1}^m p_j e^{-2\pi i(\eta(\xi), A^{-n} a_j)} \right). \tag{2.2}$$

Proof of Theorem 1.3. First, we show that the case of a general digit set may be reduced to $\mathcal{D} = \{0, (1, \dots, 1)\}$. We start with the formula (2.2), which, under the current assumptions, becomes

$$\hat{\mu}(\xi) = \hat{\mu}(\eta(\xi)) \cdot \prod_{n=1}^{N(\xi)} \left(\sum_{j=1}^m p_j \exp \left[-2\pi i \sum_{k=1}^d \eta_k a_j^{(k)} \theta_k^n \right] \right),$$

where $a_j = (a_j^{(k)})_{k=1}^d$ and $\eta(\xi) = (\eta_k)_{k=1}^d$. Note that $\|\eta(\xi)\|_{\infty} \in [1, \max_j |\theta_j|] \subset [1, b_2]$. Assume without loss of generality that $a_1 = 0$. Then we have, by (2.1), that for any fixed $j \in \{2, \dots, m\}$,

$$|\hat{\mu}(\xi)| \leq \prod_{n=1}^{N(\xi)} \left(1 - 2\pi\varepsilon \left\| \sum_{k=1}^d \eta_k a_j^{(k)} \theta_k^n \right\|^2 \right),$$

where $\|\cdot\|$ denotes the distance to the nearest integer. Further, we can assume that all the coordinates of a_j are non-zero; otherwise, we can work in the subspace

$$\mathcal{H} := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^d : x_k = 0 \Leftrightarrow a_j^{(k)} = 0\}$$

and with the corresponding variables θ_k , and then get the exceptional set of zero \mathcal{L}^d measure as a product of a set of zero measure in \mathcal{H} and the entire \mathcal{H}^\perp . Finally, apply a linear change of variables, so that $a_j^{(k)} = 1$ for all k , to obtain

$$|\widehat{\mu}(\xi)| \leq \prod_{n=1}^{N(\xi)} \left(1 - 2\pi\varepsilon \left\| \sum_{k=1}^d \eta_k \theta_k^n \right\|^2 \right). \tag{2.3}$$

This is exactly the situation corresponding to the measure $\mu(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{p})$, and we will be showing (typical) power decay for the right-hand side of (2.3). This completes the reduction.

Next, we use a variant of the Erdős–Kahane argument; see, e.g., [15, 22] for other versions of it. Intuitively, we will get power decay if $\left\| \sum_{k=1}^d \eta_k \theta_k^n \right\|$ is uniformly bounded away from zero for a set of n 's of positive lower density, uniformly in η .

Fix $c_1 > 0$ and $1 < b_1 < b_2 < \infty$, and consider the compact set

$$H = \{ \boldsymbol{\theta} = (\theta_1, \dots, \theta_d) \in ([-b_2, -b_1] \cup [b_1, b_2])^d : |\theta_i - \theta_j| \geq c_1, i \neq j \}.$$

We will use the notation $[N] = \{1, \dots, N\}$ and $[n, N] = \{n, \dots, N\}$. For $\rho, \delta > 0$, we define the “bad set” at scale N :

$$E_{H,N}(\delta, \rho) = \left\{ \boldsymbol{\theta} \in H : \max_{n: 1 \leq \|\eta\|_\infty \leq b_2} \frac{1}{N} \left| \left\{ n \in [N] : \left\| \sum_{k=1}^d \eta_k \theta_k^n \right\| < \rho \right\} \right| > 1 - \delta \right\}. \tag{2.4}$$

Now, we can define the exceptional set

$$\mathcal{E}_H(\delta, \rho) := \bigcap_{N_0=1}^\infty \bigcup_{N=N_0}^\infty E_{H,N}(\delta, \rho).$$

Theorem 1.3 will immediately follow from the next two propositions.

Proposition 2.2. For any positive ρ and δ , we have $\mu(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{p}) \in \mathcal{D}_d(\alpha)$ whenever $\boldsymbol{\theta} \in H \setminus \mathcal{E}_H(\delta, \rho)$, where α depends only on δ, ρ, H , and $\varepsilon = \min\{p, 1 - p\}$.

Proposition 2.3. There exist $\rho = \rho_H > 0$ and $\delta = \delta_H > 0$ such that

$$\mathcal{L}^d(\mathcal{E}_H(\delta, \rho)) = 0.$$

Proof of Proposition 2.2. Suppose that $\boldsymbol{\theta} \in H \setminus \mathcal{E}_H(\delta, \rho)$. This implies that there is $N_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\boldsymbol{\theta} \notin E_{H,N}(\delta, \rho)$ for all $N \geq N_0$. Let $\xi \in \mathbb{R}^d$ be such that $\|\xi\|_\infty > b_2^{N_0}$. Then $N = N(\xi) \geq N_0$, where, as above, $\eta = \eta(\xi) = (A^t)^{N(\xi)} \xi = A^{N(\xi)} \xi$ and $N(\xi)$ is maximal with $\|\eta\|_\infty \geq 1$. From the fact that $\boldsymbol{\theta} \notin E_{H,N}(\delta, \rho)$, it follows that

$$\frac{1}{N} \left| \left\{ n \in [N] : \left\| \sum_{k=1}^d \eta_k \theta_k^n \right\| < \rho \right\} \right| \leq 1 - \delta.$$

Then, by (2.3),

$$|\widehat{\mu}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{p})(\xi)| \leq (1 - 2\pi\varepsilon\rho^2)^{\lfloor \delta N \rfloor}.$$

By the definition of $N = N(\xi)$, we have

$$\|\xi\|_\infty \leq b_2^{N+1}.$$

It follows that

$$|\widehat{\mu}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{p})(\xi)| = O_{H,\varepsilon}(1) \cdot \|\xi\|_\infty^{-\alpha},$$

for $\alpha = -\delta \log(1 - 2\pi\varepsilon\rho^2) / \log b_2$, and the proof is complete. ■

Proof of Proposition 2.3. It is convenient to express the exceptional set as a union, according to a dominant coordinate of η (which may be non-unique, of course):

$$E_{H,N}(\delta, \rho) = \bigcup_{j=1}^d E_{H,N,j}(\delta, \rho),$$

where

$$E_{H,N,j}(\delta, \rho) := \left\{ \boldsymbol{\theta} \in H : \exists \eta, 1 \leq |\eta_j| = \|\eta\|_\infty \leq b_2, \right. \\ \left. \frac{1}{N} \left| \left\{ n \in [N] : \left\| \sum_{k=1}^d \eta_k \theta_k^n \right\| < \rho \right\} \right| > 1 - \delta \right\}. \quad (2.5)$$

It is easy to see that $E_{H,N,j}(\delta, \rho)$ is measurable. Observe that

$$\mathcal{E}_H(\delta, \rho) := \bigcup_{j=1}^d \mathcal{E}_{H,j}(\delta, \rho), \quad \text{where} \quad \mathcal{E}_{H,j}(\delta, \rho) := \bigcap_{N_0=1}^\infty \bigcup_{N=N_0}^\infty E_{H,N,j}(\delta, \rho).$$

It is, of course, sufficient to show that $\mathcal{L}^d(\mathcal{E}_{H,j}(\delta, \rho)) = 0$ for every $j \in [d]$, for some $\delta, \rho > 0$. Without loss of generality, assume that $j = d$. Since $\mathcal{E}_{H,d}(\delta, \rho)$ is measurable, the desired claim will follow if we prove that every slice of $\mathcal{E}_{H,d}(\delta, \rho)$ in the direction of the x_d -axis has zero \mathcal{L}^1 measure. Namely, for fixed $\boldsymbol{\theta}' = (\theta_1, \dots, \theta_{d-1})$, let

$$\mathcal{E}_{H,d}(\delta, \rho, \boldsymbol{\theta}') := \{ \theta_d : (\boldsymbol{\theta}', \theta_d) \in \mathcal{E}_{H,d}(\delta, \rho) \}.$$

We want to show that $\mathcal{L}^1(\mathcal{E}_{H,d}(\delta, \rho, \boldsymbol{\theta}')) = 0$ for all $\boldsymbol{\theta}'$. Clearly,

$$\mathcal{E}_{H,d}(\delta, \rho, \boldsymbol{\theta}') := \bigcap_{N_0=1}^\infty \bigcup_{N=N_0}^\infty E_{H,N,d}(\delta, \rho, \boldsymbol{\theta}'),$$

where

$$E_{H,N,d}(\delta, \rho, \theta') = \left\{ \theta_d : (\theta', \theta_d) \in H : \max_{\substack{\eta: 1 \leq |\eta_d| \leq b_2 \\ \|\eta\|_\infty = |\eta_d|}} \frac{1}{N} \left| \left\{ n \in [N] : \left\| \sum_{k=1}^d \eta_k \theta_k^n \right\| < \rho \right\} \right| > 1 - \delta \right\}. \tag{2.6}$$

Lemma 2.4. *There exists a constant $\rho > 0$ such that for any $N \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\delta \in (0, \frac{1}{2})$, the set $E_{H,N,d}(\delta, \rho, \theta')$ can be covered by $\exp(O_H(\delta \log(1/\delta)N))$ intervals of length b_1^{-N} .*

We first complete the proof of the proposition assuming the lemma. By Lemma 2.4,

$$\mathcal{L}^1 \left(\bigcup_{N=N_0}^{\infty} E_{H,N,d}(\delta, \rho, \theta') \right) \leq \sum_{N=N_0}^{\infty} \exp(O_H(\delta \log(1/\delta)N)) \cdot b_1^{-N} \rightarrow 0$$

as $N_0 \rightarrow \infty$, provided $\delta > 0$ is so small that $\log b_1 > O_H(\delta \log(1/\delta))$. Thus, we have $\mathcal{L}^1(\mathcal{E}_{H,d}(\delta, \rho, \theta')) = 0$. ■

Proof of Lemma 2.4. Fix θ' in the projection of H to the first $(d - 1)$ coordinates and $\eta \in \mathbb{R}^d$, with $1 \leq |\eta_d| = \|\eta\|_\infty \leq b_2$. Below, all the constants implicit in the $O(\cdot)$ notation are allowed to depend on H and d . Let θ_d be such that $(\theta', \theta_d) \in H$ and write

$$\sum_{k=1}^d \eta_k \theta_k^n = K_n + \varepsilon_n, \quad n \geq 0,$$

where $K_n \in \mathbb{Z}$ is the nearest integer to the expression in the left-hand side, so that $|\varepsilon_n| \leq \frac{1}{2}$. We emphasize that K_n depends on η and on θ_d . Define $A_n^{(0)} = K_n$, $\tilde{A}_n^{(0)} = K_n + \varepsilon_n$, and then for all n , inductively:

$$A_n^{(j)} = A_{n+1}^{(j-1)} - \theta_j A_n^{(j-1)}, \quad \tilde{A}_n^{(j)} = \tilde{A}_{n+1}^{(j-1)} - \theta_j \tilde{A}_n^{(j-1)}, \quad j = 1, \dots, d - 1. \tag{2.7}$$

It is easy to check by induction that

$$\tilde{A}_n^{(j)} = \sum_{i=j+1}^d \eta_i \prod_{k=1}^j (\theta_i - \theta_k) \theta_i^n, \quad j = 1, \dots, d - 1,$$

hence

$$\tilde{A}_n^{(d-1)} = \eta_d \prod_{k=1}^{d-1} (\theta_d - \theta_k) \theta_d^n, \quad \theta_d = \frac{\tilde{A}_{n+1}^{(d-1)}}{\tilde{A}_n^{(d-1)}}, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}. \tag{2.8}$$

We have $\|\eta\|_\infty \leq b_2$ and $|\tilde{A}_n^{(0)} - A_n^{(0)}| \leq |\varepsilon_n|$, and then by induction, by (2.7),

$$|\tilde{A}_n^{(j)} - A_n^{(j)}| \leq (1 + b_2)^j \max\{|\varepsilon_n|, \dots, |\varepsilon_{n+j}|\}, \quad j = 1, \dots, d-1. \quad (2.9)$$

Another easy calculation gives

$$\begin{aligned} K_{n+d+1} &= \theta_1 K_{n+d} + A_{n+d}^{(1)} \\ &= [\theta_1 K_{n+d} + \theta_2 A_{n+d-1}^{(1)} + \dots + \theta_{d-1} A_{n+2}^{(d-2)}] + A_{n+2}^{(d-1)}. \end{aligned} \quad (2.10)$$

Since

$$\frac{A_{n+2}^{(d-1)}}{A_{n+1}^{(d-1)}} \approx \frac{\tilde{A}_{n+1}^{(d-1)}}{\tilde{A}_n^{(d-1)}} = \theta_d,$$

we have

$$\begin{aligned} K_{n+d+1} &\approx [\theta_1 K_{n+d} + \theta_2 A_{n+d-1}^{(1)} + \dots + \theta_{d-1} A_{n+2}^{(d-2)}] + \frac{(A_{n+1}^{(d-1)})^2}{A_n^{(d-1)}} \\ &=: R_{\theta_1, \dots, \theta_{d-1}}(K_n, \dots, K_{n+d}), \end{aligned} \quad (2.11)$$

where $R_{\theta_1, \dots, \theta_{d-1}}(K_n, \dots, K_{n+d})$ is a rational function, depending on the (fixed) parameters $\theta_1, \dots, \theta_{d-1}$. To make the approximate equality precise, note that, by (2.8) and our assumptions,

$$|\tilde{A}_n^{(d-1)}| \geq c_1^{d-1} b_1^n,$$

where $b_1 > 1$, and $|\tilde{A}_n^{(d-1)} - A_n^{(d-1)}| \leq (1 + b_2)^{d-1}/2$ by (2.9). Hence

$$|A_n^{(d-1)}| \geq c_1^{d-1} b_1^n / 2 \quad \text{for } n \geq n_0 = n_0(H), \quad (2.12)$$

and so

$$\left| \frac{A_{n+1}^{(d-1)}}{A_n^{(d-1)}} \right| \leq O(1), \quad n \geq n_0.$$

In the next estimates we assume that $n \geq n_0(H)$. In view of the above, especially (2.9) for $j = d-1$,

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \frac{A_{n+1}^{(d-1)}}{A_n^{(d-1)}} - \theta_d \right| &= \left| \frac{A_{n+1}^{(d-1)}}{A_n^{(d-1)}} - \frac{\tilde{A}_{n+1}^{(d-1)}}{\tilde{A}_n^{(d-1)}} \right| \\ &\leq \left| \frac{A_{n+1}^{(d-1)} - \tilde{A}_{n+1}^{(d-1)}}{A_n^{(d-1)}} \right| + |\tilde{A}_{n+1}^{(d-1)}| \cdot \left| \frac{1}{A_n^{(d-1)}} - \frac{1}{\tilde{A}_n^{(d-1)}} \right| \\ &\leq O(1) \cdot \max\{|\varepsilon_n|, \dots, |\varepsilon_{n+d}|\} \cdot |A_n^{(d-1)}|^{-1}. \end{aligned}$$

It follows that, on the one hand,

$$\left| \frac{A_{n+1}^{(d-1)}}{A_n^{(d-1)}} - \theta_d \right| \leq O(1) \cdot b_1^{-n}; \quad (2.13)$$

and, on the other hand,

$$\left| \frac{(A_{n+1}^{(d-1)})^2}{A_n^{(d-1)}} - A_{n+2}^{(d-1)} \right| \leq O(1) \cdot \max\{|\varepsilon_n|, \dots, |\varepsilon_{n+d+1}|\}. \tag{2.14}$$

Note that $A_n^{(j)}$, for $j \in [d - 1]$, is a linear combination of $K_n, K_{n+1}, \dots, K_{n+j}$ with coefficients that are polynomials in the (fixed) parameters $\theta_1, \dots, \theta_{d-1}$; hence the inequality (2.13) shows that

$$\text{given } K_n, \dots, K_{n+d}, \text{ we have an } O(1) \cdot b_1^{-n}\text{-approximation of } \theta_d. \tag{2.15}$$

The inequality (2.14) yields, using (2.11) and (2.10), that, for $n \geq n_0$,

$$|K_{n+d+1} - R_{\theta_1, \dots, \theta_{d-1}}(K_n, \dots, K_{n+d})| \leq O(1) \cdot \max\{|\varepsilon_n|, \dots, |\varepsilon_{n+d+1}|\}.$$

Thus we have the following.

- (i) Given K_n, \dots, K_{n+d} , there are at most $O(1)$ possible values for K_{n+d+1} , uniformly in η and $\theta_1, \dots, \theta_{d-1}$. There are also $O(1)$ possible values for K_1, \dots, K_{n_0} since $\|\eta\|_\infty$ and $\|\theta\|$ are bounded above by b_2 .
- (ii) There is a constant $\rho = \rho(H) > 0$ such that if $\max\{|\varepsilon_n|, \dots, |\varepsilon_{n+d+1}|\} < \rho$, then K_n, \dots, K_{n+d} uniquely determine K_{n+d+1} , as the nearest integer to $R_{\theta_1, \dots, \theta_{d-1}}(K_n, \dots, K_{n+d})$, again independently of η and $\theta_1, \dots, \theta_{d-1}$.

Fix an N sufficiently large. We claim that for each fixed set $J \subset [N]$ with $|J| \geq (1 - \delta)N$, the set

$$\left\{ (K_n)_{n \in [N]} : \varepsilon_n = \left\| \sum_{k=1}^d \eta_k \theta_k^n \right\| < \rho \text{ for some } \theta_d, \eta \text{ and all } n \in J \right\}$$

has cardinality $\exp(O(\delta N))$. Indeed, fix such a J and let

$$\tilde{J} = \{i \in [n_0 + (d + 1), N] : i, i - 1, \dots, i - (d + 1) \in J\}.$$

We have $|\tilde{J}| \geq (1 - (d + 2)\delta)N - n_0 - (d + 1)$. If we set

$$\Lambda_j = (K_i)_{i \in [j]},$$

then (i) and (ii) above show that $|\Lambda_{j+1}| = |\Lambda_j|$, if $j \in \tilde{J}$, and $|\Lambda_{j+1}| = O(|\Lambda_j|)$, otherwise. Thus, $|\Lambda_N| \leq O(1)^{(d+2)\delta N}$, as claimed.

The number of subsets A of $[N]$ of size greater than or equal to $(1 - \delta)N$ is bounded by $\exp(O(\delta \log(1/\delta)N))$ (using, e.g., Stirling’s formula), so we conclude that there are

$$\exp\left(O\left(\delta \log\left(\frac{1}{\delta}\right)N\right)\right) \cdot \exp(O(\delta N)) = \exp\left(O\left(\delta \log\left(\frac{1}{\delta}\right)N\right)\right)$$

sequences K_1, \dots, K_N such that $|\varepsilon_n| < \rho$ for at least $(1 - \delta)N$ values of $n \in [N]$. Hence, by (2.15), the set (2.6) can be covered by $\exp(O_H(\delta \log(1/\delta)N))$ intervals of length b_1^{-N} , as desired. ■

The proof of Theorem 1.3 is now complete. ■

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