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RENORMALIZATION AND THERMODYNAMIC FORMALISM IN SUBSHIFTS.

HENK BRUIN AND RENAUD LEPLAIDEUR

ABSTRACT. We examine thermodynamic formalism for a class renormalizable dynamical systems which in the symbolic space is generated by the Thue-Morse substitution, and in complex dynamics by the Feigenbaum map. The basic question answered is whether fixed points V of a renormalization operator \mathcal{R} acting on the space of potentials are such that $\gamma \mapsto \mathcal{P}(-\gamma V)$ exhibits phase transition. This extends the work by Baraviera, Leplaideur and Lopes on the Manneville-Pomeau map, where such phase transitions were indeed detected. In this paper, however, the attractor of renormalization is a Cantor set (rather than a single fixed point), which admits various classes of fixed points for \mathcal{R} , some of which do and some of which do not exhibit phase transitions.

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background. The present paper investigates the connections between phase transition in the full 2-shift, renormalization for potentials, renormalization for maps (in complex dynamics) and substitutions in the full 2-shift. It takes the work of [2] a step forward, with Cantor set attractors of renormalization, rather than single points, and its thermodynamic properties turn out to be strikingly different.

Bowen's work [3] on thermodynamic formalism showed that any subshift of finite type with Hölder continuous potential ϕ admits a unique equilibrium state (which is a Gibbs measure). Moreover, the pressure function $\gamma \mapsto \mathcal{P}(-\gamma\phi)$ is real analytic and there are no phase transitions. Hofbauer [8] was the first to find continuous non-Hölder potentials for the full two-shift (Σ, σ) allowing a phase transition at some $t = t_0$.

A geometric interpretation of Hofbauer's example leads naturally to the Manneville-Pomeau map $f_{\text{MP}} : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$ defined as

$$f_{\text{MP}}(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x}{1-x} & \text{if } x \in [0, \frac{1}{2}], \\ 2x - 1 & \text{if } x \in (\frac{1}{2}, 1], \end{cases}$$

with a neutral fixed point at 0. This map admits a local renormalization $\psi(x) = \frac{x}{2}$ which satisfies

$$(1) \quad f_{\text{MP}}^2 \circ \psi(x) = \psi \circ f_{\text{MP}}(x) \quad \text{for all } x \in [0, \frac{1}{2}].$$

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If we differentiate Equation (1), take logarithms and subtract $\log \psi' \equiv \log \frac{1}{2}$ from both sides of the equality, we find

$$(2) \quad \log |f'_{\text{MP}}| = \log |f'_{\text{MP}}| \circ f_{\text{MP}} \circ \psi(x) + \log |f'_{\text{MP}}| \circ \psi(x).$$

Passing to the shift-space again (via the itinerary map for the standard partition $\{[0, \frac{1}{2}], (\frac{1}{2}, 1]\}$), we are naturally led to renormalization in the shift. Of prime importance are the solutions of the equation

$$(3) \quad \sigma^2 \circ H = H \circ \sigma,$$

which replaces the renormalization scaling ψ in (1). Equation (2) leads to an operator \mathcal{R} defined by

$$\mathcal{R}(V) = V \circ \sigma \circ H + V \circ H.$$

In [2], the authors investigated the case of the substitution

$$H_{\text{MP}} : \begin{cases} 0 \rightarrow 00, \\ 1 \rightarrow 01. \end{cases}$$

It has a unique fixed point 0^∞ , corresponding to the neutral fixed point 0 of f_{MP} . In [2], the map H_{MP} was not presented as a substitution but we emphasize here (and it is an improvement because it allows more general studies) that it indeed is; more generally, any constant-length k substitution solves Equation (3) (with σ^k instead of σ^2). It is also shown in [2] that the operator \mathcal{R} fixes the Hofbauer potential

$$V(x) := \log \frac{n+1}{n} \quad \text{if } x \in [0^n 1] \setminus [0^{n+1} 1], \quad n > 0.$$

Moreover, the lift of $\log f'_{\text{MP}}$ belongs to the *stable set* of the Hofbauer potential. This fact is somehow mysterious because the substitution H_{MP} is *not* the lift of the scaling function $\psi : x \mapsto x/2$.

In this paper we focus on the Thue-Morse substitution (see (4) for the definition). It is one of the simplest substitution satisfying the renormalization equality (3) and contrary to H_{MP} , the attractor for the Thue-Morse substitution, say \mathbb{K} , is not a periodic orbit but a Cantor set, yet similarly to the Manneville-Pomeau fixed point, $\sigma : \mathbb{K} \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$ has zero entropy and is uniquely ergodic.

The thermodynamic formalism for the Thue-Morse substitution is much more complicated, and more interesting, than for the Manneville-Pomeau substitution. This is because Cantor structure of the attractor admits a much more intricate recursion behavior of nearby points (although it has zero entropy) characterized by what we call “accidents” in Section 2.3, which are responsible for the lack of phase transition for the “good” fixed point for \mathcal{R} (see Theorem 3). This indeed allows much more chaotic shadowing than when the attractor of the substitution is a periodic orbit.

We want to emphasize here that our results are extendable to more general substitutions, but to get the main ideas across, we focus on the Thue-Morse shift in this paper.

1.2. **Statements of results.** The Thue-Morse substitution

$$(4) \quad H := H_{\text{TM}} : \begin{cases} 0 \rightarrow 01, \\ 1 \rightarrow 10. \end{cases}$$

has two fixed points

$$\rho_1 = 1001\ 0110\ 1001\ 0110\ 01\dots \quad \text{and} \quad \rho_0 = 0110\ 1001\ 0110\ 1001\ 10\dots$$

Let $\mathbb{K} = \overline{\cup_n \sigma^n(\rho_0)} = \overline{\cup_n \sigma^n(\rho_1)}$ be the corresponding subshift of the full shift (Σ, σ) on two symbols. The renormalization equation (3) holds in Σ : $H \circ \sigma = \sigma^2 \circ H$, and we define the *renormalization operator* acting on functions $V : \Sigma \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ as

$$(\mathcal{R}V)(x) = V \circ \sigma \circ H(x) + V \circ H(x).$$

We consider in Σ the usual metric: $d(x, y) = \frac{1}{2^n}$ if $n = \min\{i \geq 1 : x_i \neq y_i\}$. Note that $d(H^n x, H^n y) = 2^{2^n \log_2 d(x, y)}$: if x and y coincide for m digits, then $H^n(x)$ and $H^n(y)$ coincide for 2^m digits.

1.2.1. *Results on fixed points for \mathcal{R} .* Define the one-parameter family of potentials

$$(5) \quad U_c = \begin{cases} c & \text{on } [01], \\ -c & \text{on } [10], \\ 0 & \text{on } [00] \cup [11]. \end{cases}$$

It is easy to verify that U_c is a fixed point of \mathcal{R} . Given a fixed function $V : \Sigma \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, the *variation on k -cylinders* $\text{Var}_k(V)$ is defined as

$$\text{Var}_k(V) := \max\{|V(x) - V(y)|, x_j = y_j \text{ for } j = 0, \dots, k-1\}.$$

The condition $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \text{Var}_k(W) < \infty$ holds if *e.g.* W is Hölder continuous.

Theorem 1. *If W is a continuous fixed point of \mathcal{R} on \mathbb{K} such that*

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \text{Var}_k(W) < \infty,$$

then $W = U_c$ for $c = W(\rho_0)$.

As for the Hofbauer case, we produce a non-negative continuous fixed point for \mathcal{R} with a well-defined *weak stable set*¹:

Theorem 2. *There exists a unique function \tilde{V} , such that $\tilde{V} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \mathcal{R}^k V$ for every continuous V satisfying $V(x) = \frac{1}{n} + o(\frac{1}{n})$ if $d(x, \mathbb{K}) = 2^{-n}$. Moreover \tilde{V} is \mathcal{R} -invariant, continuous and positive except on \mathbb{K} : $\frac{1}{2n} \leq \tilde{V}(x) \leq \frac{1}{n-1}$ whenever $d(x, \mathbb{K}) = 2^{-n}$.*

¹In [2] it was proven that $\mathcal{R}^n(V)$ converges to the fixed point \tilde{V} ; here we only get convergence in the Cesaro sense.

1.2.2. *Results on Thermodynamic Formalism.* We refer to Bowen's book [4] for the background on thermodynamic formalism, equilibrium states and Gibbs measures in Σ . However, in contrast to Bowen's book, our potentials (e.g. \tilde{V}) are not Hölder-continuous.

For a given potential $W : \Sigma \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, the pressure of W is defined by

$$\mathcal{P}(W) := \sup\{h_\mu(\sigma) + \int W d\mu\},$$

where $h_\mu(\sigma)$ is the Kolmogorov entropy of the invariant probability measure μ . The supremum is a maximum in Σ as soon as W is continuous. Any measure realizing this maximum is called an equilibrium state. We want to study the regularity of the function $\gamma \mapsto \mathcal{P}(-\gamma W)$ as γ . For simplicity this function will also be denoted $\mathcal{P}(\gamma)$. Here, lack of phase transition means that $\mathcal{P}(\gamma)$ is analytic. We are in particular interested by special phase transition as $\gamma \rightarrow \infty$: easy and classical computations show that $\mathcal{P}(\gamma)$ has an asymptote of the form $-a\gamma + b$ as $\gamma \rightarrow \infty$. An *ultimate phase transition* we mean that $\mathcal{P}(\gamma)$ reaches its asymptote at some γ' . In this case, there cannot be another phase transition for larger γ , hence *ultimate*. Then, for convexity reasons, for any $\gamma \geq \gamma'$, $\mathcal{P}(\gamma) = -a\gamma + b$. One of the main motivation for studying ultimate phase transitions is that the quantity a satisfies

$$a = \inf \left\{ \int W d\mu, \mu \right\}.$$

An examples of ultimate phase transition for rational maps can be found in [12]. The Manneville-Pomeau map is also a classical example.

Theorem 3 (No phase transition). *Let $V : \Sigma \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a continuous function satisfying $V(x) = \frac{1}{n} + o(\frac{1}{n})$ if $d(x, \mathbb{K}) = 2^{-n}$. Then, for every $\gamma \geq 0$, there exists a unique equilibrium state associated to $-\gamma V$. Every open set has positive measure for this equilibrium state. The pressure function $\gamma \mapsto \mathcal{P}(\gamma)$ is positive and analytic on $[0, \infty)$.*

Theorem 3 is contrary to the case of the Hofbauer potential (discussed in [2]). Nevertheless, the fixed point is on the border of potentials with phase transition:

Theorem 4 (Phase transition). *Let $a \in (0, 1)$ and $V : \Sigma \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a continuous function satisfying $V(x) = \frac{1}{n^a} + o(\frac{1}{n^a})$ if $d(x, \mathbb{K}) = 2^{-n}$. Then there exists γ_1 such that for every $\gamma > \gamma_1$ the unique equilibrium state for $-\gamma V$ is the unique invariant measure $\mu_{\mathbb{K}}$ supported on \mathbb{K} . For $\gamma < \gamma_1$, there exists a unique equilibrium state associated to $-\gamma V$ and it gives positive mass to every open set in Σ . The pressure function $\gamma \mapsto \mathcal{P}(\gamma)$ is positive and analytic on $[0, \gamma_1)$.*

The full shift Σ can as always be interpreted geometrically by a degree 2 covering of the circle. The Manneville-Pomeau can be viewed this way; it is expanding except for a single (one-sided) indifferent fixed point. When dealing with the Thue-Morse shift, it is natural to look for a circle covering with an indifferent Cantor set.

Theorem 5. *There exist \mathcal{C}^1 maps $f_a : [0, 1] \circlearrowleft$, semi-conjugated to the full 2-shift and expanding everywhere except on a Cantor set $\tilde{\mathbb{K}}$, such that the $\tilde{\mathbb{K}}$ is conjugated to \mathbb{K} in Σ and $-\gamma \log f'_a$ has an ultimate phase transition.*

Another geometric realization of the Thue-Morse shift and the prototype of renormalizability in one-dimensional dynamics is the Feigenbaum map (or rather Couillet-Tresser-Feigenbaum map). This quadratic interval map $f_{q\text{-feig}}$ has zero entropy, but when complexified it has entropy $\log 2$. Moreover, it is conjugate to another analytic degree 2 covering map on \mathbb{C} , which we call f_{feig} , that is fixed by the Feigenbaum renormalization operator

$$\mathcal{R}_{\text{feig}}f = \Psi^{-1} \circ f^2 \circ \Psi$$

where Ψ is linear f -dependent holomorphic contraction. Arguments from complex dynamics give that $\mathcal{P}(-\gamma \log |f'_{\text{feig}}|) = 0$ for all $\gamma \geq 2$, see Proposition 5. Because $h_{\text{top}}(f_{\text{feig}}) = \log 2$ on its Julia set, the potential $-\gamma_1 \log |f'_{\text{feig}}|$ has a phase transition for some $\gamma_1 \in (0, 2]$. When lifted to symbolic space, $-\log |f'_{\text{feig}}|$ produces an unbounded potential V_{feig} which is fixed by \mathcal{R} . We can find a potential V_u , which is constant on

$$(\sigma \circ H)^k(\Sigma) \setminus (\sigma \circ H)^{k+1}(\Sigma)$$

for each k such that $\|V_{\text{feig}} - V_u\|_\infty < \infty$ and analyze the thermodynamic properties of V_u . Although $\mathcal{P}(-\gamma_1 V_{\text{feig}}) = 0$ for some $\gamma_1 \leq 2$, it is surprising to see that the potential V_u exhibits no phase transition. We emphasize here an important difference with the Manneville-Pomeau case, where both the potential $-\gamma \log |f'_{MP}|$ and its countably piecewise version, the Hofbauer potential, which is constant on cylinder sets $(H_{MP})^k(\Sigma) \setminus (H_{MP})^{k+1}(\Sigma) = [0^{2^{k+1}}1]$ undergo a phase transition.

Theorem 6 (No phase transition for unbounded fixed point V_u). *The unbounded potential V_u given by*

$$V_u(x) = \alpha(k-1) \quad \text{for } x \in (\sigma \circ H)^k(\Sigma) \setminus (\sigma \circ H)^{k+1}(\Sigma)$$

is a fixed point of \mathcal{R} for any $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$. If $\alpha < 0$, then for every $\gamma \geq 0$, there exists a unique equilibrium state for $-\gamma V_u$. It gives positive mass to any open set in Σ . The pressure function $\gamma \mapsto \mathcal{P}(-\gamma V_u)$ is analytic and positive for all $\gamma \in [0, \infty)$.

The exact definition of the equilibrium state for this unbounded potential can be found in Subsection 3.5.

1.3. Outline of the paper. In Section 2 we prove Theorems 1 and 2. In the first subsection we recall some and prove other results on the Thue-Morse substitution and its associated attractor \mathbb{K} .

In Section 3 we study the thermodynamic formalism and prove Theorems 3, 4, 5 and 6. This section use extensively the theory of local thermodynamic formalism defined in [10] and developed in further works of the author. Finally, in the Appendix, we explain the relation between the Thue-Morse shift and the Feigenbaum map, and state and prove Proposition 5.

2. RENORMALIZATION IN THE THUE-MORSE SHIFT-SPACE

2.1. General results on the Thue-Morse shift-space. Let $\sigma : \Sigma \rightarrow \Sigma$ be the full shift on $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$. If $x = x_0x_1x_2x_3 \cdots \in \Sigma$, let $[x_0 \dots x_{n-1}]$ denote the n -cylinder containing x , and let $\bar{x}_i = 1 - x_i$ be our notation for the opposite symbol. Recall that ρ_0 and ρ_1 are the fixed points of the Thue-Morse substitution, and that for $\mathbb{K} = \text{orb}_\sigma(\rho_0) = \text{orb}_\sigma(\rho_1)$, the shift $\sigma : \mathbb{K} \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$ is invertible except at ρ_0 and ρ_1 :

Lemma 1. *The shift $\sigma : \mathbb{K} \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$ is invertible except at ρ_0 and ρ_1 . More precisely, if $s \in \Sigma$, $t \in \mathbb{K}$ are such that $s_0 \neq t_0$ but $s_i = t_i$ for $1 \leq i \leq N$, then $\sigma(s)$ coincides with ρ_0 or ρ_1 for at least n initial digits.*

A different way of stating this is that all *left-special* words (*i.e.*, words w such that both $0w$ and $1w$ appear in \mathbb{K}) are all prefixes of ρ_0 or ρ_1 , provided the length $|w| \geq 4$. Similarly, it is known that the *right-special* words (*i.e.*, words w such that both $w0$ and $w1$ appear in \mathbb{K}) are suffixes of the initial 2^k digits of ρ_0 or ρ_1 , provided again that $|w| \geq 4$. This leads to a formula for the *word-complexity* of \mathbb{K} :

$$p(n) := \#\{n\text{-cylinders of } \mathbb{K}\} = \begin{cases} 2n + 2 & \text{if } n \geq 5, \\ 2n & \text{if } n \leq 4. \end{cases}$$

Furthermore $\sigma|_{\mathbb{K}}$ is uniquely ergodic; let $\mu_{\mathbb{K}}$ be its invariant measure. These results were proved by Dekking [5].

The next lemma shows that almost-invertibility of σ on \mathbb{K} implies some shadowing close to \mathbb{K} .

Lemma 2. *Let $s \in \Sigma$, $t, t' \in \mathbb{K}$ be such that*

- (i) $d(s, \mathbb{K}) = d(s, t) = 2^{-n_0} \leq 2^{-5}$,
- (ii) $d(\sigma(s), \mathbb{K}) = d(\sigma(s), t') = 2^{-n_1}$,
- (iii) t' differs from ρ_0 and ρ_1 at some digit in i^{th} position with $i \leq \min\{n_0 - 1, n_1\}$.

Then $t = \sigma^{-1}(t')$ and $n_1 = n_0 - 1$.

Proof. As mentioned above, the shift is invertible in \mathbb{K} at every point but ρ_0 and ρ_1 . Therefore, for every word $\omega = \omega_1 \dots \omega_n$ admissible for \mathbb{K} , if some ω_i differs from $\rho_{0,i}$ or $\rho_{1,i}$ ($1 \leq i \leq n$), then ω admits a unique *prefix*, *i.e.*, there exists a unique digit $a \in \{0, 1\}$ such that $a\omega$ is an admissible word for \mathbb{K} .

By assumption, $n_1 \geq n_0 - 1$, so $n_0 - 1 = \min\{n_0 - 1, n_1\}$. Our assumptions say that the word $s_1 s_2 \dots s_{n_0-1}$ is an admissible word of length $n_0 - 1$. Moreover this word neither coincides with $(n_0 - 1)$ first digits of ρ_0 nor with the $(n_0 - 1)$ first digits of ρ_1 . Hence t' is invertible in \mathbb{K} ; if $\tilde{t} := \sigma^{-1}(t') \in \mathbb{K}$, then \tilde{t} is determined by $s_1 s_2 \dots s_{n_0-1}$. This implies that $t_0 = \tilde{t}_0$. But $d(s, \tilde{t}) = 2^{-(n_1+1)} \geq d(s, \mathbb{K})$, so $n_1 \leq n_0$. \square

We recall that we have $\mathcal{R}(V) = V \circ \sigma \circ H + V \circ H$. Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{R}^2 V &= \mathcal{R}(V \circ \sigma \circ H + V \circ H) \\ &= V \circ \sigma \circ H \circ \sigma \circ H + V \circ \sigma \circ H^2 + V \circ H \circ \sigma \circ H + V \circ H^2 \\ &= V \circ \sigma^3 \circ H^2 + V \circ \sigma^2 \circ H^2 + V \circ \sigma \circ H^2 + V \circ H^2, \end{aligned}$$

and in general

$$\mathcal{R}^n V = S_{2^n} V \circ H^n \quad \text{where} \quad (S_k V)(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} V \circ \sigma^i(x)$$

is the k -th ergodic sum.

Lemma 3. For each $k \geq 1$, the Thue-Morse substitution H satisfies $\mathbb{K} = \bigsqcup_{j=0}^{2^k-1} \sigma^j \circ H^k(\mathbb{K})$, where \sqcup indicates disjoint union, so $\sigma^i \circ H^k(\mathbb{K}) \cap \sigma^j \circ H^k(\mathbb{K}) = \emptyset$ for all $0 \leq i < j < 2^k$.

Proof. Take $x \in \mathbb{K}$, so there is a sequence $(n_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ such that $x = \lim_k \sigma^{n_k}(\rho_0)$. If this sequence contains infinitely many even integers, then $x = \lim_k \sigma^{2m_k}(\rho_0) = \lim_k \sigma^{2m_k} \circ H(\rho_0) = \lim_k H \circ \sigma^{m_k}(\rho_0) \in H(\mathbb{K})$. Otherwise, $(n_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ contains infinitely many odd integers and $x = \lim_k \sigma^{1+2m_k}(\rho_0) = \lim_k \sigma \circ \sigma^{2m_k} \circ H(\rho_0) = \lim_k \sigma \circ H \circ \sigma^{m_k}(\rho_0) \in \sigma \circ H(\mathbb{K})$. Therefore $\mathbb{K} \subset H(\mathbb{K}) \cup \sigma \circ H(\mathbb{K})$.

Now if $x = H(a) = \sigma \circ H(b) \in \mathbb{K}$, then

$$x = a_0 \bar{a}_0 a_1 \bar{a}_1 a_2 \bar{a}_2 \dots = \bar{b}_0 b_1 \bar{b}_1 b_2 \bar{b}_2 \dots ,$$

so $\bar{b}_0 = a_0 \neq \bar{a}_0 = b_1 \neq \bar{b}_1 = a_1 \neq \bar{a}_1 = b_2 \neq \bar{b}_2 = a_2$. Therefore $x = 101010\dots$ or $010101\dots$, but neither belongs to \mathbb{K} .

Now for the induction step, assume $\mathbb{K} = \bigsqcup_{j=0}^{2^k-1} \sigma^j \circ H^k(\mathbb{K})$. Then since H is one-to-one,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{K} &= \bigsqcup_{j=0}^{2^k-1} \sigma^j \circ H^k(H(\mathbb{K}) \sqcup \sigma \circ H(\mathbb{K})) \\ &= \left(\bigsqcup_{j=0}^{2^k-1} \sigma^j \circ H^{k+1}(\mathbb{K}) \right) \sqcup \left(\bigsqcup_{j=0}^{2^k-1} \sigma^j \circ H^k \circ \sigma \circ H(\mathbb{K}) \right) \\ &= \left(\bigsqcup_{j=0}^{2^k-1} \sigma^j \circ H^{k+1}(H(\mathbb{K})) \right) \sqcup \left(\bigsqcup_{j=0}^{2^k-1} \sigma^{j+2^k} \circ H^{k+1}(\mathbb{K}) \right) \\ &= \bigsqcup_{j=0}^{2^{k+1}-1} \sigma^j \circ H^{k+1}(\mathbb{K}). \end{aligned}$$

□

Lemma 4. Let x be in the cylinder $[ab]$ with $a, b \in \{0, 1\}$. Then the accumulation point for $(\sigma \circ H)^k(x)$ are $0\rho_b$ and $1\rho_b$. More precisely, the $(\sigma \circ H)^{2k}(x)$ converges to $a\rho_b$ and $(\sigma \circ H)^{2k+1}(x)$ converges to $\bar{a}\rho_b$.

Proof. By definition of H we get $H(x) = a\bar{a}H(b)\dots$. Hence $\sigma \circ H(x) = \bar{a}H(b)\dots$. By induction we get

$$(\sigma \circ H)^{2k}(x) = aH^{2k}(b)\dots \quad \text{and} \quad (\sigma \circ H)^{2k+1}(x) = \bar{a}H^{2k+1}(b).$$

Therefore $H^n(b)$ converges to ρ_b , for $b = 0, 1$. □

2.2. Continuous fixed points of \mathcal{R} on \mathbb{K} : proof of Theorem 1.

Lemma 5. If $V \in L^1(\mu_{\mathbb{K}})$ is a fixed point of \mathcal{R} , then $\int_{\mathbb{K}} V d\mu_{\mathbb{K}} = 0$.

Proof. For any typical (w.r.t. Birkhoff's Ergodic Theorem) $y \in \mathbb{K}$ we get

$$V(y) = (\mathcal{R}^n V)(y) = \sum_{j=0}^{2^n-1} V \circ \sigma^j \circ H^n(y).$$

Hence

$$\frac{1}{2^n} V(y) = \frac{1}{2^n} \sum_{j=0}^{2^n-1} V \circ \sigma^j \circ H^n(y).$$

The left hand side tend to 0 as $n \rightarrow \infty$ and the right hand side tends to $\int_{\mathbb{K}} V d\mu_{\mathbb{K}}$. \square

Lemma 6. *Let W be any continuous fixed point for \mathcal{R} (on \mathbb{K}). Then, for $j = 0, 1$,*

$$W(01\rho_j) + W(10\rho_j) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad W(1\rho_j) = W(10\rho_j) + W(0\rho_j).$$

Proof. Using the equality $W(x) = (\mathcal{R}W)(x) = W \circ H(x) + W \circ \sigma \circ H(x)$ we immediately get:

$$W \circ (\sigma \circ H)^n(x) = W \circ H \circ (\sigma \circ H)^n(x) + W \circ (\sigma \circ H)^{n+1}(x).$$

Using Lemma 4 on this new equality, we obtain

$$W(i\rho_j) = W(i\bar{i}\rho_j) + W(\bar{i}\rho_j),$$

for $i, j \in \{0, 1\}$. This gives the second equality of the lemma (for $i = 1$). The symmetric formula is obtained from the case $i = 0$, and then adding both formulas yields $W(01\rho_j) + W(10\rho_j) = 0$. \square

Remark 1. *Lemma 6 still holds if the potential is only continuous at points of the form $i\rho_j$ and $i\bar{i}\rho_j$ with $i, j \in \{0, 1\}$.*

Recall the one-parameter family of potentials U_c from (5). They are fixed points of \mathcal{R} , not just on \mathbb{K} , but globally on Σ . Let $i : \Sigma \rightarrow \Sigma$ be the involution changing digits 0 to 1 and vice versa. Clearly $U_c = -U_c \circ i$.

We can now prove Theorem 1.

Proof of Theorem 1. Let W be a potential on \mathbb{K} , that is fixed by \mathcal{R} . We assume that the variations are summable: $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \text{Var}_k(W) < \infty$.

We show that W is continuous on 2-cylinders. Let $x = x_0, x_1, \dots$ and $y = y_0, y_1, \dots$ be in the same 2-cylinder (namely $x_0 = y_0$ and $x_1 = y_1$). Then, for every n , $H^n(x)$ and $H^n(y)$ coincide for (at least) 2^{n+1} digits.

Now we get

$$\begin{aligned} |W(x) - W(y)| &= |\mathcal{R}^n(W)(x) - \mathcal{R}^n(W)(y)| \\ &= |S_{2^n}(W)(H^n(x)) - S_{2^n}(W)(H^n(y))| \\ &\leq \sum_{k=2^{n+1}}^{2^{n+1}} \text{Var}_k(W). \end{aligned}$$

Convergence of the series $\sum_k \text{Var}_k(W)$ implies that $\sum_{k=2^{n+1}}^{2^{n+1}} \text{Var}_k(W) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. This yields that W is constant on 2-cylinders.

Lemma 6 shows that $W|_{[01]} = -W|_{[10]}$. Again, the second equality in that lemma used for both ρ_0 and ρ_1 shows that $W|_{[00]} = W|_{[11]} = 0$. Therefore $W = U_c$ with $c = W(\rho_0)$, and the proof is finished. \square

2.3. Global fixed points for \mathcal{R} : proof of Theorem 2. To give an idea why Theorem 2 holds, observe that the property $V(x) = \frac{1}{n} + o(\frac{1}{n})$ if $d(x, \mathbb{K}) = 2^{-n}$ (so V vanishes on \mathbb{K} but is positive elsewhere) is in spirit preserved under iterations of \mathcal{R} , provided the shift σ doubles the distance from \mathbb{K} . Let \mathcal{H} denote the class of potential satisfying this property. Now pick x such that $d(x, \mathbb{K}) = 2^{-m}$. Then, taking the limit of Riemann sums,

$$\begin{aligned} 0 \leq (\mathcal{R}^n V)(x) &= \sum_{j=0}^{2^n-1} \frac{1}{2^{nm-j}} + \sum_{j=0}^{2^n-1} o\left(\frac{1}{2^{nm-j}}\right) \\ &\xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} (1 + o(1)) \int_0^1 \frac{1}{m-t} dt \\ &= (1 + o(1)) \log \frac{m}{m-1} = \frac{1}{m} + o\left(\frac{1}{m}\right). \end{aligned}$$

However, it may happen that $d(\sigma(y), \mathbb{K}) \ll 2d(y, \mathbb{K})$ for points $y = \sigma^j \circ H^n(x)$, in which case we speak of an *accident*. The proof of the proposition includes an argument that accidents happen only infrequently, and far apart from each other.

The proof of Theorem 2 has three steps. In the first step we prove that the class \mathcal{H} is invariant under \mathcal{R} . In the second step we show that $\mathcal{R}^n(V_0)$, with V_0 defined by $V_0(x) = \frac{1}{m}$ if $d(x, \mathbb{K}) = 2^{-m}$, is positive (outside \mathbb{K}) and bounded from above. In the last step we deduce from the two first steps that there exists a unique fixed point and that it is continuous and positive. We also briefly explain why it gives the result for any V in the class.

Step 1. We recall that \mathcal{R} is defined by $(\mathcal{R}V)(x) := V \circ H(x) + V \circ \sigma \circ H(x)$. As H and σ are continuous, $\mathcal{R}(V)$ is continuous if V is continuous. Let $x \in \Sigma$ and $x_K \in \mathbb{K}$ be such that

$$d(x, \mathbb{K}) = d(x, x_K) = 2^{-m}.$$

Then the distance between $H(x)$ and $H(x_K)$ is 2^{-2m} .

We claim that if $m \geq 3$, then $d(H(x), \mathbb{K}) = d(H(x), H(x_K))$. Let us assume by contradiction that $y \in K$ is such that $d(H(x), \mathbb{K}) = d(H(x), y) < d(H(x), H(x_K))$. By Lemma 3, y belongs to either $H(\mathbb{K})$ or to $\sigma \circ H(\mathbb{K})$. In the first case, say $H(z) = y$, we get

$$d(H(x), H(z)) < d(H(x), H(x_K)).$$

This would yield $d(x, y) < d(x, x_K)$ which is a contradiction with the fact that $d(x, \mathbb{K})$ is $d(x, x_K)$.

In the other case, say $y = \sigma \circ H(z)$, $m \geq 3$ yields $H(x) = a_0 \bar{a}_0 a_1 \bar{a}_1 a_2 \bar{a}_2 \dots$ and $\sigma \circ H(z) = \bar{b}_0 b_1 \bar{b}_1 b_2 \bar{b}_2 \dots$. As in the proof of Lemma 3 this would show that y must start with either

the word 010101 or the word 101010. Both are forbidden in \mathbb{K} and this produces a contradiction. This finishes the proof of the claim.

Lemma 2 shows that we also get $d(\sigma \circ H(x), \mathbb{K}) = \frac{1}{2^{2m-1}} = d(\sigma \circ H(x), \sigma \circ H(x_K))$. Then we get

$$(6) \quad (\mathcal{R}V)(x) = V \circ H(x) + V \circ \sigma \circ H(x) = \frac{1}{2m} + \frac{1}{2m-1} + o\left(\frac{1}{m}\right) = \frac{1}{2m} + o\left(\frac{1}{m}\right).$$

Step 2. The proof is given for V_0 defined by $V_0(x) = \frac{1}{m}$ if $d(x, \mathbb{K}) = 2^{-m}$. Let $x \in \Sigma$ be such that $d(x, \mathbb{K}) = 2^{-m}$, and pick $x_K \in \mathbb{K}$ such that x and x_K coincide for exactly m initial digits. We point out that, due to the definition of \mathbb{K} , $m \geq 2$ (for any x) but we assume in the following that $m \geq 3$. By Step 1, since each iteration of H doubles the number of coinciding digits we get $d(H^n x, \mathbb{K}) = d(H^n x, H^n x_K) = 2^{-2^n m}$. Assume that the first digit of x is 0. Then $H^n(x)$ coincides with ρ_0 at least for 2^n digits. Assume now that $H^n x$ has an accident at the j -th shift, $1 < j < 2^n$, so there is $y \in \mathbb{K}$ such that $d(\sigma^j \circ H_n(x), y) \ll d(\sigma^j \circ H_n(x), \sigma^j \circ H_n(x_K))$.

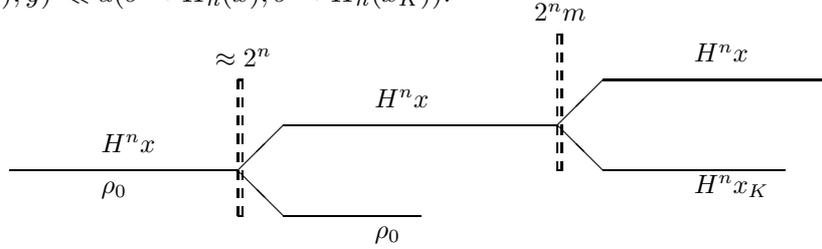


FIGURE 1. Graphically comparing sequences in this proof.

We consider the above j minimal as we look at the first accident. Then we use Lemma 2 with $\sigma^{j-1} \circ H^n(x)$ instead of x , $t := \sigma^{j-1} \circ H^n(x_K)$ and $t' = y$. The assumption

$$d(\sigma^j \circ H_n(x), y) < d(\sigma^j \circ H_n(x), \sigma^j \circ H_n(x_K))$$

means that y coincides with ρ_0 or ρ_1 for at least $2^n m - j$ initial digits. Since $m \geq 3$ and $j \leq 2^n - 1$, we can also say (and this is another important property of ρ_0 and ρ_1) that $j \geq 2^n/2$. Therefore, using again that the sum approximates the Riemann integral,

$$\begin{aligned} (\mathcal{R}^n V_0)(x) &= \sum_{j=0}^{2^n-1} \frac{1}{2^n m - j} \geq \frac{1}{2^n} \sum_{j=0}^{(2^n/2)-1} \frac{1}{m - j/2^n} \\ &\xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^{\frac{1}{2}} \frac{1}{m - x} dx \geq \frac{1}{2m}. \end{aligned}$$

The worst case scenario for the upper bound is when there is no accident, and then we have

$$(7) \quad (\mathcal{R}^n V_0)(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{2^n-1} \frac{1}{2^n m - j} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^1 \frac{1}{m - x} dx \leq \frac{1}{m-1}$$

as required.

Remark 2. Note that the largest distance between \mathbb{K} and points $\sigma^k(H^n(x))$ with $k \in \llbracket 0, 2^n - 1 \rrbracket$ is smaller than $\frac{1}{2^{2^m - 2^n + 1}} \leq \frac{1}{2^{2^n}}$. This largest distance thus tends to 0 super-exponentially fast as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Step 3. We define \tilde{V} as any accumulation point for the sequence $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \mathcal{R}^k(V_0)$. By construction \tilde{V} satisfies $\mathcal{R}(\tilde{V}) = \tilde{V}$. If x satisfies $d(x, \mathbb{K}) = \frac{1}{2^m}$, then Step 2 shows that we get $\frac{1}{4m} \leq \tilde{V}(x) \leq \frac{1}{m-1}$. Hence \tilde{V} is positive (outside \mathbb{K}) and bounded from above.

Moreover, we claim that if \tilde{V} is obtained via the subsequence $(n_k)_k$, then for every V in the class \mathcal{H} , \tilde{V} is also the limit of $\frac{1}{n_k} \sum_{j=0}^{n_k-1} \mathcal{R}^j(V)$ (check that $V = V_0 + o(V_0)$ and use

Remark 2). In other words, all the accumulation points for $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \mathcal{R}^k(V)$ are the same for every V in the class \mathcal{H} .

Let \tilde{V}_1 and \tilde{V}_2 be two accumulation points for $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \mathcal{R}^k(V_0)$. Step 1 shows that they are in the class \mathcal{H} , and we can iterate \mathcal{R} on them. Hence, they are both accumulation points for $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \mathcal{R}^k(\tilde{V}_i)$ ($i = 1, 2$). Now we get,

$$\tilde{V}_1(x) - \tilde{V}_2(x) = o(V_0(x)),$$

and the linearity of \mathcal{R} and Remark 2 show that $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \mathcal{R}^k(\tilde{V}_1 - \tilde{V}_2) \rightarrow 0$. In other words,

$\tilde{V}_1 = \tilde{V}_2$. Hence $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \mathcal{R}^k(V_0)$ converges.

Now, we prove that \tilde{V} is a continuous function. More precisely, we prove that there exists some constant κ such that

$$|\tilde{V}(x) - \tilde{V}(y)| \leq \frac{\kappa}{|\log_2 d(x, y)|}.$$

Assume that x and $y \in \Sigma$ coincide for m digits. We consider two cases.

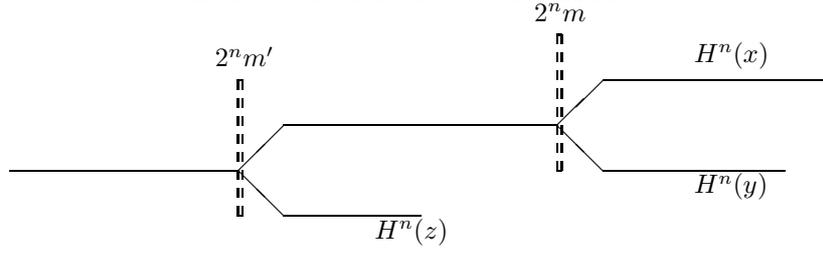
Case 1: $d(x, \mathbb{K}) = \frac{1}{2^{m'}} =: d(x, z)$, with $m' < m$ (and $z \in \mathbb{K}$).

If there are no accidents for $\sigma^j \circ H^n(x)$ for $j \in \llbracket 0, 2^n \rrbracket$, then for every j ,

$$d(\sigma^j(H^n(x)), \mathbb{K}) = d(\sigma^j(H^n(y)), \mathbb{K}) = d(\sigma^j(H^n(x)), \sigma^j(H^n(z))),$$

and $V_0(\sigma^j(H^n(x))) = V_0(\sigma^j(H^n(y)))$. This yields $(\mathcal{R}^n V_0)(x) = (\mathcal{R}^n V_0)(y)$.

Case 2: If there is an accident, say at time j_0 , then two sub-cases may happen.



Subcase 2-1. The accident is due to a point z' that separates before $2^n m$, see Figure 2.

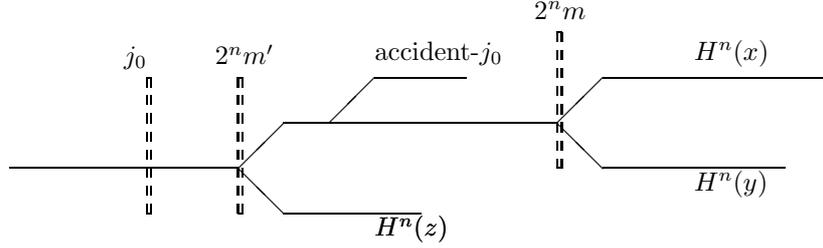


FIGURE 2. Accident before separation.

Again, we claim that $V_0(\sigma^j(H^n(x))) = V_0(\sigma^j(H^n(y)))$ holds for $j \leq j_0 - 1$, but also for j greater than j_0 but smaller than the (potential) second accident. Going further, we refer to cases 2-2 or 1.

Sub-case 2-2. The accident is due to a point much closer to $H^n(x)$ than to $H^n(y)$ (see Figure 3)

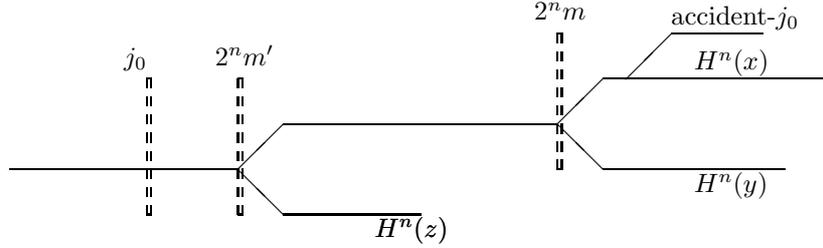


FIGURE 3. Accident after separation.

In that case we recall that the first accident cannot happen before 2^{n-1} . Again, for $j \leq j_0 - 1$ we get $V_0(\sigma^j(H^n(x))) = V_0(\sigma^j(H^n(y)))$. For $j \geq j_0$, and by definition of an accident we get

$$\max \left\{ V_0(\sigma^{j+2^{n-1}}(H^n(x))), V_0(\sigma^{j+2^{n-1}}(H^n(y))) \right\} \leq \frac{1}{2^n m - 2^{n-1} - j}.$$

This yields

$$|(\mathcal{R}^n V_0)(x) - (\mathcal{R}^n V_0)(y)| \leq \sum_{k=j}^{2^{n-1}} \frac{2}{2^n m - 2^{n-1} - j} = \frac{1}{2^n} \sum_{k=j}^{2^{n-1}} \frac{2}{m - \frac{1}{2} - \frac{j}{2^n}}.$$

This last sum is a Riemann sum and is thus (uniformly in n) comparable to the associated integral $\int_0^{\frac{1}{2}} \frac{1}{m - \frac{1}{2} - t} dt \leq \frac{1}{2(m-1)}$. This holds for every n , and then also for the Cesaro mean value, which converges to \tilde{V} .

This finishes the proof of Theorem 2.

2.4. More results on fixed points of \mathcal{R} . The same proof also proves a more general result:

Proposition 1. *Let a be a real positive number. Take $V(x) = \frac{1}{n^a} + o(\frac{1}{n^a})$ if $d(x, \mathbb{K}) = 2^{-n}$. Then, for $a > 1$, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathcal{R}^n V \equiv 0$ and for $a < 1$, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathcal{R}^n V \equiv \infty$.*

Proof. Just check that the Riemann sums as in (7) have a factor $2^{n(1-a)}$ in front of it. \square

Consequently, any V satisfying $V(x) = \frac{1}{n} + o(\frac{1}{n})$ for $d(x, \mathbb{K}) = 2^{-n}$ belongs to the weak stable set $V \in \mathcal{W}^s(\tilde{V})$ of the fixed potential \tilde{V} from Theorem 2. However, $V \in \mathcal{W}^s(\tilde{V})$ is in fact much larger:

Proposition 2. *If $V(x) = \frac{1}{n}g(x)$ for $d(x, \mathbb{K}) = 2^{-n}$ and $g : \Sigma \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ a continuous function, then $\frac{1}{i} \sum_{k=0}^{i-1} \mathcal{R}^k(V) \rightarrow \tilde{V} \cdot \int_{\mathbb{K}} g d\mu_{\mathbb{K}}$.*

Proof. Take $\varepsilon > 0$ arbitrary, and take $r \in \mathbb{N}$ so large that $\sup |g|2^{-r} \leq \varepsilon$ and if $d(x, \mathbb{K}) = d(x, x_{\mathbb{K}}) \leq 2^{-r}$, then $|g(x) - g(x_{\mathbb{K}})| \leq \varepsilon$. Next take $k \in \mathbb{N}$ so large that if $k = r + s$, then

$$\left| \frac{1}{2^s} \sum_{j=0}^{2^s-1} g(\sigma^j(y)) - \int_{\mathbb{K}} g d\mu_{\mathbb{K}} \right| \leq \varepsilon.$$

uniformly over $y \in \mathbb{K}$. Then we can estimate

$$\begin{aligned} (\mathcal{R}^k V)(x) &= \sum_{j=0}^{2^k-1} V \circ \sigma^j \circ H^k(x) \\ &\leq \frac{1}{2^k} \sum_{j=0}^{2^k-1} \frac{1}{m - \frac{j}{2^k}} g \circ \sigma^j \circ H^k(x) \\ &= \frac{1}{2^r} \sum_{t=0}^{2^r-1} \frac{1}{2^s} \sum_{j=0}^{2^s-1} \frac{1}{m - \frac{1}{2^k}(2^s t + j)} g \circ \sigma^{2^s t + j} \circ H^k(x) \\ &= \frac{1}{2^r} \sum_{t=0}^{2^r-2} \frac{1}{2^s} \sum_{j=0}^{2^s-1} \left(\frac{1}{m - \frac{t}{2^r}} + O(2^{-r}) \right) \cdot \int_{\mathbb{K}} g d\mu_{\mathbb{K}} + O(\varepsilon) \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2^r} \frac{1}{2^s} \sum_{j=0}^{2^s-1} \frac{1}{m - \frac{1}{2^k}(2^k - 2^s + j)} \sup |g| \\ &\rightarrow \int_0^1 \frac{1}{m-x} dx \cdot \int_{\mathbb{K}} g d\mu_{\mathbb{K}} + O(3\varepsilon). \end{aligned}$$

Since ε is arbitrary, we find $\limsup_k (\mathcal{R}^k V)(x) \leq \frac{1}{m} \cdot \int_{\mathbb{K}} g \, d\mu_{\mathbb{K}} + o(\frac{1}{m})$. Similar to Step 2 in the proof of Theorem 2, we can find $\limsup_k (\mathcal{R}^k V)(x) \geq \frac{1}{2m} \cdot \int_{\mathbb{K}} g \, d\mu_{\mathbb{K}} + o(\frac{1}{m})$. From this, using the argument of Step 3 in the proof of Theorem 2, we can conclude that the Cesaro means $\lim_i \frac{1}{i} \sum_{k=0}^{i-1} (\mathcal{R}^k V)(x) = \tilde{V}(x) \cdot \int_{\mathbb{K}} g \, d\mu_{\mathbb{K}}$. \square

2.5. Unbounded fixed points of \mathcal{R} . The application to Feigenbaum maps discussed in the Appendix of this paper suggests the existence of unbounded fixed points V_u of \mathcal{R} as well. They can actually be constructed explicitly using the disjoint decomposition

$$\Sigma \setminus \mathbb{K} = \sqcup_{k \geq 0} \left((\sigma \circ H)^k(\Sigma) \setminus (\sigma \circ H)^{k+1}(\Sigma) \right).$$

If we set

$$(8) \quad V_u|_{H(\Sigma)} = g \quad \text{and} \quad V_u(x) = V_u(y) - V_u \circ H(y) \quad \text{for } x = \sigma \circ H(y),$$

then V_u is well-defined and $\mathcal{R}V_u = V_u$ on $\Sigma \setminus \mathbb{K}$. The simplest example is

$$(9) \quad V_u|_{(\sigma \circ H)^k(\Sigma) \setminus (\sigma \circ H)^{k+1}(\Sigma)} = (1 - k)\alpha,$$

and we will explore this further for phase transitions in Section 3.

For $x \in \Sigma \setminus \sigma \circ H(\Sigma)$ and $x^k = (\sigma \circ H)^k(x)$, we have

$$V_u(x^k) = g(x) - \sum_{j=1}^k g \circ \sigma^{2^j-2} \circ H^j(x).$$

Now for $x \in [1]$

$$\sigma^{2^j-2} \circ H^j(x) \rightarrow \begin{cases} \sigma^{-2}(\rho_0) & \text{along odd } j\text{'s,} \\ \sigma^{-2}(\rho_1) & \text{along even } j\text{'s,} \end{cases}$$

and the reverse formula holds for $x \in [0]$. In either case, if g extends continuously to $\sigma^{-2}\{\rho_0, \rho_1\} \cap \mathbb{K}$, then $V(x^k) \sim \frac{k}{2}[g \circ \sigma^{-2}(\rho_0) + g \circ \sigma^{-2}(\rho_1)]$. Therefore, unless $g \circ \sigma^{-2}(\rho_0) + g \circ \sigma^{-2}(\rho_1) = 0$, the potential V_u is unbounded near $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} (\sigma \circ H)^k(x) = \{\sigma^{-1}(\rho_0), \sigma^{-1}(\rho_1)\}$, cf. Lemma 4.

Remark 3. *A variation of this stems from the decomposition*

$$\Sigma \setminus \mathbb{K} = \sqcup_{k \geq 0} \left(H^k(\Sigma) \setminus H^{k+1}(\Sigma) \right).$$

In this case, if we define

$$V'_u|_{\sigma \circ H(\Sigma)} = g \quad \text{and} \quad V'_u(x) = V'_u(y) - V'_u \circ \sigma(x) \quad \text{for } x = H(y),$$

then $V' = \mathcal{R}V'_u$ on $\Sigma \setminus \mathbb{K}$. For $x^k = H^k(x)$ we find $V'_u(x^k) = g(x) - \sum_{j=1}^k g \circ \sigma \circ H^j(x)$, and if we assume that g extends continuously to $\sigma(\rho_0)$ and $\sigma(\rho_1)$, then $V'_u(x_k) \sim -kg(\sigma(\rho_0))$ or $-kg(\sigma(\rho_1))$ depending on whether x starts with 0 or 1.

3. THERMODYNAMIC FORMALISM

In this section we prove Theorems 3 and 4. In the first subsection we define an induced transfer operator as in [10] and use its properties. Then we prove both theorems.

3.1. General results and a key proposition. Let $V : \Sigma \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be some potential function, and let J be any cylinder such that on it, the distance to \mathbb{K} is constant, say δ_J . Consider the first return map $T : J \rightarrow J$, say with return time $\tau(x) = \min\{n \geq 1 : \sigma^n(x) \in J\}$, so $T(x) = \sigma^{\tau(x)}(x)$. The sequence of successive return times is then denoted by $\tau^k(x)$, $k = 1, 2, \dots$. The transfer operator is defined as

$$(10) \quad (\mathcal{L}_{z,\gamma}g)(x) = \sum_{T(y)=x} e^{\Phi_{z,\gamma}(y)} g(y)$$

where $\Phi_{z,\gamma}(y) := -\gamma S_n V(y) - nz$ if $\tau(y) = n$.

These operators extend the usual Transfer Operator. They were introduced in [10] and allow to define local equilibrium state. They allow us to construct equilibrium state for potentials which do not necessarily satisfy the Bowen condition (e.g. the Hofbauer potential). Nevertheless, we need the following *local Bowen condition*: there exists C_V (possibly depending on J) such that

$$(11) \quad |(S_n V)(x) - (S_n V)(y)| \leq C_V,$$

whenever $x, y \in J$ coincide for $n := \tau^k(x) = \tau^k(y)$ indices. This holds, e.g. if $V(x)$ depends only on the distance between x and \mathbb{K} .

Lemma 7. *Let $x \in J$ and let γ and z be such that $\mathcal{L}_{z,\gamma}(\mathbf{1}_J)(x)$ converges. Then $(\mathcal{L}_{z,\gamma}g)(x)$ converges for every $y \in J$ and for every continuous function $g : J \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.*

Proof. Note that for any $x, y \in J$, $(\mathcal{L}_{z,\gamma}\mathbf{1}_J)(x) \approx e^{\pm C_V}(\mathcal{L}_{z,\gamma}\mathbf{1}_J)(y)$. Indeed, if x' and y' are two preimages of x and y in J , with the same return time n and such that for every $k \in \llbracket 0, n \rrbracket$ $\sigma^k(x')$ and $\sigma^k(y')$ are in the same cylinder, then

$$|S_n(V)(x') - S_n(V)(y')| \leq C_V.$$

Now, remember that J is compact, and that every continuous function g on J is bounded. Hence convergence for $(\mathcal{L}_{z,\gamma}\mathbf{1}_J)$ at x ensures uniform convergence for any continuous g .

This finishes the proof of the lemma. \square

For fixed γ , there is a critical z_c such that $(\mathcal{L}_{z,\gamma}\mathbf{1}_J)(x)$ converges for all $z > z_c$ and z_c is the smallest real number with this property. Lemma 7 shows that z_c is independent of x . The next result is straightforward.

Lemma 8. *The spectral radius $\lambda_{z,\gamma}$, of $\mathcal{L}_{z,\gamma}$ is decreasing in both γ and z .*

We are interested in the critical z_c as function of γ and the pressure $\mathcal{P}(\gamma)$ as function of γ . Both curves are decreasing (or at least non-increasing). If the curve $\gamma \mapsto z_c(\gamma)$ avoids the horizontal axis, then there is no phase transition:

Proposition 3. *Let V be continuous and satisfying the local Bowen condition (11) for every cylinder J disjoint and at constant distance from \mathbb{K} . Then,*

1. *for every $\gamma \geq 0$, the critical $z_c(\gamma) \leq \mathcal{P}(\gamma)$.*
2. *Assume that the pressure $\mathcal{P}(\gamma) > -\gamma \int V d\mu_{\mathbb{K}}$, then there exists a unique equilibrium state for $-\gamma V$ and it gives a positive mass to every open set in Σ . Moreover $z_c(\gamma) < \mathcal{P}(\gamma)$ and $\mathcal{P}(\gamma)$ is analytic on the largest open interval where the assumption holds.*

Proof. First, there necessarily exists an equilibrium state for $-\gamma V$. Indeed, the potential is continuous and the metric entropy is upper semi-continuous. Therefore, any accumulation point as $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ of a family of measures ν_ε satisfying

$$h_{\nu_\varepsilon}(\sigma) - \gamma \int V d\nu_\varepsilon \geq \mathcal{P}(\gamma),$$

is an equilibrium state.

We point out that the main argument in the study of local equilibrium states as in [10] is that $z > z_c(\gamma)$ (to make the transfer operator “converge”) and that V satisfies the local Bowen property (11). This property is used in several places and it, in particular, yields for every x and y in J and for every n :

$$e^{-\gamma C_V} \leq \frac{(\mathcal{L}_{z,\gamma}^n \mathbb{1}_J)(x)}{(\mathcal{L}_{z,\gamma}^n \mathbb{1}_J)(y)} \leq e^{\gamma C_V}.$$

Let us prove item 1. We remind that

$$(\mathcal{L}_{z,\gamma} \mathbb{1}_J)(x) := \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\sum_{x', T(x')=x, \tau(x)=n} e^{-\gamma S_n(V)(x')} \right) e^{-nz},$$

which yields that

$$z_c = \limsup_n \frac{1}{n} \log \left(\sum_{x', T(x')=x, \tau(x)=n} e^{-\gamma S_n(V)(x')} \right).$$

To prove $z_c(\gamma) \leq \mathcal{P}(\gamma)$, we copy the proof of Proposition 3.10 in [11]. Define the measure $\tilde{\nu}$ as follows: for x in J and for each T -preimage y of x there exists a unique $\tau(y)$ -periodic point (in J) coinciding with y until $\tau(y)$. We denote this periodic point by $\xi(y)$. Next we define the measure $\tilde{\nu}_n$ as the probability measure proportional to

$$\sum_{\xi(y), \tau(y)=n} e^{\Phi_{\mathcal{P}(\gamma), \gamma}(\xi(y))} \left(\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \delta_{\sigma^j \xi(y)} \right) = \sum_{\xi(y), \tau(y)=n} e^{-\gamma S_n(V)(\xi(y)) - n\mathcal{P}(\gamma)} \left(\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \delta_{\sigma^j \xi(y)} \right).$$

The measure $\tilde{\nu}$ is any accumulation point for $\tilde{\nu}_n$. It follows from the proof of [9, Lemma 20.2.3, page 624] that

$$(12) \quad z_c(\gamma) \leq h_{\tilde{\nu}}(\sigma) - \gamma \int V d\tilde{\nu} \leq \mathcal{P}(\gamma).$$

Remark 4. We emphasize that $\tilde{\nu}_n(J) = \frac{1}{n}$ for each n , which shows that $\tilde{\nu}(J) = 0$.

Let us prove item 2. Let μ_γ be an ergodic equilibrium state for $-\gamma V$. The assumption $\mathcal{P}(\gamma) > -\gamma \int V d\mu_\mathbb{K}$ means that the unique shift-invariant measure on \mathbb{K} cannot be an equilibrium state (remember that \mathbb{K} has zero entropy). Hence μ_γ gives positive mass to some cylinder J in \mathbb{K}^c . Thus the conditional measure

$$(13) \quad \nu_\gamma(\cdot) := \mu_\gamma(\cdot \cap J) / \mu_\gamma(J).$$

is T -invariant (using above notations).

We now focus on the convergence of $(\mathcal{L}_{z,\gamma}\mathbb{1}_J)(x)$ for any $x \in J$ and $z = \mathcal{P}(\gamma)$. The inequality $z_c(\gamma) \leq \mathcal{P}(\gamma)$ does not ensure convergence of $(\mathcal{L}_{z,\gamma}\mathbb{1}_J)(x)$ for $z = \mathcal{P}(\gamma)$.

Again, we copy and adapt arguments from [11, Proposition 3.10] to get that $(\mathcal{L}_{z,\gamma}\mathbb{1}_J)(x)$ converges and that the $\Phi_{z,\gamma}$ -pressure is non-positive for $z = \mathcal{P}(\gamma)$.

Let us now consider $z > \mathcal{P}(\gamma)$, so $z > z_c(\gamma)$, and we can apply the local thermodynamic formalism for $\Phi_{z,\gamma}$. Moreover $z > z_c(\gamma)$ means that $\frac{\partial}{\partial z}(\mathcal{L}_{z,\gamma}\mathbb{1}_J)(x)$ converges. This implies by [10, Proposition 6.8] that there exists a unique equilibrium state $\nu_{z,\gamma}$ on J for T and for the potential $\Phi_{z,\gamma}$, and that the expectation $\int_J \tau d\nu_{z,\gamma} < \infty$. In other words, there exists a shift-invariant probability measure $\mu_{z,\gamma}$ such that

$$\mu_{z,\gamma}(J) > 0, \text{ and } \nu_{z,\gamma}(\cdot) := \frac{\mu_{z,\gamma}(\cdot \cap J)}{\mu_{z,\gamma}(J)}.$$

Now the equality $h_{\nu_{z,\gamma}}(T) + \int \Phi_{z,\gamma} d\nu_{z,\gamma} = \log \lambda_{z,\gamma}$ (the spectral radius for $\mathcal{L}_{z,\gamma}$) shows that

$$h_{\mu_{z,\gamma}}(\sigma) - \gamma \int V d\mu_{z,\gamma} = z + \mu_{z,\gamma}(J) \log \lambda_{z,\gamma}.$$

As $z > \mathcal{P}(\gamma)$ we get $\lambda_{z,\gamma} \leq 1$. Now, the Bowen property of the potential shows that for every x in J and for every $n \geq 1$:

$$(\mathcal{L}_{z,\gamma}^n \mathbb{1}_J)(x) = e^{\gamma C_V} \lambda_{z,\gamma}^n.$$

The power series is decreasing in z , thus the monotone Lebesgue convergence theorem shows that it converges for $z = \mathcal{P}(\gamma)$. For this value of the parameter z , the spectral radius $\lambda_{\mathcal{P}(\gamma),\gamma} \leq 1$. Following [10] there exists a unique local equilibrium state, $\nu_{\mathcal{P}(\gamma),\gamma}$ with pressure $\log \lambda_{\mathcal{P}(\gamma),\gamma} \leq 1$. This proves that the $\Phi_{\mathcal{P}(\gamma),\gamma}$ -pressure is non-positive.

Now, we prove that the $\Phi_{z,\gamma}$ -pressure is non-negative for $z = \mathcal{P}(\gamma)$. Indeed, by Abramov's formula

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= h_{\mu_\gamma}(\sigma) - \gamma \int V d\mu_\gamma - \mathcal{P}(\gamma) \\ &= \mu_\gamma(J) \left(h_{\nu_\gamma}(T) - \gamma \int (S_{\tau(x)} V)(x) d\nu_\gamma(x) - \mathcal{P}(\gamma) \int \tau d\nu_\gamma \right), \end{aligned}$$

which yields

$$h_{\nu_\gamma}(T) - \gamma \int S_{\tau(x)}(V)(x) - \mathcal{P}(\gamma) \tau(x) d\nu_\gamma(x) = 0.$$

Finally, as the $\Phi_{\mathcal{P}(\gamma),\gamma}$ -pressure is non-negative and non-positive, it is equal to 0. It also has a unique equilibrium state which is a Gibbs measure (in J and for the first-return map T). As the conditional measure ν_γ has zero $\Phi_{\mathcal{P}(\gamma),\gamma}$ -pressure, it is the unique local equilibrium state.

The local Gibbs property proves that ν_γ gives positive mass to every open set in J , and the mixing property shows that the global and σ -invariant measure μ_γ gives positive mass to every open set in Σ . We can thus copy the argument to show it is uniquely determined on each cylinder which does not intersect \mathbb{K} (here we use the assumption that the potential satisfies (11) for each cylinder J with empty intersection with \mathbb{K}).

It now remains to prove analyticity of the pressure. Equality (12) gives $z_c(\gamma) \leq h_{\tilde{\nu}}(\sigma) - \gamma \int V_i d\tilde{\nu}$. Remark 4 states that $\tilde{\nu}(J) = 0$, and uniqueness of the equilibrium state shows that $\tilde{\nu}$ cannot be this equilibrium state (otherwise we would get $\tilde{\nu}(J) > 0$). Hence, $z_c(\gamma)$ is strictly less than $\mathcal{P}(\gamma)$. Then, we use [7] to get analyticity in each variable z and γ , and the analytic version of the implicit function theorem (see [15]) shows that $\mathcal{P}(\gamma)$ is analytic. This finishes the proof of the proposition. \square

Actually, Proposition 3 says a little bit more. If the second assumption is satisfied, namely $\mathcal{P}(\gamma) > - \int V d\mu_{\mathbb{K}}$, then the unique equilibrium state for V in Σ is the measure obtained (using Equation (13)) from the unique equilibrium state $\nu_{\mathcal{P}(\gamma), \gamma}$ for the dynamical system (J, T) and associated to the potential $\Phi_{\mathcal{P}(\gamma), \gamma}$.

Therefore, two special curves (see Figure 4) z in function of γ appear. The first is $z_c(\gamma)$, and the second is $\mathcal{P}(\gamma)$, defined by the implicit equality

$$\log \lambda_{\mathcal{P}(\gamma), \gamma} = 0.$$

We claim that these curves are convex.

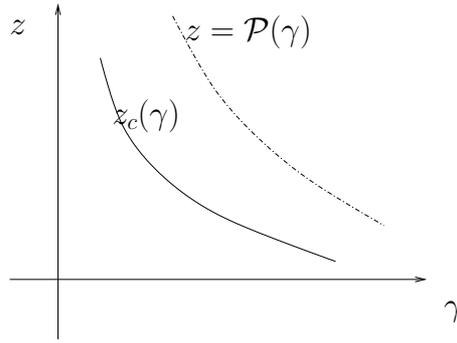


FIGURE 4. Two important z in function of γ

3.2. Counting excursions close to \mathbb{K} . Let $x \in \Sigma$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$ be such that for $k \in \llbracket 0, n-1 \rrbracket$, $d(\sigma^k(x), \mathbb{K}) \leq 2^{-5}\delta_J$. We divide the piece of orbit $x, \sigma(x), \dots, \sigma^{n-1}(x)$ into pieces between accidents. We take $b_0 = 0$ by default, and then

$$\begin{aligned} b_1 &= \min\{j \geq 1 : d(\sigma^j(x), \mathbb{K}) \leq d(\sigma^{j-1}(x), \mathbb{K})\}, \\ b_2 &= \min\{j \geq b_1 + 1 : d(\sigma^j(x), \mathbb{K}) \leq d(\sigma^{j-1}(x), \mathbb{K})\}, \\ b_3 &= \min\{j \geq b_1 + b_2 + 1 : d(\sigma^j(x), \mathbb{K}) \leq d(\sigma^{j-1}(x), \mathbb{K})\}, \\ &\vdots \qquad \qquad \qquad \vdots \qquad \qquad \qquad \vdots \end{aligned}$$

and $d_j = -\log_2 d(\sigma^{\sum_{i<j} b_i}(x), \mathbb{K})$ expresses how close the image of x is to \mathbb{K} at the $j-1$ -st accident.

Lemma 9. *The values b_j determine the values d_j . More precisely*

$$(14) \quad \begin{cases} b_j = 2^k + 2^{k-1} + \dots + 2^{k-i} = 2^{k+1} - 2^{k-i} \text{ for some } 0 \leq i < k, \\ d_j = \begin{cases} 2^{k+1} + 2^{k-i} = b_j + 2^{k-i+1} & \text{if } i \text{ is odd;} \\ 2^{k+1} = b_j + 2^{k-i} & \text{if } i \text{ is even.} \end{cases} \end{cases}$$

Proof. We argue with $x \in J$ itself to get the required condition on b_1 and d_1 . The argument for b_j and d_j using $\sigma^{b_1+\dots+b_{j-1}}(x)$ is the same.

Let $y \in \mathbb{K}$ is the closest point to x , so $d_1 = -\log_2 d(x, \mathbb{K}) = -\log_2 d(x, y)$. There is an *accident* at shift b_1 , meaning that $d(\sigma^{b_1}(x), \mathbb{K}) < d(\sigma^{b_1}(x), \sigma^j(y))$, and $b_1 \leq d_1$. Up to the accident, distance $d(\sigma^i(x), \mathbb{K})$ double every iterate, so

$$-\log_2 d(\sigma^{b_1}(x), \sigma^{b_1}(y)) = d_1 - b_1 < d_2 = -\log_2 d(\sigma^{b_1}, \mathbb{K}).$$

Assume that x starts as ρ_0 and let k be minimal such that $b_1 < 2^{k+1}$. Then the next 2^{k+1} digits of ρ_0 are the first 2^{k+1} digits of ρ_1 .

Since b_1 is the time to the first accident, Lemma 1 implies that $\sigma^{b_1}(x)$ coincides with ρ_0 or ρ_1 for a at least $d_1 - b_1$ digits.

The Thue-Morse substitution is such that if $\sigma^{b_1}(\rho_0)$ coincides with ρ_0 or ρ_1 for at least $d_1 - b_1$ digits only if $d_1 - b_1 = 2^{k-i}$ for some i . This proves the statement on the length of b_1 . More precisely, $\sigma^{b_1}(\rho_0)$ starts as with ρ_0 if $k - i$ is odd, and as ρ_1 if $k - i$ is even. We illustrate the two cases in Figure 5.

- If $k - i$ is odd, then the total number of digits of $\sigma^{b_1}(\rho_0)$ coinciding with ρ_0 is 2^{k+2-i} , namely the last 2^{k+1-i} of the first 2^{k+1} digits of ρ_0 plus the first 2^{k+1-i} digits of ρ_1 ; after this ρ_1 continues with a 0 and $\sigma^{b_1}(\rho_0)$ with a 1.
- If $k - i$ is even, then the total number of digits of $\sigma^{b_1}(\rho_0)$ coinciding with ρ_1 is 2^{k+1-i} , namely the last 2^{k-i} of the first 2^{k+1} only; after this ρ_1 continues with a 0 and $\sigma^{b_1}(\rho_0)$ with a 1.

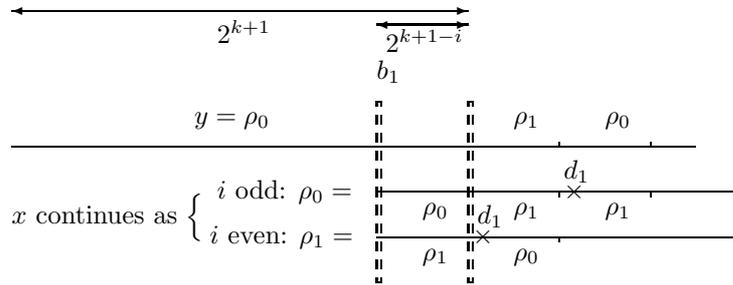


FIGURE 5. Illustration of the proof.

The argument if x starts as ρ_1 is the same as above, with all the symbols 1 and 0 interchanged. This concludes the proof. \square

3.3. Logarithmic potentials: proof of Theorem 3. In the first subsection we focus on the case $V_l(x) = \log \frac{n+1}{n}$. The study for other potentials in $\mathcal{W}^s(\tilde{V})$ is obtained from the one for V_l (see Subsubsection 3.3.2).

3.3.1. The logarithmic case. First, we note that V_l satisfies hypothesis of Proposition 3. In particular, for x and y in J coinciding until $n = \tau^k$, the assumption $d(\mathbb{K}, J) = \delta_J = d(x, \mathbb{K}) = d(y, \mathbb{K})$ shows that for every $j \leq n$,

$$d(\sigma^j, \mathbb{K}) = d(\sigma^j(y), \mathbb{K})$$

holds. Hence $\Phi_{\cdot, \gamma}$ satisfies the local Bowen property (11).

Let x be a point in J . We want to estimate $(\mathcal{L}_{z, \gamma} \mathbf{1}_J)(x)$. Let y be a preimage of x for T . To estimate $\Phi(y)$, we decompose the orbit $y, \sigma(y), \dots, \sigma^{\tau(y)-1}(y)$ where $\sigma^j(y)$ is reasonably far away from \mathbb{K} (let $c_r \geq 0$ be the length of such piece) and *excursions* close to \mathbb{K} .

Definition 1. *An excursions begins at $\xi := \sigma^s(y)$ when ξ starts as ρ_0 or ρ_1 for at least $5 - \log_2 \delta_J$ digits (i.e., $d(\xi', \rho_0)$ and $d(\xi', \rho_1) \leq \delta_J 2^{-5}$) and ends at $\xi' := \sigma^t(y)$ where $t > s$ is the minimal integer such that $d(\xi', \mathbb{K}) > \delta_J 2^{-5}$.*

If $\sigma^i(y)$ is very close to \mathbb{K} , then due to minimality of (\mathbb{K}, σ) it takes a uniformly bounded (from above) number of iterates for an excursion to begin.

Note that each cylinder for the return map T is characterized by a *path*

$$c_0, \underbrace{b_{1,1}, b_{1,2}, \dots, b_{1,N_1}}_{\text{first excursion}}, c_1, \underbrace{b_{2,1}, \dots, b_{2,N_1}}_{\text{second excursion}}, c_2, \dots, c_{M-1}, \underbrace{b_{M,1}, b_{M,2}, \dots, b_{M,N_1}}_{M\text{-th excursion}}, c_M.$$

Any piece of orbit between two excursions or before the first excursion or after the last excursion is called a *free path*. Let s_r and t_r be the times where the r -th free path and r -th excursion begin. Since J is disjoint from \mathbb{K} , each piece c_r of free path takes at least two iterates, so $c_r \geq 2$ for $0 \leq r \leq M$.

For the potential $V_l(x) = \log \frac{n+1}{n}$ if $d(x, \mathbb{K}) = 2^{-n}$, we find for the contribution $\Phi_{z, \gamma}(\xi)$ of a single excursion starting at $\xi = \sigma^{t_r}(y)$

$$\Phi_{z, \gamma}(\xi) = -\gamma \sum_{j=1}^N \sum_{k=0}^{b_j-1} \log \frac{d_j - k + 1}{d_j - k} - z \sum_{j=1}^N b_j = -\gamma \sum_{j=1}^N \log \frac{d_j + 1}{d_j - b_j} - z \sum_{j=1}^N b_j.$$

and therefore the cluster of all possible excursions starting at $\xi = \sigma^{t_r}(y)$ is

$$\begin{aligned} (E_{z, \gamma} \mathbf{1}_J)(\xi) &= \sum_{N \geq 1} \sum_{(b_j)_{j=1}^N, (d_j)_{j=1}^N} \exp \left(-\gamma \sum_{j=1}^N \log \frac{d_j + 1}{d_j - b_j} \right) \exp \left(-\sum_{j=1}^N b_j z \right) \\ (15) \quad &= \sum_{N \geq 1} \sum_{(b_j)_{j=1}^N} \prod_{j=1}^N \left(\frac{d_j - b_j}{d_j + 1} \right)^\gamma \prod_{j=1}^N e^{-b_j z}. \end{aligned}$$

We recall result of Lemma 9: the allowed b_j are of the form $2^{k+1} - 2^{k-i}$ for some k and i and $d_j = d_j(b_j)$ is $b_j + 2^{k-i+1}$ if i is odd and $b_j + 2^{k-i}$ if i is even.

Let us set

$$(16) \quad A = \sum_{\substack{\text{allowed} \\ b \geq 1}} \left(\frac{d-b}{d+1} \right)^\gamma e^{-bz}.$$

Then the fact that Σ is the full shift yields

$$(17) \quad (E_{z,\gamma} \mathbb{1}_J)(\xi) = \sum_N A^N,$$

independently of ξ .

For the free pieces between excursions the orbit is relatively far from \mathbb{K} , so there is $\varepsilon > 0$ depending only on δ_J such that

$$(18) \quad -c_r(\gamma + z) \leq \sum_{n=0}^{c_r-1} -\gamma V_i(\sigma^{n+s_r}(y)) - c_r z \leq -c_r(\varepsilon\gamma + z).$$

Equation (17) with $(E_{z,\gamma} \mathbb{1}_J)(\xi)$ independent of ξ yields that the transfer operator applied to the constant function $\mathbb{1}_J$ can be written as

$$(19) \quad (\mathcal{L}_{0,\gamma} \mathbb{1}_J)(x) = \left(\sum_{c_0 \geq 5} \sum_{\substack{\text{free} \\ c_0\text{-paths}}} e^{-\gamma \sum_{n=0}^{c_0-1} V_i(\sigma^n(y)) - c_0 z} \right) \times \\ \left(\sum_{M \geq 0} \left[\left(\sum_{(c_r)_{r=1}^M} \sum_{\substack{\text{free} \\ c_r\text{-paths}}} e^{-\gamma \sum_{n=0}^{c_r-1} V_i(\sigma^{n+s_r}(y)) - c_r z} \right) \times \left(\sum_{N \geq 1} A^N \right)^M \right] \right),$$

where the sum over $(c_r)_{r=1}^M$ is 1 by convention if $M = 0$. The first factor (the sum over c_0) indicates the first cluster of free paths, and $c_0 \geq 5$ by our choice of the distance δ_J .

In the following, we want to get upper and lower bound for $(\mathcal{L}_{0,\gamma} \mathbb{1}_J)(x)$. An upper bound is obtained by choosing an upper for A and majorizing the sum over the c_r free paths by taking the sum over all the c and the upper bound in (18). Lower bounds are used to prove divergence of the series. This immediately holds if $A \geq 1$.

Lemma 10. $(\mathcal{L}_{0,\gamma} \mathbb{1}_J)(x)$ diverges for every $\gamma \in \mathbb{R}$ and $x \in J$.

Proof. As it is said, we want to prove that A is larger than 1. For that we will only sum over special b : those such that $\frac{d-b}{d+1}$ is big enough.

Fix γ . A can be re-written as

$$A = \sum_k \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \left(\frac{d_{k,i} - b_{k,i}}{d_{k,i} + 1} \right)^\gamma,$$

where $b_{k,i} := 2^{k+1} - 2^{k-i}$ and $d_{k,i}$ is associated as in Lemma 9. Hence,

$$A \geq \sum_k \left(\frac{d_{k,0} - b_{k,0}}{d_{k,0} + 1} \right)^\gamma = \sum_k \left(\frac{2^k}{2^{k+1} + 1} \right)^\gamma \geq \sum_k \frac{1}{3^\gamma},$$

which trivially diverges. □

Lemma 11. *The critical parameter $z_c(\gamma) \rightarrow 0$ as $\gamma \rightarrow \infty$.*

Proof. Using $d = d(b)$ as in Lemma 9 we find an upper bound for A .

$$\begin{aligned}
A &= \sum_{\substack{\text{allowed} \\ b \geq 1}} \left(\frac{d-b}{d+1} \right)^\gamma e^{-bz} \\
&= \sum_{k \geq 1} \left(\sum_{\substack{i=0 \\ \text{odd}}}^k \left(\frac{2^{k-i+1}}{2^{k+1} + 2^{k-i}} \right)^\gamma e^{-(2^{k+1}-2^{k-i})z} + \sum_{\substack{i=0 \\ \text{even}}}^k \left(\frac{2^{k-i}}{2^{k+1}} \right)^\gamma e^{-(2^{k+1}-2^{k-i})z} \right) \\
&\leq \sum_{k \geq 1} e^{-2^k z} \left(\sum_{\substack{i=0 \\ \text{odd}}}^k \left(\frac{2}{2^i + 1} \right)^\gamma + \sum_{\substack{i=0 \\ \text{even}}}^k \left(\frac{1}{2^i} \right)^\gamma \right) \\
&\leq 2^{1-\gamma} \sum_{k \geq 1} e^{-2^k z} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{4^j} \right) \quad (\text{the odd sum is dominated by the even sum}) \\
&\leq \frac{2^{1-\gamma}}{1-4^{-\gamma}} \int_0^\infty e^{-2^x z} dx = \frac{2^{1-\gamma}}{1-4^{-\gamma}} \int_1^\infty \frac{e^{-uz}}{u \log 2} du \leq \frac{e^{-z}}{z} \frac{e^{1-\gamma}}{1-4^{-\gamma}}.
\end{aligned}$$

Summing over $N \geq 1$, we get

$$\sum_N A^N = \frac{A}{1-A} \leq \frac{1}{ze^{\gamma+z-1}(1-4^{-\gamma})-1}.$$

Next we need to sum over all free paths as well. So from (19) and (18) and using that there are at most 2^c free paths of length c , we find

$$\begin{aligned}
(\mathcal{L}_{z,\gamma} \mathbb{1}_J)(x) &\leq \left(\sum_{c_0 \geq 5} 2^{c_0} e^{-c_0(\gamma\varepsilon+z)} \right) \cdot \sum_{M \geq 0} \left(\sum_{c \geq 1} 2^c e^{-c(\varepsilon\gamma+z)} \sum_{N \geq 1} A^N \right)^M \\
&\leq \frac{32e^{-5(\gamma\varepsilon+z)}}{1-2e^{-(\gamma\varepsilon+z)}} \cdot \sum_{M \geq 0} \left(\frac{1}{\frac{1}{2}e^{\varepsilon\gamma+z}-1} \cdot \frac{1}{ze^{\gamma+z-1}(1-4^{-\gamma})-1} \right)^M.
\end{aligned}$$

When we choose $z > 1/(\varepsilon\gamma)$, then the first factor in the summand $\frac{1}{\frac{1}{2}e^{\varepsilon\gamma+z}-1} \leq \frac{2}{e^{2-2}}$, with equality achieved for $\gamma = 1/\varepsilon$. The second factor $\frac{1}{ze^{\gamma+z-1}(1-4^{-\gamma})-1} \leq \frac{4}{3e-4} < 1$ as well. Therefore the summands are less than 1, and the geometric series converges. This shows that $z_c \leq 1/(\varepsilon\gamma) \rightarrow 0$ as $\gamma \rightarrow \infty$. \square

Lemma 12. *The critical parameter $z_c(\gamma) \geq 2^{-(e \cdot 2^\gamma + 1)} > 0$.*

Proof. This is a lower bound again, so it suffices to view a single cluster of excursions. Take γ arbitrary and take $M = e \cdot 2^\gamma$ and $z < 2^{-(M+1)}$. We can find a lower bound

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \sum_{\substack{\text{allowed} \\ b \geq 1}} \left(\frac{d-b}{d+1} \right)^\gamma e^{-bz} \\ &= \sum_{k \geq 1} \left(\sum_{\substack{i=0 \\ \text{odd}}}^k \left(\frac{2^{k-i+1}}{2^{k+1} + 2^{k-i}} \right)^\gamma e^{-(2^{k+1}-2^{k-i})z} + \sum_{\substack{i=0 \\ \text{even}}}^k \left(\frac{2^{k-i}}{2^{k+1}} \right)^\gamma e^{-(2^{k+1}-2^{k-i})z} \right) \\ &\geq \sum_{k \geq 1} e^{-2^{k+1}z} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right)^\gamma \geq \sum_{k=1}^M e^{-2^{k+1}2^{-(M+1)}} 2^{-\gamma} \geq M e^{-1} 2^{-\gamma} > 1. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore $z_c \geq 2^{-(e \cdot 2^\gamma + 1)} > 0$. □

By Proposition 3 (item 1) we get $\mathcal{P}(\gamma) \geq z_c(\gamma) > 0 = -\gamma \int V_l d\mu_{\mathbb{K}}$. Then Proposition 3 (item 2) ensures that there is no phase transition.

3.3.2. The case of other potentials in $\mathcal{W}^s(\tilde{V})$. Note that they are equivalent to V_l for points sufficiently close to \mathbb{K} . This just replace γ by some term $(1 \pm \varepsilon)\gamma$, for $\varepsilon > 0$ very small, if we only consider points very close to \mathbb{K} . For other points (and pieces of orbit) we can incorporate this perturbation into the free paths. Since the argument only uses $\gamma \rightarrow \infty$, it is not effected by replacing γ by $(1 \pm \varepsilon)\gamma$.

3.4. The potential n^{-a} : proofs of Theorems 4 and 5.

3.4.1. Proof of Theorem 4 for special case. Instead of V_l and Φ in the previous section, we now take $a \in (0, 1)$ and

$$V(x) = n^{-a} \text{ if } d(x, \mathbb{K}) = 2^{-n},$$

so

$$\Phi_{z,\gamma}(x) = -\gamma S_n V(x) - nz = -\gamma \sum_{k=1}^n k^{-a} - nz.$$

Again, the potential is locally constant on sufficiently small cylinder sets. It thus satisfies the local Bowen condition (11) and the hypotheses of Proposition 3 hold.

We employ notations from above, but with the new potential V instead of V_l . Let

$$A := \sum_{\substack{\text{allowed} \\ b \geq 1}} \exp \left(-\gamma \sum_{n=d-b+1}^d n^{-a} - bz \right),$$

and recall that $d = d(b)$ is given following Lemma 9. Equality (19) is still valid, provided that we replace V_l by V and A by its new value.

Remark 5. For $z < 0$ the series defining A diverges to ∞ .

Proof of Theorem 4. We will use the same decomposition of itineraries of cylinder sets into paths $(b_1, d_1), \dots, (b_N, d_N)$ with the same restrictions $d_i = d_i(b_i)$ as given in Lemma 9. Copying the proof of Lemma 11 we get

$$\begin{aligned}
A &= \sum_{\substack{\text{allowed} \\ b \geq 1}} \exp \left(-\gamma \sum_{n=d-b+1}^d n^{-a} - bz \right) \\
&\leq \sum_{\substack{\text{allowed} \\ b \geq 1}} \exp \left(-\gamma \int_{d-b}^d x^{-a} dx - bz \right) \\
&\leq \sum_{\substack{\text{allowed} \\ b \geq 1}} \exp \left(-\frac{\gamma}{1-a} [d^{1-a} - (d-b)^{1-a}] - bz \right) \\
&\leq \sum_k \left(\sum_{\substack{i=0 \\ \text{even}}}^k \exp \left(-\frac{\gamma}{1-a} [2^{k(1-a)} - 2^{(k-i)(1-a)}] - (2^{k+1} - 2^{k-i})z \right) \right. \\
&\quad \left. + \sum_{\substack{i=0 \\ \text{odd}}}^k \exp \left(-\frac{\gamma}{1-a} [(2^k + 2^{k-i})^{1-a} - 2^{(k-i)(1-a)}] - (2^{k+1} - 2^{k-i})z \right) \right) \\
&\leq 2 \sum_{i \geq 0} \sum_{\substack{\text{even} \\ k \geq i}} \exp \left(-\frac{\gamma}{1-a} [2^{k(1-a)} (1 - 2^{-i(1-a)})] - (2^{k+1} - 2^{k-i})z \right) \\
&\leq 2 \sum_{i \geq 0} \sum_{\substack{\text{even} \\ k \geq i}} \int_i^\infty \exp \left(-\frac{\gamma}{1-a} 2^{x(1-a)} (1 - 2^{-i(1-a)}) \right) dx.
\end{aligned}$$

Next use the change of variables $u = 2^{x(1-a)}(1 - 2^{-i(1-a)})$, so $x = \frac{1}{(1-a)\log 2} \log \frac{u}{1-2^{-i(1-a)}}$ and $dx = \frac{1}{(1-a)\log 2} \frac{du}{u}$. Then we get that the previous expression is equal to

$$\begin{aligned}
&= 2 \sum_{i \geq 2} \sum_{\text{even}} \int_{2^{i(1-a)} - 1}^\infty \frac{1}{(1-a)\log 2} \frac{1}{u} e^{-\frac{\gamma u}{1-a}} du \\
&\leq \frac{2}{\gamma} \sum_{i \geq 2} \sum_{\text{even}} \frac{\exp\left(-\frac{\gamma}{1-a}(2^{i(1-a)} - 1)\right)}{(2^{i(1-a)} - 1)\log 2} \\
&\leq \frac{2}{\gamma} \int_{4^{1-a} - 1}^\infty \frac{e^{-\frac{\gamma}{1-a}u}}{u \log 2} du \\
&\leq \frac{4(1-a)}{\gamma^2(4^{1-a} - 1)\log 2} e^{-\frac{\gamma}{1-a}(4^{1-a} - 1)}.
\end{aligned}$$

This quantity tends to 0 as $\gamma \rightarrow \infty$. Now to estimate $(\mathcal{L}_{z,\gamma} \mathbb{1}_J)$, we have to sum over the free periods as well, so similar to Lemma 11 (with $z = 0$) we have

$$\begin{aligned} (\mathcal{L}_{0,\gamma} \mathbb{1}_J)(x) &\leq \left(\sum_{c \geq 5} 2^c e^{-\varepsilon \gamma c} \right) \cdot \sum_{M \geq 0} \left(\sum_{c \geq 1} 2^c e^{-c \varepsilon \gamma} (E_{0,\gamma} \mathbb{1}_J)(\xi) \right)^M \\ &\leq \frac{32e^{-5\varepsilon \gamma}}{1 - 2e^{-\varepsilon \gamma}} \sum_{M \geq 0} \left(\sum_{c \geq 1} 2^c e^{-c \varepsilon \gamma} \sum_{N \geq 1} A^N \right)^M. \end{aligned}$$

The term in the brackets still tends to zero as $\gamma \rightarrow \infty$, and hence is less than 1 for $\gamma > \gamma_0$ for some sufficiently large γ_0 . The double sum converges for such γ , so the critical $z_c(\gamma) \leq 0$ for $\gamma \geq \gamma_0$.

On the other hand, Remark 5 shows that $z_c(\gamma)$ is always non-negative. Therefore $z_c(\gamma) = 0$ for every $\gamma \geq \gamma_0$.

In fact, for γ sufficiently large (and so $e^{-5\varepsilon \gamma}$ is sufficiently small), the bound is less than 1: for every $x \in J$, $\mathcal{L}_{0,\gamma}(\mathbb{1}_J)(x) < 1$. This means that $\log \lambda_{0,\gamma}$, *i.e.*, the logarithm of the spectral radius of $\mathcal{L}_{z,\gamma}$, becomes zero at some value of γ , say γ_2 .

Lemma 8 says that the spectral radius decreases in z . On the other hand the pressure $\mathcal{P}(\gamma)$ is non-negative because $\int V d\mu_{\mathbb{K}} = 0$. Moreover, the curve $z = \mathcal{P}(\gamma)$ is given by the implicit equality $\lambda_{\mathcal{P}(\gamma),\gamma} = 1$. Therefore, the curve $\gamma \mapsto \mathcal{P}(\gamma)$ is below the curve $\gamma \mapsto \log \lambda_{0,\gamma}$. Thus it must intersect the horizontal axis at some $\gamma_1 \in [\gamma_0, \gamma_2]$ (see Figure 6).

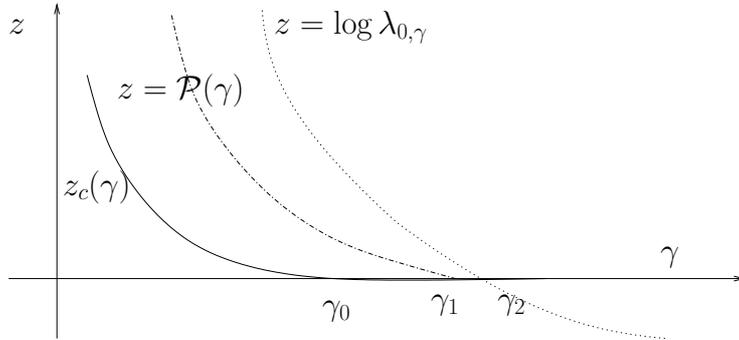


FIGURE 6. Phase transition at γ_1

For $\gamma > \gamma_1$ convexity yields $\mathcal{P}(\gamma) = 0$, hence the function is not analytic at γ_1 and we have an ultimate phase transition (for $\gamma = \gamma_1$). Analyticity for $\gamma < \gamma_1$ results from Proposition 3. \square

3.4.2. *Proof of Theorem 4 for the general case.* Now, we consider V such that

$$V(x) = n^{-a} + o(n^{-a}) \quad \text{if } d(x, \mathbb{K}) = 2^{-n}.$$

For every fixed ε_0 , there exists some N_0 such that for every $n \geq N_0$ and for x such that $d(x, \mathbb{K}) = 2^{-n}$,

$$\left| V(x) - \frac{1}{n^a} \right| \leq \frac{\varepsilon_0}{n^a}.$$

We can incorporate this perturbation in the free path, assuming that any path with length less than N_0 is a free path. Then all the above computations are valid provided we replace γ by $\gamma(1 \pm \varepsilon_0)$. This does not affect the results.

3.4.3. Proof of Theorem 5. As a direct application of Theorem 4, we can give a version of the Manneville-Pomeau map with a neutral Cantor set instead of a neutral fixed point.

Proof of Theorem 5. Pick $0 < a < 1$, and consider V and γ_1 as in Subsection 3.4. Define the canonical projection $\Pi : \Sigma \rightarrow [0, 1]$ by the dyadic expansion:

$$\Pi(x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots) = \sum_j \frac{x_j}{2^{j+1}}.$$

It maps \mathbb{K} to a Cantor subset of $[0, 1]$. Only dyadic points in $[0, 1]$ have two preimages under Π , namely $x_1 \dots x_n 10^\infty$ and $x_1 \dots x_n 01^\infty$ have the same image.

Lemma 13. *There exists a potential $W : \Sigma \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that*

$$W(x) = \frac{1}{n^a} + o\left(\frac{1}{n^a}\right), \text{ if } d(x, \mathbb{K}) = 2^{-n},$$

and it is continuous at dyadic points:

$$W(x_1 \dots x_n 10^\infty) = W(x_1 \dots x_n 01^\infty),$$

and it is positive everywhere but on \mathbb{K} where it is zero.

Proof. Let us consider the multi-valued function $V \circ \Pi^{-1}$ in the interval. It is uniquely defined at each non-dyadic point. For a dyadic point, consider the two preimages $x_1 \dots x_n 10^\infty$ and $x_1 \dots x_n 01^\infty$ in Σ .

Case 1. The word $x_1 \dots x_n$ (which is \mathbb{K} -admissible) has a single suffix in \mathbb{K} , say 0. This means that $x_1 \dots x_n 0$ is an admissible word for \mathbb{K} but not $x_1 \dots x_n 1$. Let $\underline{x}^- := x_1 \dots x_n 01^\infty$ and $\underline{x}^+ := x_1 \dots x_n 10^\infty$. Then

$$(20) \quad d(\underline{x}^+, \mathbb{K}) = 2^{-n} > d(\underline{x}^-, \mathbb{K}) > 2^{-n-4},$$

where the last inequality comes from the fact that $x_1 \dots x_n 0111$ is not admissible for \mathbb{K} .

We modify the potential V on the right side hand of the dyadic point $\Pi(x_1 \dots x_n 10^\infty)$ as indicated on Figure 7.

The inequalities of (20) yield

$$V(\underline{x}^-) = \frac{1}{(n+k)^a} \approx \frac{1}{n^{a+1}} - \frac{k}{n^a} = V(\underline{x}^+) + o(V(\underline{x}^+)),$$

where k is an integer in $[1, 4]$. As the modification is done ‘‘convexly’’, the new potential W satisfies for these modified points

$$W(x) = \frac{1}{n^a} + o\left(\frac{1}{n^a}\right) \quad \text{if } d(x, \mathbb{K}) = 2^{-n}.$$

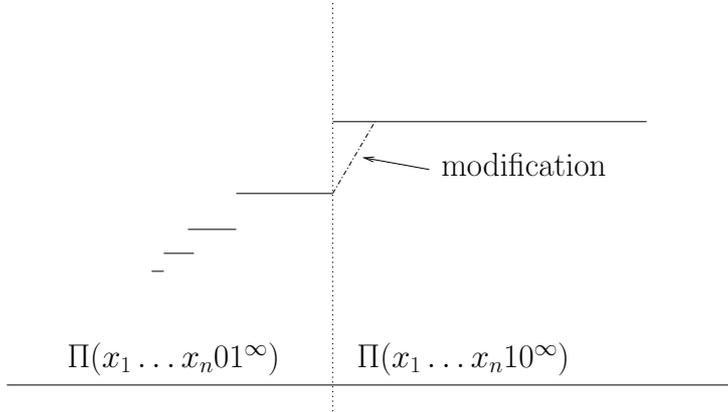


FIGURE 7. modification for words with single suffix

Case 2. The word $x_1 \dots x_n$ (which is \mathbb{K} -admissible) has two suffixes in \mathbb{K} . It may be that \underline{x}_+ and \underline{x}_- are at the same distance to \mathbb{K} (see Figure 8). Then we do not need to change the potential around this dyadic point.

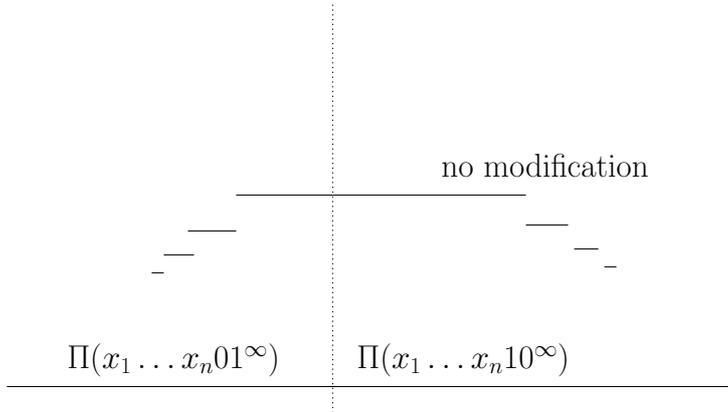


FIGURE 8. no modification with two different suffixes

If $V(\underline{x}^+) \neq V(\underline{x}^-)$, neither $x_1 \dots x_n 0111$ nor $x_1 \dots x_n 1000$ are admissible for \mathbb{K} and we modify the potential linearly in that region in the interval as Figure 9.

Again we have

$$V(\underline{x}^+) = \frac{1}{(n+j)^a} = \frac{1}{n^a} + o\left(\frac{1}{n^a}\right) \quad \text{and} \quad V(\underline{x}^-) = \frac{1}{(n+k)^a} = \frac{1}{n^a} + o\left(\frac{1}{n^a}\right),$$

where j and k are different integers in $\{1, 2, 3, 4\}$. Hence, for these points too, W satisfies

$$W(x) = \frac{1}{n^a} + o\left(\frac{1}{n^a}\right) \quad \text{if } d(x, \mathbb{K}) = 2^{-n}.$$

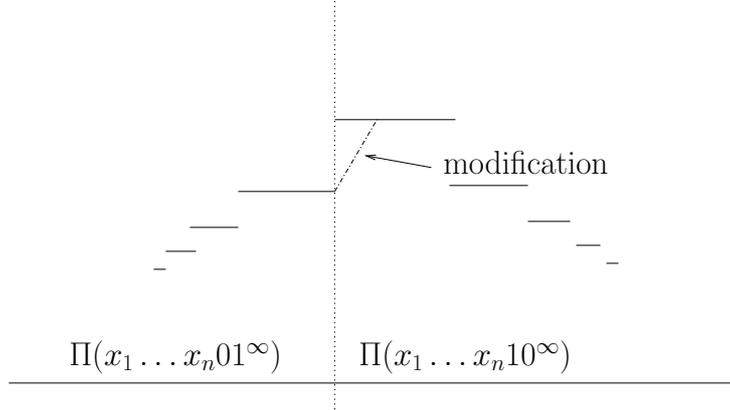


FIGURE 9. modification with two different suffixes

Positivity of W away from \mathbb{K} follows from the positivity of V and the way of modifying it to get W . Clearly W vanishes on \mathbb{K} . \square

The eigen-measure ν_a in Σ is a fixed point for the adjoint of the transfer operator for γ_1 (the pressure vanishes at γ_1) for the potential W . As the potential W is continuous and the shift is Markov, such a measure always exists. It is conformal in the sense that

$$(21) \quad \nu(\sigma(B)) = \int_B e^{\mathcal{P}(\gamma_1) + \gamma_1 W} d\nu_a = \int_B e^{\gamma_1 W} d\nu_a,$$

for any Borel set B on which σ is one-to-one. Since we have a phase transition at γ_1 , $\mathcal{P}(\gamma_1) = 0$. Note also that W is positive everywhere except on \mathbb{K} where it vanishes.

Now consider the measure $\Pi_*(\nu_a)$ and its distribution function

$$\theta_a(x) := \nu_a([0^\infty, \Pi(x))) = \nu_a([0^\infty, \Pi(x)]),$$

the last equality resulting from the fact that ν_a is non-atomic. We emphasize that Π maps the lexicographic order in Σ to the usual order on the unit interval $[0, 1]$. This enables us to define *intervals* in Σ , for which we will use the same notation $[x, y]$.

We define the map f_a by

$$f_a := \theta_a \circ \Pi \circ \sigma \circ \Pi^{-1} \circ \theta_a^{-1}.$$

Let us now compute the derivative of f_a at some point $x \in [0, 1]$. For h very small we define y and y_h in $[0, 1]$ such that $\Pi_*\nu_a([0, y]) = x$ and $\Pi_*\nu_a([0, y_h]) = x + h$. Also define \underline{y} and \underline{y}_h such that $\Pi(\underline{y}) = y$ and $\Pi(\underline{y}_h) = y_h$. Then we get

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{f_a(x+h) - f_a(x)}{h} &= \frac{\nu_a([\sigma(\underline{y}), \sigma(\underline{y}_h)])}{\nu_a([\underline{y}, \underline{y}_h])} \\ &= \frac{\nu_a(\sigma([\underline{y}, \underline{y}_h]))}{\nu_a([\underline{y}, \underline{y}_h])} \\ &= \frac{1}{\nu_a([\underline{y}, \underline{y}_h])} \int_{[\underline{y}, \underline{y}_h]} e^{\gamma_1 W} d\nu_a \xrightarrow{h \rightarrow 0} e^{\gamma_1 W(y)}. \end{aligned}$$

This computation is valid if $\Pi^{-1}(y)$ is uniquely determined (namely y is not dyadic). If for some h , y_h is dyadic, then we choose for \underline{y}_h the one closest to \underline{y} .

If y is dyadic, the same can be done provide we change the preimage of y by Π depending if we compute left or right derivative. Nevertheless, the potential W is continuous at dyadic point, hence f_a has left and right derivative at every dyadic points and they are equal.

We finally get $f'_a(x) = e^{\gamma_1 W \circ \Pi^{-1}(x)}$ (this make sense also for dyadic points) and then $\log f'_a(x) = \gamma_1 W \circ \Pi^{-1}(x)$. Therefore f_a is \mathcal{C}^1 and as W is positive away from \mathbb{K} and zero on \mathbb{K} , f_a is expanding away from $\tilde{\mathbb{K}} := \theta_a \circ \Pi(\mathbb{K})$ and is indifferent on $\tilde{\mathbb{K}}$. For $t \in [0, \infty)$, the lifted potential for $-t \log f'_a$ is $-t\gamma_1 W$, which has an ultimate phase transition for $t = 1$. \square

3.5. Unbounded potentials: proof of Theorem 6. We know from Subsection 2.5 that \mathcal{R} fixes the potential V_u , defined in (8). In this section we set $g \equiv \alpha$, which gives $V_u = \alpha(k-1)$ on $(\sigma \circ H)^k(\Sigma) \setminus (\sigma \circ H)^{k+1}(\Sigma)$. For the thermodynamic properties of this potential, the interesting case is $\alpha < 0$ (see the Introduction before the statement of Theorem 6 and the Appendix).

Lemma 14. *Let $\alpha < 0$. Then $\int V_u d\mu \geq \int_{\Sigma} V_u d\mu_{\mathbb{K}} = 0$ for every shift-invariant measure probability μ .*

Proof. As in Lemma 4, the set $(\sigma \circ H)^k(\Sigma) = \sigma^{2^k-1} \circ H^k([00] \sqcup [10] \sqcup [01] \sqcup [11])$ consists of four $2^k + 1$ -cylinders containing the points $1\rho_0, 0\rho_0, 1\rho_1$ and $1\rho_1$, respectively, and they are mapped into the 2^k -cylinders containing ρ_0 and ρ_1 . In other words, $(\sigma \circ H)^k(\Sigma) = \sigma^{-1} \circ H^k(\Sigma)$, and by Lemma 3, its next 2^k shifts are pairwise disjoint. Therefore $\mu_{\mathbb{K}}((\sigma \circ H)^k(\Sigma)) = 2^{-k}$ and $\mu_{\mathbb{K}}((\sigma \circ H)^k(\Sigma) \setminus (\sigma \circ H)^{k+1}(\Sigma)) = 2^{-(k+1)}$. Since $V_u = \alpha(k-1)$ on $(\sigma \circ H)^k(\Sigma) \setminus (\sigma \circ H)^{k+1}(\Sigma)$ this gives

$$\int V_u d\mu_{\mathbb{K}} = \alpha \sum_{k \geq 0} (k-1)2^{-(k+1)} = -\frac{\alpha}{2} + \alpha \sum_{k \geq 2} k2^{-(k+1)} = 0.$$

Again, since $\sigma^j((\sigma \circ H)^k(\Sigma))$ is disjoint from $((\sigma \circ H)^k(\Sigma))$ for $0 < j < 2^k$, its μ -mass is at most 2^{-k} for any shift-invariant probability measure μ . Since V_u is decreasing in k (when $\alpha < 0$), we can minimize the integral $\int V_u d\mu$ by putting as much mass on $(\sigma \circ H)^k(\Sigma)$ as possible, for each k . But this means that the μ -mass of $(\sigma \circ H)^k(\Sigma) \setminus (\sigma \circ H)^{k+1}(\Sigma)$ becomes $2^{-(k+1)}$ for each k , and hence $\mu = \mu_{\mathbb{K}}$. \square

Remark 6. *We emphasize a by-product of our proof. For any invariant probability μ and $k \geq 2$,*

$$\mu \left((\sigma \circ H)^k(\Sigma) \right) \leq \frac{1}{2^k}.$$

For fixed $\alpha < 0$, the integral $\int V_u d\mu$ is non-negative and it makes sense to define for $\gamma \geq 0$

$$\mathcal{P}(\gamma) := \sup_{\mu \text{ } \sigma\text{-inv}} \left\{ h_{\mu} - \gamma \int V_u d\mu \right\}.$$

Proposition 4. *For any $\gamma \geq 0$ there exists an equilibrium state for $-\gamma V_u$.*

To prove the proposition we need a result on the accumulation value $\liminf \int V_u d\nu_\varepsilon$ if ν_ε is a family of invariant probability measures.

Lemma 15. *Let ν_ε be a sequence of invariant probability measures converging to ν for the weak topology as $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$. Let us set $\nu := (1 - \beta)\mu + \beta\mu_{\mathbb{K}}$, where μ is an invariant probability measure satisfying $\mu(\mathbb{K}) = 0$ and $\beta \in [0, 1]$. Then,*

$$\liminf_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \int V_u d\nu_\varepsilon \geq (1 - \beta) \int V_u d\mu.$$

Proof of Lemma 15. Let us consider an η -neighborhood O_η of \mathbb{K} consisting of finite union of cylinders. Clearly $(\sigma \circ H)^j \subset O_\eta$ for $j = j(\eta) \geq 2$ sufficiently large (and $j(\eta) \rightarrow \infty$ as $\eta \rightarrow 0$).

Let ν_ε be an invariant probability measure. Following the same argument as in the proof of Lemma 14 and in particular Remark 6, we claim that

$$\int \mathbb{1}_{O_\eta} V_u d\nu_\varepsilon \geq -\frac{\alpha}{2} \nu_\varepsilon(O_\eta \setminus (\sigma \circ H)(\Sigma)) + \alpha \sum_{k \geq j} k 2^{-(k+1)}$$

holds. Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int V_u d\nu_\varepsilon &\geq \int \mathbb{1}_{\Sigma \setminus O_\eta} V_u d\nu_\varepsilon - \frac{\alpha}{2} \nu_\varepsilon(O_\eta \setminus (\sigma \circ H)(\Sigma)) + \alpha \sum_{k \geq j} k 2^{-(k+1)} \\ (22) \quad &\geq \int \mathbb{1}_{\Sigma \setminus O_\eta} V_u d\nu_\varepsilon + \alpha \sum_{k \geq j} k 2^{-(k+1)}. \end{aligned}$$

Note that $\mathbb{1}_{\Sigma \setminus O_\eta} V_u$ is a continuous function. Thus, $\lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \int \mathbb{1}_{\Sigma \setminus O_\eta} V_u d\nu_\varepsilon$ exists and is equal to $\int \mathbb{1}_{\Sigma \setminus O_\eta} V_u d\nu = (1 - \beta) \int \mathbb{1}_{\Sigma \setminus O_\eta} V_u d\mu$. As $\eta \rightarrow 0$, this quantity decreases and converges to $(1 - \beta) \int V_u d\mu$ (here we use $\mu(\mathbb{K}) = 0$). Therefore, passing to the limit in (22) first in ε and then in η we get

$$\liminf_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \int V_u d\nu_\varepsilon \geq (1 - \beta) \int V_u d\mu.$$

□

Proof of Proposition 4. We repeat the argument given in the proof of Proposition 3 and adapt it as in [11]. Let ν_ε be a probability measure such that

$$(23) \quad h_{\nu_\varepsilon} - \gamma \int V_u d\nu_\varepsilon \geq \mathcal{P}(\gamma) - \varepsilon,$$

and let ν be any accumulation point for ν_ε . As V_u is discontinuous we cannot directly pass to the limit $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ and claim that the integral of the limit measure is the limit of the integrals. However, we claim that V_u is continuous everywhere but at the four points $0\rho_0$, $0\rho_1$, $1\rho_0$ and $1\rho_1$ (see and adapt the proof of Lemma 4). These points are in \mathbb{K} and their orbits are dense in \mathbb{K} . We thus have to consider two cases.

- $\nu(\mathbb{K}) = 0$. Then a standard argument in measure theory says that we do not see the discontinuity, and passing to the limit as $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ in (23),

$$\mathcal{P}(\gamma) \geq h_\nu - \gamma \int V_u d\nu \geq \mathcal{P}(\gamma),$$

which means that ν is an equilibrium state.

- $\nu(\mathbb{K}) > 0$. In this case we can write $\nu = \beta\mu_{\mathbb{K}} + (1 - \beta)\mu$, where μ is a σ -invariant probability satisfying $\mu(\mathbb{K}) = 0$ and β belongs to $(0, 1]$. Therefore

$$h_\nu = \beta h_{\mu_{\mathbb{K}}} + (1 - \beta)h_\mu = (1 - \beta)h_\mu.$$

Now, Lemma 15 yields

$$(24) \quad \liminf_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \int V_u d\nu_\varepsilon \geq (1 - \beta) \int V_u d\mu.$$

Hence, passing to the limit in Inequality (23), Inequality (24) shows that

$$\mathcal{P}(\gamma) \leq (1 - \beta)h_\mu - \gamma(1 - \beta) \int V_u d\mu.$$

This last inequality is impossible if $\beta < 1$, by definition of the pressure. This yields that ν_ε converges to $\mu_{\mathbb{K}}$, and h_{ν_ε} converges to 0. Then, Inequality (24) shows that $\mathcal{P}(\gamma) \leq 0$.

On the other hand $\mathcal{P}(\gamma) \geq 0$ because the pressure is larger than the free energy for $\mu_{\mathbb{K}}$, which is zero. Therefore, $\mu_{\mathbb{K}}$ is an equilibrium state. \square

In view to use Proposition 3 we need to check that V_u satisfies the hypotheses.

Lemma 16. *For every cylinder J which does not intersect \mathbb{K} , the potential V_u satisfies the local Bowen property (11).*

Proof. Actually, V_u satisfies an even stronger property: if $x = x_0, x_1, \dots$ and $y = y_0, y_1, \dots$ are in J (a fixed cylinder with $J \cap \mathbb{K} = \emptyset$), if n is their first return time in J , and if $x_k = y_k$ for any k between 0 and n , then $(S_n V_u)(x) = (S_n V_u)(y)$.

Assume that J is a length- k cylinder, and assume without loss of generality that $n > k$. The coordinates x_j and y_j coincide for $0 \leq j < n$, but since J is a k -cylinder, we actually have

$$x_j = y_j \text{ for } 0 \leq j \leq n + k - 1.$$

We recall that V_u is constant on sets of the form $(\sigma \circ H)^m(\Sigma) \setminus (\sigma \circ H)^{m+1}(\mathbb{K})$. Therefore, to compute $V_u(z)$ for $z \in \Sigma$ we have to know which set $(\sigma \circ H)^m(\Sigma) \setminus (\sigma \circ H)^{m+1}(\mathbb{K})$ it belongs to.

Lemma 4 shows that $z = z_0, z_1, \dots$ belongs to $(\sigma \circ H)^m(\Sigma) \setminus (\sigma \circ H)^{m+1}(\mathbb{K})$ if and only if $z_1 \dots z_{2^m}$ coincides with $[\rho_0]_{2^m}$ or $[\rho_1]_{2^m}$ and m is the largest integer with this property.

Let us now study $V_u(\sigma^j)(x)$ (and $V_u(\sigma^j)(y)$) for j between 0 and $n - 1$. We have to find the largest integer m such that $z_{j+1} \dots z_{j+1+2^m}$ coincides with $[\rho_0]_{2^m}$ or $[\rho_1]_{2^m}$.

As J does not intersect \mathbb{K} , the word x_n, \dots, x_{n+k-1} (which is also the word y_n, \dots, y_{n+k-1}) is not admissible for \mathbb{K} . Therefore, the largest m such that $z_{j+1} \dots z_{j+1+2^m}$ coincides with

$[\rho_0]_{2^m}$ or $[\rho_1]_{2^m}$ satisfies

$$2^m \leq n - j + k - 1.$$

In other words, the integer m only depends on the digits where $\sigma^j(x)$ and $\sigma^j(y)$ coincide. Therefore $V_u(\sigma^j(x)) = V_u(\sigma^j(y))$. \square

Remark 7. *An important consequence of Proposition 4 and Lemma 16 is that the conclusions of Proposition 3 hold. Although the potential V_u is not continuous (and in fact undefined at $\sigma^{-1}(\{\rho_0, \rho_1\})$), it satisfies the local Bowen condition, so that the discontinuity is “invisible” for the first return map to J . Proposition 4 then implies the existence of an equilibrium state. Furthermore, by a similar argument as used in [11, Proposition 3.10], Lemma 15 yields that despite the discontinuity of V_u , $z_c(\gamma) \leq \mathcal{P}(\gamma)$ still holds.*

Lemma 17. *Take $\alpha < 0$ and consider the potential V_u and some cylinder set J disjoint from \mathbb{K} . The critical parameter for the convergence of $(\mathcal{L}_{z,\gamma} \mathbf{1}_J)(x)$ satisfies $z_c(\gamma) \geq 2^{-e^{-\gamma\alpha+2}+1} > 0$ for every $\gamma \in \mathbb{R}$ and $x \in J$.*

Proof. We now explore the thermodynamic formalism of the unbounded fixed point V_u of \mathcal{R} given by Equation 9. This potential is piecewise constant, and the value on cylinder sets intersecting \mathbb{K} can be pictured schematically (with $\alpha = -1$) as follows:

$$\begin{array}{c|cccccccccccccccc} \rho_0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & \dots \\ \rho_1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & \dots \\ \hline V_u & 1 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & -2 & 1 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & -3 & \dots \end{array}$$

Here, the third line indicates the value of V_u at $\sigma^n(\rho_j)$ for $n = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$ and $j = 0, 1$. A single ergodic sum of length $b = 2^{k+1} - 2^{k-i}$ as in Lemma 9 (with $\alpha < 0$ arbitrary again) for points x in the same cylinder as ρ_0 or ρ_1 is

$$(S_b V_u)(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{2^{k+1}-2^{k-i}-1} V_u(\sigma^j(x)) = -\alpha(1+i).$$

Therefore, the contribution of a single excursion from Lemma 9 is

$$\Phi_{z,\gamma}(\xi) = \sum_{j=1}^N \sum_{k=0}^{b_j-1} \gamma\alpha(1-i_j) - b_j z$$

where $i = i_j$ is such that $b_j = 2^{k+1} - 2^{k-i}$. The contribution to $(\mathcal{L}_{z,\gamma} \mathbf{1}_J)(x)$ of one cluster of excursions then becomes $E_{z,\gamma}(\xi) \geq \sum_{N \geq 1} A^N$, where (assuming that $z \geq 0$)

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \sum_{\substack{\text{allowed} \\ b \geq 1}} e^{\gamma\alpha(1+i)-bz} = \sum_{k \geq 1} \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} e^{\gamma\alpha(1+i)-(2^{k+1}-2^{k-i})z} \\ &\geq e^{\gamma\alpha} \sum_{k \geq 1} \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} e^{i\gamma\alpha-2^{k+1}z} \\ &= e^{\gamma\alpha} \sum_{k \geq 1} \frac{1 - e^{\gamma\alpha k}}{1 - e^{\gamma\alpha}} e^{-2^{k+1}z} \geq e^{\gamma\alpha} \sum_{k \geq 1} e^{-2^{k+1}z} \end{aligned}$$

Take an integer $M \geq e^{-\gamma\alpha+2}$ and $z = 2^{-(M+1)}$. Then taking only the M first terms of the above sum, we get the the entire sum is larger than

$$e^{\gamma\alpha} M e^{-2^{M+1}z} \geq e^{\gamma\alpha} e^{-\gamma\alpha+2} e^{-1} = e > 1.$$

Therefore, similar to Lemma 12, A is larger than 1 and $\sum A^N$ diverges. Hence, the critical $z_c(\gamma) \geq 2^{-e^{-\gamma\alpha+2}+1} > 0$ for all $\gamma > 0$. \square

Proof of Theorem 6. It is just a consequence of Proposition 3 that a phase transition can only occur at the zero pressure. This never happens, hence the pressure is analytic on $[0, \infty)$ and there is a unique equilibrium state for $-\gamma V_u$. \square

APPENDIX: THE THUE-MORSE SUBSHIFT AND THE FEIGENBAUM MAP

The logistic Feigenbaum map $f_{\text{q-feig}} : I \rightarrow I$ is conjugate to unimodal interval map f_{feig} , which solves a renormalization equation

$$(25) \quad f_{\text{feig}}^2 \circ \Psi(x) = \Psi \circ f_{\text{feig}}(x),$$

for all $x \in I$, where Ψ is an affine contraction depending on f_{feig} , see [6] and [13, Chapter VI] for an extensive survey. (Note that f_{feig} is not a quadratic map, but it has a quadratic critical point c .)

As a result of (25), f_{feig} is infinitely renormalizable of Feigenbaum type, *i.e.*, there is a nested sequence M_k of periodic cycles of 2^k -periodic intervals such that each component of M_k contains two components of M_{k+1} . The intersection $\mathcal{A} := \bigcap_{k \geq 0} M_k$ is a Cantor attractor on which f_{feig} acts as a dyadic adding machine. The renormalization scaling $\Psi : M_k \rightarrow M_{k+1}^{\text{crit}}$, where M_k^{crit} is the component of M_k containing the critical point, and on each M_k^{crit} we have $f_{\text{feig}}^{2^{k+1}} \circ \Psi = \Psi \circ f_{\text{feig}}^{2^k}$.

Furthermore, \mathcal{A} coincides with the critical ω -limit set $\omega(c)$ and it attracts every point in I except for countably many (pre-)periodic points of (eventual) period 2^k for some $k \geq 0$. Hence $f_{\text{feig}} : I \rightarrow I$ has zero entropy, and the only probability measures it preserves are Dirac measures on periodic orbits and a unique measure on \mathcal{A} . This means that $f_{\text{feig}} : I \rightarrow I$ is not very interesting from a thermodynamic point of view. However, we can extend f_{feig} to a quadratic-like map on the complex domain, with a chaotic Julia set \mathcal{J} supporting topological entropy $\log 2$, and its dynamics is a finite-to-one quotient of the full two-shift (Σ, σ) . Equation (25) still holds for the complexification $f_{\text{feig}} : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, where Ψ is a linear holomorphic contraction. Renormalization in the complex domain thus means that M_1^{crit} extends to a disks $U_1 \Subset V_1$ and $f_{\text{feig}}^2 : U_1 \rightarrow V_1$ is a two-fold branched cover with branch-point c . The *little Julia set*

$$\mathcal{J}_1 = \{z \in U_1 : f_{\text{feig}}^{2^n}(z) \in U_1 \text{ for all } n \geq 0\}$$

is a homeomorphic copy under Ψ of the entire Julia set \mathcal{J} , but it should be noted that most points in U_1 eventually leave U_1 under iteration of f_{feig}^2 : U_1 is not a periodic disk, only the real trace $M_1^{\text{crit}} = U_1 \cap \mathbb{R}$ is 2-periodic. The same structure is found at all scales: $M_k^{\text{crit}} = U_k \cap \mathbb{R}$, $U_k \Subset V_k$ and $f_{\text{feig}}^{2^k} : U_k \rightarrow V_k$ is a two-fold covering map with little Julia set

$$\mathcal{J}_k := \{z \in U_1 : f_{\text{feig}}^{2^k n}(z) \in U_1 \text{ for all } n \geq 0\} = \Psi(\mathcal{J}_{k-1}).$$

To explain the connection between $f_{\text{feig}} : \mathcal{J} \rightarrow \mathcal{J}$ and symbolic dynamics, we first observe that the *kneading sequence* ρ (i.e., the itinerary of the critical value $f_{\text{feig}}(c)$) is the fixed point of a substitution

$$H_{\text{feig}} : \begin{cases} 0 \rightarrow 11, \\ 1 \rightarrow 10. \end{cases}$$

Let $\Sigma_{\text{feig}} = \overline{\text{orb}_{\sigma}(\rho)}$ be the corresponding shift space. If we quotient over the equivalence relation $x \sim y$ if $x = y$ or $x = w_0\rho$ and $y = w_1\rho$ (or vice versa) for any finite and possibly empty word w , then $\Sigma_{\text{feig}}/\sim$ is homeomorphic to \mathcal{A} , and the itinerary map $i : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \Sigma_{\text{feig}}/\sim$ conjugates f_{feig} to the shift σ .

To make the connection with the Thue-Morse shift, observe that the sliding block code $\pi : \Sigma \rightarrow \Sigma$ defined by

$$\pi(x)_k = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x_k \neq x_{k+1}, \\ 0 & \text{if } x_k = x_{k+1}, \end{cases}$$

is a continuous shift-commuting two-to-one covering map. The fact that it is two-to-one is easily seen because if $x_k = 1 - y_k$ for all k , then $\pi(x) = \pi(y)$. Surjectivity can also easily be proved; once the first digit of $\pi^{-1}(z)$ is chosen, the following digits are all uniquely determined. It also transforms the Thue-Morse substitution H into H_{feig} in the sense that $H_{\text{feig}} \circ \pi = \pi \circ H$. For the two Thue-Morse fixed points of H we obtain

$$\pi(\rho_0) = \pi(\rho_1) = \rho = 10111010101110111011101010111010\dots$$

Figure 10 summarizes all this in a single commutative diagram.

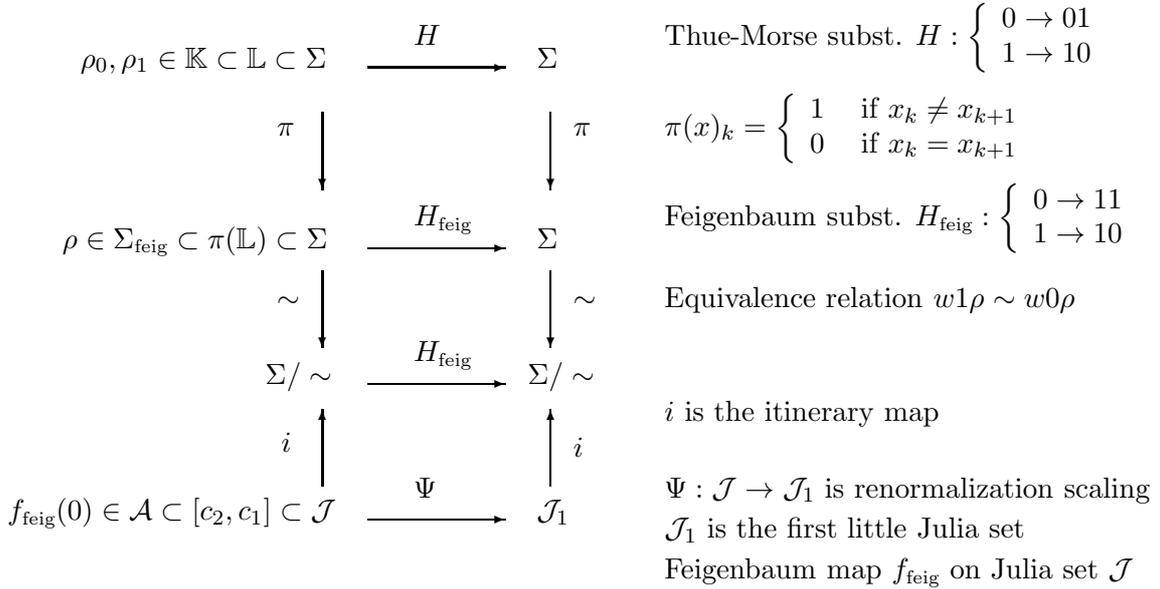


FIGURE 10. Commutative diagram linking the Thue-Morse substitution shift to the Feigenbaum map. Further commutative relations:

π is continuous, two-to-one and $\sigma \circ \pi = \pi \circ \sigma$.

$i : [c_2, c_1] \rightarrow \pi(\mathbb{L})/\sim$ is a homeomorphism and $\sigma \circ i = i \circ f_{\text{feig}}$.

$\sigma^2 \circ H = H \circ \sigma$, $\sigma^2 \circ H_{\text{feig}} = H_{\text{feig}} \circ \sigma$ and $f_{\text{feig}}^2 \circ \psi = \psi \circ f_{\text{feig}}$.

The Cantor set \mathbb{K} factorizes over Σ_{feig} and hence over the Cantor attractor \mathcal{A} . The intermediate space \mathbb{L} factorizes over the real *core* $[c_2, c_1]$ in the Julia set \mathcal{J} and we can characterize its symbolic dynamics by means of a particular order relation. Namely, itineraries $i(z)$ of $z \in [c_2, c_1]$ are exactly those sequences that satisfy

$$\sigma(\rho) \leq_{pl} \sigma^n \circ i(z) \leq_{pl} \rho \quad \text{for all } n \geq 0.$$

Here \leq_{pl} is the *parity-lexicographical order* by which $z <_{pl} z'$ if and only if there is a prefix w such that

$$\begin{cases} z = w0\dots, & z' = w1\dots \text{ and } w \text{ contains an even number of 1s,} \\ z = w1\dots, & z' = w0\dots \text{ and } w \text{ contains an odd number of 1s.} \end{cases}$$

On the level of itineraries, the substitution H_{feig} plays the role of the conjugacy Ψ :

$$i \circ \Psi(x) = H_{\text{feig}} \circ i(x) \quad \text{for all } x \in [c_2, c_1].$$

Also let \leq_l denote the standard lexicographical order.

Lemma 18. *Let $[0]$ and $[1]$ denote the one-cylinders of Σ . The map $\pi : ([0], \leq_l) \rightarrow (\Sigma, \leq_{pl})$ is order preserving and $\pi : ([1], \leq_l) \rightarrow (\Sigma, \leq_{pl})$ is order reversing.*

Proof. First we consider $[0]$ and let $w = 0^n$, then $w0\dots <_l w1\dots$ and

$$(26) \quad \pi(w0\dots) = 0^n \dots \leq_{pl} 0^{n-1}1\dots = \pi(w1\dots).$$

Now if we change the k -th digit in w (for $k \geq 2$), then still $w0 <_l w1$ and both the k -th and $k-1$ -st digit of $\pi(w\dots)$ change. This does not affect the parity of 1s in $\pi(w)$ and so (26) remains valid. Repeating this argument, we obtain that π is order-preserving for all words w starting with 0.

Now for the cylinder $[1]$ and $w = 10^{n-1}$, we find $w0\dots <_l w1\dots$ and

$$\pi(w0\dots) = 10^{n-1} \dots \geq_{pl} 10^{n-2}1\dots = \pi(w1\dots).$$

The same argument shows that π reverses order for all words w starting with 1. \square

This lemma shows that $\pi^{-1} \circ i([c_2, c_1])$ consists of the sequence s such that for all n ,

$$\begin{cases} \sigma(\rho_1) \leq_l \sigma^n(s) \leq_l \rho_1 & \text{if } \sigma^n(s) \text{ starts with 1,} \\ \rho_0 \leq_l \sigma^n(s) \leq_l \sigma(\rho_0) & \text{if } \sigma^n(s) \text{ starts with 0.} \end{cases}$$

However, the class of sequence carries no shift-invariant measures of positive entropy, and the thermodynamic formalism reduces to finding measures that maximize the potential. The measure supported furthest away from \mathbb{K} is the Dirac measure on $\overline{01}$ (with $\pi(\overline{01}) = \overline{1}$).

Instead, if we look at the entire Julia set \mathcal{J} , the combination of π and the quotient map do not decrease entropy, and the potential $-\log |f'_{\text{feig}}|$ has thermodynamic interest for the complexified Feigenbaum map $f_{\text{feig}} : \mathcal{J} \rightarrow \mathcal{J}$. Since Ψ is affine, differentiation (25) and taking logarithms, we find that

$$\mathcal{R}_{\text{feig}}(\log |f'_{\text{feig}}|) := \log |f'_{\text{feig}}| \circ f_{\text{feig}} \circ \psi + \log |f'_{\text{feig}}| \circ \Psi = \log |f'_{\text{feig}}|,$$

so $V_{\text{feig}} := \log |f'_{\text{feig}}|$ is a fixed point of the renormalization operator $\mathcal{R}_{\text{feig}}$ mimicking \mathcal{R} . Furthermore, since $U_k = \Psi^{k-1}(U_1)$, its size is exponentially small in k and hence there is some fixed $\alpha > 0$ such that $V_{\text{feig}} \approx \alpha(k-1)$ on $U_k \setminus U_{k+1}$. Since $U_k \setminus U_{k+1}$ corresponds

to the cylinder $(\sigma \circ H)^{k-1} \setminus (\sigma \circ H)^k$, the potential V_u from Section 2.5 is comparable to V_{feig} . As shown in Section 3.5, V_u exhibits no phase transition.

The following proposition for complex analytic maps is stated in general terms, but proves the phase transition of Feigenbaum maps in particular.

Proposition 5. *Let $f : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be an n -covering map without parabolic periodic points such that the omega-limit set $\omega(\text{Crit})$ of the critical set is nowhere dense in its Julia set \mathcal{J} , and such that there is some $c \in \text{Crit}$ such that $f : \omega(c) \rightarrow \omega(c)$ has zero entropy and Lyapunov exponent. Then for $\phi = \log |f'|$ and every $\gamma > 2$, $\mathcal{P}(-\gamma\phi) = 0$.*

Proof. As f has no parabolic points, $\lambda_0 := \inf\{|(f^n)'(p)| : p \in \mathcal{J} \text{ is an } n\text{-periodic point}\} > 1$. Obviously, all the invariant measures μ supported on $\omega(c)$ have $h_\mu - \gamma \int \log |f'| d\mu = 0$, so $\mathcal{P}(-\gamma\phi) \geq 0$.

To prove the other inequality, we fix $\gamma > 2$ and for some f -invariant measure μ , we choose a neighborhood U intersecting \mathcal{J} but bounded away from $\text{orb}(\text{Crit})$ such that $\mu(U) > 0$. We can choose $\text{diam}(U)$ so small compared to the distance $d(\text{orb}(\text{Crit}), U)$ that $K^{\gamma-1} < \lambda_0^{\gamma-2}$ where K is the distortion constant in the Koebe Lemma, see [14, Theorem 1.3]. Since $K \rightarrow 1$ as $\kappa := \text{diam}(U)/d(\text{orb}(\text{Crit}), U) \rightarrow 0$, we can satisfy the condition on K by choosing U small enough.

Let $F : \cup_i U_i \rightarrow U$ be the first return map to U . Each branch $F|_{U_i} = f^{\tau_i}|_{U_i}$, with first return time $\tau_i > 0$ can be extended holomorphically to $f^{\tau_i} : V_i \rightarrow f^{\tau_i}(U_i)$ where $f^{\tau_i}(V_i)$ contains a disc around $f^{\tau_i}(U_i)$ of diameter $\geq d(\text{orb}(\text{Crit}), U) \geq \text{diam}(f^{\tau_i}(U_i))/\kappa$. Hence the Koebe Lemma implies that the distortion of $f^{\tau_i}|_{U_i}$ is bounded by $K = K(\kappa)$. Furthermore, since each U_i contains a τ_i -periodic point of multiplier $\geq \lambda_0$, we have $\text{diam}(U_i)/\text{diam}(U) \leq K/\lambda_0$. Therefore, for any $x \in U$,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}_{0,\gamma}(\mathbb{1}_J)(x) &= \sum_{i, \exists x' \in U_i, F(x')=x} |F'(x')|^{-\gamma} \\ &\leq \sum_i K \left(\frac{\text{diam}(U_i)}{\text{diam}(U)} \right)^\gamma \\ &\leq \sum_i K \frac{\text{area}(U_i)}{\text{area}(U)} \left(\frac{K}{\lambda_0} \right)^{\gamma-2} \\ &\leq K^{\gamma-1} \lambda_0^{-(\gamma-2)} \sum_i \frac{\text{area}(U_i)}{\text{area}(U)}. \end{aligned}$$

Since the regions U_i are pairwise disjoint, the sum in the final line ≤ 1 , so our choice of K gives that the above is bounded by 1. Therefore the radius of convergence $\lambda_{0,\gamma} \leq 1$. Taking the logarithm and using Abramov's formula, we find that the pressure $\mathcal{P}(-\gamma\phi) \leq 0$. \square

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