A 0-1 LAW AND CUSP EXCURSION FOR GEOMETRICALLY FINITE ACTIONS ON COARSELY HYPERBOLIC METRIC SPACES

HARRISON BRAY

ABSTRACT. Based on joint work with Giulio Tiozzo.

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1. Introduction

1.1. **History.** Given a function $\psi \colon \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}+$, define

$$\Theta(\psi) = \{x \in [0,1]: |x - \frac{p}{q}| < \frac{\psi(q)}{q} \text{ for infinitely many reduced rationals } \frac{p}{q}\}$$

Note that if $\psi \equiv 1$ then $\Theta(\psi) = [0,1]$. A century ago, Khinchin proved the following celebrated theorem:

Theorem 1.1 (Khinchin, 1926). Let $\psi \colon \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}^+$ be monotone decreasing. (1) Harry: is this even needed? any other hypotheses? Then

$$\sum_{q\in\mathbb{N}}\psi(q)=\infty \ \ then \ \ \Theta(\psi) \ has \ measure \ 1$$

and

$$\sum_{q\in\mathbb{N}} \psi(q) = 0 \ \ then \ \ \Theta(\psi) \ \ has \ measure \ zero.$$

Thus, Theorem 1.1 is a strong 0-1 law for the interval. As an application, we have the following classical example:

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Example 1.2. Let $\psi_{\epsilon}(q) = q^{-(1+\epsilon)}$. Then

$$\Theta(\psi_{\epsilon}) = \{ x \in \mathbb{R} : |x - \frac{p}{q}| < \frac{1}{q^{2+\epsilon}} \text{ for infinitely many } \frac{p}{q} \in \mathbb{Q} \}.$$

Let us illustrate the limsup set $\Theta(\psi_0)$.

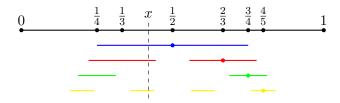


FIGURE 1. An illustration of the first levels of the limsup set $\Theta(\psi_0)$. The intervals around $\frac{1}{2}$ have radius $\frac{1}{4}$, around $\frac{2}{3}$ have radius $\frac{1}{9}$, and so on.

See that

$$\sum_{q \in \mathbb{N}} \psi_{\epsilon}(q) = \sum_{q \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{1}{q^{1+\epsilon}} \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} = \infty & \text{for } \epsilon = 0 \\ < \infty & \text{for } \epsilon > 0 \end{array} \right.$$

hence Khinchin's theorem implies

$$\Theta(\psi_{\epsilon})$$
 has measure $\begin{cases} \text{ one for } \epsilon = 0 \\ \text{ zero for } \epsilon > 0. \end{cases}$

Thus in Figure 1, x is in infinitely many balls of radius $\frac{1}{q^2}$ about $\frac{p}{q}$ with probability 1.

We will now discuss an analogy of Khinchin's Theorem (1.1) for the hyperbolic plane, due originally to Sullivan [?].

1.2. Horoball packings at infinity for hyperbolic 2-space. The results of Sullivan generalize but we present them for surfaces, or really for a particular surface, to communicate the concept. A statement in full generality appears (2) Harry: ref and is the goal of these notes.

Let \mathbb{D} denote the disk model of hyperbolic 2-space. Recall a Fuchsian group is a discrete subgroup Γ of $\mathsf{Isom}(\mathbb{D})$ acting by Möbius transformations. Let $\Sigma_{g,n}$ denote a surfaces of genus g with n punctures. Consider a representation $\Gamma < \mathsf{Isom}(\mathbb{D})$ of $\pi_1(\Sigma_{0,1})$ which acts cofinitely on \mathbb{D} ; that is, the quotient \mathbb{D}/Γ has finite area. In particular, let Γ be a representation for which the ideal quadrilateral with vertices $1, -i, 1, i \in \partial \mathbb{D} = S^1$ is a fundamental domain for the Γ -action.

We now introduce a concept of horoball packing at infinity. We will say a horoball centered at $p \in S^1$ is a horoball in \mathbb{D} (which is a Euclidean ball in this model) tangent to S^1 at p. Let $\mathcal{P} = \Gamma.\{\pm 1, \pm i\}$. These parabolic points will be in analogy with radional points. For $p \in \{\pm 1, \pm i\}$, choose a collection of (sufficiently small) horoballs H_p centered at p. Then for $gp \in \mathcal{P}$,

let $H_{gp} = gH_p$. Thus we have a family $\{H_p\}_{p \in \mathcal{P}}$ of horoballs, with each H_p centered at p. Let r_p denote the Euclidean radius of H_p in the disk model \mathcal{D} . Now, to allow for rescaling, we denote by $H_p(r)$ the horoball centered at p of Euclidean radius r. Thus, r_p is chosen so that $H_p = H_p(r_p)$. Finally, we define the horoball shadow $\mathcal{H}_p(r)$ centered at p with radius r to be the set of a endpoints ξ of geodesic rays $[0,\xi)$ such that $[0,\xi)$ intersects the horoball $H_p(r)$ in \mathbb{D} . See that $\mathcal{H}_p(r)$ is an interval in S^1 centered at p with radius approximately r.

1.3. **0-1 law and cusp excursion in hyperbolic 2-space.** Now, for $\phi \colon \mathbb{R}^+ \to \mathbb{R}^+$ (3) Harry: increasing and? we define the limsup set

$$\Theta(\phi) = \{x \in S^1 : x \in \mathcal{H}_p(r_p\phi(r_p)) \text{ for infinitely many } p \in \mathcal{P}\}.$$

When $\phi \equiv 1$, $\Theta(1)$ is the shadows of all the horoballs from the original packing, without any rescaling. These horoballs all project to the same horoball neighborhood of the cusp in the punctured torus quotient. It is a fact due to ergodicity of the geodesic flow of $\Sigma_{0,1}$ that in this case, Lebesgue-almost every geodesic visits each horoball infinitely often. Hence, $\Theta(1)$ has Lebesgue measure 1. We should think of r_p as analogous to the standard radius $\frac{1}{q}$ of $\frac{p}{q}$ for the corresponding limsup set for the real line.

The following 0-1 for hyperbolic 2-space is due to Sullivan:

Theorem 1.3 (Khinchin). For sufficiently small $\lambda \in (0,1)$, Then

$$\sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}}\phi(q)=\infty \ \ then \ \ \Theta(\phi) \ has \ Lebesgue \ measure \ 1$$

and

$$\sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}}\phi(q)=0 \ \ then \ \ \Theta(\phi) \ has \ Lebesgue \ measure \ zero.$$

This theorem provides an application to cusp excursion called the $loga-rithm\ law$. First, define the $non-cuspidal\ part$ of $\mathbb D$ to be

$$NC = \mathbb{D} \setminus \bigcup_{p \in \mathcal{P}} H_p.$$

Then for a point $x \in \mathbb{D}$, define the CuspDepth(x) to be 0 if $x \in NC$, and

CuspDepth
$$(x) = d(x, \partial H_p)$$
 where $x \in H_p$.

Given a point $\xi \in S^1$, denote by ξ_t the point on the geodesic ray $[0, \xi)$ which is distance t from 0.

Theorem 1.4. For Lebesgue almost every $\xi \in S^1$,

$$\limsup_{t \to +\infty} \frac{\text{CuspDepth}(\xi_t)}{\log t} = 1.$$

1.4. Overview of the notes. With Tiozzo, we generalize Theorems 1.3 and 1.4 to the setting of certain geometrically finite actions on coarsely hyperbolic metric spaces. In these notes, I present the proof strategy for these results at that level of generality. I introduce the setting with fundamental intuition and examples. Along the way I review some of the foundational Patterson–Sullivan theory needed for these results.

2. Hyperbolic metric spaces

For a more complete treatment of hyperbolic metric spaces, (4) Harry: add refs

First for any set U and functions $f, g: U \to \mathbb{R}$, we write

- $f \approx g$ if there exists a constant C such that $f C \leq g \leq f + C$ on U, and
- $f \approx g$ if there exists a constant K such that $\frac{1}{K}f \leq g \leq Kf$.

Recall that a metric space (X,d) is (Gromov) hyperbolic or δ -hyperbolic if there exists a $\delta>0$ such that all geodesic triangles in X are δ -thin: more specifically, for any geodesic triangle Δ with vertices $x,y,z\in X$, any edge [x,y] of Δ is contained in the δ -neighborhood of the two other edges $[y,z]\cup [x,z]$ of Δ . For example, trees are 0-hyperbolic, and \mathbb{H}^2 is log 2-hyperbolic. One should think of a hyperbolic metric space as coarsely a tree.

As an alternate definition, (X,d) is Gromov-hyperbolic if and only if for every geodesic triangle Δ with vertices $x,y,z\in X$, there exist three points $a\in [x,y],b\in [y,z]$, and $c\in [x,z]$ such that $\operatorname{diam}(\{a,b,c\})\leq \delta$. A geodesic triangle with vertices a,b,c is said to be an *inner triangle* of Δ . Note that for a tree, we have a=b=c.

Given a triple $x, y, z \in X$, the Gromov product is

$$\langle x, y \rangle_z = \frac{1}{2} (d(x, z) + d(y, z) - d(x, z)).$$

Notice that for a tree, $\langle x, y \rangle_z = d(z, [x, y])$. More generally, the Gromov product measures the defect from colinearity of the triple x, y, z, up to additive error:

Fact 2.1. For a δ -hyperbolic metric space (X, d),

$$\langle x, y \rangle_z \approx d(z, [x, y])$$

with constants depending only on δ .

Fixing a perspective point $o \in X$, the visual boundary of X is denoted by ∂X , and is the set of geodesic rays based at o up to bounded equivalence. Define the shadow $\mathcal{O}_r(x,y)$ of $y \in X$ of radius r by

$$\mathcal{O}_r(x,y) = \{ \xi \in \partial X \mid [x,\xi) \cap B_r(y) \neq \emptyset \text{ for some geodesic representation } [x,\xi) \text{ of } \xi \}.$$

The notation \mathcal{O} stands for ombre, which is French for shadow. The visual boundary is a compactification of X when endowed with the shadow topology. Let $\bar{X} = X \cup \partial X$.

2.1. Busemann functions and horoballs. The notion of horoball in a hyperbolic metric space is defined using Busemann functions. This generalizes the setting of hyperbolic space and shares many essential properties.

For $x, y, z \in X$, define the Busemann function centered at z by

$$\beta_z(x,y) = d(x,z) - d(y,z).$$

This expression measures the signed distance between spheres centered at z passing through x and y. Let $\xi \in \partial X$. Then

$$\beta_{\xi}(x,y) = \liminf_{z \to \xi} \beta_z(x,y).$$

In hyperbolic space, β_{ξ} is in fact a limit. In general it is not. For example, one could take the infinite graph given by a ladder with infinitely many rungs and the standard path metric. This space is hyperbolic (it is quasi-isometric to a tree), but the Busemann function is not a limit. It is nonetheless well-defined up to choice of path:

Fact 2.2. In a δ -hyperbolic metric space, for any two sequences $z, w_n \to \xi \in \partial X$,

$$\beta_{z_n}(x,y) \approx \beta_{w_n}(x,y)$$

with constants depending only on δ .

Some straightforward but useful properties of Busemann functions include:

For all $x, y, w \in X$, $z \in \bar{X}$,

- (1) (Γ -invariant) $\beta_{\gamma z}(x,y) = \beta_z(x,y)$ for all
- (2) (asymmetric) $\beta_z(x,y) \approx -\beta_z(y,x)$.
- (3) (1-Lipshitz) $|\beta_z(x,y)| \leq d(x,y)$.
- (4) (cocycle property) $\beta_z(x,y) \approx \beta_z(x,w) + \beta_z(w,y)$.

Notice that the 1-Lipshitz property implies finiteness of β_{ξ} for $\xi \in \partial X$.

Definition 2.3. Fixing $o \in X$, the horoball of radius r centered at ξ is

$$H_{\xi}(r) = \{ x \in X \mid \beta_{\xi}(x, o) \le \log r \}.$$

A horosphere of radius r centered at ξ $\{x \in X \mid \beta_{\xi}(x, o) = \log r\}$.

We think of horospheres as a limit of metric spheres S_n which contain a fixed point x, with each sphere S_n centered at z_n which are going to ∂X with n. It is straightforward to verify that in \mathbb{R}^2 , horospheres are lines, and horoballs are halfspaces. In \mathbb{D} , horospheres are Euclidean circles tangent to the boundary S^1 , and horoballs are the disks contained in these circles. In the upper-half space model \mathbb{H}^2 of hyperbolic 2-space, horospheres centered at the vertical point at infinity are horizontal lines, and all other horospheres are Euclidean circles tangent to the real line. In particular, a straightforward exercise is to confirm that by for o = i and $\xi = 0$, we have $H_{\xi}(r) = \frac{r}{2}$ in \mathbb{H}^2 . This motivates the choice of $\log r$ in the definition of the horoball.

Definition 2.4. The shadow of a horoball of radius r centered at ξ is $\mathcal{H}_{\xi}(r) := \{ \eta \in \partial X \mid [o, \eta) \cap \mathcal{H}_{\xi}(r) \neq \emptyset \text{ for some geodesic representative of } \eta \}.$

2.2. Geometrical finiteness. (5) Harry: resume at page 8 of notes