Outer Billiards on Kites

by

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Preface

Outer billiards is a basic dynamical system defined relative to a convex shape in the plane. B.H. Neumann introduced outer billiards in the 1950s, and J. Moser popularized outer billiards in the 1970s as a toy model for celestial mechanics. Outer billiards is an appealing dynamical system because of its simplicity and also because of its connection to such topics as interval exchange maps, piecewise isometric actions, and area-preserving actions. There is a lot left to learn about these kinds of dynamical systems, and a good understanding of outer billiards might shed light on the more general situation.

The Moser-Neumann question, one of the central problems in this subject, asks Does there exist an outer billiards system with an unbounded orbit? Until recently, all the work on this subject has been devoted to proving that all the orbits are bounded for various classes of shapes. We will detail these results in the introduction.

Recently we answered the Moser-Neumann question in the affirmative by showing that outer billiards has an unbounded orbit when defined relative to the Penrose kite, the convex quadrilateral that arises in the famous Penrose tiling. Our proof involves special properties of the Penrose kite, and naturally raises questions about generalizations.

In this monograph we will give a more general and robust answer to the Moser-Neumann question. We will prove that outer billiards has unbounded orbits when defined relative to any irrational kite. A kite is probably best defined as a “kite-shaped” quadrilateral. (See the top of §1.2 for a non-circular definition.) The kite is irrational if it is not affinely equivalent to a quadrilateral with rational vertices. Our proof uncovers some of the deep structure underlying outer billiards on kites, and relates the subject to such topics as self-similar tilings, polytope exchange maps, and the modular group.

I discovered every result in this monograph by experimenting with my computer program, Billiard King, a Java-based graphical user interface. For the most part, the material here is logically independent from Billiard King, but I encourage the serious reader of this monograph to download Billiard King from my website \footnote{www.math.brown.edu/~res} and play with it. My website also has an interactive guide to this monograph, in which many of the basic ideas and constructions are illustrated with interactive Java applets.
There are a number of people I would like to thank. I especially thank Sergei Tabachnikov, whose great book *Geometry and Billiards* first taught me about outer billiards. Sergei has constantly encouraged me as I have investigated this topic, and he has provided much mathematical insight along the way.

I thank Yair Minsky for his work on the punctured-torus case of the Ending Lamination Conjecture. It might seem strange to relate outer billiards to punctured-torus bundles, but there seems to me to be a common theme. In both cases, one studies the limit of geometric objects indexed by rational numbers and controlled in some sense by the Farey triangulation.

I thank Eugene Gutkin for the explanations he has given me about his work on outer billiards. The work of Gutkin-Simanyi and others on the boundedness of the orbits for rational polygons provided the theoretical underpinnings for some of my initial computer investigations.

I thank Jeff Brock, Peter Doyle, David Dumas, Richard Kent, Howie Masur, Curt McMullen, John Smillie, and Ben Wieland, for their mathematical insights and general interest in this project.

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I dedicate this monograph to my parents, Karen and Uri.
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1 Introduction

1.1 History of the Problem

B.H. Neumann [N] introduced outer billiards in the late 1950s. In the 1970s, J. Moser [M1] popularized outer billiards as a toy model for celestial mechanics. One appealing feature of polygonal outer billiards is that it gives rise to a piecewise isometric mapping of the plane. Such maps have close connections to interval exchange transformations and more generally to polygon exchange maps. See [T1] and [DT] for an exposition of outer billiards and many references.

To define an outer billiards system, one starts with a bounded convex set $K \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ and considers a point $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^2 - K$. One defines $x_1$ to be the point such that the segment $x_0x_1$ is tangent to $K$ at its midpoint and $K$ lies to the right of the ray $\overrightarrow{x_0x_1}$. (See Figure 1.1 below.) The iteration $x_0 \rightarrow x_1 \rightarrow x_2...$ is called the forwards outer billiards orbit of $x_0$. It is defined for almost every point of $\mathbb{R}^2 - K$. The backwards orbit is defined similarly.

Moser [M2, p. 11] attributes the following question to Neumann circa 1960, though it is sometimes called Moser’s Question.

**Question:** Is there an outer billiards system with an unbounded orbit?

This question is an idealized version of the question about the stability of the solar system. The Moser-Neumann question has been considered by various authors. Here is a list of the main results on the question.

- J. Moser [M] sketches a proof, inspired by K.A.M. theory, that outer billiards on $K$ has all bounded orbits provided that $\partial K$ is at least $C^6$
smooth and positively curved. R. Douady gives a complete proof in his thesis, [D].

- P. Boyland [B] gives examples of $C^1$ smooth convex domains for which an orbit can contain the domain boundary in its $\omega$-limit set.

- In [VS], [Ko], and (later, but with different methods) [GS], it is proved that outer billiards on a quasirational polygon has all orbits bounded. This class of polygons includes rational polygons and also regular polygons. In the rational case, all defined orbits are periodic.

- S. Tabachnikov analyzes the outer billiards system for the regular pentagon and shows that there are some non-periodic (but bounded) orbits. See [T1, p 158] and the references there.

- D. Genin [G] shows that all orbits are bounded for the outer billiards systems associated to trapezoids. He also makes a brief numerical study of a particular irrational kite based on the square root of 2, observes possibly unbounded orbits, and indeed conjectures that this is the case.

- Recently, in [S] we proved that outer billiards on the Penrose kite has unbounded orbits, thereby answering the Moser-Neumann question in the affirmative. The Penrose kite is the convex quadrilateral that arises in the Penrose tiling. See §1.6 for a discussion.

- Very recently, D. Dolgopyat and B. Fayad [DF] show that outer billiards around a semicircle has some unbounded orbits. Their proof also works for “circular caps” sufficiently close to the semicircle. This is a second affirmative answer to the Moser-Neumann question.

The result in [S] naturally raises questions about generalizations. The purpose of this monograph is to develop the theory of outer billiards on kites and show that the phenomenon of unbounded orbits for polygonal outer billiards is (at least for kites) quite robust. We think that the theory we develop here will work for polygonal outer billiards in general, though right now a general theory is beyond us.

We mention again that we discovered all the results in the monograph through computer experimentation. The interested reader can download my program, Billiard King, from my website.

2www.math.brown.edu/~res
1.2 Main Results

For us, a *kite* is a quadrilateral of the form $K(A)$, with vertices

$(-1, 0); (0, 1) (0, -1) (A, 0); A \in (0, 1). \tag{1}$

Figure 1.1 shows an example. We call $K(A)$ (ir)rational iff $A$ is (ir)rational. Outer billiards is an affinely invariant system, and any quadrilateral that is traditionally called a kite is affinely equivalent to some $K(A)$.

Let $Z_{\text{odd}}$ denote the set of odd integers. Reflection in each vertex of $K(A)$ preserves $R \times Z_{\text{odd}}$. Hence, outer billiards on $K(A)$ preserves $R \times Z_{\text{odd}}$. We say that a *special orbit* on $K(A)$ is an orbit contained in $R \times Z_{\text{odd}}$. We call a point in $R \times Z_{\text{odd}}$ *special erratic* (relative to the kite) if both the forwards and backwards orbits of this point are unbounded, and return infinitely often to every neighborhood of the vertex set of the kite. Define the *special erratic set* to be the set of special erratic points.

**Theorem 1.1 (Erratic Orbit)** Relative to any irrational kite, the special erratic set contains a near-Cantor set.

We say that a *near-Cantor set* is a set of the form $C - C'$, where $C$ is a Cantor set, and $C'$ is a countable set. The Erratic Orbit Theorem says, in particular, that outer billiards on any irrational kite has uncountably many unbounded orbits.

**Theorem 1.2** Relative to any irrational kite, any special orbit is periodic or else unbounded in both directions.

**Theorem 1.3** Relative to any irrational kite, the set of periodic special orbits is open dense in $R \times Z_{\text{odd}}$.

The rational cases of Theorems 1.2 and 1.3 follow from the work of [VS], [K], and [GS]. In this case, all orbits are periodic. In the irrational case, Theorem 1.1 makes Theorems 1.2 and 1.3 especially interesting. Computer evidence suggests that versions of Theorems 1.2 and 1.3 hold true for all orbits, and not just special orbits. See §9.4 for a discussion.

The monograph has two other main results as well, namely the Hexagrid Theorem (§3) and the Master Picture Theorem (§10), but these results are not easily stated without a buildup of terminology. We will discuss these two results later on in the introduction.
## 1.3 Rational Kites

We say that \( p/q \) is odd or even according as to whether \( pq \) is odd or even. In §6 we will construct, for each irrational \( A \in (0, 1) \), a canonical sequence \( \{p_n/q_n\} \) of odd rationals that converges to \( A \). The sequence \( \{p_n/q_n\} \) is similar to the sequence of continued fraction approximants to \( A \). Our approach to the main results is to get a good understanding of the special orbits relative to \( K(p_n/q_n) \) and then to take suitable limits.

We find it convenient to work with the square of the outer billiards map rather than the map itself, and our results implicitly refer to the square map. (This has no effect on the results above.)

Let \( O_2(x) \) denote the square outer billiards orbit of \( x \). Let

\[
\Xi = R_+ \times \{-1, 1\}. \tag{2}
\]

Our Pinwheel Lemma, from §11, shows that \( O_2 \cap \Xi \) pretty well controls \( O_2 \) for any special orbit \( O_2 \). The intuitive idea is that \( O_2(x) \) generally circulates around the kite, and hence returns to \( \Xi \) in a fairly regular fashion. We will state the results about rational kites in terms of \( O_2 \cap \Xi \).

When \( \epsilon \in (0, 2/q) \), the orbit \( O_2(\epsilon, 1) \) has a combinatorial structure independent of \( \epsilon \). See Lemma 2.2. Thus, \( O_2(1/q, 1) \) is a natural representative of an orbit that starts out “right next to” the kite vertex \((0, 1)\). This orbit plays a crucial role in our proof of Theorem 1.1.

Let \( \lambda(p/q) = 1 \) if \( p/q \) is odd and \( \lambda(p/q) = 2 \) if \( p/q \) is even. Our results refer to outer billiards on \( K(p/q) \). We set \( \lambda = \lambda(p/q) \)

**Theorem 1.4** \( O_2(1/q, 1) \cap \Xi \) has diameter at least \( \lambda \cdot (p + q)/2 \).

When the time comes, we will assume that \( p > 1 \) in our proof. The case \( p = 1 \) is still true, but the proof is more tedious.

We think of Theorem 1.4 as a “rational precursor” of Theorem 1.1. The next result shows that Theorem 1.4 is sharp to within a factor of 2.

**Theorem 1.5** Each special orbit intersects \( \Xi \) in exactly one set of the form \( I_k \times \{-1, 1\} \), where

\[
I_k = (\lambda k(p + q), \lambda(k + 1)(p + q)) \quad k = 0, 1, 2, 3...
\]

Hence, any special orbit intersects \( \Xi \) in a set of diameter at most \( \lambda \cdot (p + q) \).
Theorem 1.5 is similar in spirit to a result in [K]. See §3.5 for a discussion.

An outer billiards orbit on \( K(A) \) is called stable if there are nearby and combinatorially identical orbits on \( K(A') \) for all \( A' \) sufficiently close to \( A \). Otherwise, the orbit is called unstable. In the odd case, \( O_2(1/q, 1) \) is unstable, and this fact is crucial to our proof of Theorem 1.1. It also turns out that \( O(3/q, 1) \) is stable, and this fact is crucial to our proof of Theorem 1.3. Here is a classification of special orbits.

**Theorem 1.6** In the even rational case, all special orbits are stable. In the odd case, the set \( I_k \times \{-1, 1\} \) contains exactly two unstable orbits, \( U_k^+ \) and \( U_k^- \), and these are conjugate by reflection in the \( x \)-axis. In particular, we have \( U_0^\pm = O_2(1/q, \pm 1) \).

### 1.4 The Arithmetic Graph

All our results about special orbits derive from our analysis of a fundamental object, which we call the arithmetic graph. The principle guiding our construction is that sometimes it is better to understand the abelian group \( \mathbb{Z}[A] := \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}A \) as a module over \( \mathbb{Z} \) rather than as a subset of \( \mathbb{R} \).

In this section we will explain the idea behind the arithmetic graph. In §2.5 we will give a precise construction.

Let \( \psi \) denote the square of the outer billiards map. For all \( p \in \mathbb{R}^2 \) on which \( \psi \) is defined, we have

\[
\psi(p) = p + v_p; \quad v_p \in 2\mathbb{Z}[A] \times 2\mathbb{Z}
\]

This equation derives from the fact that \( v_p = 2(v_1 - v_2) \), where \( v_1 \) and \( v_2 \) are two vertices of \( K(A) \). See Figure 1.2.

![Figure 1.2: The square of the outer billiards map](image-url)
Let $\Xi = \mathbb{R}_+ \times \{-1, 1\}$, as above. The arithmetic graph encodes the arithmetic behavior of the first return map $\Psi : \Xi \to \Xi$. Assuming that the orbit of $(2\alpha, 1)$ is defined, it turns out that

$$\Psi^k(2\alpha, 1) = (2\alpha + 2m_kA + 2n_k, \pm 1); \quad m_k, n_k \in \mathbb{Z}. \quad (4)$$

The arithmetic graph $\Gamma_\alpha(A)$ is the path in $\mathbb{Z}^2$ with vertices $(m_k, n_k)$, connected in the obvious way. We will prove that

$$(m_{k+1}, n_{k+1}) - (m_k, n_k) \in \{-1, 0, 1\}^2 \quad (5)$$

Thus $\Gamma_\alpha(A)$ is a lattice path that connects nearest neighbors in $\mathbb{Z}^2$. In the next section we show some pictures. The reader can see pictures for any smallish parameter using either Billiard King or the interactive guide to the monograph.

When $A = p/q$ is rational, we set $\alpha = 1/(2q)$, and simplify our notation to $\Gamma(p/q)$. In the odd case, $\Gamma(p/q)$ is an open polygonal curve, invariant under translation by $(q, -p)$. In the even case, $\Gamma(p/q)$ is an embedded polygon.

We will prove Theorem 1.4 by showing that $\Gamma(p/q)$ rises on the order of $p + q$ units away from the line of slope $-p/q$ through the origin. This line is invariant under translation by $(q, -p)$. Theorems 1.5 and 1.6 are based on a more global version of $\Gamma(p/q)$, where we consider simultaneously the arithmetic graphs of all orbits of the form

$$(1/q + 2\mathbb{Z}[A]) \times \{-1, 1\} \quad (6)$$

The resulting object, which we call $\hat{\Gamma}(p/q)$, turns out to be a disjoint union of embedded polygons and embedded infinite polygons. This is the content of our Embedding Theorem. See §2.6. Each component corresponds to a combinatorial equivalence class of special orbit. The component is a polygon iff the orbit is stable.

In §3 we will explain a general structural result for the arithmetic graph, the Hexagrid Theorem. Part III of the monograph is devoted to the proof of the Hexagrid Theorem. It turns out that the large scale structure of $\hat{\Gamma}$ is controlled by a grid made from 6 infinite families of parallel lines. We call this grid the hexagrid. The lines of the hexagrid confine the stable components and force the unstable components to oscillate in predictable ways. Figure 3.3 shows a picture of how the arithmetic graph interacts with the hexagrid. We view the Hexagrid Theorem as being similar in spirit to De Bruijn’s pentagrid construction of the Penrose tilings. See [DeB].
1.5 Period Copying

What allows us to pass from our results about rational kites, especially Theorem 1.4, to the results about irrational kites is a period copying phenomenon. We will illustrate the idea with some pictures. Each picture shows $\Gamma(p/q)$ in reference to the line of slope $-p/q$ through the origin. Figure 1.3 shows a bit more than one period of $\Gamma(7/13)$.

![Figure 1.3: The graph $\Gamma(7/13)$.](image)

Figure 1.4 shows a picture of $\Gamma(19/35)$. Notice that $\Gamma(19/35)$ has a much wider oscillation, but also manages to copy a bit more than one period of $\Gamma(7/13)$. What makes this work is that $7/13$ is a very good approximation to $19/35$. The Copy Theorems from Part IV of the monograph deal with this phenomenon. Our interactive guide to the monograph has several applets that let the user see this phenomenon for arbitrary pairs of smallish parameters.

![Figure 1.4: The graph $\Gamma(19/35)$.](image)
Figure 1.5 shows the same phenomenon for $\Gamma(45/83)$. This graph oscillates on a large scale but still manages to copy a bit more than one period of $\Gamma(19/35)$. Hence $\Gamma(45/83)$ copies a period of $\Gamma(7/13)$ and a period of $\Gamma(19/35)$. That is, $\Gamma(45/83)$ oscillates on 3 scales.

Continuing in this way, and taking a limit, we produce a graph $\Gamma(A)$ that oscillates on all scales. By taking the limit carefully, we arrange that the limit is the arithmetic graph of a well-defined, erratic orbit. Even though we must take the limit carefully, we will have many choices in how we take the limit. These choices lead to the near-Cantor set of special erratic points.

We will deduce Theorem 1.2 from Theorem 1.1. Theorem 1.3 requires a few other ideas.
1.6 The Case of the Penrose Kite

The Penrose kite is affinely equivalent to $K(\phi^{-3})$, where $\phi$ is the golden ratio. In [S], we proved that outer billiards on $K(\phi^{-3})$ has erratic orbits by considering the arithmetic graph $\Gamma(\phi^{-3})$ corresponding to the orbit of $(\phi^{-2}/2, 1)$. We showed that $\Gamma(\phi^{-3})$ oscillates on infinitely many scales by showing that $\Gamma(\phi^{-3})$ lies in a small tubular neighborhood of the dilated graph $\phi^3 \Gamma(\phi^{-3})$. In other words, $\Gamma(\phi^{-3})$ has a kind of self-similar structure. It is a large-scale fractal. Compare [Ke].

The self-similarity of $\Gamma(\phi^{-3})$ derives from the fact that $\phi^{-3}$ has a periodic continued fraction expansion, namely $[0; 4, 4, 4, 4, ...]$. Put another way, there is a kind of recurrent pattern to the different scales on which $\Gamma(\phi^{-3})$ oscillates. Something like this should work for all quadratic irrationals, but we have not worked it out. For the general irrational parameter $A$, we do not get such a symmetric picture, and the scales of oscillation of $\Gamma(A)$ depend on the Diophantine properties of $A$.

![Figure 2.5: The graph $\Gamma(\phi^{-3})$ superimposed over $\phi^3 \Gamma(\phi^{-3})$.](image-url)
1.7 The Master Picture Theorem

All our main theorems follow from a combination of the Embedding Theorem, the Hexagrid Theorem, and The Copy Theorem. These three results have a common source, a result that we call the Master Picture Theorem. We formulate and prove this result in Part II of the monograph. Here we will give the reader a feel for the result.

Recall that $\Xi = \mathbb{R}_+ \times \{-1, 1\}$. The arithmetic graph encodes the dynamics of the first return map $\Psi : \Xi \to \Xi$. It turns out that $\Psi$ is an infinite interval exchange map. The Master Picture Theorem reveals the following structure.

1. There is a locally affine map $\mu$ from $\Xi$ into a union $\hat{\Xi}$ of two 3-dimensional tori.

2. There is a polyhedron exchange map $\hat{\Psi} : \hat{\Xi} \to \hat{\Xi}$, defined relative to a partition of $\hat{\Xi}$ into 28 polyhedra.

3. The map $\mu$ is a semi-conjugacy between $\Psi$ and $\hat{\Psi}$.

In other words, the return dynamics of $\hat{\Psi}$ has a kind of compactification into a 3 dimensional polyhedron exchange map. All the objects above depend on the parameter $A$, but we have suppressed them from our notation.

There is one master picture, a union of two 4-dimensional convex lattice polytopes partitioned into 28 smaller convex lattice polytopes, that controls everything. For each parameter, one obtains the 3-dimensional picture by taking a suitable slice.

The fact that nearby slices give almost the same picture is the source of our Copy Theorem. The interaction between the map $\mu$ and the walls of our convex polytope partitions is the source of the Hexagrid Theorem. The Embedding Theorem follows from basic geometric properties of the polytope exchange map in an elementary way that is hard to summarize here.

I believe that a version of the Master Picture Theorem should hold for general convex $n$-gons. For instance, one sees a more general picture extending the one we have explained here when one considers all the orbits on a kite. John Smillie and I have some ideas on how to work out the general case, and we hope to pursue this at a later time.
1.8 Computational Issues

As I mentioned above, I discovered all the structure of outer billiards by experimenting with Billiard King. Ultimately, I am trying to verify the structure I noticed on the computer, and so one might expect there to be some computation in the proof. The proof here uses considerably less computation than the proof in [S], but I still use a computer-aided proof in several places. For example, I use the computer to check that various 4 dimensional convex integral polytopes have disjoint interiors.

To the reader who does not like computer-aided proofs (however mild) I would like to remark that the experimental method here has some advantages over a traditional proof. I checked all the main steps in the proof with massive and visually-based computation. These checks make sure that I am not led astray by logical or conceptual errors arising from steps taken in vacuo. I came to the Moser-Neumann problem as a kind of blank state, and only got the ideas for general structural statements by looking at concrete evidence.

Again, I mention that my website has an interactive java-based guide to this monograph. The interested reader can play with simple java applets that illustrate and explain many of the ideas. If nothing else, this interactive guide provides extensive color illustrations for the monograph.

1.9 Organization of the Monograph

This monograph comes in 4 parts. In Part I, we prove all the main results modulo the Hexagrid Theorem, the Embedding Theorem, the Copy Theorem, and a few smaller auxiliary results. In Part II, we prove the Master Picture Theorem. In Parts III and IV we deduce all the auxiliary theorems from the Master Picture Theorem. Before each part of the monograph, we include an overview of the contents of that part.
Part I

Here is an overview of this part of the monograph.

• In §2 we define the arithmetic graph. The arithmetic graph is our main object of study. In this chapter, we state one key technical result about the arithmetic graph, namely the Embedding Theorem. We prove the Embedding Theorem in Part III of the monograph.

• In §3 we state our main structural result, the Hexagrid Theorem. We then deduce Theorems 1.4, 1.5, and 1.6 from the Hexagrid Theorem. We also deduce the Room Lemma from the Hexagrid Theorem. The Room Lemma is the key result needed for the proof of our main theorems. We prove the Hexagrid Theorem in Part III of the monograph.

• In §4 we introduce 3 more results: the Superior Sequence Lemma, Theorem 4.2 and Theorem 7.5. The first of these results deals with the approximation of irrational numbers by odd rationals. The latter two results, which deal with period copying, are consequences of our Copy Theorem from Part IV. We establish the results in this chapter in Part IV.

• In §5 we prove Theorem 1.1 modulo the Embedding Theorem, the Room Lemma, and Theorem 4.2.

• In §6 we deduce Theorem 1.2 from a geometric limit argument and Theorem 1.1.

• In §7, we prove Theorem 1.3 modulo the same technical results we assumed in the proof of Theorem 1.1, with Theorem 7.5 in place of Theorem 4.2.

• In §8, we state some additional symmetry properties of the Arithmetic Graph. One additional result in §8 is the Decomposition Theorem, a refinement of the Room Lemma, that helps us deduce Theorems 4.2 and 7.5 from our general Copy Theorem. We prove the symmetry results in Part III and the Decomposition Theorem in Part IV.

• In §9 we discuss some interesting experimental phenomena we discovered but have not yet proved.
2 The Arithmetic Graph

2.1 Polygonal Outer Billiards

Let $P$ be a polygon. We denote the outer billiards map by $\psi'$, and the square of the outer billiards map by $\psi = (\psi')^2$. Our convention is that a person walking from $p$ to $\psi'(p)$ sees the $P$ on the right side. These maps are defined away from a countable set of line segments in $R^2 - P$. This countable set of line segments is sometimes called the limit set.

![Figure 2.1: Part of the Tiling for $K(1/3)$.

The result in [VS], [K] and [GS] states, in particular, that the orbits for rational polygons are all periodic. In this case, the complement of the limit set is tiled dy dynamically invariant convex polygons. Figure 2.1 shows the picture for the kite $K(1/3)$.

This is the simplest tiling we see amongst all the kites. We have only drawn part of the tiling. The reader can draw more of these pictures, and in color, using Billiard King. The existence of these tilings was what motivated me to study outer billiards. I wanted to understand how the tiling changed with the rational parameter and saw that the kites gave rise to highly non-trivial pictures.

\footnote{Note that the picture is rotated by 90 degrees from our usual normalization.}
2.2 Special Orbits

Until the last result in this section the parameter $A = p/q$ is rational. Say that a special interval is an open horizontal interval of length $2/q$ centered at a point of the form $(a/q, b)$, with $a$ odd. Here $a/q$ need not be in lowest terms.

**Lemma 2.1** The outer billiards map is entirely defined on any special interval, and indeed permutes the special intervals.

**Proof:** We note first that the order 2 rotations about the vertices of $K(A)$ send the point $(x, y)$ to the point:

$$(-2 - x, -y); \quad (-x, 2 - y); \quad (-x, -2 - y); \quad (2A - x, -y).$$

(7)

Let $\psi'$ denote the outer billiards map on $K(A)$. The map $\psi'$ is built out of the 4 transformations from Equation 7. The set $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{Z}_{\text{odd}}$ is a countable collection of lines. Let $\Lambda \subset \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{Z}_{\text{odd}}$ denote the set of points of the form $(2a+2bA, 2c+1)$, with $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$. The complementary set $\Lambda^c = \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{Z}_{\text{odd}} - \Lambda$ is the union of the special intervals.

Looking at Equation 7, we see that $\psi'(x) \in \Lambda^c$ provided that $x \in \Lambda^c$ and $\psi'$ is defined on $x$. To prove this lemma, it suffices to show that $\psi'$ is defined on any point of $\Lambda^c$.

To find the points of $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{Z}_{\text{odd}}$ where $\psi'$ is not defined, we extend the sides of $K(A)$ and intersect them with $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{Z}_{\text{odd}}$. We get 4 families of points.

$$(2n, 2n+1); \quad (2n, -2n-1); \quad (2An, 2n-1); \quad (2An, -2n+1).$$

Here $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Notice that all these points lie in $\Lambda$. ♠

Let $\mathbb{Z}[A] = \mathbb{Z} \oplus ZA$. More generally, the same proof gives:

**Lemma 2.2** Suppose that $A \in (0,1)$ is any number. Relative to $K(A)$, the entire outer billiards orbit of any point $(\alpha, n)$ is defined provided that $\alpha \notin 2\mathbb{Z}[A]$ and $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\text{odd}}$.

When $A$ is irrational, the set $2Z[A]$ is dense in $\mathbb{R}$. However, it is always a countable set.
2.3 Structure of the Square Map

As we mentioned in §1.4, we have $\psi(p) - p = V$, where $V$ is twice a vector that points from one vertex of $K(A)$ to another. See Figure 1.2. There are 12 possibilities for $V$, namely

\[ \pm(0, 4); \pm(2, 2); \pm(-2, 2); \pm(2, 2A); \pm(-2, 2A); \pm(2 + 2A, 0). \] (8)

These vectors are drawn, for the parameter $A = 1/3$, in Figure 2.2. The grey lines are present to guide the reader’s eye.

![Figure 2.2: The 12 direction vectors](image)

The labelling of the vectors works as follows. We divide the plane into its quadrants, according to the numbering scheme shown in Figure 2.2. A vector $V$ gets the label $k$ if there exists a parameter $A$ and a point $p \in Q_k$ such that $\psi(v) - v = V$. Here $Q_k$ is the $k$th quadrant. For instance, $(0, -4)$ gets the labels 1 and 2. The two vectors with dots never occur. In §11.5 we will give a much more precise version of Figure 2.2. For now, Figure 2.2 is sufficient for our purposes.
2.4 The Return Lemma

As in the introduction let $\Xi = R_+ \times \{-1, 1\}$.

**Lemma 2.3 (Return)** Let $p \in R \times Z_{\text{odd}}$ be a point with a well-defined outer billiards orbit. Then there is some $a > 0$ such that $\psi^a(p) \in \Xi$. Likewise, there is some $b < 0$ such that $\psi^b(p) \in \Xi$.

Consider the sequence $\{\psi^k(p)\}$ for $k = 1, 2, 3, \ldots$. We order the quadrants of $R^2 - \{0\}$ cyclically. Let $Q_0$ be the $(++)$ quadrant. We include the positive $x$-axis in $Q$. Let $Q_{n+1}$ be the quadrant obtained by rotating $Q_n$ clockwise by $\pi/2$. We take indices mod 4.

**Lemma 2.4** The sequence $\{\psi^k(p)\}$ cannot remain in a single quadrant.

**Proof:** We prove this for $Q_0$. The other cases are similar. Let $q = \psi^k(p)$ and $r = \psi(q)$. We write $q = (q_1, q_2)$ and $r = (r_1, r_2)$. Looking at Figure 2.2, we see that either

1. $r_2 \geq q_2 + 2$ and $r_1 \leq q_1$.
2. $r_1 \leq q_1 - 2A$.

Moreover, Option 1 cannot happen if the angle between $\overrightarrow{0r}$ and the $x$-axis is sufficiently close to $\pi/2$. Hence, as we iterate, Option 2 occurs every so often until the first coordinate is negative and our sequence leaves $Q_0$. ♠

Call $p \in R^2 - K$ a bad point if $p \in Q_k$ and $\psi(p) \not\in Q_k \cup Q_{k+1}$.

**Lemma 2.5** If $q$ is bad, then either $q$ or $\psi(q)$ lies in $\Xi$.

**Proof:** Let $r = \psi(q)$. If $q$ is bad then $q_2$ and $r_2$ have opposite signs. if $q_2 - r_2 = \pm 2$ then $q_2 = \pm 1$ and $r_2 = \mp 1$. A short case-by-case analysis shows that this forces $q_1$ and $r_1$ to have opposite signs. The other possibility is that $q_2 - r_2 = 4$. But then $r - q = \pm (0, 4)$. A routine case-by-case analysis shows that $r - q = (0, 4)$ only if $q_1 > 0$ and $r - q = (0, -4)$ only if $q_1 < 0$. But $q$ is not bad in these cases. ♠

If the Return Lemma is false, then our sequence is entirely good. But then we must have some $k$ such that $\psi^k(p) \in Q_3$ and $\psi^{k+1}(p) \in Q_0$. Since the second coordinates differ by at most 4, we must have either $\psi^k(p) \in \Xi$ or $\psi^{k+1}(p) \in \Xi$. This proves the first statement. The second statement follows from the first statement and symmetry.
2.5 The Return Map

The Return Lemma implies that the first return map $\Psi : \Xi \rightarrow \Xi$ is well defined on any point with an outer billiards orbit. This includes the set

$$\left(R_+ - 2\mathbb{Z}[A]\right) \times \{-1, 1\},$$

as we saw in Lemma 2.2.

Given the nature of the maps in Equation 7 comprising $\psi$, we see that

$$\Psi(p) - (p) \in 2\mathbb{Z}[A] \times \{-2, 0, 2\}.$$

In Part II, we will prove our main structural result about the first return map, namely the Master Picture Theorem. We will also prove the Pinwheel Lemma, in Part II. Combining these two results, we have a much stronger result about the nature of the first return map:

$$\Psi(p) - (p) = 2(A\epsilon_1 + \epsilon_2, \epsilon_3); \quad \epsilon_j \in \{-1, 0, 1\}; \quad \sum_{j=1}^{3} \epsilon_j \equiv 0 \mod 2. \quad (9)$$

Remarks:

(i) Some notion of the return map is also used in [K] and [GS]. This is quite a natural object to study.

(ii) We can at least roughly explain the first statement of Equation 9 in an elementary way. At least far from the origin, the square outer billiards orbit circulates around the kite in such a way as to nearly make an octagon with 4-fold symmetry. Compare Figure 11.3. The return pair $(\epsilon_1(p), \epsilon_2(p))$ essentially measures the approximation error between the true orbit and the closed octagon.

(iii) On a nuts-and-bolts level, this monograph concerns how to determine $(\epsilon_1(p), \epsilon_2(p))$ as a function of $p \in \Xi$. (The pair $(\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2)$ and the parity condition determine $\epsilon_3$. I like to tell people that this book is really about the infinite accumulation of small errors.

(iv) Reflection in the $x$-axis conjugates the map $\psi$ to the map $\psi^{-1}$. Thus, once we understand the orbit of the point $(x, 1)$ we automatically understand the orbit of the point $(x, -1)$. Put another way, the unordered pair of return points $\{\Psi(p), \Psi^{-1}(p)\}$ for $p = (x, \pm 1)$ only depends on $x$. 

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2.6 The Arithmetic Graph

Recall that $\Xi = \mathbb{R}_+ \times \{-1, 1\}$. Define $M = M_{A,\alpha} : \mathbb{R} \times \{-1, 1\}$ by

$$M_{A,\alpha}(m, n) = \left(2Am + 2m + 2\alpha, (-1)^{m+n+1}\right) \quad (10)$$

The second coordinate of $M$ is either 1 or $-1$ depending on the parity of $m + n$. This definition is adapted to the parity condition in Equation 9. We call $M$ a fundamental map. Each choice of $\alpha$ gives a different map.

When $A$ is irrational, $M$ is injective. In the rational case, $M$ is injective on any disk of radius $q$. Given $p_1, p_2 \in \mathbb{Z}^2$, we write $p_1 \to p_2$ iff the following holds.

- $\zeta_j = M(p_j) \in \Xi$.
- $\Psi(\zeta_1) = \zeta_2$.
- $\|p_1 - p_2\| \leq \sqrt{2}$. (Compare Equation 9.)

This construction gives a directed graph with vertices in $\mathbb{Z}^2$. We call this graph the arithmetic graph and denote it by $\hat{\Gamma}_{\alpha}(A)$. When $A = p/q$ we have the canonical choice $\alpha = 1/(2q)$ and then we set

$$\hat{\Gamma}(p/q) = \hat{\Gamma}_{1/(2q)}(p/q). \quad (11)$$

We say that the baseline of $\hat{\Gamma}(A)$ is the line $M^{-1}(0)$. The whole arithmetic graph lies above the baseline. In Part III of we will prove the following result.

**Theorem 2.6 (Embedding)** For any $A \in (0, 1)$ and $\alpha \notin \mathbb{Z}[A]$, the graph $\hat{\Gamma}_{\alpha}(A)$ is a disjoint union of embedded polygons and embedded infinite polygonal curves.

**Remark:** In the arithmetic graph, there are some lattice points having no edges emanating from them. These isolated points correspond to points where the return map is the identity and hence the orbit is periodic in the simplest possible way. We usually ignore these trivial components.

We are mainly interested in the component of $\hat{\Gamma}$ that contains $(0, 0)$. We denote this component by $\Gamma$. In the rational case, $\Gamma(p/q)$ encodes the structure of the orbit $O_2(1/q, -1)$. (The orbit $O_2(1/q, 1)$, the subject of Theorem 1.4, is conjugate to $O_2(1/q, -1)$ via reflection in the $x$-axis.)

In the next chapter, we will see that $\Gamma(p/q)$ is a closed polygon when $p/q$ is even, and an infinite open polygonal arc when $p/q$ is odd.
3 The Hexagrid Theorem

3.1 The Arithmetic Kite

In this section we describe a certain quadrilateral, which we call the arithmetic kite. This object is meant to “live” in the same plane as the arithmetic graph. The diagonals and sides of this quadrilateral define 6 special directions. In the next section we describe a grid made from 6 infinite families of parallel lines, based on these 6 directions.

Let \( A = p/q \). Figure 3.1 shows a schematic picture of \( Q(A) \). The vertices are given by the equations.

1. \( v_1 = (0, 0) \).
2. \( v_2 = \frac{1}{2}(0, p + q) \).
3. \( v_3 = \frac{1}{2q}(2pq, (p + q)^2 - 2p^2) \).
4. \( v_4 = \frac{1}{2(p+q)}(4pq, (p + q)^2 - 4p^2) \).
5. \( v_5 = \frac{1}{2(p+q)}(2pq, (p + q)^2 - 2p^2) \).
6. \( -v_6 = v_7 = (q, -p) \).

A short calculation, which we omit, shows that \( K(A) \) and \( Q(A) \) are actually affinely equivalent. \( Q(A) \) does not have Euclidean bilateral symmetry, but it does have affine bilateral symmetry.
The *hexagrid* $G(A)$ consists of two interacting grids, which we call the *room grid* $RG(A)$ and the *door grid* $DG(A)$.

**Room Grid:** When $A$ is an odd rational, $RG(A)$ consists of the lines obtained by extending the diagonals of $Q(A)$ and then taking the orbit under the lattice $\mathbb{Z}[V/2,W]$. These are the black lines in Figure 3.2. In case $A$ is an even rational, we would make the same definition, but use the lattice $\mathbb{Z}[V,2W]$ instead.

**Door Grid:** The *door grid* $DG(A)$ is the same for both even and odd rationals. It is obtained by extending the sides of $Q(A)$ and then taking their orbit under the one dimensional lattice $\mathbb{Z}[V]$. These are the grey lines in Figure 3.2.
3.2 The Hexagrid Theorem

The Hexagrid Theorem relates two kinds of objects, wall crossings and doors. Informally, the Hexagrid Theorem says that the arithmetic graph only crosses a wall at a door. Here are formal definitions.

Rooms and Walls: $RG(A)$ divides $\mathbb{R}^2$ into different connected components which we call rooms. Say that a wall is the line segment of positive slope that divides two adjacent rooms.

Doors: When $p/q$ is odd, we say that a door is a point of intersection between a wall of $RG(A)$ and a line of $DG(A)$. When $p/q$ is even, we make the same definition, except that we exclude crossing points of the form $(x, y)$, where $y$ is a half-integer. Every door is a triple point, and every wall has one door. The first coordinate of a door is always an integer. (See Lemma 18.2.) In exceptional cases – when the second coordinate is also an integer – the door lies in the corner of the room. In this case, we associate the door to both walls containing it. The door $(0, 0)$ has this property.

Crossing Cells: Say that an edge $e$ of $\hat{\Gamma}$ crosses a wall if $e$ intersects a wall at an interior point. Say that a union of two incident edges of $\Gamma$ crosses a wall if the common vertex lies on a wall, and the two edges point to opposite sides of the wall. The point $(0, 0)$ has this property. We say that a crossing cell is either an edge or a union of two edges that crosses a wall in the manner just described. For instance $(-1, 1) \rightarrow (0, 0) \rightarrow (1, 1)$ is a crossing cell for any $A \in (0, 1)$.

In Part III of the monograph we will prove the following result. Let $\overline{y}$ denote the greatest integer less than $y$.

Theorem 3.1 (Hexagrid) Let $A \in (0, 1)$ be rational.

1. $\hat{\Gamma}(A)$ never crosses a floor of $RG(A)$. Any edges of $\hat{\Gamma}(A)$ incident to a vertex contained on a floor rise above that floor (rather than below it.)

2. There is a bijection between the set of doors and the set of crossing cells. If $y$ is not an integer, then the crossing cell corresponding to the door $(m, y)$ contains $(m, y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$. If $y$ is an integer, then $(x, y)$ corresponds to 2 doors. One of the corresponding crossing cells contains $(x, y)$ and the other one contains $(x, y - 1)$.  

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**Remark:** We really only care about the Hexagrid Theorem when \( A \) is an odd rational. We include the even case for the sake of completeness.

Figure 3.3 illustrates the Hexagrid Theorem for \( p/q = 25/47 \). The shaded parallelogram is \( R(25/47) \), the parallelogram from the Room Lemma below. We have only drawn the unstable components in Figure 3.3. The reader can see much better pictures of the Hexagrid Theorem using either Billiard King or our interactive guide to the monograph. (The interactive guide only shows the odd case, but Billiard King also shows the even case.)

**Figure 3.3:** \( G(25/47) \), \( R(25/47) \), and some of \( \hat{\Gamma}(25/47) \).
3.3 The Room Lemma

For the purpose of proving our main results, we don’t need the full force of the Hexagrid Theorem. All we really need is a simpler result, the Room Lemma. In this section we derive the Room Lemma from the Hexagrid Theorem.

Let \( p/q \) be an odd rational. Referring to Figure 3.1, let \( V = v_7 \) and \( V = v_3 \). That is,

\[
V = (q, -p); \quad W = \left( \frac{pq}{p + q}, \frac{pq}{p + q} + \frac{q - p}{2} \right).
\]

(12)

Let \( R(p/q) \) denote the parallelogram whose vertices are

\[
(0, 0); \quad V; \quad W; \quad V + W.
\]

(13)

\( R(p/q) \) is the shaded rectangle shown in Figure 3.3. Let

\[
d_0 = (x, y); \quad x = \frac{p + q}{2}; \quad y = \frac{q^2 - p^2}{4q}
\]

(14)

d_0 is just below the door contained inside the shaded rectangle in Figure 3.3. We show the picture more clearly in Figure 3.4.

**Lemma 3.2 (Room)** \( \Gamma(p/q) \) is an open polygonal curve. One period of \( \Gamma(p/q) \) connects \( (0, 0) \) to \( d_0 \) to \( (q, -p) \). This period is contained in \( R(p/q) \).

**Proof:** First of all, for any value of \( A \), it is easy to check that \( \Gamma(A) \) contains the arc \((-1, 1) \rightarrow (0, 0) \rightarrow (1, 1)\). This is to say that \( \Gamma(p/q) \) enters \( R(p/q) \) from the left at \((0, 0)\). Now, \( R(p/q) \) is the union of two adjacent rooms, \( R_1 \) and \( R_2 \). Note that \((0, 0)\) is the only door on the left wall of \( R_1 \) and \((x, y)\) is the only door on the wall separating \( R_1 \) and \( R_2 \), and \((q, -p)\) is the only door on the right wall of \( R_2 \). Here \((x, y)\) is as in Equation 14. From the Hexagrid Theorem, \( \Gamma(p/q) \) must connect \((0, 0)\) to \( d_0 \) to \((q, -p)\). The arithmetic graph \( \tilde{\Gamma}(p/q) \) is invariant under translation by \((q, -p)\), and so the whole picture repeats endlessly to the left and the right of \( R(p/q) \). Hence \( \Gamma(p/q) \) is an open polygonal curve. ♠

Figure 3.4 illustrates Lemma 3.2 when \( p/q = 25/47 \). Note that Figure 3.4 is a close-up of the shaded region in Figure 3.3. The segment in the middle is the lower half of the wall dividing the two rooms.
3.4 Proof of Theorem 1.4

First suppose that \( \frac{p}{q} \) is an odd rational. Let \( M_1 \) be the first coordinate for the fundamental map associated to \( \frac{p}{q} \). We compute that \( M_1(d_0) > (p+q)/2 \), at least when \( p > 1 \). Technically, \( \Gamma(\frac{p}{q}) \) describes \( O_2(1/q, -1) \), but the two orbits \( O_2(1/q, 1) \) and \( O_2(1/q, -1) \) are conjugate by reflection in the \( x \)-axis.

Now suppose that \( \frac{p}{q} \) is even. Referring to the plane containing the arithmetic graph, let \( S_0 \) be the line segment connecting the origin to \( v_3 \), the very tip of the arithmetic kite. Then \( S_0 \) is bounded by two consecutive doors on \( L_0 \). The bottom endpoint of \( S_0 \) is \((0, 0)\), one of the vertices of \( \Gamma(0, 0) \). We know already that \( \Gamma(\frac{p}{q}) \) is a closed polygon. By the hexagrid Theorem, \( \Gamma(\frac{p}{q}) \), cannot cross \( S_0 \) except within 1 unit of the door \( v_3 \). Hence, \( \Gamma(\frac{p}{q}) \) must engulf all but the top 1 unit of \( S_0 \).

Essentially the same calculation as in the odd case now shows that \( \Gamma(\frac{p}{q}) \) rises up at least \((p + q)\) units from the baseline when \( p > 1 \). When \( p = 1 \) the same result holds, but the calculation is a bit harder. The reason why we get an extra factor of 2 in the even case is that \( v_3 \) is twice as far from the baseline as is the door near \( d_0 \). See Equation 14.
3.5 Proof of Theorem 1.5

First suppose that $p/q$ is odd. Let $M_1$ be the first coordinate of the fundamental map associated to $p/q$. Since $p$ and $q$ are relatively prime, we can realize any integer as an integer combination of $p$ and $q$. From this we see that every point of the form $s/q$, with $s$ odd, lies in the image of $M_1$. Hence, some point of $\mathbb{Z}^2$, above the baseline of $\hat{\Gamma}(p/q)$, corresponds to the orbit of either $(s/q, 1)$ or $(s/q, -1)$.

Let the floor grid denote the lines of negative slope in the room grid. These lines all have slope $-p/q$. The $k$th line $L_k$ of the floor grid contains the point

$$\zeta_k = \left(0, \frac{k(p + q)}{2}\right).$$

Modulo translation by $V$, the point $\zeta_k$ is the only lattice point on $L_k$. Statement 1 of the Hexagrid Theorem contains that statement that the edges of $\Gamma$ incident to $\zeta_k$ lie between $L_k$ and $L_{k+1}$ (rather than between $L_{k-1}$ and $L_k$).

We compute that

$$M_1(\zeta_k) = k(p + q) + \frac{1}{q}.$$  

For all lattice points $(m, n)$ between $L_k$ and $L_{k+1}$ we therefore have

$$M_1(m, n) \in I_k,$$

the interval from Theorem 1.5. Theorem 1.5 now follows from Equation 15, Statement 1 of the Hexagrid Theorem, and our remarks about $\zeta_k$.

The proof of Theorem 1.5 in the even case is exactly the same, except that we get a factor of 2 due to the different definition of the room grid.

Remark: We compare Theorem 1.5 to a result in [K]. The result in [K] is quite general, and so we will specialize it to kites. In this case, a kite is quasi-rational iff it is rational. The (special case of the) result in [K], interpreted in our language, says that every special orbit is contained in one of the intervals $J_0, J_1, J_2, \ldots$, where

$$J_a = \bigcup_{i=0}^{p+q-1} I_{ak+i}.$$  

The special floors corresponding to the endpoints of the $J$ intervals correspond to necklace orbits. A necklace orbit (in our case) is an outer billiards orbit consisting of copies of the kite, touching vertex to vertex. Compare Figure 2.1. Our result is a refinement in a special case.
3.6 Proof of Theorem 1.6

Let \( p/q \) be some rational and let \( \hat{\Gamma} \) be the corresponding arithmetic graph. Let \( O_2(m,n) \) denote the orbit corresponding to the component \( \hat{\Gamma}(m,n) \).

Lemma 3.3 A periodic orbit \( O_2(m,n) \) is stable iff \( \hat{\Gamma}(m,n) \) is a polygon.

Proof: Let \( K \) be the period of \( \Psi \) on \( p_0 \). Tracing out \( \hat{\Gamma}(m,n) \), we get integers \((m_k,n_k)\) such that

\[
\Psi^k(p_0) - p_0 = (2m_kA + 2n_k, 2\epsilon_k); \quad k = 1, \ldots, K. \tag{16}
\]

Here \( \epsilon_k \in \{0, 1\} \), and \( \epsilon_k = 0 \) iff \( m_k + n_k \) is even. The integers \((m_k,n_k)\) are determined by the combinatorics of a finite portion of the orbit. Hence, Equation 16 holds true for all nearby parameters \( A \).

If \( \hat{\Gamma}(m,n) \) is a closed polygon, then \((m_K,n_K) = 0\). But then \( \Psi^k(p_0) = p_0 \) for all parameters near \( A \). If \( O_2(m,n) \) is stable then \((m_K,n_K) = (0,0)\). Otherwise, the equation \( m_KA + n_K = 0 \) would force \( A = -n_K/m_K \). ♠

Odd Case: Assume that \( A = p/q \) is an odd rational. Say that a suite is the region between two floors of the room grid. Each suite is partitioned into rooms. Each room has two walls, and each wall has a door in it. From the Hexagrid Theorem, we see that there is an infinite polygonal arc of \( \hat{\Gamma}(p/q) \) that lives in each suite. Let \( \Gamma_k(p/q) \) denote the infinite polygonal arc that lies in the \( k \)th suite. With this notation \( \Gamma_0(p/q) = \Gamma(p/q) \) is the component that contains \((0,0)\).

We have just described the infinite family of unstable components listed in Theorem 1.6. All the other components of \( \hat{\Gamma}(p/q) \) are closed polygons and must be confined to single rooms. The corresponding orbits are stable, by Lemma 3.3. The point here is that the infinite polygonal arcs we have already described have used up all the doors. Nothing else can cross through the walls.

Each vertex \((m,n)\) in the arithmetic graph corresponds to the two points \((M_1(m,n), \pm 1)\). Thus, each component of \( \hat{\Gamma} \) tracks either 1 or 2 orbits. By the parity result in Equation 9, these two points lie on different \( \psi \)-orbits. Therefore, each component of \( \hat{\Gamma} \) tracks two special orbits. In particular, there are exactly two unstable orbits \( U^+_k \) and \( U^-_k \) contained in the interval \( I_k \), and these correspond to \( \Gamma_k(p/q) \). This completes the proof in the odd case.
**Even Case:** Now let $p/q$ be even. By Lemma 3.3, it suffices to show that all nontrivial components of $\hat{\Gamma}$ are polygons. Suppose $\hat{\Gamma}(m, n)$ is not a polygon. Let $R$ denote reflection in the $x$-axis. We have

$$R\Psi R^{-1} = \Psi^{-1}; \quad R(M(m, n)) = M(m + q, n - p).$$

From this equation we see that translation by $(q, -p)$ preserves $\hat{\Gamma}$ but reverses the orientation of all components. But then $(m, n) + (q, -p) \not\in \hat{\Gamma}(m, n)$.

![Figure 3.5: $\gamma$ and $\gamma + (q, -p)$.

Since all orbits are periodic, $(m, n) + k(p, -q) \in \hat{\Gamma}(m, n)$ for some integer $k \geq 2$. Let $\gamma$ be the arc of $\hat{\Gamma}(m, n)$ connecting $(m, n)$ to $(m, n) + k(q, -p)$. By the Embedding Theorem, $\gamma$ and $\gamma' = \gamma + (q, -p)$ are disjoint. But this situation violates the Jordan Curve Theorem. See Figure 3.5.
4 Odd Approximation and Period Copying

4.1 Discussion

As we mentioned in the introduction, we would like to approximate an irrational \( A \) by a sequence \( \{p_n/q_n\} \) of rationals, then study the limits of the corresponding arithmetic graphs \( \Gamma_n = \Gamma(p_n/q_n) \). The most obvious thing would be to take \( p_n/q_n \) to be the \( n \)th continued fraction approximant of \( A \). In this case, the arithmetic graphs \( \Gamma_n \) behave in a fairly nice way. However, when \( p_n/q_n \) is an even rational, the graph \( \Gamma_n \) is not so useful to us.

Here is the problem. When \( p_n/q_n \) is even the graph \( \Gamma_n \) is a closed polygon. The graph \( \Gamma_{n+1} \) cannot copy all of \( \Gamma_n \) in this case. When \( p_{n+1}/q_{n+1} \) is odd, this is easy to see: \( \Gamma_{n+1} \) is an embedded open polygonal curve and hence cannot contain a closed polygon. The even case is also true, though harder to see. The interested reader can investigate the case when both \( p_n/q_n \) and \( p_{n+1}/q_{n+1} \) are even using Billiard King.

If \( \Gamma_n \) is odd, there is a chance that \( \Gamma_{n+1} \) could copy a full period of \( \Gamma_n \). Thus, in order to guarantee that \( \Gamma_{n+1} \) copies a full period of \( \Gamma_n \) for all \( n \), we would need the entire sequence \( \{p_n/q_n\} \) to consist of odd rationals. This certainly does not happen for most irrational \( A \). In §1.5 we informally discussed the utility of this period copying, and in the next chapter we will make a formal argument.

We need to replace the sequence of continued fraction approximants by a related sequence consisting entirely of odd rationals. The replacement sequence is just as canonical as the sequence of continued fraction approximants, though it is perhaps a bit more obscure. Our sequence, which we call the superior sequence is based on the level 2 congruence subgroup of the modular group, whereas the ordinary sequence of continued fraction approximants is based on the modular group itself.

One can see why the level 2 congruence subgroup might arise in this situation. Whereas the modular group, \( \text{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z}) \), acts in such a way as to mix up the types of rationals (odd and even) the level 2 group acts in such a way as to preserve the types. The reader need not understand anything about the level 2 congruence subgroup to understand our constructions. However, some readers might want to keep this connection in mind while reading our definitions.
4.2 The Main Results

Let \( p/q \in (0,1) \) be an odd rational. There are unique even rationals \( p_+/q_+ \) and \( p_-/q_- \) such that

\[
q_+, q_- \in (0, q);
\frac{p_-}{q_-} < \frac{p}{q} < \frac{p_+}{q_+};
\quad |pq_\pm - qp_\pm| = 1.
\]  

(18)

If \( p = 1 \) then \( p_- = 0 \). Otherwise all numbers are positive. We have the general relation

\[
\frac{p}{q} = \frac{p_+ + p_-}{q_+ + q_-}.
\]  

(19)

We introduce the following notation.

\[
\frac{p}{q} \rightarrow \frac{p'}{q'} = \frac{|p_+ - p_-|}{|q_+ - q_-|}.
\]  

(20)

We enhance our notation slightly by writing \( p/q \Rightarrow p'/q' \) if \( q > 2q' \). Here is an example.

\[
\begin{align*}
\frac{643}{1113} & \Rightarrow \frac{197}{341} \Rightarrow \frac{145}{251} \Rightarrow \frac{93}{161} \Rightarrow \frac{41}{71} \Rightarrow \frac{11}{19} \Rightarrow \frac{3}{5} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{1}.
\end{align*}
\]

Next, we write \( p/q \Longrightarrow p^{(k)}/q^{(k)} \) iff we have

\[
\frac{p^{(k-1)}}{q^{(k-1)}} \Rightarrow \frac{p^{(k)}}{q^{(k)}}.
\]

Only this last arrow must be a double arrow. For instance, we have

\[
\begin{align*}
\frac{643}{1113} & \Rightarrow \frac{197}{341} \quad \frac{145}{251} \Rightarrow \frac{11}{19}.
\end{align*}
\]

In Part IV of the monograph, we will prove the following result.

**Lemma 4.1 (Superior Sequence)** Let \( A \in (0,1) \) be any irrational. Then there exists a sequence \( \{p_n/q_n\} \) such that

\[
\left| A - \frac{p_n}{q_n} \right| < \frac{2}{q_n^2}; \quad \frac{p_n}{q_n} \iff \frac{p_{n+1}}{q_{n+1}} \quad \forall n.
\]
We call any such sequence a *superior sequence*. Any subsequence of a superior sequence is also a superior sequence. By passing to a subsequence, we can take our superior sequence to be monotone. The maximal superior sequence is unique.

**Example:** For the Penrose kite parameter $\phi^{-3}$, we obtain the maximal superior sequence by taking every other term in the following sequence

\[
\begin{aligned}
1 &\leftarrow \frac{1}{3} \leftarrow \frac{1}{5} \leftarrow \frac{3}{13} \leftarrow \frac{5}{21} \leftarrow \frac{13}{55} \leftarrow \frac{21}{89} \leftarrow \frac{55}{233} \leftarrow \frac{89}{377} \leftarrow \cdots
\end{aligned}
\]

The maximal superior sequence here obeys a linear recurrence relation summarized by the quadratic $x^2 - 4x - 1$.

Let $\Gamma = \Gamma(p/q)$ denote the arithmetic graph associated to the odd rational $p/q$. Here just mean the component containing $(0, 0)$. Let $V = (q, -p)$, as in Equation 12. By the Room Lemma, the arc of $\Gamma$ connecting $(0, 0)$ to $V$ is one period of $\Gamma$. Call this arc $\Gamma^1$. Likewise, the arc of $\Gamma$ connecting $(0, 0)$ to $-V$ is one period of $\Gamma$. Call this arc $\diamondsuit \Gamma^1$. So, $\diamondsuit \Gamma^1$ and $\Gamma^1$ are consecutive periods of $\Gamma$. Note that $\diamondsuit \Gamma^1$ travels leftwards from $(0, 0)$ and $\Gamma^1$ travels rightwards from $(0, 0)$. We think of the $\diamondsuit$-operation as reversing the roles of left and right. Define

\[
\Gamma^{1+\epsilon} = \Gamma^1 \cup (B_{eq}(V) \cap \Gamma).
\]

(21)

Here $B_{eq}(V)$ is the metric ball of radius $eq$ about $V$. Intuitively, $\Gamma^{1+\epsilon}$ is $(1 + \epsilon)$ periods of $\Gamma$. Likewise, define

\[
\diamondsuit \Gamma^{1+\epsilon} = \diamondsuit \Gamma^1 \cup (B_{eq}(-V) \cap \Gamma).
\]

(22)

In Part IV, we prove the following result.

**Theorem 4.2** There are constants $C$ and $\epsilon > 0$ with the following property. Suppose $p_1/q_1 \leftrightarrow p_2/q_2$ and $p_1 > C$. Then

1. If $p_1/q_1 < p_2/q_2$ then $\Gamma_1^{1+\epsilon} \subset \Gamma_2^1$.

2. If $p_1/q_1 > p_2/q_2$ then $\diamondsuit \Gamma_1^{1+\epsilon} \subset \diamondsuit \Gamma_2^1$.

Our proof will give $\epsilon = 1/100$, though $\epsilon = 1/10$ is closer to the optimal. Theorem 4.2 is a consequence of our Copy Theorem, which we state and prove in Part IV.
4.3 A Different View of Period Copying

Here we state a variant of Theorem 4.2 that is more robust but not quite as sharp. Let \( \Gamma^n \) denote the arc of \( \Gamma \) that connects \((0,0)\) to \(nV\). Then \( \Gamma^n \) consists of the first \( n \) periods of \( \Gamma \). We define \( \Gamma^{n+\epsilon} \) just as we defined \( \Gamma^{1+\epsilon} \).

**Theorem 4.3** There exists constants \( C \) and \( \epsilon > 0 \) with the following property. Suppose that \( p_1/q_1 \) and \( p_2/q_2 \) are two odd rationals, with \( p_1 > C \) and

\[
0 < \frac{p_2}{q_2} - \frac{p_1}{q_1} < \frac{1}{(n+1)q_1^2}.
\]

Then \( \Gamma^{n+\epsilon}_1 \subset \Gamma^1_2 \).

Our proof gives \( \epsilon = 1/10 \). There is a similar result that covers the case when \( p_1/q_1 > p_2/q_2 \). Theorem 4.3 is not sharp enough to imply Theorem 4.2.

Almost every \( A \in (0,1) \) has the property that

\[
0 < A - \frac{p}{q} < \frac{1}{2q^2}
\]  
(23)

holds for infinitely many odd rationals. One proves this by considering the ergodicity of the geodesic flow on the level 2 congruence surface.

Given such a parameter \( A \), we can find a monotone increasing sequence \( \{p_n/q_n\} \) of odd rationals, limiting to \( A \) and satisfying the hypotheses of Theorem 4.3 for \( n = 2 \). In this case, we have

\[
\Gamma^{1+\epsilon}_m \subset \Gamma^1_{m+1}; \quad \forall m,
\]

As we will see in the next chapter, this is all we really need to prove Theorem 1.1. We mention this because Theorem 4.3 is much easier to prove than Theorem 4.2.

The reader will find the proof of Theorem 4.3 in the first chapter of Part IV. The reader satisfied with our main results for almost every parameter can skip the rest of Part IV.
5 Existence of Erratic Orbits

5.1 Discussion of the Proof

Let \( A \in (0, 1) \) be an arbitrary irrational parameter. Let \( \{p_n/q_n\} \) be a monotone superior sequence associated to \( A \), as guaranteed by the Superior Sequence Lemma. We will treat the case when this sequence is monotone increasing. The monotone decreasing case has essentially the same treatment. In this section we will informally explain some of the ideas in our proof.

Let \( \Gamma_n = \Gamma(p_n/q_n) \). The graph \( \Gamma_n \) corresponds to the orbit of the point \( \xi_n := (1/q_n, 1) \). By the Room Lemma, the orbit of \( O_2(\xi_n) \) travels on the order of \( q_n \) units away from the origin. We would like to take a kind of limit, to show that the orbit of the point \( \xi = \lim \xi_n \) is unbounded. Unfortunately, \( \xi = (0, 1) \), a vertex of \( K(A) \). Thus, the outer billiards orbit of \( \xi \) is not defined.

To get around this problem, we use theorem 4.2 in tandem with the Room Lemma to show that the graph \( \Gamma_n \) has a kind of large scale Cantor set structure. This structure implies the existence of a Cantor set \( C \) with the property that the orbit \( O_2(\xi_n) \) accumulates on all of \( C \) as \( n \to \infty \). That is, every point of \( C \) is within \( \epsilon_n \) of a point in \( O_2(\xi_n) \), and \( \epsilon_n \to 0 \).

Picking a generic point \( \hat{\xi} \in C \) we will be able to find a sequence \( \{n_k\} \) such that
\[
\hat{\xi}_k := \psi^{n_k}(\xi_k) \to \hat{\xi}.
\]

Note that
\[
O_2(\xi_k) = O_2(\hat{\xi}_k).
\]

On the other hand, the limit point \( \hat{\xi} \) is a well defined orbit. In other words, our strategy is to look at exactly the same orbits, but to shift the indices in such a way that the limit converges to a useful point. The sequence \( \{n_k\} \) will diverge, but this does not bother us.

The arithmetic graph \( \tilde{\Gamma}_k \) corresponding to \( \hat{\xi}_k \) is a translate of \( \Gamma_k \). Studying the situation carefully, we will show that the Hausdorff limit \( \lim \Gamma_k \) exists, and corresponds to an erratic orbit. Finally, we will recognize that the erratic orbit in question is \( O_2(\hat{\xi}) \). We have a lot of choices for \( \hat{\xi} \), and in fact we will be able to choose \( \xi \) freely from a near-Cantor set. Thus, the special erratic set contains an essential Cantor set.
5.2 A Large Scale Cantor Set

Let $\epsilon$ be as in Theorem 4.2. Recall that $V_n = (q_n, -p_n)$. Applying the Theorem 4.2 to every pair of consecutive terms in our superior sequence, we get
\[ \Gamma_{n+\epsilon}^1 \subset \Gamma_{n+1}^1 \quad \forall n. \] (24)

Define
\[ \Gamma_n^2 = \Gamma_n^1 + V_{n+1} \subset \Gamma_{n+1}^1. \] (25)

The containment in the last equation comes from the fact that $\Gamma_n^1 \subset \Gamma_{n+1}$ and that $\Gamma_{n+1}$ is invariant under translation by $V_{n+1}$. We take a subsequence so that $\epsilon q_{n+1} > 100 q_n$. Then
\[ \Gamma_{n+\epsilon}^1 \subset B_{\epsilon q_{n+1}} (0, 0) \cap \Gamma_{n+1}. \] (26)

Combining Theorem 4.2 with translational symmetry and Equation 26, we have
\[ \Gamma_n^2 \subset B_{\epsilon q_{n+1}} (V_{n+1}) \subset \Gamma_{n+1}^1 \subset \Gamma_{n+2}^1. \] (27)

In summary,

- $\Gamma_n^1 \subset \Gamma_{n+1}^1$ for all $n$.
- $\Gamma_n^2 = \Gamma_n^1 + V_{n+1} \subset \Gamma_m^1$ for all $(m, n)$ such that $m \geq n + 2$.

Figure 5.1 shows the sort of structure we have arranged. In the figure, the notation $nk$ stands for $\Gamma_n^k$.

\[ \text{Figure 5.1: large scale Cantor set structure} \]
Let $\epsilon \in \{0, 1\}$. First, we have $\epsilon V_2 \in \Gamma_2^1 \subset \Gamma_3^1$. Second, for any $n \geq 1$ we have $\Gamma_{2n-1}^1 + \epsilon V_{2n} \subset \Gamma_{2n+1}^1$. From these facts and induction, we have

$$\omega(\sigma) := \sum_{k=1}^{n} \epsilon_k V_{2k} \subset \Gamma_{2n+1}^1$$

for any binary sequence $\sigma = \epsilon_1, ..., \epsilon_n$.

Our next result generalizes Equation 28. For $k \leq n$, we let $\sigma_k$ denote the sequence obtained by just switching the $k$th digit of $\sigma$. Let $\sigma'_k$ denote the sequence obtained by setting the first $k-1$ digits of $\sigma$ to 0 and the $k$th digit to 1.

**Lemma 5.1 (Translation)** Let $\gamma$ be the arc of $\Gamma_{2k+1}^1$ connecting $\omega(\sigma)$ to $\omega(\sigma_k)$. Then $\gamma$ is a translation equivalent to a single period of $\Gamma_{2k}$. Up to translations, $\gamma$ only depends on the first $k$ digits of $\sigma$. Finally, $\omega(\sigma'_k) \subset \gamma$.

**Proof:** We first consider the case when $n = k$. Our claim is independent of the value of the last digit of $\sigma$. So, we consider the case when $\sigma$ ends in a 0 and $\sigma_k$ ends in a 1. Then $\gamma$ connects the two points

$$\omega(\sigma) \subset \Gamma_{2k-1}^1 \subset \Gamma_{2k}^1; \quad \omega(\sigma_k) \in \Gamma_{2k-1}^1 + V_{2k} \subset \Gamma_{2k} \cap \Gamma_{2k+1}^1.$$ 

The arc $\Gamma_{2k-1}^1 + V_{2k}$ starts out the second period of $\Gamma_{2k}$. From this structure we see that $\gamma$ is exactly one period of $\Gamma_{2k}$, and $V_{2k} = \omega(\sigma'_k) \in \gamma$.

In general, let $\sigma^*$ denote the sequence obtained by setting all digits after the $k$th one to 0. Let $\gamma^*$ be the arc connecting $\omega(\sigma^*)$ to $\omega(\sigma'_k)$. Then, by the special case we have already considered, $\gamma^*$ is one period of $\Gamma_{2k}$ and $\gamma^* \subset \Gamma_{2k+1}^1$. By an inductive argument, we establish that

$$\gamma^* + \sum_{j=k+1}^{n} \epsilon_j V_{2j} \subset \Gamma_{2n+1}^1.$$ 

But the arc on the left hand side of this equation connects $\omega(\sigma)$ to $\omega(\sigma_k)$, and hence equals $\gamma$, the arc of interest to us. In short

$$\gamma = \gamma^* + \sum_{j=k+1}^{n} \epsilon_j V_{2j}.$$ 

Equation 29 combines with the special case we have already considered to establish the lemma. ♣
5.3 Taking a Limit

Our limit construction is based on any infinite binary sequence \( \sigma = \{ \epsilon_n \} \) with infinitely many 0s and infinitely many 1s. Let \( \sigma(n) \) denote the first \( n \) digits of \( \sigma \). For \( k < n \), let \( \sigma_k(n) \) denote the sequence obtained from \( \sigma(n) \) by switching the \( k \)th digit. Let \( \omega(n) = \omega(\sigma(n)) \) and \( \omega_k(n) = \omega(\sigma_k(n)) \).

Let \( N = 2n + 1 \). Define
\[
\Gamma'_n = \Gamma_N - \omega(n). \tag{30}
\]

Note that \( \Gamma'_n \) is the arithmetic graph for the point \( \zeta_n = M_N(\omega(n)) \). Here \( M_N \) is the fundamental map associated to \( p_N/q_N \). (See Equation 35 below.)

**Lemma 5.2** There are divergent sequences \( \{E_{0n}\} \) and \( \{E_{1n}\} \) such that the first \( E_{0n} \) edges of \( \Gamma'_m \) in the forwards direction are independent of \( m \geq n \) and the first \( E_{1n} \) edges of \( \Gamma'_m \) in the backwards direction are independent of \( m \geq n \).

**Proof:** Let \( \gamma_k \) be the arc connecting \( \omega(n) \) to \( \omega_k(n) \). By the Translation Lemma, the arc \( \gamma'_k = \gamma_k - \omega_n \) connecting 0 to \( \omega_k(n) - \omega(n) \) belongs to \( \Gamma'_n \) and is independent of \( n > k \). For each \( n \), we let \( n_i < n \) be the largest place where the \( n_i \)th digit of \( \sigma \) is a \( i \). Let \( E_{in} \) denote the number of edges in \( \gamma'_{n_i} \).

These sequences do the job. ♠

Lemma 5.2 implies that the graphs \( \{\Gamma'_n\} \) converge to a limiting graph \( \Gamma_\infty \).

We want to control the rate of this convergence. Here are 4 basic definitions.

- Let \( L_N \) denote the baseline of \( \Gamma_N \). Let
\[
L'_n = L_N - \omega(n) \tag{31}
\]

- Let \( B_n \) denote the ball of radius \( 2 \max(E_{0n}, E_{1n}) \) about 0. Note that the first \( E_{0n} \) forwards edges of \( \Gamma_\infty \) lie in \( B_n \) and the first \( E_{1n} \) backwards edges of \( \Gamma_\infty \) lie in \( B_n \).

- Let \( d_n \) denote the distance from \( \omega(n) \) to \( L_N \). Note that \( d_n \) is also the distance from 0 to \( L'_n \).

- Define \( M_0(m,n) = 2Am + n \). Here \( M_0 \) is the linear part of the first coordinate of any fundamental map associated to the parameter \( A \).
Passing to a subsequence we can arrange the following.

- $M_0(V_n) < 10^{-n}$.
- $|d_m - d_n| < 10^{-n}$ for all $m > n$.
- $|A_n - A_m| < 10^{-n}$ for all $m > n$.
- The limit $L_\infty = \lim L'_n$ exists, and $L'_n \cap B_n$ lies within $10^{-n}$ of $L_\infty$.

Only the last item requires some explanation. The size of $B_n$ is at most $O(q^{2n})$ whereas the slope of $L'_n$ differs from the slope of $L_\infty$ by $O(q^{-2n})$.

**Lemma 5.3** $\Gamma_\infty$ rises unboundedly far away from $L_\infty$ in either direction.

**Proof:** The point $d_0$ in Lemma 3.2 lies at least $q/4$ units above the baseline. Hence, by Lemma 3.2, the arc $\gamma_{0n}$ rises at least $q_{2n_0}/4$ units above $L_N$. Hence, the first $E_{0n}$ forward edges of $\Gamma'_n$ rise at least $q_{2n_0}/4$ above $L'_n$. Hence, the first $E_{0n}$ forward edges of $\Gamma_\infty$ rise at least $q_{2n_0}/4 - 1$ above $L_\infty$. The backwards direction is similar. ♣

**Lemma 5.4** Both directions of $\Gamma_\infty(\sigma)$ come arbitrarily close to $L_\infty$.

**Proof:** $M_0$ maps $L_\infty$ to a single point, namely

$$M_0(L_\infty) = -\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \epsilon_j M_0(V_{2n}). \tag{32}$$

By the last statement of the Translation Lemma, the arc $\gamma'_{n_0} \subset \Gamma_\infty$ contains a vertex of the form

$$\mu_n = \omega(\sigma'_k(n)) - \omega(\sigma(n)) = -\sum_{i=1}^{n_0} \epsilon_n V_{2n} + \sum_{n=n_0+1}^{\infty} \epsilon'_n V_{2n}. \tag{33}$$

Here $\{\epsilon'_n\}$ is a binary sequence whose composition is irrelevant. We therefore have

$$|M_0(L_\infty) - M_0(V_n)| < \sum_{n=n_0+1}^{\infty} M(V_{2n}) < 2 \times 10^{-n_0}.$$ 

This last equation does the job for us. ♣
5.4 Recognizing the Limit

Referring to our sequence $\sigma = \{\epsilon_i\}$, define

$$\xi = \left( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \epsilon_j M_0(V_{2n}), -1 \right).$$

(34)

Our rapid decay rates imply that this limit exists and that the map $\sigma \to \xi(\sigma)$ is injective. Hence, our construction produces uncountably many choices of $\xi$. Throwing out a countable set, we choose so that the first coordinate does not lie in $2\mathbb{Z}[A]$. In this case, the outer billiards orbit of $\xi$ is well defined relative to $K(A)$.

**Lemma 5.5** $\Gamma_\infty$ is the arithmetic graph of $\xi$ and $L_\infty$ is the baseline of $\Gamma_\infty$.

**Proof:** Recall that $N = 2n + 1$. Let $M_N$ be the fundamental map associated to $\Gamma_N$. That is,

$$M_N(x, y) = 2A_N x + 2y + \frac{1}{q_N}. \quad (35)$$

For any lattice point $(x, y)$, the first coordinate of $M_N(x, y)$ converges to $M_0(x, y)$ as $n \to \infty$. Let $\xi_n = M_N(\omega_n)$. By construction, $\xi_n \to \xi$. As we already remarked, $\Gamma'_n$ is the arithmetic graph for $\xi_n$, relative to $A_N$.

Let $O_2(\xi_n; N)$ denote the outer billiards orbit of $\xi_n$ relative to $K(A_N)$. Since $\xi_n \to \xi$ and $A_N \to A$ and $O_2(\xi)$ is defined, the graph $\Gamma'_n$ describes $O_2(\xi)$ on increasingly large balls. Taking the limit, we see that $\Gamma_\infty$ is the arithmetic graph corresponding to $O_2(\xi)$. We have $M_0(L_\infty) = -\xi$ by Equation 32. Let $M$ be the fundamental map such that $M(0, 0) = \xi$. The first coordinate of $M$ differs from $M_0$ by the addition of $\xi$. Hence, the first coordinate of $M$ maps $L_\infty$ to 0. Hence $L_\infty$ is the baseline for $\Gamma_\infty$. ♠

The last two results in the previous section show that $(\xi, 1)$ lies in the special erratic set. Given that our construction works for any binary sequence having infinitely many 0s and 1s, we see that the special erratic set contains a near-Cantor set. This completes the proof of Theorem 1.1, modulo some technical details.

**Terminology:** Since $\xi \notin 2\mathbb{Z}[A]$, the entire arithmetic graph $\hat{\Gamma}_\infty$ is defined. We call this graph a limit graph. The component of $\hat{\Gamma}_\infty$ through $(0, 0)$, namely $\Gamma_\infty$, is the one we analyzed in this chapter.
6 The Orbit Dichotomy

6.1 An Easy Case of the Result

Before we prove Theorem 1.2 in general, we prove a special case that has many of the features of the general case. Recall that $\Xi = \mathbb{R}_+ \times \{-1, 1\}$. We will suppose that $B \in \Xi$ has an aperiodic but bounded forward orbit. We will also suppose that there is an erratic orbit $E \in \Xi$ such one and the same arithmetic graph has a component corresponding to $B$ and a component corresponding to $E$. Essentially, this means that the first coordinate of $B$ differs from the first coordinate of $E$ by an element of $2\mathbb{Z}[A]$.

Let $\Gamma_B$ denote the component of the arithmetic graph that corresponds to $B$ and let $\Gamma_E$ denote the component of the arithmetic graph that corresponds to $E$. Since $B$ is bounded in the forwards direction, the forwards direction of $\Gamma_B$ is confined to a bounded tubular neighborhood $\Sigma$ of the baseline. Since the orbit of $B$ is not periodic, $\Gamma_B$ is an open polygonal arc. This means that the forwards direction of $\Gamma_B$ must travel unboundedly far inside $\Sigma$, either to the right or to the left.

On the other hand, $\Gamma_E$ rises up unboundedly far from the baseline, in both directions, and also returns arbitrarily close to the baseline infinitely often and in both directions. But then $\Gamma_B$ must cross $\Gamma_E$, in at least one of the two directions. This contradicts the Embedding Theorem.

![Figure 6.1: Two intersecting components](image_url)
6.2 The Main Argument

Now we suppose that \( B \in \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{Z}_{\text{odd}} \) is a point with a well defined aperiodic orbit that is bounded in, say, the forwards direction. By the Return Lemma, it suffices to take \( B \in \Xi \).

Given an arithmetic graph \( \hat{\Gamma} \) and a point \( \beta \in \mathbb{Z}^2 \), let \( \hat{\Gamma}(\beta) \) denote the component of \( \hat{\Gamma} \) that contains \( \beta \). The translated arithmetic graph \( \hat{\Gamma}(\beta) - \beta \) contains the origin. In the next section we will establish the following result.

**Lemma 6.1 (Rigidity)** Let \( \{A_n\} \) be any sequence of parameters converging to an irrational parameter \( A \). Let \( \hat{\Gamma}_n \) denote any sequence of arithmetic graphs, such that \( \Gamma_n \) is based on \( A_n \). Let \( \beta_n \) denote a lattice point that lies above the baseline \( L_n \) of \( \hat{\Gamma}_n \). Suppose that the distance from \( \beta_n \) to \( L_n \) converges to 0. Then the sets \( \hat{\Gamma}_n(\beta_n) - \beta_n \) converge in the Hausdorff topology. The limit \( \Gamma_0 \) only depends on \( A \). Indeed, \( \Gamma_0 \) is the Hausdorff limit of the graphs \( \Gamma(p_n/q_n) \), where \( \{p_n/q_n\} \) is any sequence of rationals converging to \( A \).

We will use the Rigidity Lemma for the proof of Theorem 1.3. All we need for the proof of Theorem 1.2 is the following corollary.

**Corollary 6.2** Let \( A \) be an irrational parameter. Let \( \hat{\Gamma} \) be some arithmetic graph associated to \( \hat{A} \). Let \( \beta_n \) denote a lattice point that lies above the baseline \( L \) of \( \hat{\Gamma} \). Suppose that the distance from \( \beta_n \) to \( L \) converges to 0. Then the sets \( \hat{\Gamma}(\beta_n) - \beta_n \) converge in the Hausdorff topology. The limit \( \Gamma_0 \) rises unboundedly far from \( L \).

**Proof:** The only statement that is not immediate is the last statement. For the last statement, we consider the graphs \( \Gamma_n \) from the proof of Theorem 1.1. The limit of these graphs rises unboundedly far from the baseline, in one direction or the other, because this limit contains a period of each \( \Gamma_n \).

\( \Gamma_B \) has the same structure as considered in the special case above. Since the baseline \( L \) has irrational slope, we can find a sequence of points \( \beta_n \in \mathbb{Z}^2 \) such that \( \beta_n \) lies above the baseline \( L \), but the distance from \( \beta_n \) to \( L \) converges to 0. Taking a Hausdorff limit of the graphs \( \hat{\Gamma}(\beta_n) - \beta_n \), we get a limit that rises unboundedly far from \( L \), by Corollary 6.2. But this shows, for \( k \) large, \( \hat{\Gamma}(\beta_k) \) starts out beneath \( \Gamma_B \) and rises up through the strip \( \Sigma \). But now we contradict the Embedding Theorem, as in the special case.
6.3 Proof of The Rigidity Lemma

Given any $A \in (0, 1)$ and $\epsilon > 0$, let $\Sigma_\epsilon(A) \subset (0, 1)^2$ denote those pairs $(s, A')$ where $s \in (0, \epsilon)$ and $|A' - A| < \epsilon$. Let $O(s, 1; A')$ denote the outer billiards orbit of $(s, 1)$ relative to $K(A')$.

Lemma 6.3 Suppose that $A \in (0, 1)$ is irrational. For any $N$ there is some $\epsilon > 0$ with the following property. The first $N$ iterates of $O(s, 1; A')$, forwards and backwards, are well defined provided that $(s, A') \in \Sigma_\epsilon(A)$.

Proof: Inspecting the proof of Lemma 2.1, we draw the following conclusion. If $O(s, 1; A')$ is not defined after $N$ iterates, then $s = 2A'm + 2n$ for integers $m, n \in (-N', N')$. Here $N'$ depends only on $N$. Rearranging this equation, we get

$$|A' - \frac{m}{n}| < \frac{s}{2m}.$$ 

For $s$ sufficiently small and $A'$ sufficiently close to $A$, this is impossible. ♠

Lemma 6.4 Suppose that $A \in (0, 1)$ is irrational. For any $N$ there is some $\epsilon > 0$ with the following property. The combinatorics of the first N forward iterates of $O(s, 1; A')$ is independent of the choice of point $(s, A') \in \Sigma_\epsilon(A)$. The same goes for the first $N$ backwards iterates.

Proof: This follows from the fact that the combinatorial type, a discrete piece of data, varies continuously over any region where all $N$ iterates are defined. ♠

Corollary 6.5 There is a divergent sequence $\{n_k\}$ with the following property. If $|A - A'| < 1/k$ and $s, s' \in (0, 1/k)$, then the first $n_k$ forwards (or backwards) iterates of $O(s, 1; A)$ have the same combinatorial structure as the first $n_k$ forwards (or backwards) iterates of $O(s', 1; A')$.

Let $\Psi$ denote the first return map relative to the parameter $A$. Likewise define $\Psi'$. The following result is just a consequence of the existence of the return map. See the Return Lemma from §2.
Corollary 6.6  There is a divergent sequence \( \{N_k\} \) with the following property. If \( |A - A'| < 1/k \) and \( s, s' \in (0, 1/k) \), then the first \( N_k \) iterates of \( \Psi \) applied to \((s, 1)\) have the same combinatorial structure as the first \( N_k \) iterates of \( \Psi' \) applied to \((s', 1)\). This holds in both the forwards and backwards directions.

The Hausdorff distance between two compact sets \( S_1, S_2 \subset R^2 \) is the infimal \( d = d(S_1, S_2) \) such that \( S_1 \) us contained in the \( d \) tubular neighborhood of \( S_2 \), and vice versa. A sequence \( \{S_n\} \) of closed sets in \( R^2 \) converges in the Hausdorff topology if there is a closed subset \( S \) such that \( d(S_n \cap K, S \cap K) \to 0 \) for every compact \( K \).

Proof of the Rigidity Lemma: The existence of a universal limit \( \Gamma_0 \) is just a reformulation of the preceding corollary. The point is that the arithmetic graph exactly captures the combinatorial structure of the return map. Since the limit \( \Gamma_0 \) is independent of which sequence of graphs/points we choose, we let \( \Gamma_n = \Gamma(p_n/q_n) \) and we let \( \beta_n = (0, 0) \) for all \( n \).

We include one more result, which will be useful in the next chapter.

Lemma 6.7  For any \( n \) there is a vertex \( v \) of \( \Gamma_0 \) such that \( \|v\| > n \) and \( v \) is within \( 1/n \) of the line of slope \( -A \) through 0.

Proof: Let \( \{p_n/q_n\} \) denote our final sequence considered in §7. We have \( \Gamma_n^1 \subset \Gamma_m^1 \) for all \( m > n \). Taking the limit, we see that \( v_n = (q_n, -p_n) \in \Gamma_0 \) for all \( n \). These points serve our purpose. (In the case not treated in our proof of Theorem 1.1, we would have \( \Gamma_n^0 \subset \Gamma_m^0 \) for all \( m > n \). Here \( \Gamma_n^0 = \Gamma_n^1 - v_n \). In this case, the points \(-v_n\) would all belong to \( \Gamma_0 \).)
7 The Density of Periodic Orbits

7.1 Topological Orbit Confinement

The Embedding Theorem tells us that $\hat{\Gamma}_\alpha(A)$ is an disjoint union of embedded polygons and infinite embedded polygonal arcs. This fact gives us a topological method for producing periodic orbits. There are two methods.

1. Suppose that $(m, n)$ is a lattice point and $\hat{\Gamma}(m', n')$ is a polygon that winds once around $(m, n)$. Then $\hat{\Gamma}(m, n)$ is also a polygon.

2. Say that $(m, n) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ is low if the baseline separates $(m, n - 1)$ from $(m, n)$. If $\hat{\Gamma}(m', n')$ is a component with two low vertices, then $\hat{\Gamma}(m, n)$ is a closed polygon for any point $(m, n)$ that lies beneath $\hat{\Gamma}(m', n')$, above the baseline, and between the two low vertices.

Figure 7.1 illustrates each of the two methods of confinement. The big polygon is $\Gamma(18/41)$. This polygon confines each of two smaller grey polygons in one of the ways just mentioned.

![Figure 7.1: $\Gamma(18/41)$ confines two small polygons](image-url)
7.2 Main Argument

We define the depth of a lattice point (above the baseline) to be the distance from this lattice point to the baseline of $\hat{\Gamma}$. We define the depth of a polygon in $\hat{\Gamma}$ to be the minimum of the depth of its vertices. In this section, we prove the following result. Let $\hat{\Gamma}$ denote some limit graph associated to the parameter $A$.

**Lemma 7.1** Suppose that $\hat{\Gamma}$ contains a sequence $\{\gamma_k\}$ of polygon components such that the depth of $\gamma_k$ tends to 0. Then the set of special periodic orbits relative to $K(A)$ is dense in the set of all special periodic orbits.

Let $|\gamma_k|$ denote the supremal value of $d$ such that there are two vertices of $\gamma_k$, at least $d$ apart, having depth less than $1/d$.

**Lemma 7.2** $|\gamma_k| \to \infty$ as $k \to \infty$.

**Proof:** Let $(m_k, n_k)$ be the vertex of $\gamma_k$ of lowest depth. By the Rigidity Lemma, the component $\gamma_k - (m_k, n_k)$ converges to $\Gamma_0$, and one direction or the other connects $(m_k, n_k)$ to a far away and low-depth vertex $(m'_k, n'_k)$.

Let $S_k$ denote the set of components $\gamma'$ of $\hat{\Gamma}$ such that $\gamma'$ is translation equivalent to $\gamma_k$ and the corresponding vertices are low. The vertex $(m, n)$ is low if the baseline of $\hat{\Gamma}$ separates $(m, n)$ and $(m, n - 1)$.

**Lemma 7.3** There is some constant $N_k$ so that every point of $L$ is within $N_k$ units of a member of $S_k$.

**Proof:** Say that a lattice point $(m, n)$ is very low if it has depth less than $1/100$ (but still positive.) The polygon $\gamma_k$ corresponds to a periodic orbit $\xi_k$. Since $\xi_k$ is periodic, there is an open neighborhood $U_k$ of $\xi_k$ such that all orbits in $U_k$ are combinatorially identical to $\xi_k$. Let $M$ be fundamental map associated to $\hat{\Gamma}$. Then $M^{-1}(U_k)$ is an open strip, parallel to $L$. Since $L$ has irrational slope, there is some constant $N_k$ so that every point of $L$ is within $N_k$ of some point of $M^{-1}(U_k) \cap Z^2$. But the components of $\hat{\Gamma}$ containing these points are translation equivalent to $\gamma_k$. Choosing $U_k$ small enough, we can guarantee that the translations taking $\gamma_k$ to the other components carry the very low vertices of $\gamma_k$ to low vertices.
Given two polygonal components $X$ and $Y$ of $\hat{\Gamma}$, we write $X \blacklozenge Y$ if one low vertex of $Y$ lies to the left of $X$ and one low vertex of $Y$ lies to the right of $X$. See Figure 7.2. Any vertex $V$ below $Y$ corresponds to a periodic orbit, by our orbit confinement result of §7.1.

![Figure 7.2: One polygon overlaying another.](image)

Now we pass to a subsequence so that

$$|\gamma_{k+1}| > 10(N_k + |\gamma_k|).$$

Equation 36 has the following consequence. For any integer $N$, we can find components $\gamma_j$ of $S_j$, for $j = N, \ldots, 2N$ such $\gamma_N \blacklozenge \ldots \blacklozenge \gamma_{2N}$. Let $L_N$ denote the portion of $L$ between the two distinguished low points of $\gamma_N$. Let $\Lambda_N$ denote the set of lattice points within $N$ units of $L_N$. The set $\Lambda_N$ is a parallelogram whose base is $L_N$, a segment whose length tends to $\infty$ with $N$. The height of $\Lambda_N$ tends to $\infty$ as well.

**Lemma 7.4** The set $M(\mathbb{Z}^2 \cap \Lambda_N)$ consists entirely of periodic orbits.

**Proof:** Let $V$ be a vertical ray whose $x$-coordinate is an integer. If $V$ starts out on $L_n$ then $V$ must travel upwards at least $N$ units before escaping from underneath $\gamma_{2N}$. This is an application of the pigeonhole principle. The point is that $V$ must intersect each $\gamma_j$ for $j = N, \ldots, 2N$, in a different lattice point. Hence, any point of $\Lambda_N$ is trapped beneath $\gamma_{2N}$. ♠

Given the fact that both base and height of $\Lambda_N$ are growing unboundedly, and the fact that $A$ is an irrational parameter, the union $\bigcup_{N=1}^{\infty} M(\Lambda_N \cap \mathbb{Z}^2)$ is dense in $\mathbb{R}_+$. Hence, the set of periodic orbits starting in $\mathbb{R}_+ \times \{-1, 1\}$ is dense in the set of all special orbits. By the Return Lemma, every special orbit eventually lands in $\mathbb{R}_+ \times \{-1, 1\}$. Hence, the set of periodic special orbits is dense in the set of all special orbits.
7.3 The Cap Construction

It remains to show that $\hat{\Gamma}$ satisfies the hypotheses of Lemma 7.1. The rest of this chapter is devoted to this task. We start by introducing a variant of Theorem 4.2. Let $\bigcap \Gamma$ denote the union of all components of the arithmetic graph $\hat{\Gamma}$ that lie between $\Gamma$ and the baseline. We include $\Gamma$ itself in $\bigcap \Gamma$. More generally, given an arc $\Gamma' \subset \Gamma$, let $\bigcap \Gamma'$ denote those edges $e$ of $\bigcap \Gamma$ that lie inside the region bound by $\Gamma'$, by the baseline, and by the lines parallel to the walls of the Hexagrid. See the shaded region in Figure 7.2.

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{figure7.2}
\caption{The $\bigcap$ construction and the top half of $\Delta$.}
\end{figure}

**Theorem 7.5** Theorem 4.2 remains true when each $X$ is replaced by $\bigcap X$.

**Proof:** This result is true for general reasons, which we explain here. The Copy Theorem from Part IV says that $\hat{\Gamma}_1$ and $\hat{\Gamma}_2$ agree at a lattice point provided that this point lies in a certain parallelogram $\Delta$ that is defined in terms of the parameters $A_1$ and $A_2$ on which $\hat{\Gamma}_1$ and $\hat{\Gamma}_2$ are based. The baseline divides the parallelogram in half. (Figure 7.2 shows the top half of $\Delta$.) The top left edge of $\Delta$ is less positively sloped than the walls in the hexagrid and the top right edge of $\Delta$ is negatively sloped. Indeed, these edges are parallel to the top edges of the arithmetic kite. This structure yields the following result. If we prove, using the Copy Theorem, that some arc $\Gamma'_1 \subset \Gamma_1$ is copied by $\Gamma_2$, then the same argument shows that $\bigcap \Gamma'_1$ is copied by $\bigcap \Gamma_2$. ♠

For the reader who would prefer to use Theorem 4.3 in place of Theorem 4.2 (and thereby settle for almost every parameter) we state the following result, which has the same proof as Theorem 7.5.

**Theorem 7.6** Theorem 4.3 remains true when each $X$ is replaced by $\bigcap X$. 
## 7.4 Manufacturing the Periodic Sequence

In the next section we prove the following key result.

**Lemma 7.7** Let \( p/q \) be any odd rational. Then \( O_2(3/q, 1) \neq O_2(1/q, \pm 1) \).

Let \( \Gamma_n' \) denote the component of \( \hat{\Gamma}_n = \hat{\Gamma}(p_n/q_n) \) that contains the vertex corresponding to the orbit of \( (3/q_n, 1) \).

**Lemma 7.8** \( \Gamma_n' \) is a polygon.

**Proof:** Note that \( \Gamma_n' \neq \Gamma_n \), by Lemma 7.7. Theorem 1.6 now implies that \( O(3/q_n, 1) \) is stable. Hence \( \Gamma_n' \) is a polygon. Alternatively, \( \Gamma_n' \) contains a low vertex and hence lies beneath \( \Gamma_n \). Hence, \( \Gamma_n \) confines \( \Gamma_n' \). ♠

We constructed the limit graph \( \hat{\Gamma} \) from a superior sequence \( \{A_n\} \) we will suppose that this sequence is monotone increasing. The other case has essentially the same proof. Note that \( \Gamma_n' \subset \cap \Gamma_n^1 \). Note also that \( \Gamma_n' \) has a vertex \( \zeta_n \) within \( 3/q_n \) of the baseline.

**Lemma 7.9** \( \cap \Gamma \) contains translates of \( \cap \Gamma_n^1 \) for \( n \) sufficiently large.

**Proof:** First let’s prove that \( \Gamma \) contains translates of \( \Gamma_n^1 \) for \( n \) large. Referring to the proof of Lemma 5.4, the portion of the arc \( \gamma_n' \) starting at the point \( \mu_n \) and travelling to the right contains a translate of \( \Gamma_k^1 \) for an infinite number of indices \( k \). Also \( \Gamma_n^1 \) contains \( \Gamma_k^1 \). Hence \( \Gamma \) contains translates of \( \Gamma_n^1 \) for all \( n \). To get the result with \( \cap X \) in place of \( X \), we use Theorem 7.5 in place of Theorem 4.2. All the relevant constructions in §5 go through word for word. ♠

By the previous result, there is a translation \( \tau_n \) such that

\[
\gamma_n := \tau_n(\Gamma_n') \subset \tau_n(\cap \Gamma_n^1) \subset \cap \Gamma \subset \hat{\Gamma}
\]  

(37)

Our proof of Lemma 7.9 gives us the additional piece of information that the distance from \( \tau_n(0, 0) \) to the baseline of \( \Gamma \) converges to 0 with \( n \).

Given that \( |A_n - A| < 2q_n^{-2} \) and \( ||\zeta_n - (0, 0)|| < C(q_n) \) for some universal constant, we see that the same result holds for \( \tau_n(\zeta_n) \) Hence, the depth of \( \gamma_n \) tends to 0 as \( n \) tends to \( \infty \). This shows that \( \hat{\Gamma} \) satisfies the hypotheses of Lemma 7.1. This completes the proof of Theorem 1.3, modulo Lemma 7.7.
7.5 Proof of Lemma 7.7

We assume that $p > 1$. Suppose $O_2(3/q, 1) = O_2(1/q, 1)$. Then $\Psi^k(3/q, 1) = (1/q, 1)$ for some $k$. But then

$$(2/q, 0) = (3/q, 1) - \Psi^k(3/q, 1) = (2m(p/q) + 2n, 0); \quad m + n \text{ even}$$

The parity result comes from Equation 9. Equating the first coordinates and clearing denominators, we get $1 = mp + nq$. This is impossible for $p/q$ odd.

Suppose $O_2(3/q, 1) = O_2(1/q, -1)$. Let’s say that $(3/q, 1)$ is in the forwards orbit of $(1/q, -1)$. The backwards case has a similar treatment. Let $A = p/q$. A calculation (when $p > 1$) shows that

$$\Psi(s/q, \pm 1) - (s/q, \pm 1) = (1 \mp A, 0); \quad s = 1, 3. \quad (38)$$

Let $(q', -p')$ be such that $q' \in (0, q)$ and $M(q', -p') = (3/q, 1)$. In fact $p'/q'$ is the largest continued fraction approximation to $p/q$ that is less than $p/q$. Equations 38 and the first half of Equation 17 together imply that $\Gamma(p/q)$ first traces out the arc $(-1,1) \to (0,0) \to (1,1)$ and then the arc $(q', -p') + (1,1) \to (q', -p') \to (q', -p') + (-1,1)$.

![Figure 7.3: $\Gamma(p/q)$ confines itself.](image)

But then $\Gamma(p/q)$ confines itself, as shown in Figure 7.3. The curve cannot escape from the shaded area because it is embedded, and the two vertices at either end are low vertices. This is a contradiction.
8 Symmetries of the Arithmetic Graph

8.1 Translational Symmetry

See §17.1 for proofs of the claims in this section. Let \( \lambda(p/q) = 1 \) if \( p/q \) is odd, and \( \lambda(p/q) = 2 \) if \( p/q \) is even. We have already seen that the arithmetic graph \( \hat{\Gamma}(p/q) \) is invariant under translation by \( V = (q, -p) \).

In Part II we will prove our general structural result, the Master Picture Theorem. We will see, as a consequence of the Master Picture theorem, that \( \hat{\Gamma}(p/q) \) has a canonical extension to all of \( \mathbb{Z}^2 \), and that this extension does not cross the baseline. Moreover, the extension turns out to be invariant under the lattice

\[ \Theta = \mathbb{Z}V + \mathbb{Z}V'. \]  

(39)

Here

\[ V' = \lambda^2 \left( 0, \frac{(p + q)^2}{4} \right); \quad \lambda = \lambda(p/q). \]  

(40)

A direct calculation, which we make in §17, shows that the hexagrid \( G(p/q) \) is also invariant under \( \Theta \). The vector \( V' \) is a kind of hidden symmetry of the picture. One could say that outer billiards on a rational kite only contains “a finite amount of information”. This information resides in a certain finite graph on the torus \( \mathbb{R}^2/\Theta \).

**Periodicity Proof:** Statement I of the Hexagrid Theorem implies that all special orbits in the rational case are bounded, and hence periodic. Here we will give another proof in the rational case that all special orbits are bounded and hence periodic. The proof we give here only depends on the Embedding Theorem and the translational symmetry of the arithmetic graph. These are softer results than the Hexagrid Theorem.

The quotient \( \mathbb{Z}^2/\Theta \) is a finite set of integer points on a flat torus \( \mathbb{R}^2/\Theta \). By the Embedding Theorem and symmetry, the quotient \( \hat{\Gamma}/\Theta \) is an embedded graph whose vertices lie at the integer points. Hence, every component of \( \hat{\Gamma}/\Theta \) is a closed embedded polygon. Let \( P \) be one of these components. Let \( \tilde{P} \) be the corresponding periodic component of \( \hat{\Gamma} \).

If \( \tilde{P} \) is a closed polygon, then we are done. If \( \tilde{P} \) is invariant under translation by \( aV + bW \), with \( b \neq 0 \), then \( \tilde{P} \) crosses the baseline and we have a contradiction. Hence \( b = 0 \). But then \( \tilde{P} \) lies within a uniformly bounded distance of the baseline, since translation by \( V \) preserves the baseline.
8.2 Rotational Symmetry

We consider only the odd rational case. From now on we work with the extended version of $\hat{\Gamma}(p/q)$. Let $p_+/q_+$ be as in Equation 18. In §17.2, we will prove that rotation by 180 degrees about any of the points

$$\beta + \theta; \quad \beta = \frac{1}{2}(q_+, -p_+); \quad \theta \in \Theta$$

is a symmetry of $\hat{\Gamma}$. These points are half-integers, and rotation about them preserves $\mathbb{Z}^2$. The point $\beta$ is very close to the baseline of $\hat{\Gamma}$.

Figure 8.1: $\hat{\Gamma}(3/7)$ centered on a point of symmetry.

Figure 8.1 shows the picture for the parameter 3/7. The grid in the picture is a translated version of the room grid $RG(3/7)$, arranged so that some of the points where the grid lines cross are points of rotational symmetry of the arithmetic graph. In the picture, we can also see a near-bilateral symmetry. We will explain this in §8.4.
8.3 The Decomposition Theorem

Again, we consider only the odd rational case. Let $G(p/q)$ be the hexagrid associated to $p/q$. We will see when we prove the Hexagrid Theorem that the result holds for the extended version of $\hat{\Gamma}(p/q)$. Here we distinguish two lines of $G(p/q)$. Let $\lambda_0$ and $\lambda_1$ denote the lines extending the left and right edges of $R(p/q)$.

Let $\iota$ denote rotation by 180 degrees about the point $\beta$ mentioned in the last section. We have already mentioned that $\iota$ preserves $\hat{\Gamma}(p/q)$. However, $\iota$ does not preserve $G(p/q)$. The grids $G(p/q)$ and $\iota(G(p/q))$ are not even close. We have

$$\lambda_0, \lambda_1 \subset G(p/q); \quad \iota(\lambda_0) \subset \iota(G(p/q)) - G(p/q).$$

The line $\iota(\lambda_0)$ lands somewhere in the middle of $R(p/q)$ and divides it into pieces. We take the smaller of the two pieces and shrink it further, so that its ceiling is half as high as formerly. The 3 lines of positive slope in Figure 8.2 are $\lambda_0$, $\iota(\lambda_0)$, and $\lambda_1$, for $p/q = 31/59$. Here $p_+/q_+ = 10/19$.

![Figure 8.2: Father and Son decomposition of $\Gamma(31/59)$.](image)

The large parallelogram to the right of $\iota(\lambda_0)$ shares the top edge with the top edge of $R(31/59)$. The small rectangle on the left of $\iota(\lambda_0)$ is exactly half as tall. Our decomposition theorem, stated below, says that the picture in
Figure 8.2 is the general one. We call the small parallelogram the *son’s room* and we call the large parallelogram the *father’s room*.

How we come to the formal definitions of the Father and Son Decomposition. We first define the regions and then we state the result.

**Dividing Line:** The *dividing line* is the line $l(\lambda_0)$, parallel to the vector $V$ and containing the point $(q_+, -p_+)$. We change notation and denote the dividing line by $DR(p/q)$. Let $q_+ = q - q_+$.

**Father’s Room:** If $q_+ > q_-$ then the father’s room is the closure of the left component of $R(p/q) - DR(p/q)$. If $q_+ < q_-$ (as in the figure above), then the father’s room is the closure of the right component of $R(p/q) - DR(p/q)$. In either case, we denote this parallelogram by $FR(p/q)$.

**Son’s Room:** If $q_+ > q_-$ then $SR(p/q)$ is the bottom half of the right component of $R(p/q) - DR(p/q)$. If $q_+ < q_-$ (as in the figure above) then $SR(p/q)$ is the bottom half of the left component of $R(p/q) - DR(p/q)$. In both case, the line extending the top of $SR(p/q)$ is exactly halfway between the floor and ceiling of $R(p/q)$.

Let $\Gamma^1$ denote the connected arc of $\Gamma$ that has endpoints $(0, 0)$ and $(q, -p)$. Each rational $p/q$ includes in a maximal superior sequence. Let $p'/q'$ denote the previous term in a superior sequence that contains $p/q$. This definition only depends on $p/q$ because the initial portions (before $p/q$) of any two maximal superior sequences containing $p/q$ are the same. In Part IV we will prove the following result.

**Theorem 8.1 (Decomposition)** There is a universal constant $C$ with the following property. Let $p/q$ be an odd rational. If $\min(p', p_+, p_-) > C$ then

$$\Gamma^1(p/q) \subset SR(p/q) \cup FR(p/q) \quad (43)$$

**Remark:** In fact, the Decomposition Theorem is true for all odd rationals. The technical conditions just make the proof easier. An earlier version of the monograph had a proof of the Decomposition Theorem without the mild restriction on the rationals involved. However, the proof was rather tedious, and the weaker statement above is all we need for our main application. The main application is that the Decomposition Theorem helps us deduce Theorems 4.2 and 7.5 from the Copy Theorem of Part IV.
8.4 Near Bilateral Symmetry

Looking at Figure 8.2, we can see that the portion of $\Gamma(p/q)$ contained in each of the two parallelograms has near-bilateral symmetry. In general, the arithmetic graph has an approximate bilateral symmetry. The bilateral symmetry is not exact, as the reader can see e.g. by taking a careful look at Figure 8.1. (or any other other pictures of the arithmetic graph.) In this section, we give a heuristic explanation of this near-bilateral symmetry. None of the results in the monograph depends on this bilateral symmetry, so we will be a bit sketchy in our discussion.

![Figure 8.3: Superimposed arithmetic graphs.](image)

Figure 8.3 shows another view of this near-bilateral symmetry. There is a unique affine involution $I$ such that $I(FR_1) = FR_1$. The direction fixed by $I$ is parallel to the long diagonal of the arithmetic kite. Figure 8.3 shows a closeup of the superposition

$$I(\Gamma') \cup \Gamma'$$

$$\Gamma' = \Gamma(73/139) \cap FR(73/139).$$

We can see that the symmetry is fundamentally approximate in nature, but somehow quite close. The symmetry must be approximate, because the involution $I$ does not respect the lattice $\mathbb{Z}^2$. 

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Let $M(m,n) = \xi \in \mathbb{R}_+$ denote the point corresponding to the lattice point $(m,n)$. Here $M$ is the fundamental map associated to the parameter $p/q$. The forwards $\psi$ orbit of $(m,n,1)$ winds halfway around the kite and then encounters a point of the form

$$(2Am' + 2n', \pm 1) \in \mathbb{R} \times \{-1, 1\}.$$ 

The lattice point $(m,n)$ lies above the baseline of $\Gamma(p/q)$ and the lattice point $(m',n')$ lies below the baseline. Given the geometry of the return map $\Psi$, as discussed in detail in §11, the points $(m,n)$ and $(m',n')$ lie about the same distance from the baseline. Indeed, a calculation shows that there is a uniformly small constant $C$ such that

$$\|(m',n') - J(m,n)\| < C,$$

where $J$ is the affine involution fixing the baseline and mapping the lines extending $R(p/q)$ to themselves. We could probably take $C = 2$.

We define $J^*(m,n) = (m',n')$. We might have based $J^*$ on the orbit of $(2Am + 2n, -1)$, but the result would be uniformly close. In any case, $J^*$ maps components of $\bar{\Gamma}$ above the baseline to components of $\bar{\Gamma}$ below the baseline, in such a way that the corresponding components are uniformly close to having the same affine shape. The map $J^*$ does not quite induce a combinatorial isomorphism on each component. $J^*$ would map two vertices $(m_1,n_1)$ and $(m_2,n_2)$ to the same point if

$$(m_1,n_1,1) \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow (m',n',1); \quad (m_2,n_2,1) \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow (m',n',-1)$$

under iteration of the map $\psi$.

Letting $\iota$ denote the 180 degree rotation about the point $\beta$ from Equation 41, the map $\beta \circ J^*$ maps $\Gamma(p/q)$ to itself and is uniformly close to the affine involution $I$ discussed in connection with Figure 8.3. Indeed, up to a tiny translational discrepancy, we have $I = \beta \circ J$.

In terms of Figure 8.1, the maps $\beta$ and $J$ generate the dihedral symmetry group of the grid, fixing the center point. The maps $\beta$ and $J^*$ generate an order 4 group of permutations of the components of $\bar{\Gamma}(p/q)$. 

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9  Further Results and Conjectures

In this chapter we will state some conjectures, and also a few additional results. Mainly we include the results to motivate the conjectures and in some case provide support for them. Our proofs of these results will be pretty sketchy.

9.1  Return Dynamics

In this section we will consider the full outer billiards orbit, and not just the orbit under the square map. We say that an orbit is forwards erratic if the forwards direction is unbounded and also enters every neighborhood of the kite vertex set. We define backwards erratic orbits in the same way. Theorem 1.1 implies that outer billiards on any irrational kite has uncountably many orbits that are erratic simultaneously in both directions.

Let \( X = (0,2) \times \{ \pm 1 \} \). The orbits in \( X \) seem to have a particularly nice structure. Given a Cantor set \( C \subset X \), let \( C' \) denote the set of endpoints of the components of \( X - C \).

**Conjecture 9.1** Let \( A \in (0,1) \) be an irrational parameter. Then there is a Cantor set \( C_A \subset X \) with the following properties relative to outer billiards on \( K(A) \).

1. An orbit of \( X \) is well-defined iff it lies in \( X - C'_A \).

2. All the orbits in \( X - C_A \) are periodic. Orbits within the same component of \( X - C_A \) have the same combinatorial structure as each other.

3. Each orbit of \( C_A - C'_A \) is unbounded, and intersects \( C_A \) in a dense set.

4. All but one orbit of \( C_A - C'_A \) is forwards erratic and all but one orbit of \( C_A - C'_A \) is backwards erratic.

In \([S]\) we essentially proved Statements 3 and 4 for the Penrose kite parameter \( A = \phi^{-3} \).

We don’t know much about the orbits that don’t start in \( X \), but here is one conjecture. Let \( U \subset \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{Z}_{\text{odd}} \) be union of all points that have unbounded orbits.

**Conjecture 9.2** Any unbounded special orbit is dense in \( U \), and erratic in at least one direction.
9.2 Low Components

Recall that a lattice point \((m, n)\) is **low** with respect to the parameter \(p/q\) if the baseline of \(\Gamma(p/q)\) separates \((m, n - 1)\) from \((m, n)\). Such vertices correspond to points in \(X\). We say that a **low** component of \(\hat{\Gamma}(p/q)\) is a component that contains a low vertex. The basic idea behind Conjecture 9.1 is that the low components have a structure that (conjecturally) is built up inductively from the continued fraction expansion of the parameter. In this section we explore this structure.

Now that we are talking about the arithmetic graph again, we revert back to the study of the square of the outer billiards map.

**Conjecture 9.3** Let \(p/q\) be any rational. Two low vertices \((m_1, n_1)\) and \((m_2, n_2)\) lie on the same component of \(\hat{\Gamma}(p/q)\) only if \(m_1 + n_1\) and \(m_2 + n_2\) have the same parity.

We will sketch the proof in the odd case.

**Lemma 9.4** Let \(A \in (0, 1)\) be any parameter, and let \(s_0, s_1 \in (0, 2)\) be any points on which the outer billiards orbits are defined. Then

\[O_2(s_0, 1) \neq O_2(s_1, -1).\]

**Proof:** (sketch) Let \(\Gamma\) be the arithmetic graph corresponding to the common orbit \(O_2(s_0, 1) = O_2(s_1, -1)\). Let \((m_j, n_j)\) denote the vertex corresponding to \(s_j\). Then \((m_j, n_j)\) is a low vertex. The line segment \(\sigma_j\) connecting \((m_j, n_j - 1)\) to \((m_j, n_j)\) crosses the baseline of \(\Gamma\). As \(\Gamma'\) passes \((m_j, n_j)\), the segment \(\sigma_j\) is either on the right or the left, relative to the canonical orientation on \(\Gamma'\). An explicit calculation shows that \(\sigma_j\) is on the right for \(j = 0\) and on the left for \(j = 1\). But then we get the same topological contradiction that we got in the proof of Lemma 7.7.

\[\blackdiamondsuit\]

The first half of the proof of Lemma 7.7 combines with Lemma 9.4 to establish Conjecture 9.3 in the odd case. Lemma 9.4 generalizes the argument we gave in the second half of the proof of Lemma 7.7.

We don’t know how to prove Conjecture 9.3 in the even case.

In general, the low components of \(\Gamma(p/q)\) seem to be built up from the low components of \(\Gamma(p'/q')\) for simpler rational \(p'/q'\) that approximate \(p/q\).
Figure 9.1 illustrates this phenomenon. We have drawn the low polygons in grey. There are 3 such components in $SR(31/79)$, and these are all translates of $\Gamma(2/5)$. There are $9 = 4 + 1 + 4$ such components in $FR_2$, eight of which are translates of $\Gamma(2/5)$. The central component is a translate of $\Gamma(11/28)$.

Note that $2/5$ and $11/28$ are closely related to $31/79$, because
\[
\det \begin{pmatrix} 11 & 31 \\ 28 & 79 \end{pmatrix} = 1; \quad \frac{31}{79} \to \frac{9}{23}; \quad \det \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 9 \\ 5 & 23 \end{pmatrix} = 1;
\]

The arrow notation refers to §3. One always sees a structure like this.
9.3 The Modular Limit Phenomenon

Most of the analysis Part I of the monograph deals with sequences of rationals \( \{p_n/q_n\} \) where the complexity of the rational tends to \( \infty \). By this we mean e.g. that the length of the continued fraction expansion tends to \( \infty \). In this section we will study a different kind of sequence \( \{p_n/q_n\} \) in which the length of the continued fraction expansion stays bounded but nonetheless the denominators tend to \( \infty \). As in the “unbounded complexity” case, we will take our limits in a very controlled way.

Our construction is based on an odd rational \( p/q \in (0,1) \) and an even rational \( r/s \in (0,1) \), where \( r \) is odd and \( s \) is even. There is an element \( T \in SL_2(\mathbb{Z}) \) such that \( T(\infty) = p/q \). Here we mean that \( T \) acts as a linear fractional transformation. The choice of \( T \) is not unique, but Billiard King always makes the choice

\[
T = \begin{bmatrix} p & q_- \\ q & q_- \end{bmatrix}.
\] (44)

We define

\[
A_n = T(n + \frac{r}{s}).
\] (45)

Finally, we let \( \Gamma_n = \Gamma(A_n) \). Notice that \( A_n \to p/q \).

**Conjecture 9.5 (Modular Limit)** Restricting \( n \) to either the odd integers or the even integers, the rescaled Hausdorff limit

\[
\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \Gamma_n
\]

exists and is an infinite periodic polygonal curve.

The reader in the right frame of mind will recognize the similarity between the Modular Limit Conjecture and the phenomenon that the geometric limit of a sequence of Kleinian groups can be larger than the associated algebraic limit. Both are examples of “renormalization phenomena”.

Figure 9.2 illustrates this phenomenon for the choices \( p/q = 1/3 \) and \( r/s = 1/4 \) and \( n = 20 \). The shape \( \Gamma(31/121) \) very closely conforms to a pretty simple polygonal curve, with many small fluctuations about this curve. In the rescaled limit, as \( n \to \infty \), these fluctuations disappear.
Here is a weaker but related result that we can prove.

Lemma 9.6 When $n$ is restricted to either the odd or even integers, the rescaled Haussdorff limit

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{\log(n)}{n} \Gamma_n$$

exists and is the union of 2 rays. One of the rays is $\pm \lim V_n$ and the other ray is $\lim W_n$. Here $V_n = V(p_n/q_n)$ and $W_n$ are as in Equation 12.

Proof: (sketch) Our sketch will use the “big O notation”.

The sign of $p_n/q_n - p/q$ depends on the parity of $n$. Fixing the parity keeps the sign constant. We consider the case when $p/q < p_n/q_n$. Theorem 4.3
forces the forwards direction of $\Gamma_n$ to copy $O(n)$ periods of $\Gamma(p/q)$. When this portion is rescaled at a sublinear rate, it converges to the forward direction of the baseline, namely $\lim V_n$.

Recall that the behavior of $\Gamma_n$ is controlled not just by the hexagrid $G_n$ but also a rotated copy of $G_n$. See the discussion in §8.3. It turns out that there are 2 line segments $\sigma_1$ and $\sigma_2$ with the following properties.

- $\sigma_1$ and $\sigma_2$ are both parallel to $W_n$ and have length $O(n)$.
- $\sigma_1$ and $\sigma_2$ are $O(1)$ units apart from each other.
- The first $O(n)$ steps of the backwards portion of $\Gamma_n$ are contained between $\sigma_1$ and $\sigma_2$.

$\sigma_1$ is the left edge of the rectangle $R_n = R(p_n/q_n)$ and $\sigma_2$ is the parallel segment containing the point $(-q, p)/2$. So, the backwards direction of $\Gamma_n$ travels up $O(n)$ steps up a uniformly narrow strip. When rescaled at a sublinear rate, the result converges to $\lim W_n$. ♠

Both Billiard King and the interactive guide to the monograph are set up so that the reader can explore this phenomenon and variants. One interesting variant arises when we take $p/q$ to be even. In this case, the limit above seems to contain solid triangular pieces. Figure 9.3 below shows an example of this, for the parameter $101/200$, a very close approximation to $1/2$.

Here is a weaker but more concrete formulation, which we have no idea how to prove.

**Conjecture 9.7** The limit

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{\log(n)}{n} \Gamma_n$$

exists and is the union of two cones in $\mathbb{R}^2$.

When $p/q$ is extremely near an even rational, $\Gamma(p/q)$ exhibits some plane-filling tendencies. We have no idea why this happens. All we can say that $\Gamma_n$ can’t copy a full period of $\Gamma(p/q)$ because $\Gamma_n$ is embedded and $\Gamma(p/q)$ is a closed polygon. So, something else is forced to happen.
Figure 9.3: $\Gamma(101/200)$.

9.4 General Orbits

In this section we briefly discuss what seems to happen for the general outer billiards orbit. Here are our main conjectures, as we mentioned in the introduction.

**Conjecture 9.8** Relative to an irrational kite, every outer billiards is either periodic or unbounded in both directions.

**Conjecture 9.9** Relative to an irrational kite, the set of periodic orbits is dense in the set of all orbits.

We also have another conjecture.

**Conjecture 9.10** The orbit $O_2(x,0)$ is periodic for any $x > 0$. This orbit winds once around the origin.
We think that this conjecture is rather easy, but we haven’t tried to write down a proof. The general outer billiards orbits interpolate, in some sense, between the special orbits and the orbits from Conjecture 9.10.

We can study the general outer billiards orbit in a way that is similar to what we did for the special orbits. For any $\beta \in (-1, 1)$, the set

$$S_\beta = \mathbb{R} \times (\mathbb{Z}_{\text{odd}} + \beta)$$

is preserved by the square of the outer billiards map. For this reason, every general orbit lies on some $S_\beta$. The special orbits lie on $S_0$. The case $\beta = \pm 1$ corresponds to the orbits in Conjecture 9.10.

To study the orbits on $S_\beta$ we introduce the set

$$\Xi_\beta = \mathbb{R}_+ \times \{ \beta - 1, \beta + 1 \}.$$  

We can then define an arithmetic graph similar to what we did for the special orbits. We choose some $\alpha > 0$ and then follow the orbits having the form

$$\left(2Am + 2n + 2\alpha, (-1)^{m+n+1} + \beta\right).$$

We then form the arithmetic graph $\hat{\Gamma}_\alpha(A; \beta)$ as in §2. It seems that the basic topological features of this graph hold for all $\beta$. For instance, the graph is a lattice graph whose edges connect nearest neighbors. Also, the Embedding Theorem seems to hold.

The Hexagrid Theorem no longer holds. Also, the stability classification changes. It seems that there are both unstable and stable general orbits both in the even and odd cases. The period copying seems to work roughly in the same way, but we have not seriously investigated it.

When $\beta$ is near 0, the picture looks pretty much the same as what we see for the special orbits – i.e. $\beta = 0$. However, as $\beta \rightarrow \pm 1$ we see a new phenomenon emerge that throws a new light on the whole business. Figure 9.4 illustrates the parameter $A = 11/25$ and $\beta = 5/6$. It seems that the orbits follow along 4 infinite families of lines, and then swerve to avoid each other at intersections between these lines. The lines governing the orbits are all parallel to the lines in the door grid $DG(p/q)$. These lines are something like "guides" for the orbits.

We think of $\beta$ as a kind of “temperature”. As $\beta \rightarrow \pm 1$ the picture seems to “freeze”: The spacing of the $\mathbb{Z}^2$ lattice is tiny in comparison to the spacing between the guiding lines, and the guiding lines stand out very clearly. Very
few orbits are nontrivial, and those few nontrivial orbits travel for a long time in nearly straight lines before having any “interactions” with other orbits.

As $\beta$ approaches 0 the picture heats up, so to speak. The spacing of the $\mathbb{Z}^2$ lattice approaches the scale of the guiding lines, and these guiding lines are obscured. There are many more nontrivial orbits, but these orbits interact with each other much more frequently. We think of the Hexagrid Theorem as a sort of remnant of this guiding line structure, a ghost that survives to the boiling point.

The reader can see all this phenomena using Billiard King. The above account is really just an impressionistic view of what might be going on. We don’t really understand the general picture very well and we hope to revisit it at a later time.
Part II:

In this part of the monograph we will state and prove the Master Picture Theorem. All the auxiliary theorems left over from Part I rely on this central result. Here is an overview of the material.

• In §10 we will state the Master Picture Theorem. Roughly, the Master Picture Theorem says that the structure of the return map $\Psi$ is determined by a pair of maps into a flat 3-torus, $R^3/\Lambda$, together with a partition of $R^3/\Lambda$ into polyhedra. Here $\Lambda$ is a certain 3-dimensional lattice that depends on the parameter.

• In §11, we will prove the Pinwheel Lemma, a key technical step along the way to our proof of the Master Picture Theorem. The Pinwheel Lemma states that we can factor the return map $\Psi$ into a composition of 8 simpler maps, which we call *strip maps*. A strip map is a very simple map from the plane into an infinite strip.

• In §12 we prove the Torus Lemma, another key result. The Torus Lemma implies that there exists some partition of our torus into open regions, such that the regions determine the structure of the arithmetic graph. The Torus Lemma reduces the Master Picture Theorem to a rough determination of the singular set. The singular set is the (closure of the) set of points in the torus corresponding to points where the return map is not defined.

• In §13 we verify, with the aid of symbolic manipulation, certain functional identities that arise in connection with the Torus Lemma. These function identities are the basis for our analysis of the singular set.

• In §14 we combine the Torus Lemma with the functional identities to prove the Master Picture Theorem.

• in §15 we will explain how one actually makes computations with the Master Picture Theorem. §15.2 will be very important for Part IV of the monograph.
10 The Master Picture Theorem

10.1 Coarse Formulation

Recall that $\Xi = \mathbb{R}_+ \times \{-1, 1\}$. We distinguish two special subsets of $\Xi$.

$$\Xi_+ = \bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} (2k, 2k+2) \times \{(-1)^k\}; \quad \Xi_- = \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} (2k, 2k+2) \times \{(-1)^{k-1}\}. \quad (49)$$

Each set is an infinite disconnected union of open intervals of length 2. Reflection in the $x$-axis interchanges $\Xi_+$ and $\Xi_-$. The union $\Xi_+ \cup \Xi_-$ partitions $(\mathbb{R}_+ - 2\mathbb{Z}) \times \{\pm 1\}$.

Define $R_A = [0, 1+A] \times [0, 1+A] \times [0, 1]$ \quad (50)

$R_A$ is a fundamental domain for the action of a certain lattice $\Lambda_A$. We have

$$\Lambda_A = \begin{bmatrix} 1+A & 1-A & -1 \\ 0 & 1+A & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \mathbb{Z}^3 \quad (51)$$

We mean to say that $\Lambda_A$ is the $\mathbb{Z}$-span of the column vectors of the above matrix.

We define $\mu_+: \Xi_+ \to R_A$ and $\mu_-: \Xi_- \to R_A$ by the equations

$$\mu_+(t, \ast) = \left(\frac{t-1}{2}, \frac{t+1}{2}, \frac{t}{2}\right) \pm \left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, 0\right) \mod \Lambda. \quad (52)$$

The maps only depend on the first coordinate. In each case, we mean to map $t$ into $\mathbb{R}^3$ and then use the action of $\Lambda_A$ to move the image into $R_A$. It might happen that there is not a unique representative in $R_A$. (There is the problem with boundary points, as usual with fundamental domains.) However, if $t \not\in 2\mathbb{Z}[A]$, this situation does not happen. The maps $\mu_+$ and $\mu_-$ are locally affine.

Here is a coarse formulation of the Master Picture Theorem. We will state the entire result in terms of $(\ast)$, with the understanding that the same statement holds with $(-)$ replacing $(\ast)$ everywhere. Let $\Psi$ be the first return map.

**Theorem 10.1** For each parameter $A$ there is a partition $(\mathcal{P}_A)_+$ of $R_A$ into finitely many convex polyhedra. If $\Psi$ is defined on $\xi_1, \xi_2 \in \Xi_+$ and $\mu_+(\xi_1)$ and $\mu_+(\xi_2)$ lie in the same open polyhedron of $(\mathcal{P}_A)_+$, then $\Psi(\xi_1) - \xi_1 = \Psi(\xi_2) - \xi_2$. 

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10.2 The Walls of the Partitions

In order to make Theorem 10.1 precise, we need to describe the nature of the partitions \((P_A)_\pm\), and also the rule by which the polygon in the partition determines \(\Psi(\xi) - \xi\). We will make several passes through the description, adding a bit more detail each time.

The polyhedra of \((P_A)_\pm\) are cut out by the following 4 families of planes.

- \(\{x = t\}\) for \(t = 0, A, 1, 1 + A\).
- \(\{y = t\}\) for \(t = 0, A, 1, 1 + A\).
- \(\{z = t\}\) for \(t = 0, A, 1 - A, 1\).
- \(\{x + y - z = t\}\) for \(t = -1 + A, A, 1 + A, 2 + A\).

The complements of the union of these planes are the open polyhedra in the partitions.

![Figure 10.1: Two slices of the partition for \(A = 2/3\).](image)

Figure 10.1 shows a picture of two slices of the partition for the parameter \(A = 2/3\). We have sliced the picture at \(z = 0\) and \(z = 1/2\). We have labelled several points just to make the coordinate system more clear. The little arrow in the picture indicate the “motion” the diagonal lines would make were we to increase the \(z\)-coordinate and show a kind of movie of the partition. The reader can see this partition for any parameter and slice using Billiard King.
10.3 The Partitions

For each parameter $A$ we get a solid body $R_A$ partitioned into polyhedra. We can put all these pieces together into a single master picture. We define

$$R = \bigcup_{A \in (0,1)} R_A \times \{A\} \subset \mathbb{R}^4.$$  \hspace{1cm} (53)

Each 2-plane family discussed above gives rise to a hyperplane family in $\mathbb{R}^4$. These hyperplane families are now all defined over $\mathbb{Z}$, because the variable $A$ is just the 4th coordinate of $\mathbb{R}^4$ in our current scheme. Given that we have two maps $\mu_+$ and $\mu_-$, it is useful for us to consider two identical copies $R_+$ and $R_-$ of $R$.

We have a fibration $f : \mathbb{R}^4 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ given by $f(x, y, z, A) = (z, A)$. This fibration in turn gives a fibration of $R$ over the unit square $B = (0,1)^2$. Figure 10.1 draws the fiber $f^{-1}(3/2, 1/2)$. The base space $B$ has a partition into 4 regions, as shown in Figure 10.2.

![Figure 10.2: The Partition of the Base Space](image)

All the fibers above the same open region in the base space have the same combinatorial structure. Figure 10.3 explains precisely how the partition assigns the value of the return map. Given a point $\xi \in \Xi_+$, we have a pair of integers $(\epsilon_1^+(\xi), \epsilon_2^+(\xi))$ such that

$$\Psi(\xi) - \xi = 2(\epsilon_1^+, \epsilon_2^+, \ast).$$  \hspace{1cm} (54)

The second coordinate, $\pm2$, is determined by the parity relation in Equation 9. Similarly, we have $(\epsilon_1^-, \epsilon_2^-)$ for $\xi \in \Xi_-.$

Figure 10.3 shows a schematic picture of $R$. For each of the 4 open triangles in the base, we have drawn a cluster of 4 copies of a representative
fiber over that triangle. The $j$th column of each cluster determines the value of $\epsilon_j^\pm$. The first row of each cluster determines $\epsilon_j^+$ and the second row determines $\epsilon_j^-$. A light shading indicates a value of +1. A dark shading indicates a value of −1. No shading indicates a value of 0.

Figure 10.3: The decorated fibers

Given a generic point $\xi \in \Xi_\pm$, the image $\mu_\pm(\xi)$ lies in some fiber. We then use the coloring scheme to determine $\epsilon_j^\pm(\xi)$ for $j = 1, 2$. (See below for examples.) Theorem 10.1, together with the description in this section, constitutes the Master Picture Theorem. In §15 we explain with more traditional formulas how to compute these values. The reader can get a vastly superior understanding of the partition using Billiard King.
10.4 A Typical Example

Here we will explain how the Master Picture Theorem determines the local structure of the arithmetic graph $\Gamma(3/5)$ at the point $(4,2)$. Letting $M$ be the fundamental map associated to $A = 3/5$ (and $\alpha = 1/(2q) = 1/10$),

$$M(4,2) = ((8)(3/5) + (4) + (1/5), (-1)^{4+2+1}) = (9, -1) \in \Xi_\ast.$$ 

So, $\mu_-(9, -1)$ determines the forwards direction and $\mu_+(9, 1)$ determines the backwards direction. (Reflection in the $x$-axis conjugates $\Psi$ to its inverse.) We compute

$$\mu_+(9, 1) = \left(\frac{9}{2}, \frac{11}{2}, \frac{9}{2}\right) \equiv \left(\frac{1}{10}, \frac{3}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right) \mod \Lambda;$$

$$\mu_-(9, -1) = \left(\frac{7}{2}, \frac{9}{2}, \frac{9}{2}\right) \equiv \left(\frac{7}{10}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right) \mod \Lambda.$$ 

(In §15 we will explain algorithmically how to make these computations.) We have $(z, A) = (1/2, 3/5)$. There we need to look at Cluster 3, the cluster of fibers above region 3 in the base. Here is the plot of the two points in the relevant fiber. When we look up the regions in Figure 10.3, we find that $(\epsilon_1^+, \epsilon_2^+) = (-1, 1)$ and $(\epsilon_1^-, \epsilon_2^-) = (1, 0)$. The bottom right of Figure 10 shows the corresponding local picture for the arithmetic graph.

![Figure 10.4](image-url)
10.5 A Singular Example

Sometimes it is an annoyance to deal with the tiny positive constant $\alpha$ that arises in the definition of the fundamental map. In this section we will explain an alternate method for applying the Master Picture Theorem. One situation where this alternate approach proves useful is when we need to deal with the fibers at $z = \alpha$. We much prefer to draw the fibers at $z = 0$, because these do not contain any tiny polygonal regions. All the pieces of the partition can be drawn cleanly. However, in order to make sense of the Master Picture Theorem, we need to slightly redefine how the partition defines the return map.

Our method is to redefine our polygonal regions to include their lower edges. A lower edge is an edge first encountered by a line of slope 1. Figure 10.5 shows what we have in mind.

We then set $\alpha = 0$ and determine the relevant edges of the arithmetic graph by which lower bordered polygon contains our points. If it happens that $z \in \{0, A, 1 - A\}$, then we think of the fiber at $z$ as being the geometric limit of the fibers at $z + \epsilon$ for $\epsilon > 0$. That is, we take a right-sided limit of the pictures. When $z$ is not one of these special values, there is no need to do this, for the fiber is completely defined already.

We illustrate our approach with the example $A = 3/5$ and $(m, n) = (0, 8)$. We compute that $t = 8 + \alpha$ in this case. The relevant slices are the ones we get by setting $z = \alpha$. We deal with this by setting $\alpha = 0$ and computing

$$\mu_+(16, 1) = (8, 9, 8) \equiv \left(\frac{4}{5}, 1, 0\right) \mod \Lambda$$

$$\mu_-(16, -1) = (7, 8, 8) \equiv \left(0, \frac{7}{5}, 0\right) \mod \Lambda.$$
Figure 10.6 draws the relevant fibers. The bottom right of Figure 10.6 shows the local structure of the arithmetic graph. For instance, \((\epsilon_1^+, \epsilon_2^+) = (0, 1)\).

The only place where we need to use our special definition of a lower bordered polygon is for the point in the lower left fiber. This fiber determines the \(x\) coordinate of the edge corresponding to \(\mu_\cdot\). In this case, we include our point in the lightly shaded parallelogram, because our point lies in the lower border of this parallelogram.

There is one exception to our construction that requires an explanation. Referring to the lower right fiber, suppose that the bottom point actually was the bottom right vertex, as shown in Figure 10.7. In this case, the point is simultaneously the bottom left vertex, and we make the definition using the bottom left vertex. The underlying reason is that a tiny push along the line of slope 1 moves the point into the region on the left.

Figure 10.7: An exceptional case.
10.6 The Integral Structure

10.6.1 An Affine Action

We can describe Figure 10.3, and hence the Master Picture Theorem, in a different way. Let $\text{Aff}$ denote the 4 dimensional affine group. We define a discrete affine group action $\Lambda \subset \text{Aff}$ on the infinite slab $\tilde{R} = \mathbb{R}^3 \times (0, 1)$. The group $\Lambda$ is generated by the 3 maps $\gamma_1, \gamma_2, \gamma_3$. Here $\gamma_j$ acts on the first 3 coordinates as translation by the $j$th column of the matrix $\Lambda_A$, and on the 4th coordinate as the identity. We think of the $A$-variable as the 4th coordinate. Explicitly, we have

\[
\gamma_1 \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \\ A \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x + 1 + A \\ y \\ z \\ A \end{bmatrix},
\]

\[
\gamma_2 \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \\ A \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x + 1 - A \\ y + 1 + A \\ z \\ A \end{bmatrix};
\]

\[
\gamma_3 \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \\ A \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x - 1 \\ y - 1 \\ z + 1 \\ A \end{bmatrix}. \quad (55)
\]

These are all affine maps of $\mathbb{R}^4$. The quotient $\tilde{R}/\Lambda$ is naturally a fiber bundle over $(0, 1)$. Each fiber $(\mathbb{R}^3 \times \{A\})/\Lambda$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^3/\Lambda_A$.

The region $R$, from Equation 53, is a fundamental domain for the action of $\Lambda$. Note that $R$ is naturally an integral polytope. That is, all the vertices of $R$ have integer coordinates. $R$ has 16 vertices, and they are as follows.

\[
(\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2, \epsilon_3, 0); \quad (2\epsilon_1, 2\epsilon_2, \epsilon_3, 1); \quad \epsilon_1, \epsilon_2, \epsilon_3 \in \{0, 1\}. \quad (56)
\]

10.6.2 Integral Polytope Partitions

Implicit in Figure 10.3 is the statement that the regions $R_+$ and $R_-$ are partitioned into smaller convex polytopes. The partition is defined by the 4 families of hyperplanes discussed above. An alternate point of view leads to a simpler partition.
For each pair \((\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2) \in \{-1, 0, 1\}\), we let \(R_+ (\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2)\) denote the closure of the union of regions that assign \((\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2)\). It turns out that \(R(\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2)\) if a finite union of convex integral polytopes. There are 14 such polytopes, and they give an integral partition of \(R_+\). We list these polytopes in §15.4.

Let \(\iota : R_+ \to R_-\) be given by the map
\[
\iota(x, y, z, A) = (1 + A - x, 1 + A - y, 1 - z, A).
\] (57)

Geometrically, \(\iota\) is a reflection in the 1-dimensional line. We have the general equation
\[
R_-(\epsilon_1, -\epsilon_2) = \iota(R_+(\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2)).
\] (58)

Thus, the partition of \(R_-\) is a mirror image of the partition of \(R_+\). (See Example 15.5 for an example calculation.)

We use the action of \(\Lambda\) to extend the partitions of \(R_+\) and \(R_-\) to two integral polytope tilings of \(\tilde{\Gamma}\). (Again, see §15.5 for an example calculation.) These 4 dimensional tilings determine the structure of the special orbits.

### 10.6.3 Notation

Suppose that \(\tilde{\Gamma}\) is an arithmetic graph. Let \(M\) be the fundamental map associated to \(\tilde{\Gamma}\). We define
\[
M_+ = \mu_+ \circ M; \quad M_- = \mu_- \circ \rho \circ M.
\] (59)

Here \(\rho\) is reflection in the \(x\)-axis. Given a point \(p \in \mathbb{Z}^2\), the polytope of \(R_+\) containing \(M_+(p)\) determines the forward edge of \(\tilde{\Gamma}\) incident to \(p\), and the polytope of \(R_-\) containing \(M_-(p)\) determines the backward edge of \(\tilde{\Gamma}\) incident to \(p\). Concretely, we have
\[
M_+(m, n) = (s, s + 1, s) \mod \Lambda;
\]
\[
M_-(m, n) = (s - 1, s, s) \mod \Lambda;
\]
\[
s = Am + n + \alpha.
\] (60)

As usual, \(\alpha\) is the offset value. Note that \(\mu_+\) and \(\mu_-\) only depend on the first coordinate, and this first coordinate is not changed by \(\rho\). The map \(\rho\) is present mainly for bookkeeping purposes, because \(\rho(\Xi_+) = \Xi_-\), and the domain of \(\mu_\pm\) is \(\Xi_\pm\).

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11 The Pinwheel Lemma

11.1 The Main Result

The Pinwheel Lemma gives a formula for the return map $\Psi : \Xi \to \Xi$ in terms of maps we call *strip maps*. Similar objects are considered in [GS] and [S].

Consider a pair $(\Sigma, L)$, where $\Sigma$ is an infinite planar strip and $L$ is a line transverse to $\Sigma$. The pair $(L, \Sigma)$ determines two vectors, $V_+$ and $V_-$, each of which points from one boundary component of $\Sigma$ to the other and is parallel to $L$. Clearly $V_- = -V_+$.

For almost every point $p \in \mathbb{R}^2$, there is a unique integer $n$ such that

$$E(p) := p + nV_+ \in \Sigma.$$  \hspace{1cm} (61)

We call $E$ the *strip map* defined relative to $(\Sigma, L)$. The map $E$ is well-defined except on a countable collection of parallel and evenly spaced lines.

![Figure 11.1: A strip map](image)

Figure 11.2 shows 4 strips we associate to our kite. To describe the strips in Figure 11.2 write $(v_1, v_2, v_3)^t$ (a column vector) to signify that $L = v_2v_3$ and $\partial\Sigma = \overline{v_1v_2} \cup I(v_1v_3)$, where $I$ is the order 2 rotation fixing $v_3$. Here is the data for the strip maps $E_1, E_2, E_3, E_4$.

$$
\begin{align*}
&\begin{bmatrix} (-1, 0) \\
(0, 1) \\
(0, -1) \end{bmatrix} ; \\
&\begin{bmatrix} (A, 0) \\
(0, -1) \\
(-1, 0) \end{bmatrix} ; \\
&\begin{bmatrix} (0, 1) \\
(A, 0) \\
(-1, 0) \end{bmatrix} ; \\
&\begin{bmatrix} (-1, 0) \\
(0, -1) \\
(0, 1) \end{bmatrix}.
\end{align*}
$$  \hspace{1cm} (62)

We set $\Sigma_{j+4} = \Sigma_j$ and $V_{j+4} = -V_j$. Then $\Sigma_{j+4} = \Sigma_j$. The reader can also reconstruct the strips from the information given in Figure 11.2. Figure 11.2 shows the parameter $A = 1/3$, but the formulas in the picture are listed for
general $A$. In particular, the point $(3,0)$ is independent of $A$. Here is an explicit formula for the vectors involved.

$$V_1 = (0, 4); \quad V_2 = (-2, 2); \quad V_3 = (-2 - 2A, 0); \quad V_4 = (-2, -2) \quad (63)$$

**Figure 11.2:** The 4 strips for the parameter $A = 1/3$.

We also define a map $\chi : \mathbb{R}_+ \times \mathbb{Z}_{\text{odd}} \rightarrow \Xi$ by the formula

$$\chi(x, 4n \pm 1) = (x, \pm 1) \quad (64)$$

**Lemma 11.1 (Pinwheel)** $\Psi$ exists for any point of $\Xi$ having a well-defined outer billiards orbit. In all cases, $\Psi = \chi \circ (E_8 \ldots E_1)$.

We call the map in the Pinwheel Lemma the *pinwheel map*. In §15.1 we give concrete formulas for this map.
11.2 Some Corollaries

Before we prove the Pinwheel Lemma, we list two corollaries.

**Corollary 11.2** The parity equation in Equation 9 is true.

**Proof:** The Pinwheel Lemma tells us that

\[ \Psi(x, 1) - (x, 1) = 2(\epsilon_1 A + \epsilon_2, \epsilon_3); \quad (\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2, \epsilon_3) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 \times \{-1, 0, 1\}. \quad (65) \]

Given Equation 63, we see that the sum of the integer coefficients in each vector \( V_j \) is divisible by 4. (For instance, \(-2 - 2A\) yields \(-2 - 2 = -4\).) Hence \( \epsilon_1 + \epsilon_2 + \epsilon_3 \) is even. ♠

The Pinwheel Lemma gives a formula for the quantities in Equation 9. For \( j = 0, \ldots, 7 \) we define points \( p_{j+1} \) and integers \( n_j \) by the following equations.

\[ p_{j+1} = E_{j+1}(p_j) = p_j + n_j V_{j+1}. \quad (66) \]

Given the equations

\[ V_1 = (0, 4); \quad V_2 = (-2, 2); \quad V_3 = (-2 - 2A, 0); \quad V_4 = (-2, -2) \quad (67) \]

we find that

\[ \epsilon_1 = n_2 - n_6; \quad \epsilon_2 = n_1 + n_2 + n_3 - n_5 - n_6 - n_7; \quad (68) \]

We call \((n_1, \ldots, n_7)\) the length spectrum of \( p_0 \).

The precise bound in Equation 9 follows from the Master Picture Theorem, but here we give a heuristic explanation. If we define

\[ m_1 = n_7; \quad m_2 = n_6; \quad m_3 = n_5; \quad (69) \]

then we have

\[ \epsilon_1(p) = n_2 - m_2; \quad \epsilon_2(p) = (n_1 - m_1) + (n_2 - m_2) + (n_3 - m_3). \quad (70) \]

The path with vertices \( p_0, p_1, \ldots, p_7, p_8, \chi(p_8) \) uniformly close to an octagon with dihedral symmetry. See Figure 11.3 below. For this reason, there is a universal bound to \(|n_i - m_i|\). This is a heuristic explanation of the bound in Equation 9.
11.3 The Simplest Case

Here we prove the Pinwheel for points of $\Xi$ far from $K$. Figure 11.3 shows a decomposition of $\mathbb{R}^2 - K'$ into 8 regions, $S_0, ..., S_7$. Here $K'$ is a suitably large compact set. Let $V_1, ..., V_4$ be the vectors associated to our special strip maps. We set $V_{4+j} = -V_j$. A calculation shows that

$$x \in S_j; \quad \implies \quad \psi(x) - x = V_j.$$  \hfill (71)

One can easily see this using Billiard King or else our interactive guide to the monograph.

![Figure 11.3: The Simplest Sequence of Regions](image)

Equation 71 tells the whole story for points of $\Xi$ far away from $K$. As above, let $p_{j+1} = E_{j+1}(p_j)$ for $j = 0, ..., 7$. Let $p_9 = \chi(p_8)$. Here we have set $E_{j+4} = E_j$. By induction and Equation 71, $p_{j+1}$ lies in the forward orbit of $p_j$ for each $j = 0, ..., 8$. But then $p_9 = \Psi(p_1) = \chi \circ E_8 \circ E_1(p_0)$.
11.4 Discussion of the General Case

As we have just seen, the Pinwheel Lemma is a fairly trivial result for points that are far from the origin. For points near the origin, the Pinwheel Lemma is a surprising and nontrivial result. In fact, it only seems to work because of a lucky accident. The fact that we consider the Pinwheel Lemma to be an accident probably means that we don’t yet have a good understanding of what is going on.

Verifying the Pinwheel Lemma for any given parameter $A$ is a finite calculation. We just have to check, on a fine enough mesh of points extending out sufficiently far away from $K(A)$, that the equation in the Pinwheel Lemma holds. The point is that all the maps involved are piecewise isometries for each parameter. We took this approach in [S] when we proved the Pinwheel Lemma for $A = \phi^{-3}$.

Using Billiard King, we computed that the Pinwheel Lemma holds true at the points $(x, \pm 1)$ relative to the parameter $A$ for all

\[ A = \frac{1}{256}, \ldots, \frac{255}{256}; \quad x = \epsilon + \frac{1}{1024}, \ldots, \epsilon + \frac{16384}{1024}; \quad \epsilon = 10^{-6}. \]

The tiny number $\epsilon$ is included to make sure that the outer billiards orbit is actually defined for all the points we sample. This calculation does not constitute a proof of anything. However, we think that it serves as a powerful sanity check that the Pinwheel Lemma is correct. We have fairly well carpeted the region of doubt about the Pinwheel Lemma with instances of its truth.

Our proof of the Pinwheel Lemma essentially boils down to finding the replacement equation for Equation 71. We will do this in the section. As the reader will see, the situation in general is much more complicated. There is a lot of information packed into the next section, but all this information is easily seen visually on Billiard King. We have programmed Billiard King so that the reader can see pictures of all the regions involved, as well as their interactions, for essentially any desired parameter.

We think of the material in the next section as something like a written description of a photograph. The written word is probably not the right medium for the proof of the Pinwheel Lemma. To put this in a different way, Billiard King relates to the proof given here much in the same way that an ordinary research paper would relate to one that was written in crayon.
11.5 A Partition of the Plane

Let $\psi = \psi_A$ be the square of the outer billiards map relative to $K(A)$. For each $x \in \mathbb{R}^2 - K$ on which $\psi$ is defined, there is a vector $v_x$ such that

$$\psi(x) - x = v_x.$$ 

This vector is twice the difference between 2 vertices of $K$, and therefore can take on 12 possible values. It turns out that 10 of these values occur. We call these vectors $V_j$, with $j = 1, 2, 3, 4, 4^2, 5, 6^2, 6, 7, 8$. With this ordering, the argument of $V_j$ increases monotonically with $j$. Compare Figure 11.4.

For each of our vectors $V$, there is an open region $R \subset \mathbb{R}^2 - K$ such that $x \in R$ if and only if $\psi(x) - x = V$. The regions $R_1, ..., R_8$ are unbounded. The two regions $R_3$ and $R_6$ are bounded.

One can find the entire partition by extending the sides of $K$ in one direction, in a pinwheel fashion, and then pulling back these rays by the outer billiards map. To describe the regions, we use the notation $\overline{q_1}, p_1, ..., p_k, \overline{q_2}$ to indicate that

- The two unbounded edges are $\{p_1 + tq_1 \mid t \geq 0\}$ and $\{p_k + tq_2 \mid t \geq 0\}$.
- $p_2, ..., p_{k-1}$ are any additional intermediate vertices.

To improve the typesetting on our list, we set $\lambda = (A - 1)^{-1}$. Figure 10.3 shows the picture for $A = 1/3$. The reader can see any parameter using Billiard King.

$$
\begin{align*}
V_1 &= (0, 4), & R_1 &: (1, -1), (1, -2), (1, 1). \\
V_2 &= (-2, 2), & R_2 &: (1, 1), (1, -2), (0, -1), (A, 1). \\
V_3 &= (-2 - 2A, 0) & R_3 &: (A, 1), (2A, 1), \lambda(2A^2, -1 - A), (-A, 1). \\
V_4 &= (-2, -2) & R_4 &: (-A, 1), \lambda(2A, A - 3), (-1, 1). \\
V_4 &= (-2A, -2) & R_4 &: (A, 0), (2A, 1), \lambda(2A^2, -1 - A) \\
V_5 &= (0, -4) & R_5 &: (-1, 1), \lambda(2A, A - 3), (-A, 2), \lambda(2A, 3A - 1), (-1, 1) \\
V_6 &= (2A, -2) & R_6 &: (0, 1), (-A, 2), \lambda(2A, 3A - 1) \\
V_6 &= (2, -2) & R_6 &: (1, -1), \lambda(2, A + 1), (-A, 1) \\
V_7 &= (2 + 2A, 0) & R_7 &: (-A, -1), \lambda(2, A + 1), (-2, -1), (A, -1) \\
V_8 &= (2, 2) & R_8 &: (A, -1), (-2, -1), (-1, 0), (1, -1).
\end{align*}
$$
Figure 11.4: The Partition for $A = 1/3$.

It is convenient to set

$$\hat{R}_a = R_a + V_a = \{p + V_a | p \in R_a\}.$$  (72)

One symmetry of the partition is that reflection in the $x$-axis interchanges $\hat{R}_a$ with $R_{10-a}$, for all values of $a$. (To make this work, we set $R_9 = R_1$, and use the convention $4^2 + 6^2 = 10$.)

We are interested in transitions between one region $R_a$, and another region $R_b$. If $\hat{R}_a \cap R_b \neq \emptyset$ for some parameter $A$ it means that there is some $p \in R_a$ such that $\psi_A(p) \in R_b$. (We think of our regions as being open.) We create a transition matrix using the following rules.

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A 0 in the \((ab)\)th spot indicates that \(\hat{R}_a \cap R_b = \emptyset\) for all \(A \in (0, 1)\).

A 1 in the \((ab)\)th spot indicates that \(\hat{R}_a \cap R_b \neq \emptyset\) for all \(A \in (0, 1)\).

A \(t^+\) in the \((ab)\)th spot indicates that \(R_a \cap R_b \neq \emptyset\) iff \(A \in (t, 1)\).

A \(t^-\) in the \((ab)\)th spot indicates that \(R_a \cap R_b \neq \emptyset\) iff \(A \in (0, t)\).

We have programmed Billiard King so that the interested reader can see each of these relations at a single glance. Alternatively, they can easily be established using routine linear algebra. For example, interpreting \(\hat{R}_3\) and \(R_2\) as projectivizations of open convex cones \(\hat{C}_3\) and \(C_2\) in \(\mathbb{R}^3\), we easily verifies that the vector \((-1, A, -2 - A)\) has positive dot product with all vectors in \(\hat{C}_3\) and negative dot product with all vectors in \(C_2\). Hence \(R_2 \cap \hat{R}_3 = \emptyset\).

We can relate all the nonempty intersections to our strips. As with the list of intersections, everything can be seen at a glance using Billiard King, or else proved using elementary linear algebra. First we list the intersections that comprise the complements of the strips.

\[
\begin{array}{cccccccccc}
  & R_1 & R_2 & R_3 & R_4 & R_4^\# & R_5 & R_6 & R_6^\# & R_7 & R_8 \\
\hat{R}_1 & 1 & 1 & (\frac{1}{3})^+ & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
\hat{R}_2 & 0 & 1 & 1 & (\frac{1}{3})^- & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
\hat{R}_3 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & (\frac{1}{2})^+ & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
\hat{R}_4 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
\hat{R}_4^\# & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & (\frac{1}{3})^+ & (\frac{1}{3})^+ & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
\hat{R}_5 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & (\frac{1}{2})^+ & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
\hat{R}_6^\# & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
\hat{R}_6 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
\hat{R}_7 & (\frac{1}{3})^+ & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
\hat{R}_8 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
\end{array}
\]
Now we list the intersections that are contained in single strips. To make our typesetting nicer, we use the term \textit{u-component} to denote an unbounded connected component. We use the term \textit{b-component} to denote a bounded connected component.

- \( \hat{R}_1 \cap R_2 \) and \( \hat{R}_5 \cap R_6 \) are the two \textit{u-components} of \( \Sigma_1 - (\Sigma_2 \cup \Sigma_4) \).
- \( \hat{R}_8 \cap R_1 \) and \( \hat{R}_4 \cap R_5 \) are the two \textit{u-components} of \( \Sigma_4 - (\Sigma_1 \cup \Sigma_3) \).
- \( \hat{R}_3 \cap R_4 \) and \( (\hat{R}_\varphi \cup \hat{R}_7) \cap R_8 \) are the two \textit{u-components} of \( \Sigma_3 - (\Sigma_2 \cup \Sigma_4) \).
- \( \hat{R}_6 \cap R_7 \) and \( \hat{R}_2 \cap (R_3 \cup R_{4'}) \) are the two \textit{u-components} of \( \Sigma_2 - (\Sigma_1 \cup \Sigma_3) \).
- \( \hat{R}_\varphi \cap R_7 \) is contained in the \textit{b-component} of \( \Sigma_1 - (\Sigma_2 \cup \Sigma_3) \).
- \( \hat{R}_3 \cap R_{4'} \) is contained in the \textit{b-component} of \( \Sigma_4 - (\Sigma_2 \cup \Sigma_3) \).
- \( \hat{R}_{4'} \cap (R_5 \cup R_{6'}) \) is contained in the \textit{b-component} of \( \Sigma_3 - (\Sigma_1 \cup \Sigma_4) \).
- \( (\hat{R}_{4'} \cup \hat{R}_5) \cap R_\varphi \) is contained in the \textit{b-component} of \( \Sigma_2 - (\Sigma_1 \cup \Sigma_4) \).

Now we list all the intersections of regions that are contained in double intersections of strips. In this case, all the components are bounded: Any two strips intersect in a bounded region of the plane.

- \( \hat{R}_1 \cap R_3 \) and \( \hat{R}_5 \cap R_7 \) are the components of \( (\Sigma_1 \cap \Sigma_2) - (\Sigma_3 \cup \Sigma_4) \).
- \( \hat{R}_7 \cap R_1 \) and \( \hat{R}_3 \cap R_5 \) are the components of \( (\Sigma_3 \cap \Sigma_4) - (\Sigma_1 \cup \Sigma_2) \).
- \( \hat{R}_2 \cap R_4 \) and \( \hat{R}_6 \cap R_8 \) are bounded components of \( (\Sigma_2 \cap \Sigma_3) - (\Sigma_1 \cup \Sigma_4) \).
- \( \hat{R}_8 \cap R_2 = (\Sigma_1 \cap \Sigma_4) - (\Sigma_2 \cup \Sigma_3) \).

Now we list all the intersections of regions that are contained in triple intersections of strips.

- \( \hat{R}_2 \cap (R_5 \cup R_{6'}) = \Sigma_2 \cap \Sigma_3 \cap \Sigma_4 - \Sigma_1 \).
- \( \hat{R}_8 \cap (R_3 \cup R_{4'}) = \Sigma_1 \cap \Sigma_2 \cap \Sigma_4 - \Sigma_3 \).
- \( (\hat{R}_{4'} \cup \hat{R}_5) \cap R_8 = \Sigma_1 \cap \Sigma_2 \cap \Sigma_3 - \Sigma_4 \).
- \( (\hat{R}_6 \cup \hat{R}_7) \cap R_2 = \Sigma_1 \cap \Sigma_3 \cap \Sigma_4 - \Sigma_2 \).

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Here we list a bit more information about the two regions $R_4^\#$ and $R_6^\flat$, some of the information is redundant, but it is useful to have it all in one place.

- $R_4^\# \subset \Sigma_4 - \Sigma_3$.
- $R_4^\# + V_3 = \Sigma_3 - (\Sigma_2 \cup \Sigma_4)$.
- $R_6^\flat \subset \Sigma_2 - \Sigma_1$.
- $R_6^\flat + V_5 \subset \Sigma_1 - \Sigma_2$.
- $R_6^\flat + V_5 - V_6 = \Sigma_2 - (\Sigma_1 \cup \Sigma_3)$.

Finally, we mention two crucial relations between our various vectors:

- $V_3 - V_4 + V_5 = V_4^\#$.
- $V_5 - V_6 + V_7 = V_6^\flat$.

These two relations are responsible for the lucky cancellation that makes the Pinwheel Lemma hold near the kite.

We will change our notation slightly from the simplest case considered above. Given any point $z_1 \in \Xi$, we can associate the sequence of regions

$$R_{a_1} \rightarrow \ldots \rightarrow R_{a_k}$$

through which the forwards orbit of $z_1$ transitions until it returns as $\Psi(z_1)$. The simplest possible sequence is the one where $a_j = j$ for $j = 1, \ldots, 9$. See Figure 11.2. We already analyzed this case in §11.2. We let $z_j$ denote the first point in the forward orbit of $z_1$ that lies in $R_{a_j}$.

To prove the Pinwheel Lemma in general, we need to analyze all allowable sequences and see that the equation in the Pinwheel Lemma always holds. We will break the set of all sequences into three types, and then analyze the types one at a time. Here are the types.

1. Sequences that do not involve the indices $4^\#$ or $6^\flat$.
2. Sequences that involve $4^\#$ but not $6^\flat$.
3. Sequences that involve $6^\flat$.
11.6 No Sharps or Flats

**Lemma 11.3** If $j < k$ then $\hat{R}_j \cap R_k \subset \Sigma_j \cap ... \cap \Sigma_{k-1}$.

**Proof:** This is a corollary of the the intersections listed above. ♠

Suppose by induction we have shown that

$$z_j = E_{a_j-1}E_{a_j-2}...E_1(z_1).$$

By construction and Lemma 11.3,

$$z_{j+1} = E_{a_j}(z_j) \in \hat{R}_{a_j} \cap R_{a_{j+1}} \subset \Sigma_{a_j} \cap ... \cap \Sigma_{a_{j+1}-1}.$$  
Therefore, $E_{a_j},...,E_{a_{j+1}-1}$ all act trivially on $z_{j+1}$, forcing

$$z_{j+1} = E_{a_{j+1}-1}E_{a_{j+1}-2}...E_1(z_1).$$

Hence, Equation 75 holds true for all indices $j$.

By the Intersection Lemma, we eventually reach either a point $z_9$ or $z_{10}$. (That is, we wrap all the way around and return either to $R_9 = R_1$ or else to $R_{10} = R_2$.) We will consider these two cases one at a time.

**Case 1:** If we reach $z_9 = (x_9, y_9) \in R_9$ then we have

$$z_9 = E_8...E_1(z_1); \quad x_9 > 0; \quad y_9 \leq 1.$$  

From this we get that $\Psi(z_1) = \chi \circ (E_4...E_1)^2(z_1)$, as desired. The last inequality in Equation 76 requires explanation. By the Intersection Lemma, the point preceding $z_9$ on our list must lie in $R_a$ for some $a \in \{6^6, 6, 7, 8\}$. However, the distance between any point on $R_a \times \{3, 5, 7...\}$ to any point in $R_a$ exceeds the length of vector $V_a$.

**Case 2:** If we arrive at $z_{10} = (x_{10}, y_{10})$, then the Intersection Lemma tells us that the point preceding $z_{10}$ lies in $V_a$ for $a = \{6^6, 6, 7, 8\}$ and $z_{10} \in \Sigma_9$. Hence $E_9(z_{10}) = z_{10}$. That is

$$z_{10} = E_8...E_1(z_1); \quad x_{10} > 0; \quad y_{10} < 3.$$  

The last inequality works just as in Case 1. All points in $R_{10}$ have $y$-coordinate at least $-2$. Hence $y_{10} = \pm 1$. Hence $\chi(z_{10}) = z_{10}$. Putting everything together gives the same result as Case 1.
11.7 Dealing with Four Sharp

In this section we will deal with orbits whose associated sequence has a 4♯ in it, but not a 6♭. The following result is an immediate consequence the intersections discussed above.

**Lemma 11.4** The following holds for all parameters.

\[ \hat{R}_{4} \cap R_{4} = \emptyset; \quad R_{4} \subset \Sigma_{4} - \Sigma_{3}; \quad R_{4} + V_{3} \in \Sigma_{3} - \Sigma_{4}; \quad \hat{R}_{4} \cap R_{8} \subset \Sigma_{1} \cap \Sigma_{2} \cap \Sigma_{3} \]

Let \( z \) be the first point in the forward orbit of \( z_1 \) such that \( z \in R_{4} \). Using Lemma 11.3 and the same analysis as in the previous section, we get

\[ \exists n \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\} \quad z = E_{2}E_{1}(z_1) + nV_{3}, \quad (77) \]

From Lemma 11.3 and Item 1 of Lemma 11.4, the next point in the orbit is

\[ w = z + V_{4} \in R_{5} \cup R_{8}. \quad (78) \]

Items 2 and 3 of Lemma 11.4 give

\[ E_{3}E_{2}E_{1}(z_1) = E_{3}(z) = z + V_{3}; \quad E_{4}E_{3}(z) = z + V_{3} - V_{4}. \]

Figure 11.5 shows what is going on. Since \( V_{3} - V_{4} + V_{5} = V_{4} \),

\[ w = z + V_{4} = z + V_{3} - V_{4} + V_{5} = E_{4}E_{3}(z) + V_{5} = E_{4}E_{3}E_{2}E_{1}(z_1) + V_{5}. \quad (79) \]

The rest of the analysis is as in the previous section. We use Item 4 of Lemma 11.4 as an addendum to Lemma 11.3 in case \( w \in R_{8} \).

---

**Figure 11.5:** The orbit near \( R_{4} \).
11.8 Dealing with Six Flat

Here is another immediate consequence of the intersections listed above.

**Lemma 11.5** The following is true for all parameters.

\[ V\phi \subset \Sigma_2 - \Sigma_1; \quad V\phi + R_5 \subset \Sigma_1 - \Sigma_2; \]
\[ \hat{R}_\phi \cap R_2 \subset \Sigma_3 \cap \Sigma_4 \cap \Sigma_1; \quad \hat{R}_2 \cap R_\phi \subset \Sigma_2 \cap \Sigma_3 \cap \Sigma_4; \]

Let \( z \) be the first point in the forwards orbit of \( z_1 \) such that \( z \in R_\phi \) and let \( w = \psi(z) \). The same arguments as in the previous section give

\[ z = E_4 E_3 E_2 E_1(z_1) + nV_5; \quad w = z + V_\phi \in R_7 \cup R_2. \quad (80) \]

Here \( n \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\} \). (The possibility of \( w \in R_\phi \) is ruled out by Item 1 of Lemma 11.4 and the reflection symmetry.) Items 2 and 3 of Lemma 11.5 give

\[ E_5 E_4 E_3 E_2 E_1(z_1) = E_5(z) = z + V_5; \quad E_6 E_5 E_4 E_3 E_2 E_1(z) = z + V_5 - V_6 \]

Figure 11.6 shows what is going on. Since \( V_5 - V_6 + V_7 = V_\phi \),

\[ w = E_6 E_5 E_4 E_3 E_2 E_1(z) + V_7. \quad (81) \]

The rest of the analysis is as in the previous cases. We use Item 3 of Lemma 11.5 as an *addendum* to Lemma 11.3 in case \( w \in R_2 \).

![Figure 11.6: The orbit near \( R_\phi \).](image-url)
12 The Torus Lemma

12.1 The Main Result

For ease of exposition, we state and prove the (+) halves of our results. The
(−) halves have the same formulation and proof.

Let $T^4 = \tilde{R}/\Lambda$, the 4 dimensional quotient discussed in §10.6. Topologi-
cally, $T^4$ is the product of a 3-torus with $(0, 1)$. Let $(\mu_+)_A$ denote the map
$\mu_+$ as defined for the parameter $A$. We now define $\mu_+ : \Xi_+ \times (0, 1) \to T^4$ by
the obvious formula $\mu_+(p, A) = ((\mu_+_A)(p), A)$. We are just stacking all these
maps together.

The Pinwheel Lemma tells us that $\Psi(p) = \chi \circ E_8...E_1(p)$ whenever both
maps are defined. This map involves the sequence $\Sigma_1, ..., \Sigma_8$ of strips. We
are taking indices mod 4 so that $\Sigma_{j+4} = \Sigma_j$ and $E_{4+j} = E_j$. Let $p \in \Xi_+$. We
set $p_0 = p$ and inductively define

$$p_j = E_j(p_{j-1}) \in \Sigma_j. \quad (82)$$

We also define

$$\theta(p) = \min \theta_j(p); \quad \theta_j(p) = \text{distance}(p_j, \partial \Sigma_j). \quad (83)$$

The quantity $\theta(p)$ depends on the parameter $A$, so we will write $\theta(p, A)$ when
we want to be clear about this.

Lemma 12.1 (Torus) Let $(p, A), (q^*, A^*) \in \Xi_+ \times (0, 1)$. There is some
$\eta > 0$, depending only on $\theta(p, A)$ and $\min(A, 1 - A)$, with the following
property. Suppose that the pinwheel map is defined at $(p, A)$. Suppose also
that $\mu_+(p, A)$ and $\mu_+(q^*, A^*)$ are within $\eta$ of each other. Then the pinwheel
map is defined at $(q^*, A^*)$ and $(\epsilon_1(q^*), \epsilon_2(q^*)) = (\epsilon_1(p), \epsilon_2(p))$.

Remark: My proof of the Torus Lemma owes a big intellectual debt to
many sources. I discovered the Torus Lemma experimentally, but I got some
inspiration for its proof by reading [T2], an account of unpublished work
by Chris Culter about the existence of periodic orbits for polygonal outer
billiards. Culter’s proof is closely related to ideas in [K]. The paper [GS]
implicitly has some of these same ideas, though they are treated from a
different point of view. If all these written sources aren’t enough, I was also
influenced by some conversations with John Smillie.
12.2 Input from the Torus Map

We first prove the Torus Lemma under the assumption that $A = A^\ast$. We set $q = q^\ast$. In this section, we explain the significance of the map $\mu_\ast$. We introduce the quantities

$$\hat{\lambda}_j = \lambda_0 \times ... \times \lambda_j; \quad \lambda_j = \frac{\text{Area}(\Sigma_{j-1} \cap \Sigma_j)}{\text{Area}(\Sigma_j \cap \Sigma_{j+1})}; \quad j = 1, ..., 7. \quad (84)$$

Let $p = (x, \pm 1)$ and $q = (y, \pm 1)$. We have

$$\mu_\ast(q) - \mu_\ast(p) = (t, t, t) \mod \Lambda; \quad t = \frac{y - x}{2}. \quad (85)$$

**Lemma 12.2** If $\text{dist}(\mu_\ast(x), \mu_\ast(y)) < \delta$ in $T^3$, then there is an integer $I_k$ such that $t\hat{\lambda}_k$ is within $\epsilon$ of $I_k$ for all $k$.

**Proof:** We compute

$$\text{Area}(\Sigma_0 \cap \Sigma_1) = 8; \quad \right. \quad \text{Area}(\Sigma_1 \cap \Sigma_2) = \frac{8 + 8A}{1 - A};$$

$$\text{Area}(\Sigma_2 \cap \Sigma_3) = \frac{2(1 + A)^2}{A}; \quad \right. \quad \text{Area}(\Sigma_3 \cap \Sigma_4) = \frac{8 + 8A}{1 - A}. \quad (86)$$

This leads to

$$\hat{\lambda}_0 = \hat{\lambda}_4 = 1; \quad \hat{\lambda}_1 = \hat{\lambda}_3 = \hat{\lambda}_5 = \hat{\lambda}_7 = \frac{1 - A}{1 + A}; \quad \hat{\lambda}_2 = \hat{\lambda}_6 = \frac{4A}{(1 + A)^2}. \quad (87)$$

The matrix

$$H = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{1 + A} & \frac{A - 1}{(1 + A)^2} & \frac{2A}{(1 + A)^2} \\ 0 & \frac{1}{1 + A} & \frac{2A}{1 + A} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (88)$$

conjugates the columns of the matrix defining $\Lambda$ to the standard basis. Therefore, if $\mu_\ast(x)$ and $\mu_\ast(y)$ are close in $T^3$ then $H(t, t, t)$ is close to a point of $\mathbb{Z}^3$. We compute

$$H(t, t, t) = \left(\frac{4A}{(1 + A)^2}, \frac{2}{1 + A}, 1\right)t = (\hat{\lambda}_2, \hat{\lambda}_1 - 1, 1)t. \quad (89)$$

Equations 87 and 89 now finish the proof. ♠
12.3 Pairs of Strips

Suppose \((S_1, S_2, V_2)\) is triple, where \(V_2\) is a vector pointing from one corner of \(S_1 \cap S_2\) to an opposite corner. Let \(p_1 \in S_1\) and \(p_2 = E_2(p_1) \in S_2\). Here \(E_2\) is the strip map associated to \((S_2, V_2)\). We define \(n\) and \(\alpha\) by the equations

\[
p_2 - p_1 = nV_2; \quad \alpha = \frac{\text{area}(B)}{\text{area}(S_1 \cap S_2)}; \quad \sigma_j = \frac{\|p_j - p_j'\|}{\|V_2\|}
\]

All quantities are affine invariant functions of the quintuple \((S_1, S_2, V_2, p_1, p_2)\).

Figure 12.1: Strips and associated objects

Figure 12.1 shows what we call the standard pair of strips, where \(\Sigma_j\) is the strip bounded by the lines \(x_j = 0\) and \(x_j = 1\). To get a better picture of the quantities we have defined, we consider them on the standard pair. We have a

\[
\alpha = p_{11} + p_{12} = p_{21} + p_{22}; \quad \sigma_1 = p_{12}; \quad \sigma_2 = 1 - p_{22}; \quad n = \text{floor}(p_{11}).
\]

Here \(p_{ij}\) is the \(j\)th coordinate of \(p_i\). These equations lead to the following affine invariant relations.

\[
n = \text{floor}(\alpha - \sigma_1); \quad \sigma_2 = 1 - [\alpha_1 - \sigma_1]
\]

Here \([x]\) denotes the fractional part of \(x\). Again, the relations in Equation 92 hold for any pair of strips.

In our next result, we hold \((S_1, S_2, V_2)\) fixed but compare all the quantities for \((p_1, p_2)\) and another pair \((q_1, q_2)\). Let \(n(p) = n(S_1, S_2, V_2, p_1, p_2)\), etc. Also, \(N\) stands for an integer.
Lemma 12.3 Let $\epsilon > 0$. There is some $\delta > 0$ with the following property. If $|\sigma(p_1) - \sigma(q_1)| < \delta$ and $|\alpha(q) - \alpha(p) - N| < \delta$ then $|\sigma(p_2) - \sigma(q_2)| < \epsilon$ and $N = n(q) - n(p)$. The number $\delta$ only depends on $\epsilon$ and the distance from $\sigma(p_1)$ and $\sigma(p_2)$ to $\{0, 1\}$.

Proof: If $\delta$ is small enough then $[\alpha(p) - \sigma(p_1)]$ and $[\alpha(q) - \sigma(q_1)]$ are very close, and relatively far from 0 or 1. Equation 92 now says that $\sigma(p_2)$ and $\sigma(q_2)$ are close. Also, the following two quantities are both near $N$ while the individual summands are all relatively far from integers.

$$\alpha(q) - \alpha(p); \quad (\alpha(q) - \sigma(q_1)) - (\alpha(p) - \sigma(p_1))$$

But the second quantity is near the integer $n(q) - n(p)$, by Equation 92. ♠

Suppose now that $S_1, S_2, S_3$ is a triple of strips, and $V_2, V_3$ is a pair of vectors, such that $(S_1, S_2, V_2)$ and $(S_2, S_3, V_3)$ are as above. Let $p_j \in S_j$ for $j = 1, 2, 3$ be such that $p_2 = E_2(p_1)$ and $p_3 = E_3(p_2)$. Define,

$$\alpha_j = \alpha(S_j, S_{j+1}, V_{j+1}, p_j, p_{j+1}); \quad j = 1, 2; \quad \lambda = \frac{\text{Area}(S_1 \cap S_2)}{\text{Area}(S_2 \cap S_3)}.$$

(93)

It is convenient to set $\sigma_2 = \sigma(p_2)$.

Lemma 12.4 There are constants $C$ and $D$ such that $\alpha_2 = \lambda \alpha_1 + C \sigma_2 + D$. The constants $C$ and $D$ depend on the strips.

Proof: We normalize, as above, so that Equation 91 holds. Then

$$p_2 = (1 - \sigma_2, \alpha_1 + \sigma_2 - 1).$$

(94)

There is a unique orientation preserving affine transformation $T$ such that $T(S_{j+1}) = S_j$ for $j = 1, 2$, and $T$ the line $y = 1$ to the line $x = 0$. Given that $S_1 \cap S_2$ has unit area, we have $\det(T) = \lambda$. Given the description of $T$, we have

$$T(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} a & \lambda \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} (x, y) + (b, 1) = (ax + b + \lambda y, 1 - x).$$

(95)

Here $a$ and $b$ are constants depending on $S_2 \cap S_3$. Setting $q = T(p_2)$, Equation 91 gives $\alpha = q_1 + q_2$. Hence

$$\alpha_2 = a(1 - \sigma_2) + b + \lambda(\alpha_1 + \sigma_2 - 1) + \sigma_2 = \lambda \alpha_1 + C \sigma_2 + D.$$

(96)

This completes the proof. ♠
12.4 Single Parameter Proof

We are still working under the assumption, in the Torus Lemma, that $A = A^*$. Our main argument relies on the Equation 68, which gives a formula for the return pairs in terms of the strip maps. We define the point $q_j$ relative to $q_j$ just as we defined $p_j$ relative to $p$.

We would like to apply Lemmas 12.2, 12.3, and 12.4 inductively. One inconvenience is that $p_0$ and $q_0$ do not lie in any of our strips. To remedy this situation we start with the two points

$$\hat{p}_0 = E_0(p_0); \quad \hat{q}_0 = E_0(q_0).$$

We have $\hat{p}_0, \hat{q}_0 \in \Sigma_0$. Let $t$ be the near-integer from Lemma 12.2. Looking at Figure 12.4, we see that $|\sigma(\hat{q}_0) - \sigma(\hat{p}_0)|$ tends to 0 as $\eta$ tends to 0.

We define

$$\alpha_k(p) = \alpha(\Sigma_k, \Sigma_{k+1}, V_{k+1}, p_k, p_{k+1})$$

Figure 12.2: The points $\hat{p}_0$ and $\hat{q}_0$. 

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It is also convenient to write
\[ \sigma_k(p) = \sigma(p_k); \quad \Delta \sigma_k = \sigma_k(q) - \sigma_k(p). \]  
(99)

For \( k = 0 \), we use \( \hat{p}_0 \) in place of \( p_0 \) and \( \hat{q}_0 \) in place of \( q_0 \) for these formulas.

**Lemma 12.5** As \( \eta \to 0 \), the pairwise differences between the 3 quantities
\[ \alpha_k(q) - \alpha_k(p); \quad n_k(q) - n_k(p); \quad t\hat{\lambda}_k \]
converge to 0 for all \( k \).

**Proof:** Referring to Figure 12.2, we have
\[
\text{Area}(\Sigma_0 \cap \Sigma_1) = 8; \quad \text{Area}(B(\hat{p}_0)) - \text{Area}(B(\hat{q}_0)) = 4y - 4x.
\]
This gives us \( \alpha_0(q) - \alpha_0(p) = t \). Applying Lemma 12.4 inductively, we find that
\[ \alpha_k = \alpha_0 \hat{\lambda}_k + \sum_{i=1}^{k} \xi_i \sigma_i + C_k. \]  
(100)
for constants \( \xi_1, ..., \xi_k \) and \( C_k \) that depend analytically on \( A \). Therefore
\[ \alpha_k(q) - \alpha_k(p) = t\hat{\lambda}_k + \sum_{i=1}^{k} \xi_i \Delta \sigma_i; \quad k = 1, ..., 7 \]  
(101)
By Lemma 12.2, the term \( t\lambda_k \) is near an integer for all \( k \). By Lemma 12.3 and induction, the remaining terms on the right hand side are near 0. This lemma now follows from Lemma 12.3. ♠

Combining our last result with Equation 87, we see that
\[ n_1(q) - n_1(p) = n_3(q) - n_3(p) = n_5(q) - n_5(p) = n_7(q) - n_7(p); \]
\[ n_2(q) - n_2(p) = n_6(q) - n_6(p). \]  
(102)
once \( \eta \) is small enough. Given the dependence of constants in Lemma 12.3, the necessary bound on \( \eta \) only depends on \( \min(A, 1 - A) \) and \( \theta(p) \). Equation 68 now tells us that \( \epsilon_j(p) = \epsilon_j(q) \) for \( j = 1, 2 \) once \( \eta \) is small enough.

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12.5 A Generalization of Lemma 12.3

Now we turn to the proof of the Torus Lemma in the general case. Our first result is the key step that allows us to handle pairs of distinct parameters. Once we set up the notation, the proof is almost trivial. Our second result is a variant that will be useful in the next chapter.

Suppose that \((S_1, S_2, V_2, p_1, p_2)\) and \((S_1^*, S_2^*, V_2^*, q_1^*, q_2^*)\) are two quintuples. To fix the picture in our minds we imagine that \((S_1, S_2, V_2)\) is near \((S_1^*, S_2^*, V_2^*)\), though this is not necessary for the proof of the result to follow. We can define the quantities \(\alpha, \rho_j, n\) for each of these quintuples. We put a \((\ast)\) by each quantity associated to the second triple.

**Lemma 12.6** Let \(\epsilon > 0\). There is some \(\delta > 0\) with the following property. If \(|\sigma(p_1) - \sigma(q_1^*)| < \delta\) and \(|\alpha(q^*) - \alpha(p) - N| < \delta\) then \(|\sigma(p_2) - \sigma(q_2^*)| < \epsilon\) and \(N = n(q^*) - n(p)\). The number \(\delta\) only depends on \(\epsilon\) and the distance from \(\sigma(p_1)\) and \(\sigma(p_2)\) to \(\{0, 1\}\).

**Proof:** There is an affine transformation such that \(T(X^*) = X\) for each object \(X = S_1, S_2, V_2\). We set \(q_j = T(q_j^*)\). Then \(\alpha(q_j^*) = \alpha(q_j)\), by affine invariance. Likewise for the other quantities. Now we apply Lemma 12.3 to the triple \((S_1, S_2, V_2)\) and the pairs \((p_1, p_2)\) and \((q_1, q_2)\). The conclusion involves quantities with no \((\ast)\), but returning the \((\ast)\) does not change any of the quantities. ♠

For use in the next chapter, we state a variant of Lemma 12.6. Let \([x]\) denote the image of \(x \in R/Z\).

**Lemma 12.7** Let \(\epsilon > 0\). There is some \(\delta > 0\) with the following property. If \(|\sigma(p_1) - \sigma(q_1^*)| < \delta\) and \(|\alpha(q^*) - \alpha(p) - N| < \delta\) then the distance from \([\sigma(p_2)]\) and \([\sigma(q_2)]\) in \(R/Z\) is less than \(\epsilon\). \(|\sigma(p_2) - \sigma(q_2^*)| < \epsilon\) and \(N = n(q^*) - n(p)\). The number \(\delta\) only depends on \(\epsilon\) and the distance from \(\sigma(p_1)\) to \(\{0, 1\}\).

**Proof:** Using the same trick as in Lemma 12.3, we reduce to the single variable case. In this case, we mainly repeat the proof of Lemma 12.3. If \(\delta\) is small enough then \(|\alpha(p) - \sigma(p_1)|\) and \(|\alpha(q) - \sigma(q_1)|\) are very close, and relatively far from 0 or 1. Equation 92 now says that \([\sigma(p_2)]\) and \([\sigma(q_2)]\) are close in \(R/Z\). ♠

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12.6 Proof in the General Case

We no longer suppose that $A = A^*$, and we return to the original notation $(q^*, A^*)$ for the second point. In our proof of this result, we attach a $(\ast)$ to any quantity that depends on $(q^*, A^*)$. We first need to repeat the analysis from §12.2, this time keeping track of the parameter. Let $\eta$ be as in the Torus Lemma. We use the big $O$ notation.

**Lemma 12.8** There is an integer $I_k$ such that $|\alpha_k^* \lambda_k^* - \alpha_0 \lambda_k - I_k| < O(\eta)$.

**Proof:** Let $[V]$ denote the distance from $V \in \mathbb{R}^3$ to the nearest point in $\mathbb{Z}^3$. Let $p = (x, \pm 1)$ and $q^* = (x^*, \pm 1)$. Recalling the definition of $\mu_+$, the hypotheses in the Torus Lemma imply that

$$\left[ H^*\left(\frac{x^*}{2}, \frac{x^*}{2} + 1, \frac{x^*}{2}\right) - H\left(\frac{x}{2}, \frac{x}{2} + 1, \frac{x}{2}\right) \right] < O(\eta) \tag{103}$$

We compute that $\alpha_0 = x/2 + 1/2$, independent of parameter. Therefore

$$H\left(\frac{x}{2}, \frac{x}{2} + 1, \frac{x}{2}\right) = H(\alpha_0, \alpha_0, \alpha_0) + \frac{1}{2} H(-1, 1, -1).$$

The same goes with the starred quantities. Therefore,

$$[ (\hat{\lambda}_2^*, \hat{\lambda}_1^*) - 1, 1) \alpha_0^* - (\hat{\lambda}_2, \hat{\lambda}_1 - 1, 1)\alpha_0 ] =$$

$$[ H^*(\alpha_0^*, \alpha_0^*, \alpha_0^*) - H(\alpha_0, \alpha_0, \alpha_0) ] < O(\eta) + \|(H^* - H)(-1, 1, -1)\| < O(\eta).$$

Our lemma now follows immediately from Equation 87. ♠

The integer $I_k$ of course depends on $(p, A)$ and $(q^*, A^*)$, but in all cases Equation 87 gives us

$$I_0 = I_4; \quad I_1 = I_3 = I_5 = I_7; \quad I_2 = I_6, \tag{104}$$

**Lemma 12.9** As $\eta \to 0$, the pairwise differences between the 3 quantities $\alpha_k^* - \alpha_k$ and $n_k^* - n_k$ and $I_k$ tends to 0 for all $k$.

**Proof:** Here $\alpha_k^*$ stands for $\alpha_k(q^*)$, etc. Equation 100 works separately for each parameter. The replacement for Equation 101 is

$$\alpha_k^* - \alpha_k = W + X + Y; \quad W = \alpha_0^* \lambda_k^* - \alpha_0 \lambda_k \tag{105}$$
\[ X = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \xi_i^* \sigma_i^*(q^*) - \sum_{i=1}^{k} \xi_i \sigma_i(p) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \xi_i (\sigma^*_i - \sigma_i) + O(|A - A^*|); \quad (106) \]

\[ Y = \sum_{i=1}^{k} C^*_i - \sum_{i=1}^{k} C_i = O(|A - A^*|). \quad (107) \]

The estimates on \( X \) and \( Y \) come from the fact \( \xi_i \) and \( C_i \) vary smoothly with \( A \). Putting everything together, we get the following.

\[ \alpha_k^* - \alpha_k = \left( \alpha_0^* \lambda_k^* - \alpha_0 \lambda_k \right) + \sum_{i=1}^{k} \xi_i (\sigma_i^* - \sigma_i) + O(|A - A^*|). \quad (108) \]

In light of Lemma 12.8, it suffices to show that \( \sigma_i^* - \sigma_i \) tends to 0 as \( \eta \) tends to 0. The same argument as in the single parameter case works here, with Lemma 12.6 used in place of Lemma 12.3. ♠

Similar to the single parameter case, Equations 68 and 104 now finish the proof.
13 The Strip Functions

13.1 The Main Result

The purpose of this chapter is to understand the functions $\sigma_j$ that arose in the proof of the Master Picture Theorem. We call these functions the strip functions.

Let $W_k \subset \Xi_+ \times (0, 1)$ denote the set of points where $E_k \ldots E_1$ is defined but $E_{k+1}E_k \ldots E_1$ is not defined. Let $S_k$ denote the closure of $\mu_+(W_k)$ in $R$. Finally, let

$$W'_k = \bigcup_{j=0}^{k-1} W_j; \quad S'_k = \bigcup_{j=0}^{k-1} S_j; \quad k = 1, \ldots, 7.$$ (109)

The Torus Lemma applies to any point that does not lie in the singular set

$$S = S_0 \cup \ldots \cup S_7.$$ (110)

If $p \in \Xi_+ - W'_k$ then the points $p = p_0, \ldots, p_k$ are defined. Here, as in the previous chapter, $p_j = E_j(p_{j-1})$. The functions $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_k$ and $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_k$ are defined for such a choice of $p$. Again, $\sigma_j$ measures the position of $p_j$ in $\Sigma_j$, relative to $\partial \Sigma_j$. Even if $E_{k+1}$ is not defined on $p_k$, the equivalence class $[p_{k+1}]$ is well defined in the cylinder $R^2/(V_{k+1})$. The corresponding function $\sigma_{k+1}(q) = \sigma(q_{k+1})$ is well defined as an element of $R/Z$.

Let $\pi_j : R^4 \to R$ be the $j$th coordinate projection. Let $[x]$ denote the image of $x$ in $R/Z$. The following identities refer to the $(+)\ case. We discuss the $(-)\ case at the end of the chapter.

$$\sigma_1 = \left[\frac{2 - \pi_3}{2}\right] \circ \mu_+ \quad \text{on } \Xi_+$$ (111)

$$\sigma_2 = \left[\frac{1 + A - \pi_2}{1 + A}\right] \circ \mu_+ \quad \text{on } \Xi_+ - W'_1$$ (112)

$$\sigma_3 = \left[\frac{1 + A - \pi_1}{1 + A}\right] \circ \mu_+ \quad \text{on } \Xi_+ - W'_2$$ (113)

$$\sigma_4 = \left[\frac{1 + A - \pi_1 - \pi_2 + \pi_3}{2}\right] \circ \mu_+ \quad \text{on } \Xi_+ - W'_3$$ (114)

In the next chapter we deduce the Master Picture Theorem from these identities and the Torus Lemma. In this chapter, we prove the identities.
13.2 Continuous Extension

Let \( g = \sigma_j \) for \( j = 0, ..., k + 1 \). Since the image \( \mu_+(\Xi \times (0,1)) \) is dense in \( R - S'_k \), we define

\[
\bar{g}(\tau) := \lim_{n \to \infty} g(p_n, A_n); \quad \tau \in R - S'_k. \tag{115}
\]

Here \((p_n, A_n)\) is chosen so that all functions are defined and \( \mu_+(p_n, A_n) \to \tau \). Note that the sequence \( \{p_n\} \) need not converge.

**Lemma 13.1** The functions \( \bar{\sigma}_1, ..., \bar{\sigma}_{k+1} \), considered as \( \mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Z} \)-valued functions, are well defined and continuous on \( R - S'_k \).

**Proof:** For the sake of concreteness, we will give the proof in the case \( k = 2 \). This representative case explains the idea. First of all, the continuity follows from the well-definedness. We just have to show that the limit above is always well defined. \( \bar{\sigma}_1 \) is well defined and continuous on all of \( R \), by Equation 111.

Since \( S'_1 \subset S'_2 \), we see that \( \tau \in R - S'_1 \). Hence \( \tau \) does not lie in the closure of \( \mu_+({W}_0) \). Hence, there is some \( \theta_1 > 0 \) such that \( \theta_1(p_n, A_n) > \theta_1 \) for all sufficiently large \( n \). Note also that there is a positive and uniform lower bound to \( \min(A_n, 1 - A_n) \). Note that \( [\alpha_1(p_n, A_n)] = [\pi_3(\mu_+(p_n, A_n))] \). Hence \( \{[\alpha_1(p_n, A_n)]\} \) is a Cauchy sequence in \( \mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Z} \).

Lemma 12.7 now applies uniformly to

\[(p, A) = (p_m, A_m); \quad (q^*, A^*) = (p_n, A_n)\]

for all sufficiently large pairs \((m, n)\). Since \( \{\mu_+(p_n, A_n)\} \) forms a Cauchy sequence in \( R \), Lemma 12.7 implies that \( \{\sigma_2(\tau_m, A_m)\} \) forms a Cauchy sequence in \( \mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Z} \). Hence, \( \bar{\sigma}_2 \) is well defined on \( R - S'_1 \), and continuous.

Since \( \tau \in R - S'_1 \), we see that \( \tau \) does not lie in the closure of \( \mu_+({W}_1) \). Hence, there is some \( \theta_2 > 0 \) such that \( \theta_2(p_n, A_n) > \theta_2 \) for \( j = 1, 2 \) and all sufficiently large \( n \). As in our proof of the General Torus Lemma, Equation 108 now says that shows that \( \{\alpha_2(p_n, A_n)\} \) forms a Cauchy sequence in \( \mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Z} \). We now repeat the previous argument to see that \( \{\sigma_3(\tau_m, A_m)\} \) forms a Cauchy sequence in \( \mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Z} \). Hence, \( \bar{\sigma}_3 \) is well defined on \( R - S'_2 \), and continuous. ♠

Implicit in our proof above is the function

\[
\beta_k = [\alpha_k] \in \mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Z}. \tag{116}
\]

This function will come in handy in our next result.
13.3 Quality of the Extension

Let $X = R - \partial R \subset \mathbb{R}^4$. Note that $X$ is open and convex.

**Lemma 13.2** Suppose $X \subset R - S'_k$. Then $\tilde{\sigma}_{k+1}$ is locally affine on $X_A$.

**Proof:** Since $\tilde{\sigma}_{k+1}$ is continuous on $X$, it suffices to prove this lemma for a dense set of $A$. We can choose $A$ so that $\mu_+(\Xi_+)$ is dense in $X_A$.

We already know that $\tilde{\sigma}_1, ..., \tilde{\sigma}_{k+1}$ are all defined and continuous on $X$. We already remarked that Equation 111 is true by direct inspection. As we already remarked in the previous proof, $\tilde{\beta}_0 = \pi_3 \circ \mu_+$. Thus, we define $\tilde{\beta}_0 = [\pi_3]$. Let $\tilde{\beta}_0 = [\pi_3]$. Both $\tilde{\sigma}_0$ and $\tilde{\beta}_0$ are locally affine on $X_A$.

Let $m \leq k$. The second half of Equation 92 tells us that $\tilde{\sigma}_m$ is a locally affine function of $\tilde{\sigma}_{m-1}$ and $\tilde{\beta}_{m-1}$. Below we will prove that $\tilde{\beta}_m$ is defined on $X_A$, and locally affine, provided that $\tilde{\sigma}_1, ..., \tilde{\sigma}_m$ are locally affine. Our lemma follows from this claim and induction.

Now we prove the claim. All the addition below is done in $\mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Z}$. Since $\mu_+(\Xi_+)$ is dense in $X_A$, we can at least define $\tilde{\beta}_m$ on a dense subset of $X_A$.

Define

$$ p = (x, \pm 1); \quad p' = (x', \pm 1); \quad \tau = \mu_+(p); \quad \tau' = \mu_+(p'); \quad t = \frac{x' - x}{2}. $$

We choose $p$ and $p'$ so that the pinwheel map is entirely defined.

From Equation 101, we have

$$ \tilde{\beta}_m(\tau') - \tilde{\beta}_m(\tau) = [t\hat{\lambda}_k] + \sum_{j=1}^{m}[\xi_j \times (\tilde{\sigma}_j(\tau') - \tilde{\sigma}_j(\tau))]. $$

(118)

Here $\xi_1, ..., \xi_m$ are constants that depend on $A$. Let $H$ be the matrix in Equation 88. We have $H(t, t, t) \equiv H(\tau' - \tau) \pmod{\mathbb{Z}^3}$ because $(t, t, t) \equiv \tau' - \tau \pmod{\Lambda}$. Our analysis in §12.2 shows that

$$ [t\hat{\lambda}_k] = [\pi \circ H(t, t, t) - \epsilon t] = [(\pi - \epsilon \pi_3) \circ H(\tau' - \tau)]. $$

(119)

Here $\epsilon \in \{0, 1\}$ and $\pi$ is some coordinate projection. The choice of $\epsilon$ and $\pi$ depends on $k$. We now see that

$$ \tilde{\beta}_m(\tau') = \tilde{\beta}_m(\tau) + (\pi + \epsilon_3 \pi) \circ H(\tau' - \tau) + \sum_{j=1}^{m}[\xi_j \times (\tilde{\sigma}_j(\tau') - \tilde{\sigma}_j(\tau))]. $$

(120)

The right hand side is everywhere defined and locally affine. Hence, we define $\tilde{\beta}_m$ on all of $X_A$ using the right hand side of the last equation. ♠
Lemma 13.3 Suppose $X \subset R - S'_k$. Then $\sigma_{k+1}$ is analytic on $X$.

Proof: The constants $\xi_j$ in Equation 118 vary analytically with $A$. Our argument in Lemma 13.2 therefore shows that the linear part of $\sigma_{k+1}$ varies analytically with $A$. We just have to check the linear term. Since $X_A$ is connected we can compute the linear term of $\sigma_{k+1}$ at $A$ from a single point. We choose $p = (\epsilon, 1)$ where $\epsilon$ is very close to 0. The fact that $A \rightarrow \sigma_k(p, A)$ varies analytically follows from the fact that our strips vary analytically. ♠

Remark: We have $S_k \subset \tilde{\sigma}_{k+1}^{-1}([0])$. Given Equation 111, we see that $X \subset R - S'_1$. Hence $\sigma_2$ is defined on $X$. Hence $\sigma_2$ is analytic on $X$ and locally affine on each $X_A$. We use these two properties to show that Equation 112 is true. But then $X \subset R - S'_2$, etc. So, we will know at each stage of our verification that Lemmas 13.2 and 13.3 apply to the function of interest.

Equations 112, 113, and 114 are formulas for $\tilde{\sigma}_2, \tilde{\sigma}_3,$ and $\tilde{\sigma}_4$ respectively. Let $f_{k+1} = \tilde{\sigma}_{k+1} - \sigma'_{k+1}$, where $k = 2, 3, 4$. Here $\sigma'_{k+1}$ is the right hand side of the identity for $\tilde{\sigma}_{k+1}$. Our goal is to show that $f_{k+1} \equiv [0]$ for $k = 1, 2, 3$. Call a parameter $A$ good if $f_{k+1} \equiv [0]$ on $X_A$. Call a subset $S \subset (0, 1)$ substantial if $S$ is dense in some open interval of $(0, 1)$. By analyticity, $f_{k+1} \equiv [0]$ provided that a substantial set of parameters is good.

In the next section we explain how to verify that a parameter is good. If $f_{k+1}$ was a locally affine map from $X_A$ into $R$, we would just need to check that $f_{k+1} = 0$ on some tetrahedron on $X_A$ to verify that $A$ is a good parameter. Since the range of $f_{k+1}$ is $R/Z$, we have to work a bit harder.

13.4 Irrational Quintuples

We will give a construction in $R^3$. When the time comes to use the construction, we will identify $X_A$ as an open subset of a copy of $R^3$.

Let $\zeta_1, ..., \zeta_5 \in R^3$ be 5 points. By taking these points 4 at a time, we can compute 5 volumes, $v_1, ..., v_5$. Here $v_j$ is the volume of the tetrahedron obtained by omitting the $j$th point. We say that $(\zeta_1, ..., \zeta_5)$ is an irrational quintuple if the there is no rational relation

$$\sum_{i=1}^{5} c_j \zeta_j = 0; \quad c_j \in Q; \quad c_1c_2c_3c_4c_5 = 0. \quad (121)$$

If we allow all the constants to be nonzero, then there is always a relation.
Lemma 13.4 Let $C$ be an open convex subset of $\mathbb{R}^3$. Let $f : C \to \mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Z}$ be a locally affine function. Suppose that there is an irrational $(\zeta_1, \ldots, \zeta_5)$ such that $\zeta_j \in C$ and $f(\zeta_j)$ is the same for all $j$. Then $f$ is constant on $C$.

**Proof:** Since $C$ is simply connected, we can lift $f$ to a locally affine function $F : C \to \mathbb{R}$. But then $F$ is affine on $C$, and we can extend $F$ to be an affine map from $\mathbb{R}^3$ to $\mathbb{R}$. By construction $F(\zeta_i) - F(\zeta_j) \in \mathbb{Z}$ for all $i, j$. Adding a constant to $F$, we can assume that $F$ is linear. There are several cases.

**Case 1:** Suppose that $F(\zeta_j)$ is independent of $j$. In this case, all the points lie in the same plane, and all volumes are zero. This violates the irrationality condition.

**Case 2:** Suppose we are not in Case 1, and the following is true. For every index $j$ there is a second index $k$ such that $F(\zeta_k) = F(\zeta_j)$. Since there are 5 points total, this means that the set $\{F(\zeta_j)\}$ only has a total of 2 values. But this means that our 5 points lie in a pair of parallel planes, $\Pi_1 \cup \Pi_2$, with 2 points in $\Pi_1$ and 3 points in $\Pi_2$. Let’s say that that $\zeta_1, \zeta_2, \zeta_3 \in \Pi_1$ and $\zeta_4, \zeta_5 \in \Pi_2$. But then $v_4 = v_5$, and we violate the irrationality condition.

**Case 3:** If we are not in the above two cases, then we can relabel so that $F(\zeta_1) \neq F(\zeta_j)$ for $j = 2, 3, 4, 5$. Let

$$\zeta'_j = \zeta_j - \zeta_1.$$ 

Then $\zeta'_1 = (0, 0, 0)$ and $F(\zeta'_1) = 0$. But then $F(\zeta'_j) \in \mathbb{Z} - \{0\}$ for $j = 2, 3, 4, 5$. Note that $v'_j = v_j$ for all $j$. For $j = 2, 3, 4, 5$, let

$$\zeta''_j = \frac{\zeta'_j}{F(\zeta'_j)}.$$ 

Then $v''_j/v'_j \in \mathbb{Q}$ for $j = 2, 3, 4, 5$. Note that $F(\zeta''_j) = 1$ for $j = 2, 3, 4, 5$. Hence there is a plane $\Pi$ such that $\zeta''_j \in \Pi$ for $j = 2, 3, 4, 5$.

There is always a rational relation between the areas of the 4 triangles defined by 4 points in the plane. Hence, there is a rational relation between $v''_2, v''_3, v''_4, v''_5$. But then there is a rational relation between $v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5$. This contradicts the irrationality condition. ♠

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13.5 Verification in the Plus Case

Proceeding somewhat at random, we define

\[ \phi_j = \left( \frac{8jA + 1}{2j}, 1 \right); \quad j = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5. \]  

(122)

We check that \( \phi_j \in \Xi_+ \) for \( A \) near \( 1/2 \). Letting \( \zeta_j = \mu_+(\phi_j) \), we check that \( f_{k+1}(\zeta_j) = [0] \) for \( j = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 \).

Example Calculation: Here is an example of what we do automatically in Mathematica. Consider the case \( k = 1 \) and \( j = 1 \). When \( A = 1/2 \), the length spectrum for \( \phi_1 \) starts out \((1, 1, 2, 1)\). Hence, this remains true for nearby \( A \). Knowing the length spectrum allows us to compute, for instance, that

\[ E_2E_1(\phi_1) = \phi_1 + V_1 + V_2 = \left( -\frac{3}{2} + 8A, 7 \right) \in \Sigma_2 \]

for \( A \) near \( 1/2 \). The affine functional

\[ (x, y) \rightarrow (x, y, 1) \cdot \frac{(-1, A, A)}{2 + 2A} \]  

(123)

takes on the value 0 on the line \( x = Ay + A \) and 1 on the line \( x = Ay - 2 - A \). These are the two edges of \( \Sigma_2 \). (See §15.1.) Therefore,

\[ \sigma_2(\phi_1) = \left( -\frac{3}{2} + 8A, 7, 1 \right) \cdot \frac{(-1, A, A)}{2 + 2A} = \frac{3}{4 + 4A}. \]

At the same time, we compute that

\[ \mu_+(\phi_1) = \frac{1}{4}(-7 + 24A, 1 + 4A, -7 + 16A), \]

at least for \( A \) near \( 1/2 \). When \( A \) is far from \( 1/2 \) this point will not lie in \( R_A \). We then compute

\[ \frac{1 + A - \pi_2(\mu_+(\phi_1))}{1 + A} = \frac{3}{4 + 4A}. \]

This shows that \( f_2(\zeta_2) = [0] \) for all \( A \) near \( 1/2 \). The verifications for the other pairs \((k, j)\) are similar.

Checking Irrationality: It only remains to check that the points \((\zeta_1, ..., \zeta_5)\) form an irrational quintuple for a dense set of parameters \( A \). In fact this will true in the complement of a countable set of parameters.

The 5 volumes associated to our quintuple are as follows.
\begin{itemize}
\item \( v_5 = 5/24 - 5A/12 + 5A^2/24. \)
\item \( v_4 = 71/40 + 19A/20 - 787A^2/120 - 4A^3. \)
\item \( v_3 = 119/60 + 7A/60 - 89A^2/15 - 4A^3. \)
\item \( v_2 = -451/240 - 13A/40 + 1349A^2/240 + 4A^3. \)
\item \( v_1 = -167/80 - 13A/40 + 533A^2/80 + 4A^3. \)
\end{itemize}

If there is an open set of parameters for which the first 4 of these volumes has a rational relation, then there is an infinite set on which the same rational relation holds. Since every formula in sight is algebraic, this means that there must be a single rational relation that holds for all parameters. But then the curve \( A \rightarrow (v_5, v_4, v_3, v_2) \) lies in a proper linear subspace of \( R^4 \).

We evaluate this curve at \( A = 1, 2, 3, 4 \) and see that the resulting points are linearly independent in \( R^4 \). Hence, there is no global rational relation. Hence, on a dense set of parameters, there is no rational relation between the first 4 volumes listed. A similar argument rules out rational relations amongst any other 4-tuple of these volumes.

### 13.6 The Minus Case

In the \((-)\) case, Equations 112 and 113 do not change, except that \( \mu_- \) replaces \( \mu_+ \) and all the sets are defined relative to \( \Xi_- \) and \( \mu_- \). Equations 111 and 114 become

\[
\sigma_1 = \left[ \frac{1 - \pi_3}{2} \right] \circ \mu_- \quad \text{on } \Xi_-.
\]

\[
\sigma_4 = \left[ \frac{A - \pi_1 - \pi_2 + \pi_3}{2} \right] \circ \mu_- \quad \text{on } \Xi_- - S'_3.
\]

Lemma 13.2 and Lemma 13.3 have the same proof in the \((-)\) case. We use the same method as above, except that we use the points

\[
\phi_j + (2, 0); \quad j = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5.
\]

These points all lie in \( \Xi_- \) for \( A \) near 1/2. The rest of the verification is essentially the same as in the \((+)\) case.
14 Proof of the Master Picture Theorem

14.1 The Main Argument

Let $S$ be the singular set defined in Equation 110. Let $\tilde{S}$ denote the union of hyperplanes listed in §10.2. Let $d$ denote distance on the polytope $R$. In this chapter we will prove

Lemma 14.1 (Hyperplane) $S \subset \tilde{S}$ and $\theta(p, A) \geq d(\mu_+(p, A), \tilde{S})$.

We finish the proof of the Master Picture Theorem assuming the Hyperplane Lemma.

Say that a ball of constancy in $R - \tilde{S}$ is an open ball $B$ with the following property. If $(p_0, A_0)$ and $(p_1, A_1)$ are two pairs and $\mu_+(p_j, A_k) \in B$ for $j = 0, 1$, then $(p_0, A_0)$ and $(p_1, A_1)$ have the same return pair. Here is a consequence of the Torus Lemma.

Corollary 14.2 Any point $\tau$ of $R - \tilde{S}$ is contained in a ball of constancy.

Proof: If $\tau$ is in the image of $\mu_+$, this result is an immediate consequence of the Torus Lemma. In general, the image $\mu_+(\Xi_+ \times (0, 1))$ is dense in $R$. Hence, we can find a sequence $\{\tau_n\}$ such that $\tau_n \to \tau$ and $\tau_n = \mu_+(p_n, A_n)$. Let $2\theta_0 > 0$ be the distance from $\tau$ to $S$. From the triangle inequality and the second statement of the Hyperplane Lemma, $\theta(p_n, A_n) \geq \theta_0 = \theta_1 > 0$ for large $n$. By the Torus Lemma, $\tau_n$ is the center of a ball $B_n$ of constancy whose radius depends only on $\theta_0$. In particular – and this is really all that matters in our proof – the radius of $B_n$ does not tend to 0. Hence, for $n$ large enough, $\tau$ itself is contained in $B_n$. ♠

Lemma 14.3 Let $(p_0, A_0)$ and $(p_1, A_1)$ be two points of $\Xi_+ \times (0, 1)$ such that $\mu_+(p_0, A_0)$ and $\mu_+(p_1, A_1)$ lie in the same path connected component of $R - \tilde{S}$. Then the return pair for $(p_0, A_0)$ equals the return pair for $(p_1, A_1)$.

Proof: Let $L \subset R - \tilde{S}$ be a path joining points $\tau_0 = \mu_+(p_0, A_0)$ and $\tau_1 = \mu_+(p_1, A_1)$. By compactness, we can cover $L$ by finitely many overlapping balls of constancy. ♠
Now we just need to see that the Master Picture Theorem holds for one component of the partition of $R - \tilde{S}$. Here is an example calculation that does the job. For each $\alpha = j/16$ for $j = 1, \ldots, 15$, we plot the image

$$\mu_A(2\alpha + 2n); \quad n = 1, \ldots, 2^{15}, \quad (127)$$

The image is contained in the slice $z = \alpha$. We see that the Master Picture Theorem holds for all these points. The reader can use Billiard King to plot and inspect millions of points for any desired parameter.

We have really only proved the half of the Master Picture Theorem that deals with $\Xi_+$ and $\mu_+$. The half that deals with $\Xi_-$ and $\mu_-$ is exactly the same. In particular, both the Torus Lemma and the Hyperplane Lemma hold verbatim in the $(-)$ case. The proof of the Hyperplane Lemma in the $(-)$ case differs only in that the two identities in Equation 124 replace Equations 111 and 114. We omit the details in the $(-)$ case.

14.2 The First Four Singular Sets

Our strip function identities make short work of the first four pieces of the singular set.

- Given Equation 111,

$$S_0 \subset \{z = 0\} \cup \{z = 1\}. \quad (128)$$

- Given Equation 112,

$$S_1 \subset \{y = 0\} \cup \{y = 1 + A\}. \quad (129)$$

- Given Equation 113,

$$S_2 \subset \{x = 0\} \cup \{x = 1 + A\}. \quad (130)$$

- Given Equation 114,

$$S_3 \subset \{x + y - z = 1 + A\} \cup \{x + y - z = -1 + A\}. \quad (131)$$
14.3 Symmetry

We use symmetry to deal with the remaining pieces. Suppose we start with a point \( p \in \Xi_+ \). We define \( p_0 = p \) and \( p_j = E_j(p) \). As we go along in our analysis, these points will be defined for increasingly large values of \( j \). However, for the purposes of illustration, we assume that all points are defined.

Let \( \rho \) denote reflection in the \( x \)-axis. Then

\[
\rho(\Sigma_9 - j) = \Sigma_j; \quad q_j = \rho(p_{9-j}); \quad j = 1, 2, 3, 4.
\] (132)

Figure 14.1 shows a picture. The disk in the center is included for artistic purposes, to cover up some messy intersections. In the picture, we have included the coordinates for the vectors \( -V_1 \) and \( -V_2 \) and \( -V_2 \) to remind the reader of their values. It is convenient to write \( -V_k \) rather than \( V_k \) because there are far fewer minus signs involved.

Here is a notion we will use in our estimates. Say that a strip \( \Sigma \) dominates a vector \( V \) if we can translate \( V \) so that it is contained in the interior of the strip. This is equivalent to the condition that we can translate \( V \) so that one endpoint of \( V \) lies on \( \partial \Sigma \) and the other one lies in the interior.
14.4 The Remaining Pieces

14.4.1 The set $S_4$

Suppose $p \in W_4$. Then $p_5$ and $q_4$ are defined and $q_4 \in \partial \Sigma_4$. Given that $V_5 = (0, -4)$ and the $y$-coordinates of all our points are odd integers, we have $p_4 - q_4 = (0, 2) + k(0,4)$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Given that $\Sigma_4$ dominates $p_4 - q_4$ we have $k \in \{-1, 0\}$. If $p_5 \in \partial \Sigma_5$ then $q_4 \in \partial \Sigma_4$. Any vertical line intersects $\Sigma_4$ in a segment of length 4. From this we see that $p_4$ lies on the centerline of $\Sigma_4$. That is, $\sigma_4(p) = 1/2$. Given Equation 114, we get

$$S_4 \subset \{x + y - z = A\} \cup \{x + y - z = 2 + A\}.$$ 

14.4.2 The Set $S_5$

Suppose that $p \in W_5$. Then $p_6$ and $q_3$ are defined, and $q_3 \in \partial \Sigma_3$. Given that $V_6 = -V_4 = (-2, 2)$, we see that

$$p_3 - q_3 = \epsilon(0, 2) + k(2,2); \quad \epsilon \in \{-1,1\}; \quad k \in \mathbb{Z}.$$ 

The criterion that $\Sigma_3$ dominates a vector $(x,y)$ is that $|x + Ay| < 2 + 2A$.

$\Sigma_3$ dominates the vector $q_3 - p_3$. If $\epsilon = 1$ then $|2k + 2 + 2Ak| < 2 + 2A$, forces $k \in \{-1, 0\}$. If $\epsilon = -1$, then the condition $|2k - 2 + 2Ak| < 2 + 2A$ forces $k \in \{0, 1\}$. Hence $p_3 - q_3$ is one of the vectors $(\pm 2, 0)$ or $(0, \pm 2)$. Now we have a case-by-case analysis.

Suppose that $q_3$ lies in the right boundary of $\Sigma_3$. Then we have either $p_3 = q_3 - (2, 0)$ or $p_3 = q_3 + (0, 2)$. Any horizontal line intersects $\Sigma_3$ in a strip of width $2 + 2A$. So, $\sigma_3(p)$ equals either $1/(1 + A)$ or $A/(1 + A)$ depending on whether or not $p_3 = q_3 - (2, 0)$ or $p_3 = q_3 + (0, 2)$. A similar analysis reveals the same two values when $q_3$ lies on the left boundary of $\Sigma_3$. Given Equation 113 we get

$$S_5 \subset \{x = A\} \cup \{x = 1\}.$$ 

14.4.3 The Set $S_6$

Suppose that $p \in W_6$. Then $p_7$ and $q_2$ are defined, and $q_2 \in \partial \Sigma_2$. We have

$$p_2 - q_2 = (p_3 - q_3) + k(2 + 2A, 0). \quad (133)$$

The criterion that $\Sigma_3$ dominates a vector $(x,y)$ is that $|x - Ay| < 2 + 2A$.  

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Let $X_1, \ldots, X_4$ be the possible values for $p_3 - q_3$, as determined in the previous section. Using the values of the vectors $X_j$, and the fact that $\Sigma_2$ dominates $p_2 - q_2$, we see that

$$p_2 - q_2 = X_j + \epsilon(2A, 2); \quad \epsilon \in \{-1, 0, 1\}; \quad j \in \{1, 2, 3, 4\}. \quad (134)$$

Note that the vector $(2A, 2)$ is parallel to the boundary of $\Sigma_2$. Hence, for the purposes of computing $\sigma_2(p)$, this vector plays no role. Essentially the same calculation as in the previous section now gives us the same choices for $\sigma_2(p)$ as we got for $\sigma_3(p)$ in the previous section. Given Equation 112 we get

$$S_6 \subset \{y = A\} \cup \{y = 1\}.$$  

14.4.4 The Set $S_7$

Suppose that $p \in W_7$. Then $p_8$ and $q_1$ are defined, and $q_1 \in \partial \Sigma_1$. We have

$$p_1 - q_1 = (p_2 - q_2) + k(-2, 2). \quad (135)$$

Note that the vector $(2, 2)$ is parallel to $\Sigma_1$. For the purposes of finding $\sigma_1(p)$, we can do our computation modulo $(2, 2)$. For instance, $(2, -2) \equiv (0, 4) \mod (2, 2)$. Given Equation 134, we have

$$p_1 - q_1 = \epsilon_1(0, 2) + \epsilon_2(2A, 2) + k(0, 4) \mod (2, 2). \quad (136)$$

Here $\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2 \in \{-1, 0, 1\}$. Given that any vertical line intersects $\Sigma_1$ in a segment of length 4, we see that the only choices for $\sigma_1(p)$ are

$$\left[\frac{k}{2} + 2\epsilon A\right]; \quad \epsilon \in \{-1, 0, 1\}; \quad k \in \mathbb{Z}.$$ 

Given Equation 111 we see that $S_7 \subset \{z = A\} \cup \{z = 1 - A\}$.

14.5 Proof of The Second Statement

Our analysis above establishes the first statement of the Hyperplane Lemma. For the second statement, suppose that $d(\mu_+(p, A), \bar{S}) = \epsilon$. Given Equations 111, 112, 113, and 114, we have

$$\theta_j(p) \geq \epsilon; \quad j = 1, 2, 3, 4.$$ 

Given our analysis of the remaining points using symmetry, the same bound holds for $j = 5, 6, 7, 8$. In these cases, $\theta_j(p, A)$ is a linear function of the distance from $\mu_+(p, A)$ to $S_{j-1}$, and the constant of proportionality is the same as it is for the index $9 - j$. 

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15 Some Formulas

15.1 Formulas for the Pinwheel Map

In this section we explain how to implement the pinwheel map. We define

\[ V_1 = (0, 4); \quad V_2 = (-2, 2); \]
\[ V_3 = (-2 - 2A, 0); \quad V_4 = (-2, -2). \]  \hfill (137)

Next, we define vectors

\[ W_1 = \frac{1}{4}(-1, 1, 3); \quad W_2 = \frac{1}{2 + 2A}(-1, A, A); \]
\[ W_3 = \frac{1}{2 + 2A}(-1, -A, A); \quad W_4 = \frac{1}{4}(-1, -1, 3); \]  \hfill (138)

For a point \( p \in \mathbb{R}^2 \), we define

\[ F_j(p) = W_j \cdot (p_1, p_2, 1). \]  \hfill (139)

\( F(j, p) \) measures the position of \( p \) relative to the strip \( \Sigma_j \). This quantity lies in \((0, 1)\) iff \( p \) lies in the interior of \( \Sigma_j \).

**Example:** Let \( p = (2A, 1) \) and \( q = (-2, 1) \), we compute that

\[ F_2(p) = \frac{1}{2 + 2A}(-1, A, A) \cdot (2A, 1, 1) = 0. \]
\[ F_2(q) = \frac{1}{2 + 2A}(-1, A, A) \cdot (-2, 1, 1) = 1. \]

This checks out, because \( p \) lies in one component of \( \partial \Sigma_2 \) and \( q \) lies in the other component of \( \partial \Sigma_2 \).

Here is a formula for our strip maps.

\[ E_j(p) = p - \text{floor}(F_j(p))V_j. \]  \hfill (140)

If we set \( V_{4+j} = -V_j \) and \( F_{j+4} = -F_j \) then we get the nice formulas

\[ dF_j(V_j) = dF_j(V_{j+1}) = 1. \]  \hfill (141)

with indices taken mod 8.
15.2 The Reduction Algorithm

Let $A \in (0,1)$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}_+$ and $(m,n) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ be a point above the baseline of $\Gamma_\alpha(A)$. In this section we describe how we compute the points $\mu_\pm(M_\alpha(m,n))$.

This algorithm will be important when we prove the Copy Theorems in Part IV of the monograph.

1. Let $z = Am + n + \alpha$.
2. Let $Z = \text{floor}(z)$.
3. Let $y = z + Z$.
4. Let $Y = \text{floor}(y/(1 + A))$.
5. Let $x = y - Y(1 - A) - 1$.
6. Let $X = \text{floor}(x/(1 + A))$.

We then have

$$\mu_-(M_\alpha(m,n)) = \begin{pmatrix} x - (1 + A)X \\ y - (1 + A)Y \\ z - Z \end{pmatrix}$$

The description of $\mu_+$ is identical, except that the third step above is replaced by

$$y = z + Z + 1.$$ 

**Example:** Referring to §10.4, consider the case when $A = 3/5$ and $\alpha = 1/10$ and $(m,n) = (4,2)$. We get

$$z = \frac{9}{2}; \quad Z = 4; \quad y = \frac{17}{2}; \quad Y = \text{floor}\left(\frac{17/2}{8/5}\right) = 5.$$

$$x = \frac{17}{2} - 5\left(\frac{2}{5}\right) - 1 = \frac{11}{2}; \quad X = \text{floor}\left(\frac{11/2}{8/5}\right) = 3.$$

$$\mu_-(M(4,2)) = \left(\frac{11}{2} - 3\left(\frac{8}{5}\right), \frac{17}{2} - 5\left(\frac{8}{5}\right), \frac{9}{2} - 4\right) = \left(\frac{7}{10}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right).$$
15.3 Computing the Partition

Here we describe how Billiard King applies the Master Picture Theorem.

15.3.1 Step 1

Suppose \((a, b, c) \in R_A\) lies in the range of \(\mu_+\) or \(\mu_-\). Now we describe how to attach a 5-tuple \((n_0, ..., n_4)\) to \((a, b, c)\).

- Determining \(n_0\):
  - If we are interested in \(\mu_+\), then \(n_0 = 0\).
  - If we are interested in \(\mu_-\), then \(n_0 = 1\).

- Determining \(n_1\):
  - If \(c < A\) and \(c < 1 - A\) then \(n_1 = 0\).
  - If \(c > A\) and \(c < 1 - A\) then \(n_1 = 1\).
  - If \(c > A\) and \(c > 1 - A\) then \(n_1 = 2\).
  - If \(c < A\) and \(c > 1 - A\) then \(n_1 = 3\).

- Determining \(n_2\):
  - If \(a \in (0, A)\) then \(n_2 = 0\).
  - If \(a \in (A, 1)\) then \(n_2 = 1\).
  - If \(a \in (1, 1 + A)\) then \(n_2 = 2\).

- Determining \(n_3\):
  - If \(b \in (0, A)\) then \(n_3 = 0\).
  - If \(b \in (A, 1)\) then \(n_3 = 1\).
  - If \(b \in (1, 1 + A)\) then \(n_3 = 2\).

- Determining \(n_4\):
  - Let \(t = a + b - c\).
  - Let \(n_4 = \text{floor}(t - A)\).

Notice that each 5-tuple \((n_0, ..., n_4)\) corresponds to a (possibly empty) convex polyhedron in \(R_A\). The polyhedron does not depend on \(n_0\). It turns out that this polyhedron is empty unless \(n_4 \in \{-2, -1, 0, 1, 2\}\).
15.3.2 Step 2

Let \( n = (n_0, ..., n_4) \). We now describe two functions \( \epsilon_1(n) \in \{-1, 0, 1\} \) and \( \epsilon_2(n) \in \{-1, 0, 1\} \).

Here is the definition of \( \epsilon_1(n) \).

- If \( n_0 + n_4 \) is even then:
  - If \( n_2 + n_3 = 4 \) or \( x_2 < x_3 \) set \( \epsilon_1(n) = -1 \).
- If \( n_0 + n_4 \) is odd then:
  - If \( n_2 + n_3 = 0 \) or \( x_2 > x_3 \) set \( \epsilon_1(n) = +1 \).
- Otherwise set \( \epsilon_1(n) = 0 \).

Here is the definition of \( \epsilon_2(n) \).

- If \( n_0 = 0 \) and \( n_1 \in \{3, 0\} \).
  - If \( n_2 = 0 \) let \( \epsilon_2(n) = 1 \).
  - If \( n_2 = 1 \) and \( n_4 \neq 0 \) let \( \epsilon_2(n) = 1 \).
- If \( n_0 = 1 \) and \( n_1 \in \{0, 1\} \).
  - If \( n_2 > 0 \) and \( n_4 \neq 0 \) let \( \epsilon_2(n) = -1 \).
  - If \( n_2 < 2 \) and \( n_3 = 0 \) and \( n_4 = 0 \) let \( \epsilon_2(n) = 1 \).
- If \( n_0 = 0 \) and \( n_1 \in \{1, 2\} \).
  - If \( n_2 < 2 \) and \( n_4 \neq 0 \) let \( \epsilon_2(n) = 1 \).
  - If \( n_2 > 0 \) and \( n_3 = 2 \) and \( n_4 = 0 \) let \( \epsilon_2(n) = -1 \).
- If \( n_0 = 1 \) and \( n_1 \in \{2, 3\} \).
  - If \( n_2 = 2 \) let \( \epsilon_2(n) = -1 \).
  - If \( n_2 = 1 \) and \( n_4 \neq 0 \) let \( \epsilon_2(n) = -1 \).
- Otherwise let \( \epsilon_2(n) = 0 \).
15.3.3 Step 3

Let $A \in (0, 1)$ be any parameter and let $\alpha > 0$ be some parameter such that $\alpha \not\in 2\mathbb{Z}[A]$. Given any lattice point $(m, n)$ we perform the following construction.

- Let $(a_\pm, b_\pm, c_\pm) = \mu_\pm(A, m, n)$. See §15.2.
- Let $n_\pm$ be the 5-tuple associated to $(a_\pm, b_\pm, c_\pm)$.
- Let $\epsilon_1^\pm = \epsilon_1(n_\pm)$ and $\epsilon_2^\pm = \epsilon_2(n_\pm)$.

The Master Picture Theorem says that the two edges of $\Gamma_\alpha(m, n)$ incident to $(m, n)$ are $(m, n) + (\epsilon_1^\pm, \epsilon_2^\pm)$.

15.4 The List of Polytopes

Referring to the simpler partition from §10.6, we list the 14 polytopes that partition $R_\alpha$. In each case, we list some vectors, followed by the pair $(\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2)$ that the polytope determines.

$$
\begin{bmatrix}
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1
\end{bmatrix}
= (1, 1)
$$

$$
\begin{bmatrix}
0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1
\end{bmatrix}
= (-1, 1)
$$

$$
\begin{bmatrix}
0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1
\end{bmatrix}
= (-1, -1)
$$

$$
\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1
\end{bmatrix}
= (0, 1)
$$

$$
\begin{bmatrix}
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1
\end{bmatrix}
= (0, 1)
$$
\[
\begin{pmatrix}
0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1
\end{pmatrix}
(0, 1)
\]

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1
\end{pmatrix}
(0, 1)
\]

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 1 & 1 & 2 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 1 & 2 & 2 & 2 \\
1 & 2 & 1 & 2 & 2
\end{pmatrix}
(-1, 0)
\]

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1
\end{pmatrix}
(-1, 0)
\]

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
0 & 1 & 1 & 2 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1
\end{pmatrix}
(1, 0)
\]

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1
\end{pmatrix}
(1, 0)
\]

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 1 & 2 & 2 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 2 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1
\end{pmatrix}
(0, 0)
\]

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1
\end{pmatrix}
(0, 0)
\]

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15.5 Calculating with the Polytopes

We will illustrate a calculation with the polytopes we have listed. Let \( \iota \) and \( \gamma_2 \) be the maps from Equation 10.6. \( R_+(0,0) \) consists of two polygons, \( P_1 \) and \( P_2 \). These are the last two listed above. We will show that

\[
\iota(P_2) + (1, 1, 0, 0) = \gamma_2(P_2).
\]

As above, the coordinates for \( P_2 \) are

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 2 & 2 & 2 \\
0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Recall that \( \iota(x, y, z, A) = (1 + A - x, 1 + A - y, 1 - z, A) \). For example, \( \iota(0, 0, 0, 0) = (1, 1, 1, 0) \). The coordinates for \( \iota(P_2) \) are

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 \\
1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1
\end{bmatrix}
\]

The coordinates for \( \iota(P_2) + (1, 1, 0, 0) \) are

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
2 & 2 & 2 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\
2 & 1 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 2 & 2 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 2 \\
1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1
\end{bmatrix}
\]

We have \( \gamma_2(x, y, z, A) = (x + 1 - A, y + 1 + A, z, A) \). For instance, we compute that \( \gamma_2(0, 0, 0, 0) = (1, 1, 0, 0) \). The coordinates for \( \gamma(P_2) \) are

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 1 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
1 & 2 & 2 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 3 & 2 & 3 & 2 & 3 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1
\end{bmatrix}
\]

These are the same vectors as listed for \( \iota(P_2) + (1, 1, 0, 0) \) but in a different order.
Part III

In this part of the monograph we use the Master Picture Theorem to prove most of the results we quoted in Part I of the monograph.

- In §16 we prove the Embedding Theorem.
- In §17 we prove some results about the symmetries of the arithmetic graph and the hexagrid.
- In §18 we establish some information about the doors. These special points were defined in connection with the Hexagrid Theorem.
- In §19 we prove Statement 1 of the Hexagrid theorem, namely that the arithmetic graph does not cross any floor lines.
- In §20 we prove Statement 2 of the Hexagrid theorem, namely that the arithmetic graph only crosses the walls near the doors. The two statements of the Hexagrid Theorem have similar proofs, though Statement 2 has a more elaborate proof.

Many of the proofs in this part of the monograph require us to prove various disjointness results about some 4 dimensional polytopes. We will give short computer-aided proofs of these disjointness results. The proofs only involve a small amount of integer arithmetic. An energetic mathematician could do them all by hand in an afternoon. To help make the proofs surveyable, we will include extensive computer pictures of 2 dimensional slices of our polytopes. These pictures, all reproducible on Billiard King, serve as sanity checks for the computer calculations.
16 Proof of the Embedding Theorem

Let \( \hat{\Gamma} = \hat{\Gamma}_\alpha(A) \) be the arithmetic graph for a parameter \( A \) and some number \( \alpha \not\in 2\mathbb{Z}[A] \). In this chapter we prove that \( \hat{\Gamma} \) is a disjoint union of embedded polygons and infinite polygonal arcs. This is the Embedding Theorem.

16.1 Step 1

We will first prove that every nontrivial vertex of \( \hat{\Gamma} \) has valence 2. Each point \( p \in \hat{\Gamma} \) is connected to two points \( q_+ \) and \( q_- \). Hence, each non-trivial vertex has valence either 1 or 2. The following two cases are the only cases that lead to valence 1 vertices:

- \( p = q_+ \) and \( q_+ \neq q_- \).
- \( q_+ = q_- \) and \( q_\pm \neq p \).

The following lemma rules out the first of these cases.

Lemma 16.1 If \( p = q_+ \) or \( p = q_- \) then \( p = q_+ = q_- \).

Proof: Our proof refers to §10.6. Recall that \( R_+(0,0) \) consists of 2 convex integer polytopes. Likewise \( R_-(0,0) \) consists of 2 convex integer polytopes. It suffices to show that

\[
(t, t + 1, t) \in R_+(0,0) \iff (t - 1, t, t) \in R_-(0,0).
\]

This is equivalent to the statement that

\[
R_-(0,0) + (1, 1, 0, 0) \subset \Lambda R_+(0,0).
\]

Here \( \Lambda R_+(0,0) \) is the orbit of \( R_+(0,0) \) under the action of \( \Lambda \). Let \( \iota \) be the involution from Equation 57. Recall that \( R_-(0,0) = \iota(R_+(0,0)) \). Hence, Equation 144 equivalent to the statement that

\[
\iota(R_+(0,0)) + (1, 1, 0, 0) \subset \Lambda R_+(0,0).
\]

Let \( P_1 \) and \( P_2 \) denote the two polytopes comprising \( R_+(0,0) \), as listed at the end of §10. Let \( \gamma_2 \) be the element of \( \Lambda \) described in §10.6. We compute that

\[
\iota(P_1) + (1, 1, 0, 0) = P_1; \quad \iota(P_2) + (1, 1, 0, 0) = \gamma_2(P_2).
\]

We did the second calculation in §15.5, and the first computation is similar. This does it for us. ♠
16.2 Step 2

Our next goal is to rule out the possibility that \( p \neq q_+ \), but \( q_+ = q_- \). This situation happens iff there is some \((\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2) \in \{-1, 0, 1\}\) such that

\[
\Lambda R_+ (\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2) \cap (R_- (\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2) + (1, 1, 0, 0)) \neq \emptyset.
\] (147)

A visual inspection and/or a computer search – we did both – reveals that at least one of the two sets above is empty unless \((\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2)\) is one of \((1, 1); (-1, -1); (1, 0); (-1, 0)\). (148)

To rule out Equation 147 for each of these pairs, we need to consider all possible pairs \((P_1, P_2)\) of integral convex polytopes such that

\[
P_1 \subset \Lambda R_+ (\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2); \quad P_2 \subset (R_- (\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2) + (1, 1))
\] (149)

Recall that \( \Lambda \) is generated by the three elements \( \gamma_1, \gamma_2, \gamma_3 \). Let \( \Lambda' \subset \Lambda \) denote the subgroup generated by \( \gamma_1 \) and \( \gamma_2 \). We also define \( \Lambda'_{10} \subset \Lambda' \) by the equation

\[
\Lambda'_{10} = \{ a_1 \gamma_1 + a_2 \gamma_2 | a_1, a_2 | \leq 10 \}.
\] (150)

Lemma 16.2 Let \( \gamma \in \Lambda - \Lambda' \). Suppose that

\[
P_1 = \gamma(Q_1); \quad Q_1 \subset R_+ (\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2); \quad P_2 \subset R_- (\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2) + (1, 1, 0, 0).
\]

Then \( P_1 \) and \( P_2 \) have disjoint interiors.

Proof: The third coordinates of points in \( P_1 \) lies between \( n \) and \( n + 1 \) for some \( n \neq 0 \) whereas the third coordinates of points in \( P_2 \) lie in \([0, 1]\). ♣

Lemma 16.3 Let \( \gamma \in \Lambda' - \Lambda'_{10} \).

\[
P_1 = \gamma(Q_1); \quad Q_1 \subset R_+ (\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2); \quad P_2 \subset R_- (\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2) + (1, 1, 0, 0).
\]

Then \( P_1 \) and \( P_2 \) have disjoint interiors.

Proof: \( Q_1 \) is contained in the ball of radius 4 about \( P_2 \), but \( \gamma \) moves this ball entirely off itself. ♣
The last two results leave us with a finite problem. Given a pair \((\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2)\) from our list above, and

\[
\gamma \in \Lambda_{10}'; \quad P_1 = \gamma(Q_1); \quad Q_1 \subset R_+(\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2); \quad P_2 \subset R_-(\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2) + (1, 1, 0, 0),
\]

we produce a vector

\[
w = w(P_1, P_2) \in \{-1, 0, 1\}^4
\]

such that

\[
\max_{v \in \text{vtx}(P_1)} v \cdot w \leq \min_{v \in \text{vtx}(P_2)} v \cdot w.
\]

This means that a hyperplane separates the interior of \(P_1\) from \(P_2\). In each case we find \(v(P_1, P_2)\) by a short computer search, and perform the verification using integer arithmetic. It is a bit surprising to us that such a simple vector works in all cases, but that is how it works out.

Using Billiard King, the interested reader can draw arbitrary \((z, A)\) slices of the sets \(\Lambda R_+(\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2)\) and \(\Lambda R_-(\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2) + (1, 1, 0, 0)\), and see that the interiors of the polygons from the first set are disjoint from the interiors of the polygons from the second set. We will illustrate this with pictures in §16.4.

16.3 Step 3

Given that every nontrivial vertex of \(\hat{\Gamma}\) has valence 2, and also that the edges of \(\hat{\Gamma}\) have length at most \(\sqrt{2}\), the only way that \(\hat{\Gamma}\) can fail to be embedded is if there is situation like the one shown in Figure 16.1.

\[\text{Figure 16.1: Embedding Failure}\]

Let \(M_+\) and \(M_-\) be the maps from §10.6.3. Given the Master Picture Theorem, this situation arises only in the following 4 cases:
• $M_+(p_1) \in \Lambda R_+(1,1)$ and $M_+(p_2) \in \Lambda R_+(1,-1)$.
• $M_-(p_1) \in \Lambda R_-(1,1)$ and $M_-(p_2) \in \Lambda R_-(1,-1)$.
• $M_-(p_1) \in \Lambda R_-(1,1)$ and $M_+(p_2) \in \Lambda R_+(1,-1)$.
• $M_+(p_1) \in \Lambda R_+(1,1)$ and $M_-(p_2) \in \Lambda R_-(1,-1)$.

Note that $p_2 = p_1 + (0,1)$ and hence
\[ M_\pm(p_2) = M_\pm(p_1) + (1,1,1,0) \mod \Lambda. \tag{153} \]

In particular, the two points $M(p_1)$ and $M(p_2)$ lie in the same fiber of $R$ over the $(z,A)$ square. We inspect the picture and see that this situation never occurs for the types $(1,1)$ and $(1,-1)$. Hence, Cases 1 and 2 do not occur. More inspection shows that there are $R_+(1,-1) = \emptyset$. Hence, Case 3 does not occur. This leaves Case 4, the only nontrivial case.

Case 4 leads to the statement that
\[ (t,t,t,A) + (0,1,0,0) \in \Lambda R_+(1,1); \]
\[ (t,t,t,A) - (1,0,0,0) + (1,1,1,0) = (t,t,t,A) + (0,1,1,0) \in \Lambda R_-(1,-1). \tag{154} \]

Setting $p$ equal to the first of the two points above, we get
\[ p \in \Lambda R_+(1,1); \quad p + (0,0,1,0) \in \Lambda R_-(1,-1). \tag{155} \]

Letting $\gamma_3 \in \Lambda$ be as in Equation 55, we have
\[ p + (1,1,0,0) = \gamma_3^{-1}(p + (0,0,1,0)) \in \Lambda R_-(1,-1). \tag{156} \]

For any subset $S \subset \tilde{R}$, we have
\[ (\Lambda S) + (a,b,c,0) = \Lambda(S + (a,b,c,0)). \tag{157} \]

The point here is that $\Lambda$ acts as a group of translations on each set of the form $R^3 \times \{A\}$, and addition by $(x,y,z,0)$ commutes with this action on every such set. Equations 156 and 157 combine to give
\[ p \in \Lambda \bigl(R_-(1,-1) - (1,1,0,0)\bigr) \tag{158} \]
Now we see that
\[ \Lambda R_+(1, 1) \cap \Lambda(R_-(1, -1) - (1, 1, 0, 0)) \neq \emptyset. \]

Since the whole picture is \(\Lambda\)-equivariant, we have
\[ \Lambda R_+(1, 1) \cap (R_-(1, -1) - (1, 1, 0, 0)) \neq \emptyset. \]  \hspace{1cm} (159)

We mean that there is a pair \((P_1, P_2)\) of polytopes, with \(P_1\) in the first set and \(P_2\) in the second set, such that \(P_1\) and \(P_2\) do not have disjoint interiors.

We rule out this intersection using exactly the same method as in Step 2. In §16.4 we illustrate this with a convincing picture.

### 16.4 A Visual Tour

The theoretical part of our proof amounts to reducing the Embedding Theorem to the statement that finitely many pairs of polytopes have disjoint interiors. The computer-aided part of the proof amounts to verifying the disjointness finitely many times. Our verification used a very fragile disjointness test. We got a lucky, because many of our polytope pairs share a 2-dimensional face. Thus, a separating hyperplane has to be chosen very carefully. Needless to say, if our simple-minded approach did not work, we would have used a more robust disjointness test.

If we could write this monograph on 4-dimensional paper, we could simply replace the computer-aided part of the proof with a direct appeal to the visual sense. Since we don’t have 4-dimensional paper, we need to rely on the computer to “see” for us. In this case, “seeing” amounts to finding a hyperplane that separates the interiors of the two polytopes. In other words, we are getting the computer to “look” at the pair of polytopes in such a way that one polytope appears on one side and the other polytope appears on the other side.

We do not have 4 dimensional paper, but we can draw slices of all the sets we discussed above. The interested user of Billiard King can see any desired slice. We will just draw typical slices. In our pictures below, we will draw the slices of \(R_+\) with dark shading and the slices of \(R_-\) with light shading. in our discussion, the base space \(B\) refers to the \((z, A)\) square over which our picture fibers. Let \(B_j\) denote the \(j\)th component of \(B\), as determined by the characteristic \(n_1\) discussed in §15.3.
In reference to Step 2, our pictures for the pair \((-\epsilon_1, -\epsilon_2)\) look like rotated versions of the pictures for the pair \((\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2)\). Accordingly, we will just draw pictures for \((1, 1)\) and \((1, 0)\).

Figure 16.2 shows a slice of \(\Lambda R_+(1, 1)\) and \(\Lambda (R_-(1, 1) + (1, 1, 0, 0))\) over \(B_0\). Both slices are nonempty over \(B_1\) as well, and the picture is similar.

Figure 16.3 shows a slice of \(\Lambda R_+(1, 1)\) and \(\Lambda (R_-(1, 1) + (1, 1, 0, 0))\) over \(B_0\). The picture over \(B_1\) is similar. Figure 16.4 shows a slice of \(\Lambda R_+(1, 0)\) and \(\Lambda (R_-(1, 0) + (1, 1, 0, 0))\) over \(B_2\). The picture over \(B_3\) is similar.

Figure 16.2: A slice of \(\Lambda R_+(1, 1)\) and \(\Lambda (R_-(1, 1) + (1, 1, 0, 0))\)

Figure 16.3: A slice of \(\Lambda R_+(1, 1)\) and \(\Lambda (R_-(1, 1) + (1, 1, 0, 0))\).
Figure 16.4 shows a slice of $\Lambda R_+(1,0)$ and $\Lambda(R_-(1,0) + (1,1,0,0))$ over $B_2$. The picture over $B_3$ is similar.

![Figure 16.4: A slice of $\Lambda R_+(1,1)$ and $\Lambda(R_-(1,-1) - (1,1,0,0))$.](image)

Figure 16.5 shows a slice of $\Lambda R_+(1,1)$ and $\Lambda(R_-(1,-1) - (1,1,0,0))$ over $B_2$. The picture looks similar over $B_3$ and otherwise at least one of the slices is empty.

![Figure 16.5: A slice of $\Lambda R_+(1,1)$ and $\Lambda(R_-(1,-1) - (1,1,0,0))$.](image)

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17 Extension and Symmetry

17.1 Translational Symmetry

Here we prove the claims made in §8.1. For ease of exposition, we will only consider the case when \( p/q \) is odd. The even case has essentially the same treatment. Referring to §10.6.3, the maps \( M_+ \) and \( M_- \) are defined on all of \( Z^2 \). This gives the extension of the arithmetic graph to all of \( Z^2 \).

**Lemma 17.1** The extended arithmetic graph does not cross the baseline.

**Proof:** By the Pinwheel Lemma, the arithmetic graph describes the dynamics of the pinwheel map, \( \Phi \). Note that \( \Phi \) is generically defined and invertible on \( R_+ \times \{-1,1\} \). Reflection in the \( x \)-axis conjugates \( \Phi \) to \( \Phi^{-1} \). By the Pinwheel Lemma, \( \Phi \) maps \( R_+ \times \{-1,1\} \) into itself. By symmetry the same goes for \( \Phi^{-1} \). Hence \( \Phi \) and \( \Phi^{-1} \) also map \( R_- \times \{-1,1\} \) into itself. If some edge of \( \hat{\Gamma} \) crosses the baseline, then one of \( \Phi \) or \( \Phi^{-1} \) would map a point of \( R_+ \times \{-1,1\} \) into \( R_- \times \{-1,1\} \). This is a contradiction. ♠

Recall from §8.1 that \( \Theta \) is the lattice of translations generated by

\[
V = (q, -p) \quad \quad V' = \left(0, \frac{(p + q)^2}{4}\right)
\]  

(160)

**Lemma 17.2** The arithmetic graph \( \hat{\Gamma}(p/q) \) is invariant under \( \Theta \).

**Proof:** As we remarked in §8.1 we just have to show that \( \hat{\Gamma}(p/q) \) is invariant under translation by \( V' \). By the Master Picture Theorem, it suffices to prove that \((t, t, t) \in \Lambda \) when \( t \) is the second coordinate of \( V' \). Here \( \Lambda \) is as in Equation 51.

We have \((t, t, t) \equiv (2t, 2t, 0) \mod \Lambda \) because \( t \) is an integer. Setting

\[
a = pq; \quad \quad b = \frac{pq + q^2}{2}.
\]  

(161)

We compute that

\[
a \begin{bmatrix} 1 + A \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + b \begin{bmatrix} 1 - A \\ 1 + A \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2t \\ 2t \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.
\]  

(162)

This completes the proof. ♠
Lemma 17.3  When $A = p/q$ is an odd rational, the hexagrid is invariant under the action of $\Theta$.

Proof: Let $G(p/q)$ denote the hexagrid. For ease of notation, we write $X = X(p/q)$ for various objects $X$ that depend on $p/q$.

By construction, the hexagrid is invariant under the action of $V$. We just have to see what happens for $V'$. Let

$$W = \left(\frac{pq}{p+q}, \frac{pq}{p+q} + \frac{q-p}{2}\right)$$

be the vector from the definition of the hexagrid $G$. It suffices to prove that 6 lines of $G$ contain $V'$. We compute that

$$V' = -\frac{p}{2}V + \frac{p+q}{2}W.$$  \hspace{1cm} (163)

The second coefficient is an integer. Given that the room grid $RG$ is invariant under the lattice $Z[V/2,W]$, we see that $RG$ is also invariant under translation by $V'$. This gives 2 lines, $L_1$ and $L_2$, one from each family of $RG$.

Note that $DG$ is only invariant under $Z[V]$, so we have to work harder. We need to produce 4 lines of $DG$ that contain $V'$. Here they are.

- The vertical line $L_3$ through the origin certainly contains $V'$. This line extends the bottom left edge of $Q$ and hence belongs to $DG$.

- Let $L_4$ be the line containing $V'$ and point $-(p+q)V/2 \in Z[V]$. We compute that the slope of $L_4$ coincides with the slope of the top left edge of $Q$. The origin contains a line of $DG$ parallel to the top left edge of $Q$, and hence every point in $Z[V]$ contains such a line. Hence $L_4$ belongs to $DG$. To avoid a repetition of words below, we call our argument here the translation principle.

- Let $L_5$ be the line containing $V'$ and point $-pV \in Z[V]$. We compute that the slope of $L_5$ coincides with the slope of the bottom right edge of $Q$. The translation principle shows that $L_5$ belongs to $DG$.

- Let $L_6$ be the line containing $V'$ and point $(q-p)V/2 \in Z[V]$. We compute that the slope of $L_6$ coincides with the slope of the top right edge of $Q$. The translation principle shows that $L_6$ belongs to $DG$.

(The reader can see these lines, for any desired parameter, using Billiard King.) ♠
17.2 Rotational Symmetry

Here we will establish the rotational symmetry of the arithmetic graph that we discussed in §8.2. Again, we assume that $p/q$ is odd. (We didn’t discuss rotational symmetry in the even case.) Let $p_+/q_+$ be as in §8.2. Let $\iota$ denote 180 degree rotation about the point $(q_+, -p_+)/2$. We have

$$\iota(m, n) = (q_+, p_-) - (m, n).$$  \hfill (164)

Here is the main result of this section.

**Lemma 17.4** $\iota(\tilde{\Gamma}) = \tilde{\Gamma}$.

**Proof:** Let $M_+$ and $M_-$ be as in §10.6.3. As usual, we take $\alpha = 1/(2q)$. We will first compare $M_+(m, n)$ with $M_-(\iota(m, n))$. We have

$$M_+(m, n) = (t, t + 1, t) \mod \Lambda; \quad \frac{pm}{q} + n + \frac{1}{2q}$$  \hfill (165)

Next, we have

$$M_-(\iota(m, n)) = (t' - 1, t', t') \mod \Lambda;$$

$$t' = \left(\frac{ap}{q} - b\right) - \left(\frac{pm}{q} + n\right) + \frac{1}{2q} = \left(\frac{ap - bq}{q}\right) - \left(\frac{pm}{q} + n\right) + \frac{1}{2q} = -\frac{1}{q} \left(\frac{pm}{q} + n\right) + \frac{1}{2q} - \left(\frac{pm}{q} + n\right) - \frac{1}{2q} = -t.$$

In short

$$M_-(\iota(m, n)) = (-t - 1, -t, -t) \mod \Lambda.$$  \hfill (166)

Recall that $R_A$ is the fundamental domain for the action of $\Lambda = \Lambda_A$. We mean to equate $\Lambda$ with the $\mathbb{Z}$ span of its columns. There is some $v \in \Lambda$ such that

$$(s_1, s_2, s_3) = (t, t + 1, t) + (v_1, v_2, v_3) \in R_A$$  \hfill (167)

Given Equation 51, we have $(2 + A, A, 1) \in \Lambda$. Hence

$$w = (-v_1 + 2 + A, -v_2 + A, -v_3 + 1) \in \Lambda.$$  \hfill (168)
We compute that
\[(-t - 1, -t, -t) + w = (1 + A, 1 + A, 1) - (s_1, s_2, s_3).\] (169)

So, we have
\[M_+(m, n) = \rho \circ M_-(\iota(m, n)),\] (170)

where \(\rho\) is reflection through the midpoint of the space \(R_A\). A similar calculation shows
\[M_-(m, n) = \rho \circ M_+(\iota(m, n)).\] (171)

But now we just verify by inspection that our partition of \(R_A\) is symmetric under \(\rho\), and has the labels appropriate to force the type determined by
\[\rho \circ M_+(m, n), \rho \circ M_-(m, n)\]
to be the 180 degree rotation of the type forced by
\[M_-(m, n), M_+(m, n)\]

Indeed, we can determine this with an experiment performed on any rational large enough such that all regions are sampled. A little inspection of the picture of \(\tilde{\Gamma}(3/7)\), for instance, suffices to finish the proof. Compare Figure 3.6. ♠

Since \(\hat{\Gamma}\) is also invariant under the lattice \(\Theta\) of translations, we see that there are actually infinitely many points of order 2 symmetry.

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18 The Structure of the Doors

18.1 The Odd Case

We suppose that $p/q$ is an odd rational. Say that a wall line is a line of positive slope in the room grid. The doors are the intersection points of lines in the door grid with the wall lines. Let $L_0$ be the wall line through $(0, 0)$. Let $L_1$ be the wall line through $V/2$.

**Lemma 18.1** Any two wall lines are equivalent mod $\Theta$.

**Proof:** We check explicitly that the vector

$$V' + \frac{p + 1}{2}V \in \Theta \cap L_1$$

Hence $L_0$ and $L_1$ are equivalent mod $\Theta$. But any other wall line is obtained from one of $L_0$ or $L_1$ by adding a suitable integer multiple of $V$. ♠

**Lemma 18.2** The first coordinate of any door is an integer.

**Proof:** Any wall line is equivalent mod $\Theta$ to $L_0$. Since $\Theta$ acts by integer translations, it suffices to door lies on $L_0$. Such a door is an integer multiple of the point $v_3$ in Figure 4.1. That is, our door has coordinates

$$\frac{k}{2q}(2pq, (p + q)^2 - 2p^2).$$  \hspace{1cm} (172)

The first coordinate here is certainly an integer. ♠

It could happen that the second coordinate of a door is an integer. Call such a door exceptional.

**Lemma 18.3** Modulo the action of $\Theta$, there are only two exceptional doors.

**Proof:** The point $(0, 0)$ gives rise to two exceptional doors with (the same) integer coordinates. One of these doors is associated to the wall above $(0, 0)$, and one of these doors is associated to the door below. Hence, it suffices to show that any door with integer coordinates lies in $\Theta$.  

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As in the preceding result, it suffices to consider doors on \( L_0 \). Given Equation 172, we see that

\[
k\frac{(p+q)^2 - 2p^2}{2q} \in \mathbb{Z}
\]

for an exceptional door. Expanding this out, and observing that \( q \) divides both \( q^2 \) and \( pq \), we get that

\[
kq^2 - p^2 \in \mathbb{Z}.
\]

But \( q \) and \( q^2 - p^2 \) are relatively prime. Hence \( k = jq \) for some \( j \in \mathbb{Z} \). But

\[
qv_3 = 2V' + V \in \Theta.
\]

Hence \( jqv_3 = kv_3 \in \Theta \) as well. ♠

Here is a related result.

**Lemma 18.4** Any lattice point on a wall line is equivalent to \((0,0) \mod \Theta\).

**Proof:** By symmetry, it suffices to consider the cases when \((m,n) \in L_0\).

Looking at Figure 4.1, we see that any point on \( L_0 \) has the form

\[
sv_5 = \frac{s}{2(p+q)}(2pq, (p+q)^2 - 2p^2).
\]

(173)

In order for this point to lie in \( \mathbb{Z}^2 \), the first coordinate must be an integer. Since \( p \) and \( q \) are relatively prime, \( pq \) and \( p + q \) are relatively prime. Hence, the first coordinate is an integer only if \( s = k(p+q) \) for some \( k \in \mathbb{Z} \). Hence \((m,n)\) is an integer multiple of the point

\[
(p+q)v_5 = \left(pq, \frac{(p+q)^2}{2} - p^2\right) = 2V' + pV \in \Theta.
\]

Here \( V \) and \( V' \) are the vectors generating \( \Theta \), as in Equation 160. ♠

The vertical lines in the door grid have the form \( x = kq \) for \( k \in \mathbb{Z} \). Say that a *Type 1 door* is the intersection of such a line with a wall line.
Lemma 18.5 Let \((kq, y)\) be a Type 1 door. Then \(py \in \mathbb{Z}\).

Proof: The group \(\Theta\) acts transitively, by integer translations, on the vertical lines of the door grid. Hence, it suffices to prove this lemma for the case \(k = 0\). In other words, we need to show that \(py \in \mathbb{Z}\) if \((0, y)\) lies on a wall line.

We order the wall lines according to the order in which they intersect the line of slope \(-A = -p/q\) through the origin. Let \(y_n\) be such that \((0, y_n)\) lies on the \(k\)th wall line. The sequence \(\{y_n\}\) is an arithmetic progression. Hence, it suffices to prove our result for two consecutive values of \(n\). Note that \((0, 0)\) is a type A door. We might as well normalize so that \(y_0 = 0\). Then \((0, y_1)\) lies on the wall line \(L_1\) through \((-q, p)\). Referring to Equation 12, two points on \(L_1\) are \(-V\) and \(-V + W\). These points are given by

\[-V = (-q, p); \quad -VW = (-q, p) + \left(\frac{pq}{p + q}, \frac{pq}{p + q} + \frac{q - p}{2}\right)\]

From this information, we compute that \(y_1 = (p + q)^2 / 2p\). Since \(p + q\) is even, \(py_1 = (p + q)^2 / 2 \in \mathbb{Z}\). ♠

Recall that \(\underline{y}\) is the greatest integer less than \(y\).

Corollary 18.6 Suppose that \((x, y)\) is a door of type 1, then \(y - \underline{y} \neq 1/2\).

Proof: \(p(y - \underline{y}) = p/2\) is an integer, by the previous result. But \(p/2\) is not an integer. This is a contradiction. ♠

Say that a Type 2 door is a door on \(L_0\) that is not of Type 1. One obtains a Type 2 door by intersecting \(L_0\) with a line of the door grid that is parallel to the top left (or right) edge of the arithmetic kite.

Lemma 18.7 The Type 2 doors are precisely the points on \(L_0\) of the form \((kp, y_k)\), where \(k \in \mathbb{Z}\) and \(y_k\) is a number that depends on \(k\).

Proof: Referring to Figure 4.1, two consecutive doors on \(L_0\) are \((0, 0)\) and \(v_3 = (p, y_1)\). Our lemma now follows from the fact that the sequence of doors on \(L_0\) forms an arithmetic progression. ♠
18.2 The Even Case

Now we revisit all the results above in case $p/q$ is even.

**Lemma 18.8** Any two wall lines are equivalent mod $\Theta$.

**Proof:** This is easy in the even case. Translation by $V$ maps each wall line to the adjacent one. ♠

**Lemma 18.9** The first coordinate of any door is an integer.

**Proof:** The first door on $L_0$ is the same in the even case as in the odd case. The rest of the proof is the same as in the odd case. ♠

**Lemma 18.10** Modulo the action of $\Theta$, there are only two exceptional doors.

**Proof:** As in the odd case, we just have to show that any door with integer coordinates is equivalent to $(0, 0)$ mod $\Theta$. As in the odd case, the doors on $L_0$ have the form $kv_3$. As in the odd case, this leads to the statement that

$$
\frac{kq^2 - p^2}{2q} \in \mathbb{Z}.
$$

Now the proof is a bit different. Here $2q$ and $q^2 - p^2$ are relatively prime. Hence $k = 2jq$ for some $j \in \mathbb{Z}$. But

$$
2qv_3 = V' + 2V \in \Theta.
$$

Hence $2jqv_3 = kv_3 \in \Theta$ as well. ♠

**Lemma 18.11** Any lattice point on a wall line is equivalent to $(0, 0)$ mod $\Theta$. 

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**Proof:** As in the proof of Lemma 18.4, we see that

\[ sv_5 = \frac{s}{2(p + q)} (2pq, (p + q)^2 - 2p^2) \in Z. \]  

(174)

As in the odd case, we look at the first coordinate and deduce the fact that 

\[ s = k(p + q) \]

for some \( k \in Z \). This is not enough for us in the even case. Looking now at the second coordinate, we see that

\[ \frac{k(p + q)}{2} - kp^2 \in Z. \]

Hence \( k \) is even. Hence \((m, n)\) is an integer multiple of the point

\[ 2(p + q)v_5 = (2pq, (p + q)^2 - 2p^2) = V' + 2pV \in \Theta. \]

\[ \blacklozenge \]

We don’t repeat the proof of Lemma 18.5 because we don’t need it. We only need the even version of Corollary 18.6. In the even case, we have simply forced Corollary 18.6 to be true by eliminating the crossings for which it fails.

We say that a *Type 2* door is a door on \( L_0 \) that is not of Type 1, and also is not one of the crossings we have eliminated. Once we make this redefinition, we have the following result

**Lemma 18.12** The Type 2 doors are precisely the points on \( L_0 \) of the form

\[ (kp, y_k) \]

where \( k \in Z \) is not an odd multiple of \( q \), and \( y_k \) is a number that depends on \( k \).

**Proof:** The Type two doors are as in the odd case, except that we eliminate the points \((kp, y_k)\) where \( k \) is an odd multiple of \( q \). \[ \blacklozenge \]
19 Proof of the Hexagrid Theorem I

19.1 The Key Result

We will assume that $p/q$ is an odd rational until the end of the chapter.

Say that a floor line is a negatively sloped line of the floor grid. Say that a floor point is a point on a floor line. Such a point need not have integer coordinates. Let $M_+$ and $M_-$ denote the maps from Equation 10.6.3.

**Lemma 19.1** If $(m, n)$ is a floor point, then $M_+(m, n)$ is equivalent mod $\Lambda$ to a point of the form $(\beta, 0, 0)$.

**Proof:** The map $M_-$ is constant when restricted to each floor line, because these lines have slope $-A$. Hence, it suffices to prove this result for one point on each floor line. The points

$$
(0, t); \quad t = \frac{k(p + q)}{2}; \quad k \in \mathbb{Z}.
$$

form a sequence of floor points, one per floor line. Note that $t$ is an integer, because $p + q$ is even.

To compute the image of the point $(0, t)$, we just have to subject the point $t$ to our reduction algorithm from §15.2. The first 4 steps of the algorithm lead to the following result.

1. $z = t$.

2. $Z = \text{floor}(t) = t$, because $t$ is an integer.

3. $y = 2t = k(p + q) = kq(1 + A)$.

4. $Y = \text{floor}(y/(1 + A)) = kq$.

Hence $z = Z$ and $y = (1 + A)Y$. Hence

$$
M_-(0, t) = (x - (1 + A)X, y - (1 + A)Y, z - Z) = (\beta, 0, 0),
$$

for some number $\beta \in \mathbb{R}$ that depends on $A$ and $k$. ♠
19.2 Two Special Planes

Let $\Pi_+ \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ denote the plane given by $y = z$. We can think of $\Pi_+$ as the plane through the origin generated by the vectors $(1,0,0)$ and $(1,1,1)$. In particular, the vector $(1,1,1)$ is contained in $\Pi_+$. Let $\Pi_-(0)$ denote the line through the origin parallel to $(1,0,0)$. Then $\Pi_-(0)$ is a line in $\Pi_-$. Define

$$\Pi_+ = \Pi_- + (1,1,0); \quad \Pi_+(0) = \Pi_-(0) + (1,1,0). \quad (177)$$

**Lemma 19.2** If $(m,n)$ is a floor point, then $M_\pm(m,n)$ is equivalent mod $\Lambda$ to a point in $\Pi_{\pm}(0)$.

**Proof:** The $(-)$ case of this result is just a restatement of Lemma 19.1. The $(+)$ case follows from the $(-)$ case and symmetry. That is, we just translate the $(-)$ case by the vector $(1,1,0)$ to get the $(+)$ case. $\blacklozenge$

Define

$$\Pi_{\pm}(r) = \Pi_{\pm}(0) + (r,r,r). \quad (178)$$

Let $\Pi_{\pm}(r,s)$ denote the open infinite strip that is bounded by $\Pi_{\pm}(r)$ and $\Pi_{\pm}(s)$. In the case of interest to us, we will have $r = 0$ and $s = \lambda > 0$.

For each pair $(\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2) \in \{-1,0,1\}^2$, let $\Sigma(\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2)$ denote the set of lattice points $(m,n)$ such that $(m,n)$ and $(m,n) + (\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2)$ are separated by some floor line. The set $\Sigma(\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2)$ is obtained by intersecting $\mathbb{Z}^2$ with an infinite union of evenly spaced infinite strips, each of which has a floor line as one boundary component. For our purposes, it suffices to consider the pairs

$$(-1,0); \quad (-1,-1); \quad (0,-1); \quad (1,-1). \quad (179)$$

For these pairs, the floor lines are the lower boundaries of the strips. We define

$$\lambda(\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2) = -(A\epsilon_1 + \epsilon_2). \quad (180)$$

**Lemma 19.3** Let $\lambda = \lambda(\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2)$. Suppose that $(m,n) \in \Sigma(\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2)$. Then $M_{\pm}(m,n) \in \Pi_{\pm}(0, \lambda)$.

**Proof:** We consider the case of $M_-$ and the pair $(-1,0)$. The other cases have essentially the same proof. If $(m,n) \in \Sigma(-1,0)$, then there is some $x \in (m-1,m)$ such that $(x,n)$ is a floor point. Then $M_-(x,n)$ is $\Lambda$-equivalent to a point $p$ in $\Pi(0)$. But then $M_+(m,n)$ is $\Lambda$-equivalent to $p + (m-x)(A,A,A) \in \Pi(0,A) = \Pi(0,\lambda(-1,0))$. $\blacklozenge$
19.3 Critical Points

Say that a point \( v \in \Sigma(\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2) \) is critical for \((\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2)\) if the arithmetic graph contains the edge joining \((m, n)\) to \((m + \epsilon_1, n + \epsilon_2)\). Statement 1 of the Hexagrid Theorem says, in particular, that there are no such points like this.

Lemma 19.4 There are no critical points.

Proof: Let \( \mathcal{R}_+ \) denote the tiling of \( \mathbb{R}^3 \) by polyhedra, according to the Master Picture Theorem. Let \( \mathcal{P}_+ \) denote the intersection of \( \mathcal{R}_+ \) with the plane \( \Pi \). We make the same definitions in the \((-)\) case. If \((m, n)\) is critical for \((\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2)\), then one of two things is true.

1. \( \Pi_+(0, \lambda) \) nontrivially intersects a polygon of \( \mathcal{P}_+ \) labelled by \((\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2)\).
2. \( \Pi_-(0, \lambda) \) nontrivially intersects a polygon of \( \mathcal{P}_- \) labelled by \((\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2)\).

Here we have set \( \lambda = \lambda(\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2) \). Considering the 4 pairs of interest to us, and the 2 possible signs, we have 8 conditions to rule out. We check, in all cases, that the relevant strip is disjoint from the relevant polygons.

We can check the disjointness for all parameters at once. The union

\[
S_\pm(\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2) := \bigcup_{A \in (0,1)} \left( \Pi_\pm(\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2; A) \times \{A\} \right)
\]

is a polyhedral subset of \( \mathbb{R}^4 \). To get an honest polyhedron, we observe that \( S \) is invariant the action of the lattice element \( \gamma_1 \) from Equation 55, and we take a polyhedron whose union under translates by \( \gamma_3 \) tiles \( S \). In practice, we simply restrict the \( x \)-coordinate to lie in \([0, 2]\).

We check that \( S_\pm(\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2) \), or rather the compact polyhedron replacing it, is disjoint from all \( A \)-translates of the polytope \( P_\pm(\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2) \), the polytope listed in §15.3. In practice, most translates are very far away, and we only need to check a small finite list. This is a purely algebraic calculation. ♠

Rather than dwell on the disjointness calculation, which gives no insight into what is going on, we will draw pictures for the parameter \( A = 1/3 \). The combinatorial type changes with the parameter, but not the basic features of interest to us. The interested reader can see the pictures for any parameter using Billiard King.
To draw pictures, we identify the planes $\Pi_\pm$ with $\mathbb{R}^2$ using the projection $(x, y, z) \mapsto (x, (y + z)/2)$. Under this identification, all the polygons in question are rectangles! The coordinates of the rectangle vertices are small rational combinations of 1 and $A$, and can easily be determined by inspection. The whole picture is invariant under translation by $(1 + A, 0)$. The thick line in the first picture corresponds to $\Pi_-(0)$. In terms of $\mathbb{R}^2$ coordinate, this is the $x$-axis. The black dot is $(0, 0)$, dot is $(4/3, 0) = (1 + A, 0)$.

We explain by example the notation on the right hand side of the figure. The label $\lambda(-1, -1)$ denotes the line $\Pi(\lambda)$, where $\lambda = \lambda(-1, -1)$. In each case, the relevant strip lies below the relevant shaded piece. While the combinatorics of the picture changes as the parameter changes, the basic disjointness stays the same.

Figure 19.1: The $(-)$ picture for $A = 1/3$.

Figure 19.2 shows the same thing for the $(+)$ case. This time the black dot is $(1/2, 1/2)$ and the white dot is $(1/2, 1/2) + (1 + A, 0)$. The thick line represents $\Pi_+(0)$. In $\mathbb{R}^2$ coordinates, this is the line $y = 1/2$. In the $(+)$ case is isn’t even a close call.
Figure 19.2: The (+) picture for $A = 1/3$.

19.4 The End of the Proof

Now we know that there are no critical points. The only other way that the arithmetic graph could cross a floor line would be at a floor point that was also a lattice point. It might happen that one edge emanating from such a floor point lies above the floor line, and the other lies below.

Define

$$\zeta_k = \left( 0, \frac{k(p + q)}{2} \right); \quad k \in \mathbb{Z}. \quad (181)$$

Lemma 19.5 Modulo the symmetry group $\Theta$, the only lattice floor points are the ones listed in Equation 181.

Proof: If $(m, n)$ is a lattice floor point, then $2Am + 2n \in \mathbb{Z}$. But this means that $q$ divides $m$. Subtracting off a suitable multiple of $V = (q, -p) \in \Theta$, we can arrange that the first coordinate of our lattice floor point is $0$. But, now we must have one of the points in Equation 181. ♠
The slices as shown in Figure 10.3 determine the nature of the edges of the arithmetic graph, although the slices currently of interest to us are not shown there. We are interested in following the method discussed in §10.5, where we set $\alpha = 0$ and consider the singular situation. The points $M_-(\zeta_k)$ and $M_+(\zeta_k)$ both lie in the $(0, A)$ slices of our partitions. Figure 19.1 does for these slices what Figure 10.3 does for the generic slice. The point $M_-(\zeta_k)$ always lies along the bottom edge of the fiber, and the point $M_+(\zeta_k)$ just above the edge contained in the line $y = 1$. The relevant edges are highlighted.

![Figure 19.1: The $(0, A)$ slices.](image)

From this picture we can see that the only edges emanating from $\zeta_k$ are those corresponding to the pairs

$$(0, 1); \quad (1, 0); \quad (1, 1); \quad (-1, 1).$$

All of these edges point into the halfplane above the relevant floor line. This is what we wanted to establish.
19.5 The Even Case

The only place where we used the fact that $p/q$ is odd was in Lemma 19.1. We needed to know that the number $t$ in Equation 19.1 was odd. This no longer works when $p + q$ is odd. However, when $p/q$ is even, the floor grid has a different definition: Only the even floor lines are present in the grid. That is, the number $k$ in Equation 19.1 is an even integer. Hence, for the floor lines in the even case, the number $t$ is an integer. The rest of the proof of Lemma 19.1 works word for word. The rest of the proof of Statement 1 goes through word for word.
20 Proof of the Hexagrid Theorem II

20.1 The Basic Definitions

As in the previous chapter, we will take $p/q$ odd until the very end. It turns out that the secret to proving Statement 2 of the Hexagrid Theorem is to use variants of the maps $M_+$ and $M_-$ from Equation 10.6.3. Let $A \in (0,1)$ be any parameter. Let $\Lambda$ the lattice from the Master Picture Theorem. Let $\Pi \subset \mathbf{R}^3$ be the plane defined by the relation $x + y = A$.

For $(m,n) \in \mathbf{R}^2$ we define $\Delta_+(m,n) = (x,y,z)$, where

$$x = 2A(1 - m + n) - m; \quad y = A - x; \quad z = Am. \quad (182)$$

We also define

$$\Delta_-(m,n) = \Delta_+(m,n) + (-A,A,0). \quad (183)$$

Note that $\Delta_\pm(m,n) \in \Pi$. Indeed, $\Delta$ is an affine isomorphism from $\mathbf{R}^2$ onto $\Pi$.

Lemma 20.1 Suppose that $(m,n) \in \mathbf{Z}^2$. Then $\Delta_\pm(m,n)$ and $M_\pm(m,n)$ are equivalent mod $\Lambda$.

Proof: Let $v_1, v_2, v_3$ be the three columns of the matrix defining $\Lambda$. So, $v_1 = (1 + A, 0, 0)$ and $v_1 = (1 - A, 1 + A, 0)$ and $v_3 = (-1, -1, 1)$. Let

$$c_1 = -1 + 2m; \quad c_2 = 1 - m + 2n; \quad c_3 = n.$$ 

We compute directly that

$$M_+(m,n) - \Delta_+(m,n) = c_1v_1 + c_2v_2 + c_3v_3.$$ 

$$M_-(m,n) - \Delta_-(m,n) = c_1v_1 + (c_2 - 1)v_2 + c_3v_3.$$ 

This completes the proof. ♠

We introduce the vector

$$\zeta = (-A, A, 1) \in \Lambda. \quad (184)$$

Referring to the proof of our last result, we have $\zeta = v_2 + v_3$. This explains why $\zeta \in \Lambda$. Note that $\Pi$ is invariant under translation by $\zeta$.  

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20.2 Interaction with the Hexagrid

Now we will specialize to the case when \( A = \frac{p}{q} \) is an odd rational. The results above hold, and we can also define the hexagrid. We will see how the maps \( \Delta_+ \) and \( \Delta_- \) interact with the Hexagrid. Let \( L_0 \) denote the wall line through the origin.

**Lemma 20.2** \( \Delta_{\pm}(L_0) \) is parallel to \( \zeta \) and contains \((-2A, A, 0)\).

**Proof:** We refer to the points in Figure 4.1. The points \( v_5 \) and \( v_1 \) both lie on \( L_0 \). We compute

\[
\Delta_+(v_5) - \Delta_+(v_1) = \frac{p^2}{p + q} \zeta.
\]

Hence \( \Delta_+(L_0) \) is parallel to \( \zeta \). We compute that \( \Delta_+(0, 0) = (2A, -A, 0) \). ♠

We introduce the notation \( \Pi(x) \) to denote the line in \( \Pi \) that is parallel to \( \zeta \) and contains the point \((x, A - x, 0)\). For instance,

\[
\Delta_+(0, 0) \subset \Pi(2A); \quad \Delta_-(0, 0) \subset \Pi(A).
\] (185)

Let \( \Pi(r, s) \) denote the infinite strip bounded by the lines \( \Pi(r) \) and \( \Pi(s) \).

For each pair of indices \((\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2) \in \{−1, 0, 1\}^2\), we let \( \Sigma(\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2) \) denote the set of lattice points \((m, n)\) such that \( L_0 \) separates \((m, n)\) from \((m + \epsilon_1, n + \epsilon_2)\). Now we define constants

\[
\lambda(0, 1) = 2A \quad \lambda(-1, -1) = 1 - A^2;
\]

\[
\lambda(-1, 0) = 1 + 2A - A^2 \quad \lambda(-1, 1) = 1 + 4A - A^2 \quad (186)
\]

**Lemma 20.3** Let \((\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2)\) be any of the 4 pairs listed above. Let \( \lambda = \lambda(\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2) \). The following 3 statements are equivalent.

1. \((m, n) \in \Sigma(\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2)\).

2. \( \Delta_+(m, n) \) is congruent mod \( \Lambda \) to a point in the interior of \( \Pi(2A - \lambda, 2A) \).

3. \( \Delta_-(m, n) \) is congruent mod \( \Lambda \) to a point in the interior of \( \Pi(A - \lambda, A) \).
Proof: The formula $\Delta_- = \Delta_+ + (-A, A, 0)$ immediately implies the equivalence of the second and third statements. So, it suffices to prove the equivalence of the first two statements. We will consider the pair $(-1, 0)$. The other cases have the same treatment. The set $\Sigma(-1, 0)$ is the intersection of $\mathbb{Z}^2$ with the interior of some infinite strip, one of whose boundaries is $L_0$. To find the image of this strip under $\Delta_+$, we just have to see what $\Delta_+$ does to two points, one per boundary component of the strip. We choose the points $(0, 0)$ and $(1, 0)$. We already know that $\Delta_+(0, 0) \subset \Pi(2A)$. We just have to compute $\Delta_+(1, 0)$. We compute
\[
\Delta(1, 0) = (1, A - 1, A) \subset \Pi(1 - A^2).
\]
This gives us $\lambda(-1, 0) = 1 + 2A - A^2$. Our lemma follows from this fact, and from the fact that $\Delta_+$ is an affine isomorphism from $R^2$ to $\Pi$. ♠

20.3 Determining the Local Picture

A crossing cell can consist of either 1 edge or 2, depending on whether or not a vertex of the cell lies on a wall line. According to Lemma 18.4, the only crossing cells with one edge are equivalent mod $\Theta$ to the one whose center vertex is $(0, 0)$. For these special crossing cells, Statement 2 of the Hexagrid Theorem is obvious. The door is just the central vertex.

The remaining crossing cells are what we call generic. Each generic crossing cell has one vertex in one of our sets $\Sigma(\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2)$, for one of the 4 pairs considered above. We call $v \in \Sigma(\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2)$ a critical for $(\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2)$. $v$ and $v + (\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2)$ are the two vertices of a crossing cell. To prove Statement 2 of the Hexagrid Theorem, we need to understand the critical vertices. This means that we need to understand the local picture of the arithmetic graph in terms of the maps $\Delta_+$ and $\Delta_-$. We want to draw pictures as in the previous chapter, but here we need to be more careful. In the previous chapter, our plane $\Pi$ contained the vector $(1, 1, 1)$. Thus, we could determine the structure of the arithmetic graph just by looking at the intersection $\Pi \cap \mathcal{R}$. Here $\mathcal{R}$ is the polyhedron partition for the given parameter. The situation here is different. The vector $(1, 1, 1)$ is transverse to the plane $\Pi$. What we really need to do is to understand the way that the plane $\Pi_0$ intersects the our partition. Here $\Pi_0$ is the plane satisfying the equation $x + y = A + 2\alpha$. We think of $\alpha$ an infinitesimally
small but positive number. More formally, we take the geometric limit of the set \( \Pi_\alpha \cap \mathcal{R} \) as \( \alpha \downarrow 0 \).

We say that a subset \( S \subset \Pi \) is painted \((\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2, +)\) if \( \Delta_+ (m, n) \in S \) implies that \( \Delta_+ (m, n) \) determines the pair \((\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2)\). This is to say that \( S \) is contained in the Hausdorff limit of \( \Pi_\alpha \cap \mathcal{R}_+ (\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2) \) as \( \alpha \to 0 \). We make the same definition with \((+)\) in place of \((−)\). We think of \((\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2, \pm)\) as a kind of color, because these regions are assigned various colors in Billiard King. For instance \((0, 1, \pm)\) is green. There is essentially one painting of \( \Pi \) for \((+)\) and one for \((−)\).

To visualize the painting, we identify \( \Pi \) with \( \mathbb{R}^2 \) using the map \((x, y, z) \mapsto (x, z)\). We just drop the second coordinate. The vector \( \zeta \) maps to the \((-A, 1)\). Thus, our whole painting is invariant under translation by this vector. Each wall of \( \mathcal{R} \) intersects \( \Pi \) in a line segment whose image in \( \mathbb{R}^2 \) is either horizontal or vertical. The endpoints of each such segment have coordinates that are simple rational combinations of 1 and \( A \). For this reason, we can determine the intersection we seek just by inspecting the output from Billiard King. In practice, we take \( \alpha = 10^{-5} \), examine the resulting picture, and then adjust the various vertices slightly so that their coordinates are small rational combinations of 1 and \( A \).

### 20.4 An Extended Example

We consider the pair \((0, 1)\) in detail. We will draw pictures for the parameter \( A = 1/3 \), though the same argument works for any parameter. There is no polyhedron \( \mathcal{R}_-(0, 1) \), so no points are painted \((0, 1, −)\). The interesting case is \((0, 1, +)\). First of all, we only care about points in our strip \( \Sigma(0, 1) \). So, we only need to understand the portion of our painting that lies in our strip \( \Pi(0, 2A) \). In \( \mathbb{R}^2 \) (considered as the \(xz\) plane), our strip is bounded by the lines \( x = -zA \) and \( x = -zA + 2A \).

We will first study the picture when \( z = 0 \). Referring to Figure 19.1, the shaded triangles correspond to \( \mathcal{R}(0, 1) \). The thick line corresponds to the intersection of \( \Pi \) with our fiber. The black dot is the point \((A, 0, 0, A)\). Moving away from the black dot, the white dots are

\[(0, A, 0, A); \quad (-A, 2A, 0, A); \quad (-1, 1 + A, 0, A).\]

It we move the thick line an infinitesimal amount in the direction of \((1, 1)\), we see that it crosses though a shaded region whose diagonal edge is bounded
by the points \((0, A)\) and \((A, 0)\). The only tricky part of the analysis is that the point \((A, 0)\) determines the pair \((0, 0)\) and the point \((0, A)\) determines the pair \((-1, 1)\).

From this discussion, we conclude that \((0, A) \times \{0\}\) is painted \((0, 1, +)\). For later use, we remark that \((0, 0)\) is painted \((-1, 1, +)\) and \((A, 0)\) is painted \((0, 0, +)\). Looking at the picture, we also see that \((-1, -A) \times \{0\}\) is painted \((0, 1, +)\). Notice, however, that this set lies outside our strip. It is irrelevant.

Figure 20.2 shows the picture for a typical parameter \(z \in (0, 1)\). We choose \(z = 1/6\), though the features of interest are the same for any choice of \(z\). The interested reader can see essentially any slice (and in color) using Billiard King.

The black dot and the white dots have the same coordinates as in Figure 20.1. Notice that the point \((0, A, z, A)\) lies at the bottom corner of a shaded region. This remains true for all \(z\). We conclude that the open line segment \(\{0\} \times (0, 1)\) is painted \((0, 1, +)\). Similarly, the rectangle \((-1, -A) \times [0, 1]\) is painted \((0, 1, +)\). However, this rectangle is disjoint from the interior of our strip. Again, it is irrelevant.

Recalling that our painting is invariant under translation by \((0, 1, +)\), we can now draw the portion of plane painted \((0, 1, +)\) that is relevant to our analysis. To give the reader a sense of the geometry, we also draw one copy of the irrelevant rectangle. Again, we draw the picture for the parameter.
\[ A = \frac{1}{3}. \] The interested reader can see the picture for any parameter using Billiard King.

**Figure 20.2:** Slicing a typical fiber.

In Figure 19.3, the arrow represents the vector \((-A, 1)\). The black dot is \((0, 0)\) and the white dot is \((A, 0)\). The thick zig-zag, which is meant to go on forever in both directions, is the relevant part of the painting. The lightly shaded region is the strip of interest to us.

**Figure 20.3:** The relevant part of the \((0, 1, +)\) painting.
20.5 The Rest of the Painting

We determine the rest of the painting using the same techniques. The interested reader can see everything plotted on Billiard King. The left side of figure 19.4 shows the relevant part of the (+) painting. The right side shows the relevant part of the (−) painting. The dots are exceptional points in the painting. The two grey dots at the endpoints correspond to the right endpoints of the special crossing cells. We have shown a “fundamental domain” for the paintings. The whole painting is obtained taking the orbit under the group \(\langle \zeta \rangle\). In our picture, \(\zeta\) acts as translation by the vector \((-A, 1)\), because we are leaving off the \(y\) coordinate. In particular, the two endpoints of the \(L\) are identified when we translate by this group.

The small double-braced labels, such as \(((0, 1))\), indicate the paint colors. The large labels, such as \((0, 0)\), indicate the coordinates in the plane. Note that the point \((x, z)\) in the plane actually corresponds to \((x, A - z, y)\) in \(\Pi\). The grey vertices on the left corresponds to \(\Delta_+(0, 0)\). The grey vertices correspond to the various images of points on the special crossing cell. These vertices are not relevant to our analysis of the points that are critical relative to our 4 pairs.

\[ (+) \]
\[ (0,1) \quad ((0,0)) \]
\[ ((0,1)) \]
\[ (A,0) \quad (2A,0) \]
\[ (0,0) \quad ((0,1)) \quad ((-1,0)) \]
\[ ((-1,1)) \quad ((0,0)) \]

\[ (-) \]
\[ (0,1) \quad ((-1,0)) \]
\[ ((-1,0)) \]
\[ (0,0) \quad ((0,0)) \]

**Figure 20.4:** The relevant part of the (+) painting
Say that a vertex $v = (m, n)$ is critical if it either lies in $\Theta$ or else is critical for one of our strips. The point $(0, 0)$ is the center vertex of a special crossing cell. Hence, By Lemma 18.4, the critical vertices are in bijection with the crossing cells. Given our analysis above, we see that $v \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ is critical if and only if it satisfies the following criterion. Modulo the action of $\Lambda$, the point $\Delta_+(v)$ (respectively the point $\Delta_-(v)$) lies in one of the colored parts of the painting on the left (respectively right) in Figure 20.4.

Recalling that $\Delta_+ = \Delta_- + (A, -A, 0)$, we can eliminate $\Delta_-$ from our discussion. We translate the right hand side of Figure 20.4 by $(A, 0)$ and then superimpose it over the left hand side. (This translation does not reflect the way the two halves of Figure 20.4 are related to each other on the page.) See Figure 20.5. The result above has the following reformulation.

**Lemma 20.4 (Critical)** A vertex $v$ is critical if and only of $\Delta_+(v)$ is equivalent mod $\Lambda$ to a point colored portion of Figure 20.5.

![Superimposed paintings](image-url)
Our drawing of Figure 20.5 somewhat hides the symmetry of our picture. In Figure 20.6, we show several translates of this fundamental domain at the same time, without the labels. We also show the strip $\Pi(0, 2A)$. The pattern is meant to repeat endlessly in both directions. The line on the left is $\Pi(0)$ and the line on the right is $\Pi(2A)$. Again, we are drawing the picture for the parameter $A = 1/3$. The combinatorial pattern is the same for any $A$.

**Figure 20.6:** Superimposed paintings

To prove the hexagrid theorem, it only remains to identify the lattice points in the Critical Lemma with the doors from the Hexagrid Theorem.
20.6 The End of the Proof

Now we interpret the Critical Lemma algebraically. A vertex $v \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ is critical if and only if $\Delta_+(v)$ is equivalent mod $\Lambda$ to one of the following kinds of points.

1. $(2A, -A, 0)$.
2. $(0, A, 0)$.
3. $(x, A - x, 0)$, where $x \in (0, 2A) - \{A\}$.
4. $(0, A, z)$, where $z \in (0, 1)$.

As we point out in our subsection headings, each case corresponds to a different feature of our painting in Figures 19.5 and 19.6

20.6.1 Case 1: The Grey Dots

Note that $\Delta_+(0, 0) = (2A, -A, 0)$. Moreover, $\Delta_+(v) \equiv \Delta_+(v')$ mod $\Lambda$ iff $M_+(v) \equiv M_-(v')$ mod $\Lambda$ iff $v \equiv v'$ mod $\Theta$. Hence, Case 1 above corresponds precisely to the special crossing cells. The door associated to $v$ is precisely $v$. In this case, the door is associated to the wall above it.

20.6.2 Case 2: The Black Dots

Note that $\Delta_+(0, -1) = (0, A, 0)$. Hence the second case occurs iff $v$ is equivalent mod $\Theta$ to $(0, -1)$. But $(0, -1)$ is the vertex of a crossing cell whose other vertex is $(-1, 0)$. The door associated to $(0, -1)$ is $(0, 0)$. In this case, the door is associated to the wall below it.

20.6.3 Case 3: Horizontal Segments

We are going to demonstrate the bijection between the Type 1 doors not covered in Cases 1 and 2 and the critical points that arise from Case 3 above.

Let $v$ be a critical point. Using the symmetry of $\Theta$, we can arrange that our point $v$ is closer to $L_0$ than to any other wall line. In this case, $\Delta_+(v)$ lies in the strip $\Pi(0, 2A)$. Hence $v \in \Sigma(0, 1)$. Hence $L_0$ separates $v$ from $v + (0, 1)$. Let $y \in (n, n + 1)$ be such that $(m, y) \in L_0$. 

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The third coordinate of $\Delta_+(v)$ is an integer. Setting $v = (m, n)$, we see that $Am \in \mathbf{Z}$. Hence $q$ divides $m$. Hence $v = (kq, n)$ for some $k \in \mathbf{Z}$. Hence $(kq, y)$ is a Type 1 door.

For the converse, suppose that the point $(kq, y)$ is a Type 1 door and that $n = y$. Let $v = (kq, n)$. We want to show that $v$ is critical. By construction $(kq, n) \in \Sigma(0, 1)$. Hence $\Delta_+(kq, n) \in \Pi(0, 2A)$. But the third coordinate of $\Delta_+(kq, n)$ is an integer. Hence $\Delta_+(kq, n)$ is equivalent mod $\Lambda$ to a point of the form $(x, A - x, 0)$. Here $x \in (0, 2A)$.

If $x = A$ then $v$ lies on the centerline of the strip $\Sigma(0, 1)$. But then $y - y = 1/2$. This contradicts Lemma 18.6. Hence $A \neq x$.

Now we know that $\Delta_+(kq, n)$ satisfies Case 3 above. Hence $(kq, n)$ is critical, either for $(0, 1)$ or for $(-1, 0)$. These are the relevant labellings in Figure 20.5. Note that $L_0$ has positive slope greater than 1. Hence $(kq, n) \in \Sigma_+(0, 1) \cap \Sigma_+(-1, 0)$. If $\Delta'_+(v)$ is colored $(0, 1)$, then $v$ is critical for $(0, 1)$. If $\Delta'_+(v)$ is colored $(-1, 0)$, then $v$ is critical for $(-1, 0)$. So, $v$ is always vertex of a crossing cell.

20.6.4 Case 4: Vertical Segments

We are going to demonstrate the bijection between Type 2 doors and the critical points that arise from Case 4 above.

We use the symmetry of $\Theta$ to guarantee that our critical point is closer to $L_0$ than to any other wall line. As in Case 3, the point $\Delta_+(v) \in \Pi(0, A)$. Hence $v \in \Sigma(0, 1)$ and $L_0$ separates $v$ from $v + (0, 1)$. We define $y$ as in Case 3. We want to show that $(m, y) \in L$ is a Type 2 door.

Since we are in Case 4, the first coordinate of $\Delta_+(v)$ lies in $AZ$. The idea here is that $\Delta_+(v)$ is equivalent mod $(-A, A, 1)$ to a point whose first coordinate is either 0 or $A$. Hence

$$x = 2A(1 - m + n) - m \in AZ.$$ 

Hence $x/A \in \mathbf{Z}$. Hence $m/A \in \mathbf{Z}$. Hence $m = kp$. By Lemma 18.7, the point $(x, y)$ is a door.

Conversely, suppose that the point $(kp, y)$ is door contained in $L_0$. Let $n = y$. Then $(kp, n) \in \Sigma(0, 1)$ and the first coordinate of $\Delta_+(kp, n)$ lies in the set $AZ$. Also, $\Delta_+(kp, n) \in \Pi(0, 2A)$. Hence, $(kp, n)$ satisfies Case 4 above. Hence $(kp, n)$ is critical for either $(0, 1)$ of $(-1, 0)$. In either case, $(kp, n)$ is a vertex of a crossing cell.
20.7 The Pattern of Crossing Cells

Our proof of the Hexagrid Theorem is done, but we can say more about the nature of the crossing cells. First of all, there are two crossing cells consisting of edges of slope ±1. These crossing cells correspond to the black and grey corner dots in Figure 20.6.

The remaining crossing cells involve either vertical or horizontal edges. These crossing cells correspond to the interiors of the segments in Figures 19.5 and 19.6. Let \( v = (m, n) \) be the critical vertex associated to the door \((m, y)\). Then \( v \) is critical either for \((0,1)\) or \((-1,0)\). In the former case, the crossing cell associated to \( v \) is vertical, and in the latter case it is horizontal.

Looking at the way Figure 20.5 is labelled, we see that

- The crossing cell is vertical if \( y - \underline{y} > 1/2 \).
- The crossing cell is horizontal if \( y - \underline{y} < 1/2 \).

The case \( y - \underline{y} = 1/2 \) does not occur, by lemma 18.6.

There are exactly \( p + q \) crossing cells mod \( \Theta \). These cells are indexed by the value of \( y - n \). The possible numbers are

\[
\{0, \frac{1}{p}, \ldots, \frac{p-1}{p}, \frac{1}{q}, \ldots, \frac{q-1}{q}, 1\}.
\]

In all cases we have \( y - n = y - \underline{y} \), except when \( n = y - 1 \).

Figure 20.7 shows, for the case \( p/q = 3/5 \), the images of the critical vertices, on one fundamental domain for Figure 20.6. (The fundamental domain here is nicer than the one in Figure 20.5.) We have labelled the image points by the indices of the corresponding crossing cells. The lines inside the dots show the nature of the crossing cell. The dashed grid lines in the figure are present to delineate the structure. The lines inside the dots show the nature of the crossing cell.

One can think of the index values in the following way. Sweep across the plane from right to left by moving a line of slope \(-5/3\) parallel to itself. (The diagonal line in Figure 20.7 is one such line.) The indices are ordered according to how the moving line encounters the vertices. The lines we are using correspond to the lines in \( \Pi \) that are parallel to the vector \( \zeta \).
Figure 20.7: Images of the critical points

Figure 20.7 is representative of the general case. It is meant to suggest the general pattern. We hope that the pattern is clear.

20.8 The Even Case

When \( p/q \) is an even rational, all the constructions in this chapter go through word for word.

It appears that we used the fact that \( p/q \) is odd in Cases 3 and 4 in the last section, but this isn’t so. We only used the fact that Corollary 18.6 was true, and that Lemma 18.7 was true. At the time, we had only proved these results in the odd rational case. However, since these results hold in the even case, the arguments for Cases 3 and 4 go through word for word.

A final remark on Case 3: Case 3 required us to use Corollary 18.6 to rule out the possibility that the point \((m, n)\) is equivalent mod \( \Lambda \) to the points \((A, 0, 0)\). This can happen in the even case, and indeed it happens when \((m, y)\) is a crossing of the kind we are no longer calling a door. In other words, this does not happen for a door because we have forced the situation.
Part IV

In this part of the monograph we use the Master Picture Theorem to prove the Copy Theorems and the Decomposition Theorem, two technical results left over Part I. The Copy Theorems were discussed in §7. The Decomposition Theorem was discussed in §8.3.

- In §21 we state and prove the Copy Theorem, our main period copying theorem. We will also deduce Theorem 4.3 from the Copy Theorem. As we mentioned in Part I, Theorem 4.3 is sufficient to prove our main results for almost every parameter. The reader who is satisfied knowing our main results for almost every $A \in (0,1)$ can stop reading after this chapter. One can view the rest of Part of IV as a more careful accounting of what is going on, in order to improve the main results from “almost every” to “every”.

- In §22 we will prove the Superior Sequence Lemma. We will also establish a few auxiliary results about the superior sequences.

- In §23 we will prove the Decomposition Theorem from §8. The Copy Theorem does imply Theorems 4.2 and 7.5, but (as far as we can see) not in any direct way. We need to combine the Copy Theorem with the Decomposition Theorem.

- In 24.1, we will deduce Theorem 4.2 from the Copy Theorem, the Decomposition Theorem, and from the theory built up in §22. At the end of this chapter, we will have tied up all the loose ends in the monograph.
21 The Copy Theorem

21.1 Two Linear Functionals

Let \( p/q \) be an odd rational. Let \( V = (q, -p) \) be the vector from Equation 12. In terms of the arithmetic kite, \( V = v_7 \). Our period copying theorems will be stated in terms of the following 2 linear functionals.

\[
G(m, n) = \left( \frac{q-p}{p+q}, \frac{-2q}{p+q} \right) \cdot (m, n).
\]

(187)

\[
H = \left( \frac{-p^2 + 4pq + q^2}{(p+q)^2}, \frac{2q(q-p)}{(p+q)^2} \right) \cdot (m, n).
\]

(188)

These two functions are adapted to the arithmetic kite.

Lemma 21.1 \( G(V) = q \). Moreover, the fibers of \( G \) are parallel to the top left edge of the arithmetic kite.

Proof: The first statement is a computation. Referring to the arithmetic kite in Figure 4.1, we compute that \( G(v_b) = G(v_3) \). Thus, \( G \) takes on the same values on the top left edge of \( Q(p/q) \). ♠

Lemma 21.2 \( H(V) = q \). Moreover, the fibers of \( H \) are parallel to the top right edge of the arithmetic kite.

Proof: The first statement is a computation. Referring to the arithmetic kite in Figure 4.1, we compute that \( H(v_7) = H(v_3) \). Thus, \( H \) takes on the same values on the top right edge of \( Q(p/q) \). ♠

Given \( r < 0 < s \), we define

\[
\Delta(r, s) = \{(m, n) | G(m, n), H(m, n) \in [r, s]\}.
\]

(189)

This set is a parallelogram that is cut in half by the baseline of \( \Gamma(p/q) \). For applications, we are mainly interested in points of \( \Delta(r, s) \) above the baseline, but our result works for points below the baseline as well.
21.2 The Main Result

Suppose that $A_1 = p_1/q_1$ is an odd rational and $A_2 = p_2/q_2$ is another rational, not necessarily odd. We define $a = a(A_1, A_2)$ by the formula

$$\left| \frac{p_1}{q_1} - \frac{p_2}{q_2} \right| = \frac{2}{aq_1^2}. \quad (190)$$

We call $(A_1, A_2)$ a good pair if $a > 1$ and $q_2 \geq aq_1$. In case $A_2$ is odd, the second condition is automatic. Referring to the notation in Equation 18, we define

$$\lambda_1 = \frac{(q_1)_+}{q_1}. \quad (191)$$

If $A_1 < A_2$ we define

$$K = \text{floor} \left( \frac{a}{2} - \lambda_1 \right) + 1 + \lambda_1. \quad (192)$$

if $A_1 > A_2$ we define

$$K = \text{floor} \left( \frac{a}{2} + \lambda_1 \right) + 1 - \lambda_1. \quad (193)$$

**Theorem 21.3 (Copy)** Let $C = 3$. Let $(A_1, A_2)$ be a good pair of rationals. Then

1. If $A_1 < A_2$ then $\hat{\Gamma}_1$ and $\hat{\Gamma}_2$ agree on $\Delta(-q_1 + C, Kq_1 - C)$.
2. If $A_1 > A_2$ then $\hat{\Gamma}_1$ and $\hat{\Gamma}_2$ agree on $\Delta(-Kq_1 + C, q_1 - C)$.

**Remarks:** (i) Our result has the following geometric interpretation. To make the interpretation work best, set $C = 0$, and let $\Delta$ be the set from the Copy Theorem. Let $L_j$ be the baseline for $\Gamma_j$. Then both $L_1$ and $L_2$ essentially bisect $\Delta$, and no lattice point lies between $L_1 \cap \Delta$ and $L_2 \cap \Delta$. Enlarging $\Delta$ at all would destroy this property. So, for fixed shape, $\Delta$ is the maximal parallelogram with the lattice point property we just mentioned.

(ii) The constant $C = 3$ is an artifact of our proof. Probably $C = 2$ is the optimal constant. For our applications, we just need the existence of some constant $C$. 

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21.3 A Picture Says a Thousand Words

Figure 21.1 illustrates the Copy Theorem for $A_1 = 3/11$ and $A_2 = 7/25$. We have $A_1 < A_2$ and $a = 25/11$ and $\lambda_1 = 7/11$ and $K = 1 + 7/11$.

The lightly shaded parallelogram is $\Delta(-q_1, Kq_1)$. This set is larger by 3 units than the set in the Copy Theorem. We plot the points near $\Delta$ where $\hat{\Gamma}_1$ and $\hat{\Gamma}_2$ disagree. Notice that these points penetrate less than 3 units into $\Delta$. Starting from $(0,0)$ and tracing $\Gamma_1$ and $\Gamma_2$ in either direction, we get agreement until we nearly hit the edges of $\Delta$. The set $X = FR_1 \cup SR_1$ sits well inside $\Delta$. (The point $(0,0)$ is the bottom left vertex of $FR_1$.) Thus, the Copy Theorem and the Decomposition Theorem together predict that $\Gamma_1 \subset \Gamma_2$, and this is true. Since the bottom right vertex of $SR_1$ is well inside $\Delta$, we get $\Gamma_1^{1+\epsilon} \subset \Gamma_2^1$ for some reasonable choice of $\epsilon > 0$. 

Figure 21.1: The Copy Theorem in action.
21.4 Proof of Theorem 4.3

Let $V_1$ and $W_1$ be the vectors in Equation 12. By the Room Lemma and periodicity, $\Gamma_1^n \subset R_n$, where $R_n$ is the parallelogram bounded by the vectors

\[(0,0); \quad nV_1; \quad W_1; \quad nV_1 + W_1. \tag{194}\]

Since $a = 2n + 2$, we have $K \geq n + 1$ in the Copy Theorem. For ease of notation, we set $p = p_1$ and $G = G_1$, etc. Let

\[I = [-q + 3, Kq - 3].\]

Obviously $G(0,0) = H(0,0) = 0 \in I$. For the remaining vertices, we have

\[G(nV) = H(nv) = nq \in I\]

\[G(W) = -\frac{q^2}{p+q} \in^* [-q + 3, 0] \subset I\]

\[H(W) = +\frac{q^2}{p+q} \in^* [0, q - 3] \subset I.\]

\[G(W + nV) = G(W) + G(nV) \in^* [nq - q + 3, nq] \subset I.\]

\[H(W + nV) = H(W) + H(nV) \in^* [nq, nq + q - 3] \subset I.\]

The starred containments hold for $p$ large.

We also have universal gradient bounds

\[\|\nabla G\| < 8 \quad \|\nabla H\| < 8. \tag{195}\]

Combining these bounds with our calculations for the bottom right vertex $nV$, we see that any vertex within $\epsilon q$ units of $nV$ lies in $\Delta(-q + 3, Kq - 3)$. Here $\epsilon = 1/10$. In short,

\[(m,n) \in \Delta(-q_1 + 3, Kq_1 - 3); \quad \forall (m,n) \in \Gamma_1^{n+\epsilon}. \tag{196}\]

By the Copy Theorem, $\Gamma_1^{n+\epsilon} \subset \tilde{\Gamma}_2$. Since $\Gamma_1$ and $\Gamma_2$ both contain the $(0,0)$, we now see that $\Gamma_1^{n+\epsilon} \subset \Gamma_2$. But the right endpoint of $\Gamma_1^{1+\epsilon}$ is within $\epsilon q_1$ of $nV_1$ whereas the right endpoint of $\Gamma_2^1$ is (much) more than $\epsilon q_1$ from $nV_1$, and further to the right. Hence $\Gamma_1^{n+\epsilon} \subset \Gamma_1^2$. 

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21.5 Setting up the Main Proof

For ease of exposition, we only prove Statement 1 of the Copy Theorem, which we refer to as the Copy Theorem I. The Copy Theorem II has an almost identical proof. We will use the method in §10.5 to compute the arithmetic graphs $\hat{\Gamma}_1$ and $\hat{\Gamma}_2$. By the Master Picture Theorem, it suffices to show that the points $M_{\pm}(m, n)$ land in the same polyhedron of $R_A$, relative to $A_1 = p_1/q_1$ and $A_2 = p_2/q_2$. The following 10 step outline explains how we do this. Here $\epsilon_1$ and $\epsilon_2$ stand for integers in $\{-1, 0, 1\}$.

1. Let $z_j = A_j m + n$.
2. Let $Z_j = \text{floor}(x_j)$.
3. We prove that $Z_1 = Z_2$. Let $Z = Z_1 = Z_2$. We also prove that the statement $z_j - Z < \epsilon_1 A_j + \epsilon_2$ has the same truth value independent of $j \in \{1, 2\}$. We mean this to hold for any relevant choice of $\epsilon_1$ and $\epsilon_2$.
4. Let $y_j = z_j + Z_j$ in the (−) case and $y_j = z_j + Z_j + 1$ in the (+) case.
5. Let $Y_j = \text{floor}(y_j/(1 + A_j))$.
6. We prove that $Y_1 = Y_2$. Let $Y = Y_1 = Y_2$. We also prove that the statement $y_j - Y(1 + A_j) < \epsilon_1 A_j + \epsilon_2$ has the same truth value independent of $j \in \{1, 2\}$. We mean this to hold for any relevant choice of $\epsilon_1$ and $\epsilon_2$.
7. Let $x_j = y_j - Y(1 - A_j) - 1$.
8. Let $X_j = \text{floor}(x_j/(1 + A_j))$.
9. We prove that $X_1 = X_2$. Let $X = X_1 = X_2$. We also prove that $x_j - X(1 + A_j) < \epsilon_1 A_j + \epsilon_2$ has the same truth value independent of $j \in \{1, 2\}$. We mean this to hold for any relevant choice of $\epsilon_1$ and $\epsilon_2$.
10. We want to see that all of the statements 

$$(x_j - X(1 + A_j)) + (y_j - Y(1 + A_j)) - (z_j - Z) < h + A_j; \quad h \in \mathbb{Z}$$

has the same truth value independent of $j \in \{1, 2\}$.
21.6 Good Integers

In this section we state 3 technical lemmas that imply the Copy Theorem I. Our notation refers to the 10 step outline above.

Let \( A_j = p_j/q_j \) for \( j = 1, 2 \). We say that an integer \( \mu \) is good if

\[
\text{floor}(\mu A_1) = \text{floor}(\mu A_2). \tag{197}
\]

**Lemma 21.4 (Good Integer)** Suppose \((m, n)\) satisfies the hypotheses of the Copy Theorem I, and \(X_1\) and \(Y_1\) are the integers that arise when we perform the reduction algorithm above to \((m, n)\). For any \( \epsilon \in \{-1, 0, 1\} \), the integers

\[
m - \epsilon; \quad m - Y_1 - \epsilon; \quad m - X_1 - \epsilon; \quad m + Y_1 - X_1 + \epsilon
\]

are all good integers.

**Proof:** See §21.8. ♠

**Lemma 21.5** Let \( d \geq 0 \) be an integer. Suppose \( \mu, \eta \in \mathbb{Z} \). Let \( N_j \) be the integer such that

\[
N_j(dA_j + 1) < \mu A_j + \nu + \alpha < (N_j + 1)(dA_j + 1).
\]

Suppose \( \mu - dN_1 \) and \( \mu - dN_2 \) are both good integers. Then \( N_1 = N_2 \).

**Proof:** Suppose first that \( N_1 < N_2 \). In this case we set \( N = N_2 \) and we note that

\[
\mu A_1 + \nu < N(dA_1 + 1); \quad N(dA_2 + 1) > \mu A_2 + \nu.
\]

But then

\[
(\mu - dN)A_1 < N - \nu < (\mu - dN)A_2.
\]

This contradicts the fact that \( \mu - dN_2 \) is good. If \( N_1 > N_2 \) we set \( N = N_1 \) and get the same equations with the inequalities reversed. This contradicts the fact that \( \mu - dN_1 \) is good. ♠
Lemma 21.6 Let \( d \geq 0 \) be an integer and. Suppose \( \mu, \eta \in \mathbb{Z} \). Let \( N \) be an integer. The truth of the statement

\[
(\mu A_j + \eta + \alpha) - N(dA_j + 1) < \epsilon_1 A_1 + \epsilon_2
\]

is independent of \( j \) provided that \( \mu - dN - \epsilon_1 \) is good.

**Proof:** The proof is almost the same as in Lemma 21.5. If the above statement is true for \( j = 1 \) and false for \( j = 2 \) then we get the inequalities

\[
(\mu - dN - \epsilon_1)A_1 < \epsilon_2 + N - \nu < (\mu - dN - \epsilon_1)A_2,
\]

and this contradicts the fact that \( \mu - dN - \epsilon_1 \) is good. We get a similar contradiction, with the inequalities reversed, if the statement is true for \( j = 1 \) and false for \( j = 2 \). 

\( \blacksquare \)

21.7 The Main Argument

We will carry out the 10 step outline for \( M_- \). The argument for \( M_+ \) is essentially identical.

- We have \( z_j = mA_j + n \). To see that \( Z_1 = Z_2 \) we apply the Good Integer Lemma and Lemma 21.5 to the case

\[
(\mu, d, N_j) = (m, 0, Z_j).
\]

The relevant good integer is \( m \). Let \( Z = Z_1 = Z_2 \).

- To see that the truth of the statement \( z_j - Z < \epsilon_1 A_j + \epsilon_2 \) is true independent of \( j \), we apply the Good Integer Lemma and Lemma 21.6 to the case

\[
(\mu, d, N) = (m, 0, Z).
\]

The relevant good integer is \( m - \epsilon_1 \).

- We have \( y_j = mA_j + n' \) for some \( n' \in \mathbb{Z} \). To see that \( Y_1 = Y_2 \) we apply the Good Integer Lemma and Lemma 21.5 to the case

\[
(\mu, d, N_j) = (m, 1, Y_j).
\]

The relevant good integers are \( m - Y_1 \) and \( m - Y_2 \). We set \( Y = Y_1 = Y_2 \).
To see that the truth of the statement \( y_j - Y(A_1 + 1) < \epsilon_1 A_j + \epsilon_2 \) is independent of \( j \), we apply the Good Integer Lemma and Lemma 21.6 to the case 
\[
(\mu, d, N) = (m, 1, Y).
\]
The relevant good integer is \( m - Y - \epsilon_1 \).

- We have
  \[
x_j = (m + Y)A_j + n''
  \]
for some \( n'' \in \mathbb{Z} \). To see that \( X_1 = X_2 \) we apply the Good Integer Lemma and Lemma 21.5 to the case 
\[
(\mu, d, N_j) = (m + Y, 1, X_j).
\]
The relevant good numbers are \( m + Y - X_1 \) and \( m + Y - X_2 \). We set \( X = X_1 = X_2 \).

- To see that the truth of the statement \( x_j - (1 + A_j)X < \epsilon_1 A_j + \epsilon_2 \) is independent of \( j = 1, 2 \) we apply the Good Integer Lemma and Lemma 21.6 to the case 
\[
(\mu, d, N) = (m + Y, 1, X).
\]
The relevant good number is \( m + Y - X - \epsilon_1 \).

- Define
  \[
  \sigma_j = (x_j - X(1 + A_j)) + (y_j - Y(1 + A_j)) - (z_j - Z).
  \]
We have \( \sigma_j = (m - X)A_j + n''' \) for some \( n''' \in \mathbb{Z} \). Let \( h \in \mathbb{Z} \) be arbitrary.
To see that the truth of the statement \( \sigma_j < A_j + h \) is independent of \( j \) we apply the Good Integer Lemma and Lemma 21.6 to
\[
(\mu, d, N) = (m - X, 1, 0).
\]
The relevant good number is \( m - X - 1 \).

This proves that \( M_-(m, n) \) lands in the same polyhedron for each parameter \( A_1 \) and \( A_2 \). As we said above, essentially the same argument works for \( M_+ \). Modulo the Good Integer Lemma, this completes the proof of the Copy Theorem I. Again, the proof of the the Copy Theorem II is almost identical.

It only remains to prove the Good Integer Lemma.
21.8 Proof of the Good Integer Lemma

21.8.1 Step 1

Let $K$ be as in the Copy Theorem I.

Lemma 21.7 If $\mu \in (-q_1, Kq_1) \cap \mathbb{Z}$ then $\mu$ is a good integer.

We will prove this result in two stages, one for the lower bound for one for the upper bound.

Lemma 21.8 If $\mu \in (-q_1, 0)$, then $\mu$ is good.

Proof: Since $q_1$ is odd, we have unique integers $j$ and $M$ such that

$$\mu A_1 = M + \frac{j}{q_1}; \quad |j| < \frac{q_1}{2}.$$  (198)

By hypotheses, $a > 1$. Hence

$$|A_2 - A_1| < 2/q_1^2$$  (199)

in all cases. If this result is false, then there is some integer $N$ such that

$$\mu A_2 < N \leq \mu A_1.$$  (200)

Referring to Equation 198, we have

$$\left|\frac{j}{q_1}\right| < \mu A_1 - N \leq \mu A_1 - \mu A_2 < \frac{2|\mu|}{q_1^2} < \frac{2}{q_1}.$$  (201)

If $j = 0$ then $q_1$ divides $\mu$, which is impossible. Hence $|j| = 1$. If $j = -1$ then $\mu A_1$ is $1/q_1$ less than an integer. Hence $\mu A_1 - N \geq (q_1 - 1)/q_1$. This is false, so we must have $j = 1$.

From the definition of $\lambda_1$, we have the following implication.

$$\mu \in (-q_1, 0) \quad \text{and} \quad \mu p_1 \equiv 1 \mod q_1 \quad \implies \quad \mu = -\lambda_1 q_1.$$  (202)

Equation 198 implies

$$\frac{\mu p_1}{q_1} - \frac{1}{q_1} \in \mathbb{Z}.$$  

But then $\mu p_1 \equiv 1 \mod q_1$. Equation 202 now tells us that $\mu = -\lambda_1 q_1$. Hence $|\mu| < q_1/2$. But now Equation 201 is twice as strong and gives $|j| = 0$. This is a contradiction. ♠

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Lemma 21.9 If $\mu \in (0, Kq_1)$ then $\mu$ is good.

Proof: We observe that $K < a$, by Equation 192. If this result is false, then there is some integer $N$ such that $\mu A_1 < N \leq \mu A_2$. If $\mu A_2 = N$. Then $q_2$ divides $\mu$. But then,$$
mu \geq q_2 \geq aq_1 > Kq_1.
$$This is a contradiction. Hence$$
\mu A_1 < N < \mu A_2.
$$Referring to Equation 198, we have
$$
\frac{|j|}{q_1} \leq N - \mu A_1 < \mu (A_2 - A_1) = \frac{2\mu}{aq_1^2} < \frac{2}{q_1}.
$$
Suppose that $j \in \{0, 1\}$ in Equation 198. Then
$$
1 - \frac{1}{q_1} \leq N - \mu A_1 \leq \mu A_2 - \mu A_1 < \frac{1}{q_1},
$$
a contradiction. Hence $j = -1$. Hence $\mu > aq_1/2$.

Since $j = -1$, Equation 198 now tells us that $\mu p_1 + 1 \equiv 0 \mod q_1$. But then
$$
\mu = kq_1 + (q_1),
$$
for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. On the other hand, from Equation 192 and the fact that $\mu < Kq_1$, we have
$$
\mu < k'q_1 + (q_1); \quad k' = \left(\text{floor}(a/2 - \lambda_1) + 1\right).
$$
Comparing the last two equations, we have $k \leq k' - 1$. Hence
$$
k \leq \left(\text{floor}(a/2 - \lambda_1)\right).
$$
Therefore
$$
\mu \leq \left(\text{floor}(a/2 - \lambda_1)\right)q_1 + \lambda_1 q_1 \leq aq_1/2.
$$
But we have already shown that $\mu > aq_1/2$. This is a contradiction. ♠
21.8.2 Step 2

The Good Integer Lemma only involves the numbers \( p_1, q_1, X_1 \), etc. For ease of notation, we set \( p = p_1 \), etc.

The Good Integer Lemma involves 4 statements, one per listed number. Statement 1 follows immediately from Lemma 21.7. By construction, we have \( X \in [-1,Y] \). Hence \( m - X \in [m - Y, m + 1] \). Hence, Statement 2 implies Statement 3. Our next two results deal respectively with Statements 2 and 4. In these results, \( \epsilon \) can be any of the three integers in \( \{-1,0,1\} \). The reduction algorithm from §21.5 must be performed for the map \( M_- \) and for the map \( M_+ \).

**Lemma 21.10** \( G(m,n) \in (-q_1 + 2, Kq_1 - 3) \) then \( m - Y_1 - \epsilon \) is good.

**Proof:** We will treat the (+) case. In the (−) case, the only difference is that \( Y + 1 \) replaces \( Y \). We will use the terminology \( \text{Reduce } k \) to refer to the \( k \)th step in our outline from §21.5. Given that we are working with \( M_- \), Reduce 4 gives us

\[
y \in [2z - 1, 2z]
\]  
(208)

Reduce 5 gives us

\[
Y \in \left[ \frac{y}{1+A} - 1, \frac{y}{1+A} \right] \subset \left[ \frac{2z}{1+A} - 1 - \frac{1}{1+A}, \frac{2z}{1+A} \right].
\]  
(209)

Using \( z = Am + n \) and \( A = p/q \), we get

\[
m - Y \in \left[ G_-(m,n), G_-(m,n) + 1 + \frac{1}{1+A} \right].
\]  
(210)

If \( G_-(m,n) > -q + 1 \) then

\[
m - Y - \epsilon > -q + 1.
\]

If \( G_-(m,n) < Kq - 3 \) then

\[
m - Y - \epsilon < Kq - 2 + 1 + \frac{1}{1+A} < Kq.
\]

Since \( m - Y - \epsilon \) is an integer, we have \( m - Y - \epsilon < Kq \). All in all, we have \( m - Y - \epsilon \in (-q, Kq) \). Lemma 21.7 now applies. ♠
Lemma 21.11 If $H(m, n) \in (-q_1 + 3, Kq_1 - 3)$ then $m + Y_1 - X_1 - \epsilon$ is good.

Proof: Our proof works the same in the $(+)$ and $(-)$ cases. Reduce 5 and Reduce 8 give us

$$Y \in \left[\frac{y}{1 + A} - 1, \frac{y}{1 + A}\right]; \quad X \in \left[\frac{x}{1 + A} - 1, \frac{x}{1 + A}\right].$$

Hence

$$Y - X \in \left[\frac{y - x}{1 + A} - 1, \frac{y - x}{1 + A} + 1\right] \quad (211)$$

Reduce 7 gives us

$$\frac{y - x}{1 + A} = Y \frac{1 - A}{1 + A} + \frac{1}{1 + A} \quad (212)$$

Equation 209 gives us

$$Y \frac{1 - A}{1 + A} \in \left[2z \frac{1 - A}{(1 + A)^2} - \eta, 2z \frac{1 - A}{(1 + A)^2}\right]; \quad \eta = \left(1 + \frac{1}{1 + A}\right) \times \frac{1 - A}{1 + A}.$$ 

Observing that

$$\frac{1}{1 + A} - \eta = \frac{A^2 + 2A - 1}{(1 + A)^2} \in (-1, \frac{1}{2}),$$

we see that

$$m + \frac{y - x}{1 + A} \in \left(2z \frac{1 - A}{(1 + A)^2} - 1, 2z \frac{1 - A}{(1 + A)^2} + \frac{1}{2}\right) =$$

$$\left(G + (m, n) - 1, G + (m, n) + \frac{1}{2}\right). \quad (213)$$

Combining this last result with Equation 211, we have

$$m + Y - X \in \left(G + (m, n) - 2, G + (m, n) + \frac{3}{2}\right). \quad (214)$$

The rest of the proof is as in Lemma 21.10. ♠
22 Existence of Superior Sequences

22.1 Outline

In this chapter we will prove the Superior Sequence Lemma, and also derive some basic properties of superior sequences. Our construction of the superior sequence is a 2-step process. First we will construct a sequence \( \{p_n/q_n\} \) such that \( p_n/q_n \leftarrow p_{n+1}/q_{n+1} \) for all \( n \), in the sense of Equation 20. Explicitly, we have

\[
\begin{align*}
\lambda_n < 1/2 \quad &\implies \quad \frac{p_{n-1}}{q_{n-1}} = \frac{(p_n)^+ - (p_n)^-}{(q_n)^+ - (q_n)^-} \quad (215) \\
\lambda_n > 1/2 \quad &\implies \quad \frac{p_{n-1}}{q_{n-1}} = \frac{(p_n)^- - (p_n)^+}{(q_n)^- - (q_n)^+} \quad (216)
\end{align*}
\]

Here

\[
\lambda_n = \frac{(q_n)^+}{q_n}. \quad (217)
\]

We call this sequence the inferior sequence. We will produce a superior sequence by taking a suitable subsequence of the inferior sequence. The reader should look again at the example we gave right after the statement of the Superior Sequence Lemma. We took this 2-step approach in that example.

Even though we are ultimately only interested in the superior sequence, we will state many of our structural results in terms of the inferior sequence. The idea is that we can use properties of the inferior sequence to deduce properties of the superior sequence.

We will use elementary hyperbolic geometry to show the existence of the inferior sequence. This is similar to what one does for the sequence of continued fraction approximants. Here is a rapid review of hyperbolic geometry. The reader should consult [B] for details.

The hyperbolic plane is the upper halfplane \( \mathbb{H}^2 \subset \mathbb{C} \). The group \( SL_2(\mathbb{R}) \) of real \( 2 \times 2 \) matrices acts isometrically by linear transformations. The geodesics are vertical rays or semicircles centered on \( \mathbb{R} \).

The Farey graph is a tiling of \( \mathbb{H}^2 \) by ideal triangles. We join \( p_1/q_1 \) and \( p_2/q_2 \) by a geodesic iff \( |p_1 q_2 - p_2 q_1| = 1 \). The resulting graph divides the hyperbolic plane into an infinite symmetric union of ideal geodesic triangles. The Farey graph is probably the most famous picture in hyperbolic geometry.

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22.2 Existence of the Inferior Sequence

We modify the Farey graph by erasing all the lines that connect even fractions to each other. The remaining edges partition $H^2$ into an infinite union of ideal squares.

Remark: The pattern of idea squares is not preserved by the modular group. However, the level 2 congruence subgroup $\Gamma_2$ does preserve the pattern of squares. Indeed, a single square serves as a fundamental domain for the action of $\Gamma_2$, and the quotient $H^2/\Gamma_2$ is a 3-punctured sphere obtained by suitably identifying the boundaries of the square.

We say that a basic square is one of these squares that has all vertices in the interval $(0,1)$. Each basic square has two opposing vertices that are labelled by positive odd rationals, $p_1/q_1$ and $p_2/q_2$. These odd rationals satisfy Equation 18 when ordered so that $q_1 < q_2$. We call $p_1/q_1$ the head of the square and $p_2/q_2$ the tail of the square. We draw an arrow in each odd square that points from the tail to the head. We call the odd square right biased if the rightmost vertex is an odd rational, and left biased if the leftmost vertex is an odd rational.

The general form of a left biased square is

$$\frac{a_1}{b_1}; \frac{a_1 + a_2}{b_1 + b_2}; \frac{a_1 + 2a_2}{b_1 + 2b_2}; \frac{a_2}{b_2}. \quad (218)$$

The leftmost vertex in a left-biased square is the head, and the rightmost vertex in a right-biased square is the head. One gets the equation for a right-biased square just by reversing Equation 218.

For an irrational parameter $A$, we simply drop the vertical line down from $\infty$ to $A$, and record the sequence of basic squares we encounter. To form the approximating sequence, we list the heads of the encountered squares and weed out repeaters.

Referring to Equation 22, we define

$$\kappa_n = \text{floor}(a(A_n, A_{n+1})) = ^* \text{floor}(q_{n+1}/q_n). \quad (219)$$

The starred equality comes from Equation 190 and the fact that

$$|p_nq_{n+1} - q_np_{n+1}| = 2.$$
22.3 An Algorithm

Even though the material in this section does not contribute to our overall proof, it seems worthwhile to explain in practice how one computes the inferior sequence for a given rational parameter \( p/q \). To produce the initial portion of the inferior sequence for an irrational parameter, we would take a very nearby rational and then follow the method we are about to describe. Here is the algorithm.

1. Given \( p/q \), solve the congruence \( xp + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{q} \) for \( x \in (0, q) \).
2. Set \( q_+ = x \) and \( q_- = q - x \).
3. Find the integer \( y \in (0, p) \) such that \( xp + 1 = yq \).
4. Set \( p_+ = y \) and \( p_- = p - y \).
5. Set \( p' = |p_+ - p_-| \) and \( q' = |q_+ - q_-| \).
6. We now have \( p/q \to p'/q' \).
7. Iterate, so as to construct \( p/q \to p'/q' \to p''/q'' \to \ldots \) until \( 1/1 \) is reached.

Let’s watch this algorithm in action for \( p/q = 17/37 \). We have

\[ 13 \times 17 - 1 = 6 \times 37. \]

Hence \( x = 13 \) and \( y = 6 \). This gives

\[ q_+ = 17; \quad q_- = 24; \quad p_+ = 6; \quad p_- = 11. \]

Therefore

\[ \frac{p'}{q'} = \frac{|6 - 11|}{|13 - 24|} = \frac{5}{11}. \]

Iterating, we have

\[ \frac{17}{37} \to \frac{5}{11} \to \frac{3}{7} \to \frac{1}{3} \to \frac{1}{1}. \]

Billiard King is set up to do these computations interactively. We refer the interested reader to Billiard King for more examples.
22.4 Structure of the Inferior Sequence

Now suppose that \( \{A_n = p_n/q_n\} \) is the inferior sequence approximating \( A \).
We index so that \( p_0/q_0 = 1/1 \). When \( n > 0 \), let \( (A_n)_\pm = (p_n\pm)/(q_n\pm) \).

**Lemma 22.1** Either \( A_n < A < (A_n)_+ \) or \( (A_n)_- < A < A_n \).

**Proof:** We will consider the case when \( A_n < A_{n-1} \). The other case is similar.
Let \( \gamma \) be the vertical geodesic to \( A \). At some point \( \gamma \) encounters the basic square with vertices

\[
(A_n)_- < A_n < (A_n)_+ < A_{n-1}.
\]

If \( A_{n+1} < A_n \), then \( \gamma \) exits \( S \) between \( (A_n)_- \) and \( A_n \). Hence \( (A_n)_- < A < A_n \).
If \( A_{n+1} > A_n \), then \( \gamma \) exits \( S \) to the right of \( A_n \). If \( \gamma \) exits \( S \) to the right of \( (A_n)_+ \), then \( \gamma \) next encounters a basic square \( S' \) with vertices

\[
(A_n)_+ < O < E < A_{n-1},
\]
where \( O \) and \( E \) are odd and even rationals. But then \( A_n \) would not be the term in our sequence after \( A_{n-1} \). The term after \( A_{n-1} \) would lie in the interval \( [O, A_{n-1}) \). This is a contradiction. Hence \( \gamma \) exits \( S \) between \( A_n \) and \( (A_n)_+ \). \( \bigstar \)

**Lemma 22.2** The following is true for any \( m \geq 1 \).

1. If \( A_{n-1} < A_m < A_{m+1} \) then \( (q_m)_+ < (q_m)_- \) and \( \kappa_m \equiv 1 \) mod 2 and
   \[
   2(q_{m+1})_+ = (\kappa_m + 1)(q_m)_+ + (\kappa_m - 1)(q_m)_-.
   \]
2. If \( A_{n-1} > A_m < A_{m+1} \) then \( (q_m)_+ > (q_m)_- \) and \( \kappa_m \equiv 0 \) mod 2 and
   \[
   2(q_{m+1})_+ = (\kappa_m + 0)(q_m)_- + (\kappa_m - 2)(q_m)_+.
   \]
3. If \( A_{n-1} > A_m > A_{m+1} \) then \( (q_m)_+ > (q_m)_- \) then \( \kappa_m \equiv 1 \) mod 2 and
   \[
   2(q_{m+1})_- = (\kappa_m + 1)(q_m)_- + (\kappa_m - 1)(q_m)_+.
   \]
4. If \( A_{n-1} < A_m > A_{m+1} \) then \( (q_m)_+ < (q_m)_- \) then \( \kappa_m \equiv 0 \) mod 2 and
   \[
   2(q_{m+1})_- = (\kappa_m + 0)(q_m)_+ + (\kappa_m - 2)(q_m)_-.
   \]
Proof: The first implication, in all cases, is contained in Equation 216. For the other implications, Cases 3 and 4 follow from Cases 1 and 2 by symmetry. For ease of exposition, we will just treat Case 1.

The vertical geodesic $\gamma$ to $A$ passes through the basic square $S$ with vertices

$$\frac{p_{n-1}}{q_{n-1}} < \frac{(p_m) - (p_m)}{q_m} < \frac{p_m}{q_m} < \frac{(p_m) + (p_m)}{q_m}.$$  

Since $A_{m+1} > A_m$, the geodesic $\gamma$ next crosses through the geodesic $\alpha_m$ connecting $p_m/q_m$ to $(p_m)/(q_m)$. Following this, $\gamma$ encounters the basic squares $S'_k$ for $k = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$ until it crosses a geodesic that does not have $p_m/q_m$ as a left endpoint. By Equation 218 and induction, we get

$$S'_k : \frac{p_m}{q_m} < \frac{(k+1)p_m + (p_m)}{(k+1)q_m + (q_m)} < \frac{(2k+1)p_m + 2(p_m)}{(2k+1)q_m + 2(q_m)} < \frac{kp_m + (p_m)}{kq_m + (q_m)}.$$  

(220)

Here $S'_k$ is a left-biased square. But then there is some $k$ such that

$$\frac{p_{m+1}}{q_{m+1}} = \frac{(2k+1)p_m + 2(p_m)}{(2k+1)q_m + 2(q_m)}; \quad \frac{(p_{m+1}) + (p_m)}{(q_{m+1}) + (q_m)} = \frac{kp_m + (p_m)}{kq_m + (q_m)}.$$  

(221)

Since $(q_m) < (q_m)$, we have $2(q_m) < q_m$. Since $2(q_m) < q_m$, we have

$$\frac{p_{m+1}}{q_{m+1}} - \frac{p_m}{q_m} = \frac{2}{(2k+1)q_m^2 + 2q_m(q_m)} \in \left(\frac{2}{(2k+2)q_m}, \frac{2}{2k+1)q_m}\right).$$  

(222)

Hence $\kappa_m = (2k+1) \equiv 1 \mod 2$. Finally,

$$2(q_{m+1}) = 2kq_m + 2(q_m) = (\kappa_m + 1)(q_m) + (\kappa_m - 1)(q_m).$$

This completes the proof. ♠

22.5 The Superior Sequences

Below we will prove that $\kappa_n \geq 2$ infinitely often. Hence, we can find an infinite subsequence of the inferior sequence that has the general property

$$\frac{p_{k_n}}{q_{k_n}} \in \frac{p_{k_{m+1}}}{q_{k_{m+1}}} \quad \forall \ n.$$  

Passing to any further subsequence retains this property. So, we can pass to a further subsequence to produce a monotone example.
Lemma 22.3  \( \kappa_n \geq 2 \) infinitely often.

**Proof:** We can sort the indices of our sequence into 4 types, depending on which case holds in Lemma 22.2. We distinguish between two kinds of approximating sequences. If this lemma is false, then \( n \) eventually has odd type. But, it is impossible for \( n \) to have Type 1 and for \( n + 1 \) to have Type 3. Hence, eventually \( n \) has constant type, say Type 1. (The Type 3 case has a similar treatment.) Looking at the formula in Case 1 of Lemma 22.2, we see that the sequence \( \{(q_n)_{+}\} \) is eventually constant. But then

\[
r = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{(q_n)_{+}p_n}{q_n}
\]

exists. Since \( (q_n)_{+}p_n \equiv -1 \mod q_n \) and \( q_n \to \infty \), we must have \( r \in \mathbb{Z} \). But then \( \lim p_n/q_n \in \mathbb{Q} \), and we have a contradiction. ♠

It only remains to prove the Diophantine estimate in the Superior Lemma. Here it is.

**Lemma 22.4** If \( \kappa_m \geq 2 \) and \( m < n \), then

\[
\begin{align*}
\left| \frac{p_n - p_m}{q_n} \right| &< \frac{2}{q_m^2}; \\
\left| A - \frac{p_m}{q_m} \right| &< \frac{2}{q_m^2}.
\end{align*}
\]

**Proof:** By passing to the limit, we see that the second conclusion (which does not involve \( n \)) is implied by the first conclusion. Therefore, it suffices to establish the first conclusion. Suppose that \( m \) has Type 2. Then \( 2(q_m)_{+} > q_m \) and \( A_m < A_n < (A_m)_{+} \). Hence

\[
|A_m - A_n| < |A_m - (A_m)_{+}| = \frac{1}{q_m(q_m)_{+}} < \frac{2}{q_m^2}.
\]

The proof when \( n \) has Type 4 is similar.

Suppose that \( m \) has Type 1. Then \( \kappa_m \geq 3 \). Combining Lemma 22.1 and Equation 220, we have

\[
|A_m - A_n| < \left| \frac{k(p_m)_{+}}{k(q_m)_{+}} - \frac{p_m}{q_m} \right| = \frac{1}{q_m(kq_m + (q_m)_{+})} < \frac{1}{kq_m^2}.
\]

Recall that \( \kappa_m = 2k + 1 \). Hence \( k \geq 1 \). The proof when \( n \) has Type 3 is similar. This completes the proof. ♠
22.6 An Example

In terms of the notation in §4.2, we have \( p_m/p_m \Leftarrow p_n/q_n \) if and only if \( \kappa_m = 2 \) and \( m < n \). Theorems 4.2 and 7.5 concern precisely such pairs of rationals. In this section we will study a slightly more restricted notion. We write \( p_m/q_m \Leftarrow \Lnot p_n/q_n \) if and only if \( m < n \) and \( \kappa_m \geq 2 \) and \( \kappa_j = 1 \) when \( j = m + 1,...,n - 1 \). Put another way, we have \( p_m/q_m \Leftarrow \Lnot p_n/q_n \) if and only if \( n \) is the smallest index greater than \( m \) such that \( p_m/q_m \Leftarrow p_n/q_n \). To avoid trivialities, we only use this notation when \( m \geq 1 \).

By Lemma 22.4, the pair \((A_m, A_n)\) is good provided that \( A_m \Leftarrow A_n \). In case \( A_m \Leftarrow \! A_n \), we have a nice formula for \( K = K(A_m, A_n) \). We work out an example to motivate the general formula. Consider the sequence

\[
A_{12} = \frac{1111}{2347} \rightarrow \frac{951}{2009} \rightarrow \frac{791}{1671} \rightarrow \frac{631}{1333} \rightarrow \frac{471}{995} \rightarrow \frac{311}{657} \rightarrow \frac{151}{319} = A_6.
\]

Note that \( A_6 \Leftarrow \! A_{12} \).

For the purposes of applying Theorem 4.2, we write

\[
A = p/q = A_{12}; \quad A' = p'/q' = A_6.
\]

To relate this directly to the notation of Theorem 4.2, we would be considering the rationals \( p_1/q_1 = p'/q' \) and \( p_2/q_2 = p/q \). We find the alternate notation here more convenient, because we want to distinguish \( p_1/q_1 \), the subject of Theorem 4.2, from the first term in the inferior sequence. According to this notation, all the quantities associated with the first rational are “primed”. For instance \( \lambda' = \lambda(p'/q') = q'_+/q' \).

We compute \( q'_+ = 169 \). Hence

\[
\lambda' = \frac{169}{319}, \quad a = \frac{1}{q^2(A - A')} = \frac{2347}{3828};
\]

\[
= \text{floor} \left( \frac{2347}{3828} - \frac{169}{319} \right) + 1 + \frac{169}{319} = \frac{488}{319}.
\]

We also compute that \( q_+ = 169 \). Since \( A' < A \), we use Equation 192 to compute \( K \). We get

\[
K = 1 + \frac{169}{319} = 1 + \frac{q_+}{q'}.
\]

This is a formula we want to establish in general.
22.7  A Useful Equality

Lemma 22.5 (Equality) Suppose that $A' \iff A$.

1. If $A' < A$ then $K = 1 + q_+ / q'$.
2. If $A' > A$ then $K = 1 + q_- / q'$.

We will prove the first statement. The second statement has an extremely similar proof. We have part of an inferior sequence

$$A = A_n \to \ldots \to A_m = A'.$$

(223)

Lemma 22.6 Suppose $n = m + 1$ and $\kappa_m$ is odd. Then Lemma 22.5 holds.

Proof: $A'$ and $A$ are consecutive terms of the inferior sequence, Case 1 of Lemma 22.2 applies to $p_m/q_m = p'/q'$ and $p_{m+1}/q_{m+1} = p/q$. Using the fact that $2q' = 2q_+ + 2q_-$, we have

$$2q_+ + 2q' = (\kappa_m + 1)q' + 2q_+.$$ 

Dividing both sides by $2q'$ gives

$$1 + \frac{q_+}{q'} = \frac{\kappa_m + 1}{2} + \frac{q_+}{q'} = \frac{\kappa_m + 1}{2} + \lambda'.

(224)

Note that $a = a(A', A)$ lies in $[\kappa_m, \kappa_m + 1)$. Hence, the fractional part of $a/2$ lies in $[1/2, 1)$. Since $\lambda' < 1/2$, by Case 1 of Lemma 22.2,

$$\text{floor}(a/2 - \lambda') = \frac{\kappa_m - 1}{2}.$$

(225)

Therefore

$$K = \text{floor}(a/2 - \lambda') + 1 + \lambda' = \frac{\kappa_m + 1}{2} + \lambda' = 1 + \frac{q_+}{q'}.$$ 

This completes the proof. ♠

When $A_m < A_{m+1}$, we define $a_m$ and $\hat{a}_m$ by the following equation.

$$A_{m+1} - A_m = \frac{2}{a_m q_m^2}; \quad (A_{m+1})_+ - A_m = \frac{2}{\hat{a}_m q_m^2}.$$ 

(226)
Lemma 22.7 Suppose that $A_m < A_{m+1}$. Then

$$\text{floor}(a_m/2 - \lambda_m) = \text{floor}(\tilde{a}_m/2 - \lambda_m).$$

Proof: $A_m$ and $(A_{m+1})_+$ are connected in the Farey graph. Hence

$$(A_{m+1})_+ - A_m = \frac{1}{q_m(q_{m+1})_+}; \quad \tilde{a}_m = \frac{2(q_{m+1})_+}{q_m}.$$ 

Hence, by Case 1 of Lemma 22.2,

$$\tilde{a}_m/2 - \lambda_m = \frac{(q_{m+1})_+ - (q_m)_+}{q_m} = \frac{\kappa_m - 1}{2} = \text{floor}(a_m/2 - \lambda_m).$$

The last equality comes from Equation 225. Since the left hand side is an integer, it equals its own floor. ♠

Lemma 22.8 Suppose $n > m + 1$ and $\kappa_m$ is odd. Then Lemma 22.5 holds.

Proof: For each of the indices of interest to us, namely $j = m, \ldots, n - 1$, we have $\kappa_j$ odd. Hence, either Case 1 or Case 3 occurs for each such $j$. However, it is impossible to make a direct transition from (the increasing triple in) Case 1 to (the decreasing triple in) Case 3. Hence, Case 1 occurs for every index $j$ of interest to us.

Lemma 22.2 now tells us that $(q_j)_+$ is independent of $j$. So, the left hand side of Equation 224 does not change when we replace $A_{m+1}$ by $A_n$. The right hand side only depends on $m$. To finish our proof, it suffices to show that Equation 225 does not change when we replace $A_{(m+1)}$ by $A_n$. In other words, we want to see that

$$\text{floor}(a_k/2 - \lambda_m); \quad a_k = a(A_m, A_k); \quad k = m + 1, \ldots, n \quad (227)$$

is independent of $k$. The same argument as in Lemma 22.1 shows that $A_{m+1} < A_k < (A_{m+1})_+$. But then

$$\text{floor}(a_m/2 - \lambda_n) \geq \text{floor}(a_k/2 - \lambda_m) \geq \text{floor}(\tilde{a}_m/2 - \lambda_n) = \text{floor}(a_m/2 - \lambda_n).$$

This completes the proof. ♠
When $\kappa_m$ is even, the proofs are almost identical. Here we describe the differences. Suppose $n = m + 1$. In Lemma 22.6, we use Case 2 of Lemma 22.2 to derive
\[ 1 + \frac{q_+}{q'} = \frac{\kappa_m}{2} + \lambda'. \] (228)
Since $\kappa_m$ is even, the fractional part of $\kappa_m$ lies in $[0, 1/2)$. Also $\lambda' = \lambda_m > 1/2$. Hence
\[ \text{floor}(a/2 - \lambda') = \frac{\kappa_m}{2} - 1. \]
The rest of the proof is as in Lemma 22.6.

When $n > m + 1$, we have Case 2 for the index $m$, but then Case 1 for the remaining indices. The rest of Lemma 22.8 is the same.

### 22.8 One Last Estimate

The following result works either for the inferior sequence or for any superior sequence.

**Lemma 22.9** $q_{n+1} - \kappa_n q_n \to \infty$ as $n \to \infty$.

**Proof:** We will consider Cases 1 and 2 of Lemma 22.2. The other cases have similar proofs. Realizing that the fraction on the right hand size of Equation 221 is in lowest terms, we have
\[ q_{n+1} = (2k + 1)q_n + 2(q_n)_+. \]
In Case 1, we have $\kappa_n = 2k + 1$, and we get
\[ q_{n+1} - \kappa_n q_n = 2(q_n)_+. \]
Since $(p_n)_+/q_n \to A$, we see that the right hand side of the last equation tends to $\infty$.

In Case 2, we have $\kappa_n = 2k + 2$ and $q_n = (q_n)_+ - (q_n)_-$. Therefore
\[ q_{n+1} = (\kappa_n - 1)q_n + 2(q_n)_+ = \kappa_n q_n - (q_n - (q_n)_-) + (q_n)_+ = \kappa_n q_n + q_{n-1}. \]
In short,
\[ q_{n+1} - \kappa_n q_n = q_{n-1}. \]
Again, the right hand side tends to $\infty$ with $n$. ♠
23 Proof of the Decomposition Theorem

23.1 Outline of the Proof

We will prove the Decomposition Theorem for the odd rational $p/q$ in case \( \lambda = \frac{q_+}{q} < 1/2 \). This case relies on Statement 1 of the Copy Theorem and Statement 1 of the Equality Lemma. The case \( \lambda > 1/2 \) relies on Statement 2 of the Copy Theorem and Statement 2 of the Equality Lemma and has essentially the same proof.

When \( \lambda < 1/2 \), the parallelogram \( SR = SR(p/q) \) lies to the left of \( FR \). Recall that \( DR \) is the line, parallel to the left and right sides of \( R \), that separates \( SR \) from \( FR \). Below we will prove the following result.

**Lemma 23.1** \( \Gamma(p/q) \) only crosses \( DR(p/q) \) once, and the crossing point lies within one unit the baseline of \( \Gamma(p/q) \).

From this result we see that \( \Gamma^1 \) is the union of two connected arcs. The left arc is contained entirely in \( R - FR \) and the right arc is contained entirely in \( FR \). The two arcs have a common endpoint on \( DR \), at most one unit from the bottom of \( R \). Figure 23.1 shows a schematic picture.

![Figure 23.1: Dividing \( \Gamma^1 \) into two arcs.](image)

Let \( p'/q' \) denote the previous term in the superior sequence that contains \( p/q \). In terms of the work in the previous chapter, we have \( p'/q' \Leftarrow !p/q \). Let \( L' \) denote the line extending the top edge of \( R(p'/q') \). Below we will prove the following result.

**Lemma 23.2** \( L' \cap (R - FR) \) lies entirely in \( SR \).
Finally, we will prove

**Lemma 23.3** $\Gamma^1 \cap (R - FR)$ does not cross $L'$.

This result combines with Lemma 23.2 to show that the left arc of $\Gamma^1$ is contained in $SR$. As we have already seen, the right arc is contained in $FR$. This completes the proof of the Decomposition Theorem.

Figure 23.3 shows a picture for the parameter $p/q = 11/25$. In this case $p'/q' = 3/7$. The ratios of heights of the two boxes is $7/25$. 
23.2 Proof of Lemma 23.1

Proof: This is just a more formal version of the discussion in §8.3. Our proof refers to the schematic Figure 23.4. Let \( \iota \) denote 180 degree rotation about the point \( x = 1/2(q_+, -p_+) \). We proved in §17.2 that \( \iota(\Gamma) = (\tilde{\Gamma}) \). Let \( L \) be the line through the origin that is parallel to \( DR(p/q) \). Since \( (q_+, -p_+) \in L \), we have \( DR = \iota(L) \).

Let \( L_k \) denote the line of slope \(-A\) through the point \( kW \). So, \( L_0 \) and \( L_1 \) are the lines extending the top and bottom of \( R \), and \( L_{-1} \) lies below \( L_0 \) in such a way that the three lines are evenly spaced. (\( R \) is the shaded region in Figure 23.4.) By the Hexagrid Theorem, \( \Gamma \) lies between \( L_0 \) and \( L_1 \). The image \( \iota(\Gamma) \) lies between \( L_0 \) and \( L_{-1} \), again by the Hexagrid Theorem. Let \( y \) be the point of \( L_{-1} \) that is 1 unit below \( L_{-1} \cap L \). There is no door on the interior of the segment \( \sigma \) of \( L \) connecting 0 to \( y \). By Statement 2 of the Hexagrid Theorem, \( \iota(\Gamma) \) only intersects \( \sigma \) within one unit of the door \((0, 0)\). But then \( \Gamma \) only intersects \( \iota(\sigma) \) one unit from the bottom of \( R \). Finally, \( \iota(\sigma) \) contains \( DR \cap R \). (The point here is that \( \iota \) maps \( L_- \) to \( L_+ \) up to an error that is much less than 1 unit.) ♠️

![Figure 23.4: Rotating the graph](image)
23.3 Proof of Lemma 23.2

Let \( L \) denote the baseline of \( \Gamma(p/q) \). Let \( \mathcal{L} \) denote the line extending the left edge of \( R - FR \). Of course \( \mathcal{L} \) is also the line extending the left edge of \( R \). Let \( \mathcal{R} \) denote the line extending the right line of \( R - FR \). Let \( V' \) and \( W' \) denote the vectors from Equation 12, defined relative to \( p'/q' \). We will prove three things.

1. The distance from \( L' \cap \mathcal{L} \) to \( W' \) tends to 0 as \( p' \) tends to \( \infty \).
2. \( L' \cap \mathcal{R} \) and \( L' \cap \mathcal{L} \) have the same distance to \( L \), up to an error that vanishes as \( p' \) tends to \( \infty \).
3. \( 2\|W'\| < \|W'\| - 1/32 \) once \( p' \) is sufficiently large.

These three properties show that \( L' \) crosses both sides of \( R - FR \) beneath the top left and top right corners of \( SR \). This is what we wanted to prove.

Below, \( C_1, C_2, \ldots \) refer to universal constants. Let \( \sigma \) stand for slope.

**Step 1:** \( \mathcal{L} \) is the line through the origin containing the vector \( W \). We note that there is a uniformly large angle between adjacent sides of \( R \), independent of parameter. Call this the transversality fact. We have the estimates

\[
|\sigma(L) - \sigma(L')| < \frac{C_1}{K(q')^2}; \quad |\sigma(W) - \sigma(W')| \leq \frac{C_2}{K(q')^2}; \quad \|W'\| < C_3q'. \tag{229}
\]

Comparing the second and third of these estimates, we see that the distance from \( W' \) to \( \mathcal{L} \) tends to 0 as \( p' \) tends to \( \infty \). Also the difference between the slopes of \( L \) and \( L' \) tends to 0 as \( p' \) tends to \( \infty \). From these two properties, and the transversality fact, we see that \( L' \cap \mathcal{L} \) is vanishingly close to \( W' \).

**Step 2:** If \( L \) and \( L' \) were parallel, then this step would be immediate. The first estimate in Equation 229 shows that the two lines are parallel up to \( O(K(q')^{-2}) \). From the Equality Lemma, we have

\[
\text{width}(R - FR) < C_2q_+ < C_3Kq'. \tag{230}
\]

So, the segments of interest to us have length on the order \( O(Kq') \). This step now follows from basic geometry.
Step 3: Define

$$\rho(A) = \frac{\sqrt{1 + 4A + 6A^2 - 4A^3 + A^4}}{2 + 2A} \in [1/2, 1/4].$$ \hspace{1cm} (231)$$

From Equation 12 we compute that

$$\|W\| = \rho(A)q; \quad \|W'\| = \rho(A')q' < \rho(A)(q' + 1/4).$$ \hspace{1cm} (232)$$

The last estimate, which holds for $p'$ sufficiently large, comes from the fact that $\rho$ is lipschitz on $[0, 1]$ and

$$|A - A'| < \frac{2}{(q')^2}.$$\hspace{1cm} (233)

But $q \geq 2q' + 1$. Combining this with Equation 232, we get

$$\|W'\| < \frac{\|W\|}{2} - \frac{\rho(A)}{4} < \frac{\|W\|}{2} - \frac{1}{16}.$$ \hspace{1cm} (233)

This completes Step 3, as well as our overall proof of Lemma 23.2.

23.4 Proof of Lemma 23.3

Let $\Gamma = \Gamma(p/q)$ and $\Gamma' = \Gamma(p'/q')$. We keep the notatation from the previous section.

Lemma 23.4 If $p'$ and $p_+$ are sufficiently large then $\Gamma$ and $\Gamma'$ agree on any vertex $(m, n)$ that lies within 2 units of $X := L' \cap (R - FR)$.

Proof: We define

$$V_+ = (q_+, -p_+); \quad V_- = (q_-, -p_-).$$ \hspace{1cm} (234)$$

The endpoints of $X$ are $W'$ and $V_+ + W'$.

We will apply the Copy Theorem to $p_1/q_1 = p'/q'$ and $p_2/q_2 = p/q$. From Statement 1 of the Equality Lemma, we have

$$K = 1 + \frac{q_+}{q'}; \quad Kq' = q' + q_+$$ \hspace{1cm} (235)
The point $V_+$ lies vanishingly close to the baseline of $\Gamma(A_1)$. Hence
\[ G'(V_+), H'(V_+) \in [q_+ - 1, q_+ + 1] \] (236)

We also compute
\[ G'(W') = -\frac{(q')^2}{p' + q'} \in^* [-q' + 21, 0] \subset [-q' + 20, Kq' - 20]. \]
\[ H'(W') = \frac{(q')^2}{p' + q'} \in^* [0, q' - 21] \subset [-q' + 20, Kq' - 20]. \]
Hence
\[ G'(V_+ + W'), H'(V_+ + W') \in^* [-q' + 20, Kq' - 20]. \]

The starred containments hold for $p'$ large enough. The choice of 20 comes about because \(3 + 2 \times 8 < 20\). The 8 comes from Equation 195.

Our calculations above combine with the gradient bounds in Equation 195 so show that \((m, n) \in \Delta(-q' + 3, Kq' - 3)\) provided that \((m, n)\) is within 2 units of $X$. The Copy Theorem now applies. ♠

Applying the Room Lemma to $p'/q'$, we see that $\Gamma'$ does not cross the line $L'$ at all. By the preceding result, $\Gamma$ does not cross $L'$ at any vertex that lies in $R - FR$. In short, $\Gamma$ does not cross $L' \cap (R - FR)$. This completes the proof of Lemma 23.3.
24 Proof of Theorem 4.2

24.1 A Consequence of the Copy Theorem

In this section, we deduce a consequence of the Copy Theorem that is tailored to deal with the inferior sequence constructed in §22. Suppose \( A_m \) and \( A_{m+1} \) are consecutive terms of an inferior sequence. Lemma 22.2 applies to these terms. Our next result refers to the various possibilities in Lemma 22.2. To make the various cases look as symmetric as possible. We set

\[
\lambda_m^\pm = \frac{(q_m)^\pm}{q_m}.
\]

(237)

This \( \lambda_m^+ = \lambda_m \), as in Lemma 22.2, and \( \lambda_m^- = 1 - \lambda_m \).

Lemma 24.1 \( \Gamma_m \) and \( \Gamma_{m+1} \) agree on any lattice point \( (m, n) \) having the property that \( F_1(m, n) > 0 \) and

\[
G_1(m, n), H_1(m, n) \in [-K_-q_1 + 3, K_+q_1 - 3].
\]

Here

1. In Case 1, set \( K_- = 1 \) and \( K_+ = (\kappa_m + 1)/2 + \lambda_m^+ \).
2. In Case 2, set \( K_- = 1 \) and \( K_+ = (\kappa_m + 0)/2 + \lambda_m^+ \).
3. In Case 3, set \( K_+ = 1 \) and \( K_- = (\kappa_m + 1)/2 + \lambda_m^- \).
4. In Case 4, set \( K_+ = 1 \) and \( K_- = (\kappa_m + 0)/2 + \lambda_m^- \).

Proof: Consider Case 1 first. Recall that \( \kappa_m = \text{floor}(a_m) \). Here, as in Equation 192, we have \( a = a(A_m, A_{m+1}) \). We have \( \kappa_m \) odd and \( A_m < A_{m+1} \). In this case, the fractional part of \( a_m/2 \) lies in \([1/2, 1)\). Referring to the Copy Theorem, we have

\[
K = \text{floor}(a_m/2 - \lambda_m) + 1 + \lambda_m = (\kappa_m + 1)/2 + \lambda_m.
\]

This fits with what we have written down for Case 1 above.

Now Consider Case 1. In this case, the fractional part of \( \kappa_m \) is less than \( 1/2 \) and \( \lambda_m > 1/2 \). But then

\[
K = \text{floor}(a_m/2 - \lambda_m) + 1 + \lambda_m = (\kappa_m + 0)/2 + \lambda_m.
\]

This again fits with what we have written down for Case 2 above.

Cases 3 and 4 are similar. We omit the details. ♠
24.2 Using the Decomposition Theorem

Let \( \hat{\Gamma} = \hat{\Gamma}(p/q) \) be as usual. For the results of this section, we only care about the portion of \( \hat{\Gamma} \) above its baseline. We take \( \epsilon = 1/100 \).

**Lemma 24.2** Suppose that \( A_m < A_{m+1} \) and \( \kappa_m \geq 2 \).

**Proof:** We either have Case 1 or 2 of Lemma 24.1. In Case 1, we have \( \kappa_m \geq 3 \) odd and \( \lambda_m < 1/2 \). In this case, we have \( K_- = 1 \) and \( K_+ = 2 \). This is just like the case \( n = 1 \) of Theorem 4.3. The proof there tells us that

\[
\Gamma_{m+1}^{1+\epsilon} \subset \Gamma_{m+1}.
\]

(238)

Note that \( q_{m+1} > 2q_m \). Hence \( V_{m+1} \) is more than twice as far from \((0,0)\) as \( V_m \). From this, we see that in fact \( \Gamma_{m+1}^{1+\epsilon} \subset \Gamma_{m+1}^1 \).

In Case 2 we have \( \kappa_m \geq 2 \) even and \( \lambda_m > 1/2 \). Hence, \( K_- = -1 \) and \( K_+ = 1 + \lambda_m \). This case corresponds to the example in §21.3. Here, a picture says a thousand words. By the Decomposition Theorem, we have

\[
\Gamma_{m+1}^1 \subset FR_m \cup SR_m
\]

(239)

Since \( \lambda_m > 1/2 \), the smaller region \( SR_m \) occurs on the right. This is crucial to our proof. See §21.3.

To apply the Copy Theorem, we need to evaluate \( G \) and \( H \) on the 4 vertices of \( SR_m \) and the 4 vertices of \( FR_m \). For ease of notation, we set \( SR = SR_m \), etc. Here is the vertex list, first for \( FR \) and then for \( SR \).

\[
0; \lambda W; V; V + \lambda W.
\]

(240)

\[
\lambda V; \lambda V + W/2; V; V + W/2.
\]

(241)

Calculations like the ones done in the proof of Theorem 4.2 give us Equation 239, and the rest of the proof is as in Case 1. Geometrically, the right vertices of \( FR \) sit in the same relation to the right edges of \( \Delta(-q, Kq) \) as the right vertices of \( R \) sit in relation to \( \Delta(-q, 2q) \), something we estimated in our proof of the Theorem 4.2 for \( n = 1 \). The critical new calculation here is

\[
H(V + W/2) = q + \frac{q^2}{2(p + q)} \in^* [0, 3q/2 - 3] \subset [-q + 3, Kq - 3].
\]

The starred containment holds for \( p \) large. The last containment uses the fact that \( \lambda > 1/2 \). Our critical calculation checks that the top right vertex of \( SR \) lies inside \( \Delta(-q + 3, Kq - 3) \). See §21.3. ♠

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24.3 The End of the Proof

We will prove Theorem 4.2 in the context of two terms $p_m/q_m$ and $p_n/q_n$ in the interior sequence, such that $\kappa_m \geq 2$ and $m < n$. Any instance of Theorems 4.2 and 7.5 can be placed in this context. In any case, this is the context in which we apply these theorems. We prove Statement 1. The proof for Statement 2 are essentially the same. Given Lemma 22.6, we just have to prove that $\Gamma_{m+1}^{1+\epsilon} \subset \Gamma_n$ when $n > m + 1$.

We will first consider the case $n = m + 2$ in detail. We already know that $\Gamma_{m}^{1+\epsilon} \subset \Gamma_{m+1}^1$. By Lemma 22.9, the quantity $q_{m+1} - 2q_m$ grows unboundedly with $m$. Therefore, $\Gamma_{m}^{1+\epsilon}$, which is also a portion of $\Gamma_{m+1}$, is contained in the union of two sets:

1. $R_{m+1}/2$, the parallelogram obtained by scaling $R_{m+1}$ down by a factor of 2 about the origin.
2. The disk of radius $q_{m+1}/200$ about some point on the bottom edge of $R_{m+1}/2$.

In any of the cases of Lemma 24.1, we have $K_+, K_- \geq 1$. We mean to apply Lemma 24.1 to the pair $m + 1, m + 2$, and vertices in the two sets we have mentioned. Now we have the same calculation as in the $n = 1$ case of Theorem 4.3, except that $m + 1$ replaces $m$, and every thing in sight is divided by 2. Now we know that $\Gamma_{m}^{1+\epsilon} \subset \Gamma_{m+2}^1$.

Now we can repeat the above argument, with $m + 2$ and $m + 3$ in place of $m + 1$ and $m + 2$. That is, $\Gamma_{m}^{1+\epsilon}$, which is also contained in $\Gamma_{m+2}^1$, actually lies in the union of $R_{m+2}/2$ and some disk of radius at most $q_{m+2}/200$ about some point on the bottom edge of this parallelogram. Running the same argument as above gives $\Gamma_{m}^{1+\epsilon} \subset \Gamma_{m+3}^1$. And so on. An induction argument finishes the proof.

Remark: Even though the Decomposition Theorem only appears once in our argument – in Case 2 of Lemma 24.2 – it plays a crucial role. We could not get good enough bounds using just the result from the Room Lemma in this case. Take another look at the picture in §21.3. The box $R_n$ would stick out of the set $\Delta$ there, and so the Room Lemma itself is not strong enough to give us what we need. The interested reader can see all these sets using Billiard King.
25 References


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