# EXAMPLES OF NON-POLYGONAL LIMIT SHAPES IN I.I.D. FIRST-PASSAGE PERCOLATION AND INFINITE COEXISTENCE IN SPATIAL GROWTH MODELS

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ABSTRACT. We construct an edge-weight distribution for i.i.d. first-passage percolation on  $\mathbb{Z}^2$  whose limit shape is not a polygon and has extreme points which are arbitrarily dense in the boundary. Consequently, the associated Richardson-type growth model can support coexistence of a countably infinite number of distinct species, and the graph of infection has infinitely many ends.

### 1. INTRODUCTION

Throughout this note  $\mu$  denotes a Borel probability measure on  $\mathbb{R}^+$  with finite mean, and  $\mathcal{M}$  is the family of such measures. Let  $\mathbb{E}$  denote the set of nearest-neighbor edges of the lattice  $\mathbb{Z}^2$ , and let  $\{\tau_e : e \in \mathbb{E}\}$  be a family of i.i.d. random variables with marginal  $\mu$  and joint distribution  $\mathbb{P} = \mu^{\mathbb{E}}$ . The *passage time* of a path  $\gamma = (e_1, \ldots, e_n) \in \mathbb{E}^n$  in the graph  $(\mathbb{Z}^2, \mathbb{E})$  is  $\tau(\gamma) = \sum_{i=1}^n \tau_{e_i}$ , and for  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}^2$  the *passage time* from x to y is

$$\tau(x,y) = \min_{\gamma} \tau(\gamma)$$

where the minimum is over all paths  $\gamma$  joining x to y. A minimizing path is called a *geodesic* from x to y.

The theory of first passage percolation (FPP) is concerned with the large-scale geometry of the metric space  $(\mathbb{Z}^2, \tau)$ . The following fundamental result concerns the asymptotic geometry of balls. Write  $B(t) = \{x \in \mathbb{Z}^2 : \tau(0, x) \leq t\}$  for the ball of radius t at the origin, and for  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$  and  $a \geq 0$ , write  $aS = \{ax : x \in S\}$ .

**Theorem 1.1** (Cox-Durrett [1]). For each  $\mu \in \mathcal{M}$  there exists a deterministic, convex, compact set  $B_{\mu}$  such that for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,

$$\mathbb{P}\left((1-\varepsilon)B_{\mu} \subseteq \frac{1}{t}B(t) \subseteq (1+\varepsilon)B_{\mu} \text{ for all large } t\right) = 1.$$

Little is known about the geometry of  $B_{\mu}$ , which is called the *limit shape*. It is conjectured to be strictly convex when  $\mu$  is non-atomic, and non-polygonal in all but the most degenerate cases, but, in fact, there are currently no known examples of  $\mu$  for which these properties are verified (see [9]). For a compact, convex set  $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$  write  $\operatorname{ext}(C)$ for the set of extreme points and  $\operatorname{sides}(C) = |\operatorname{ext}(C)|$ , so that C is a polygon if and only if  $\operatorname{sides}(C) < \infty$ . The best result to date, due to Marchand [7], is that under mild

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assumptions, sides $(B_{\mu}) \geq 8$ . Building on results of Marchand, our purpose of this note is to give the first examples of distributions for which the limit shape is not a polygon.

**Theorem 1.2.** For every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists  $\mu \in \mathcal{M}$  (with atoms) such that  $B_{\mu}$  is not a polygon, i.e.,  $\operatorname{sides}(B_{\mu}) = \infty$ , and  $\operatorname{ext}(B_{\mu})$  is  $\varepsilon$ -dense in  $\partial B_{\mu}$ . There exist continuous  $\mu$  such that  $\operatorname{sides}(B_{\mu}) > 1/\varepsilon$  and  $\operatorname{ext}(B_{\mu})$  is  $\varepsilon$ -dense in  $\partial B_{\mu}$ .

It is tempting to try to obtain a strictly convex limit shape by taking a limit of measures  $\mu_n$  such that  $B_{\mu_n}$  have progressively denser sets of extreme points, but unfortunately the limit one gets in our example is the unit ball of  $\ell^1$ .

We also obtain examples of measures  $\mu$  such that, at the points  $v \in \text{ext}(B_{\mu})$  which lie on the boundary of the  $\ell^1$ -unit ball,  $\partial B_{\mu}$  is infinitely differentiable. This should be compared with the work of Zhang [10], where such behavior was ruled out for certain  $\mu$ .

Theorem 1.2 has implications for the Richardson growth model, whose definition we recall next. Fix  $x_1, \ldots, x_k \in \mathbb{Z}^2$  and imagine that at time 0 the site  $x_i$  is inhabited by a species of type *i*. Each species spreads at unit speed, taking time  $\tau_e$  to cross an edge  $e \in \mathbb{E}$ . An uninhabited site is exclusively and permanently colonized by the first species that reaches it, i.e.,  $y \in \mathbb{Z}^2$  is occupied at time *t* by the *i*-th species if  $\tau(y, x_i) \leq t$  and  $\tau(y, x_i) < \tau(y, x_j)$  for all  $j \neq i$ . This is well-defined when there are unique geodesics, i.e.,  $\mathbb{P}$ -a.s. no two paths have the same passage time, as is the case when  $\mu$  is continuous, but we shall also want to consider measures  $\mu$  with atoms, so we require a mechanism to break ties. For simplicity we introduce a worst-case model: if two species  $i \neq j$  reach an unoccupied site x at the same instant then x is colonized by a species of type -1, which spreads according to the same rules as the others. Under this convention if a site is occupied by the species  $i \neq -1$  then it would be so occupied under any other tie-breaking rule.

Given initial sites  $x_1, \ldots, x_k$ , consider the set colonized by the *i*-th species:

 $C_i = \{ y \in \mathbb{Z}^2 : y \text{ is eventually occupied by } i \}.$ 

One says that  $\mu$  admits coexistence of k species if for some choice of  $x_1, \ldots, x_k$ ,

$$\mathbb{P}(|C_i| = \infty \text{ for all } i = 1, \dots, k) > 0.$$

Coexistence of infinitely many species is defined similarly.

It is not known, even in simple examples, how many species can coexist. When  $\mu$  is the exponential distribution, Häggström and Pemantle [5] proved coexistence of 2 species, and for a broad class translation-invariant measures on  $(0, \infty)^{\mathbb{E}}$ , including some non-i.i.d. ones, Hoffman [6] demonstrated coexistence of 8 species by establishing a relation with the number of sides of the limit shape in the associated FPP. Using the same relation we obtain the following:

**Theorem 1.3.** There exists  $\mu \in \mathcal{M}$  (with atoms) which admits coexistence of infinitely many species. For each k there exist continuous  $\mu \in \mathcal{M}$  admitting coexistence of k species.

Finally, the graph of infection  $K \subseteq \mathbb{E}$  is the union over  $x \in \mathbb{Z}^d$  of the edges of geodesics from 0 to x. If  $\mu$  is continuous this is a.s. a tree. A graph has m ends if, after removing a finite set of vertices, the induced graph contains at least m infinite connected components, and, if there are m ends for every  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ , we say there are infinitely many ends. Newman [8] has conjectured for a broad class of  $\mu$  that K has infinitely many ends. Hoffman [6] showed for continuous distributions that in general there are a.s. at least 4 ends.

**Theorem 1.4.** There exist  $\mu \in \mathcal{M}$  (with atoms) such that  $\mathbb{P}$ -a.s., K has infinitely many ends. For each k there exist continuous  $\mu \in \mathcal{M}$  such that  $\mathbb{P}$ -a.s., K has at least k ends.

When  $\mu$  is continuous Theorems 1.3 and 1.4 follow, respectively, from Theorem 1.2 and from Theorems 1.4 and 1.6 of Hoffman [6]. For the non-continuous case we provide the necessary modifications of Hoffman's arguments in Section 4.

#### 2. Background on the limit shape

Endow  $\mathcal{M}$  with the topology of weak convergence and for convenience fix a compatible metric  $d(\cdot, \cdot)$  on  $\mathcal{M}$ . Next, fix the  $\ell^1$ -metric on  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , and write  $A^{(\varepsilon)}$  for the  $\varepsilon$ -neighborhood of  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ . Let  $\mathcal{C}$  denote the space of non-empty, closed, convex subsets of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  endowed with the Hausdorff metric  $d_H$ :

$$d_H(A,B) = \inf\{\varepsilon : A \subseteq B^{(\varepsilon)} \text{ and } B \subseteq A^{(\varepsilon)}\}.$$

**Theorem 2.1** (Cox-Kesten [2]). The map  $\mu \mapsto B_{\mu}$  from  $\mathcal{M}$  to  $\mathcal{C}$  is continuous.

It is elementary to verify that for  $A \in C$ , the map  $A \mapsto \operatorname{ext}(A)$  is semi-continuous in the sense that, given  $x \in \operatorname{ext}(A)$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there is a  $\delta > 0$  such that if  $A' \in C$  and  $d_H(A, A') < \delta$  then there exists  $x' \in \operatorname{ext}(A')$  with  $||x - x'||_1 < \varepsilon$ . Combined with the continuity theorem above, we have:

**Corollary 2.2.** Let  $\mu \in \mathcal{M}$ . For every  $x_1, \ldots, x_k \in \text{ext}(B_\mu)$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$  there is a  $\delta > 0$  such that, if  $\nu \in \mathcal{M}$  and  $d(\nu, \mu) < \delta$  then there are  $y_1, \ldots, y_k \in \text{ext}(B_\nu)$  such that  $||x_i - y_i|| < \varepsilon$  for  $i = 1, \ldots, k$ .

We next recall some results about limit shapes for a special class of measures. Given  $0 , let <math>\mathcal{M}_p \subseteq \mathcal{M}$  denote the set of measures  $\mu \in \mathcal{M}$  with an atom of mass plocated at x = 1, i.e.,  $\mu(\{1\}) = p$ , and no mass to the left of 1, i.e.,  $\mu((-\infty, 1)) = 0$ . Limit shapes for  $\mu$  of this form were first studied in Durrett and Liggett [4]. Writing  $\vec{p}_c$  for the critical parameter of oriented percolation on  $\mathbb{Z}^2$  (see Durrett [3] for background), it was shown that when  $p > \vec{p}_c$  and  $\mu \in \mathcal{M}_p$ , the limit shape  $B_{\mu}$  contains a "flat edge", or, more precisely,  $\partial B_{\mu}$  has sides which lie on the boundary of the  $\ell^1$ -unit ball. The nature of this edge was fully characterized in [7]. For  $p \ge \vec{p}_c$ , let  $\alpha_p$  be the asymptotic speed of super-critical oriented percolation on  $\mathbb{Z}^2$  with parameter p (see [3]). Define points  $w_p, w'_p \in \mathbb{R}^2$  by

$$w_p = (1/2 + \alpha_p/\sqrt{2}, 1/2 - \alpha_p/\sqrt{2}),$$
  

$$w'_p = (1/2 - \alpha_p/\sqrt{2}, 1/2 + \alpha_p/\sqrt{2}).$$

Let  $[w_p, w'_p] \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$  denote the line segment with endpoints  $w_p$  and  $w'_p$ . It will be important to note that  $\alpha_p$  is strictly increasing in  $p > \vec{p_c}$ , so the same is true of  $[w_p, w'_p]$ .

**Theorem 2.3** (Marchand [7]). Let  $\mu \in \mathcal{M}_p$ . Then

- (1)  $B_{\mu} \subseteq \{x \in \mathbb{R}^2 : \|x\|_1 \le 1\}.$
- (2) If  $p < \vec{p_c}$ , then  $B_{\mu} \subseteq \{x \in \mathbb{R}^2 : \|x\|_1 < 1\}$ .
- (3) If  $p > \vec{p_c}$ , then  $B_{\mu} \cap [0, \infty)^2 = [w_p, w'_p]$ .
- (4) If  $p = \vec{p_c}$ , then  $B_{\mu} \cap [0, \infty)^2 = \{(1/2, 1/2)\}$ .

As noted by Marchand, this implies  $\operatorname{sides}(B_{\mu}) \geq 8$  for  $\mu \in \mathcal{M}_p$  and  $\vec{p}_c , since <math>w_p, w'_p$  and their reflections about the axes are extreme points.

### 3. Proof of Theorem 1.2

Our aim is to construct a  $\mu \in \mathcal{M}$  with sides  $B_{\mu} = \infty$ . Fix any  $p_0 > \vec{p_c}, \mu_0 \in \mathcal{M}_{p_0}$  and  $\delta_0 > 0$ . We will inductively define a sequence  $p_1 > p_2 > \ldots > \vec{p_c}$ , measures  $\mu_1 \in \mathcal{M}_{p_1}$ ,  $\mu_2 \in \mathcal{M}_{p_2}, \ldots$ , and  $\delta_1, \delta_2, \ldots > 0$  such that for every  $n \ge 0$  and all  $k \le n$ ,

- (1) If  $\nu \in \mathcal{M}$  and  $d(\nu, \mu_k) < \delta_k$  then sides $(B_{\nu}) \ge k$ , and
- (2)  $d(\mu_k, \mu_n) < \frac{1}{2}\delta_k$ .

Note that (1) implies that sides  $(B_{\mu_k}) \ge k$ . Assuming  $p_k, \mu_k$  and  $\delta_k$  are defined for  $k \le n$ , we define them for n + 1. Fix  $p_{n+1} \in (\vec{p_c}, p_n)$  and set  $r = p_n - p_{n+1} > 0$ . For y > 1construct  $\mu_{n+1}^y$  from  $\mu_n$  by moving an amount r of mass from the atom at 1 to y, that is,

$$\mu_{n+1}^y = \mu_n - r\delta_1 + r\delta_y.$$

We claim that for small enough y > 1 and any sufficiently small choice of  $\delta_{n+1} > 0$  the measure  $\mu_{n+1} = \mu_{n+1}^y$  has the desired properties. First,  $\mu_{n+1}^y \to \mu_n$  weakly as  $y \downarrow 1$ , so, since  $\mu_n$  satisfies (2), so does  $\mu_{n+1}^y$  for all sufficiently small y.

Second, we claim that  $\operatorname{sides}(B_{\mu_{n+1}^y}) \ge n+1$  for y close enough to 1. Indeed, since r > 0 we have  $w_{p_{n+1}} \ne w_{p_n}$ . Using (1), choose n extreme points  $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in \operatorname{ext}(B_{\mu_n})$  and let

$$u = \min \left\{ \left\| x_i - x_j \right\|_1, \left\| x_i - w_{p_{n+1}} \right\|_1 : i \neq j \right\}.$$

Note that a > 0 by Marchand's theorem. By Corollary 2.2, for y close enough to 1, for each i = 1, ..., n we can choose an extreme point  $x'_i$  of  $B_{\mu^y_{n+1}}$  with  $||x'_i - x_i|| < a/2$ . By Marchand's theorem,  $B_{\mu^y_{n+1}}$  also has an extreme point at  $w_{p_{n+1}}$ . By definition of a, these extreme points are distinct, giving sides $(B_{\mu^y_{n+1}}) \ge n+1$ .

Finally, by Corollary 2.2,  $\mu_{n+1}^y$  satisfies (1) for any sufficiently small choice of  $\delta_{n+1}$ . Let  $\mu$  be a weak limit of  $\mu_n$ . Then  $d(\mu, \mu_n) \leq \frac{1}{2}\delta_n$  for all n, so by (2), sides $(B_\mu) = \infty$ . At each step, rather than creating a new atom at y, one can instead add, e.g., Lebesgue measure on a small interval around y. In this way one can make the atom at 1 be the only atom of  $\mu$ .

Regarding the degree of denseness of the extreme points in the boundary, note that at each stage if y is small enough and  $p_{n+1}$  is close enough to  $p_n$ , the new extreme point we introduce can be made arbitrarily close to  $w_{p_n}$  (here we use that  $\alpha_p$  is continuous in  $p > \vec{p_c}$ , from [3]), and in the limit we can ensure an extreme point close to it. Thus, if we begin from  $\mu_0 = \delta_1$  and choose  $p_n$  so that  $\lim p_n = \vec{p_c}$ , and using Marchand's result that the flat edge in  $B_{\mu_n}$  then shrinks to a point (and symmetry of the limit shape about the axes), we can ensure  $\varepsilon$ -density of the extreme points of  $B_{\mu}$ .

For the second part of Theorem 1.2, choose a sequence  $\nu_n \in \mathcal{M}$  of continuous measures converging weakly to  $\mu$ . By Corollary 2.2, sides $(B_{\nu_n}) \to \infty$ , and if  $\operatorname{ext}(B_{\mu})$  is  $\varepsilon$ -dense in  $\partial B_{\mu}$  then the same holds for  $B_{\nu_n}$  for sufficiently large n.

Regarding the remark after the theorem, one may verify that if at each stage y is chosen close enough to 1 and  $p = \lim p_n$ , then  $w_p$  is a  $C^{\infty}$ -point of  $\partial B_{\mu}$ .

### 4. Proof of Theorem 1.3.

Let us recall Hoffman's argument relating coexistence to the geometry of the limit shape for continuous  $\mu$  (Theorem 1.6 of [6]). Extend  $\tau$  to  $\mathbb{R}^2 \times \mathbb{R}^2$  by  $\tau(x, y) = \tau(x', y')$ where x' is the unique lattice point in  $x + [-1/2, 1/2)^2$ . Similarly, a geodesic between x, y is a geodesic between x', y'. For  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ , the Busemann function  $B_S : \mathbb{R}^2 \times \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ is defined by

$$B_S(x,y) = \inf_{z \in S} \tau(x,z) - \inf_{w \in S} \tau(y,w).$$

For  $v \in \mathbb{R}^2$ , write  $S + v = \{s + v : s \in S\}$ . If  $v \in \partial B_{\mu}$  is a point of differentiability and w is a tangent vector at v, let  $\pi_v$  denote the linear functional  $av + bw \mapsto a$ . Define the lower density of a set  $A \subseteq \mathbb{N}$  by  $\underline{d}(A) = \liminf \frac{1}{N} |A \cap \{1, \ldots, N\}|$ .

**Theorem 4.1** (Hoffman [6]). Let  $\mu \in \mathcal{M}$  and let  $v \in B_{\mu}$  be a point of differentiability of  $\partial B_{\mu}$  with tangent line  $L \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ . Then for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists an  $M = M(v, \varepsilon) > 0$  such that, if  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^2$  satisfy  $\pi_v(x - y) > M$ , then

$$\mathbb{P}\Big(\underline{d}\Big(n\in\mathbb{N} : B_{L+nv}(y,x) > (1-\varepsilon)\pi_v(x-y)\Big) > 1-\varepsilon\Big) > 1-\varepsilon.$$

Hoffman's proof of this result does not use unique passage times.

Theorem 4.1 is related to coexistence as follows. Suppose  $\operatorname{sides}(B_{\mu}) \geq k$ . We can then find k points of differentiability  $v_1, \ldots, v_k \in \partial B_{\mu}$  with distinct tangent lines  $L_i$ , and in particular  $\pi_{v_i}(v_i - v_j) > 0$  for all  $j \neq i$ . Fix  $\varepsilon > 0$  and choose R > 0 large enough so that the points  $x_i = Rv_i$  satisfy  $\pi_{v_i}(x_i - x_j) > M(v_i, \varepsilon/k^2)$ . Using the elementary relation  $\underline{d}(\bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i) \geq 1 - \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \underline{d}(A_i))$ , for each *i* we have

$$\mathbb{P}\Big(\underline{d}\Big(n \in \mathbb{N} : B_{L+nv_i}(x_j, x_i) > 0 \text{ for all } j \neq i\Big) > 1 - \frac{\varepsilon}{k}\Big) > 1 - \frac{\varepsilon}{k},$$

and hence with positive probability (which can be made arbitrarily close to 1 by decreasing  $\varepsilon$ ), for each *i* there is a positive density of *n* such that  $B_{L_i+nv_i}(x_j, x_i) > 0$  for all  $j \neq i$ . For such an *n*, take  $y_{i,n} \in L_i + nv_i$  to be the closest point (in the sense of passage times) to  $x_i$ ; assuming unique geodesics, by definition  $y_{i,n}$  is reached first by species *i*. The points  $y_{i,n}$  are in  $C_i$ , so  $|C_i| = \infty$  for  $i = 1, \ldots, k$ , i.e., coexistence occurs.

If geodesics are not unique the argument still applies, using the following observation. If  $B_{L_i+nv_i}(x_j, x_i) > 0$ ,  $j \neq i$ , then the only way that  $y_{i,n}$  could be colonized by a species other than i is if it is colonized by -1. This can occur only if there is a site z on a geodesic from  $x_i$  to  $y_{i,n}$  which is reached simultaneously by species i and  $j \neq i$ . If this happens then by concatenating the geodesic from  $x_j$  to z with the geodesic from z to y we get a path from  $x_j$  to  $L_i + nv_i$  with passage time equal to  $\tau(x_i, y_{i,n})$ , so  $\tau(x_j, L_i + nv_i) \leq \tau(x_i, y_{i,n})$  and hence  $B_{L_i+nv_i}(x_j, x_i) \leq 0$ , contrary to assumption.

When sides $(B_{\mu}) = \infty$ , one proves coexistence of infinitely many types similarly. Choose a sequence  $\{v_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty} \subseteq \partial B_{\mu}$  of points of differentiability of the boundary, ordered clockwise, say. Given  $\varepsilon > 0$ , define the points  $x_i$  inductively by  $x_{i+1} = x_i + R_i(v_{i+1} - v_i)$  for a sufficiently large  $R_i > 0$  so as to ensure that for  $i \neq j$ ,  $\pi_{v_i}(x_i - x_j) > M(v_i, \varepsilon_{i,j})$ , where  $\sum_{i,j} \varepsilon_{i,j} < \varepsilon$ . The rest of the argument is the same as above.

## 5. Proof of Theorem 1.4.

Recall that K denotes the graph of infection. When there are unique geodesics, Hoffman's results imply that the number of ends of K is at least sides $(B_{\mu})/2$  (Theorem 1.4 of [6]), establishing Theorem 1.4 for non-atomic  $\mu$ . In this section we deal with the presence of atoms, proving the following result:

**Theorem 5.1.** If  $\mu$  is not purely atomic and has at least  $s \in \mathbb{N}$  sides, then the number of ends in K is  $\mathbb{P}$ -a.s. at least

(5.1) 
$$k = 4 \left\lfloor \frac{s-4}{12} \right\rfloor.$$

See below Theorem 5.3 for an explanation of this bound.

For simplicity, in the following discussion we fix a measure  $\mu \in \mathcal{M}_p$  with p < 1, and make two further assumptions: (a) the only atom of  $\mu$  is the atom at 1, and (b)  $\mu$  is supported on a bounded interval [1, R]. The argument can be modified to deal with the general case of the theorem.

**Proposition 5.2.** Suppose that  $\mathbb{P}$ -a.s. there exist k infinite geodesics  $\gamma_1, \ldots, \gamma_k$  starting at 0, edges  $e_1, \ldots, e_k$ , and a finite set  $V \subseteq \mathbb{Z}^2$ , such that (a)  $e_i$  lies on  $\gamma_i$  but not on  $\gamma_j$  for  $i \neq j$ , (b) the endpoints of  $e_i$  are in V, (c)  $\tau_{e_i} > 1$ , and (d) each pair of geodesics is disjoint outside of V. Then  $\mathbb{P}$ -a.s., K has k ends.

*Proof.* Under our assumptions on  $\mu$ , with probability 1 every pair of edges with passage times > 1 has distinct passage times. Consequently, geodesics between  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}^2$  can

differ only in edges e with  $\tau_e = 1$ , and must share edges with  $\tau_e > 1$ . We assume we are in this probability-1 event.

We claim that no two of the given geodesics are connected in  $K \setminus V$ . Suppose for instance that  $\gamma_1, \gamma_2$  were connected in  $K \setminus V$  by a path  $\sigma$  which we may assume is simple (non self-intersecting) and with endpoints  $y_1 \in \gamma_1$  and  $y_2 \in \gamma_2$ . Denote the sequence of vertices in  $\sigma$  by  $y_1 = v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k = y_2$ . Write  $e = e_1$  and let  $J \subseteq \{1, \ldots, k\}$  denote the set of j such that there exists a geodesic  $\sigma_j$  from 0 to  $v_j$  which contains e. We claim that  $k \in J$ . This leads to a contradiction because then  $\sigma_k$  and  $\gamma_2$  are both geodesics connecting 0 and  $y_2$ , but only one of them,  $\sigma_k$ , contains e.

Clearly  $1 \in J$ . Suppose now that  $j \in J$  with corresponding geodesic  $\sigma_j$ . Write f for the edge between  $v_j$  and  $v_{j+1}$ , and note that  $f \neq e$  because the endpoints of e are in V while those of f are not. Also,  $\tau(0, v_j) \neq \tau(0, v_{j+1})$ , since  $f \in K$ . If  $\tau(0, v_{j+1}) > \tau(0, v_j)$  then we adjoin f to  $\sigma_j$  and obtain a geodesic  $\sigma_{j+1}$  with the desired properties. If  $\tau(0, v_{j+1}) < \tau(0, v_j)$  and  $v_{j+1}$  lies on  $\sigma_j$  we remove f from  $\sigma_j$  to obtain  $\sigma_{j+1}$ . On the other hand, if  $v_{j+1}$  does not lie on  $\sigma_j$  but  $\tau(0, v_{j+1}) < \tau(0, v_j)$ , then there is a geodesic  $\sigma'_{j+1}$  from 0 to  $v_j$  whose last edge is f. Because  $\sigma'_{j+1}$  must reach  $v_j$  in the same time as  $\sigma_j$  does, it must pass through each of those edges of  $\sigma_j$  which have passage times > 1, and in particular through e. We remove f from  $\sigma'_{j+1}$  to obtain  $\sigma_{j+1}$ .

Our goal is to establish the hypotheses of the proposition for k as in (5.1). It is enough to show that there exist random variables m < M such that with probability one,

- (1) There exist k geodesics  $\gamma_1, \ldots, \gamma_k$  which are disjoint outside of  $mB_{\mu}$ .
- (2) There are edges  $e_i$  in  $\gamma_i$ , with endpoints in  $MB_{\mu} \setminus mB_{\mu}$ , such that  $\tau_{e_i} > 1$ .

This suffices because we can then set  $V = MB_{\mu}$  in the proposition. To show that such m, M exist, it is enough to show that for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists deterministic m < M such that each of the conditions above holds on an event of probability  $> 1 - \varepsilon$ .

Given  $u, v, w \in \partial B_{\mu}$  which are points of differentiability of  $\partial B_{\mu}$ , let C(u, v, w) denote the open arc in  $\partial B_{\mu}$  from u to w containing v. We rely on the following result, whose proof does not require unique geodesics:

**Theorem 5.3** (Hoffman [6]). Let  $u, v, w \in \partial B_{\mu}$  be points of differentiability of  $\partial B_{\mu}$ , let L be the tangent line at v, and write C = C(u, v, w). Then for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there is an  $M_0 = M_0(\varepsilon)$  such that for every  $M > M_0$ , with probability  $> 1 - \varepsilon$  the set

$$I = \left\{ n \in \mathbb{N} : \gamma \cap M \partial B_{\mu} \subseteq MC \text{ for all geodesics } \gamma \text{ from } 0 \text{ to } L + nv \right\}$$

satisfies  $\underline{d}(I) > 1 - \varepsilon$ .

Henceforth fix k as in (5.1) and  $\varepsilon > 0$  and for i = 1, ..., k choose points  $u_i, v_i, w_i \in \partial B_{\mu}$ and lines  $L_i$  as in the theorem, and such that the closed sets  $C_i = \overline{C(u_i, v_i, w_i)}$  are pairwise disjoint and do not intersect the boundary of the  $\ell^1$  unit ball; write  $C = \bigcup_{i=1}^k C_i$ . Note that k was picked so that such a choice is possible: note that  $\frac{1}{4}(\operatorname{sides}(B_{\mu}) - 4)$  is the number of distinct sides on each of the four curves in  $\partial B_{\mu}$  which constitute the complement of the  $\ell^1$  unit ball; dividing this number by 3 gives an upper bound on the number of triples we can choose in each of these curves. Taking integer part and multiplying by 4 gives k.

**Claim 5.4.** There exists  $M_0$  and  $\rho > 0$  such that with probability at least  $1 - \varepsilon$ , for all  $M > M_0$ , every  $x \in MC$  and every geodesic  $\gamma$  from 0 to x, at least a  $\rho$ -fraction of the edges of  $\gamma$  have passage times > 1.

*Proof.* Pick  $\delta > 0$  and define edge weights  $\{\tau'_e : e \in \mathbb{E}\}$  by the rule that if  $\tau_e > 1$  then  $\tau'_e = \tau_e + \delta$  and  $\tau'_e = \tau_e$  otherwise. Let  $\mu'$  denote the marginal distribution of  $\tau'_e$ .

Choose  $\eta > 0$  so that  $(1 - \eta)C \cap B_{\mu'} = \emptyset$  (we can do so by a theorem of Marchand [7, Theorem 1.5] and the fact that C is disjoint from the  $\ell^1$  unit ball). For a path  $\sigma$  let  $f(\sigma)$  denote the fraction of edges of  $\sigma$  with passage time > 1. By Theorem 1.1, there is an event A with  $\mathbb{P}(A) > 1 - \varepsilon$  and an  $M_0$  such that for all  $M > M_0$  and  $y \in \partial B_{\mu}$ , the  $\tau$ -geodesic  $\gamma$  from 0 to y satisfies  $(1 - \eta^2)M < \tau(\gamma) < (1 + \eta^2)M$ , and similarly for  $y' \in M\partial B'_{\mu}$  and the  $\tau'$ -length of  $\tau'$ -geodesics from 0 to y'. We claim that A is the desired event. Indeed, let  $M > M_0$  and let  $\gamma$  be a  $\tau$ -geodesic from 0 to some  $x \in MC$ . Since  $\tau_e \geq 1$  for all  $e \in \mathbb{E}$ , the number of edges in  $\gamma$  is at most  $\tau(\gamma)$ . Hence

$$\tau'(\gamma) = \tau(\gamma) + \delta f(\gamma) \# \{ \text{edges of } \gamma \}$$
  
$$\leq (1 + \delta f(\gamma)) \tau(\gamma)$$
  
$$\leq (1 + \delta f(\gamma))(1 + \eta^2) M.$$

On the other hand  $x = \frac{M}{s}y$  for some  $y \in \partial B_{\mu'}$  and  $s < 1 - \eta$ , so

$$\tau'(\gamma) \ge (1 - \eta^2) \frac{M}{1 - \eta}$$

Combining these we find that  $f(\gamma) \geq \frac{\eta}{\delta} \cdot \frac{1-\eta}{1+\eta^2}$ . This lower bound on f can serve as  $\rho$ .  $\Box$ 

Let  $\alpha > 0$  be the quantity

(5.2) 
$$\alpha = \frac{1}{2} \min\{\pi_{v_i}(x_i - x_j) : x_i \in C_i, x_j \in C_j, i \neq j\}.$$

and fix finite,  $\frac{\alpha}{100R}$ -dense sets  $D_i \subseteq C_i$ . Let  $\rho$  be as in the claim and  $L \gg m/\rho$ . By Theorems 5.3 and 1.1, we can choose an integer m and M = Lm such that, with probability  $> 1 - \varepsilon$ , there is a set  $I \subseteq \mathbb{N}$  of density  $> 1 - \varepsilon$  such that, for  $n \in I$ ,

- (A) Every geodesic  $\gamma_{i,n}$  from 0 to  $L_i + nv_i$  intersects  $m\partial B_{\mu}$  in  $mC_i$  and intersects  $M\partial B_{\mu}$  in  $MC_i$ .
- (B) If  $i \neq j$  then  $B_{L_i+nv_i}(x_j, x_i) > m\alpha$  for all  $x_i \in mD_i$  and  $x_j \in mD_j$ .
- (C)  $|\tau(0,x) m| < \frac{m\alpha}{10}$  for all  $x \in mD_i$ .
- (D) At least a  $\rho/2$ -fraction of edges on  $\gamma_{i,n} \cap (MB_{\mu} \setminus mB_{\mu})$  have passage time > 1.

Fix  $\gamma_{i,n}$  as in (A). We may choose an infinite  $J \subseteq I$  such that  $\lim_{n \in J} \gamma_{i,n} \to \gamma_i$  for some infinite geodesics  $\gamma_i$  originating at 0, i.e., for every r > 0 we have  $\gamma_i \cap [-r, r]^2 = \gamma_{i,n} \cap [-r, r]^2$  for all large enough  $n \in J$ . Henceforth we only consider such n. Let  $y_{i,n}$  be the first intersection point of  $\gamma_{i,n}$  with  $mC_i$ , and choose  $x_{i,n} \in D_i$  such that  $|x_{i,n} - y_{i,n}| \leq \frac{m\alpha}{R10}$ . Since  $\mu$  is supported on [0, R], we conclude that  $\tau(x_{i,n}, y_{i,n}) \leq \frac{m\alpha}{10}$ , so

(5.3) 
$$|B_{L_i+nv_i}(y_{j,n}, y_{i,n}) - B_{L_i+nv_i}(x_{j,n}, x_{i,n})| < \frac{2m\alpha}{10} \text{ for } i \neq j.$$

Claim 5.5. The  $\gamma_i$ 's are disjoint outside of  $mB_{\mu}$ .

*Proof.* Suppose for example that  $\gamma_1, \gamma_2$  intersect at some point z outside of  $mB_{\mu}$ . Then for large enough  $n \in J$  the same is true of  $\gamma_{1,n}$  and  $\gamma_{2,n}$ . Then

$$\tau(0, y_{1,n}) + \tau(y_{1,n}, z) = \tau(0, y_{2,n}) + \tau(y_{2,n}, z).$$

By (C) we have  $|\tau(0, y_{1,n}) - \tau(0, y_{2,n})| < \frac{2m\alpha}{10}$ , so

$$|\tau(y_{1,n},z) - \tau(y_{2,n},z)| < \frac{2m\alpha}{10}.$$

Write  $\sigma_1$  for the part of  $\gamma_{1,n}$  from  $y_{1,n}$  to  $L_1 + nv_1$ . Let  $\sigma_2$  be path which starts at  $y_{2,n}$ , follows  $\gamma_{2,n}$  until z, and then follows  $\gamma_{1,n}$  until  $L_1 + nv_1$ . We find that  $|\tau(\sigma_1) - \tau(\sigma_2)| < \frac{2m\alpha}{10}$ . But  $\gamma_{1,n}$  is a shortest path from 0 to  $L_1 + nv_1$ , so  $\sigma_1$  is a shortest path from  $y_{1,n}$  to  $L_1 + nv_1$ . Hence  $B_{L_1+nv_1}(y_{2,n}, y_{1,n}) \leq \frac{2m\alpha}{10}$ . By (5.3), this contradicts (B).

Finally, combining the last claim with (D) establishes the two claims stated after Proposition 5.2. This completes the proof of Theorem 1.4.

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