# RIGIDITY AND GEOMETRICITY FOR SURFACE GROUP ACTIONS ON THE CIRCLE 

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#### Abstract

We prove that rigid representations of $\pi_{1} \Sigma_{g}$ in $\operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$ are geometric, thereby establishing a converse statement of a theorem by the first author in [14].


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## 1. Introduction

1.1. Character spaces and rigidity. Let $\Gamma$ be a discrete group and $G$ a topological group. If $G \subset \operatorname{Homeo}(X)$ for some space $X$, then the representation space $\operatorname{Hom}(\Gamma, G)$, equipped with the compact-open topology, parameterizes actions of $\Gamma$ on $X$ with image in $G$. Typically, $G$ is used to specify the regularity of the action - for instance taking $G=\operatorname{Diff}(X)$ parametrizes smooth actions, whereas if $G$ is a Lie group acting transitively on $M$, these are geometric actions in the sense of Ehresmann. Since conjugate actions are dynamically equivalent, the appropriate moduli space of actions is the quotient $\operatorname{Hom}(\Gamma, G) / G$ under the natural conjugation action of $G$. However, this quotient space is typically non-Hausdorff.

When $G$ is a Lie group and $\operatorname{Hom}(\Gamma, G)$ is an affine variety, algebraic geometers solve this problem by considering the quotient $\operatorname{Hom}(\Gamma, G) / / G$ from geometric invariant theory. In the special case where $G$ is a semi-simple complex reductive Lie group, this GIT quotient is simply the quotient of $\operatorname{Hom}(\Gamma, G)$ by the equivalence relation $\rho_{1} \sim \rho_{2}$ whenever the closures of their conjugacy classes intersect [12, 13]. In particular, this relation makes the quotient space Hausdorff. In the well-studied case of $G=\mathrm{SL}(n, \mathbb{C})$, the GIT quotient agrees with the space of characters of $G$-representations, motivating the terminology in the following definition.

Definition 1.1. For any discrete group $\Gamma$ and topological group $G$, the character space $X(\Gamma, G)$ is the largest Hausdorff quotient ${ }^{1}$ of $\operatorname{Hom}(\Gamma, G) / G$. We say that two representations are $\chi$-equivalent if they give the same point in $X(\Gamma, G)$.

A representation $\rho: \Gamma \rightarrow G$ is rigid, loosely speaking, if all deformations of $\rho(\Gamma)$ in $G$ are trivial. This notion can be made precise in the setting of character spaces, as follows.

[^0]Definition 1.2. A representation $\rho \in \operatorname{Hom}(\Gamma, G)$ is rigid if the image of $\rho$ is an isolated point in the character space $X(\Gamma, G)$.

This is quite a strong condition on $\rho$, and we may loosen it to some weaker, and more explicit conditions. In particular, we will say that $\rho$ is path-rigid if the path component of $\rho$ in $\operatorname{Hom}(\Gamma, G)$ is contained in a single $\chi$-equivalence class.

The case of interest in this article is when $G=\operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$, the group of orientation-preserving homeomorphisms of the circle, and $\Gamma=\Gamma_{g}=\pi_{1}\left(\Sigma_{g}\right)$ is the fundamental group of an orientable surface of genus $g \geqslant 2$. In this case $\operatorname{Hom}(\Gamma, G)$ has an important interpretation as the space of flat or foliated topological circle bundles over $\Sigma$. As will be explained in Section 2.3, in this setting the character space $X(\Gamma, G)$ is the space of semi-conjugacy classes of actions of $\Gamma$ on $S^{1}$, and path-rigid representations are those $\rho$ such that every path can be obtained by a continuous family of semi-conjugacies. Both rigid and path-rigid representations can be thought of as corresponding to foliated bundles that admit only trivial types of deformations.

A second motivation for the study of $X\left(\Gamma_{g}, \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)\right)$ comes from Goldman's seminal work on $X\left(\Gamma_{g}, \operatorname{PSL}(2, \mathbb{R})\right)$ and its relations with Teichmüller spaces. In [9], Goldman showed that the connected components of $X\left(\Gamma_{g}, \operatorname{PSL}(2, \mathbb{R})\right)$ are classified by the Euler number. The Euler number is a characteristic integer, which Milnor [22] showed takes values in $[-2 g+2,2 g-$ 2] $\cap \mathbb{Z}$ on (equivalence classes of) representations in $X\left(\Gamma_{g}, \operatorname{PSL}(2, \mathbb{R})\right)$. This is the famous Milnor-Wood inequality; to which Wood's contribution was an extension of Milnor's result to representations into $\operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right) \supset \operatorname{PSL}(2, \mathbb{R})$ [24]. However, as was shown in [14], the Euler number does not classify connected components of $X\left(\Gamma_{g}, \operatorname{PSL}(2, \mathbb{R})\right)$, and extending Goldman's work to representations into $\mathrm{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$ appears to be a difficult task. We will comment further on this in the next section.
1.2. Geometric representations. The first known example of a rigid representation of a surface group into $\mathrm{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$ comes from a celebrated theorem of Matsumoto [20]. He showed that the set of representations with maximal Euler number, i.e. Euler number equal to $2 g-2$, in $X\left(\Gamma_{g}, G\right)$ consists of a single point. As the Euler number is a continuous function on $\operatorname{Hom}\left(\Gamma_{g}, G\right)$, this implies that representations of maximal Euler number are rigid. (The same statement also holds for representations with Euler number $-2 g+2$.)

Phrased otherwise, Matsumoto's result says that all representations with Euler number $\pm(2 g-2)$ are $\chi$-equivalent to discrete, faithful representations into $\operatorname{PSL}(2, \mathbb{R})$. This hints at an underlying phenomenon for rigidity, namely that these are representations coming from a geometric structure.

Definition 1.3 ([15]). Let $M$ be a manifold, and $\Gamma$ a countable group. A representation $\rho: \Gamma \rightarrow \operatorname{Homeo}(M)$ is called geometric if it is $\chi$-equivalent to a faithful representation with image a cocompact lattice in a transitive, connected Lie group $G \subset \operatorname{Homeo}(M)$.

It is not difficult to classify the geometric representations of surface groups in Homeo ${ }^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$ : up to $\chi$-equivalence, all are either discrete, faithful representations into PSL $(2, \mathbb{R})$, or obtained by lifting such a representation to a finite cyclic extension of PSL( $2, \mathbb{R}$ ). See [15] for details.

The main result of [14] is the following.
Theorem 1.4 (Mann [14]). In the space $\operatorname{Hom}\left(\Gamma_{g}, \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)\right)$, all geometric representations are rigid.

In fact, the main theorem of [14] is stated in a weaker form; it says that the connected component of $\operatorname{Hom}\left(\Gamma_{g}\right.$, Homeo $\left.^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)\right)$ is a single semi-conjugacy, or $\chi$-equivalence, class (we will see soon that these two notions coincide). However, the proof of the theorem is carried out on the level of semi-conjugacy invariants of representations, so actually proves the stronger result that geometric representations descend to isolated points in $X\left(\Gamma_{g}\right.$, Homeo $\left.^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)\right)$.
1.3. Results. This article is devoted to proving the converse of Theorem 1.4. We show the following.

Theorem 1.5. Every rigid representation in $\operatorname{Hom}\left(\Gamma_{g}, \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)\right)$ is geometric.

In other words, the only source of rigidity for actions of $\Gamma_{g}$ on $S^{1}$ is the existence of an underlying geometric structure.

Our main technical result in the course of proving Theorem 1.5 is stronger for representations of non-zero Euler class, as we need to assume only pathrigidity in this case.

Theorem 1.6. Let $\rho: \pi_{1} \Sigma_{g} \rightarrow \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$ be a path-rigid representation. If $\rho$ is not geometric, then its Euler class is zero, and there exists a one-holed, genus $g-1$ subsurface $\Sigma^{\prime} \subset \Sigma_{g}$ such that $\left.\rho\right|_{\pi_{1} \Sigma^{\prime}}$ has a finite orbit.

The condition of having a large subsurface with a finite orbit makes it very unlikely that such a representation cannot be deformed along a path. This gives strong evidence for the fact that all path-rigid representations should in fact be geometric. However, at the time of writing we are unable to prove this.

The proof of Theorem 1.6 is quite long and involved. A much simpler argument, with some of the same spirit, can be carried out under the additional assumption that the relative Euler number on some genus 1 subsurface is equal to 1 ; this is the case in particular for representations of Euler class $\geqslant g$. This simpler, though much weaker, proof is presented in the companion article [17]. Although the present article is self-contained, the reader may prefer to take [17] as a starting point.

We conclude this introduction by putting our result in the perspective of the following ambitious problem (which remains wide open) in the natural continuation of Goldman's work on $X\left(\Gamma_{g}, \operatorname{PSL}(2, \mathbb{R})\right)$.

Question 1.7. What are the connected components of $X\left(\Gamma_{g}, \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)\right)$ ? What are its path components?

One of the implications of Theorem 1.4 was that the space $X\left(\pi_{1} \Sigma_{g}\right.$, Homeo $\left.^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)\right)$ has strictly more connected components than $X\left(\pi_{1} \Sigma_{g}, \operatorname{PSL}(2, \mathbb{R})\right)$. At this
time, we do not even know if the former has finitely many connected components. The present article, more than simply proving Theorem 1.5, aims at providing some technical tools towards this question; we hope to address it in a future work.
1.4. Strategy of the proof and organization of the article. The main ingredient in the proof of Theorem 1.6 is the effect of bending deformations on the periodic sets of simple closed curves. Bending deformations are classical in (higher) Teichmüller theory, (see paragraph 2.2.2 for a reminder); and we extend their study to representations to $\mathrm{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$.

As a first step, we make a (strong) additional technical hypothesis on representations that forces them to look "locally" (i.e. on the level of some pairs of curves) like representations into $\operatorname{PSL}^{k}(2, \mathbb{R})$. Specifically, we say that the action of two elements $a, b \in \Gamma_{g}$ representing standard generators of a one-holed torus subsurface of $\Sigma_{g}$ satisfies $S_{k}(a, b)$ if $\rho(a)$ and $\rho(b)$ are separately conjugate to hyperbolic elements of $\operatorname{PSL}^{k}(2, \mathbb{R})$, and their fixed points alternate around the circle. We show the following.

Theorem 1.8. Let $\rho$ be a path-rigid, minimal representation, and suppose furthermore that there exists $k \geqslant 1$ such that $S_{k}(a, b)$ holds for all standard generators of one-holed torus subsurfaces. Then $\rho$ is geometric.

The reader can think of this as a dynamical "local-to-global" result.
The proof of Theorem 1.8 starts by using bending deformations of $\rho$ to move the periodic points of generators of $\pi_{1} \Sigma_{g}$. Provided $\rho$ is path-rigid, we are then able to conclude the periodic points of many simple closed curves are in the same cyclic order as if $\rho$ were geometric. In the companion article [17], (whose additional hypothesis guarantees that $k=1$ ) this same process was sufficient to demonstrate that $\rho$ has maximal Euler number, hence is geometric. Here in the general case, we need to use a more sophisticated tool, and introduce Matsumoto's theory of Basic Partitions (see Section 3.5).

The next step is to arrive at the property $S_{k}(a, b)$ from weaker hypotheses on periodic sets of curves. We prove the following statements.
Proposition 1.9. If a representation $\pi_{1} \Sigma_{g} \rightarrow G$ is path-rigid then all nonseparating simple closed curves have rational rotation number.
Theorem 1.10. Suppose $\rho$ is path-rigid and minimal. Then, for all $a, b$ with $i(a, b)= \pm 1$, we have the implication

$$
\operatorname{Per}(\rho(a)) \cap \operatorname{Per}(\rho(b))=\varnothing \Rightarrow S_{k}(a, b) \text { for some } k
$$

The proofs again make extensive use of bending deformations.
The upshot of these results is that, if a path-rigid and minimal representation fails to be geometric, then many curves are forced to have common periodic points. Common periodic points hint at the existence of a finite orbit for $\rho$, so our strategy becomes to look for a finite orbit in order to derive a contradiction (indeed, representations with a finite orbit are easily seen to be non-path-rigid). This idea turns out to be difficult to implement, so we search first for curves with rotation number zero, as the dynamics of these are easier to control. This search can be performed separately in every one-holed torus in the surface, where the action of the mapping class group
is simple to work with. Accordingly, a one-holed torus in $\Sigma_{g}$ will be called a good torus if it contains a nonseparating simple loop with rotation number zero; otherwise we say it is a bad torus. Further, a one-holed torus will be called a very good torus if its fundamental group has a finite orbit in $S^{1}$. We can prove:

Proposition 1.11. Let $\rho$ be path-rigid. Suppose that $\Sigma_{g}$ contains a bad torus $\Sigma^{\prime}$. Then its complement $\Sigma^{\prime \prime}$ contains only very good tori.

By studying the evolution of periodic sets under specific bending deformations, we are able to prove the following two statements:

Proposition 1.12. Let $\rho$ be path-rigid, and non-geometric. Then there cannot exist two disjoint good tori that are not very good.

Theorem 1.13. Let $\rho$ be a path-rigid representation. Let $\Sigma_{g^{\prime}, 1}$ be a subsurface in which all tori are very good. Then $\pi_{1} \Sigma_{g^{\prime}, 1}$ has a finite orbit.

These three last statements prove that if $\rho$ is a path-rigid and non-geometric representation then it has a subsurface of genus $g-1$ with a finite orbit; the statement about the Euler class in Theorem 1.6 is then an easy consequence.

Provided $g \geqslant 3$, Theorem 1.13 implies that if $\rho$ is a path-rigid but nongeometric representation, then there exist curves $a, b$, generating a torus subsurface of $\Sigma_{g}$, such that $\rho(a)$ and $\rho(b)$ have a common fixed point. It then follows from a recent theorem of Alonso, Brum and Rivas [1] that $\rho$ cannot be rigid. However, path-rigidity and the genus $g=2$ case do not follow. So we pursue a different route, taking their work as inspiration. We prove an independent, simple lemma on rigid representations that shows (after semiconjugacy) all torus subsurfaces have only finitely many finite orbits. This applies to all genera of surfaces, and allows us conclude the proof of Theorem 1.5.

The article is organized as follows. Section 2 introduces tools that will be frequently used in the proof. While some of the material is standard, we also prove new results on complexes of based curves, and prove a series of results on the movement of periodic sets under specific bending deformations. We also give more discussion to character spaces, semi-conjugacy, and the Euler class. In Section 3 we prove Theorem 1.8. In Section 4 we prove Proposition 1.9 and Theorem 1.10. The proof of Theorem 1.6 is then completed in Section 5. Finally, in Section 6 we complete the proof of Theorem 1.5 and state some open questions and directions for further work.

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## 2. Preliminaries

This section sets notation and develops a toolkit for use in the main proofs. The first part treats curves on surfaces. This subsection will feel familiar to low dimensional topologists, except that we will give much more attention to based curves than is usually present in the literature. The second subsection deals with actions of surface groups on $S^{1}$ and their deformations. We introduce new material on the behavior of periodic sets under deformations, and the topology of sets of persistent (and non-persistent) periodic points; this will be crucial in later sections of the work. The third subsection covers character spaces, semi-conjugacy, and the Euler number in more detail, including the proof that $\chi$-equivalence coincides with semi-conjugacy in $\operatorname{Hom}\left(\Gamma, \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)\right)$.

### 2.1. Based curves on surfaces.

Warning 2.1. Although our notation $\pi_{1} \Sigma_{g}$ omits mention of a basepoint, it is crucial to keep in mind that all elements of $\pi_{1} \Sigma_{g}$ are based. This is because, very often, given two simple curves $\gamma_{1}, \gamma_{2}$, we will need to know whether the product $\gamma_{2} \gamma_{1}$ is also (up to homotopy rel endpoints) a simple curve, and this may change if $\gamma_{2}$ is replaced by some conjugate of itself. Note also that the set of simple based curves is itself not invariant under conjugation.

As in the introduction, we use the notation $\Gamma_{g}=\pi_{1} \Sigma_{g}$.
Definition 2.2 (Based intersection number). Let $a, b \in \Gamma_{g}$. We write $i(a, b)=0$ if we can represent $a$ and $b$ by differentiable maps $a, b:[0,1] \rightarrow \Sigma_{g}$ with $\{0,1\}$ mapped to the basepoint, whose restrictions to $[0,1)$ are injective, and such that the cyclic order of their tangent vectors at the base point is either $\left(a^{\prime}(0),-a^{\prime}(1), b^{\prime}(0),-b^{\prime}(1)\right)$ or $\left(a^{\prime}(0),-a^{\prime}(1),-b^{\prime}(1), b^{\prime}(0)\right)$, or the reverse of one of these.
If instead the cyclic order of tangent vectors is $\left(a^{\prime}(0), b^{\prime}(0),-a^{\prime}(1),-b^{\prime}(1)\right)$ or the reverse, we write $i(a, b)=1$ and $i(a, b)=-1$ respectively.

Note that this is an ad hoc definition, for these are the only two configurations of pairs of curves that we will be interested in. For typical pairs of curves $a, b$, the number $i(a, b)$ is not defined.

Convention 2.3 (Read words from right to left). Since we will often be working with a given representation, we will often abuse notation and identify an element $a \in \Gamma_{g}$ with a homeomorphism of the circle. Thus, following the convention of function composition, we write words in $\Gamma_{g}$ (i.e. products of loops by concatenation) from right to left.

We also fix commutator notation to be $[a, b]:=b^{-1} a^{-1} b a$.
Notation 2.4 (Tori). Given two simple nonseparating loops $a, b \in \Gamma_{g}$ with $i(a, b)= \pm 1$, their commutator $[a, b]$ bounds a genus 1 subsurface containing $a$ and $b$, which we will denote by $T(a, b)$. Figure 1 illustrates $T\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right)$.

Although $T(a, b)$ is only defined up to based homotopy, we may still speak reasonably of curves that intersect it, as follows.

Definition 2.5. We say that a simple, nonseparating curve $\gamma$ is disjoint from $T(a, b)$ if $\gamma$ has intersection number zero with each of $a, b$ and $[a, b]$, and that $\gamma$ enters or intersects $T(a, b)$ otherwise. We say that two tori $T(a, b)$ and $T\left(a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right)$ are disjoint if $a, b$ are disjoint from $T\left(a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right)$ and if $a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}$ are disjoint from $T(a, b)$.

In the same line as Warning 2.1, note that $T(a, b) \neq T(b, a)$.
Definition 2.6 (Based standard generators). We say a system of based loops $\left(a_{1}, \ldots, b_{g}\right)$ is standard if the surface, together with these curves, are as in Figure 1. They give the following standard presentation of the fundamental group:

$$
\Gamma_{g}=\left\langle a_{1}, b_{1}, \ldots, a_{g}, b_{g} \mid\left[a_{g}, b_{g}\right] \cdots\left[a_{1}, b_{1}\right]=1\right\rangle .
$$

In such a picture, an easy mnemonic way not to confuse $a_{i}$ and $b_{i}$ with $a_{i}^{ \pm 1}$ or $b_{i}^{ \pm 1}$, is to remember that the curve $\left[a_{i}, b_{i}\right]$ begins with the letter $a_{i}$ and ends with $b_{i}^{-1}$.


Figure 1. Standard generators on the genus $g$ surface $(g=4)$
Recall that a fat-graph is a graph together with the data of a total cyclic order on ends of edges at each vertex. If every edge also comes with a preferred orientation, it is called a fat-quiver. We define the directed standard $k$-chain to be the fat-quiver shown in Figure 2. As a graph it is simply the standard rose with $k$ petals, and as a fat-quiver, the ends of edges are in the cyclic order $\left(\gamma_{1}^{\prime}(0), \gamma_{2}^{\prime}(0),-\gamma_{1}^{\prime}(1), \gamma_{3}^{\prime}(0),-\gamma_{2}^{\prime}(1), \gamma_{4}^{\prime}(0), \ldots,-\gamma_{k}^{\prime}(1)\right)$. In particular, $i\left(\gamma_{i}, \gamma_{i+1}\right)=+1$, and $i\left(\gamma_{i}, \gamma_{j}\right)=0$ whenever $|j-i| \geqslant 2$. By walking along the sides of the curves $\gamma_{i}$, and computing the Euler characteristic, we observe that the surface obtained by thickening the standard chain of length $2 k$ is a genus $k$ surface with one boundary component, and the one from the chain of length $2 k+1$ is a genus $k$ surface with two holes.
Definition 2.7 (Chains). Let $\Sigma$ be a surface, and $\gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{k}$ loops based at the base point. We say that $\left(\gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{k}\right)$ forms an oriented, directed $k$ chain if these curves arise from an orientation-preserving embedding of the


Figure 2. A directed chain of length 5
directed standard $k$-chain into $\Sigma$, and a directed $k$-chain if the embedding may reverse the orientation. We say it forms simply a $k$-chain if there exists a family of signs $\left(\epsilon_{1}, \ldots, \epsilon_{k}\right)$ such that $\left(\gamma_{1}^{\epsilon_{1}}, \ldots, \gamma_{k}^{\epsilon_{k}}\right)$ is a directed $k$-chain. We say that a (directed) $k$-chain is completable if its sits in the middle of some $k+2$-chain.

For example, $\left(a_{1}^{-1} b_{1} a_{1}, a_{1}, b_{1}^{-1}\right)$ is a non-completable 3 -chain in $\Sigma_{g}$, and the collection $\left(a_{1}, \delta_{1}, a_{2}, \delta_{2}, \ldots, \delta_{g-1}, a_{g}, b_{g}^{-1}\right)$ (as well as its sub-chains), where we have set $\delta_{i}=a_{i+1}^{-1} b_{i+1} a_{i+1} b_{i}^{-1}$, forms a directed chain. Also, the family $\left(a_{1}^{-1} b_{1} a_{1}, a_{1}, \delta_{1}, a_{2}, b_{2}^{-1}\right)$ forms a (non-completable) 5 -chain that will be handy in Section 5.3.

We conclude this paragraph with some considerations on complexes of pairs of based curves.

Lemma 2.8. Let $G_{0}$ denote graph whose vertices are the pairs $(a, b) \in \Gamma_{g}^{2}$ with $i(a, b)= \pm 1$, with an edge between two pairs $(a, b)$ and $(b, c)$ whenever $(a, b, c)$ is a 3-chain. Then $G_{0}$ is connected.

The proofs of the main results of this article do not depend on this lemma, as we will simply need to work on a connected component of this graph - in fact, our proof in the companion article [17] is done along this line. However, the lemma is quite elementary, so here we take the honest approach of giving the proof and using the whole connected graph instead of making reference to a connected component.

The proof of Lemma 2.8 is divided into two main observations. It essentially copies the proof of Proposition 6.7 of [18], but corrects a minor mistake there, where the complex of based curves should have been used instead of the standard curve complex.

Observation 2.9. Let $G_{1}$ be the graph whose vertices are the elements of $\Gamma_{g}$ represented by simple, non-separating curves, and with edges between a and $b$ if and only if $i(a, b)= \pm 1$. Then $G_{1}$ is connected.

Proof. Let $G_{2}$ be the graph with the same vertices, but with edge between $a$ and $b$ if $i(a, b)=0,-1$ or 1 (i.e. whenever $i(a, b)$ is well defined). Let $G_{3}$ be the graph with vertex set consisting of the elements of $\Gamma_{g}$ represented by simple curves (possibly separating), with an edge between $a$ and $b$ whenever $i(a, b)$ is well defined. By drilling a puncture in $\Sigma_{g}$ at the base point, this graph $G_{3}$ can be identified with the arc complex of the surface $\Sigma_{g}^{1}$, and this is well-known to be connected (see eg [Hatcher91]). We now show that its
subgraph $G_{2}$ is also connected. Suppose $a_{1}-a_{2}-a_{3}$ is a path in $G_{3}$, and $a_{2}$ is separating. If $a_{1}$ and $a_{3}$ lie in distinct components of $\Sigma^{\prime} \backslash a_{2}$, then $a_{1}-a_{3}$ is a shortcut. If $a_{1}$ and $a_{3}$ do not lie in distinct components, then we may replace $a_{2}$ in this path by any essential arc lying in the other side of $\Sigma^{\prime} \backslash a_{2}$ (such an arc exists since $a_{2}$ is essential). Thus, we can make the separating elements disappear from any path connecting two points of $G_{2}$ in $G_{3}$.

Now we can show that $G_{1}$ is connected by inserting terms in paths of $G_{2}$. It suffices to show that, if $a_{1}-a_{2}$ is an edge of $G_{2}$ and $i\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right)=0$, then there always exists a curve $b$ such that $i\left(a_{1}, b\right)= \pm 1$ and $i\left(b, a_{2}\right)= \pm 1$. So suppose $i\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right)=0$. Then a neighborhood of the curves $a_{1}$ and $a_{2}$ in $\Sigma_{g}$ is a pair of pants $P$, with three boundary components, freely homotopic to $a_{1}$, $a_{2}$ and $a_{1} a_{2}^{ \pm 1}$. If $\Sigma, \Sigma^{\prime}$ and $\Sigma^{\prime \prime}$ are, respectively, the connected components of $\Sigma_{g} \backslash P$ separated from $P$ by $a_{1}, a_{2}$ and $a_{1} a_{2}^{ \pm 1}$, then we have $\Sigma=\Sigma^{\prime}$ or $\Sigma=\Sigma^{\prime \prime}$, since $a_{1}$ is non separating. Similarly, $\Sigma^{\prime}=\Sigma$ or $\Sigma^{\prime}=\Sigma^{\prime \prime}$ as $a_{2}$ is non separating. Hence $\Sigma=\Sigma^{\prime}$ in all cases, thus, there does exist a connecting curve $b$ as needed.

Observation 2.10. Let $a, b, a^{\prime}$ such that $i(a, b)= \pm 1$ and $i\left(a^{\prime}, b\right)= \pm 1$. Then $(a, b)$ is connected to $\left(a^{\prime}, b\right)$ in the graph $G_{0}$ from Lemma 2.8.

Proof. Let $\sim$ denote the equivalence relation on vertices of $G_{0}$ of being in the same connected component. Let $a, b, a^{\prime}$ be as in the statement of the observation, and let $N$ be the (geometric) minimum number of disjoint intersections, besides of the base point, between the based curves $a$ and $a^{\prime}$. We will proceed by induction on $N$, starting with the base case $N=0$. In this case $i\left(a, a^{\prime}\right) \in\{0, \pm 1\}$. If $i\left(a, a^{\prime}\right)=0$, then $\left(a, b, a^{\prime}\right)$ is a 3 -chain and $(a, b) \sim\left(b, a^{\prime}\right)$. If $i\left(a, a^{\prime}\right)= \pm 1$, then for some $\epsilon \in\{-1,1\}$, we have $i\left(b^{\epsilon} a, a^{\prime}\right)=0$ (this is seen by looking at a neighborhood of the base point), hence ( $b^{\epsilon} a, b, a^{\prime}$ ) is a 3 -chain and $\left(b^{\epsilon} a\right) \sim\left(b, a^{\prime}\right)$. Now $\left(b^{\epsilon} a, b\right) \sim(a, b)$, because there exists a curve $c$ such that ( $b^{\epsilon} a, b, c$ ) and ( $a, b, c$ ) are both 3 -chains. This proves the base case.

Now, suppose $N \geqslant 1$. Orient the curves $a$ and $a^{\prime}$ so that their tangent vectors at $t=0$ are on the same side of $b$ at the base point. Let $\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{N}\right)$ be the intersection points of $a$ and $a^{\prime}$, as ordered along the path $a$. Let $a^{\prime \prime}$ be the path obtained from following $a^{\prime}$ from its starting time, until we hit $x_{N}$ (actually, any of the $x_{i}$ would do), and then following the end of the path $a$. Then we have $i(a, b)= \pm 1, i\left(a^{\prime}, b\right)= \pm 1, i\left(a^{\prime \prime}, b\right)= \pm 1$ and the intersections of $a$ and $a^{\prime}$ with $a^{\prime \prime}$ outside the base point are strictly less than $N$; this concludes our induction.

Proof of Lemma 2.8. Let $(a, b)$ and $(c, d)$ be such that $i(a, b)= \pm 1$ and $i(c, d)= \pm 1$. There exists a path between $b$ and $c$ in $G_{1}$, which can be extended to a path $\gamma_{1}-\gamma_{2}-\cdots-\gamma_{n}$ in $G_{1}$ with $(a, b, c, d)=\left(\gamma_{1}, \gamma_{2}, \gamma_{n-1}, \gamma_{n}\right)$. By Observation 2.10, for all $j \in\{1, \ldots, n-2\},\left(\gamma_{j}, \gamma_{j+1}\right)$ is connected to $\left(\gamma_{j+1}, \gamma_{j+2}\right)$ in $G_{0}$, hence $(a, b)$ is connected to $(c, d)$.

Finally, here is an easy variation of Lemma 2.8.
Lemma 2.11. Let $G$ denote graph whose vertices are the pairs $(a, b) \in \Gamma_{g}^{2}$ with $i(a, b)= \pm 1$, with an edge between two pairs $(a, b)$ and $(b, c)$ whenever $(a, b, c)$ is a completable 3-chain. Then $G$ is connected.

Proof. First, observe that whenever $T(a, b)$ and $T(c, d)$ are disjoint, $(a, b)$ and $(c, d)$ are in the same connected component of $G$. Now, observe that if $(a, b, c)$ is a directed 3 -chain, then it is completable if and only if $c a$ is nonseparating. (The reader may find it helpful to draw a picture.) It follows that, if $(a, b, c)$ is a non-completable 3 -chain in $\Sigma_{g}$, then there exists a pair $(d, e)$ such that $a, b, c$ do not enter $T(d, e)$. Hence, $(a, b)$ and $(b, c)$ are connected to $(d, e)$ in $G$, and it follows that $G$ is connected.

### 2.2. Actions on the circle.

2.2.1. Basic dynamics of circle homeomorphisms. We quickly review some definitions for the purpose of setting notation. For more detailed background on this material, the reader may consult $[6,15,7,23]$ for example. Recall that $\operatorname{Homeo}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{+}(\mathbb{R})$ denotes the group of homeomorphisms of $\mathbb{R}$ commuting with translation by 1 . Viewing $S^{1}$ as $\mathbb{R} / \mathbb{Z}$ gives the central extension $\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow$ $\mathrm{Homeo}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{+}(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow$ Homeo $^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$.

The principal dynamical invariant of elements of $\operatorname{Homeo}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{+}(\mathbb{R})$ and $\operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$ is the rotation number of Poincaré.
Definition 2.12 (Rotation number). Let $f \in \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$ and $\tilde{f}$ is a lift of $f$ in $\operatorname{Homeo}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{+}(\mathbb{R})$. The rotation numbers (sometimes called the translation number in the case of $\widetilde{f})$ are defined by $\widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}(\widetilde{f}):=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\tilde{f}^{n}(0)}{n} \in \mathbb{R}$, and $\operatorname{rot}(f):=\widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}(\tilde{f}) \bmod \mathbb{Z}$.

We assume the reader is familiar with the essential properties of the rotation number. Those that we will use most frequently are that rot and rot are homomorphisms when restricted to abelian (eg. cyclic) subgroups, that $\operatorname{rot}(f)=p / q \in \mathbb{Q} \bmod \mathbb{Z}$ if and only if $f$ has a periodic orbit of period $q$, and that rot, and hence rot, are invariant under semi-conjugacy. (The definition of semi-conjugacy is recalled in Section 2.3 where we will be using it.)

As is standard, we use $\operatorname{Per}(f)$ to denote the set $\left\{x \in S^{1} \mid \exists n \in \mathbb{Z}, f^{n}(x)=\right.$ $x\}$ of periodic points of $f$. If $n=0$, we also denote this by $\operatorname{Fix}(f)$. For $\tilde{f} \in \operatorname{Homeo}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{+}(\mathbb{R})$, we use $\operatorname{Per}(\tilde{f})$ to denote the set of all lifts of points of $\operatorname{Per}(f)$ to $\mathbb{R}$.
Notation 2.13. For $f \in \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$ with $\operatorname{Per}(f) \neq \varnothing$, let $q(f)$ denote the smallest non-negative integer such that $\operatorname{Fix}\left(f^{q(f)}\right) \neq \varnothing$ (equivalently, the smallest non-negative integer such that $\operatorname{rot}\left(f^{q(f)}\right)=0$ ), and let $p(f)$ be the least non-negative integer such that $f$ has rotation number equal to $\frac{p(f)}{q(f)}$ $\bmod \mathbb{Z}$.

An attracting periodic point for $f$ is a point $x \in \operatorname{Per}(f)$ with a neighborhood $I$ of $x$ such that $f^{n q(f)}(I) \rightarrow x$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. A repelling periodic point of $f$ is defined as an attracting periodic point of $f^{-1}$. The sets of attracting and repelling periodic points will be denoted $\operatorname{Per}^{+}(f)$ and $\operatorname{Per}^{-}(f)$ respectively.
2.2.2. One-parameter families and bending deformations. Let $\gamma \in \Gamma_{g}$ be a based, simple loop. Cutting $\Sigma_{g}$ along $\gamma$ decomposes $\Gamma_{g}$ into an amalgamated product $\Gamma_{g}=A *\langle\gamma\rangle B$, or an HNN-extension $A *\langle\gamma\rangle$, depending on whether $\gamma$ is separating. Thus, deforming a representation $\rho: \Gamma_{g} \rightarrow$ Homeo $^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$ (or indeed to any topological group) amounts to deforming the restriction(s) of
$\rho$ on $A$ (and $B$, if $\gamma$ separates), subject to the constraint that these deformations agree on $\gamma$. The following deformation is the analog of a bending deformation from the theory of quasi-Fuchsian or Kleinian groups, in a very special case as we bend only along one simple curve.
Definition 2.14. (Bending)
(1) Separating curves. Let $\gamma=c \in \Gamma_{g}$ represent a separating simple closed curve with $\Gamma_{g}=A *\langle c\rangle B$. Let $c_{t}$ be a one-parameter family of homeomorphisms commuting with $\rho(c)$. Define $\rho_{t}$ to agree with $\rho$ on $A$, and to be equal to $c_{t} \rho c_{t}^{-1}$ on $B$.
(2) Nonseparating curves. Let $\gamma=a$, and $b \in \Gamma_{g}$ with $i(a, b)=-1$, and let $c=[a, b]$, writing again $\Gamma_{g}=A *\langle c\rangle B$. Take a 1-parameter family $a_{t}$ commuting with $\rho(a)$, and define $\rho_{t}$ to agree with $\rho$ on $B$, and on $T_{a b}$ define $\rho_{t}(a)=\rho(a)$ and $\rho_{t}(b)=a_{t} b$.
In both cases, we call this deformation a bending along $\gamma$.
While we will typically use "1-parameter family" to mean a one-parameter subgroup, for these bending constructions to define a path of representations one only needs $c_{t}$ and $a_{t}$ to be continuous paths based at id in the centralizers of $c$ and $a$ in Homeo ${ }^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$, respectively.

As a special case of bending, if $\gamma_{t}$ is a one-parameter family with $\gamma_{1}=\gamma$, then the deformation given above is the precomposition of $\rho$ with $\tau_{\gamma_{*}}$, where $\tau_{\gamma}$ is the Dehn twist along $\gamma$. However, as we are working with explicit computations involving based curves, it is important to us that these deformations are well defined, not just up to inner automorphisms. In order for the Dehn twist along $\gamma$ to make proper sense as an automorphism of $\Gamma_{g}$, we need to choose a way to freely homotope $\gamma$ away from the base point. The arbitrary choice made in the definition, in the case (1) above, consists in pushing $\gamma$ to the side of $B$, and in the case (2) it fits in the following general convention.

Convention 2.15. Suppose we are given a directed $k$-chain $\left(\gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{k}\right)$, and wish to write a Denh twist along the loop $\gamma_{i}$. Then we will always do so by pushing $\gamma_{i}$ outside the base point in such a way that it intersects only $\gamma_{i-1}$ and $\gamma_{i+1}$ (if these curves exist), in a neighborhood of the chain. Accordingly, if $\rho$ is a given representation and $\gamma_{i}^{t}$ is a one-parameter family commuting with $\rho\left(\gamma_{i}\right)$, then the deformation leaves $\gamma_{j}$ unchanged for $|j-i| \geqslant 2$ and $j=i$, and changes $\rho\left(\gamma_{i-1}\right)$ into $\gamma_{i}^{-t} \rho\left(\gamma_{i-1}\right)$ and $\rho\left(\gamma_{i+1}\right)$ into $\rho\left(\gamma_{i+1}\right) \gamma_{i}^{t}$.

Not all elements of $\operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$ embed in a one parameter subgroup. In fact, if $\operatorname{rot}(f)$ is irrational, then $f$ embeds in such a subgroup if and only if $\operatorname{Per}(f)=S^{1}$, in which case $f$ is conjugate to a rotation. However, elements with rational rotation number do have large centralizers, giving us some flexibility in the use of bending deformations. We formalize this in the next lemma. Here, and later on, it will be convenient to fix a section of Homeo $^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$ in Homeo ${ }_{\mathbb{Z}}^{+}(\mathbb{R})$.
Notation 2.16. For $f \in \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$, let $\widehat{f} \in \operatorname{Homeo}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{+}(\mathbb{R})$ be the (unique) lift of $f$ with $\widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}(\hat{f})=p(f) / q(f) \in[0,1)$; we will call it the canonical lift of $f$. Later, we will also need to refer to the lift of $f$ with translation number in $(-1,0]$, this we denote by $\check{f}$. Note that $\hat{f}^{-1}=\overline{f^{-1}}$.

Lemma 2.17. (Positive 1-parameter families) Let $f \in \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$ have rational rotation number. Then there exists a one-parameter group $\left(f_{t}\right)_{t \in \mathbb{R}}$, which commutes with $f$, such that $\forall t \neq 0$, $\operatorname{Fix}\left(f_{t}\right)=\partial \operatorname{Per}(f)$, and for all $t>0$ and $x \in \mathbb{R} \backslash \partial \operatorname{Per}(\tilde{f})$, we have $\hat{f}_{t}(x)>x$.

Here and in what follows $\partial X$ denotes the frontier of a subset $X$ of $\mathbb{R}$ or $S^{1}$.
Proof. The set $S^{1} \backslash \partial \operatorname{Per}(f)$ consists of a union of open intervals permuted by $f$. Choose a single representative interval $I_{\alpha}$ from each orbit. Note that $f^{q(f)}\left(I_{\alpha}\right)=I_{\alpha}$ for any such interval, and the restriction of $f^{q(f)}$ to $S^{1} \backslash \operatorname{Per}(f)$ is either fixed point free or the identity. Thus, we may identify each $I_{\alpha}$ with $\mathbb{R}$ such that $f^{q(f)}$, in coordinates, is $x \mapsto x+C$, for some $C \in\{-1,0,1\}$. Define $s_{t}$ on $I_{\alpha}$ to be $x \mapsto x+t$. Since these $I_{\alpha}$ are in different orbits of the action of $f$ on $S^{1}$, we may extend $s_{t}$ equivariantly to a 1-parameter family of homeomorphisms of $S^{1}$.

This construction will be used frequently enough to merit a definition.
Definition 2.18. Let $f \in \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$. A positive one-parameter family commuting with $f$ is any family $f_{t}$ as in Lemma 2.17. If $f$ is understood, or if we wish to vary $f$, we will often simply refer to such an $f_{t}$ as a positive one-parameter family.
2.2.3. Periodic sets under deformations. We now make some observations on how periodic sets change under bending deformations using positive oneparameter families. The main application of these comes in Section 5.2, but they will also make a few earlier appearances.

Let $f$ and $g \in \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$ have rational rotation numbers. It follows immediately from the definition of canonical lift that

$$
x \in \operatorname{Per}(\widehat{f}) \Leftrightarrow \widehat{f}^{q(f)}(x)=x+p(f)
$$

Let $f_{t}$ be a positive one-parameter family commuting with $f$. Let $g_{t}:=f_{t} \circ g$, and let $\widetilde{g}_{t}=\widehat{f}_{t} \circ \widehat{g}$. Note that $\widetilde{g}_{t}=\widehat{g}_{t}$, provided the rotation number of $g_{t}$ is constant as $t$ varies.

For all $(x, t) \in S^{1} \times \mathbb{R}$, we set

$$
\begin{gathered}
\Delta_{f, g}\left(x, t_{1}, \ldots, t_{q(g)}\right)=\widetilde{g_{t_{q(g)}}} \circ \cdots \circ \widetilde{g_{t_{1}}}(\tilde{x})-\tilde{x}-p(g), \\
\text { and } \delta_{f, g}(x, t)=\Delta_{f, g}(x, t, \cdots, t)=\left(\widetilde{g_{t}}\right)^{q(g)}(\tilde{x})-\tilde{x}-p(g) .
\end{gathered}
$$

This does not depend on the lift $\tilde{x} \in \mathbb{R}$ of $x$, but does depend on the choice of the one-parameter family $f_{t}$ (so we are somewhat abusing notation). Further, we set

$$
\begin{gathered}
P(f, g)=\left\{x \in S^{1} \mid \forall t \in \mathbb{R}, \delta_{f, g}(x, t)=0\right\} \\
N(f, g)=\left\{x \in S^{1} \mid \forall t \in \mathbb{R}, \delta_{f, g}(x, t) \neq 0\right\} \\
\text { and } U(f, g)=\left\{x \in S^{1} \mid \exists!t \in \mathbb{R}, \delta_{f, g}(x, t)=0\right\} .
\end{gathered}
$$

Unlike $\delta_{f, g}$, these sets do not depend on the choice of the positive oneparameter family (provided that it is chosen as in Lemma 2.17).

Assuming $\operatorname{rot}\left(g_{t}\right)$ is constant, then $P(f, g)=\bigcap_{t \in \mathbb{R}} \operatorname{Per}\left(g_{t}\right)$ is the set of persistent periodic points; $N(f, g)$ is the set of points that are never periodic for any $g_{t}$, and $U(f, g)$ is the set of points that lie in $\operatorname{Per}\left(g_{t}\right)$ for a unique time $t$.

Let $T_{f, g}: U(f, g) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be the map that assigns to each $x \in U(f, g)$, the unique time $t \in \mathbb{R}$ for which $\delta_{f, g}(x, t)=0$.

Lemma 2.19. Suppose $g_{t}$ has constant rotation number. Then we have the following properties.
(1) The set $P(f, g)$ is closed, moreover

$$
P(f, g)=\operatorname{Per}(g) \cap \bigcap_{k=0}^{q(g)-1} g^{k}(\partial \operatorname{Per}(f)) ;
$$

in particular, if $\operatorname{rot}(f)=0$ then every element of $P(f, g)$ has a finite orbit under the group $\langle f, g\rangle$.
(2) The sets $P(f, g), N(f, g)$ and $U(f, g)$ partition the circle.
(3) The set $U(f, g)$ is open, and the map $T_{f, g}: U(f, g) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous.
(4) For any $\varepsilon>0$, there exists $t_{0}$ such that $\operatorname{Per}\left(f_{t} \circ g\right)$ lies in the $\varepsilon$ neighborhood of $P(f, g) \cup \partial N(f, g)$ for all $t>t_{0}$.
Proof. By construction, the map $\Delta_{f, g}(x, \cdot)$ is (separately, in each variable $t_{j}$ ) constant if $\widetilde{g_{t_{j-1}}} \circ \cdots \circ \widetilde{g_{t_{1}}}(\tilde{x}) \in \partial \operatorname{Per}(f)$, and strictly increasing otherwise. Monotonicity implies that the subsets $\Delta_{f, g}\left(x, \mathbb{R}^{q(g)}\right)$ and $\delta_{f, g}(x, \mathbb{R})$ of $\mathbb{R}$ coincide. The affirmations (1) and (2) are easy consequences of these observations. Let us prove (3). Let $x_{0} \in U(f, g)$, and write $t_{0}=T\left(x_{0}\right)$, so $\delta\left(x_{0}, t_{0}\right)=0$. Fix $\varepsilon>0$. Since $x_{0} \in U(f, g)$, we have $\delta\left(x_{0}, t_{0}+\varepsilon\right)>0$, and $\delta\left(x_{0}, t_{0}-\varepsilon\right)<0$. Since the maps $x \mapsto \delta\left(x, t_{0}+\varepsilon\right)$ and $x \mapsto \delta\left(x, t_{0}-\varepsilon\right)$ are continuous, there exists $\eta>0$ such that, for all $x \in\left(x_{0}-\eta, x_{0}+\eta\right)$ we have $\delta\left(x, t_{0}+\varepsilon\right)>0$ and $\delta\left(x, t_{0}-\varepsilon\right)<0$. Thus, for each $x \in\left(x_{0}-\eta, x_{0}+\eta\right)$, the map $t \mapsto \delta(x, t)$ takes positive and negative values, hence has a (unique) zero in the interval $\left(t_{0}-\varepsilon, t_{0}+\varepsilon\right)$. In other words, $\left(x_{0}-\eta, x_{0}+\eta\right) \subset U(f, g)$, and for all $x \in\left(x_{0}-\eta, x_{0}+\eta\right)$, we have $\left|T(x)-T\left(x_{0}\right)\right|<\varepsilon$.

For statement (4), fix $\varepsilon>0$. Let $I_{1}, \ldots, I_{n}$ denote the (finitely many) connected components of $U(f, g)$ of length $>\varepsilon$. Let $K \subset U(f, g)$ be the set of points of $U(f, g)$ that are distance at least $\varepsilon$ from $P \cup \partial N$. Then, $K \subset \bigcup_{i} I_{i}$, and it follows that $K$ is compact. Since $T$ is continuous, its restriction to $K$ takes values in some segment $\left[-t_{0}, t_{0}\right]$, this gives the $t_{0}$ from the statement.

The next propositions describe the topology of the sets $P(f, g), N(f, g)$ and $U(f, g)$ in more detail.
Proposition 2.20. Suppose $g_{t}$ has constant rotation number. Then all accumulation points of $\partial N(f, g)$ lie in $P(f, g)$.

The bulk of the proof of this is accomplished by the following lemma.
Lemma 2.21. Let $x_{0} \in S^{1} \backslash \operatorname{Per}(g)$ and let $I$ be a small interval containing $x_{0}$. Suppose there exists $u_{k} \in U(f, g) \cap I$ converging to $x_{0}$ from the right. Then there exists $\varepsilon>0$ such that $\left(x_{0}, x_{0}+\varepsilon\right) \subset U(f, g)$.

Of course the symmetric statement, with sequences converging to $x_{0}$ at the left, holds as well, with a symmetric proof.

Proof. Let $x_{0} \notin \operatorname{Per}(g)$, so we have $d:=d\left(x_{0}, g^{q(g)}\left(x_{0}\right)\right)>0$. First, suppose for contradiction that for all $j \in\{1, \ldots, q(g)\}, g^{j}\left(x_{0}\right)$ is accumulated on the
right by points of $\partial \operatorname{Per}(f)$. Choose $z_{q(g)} \in \partial \operatorname{Per}(f) \cap\left(g^{q(g)}\left(x_{0}\right), g^{q(g)}\left(x_{0}\right)+\frac{d}{2}\right)$, and, inductively for $j=q(g)-1, q(g)-2, \ldots, 1$ define $z_{j} \in \partial \operatorname{Per}(f) \cap$ $\left(g^{j}\left(x_{0}\right), g^{-1}\left(z_{j+1}\right)\right)$ for $j \in\{1, \ldots, q(g)-1\}$, and set $\delta=g^{-1}\left(z_{1}\right)-x_{0}$. Then, for all $t>0$ we have $\left(f_{t} g\right)^{j}\left(x_{0}, x_{0}+\delta\right) \subset\left(g^{j}\left(x_{0}\right), z_{j}\right)$, hence $\left(f_{t} g\right)^{q(g)}\left(x_{0}, x_{0}+\right.$ $\delta) \subset\left(g^{q(g)}\left(x_{0}\right), g^{q(g)}\left(x_{0}\right)+\frac{d}{2}\right)$. Now let $k \geqslant 0$ be such that $u_{k} \in\left(x_{0}, x_{0}+\delta\right)$, and choose inductively $y_{1} \in\left(g\left(x_{0}\right), g\left(u_{k}\right)\right) \cap \partial \operatorname{Per}(f)$, and $y_{j} \in\left(g^{j}\left(x_{0}\right), g\left(y_{j-1}\right)\right) \cap$ $\partial(f)$, for $j \geqslant 2$. Then, for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$ we have $\left(f_{t} g\right)^{q(g)}\left(u_{k}\right) \in\left(y_{q(g)}, z_{q(g)}\right)$, hence $\left(f_{t} g\right)^{q(g)}\left(u_{k}\right) \in\left(g^{q(g)}\left(x_{0}\right), g^{q(g)}\left(x_{0}\right)+\frac{d}{2}\right)$; this contradicts that $u_{k} \in U(f, g)$.

Thus, if a sequence $u_{k} \in U(f, g)$ converges to $x_{0}$ from the right, then there exists some $j \in\{1, \ldots, q(g)\}$ such that $g^{j}\left(x_{0}\right)$ is not accumulated on the right by points of $\partial \operatorname{Per}(f)$. Let $j$ be the minimum such index, and let $y$ be such that $\left(g^{j}\left(x_{0}\right), y\right] \subset S^{1} \backslash \partial \operatorname{Per}(f)$. Let $k$ be large enough so that $g \circ\left(f_{t} \circ g\right)^{j-1}\left(u_{k}\right) \subset\left(g^{j}\left(x_{0}\right), y\right]$ holds for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$. (Such $k$ exists using the argument above, since $g^{i}\left(x_{0}\right)$ is accumulated on the right by $\partial \operatorname{Per}(f)$ for all $i<j$.) Let $z \in\left(x_{0}, u_{k}\right)$. We will now show that $z \in U(f, g)$.

Since $f_{t}$ acts transitively on $\left(g^{j}\left(x_{0}\right), y\right]$, for $T$ sufficiently large we have $f_{T} \circ g \circ\left(f_{T} \circ g\right)^{j-1}(z)>g \circ\left(f_{T} \circ g\right)^{j-1}\left(u_{k}\right)$. If $T>T\left(u_{k}\right)$, this guarantees that $\delta_{f, g}(z, T)>0$. Similarly, if $T^{\prime}$ is small enough, we will have $f_{T^{\prime}} \circ g \circ$ $\left(f_{T^{\prime}} \circ g\right)^{j-1}(z)<g \circ\left(f_{T} \circ g\right)^{j-1}\left(u_{k^{\prime}}\right)$ for any given $u_{k^{\prime}} \in\left(x_{0}, z\right)$, and choosing $T^{\prime}<T\left(u_{k}^{\prime}\right)$ ensures that $\delta_{f, g}\left(z, T^{\prime}\right)<0$. This shows that $z \in U(f, g)$, as desired.

Proof of Proposition 2.20. Let $x_{0}$ be an accumulation point of $\partial N(f, g)$. If $x_{0} \notin \operatorname{Per}(g)$, then by Lemma 2.21, on any side of $x_{0}$ containing a sequence of points in $\partial N(f, g)$, there is a neighborhood of $x_{0}$ containing no points of $U(f, g)$. Since $P(f, g), N(f, g)$ and $U(f, g)$ partition $S^{1}$, it follows that there is also a sequence of points in $P(f, g)$ approaching $x_{0}$ from this side. Since $P(f, g)$ is closed, $x_{0} \in P(f, g) \subset \operatorname{Per}(g)$, a contradiction.

It follows that $x_{0} \in \operatorname{Per}(g)$. If also $x_{0} \notin P(f, g)$, then $x_{0} \in U(f, g)$ since $x_{0}$ is a periodic point for $f_{0} \circ g=g$. But $U(f, g)$ is open, a contradiction.

All the discussion above describes the variation of $\operatorname{Per}(g)$ upon deforming $g$ by composition with $f_{t}$ on the left. However, one may equally well replace $g$ by $g f_{t}$ and arrive at sets $P, N$, and $U$ with the same properties (indeed, replacing $g$ by $g f_{t}$ is equivalent to replacing $g^{-1}$ by $f_{-t} g^{-1}$ ). There is no reason to privilege left-side deformations in the definition of bending, and we will occasionally make use of such deformations on the right during the proof.
2.3. The character space for $\operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(\mathbf{S}^{\mathbf{1}}\right)$. In Section 1 of [4], Calegari and Walker introduce what they call a character variety for $\mathrm{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$. They propose that one should study rotation numbers of elements of Homeo ${ }^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$ as the natural analog of trace functions on linear representations. A theorem of Ghys states that, for any group $\Gamma$, the rotation numbers of elements $\rho(\gamma)$ essentially parametrize the space of representations $\operatorname{Hom}\left(\Gamma, \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)\right)$ up to semi-conjugacy, so it makes sense to think of representations up to semi-conjugacy as the character variety for $\operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$. This perspective was adopted implicitly in [14].

Here, we observe that one can recover this analogy from our more general definition of character spaces. Recall that $X(\Gamma, G)$ is the largest Hausdorff quotient of $\operatorname{Hom}(\Gamma, G) / G$ for any group $\Gamma$ and any topological group $G$. Letting, further, $G / / G$ denote the space $X(\mathbb{Z}, G)$, there is, for each $\gamma \in \Gamma$ a natural, continuous map $X(\Gamma, G) \rightarrow G / / G$, which sends the class of a representation $\rho$ to the class of $\rho(\gamma)$. When $G=\operatorname{SL}(2, \mathbb{C})$ for example, these are precisely the trace functions. And, as we will see below, when $G=$ Homeo $^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$, these are the rotation numbers, and the space $X(\Gamma, G)$ is, as a set, exactly the set of semi-conjugacy classes of representations.

Following this analogy, the "character variety" for $\mathrm{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$ not only comes with its "ring of functions" (namely the rotation number functions), but with an underlying topological space as well; i.e. $X(\Gamma, G)$. This gives the most natural setting to speak of rigidity, or to pose Question 1.7.

Definition 2.22 (Ghys [6]). Let $\Gamma$ be any group. Two homomorphisms $\rho_{1}$ and $\rho_{2} \in \operatorname{Hom}\left(\Gamma, \operatorname{Homeo}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{+}(\mathbb{R})\right)$ are semi-conjugate if there exists a monotone (possibly non-continuous or non-injective) map $h: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that $h(x+$ $1)=h(x)+1$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$, and $h \circ \rho_{1}(\gamma)=\rho_{2}(\gamma) \circ h$ for all $\gamma \in \Gamma$.
Similarly, $\rho_{1}$ and $\rho_{2} \in \operatorname{Hom}\left(\Gamma, \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)\right)$ are semi-conjugate if there is such a map $h: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that for all $\gamma$, there are lifts $\widetilde{\rho_{1}(\gamma)}$ and $\widetilde{\rho_{2}(\gamma)}$ which are semi-congugate by this map $h$.

Ghys [6] proves that, under this definition, semi-conjugacy is an equivalence relation (see also [15] for an expository account). We note that this definition is not the usual notion of semi-conjugacy from topological dynamical systems (eg. as in [11]), which is not a symmetric relation. This was perhaps the cause of a typo in the original article [6], which has led to some amount of confusion. However, as it is now standard for actions on $S^{1}$, we use the term semi-conjugacy for the definition above.

We now make a few dynamical remarks. Recall that an action of a group on a topological space is minimal if the closure of every orbit is dense. In the special case of groups acting on $S^{1}$, there is a trichotomy: either the action is minimal, or has a finite orbit, or it has a closed invariant set (called the exceptional minimal set) homeomorphic to a Cantor set, to which the restriction of the action is minimal. The following observations are easy consequences of the definition of semi-conjugacy.

Observation 2.23. Every action $\rho_{1}$ with an exceptional minimal set is semiconjugate to a minimal action $\rho_{2}$, by a continuous semi-conjugacy map $h$ satisfying $h \circ \rho_{1}(\gamma)=\rho_{2}(\gamma) \circ h$; this map simply collapses each complimentary component of the exceptional minimal set to a point. Furthermore, if $\rho_{2}$ is minimal, and $\rho_{1}$ arbitrary, then any $h$ satisfying this equation is necessarily continuous. In particular, a semi-conjugacy $h$ between two minimal actions is invertible, and hence a conjugacy.

Observation 2.24. Let $\rho_{2} \in \operatorname{Hom}\left(\Gamma, \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)\right)$ be minimal, and let $\rho_{1}$ be any action semi-conjugate to $\rho_{2}$, as in the previous observation. Then for any $\gamma \in \Gamma, \operatorname{Per}\left(\rho_{2}(\gamma)\right)=h \operatorname{Per}\left(\rho_{1}(\gamma)\right)$, hence $\left|\operatorname{Per}\left(\rho_{2}(\gamma)\right)\right| \leqslant\left|\operatorname{Per}\left(\rho_{1}(\gamma)\right)\right|$.

Another useful consequence of Observation 2.23 is that certain bending deformations preserve the conjugacy class of rigid actions, as follows.

Observation 2.25. Suppose that $\rho$ is minimal and path-rigid, and let $a, b$ have $i(a, b)=-1$. Since $b^{q(b)}$ lies in a 1-parameter family, there is a bending deformation replacing $\rho(a)$ with $\rho\left(b^{N q(b)} a\right)$ for any $N \in \mathbb{Z}$. This bending is realized by precomposition with a Dehn twist (see Section 2.2.2), so the new representation has the same image as $\rho$; in paritcular it is minimal, hence conjugate to $\rho$.

Our next goal is to show that semi-conjugacy is exactly the quotient relation needed to produce the character space $X\left(\Gamma\right.$, Homeo $\left.^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)\right)$ as defined in the introduction. To motivate this (and give one tool for the proof) we show first that this is certainly not the case for $\operatorname{Homeo}^{+}(\mathbb{R})$. Here there are many dynamically distinct actions but the character space is a single point:
Proposition 2.26. For any discrete group $\Gamma$, the space $X\left(\Gamma, \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}(\mathbb{R})\right)$ consists of a single point.
Proof. Let $\rho \in \operatorname{Hom}\left(\Gamma, \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}(\mathbb{R})\right)$. Let $S$ be a finite symmetric subset of $\Gamma$. Given $\varepsilon>0$, we will conjugate $\rho$ so that $|\rho(s)(x)-x|<\epsilon$ holds for all $s \in S$ and $x \in \mathbb{R}$, hence show that conjugates of $\rho$ approach the trivial representation in the compact-open topology.

As a first case, assume also that the subgroup generated by $S$ has no global fixed points in $\mathbb{R}$. Then define $h(0)=0$, and iteratively, for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ define $\left.h(n \varepsilon / 2)=\max _{s \in S} s(h((n-1) \varepsilon / 2))\right)$ if $n>0$, and $h(n \varepsilon / 2)=\min _{s \in S} s(h((n+$ $1) \varepsilon / 2))$ ) if $n<0$. Extend $h$ over the interior of each interval [ $n \varepsilon / 2,(n+1) \varepsilon / 2$ ] as an affine map. Since $S$ has no global fixed point, this map $h$ is surjective, hence it is an orientation-preserving homeomorphism. Furthermore, we have $h s h^{-1}(n \varepsilon / 2) \in[(n-1) \varepsilon / 2,(n+1) \varepsilon / 2]$ for all $s \in S$. Thus, $\left|h s h^{-1}(x)-x\right|<\varepsilon$ holds for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

If instead the subgroup generated by $S$ does have a global fixed point, we may define $h$ to be the identity on the set $F$ of global fixed points, and define it as above on each connected component of $\mathbb{R} \backslash F$.

Note that the same result holds more generally for spaces of continuous representations when $\Gamma$ is a topological group, with the modification that $S$ should be a compact set.

We now prove the main result of this section. In one direction of the proof we will use a theorem of Ghys and Matusmoto, but we defer the statement of this until after the proof as it leads naturally into the next section.

Proposition 2.27. Let $\Gamma$ be any group. Two representations $\rho_{1}$ and $\rho_{2}$ in $\operatorname{Hom}\left(\Gamma, \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)\right)$ are semi-conjugate if and only if they are $\chi$-equivalent.
Proof. For one direction, it suffices to prove that the quotient of the space $\operatorname{Hom}\left(\Gamma, \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)\right)$ by semi-conjugacy is Hausdorff. This follows from Theorem 2.29 below (due to Ghys and Matsumoto), since the maps rot and $\tau$ in the theorem are continuous, well defined on semi-conjugacy classes, take values in the (Hausdorff) spaces $S^{1}$ and $\mathbb{R}$, and distinguish semi-conjugacy classes. It follows that distinct semi-conjugacy classes are separated by invariant open sets in $\operatorname{Hom}\left(\Gamma, \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)\right)$.

For the converse, we use the dynamical trichotomy from the remarks following Definition 2.22. If $\rho$ has a finite orbit, then we can employ a similar strategy to the proof of Proposition 2.26 to conjugate it arbitrarily close to
an action on the circle by rigid rotations. Hence, there is a unique element of the character space corresponding to the semi-conjugacy class of $\rho$.

Now suppose instead that $\rho$ has an exceptional minimal set. By Observation 2.23 there is a minimal action $\rho^{\prime}$ and continuous map $h$ such that each $\gamma \in \Gamma$ has lifts satisfying $\widetilde{\rho^{\prime}(\gamma)} \circ h=h \circ \widetilde{\rho(\gamma)}$ as in Definition 2.22. Let $S$ be a finite subset of $\Gamma$, and fix $\varepsilon>0$. Let $\delta \in(0, \varepsilon)$ be small enough so that for all $s \in S$ and all $x, y \in S^{1},|x-y|<\delta$ implies $\left|\rho^{\prime}(s)(x)-\rho^{\prime}(s)(y)\right|<\varepsilon$.

Since $h$ is continuous and commutes with $x \mapsto x+1$, we can approximate it by a homeomorphism $h^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Homeo}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{+}(\mathbb{R})$ at $C^{0}$ distance at most $\delta$ from $h$. Let $s \in S$ and $x \in \mathbb{R}$, and take the lifts $\widetilde{\rho^{\prime}(s)}$ and $\widetilde{\rho(s)}$ as above. Then we have

$$
\left|\widetilde{\rho^{\prime}(s)}(x)-\widetilde{\rho^{\prime}(s)} \circ\left(h \circ h^{\prime-1}\right)(x)\right|<\varepsilon
$$

and

$$
\left|h \circ \widetilde{\rho(s)} \circ h^{\prime-1}(x)-h^{\prime} \circ \widetilde{\rho(s)} \circ h^{\prime-1}(x)\right|<\varepsilon,
$$

hence the definition of semi-conjugacy and the triangle inequality gives

$$
\left|\widetilde{\rho^{\prime}(s)}(x)-h^{\prime} \circ \widetilde{\rho(s)} \circ h^{\prime-1}(x)\right|<2 \varepsilon
$$

This proves that every representation without finite orbit is $\chi$-equivalent to the minimal representation in its semi-conjugacy class.

The content of the theorem of Ghys and Matsumoto used above is the statement that representations to Homeo ${ }^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$ are essentially determined by rotation numbers of elements. To make this precise we need a definition.
Definition 2.28 (Translation cocycle). For $f, g \in \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$, define $\tau(f, g):=$ $\widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}(\tilde{f} \tilde{g})-\widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}(\tilde{f})-\widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}(\tilde{g})$, where $\tilde{f}$ and $\tilde{g}$ are any lifts of $f$ and $g$ to $\operatorname{Homeo}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{+}(\mathbb{R})$. Note that the value of $\tau(f, g)$ is independent of the choice of lifts.
Theorem 2.29 (Ghys [6], Matsumoto [19]). Let $\Gamma$ be any group, and let $S$ be a generating set for $\Gamma$. Two representations $\rho_{1}$ and $\rho_{2}$ in $\operatorname{Hom}\left(\Gamma, \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)\right)$ are semi-conjugate if and only if the following two conditions hold:
i) $\operatorname{rot}\left(\rho_{1}(s)\right)=\operatorname{rot}\left(\rho_{2}(s)\right)$ for each $s \in S$,
ii) $\tau\left(\rho_{1}(a), \rho_{1}(b)\right)=\tau\left(\rho_{2}(a), \rho_{2}(b)\right)$ for all $a$ and $b$ in $\Gamma$.

As an illustration of the power of Theorem 2.29, let us prove a lemma that will be very useful later on. For $f_{1}, \ldots, f_{n} \in \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$, let

$$
\tau\left(f_{1}, \ldots, f_{n}\right)=\widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}\left(\widetilde{f_{n}} \circ \cdots \circ \tilde{f}_{1}\right)-\sum_{i} \widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}\left(\tilde{f}_{i}\right)
$$

(which obviously does not depend on the choices of lifts). This is notationally convenient, but actually contains no more information than the two-variable $\tau$, since

$$
\tau\left(f_{1}, \ldots, f_{n}\right)=\tau\left(f_{1}, f_{n} \circ \cdots \circ f_{2}\right)-\sum_{j=2}^{n-1} \tau\left(f_{j}, f_{n} \circ \cdots \circ f_{j+1}\right)
$$

Lemma 2.30. Let $f, g \in \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$ be two homeomorphisms with rational rotation number. The following assertions are equivalent.
(1) $f$ and $g$ share a periodic point.
(2) For every $\ell \geqslant 1$ and all integers $n_{1}, m_{1}, \ldots, n_{\ell}, m_{\ell}$, we have

$$
\tau\left(f^{n_{1} q(f)}, g^{m_{1} q(g)}, \cdots, f^{n_{\ell} q(f)}, g^{m_{\ell} q(g)}\right)=0
$$

Together with Theorem 2.29, this lemma asserts that given $\gamma_{1}, \gamma_{2}$ in a group $\Gamma$, the property of whether or not $\rho\left(\gamma_{1}\right)$ and $\rho\left(\gamma_{2}\right)$ share a periodic point only depends on the semi-conjugacy class of $\rho$. It is in this form that Lemma 2.30 will be used throughout this text.
Proof. The implication (1) $\Rightarrow(2)$ is trivial. For the converse, suppose $\operatorname{Per}(f) \cap \operatorname{Per}(g)=\varnothing$. Then $S^{1} \backslash(\operatorname{Per}(f) \cup \operatorname{Per}(g))$ is a union of intervals. As $\operatorname{Per}(f)$ and $\operatorname{Per}(g)$ are closed, disjoint sets, only finitely many of these complementary intervals have one boundary point in each of $\operatorname{Per}(f)$ and $\operatorname{Per}(g)$. The intervals bounded at their right by a point of $\operatorname{Per}(f)$ and at their left by a point of $\operatorname{Per}(g)$ alternate with the others, in particular there are an even number of such complementary intervals. Let $I_{1}, \ldots, I_{2 \ell}$ denote these intervals, in their cyclic order on the circle, and let $I_{j}=\left(x_{j}, y_{j}\right)$. Up to shifting the indices cyclically, we have $x_{i}, y_{i+1} \in \operatorname{Per}(g)$ and $x_{i+1}, y_{i} \in \operatorname{Per}(f)$ for all $i$ even.

Choose a point $x$ in $I_{1}$. The interval $\left(x_{1}, y_{2}\right)$ contains only points of $\operatorname{Per}(g)$, hence there exists some power $n_{1}$ of $f^{q(f)}$, such that $f^{n_{1} q(f)}(x) \in I_{2}$. Similarly, there exists a power $n_{2}$ of $g^{q(g)}$ which maps $f^{n_{1} q(f)}(x)$ into $I_{3}$, and so on. The last operation can be done so that the image of $x$, under a suitable word $g^{n_{\ell} q(g)} f^{n_{\ell} q(f)} \cdots g^{n_{2} q(g)} f^{n_{1} q(f)}$, lies at the right of $x$ in $I_{1}$. Then, choosing the canonical lifts of $f^{n_{i} q(f)}$ and $g^{m_{i} q(g)}$, we observe that $\tau\left(f^{n_{1} q(f)}, g^{m_{1} q(g)}, \cdots, f^{n_{\ell} q(f)}, g^{m_{\ell} q(g)}\right) \geqslant 1$.
Remark 2.31. In the case $\operatorname{Per}(f) \cap \operatorname{Per}(g)=\varnothing$, the integer $\ell$ in the proof above also only depends on $\tau$ - in fact, it is the minimal integer such that there exist $m_{i}, n_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $\tau\left(f^{n_{1} q(f)}, g^{m_{1} q(g)}, \cdots, f^{n_{\ell} q(f)}, g^{m_{\ell} q(g)}\right) \geqslant 1$.
To see this, fix $h<\ell$. For any $x_{j}$ even, and any $M, N \in \mathbb{Z}$ we have $\widehat{g^{M q(g)}} \widehat{f^{N q(f)}}\left(\widetilde{x_{j}}\right)<\widetilde{x_{j+2}}$, where $\widetilde{x_{j}}$ and $\widetilde{x_{j+2}}$ are consecutive lifts of $x_{j}$ and $x_{j+2}$. Thus, for any choice of integers $n_{i}, m_{i}$ we have

$$
\widehat{g^{n_{h} q(g)}} \widehat{f^{n_{h} q(f)}} \cdots \widehat{g^{n_{2} q(g)}} \widehat{f^{n_{1} q(f)}}\left(\widetilde{x_{j}}\right)<\widehat{x_{j+2 h}}
$$

(again, taking consecutive lifts), and since $h<\ell$ this implies that

$$
\widehat{g^{n_{h} q(g)}} \widehat{f^{n_{h} q(f)}} \cdots \widehat{g^{n_{2} q(g)}} \widehat{f^{n_{1} q(f)}}(x)<x+1
$$

for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$, whence $\tau\left(f^{n_{1} q(f)}, g^{m_{1} q(g)}, \cdots, f^{n_{\ell} q(f)}, g^{m_{\ell} q(g)}\right)<1$.
2.4. The Euler class. We now recall the Euler class for $\operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$ as a discrete group (equivalently, for flat topological $S^{1}$ bundles) and state the related results needed later in this work.

In fact, the real Euler class has already made a brief appearance - it is the element $\epsilon_{\mathbb{R}} \in H^{2}\left(\right.$ Homeo $\left.^{+}\left(S^{1}\right) ; \mathbb{R}\right) \cong \mathbb{R}$ represented by the inhomogeneous 2-cocycle $\tau$ from Definition 2.28. The (integer) Euler class is the generator $e$ of $H^{2}\left(\right.$ Homeo $\left.^{+}\left(S^{1}\right) ; \mathbb{Z}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ which maps to $e_{\mathbb{R}}$ under the natural inclusion. For the experts, we recall that Ghys' original version of Theorem 2.29 above is the statement that the semi-conjugacy class of a representation $\rho: \Gamma \rightarrow \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$ is determined by the bounded, integral Euler class $\rho^{*}(e) \in H^{2}(\Gamma ; \mathbb{Z})$; Matsumoto translated this into the language of rotation numbers.

The Euler number of a representation $\rho: \Gamma_{g} \rightarrow \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$ is the integer $\left\langle\rho^{*}(e),\left[\Gamma_{g}\right]\right\rangle$, where $\left[\Gamma_{g}\right]$ denotes the fundamental class, i.e. a generator of
$H_{2}\left(\Gamma_{g}, \mathbb{Z}\right)$. Although this definition only makes sense for fundamental groups of closed surfaces, (a surface with boundary has free fundamental group, and $\left.H_{2}\left(F_{n} ; \mathbb{Z}\right)=0\right)$ there is a relative Euler number for surfaces with boundary, which is additive when such subsurfaces are glued together. This can be made precise in the language of bounded cohomology, and, following [3, § 4.3], we will use the following definition. (Compare also Goldman [8] and Matsumoto [20].)
Definition 2.32 (Relative Euler number for pants.). Let $P \subset \Sigma_{g}$ be a subsurface homeomorphic to a pair of pants. If $P$ contains the base point of $\Sigma_{g}$, equip it with three curves $a, b, c$ as in Figure 3. If not, choose a point in $P$, and a path in $\Sigma_{g}$ from its base point to the chosen point in $P$, and use it to define three such curves $a, b$ and $c$.

Let $\rho: \pi_{1} \Sigma_{g} \rightarrow \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$, and let $\widetilde{\rho(a)}, \widetilde{\rho(b)}$ be any lifts of $\rho(a)$ and $\rho(b)$ to $\operatorname{Homeo}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{+}(\mathbb{R})$, and let $\widetilde{\rho(c)}=(\widetilde{\rho(b)} \widetilde{\rho(a)})^{-1}$. Then the contribution of $P$ to the Euler number of $\rho$ is

$$
\operatorname{eu}_{P}(\rho)=\widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}(\widetilde{\rho(a)})+\widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}(\widetilde{\rho(b)})+\widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}(\widetilde{\rho(c)}) .
$$



Figure 3. A pair of pants with standard generators of its fundamental group

This extends naturally to one-holed tori.
Definition 2.33 (Relative Euler number for one-holed tori.). Let $T=$ $T(a, b) \subset \Sigma_{g}$ be a one-holed torus subsurface, where $a$ and $b$ are oriented curves representing a standard pair of generators as in Figure 1. Let $c=$ $[a, b]$. Then the triple ( $b^{-1}, a^{-1} b a, c$ ) forms a set of boundary curves of a pants subsurface obtained by cutting $T$ along a loop freely homotopic to $b$. Let $\widetilde{\rho(b)}$ and $\widetilde{\rho(a)}$ be lifts of $\rho(b)$ and $\rho(a)$ respectively. Then, as rot is conjugacy invariant, we have $\widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}\left(\widetilde{\rho(b)}^{-1}\right)=-\widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}\left(\widetilde{\rho(a)}{ }^{-1} \widetilde{\rho(b)} \widetilde{\rho(a)}\right)$, so consistent with the definition above, the relative Euler number of $\rho$ on $T$ is given by

$$
\operatorname{eu}_{T}(\rho)=\widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}\left(\widetilde{\rho(b)}^{-1} \widetilde{\rho(a)}-1 \widetilde{\rho(b)} \widetilde{\rho(a)}\right) .
$$

If the surface $\Sigma_{g}$ is cut into pairs of pants (and/or tori), the Euler class of $\rho$ is the sum of the contributions of these subsurfaces. See [3, §4.3] for a detailed discussion, and [17] for a short exposition and a proof. With the
consistent orientation of the boundary curves of each pant, $\mathrm{eu}(\rho)$ is a sum of $6 g-6$ rotation numbers, in which each curve appears (up to conjugacy) with a positive and a negative power, hence the resulting number is an integer. We leave it as an exercise to the reader to verify that this agrees with the standard definition of Euler number.

## 3. A first statement

This section proves the main theorem under a strong additional hypothesis. We will show that if $\rho$ is path-rigid and if for every $a, b \in \Gamma_{g}$ with $i(a, b)= \pm 1, \rho(a)$ and $\rho(b)$ dynamically "look like" a geometric representation, then $\rho$ is in fact geometric. In other words, the local condition that $\rho$ "looks geometric" on pairs $a, b$ with $i(a, b)= \pm 1$ implies global geometricity. To formalize this, we introduce some definitions.
Definition 3.1. Say that an element $f \in \operatorname{PSL}^{k}(2, \mathbb{R})$ is hyperbolic if its projection to $\operatorname{PSL}(2, \mathbb{R})$ is hyperbolic. Equivalently, all its periodic points are hyperbolic in the sense of classical smooth dynamics.
Definition 3.2. Let $a, b \in \Gamma_{g}$ and $\rho: \Gamma_{g} \rightarrow \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$. Denote by $S_{k}(a, b)$ (the notation $\rho$ is suppressed) the property that
i. $i(a, b)= \pm 1$ and $\rho(a)$ and $\rho(b)$ are each separately conjugate to a hyperbolic element of $\operatorname{PSL}^{k}(2, \mathbb{R})$, and
ii. their periodic points alternate around the circle, meaning that each pair of points of $\operatorname{Per}(a)$ are separated by $\operatorname{Per}(b)$, and vice versa.
If all pairs $a, b$ with $i(a, b)= \pm 1$ have $S_{k}(a, b)$, then we say that $\rho$ has property $S_{k}$.

With this notation we can state the main result of this section.
Theorem 3.3. Let $\rho$ be a path-rigid, minimal representation, and suppose $\rho$ satisfies $S_{k}$ for some $k$. Then $\rho$ is geometric.

Before embarking on the proof, we discuss some other variations on hyperbolicity to be used later in the section.

Let $f \in$ Homeo $^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$. We say that an open interval $I \subset S^{1}$ is attracting for $f$ if $f(\bar{I}) \subset I$. We say that $I$ is repelling for $f$ if it is attracting for $f^{-1}$. Matsumoto [20] calls homeomorphisms that do not admit attracting intervals tame. In line with his terminology, we call those homeomorphisms which do savage. More specifically, we have:
Definition 3.4. A homeomorphism $f \in \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$ is $n$-savage if there exist $2 n$ open intervals with pairwise disjoint closures, indexed in cyclic order by $I_{1}^{-}, I_{1}^{+}, \ldots, I_{n}^{-}, I_{n}^{+}$such that

$$
f\left(S^{1} \backslash\left(\cup_{j=1}^{n} \overline{I_{j}^{-}}\right)\right)=\cup_{j=1}^{n} I_{j}^{+}
$$

In this sense, savage means 1-savage.
The next observation is an immediate consequence of the definition, we leave the proof to the reader.

Observation 3.5. If $f$ is $n$-savage, then $f^{k}$ is also $n$-savage for any $k \in$ $\mathbb{Z} \backslash\{0\}$. Furthermore, $\operatorname{rot}\left(f^{n}\right)=0$ and $f$ has least one periodic point in each interval $I_{j}^{+}$and $I_{j}^{-}$.

As a concrete example, note that if $f$ is conjugate to a hyperbolic element in $\mathrm{PSL}^{k}(2, \mathbb{R})$, then $f$ is $n$-savage if and only if $n \leqslant k$.

The intervals $I_{j}^{+}$and $I_{j}^{-}$in the definition of savage are by no way unique, but it will be convenient to use the notation $I^{+}(f):=\cup_{j=1}^{n} I_{j}^{+}$and $I^{-}(f):=$ $\cup_{j=1}^{n} I_{j}^{-}$, even if this these sets depend on choices. We also set $I(f):=$ $I^{+}(f) \cup I^{-}(f)$.
Definition 3.6. Two $n$-savage homeomorphisms $f, g \in \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$ are in $n$-Schottky position if their respective attracting and repelling intervals $I_{j}^{ \pm}$ can be chosen so that $I(f)$ and $I(g)$ have disjoint closures.

Note that, if $f$ and $g$ are $n$-Schottky, then $f^{-1}$ and $g$ are $n$-Schottky as well. Note also that the condition $S_{k}(a, b)$ is not equivalent to $k$-Schottky, although $S_{k}(a, b)$ does imply that $a^{N}$ and $b^{N}$ are $k$-Schottky for sufficiently large $N$. One of the challenges we face is to show that hypothesis $S_{k}$ on a path-rigid representation $\rho$ implies that $a$ and $b$ are indeed $k$-Schottky whenever $i(a, b)= \pm 1$.
3.1. Outline of Proof of Theorem 3.3. We start in Section 3.2 with a series of lemmas that use rigidity and property $S_{k}$ to show the cyclic order of periodic points of various non-separating curves agrees with that of a geometric representation, and that certain pairs of curves are $k$-Schottky. Following this, we show in Section 3.3 that the Euler number of a path-rigid, minimal, $S_{k}$ representation agrees with a geometric one, i.e. is equal to $\pm \frac{2 g-2}{k}$. From there, we need to improve this essentially combinatorial result to the fact that the representation is actually geometric. Our main tool is existing work of Matsumoto on Basic Partitions. His technique uses a decomposition of the surface into one-holed tori and pairs of pants, involving many separating curves, which on the level of fundamental groups corresponds to a decomposition of $\Gamma_{g}$ into a tree of groups. However, our hypothesis $S_{k}$ is a condition on non-separating curves (which is much more natural for us, given that we are working with standard generators, chains, and bending deformations). Thus, before invoking Matsumoto, we must pass from non-separating to separating curves; this is done in Section 3.4. (A more direct approach would be to adapt Matsumoto's techniques to a general decomposition of the surface group into a graph of groups, but this Pyrrhic victory would actually make our proof longer and more difficult.)

We are now ready to embark on the proof. Throughout, we make the following assumption.

Assumption 3.7. For the rest of this section, $\rho$ denotes a path-rigid minimal representation of $\Gamma_{g}$ that satisfies $S_{k}$. To simplify notation, we often omit $\rho$, identifying $a \in \Gamma_{g}$ with $\rho(a) \in \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$. Thus, we will speak of $\operatorname{Per}(a)$, denote an attracting point of $\rho(a)$ by $a^{+}$, etc.
3.2. Order of periodic points. Property $S_{k}$ makes it much easier to understand periodic points under deformations. We start with several lemmas to this effect.

Lemma 3.8. Let $i(a, b)=1$, let $F \subset S^{1}$ be a countable set, and let $b_{t}$ be a positive one-parameter family commuting with $b=\rho(b)$. Then for some $t \in \mathbb{R}$, we have $\operatorname{Per}\left(b_{t} \rho(a)\right) \cap F=\varnothing$.

Proof. We use the notation from Section 2.2.3. Path-rigidity of $\rho$ implies that $\operatorname{rot}\left(b_{t} a\right)$ is constant, and Property $S_{k}$ implies that $P(b, a)=\varnothing$, so we need only worry about points in $U=U(b, a)$. Thus, provided $t \notin T_{b, a}(F)$, we have $\operatorname{Per}\left(b_{t} a\right) \cap F=\varnothing$.

Lemma 3.9 (Disjoint curves have disjoint Per). Let $(a, b, c)$ be a completable directed 3-chain. Then $\operatorname{Per}(a) \cap \operatorname{Per}(c)=\varnothing$. In fact, $\operatorname{Per}(c) \cap b^{n}(\operatorname{Per}(a))=$ $\varnothing$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Proof. Fix $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Complete $(a, b, c)$ to a directed 4-chain $(a, b, c, d)$, and apply a bending deformation replacing $c$ with $d_{t} c$ (leaving the action of $a$ and $b$ unchanged, hence $b^{n} \operatorname{Per}(a)$ unchanged), for a positive family $d_{t}$. By Lemma 3.8, there is some $t$ such that $\operatorname{Per}\left(d_{t} c\right) \cap b^{n} \operatorname{Per}(a)=\varnothing$. Now the conclusion follows from path-rigidity of $\rho$, together with Lemma 2.30.

Note that, if $i(a, b)= \pm 1$, then for any $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ we also have $i\left(b^{n} a, b\right)= \pm 1$, hence $S_{k}\left(b^{n} a, b\right)$ holds. The next lemma describes the position of the periodic points of $S_{k}\left(b^{n} a, b\right)$ for large $n$. This is particularly useful since there exist bending deformations replacing the pair $a, b$ with $b^{n} a, b$ provided that $q(b)$ divides $n$ (see Observation 2.25).

Lemma 3.10 (Movement of Per by bending). Suppose $i(a, b)= \pm 1$. Then as $N \rightarrow+\infty$, the points of $\operatorname{Per}^{+}\left(b^{N} a\right)$ approach $\operatorname{Per}^{+}(b)$, and $\operatorname{Per}^{-}\left(b^{N} a\right)$ approaches $a^{-1} \operatorname{Per}^{-}(b)$; similarly, as $N \rightarrow-\infty$, $\operatorname{Per}^{+}\left(b^{N} a\right)$ approaches $\mathrm{Per}^{-} b$ and $\operatorname{Per}^{-}\left(b^{N} a\right)$ approaches $a^{-1} \operatorname{Per}^{+}(b)$.

Proof. The conclusion of the lemma is an easy exercise, provided that $a^{-1} \operatorname{Per}(b) \cap$ $\operatorname{Per}(b)=\varnothing$. We claim that path-rigidity of $\rho$ implies this extra provision. To see this, suppose for example that $i(a, b)=1$, and let $(c, a, b)$ be a completable directed 3-chain. By Lemma 3.9, $\operatorname{Per}(c) \cap \operatorname{Per}(b)=\varnothing$. Thus, we can make a positive bending deformation replacing $a$ with $a c_{t}$, until $\left(a c_{t}\right)^{-1} \operatorname{Per}(b) \cap \operatorname{Per}(b)=\varnothing$.

Notation 3.11. Let $f$ and $g$ be homeomorphisms of $S^{1}$. When talking about cyclic order of periodic points, we use the notation $\left(f^{+}, g^{+}, g^{-}, f^{-}\right){ }_{k}$ to mean that, in cyclic order, there is one attracting point for $f$, followed by an attracting point for $g$, followed by a repelling point for $g$, followed by an attracting point for $f$, with this pattern repeating $k$ times. The notation $f^{ \pm}$ means any point from $\operatorname{Per}(f)$. We also use other obvious variations, such as $\left(\left(f^{ \pm}, g^{-}, f^{ \pm}, g^{+}\right)_{k}\right.$, and extend this naturally to periodic points of three or more homeomorphisms.

When such a cyclic order is given, we call an interval $I \subset S^{1}$ of type $\left(f^{+}, g^{-}\right)$if it is bounded on the left (proceeding anti-clockwise, using the natural orientation of $S^{1}$ ) by a point of $\operatorname{Per}^{+}(f)$ and on the right by a point of $\operatorname{Per}^{-}(g)$. Of course, we also use other obvious variations.

Lemma 3.12 (Periodic points of 3 -chains). Let ( $a, b, c$ ) be a completable directed 3-chain. Then, up to reversing the orientation of the circle, the periodic points of $a, b$ and $c$ come in the following cyclic order:

$$
\left(\left(a^{-}, b^{-}, a^{+}, c^{ \pm}, b^{+}, c^{ \pm}\right)\right)_{k}
$$

Proof. Up to reversing orientation of $S^{1}$, we may suppose that the cyclic order of points in $\operatorname{Per}(a) \cup \operatorname{Per}(b)$ is $\left(\left(a^{-}, b^{-}, a^{+}, b^{+}\right)_{k}\right.$. Choose two consecutive points of $\operatorname{Per}(b)$ (in cyclic order), and denote these by $b^{-}$and $b^{+}$. (To avoid unnecessary subscripts or superscripts, we will often use $f^{ \pm}$to denote a specific attracting/repelling fixed point of a homeomorphism $f$, and the double-bracket notation above to indicate the cyclic order of a set of fixed points.) Let $a^{+}$be the point of $\operatorname{Per}(a)$ between $b^{-}$and $b^{+}$, and let $c^{ \pm}$be the periodic point of $c$ in this interval (there is exactly one by hypothesis $S_{k}$ ). We know that the points of $\operatorname{Per}(a)$ in the interval $\left(b^{-}, b^{+}\right)$are in cyclic order $\left(b^{-}, a^{+}, b^{q(b)}\left(a^{+}\right), b^{+}\right)$.

By Lemma 3.9, $c^{ \pm}$cannot be equal to $a^{+}$or $b^{q(b)}\left(a^{+}\right)$. Suppose for contradiction that $c^{ \pm}$lies in the interval $\left(b^{-}, a^{+}\right)$, or in the interval $\left(b^{q(b)}\left(a^{+}\right), b^{+}\right)$. Then the closed segment $\left[a^{+}, b^{q(b)}\left(a^{+}\right)\right]$does not contain any periodic point of $c$. Let $\left(c_{t}\right)_{t \in \mathbb{R}}$ be a positive 1-parameter family commuting with $c$, and use this to perform a bending along $c$ as in Section 2.2.3. Using the notation from this section, we have $\delta_{c, b}\left(a^{+}, 0\right)>0$, but for $t$ sufficiently negative, we have $\Delta_{c, b}\left(a^{+}, 0, \ldots, 0, t\right)<0$. Thus, for some $t_{0}<0$, we have $\delta_{c, b}\left(a^{+}, t_{0}\right)=0$, i.e. $a^{+} \in \operatorname{Per}\left(c_{t_{0}} b\right) \cap \operatorname{Per}(a)$. This, together with Lemma 2.30 and the pathrigidity of $\rho$, yields a contradiction.

The same argument applies to an interval of the form $\left(b^{+}, b^{-}\right)$, where $b^{+}$ and $b^{-}$denote two other consecutive points of $\operatorname{Per}(b)$. In that case, the argument shows that the (unique) periodic point of $c$ in this interval lies between points of the form $b^{q(b)}\left(a^{-}\right)$and $a^{-}$, proving the lemma.

In particular, for all pairs $a, c \in \Gamma_{g}$ such that there exists a completable 3 -chain $(a, b, c)$, Lemma 3.12 provides information about the periodic sets of $a$ and $c$.

Corollary 3.13. Let $a$ and $c$ be two non separating curves with $i(a, c)=0$, and suppose $c$ is not conjugate to $a$ or $a^{-1}$. Then their periodic points are in cyclic order $\left(\left(a^{ \pm}, a^{ \pm}, c^{ \pm}, c^{ \pm}\right)_{k}\right.$.

Proposition 3.14. Let $(a, b, c)$ be a completable directed 3-chain. Then, up to reversing the orientation of the circle, the periodic points of $a, b$ and $c$ and the b-preimages of $\operatorname{Per}(c)$ are in cyclic order

$$
\left(\left(a^{-}, b^{-1}\left(c^{ \pm}\right), b^{-}, b^{-1}\left(c^{ \pm}\right), a^{+}, c^{ \pm}, b^{+}, c^{ \pm}\right)\right)_{k}
$$

Proof of Proposition 3.14. Apply a bending deformation of $\rho$ replacing $b$ with $c^{N q(c)} b$, and leaving the action of $c$ and $a$ unchanged. By Lemma 3.10, for $N$ sufficiently large, $\operatorname{Per}^{-}\left(c^{N q(c)} b\right)$ approaches $b^{-1} \operatorname{Per}^{-}(c)$, and $\operatorname{Per}^{-}\left(c^{-N q(c)} b\right)$ approaches $b^{-1} \mathrm{Per}^{+}(c)$. Since $\rho$ is path-rigid, the cyclic order of periodic points is invariant under these deformations, hence the points $b^{-1}\left(c^{ \pm}\right)$all must lie in intervals of type $\left(a^{-}, a^{+}\right)$.

Now up to replacing $c$ with $c^{-1}$ (its orientation is unimportant in this proof) we may assume that the order of periodic points given by Lemma 3.12 is $\left(\left(a^{-}, b^{-}, a^{+}, c^{+}, b^{+}, c^{-}\right)\right)_{k}$. Then $b^{-1} \mathrm{Per}^{-}(c)$ lies in the intervals of type $\left(b^{+}, b^{-}\right)$, as $b$ preserves these intervals. Thus, points of $b^{-1} \mathrm{Per}^{-}(c)$ are between consecutive points of $\operatorname{Per}^{-}(a)$ and $\operatorname{Per}^{-}(b)$. Similarly, the points $b^{-1}\left(c^{+}\right)$are between consecutive points of the form $b^{-}$and $a^{+}$.

The following variation is proved using the same style of argument.

Lemma 3.15. Let $a, b, c \in \Gamma_{g}$ be three non-separating curves such that $i(a, b)=-1$ and $c$ is disjoint from $T(a, b)$. Up to reversing the orientation of $S^{1}$, we may suppose that the periodic points of $a$ and $b$ are in the order $\left(\left(a^{-}, b^{+}, a^{+}, b^{-}\right)_{k}\right.$. Then the periodic points of $c$ all lie in intervals of type $\left(b^{-}, a^{-}\right)$.

Note that the order in which we prefer to take the periodic points of $a$ and $b$ is different here than in the two preceding statements, because here $i(a, b)=-1$.

Proof. Similar to the proof of Proposition 3.14, we perform bending deformations. Since $\rho$ is path-rigid, the cyclic order of periodic points does not change after the bending deformation replacing $b$ with $a^{N q(a)} b$ (leaving $a$ and $c$ unchanged). The effect of these deformations is to push $\operatorname{Per}^{+}(b)$ as close as we want to either $\operatorname{Per}^{+}(a)$ or $\operatorname{Per}^{-1}(a)$. Applying Lemma 3.10 as in the proof of Proposition 3.14 shows that periodic points of $c$ cannot be in the intervals of type $\left(a^{-}, b^{+}\right)$or $\left(b^{+}, a^{+}\right)$- as the argument is entirely analogous, we omit the details. The same argument again using the deformation replacing $a$ by $b^{N q(b)} a$ shows that the periodic points of $c$ cannot be in the intervals of type $\left(a^{+}, b^{-}\right)$, either.

Proposition 3.16. Let $a, c$ be two non separating curves with $i(a, c)=0$, and suppose $c$ is not conjugate to $a$ or $a^{-1}$. Then $\rho(a)$ and $\rho(c)$ are in $k$-Schottky position.

Proof. Up to changing the orientation of $c$, we may choose non separating curves $b$ and $d$ such that $(a, b, c, d)$ is the beginning of a standard basis of $\pi_{1} \Sigma_{g}$.

Using a deformation as in Lemma 3.9, path-rigidity of $\rho$ implies that the points of $\operatorname{Per}^{-}(d), c^{-1} \operatorname{Per}^{+}(d), \operatorname{Per}^{-}(b)$, and $a^{-1} \operatorname{Per}^{+}(b)$ are all distinct. Fix small disjoint neighborhoods $U^{+}$of $\operatorname{Per}^{-}(d), U^{-}$of $c^{-1} \operatorname{Per}^{+}(d)$, and also $V^{+}$ of $\mathrm{Per}^{-}(b)$, and $V^{-}$of $a^{-1} \mathrm{Per}^{+}(b)$.

By Lemma 3.10, if $n$ is large enough, $d^{-n q(d)} c\left(S^{1} \backslash U^{-}\right) \subset U^{+}$and $b^{-n q(b)} a\left(S^{1} \backslash V^{-}\right) \subset V^{+}$, so we may find $2 k$ disjoint attracting and repelling intervals for $d^{-n q(d)} c$ and $b^{-n q(b)} a$ as in the definition of $k$-Schottky. Now there exists a bending deformation that replaces $c$ with $d^{-n q(d)} c$ and $a$ with $b^{-n q(b)} a$, and it follows from Observation 2.25 that this deformation is conjugate to the original action. Thus, $a$ and $c$ are $k$-Schottky.
Proposition 3.17. Let $a$, $c$ be two non separating curves with $i(a, c)= \pm 1$. Then $\rho(a)$ and $\rho(c)$ are in $k$-Schottky position.

Proof. Choose $b$ and $d$ so that $(b, a, c, d)$ is a 4 -chain. Now follow the proof above.

From Proposition 3.16 we deduce an enhanced version of Lemma 3.12.
Proposition 3.18. Let $(a, b, c)$ be a completable directed 3-chain. Then, up to reversing the orientation of the circle, the periodic points of $a, b$ and $c$ are in cyclic order $\left(\left(a^{-}, b^{-}, a^{+}, c^{-}, b^{+}, c^{+}\right)_{k}\right.$.

Proof. Following Proposition 3.14, we need only discard the possibility that the order is $\left(\left(a^{-}, b^{-}, a^{+}, c^{+}, b^{+}, c^{-}\right)\right)_{k}$. Suppose for contradiction that this
order does hold. By Proposition 3.16, we know that $a$ and $c$ each have $2 k$ intervals as in Definition 3.4, with pairwise disjoint closures. As $|\operatorname{Per}(a)|=$ $|\operatorname{Per}(c)|=2 k$, each of these intervals contains exactly one periodic point, so their cyclic order is specified by the order of periodic points given above.

Note that $c a$ is non-separating, as the 3-chain $(a, b, c)$ is completable. Also, $\rho(c a)$ is $k$-savage, and we may take $I^{-}(c a) \subset I^{-}(a)$ and $I^{+}(c a) \subset I^{+}(c)$. With the same argument as above, $\rho(c a)$ has exactly one repelling periodic point in each interval of $I^{-}(c a)$, and one attracting periodic point in each interval of $I^{+}(c a)$.

If $\operatorname{Per}(b)$ is disjoint from $I^{-}(a) \cup I^{+}(c)$, then this is enough to imply that the periodic points of $c a$ and $b$ alternate, contradicting Lemma 3.12, since $i(c a, b)=0$. Thus, it only remains to prove that $\operatorname{Per}(b)$ can be made disjoint from $I^{-}(a) \cup I^{+}(c)$ to finish the proof. This can be done in the same manner as that of Proposition 3.16. First, complete $(a, b, c)$ into a directed 5 -chain ( $\alpha, a, b, c, \gamma$ ). Then, consider a bending deformation of $\rho$, where $b$ is unchanged but the action of $a$ is replaced by that of $a \alpha^{N q(\alpha)}$ and the action of $c$ by $\gamma^{N q(\gamma)} c$ for $N$ large. By Observation 2.25 this new action is conjugate to $\rho$. Now, provided $N$ is large enough, we can choose our Schottky intervals to be as narrow as we want, around the points $\alpha^{-}, a\left(\alpha^{+}\right), \gamma^{+}$and $c^{-1}\left(\gamma^{-}\right)$ which, using Lemma 3.9, are disjoint from $\operatorname{Per}(b)$.
3.3. Euler number. As a consequence of the work in the previous section, we can now show that the Euler number of $\rho$ agrees with a geometric representation.

Theorem 3.19. Let $\rho$ be path-rigid, minimal and satisfy $S_{k}$. Then $|\operatorname{eu}(\rho)|=$ $\frac{2 g-2}{k}$.

In fact, we will show the following stronger statement, which implies Theorem 3.19 by additivity of the Euler number on subsurfaces.

Theorem 3.20. Up to changing the orientation of the circle, for every pair-of-pants subsurface $P \subset \Sigma_{g}$, the relative Euler class of $\rho$ on $P$ is $\frac{-1}{k}$.

This is true in particular for one-holed torus subsurfaces, which will be of interest in the next subsection.

Definition 3.21. Let $i(a, b)=1$. We say that the ordered pair $(a, b)$ is of type + if the periodic points of $a$ and $b$ are in the cyclic order $\left(\left(a^{-}, b^{-}, a^{+}, b^{+}\right)\right)_{k}$. Otherwise, we say that $(a, b)$ is of type - .

As a consequence of Proposition 3.18, for every oriented, completable directed 3 -chain $(a, b, c)$, the pairs $(a, b)$ and $(b, c)$ have the same type. Thus, Lemma 2.11 implies that all one-holed tori have the same type. Thus, up to conjugating $\rho$ by an orientation-reversing homeomorphism, we may suppose the type is always + .

Proof of Theorem 3.20. We begin by proving the claim for a pair of pants $P$, such that at least two boundary components of $P$ are non-separating. Denote by $a^{-1}, c^{-1}$, and $a c$ the three boundary components of $P$, with the convention of Figure 3, and suppose that $a$ and $c$ are non-separating. With these choices of orientations, the Euler number of $\rho$ on $P$ will be equal to
$\widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}(\widehat{a} \widehat{c})-\widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}(\widehat{a})-\widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}(\widehat{c})$, and there exists a curve $b$ such that $(a, b, c)$ is an oriented, completable, directed 3-chain (the end of the proof of Observation 2.9 justifies the existence such a curve $b$ ).

Since $(a, b)$ is of type + , it follows from Proposition 3.18 that the periodic points of $a$ and $c$ are in cyclic order $\left(\left(a^{-}, a^{+}, c^{-}, c^{+}\right)_{k}\right.$; and by Proposition 3.16, they are in $k$-Schottky position, with Schottky intervals $I_{j}^{\ddagger}(a)$ and $I_{j}^{ \pm}(c)$. Lift these to intervals $\tilde{I}_{j}^{ \pm}(a)$ and $\tilde{I}_{j}^{ \pm}(c) \subset \mathbb{R}$, indexed by integers, and in order

$$
\ldots \tilde{I}_{j}^{-}(a), \tilde{I}_{j}^{+}(a), \tilde{I}_{j}^{-}(c), \tilde{I}_{j}^{+}(c), \tilde{I}_{j+1}^{-}(a), \ldots
$$

such that the projection to $S^{1}$ is given by taking indices mod $k$. It follows easily from the definition of Savage (see also Observation 3.5) that $\widehat{a}\left(\tilde{I}_{j}^{+}(a)\right) \subset \tilde{I}_{j+\ell}^{+}(a)$ for some $\ell$ (which depends of course on $a$ ) and in this case $\ell / k=\widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}(\widehat{a})$. An analogous statement holds also for $c$; let $m / k$ denote its translation number.

Since $a$ and $c$ are in $k$-Schottky position, their product $a c$ is $k$-savage, and we can take $I^{-}(a c)=I^{-}(c)$ and $I^{+}(a c) \subset I^{+}(a)$. Note that each of the $k$ intervals of $I^{+}(a c)$ is contained in a different interval of $I^{+}(a)$. We now track images of intervals to compare translation numbers. Set the indexing of the intervals $\tilde{I}^{ \pm}(a c)$ so that $\tilde{I}_{1}^{+}(a)=\tilde{I}_{1}^{+}(a c)$. This lies between $\tilde{I}_{0}^{+}(c)$ and $\tilde{I}_{1}^{-}(c)$, so we have

$$
c\left(\tilde{I}_{1}^{+}(a c)\right) \subset \tilde{I}_{m}^{+}(c)
$$

and similarly, since $\tilde{I}_{m}^{+}(c)$ lies between $\tilde{I}_{m}^{+}(a)$ and $\tilde{I}_{m+1}^{-}(a)$, we have

$$
a c\left(\tilde{I}_{1}^{+}(a c)\right) \subset a\left(\tilde{I}_{m}^{+}(c)\right) \subset \tilde{I}_{m+\ell}^{+}(a)=\tilde{I}_{m+\ell}^{+}(a c)
$$

Thus, $k \cdot \widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}(\widehat{a} \widehat{c})=m+\ell-1=k \cdot \widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}(\widehat{a})+k \cdot \widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}(\widehat{c})-1$ and hence $k(\widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}(\widehat{a} \widehat{c})-$ $\widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}(\widehat{a})-\widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}(\widehat{c}))=-1$, as desired.

This implies Theorem 3.19, as we can cut the surface $\Sigma_{g}$ into pairs of pants whose boundary components are all non-separating.

Now, if $P$ is a pair of pants with possibly more than one separating boundary component, then $\Sigma_{g} \backslash P$ admits a pants decomposition whose pants all have at most one separating boundary component. The fact that the contribution of $P$ to the Euler class of $\rho$ is $\frac{-1}{k}$ is then a consequence of Theorem 3.19 and the additivity of the Euler class.

In fact, 3.17 implies an even stronger statement:
Proposition 3.22. Let $i(a, b)= \pm 1$. The restriction of $\rho$ to $\langle a, b\rangle$ is semiconjugate to the restriction of a geometric representation in $\operatorname{PSL}^{k}(2, \mathbb{R})$.

Proof. The fact that $\rho$ is $k$-Schottky allows one to apply the classical pingpong lemma to the action of $a$ and $b$. A careful reading of the classical proof of the ping-pong lemma not only shows that some point $x \in S^{1}$ has a free orbit under $a$ and $b$, but that the cyclic order of $x$ is determined by the cyclic order of the domains $I \pm(a)$ and $I \pm(b)$, and their images under $a$ and $b$; this determines the action up to semi-conjugacy. A detailed proof is written out in Lemma 4.2 in [16]. Alternatively, this can be proved by Matsumoto's theory of Basic Partitions, as in Example 3.31 and the comments following Example 3.32 below.
3.4. Surfaces bounded by separating curves. Fix a standard basis $\left\{a_{i}, b_{i}\right\}$ for $\Gamma_{g}$, and let $c_{i}=\left[a_{i}, b_{i}\right]$. By considering the one-holed tori $T\left(a_{i}, b_{i}\right)$ in Theorem 3.20, we know that, up to reversing the orientation of the circle, $\operatorname{rot}\left(c_{i}\right)=-1 / k$ for all $i$. We fix this orientation, for the rest of this section. We now discuss the cyclic order of their periodic points, and the images $c_{i}\left(\operatorname{Per}\left(c_{j}\right)\right)$. This, combined with the fact that $a_{i}$ and $b_{i}$ are $k$-Schottky, will furnish enough combinatorial data to conclude (in the next subsection) that $\rho$ is geometric.

Recall from the previous section that, up to reindexing the basis, we have the cyclic order of periodic points

$$
\left(\left(a_{1}^{-}, b_{1}^{+}, a_{1}^{+}, b_{1}^{-}, a_{2}^{-}, b_{2}^{+}, a_{2}^{+}, b_{2}^{-}, \ldots\right)\right)_{k}
$$

and that, for each $i$, the restriction of $\rho$ to $\left\langle a_{i}, b_{i}\right\rangle$ is semi-conjugate to a $\operatorname{PSL}^{k}(2, \mathbb{R})$ geometric representation. Let $c_{i}^{+}$denote points in the set of closest points of $\operatorname{Per}\left(c_{i}\right)$ to $\operatorname{Per}^{-}\left(b_{i}\right)$, and let $c_{i}^{-}$denote points in the set of closest points of $\operatorname{Per}\left(c_{i}\right)$ to $\mathrm{Per}^{-}\left(a_{i}\right)$. Both of these two "closest points" sets have cardinality $k$. We are slightly abusing notation here, because the points $c_{i}^{+}$and $c_{i}^{-}$need not be attracting or repelling points. But this abuse will be justified shortly.

Using our notation for cyclic order of points, the fact that the restriction of $\rho$ to $\left\langle a_{i}, b_{i}\right\rangle$ is semi-conjugate to a geometric representation implies that these points are in the cyclic order $\left(\left(c_{i}^{-}, a_{i}^{-}, b_{i}^{+}, a_{i}^{+}, b_{i}^{-}, c_{i}^{+}\right)\right)_{k}$ for each $i$. We now make a stronger claim.

Lemma 3.23. The periodic points of $a_{i}, b_{i}$ and $c_{i}$, with the notation above, are in the cyclic order

$$
\left(\left(c_{1}^{-}, a_{1}^{-}, b_{1}^{+}, a_{1}^{+}, b_{1}^{-}, c_{1}^{+}, c_{2}^{-} a_{2}^{-}, b_{2}^{+}, a_{2}^{+}, b_{2}^{-}, c_{2}^{+}, \ldots\right)\right)_{k},
$$

with the possibility that $c_{i}^{+}=c_{i+1}^{-}$(taking indices mod $k$ ) for some of the points $c_{i}^{+}$and $c_{i+1}^{-}$(not necessarily respecting the repetition of the pattern $k$ times).

Proof. Since $c_{i}^{+}$and $c_{i}^{-}$are in $\partial \operatorname{Per}\left(c_{i}\right)$, it suffices to prove the following.
Claim. Let $I$ be an interval of type $\left(c_{i}^{-}, c_{i}^{+}\right)$, and let $j \neq i$. Then $\partial \operatorname{Per}\left(c_{j}\right) \cap$ $I=\varnothing$.

Suppose for contradiction that this claim is false, and let $x \in \partial \operatorname{Per}\left(c_{j}\right) \cap I$. Let $c_{t}$ be a positive one parameter family commuting with $c_{i}$ and supported on $I$. Apply a bending deformation in the separating simple closed curve $c_{i}$, so that $\rho_{t}\left(a_{i}\right)=c_{t} \rho\left(a_{i}\right) c_{t}^{-1}$. Since this deformation is a conjugacy on $\left\langle a_{i}, b_{i}\right\rangle$, we have $\left|\operatorname{Per} \rho_{t}\left(a_{i}\right)\right|=2 k$ for all $t$, and there is exactly one point of $\operatorname{Per}^{+}\left(\rho_{t}\left(a_{i}\right)\right)$ in each interval of type $\left(\rho_{t}\left(b_{i}\right)^{+}, \rho_{t}\left(b_{i}\right)^{-}\right)$, which moves continuously through the interval $I$. Now for some $t$, we have $x \in$ $\operatorname{Per}^{+}\left(\rho_{t}\left(a_{i}\right)\right) \cap \operatorname{Per}\left(\rho_{t}\left(c_{j}\right)\right)$. Since $\rho$ was assumed minimal, the cardinality of $\operatorname{Per}^{+}\left(\rho_{t}\left(a_{i}\right)\right) \backslash \operatorname{Per}\left(\rho_{t}\left(c_{j}\right)\right)$ can only increase, hence must have been constant. Since $\left\{\rho_{t}(x) \mid t \in \mathbb{R}\right\}=I$, this implies that $I \subset \operatorname{Per}\left(\rho_{t}\left(c_{j}\right)\right)=\operatorname{Per}\left(\rho\left(c_{j}\right)\right)$, a contradiction. This proves the claim, and hence the lemma.

In order to eliminate the case that some $c_{i}^{+}=c_{i+1}^{-}$and for future work, we use a result of [14].

Lemma 3.24. (1) Any two points of the form $c_{i}^{+}$and $c_{j}^{-}$are distinct.
(2) We have $\widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}\left(\check{c_{i}} \ldots \breve{c_{2}} \check{c_{1}}\right)=\frac{-(2 i-1)}{k}$ for all $i=1, \ldots, g-1$.
(3) Each point $c_{i}\left(c_{i-1}^{+}\right)$lies in an interval of type $\left(c_{i}^{+}, c_{i}^{-}\right)$, and within this interval, we have $c_{i}^{+}<c_{i}\left(c_{i-1}^{+}\right)<c_{i+1}^{+}<c_{i}^{-}$.

In the statement above, the lifts $\check{c}_{i}$ to $\operatorname{Homeo}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{+}(\mathbb{R})$ are the "canonical lifts" of $c_{i}$, in the sense that regardless of the choices of lifts $\overline{a_{i}}, \overline{b_{i}}$ we have $\left[\overline{a_{i}}, \overline{b_{i}}\right]=\check{c_{i}}$; this holds because the participation of $T\left(a_{i}, b_{i}\right)$ to the Euler class of $\rho$ is $\frac{-1}{k}$. Note that this is different than the canonical lifts defined in Notation 2.16.

The proof of Lemma 3.24 is accomplished by tracking the orbit of points under initial strings of the word $\left(\check{c_{i}} \cdots \breve{c_{2}} \check{c_{1}}\right)^{k}$. In essence, the constraint on the Euler number of $\rho$ (i.e. the translation number of $\check{c_{g}} \cdots \breve{c_{2}} \check{c_{1}}$ ) combined with the cyclic order of the periodic points of the $c_{i}$ places strong constraints on the rotation numbers and images of points under initial subwords of $\check{c_{g}} \cdots \breve{c_{2}} \check{c_{1}}$. However, since this computation is already carried out exactly in previous work of one of the authors, we will save time here by just quoting the relevant results. A very similar argument is given, with complete details, in the proof of Lemma 3.26 later on.

Proof of Lemma 3.24. Note that, for each $i$, the points $c_{i}^{+}$are all in a single orbit, because of Proposition 3.22. The same is true for the $c_{i}^{-}$. Since we know the Euler number of $\rho$ is $\frac{-(2 g-2)}{k}$, and this is equal to $\widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}\left(\bar{c}_{g-1} \bar{c}_{g} \ldots \bar{c}_{1}\right)-$ $1 / k$, Proposition 4.6 in [14] applied to the sets of lifts of periodic points $\tilde{c}_{i}^{+}$ gives the second and third part of the statement - the fact that $c_{i}\left(c_{i-1}^{+}\right)$lies in an interval of type $\left(c_{i}^{+}, c_{i}^{-}\right)$is immediate, and the rest of (2) is a direct translation of Proposition 4.6 into our notation. With regards to notation, we warn the reader that, although Proposition 4.6 also uses $c_{i}$ to denote homeomorphisms, rotation numbers there are assumed positive. However, the indexing and composition works out by using $\tilde{c}_{i}$ there to stand for our $\left(\widehat{c_{i}}\right)^{-1}$.)

The first part now follows immediately from Corollary 4.8 of [14].
Given the lemma above, one can use a further result of [14] to understand the location of all periodic points of the $c_{i}$.

Corollary 3.25 (Cor. 4.8 of [14]). Keeping the notation above, if $x_{i}$ denotes any periodic orbit of $c_{i}$, then these points are in cyclic order

$$
\left(\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{g}\right)\right)_{k}
$$

In particular, $\operatorname{Per}\left(c_{i}\right) \cap \operatorname{Per}\left(c_{j}\right)=\varnothing$ for all $i \neq j$; and these periodic sets satisfy the property that each connected component of $S^{1} \backslash \operatorname{Per}\left(c_{i}\right)$ either contains a point of the form $c_{j}^{+}$, or does not intersect $\operatorname{Per}\left(c_{j}\right)$.

Proof. The statement that periodic points of $c_{1}, c_{2}, \ldots, c_{g-1}$ are in cyclic order

$$
\left(\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{g-1}\right)\right)_{k}
$$

is exactly the statement of Cor. 4.8 of [14]. Applying this again to $c_{3}, \ldots c_{g}, c_{1}$ instead gives the statement above.


Figure 4. A flute decomposition of $\Sigma_{g}$ in pairs of pants and tori

These lemmas (mostly) justify our use of notation $c_{i}^{ \pm}$, as it is easy to compute from the location of periodic points of $a_{i}$ and $b_{i}$ that $c_{i}^{q\left(c_{i}\right)}$ is increasing on the intervals of type $\left(c_{i}^{-}, c_{i}^{+}\right)$.

To summarize, Corollary 3.25 says that if one looks only at the periodic points of the curves $a_{i}, b_{i}$ and $c_{i}$ defined above, then $\rho$ is indistinguishable from a representation semi-conjugate to a geometric one. Our next goal is to understand the dynamics of other separating curves. Keeping the indexing as above, we decompose $\Sigma_{g}$ into the tori $T\left(a_{i}, b_{i}\right)$ and $g-2$ pants, by adding the curves $d_{1}:=c_{2} c_{1}$ and $d_{j}:=c_{j+1} d_{j-1}$ for $i=2, \ldots, g-2$. Note that $d_{g-2}=c_{g}^{-1}$, and for convenience we set the notation $d_{0}:=c_{1}$. These curves are illustrated in Figure 4 - for simplicity we have drawn unbased, unoriented curves in their free homotopy classes, but as always the basepoint and orientation is important.

Corollary 3.25 tells us the cyclic order of points $\operatorname{Per}\left(\check{c_{j}}\right)$. In particular, $S^{1} \backslash \bigcup_{i \neq j} \operatorname{Per}\left(c_{i}\right)$ has exactly $k$ connected components that contain points of $\operatorname{Per}\left(c_{j}\right)$. Enumerate these connected components in cyclic order and let $J_{m}\left(c_{j}\right)$ denote the closed interval between the leftmost and rightmost point of $\operatorname{Per}\left(c_{j}\right)$ in the $m^{t h}$ component, for $m=1,2, \ldots, k$. Note that the union of left endpoints of the $J_{m}\left(c_{j}\right)$, for fixed $j$, lie in a single orbit because of Corollary 3.25 , and the same is true of the union of right endpoints. See Figure 5 for a schematic illustration of $J\left(c_{1}\right)$ and $J\left(c_{2}\right)$ in the case $k=1$.

Abusing notation slightly, for $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ let $J_{m}\left(c_{j}\right)$ denote the lift of the previously defined intervals to $\mathbb{R}$, and reindex if needed so that these are in linear order

$$
\ldots J_{m}\left(c_{1}\right), J_{m}\left(c_{2}\right), \ldots, J_{m}\left(c_{g}\right), J_{m+1}\left(c_{1}\right), J_{m+1}\left(c_{2}\right), \ldots
$$

With this notation, we have $\check{c_{j}}\left(J_{m}\left(c_{j}\right)\right)=J_{m-1}\left(c_{j}\right)$.
Lemma 3.26. Let $x \in \mathbb{R}$ be greater than the leftmost endpoint of $J_{i}\left(c_{1}\right)$, and let $1<n<g$. Then $\left(\check{c_{n}} \cdots \breve{c_{2}} \check{c_{1}}\right)^{k}(x)$ is greater than the rightmost endpoint of $J_{i-k(2 n-1)}\left(c_{n}\right)$. In particular, for all $x$ in the convex hull of $J_{i}\left(c_{1}\right) \cup J_{i}\left(c_{n}\right)$, we have $\left(\check{c_{n}} \cdots \check{c_{2}} \check{c_{1}}\right)^{k}(x)>x-(2 n-1)$.

In this and later proofs, for sets $A, B \subset \mathbb{R}$, we use the notation $A>B$ to mean that $a>b$ holds for all $a \in A$ and $b \in B$. If $A=\{a\}$, then we write $a>B$.


FIGURE 5. Sorting periodic points
Proof. Let $x$ be greater than the leftmost endpoint of $J_{i}\left(c_{1}\right)$. Then $\check{c_{1}}(x)$ is greater than the leftmost endpoint of $J_{i-1}\left(c_{1}\right)$. Since $J_{i-1}\left(c_{1}\right)>J_{i-2}\left(c_{2}\right)$, we have $\check{c_{1}}(x)>J_{i-2}\left(c_{2}\right)$, hence $\check{c_{2}} \check{c_{1}}(x)>J_{i-3}\left(c_{2}\right)$. Repeating this argument, we have that $\check{c_{n}} \cdots \check{c_{2}} \check{c_{1}}(x)>J_{i-(2 n-1)}\left(c_{n}\right)>J_{i-(2 n-1)}\left(c_{1}\right)$. Now apply this $k$ times, and conclude that $\left(\check{c_{n}} \cdots \check{c_{2}} \check{c_{1}}\right)^{k}(x)>J_{i-k(2 n-1)}\left(c_{n}\right)$.

From now on, we denote by $\overline{d_{i}}=\check{c_{i}} \cdots \check{c_{1}}$ the "prefered" lift of $d_{i}$ to $\operatorname{Homeo}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{+}(\mathbb{R})$.

Lemma 3.27. For each $i=1,2, \ldots g-3$, all the periodic points of $\operatorname{Per}\left(d_{i}\right)$ are contained in $2 k$ segments. Lifting these to $\mathbb{R}$, and denoting the segments by $I_{m}^{-}\left(d_{i}\right)$ and $I_{m}^{+}\left(d_{i}\right)$, they occur in the order

$$
\begin{gathered}
J_{m-1}\left(c_{g}\right)<I_{m}^{-}\left(d_{g-3}\right)<\cdots<I_{m}^{-}\left(d_{2}\right)<\ldots<I_{m}^{-}\left(d_{1}\right)<J_{m}\left(c_{1}\right) \text { and } \\
J_{m}\left(c_{i+1}\right)<I_{m}^{+}\left(d_{i}\right)<J_{m}\left(c_{i+2}\right) \text { for all } i .
\end{gathered}
$$

In brief, Lemma 3.27 says that the sets of periodic points of $c_{i}, a_{i}, b_{i}$ and $d_{i}$ are indistinguishable from those of a geometric representation. Figure 5 gives a cartoon of this in the case $k=1$. Inside the boxes, the dynamics of $c_{i}$ and $d_{i}$ are not known. However, outside, the homeomorphisms behave like hyperbolic elements of $\operatorname{PSL}(2, \mathbb{R})$ with axes as indicated in the figure. The general case $k>1$ is obtained by thinking of a lift of these dynamics to the $k$-fold cover of the circle, and composing with appropriate rotations.

Proof. We start with the base case of $d_{1}=c_{2} c_{1}$. Lemma 3.26 above says that ${\overline{d_{1}}}^{k}(x)>x-3$ on the convex hull of $J_{m}\left(c_{1}\right) \cup J_{m}\left(c_{2}\right)$, for all $m$. In particular, since $\widetilde{\text { rot }}\left(\overline{d_{1}}\right)=\frac{-3}{k}$, it has no periodic points there. Now we perform a similar computation for the other half of the statement. Suppose that $x$ is less than or equal to the right endpoint of $J_{m}\left(c_{g}\right)$. Then we have $\check{c_{2}} \check{c_{1}}(x)<J_{m-3}\left(c_{3}\right)<J_{m-3}\left(c_{g}\right)$. Hence ${\overline{d_{1}}}^{k}(x)<J_{m-3 k}\left(c_{3}\right)$. This implies in particular that $d_{1}$ has no periodic points in the convex hull of $J_{m}\left(c_{3}\right) \cup J_{m}\left(c_{g}\right)$,
for any $m$; this shows that the periodic set of $d_{1}$ has indeed the configuration as in Figure 5, and as stated in the Lemma.

We now repeat the argument of Lemma 3.26 using the collection of homeomorphisms $d_{1}, c_{3}, c_{4}, \ldots c_{g}$ instead of $c_{1}, c_{2}, c_{3} \ldots c_{g}$. To do this, let $J_{m}\left(d_{1}\right)$ denote the intervals bounded by the leftmost and rightmost endpoints of $\operatorname{Per}\left(d_{2}\right)$ between consecutive points of $\operatorname{Per}\left(c_{g}\right)$ and $\operatorname{Per}\left(c_{3}\right)$. It follows from the dynamics of $d_{1}=c_{2} c_{1}$ above that $\overline{d_{1}}\left(J_{m}\left(d_{1}\right)\right)=J_{m-3}\left(d_{1}\right)$. This can be fed it into the computation from Lemma 3.26 to conclude that ${\overline{d_{2}}}^{k}(x)>x-5$ holds on the convex hull of $J_{m}\left(d_{1}\right) \cup J_{m}\left(c_{3}\right)$ (hence $d_{m}$ has no periodic points there) and the computation from the base case can be repeated to show $\check{c}_{3}{\overline{d_{1}}}^{k}(x)={\overline{d_{2}}}^{k}(x)<J_{m-3 k}\left(c_{4}\right)$ for all $x$ less than the right endpoint of $J_{m}\left(c_{g}\right)$. This process can be iterated; defining $J_{m}\left(d_{i}\right)$ and repeating first the calculation from Lemma 3.26, then the computation from the base case, for the homeomorphisms $d_{i}, c_{i+2}, \ldots c_{g}$ each time. The result is a description of periodic sets of the $d_{i}$ in cyclic order exactly as in the statement of the Lemma.

Finally, we discuss the images of periodic points of the $d_{i}$.
Lemma 3.28. Keeping the notation from before, let $I_{m}^{ \pm}$denote the minimal intervals (possibly singletons) satisfying the conclusion of the Lemma above. Then we have, for all $m \in \mathbb{Z}$,

$$
I_{m-(2 i+1)}^{+}\left(d_{i}\right)<\overline{d_{i}}\left(I_{m}^{ \pm}\left(d_{i+1}\right)<J_{m-(2 i+1)}\left(c_{i+2}\right)\right.
$$

Proof. The first inequality is immediate, given that $\tilde{\operatorname{rot}}\left(\overline{d_{i}}\right)=\frac{-(2 i+1)}{k}$. The second inequality can be deduced from the locations of periodic points, as follows. Assume for simplicity that $m=0$. If instead there is some $x \in I_{0}^{ \pm}\left(d_{i+1}\right)$ and $y \in J_{-(2 i+1)}\left(c_{i}\right)$ with $\overline{d_{i}}(x)>y$ then using the fact that $\tilde{\operatorname{rot}}\left(\overline{c_{i+2}}\right)=-1 / k$ and that $J\left(c_{i+2}\right)$ is $c_{i+2}$-invariant, we have $\overline{d_{i+1}}(x)=$ $\overline{c_{i+2}} \overline{d_{i}}(x)>J_{-2 i-3}\left(c_{i}\right)$. Since $J_{-2 i-3}\left(c_{i}\right)>I_{-2 i-3}^{-}\left(d_{i+1}\right)$, we conclude that ${\overline{d_{i+1}}}^{k}(x)>I_{k(-2 i-3)}^{-}\left(d_{i+1}\right)$. However, since $I_{0}^{-}\left(d_{i+1}\right)$ was assumed minimal, and $I_{0}^{+}\left(d_{i+1}\right)<I_{0}^{-}\left(d_{i+1}\right)$, there is some point $x^{\prime}>x$ in $I_{0}^{-}\left(d_{i+1}\right)$ that is periodic for $d_{i+1}$, i.e ${\overline{d_{i+1}}}^{k}\left(x^{\prime}\right)=x^{\prime}+(-2 i-3) \in I_{k(-2 i-3)}^{-}\left(d_{i+1}\right)$. But this contradicts the inequality above.
3.5. Basic partitions and combinations. We keep the decomposition of the surface and the notation $c_{i}$ and $d_{i}$ from the previous section. Our next goal is to show that the cyclic order of periodic points and basic dynamics of the curves $a_{i}, b_{i}, c_{i}$ and $d_{i}$ established so far is sufficient information to determine the dynamics of $\rho$, namely, that it is geometric. For this, we apply tools developed by Matsumoto that allow one to recover a geometric representation from this kind of essentially combinatorial data. The first of these tools is a Basic Partition.

Definition 3.29 (Matsumoto [21]). Let $G$ be a group generated by a finite symmetric set $S$, and let $\rho: G \rightarrow$ Homeo $^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$. A Basic Partition (BP) for $\rho(G)$ is a collection $P$ of disjoint closed intervals of $S^{1}$ satisfying
i) for each $I \in P$, there is a unique $s_{I} \in S$ such that $\rho\left(s_{I}\right)(I)$ is a union of $m=m(I)$ elements of $P$ and $m-1$ complementary intervals to $P$,
ii) for any $s \neq s_{I}$ in $S$, the image $\rho(s)(I)$ is a proper subset of an element of $P$, and
iii) for any complementary interval $J$ to $P$ and $s \in S$, either $\rho(s)(I)$ is contained in the interior of $P$, or is a complementary interval to $P$.

These properties of a BP (reminiscent of a Markov partition) imply that the cyclic order of the images of the endpoints of intervals in the BP under the elements $s \in S$ is determined by the cyclic order of the intervals $I$, and the intervals containing or comprising their images under the $s_{t}$. This observation, together with an inductive argument on word length, allows Matsumoto to prove the following.

Theorem 3.30 (4.7 in [21]). Let $\rho_{1}$ and $\rho_{2} \in \operatorname{Hom}\left(G, \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)\right) . S u p-$ pose that $\rho_{1}$ has a basic partition $P$. If there exists $\xi \in \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$ such that $\{\xi(I): I \in P\}$ is a BP for $\rho_{2}$ respecting the group action (i.e. with $s_{I}=s_{\xi(I)}$ and $s_{I}(x) \in J \Leftrightarrow s_{\xi(I)} \xi(x) \in J$ for any endpoint of a BP interval $x)$, then $\rho_{1}$ and $\rho_{2}$ are semi-conjugate.

The following is an essential and elementary example of a BP.
Example 3.31 (Basic Partition for one-holed torus groups). Let $G=\langle a, b\rangle$, and suppose that $a$ and $b$ are two hyperbolic elements of $\operatorname{PSL}(2, \mathbb{R})$ in 1Schottky position, with fixed points in cyclic order $a^{-}, b^{+}, a^{+}, b^{-}$. Let $x$ and $y$ be the repelling and attracting fixed points o $[a, b]$, respectively. Then the points

$$
y, x, b(y), b(x), a b(y), b a(x), a(y), a(x)
$$

are in cyclic order, and the intervals

$$
[x, b(y)],[b(x), a b(y)],[b a(x), a(y)],[a(x), y]
$$

are a BP for $\rho(T)$. This is illustrated in Figure 6 (left).
Checking that the BP conditions hold in this example is easy and left to the reader. See [21, Ex 4.2].

Motivated by this, we call such a BP the standard geometric BP for a one-holed torus group. Similarly, we have

Example 3.32 (Basic Partition for pants subgroups). Let $G=\langle a, b\rangle$, and suppose that $a$ and $b$ are 1-Schottky, with domains in cyclic order $I^{+}(a)$, $I^{-}(b), I^{+}(b), I^{-}(a)$. Then there is a BP for $a$ and $b$ as illustrated in Figure 6.

It is a straightforward exercise to show that, if $\rho$ is an action of $G$ on $S^{1}$ that lifts to an action $\hat{\rho}$ on a $k$-fold cover of $S^{1}$, then the pre-image of a BP for $\rho$ is a BP for $\hat{\rho}$ (see Lemma 4.8 in [21]). In particular, one can easily check that if $a$ and $b$ are $k$-Schottky with components of $I^{ \pm}(a)$ and $I^{ \pm}(b)$ alternating, then they have a BP which is a lift of the one in Example 3.31. Similarly, if instead, $a$ and $b$ are $k$-Schottky with cyclic order of intervals $\left.\left(I^{+}(a), I^{-}(b), I^{+}(b), I^{-}(a)\right)\right)_{k}$, then they have a BP that is a lift of the partition in Example 3.32.

So far, our examples of BP's lend themselves to actions of free groups. To pass to amalgamated products, Matsumoto defines a Basic Configuration or $B C$. To define a Basic Configuration $(B C)$, one starts with a group $G$, a homomorphism $\rho: G \rightarrow \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$, and a decomposition of $G$ into a


Figure 6. Two examples of Basic Partitions and "entrances" for cyclic subgroups
tree of groups such that the edge groups are all infinite cyclic. With this data, a BC consists of a set of Basic Partitions with disjoint interiors, one for each vertex group. For each edge group $G_{e} \cong\langle g\rangle$ adjacent to a vertex group $G_{v}$, the entrance $E_{\langle g\rangle}$ to the BP of $v$ for $e$ is defined to be the set of complementary intervals whose stabilizers are nontrivial subgroups of the cyclic group $G_{e}$. If $v$ and $v^{\prime}$ are adjacent to $e$, then we require that their entrances for $e$ have disjoint interiors, and union equal to $S^{1}$. This, together with a few other minor technical conditions (for brevity, we do not give the full list here, but refer the reader to [21, Assumption 6.3]), ensures that the vertex-group BP's satisfy a "combination theorem" reminiscent of the Klein-Maskit combination theorem, for any two vertex groups that share an edge.

The result is that the combinatorial data of a BC determines the cyclic order of the orbit of a point under $\rho(G)$, and hence determines the semiconjugacy class of the group action. More precisely, given a decomposition of $G$ as a tree of groups and $\rho_{1}, \rho_{2} \in \operatorname{Hom}\left(G, \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)\right)$, Matsumoto shows the following.

Theorem 3.33 (Matsumoto). Suppose that $\rho_{1}$ admits a BC, with $P_{V}$ denoting the corresponding $B P$ for each vertex group $V \subset G$. If there exists $\xi \in \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$ such that, for each $V$, the image $\xi\left(P_{V}\right)$ is a BP for $\rho_{2}(V)$ respecting the group action (as in Theorem 3.30), then $\rho_{1}$ and $\rho_{2}$ are semiconjugate.

The key example of a BC is that which comes from the decomposition of a surface group into a tree of groups corresponding to a decomposition of the surface into pants and one-holed-torus subsurfaces, exactly as in Figure 4. Using this decomposition, Matsumoto shows that the standard Fuchsian action of $\Gamma_{g}$, and hence any lift of this action to a finite cover of the circle admits a Basic Configuration. Following our previous terminology, we call these standard geometric BCs. Thus, to finish the proof of Theorem 3.3, we need to show that for our (path-rigid, minimal, $S_{k}$ ) action $\rho$ admits a standard geometric BC.

End of Proof of Theorem 3.3. First consider the restriction of $\rho$ to a vertex subgroup of the form $\left\langle a_{i}, b_{i}\right\rangle$. By proposition 3.17, these are $k$-Schottky, hence semi-conjugate to the $\operatorname{PSL}^{k}(2, \mathbb{R})$ geometric action of a one-holed torus
subgroup. Thus, they admit a BP that agrees with a $k$-fold lift of the standard geometric BP for a one-holed torus group. If these are chosen as in Example 3.31, then Lemma 3.27 implies that the BP's for distinct vertex subgroups are pairwise disjoint.

For the vertex subgroups corresponding to pants subsurfaces, Lemmas 3.27 and 3.28 imply that these admit a BP that agrees with a $k$-fold lift of the standard geometric BP for a pair of pants, which can be chosen as in Example 3.32. Indeed, this was the purpose of proving both of these lemmas in the previous section! The configuration of periodic points in Lemma 3.27 also implies that these can be chosen pairwise disjoint, and disjoint from the partitions for the one-holed torus vertex groups.

Since all of these BP's agree with $k$-fold lifts of the standard geometric BPs, they satisfy Matsumoto's additional hypothesis on stabilizers making them "pure" BPs. Moreover, if $V_{1}$ and $V_{2}$ are the vertex groups for some edge with edge group $c_{i}$ or $d_{j}$, then Lemma 3.27 implies that the BP's can be chosen so that the entrances for this edge group have disjoint interiors, and union equal to $S^{1}$. There is actually some flexibility in choice of intervals in the BP here since the "blocks" containing periodic points of the edge group generators - the white boxes in Figure 5 - can be included either in BP intervals or in entrances. However, many possible choices satisfy Matsumoto's combination conditions, for instance, one can choose the complements of $J\left(c_{1}\right)$ and $J\left(c_{2}\right)$ to be the entrances for $c_{1}$ and $c_{2}$ in the BPs for $\left\langle a_{1}, b_{1}\right\rangle$ and $\left\langle a_{2}, b_{2}\right\rangle$ respectively; this determines the choice of intervals in the $B P$ for the pants subgroup bordering $T\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right)$ and $T\left(a_{2}, b_{2}\right)$, and one can proceed iteratively from there. Were the white boxes all single points, the choice would be canonical.

Chosen this way, these BPs form a combinable pair as in [21, Def 5.2], with the same combinatorial data as a $k$-fold lift of a Fuchsian representation. With this input, all the conditions of being a BC are satisfied, and Theorem 3.33 now says that $\rho$ is semi-conjugate to a $k$-fold lift of a Fuchsian representation.

## 4. Periodic considerations

As explained in the introduction, the content of this section is the proof of the following two statements.

Proposition 4.1. If a representation $\pi_{1} \Sigma_{q} \rightarrow G$ is path-rigid then all non separating simple closed curves have rational rotation number.

Theorem 4.2. Suppose $\rho$ is path-rigid and minimal. Then, for all $a, b$ with $i(a, b)= \pm 1$, we have the implication

$$
\operatorname{Per}(a) \cap \operatorname{Per}(b)=\varnothing \Rightarrow S_{k}(a, b) \text { for some } k .
$$

4.1. No irrational simple closed curve. We begin with the proof of Proposition 4.1. For $f \in \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$ with $\operatorname{rot}(f) \notin \mathbb{Q}$, we denote its minimal set by $K(f)$.
Lemma 4.3. Let $\rho:\langle a, b\rangle \rightarrow \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$ be a representation such that $\operatorname{rot}(\rho(a)) \notin \mathbb{Q}$. Then at least one of these holds:
(1) $K(\rho(a))$ is $\rho(b)$-invariant
(2) there exists a continuous deformation $\rho_{t}$ of $\rho$, with $\rho_{t}([a, b])=\rho([a, b])$ for all $t$, and $\gamma \in\langle a, b\rangle$ such that $\operatorname{rot}\left(\rho_{t}(\gamma)\right)$ is non-constant.

Proof. If $\rho(a)$ is conjugate to a rotation (i.e. if $K(\rho(a))=S^{1}$ ), then it lies in a one-parameter group of rotations, $a_{t}$, and in this case we may perform a bending deformation replacing $\rho(b)$ with $a_{t} \rho(b)$, which has nonconstant rotation number.

Thus, we now suppose that $K=K(\rho(a))$ is a Cantor set, and suppose that $\rho(b)(K) \neq K$. We will treat the case that $\rho(b)(K) \notin K$, and leave the case $\rho(b)^{-1}(K) \notin K$, symmetric, to the reader. In this case, we will first find $N \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $\operatorname{rot}\left(\rho\left(a^{N} b\right)\right)=0$, and then define the deformation of $\rho$.

Let $K^{\prime} \subset K$ be the set of two-sided accumulation points of $K$. Since $\overline{K^{\prime}}=K$, there exists $x \in K^{\prime}$ such that $\rho(b)(x) \notin K$. Let $I$ be the connected component of $S^{1} \backslash K$ containing $\rho(b)(x)$. Then $\rho(b)^{-1}(I)$ is a neighborhood of $x$, and since $K$ is the minimal closed set invariant by $\rho(a)$, there exists a power $N \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $\rho(a)^{N}(I) \subset \rho(b)^{-1}(I)$. It follows that $\rho(a)^{N}(I)$ is an attracting interval for $\rho\left(a^{N} b\right)$, hence $\operatorname{rot}\left(\rho\left(a^{N} b\right)\right)=0$.

Now let $\beta_{t}$ be a positive one-parameter family commuting with $\rho\left(a^{N} b\right)$. We claim that a bending deformation along $a^{N} b$ will change the rotation number of $a$. To see this, let $J$ be a connected component of $S^{1} \backslash \rho\left(a^{N} b\right)$. Since $\rho\left(a^{N} b\right)$ does not preserve $K$, we can choose such a $J$ that intersects $K^{\prime}$, and find $m$ such that $\rho(a)^{m}(J) \cap J \neq \varnothing$. Let $\tilde{x} \in \mathbb{R}$ be a lift of a point in $\rho(a)^{m}(J) \cap J$.

Adapting the notation from Section 2.2.3 we have

$$
\Delta\left(\tilde{x}, t_{1}, \ldots, t_{M}\right)=\widehat{\beta_{t_{M}}} \widehat{\rho(a)} \circ \cdots \circ \widehat{\beta_{t_{1}}} \widehat{\rho(a)}(\tilde{x})-\tilde{x}-k,
$$

and $\delta(\tilde{x}, t)=\Delta(\tilde{x}, t, \ldots, t)$. Up to changing orientation, we can suppose that $\delta(\tilde{x}, 0)>0$. Since the open interval $\tilde{J}$ contains both $\tilde{x}$ and $\widehat{\rho(a)}^{M}(\tilde{x})$, there exists $t<0$ such that $\Delta(\tilde{x}, 0, \ldots, 0, t)<0$, hence $\delta(\tilde{x}, t)<0$. Thus, there exists $t_{0}$ such that $\delta\left(\tilde{x}, t_{0}\right)=0$, hence $\operatorname{rot}\left(\rho_{t_{0}}(a)\right)=\frac{k}{M} \in \mathbb{Q}$.

Now we can prove the proposition.
Proof of Proposition 4.1. By contradiction, suppose that there exists some non-separating simple curve $a$ with $\rho(a) \notin \mathbb{Q}$. After semi-conjugacy, we may assume that $\rho$ is minimal. By path-rigidity and Lemma $4.3, \rho(a)$ cannot be a rotation, so $K(\rho(a))$ is a genuine Cantor set. Also, for all $b$ with $|i(a, b)|=1$, the set $K(\rho(a))$ is $\rho(b)$-invariant. But $\pi_{1} \Sigma_{g}$ is generated by such curves $b$ (indeed, if ( $a_{1}, b_{1}, \ldots, a_{g}, b_{g}$ ) is a standard generating set, and if $a=a_{1}$, consider the new generating set ( $\left.a_{1} b_{1}, b_{1}, a_{2} b_{1}^{-1}, b_{1} b_{2}, \ldots, a_{g} b_{1}^{-1}, b_{1} b_{g}\right)$ ). It follows that $K(\rho(a))$ is invariant by the whole action, contradicting minimality.
4.2. Proof of Theorem 4.2. We assume now that $\rho$ is path-rigid, and $i(a, b)= \pm 1$. We will first establish some properties that do not use minimality, thus are robust under deformations of $\rho$. We will assume that $\rho$ is minimal only in the end of the proof. By the $\operatorname{Proposition~4.1,~} \operatorname{Per}(a)$ and $\operatorname{Per}(b)$ are nonempty, and we assume for the rest of this section that $\operatorname{Per}(a) \cap \operatorname{Per}(b)=\varnothing$. As before, for simplicity, we drop the notation $\rho$.

The strategy of the proof is to first show that $a$ and $b$ look like they are semi-conjugate to elements satisfying $S_{k}(a, b)$, namely, if one takes each interval in $S^{1} \backslash \operatorname{Per}(a)$ that does not contain a point of $\operatorname{Per}(b)$ and collapses its closure to a point (and then repeats with the roles of $a$ and $b$ reversed), the remaining periodic points are attracting and repelling and alternate around the circle. We will then show that this collapse can be realized by a deformation of $\rho$, and we attain $S_{k}(a, b)$ if $\rho$ is minimal. Much of this work will depend on the observation that the hypothesis that $\operatorname{Per}(a) \cap \operatorname{Per}(b)=\varnothing$ is invariant under deformations of the action.

We begin by discussing some basic combinatorics of periodic sets. Borrowing notation from the previous section, say that a connected component of $S^{1} \backslash(\operatorname{Per}(a) \cup \operatorname{Per}(b))$ is of type $(x, y)$ if, with its natural orientation from the circle, it is bounded to the left by a point of $\operatorname{Per}(x)$ and to the right by a point of $\operatorname{Per}(y)$, for $x, y \in\{a, b\}$. Note that each $(a, b)$ interval is followed by a collection (perhaps empty) of $(b, b)$ intervals, and then a $(b, a)$ interval. As the sets $\operatorname{Per}(a)$ and $\operatorname{Per}(b)$ are closed and disjoint, this implies that there exists an integer $m=m(\rho) \geqslant 1$ such that $S^{1}$ contains exactly $m$ intervals of type $(a, b)$ and $m$ intervals of type $(b, a)$, which alternate around the circle. By Remark 2.31, the integer $m$ depends only on the semi-conjugacy class of $\rho$.

Definition 4.4. Let $X_{a}:=\left\{I\right.$ connected component of $S^{1} \backslash \operatorname{Per}(a): I \cap$ $\operatorname{Per}(b) \neq \varnothing\}$, and say that an interval $I$ in $X_{a}$ is positive if $a^{q(a)}$ is increasing on $I$, and negative otherwise.

Likewise, we define $X_{b}$, and its positive and negative intervals, by reversing the roles of $a$ and $b$ in the definition. Since the leftmost points of intervals in $X_{a}$ are exactly the leftmost points of the $(a, b)$ intervals, we have $\left|X_{a}\right|=m$.

Lemma 4.5. The set $X_{a}$ is $\rho(a)$-invariant, and the subset of positive (respectively, negative) intervals in $X_{a}$ is also $\rho(a)$-invariant.

Proof. Let $I \in X_{a}$ be a positive interval; we will use path-rigidity show that its image under $a$ is another positive interval in $X_{a}$. The negative case is completely analogous.

For all $n \in \mathbb{Z}, a^{n}(I)$ is an interval between two consecutive periodic points of $a$, and on which $a^{q(a)}$ is increasing. Thus, for all $n, a^{n}(I)$ cannot be one of the negative intervals in $X_{a}$, and we need only show that $a(I) \in X_{a}$.

Suppose for contradiction that $a(I) \notin X_{a}$, i.e. that $a(I) \cap \operatorname{Per}(b)=\varnothing$. Then $a(\bar{I}) \subset J$ for some $J \in X_{b}$, by definition of $X_{a}$ and $X_{b}$. We will use a bending deformation in $b$ to produce a common periodic point for $a$ and $b$, giving a contradiction.

Let $b_{t}$ be a positive one-parameter family commuting with $b$, let $x \in I \cap$ $\operatorname{Per}(b)$, and take lifts $\tilde{x} \in \tilde{I}$ of $x$ and $I$ to $\mathbb{R}$. We have $\delta_{b, a}(\tilde{x}, 0)>0$, since $I$ is a positive interval in $X_{a}$. If $t<0$ is negative enough that $b_{t}(I) \cap I=\varnothing$, then we have $\widehat{b_{t}}(\widehat{a}(\tilde{x}))<\widehat{a}(\tilde{I})$ and hence $\widehat{a}^{q(a)-1}\left(\widehat{b_{t}}(\widehat{a}(\tilde{x}))\right)<\tilde{I}+k$. It follows that $\Delta_{b, a}(\tilde{x}, t, 0, \ldots, 0)<0$, so $\delta_{b, a}(\tilde{x}, t)<0$. In particular, there exists $t_{0} \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $\delta_{b, a}\left(x, t_{0}\right)=0$, i.e. $x \in \operatorname{Per}\left(b_{t_{0}} a\right) \cap \operatorname{Per}(b)$; this contradicts path-rigidity via Lemma 2.30.

Obviously, reversing the roles of $a$ and $b$ above shows the positive and negative intervals of $X_{b}$ are $b$-invariant.

While Remark 2.31 (and path-rigidity of $\rho$ ) showed that the cardinality of $S(a)$ and $S(b)$ are constant under deformations, the next lemma shows that the sets themselves are constant under particular bending deformations.

Lemma 4.6. Let $b_{t}$ be a positive one-parameter family commuting with $b$. For all $t \in \mathbb{R}$, let $X_{b}(t)$ denote the set of connected components $I$ of $S^{1} \backslash$ $\operatorname{Per}(b)$ such that $I \cap \operatorname{Per}\left(b_{t} a\right) \neq \varnothing$. Then $X_{b}(t)=X_{b}(0)$ for all $t$.
Proof. Let $X_{b}(t)$ be as in the statement of the lemma, and let $X_{a}(t)$ denote the set of connected components of $S^{1} \backslash \operatorname{Per}\left(b_{t} a\right)$ containing points of $\operatorname{Per}(b)$, for $t \in \mathbb{R}$.

Let $K_{a}=\left\{(x, t) \in S^{1} \times \mathbb{R} \mid x \in \operatorname{Per}\left(b_{t} a\right)\right\}$, and $K_{b}=\operatorname{Per}(b) \times \mathbb{R}$. These are closed, disjoint sets, and their intersections with each horizontal slice $S^{1} \times\{t\}$ give the periodic sets for $b_{t} a$ and $b$.

For each connected component $I \subset S^{1} \backslash \operatorname{Per}(b)$, we set

$$
T_{I}=\left\{t \in \mathbb{R} \mid I \in X_{b}(t)\right\}=\left\{t \in \mathbb{R} \mid I \cap \operatorname{Per}\left(b_{t} a\right) \neq \varnothing\right\}
$$

This is a closed set. Indeed, $\bar{I}$ being compact, the second projection, on the product space $\bar{I} \times \mathbb{R}$, is a closed map, and $T_{I}$ is the image of $K_{a}$ by this map. We claim $T_{I}$ is also open. To see this, let $t_{0} \in T_{I}$, and let $I_{2}, \ldots, I_{m}$ be the other components of $S^{1} \backslash \operatorname{Per}(b)$ such that $t_{0} \in T_{I_{j}}$. If $d>0$ is the distance (for the product metric) between the disjoint compact $\operatorname{sets}\left(S^{1} \times\left[t_{0}-1, t_{0}+1\right]\right) \cap K_{a}$ and $\left(S^{1} \times\left[t_{0}-1, t_{0}+1\right]\right) \cap K_{b}$, let $I_{m+1}, \ldots, I_{N}$ be the remaining connected components of $S^{1} \backslash \operatorname{Per}(b)$ of length $\geqslant d$. Any component $J$ of shorter length obviously satisfies $T_{J} \cap\left[t_{0}-1, t_{0}+1\right]=\varnothing$. Since the sets $T_{I_{j}}$ are closed, there exists $\varepsilon>0$ such that $(-\varepsilon, \varepsilon) \cap T_{I_{j}}=\varnothing$ for all $j \geqslant m+1$. It follows that $(-\varepsilon, \varepsilon)$ is contained in $T_{I}$, for otherwise the number $m$ would fail to be constant. This proves that $T_{I}$ is open, hence equal to $\varnothing$ or $\mathbb{R}$, and the intervals in $X_{b}(t)$ do actually not depend on $t$.

The next lemma states that $a$ and $b$ look (on the level of periodic sets) as if they are semi-conjugate to hyperbolic elements of $\operatorname{PSL}^{k}(2, \mathbb{R})$, satisfying hypothesis $S_{k}(a, b)$.

Lemma 4.7. Every two consecutive intervals of $X_{a}$ (for the natural cyclic order from $S^{1}$ ) have opposite sign. In other words, $m=2 k$ for some $k \geqslant 1$, and the positive and negative intervals of $X_{a}$ alternate.

Proof. Let $b_{t}$ be a positive one-parameter family of homeomorphisms commuting with $\rho(b)$. Suppose for contradiction that $X_{a}$ has two successive positive intervals $I_{1}$ and $I_{2}$ (the negative case is analogous). Let $I \in X_{b}$ be the interval such that $I_{1} \cap I \neq \varnothing$ and $I_{2} \cap I \neq \varnothing$. Take $x \in I_{1} \backslash I$ such that $a^{q(a)}(x) \in I$. For $t$ large enough, $b_{t} a^{q(a)}(x)$ can be taken arbitrarily close to the right endpoint of $I$, hence $a^{q(a)} b_{t} a^{q(a)}(x) \in I_{2} \backslash I$. Since $b_{t}$ has positive dynamics, it follows that $\left(b_{t} a^{q(a)}\right)^{2}$ moves every point of $I$ to the right, thus, $\Delta_{b, a}(y, 0, \ldots, 0, t)>0$ for all $y \in I$. It follows that $\operatorname{Per}\left(b_{t} a\right) \cap I=\varnothing$ for $t$ large enough, but this contradicts Lemma 4.6.

As a consequence of this lemma, the intervals of $X_{a}$ and $X_{b}$ can be labelled, in their natural cyclic order (the cyclic order in which their leftmost points
appear on $\left.S^{1}\right)$, as $\left(\left(I_{a}^{+}, I_{b}^{+}, I_{a}^{-}, I_{b}^{-}\right)\right)_{k}$ or $\left(\left(I_{a}^{+}, I_{b}^{-}, I_{a}^{-}, I_{b}^{+}\right)\right)_{k}$, borrowing the notation from Secion 3.

Lemma 4.8. Let $I \in X_{b}$ have left endpoint in a positive interval of $X_{a}$. Then $a(I) \subset J$ for some $J \in X_{b}$. If instead $I \in X_{b}$ has left endpoint in a negative interval of $X_{a}$, then $a^{-1}(I) \subset J$ for some $J \in X_{b}$.

Note that, because periodic points alternate and positive and negative intervals alternate, in both cases, $J$ is a positive interval of $X_{b}$ if and only if $I$ is. Of course, the statement of the lemma also holds with the roles of $a$ and $b$ exchanged.

Proof. Let $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots x_{6}$ be points in cyclic order such that $\left(x_{1}, x_{3}\right)$ and $\left(x_{4}, x_{6}\right)$ are consecutive (positive and negative, respectively) intervals in $X_{a}$, and $I=\left(x_{2}, x_{5}\right) \in X_{b}$. Let $y_{i}=a\left(x_{i}\right)$ for $i=1,3,4,6$. Then $\left(y_{1}, y_{3}\right)$ and $\left(y_{4}, y_{6}\right) \in X_{a}$ and both intersect some interval of $X_{b}$, say $\left(y_{2}, y_{5}\right)$. The statement of the lemma is that $a\left(x_{5}\right) \leqslant y_{5}$ and $a\left(x_{2}\right) \geqslant y_{2}$.

Similar to the Proof of Lemma 4.5, we assume the contrary and find a deformation with a common periodic point for $a$ and $b$. Suppose that $a\left(x_{5}\right)>y_{5}$ (the proof of the other inequality is symmetric), and choose a positive one-parameter family $b_{t}$ commuting with $b$. Since $a^{-1}\left(y_{5}\right) \in\left(x_{2}, x_{5}\right)$, there exists $t \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $b_{t} a^{-1}\left(y_{5}\right) \in\left(x_{1}, x_{3}\right)$. As $\left(y_{1}, y_{3}\right)$ is $a^{q(a)}$-invariant, it follows that $a^{-q(a)+1} b_{t} a^{-1}\left(y_{5}\right)<y_{5}$, ie, $\Delta_{b, a}\left(y_{5}, 0, \ldots, 0, t, 0\right)>0$. On the other hand, as $\left(y_{4}, y_{6}\right)$ is a negative interval of $X_{a}$, we have $\delta_{b, a}\left(y_{5}, 0\right)<0$. It follows that for a suitable $t_{0} \in \mathbb{R}, y_{5}$ is a periodic point of $b_{t_{0}} a$. But it is a periodic point of $b$ as well: together with Lemma 2.30, this contradicts the path-rigidity of $\rho$. The statement concerning $\rho(a)^{-1}$ is symmetric, and proved in the same manner.

Now we state a lemma of purely technical nature, that will allow us to compress the periodic sets, in each interval of $X_{a} \cup X_{b}$, to singletons. In the statement and proof, we use $\tau_{t}: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ to denote the translation $x \mapsto x+t$.

Lemma 4.9. Let $n \geqslant 1$, and for all $i=1, \ldots, n$, let $f_{i}$ be an increasing homeomorphism from $\mathbb{R}$ to some interval $\left(a_{i}, b_{i}\right) \subset \mathbb{R}$. Assume that $a_{i}>-\infty$ for at least one $i$, and that $b_{j}<+\infty$ for at least one $j$. For all $t \in \mathbb{R}$, we set $F_{t}=\tau_{t} \circ f_{n} \circ \cdots \circ \tau_{t} \circ f_{1}$. Then, there exists a subset $N \subset \mathbb{R}$ of finite Lebesgue measure and consisting of a countable union of segments, such that for all $t \notin N$, the map $F_{t}$ admits a unique fixed point in $\mathbb{R}$.

Let us postpone the proof of this lemma to the next paragraph, and use it now to finish the proof of Theorem 4.2.

Proof of Theorem 4.2. Assume now that $\rho$ is minimal. Let $b_{t}$ be a positive one-parameter family commuting with the action of $b$. We will first prove that for some $t, b_{t} a$ has exactly $2 k$ periodic points; the conclusion will then follow easily.

Let $X_{a}^{+}$denote the set of positive intervals of $X_{a}$. As observed in Lemma 4.5, $\rho(a)$ induces a permutation of $X_{a}^{+}$; which has say, $\ell$ orbits, all of cardinality $n=k / \ell$. Fix an interval $I_{0} \in X_{b}$ whose left endpoint lies in an element of $X_{a}^{+}$. By successive applications of Lemma 4.8, for $m=1,2, \ldots n-1$ we have $\rho(a)^{m}\left(I_{0}\right) \subset I_{m}$ for some $I_{m} \in X_{b}$, and $\rho(a)^{n}\left(I_{0}\right) \subset I_{0}$ because $\rho(a)^{n}$
fixes $X_{a}^{+}$. Note that, there must exist some $m$ such that $\rho(a)\left(I_{m-1}\right) \subset I_{m}$ is a strict inclusion at the left endpoint (and similarly, another for the right endpoint) as otherwise $a$ and $b$ would have an endpoint of $I_{0}$ as a common periodic point.

For each $j$, let $\phi_{j}: I_{j} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a homeomorphism such that $\phi_{j} \circ b_{t} \circ \phi_{j}^{-1}=\tau_{t}$, and for $j \in\{1, \ldots, n\}$, set $f_{j}=\phi_{j+1} \circ a \circ \phi_{j}^{-1}$, using cyclic notation for the last index. Then, Lemma 4.9 applies, and provides a set $N_{I_{0}} \subset \mathbb{R}$ of finite Lebesgue measure, such that for all $t \notin N_{I_{0}},\left(b_{t} a\right)^{n}=\phi_{1}^{-1} \circ F_{t} \circ \phi_{1}$ has a unique fixed point in $I_{0}$.

We repeat this procedure for each element $I$ of $X_{b}$, using $a^{-1}$, instead of $a$, for the intervals of $X_{b}$ whose left endpoint lies in a negative interval of $X_{a}$. The resulting, finitely many, sets $N_{I}$, each of finite Lebesgue measure, cannot cover $\mathbb{R}$, hence there exists $t \in \mathbb{R}$ such that each element of $X_{b}$ contains a unique periodic point of $b_{t} a$. By Lemma 4.6, $b_{t} a$ does not have any other periodic points, hence $b_{t} a$ admits exactly $2 k$ periodic points. As $b_{t} a$ is obtained by a bending deformation that does not change $a$, by Lemma 4.7 these $2 k$ periodic points have alternating attracting and repelling dynamics. One may now repeat the same procedure reversing the roles of $a$ and $b$, to obtain a further deformation where $b$ has exactly $2 k$ periodic points, that are alternately attracting and repelling. If $\rho$ is assumed to be minimal, by Observation 2.24 , this was originally true of $\rho$.
4.3. Proving Lemma 4.9. The statement of Lemma 4.9 came from our attempt to understand the argument in the first four lines of page 644 in [5]. The case $n=1$ of Lemma 4.9 gives an alternative end of the proof of $[5$, Lemma 2.7].

To give an outline of the major ideas, we sketch the proof in the (easier) case $n=1$. Suppose, for all $t, x \in \mathbb{R}$ we have $F_{t}(x)=f(x)+t$, where $f$ is an increasing homeomorphism from $\mathbb{R}$ to a bounded interval $(a, b)$. Define $T(x):=x-f(x)$; so $T(x)$ is the unique number such that $x$ is a fixed point of $F_{T(x)}$. We want to prove that most $t$ are realized as $T(x)$ by a unique $x$. If $T\left(x_{1}\right)=T\left(x_{2}\right)$ for some $x_{1}<x_{2}$, then we have $f\left(x_{2}\right)-f\left(x_{1}\right)=x_{2}-x_{1}$, ie, the intervals $\left[f\left(x_{1}\right), f\left(x_{2}\right)\right]$ and $\left[x_{1}, x_{2}\right]$ have the same length, say $\ell$. Since $T$ cannot increase faster than the identity map, all elements $x \in\left[x_{1}, x_{2}\right]$ have $\left|T(x)-T\left(x_{1}\right)\right| \leqslant \ell$. In summary, although we have found a segment $\left[T\left(x_{1}\right)-\ell, T\left(x_{1}\right)+\ell\right]$ of length $2 \ell$ that contains $t$ 's which may have several preimages under $T$, it has cost us the length $\ell$ in the image of $f$, and this reservoir is finite.

Now let us turn this into a precise proof, in the general case $n \geqslant 1$.
Proof of Lemma 4.9. We will show that there exists a countable union of segments, $N_{+} \subset \mathbb{R}_{+}$, of finite Lebesgue measure, such that for all $t \in \mathbb{R}_{+} \backslash$ $N_{+}, F_{t}$ has a unique fixed point. The case for $t<0$ is symmetric and left to the reader.

Let $j$ be an index such that $b_{j}<+\infty$. Let $A_{t}=\tau_{t} \circ f_{j} \circ \cdots \circ \tau_{t} \circ f_{1}$, and $B_{t}=\tau_{t} \circ f_{n} \circ \cdots \circ \tau_{t} \circ f_{j+1}$. For fixed $t$, both maps $A_{t}$ and $B_{t}$ are homeomorphisms to their images so $F_{t}=B_{t} \circ A_{t}$ has a unique fixed point $x$ if and only if $A_{t} \circ B_{t}$ has a unique fixed point (in which case it is $B_{t}(x)$ ). In
other words, we may suppose without loss of generality that $j=n$. (For the $t<0$ case, one supposes instead that $a_{n}>-\infty$.)

Let $G(t, x)=f_{n} \circ \tau_{t} \circ f_{n-1} \circ \cdots \circ \tau_{t} \circ f_{1}(x)=F_{t}(x)-t$. This map $G$ is strictly increasing in the variable $x$, and increasing (strictly, if $n \geqslant 2$ ) in $t$. The monotonicity of $G$, and the assumptions $\sup \left(a_{j}\right)>-\infty$ and $b_{n}<+\infty$, imply that the range of the map $G: \mathbb{R}_{\geqslant 0} \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a bounded interval. Let $\left(a_{0}, b_{0}\right)$ denote this interval, with $b_{0}=b_{n}$.

If $x \geqslant b_{0}$, the map $t \mapsto F_{t}(x)$ is a homeomorphism between $\mathbb{R}_{\geqslant 0}$ and $\left[F_{0}(x),+\infty\right)$, and $F_{0}(x)=G(x, 0)<b_{0}$. Hence, there is a unique $t=T(x)$ such that $F_{t}(x)=x$. This defines a function $T:\left[b_{0},+\infty\right) \rightarrow(0,+\infty)$.
Sublemma 4.10. The map $T$ satisfies the following inequalities.
(T1) For every $x \in\left[b_{0},+\infty\right)$, we have $a_{0}<x-T(x)<b_{0}$.
(T2) For all $x_{1}, x_{2} \in\left[b_{0},+\infty\right)$ such that $x_{1}<x_{2}$, we have

$$
f_{1}\left(x_{1}\right)-f_{1}\left(x_{2}\right)<T\left(x_{2}\right)-T\left(x_{1}\right)<x_{2}-x_{1} .
$$

In particular, $T$ is continuous, at bounded distance from the identity, and its rate of increase is bounded above by 1 .
Proof. The inequality (T1) follows directly from the fact that the range of $G$ is $\left(a_{0}, b_{0}\right)$, and from the defining identity $F_{T(x)}(x)=x$ for all $x \geqslant b_{0}$. Let us turn to (T2).
Suppose $x_{1}<x_{2}$. If $T\left(x_{2}\right) \geqslant T\left(x_{1}\right)$ the first inequality holds trivially, so suppose $T\left(x_{2}\right)<T\left(x_{1}\right)$. By definition we have $F_{T\left(x_{1}\right)}\left(x_{1}\right)<F_{T\left(x_{2}\right)}\left(x_{2}\right)$, so $G\left(x_{1}, T\left(x_{1}\right)\right)<G\left(x_{2}, T\left(x_{2}\right)\right)$, ie
$f_{n} \circ \tau_{T\left(x_{1}\right)} \circ \ldots \circ f_{2}\left(f_{1}\left(x_{1}\right)+T\left(x_{1}\right)\right)<f_{n} \circ \tau_{T\left(x_{2}\right)} \circ \ldots \circ f_{2}\left(f_{1}\left(x_{2}\right)+T\left(x_{2}\right)\right)$.
As $t \mapsto f_{n} \circ \tau_{t} \circ \ldots \tau_{t} \circ f_{2}$ is increasing in $t$, we have
$f_{n} \circ \tau_{T\left(x_{2}\right)} \circ \ldots \circ f_{2}\left(f_{1}\left(x_{1}\right)+T\left(x_{1}\right)\right)<f_{n} \circ \tau_{T\left(x_{2}\right)} \circ \ldots \circ f_{2}\left(f_{1}\left(x_{2}\right)+T\left(x_{2}\right)\right)$,
hence $f_{1}\left(x_{1}\right)+T\left(x_{1}\right)<f_{1}\left(x_{2}\right)+T\left(x_{2}\right)$ and $f_{1}\left(x_{1}\right)-f_{1}\left(x_{2}\right)<T\left(x_{2}\right)-T\left(x_{1}\right)$.
For the second inequality, if $T\left(x_{2}\right) \leqslant T\left(x_{1}\right)$ it is automatically satisfied, as $x_{2}-x_{1}>0$, so suppose $T\left(x_{2}\right)>T\left(x_{1}\right)$. Since $G$ is increasing in $t$ and strictly increasing in $x$, we have $F_{T\left(x_{2}\right)}\left(x_{2}\right)-T\left(x_{2}\right)>F_{T\left(x_{1}\right)}\left(x_{1}\right)-T\left(x_{1}\right)$, ie, $T\left(x_{2}\right)-T\left(x_{1}\right)<x_{2}-x_{1}$.

Now, we define a map $H: \mathbb{R}_{\geqslant b_{0}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by $H(x)=\sup \left\{T\left(x^{\prime}\right), x^{\prime} \leqslant x\right\}$.
Lemma 4.11. The map $H: \mathbb{R}_{\geqslant b_{0}} \rightarrow\left[T\left(b_{0}\right),+\infty\right)$ is continuous, surjective, and for all $A \geqslant T\left(b_{0}\right)$, the set $H^{-1}(A)$ is a segment, $[a, b]$, with possibly $a=b$, and $T(a)=T(b)=A$.

This is an easy exercise in undergraduate analysis; we leave the details to the reader.

For the last step of the proof, let $W \subset\left[T\left(b_{0}\right),+\infty\right)$ be the set of all elements $w \in\left[T\left(b_{0}\right),+\infty\right)$ such that $H^{-1}(w)$ is not a singleton, and for all $w \in W$, write $H^{-1}(w)=\left[a_{w}, b_{w}\right]$.
Sublemma 4.12. The set $W$ is countable, and $\sum_{w \in W} b_{w}-a_{w} \leqslant b_{0}-a_{0}$.
Proof. First, since the segments $\left[a_{w}, b_{w}\right]$ all have positive length and are disjoint in $\left[b_{0},+\infty\right)$, there can only be countably many of them. Now, for any $w \in W$, we have $F_{w}\left(a_{w}\right)=a_{w}$ and $F_{w}\left(b_{w}\right)=b_{w}$, by Lemma 4.11. In
other words, $G\left(w, a_{w}\right)+w=a_{w}$ and $G\left(w, b_{w}\right)+w=b_{w}$. Thus, the segment $\left[G\left(w, a_{w}\right), G\left(w, b_{w}\right)\right]$ has the same length $b_{w}-a_{w}$.
Since the image of $G$ is an interval of length $b_{0}-a_{0}$, it suffices to prove that the segments $\left[G\left(w, a_{w}\right), G\left(w, b_{w}\right)\right]$ are pairwise disjoint. To do this, take $w_{1}, w_{2} \in W$, with $w_{1}<w_{2}$. Since $H$ is increasing, we have $b_{w_{1}}<a_{w_{2}}$. By monotonicity of $G$, we have $G\left(w_{1}, b_{w_{1}}\right)<G\left(w_{2}, a_{w_{2}}\right)$ and these segments are disjoint indeed.

Now, for all $w \in W$, define $N_{w}:=\left[w-\left(b_{w}-a_{w}\right), w\right]$, and define

$$
N_{+}=\left[0, b_{0}-a_{0}\right] \cup \bigcup_{w \in W} N_{w}
$$

This may not be a disjoint union, but, by Lemma 4.12, this countable union of segments has finite Lebesgue measure. Hence, the proof of Lemma 4.9 boils down to the following observation.

Sublemma 4.13. For all $t \in \mathbb{R}_{\geqslant 0} \backslash N_{+}$, the map $F_{t}$ admits a unique fixed point.

Proof. Let $t>b_{0}-a_{0}$ be such that $F_{t}$ has at least two distinct fixed points, say $x_{1}, x_{2}$ with $x_{1}<x_{2}$. We want to prove that $t \in N_{w}$ for some $w \in W$. By definition, the $x_{i}$ satisfy $G\left(t, x_{i}\right)+t=x_{i}$. Since $G(t, x)>a_{0}$ for all $x$, and $t>b_{0}-a_{0}$, this implies $x_{1}, x_{2} \in\left[b_{0},+\infty\right)$. By definition of the map $T$, we have $T\left(x_{1}\right)=T\left(x_{2}\right)=t$. Let $x_{0}=\min \left\{x \leqslant x_{2} \mid T(x)=H\left(x_{2}\right)\right\}$. Then $x_{0}<x_{2}$. Indeed, if $H\left(x_{2}\right)=t$ then $x_{0} \leqslant x_{1}$, and if $H\left(x_{2}\right)>t$ then the maximum $H\left(x_{2}\right)$ is reached at some point to the left of $x_{2}$. Thus, $x_{0}=a_{w}$ for some $w \in W$, and we also have $b_{w} \geqslant x_{2}$.

We claim now that $t \in N_{w}$. Since $x_{2} \leqslant b_{w}$, by definition of $H$ we have $w=H\left(b_{w}\right) \geqslant t=T\left(x_{2}\right)$. Applying inequality (T2) to $x_{2}$ and $b_{w}$ now gives $w-t \leqslant b_{w}-x_{2}$, so $w-t \leqslant b_{w}-a_{w}$, hence $t \geqslant w-\left(b_{w}-a_{w}\right)$. Thus we indeed have $t \in N_{w}$.

This concludes the proof of Lemma 4.9.

## 5. Proof of Theorem 1.6

In this section we finish the proof of the main result for path-rigid representations, showing that a path-rigid representation $\rho$ of $\pi_{1} \Sigma_{g}$ is either geometric, or (as an unlikely case) must have Euler class zero and a genus $g-1$ subsurface whose fundamental has finite orbit under $\rho$.
Definition 5.1. Let $\rho: \Gamma_{g} \rightarrow \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$, and let $T \subset \Sigma_{g}$ be a one-holed torus. We say $T$ is a good torus if $T$ contains a nonseparating simple closed curve $a$ with $\operatorname{rot}(\rho(a))=0$, and bad otherwise.

We say $T$ is very good if $\rho\left(\pi_{1}(T)\right)$ has a finite orbit in $S^{1}$.
Observation 5.2 (Very good implies good). Suppose that $T$ is very good, and let $a$ and $b$ be free generators for $\pi_{1}(T)$, represented by simple closed curves on $\Sigma_{g}$ with $i(a, b)= \pm$ (here orientation of curves is not important). Since $T$ is very good, rot is a homomorphism to a finite subgroup of $\mathbb{R} / \mathbb{Z}$. If $0 \neq|\operatorname{rot}(\rho(a))| \leqslant|\operatorname{rot}(\rho(b))|<1$, then there exists $n$ such that $\left|\operatorname{rot}\left(\rho\left(a^{n} b\right)\right)\right|<$ $|\operatorname{rot}(\rho(a))|$. Since $a, a^{n} b$ are again free generators represented by simple closed
curves, one may repeat this procedure until the process terminates with a simple closed curve of rotation number zero.

Assumption 5.3. For the remainder of this section, we assume that $\rho: \Gamma_{g} \rightarrow$ $\mathrm{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$ is path-rigid.

As in Section 3, we will frequently drop the notation $\rho$ when the context is clear, using $a$ to denote $\rho(a)$.
5.1. Bad tori. This subsection contains the proof of Proposition 1.11. Under our standing assumption that $\rho$ is path-rigid, we will show that if $\Sigma_{g}$ contains a bad torus $T$, then $\Sigma_{g} \backslash T$ contains only very good tori. We begin with some general preliminaries on rotation numbers in order to show that a bad torus $T$ always contains simple closed curves with rotation number arbitrarily close to zero. This means in particular that there are points "almost fixed" by simple closed curves in $T$. We then study these "almost fixed" points for some specific sequences of generators for $\pi_{1}(T)$, and leverage properties of these sets to show that there cannot exist two disjoint bad tori.

Definition 5.4. If $f, g \in \operatorname{Homeo}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{+}(\mathbb{R})$, we say that $g$ dominates $f$, and we write $f<g$, if we have $f(x)<g(x)$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

It is immediate that $<$ is a left- and right-invariant partial order on $\operatorname{Homeo}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{+}(\mathbb{R})$. Furthermore, it satisfies the following obvious properties.
(1) $\forall f, g \in \operatorname{Homeo}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{+}(\mathbb{R}), f>g \Leftrightarrow f^{-1}<g^{-1}$;
(2) $\forall f \in \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right), \widehat{f}>\operatorname{Id} \Leftrightarrow \operatorname{rot}(f) \neq 0$;
(3) $\forall f, g \in \operatorname{Homeo}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{+}(\mathbb{R}),\left\{\begin{array}{l}f<g \Rightarrow \widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}(f) \leqslant \widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}(g), \text { and } \\ (f<g \text { or } g<f) \Leftrightarrow \widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}\left(f^{-1} g\right) \neq 0 .\end{array}\right.$

Property (2) uses the notation $\hat{f}$ from Notation 2.16 , which is also adopted throughout this section. The following easy observation will be handy.
Observation 5.5. Let $f, g \in \operatorname{Homeo}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{+}(\mathbb{R})$. Suppose that $\widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}(f)<\widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}(g)$ and $\tilde{\operatorname{rot}}\left(g^{-1} f\right) \neq 0$. Then $f<g$.
Proof. If not, there exists $x_{0} \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $f\left(x_{0}\right) \geqslant g\left(x_{0}\right)$, hence $\widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}\left(g^{-1} f\right) \geqslant$ 0 . Thus, $\widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}\left(g^{-1} f\right)>0$, and this implies $g^{-1} f>\mathrm{Id}$, hence $f>g$ and $\underset{\operatorname{rot}}{ }(f) \geqslant \underset{\operatorname{rot}}{ }(g)$, a contradiction.

Building on this observation, we show that the infimum of rotation numbers of non-separating simple curves in a bad torus is necessarily zero. More precisely, we have the following.
Lemma 5.6. Let $(a, b)$ be standard generators of $a$ bad torus $T$. Then, there exist integers $m, n$, unique and well-defined modulo $q(a)$, with ( $n-$ $m) p(a)=1 \bmod q(a)$, and such that for all $j$ not divisible by $q(a)$, we have $\widehat{a^{n} b}<\widehat{a^{j}}$, and $\check{a^{j}}<\widehat{a^{m} b}$. Moreover, if $p(a)=1$, then we have ${\widehat{a^{n} b}}^{2}<\widehat{a}$, or ${\overline{a^{n-1} b}}^{-2}<\hat{a}$, or both.

Of course, the same statement holds with the roles of $a$ and $b$ exchanged. In this lemma, the standing assumption that $\rho$ path-rigid is used only to guarantee that all non-separating simple closed curves are mapped to homeomorphisms of rational rotation number (see Proposition 4.1).

Proof. Let $F$ be a finite orbit of $a$. If there exists some point $x \in F \cap b^{-1}(F)$, then there exists $N>0$ such that $\rho(a)^{N} \rho(b)(x)=x$, thus $\operatorname{rot}\left(a^{N} b\right)=0$, contradicting the fact that $T$ was bad. Thus, $F \cap b^{-1}(F)=\varnothing$.

Now we show these sets alternate in the circle. Suppose for contradiction that some connected component $I=\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)$ of $S^{1} \backslash F$ contains at least two points of $b^{-1}(F)$. Let $y_{1} \in b^{-1}(F)$ be the leftmost point of $b^{-1}(F)$ in $I$, and $y_{2}$ be the second leftmost such point. Then there exists $N>0$ such that $a^{N} b\left(y_{1}\right)=x_{1}$. It follows that $a^{N} b\left(y_{2}\right)=x_{2}$ and $\left(a^{N} b\right)^{-1}(I)=\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right) \subset I$. In particular, $\operatorname{rot}\left(a^{N} b\right)=0$, a contradiction.

Now that we know these sets alternate, choose $x \in b^{-1}(F)$, and let $y_{r}, y_{\ell}$, be the next point of $F$ to the right and to the left of $x$, respectively. Then there exists a unique pair $(n, m) \in\{0, \ldots, q(a)-1\}^{2}$ such that $a^{n} b(x)=y_{r}$ and $a^{m} b(x)=y_{\ell}$. In particular, $(n-m) p(a)=1 \bmod q(a)$. These $m, n$ are obviously the only candidates, modulo $q(a)$, for the dominations $\widehat{a^{n} b}<\widehat{a^{j}}$ and $\overline{a^{m} b}>\overline{a^{-j}}$, for an integer $j$ such that $a^{k}\left(y_{\ell}\right)=y_{r}$. (This shows $m$ and $n$ do not depend on $F$ ). We claim that this pair $(n, m)$ satisfies the statement of the lemma.

To see this, lift the points of $F$ to $\mathbb{R}$ and let $x_{1}<x_{2}<\ldots<x_{q(a)}$ denote $q(a)$ consecutive points of the lift. Then, for all $i, \widehat{a^{n} b}\left(x_{i}\right) \leqslant x_{i+1}$; hence $\widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}\left(\widehat{a^{n} b}{ }^{q(a)}\right) \leqslant 1$, Hence, $\widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}\left(\widehat{a^{n} b}\right) \leqslant \frac{1}{q(a)}$, and for every integer $j$ not divisible by $q(a)$ we have $\widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}\left(\widehat{a^{n} b}\right) \leqslant \widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}\left(\widehat{a^{j}}\right)$. So we cannot have $\widehat{a^{n} b}>\widehat{a^{j}}$. But ${\widehat{a^{j}}}^{-1} \widehat{a^{n} b}$ cannot have translation number zero, for otherwise $a^{n-j} b$ would have rotation number zero and the torus would be good. Thus, $\widehat{a^{n} b}<\widehat{a^{j}}$. An essentially identical argument shows that $\overline{a^{m} b}>a^{j}$.

It remains only to prove the statement regarding the case $p(a)=1$. As we have seen, $\widehat{a}>\widehat{a^{n} b}$, and $\widehat{a}>{\widehat{b^{-1} a^{1-}}}^{-1}={\widehat{a^{n-1} b}}^{-1}$, and this immediately implies $\hat{a}=\widehat{a^{n} b} \cdot b^{-1 a^{1-}}$. As $\left(a, a^{n} b\right)$ and hence $\left(b^{-1} a^{1-n}, a^{n} b\right)$ are also standard generating sets of $\pi_{1}(T)$ (obtained by Dehn twists) and $T$ is bad, we must either have $b^{-1 a^{1-n}}>\widehat{a^{n} b}$, or $\widehat{b^{-1} a^{1-} n}<\widehat{a^{n} b}$, otherwise the nonseparating simple closed curve $a^{n-1} b a^{n} b$ would have rotation number zero. The statement follows.

As a consequence, we have the following.
Proposition 5.7. Let $(a, b)$ be a standard generating set for a bad torus. Let $\left(a_{k}, b_{k}\right)_{k \geqslant 0}$ be the sequence of standard generating sets, defined inductively as follows.

- Define $\left(a_{0}, b_{0}\right)=(a, b)$.
- If $k$ is even, let $a_{k+1}=a_{k}$ and $b_{k+1}=a_{k}^{n(k)} b_{k}$, where $0 \leqslant n(k) \leqslant$ $q\left(a_{k}\right)-1$ is the integer given by Lemma 5.6 applied to the generators $\left(a_{k}, b_{k}\right)$.
- If $k$ is odd, let $b_{k+1}=b_{k}$ and $a_{k+1}=b_{k}^{n(k)} a_{k}$, where $0 \leqslant n(k) \leqslant$ $q\left(a_{k}\right)-1$ is obtained, similarly, by inputting $\left(b_{k}, a_{k}\right)$ into Lemma 5.6.
Then for all $k \geqslant 0$ even we have $\widehat{a_{k+1}}>\widehat{b_{k+1}}$, and for $k \geqslant 0$ odd we have $\widehat{a_{k+1}}<\widehat{b_{k+1}}$.
 lar, both sequences $\left(\operatorname{rot}\left(a_{k}\right)\right)_{k \geqslant 0}$ and $\left(\operatorname{rot}\left(b_{k}\right)\right)_{k \geqslant 0}$ converge to zero.

Note that the sequence $\left(a_{k}, b_{k}\right)$ is built so that both $\operatorname{rot}\left(a_{k}\right)$ and $\operatorname{rot}\left(b_{k}\right)$ converge to zero from above. This choice is arbitrary.

Proof. The first consideration follows immediately from the first statement of Lemma 5.6. Let us prove the second. Let $k \geqslant 0$ be even. If $p\left(a_{k}\right) \geqslant 2$, let $n=n(k) \geqslant 0$ be such that $n p\left(a_{k}\right)=1 \bmod q\left(a_{k}\right)$, as in Lemma 5.6. Then $\operatorname{rot}\left(a_{k}^{n}\right)=\frac{1}{q\left(a_{k}\right)}$, and ${\widehat{a_{k}^{n}}}^{p\left(a_{k}\right)}=\widehat{a_{k}}$. By lemma 5.6 we have $\widehat{b_{k+1}}<\widehat{a_{k}^{n}}$, hence ${\widehat{b_{k+1}}}^{p\left(a_{k}\right)}<\widehat{a_{k}}$, and ${\widehat{a_{k+2}}}^{2}<\widehat{a_{k}}$.

Otherwise, $p\left(a_{k}\right)=1$, and again we take $n(k)$ as in Lemma 5.6. If
 ie, $b_{k+1}^{-\widehat{a_{k+1}}}{ }^{2}<\widehat{a_{k}}$. Thus either $n(k+1)$ equals -1 modulo $q\left(b_{k+1}\right)$, or not, in which case $\widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}\left(b_{k+1}^{n(\widehat{k+1)}} a_{k+1}\right)<\widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}\left(b_{k+1}^{-1 a_{k+1}}\right)$, and then $\widehat{b_{k+1}^{n^{\prime} a_{k+1}}}<$ $\widehat{b_{k+1} a_{k+1}}$. In either case we conclude that ${\widehat{a_{k+2}}}^{2}<\widehat{a_{k}}$.

For $k$ odd, and for $b_{k}$ instead of $a_{k}$, things are symmetric. Note that ${\widehat{a_{k+2}}}^{2}<\widehat{a_{k}}$ implies in particular that $0<\widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}\left(\widehat{a_{k+2}}\right)<\frac{1}{2} \widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}\left(\widehat{a_{k}}\right)$, hence the sequences $\left(\widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}\left(\widehat{a_{k}}\right)\right)$ and $\left(\widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}\left(\widehat{b_{k}}\right)\right)$ converge to zero from above.

Let $T=T(a, b)$ be a bad torus, and let $\left(a_{k}, b_{k}\right)$ be the sequence furnished by Proposition 5.7. Let $x \in S^{1}$, and let $\tilde{x} \in \mathbb{R}$ be a lift of $x$. Then, by Proposition 5.7 , the sequence $\left(\widehat{a_{k}}(\tilde{x})\right)_{k}$ is decreasing, bounded below by $\tilde{x}$, hence it converges to some real number that we denote by $\tilde{x}+j_{T}(x)$. Note that $j_{T}(x)$ does not depend on the choice of the lift of $x$. We define

$$
F_{T}:=\left\{x \in S^{1}, j_{T}(x)=0\right\}
$$

The reader should interpret this as the set of points that are moved arbitrarily small distances by elements $\left\{a_{k}\right\}$ (or that are almost fixed by elements towards the tail end of this sequence). Although the notation ( $a, b$ ) is suppressed, $F_{T}$ as defined is dependent on the generating set we started with. (But see Step 1 of the proof of Proposition 5.9 below). As usual, we let $\widetilde{F_{T}}$ denote the preimage of $F_{T}$ in $\mathbb{R}$.

Proposition 5.8 (Properties of $F_{T}$ ). (1) $F_{T}$ is a non-empty, proper subset of $S^{1}$, and it has no isolated points (in particular, it is infinite).
(2) For every $x \in S^{1}$, we have $\min \left\{\widetilde{F_{T}} \cap[\tilde{x}, \infty)\right\}=\tilde{x}+j_{T}(x)$. In particular, $x+j_{T}(x) \in F_{T}$ for all $x$.
(3) The commutator $[a, b]$ fixes $F_{T}$ pointwise (in particular, it has rotation number zero).

Proof. Let $x \in \mathbb{R}$. For all $k \geqslant 0$ we have $\widehat{a_{k}}(x)>x+j_{T}(x)$, hence, ${\widehat{a_{k}}}^{2}(x)>$ $x+j_{T}(x)+j_{T}\left(x+j_{T}(x)\right)$. But $\widehat{a_{k-2}}(x)>{\widehat{a_{k}}}^{2}(x)$, and, by definition, $\widehat{a_{k-2}}(x)$ converges to $x+j_{T}(x)$. This proves that $x+j_{T}(x) \in F_{T}$, which, thus, is nonempty. Further, if the open interval $\left(x, x+j_{T}(x)\right)$ contained a point $y \in \widetilde{F_{T}}$, then for large $k$ we would have $x+j_{T}(x)>\widehat{a_{k}}(y)>y>x$, contradicting that $a_{k}$ preserves orientation. This proves property (2).

To prove property (3), let $x \in \widetilde{F_{T}}$ and observe, just as above, that the sequence ${\widehat{a_{k}}}^{4}(x)$ also converges to $x$. Fix $\varepsilon>0$, and let $k$ be even, and large enough so that $x_{1}=x, x_{2}=\widehat{a_{k}}(x), x_{3}={\widehat{a_{k}}}^{2}(x)$ and $x_{4}={\widehat{a_{k}}}^{3}(x)$ all lie in the interval $[x, x+\varepsilon]$. By Lemma 5.6, $a_{k+1}=a_{k}$ and $\widehat{b_{k+1}}$ is dominated by $\widehat{a_{k+1}}$. Thus, $\widehat{b_{k+1}}\left(x_{3}\right) \in\left(x_{3}, x_{4}\right)$, and ${\widehat{b_{k+1}}}^{-1}\left(x_{2}, x_{3}\right) \subset\left(x_{1}, x_{3}\right)$. It follows that $\left[a_{k+1}, b_{k+1}\right]=[a, b]$ maps the point $x_{2}$ into the interval $\left(x_{1}, x_{3}\right)$, hence, for all $\varepsilon>0,[a, b]$ maps a point of $[x, x+\varepsilon]$ in $[x, x+\varepsilon]$, whence $[a, b](x)=x$.

It remains to prove that $F_{T} \neq S^{1}$, and $F_{T}$ has no isolated point. If $F_{T}$ was equal to $S^{1}$, then $[a, b]$ would be the identity of $S^{1}$. Thus, the restriction of $\rho$ to $\langle a, b\rangle$ would have abelian image and rotation number would be a homomorphism. In particular, the proof of Observation 5.2 shows that $T$ is not bad.

Finally if $x$ were an isolated point of $F_{T}$, we could take $x_{0} \in S^{1}$ such that $\left[x_{0}, x\right) \cap F_{T}=\varnothing$. Let $x_{1}$ be the next point of $F_{T}$ to the right of $x$. Then $x_{0}+j_{T}\left(x_{0}\right)=x$, and $x+j_{T}(x)=x_{1}$. It follows that for all $k \geqslant 0$, ${\widehat{a_{k}}}^{2}\left(x_{0}\right) \geqslant x_{1}$, hence $x_{0}+j_{T}\left(x_{0}\right) \geqslant x_{1}$, a contradiction.

We remark that the complement of the set $F_{T}$ is a union of half-open intervals, so $F_{T}$ is not closed. Using $F_{T}$ and $j_{T}$, we now prove the following major step towards Proposition 1.11

Proposition 5.9. There cannot exist two disjoint bad tori in $\Sigma_{g}$.
Proof. By contradiction, let $T=T(a, b)$ and $T^{\prime}=T\left(a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right)$ be two disjoint bad tori. Up to re-indexing and reversing some of these curves, we may suppose that $\left(a, b, a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right)$ is the beginning of a standard basis of $\pi_{1} \Sigma_{g}$.
Step 1: We have $j_{T}=j_{T^{\prime}}$.
We proceed by contradiction. Suppose these functions are non-equal and let $x_{0} \in S^{1}$ be such that $j_{T}\left(x_{0}\right) \neq j_{T^{\prime}}\left(x_{0}\right)$, without loss of generality assume $j_{T}\left(x_{0}\right)<j_{T^{\prime}}\left(x_{0}\right)$. Let $\left(a_{k}, b_{k}\right)_{k \geqslant 0}$ and $\left(a_{k}^{\prime}, b_{k}^{\prime}\right)_{k \geqslant 0}$ be the sequences of generators of $T$ and $T^{\prime}$ furnished by Proposition 5.7. For $k$ large enough, we have $\widehat{a_{k}}\left(x_{0}\right)<x_{0}+j_{T^{\prime}}\left(x_{0}\right)$. Let $m$ be as in Lemma 5.6 applied to $\left(a_{k}, b_{k}\right)$, and put $\alpha=a_{k}$, and $\beta=a_{k}^{m} b_{k}$. Then $(\alpha, \beta)$ is a standard generating set for $T$, and $\widehat{\alpha}>\widehat{\beta^{-1}}$. Since $\operatorname{rot}\left(b_{\ell}^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow 0$, for $\ell \geqslant 0$ large enough we have $\tilde{\operatorname{rot}}\left(\widehat{b_{\ell}^{\prime}}\right)<\operatorname{rot}\left(\widehat{\beta^{-1}}\right)$. But $\widehat{b_{\ell}^{\prime}}\left(x_{0}\right)>x_{0}+j_{T^{\prime}}\left(x_{0}\right)$ (indeed, $\widehat{b_{\ell}^{\prime}}$ dominates $\widehat{a_{\ell+1}^{\prime}}$, by construction of the sequences in Proposition 5.7), hence $\widehat{a_{k}}$ does not dominate $\widehat{b_{\ell}^{\prime}}$. We now prove a sub-lemma to derive a contradiction, this will conclude the proof of Step 1.

Lemma 5.10. Let $T=T(a, b)$ be a bad torus, and let $b^{\prime}$ be a non separating simple curve outside $T(a, b)$ such that $b^{-1} a$ and $b b^{\prime}$ are simple. Suppose that $\widehat{a}>\widehat{b^{-1}}$ and $\widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}\left(\widehat{b^{-1}}\right)>\widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}\left(\widehat{b^{\prime}}\right)$. Then $\widehat{a}$ dominates $\widehat{b^{\prime}}$.
Proof. Suppose that $\widehat{a}$ does not dominate $\widehat{b^{\prime}}$. Then $\widehat{b^{-1}}$ does not dominate $\widehat{b^{\prime}}$, either. Observation 5.5 then asserts that both $b^{\prime-1} a$ and $b b^{\prime}$ have rotation numbers zero. Now the two curves $b^{-1} a$ and $b b^{\prime}$ are standard generators of a torus $T\left(b^{\prime-1} a, b b^{\prime}\right)$, and since $\operatorname{rot}\left(b^{\prime-1} a\right)=0$, this homeomorphism lies in a one-parameter family, so as in Observation 2.25, there is a path-deformation of $\rho$ replacing the action of $b b^{\prime}$ with $b^{-1} a \cdot b b^{\prime}$. Hence, $\operatorname{rot}\left(b b^{\prime}\right)=0=$
$\operatorname{rot}\left(b^{\prime-1} a \cdot b b^{\prime}\right)=\operatorname{rot}(a b)$. However, we assumed that $T(a, b)$ was bad, so $\operatorname{rot}(a b) \neq 0$. This gives the desired contradiction.

Step 2: We can deform the representation so that $j_{T} \neq j_{T^{\prime}}$.
As shown in the proof of Proposition 5.8, $[a, b] \neq \mathrm{id}$, but $F_{T} \subset \operatorname{Fix}([a, b])$. Let $x \notin \operatorname{Fix}([a, b])$, so then $j_{T}(x)>0$. Let $y=x+j_{T}(x)$, let $I$ be the connected component of $S^{1} \backslash \operatorname{Fix}([a, b])$ containing $x$, and let $c_{t}$ be a oneparameter family of homeomorphisms commuting with $[a, b]$, and with support equal to $\bar{I}$.

Then, regardless of whether $y \in I$, the distance between $c_{t}(x)$ and $c_{t}(y)$ varies, in a nonconstant way, with $t$ : it goes to zero as $t \rightarrow \infty$ if $y \in I$, and simply changes if $y \notin I$. Now, consider a bending deformation of our representation $\rho$, by setting $\rho_{t}(\gamma)=\rho(\gamma)$ for all curves outside $T$, and $\rho_{t}(\gamma)=$ $c_{t} \rho(\gamma) c_{-t}$ for $\gamma \in\langle a, b\rangle$. This deformation changes the value of $j_{T}(x)$, without changing the value of $j_{T^{\prime}}(x)$. In particular, after this path-deformation, Step 1 no longer holds! This gives a contradiction.

Supposing again that $T(a, b)$ is a bad torus, it remains to show that any torus in $\Sigma_{g} \backslash T(a, b)$ is not only good, but very good.

Lemma 5.11. Let $T=T(a, b)$ be a bad torus, and let $\gamma$ be a non-separating simple closed curve outside of $T$, with $\operatorname{rot}(\gamma)=0$. Then $F_{T} \subset \operatorname{Fix}(\gamma)$.

Proof. Let $\left(a_{k}, b_{k}\right)_{k \geqslant 0}$ be the sequence given by Proposition 5.7, and orient $\gamma$ so that $\gamma^{-1} a_{k}$ is also a (non-separating) simple curve. Fix $k \geqslant 0$, and let $\alpha=a_{k}$, and $\beta=a_{k}^{m} b_{k}$, as in Lemma 5.6. Then, as a consequence of Lemma 5.10, we have $\widehat{a_{k}}>\widehat{\gamma}$. This holds for all $k \geqslant 0$, hence, for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$ we have $\widehat{\gamma}(x) \leqslant x+j_{T}(x)$. In particular, if $x \in \widetilde{F}_{T}$, we have $\hat{\gamma}(x) \leqslant x$.

For the reverse inequality, first observe that, as in Lemma 5.10, the conditions $\check{a}<\overline{b^{-1}}$ and $\widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}\left(\overline{b^{-1}}\right)<\tilde{\operatorname{rot}}(\check{\gamma})$ imply the domination $\check{a}<\check{\gamma}$ (this is exactly the statement of Lemma 5.10 upon reversing the orientation of $\mathbb{R})$. And $\check{\gamma}=\hat{\gamma}$, since $\operatorname{rot}(\gamma)=0$. Thus, fix $x \in \widetilde{F_{T}}$; we want to prove that $\check{\gamma}(x) \geqslant x$. Fix $\varepsilon>0$. For $k$ large enough, the sequence ( $a_{k}, b_{k}$ ) from Proposition 5.7 satisfies $\widehat{a_{k}}(x)<x+\varepsilon$. Let $\left(a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right)=\left(a_{k}, b_{k}\right)$ for such a large $k$, and now define $b^{\prime \prime}=b^{\prime}$ and $a^{\prime \prime}=b^{\prime m} a^{\prime}$ and then $\alpha=a^{\prime \prime}$ and $\beta=a^{\prime \prime n} b^{\prime \prime}$, where $m$, and then $n$, are given by Lemma 5.6 with these two successive pairs. Then, we have $\tilde{\operatorname{rot}}(\check{\alpha})<\tilde{\operatorname{rot}}\left(\overline{\beta^{-1}}\right)<\operatorname{rot}(\check{\gamma})$, hence, $\check{\alpha}<\check{\gamma}$, ie, $\widehat{\alpha^{-1}}$ dominates $\hat{\gamma}^{-1}$. It follows that $\widehat{\gamma}(x) \leqslant x+\varepsilon$.

End of the proof of Proposition 1.11. Suppose that $T=T(a, b)$ is a bad torus, and let $T^{\prime}$ be a torus disjoint from $T$. Since $T^{\prime}$ is good, by Lemma 5.10 we may take $T^{\prime}=T\left(a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right)$ where $\operatorname{rot}\left(a^{\prime}\right)=0$. Then we have $\operatorname{Fix}\left(a^{\prime}\right) \supset F_{T}$ by Lemma 5.11. This is also true after replacing $a^{\prime}$ with a deformation $b_{t}^{\prime} a^{\prime}$, so $\operatorname{Per}\left(b^{\prime}\right) \supset F_{T}$ or equivalently $\operatorname{Fix}\left(b^{\prime q\left(b^{\prime}\right)}\right) \supset F_{T}$. Since this is also true after replacing $b^{\prime}$ with any deformation $a_{t}^{\prime} b^{\prime}$, it must be that $F_{T} \subset P\left(a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right)$. By Lemma 2.19 (1), this means that $\left\langle a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right\rangle$ has a finite orbit in $S^{1}$.
5.2. Good tori. In this section, we prove Proposition 1.12. Recall this was the statement that if $\rho$ is path-rigid and non-geometric, then there cannot exist two disjoint good tori which are both not very good.

In the course of the proof, we will develop some tools that will be used again in Section 6 for the proof of Theorem 1.5. The proof proceeds by showing that any path-rigid, minimal representation that fails the hypothesis above on tori necessarily satisfies hypothesis $S_{k}$. Our main tool is the movement of periodic sets by bending deformations, as introduced in Paragraph 2.2.3.

To motivate the first step, observe that if $\rho$ has two disjoint good tori $T(a, b)$ and $T(d, e)$ with $\operatorname{rot}(a)=\operatorname{rot}(e)=0$, and if neither of these tori are very good, then $P(a, b)=P(e, d)=\varnothing$. We can also find $c$ so that $(a, b, c, d, e)$ is a 5 -chain. This is the set-up of the next Proposition.

Proposition 5.12. Let $\rho$ be path-rigid minimal and let $(a, b, c, d, e)$ be a 5 -chain. Suppose that both $P(a, b)$ and $P(e, d)$ are empty. Then we have $S_{k}(b, c)$, for some $k \geqslant 1$.

Proof of Proposition 5.12. After changing orientations of these curves, we may suppose that $(a, b, c, d, e)$ is a directed 5 -chain. By Theorem 4.2, it suffices to show that $\operatorname{Per}(b) \cap \operatorname{Per}(c)=\varnothing$. Since $P(a, b)=\varnothing$, Lemma 2.21 says that $\partial N(a, b)$ is finite. Choose a positive one-parameter family $\left(e_{t}\right)_{t \in \mathbb{R}}$, commuting with $\rho(e)$. Since $P(e, d)=\varnothing$, we have $\operatorname{Per}\left(e_{t} d\right) \subset U(e, d)$ for all $t$, so the sets $\operatorname{Per}\left(e_{t} d\right)$, for varying $t$, are pairwise disjoint. Thus, we can choose $t_{0}$ so that $\operatorname{Per}\left(e_{t_{0}} d\right) \cap \partial N(a, b)=\varnothing$. Abusing notation, we now replace $d$ with $e_{t_{0}} d$ (we will not further use $e$ ). With this change in notation, we now have $\partial N(a, b) \cap P(d, c)=\varnothing$. The remaining step will be a useful tool later in Section 6, so we split it off to a separate statement (Lemma 5.13), proved below.

Lemma 5.13. Let $\rho$ be path-rigid, and let $(a, b, c, d)$ be a 4-chain. Suppose that $P(a, b)=\varnothing$ and $\partial N(a, b) \cap P(d, c)=\varnothing$. Then $\operatorname{Per}(b) \cap \operatorname{Per}(c)=\varnothing$.

Proof. Let $a_{t}$ and $d_{t}$ be positive one-parameter families commuting with $a$ and $d$ respectively. By Lemma 2.30, it suffices to find $t$ and $s$ such that $\operatorname{Per}\left(a_{t} b\right) \cap \operatorname{Per}\left(d_{s} c\right)=\varnothing$. Let $F_{0}=\partial N(a, b) \cap \partial N(d, c)$. As $P(a, b)$ is empty, the set $\partial N(a, b)$ is finite, by Lemma 2.21. Hence, $F_{0}$ is finite. Let $F_{1}=$ $\partial N(a, b) \backslash F_{0}$ and $F_{2}=(P(d, c) \cup \partial N(d, c)) \backslash F_{0}$. By construction, the $F_{i}$ are disjoint closed sets, so we can take $\varepsilon>0$ smaller than the minimum distance between any two of them. Fix $t$ large, so that (by Lemma 2.19), $\operatorname{Per}\left(a_{t} b\right)$ is contained in the $\varepsilon$-neighborhood of $F_{0} \cup F_{1}$, hence disjoint from $F_{2}$. Since $F_{0} \subset N(a, b)$, it is also disjoint form $\operatorname{Per}\left(a_{t} b\right)$, i.e. $\operatorname{Per}\left(a_{t} b\right) \cap\left(F_{0} \cup F_{2}\right)=\varnothing$. Now let $\eta>0$ be smaller than the distance between $F_{0} \cup F_{2}$ and $\operatorname{Per}\left(a_{t} b\right)$. By Lemma 2.19 again, for $s$ large enough, the set $\operatorname{Per}\left(d_{s} c\right)$ is in the $\eta$ neighborhood of $F_{0} \cup F_{2}$. Hence, $\operatorname{Per}\left(a_{t} b\right)$ and $\operatorname{Per}\left(d_{s} c\right)$ are disjoint, as desired.

Our next goal is to propagate $S_{k}(\cdot, \cdot)$ to other curves. For this, we define two stronger properties.

Definition 5.14 (Strengthenings of $S_{k}$ ). We say that two curves $a$ and $b$ satisfy $S_{k}^{+}(a, b)$ if they satisfy $S_{k}(a, b)$ and if additionally, we have $a(\operatorname{Per}(b)) \cap$ $\operatorname{Per}(b)=\varnothing$. We say that $a$ and $b$ satisfy $S_{k}^{++}(a, b)$ if they satisfy both $S_{k}^{+}(a, b)$ and $S_{k}^{+}(b, a)$.

Property $S_{k}^{+}(\cdot, \cdot)$ is what allows one to move families of periodic points continuously by twist deformations, as described in the following lemma.

Lemma 5.15 (Periodic points move continuously). Let $a$ and $b$ be any curves with $i(a, b)=-1$ satisfying $S_{k}^{+}(a, b)$. Then there exists a continuous family $a_{t}$ commuting with a such that $\operatorname{Per}\left(a_{t} b\right) \cap \operatorname{Per}\left(a_{s} b\right)=\varnothing$ for all $s \neq t$, and $\left|\operatorname{Per}\left(a_{t} b\right)\right|=2 k$ for all $t$.

Since property $S_{k}(a, b)$ immediately implies that $\operatorname{Per}(b) \subset U(a, b)$, the nontrivial part of this lemma is controlling the cardinality of $\operatorname{Per}\left(a_{t} b\right)$ at all times $t$. This requires a special choice of one-parameter family $a_{t}$, which we construct by hand.

Proof of Lemma 5.15. Together with Lemma 4.8, the asumption $a \operatorname{Per}(b) \cap$ $\operatorname{Per}(b)=\varnothing$ completely prescribes the cyclic order on the set $\bigcup_{n} a^{n}(\operatorname{Per}(b))$; it follows that we may choose a neighborhood $V$ of $\operatorname{Per}(b)$, consisting of $2 k$ open intervals, such that $a^{n}(V) \cap a^{m}(V)=\varnothing$ for all $n, m \in \mathbb{Z}$.

We now construct a continuous family of homeomorphisms $a_{t}$ commuting with $a$, supported on $\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} a^{n} V$. A slight variation on this construction would give a positive family of homeomorphisms, but this is not required by the lemma.

Choose one point in each of the periodic orbits of $b$; let $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{m}$ denote these points. We may parametrize $S^{1}$ so that, for each $x_{i}, b$ agrees with a rigid rotation by $p(b) / q(b)$ on a small neighborhood of $b^{k}\left(x_{i}\right)$ for $k=0,1, \ldots, q(b)-2$ and so that $b$ maps a neighborhood of $b^{q(b)-1}\left(x_{i}\right)$ to a neighborhood of $x_{i}=b^{q(b)}\left(x_{i}\right)$ by the map $x \mapsto 2 x$ or $x \mapsto x / 2$, in coordinates, depending on whether the orbit of $x_{i}$ is repelling or attracting.

Let $V_{i, k}$ denote the connected component of $V$ containing $b^{k}\left(x_{i}\right)$. Note that, by construction, these sets partition $V$. Define $a_{t}$ to be the identity on $V_{i, k}$ for $k=0,1, \ldots, q(b)-2$ and all $i$. To define $a_{t}$ on $V_{i, q(b)-1}$ we proceed as follows. Let $U_{i}$ be a neighborhood of $b^{q(b)-1}\left(x_{i}\right)$ whose closure is contained in $V_{i, q(b)-1}$. Using the local coordinates in which $b$ is linear, define $a_{t}$ to agree with the translation $x \mapsto x+t$ on $U_{i}$. Since $U_{i}$ has closure contained in $V_{i, q-1}$, there exists $\varepsilon>0$ so that for all $t \leqslant \varepsilon$, this map extends to a homeomorphism of $V_{i, q(b)-1}$ fixing the endpoints, and we may take these extensions to vary continuously in $t$. From now on, we restrict to such $t \leqslant \varepsilon$. Finally, we extend $a_{t}$ to a family of homeomorphisms of $S^{1}$ that is equivariant with respect to $a$ on $\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} a^{n} U$, where $U=\bigcup_{i} U_{i}$, and agrees with the identity elsewhere.

The property that $a_{t}$ agrees with $x \mapsto x+t$ on $U_{i}$ implies that $\left(a_{t} b\right)^{q(b)}$ has a unique fixed point in each set $b^{-n} U_{i}$ for $n=0,1,2, \ldots, q(b)-1$. Since the union of such sets open $b^{-n} U_{i}$ covers $\operatorname{Per}(b)$, there is some $\delta>0$ such that $\left|b^{q(b)}(x)-x\right| \geqslant \delta$ for all $x \in S^{1} \backslash U$, hence for all $t$ sufficiently small, we will have $\operatorname{Per}\left(a_{t} b\right) \subset U$.

Another function of property $S_{k}^{+}$is given by the following lemma.
Lemma 5.16. Let $(a, b, c)$ be a completable 3-chain. Then $S_{k}^{+}(a, b)$ implies $S_{k}(b, c)$.

As hinted by this statement, the stronger Property $S_{k}^{++}$can actually be propagated along chains, as follows.

Proposition 5.17. Let $(a, b, c)$ be a completable 3-chain. Suppose that $S_{k}^{++}(a, b)$ holds. Then $S_{k}^{++}(b, c)$ holds as well.

To prove these two statements, we will need a quick sub-lemma.
Lemma 5.18 (Per has empty interior). Let $a$ and $b$ be any curves with $i(a, b)= \pm 1$, and let $b_{t}$ be a positive one-parameter family commuting with $b$. Then, for all but countably many $t$, the set $\operatorname{Per}\left(b_{t} a\right)$ has empty interior.

Proof. Let $X=S^{1} \backslash P(b, a)$. Then for $t \neq s$, we have $\operatorname{Per}\left(b_{t} a\right) \cap \operatorname{Per}\left(b_{s} a\right) \cap$ $X=\varnothing$. In particular, the set

$$
T=\left\{t: \operatorname{Per}\left(b_{t} a\right) \cap X \text { contains a nonempty open set }\right\}
$$

is countable. Note also that if $\operatorname{Per}\left(b_{t} a\right)$ contains a nonempty open set $U$, then $U \cap X=U \backslash P(b, a)$ is open and nonempty, since $P(b, a)$ is closed with empty interior, hence $t \in T$. It follows that for all $t \notin T, \operatorname{Per}\left(b_{t} a\right)$ has empty interior.

Proof of Lemma 5.16. Complete $(a, b, c)$ to a 4-chain $(a, b, c, d)$, and let $\left(d_{t}\right)_{t \in \mathbb{R}}$ be a positive one-parameter family commuting with $d$. By Lemma 5.18, $\operatorname{Per}\left(d_{t_{0}} c\right)$ has empty interior for some $t_{0} \in \mathbb{R}$. Now, by Lemma 5.15, there exists a one-parameter group $\left(a_{s}\right)_{s \in \mathbb{R}}$, an interval $I \subset \mathbb{R}$ and $2 k$ maps, $\phi_{j}: I \rightarrow S^{1}$, each homeomorphism to its image, such that the $2 k$ periodic points of $\operatorname{Per}\left(a_{s} b\right)$ are precisely $\phi_{1}(s), \ldots, \phi_{2 k}(s)$, for all $s \in I$. The set $\bigcap \phi_{j}^{-1}\left(\operatorname{Per}\left(d_{t_{0}} c\right)\right)$ then has empty interior in $I$, hence there exists $s_{0} \in I$ such that $\operatorname{Per}\left(a_{s_{0}} b\right) \cap \operatorname{Per}\left(d_{t_{0}} c\right)=\varnothing$, and we conclude that $\operatorname{Per}(b) \cap \operatorname{Per}(c)=\varnothing$ by Lemma 2.30. We conclude by using Theorem 4.2.

Proof of Proposition 5.17. Complete the 3 -chain into a 5 -chain, $(e, a, b, c, d)$, and apply Lemma 5.16 to the 3 -chains $(a, b, c)$ and $(e, a, b)$ to conclude $S_{k}(b, c)$ and $S_{k}(a, e)$. By Lemma 3.8, we may then use a bending deformation of $a$ along $e$ to move the periodic set of $a$ disjoint from any finite set, so in particular $\operatorname{Per}(a) \cap \operatorname{Per}(c)=\varnothing$. Now take a positive one-parameter family $a_{t}$ commuting with $a$. Since $\operatorname{Per}(a) \cap \operatorname{Per}(c)=\varnothing$ the points $a_{-t} \operatorname{Per}(c)$ move continuously in $t$, so there is some $t$ such that $b \operatorname{Per}(c) \cap a_{-t} \operatorname{Per}(c)=\varnothing$. Thus, $a_{t} b \operatorname{Per}(c) \cap \operatorname{Per}(c)=\varnothing$ hence by Lemma $2.30 b \operatorname{Per}(c) \cap \operatorname{Per}(c)=\varnothing$. Thus, we conclude that $S_{k}^{+}(b, c)$ holds. By Lemma 5.16 , this implies that $S_{k}(c, d)$ holds as well. In particular, $\operatorname{Per}(d)$ is finite. We can now apply Lemma 3.8 and use a bending deformation so that $\operatorname{Per}\left(a_{t} b\right) \cap \operatorname{Per}(d)=\varnothing$, which implies that $\operatorname{Per}(b) \cap \operatorname{Per}(d)=\varnothing$, and repeat the argument above (with $d$ and $c$ playing the roles of $a$ and $b$ ) to conclude $S_{k}^{+}(c, b)$ holds as well.

Proposition 5.17, Theorem 3.3, and the connectedness of the graph in Lemma 2.11 immediately gives the following.

Corollary 5.19. Let $\rho$ be a path-rigid, minimal representation, and suppose there exists $(a, b)$ such that $S_{k}^{++}(a, b)$ holds. Then $\rho$ is geometric.

This consequence is strong enough to imply the main result of the companion article [17]. We explain this now, as it will be used again in Section 6.

Corollary 5.20. Let $\rho$ be a path-rigid, minimal representation, and suppose that there is some torus $T(a, b)$ such that the relative Euler number of $T(a, b)$ is $\pm 1$. Then $\rho$ is semi-conjugate to a Fuchsian representation.

Proof. Since $T(a, b)$ has Euler number 1, it follows form [21] that the restriction of $\rho$ to $\langle a, b\rangle$ is semi-conjugate to a geometric representation in $\operatorname{PSL}(2, \mathbb{R})$. (This is not difficult: that $\widetilde{\operatorname{rot}}([\widehat{\rho(a)}, \widehat{\rho(b)}]= \pm 1$ easily implies that $\rho(a)$ and $\rho(b)$ are 1-Schottky, hence as in Proposition 3.22 are semiconjugate to a geometric representation in $\operatorname{PSL}(2, \mathbb{R})$. See the beginning of $\S 3$ in [21].) In particular, property $S_{1}^{++}(a, b)$ holds. It follows from Corollary 5.19 that $\rho$ is geometric.

Given Corollary 5.19, to achieve our main goal of this section, we need only show the following.

Proposition 5.21. Let $(a, b, c, d, e)$ be a 5 -chain, and suppose that $P(a, b)=$ $P(e, d)=\varnothing$. Then we have $S_{k}^{++}(b, c)$.
Proof. Suppose $P(a, b)=P(e, d)=\varnothing$. By Proposition 5.12, we have $S_{k}(b, c)$ and $S_{k}(c, d)$ for some $k \geqslant 1$. Since $P(e, d)=\varnothing$ and $\operatorname{Per}(b)$ is finite, we have a bending deformation $e_{t} d$ such that $\operatorname{Per}(b) \cap \operatorname{Per}\left(e_{t} d\right)=\varnothing$, hence $\operatorname{Per}(b) \cap \operatorname{Per}(d)=\varnothing$. Hence, $\operatorname{Per}(b) \cap d_{t} c \operatorname{Per}(b)=\varnothing$ for some $t$, so we have $\operatorname{Per}(b) \cap c \operatorname{Per}(b)=\varnothing$, ie, $S_{k}^{+}(c, b)$ holds. By Lemma 5.16, this gives $S_{k}(a, b)$. In particular, $\operatorname{Per}(a)$ is finite, and so there exists a bending deformation replacing $c$ with $d_{t} c$ such that $\operatorname{Per}(a) \cap \operatorname{Per}\left(d_{t} c\right)=\varnothing$, and hence $\operatorname{Per}(a) \cap$ $\operatorname{Per}(c)=\varnothing$. Repeating the argument above, we conclude $S_{k}^{+}(b, c)$ holds.

The main result of this section is now a quick corollary. We restate it here for convenience and to summarize our work.

Corollary 5.22. Let $\rho$ be a path-rigid, minimal representation. Suppose $\rho$ admits two disjoint good tori that are not very good. Then $\rho$ is geometric.

Proof. Let $T(a, b)$ and $T(d, e)$ be these two disjoint good tori. Since they are good, we may suppose $\operatorname{rot}(a)=\operatorname{rot}(e)=0$. Since they are not very good, we have $P(a, b)=\varnothing$ and $P(e, d)=\varnothing$. We may find a curve $c$ such that $(a, b, c, d, e)$ is a 5 -chain, and then Proposition 5.21 and Corollary 5.19 imply that $\rho$ is geometric.
5.3. Finite orbits. The goal of this section is the proof of the following proposition.

Proposition 5.23. Let $\rho: \Gamma_{g} \rightarrow$ Homeo $^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$ be a path-rigid representation, and let $\Sigma=\Sigma_{g-1,1}$ be a subsurface containing only very good tori. Then $\rho_{\mid \pi_{1} \Sigma}$ has a finite orbit.

If $T(a, b)$ is very good, then $a$ and $b$ act with a finite orbit, so $\operatorname{rot}(a b)=$ $\operatorname{rot}(a)+\operatorname{rot}(b)$. Thus, in a subsurface where all tori are very good, rotation number is additive on any pair of curves with intersection number $\pm 1$. This motivates the following proposition, which gives our first step.

Proposition 5.24. Let $\Sigma$ be a one-holed surface of genus $\geqslant 2$. We suppose that $\pi_{1} \Sigma$ acts on the circle in such a way that all nonseparating simple curves
have rational rotation number, and that for all $\gamma_{1}, \gamma_{2}$ with $i\left(\gamma_{1}, \gamma_{2}\right)= \pm 1$, we have $\operatorname{rot}\left(\gamma_{1} \gamma_{2}\right)=\operatorname{rot}\left(\gamma_{1}\right)+\operatorname{rot}\left(\gamma_{2}\right)$.

Then, there exist two curves $\gamma_{1}, \gamma_{2}$ with $i\left(\gamma_{1}, \gamma_{2}\right)= \pm 1$ and $\operatorname{rot}\left(\gamma_{1}\right)=$ $\operatorname{rot}\left(\gamma_{2}\right)=0$.

Proof. Let $\left(a_{1}, \ldots, b_{g}\right)$ be a standard generating set of $\pi_{1} \Sigma$, ie, where the loop $\left[a_{1}, b_{1}\right] \cdots\left[a_{g}, b_{g}\right]$ is homotopic to the boundary, and consider the noncompletable directed 5 -chain $\left(\gamma_{1}, \gamma_{2}, \gamma_{3}, \gamma_{4}, \gamma_{5}\right)=\left(a_{1}^{-1} b_{1} a_{1}, a_{1}, \delta_{1}, a_{2}, b_{2}^{-1}\right)$, with the notation of Section 2.1. Our proof proceeds by iteratively applying Dehn twists in this system of curves.

Recall from Convention 2.15 that the effect of a Dehn twist along $\gamma_{i}$ replaces $\gamma_{i-1}$ (if $i \geqslant 2$ ) with $\gamma_{i}^{-1} \gamma_{i-1}$, and replaces $\gamma_{i+1}$ with $\gamma_{i+1} \gamma_{i}$ (if $i \leqslant 4$ ), while leaving the other curves unchanged. By the asumption of the proposition, and since $i\left(\gamma_{i}, \gamma_{i+1}\right)=1$ for each $i$, the Dehn twist $\tau_{i}$ along $\gamma_{i}$ changes the vector ( $r_{1}, r_{2}, r_{3}, r_{4}, r_{5}$ ) of rotation numbers of the $\gamma_{i}$, by replacing $r_{i-1}$ with $r_{i-1}-r_{i}$ and replacing $r_{i+1}$ with $r_{i+1}+r_{i}$. This Dehn twist also changes the standard generating system $\left(a_{1}, \ldots, b_{g}\right)$ into a new generating system (with a new chain ( $\gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{5}$ ) with rotation numbers changed as above), in which we may perform new Dehn twists and iterate this process.

In other words, Proposition 5.24 amounts to proving that the operations $\tau_{i}:\left(r_{1}, \ldots, r_{5}\right) \mapsto\left(r_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, r_{5}^{\prime}\right)$ with $r_{i-1}^{\prime}=r_{i-1}-r_{i}$ and $r_{i+1}^{\prime}=r_{i+1}+r_{i}$, and $r_{j}^{\prime}=r_{j}$ otherwise, can be iterated to transform any vector in $(\mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z})^{5}$ to a vector of the form $\left(0,0, r_{3}, r_{4}, r_{5}\right)$. This should seem well known to any reader familiar with the symplectic group $\operatorname{Sp}(2 g, \mathbb{Z})$, but we give the details anyway.

Start with a vector $\left(r_{1}, \ldots, r_{5}\right)$, and lift it (without change in notation) to $\mathbb{Q}$. Since the $\tau_{i}$ are linear operations, we may suppose instead that $r_{1}, r_{2}, r_{3}, r_{4}, r_{5}$ are integers with greatest common divisor 1 . We use the notation $x \wedge y$ to denote the greatest common divisor of $x$ and $y$.

Using only $\tau_{4}$ and $\tau_{5}$ and their inverses, we can apply the Euclidean algorithm to $r_{4}$ and $r_{5}$, changing $\left(r_{1}, r_{2}, r_{3}, r_{4}, r_{5}\right)$ into ( $\left.r_{1}, r_{2}, r_{3}+N, r_{4} \wedge r_{5}, 0\right)$, where $N$ is some multiple of $r_{4} \wedge r_{5}$. By applying again a power of $\tau_{4}$, we get to ( $\left.r_{1}, r_{2}, r_{3}, r_{4} \wedge r_{5}, N\right)$. Similarly, by applying a sequence of $\tau_{3}$ and $\tau_{4}$, and then some power of $\tau_{3}$ to correct the effect on $r_{2}$, we can arrive at a vector of the form $\left(r_{1}, r_{2}, r_{3} \wedge r_{4} \wedge r_{5}, \star, \star\right)$. We then do the same operation on the second and third entries of the vector using $\tau_{3}$ and $\tau_{2}$, and again finally on the first and second via $\tau_{2}$ and $\tau_{1}$. After these operations, the new vector is of the form $\left(1, r_{2}^{\prime}, r_{3}^{\prime}, r_{4}^{\prime}, r_{5}^{\prime}\right)$, and after using a power of $\tau_{1}$, we get the vector $\left(1,1, r_{3}^{\prime}, r_{4}^{\prime}, r_{5}^{\prime}\right)$.

Applying $\tau_{3}$ maps this vector to ( $1,1-r_{3}^{\prime}, r_{3}^{\prime}, r_{4}^{\prime}+r_{3}^{\prime}, r_{5}^{\prime}$ ). We can then apply $\tau_{1}^{r_{3}^{\prime}}$, to get $\left(1,1, r_{3}^{\prime}, r_{4}^{\prime}+r_{3}^{\prime}, r_{5}^{\prime}\right)$. Let us call $\tau_{3}^{\prime}$ this combination. Then, the operations $\tau_{3}^{\prime}$ and $\tau_{4}$ enable to run the Euclidean algorithm on $r_{3}^{\prime}$ and $r_{4}^{\prime}$, without changing first two entries of the vector. This allows us to arrive at a vector of the form $(1,1,0, n, m)$. Now we apply $\tau_{2}$, getting $(0,1,1, n, m)$, and then $\tau_{3}$, getting $(0,0,1, n+1, m)$.

Our interest in Proposition 5.24 is that it is much easier to keep track of the dynamics of two curves if their rotation numbers are zero. In this case, we do not need a condition as strong as $\operatorname{Per}(a) \cap \operatorname{Per}(b)=\varnothing$ in order
to control the fixed points as in Lemma 5.15. More precisely, we have the following statement.

Proposition 5.25. Suppose $\operatorname{rot}(a)=\operatorname{rot}(b)=0$. Then for every $\varepsilon>0$, there exists a one-parameter family $\left(a_{t}\right)_{t \in \mathbb{R}}$ commuting with $a$, an interval $J \subset \mathbb{R}$, and a finite collection of homeomorphisms $\phi_{i}: J \rightarrow S^{1}$ with disjoint images, such that for all $t \in J$,

$$
\operatorname{Fix}\left(a_{t} b\right) \cap\left(S^{1} \backslash V_{\varepsilon}(P(a, b))\right)=\left\{\phi_{1}(t), \cdots, \phi_{n}(t)\right\}
$$

In other words, for all $t \in J$, the fixed points of $a_{t} b$ at distance $\geqslant \varepsilon$ to $P(a, b)$ are finite in number and move continuously in $t$. Note that, in the statement above, we do not require $a_{t}$ to be a positive family.

Proof. Fix a positive one-parameter family $\alpha_{t}$ commuting with $a$. We will modify $\alpha_{t}$ to obtain the desired family $a_{t}$.

When $\operatorname{rot}(a)=\operatorname{rot}(b)=0$, we have $P(a, b)=\operatorname{Fix}(b) \cap \partial \operatorname{Fix}(a)$, and the set $U(a, b)$ has a very simple description: $x \in U(a, b)$ if and only if $x$ and $b(x)$ are in the same connected component of $S^{1} \backslash \partial \mathrm{Fix}(a)$. Thus, $U(a, b)=\bigcup_{I}\left(I \cap b^{-1}(I)\right)$, where $I$ ranges over the connected components of $S^{1} \backslash \partial \mathrm{Fix}(a)$. As each connected component $I$ is $a$-invariant, we may define $a_{t}$ separately on each, affecting only $\operatorname{Fix}\left(a_{t} b\right) \cap I$.

For every connected component $I$ of $S^{1} \backslash \partial \operatorname{Fix}(a)$, let $U(I)$ denote $I \cap$ $b^{-1}(I)$. By definition, each endpoint of $U(I)$ lies in $\partial N(a, b) \cup P(a, b)$. Thus, by Lemma 2.19, all but finitely many intervals $U(I)$ lie in $V_{\varepsilon}(P(a, b))$. On all the corresponding connected components $I$ of $S^{1} \backslash \partial \mathrm{Fix}(a)$, there is nothing to worry about, and we set $a_{t}=\alpha_{t}$.

Now we treat the remaining (finitely many) intervals $I$ of $S^{1} \backslash \operatorname{Fix}(a)$ such that $U(I)$ is nonempty, considering the configuration of $I$ and $b^{-1}(I)$. As a first case, suppose that $I$ and $b^{-1}(I)$ share an endpoint, i.e. a point in $P(a, b)$. If this is the right endpoint, define $a_{t}=\alpha_{t}$ on $I$. If the left endpoint is shared, take instead $a_{t}=\alpha_{-t}$. If $I=b(I)$, either choice will work. In each case, for all $s$ sufficiently large, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Fix}\left(a_{s} b\right) \cap I \subset V_{\varepsilon}(P(a, b)) \tag{5.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

As a second case, suppose $b$ shifts $I$. If the shift is to the right, i.e. $I=\left(x_{1}, x_{3}\right)$ and $b(I)=\left(x_{2}, x_{4}\right)$ with $x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}$ in cyclic order, define $a_{t}=\alpha_{t}$ on $I$, and if the shift is to the left, set $a_{t}=\alpha_{-t}$. In either case, for all $s$ sufficiently large, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Fix}\left(a_{s} b\right) \cap I=\varnothing \tag{5.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

We are left with the case where either $b(\bar{I}) \subset I$ or $\bar{I} \subset b(I)$. Suppose the first holds, as the second can be dealt with by a symmetric argument. Note that (using $\alpha_{t}$ and $b$ ) we are in the case $n=1$ of Lemma 4.9 of the preceding section. Thus, there exists $s \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $\alpha_{s} b$ has a unique fixed point in $I$. Moreover, $b(\bar{I}) \subset I$ implies that this unique fixed point is an attracting point, i.e. we may take local coordinates so that the map $\alpha_{s} b$ agrees with $x \mapsto x / 2$ at the origin. After reparametrization of $\alpha_{t}$ on $I$, we may assume that this time $s$ is sufficiently large to satisfy (5.1) and (5.2) above. Working in coordinates, let $(-\delta, \delta)$ be a neighborhood of 0 contained in a fundamental domain for $a$. Let $\tau_{t}$ be a smooth family of bump functions supported on
$(-\delta, \delta)$ and agreeing with $x \mapsto x+t$ on an even smaller (fixed) neighborhood of 0 , for all $t<\delta^{\prime}<\delta$. Extend $\tau_{t} a$-equivariantly to a homeomorphism of $I$ Now define $a_{t}$ on $I$ to agree with $\alpha_{t}$ for $t<s$, to agree with $\tau_{t-s} \alpha_{s}$ for $s \leqslant t \leqslant s+\delta^{\prime}$, and arbitrarily (for example, constant in $t$ ) for $t \geqslant s+\delta^{\prime}$. Varying $t$ in $J:=\left(s, s+\delta^{\prime}\right)$, the homeomorphism $a_{t} b$ has a unique fixed point in $I$ that moves continuously with $t$, as desired. Of course, we can choose parameterizations of $a_{t}$ on each of these (finitely many) intervals so that $J$ does not depend on $I$. This proves the lemma.

Using this tool, we can propagate finite orbits over chains.
Proposition 5.26. Let $a, \gamma_{1}, \gamma_{2}, \gamma_{3}, \ldots \gamma_{k}$ be a chain. Suppose that $\operatorname{Per}(a)$ has empty interior, $\operatorname{rot}\left(\gamma_{i}\right)=0$ for all $i$, the subgroup $\left\langle a, \gamma_{1}\right\rangle$ has a finite orbit and $\left\langle\gamma_{i}, \gamma_{i+1}\right\rangle$ has a global fixed point. Then $\left\langle a, \gamma_{i}, \ldots, \gamma_{k}\right\rangle$ has a finite orbit.

Proof. Inductively, suppose the statement holds for chains of length $k$ and take a chain of length $k+1$ of the form $a, \gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{k}$. By inductive hypothesis the group generated by the first $k$ elements $\left\langle a, \gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{k-1}\right\rangle$ has a finite orbit, i.e. there is a periodic orbit of $a$ contained in $\bigcap_{i=1}^{k-1} \operatorname{Fix}\left(\gamma_{i}\right)$.

Since $\operatorname{Per}(a)$ has empty interior, for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we can use Proposition 5.25 to produce a homeomorphism $c(n)$ lying in a one-parameter family commuting with $\gamma_{k}$ such that $\operatorname{Fix}\left(c(n) \gamma_{k-1}\right) \cap \operatorname{Per}(a) \subset V_{1 / n}\left(P\left(\gamma_{k-1}, \gamma_{k}\right)\right)$. Indeed, with the notation of that proposition, there exists $t \in J$ such that $\phi_{j}(t) \notin \operatorname{Per}(a)$ for all $j$, because $\bigcap_{j} \phi_{j}^{-1}(\operatorname{Per}(a))$ has empty interior in $J$. Do this for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$; we do not require that the $c(n)$ all belong to a common one-parameter family, all that is important is that they are each obtainable by a bending deformation, hence give a semi-conjugate representation.

The result is a sequence of bending deformations $c(n) \gamma_{k-1}$ of $\gamma_{k-1}$ such that

$$
\operatorname{Fix}\left(c(n) \gamma_{k-1}\right) \cap \operatorname{Per}(a) \subset V_{1 / n}\left(\operatorname{Fix}\left(\gamma_{k-1}\right) \cap \operatorname{Fix}\left(\gamma_{k}\right)\right)
$$

Since $\left\langle a, \gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{k-1}\right\rangle$ has a finite orbit, and this property is stable under semi-conjugacy, it follows that, for every $n, \bigcap_{i=1}^{k-2} \operatorname{Fix}\left(\gamma_{i}\right) \cap \operatorname{Fix}\left(c(n) \gamma_{k-1}\right)$ contains a full orbit of $a$. For each $n$, choose one such full orbit, and denote it by $\mathcal{O}_{n}$. After passing to a subsequence, the sets $\mathcal{O}_{n}$ converge pointwise to a finite subset of $\bigcap_{i=1}^{k-2} \operatorname{Fix}\left(\gamma_{i}\right) \cap \operatorname{Per}(a)$ that is invariant under $a$ (as these are both closed conditions) so the limit is a full orbit. Moreover, this orbit is contained in every open neighborhood of $\operatorname{Fix}\left(\gamma_{k-1}\right) \cap \operatorname{Fix}\left(\gamma_{k}\right)$, so also lies in $\operatorname{Fix}\left(\gamma_{k-1}\right) \cap \operatorname{Fix}\left(\gamma_{k}\right)$. This gives a periodic orbit of $a$ in $\bigcap_{i=1}^{k} \operatorname{Fix}\left(\gamma_{i}\right)$, as desired.

We can now prove the main result advertised at the beginning of this section.

Proof of proposition 5.23. Let $\Sigma_{g, 1}$ be a surface with one boundary component, in which all tori are very good. Recall that our goal is to show that $\rho$ has a finite orbit. Since all tori are very good, we may use Proposition 5.24 to find a standard system of generators $a_{1}, b_{1}, \ldots, a_{g-1}, b_{g-1}$ where $\operatorname{rot}\left(a_{i}\right)=\operatorname{rot}\left(b_{i}\right)=0$ for all $i=2,3, \ldots, g-1$. Since $T\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right)$ is good, we may also assume that $\operatorname{rot}\left(b_{1}\right)=0$.

Let $\delta_{i}=a_{i+1}^{-1} b_{i+1} a_{i+1} b_{i}^{-1}$ as in Section 2.1, so that ( $a_{1}, \delta_{1}, a_{2}, \delta_{2}, \ldots \delta_{g-2}, a_{g-1}, b_{g-1}$ ) forms a chain. For each $i$, we can use Lemma 5.18 in order to assume without loss of generality that $\operatorname{Per}\left(\delta_{i}\right)$ has empty interior, and then apply Proposition 5.26 to the chain ( $\delta_{i}, a_{i}, b_{i}$ ). It follows that $\left\langle\delta_{i}, b_{i}\right\rangle$ has a finite orbit, hence

$$
\operatorname{rot}\left(\delta_{i}\right)+\operatorname{rot}\left(b_{i}\right)=\operatorname{rot}\left(a_{i+1}^{-1} b_{i+1} a_{i+1}\right)=\operatorname{rot}\left(b_{i+1}\right) .
$$

Thus, $\operatorname{rot}\left(\delta_{i}\right)=0$ for all $i$.
Lemma 5.18 implies that, after a deformation, we may assume that $\operatorname{Per}\left(a_{1}\right)$ has empty interior. Thus, we can apply Proposition 5.26 to the chain $\left(a_{1}, \delta_{1}, a_{2}, \delta_{2}, \ldots \delta_{g-2}, a_{g-1}, b_{g-1}\right)$ to conclude that the subgroup generated by these elements has a finite orbit. As this subgroup is equal to $\pi_{1}\left(\Sigma_{g-1,1}\right)$, this proves the proposition.
5.4. Proof of Theorem 1.6. Theorem 1.6 is now a quick consequence of Proposition 5.23 and Corollary 5.20.

Proof of Theorem 1.6. Let $\rho: \pi_{1}\left(\Sigma_{g}\right) \rightarrow$ Homeo $_{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$ be a path-rigid representation, and suppose that $\rho$ is not geometric. If $\Sigma$ contains a bad torus $T$, then by Proposition 1.12, $\Sigma \backslash T$ contains only very good tori. If $\Sigma$ contains no bad torus, but some torus $T^{\prime}$ that is not very good, then Proposition 1.12 implies that $\Sigma \backslash T^{\prime}$ contains only very good tori. In either case, there is a genus $g-1$ subsurface $\Sigma_{g-1,1}$ containing only very good tori, hence by Proposition 5.23 the restriction of $\rho$ to $\Sigma_{g-1,1}$ has a finite orbit. In particular, the boundary curve of this subsurface has zero rotation number, and the restriction of $\rho$ to this subsurface has relative Euler number zero.

It follows that the Euler number of the remaining (not very good) torus is either 0 or $\pm 1$. By Corollary 5.20 , if it is $\pm 1$, then $\rho$ is geometric. Thus, the remaining torus has Euler number 0, and by additivity the Euler number of $\rho$ is zero.

We conclude by noting that if $\Sigma$ has only very good tori, then the proof of Proposition 5.23 actually shows that $\rho$ has a finite orbit (hence automatically Euler number zero).

## 6. Proof of Theorem 1.5 and last comments

6.1. Proof of Theorem 1.5. Here is where we use the stronger hypothesis of rigidity, instead of path-rigidity. Our proof relies on the following observation, that was hinted to us by work in the recent article [1].
Lemma 6.1. Let $\rho$ be a rigid, minimal representation. Let $T=T(a, b)$ be a very good torus. Then only finitely many points of $S^{1}$ have a finite orbit under $\langle a, b\rangle$. In particular, if $\operatorname{rot}(a)=0$ then $P(a, b)$ is a finite set.

This observation is the only place where we use rigidity, rather than the weaker path-rigidity, in our proof.

Proof. Let $F(a, b)$ denote the set of points whose orbit under $\langle a, b\rangle$ is finite. To simplify the exposition of the proof, fix a metric on $S^{1}$ so that $a$ and $b$ act on $F(a, b)$ by rigid rotations. Given any $\varepsilon>0$, let $J_{1}, J_{2}, \ldots$ denote the (finitely many) connected components of $S^{1} \backslash F(a, b)$ consisting of intervals of length greater than $\varepsilon$ (by our choice of metric, this is a $\langle a, b\rangle$-invariant set).

If $F(a, b)$ is finite, and $\varepsilon$ small enough, then $\bigcup_{i} \overline{J_{i}}=S^{1}$. Otherwise (even in the case where $\bigcup_{i} \overline{J_{i}}=\varnothing$ ), we may divide $S^{1} \backslash \bigcup_{i} \overline{J_{i}}$ into finitely many disjoint open intervals $I_{1}, I_{2}, \ldots$ each of length at most $\varepsilon$ and with endpoints in $F(a, b)$, such that these intervals are permuted by $\langle a, b\rangle$, and such that $S^{1}=\left(\bigcup_{i} \overline{J_{i}}\right) \cup\left(\bigcup_{i} \overline{I_{i}}\right)$.

Since $T$ is very good, we can suppose without loss of generality that $\operatorname{rot}(a)=0$. We claim that there exist $a^{\prime}, b^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$, agreeing with $a$ and $b$ on $S^{1} \backslash \bigcup_{i} I_{i}$, such that $\left[a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right]=[a, b]$ holds globally, and such that $\operatorname{Per}\left(b^{\prime}\right) \cap \bigcup I_{i}=\varnothing$.

Let $c=[a, b]$. As $\bigcup_{i} I_{i}$ is $a, b$-invariant, constructing $a^{\prime}$ and $b^{\prime}$ amounts to solving the equation $b^{\prime} c=a^{\prime-1} b a^{\prime}$ on $\bigcup_{i} J_{i}$. That this can be solved is shown in [5, Lemma 2.7]; as their notation and context is slightly different, we explain the strategy. Take coordinates identifying each $J_{i}$ with $\mathbb{R}$. If $b^{\prime}$ is defined on some $J_{i}$ (with image in $J_{j}$ ) to increase sufficiently quickly (as a homomorphism $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ), then $b^{\prime} c$ will also be strictly increasing, hence conjugate to $b^{\prime}$. One then defines $a^{\prime}$ to be this conjugacy.

Let $\rho^{\prime}$ be the representation obtained from $\rho$ by replacing $(a, b)$ by $\left(a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right)$. As $\varepsilon>0$ is arbitrary, this $\rho^{\prime}$ can be taken arbitrarily close to $\rho$, in $\operatorname{Hom}\left(\Gamma_{g}, \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)\right)$. Since $\rho$ is assumed rigid, for small enough $\varepsilon, \rho^{\prime}$ must be semi-conjugate to $\rho$. As $\rho$ was supposed to be minimal, then there is a continuous semi-conjugacy $h: S^{1} \rightarrow S^{1}$ such that $h \circ \rho^{\prime}=\rho \circ h$. Let

$$
F^{\prime}:=\left\{x \in S^{1} \mid x \text { has finite orbit under }\left\langle\rho^{\prime}(a), \rho^{\prime}(b)\right\rangle\right\}
$$

By construction of $\rho^{\prime}$, this set is finite. However, $h\left(F^{\prime}\right)=F(a, b)$. It follows that $F(a, b)$ was finite as well.

To conclude the proof of Theorem 1.5, let $\rho$ be a rigid, minimal representation, and assume for contradiction that $\rho$ is non-geometric. As a consequence of Lemma 6.1, Proposition 5.8 and Lemma 5.11, $\rho$ cannot have bad tori. In order to derive a contradiction, we will show that all good tori are actually very good. We pursue this in the spirit of Proposition 5.12.

Lemma 6.2. Suppose $P(a, b)=\varnothing$. Then $\partial N(a, b) \subset \partial \operatorname{Per}(a) \cup b^{-1}(\partial \operatorname{Per}(a))$.
Proof. Assume $P(a, b)=\varnothing$ and let $x \in \partial N(a, b)$. Since $P(a, b)=\varnothing$, the set $N(a, b)$ is closed, hence $x \in N(a, b) \cap \overline{U(a, b)}$.

Suppose that $x \notin\left(\partial \operatorname{Per}(a) \cup b^{-1}(\partial \operatorname{Per}(a))\right.$. Then, there exists two intervals, $I, J$, neighborhoods of $x$, with $I \subset S^{1} \backslash \partial \operatorname{Per}(a)$ and $J \subset S^{1} \backslash b^{-1}(\partial \operatorname{Per}(a))$. As $x \in \overline{U(a, b)}$, there exists $u \in U(a, b) \cap I \cap J$. Let $a_{t}$ be a positive oneparameter family commuting with $a$. Since $b(J)$ contains $b(x)$ and $b(u)$ and $b(J) \cap \partial \operatorname{Per}(a)=\varnothing$, there exists $t_{0} \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $a_{t_{0}} b(x)=b(u)$. Similarly, there exists $t_{1} \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $a_{t_{1}}(u)=x$. Thus, $\Delta_{a, b}\left(x, t_{1}+\right.$ $\left.T(u), T(u), \ldots, T(u), T(u)+t_{0}\right)=0$, and it now follows easily that $x \in$ $U(a, b)$. This proves the lemma.

Lemma 6.3. Suppose $\operatorname{rot}(a)=0$ and suppose $\langle a, b\rangle$ has no finite orbit. Choose a positive one-parameter group $b_{t}$ commuting with $b$. Then for all $x \in S^{1}$, there exist at most two values of $t$ such that $x \in \partial N\left(b_{t} a, b\right)$.

Proof. Since $\langle a, b\rangle$ has no finite orbit, $P(a, b)=\varnothing$ and hence $P\left(b_{t} a, b\right)=\varnothing$ for all $t$. Let $x \in S^{1}$; we will apply Lemma 6.2 to the pairs $\left(b_{t} a, b\right)$. If
$x \in \operatorname{Per}(b)$, then $x \notin N\left(b_{t} a, b\right)$, and in particular $x \notin \partial N\left(b_{t} a, b\right)$ for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$. Thus, suppose $x \notin \operatorname{Per}(b)$.

By Lemma 6.2, if $x \in \partial N\left(b_{t} a, b\right)$, then $x \in \partial \operatorname{Per}\left(b_{t} a\right) \cup b^{-1}\left(\partial \operatorname{Per}\left(b_{t} a\right)\right)$. Note that $x$ cannot be in $P(b, a)$, as $x \notin \operatorname{Per}(b)$. Hence, if there exists some $t \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $x \in \operatorname{Per}\left(b_{t} a\right)$, then $x \in U(b, a)$, and this $t$ is unique. Similarly, if there exists some $t \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $b(x) \in \operatorname{Per}\left(b_{t} a\right)$, then $b(x) \in U(b, a)$, and this $t$ is unique. This concludes the proof.

Using these tools, we will now show that $\rho$ (always assumed rigid and minimal) satisfies hypothesis $S_{k}$. We divide the first part of this proof into two lemmas.

Lemma 6.4. Let $(a, b, c, d)$ be a 4-chain, and suppose $\operatorname{rot}(a)=\operatorname{rot}(d)=0$ holds. Suppose that $T(a, b)$ is good but not very good. Then we have $S_{k}(b, c)$.
Proof. By Lemma 6.1, the set $P(d, c)$ is finite, and using Lemma 6.3, we can first deform $a$, to some $b_{t} a$, so that $\partial N(a, b)$ does not intersect $P(d, c)$. Then by Lemma 5.13, we have $\operatorname{Per}(b) \cap \operatorname{Per}(c)=\varnothing$.

Lemma 6.5. Let $(a, b, c, d)$ be a 4-chain, and suppose $S_{k}(a, b)$ and $\operatorname{rot}(d)=0$ hold. Then we have $S_{k}(b, c)$.
Proof. By Lemma 6.1, the set $P(d, c)$ is finite. By Lemma 3.8 in the torus $T(a, b)$, the set $\operatorname{Per}(b)$ is disjoint from $P(d, c)$.

Hence, $\operatorname{Per}(b) \subset U(d, c) \cup N(d, c)$, and $\operatorname{Per}(b)$ is finite. Thus, for all but finitely many $t$, we have $\operatorname{Per}(b) \cap \operatorname{Per}\left(d_{t} c\right)=\varnothing$. Hence $\operatorname{Per}(b) \cap \operatorname{Per}(c)=\varnothing$ by Lemma 2.30.

Now we can complete the proof of the Theorem.
Proof of Theorem 1.5. Let $\rho$ be a rigid, minimal representation. As we said above, $\rho$ does not admit any bad torus. If all tori are very good, then as in the proof of Theorem 1.6, we know that $\rho$ admits a finite orbit, a contradiction.

Thus, $\rho$ admits a good torus, $T(a, b)$, which is not very good. We may suppose $\operatorname{rot}(a)=0$. As all tori are good, we may choose a curve $d$ outside $T(a, b)$ with $\operatorname{rot}(d)=0$, and we may form a 4-chain $(a, b, c, d)$. By Lemma 6.4, we have $S_{k}(b, c)$ for some $k$.

Now rename $(b, c)$ into $(a, b)$, and forget about the other curves, remembering only that we have two curves $a, b$ with $S_{k}(a, b)$. Since all tori are good, we may choose a curve $d$ outside $T(a, b)$ such that $\operatorname{rot}(d)=0$, and such that there exists a standard generating system beginning with $(a, b, d, \gamma)$ Define $u=\gamma a^{-1} b^{-1} a$ and $v=\gamma a^{-1}$. Then $(u, a, b, v),(d, u, a, b)$ and $(a, b, v, d)$ are 4 -chains (we encourage the reader to refer to Figure 1 and draw these curves $u$ and $v$ for him/herself). Apply Lemma 6.5 to the 4 -chain $(a, b, v, d)$. This proves that $S_{k}(b, v)$ holds. The same lemma applied to the 4 chain $(d, u, a, b)$ implies $S_{k}(u, a)$. Hence, the 4-chain $(u, a, b, v)$ satisfies $S_{k}(u, a), S_{k}(a, b)$ and $S_{k}(b, v)$. We can deform $a$ along $u$, thanks to Lemma 3.8, in such a way that $\operatorname{Per}(a) \cap \operatorname{Per}(v)=\varnothing$, hence we have $S_{k}^{+}(b, a)$, and we can deform $b$ along $v$, in such a way that $\operatorname{Per}(b) \cap \operatorname{Per}(u)=\varnothing$, hence we have $S_{k}^{+}(a, b)$. Finally, this proves $S_{k}^{++}(a, b)$, and thus $\rho$ is geometric by Corollary 5.19.
6.2. Comments and further questions. We conclude this paper by discussing some natural questions and directions for further work.
6.2.1. Path-rigidity. Given Theorem 1.6, we expect that path-rigiditity should suffice to imply that a representation is geometric. The most obvious route to this result would be through an improvement of Lemma 6.1, as it is the only place where we use the stronger hypothesis of rigidity.

Question 6.6. Does Lemma 6.1 hold when "rigid" is replaced by "path-rigid"?
This question also arises naturally out of the work of Alonso-Brum-Rivas in [1], which served as our inspiration for Lemma 6.1. Their main result is the following.

Theorem 6.7 (Alonso-Brum-Rivas [1]). Let $\rho \in \operatorname{Hom}\left(\Gamma_{g}, \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)\right)$ or in $\operatorname{Hom}\left(\Gamma_{g}, \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}(\mathbb{R})\right)$. In any neighborhood $U$ of $\rho$, there exists a representation $\rho^{\prime}$ without global fixed points.

Since it is unknown whether these representation spaces are locally connected, their result does not imply that there is a path-deformation of $\rho$ without global fixed points. Thus, the obvious problem arising out of their work is to upgrade this result to path-deformations. A first step in this direction would be to attempt to reprove [1, Lemma 3.9, 3.10]. These lemmas show that, in any neighborhood of $\rho$, there exists a representation $\rho^{\prime}$ whose fixed points are isolated and either attracting or repelling points. Can $\rho^{\prime}$ be attained by deforming along a path? If so, can this be generalized to finite orbits, rather than fixed points, for actions on $S^{1}$ ? This is essentially the content of Question 6.6 above.
6.2.2. The commutator equation. More general than Question 6.6 above, the following basic problem appears to be essential in understanding the topology of $\operatorname{Hom}\left(\Gamma_{g}\right.$, Homeo $\left.^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)\right)$.

Probem 6.8. For fixed $h \in \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$, describe the topology of the set

$$
\nu_{h}:=\left\{f, g \in \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right) \times \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right) \mid[f, g]=h\right\} .
$$

As it stands, remarkably little is known about this space. If $\operatorname{rot}(h) \in$ $\mathbb{Q} \backslash\{0\}$, then it is known that $\nu_{h}$ is not connected; however, we do not know the number of connected components, nor do we know in any circumstances whether $\nu_{h}$ is locally connected or not.

This problem is strongly related to Question 1.7 on classifying connected components of $\operatorname{Hom}\left(\Gamma_{g}\right.$, Homeo $\left.^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)\right)$ that we raised in the introduction. For instance, Goldman's classification of connected components of $\operatorname{Hom}\left(\Gamma_{g}, \operatorname{PSL}(2, \mathbb{R})\right)$ given in [9] is built upon a complete understanding of this space for $\nu_{h} \cap$ $\operatorname{PSL}(2, \mathbb{R}) \times \operatorname{PSL}(2, \mathbb{R})$. This is of course a much easier problem, as $\operatorname{PSL}(2, \mathbb{R})$ is a finite dimensional Lie group, and the commutator map is smooth. The result of the first author in [14] (that Euler number does not classify connected components of $\operatorname{Hom}\left(\Gamma_{g}, \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)\right.$ ), unlike the $\operatorname{PSL}(2, \mathbb{R})$ case) may also serve as warning that the topology of $\nu_{h}$ space should be more complicated than its intersection with $\operatorname{PSL}(2, \mathbb{R}) \times \operatorname{PSL}(2, \mathbb{R})$.

Throughout this paper, we navigated within $\nu_{h}$ by making bending deformations. This raises a few obvious questions, such as the following.

Question 6.9. Let $h \in \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$, and let $(f, g),\left(f^{\prime}, g^{\prime}\right)$ in the same path-component of $\nu_{h}$. Identifying $f, g$ with the image of generators of a
one-holed torus, Can we move from $(f, g)$ to $\left(f^{\prime}, g^{\prime}\right)$ by using bending deformations? More generally, given $\rho$ and $\rho^{\prime}$ in the same path-component of $\operatorname{Hom}\left(\Gamma_{g}, \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)\right)$, is there a path from $\rho$ to $\rho^{\prime}$ using bending deformations in simple closed curves on $\Sigma_{g}$ ?

This question is reminiscent of Thurston's earthquake theorem for Teichmüller space. It also calls to mind work of Goldman-Xia [10], who use the analogous (positive) result for bending deformations in connected components of classical character varieties in order to studying the action of the mapping class group on these varieties. As well as justifying our use of bending deformations alone, a positive answer to Question 6.9 would give another analogy between classical character varieties and $\chi\left(\Gamma_{g}, \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)\right)$.
6.2.3. Bad tori. In Section 5, we needed a long series of lemmas in order to prove that a path-rigid representation cannot contain two disjoint bad tori. However, we do not know any example of a path-rigid representation with even one single bad torus. Besides being an interesting question in itself, the question of existence bad tori could provide an alternative route to prove that path-rigid representations are geometric even in Euler class zero. The strategy would be to show that a path-rigid representation of $\Gamma_{g}$ cannot admit a bad torus, and then prove and enhanced version of Lemma 5.13.

However, we were somewhat surprised to be unable to tackle the following even more basic technical question.

Question 6.10. Let $T(a, b)$ be a one-holed torus. Does there exist a representation $\rho: \pi_{1}(T) \rightarrow \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$ such that the rotation number of every nonseparating simple closed curve is rational, but nonzero?

This is, obviously, related to understanding the mapping class group actions on character varieties, as we are insisting on finding a nonseparating simple closed curve.

By contrast, relaxing the condition that curves be simple gives a problem already solved by a classical (though not widely known) result of Antonov.

Theorem 6.11 (Antonov [2]). Let $\rho:\langle a, b\rangle \rightarrow \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$ be a minimal action. Either $\rho$ has abelian image, and is conjugate to an action by rotations, or (up to taking a quotient of $S^{1}$ by a finite order rotation $r$, in the case that $\rho$ commutes with $r$ ), the probability that the rotation number of the image of a random word of length $N$ in $\left\{a, b, a^{-1}, b^{-1}\right\}$ is zero tends to 1 as $N$ tends to $\infty$.

In the case where $\rho$ commutes with a finite order rotation, say of order $n$, the rotation numbers of random words equidistribute in $\left\{0, \frac{1}{n}, \ldots, \frac{n-1}{n}\right\}$. Thus, for any representation, most words have rational rotation number.
6.2.4. Local versus global rigidity. Thus far, we have discussed rigidity and path-rigidity of representations; rigidity being the natural notion to study from our interest in character spaces, and path deformations being easier to work with in practice. However, from a dynamical perspective, it is also interesting to study local rigidity or stability of actions. The following definition appears in [15], and is also discussed in [1].

Definition 6.12 (3.1 in [15]). A representation $\rho$ is called locally rigid if it has a neighborhood in the representation space $\operatorname{Hom}\left(\pi_{1} \Sigma_{g}, \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)\right)$ containing only representations semi-conjugate to $\rho$.

In many circumstances, this condition is much easier to satisfy than rigidity or path-rigidity. For example, an element $g \in \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)$ (thought of as a representation of $\mathbb{Z}$ ), with finitely many fixed points, all of which are attracting or repelling, is easily seen to be locally rigid, but it is semi-conjugate to (and in the same connected component of $\operatorname{Hom}\left(\mathbb{Z}, \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)\right)$ as the identity. We do not know if this phenomenon generalizes to representations of $\Gamma_{g}$.

Question 6.13. Is there a representation $\rho \in \operatorname{Hom}\left(\Gamma_{g} ; \operatorname{Homeo}^{+}\left(S^{1}\right)\right)$ that is locally rigid, but not rigid?

Again, a natural first step to this question could be to study the local topology of the sets $\nu_{h}$ defined above.

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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ Recall the largest Hausdorff quotient $X_{H}$ of a topological space $X$ is a space with the universal property that any continuous map $f: X \rightarrow Y$ from $X$ to a Hausdorff topological space factors canonically through the projection $X \rightarrow X_{H}$. One construction of $X_{H}$ is as the quotient of $X$ by the intersection of all equivalence relations $\sim$ such that $X / \sim$ is Hausdorff.

