A Lagrangian filling for every cluster seed

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ABSTRACT. We show that each cluster seed in the augmentation variety is inhabited by an embedded exact Lagrangian filling. This resolves the matter of surjectivity of the map from Lagrangian fillings to cluster seeds. The main new technique to produce these Lagrangian fillings is the construction and study of a quiver with potential associated to curve configurations. We prove that its deformation space is trivial and show how to use it to manipulate Lagrangian fillings with L-compressing systems via Lagrangian disk surgeries.

Només fràgils mots de la meva llengua, arrel i llavor.

Salvador Espriu.¹

1. INTRODUCTION

We show that each cluster seed is inhabited by an embedded exact Lagrangian filling. Heretofore, the surjectivity of the map from Lagrangian fillings to cluster seeds remained open for essentially all braids. The argument is based on applying Lagrangian disk surgeries to an initial Lagrangian filling with an L-compressing system. We are able to avoid the appearance of immersed curves, a known technical issue of this problem, by introducing and studying a new object: a quiver with potential for each such L-compressing system. The manuscript first establishes the key properties of these new quivers with potentials, including their rigidity and invariance. We then show how to use these properties to construct a Lagrangian filling for every cluster seed.

Scientific context. Let β be a positive braid word. Consider the Legendrian link $\Lambda_{\beta} \subset (\mathbb{R}^3, \xi_{st})$ obtained as the Legendrian lift of the rainbow closure of β , as defined in [CN22, Section 2.2] or cf. Section 4.1. Here $\xi_{st} = \ker\{dz - ydx\}$ where $(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3$ are Cartesian coordinates.

Consider its augmentation variety $X(\Lambda_{\beta}, T)$, where $T \subset \Lambda_{\beta}$ is a set of marked points, one per component. See Section 4.7 or [CN22, Section 5.1] and references therein for more details on such augmentation varieties. This affine algebraic variety $X(\Lambda_{\beta}, T)$ is smooth and isomorphic to the open (double) Bott-Samelson variety with pair of braids (β, e) , where e is the identity braid, up to trivial \mathbb{C}^{\times} -factors. It is known that its ring of regular functions $\mathbb{C}[X(\Lambda_{\beta}, T)]$ is a cluster algebra. See [SW21, GSW20a] for both these facts or cf. Section 4.7 below. An alternative, intrinsically symplectic construction of such cluster structures is provided in [CW22] via the microlocal theory of sheaves.

A salient property of this cluster algebra structure constructed on $\mathbb{C}[X(\Lambda_{\beta}, T)]$ is that an oriented embedded exact Lagrangian filling L of $\Lambda_{\beta} \subset (\mathbb{R}^3, \xi_{st})$, embedded in the symplectization $(\mathbb{R}^4, \lambda_{st})$ of (\mathbb{R}^3, ξ_{st}) , gives a cluster seed $\mathfrak{c}(L)$ in $\mathbb{C}[X(\Lambda_{\beta}, T)]$.² Note that these embedded exact Lagrangians Lfor Λ_{β} must typically be surfaces of higher genus. In addition, if L and L' are compactly supported Hamiltonian isotopic, then $\mathfrak{c}(L) = \mathfrak{c}(L')$. Again, see [GSW20a] or [CW22]. Such invariance property has been successfully used to distinguish Lagrangian fillings, cf. [CG22, GSW20b].

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¹ "Only fragile words off my own tongue, root and seed."

²The description of the cluster seed $\mathfrak{c}(L)$ is particularly explicit for Lagrangian fillings L associated to pinching sequences of β , see [CN22] and [GSW20a].

The Question. Let $\operatorname{Lag}(\Lambda_{\beta})$ be the set of Hamiltonian isotopy classes of embedded exact Lagrangian fillings of Λ_{β} in the symplectization of (\mathbb{R}^3, ξ_{st}) . A Hamiltonian isotopy class is given by the equivalence relation $L \sim L'$ iff there exists a compactly supported Hamiltonian diffeomorphism $\varphi \in \operatorname{Ham}^c(\mathbb{R}^4, \lambda_{st})$ such that $\varphi(L) = L'$. Let $\operatorname{Seed}(X(\Lambda_{\beta}, T))$ be the set of cluster seeds of the cluster algebra structure in $\mathbb{C}[X(\Lambda_{\beta}, T)]$ above. In summary, at its coarsest level, the construction cited above, which sends a Lagrangian filling L to its associated cluster seed $\mathfrak{c}(L)$, is a map of sets:

$$\mathfrak{C}$$
: Lag $(\Lambda_{\beta}) \longrightarrow$ Seed $(X(\Lambda_{\beta}, T))$.

In our view, the surjectivity and injectivity of this map \mathfrak{C} is a central open problem in low-dimensional contact and symplectic topology. It lies at the core of the study of Legendrian knots in (\mathbb{R}^3, ξ_{st}) and, more generally, the symplectic topology of Weinstein 4-manifolds. In fact, just understanding the exact cardinality of any fiber of \mathfrak{C} would be remarkable. The state of affairs is as follows:

- Injectivity of \mathfrak{C} is a generalization of the nearby Lagrangian conjecture for surfaces with boundary to a statement about embedded exact Lagrangians in Weinstein neighborhoods of Lagrangian skeleta. At core, it states that any embedded exact Lagrangian in a neighborhood of the arboreal Lagrangian skeleton consisting of L and Lagrangian disks attached to it is either Hamiltonian isotopic to L or to those Lagrangians obtained from it by Lagrangian surgeries along the disks in the skeleton. By [EP96], it is known that \mathfrak{C} is injective if Λ_{β} is the max-tb Legendrian unknot. Injectivity of \mathfrak{C} remains open for any other Legendrian link $\Lambda_{\beta} \subset (\mathbb{R}^3, \xi_{st}).$
- Surjectivity of \mathfrak{C} is a reconstruction statement, from an algebraic invariant back to actual 4-dimensional symplectic topology. Indeed, it inputs algebraic data, provided by the ring of functions $\mathbb{C}[X(\Lambda_{\beta}, T)]$ and a seed for its cluster structure, and should output symplectic topological data, an embedded exact Lagrangian filling of Λ_{β} .

By the finite type classification of cluster algebras, established in [FZ03], Seed $(X(\Lambda_{\beta}, T))$ is known to be a finite set only for a few exceptional cases, i.e. the ADE cases. For those ADE cases, \mathfrak{C} can be verified to be surjective by direct computation: this has recently been established in [Hug22, ABL21b] by using weaves [CZ22a]. See also [ABL21a] for the affine ADE cases where Seed $(X(\Lambda_{\beta}, T))$ is still finite, up to the natural tame quotient. These finite type and affine type are rare: essentially all braids β have Seed $(X(\Lambda_{\beta}, T))$ be an infinite set, cf. [GSW20b, Section 4] or [Cas22, Section 5]. Confer [CG22, CN22, CW22, STWZ19, STW16] and references therein for partial results on \mathfrak{C} and [Cas22, Section 5] for further discussions. Surjectivity of \mathfrak{C} remains open for any other Legendrian link $\Lambda_{\beta} \subset (\mathbb{R}^3, \xi_{st})$.

Note that there has been significant activity in recent times regarding the study of Lagrangian fillings, see e.g. [ABL21b, ABL21a, CS22, CG22, CN22, CL22, CGG⁺22, CW22, CZ22a, EHK16, GSW20a, GSW20b, Gol22, Hug22, Hug23, STWZ19]. These results use techniques from and connecting to the microlocal theory of sheaves, Floer theory and cluster algebras among others. That said, all fall objectively short of showing anything close to the surjectivity of \mathfrak{C} . This manuscript introduces a genuinely new technique: the definition, study and use of a quiver with potential (Q, W) to construct Lagrangian fillings.

The Main Result. The goal of this manuscript is to establish the surjectivity of the map \mathfrak{C} . In order to state the main result, which is a stronger version of surjectivity, we introduce the following concepts. Let $L \subset (\mathbb{D}^4, \lambda_{st})$ be an exact oriented Lagrangian filling, $\gamma \subset L$ an embedded oriented curve and Λ_{γ} its Legendrian lift to the ideal contact boundary $\partial \mathcal{O}p(L)$ of a convex open neighborhood $\mathcal{O}p(L)$ of L in \mathbb{D}^4 . Note that $\mathcal{O}p(L)$ is symplectomorphic to a convex neighborhood of the zero section in (T^*L, λ_{st}) . By definition, γ is said to be \mathbb{L} -compressible if there exists a properly embedded Lagrangian 2-disk $D \subset (T^*\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \mathcal{O}p(L))$ such that $\partial \overline{D} \cap \partial \mathcal{O}p(L) = \Lambda_{\gamma} \subset \mathbb{R}^4$ and the union of $\overline{D} \cup \nu_{\gamma}$ is a smooth Lagrangian disk, where $\nu_{\gamma} \subset \mathcal{O}p(L)$ is the Lagrangian conormal cone of γ .

A collection $\Gamma = \{\gamma_1, \ldots, \gamma_b\}$ of oriented embedded curves in L, with a choice of \mathbb{L} -compressing disks $\mathscr{D}(\Gamma) = \{D_1, \ldots, D_b\}$, one for each curve, is said to be an \mathbb{L} -compressing system for L if $D_i \cap D_j = \emptyset$ for all $i, j \in [b]$ and the homology classes of the curves in Γ form a basis of $H_1(L; \mathbb{Z})$. Two \mathbb{L} -compressing systems Γ, Γ' for L are said to be equivalent if there exists a sequence of triple point moves and bigon

moves, i.e. Reidemeister IIIs and non-dangerous tangencies, that applied to the curves in Γ lead to the curves in Γ' . See Section 2 for further discussions and cf. Figure 2 and Figure 8 for such moves. Given a Lagrangian filling L with an \mathbb{L} -compressing system Γ and a disk $D \in \mathscr{D}(\Gamma)$, Lagrangian disk surgery produces an embedded exact Lagrangian filling $\mu_D(L)$. For details on Lagrangian disk surgeries, see Section 4 below or cf. [Pol91, Yau17].

It is not always the case that $\mu_D(L)$ inherits an L-compressing system from (L, Γ) : curves in Γ might become immersed under Lagrangian disk surgery. Therefore, the set of curves $\mu_D(\Gamma)$ obtained from Γ after Lagrangian disk surgery on D might not be an L-compressing system. This is a well-known problem in this approach, cf. Section 4. The main technical achievement of this manuscript is to show that this can be corrected, showing that certain L-compressing systems persist under arbitrary sequences of Lagrangian disk surgeries. The quiver with potential that we introduce and study is a crucial ingredient for implementing this correction.

The core result of the manuscript is the following theorem, which implies the surjectivity of \mathfrak{C} for all positive braids β . The entire article is devoted to developing a new technique that proves this result.

Theorem 1.1. Let $\Lambda_{\beta} \subset (\mathbb{R}^3, \xi_{st})$ be the Legendrian link associated to a positive braid word β , and $T \subset \Lambda_{\beta}$ a set of marked points, with one marked point per component.

Then there exists an embedded exact Lagrangian filling $L \subset (\mathbb{R}^4, \lambda_{st})$ of Λ_β and an \mathbb{L} -compressing system Γ for L such that the following holds:

(i) If µ_{v_ℓ}...µ_{v₁} is any sequence of mutations, where v₁,..., v_ℓ are mutable vertices of the quiver Q(c(L)) associated to the cluster seed c(L) of L in C[X(Λ_β, T)], then there exists a sequence of embedded exact Lagrangian fillings L_k of Λ_β with associated cluster seeds

$$\mathfrak{c}(L_k) = \mu_{v_k} \dots \mu_{v_1}(\mathfrak{c}(L))$$

in $\mathbb{C}[X(\Lambda_{\beta}, T)]$, for all $k \in [\ell]$.

- (ii) Each embedded exact Lagrangian filling L_k is equipped with an \mathbb{L} -compressing system Γ_k such that L_{k+1} is obtained by Lagrangian disk surgery on L_k along a Lagrangian disk in $\mathscr{D}(\Gamma_k)$.
- (iii) Each \mathbb{L} -compressing system Γ_{k+1} is equivalent, via a sequence of triple point moves and local bigon moves, to the \mathbb{L} -compressing system obtained from Γ_k by performing Lagrangian disk surgery on L_k along a Lagrangian disk in $\mathscr{D}(\Gamma_k)$.

Theorem 1.1 is a reconstruction result that we prove by first introducing a new object: a quiver with potential $(Q(\mathcal{C}), W(\mathcal{C}))$ associated to a curve configuration \mathcal{C} . Such a curve configuration can be extracted from the Legendrian link Λ_{β} and its initial Lagrangian filling L. See [DWZ10] for general algebraic results on quiver with potentials.³ Our results will show that the right-equivalence class of this particular quiver with potential $(Q(\mathcal{C}), W(\mathcal{C}))$ associated to Λ_{β} is rigid, it is invariant under triple point moves and bigon moves, and changes according to QP-mutation under Lagrangian disk surgeries. A different choice of potential W for the quiver $Q(\mathcal{C})$, not tailored to our problem and the specific geometry of embedded polygons for curve configurations \mathcal{C} , would be of no use.⁴

This quiver with potential encodes an arboreal skeleton for the Weinstein relative pair $(\mathbb{C}^2, \Lambda_\beta)$, cf. [Eli18, Section 2] or [Cas22, Section 2]. Intuitively, proving its rigidity is showing that its rightequivalence class is invariant under infinitesimal deformations. Technically, we show that its deformation space, the trace space of the Jacobian algebra modulo the ground ring, is trivial. Thanks to the constructions in Sections 2 and 3, we are able to use this rigidity in Section 4 to show that we can geometrically realize any arbitrary sequence of algebraic mutations in the cluster algebra $\mathbb{C}[X(\Lambda_\beta, T)]$ by a sequence of Lagrangian disk surgeries on that arboreal skeleton for $(\mathbb{C}^2, \Lambda_\beta)$. Near the entirety of the manuscript is devoted to the construction, study and use of this new quiver with potential.

 $^{^{3}}$ The word potential has different meanings in the literature. Here a quiver with potential is meant in the sense of [DWZ10]. It is unrelated to the potentials from [PT20], for instance, which count holomorphic disks bounded by Lagrangians and thus vanish for exact Lagrangians.

⁴Similarly, previously constructed potentials in the context of CY3 categories or triangulated surfaces, e.g. [Gon17, Section 5.1], [Smi15] or [LF09], cannot be used either, unless proven to faithfully count embedded polygons and be invariant under the necessary 4D moves.

Remark 1.2. Each embedded exact Lagrangian filling L constructed in Theorem 1.1 gives a closed embedded exact Lagrangian surface \overline{L} in $W(\Lambda_{\beta})$, the Weinstein 4-fold obtained by attaching a Weinstein 2-handle to each component of Λ_{β} . If the cluster seeds of L, L' are different, $\mathfrak{c}(L) \neq \mathfrak{c}(L')$, then \overline{L} and $\overline{L'}$ are not Hamiltonian isotopic in $W(\Lambda_{\beta})$, only Lagrangian isotopic, cf. [CN22, Section 7]. Theorem 1.1 shows that each of these (typically infinitely many) different closed exact Lagrangians in $W(\Lambda_{\beta})$ is embedded in a different closed arboreal Lagrangian skeleton, cf. [Cas22, Section 2.4]. Note also that for each (L_k, Γ_k) , the object $C_1 \oplus \ldots \oplus C_{\pi_0(\Lambda_{\beta})} \oplus T_{p_1}^* D_1 \oplus \ldots \oplus T_{p_b}^* D_b$ is a compact generator of the wrapped Fukaya category of $W(\Lambda_{\beta})$, where $p_i \in D_i$ are interior points, $T_{p_i}^* D_i$ the local cotangent fibers and C_j are the co-cores of the Weinstein 2-handles. Therefore, Theorem 1.1 geometrically constructs a compact generator for each vertex of the cluster exchange graph of the cluster algebra $\mathbb{C}[X(\Lambda_{\beta}, T)]$.

The map is surjective. The construction of the cluster algebra structure for $\mathbb{C}[X(\Lambda_{\beta}, T)]$ has the following property, relating Theorem 1.1 to the map \mathfrak{C} ; cf. [CW22, GSW20a] or Section 4.7 below. Given a Lagrangian filling L of Λ_{β} and an \mathbb{L} -compressing system Γ , the cluster variables in $\mathfrak{c}(L)$ are indexed by the curves in Γ and the arrows in the quiver of $\mathfrak{c}(L)$ record geometric intersections of curves in Γ . The cluster variables are described by a microlocal parallel transport, cf. [CW22, Section 4]. In addition, the cluster seed $\mu_v(\mathfrak{c}(L))$ obtained by algebraically mutating at a vertex $v = \gamma$ of the quiver, indexed by some $\gamma \in \Gamma$, is precisely $\mathfrak{c}(\mu_{D_{\gamma}}(L))$, where D_{γ} is the \mathbb{L} -compressing disk associated to the curve $\gamma \in \Gamma$. Therefore, Theorem 1.1 implies the desired surjectivity:

Corollary 1.3. Let $\Lambda_{\beta} \subset (\mathbb{R}^3, \xi_{st})$ be the Legendrian torus link associated to a positive braid word β , $T \subset \Lambda_{\beta}$ a set of marked points, with one marked point per component, and $X(\Lambda_{\beta}, T)$ its augmentation variety. Then

 $\mathfrak{C}: \operatorname{Lag}(\Lambda_{\beta}) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Seed}(X(\Lambda_{\beta}, T))$

is surjective, i.e. each cluster seed is inhabited by an embedded exact Lagrangian filling.

We conjecture that the map \mathfrak{C} is injective. Corollary 1.3 and a proof that \mathfrak{C} is injective would completely settle the symplectic aspects of the classification of Hamiltonian isotopy classes of Lagrangian fillings for Λ_{β} , proving that it is equivalent to studying a class of cluster algebras, an algebraic matter.

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Structure of the manuscript. The study and use of our quiver with potential (QP) is as follows:

- (i) Section 2 introduces and develops the new concept: the quiver with potential $(Q(\mathcal{C}), W(\mathcal{C}))$ associated to a curve configuration \mathcal{C} . Proposition 2.5 and Lemma 2.7 show that the right equivalence class of $(Q(\mathcal{C}), W(\mathcal{C}))$ is invariant under triple point moves and local bigon moves. Then Lemma 2.21 and Proposition 2.22 show that the QP associated to a reduction of the γ -exchange on \mathcal{C} yields the QP-mutation of $(Q(\mathcal{C}), W(\mathcal{C}))$ at the corresponding vertex.
- (ii) Section 3 introduces the curve configurations C(G) associated to plabic fences G. Proposition 3.12 shows that the curve QP associated to C(G) is rigid.
- (iii) Section 4 constructs an initial Lagrangian filling with an L-compressible system whose associated curve configuration is of the form $\mathcal{C}(\mathbb{G})$ for a plabic fence \mathbb{G} . It then develops a few necessary technical results until Section 4.8, where we show how to use the rigidity of the QP for $\mathcal{C}(\mathbb{G})$ to prove Theorem 1.1.

Notation. We denote by [n] the set $\{1, \ldots, n\}$. The group of compactly supported diffeomorphisms of a smooth manifold Σ is denoted by $\text{Diff}^c(\Sigma)$. In this article, a quiver will refer to a multidigraph with no loops, but possibly with 2-cycles. The set of vertices of Q is denoted by Q_0 and its set of arrows by Q_1 . We often abbreviate *quiver with potential* to QP, as in [DWZ10]. For specificity, we use the ground ring $R = \mathbb{C}$ for the (complete) path algebra of the quiver. Let Σ be an oriented surface and $\mathcal{C} = \{\gamma_1, \ldots, \gamma_b\}, b \in \mathbb{N}$, a collection of embedded oriented closed connected curves $\gamma_i \subset \Sigma, i \in [b]$, whose pairwise intersections are all transverse. Two such collections \mathcal{C} and \mathcal{C}' will be considered equal if there exist a diffeomorphism $\varphi \in \text{Diff}^c(\Sigma)$ such that $\varphi(\mathcal{C}) = \mathcal{C}'$. In particular, two such collections \mathcal{C} and \mathcal{C}' related by compactly supported isotopies are considered to be equal. We assume that the only intersection points of curves in \mathcal{C} are double intersection points, i.e. exactly two curves $\gamma_i, \gamma_j \in \mathcal{C}$ intersect transversely at a given intersection point.

Definition 2.1. Let Σ be an oriented surface and $C = \{\gamma_1, \ldots, \gamma_b\}, b \in \mathbb{N}$, a collection of embedded oriented closed connected curves $\gamma_i \subset \Sigma, i \in [b]$. By definition, C is said to be a curve configuration, or simply a configuration, if the classes $[\gamma_1], \ldots, [\gamma_b]$ in $H_1(\Sigma; \mathbb{Z})$ form a basis.

In particular, for a curve configuration $\mathcal{C} = \{\gamma_1, \ldots, \gamma_b\}$ in Σ , we must have $b = b_1(\Sigma)$. The collections of curves \mathcal{C} needed to prove Theorem 1.1 will be configurations, i.e. consist of $b_1(\Sigma)$ curves whose homology classes span $H_1(\Sigma; \mathbb{Z})$. Throughout this manuscript, from now onward, we assume all collections of curves \mathcal{C} that we use satisfy such hypothesis, i.e. they are curve configurations.

2.1. The QP $(Q(\mathcal{C}), W(\mathcal{C}))$ associated to \mathcal{C} . Let \mathcal{C} be a curve configuration. Consider the integers $A_{ii}(\mathcal{C}) := |p \in \gamma_i \cap \gamma_j : \operatorname{sign}(p) \text{ is positive}| \in \mathbb{N},$

where $sign(p) = \pm$ is the sign of the intersection point p.

Definition 2.2. Let \mathcal{C} be a curve configuration. The quiver $Q(\mathcal{C})$ is defined to have vertex set $Q(\mathcal{C})_0 = \{\gamma_1, \ldots, \gamma_b\}$ and the arrow set $Q(\mathcal{C})_1$ is given by the condition that the number of arrows from γ_i to γ_j is $A_{ij}(\mathcal{C}), i, j \in [b]$.

The quiver $Q(\mathcal{C})$ is referred to as the curve quiver of \mathcal{C} . Since the curves in \mathcal{C} are embedded, the quiver $Q(\mathcal{C})$ has no loops; it might nevertheless have 2-cycles. The arrows from the vertex associated to γ_i to that of γ_j are in natural bijection with the positive intersection points $p \in \gamma_i \cap \gamma_j$ between γ_i and γ_j : we indistinctly identify arrows in $Q(\mathcal{C})$ and such intersection points $p \in \Sigma$. Let us now discuss the preliminaries to introduce the potential $W(\mathcal{C})$.

By definition, an ℓ -gon P bounded by C, $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\ell \geq 2$, is a closed contractible subset $P \subset \Sigma$ with a PL-smooth boundary ∂P and embedded interior such that:

- (i) There are ℓ connected components in $\partial P \setminus V$, where $V \subset \partial P$ is the set of non-smooth points of ∂P , i.e. V is the set of vertices of P. That is, there are ℓ sides to P.
- (ii) For each smooth connected components $\partial P_j \subset (\partial P \setminus V)$, $j \in [\ell]$, there exists a γ_{i_j} such that $\partial P_j \subset \gamma_{i_j}$ and the orientations either coincide for all $j \in [\ell]$ or they are opposite for all $j \in [\ell]$. That is, each oriented side of P is an oriented subspace of a curve in C or each oriented side of P is an oriented subspace of a curve in \overline{C} . Here $\overline{C} = \{-\gamma_1, \ldots, -\gamma_b\}$ denotes the same configuration of curves as in C where we have switched the orientation of each curve $\gamma \in C$.
- (iii) At a small enough neighborhood $U \subset \Sigma$ of a vertex $v \in V$, which locally is given by the intersection of two curves $\gamma_i, \gamma_j \in C$, the intersection $P \cap (U \setminus (U \cap (\gamma_i \cup \gamma_j)))$ is a unique quadrant. That is, vertices of an ℓ -gon only use one of the quadrants; in a combinatorial sense, ℓ -gons bounded by C are convex.

An ℓ -gon P bounded by C determines a cyclically ordered set of vertices. Conversely, it is uniquely determined by its cyclically ordered set of vertices and its orientation, clockwise or counter-clockwise. Since the vertices of P must be intersection points between the curves in C, which bijectively correspond to arrows in Q(C), such P is uniquely determined by a (cyclic) word of composable arrows starting and ending at the same vertex, along with its orientation. In other words, by a signed monomial in $HH_0(Q(C))$, the trace space of the path algebra $\mathbb{C}\langle Q(C) \rangle$ of Q(C). This correspondence is written $P = v_1 \dots v_\ell$ where v_1, \dots, v_ℓ are the vertices of P read according to the order induced by the orientation of ∂P .

Remark 2.3. Note that the connected components of $\Sigma \setminus (\gamma_1 \cup \ldots \cup \gamma_b)$ might or might not be ℓ -gons bounded by C, due to the orientations of the curves in C. Also, typically polygons bounded by C are not connected components of $\Sigma \setminus (\gamma_1 \cup \ldots \cup \gamma_b)$ as they might have curves in C cross through them.

Let Γ_{ℓ}^+ , resp. Γ_{ℓ}^- , be the set of ℓ -gons P bounded by \mathcal{C} where the orientation of ∂P coincides with, resp. it is opposite to, the orientations of the curves in \mathcal{C} .

For each intersection point of two curves $\gamma_i, \gamma_j \in C$ that represents an arrow from γ_i to γ_j in Q(C), or vice-versa, we decorate (shade) two consecutive quadrants as follows. If the tangent vectors of γ_i and γ_j , in this order, are an oriented basis of the tangent space at the intersection point, then we shade the two quadrants in the side of γ_i where γ_j points outwards from the intersection point; see Figure 1, where the shading of the quadrants is depicted. If that basis gives the reverse orientation, we shade the two quadrants in the side of γ_j where γ_i points outwards from the intersection point.

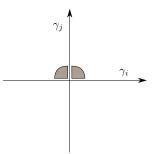


FIGURE 1. The shading of two quadrants at an intersection point. The two consecutive quadrants that are shaded are the first and the second quadrants, where we take the oriented basis as the two axes.

Given a polygon $P = v_1 \dots v_\ell$ bounded by C, each vertex v_i of P is assigned the sign $\sigma(v_i; v_1 \dots v_\ell) = 1$ if v_i uses a non-shaded quadrant, and the sign $\sigma(v_i; v_1 \dots v_\ell) = -1$ is v_i uses a shaded quadrant. By definition, the vertex sign $\sigma(v_1 \dots v_\ell)$ of the polygon P is

$$\sigma(v_1 \dots v_\ell) = \prod_{i=1}^\ell \sigma(v_i; v_1 \dots v_\ell).$$

Definition 2.4. The potential $W(\mathcal{C}) \in HH_0(Q(\mathcal{C}))$ of $Q(\mathcal{C})$ is defined by

$$W(\mathcal{C}) = \sum_{v_1 \dots v_\ell \in \Gamma_\ell^+} \sigma(v_1 \dots v_\ell) \cdot v_\ell \dots v_1 \quad -\sum_{w_1 \dots w_\ell \in \Gamma_\ell^-} \sigma(w_1 \dots w_\ell) \cdot w_1 \dots w_\ell,$$

where the sums run over all possible $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$, $\ell \geq 2$, and all possible elements of Γ_{ℓ}^{\pm} . The pair $(Q(\mathcal{C}), W(\mathcal{C}))$ is referred to as the curve quiver with potential of \mathcal{C} . We often abbreviate and refer to such a pair as a *curve QP* or a *cQP*.

Note that in Definition 2.4 we always write the vertices on the boundary left to right as read counterclockwise; in this manner the monomial is an actual cycle in the quiver $Q(\mathcal{C})$. We will often consider QP up to right-equivalence, i.e. up to automorphisms of the path algebra; see [DWZ10, Definition 4.2] for details.

2.2. Properties of curve QPs under planar moves. A configuration of curves C can be modified by smooth isotopies of Σ . The combinatorics of C, including the intersection pattern and polygons bounded by C, do not change under such isotopies. We can modify C more significantly by choosing one curve $\gamma \in C$ and smoothly isotope it to another curve $\gamma' \subset \Sigma$. The new configuration C' := $(C \cup \{\gamma'\}) \setminus \{\gamma\}$ has different combinatorics than that of C. In this article, we will consider two configurations C and C' equivalent if they can be connected by a sequence of triple moves and bigon moves; moves that we now introduce.

2.2.1. Behavior under triple point moves. Let $\gamma_1, \gamma_2, \gamma_3 \in C$. The two moves in Figure 2 will be referred to as triple point moves. In general, triple moves will refer to any local move that is smoothly isotopic to either of the two moves in Figure 2, possibly after switching orientations of arrows. The two moves in the figure capture all triple moves, up to rotational symmetries. A triple move applied

to a configuration C is a local operation: there exists a neighborhood $U \subset \Sigma$ such that $C \cap U$ is as in Figure 2 (left), the new configuration C' coincides with C outside of U, and $C' \cap U$ is as in Figure 2 (right). That is, this is a change in a configuration C which is compactly supported, as the boundary conditions in the local model in Figure 2 coincide before and after the move.

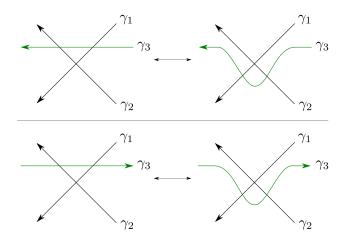


FIGURE 2. The two triple point moves.

Let us study how the curve QP $(Q(\mathcal{C}), W(\mathcal{C}))$ behaves under such triple point moves applied to \mathcal{C} .

Proposition 2.5. Let $(Q(\mathcal{C}), W(\mathcal{C}))$ be a curve QP associated to C. Then $(Q(\mathcal{C}), W(\mathcal{C}))$ is invariant under triple point moves, up to right-equivalence.

Proof. There are two cases to consider for a triple point move, depending on the orientations, see Figure 2 for the two cases.

First, we consider the local model in Figure 3 (left) and denote by γ_i^{in} , resp. γ_i^{out} , the tail, resp. the head, of the segment of γ_i in the local model; the head is where the arrow is drawn.

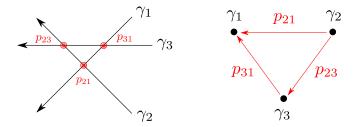


FIGURE 3. (Left) Local model for Case I before the triple move. (Right) Associated local quiver.

Let $R = (r_{ij})$ be the matrix such that r_{ij} equals the monomials on p_{lk} in $W(\mathcal{C})$ that are used by regions that intersect the local model entering at γ_l^{in} and exiting at γ_k^{out} , from either side. Then the matrix R reads

$$R = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & p_{21} + p_{23}p_{31} & p_{31} \\ p_{21} & 0 & p_{23} \\ p_{31} & p_{23} & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Indeed, the second entry in the first row corresponds to regions that enter in the upper right through γ_1^{in} and exist through γ_2^{out} on the upper left. There are two such regions: using p_{21} or using $p_{23}p_{31}$. Since both regions are oriented clockwise, there is an overall positive sign, and since none of the

quadrants being used are shaded, the sign remains positive. The third entry of the first row is similar. The first entry p_{21} and the third entry p_{23} on the second row are actually $p_{21} = -(-p_{21})$ and $p_{23} = -(-p_{23})$: both of the regions they record are oriented counter-clockwise, which gives an overall minus sign, and in addition both of them use a unique quadrant which happens to be shaded. This introduces another minus sign and therefore the entry has two minus signs, thus a positive coefficient in the end. The first entry on the third row is also $p_{31} = -(-p_{31})$, in that sense, whereas the second entry on the third row has two positive signs directly. From now onwards we will compute with both types of signs in mind (orientation sign and shaded quadrants signs), without further specifying when a positive sign is actually an even number of negative signs. The local quiver, recording the intersections that occur only in the local model, is depicted in Figure 3 (right).

After the triple point move we have the local model in Figure 4 (left) and its corresponding local quiver in Figure 4 (right). Note that the quivers in Figure 3 (right) and Figure 4 (right), before and after, are identical: thus it is clear that $Q(\mathcal{C})$ is invariant under this particular triple point move.

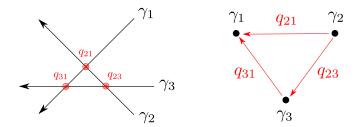


FIGURE 4. (Left) Local model for Case I after the triple move. (Right) Associated local quiver.

The matrix of regions R' after the triple move is computed as with R above. It reads:

$$R' = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & q_{21} & q_{31} \\ q_{21} - q_{23}q_{31} & 0 & q_{23} \\ q_{31} & q_{23} & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Note that the signs in the entry $q_{21} - q_{23}q_{31}$ are indeed correct: the region associated to q_{21} is oriented counter-clockwise and it uses a shaded quadrant, thus it is positive, and the region associated to $q_{23}q_{31}$ is oriented counter-clockwise and it uses two shaded quadrants, thus it is negative. Let us now compare R and R', which keep track of the regions in the potential $W(\mathcal{C})$ before and after a triple point move.

For that, consider the automorphism $\phi \in \operatorname{Aut}(\mathbb{C}\langle Q(\mathcal{C})\rangle)$ of the path algebra which is the identity on all arrows p_{ij} except for (i, j) = (2, 1) and sends the arrow p_{21} to

$$p_{21} \mapsto p_{21} - p_{23}p_{31}.$$

After applying this automorphism, R becomes

$$\phi(R) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & (p_{21} - p_{23}p_{31}) + p_{23}p_{31} & p_{31} \\ (p_{21} - p_{23}p_{31}) & 0 & p_{23} \\ p_{31} & p_{23} & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & p_{21} & p_{31} \\ p_{21} - p_{23}p_{31} & 0 & p_{23} \\ p_{31} & p_{23} & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The matrix R' and $\phi(R)$ are now related by the trivial relabeling $p_{ij} \mapsto q_{ij}$. This shows that the quiver $Q(\mathcal{C})$ remains invariant under this first case of the triple points move and the right-equivalence class of $(Q(\mathcal{C}), W(\mathcal{C}))$ is also invariant.

Second, we now consider the other local model for a triple move, as depicted in Figure 5 (left). The local quiver is drawn in Figure 5 (right).

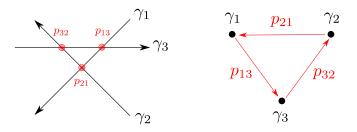


FIGURE 5. (Left) Local model for Case II before the triple move. (Right) Associated local quiver.

In the same notation as above, the matrix R before the triple point move is

$$R = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & p_{21} & p_{13} \\ p_{21} & 0 & p_{32} \\ p_{13} & p_{32} & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

except that in this case we also have the closed triangle region associated to the monomial $p_{13}p_{32}p_{21}$, entirely contained in this local model. Notice that this is a clockwise oriented triangle with none of its (interior) quadrants being shaded: the sign is therefore positive.

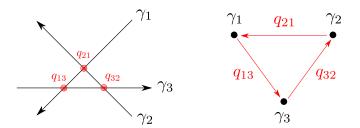


FIGURE 6. (Left) Local model for Case II after the triple move. (Right) Associated local quiver.

After the triple point move we have the local model depicted in Figure 6 (left), whose quiver is illustrated in Figure 6 (right). Therefore, the quiver $Q(\mathcal{C})$ also remains (literally) invariant under this second type of triple point move. In the same notation as above, the matrix R' after the triple point move is

$$R' = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & q_{21} & q_{13} \\ q_{21} & 0 & q_{32} \\ q_{13} & q_{32} & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

and we also have the triangle region associated to the monomial $q_{13}q_{32}q_{21}$, again entirely enclosed in this local model. The sign of this triangle is indeed positive: it is oriented counter-clockwise and its three (interior) quadrants are shaded. This accounts for a total of four negative signs, and therefore a resulting positive sign. In this second type of triple move the comparison before and after is given by the relabeling $p_{ij} \mapsto q_{ij}$, which indeed maps R to R' and the triangle $p_{13}p_{32}p_{21}$ to the triangle $q_{13}q_{32}q_{21}$. Therefore the quiver $Q(\mathcal{C})$ and the potential $W(\mathcal{C})$ are both identical before and after this triple point move. This concludes the result. 2.2.2. A property of local bigons. An ℓ -gon with $\ell = 2$ will be referred to as a bigon $B \subset \Sigma$. Note that a bigon $B \subset \Sigma$ must be oriented, either clockwise or counter-clockwise.⁵ By definition, a bigon $B \subset \Sigma$ is said to be local if $\operatorname{int}(B) \cap \gamma_i = \emptyset$ for all $\gamma_i \in \mathcal{C}$.

Given a local bigon $B \subset \Sigma$ as in Figure 7, we refer to the region $\rho(B)$ drawn in red, resp. the region $\lambda(B)$ drawn in blue, as its right region, resp. as its left region.

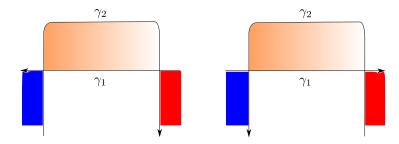


FIGURE 7. The regions $\rho(B)$ (red) and $\lambda(B)$ (blue). The bigons depicted in orange.

Assumption 1. Every local bigon $B \subset \Sigma$ is assumed to satisfy that $\lambda(B)$ is a different region than $\rho(B)$, i.e. $\lambda(B) \neq \rho(B)$ for all local bigons B.

It will be proven in Section 3.4, specifically Proposition 3.15, that this assumption is satisfied for the configurations of curves that we shall use, i.e. for those configurations constructed in Section 3. For now we work under Assumption 1: we suppose it holds for all local bigons discussed in the subsequent subsections.

2.2.3. Behavior under bigon moves. By definition, the local bigon moves are the local moves depicted in Figure 8. Note that this move only applies to local bigons, i.e. bigons $B \subset \Sigma$ such that $int(B) \cap \gamma_i = \emptyset$ for all $\gamma_i \in \mathcal{C}$. This is the reason for referring to this move as a local bigon move, instead of just a bigon move.

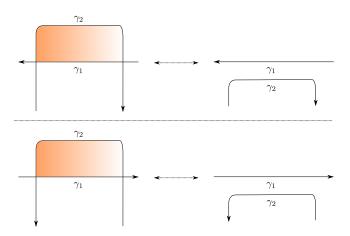


FIGURE 8. The two local bigon moves.

In order to understand how $(Q(\mathcal{C}), W(\mathcal{C}))$ changes under local bigon moves, we introduce the following:

Definition 2.6. Let (Q, W) be a QP and a, b be two arrows in Q such that ab is a 2-cycle and ab appears as a quadratic monomial in W. The *ab*-reduction of (Q, W), or the local reduction (Q, W) at ab, is the QP (Q', W') obtained as follows:

⁵If $\gamma_i, \gamma_j \in \mathcal{C}$ bound an "unoriented bigon", then $Q(\mathcal{C})$ has two arrows from γ_i to γ_j , or viceversa. We do not consider this a bigon. It does not yield a 2-cycle $Q(\mathcal{C})$ and (thus) it does not contribute a quadratic monomial to $W(\mathcal{C})$.

- (i) The quiver Q' coincides with Q except that both arrows a and b have been erased.
- (ii) The potential W' is constructed as follows. Suppose that there exist polynomials U, V, neither of them containing a or b, such that

$$W = (a - U)(b - V) + W',$$

where W' does not contain a or b, and the equality is up to cyclic permutation of each monomial. Then W' := W - (a - U)(b - V).

If such polynomials U, V do not exist, then the *ab*-reduction of (Q, W) is said not to exist.

Definition 2.6 and the use of the word reduction for such an operation is a direct influence of [DWZ10, Section 4]. Note that an oriented bigon $B \subset \Sigma$ uniquely determines its two intersection points, and it is uniquely determined by them if we know they bound a bigon. Equivalently, these are two arrows a, b in $Q(\mathcal{C})$ such that ab is a 2-cycle and ab is a monomial appearing in $W(\mathcal{C})$. In these cases, where abis the 2-cycle corresponding to an oriented bigon B, we also refer to an ab-reduction as a B-reduction.

Lemma 2.7. Let $(Q(\mathcal{C}), W(\mathcal{C}))$ be the curve QP associated to a curve configuration \mathcal{C} , $B \subset \Sigma$ be a local bigon and \mathcal{C}' the configuration \mathcal{C} after a local bigon move at B. Then the B-reduction of $(Q(\mathcal{C}), W(\mathcal{C}))$ exists and it equals $(Q(\mathcal{C}'), W(\mathcal{C}'))$.

Proof. Let us consider a bigon $B \subset \Sigma$ bounded by two curves γ_1 and γ_2 . There are two cases, depending on whether the bigon B is oriented clockwise or counter-clockwise. The two cases are almost identical and thus we focus on that of a clockwise oriented bigon, as depicted in Figure 9 (left). The local quiver is drawn in Figure 9 (right) and contains the 2-cycle $p_{12}p_{21}$. Since the bigon is oriented clockwise and none of the two quadrants of the bigon is shaded, its contribution to the potential $W(\mathcal{C})$ is the monomial $p_{12}p_{21}$.⁶

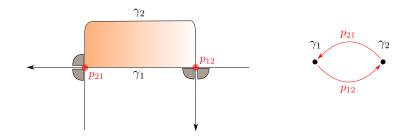


FIGURE 9. (Left) Local model for a bigon before the bigon move. The intersection points are highlighted in red and we have shaded the quadrants for clarity. (Right) Associated local quiver.

First, let us prove that the *B*-reduction of $(Q(\mathcal{C}), W(\mathcal{C}))$ exists.

Let S_{21} be the set of polygons that use the south-west corner of p_{21} , i.e. the set of polygons that come in from γ_2^{in} , turn left at p_{21} and exit via $\gamma_1^{out.^7}$ A polygon in S_{21} has the opposite orientation from the bigon B and contains p_{21} in its associated monomial in $W(\mathcal{C})$. Therefore, the contribution from polygons in S_{21} to the potential $W(\mathcal{C})$ has the form $-Up_{21}$ for some polynomial U that does not contain p_{21} . Similarly, let S_{12} be the set of polygons that use the south-east corner of p_{12} , i.e. the set of polygons that come from γ_1^{in} , turn down at p_{12} and exit via γ_2^{out} . The contribution from the polygons in S_{12} to the potential $W(\mathcal{C})$ has the form $-Vp_{12}$ for some polynomial V that does not contain p_{12} .

⁶In the case of a counter-clockwise oriented bigon, the bigon would contribute to the potential with $-p_{12}p_{21}$. There would be a minus sign because the bigon would be oriented counter-clockwise and use exactly two shaded quadrants.

⁷There are no polygons using the north-west or south-east quadrants at p_{21} because of orientations. Similarly, there are no polygons using the north-east and south-west quadrants at p_{12} .

By Assumption 1, the polynomial U does not contain p_{12} either. Indeed, any polygon in S_{21} uses $\lambda(B)$. If its contribution to the potential contained p_{12} , then $\lambda(B) = \rho(B)$ as it would be using the region $\rho(B)$ and polygons contributing to $W(\mathcal{C})$ are embedded. Similarly V does not contain p_{21} either.

Let us write the potential as

$$W(\mathcal{C}) = p_{12}p_{21} - Up_{21} - Vp_{12} + W.$$

for some \tilde{W} . Now, monomials in $W(\mathcal{C})$ are precisely given by boundaries of embedded regions, and thus their associated cycles in the quiver are irreducible, i.e. not the composition of two cycles. Therefore, the construction above is such that \tilde{W} does not contain p_{12} nor p_{21} . Following the formulation in Definition 2.6, we rewrite

$$W(\mathcal{C}) = (p_{12} - U)(p_{21} - V) - UV + W_{2}$$

where \tilde{W} does not contain p_{12} or p_{21} . Therefore, we can select $W' := -UV + \tilde{W}$ in Definition 2.6. Thus we conclude that $(Q(\mathcal{C}), W(\mathcal{C}))$ is indeed *B*-reducible.

Second, let us now show that the *B*-reduction of $(Q(\mathcal{C}), W(\mathcal{C}))$ equals $(Q(\mathcal{C}'), W(\mathcal{C}'))$. After the bigon move at *B* we have the local configuration in Figure 10 (left). The local quiver $Q'(\mathcal{C})$ becomes two vertices with no arrows between them, as there are no intersections in this local piece; it is depicted in Figure 10 (right). For the same reason, the potential $W(\mathcal{C}')$ after the bigon move has no contributions coming from this local configuration.

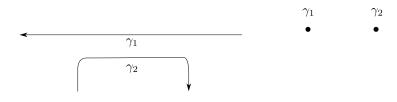


FIGURE 10. (Left) Local model for a bigon after the non-dangerous tangency. (Right) Associated local quiver.

By comparing the two quivers directly, $Q(\mathcal{C}')$ is obtained from $Q(\mathcal{C})$ by exactly removing the arrows p_{12} and p_{21} . We claim that the *B*-reduction of the curve potential $W(\mathcal{C})$ equals the curve potential after the bigon removal, namely $W' = W(\mathcal{C}')$, where $W' = -UV + \tilde{W}$ as above. Indeed, since the bigon region disappears, $p_{12}p_{21}$ is not in $W(\mathcal{C}')$. Also, any region in S_{21} itself disappears under the bigon move, and thus the polynomial term $-Up_{12}$ no longer appears in $W(\mathcal{C}')$. The argument for $-Vp_{21}$ is identical. This justifies that $p_{12}p_{21}$, $-Up_{12}$ and $-Vp_{21}$ must be subtracted from $W(\mathcal{C})$ to obtain the potential $W(\mathcal{C}')$. It suffices to prove that the term UV must be added (with signs) to $W(\mathcal{C}')$. Indeed, when we remove the local bigon, a polygon in S_{21} and a polygon in S_{12} will be connected along the strip between γ_1 and γ_2 , creating new polygons that contribute -UV. This leads to the addition of -UV in the potential $W(\mathcal{C}')$. In conclusion, the curve QP $(Q(\mathcal{C}'), W(\mathcal{C}'))$ is the *B*-reduction of $(Q(\mathcal{C}), W(\mathcal{C}))$, as required.

Before moving forward to the next subsection, we introduce the following definition:

Definition 2.8. A configuration of curves C such that there is no bigon bounded by C is said to be reduced. A configuration which is not reduced is said to be non-reduced.

2.2.4. Hass-Scott algorithm and the reduced part of $(Q(\mathcal{C}), W(\mathcal{C}))$. Consider a non-reduced configuration \mathcal{C}_0 with a collection of bigons $\{B_1, \ldots, B_m\}$. Note that these bigons B_i might not be local, i.e. the interior of each B_i might intersect curves in \mathcal{C}_0 in a non-empty set. The first step is to modify \mathcal{C}_0 into a reduced configuration. The Hass-Scott algorithm [HS85] allows us to do this: **Theorem 2.9** ([HS85]). Let C_0 be a non-reduced configuration with a collection of bigons $\{B_1, \ldots, B_m\}$. Then, for any $i \in [m]$, there exists a sequence of triple point moves and one local bigon move on C_0 that yields a new configuration C_1 such that the collection of bigons of C_1 is $\{B_1, \ldots, B_m\} \setminus \{B_i\}$. \Box

The proof of Theorem 2.9 is local on a given bigon B_i , in that it only modifies the configuration C_0 in a neighborhood of B_i . It is worth remarking that the Hass-Scott algorithm is able to remove a bigon without introducing further (unnecessary) intersections: just with triple points moves any bigon (possibly non-local) becomes a local bigon. In summary, given a non-reduced configuration $C \subset \Sigma$, the algorithm in [HS85] implies that there exists a sequence of moves, both possibly containing and intertwining triple point moves and local bigon moves, that when applied to C yields a reduced configuration.

2.3. Curve QPs under γ -exchange. We introduce the following operation on a configuration C.

2.3.1. Definition of γ -exchange of C. Let $\gamma \in C$ be a curve. By definition, the configuration of curves $\mu_{\gamma}(C)$ is given by the configuration of curves

$$\mu_{\gamma}(\mathcal{C}) := \{\mu_{\gamma}(\gamma_1), \dots, \mu_{\gamma}(\gamma_b)\},\$$

where the curves $\mu_{\gamma}(\gamma_i)$ are obtained as follows, $i \in [b]$.

Consider a neighborhood $U \subset \Sigma$ of γ such that any curves in $\mathcal{C} \setminus \{\gamma\}$ intersect U as depicted in Figure 13. That is, up to planar isotopy, each curve $\gamma_i \in \mathcal{C} \setminus \{\gamma\}$ intersects U at a collection of intervals $\{I_i^p\}$, $p \in [q_i]$ for some $q_i \in \mathbb{N}$, where each such interval only intersects γ once and intervals do not intersect each other; note that this collection $\{I_i^p\}$ might be empty for some curves $\gamma_i \in \mathcal{C}$. The neighborhood U must be a cylinder, since it is the neighborhood of an embedded connected curve in an oriented surface Σ .

The curves $\mu_{\gamma}(\gamma_i)$ in $\mu_{\gamma}(\mathcal{C})$ are constructed as follows. We apply a positive Dehn twist of the cylinder U along the simple embedded curve γ to all the segments in U that intersect γ positively, depicted in blue in Figure 13, and the identity map to all the segments in U that intersect γ negatively, depicted in green in Figure 13. Note that a Dehn twist often refers to a mapping class, i.e. an element of $\pi_0(\text{Diff}^c(U))$. In this construction we explicit mean a representative of that mapping class: at this stage we make one such choice of representative and continue.

Since both a Dehn twist and the identity are (represented by) compactly supported diffeomorphisms, each resulting segment $f(I_i^p) \subset U$, f a Dehn twist or the identity, can be glued to the corresponding curve $\gamma_i \cap (\Sigma \setminus U)$. By definition, the result of applying such operation to γ_i is the curve $\mu_g(\gamma_i)$ if $\gamma_i \neq \gamma$. Finally, we define $\mu_{\gamma}(\gamma) := -\gamma$. See Figure 14 for a depiction of the result of applying μ_{γ} to Figure 13.

Remark 2.10. The choices in the above construction will not affect any aspects of our results. For instance, the choice of neighborhood U with the required properties only modifies the resulting configuration $\mu_{\gamma}(\mathcal{C})$ by a global isotopy of Σ . Similarly, the choice of representative of the Dehn twist class in $\pi_0(\text{Diff}^c(U))$ results in the same configuration $\mu_{\gamma}(\mathcal{C})$ up to global isotopy.

By Remark 2.10 and the fact that we only consider configurations C up to a global diffeomorphism of Σ , the resulting configuration $\mu_{\gamma}(C)$ is well-defined. We therefore define:

Definition 2.11. The configuration of curves $\mu_{\gamma}(\mathcal{C})$ is said to be the γ -exchange of \mathcal{C} .

Note that applying a γ -exchange twice along the same curve, first to γ and then to $-\gamma$, leads to the same configuration; same up to an overall compactly supported diffeomorphism of Σ . Indeed, consecutively applying a γ -exchange at the same vertex yields the configuration $\mu_{-\gamma}\mu_{\gamma}(\mathcal{C}) = \tau_{\gamma}(\mathcal{C})$, given by applying a (representative of a) Dehn twist $\tau_{\gamma} \in \text{Diff}^{c}(\Sigma)$ to all the curves in \mathcal{C} . In that sense, a γ -exchange is an involution.

Two comments on Definition 2.11:

(i) Since we only apply a Dehn twist to *some* collection of $\gamma_i \in C$, it is possible (and it occurs) that the smooth representatives we have constructed for the curves in $\mu_{\gamma}(C)$ bound bigons. That is, $\mu_{\gamma}(C)$ might be non-reduced even if C is reduced. (ii) If a configuration C of simple embedded curves is non-reduced and γ, γ' are curves bounding a bigon, then $\mu_{\gamma}(C)$ contains the immersed curve $\mu_{\gamma}(\gamma')$.

These two comments highlight an important principle: if we want to perform a sequence of γ -exchanges, we must guarantee that $\mu_{\gamma}(\mathcal{C})$ is reduced so that we can iterate the procedure, as γ -exchanges are not defined for immersed curves γ . The saving grace is that we might be able to perform triple moves and bigon moves to $\mu_{\gamma}(\mathcal{C})$ so that a configuration becomes reduced, following Theorem 2.9. Our focus thus now shifts towards understanding how polygons bounded by \mathcal{C} change under a γ -exchange. In other words, understanding how the right-equivalence class of the curve QP $(Q(\mathcal{C}), W(\mathcal{C}))$ changes under a γ -exchange.

Remark 2.12 (Algebraic topological γ -exchange). There is a variation on Definition 2.11 which is also natural. Namely, we define $\mu_{\gamma}(\gamma_i) = \tau_{\gamma}(\gamma_i)$ if the algebraic intersection number $\langle \gamma_i, \gamma \rangle$ is strictly positive (or $\gamma_i = \gamma$) and $\mu_{\gamma}(\gamma_i) = \gamma_i$ otherwise. Here τ_{γ} denotes a positive Dehn twist along γ and we use the skew-symmetric intersection pairing in $H_1(\Sigma, \mathbb{Z})$. For the configurations C that we will study, which are always reduced, have algebraic intersection numbers equal to geometric intersection numbers and all $\gamma_i \in C$ be primitive, this alternative definition coincides with Definition 2.11. In general, it does not coincide: consider a γ -exchange along a null-homologous curve γ which intersects another γ_i exactly at a positive and negative intersection points, bounding a bigon. Definition 2.11 would produce an immersed representative of the homology class of γ_i , and the definition in this remark would keep γ_i identically the same.

Remark 2.13. To our knowledge, Definition 2.11 or its variation in Remark 2.12 do not appear in the published literature. That said, the unpublished draft [KQ, Section 3] indeed contains the definition in Remark 2.12. In their context it is introduced as an analogue of simple tilting on hearts for *t*-structures in triangulated categories, following the homological construction of forward and backward tilts in [HRS96]. Similarly, the unpublished article [STW16, Definition 2.3] states the definition in Remark 2.12. As far as we are aware, no reference has previously defined a potential for such configurations. In fact, studying such potentials is already stated as an open problem in [STW16, Problem 1.15]. \Box

2.3.2. QP-mutation according to Derksen-Weyman-Zelevinsky. In order to understand how the rightequivalence class of the curve QP $(Q(\mathcal{C}), W(\mathcal{C}))$ changes under a γ -exchange, we recall the notion of QP-mutation introduced in [DWZ10, Section 5]. Let Q be a quiver with set of vertices Q_0 , set of arrows Q_1 and let us denote $h(a) \in Q_0$, resp. $t(a) \in Q_0$, the head, resp. the tail, of an arrow $a \in Q_1$. Let (Q, W) be a quiver with potential. Consider a vertex $v_k \in Q_0$ and assume that v_k does not belong to an oriented 2-cycle and that no monomial in W starts and ends with v_k . The former hypothesis will always be satisfied in the applications of this manuscript, the latter hypothesis can be always guaranteed after cyclically changing some monomials in the potential.

Definition 2.14 ([DWZ10]). The non-reduced QP-mutation of (Q, W) at v_k , satisfying the above hypotheses, is the QP $(\mu_k(Q), \mu_k(W))$ defined as follows.

The quiver $\mu_k(Q)$ has the same set of vertices $\mu_k(Q)_0 = Q_0$ as Q and its set of arrows $\mu_k(Q)_1$ is obtained from Q_1 according to the following procedure:

- (1) All arrows in Q_1 not incident to v_k also belong to $\mu_k(Q)_1$.
- (2) For each pair $a, b \in Q_1$ of incoming arrow a and outgoing arrow b at v_k , create the composite arrow $[ba] \in \mu_k(Q)_1$.
- (3) Replace each incoming arrow $a \in Q_1$ (resp. each outgoing arrow $b \in Q_1$) at v_k by a corresponding arrow $a^* \in \mu_k(Q)_1$ (resp. $b^* \in \mu_k(Q)_1$) now oriented in the opposite way.

The potential $\mu_k(W)$ is defined as

$$\mu_k(W) := [W] + \Delta_k, \quad \Delta_k := \sum_{a,b \in Q_1, t(a) = h(b) = k} [ba] b^* a^*$$

where [W] is obtained by substituting the composite arrow [ab] for each factor ab with t(a) = h(b) = k of any cyclic path occurring in the expansion of W that contains ab.

By definition, the QP ($\mu_k(Q), \mu_k(W)$) is said to be obtained by non-reduced QP-mutation of (Q, W) at the vertex v_k . It is shown in [DWZ10, Theorem 5.2] that the right-equivalence class of ($\mu_k(Q), \mu_k(W)$) depends only on the right-equivalence class of (Q, W).

Remark 2.15. The mutation $\mu_k(Q)$ of a quiver Q, without the potentials W and $\mu_k(W)$, was previously defined in [FZ02, Definition 4.2].

The result of a QP-mutation of (Q, W) with no 2-cycles might result in a QP $(\mu_k(Q), \mu_k(W))$ with 2-cycles. In [DWZ10] the notions of *reduced* and *trivial* QPs are introduced, as follows. A QP (Q, W)is said to be reduced if the degree-2 homogeneous part $W^{(2)}$ of W is trivial, i.e. $W^{(2)} = 0$. That is, (Q, W) is reduced if W contains no quadratic monomial terms, i.e. no terms of the form $ab, a, b \in Q_1$. A QP (Q, W) is said to be trivial if W is entirely quadratic, i.e. $W \in \mathbb{C}\langle Q \rangle^{(2)}$ belongs to the degree-2 homogenous part of the path algebra $\mathbb{C}\langle Q \rangle$ and the Jacobian algebra of (Q, W) is isomorphic to \mathbb{C} .

Remark 2.16. By [DWZ10, Prop. 4.4.], there is a more pragmatic criterion to detect triviality: (Q, P) is trivial if and only if the set of arrows Q_1 consists of 2N distinct arrows $a_1, b_1, \ldots, a_N, b_N$ such that each $a_k b_k$ is a cyclic 2-path, and there is a change of arrows φ such that $\varphi(W)$ is cyclically equivalent to $a_1b_1 + \ldots + a_Nb_N$.

Remark 2.17. Note that the quiver Q is not enough to determine the reduced and trivial parts of a QP (Q, W). For instance, the quiver Q consisting of two vertices $Q_0 = \{v_1, v_2\}$ and two arrows $Q_1 = \{a, b\}$ with $h(a) = t(b) = v_1$, $t(a) = h(b) = v_2$ is trivial if the potential is chosen to be W = ab, and it is reduced if W = 0 is chosen to vanish.

The following structural result is established in [DWZ10, Theorem 4.6]:

Theorem 2.18 ([DWZ10]). For every QP(Q, W) with trivial arrow span Q_{triv} and reduced arrow span Q_{red} , there exist a trivial $QP(Q_{triv}, W_{triv})$ and a reduced $QP(Q_{red}, W_{red})$ such that (Q, W) is right-equivalent to the direct sum $(Q_{triv}, W_{triv}) \oplus (Q_{red}, W_{red})$. Furthermore, the right-equivalence class of each of the $QPs(Q_{triv}, W_{triv})$ and (Q_{red}, W_{red}) is determined by the right-equivalence class of (Q, W).

This allows us to finally define QP-mutation:

Definition 2.19 ([DWZ10]). The QP-mutation of (Q, W) at v_k is the QP $(\mu_k(Q)_{red}, \mu_k(W)_{red})$ given by the reduced part of the non-reduced mutation $(\mu_k(Q), \mu_k(W))$.

This is an involutive operation if performed at the same vertex v_k consecutively, i.e. performing QPmutation of (Q, W) at v_k twice consecutively leads to (Q, W) again. Note also that Definition 2.6 of local reduction is one step towards extracting the reduced part of a QP.

2.3.3. Reduced part for curve QPs. Let \mathcal{C} be a curve configuration and $(Q(\mathcal{C}), W(\mathcal{C}))$ its associated curve QP. The Hass-Scott algorithm, as stated in Theorem 2.9 above, geometrically explains Theorem 2.18 in the case of curve QPs. Indeed, consider a non-reduced configuration \mathcal{C}_0 with a non-empty collection of bigons $\{B_1, \ldots, B_m\}$. Then its associated curve QP $(Q(\mathcal{C}), W(\mathcal{C}))$ is not reduced: by definition, it contains one 2-cycle in $Q(\mathcal{C})$ for each bigon, and such 2-cycles each appear as quadratic monomial in $W(\mathcal{C})$.

Definition 2.20. Let C be a configuration with a collection of bigons $\{B_1, \ldots, B_m\}$. Any reduced curve configuration C_{red} obtained by iteratively applying the Hass-Scott algorithm (Theorem 2.9) m times to C, where at each time exactly one bigon is eliminated, is said to be a reduction of C.

Namely, Theorem 2.9 allows us to remove one bigon at a time, by applying a sequence of triple point moves and then a local bigon move. By Proposition 2.5, the sequence of triple point moves does not change the right-equivalence class of $(Q(\mathcal{C}), W(\mathcal{C}))$. Each time that we apply Theorem 2.9 we need exactly one local bigon move. By Lemma 2.7, the QP $(Q(\mathcal{C}), W(\mathcal{C}))$ then undergoes a *B*-reduction at a bigon *B*. By iteratively applying Theorem 2.9, we will obtain the following:

Lemma 2.21. Let C be a configuration, (Q(C), W(C)) its associated curve QP, $(Q(C)_{red}, W(C)_{red}))$ its reduced QP part, and C_{red} a reduction of the configuration C. Then

- (i) $(Q(\mathcal{C}_{red}), W(\mathcal{C}_{red})) = (Q(\mathcal{C})_{red}, W(\mathcal{C})_{red}))$, up to right equivalence.
- (ii) If $(Q(\mathcal{C}), W(\mathcal{C}))$ is non-degenerate, then $Q(\mathcal{C}_{red})$ has no 2-cycles.

The proof of Lemma 2.21 uses the notion of a non-degenerate QP, discussed in Section 3.3 below. This proof is thus postponed until Section 3.5. Note that $Q(\mathcal{C}_{red})$ might a priori have 2-cycles, even if there are no bigons bounded by \mathcal{C}_{red} , cf. Remark 2.17. The non-degeneracy of a quiver with potential precisely rules out these type of situations, where a 2-cycle in Q is not kept track by the potential W.

2.3.4. Curve QP under γ -exchanges change via QP-mutations. We conclude this section by relating the γ -exchanges in Definition 2.11 to the QP-mutation in Definition 2.19.

Proposition 2.22. Let $(Q(\mathcal{C}), W(\mathcal{C}))$ be a curve QP associated to \mathcal{C} and $\gamma \in \mathcal{C}$. Then, possibly after applying a sequence of triple point moves and bigon moves to $\mu_{\gamma}(\mathcal{C})$, the QP $(Q(\mu_{\gamma}(\mathcal{C})), W(\mu_{\gamma}(\mathcal{C})))$ is right-equivalent to the QP-mutation of the QP $(Q(\mathcal{C}), W(\mathcal{C}))$ at the vertex γ .

Proof. Given Definition 2.19, there are three pieces to justify:

- (1) The change in the quiver $Q(\mathcal{C})$ under γ -exchange.
- (2) The change in the potential $W(\mathcal{C})$ under γ -exchange.
- (3) The reduced part of the non-reduced QP-mutation is indeed $(Q(\mu_{\gamma}(\mathcal{C})_{red}), W(\mu_{\gamma}(\mathcal{C})_{red}))$.

Parts (1) and (2) will be argued directly, as they indeed need a new computation. In fact, we will show that $(Q(\mu_{\gamma}(\mathcal{C})), W(\mu_{\gamma}(\mathcal{C})))$ is the non-reduced QP-mutation $(\mu_{\gamma}(Q(\mathcal{C})), \mu_{\gamma}(W(\mathcal{C})))$ of $(Q(\mathcal{C}), W(\mathcal{C}))$ at the vertex associated to γ . Part (3) follows directly from Lemma 2.21 applied to the configuration $\mu_{\gamma}(\mathcal{C})$, once $(Q(\mu_{\gamma}(\mathcal{C})), W(\mu_{\gamma}(\mathcal{C}))) = (\mu_{\gamma}(Q(\mathcal{C})), \mu_{\gamma}(W(\mathcal{C})))$ is proven.

First, we focus on the case of γ and just two intersecting intervals τ_+ and τ_- , which intersect γ in two points p_+ and p_- with opposite signs. The core computations in the general case essentially reduce to this situation. We have depicted this configuration in Figure 11 (left), where the corresponding local quiver is drawn beneath the configuration. The local quiver is the linear A_3 -quiver, with a unique arrow p_+ from (the vertex associated to) τ_+ to γ , and a unique arrow p_- from γ to τ_- . In Figure 11 (and the upcoming figures in this proof) we always identify the right hand side of the figure with the left hand side via the identity map: these are all configurations drawn in the resulting cylinder; indeed, γ is a circle and it is depicted as a flat horizontal segment with its right endpoint being identified with its left endpoint.

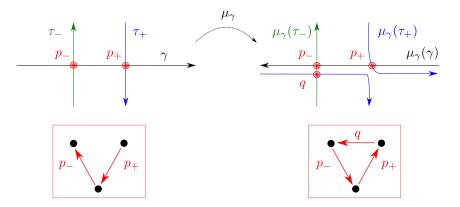


FIGURE 11. The effect of γ -exchange in the case of exactly one positive and one negative intersections. The configuration before the γ -exchange is depicted on the left, and the configuration after the γ -exchange is depicted on the right. The local quivers recording the intersection patterns are drawn under the configurations.

After performing a γ -exchange, according to Definition 2.11, the resulting configuration is as depicted in Figure 11 (right). The local quiver, which is drawn right beneath the configuration, is the quiver obtained by quiver mutation at (the vertex corresponding to γ), according to Definition 2.19. Indeed, the previous two intersection points p_{\pm} persist in the configuration but since the orientation of γ is opposite, their associated arrows go from τ_{-} to γ , for p_{-} , and from γ to τ_{+} , for p_{+} . As illustrated in Figure 11, a third intersection point q is created after the γ -exchange: it is an intersection between τ_{-} and τ_{+} . This yields a new arrow q in the quiver which is precisely the composite arrow $q = [p_{-}p_{+}]$. In conclusion, for these local configurations, we have verified that $Q(\mu_{q}(\mathcal{C}))$ equals $\mu_{g}(Q(\mathcal{C}))$.

Let us now study the change of the potential $W(\mathcal{C})$ under γ -exchange, also in these particular configurations just with γ , τ_+ and τ_- . For that we need to understand how polygons bounded by \mathcal{C} change under γ -exchange. The key image is Figure 12, that we now explain.

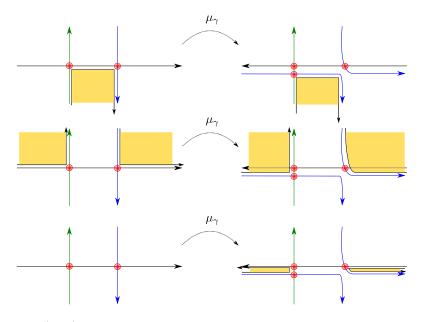


FIGURE 12. (Left) Potential pieces of polygons in C that have p_{-} and p_{+} as vertices: the regions are highlighted in yellow. The diagram in the third row of this left column represents an empty region. (Right) Potential pieces of polygons in C that have p_{-}, p_{+} and q as vertices, now after a γ -exchange.

Before the γ -exchange, the potential $W(\mathcal{C})$ records polygons in \mathcal{C} . Consider the intersection of any such polygon recorded by $W(\mathcal{C})$ with the region U and assume again that we obtain the configuration with just γ , τ_+ and τ_- , intersecting as above. It suffices to focus on polygons that use p_- and p_+ . In this configuration, there are exactly two, drawn in the first and second rows of Figure 12 (left). The potential $W(\mathcal{C})$ records such polygons with monomials (on the arrows of \mathcal{C}) that contain p_-p_+ .

After the γ -exchange, as drawn in Figure 12 (right), those polygons still exist but now must use the new intersection point q.⁸ Indeed, the boundary conditions for the polygons are given (entering in τ_{\pm} and exiting in τ_{\mp}) and there is a unique manner in which those region can exist in the configurations of Figure 12 (right). This is precisely the term $[W(\mathcal{C})]$ in Definition 2.19 of the mutation of the potential: each time we see p_-p_+ in a monomial in $W(\mathcal{C})$ we must substitute it by the composite arrow $q = [p_-p_+]$. There is an additional contribution to $W(\mu_{\gamma}(\mathcal{C}))$: there is a triangle, as drawn in the third row of Figure 12. Since its vertices are q, p_+ and p_- , it contributes the monomial qp_+p_- to $W(\mu_{\gamma}(\mathcal{C}))$, which is precisely the Δ_{γ} term in Definition 2.19. Therefore, we have

$$W(\mu_{\gamma}(\mathcal{C})) = [W(\mathcal{C})] + qp_{+}p_{-} = [W(\mathcal{C})] + \Delta_{\gamma} = \mu_{\gamma}(W(\mathcal{C})).$$

⁸From the perspective of $H_1(U;\mathbb{Z})$, this intersection point appears because of the Picard-Lefschetz formula in its most elementary setting: explaining how homology classes change under Dehn twists.

Thus far we have argued $(Q(\mu_{\gamma}(\mathcal{C})), W(\mu_{\gamma}(\mathcal{C}))) = (\mu_{\gamma}(Q(\mathcal{C})), \mu_{\gamma}(W(\mathcal{C})))$ for the configuration with γ, τ_{+} and τ_{-} as in Figure 11. The general case is concluded as follows.

Consider a neighborhood U of γ such that⁹ the configuration C intersected with U is as depicted in Figure 13. That is, only curves $\gamma_i \in C$ that intersect γ do intersect U and the intersections are (up to planar isotopy) straight vertical segments that either point upwards or downwards and only intersect γ once (and these segments do not intersect each other in U).

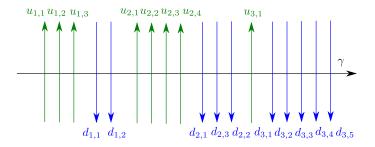


FIGURE 13. The general configuration C in a neighborhood of γ before a γ -exchange.

Choose an arbitrary but fixed point $g \in \gamma$. As we scan the arrows starting at g and move in the direction given by the orientation of γ , there will be:

- A number of blocks $U_1, \ldots, U_v, v \in \mathbb{N}$, of arrows pointing upward, each with $u_i := |U_i|$ arrows, $i \in [v]$. The curves in U_i will be labeled by $u_{i,j}, i \in [v], j \in [u_i]$, where the index j is ordered left to right as we transverse γ according to its orientation.
- A number of blocks D_1, \ldots, D_e , $e \in \mathbb{N}$, of arrows pointing upward, each with cardinality $d_i := |D_i|, i \in [e]$. The curves in D_i will be labeled by $d_{i,j}, i \in [e], j \in [d_i]$, where the index j is ordered left to right as we transverse γ according to its orientation.

Figure 14 illustrates this notation in a specific example. Now, for every pair of curves $u_{i,j}$ and $d_{l,k}$, the configuration of three curves γ , $u_{i,j}$ and $d_{l,k}$ is precisely the local configuration we studied above, as in Figure 11 (left). Since a γ -exchange fixes all the $u_{i,j}$ and applies a Dehn twist to all the $d_{l,k}$, the behaviour of *any* such pair under γ -exchange is identical and it coincides with the one studied above, see Figure 11 (right). As emphasized in Subsection 2.3.1, a choice of representative for the (mapping class of the) Dehn twist must be made: we specifically choose a compactly supported diffeomorphism $f \in \text{Diff}^c(U)$ which acts on the set of curves $d_{l,k}$ as drawn¹⁰ in Figure 14. Namely, each curve $f(d_{l,k})$ intersects each $u_{i,j}$ and γ exactly once.¹¹

 $^{^{9}}$ Such a neighborhood always exists because \mathcal{C} has finitely many curves and they all intersect transversely.

¹⁰We drew the blue curves $d_{l,k}$ as PL-curves for convenience: the curves are smooth, and we smooth this PL depiction by an arbitrarily smoothing of the corners, so no further intersections are created.

¹¹Such a choice exists: the standard model for the Dehn twist defined via the geodesic flow in the punctured disk bundle (extended by the antipodal map to the zero section) has this property.

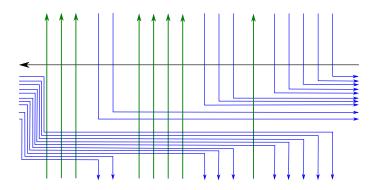


FIGURE 14. The general configuration C in a neighborhood of γ after a γ -exchange.

Since the only intersections before the γ -exchange are between $u_{i,j}$ and γ , or $d_{l,k}$ and γ , the new intersections afterwards will be precisely as recorded by the local configuration in Figure 11 (right). Note that this applies to every pair of $u_{i,j}$, $d_{l,k}$ and hence for every pair of arrows in-and-out of γ in $Q(\mathcal{C})$ we will add the composite arrow (and flip that pair of arrows). Thus the quiver changes according to a mutation at γ also in this general case. Similarly, since the only regions in Figure 13 using intersection points with γ are precisely those entering a $u_{i,j}$ and exiting a $d_{l,k}$, or vice-versa, the change of polygons in \mathcal{C} will be recorded by tracking all the polygons that appear in the local configuration in Figure 11 (right) for all pairs of $u_{i,j}$ and $d_{l,k}$. We have already argued that the potential in each local configuration precisely changes as a (non-reduced) QP-mutation, and therefore it is also the case for the potential in the general configuration.

3. Non-degeneracy of curve QPs for plabic fences

In this section we construct curve configurations C from a certain type of plabic graphs and show rigidity for their associated curve QP (Q(C), W(C)). Let us start with the plabic graphs that we need:

Definition 3.1. An embedded planar bicolored graph $\mathbb{G} \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ is said to be a *plabic fence* if it satisfies the following conditions.

- (i) The vertices of $\mathbb{G} \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ belong to the standard integral lattice $\mathbb{Z}^2 \subset \mathbb{R}^2$, and they are colored in either black or white.
- (ii) The edges of $\mathbb{G} \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ belong to the standard integral grid $(\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{R}) \cup (\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{Z}) \subset \mathbb{R}^2$. Edges that are contained in $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{R}$ are said to be *vertical*, and edges that are contained in $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{Z}$ are said to be *horizontal*.
- (iii) A maximal connected union of horizontal edges is called a *horizontal line*. All horizontal lines must start, on the left, at univalent white vertices with the same x-coordinate and must end, on the right, at univalent white vertices with the same x-coordinate.
- (iv) Each vertical edge must end at trivalent vertices of opposite colors, with white on top and black on bottom, and the end points of a vertical edge must be contained in the interior of a horizontal line. In addition, no two vertical edges are contained in the same (vertical) line.

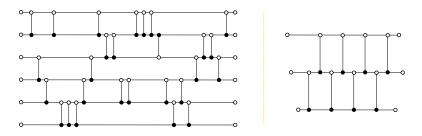


FIGURE 15. Two plabic fences. The fence on the right is encoding the 3-stranded positive braid word $(\sigma_1 \sigma_2)^4$.

These are a special type of plabic graphs, studied in [FPST17, Section 12], [CW22, Section 2.5], [STWZ19, Section 5], and also [GSW20a, SW21], the latter in the context of triangulations of flag configuration diagrams. For a visual instance, two plabic fences G are as drawn in Figure 15.

Remark 3.2. The definition of plabic fences in [FPST17, CW22] is more general but, for our purposes, it is without loss of generality that we can work with Definition 3.1. This is due to the fact that cyclic rotation is a quasi-cluster transformation, as shown in [CW22, CGG⁺22]; see also [SW21].

We use the following bijection between plabic fences with n horizontal edges and positive braid words in *n*-strands. For a plabic fence \mathbb{G} we construct a braid word $\beta(\mathbb{G})$ iteratively by scanning the plabic fence left-to-right: starting with the empty word $\beta(\mathbb{G})$, when we encounter a vertical edge between the k and (k+1)st horizontal edges, counting from the bottom, we add the Artin generator σ_k to the right of $\beta(\mathbb{G})$. The plabic fence that gives the braid word β will be denoted by $\mathbb{G}(\beta)$.

3.1. Curve configuration $\mathcal{C}(\mathbb{G})$ of a plabic fence \mathbb{G} . A plabic fence gives rise to a curve configuration $\mathcal{C}(\mathbb{G})$ as follows. Consider the conjugate surface $\Sigma(\mathbb{G})$ of [GK13, Section 1.1.1]; see also [Gon17, Section 2], [STWZ19, Section 4] or [CL22, Section 2.1] for definition and details on conjugate surfaces. For the purposes of this manuscript, this is a (ribbon) surface obtained from a plabic graph by using the three local models in Figure 16.¹² It retracts to \mathbb{G} and thus $H_1(\Sigma(\mathbb{G}),\mathbb{Z}) \cong H_1(\mathbb{G},\mathbb{Z})$, the latter being a free \mathbb{Z} -module of rank equal to the number of faces of \mathbb{G} .¹³



FIGURE 16. The three local models needed to draw a (projection of a) conjugate surface associated to a plabic fence \mathbb{G} . The boundary of the surface is in dark blue and the surface itself in light blue.

We allow the equivalence in Figure 17 for conjugate surfaces. The fact that this move does not affect the combinatorics, nor the symplectic geometric in Section 4, is verified rather simply¹⁴, e.g. it is proven in [CL22, Section 2.1.3]. We always consider the diagram for the conjugate surface $\Sigma(\mathbb{G})$ after we have applied this move (left to right in Figure 17) to every local double-crossing configuration as in Figure 17 (left). That is, we remove any instances of Figure 17 (left) in the diagram of $\Sigma(\mathbb{G})$, substituting them by Figure 17 (right).



FIGURE 17. An equivalence of conjugate surfaces. This corresponds to a nondangerious tangency in the alternating strand diagram.

 $^{^{12}}$ The boundary of the surface is given by the alternating strand diagram of \mathbb{G} , see [Pos06, Gon17].

 $^{^{13}\}mathrm{A}$ face is a bounded connected component of the complement of the plabic fence in $\mathbb{R}^2.$

¹⁴The move removes/creates a trivial 2-cycle that would also feature in the potential, therefore the reduced part of the QP quiver of the associated curve configuration will remain invariant.

Therefore, near a face $F \subset \mathbb{G}$, the conjugate surface can be drawn as in Figure 18; the face F is the central face, immediately to the left of the green vertical edge. Note that this is the general pattern near a face F: bounded between two vertical edges at the same level, with a series of vertical edges arriving with a black vertex from the level right above, and a series of vertical edges arriving with a white vertex from the level right below.

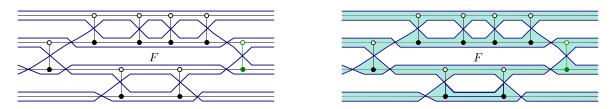


FIGURE 18. (Left) A plabic fence in black with the boundary of the conjugate surface drawn in blue. (Right) The conjugate surface associated to the plabic fence, with its interior drawn in turquoise.

The curve configuration $\mathcal{C}(\mathbb{G})$ from \mathbb{G} is built as follows:

Definition 3.3. Let \mathbb{G} be a plabic fence and $\Sigma(\mathbb{G})$ its conjugate surface. The curve configuration $\mathcal{C}(\mathbb{G})$ is the configuration of embedded closed curves in $\Sigma(\mathbb{G})$ constructed as follows:

- (i) There is a curve $\gamma_F \in \mathcal{C}(\mathbb{G})$ for every face $F \subset \mathbb{G}$.
- (ii) Each curve $\gamma_F \subset \Sigma(\mathbb{G})$ is obtained by applying the local models in Figure 19 near each vertex of \mathbb{G} and connecting the resulting segments by following the boundary of (the diagram of) $\Sigma(\mathbb{G})$ in a planar parallel manner.

The configuration $\mathcal{C}(\mathbb{G})$ of curves in $\Sigma(\mathbb{G})$ is said to be the (curve) configuration associated to \mathbb{G} . \Box

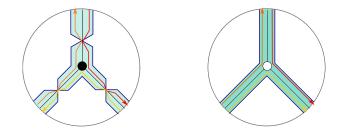


FIGURE 19. The two local models needed to associate a closed curve γ_F in $\Sigma(\mathbb{G})$ to every face of \mathbb{G} .

Figure 20 (left) depicts a plabic fence with a face F and Figure 20 (right) depicts its associated closed embedded curve γ_F in $\Sigma(\mathbb{G})$. Note again that this is the generic form of any plabic fence near a face F, possibly adding a few more vertical edges at the levels right above and below, which would in any case not change γ_F .



FIGURE 20. (Left) A plabic fence \mathbb{G} in black with a face F highlighted. (Right) The curve γ_F in $\Sigma(\mathbb{G})$ associated to the face F.

Note that we can (and do) draw the curves in $\mathcal{C}(\mathbb{G})$ such that two curves γ_{F_1} and γ_{F_2} in $\mathcal{C}(\mathbb{G})$ only intersect at the precise twist point of the ribbon diagram for $\Sigma(\mathbb{G})$. That is, the only intersections of curves in $\mathcal{C}(\mathbb{G})$ that occur are of the form depicted in Figure 21.



FIGURE 21. The two local models near an intersection point of two curves in $\mathcal{C}(\mathbb{G})$.

In the next subsection we introduce a QP $(Q(\mathbb{G}), W(\mathbb{G}))$ that will be useful to understand the properties of the curve QP associated $\mathcal{C}(\mathbb{G})$.

Remark 3.4. A weave \mathfrak{w} naturally produces a curve configuration $\mathcal{C}(\mathfrak{w})$ as well. If one chooses the weave $\mathfrak{w} = \mathfrak{w}(\mathbb{G})$ associated to a plabic fence, as constructed in [CW22, Section 3], then the curve configuration $\mathcal{C}(\mathfrak{w})$ is equivalent to $\mathcal{C}(\mathbb{G})$. This can be proven with the same techniques as in [CL22, Section 3] but will not be needed for the present manuscript.

3.2. The QP associated to a plabic fence. There are several descriptions of quivers $Q(\mathbb{G})$ associated to a plabic fence \mathbb{G} , see [BLL18, CW22, FPST17, GK13, GSW20a, Pos06] for some; they are all equivalent. For specificity, we explicitly describe the quiver $Q(\mathbb{G})$ in the upcoming Definition 3.5.

A piece of notation: suppose that $e \subset \mathbb{G}$ is a vertical edge at level k, we denote by F_e the face of \mathbb{G} that has e as its right vertical edge. This face F_e is unique or it does not exist. By definition, a black pente-row (resp. white pente-row) is a consecutive collection of black vertices in the same horizontal edge of \mathbb{G} such that:

- There must be two white (resp. black) vertices bounding it: one white vertex at its left, and one white vertex at its right.¹⁵
- Each connected component of R²\G whose closure contains any segment between two vertices of the black vertices above or between a black vertex and one of the two white vertices above must be a face.

The total number of black (resp. white) vertices in a black (resp. white) pente-row is said to be its length. See Figure 22 for a length four black pente-row and a length four white pente-row, where we have marked the connected components of $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \mathbb{G}$ that must be faces with a blue dot. The rightmost face in a black (resp. white) pente-row, which has a left corner at the rightmost black (resp. white) vertex, is said to be its right face.



FIGURE 22. (Left) A black pente-row. (Right) A white pente-row.

Definition 3.5. Let \mathbb{G} be the plabic fence with *n* horizontal edges, its associated QP $(Q(\mathbb{G}), W(\mathbb{G}))$ is defined as follows. The quiver $Q(\mathbb{G})$ has vertex set the set of faces of \mathbb{G} . The arrow set of $Q(\mathbb{G})$ is inductively described as follows, scanning \mathbb{G} left to right:

 $^{^{15}\}mathrm{This}$ is in the spirit of pente capture configurations, following the board game Pente.

- (i) If \mathbb{G} is the empty plabic fence, then the arrow set of $Q(\mathbb{G})$ is empty.
- (ii) Choose a vertical edge $e \subset \mathbb{G}$ at level k and assume that the arrow set of $Q(\mathbb{G}_{\leq e})$ is $A_{\leq e}$, where $\mathbb{G}_{\leq e}$ is the plabic subfence of \mathbb{G} consisting of those vertical edges to the left of e. If F_e does not exist, the arrow set of $Q(\mathbb{G}_{\leq e})$, where $\mathbb{G}_{\leq e} = \mathbb{G}_{< e} \cup \{e\}$, is defined to be $A_{< e}$.
 - If F_e exists, the arrow set of $Q(\mathbb{G}_{\leq e})$ is defined to be $A_{\leq e}$ union the following possible arrows:
 - (a) Let d be the left vertical edge of F_e . If F_d exists, then we add an arrow [de] from F_d to F_e .
 - (b) Let d^{\uparrow} be the first vertical edge in \mathbb{G} at level (k + 1)st to the right of d. If d^{\uparrow} and $F_{d^{\uparrow}}$ exist, then we add an arrow $[ed^{\uparrow}]$ from F_e to $F_{d^{\uparrow}}$. See Figure 23 (left) for such an arrow, marked with a pink (Z) pattern.
 - (c) Let d^{\downarrow} be the first vertical edge in \mathbb{G} at level (k-1)st to the right of d. If d^{\downarrow} and $F_{d^{\downarrow}}$ exist, then we add an arrow $[ed^{\downarrow}]$ from F_e to $F_{d^{\downarrow}}$. See Figure 23 (left) for such an arrow, marked with a red (S) pattern.

If the hypotheses in these cases are not met, no arrows are added: e.g. if F_e or F_d do not exist in case (a), we do not add any arrows at that stage.

See Figure 23 (right) for an instance of $Q(\mathbb{G})$. Note that $Q(\mathbb{G})$ around a black pente-row of \mathbb{G} has a (planar) clockwise cycle, whereas $Q(\mathbb{G})$ around a white pente-row has a (planar) counter-clockwise cycle. The lengths of these cycles in the quiver are the lengths of the rows plus two.

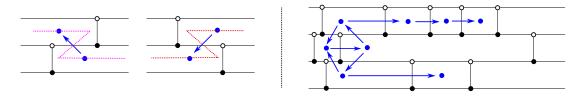


FIGURE 23. (Left) The two local patterns for arrows in $Q(\mathbb{G})$ that are not horizontal. (Right) An example of $Q(\mathbb{G})$.

The potential $W(\mathbb{G})$ is similarly described inductively. If \mathbb{G} is the empty plabic fence, then $W(\mathbb{G}) = 0$. For each vertical edge e added to the right of $\mathbb{G}_{\leq e}$ as above, the potential is defined as

$$W(\mathbb{G}_{\leq e}) = W(\mathbb{G}_{< e}) + P_{black}(e) - P_{white}(e),$$

where the monomials in $P_{black}(e)$ and $P_{white}(e)$ are described as follows. By definition, $P_{black}(e)$, resp. $P_{white}(e)$, is the (cyclic) monomial in the arrows of $Q(\mathbb{G})$ encoding the planar cycle in $Q(\mathbb{G})$ associated to the unique black (resp. white) pente-row with right face equal F_e , if such pente-row exists and else it equals zero. Note that monomials in $P_{white}(e)$ have an overall minus sign in front due to the counter-clockwise orientation of their cycles.

Remark 3.6. Note that a pente-row of length one with right face F_e gives rise to a triangle cycle in $Q(\mathbb{G})$ and thus cubic monomial in the potential. Thus this construction generalizes known quivers with potentials from bipartite graphs, cf. [Gon17, Section 5.1.2]. For instance, the case of $\beta = w_0$, the longest element in the symmetric group S_n , recovers the potential associated to the *n*-triangulation of a triangle, see [Gon17, Section 1.1] or [CZ22a, Section 3.1].

Remark 3.7. For a non-inductive definition of $Q(\mathbb{G})$, cf. [GSW20b, Section 1]. The inductive nature of Definition 3.5 is useful in our inductive proof of Propositions 3.8 and 3.12. Also, there is no need to keep track of frozen vertices in Definition 3.5. There are natural generalizations to iced quivers, e.g., see [Pre20], [GSW20a] or [CW22].

The main reason to introduce $(Q(\mathbb{G}), W(\mathbb{G}))$ is to be able to describe the QP associated to $\mathcal{C}(\mathbb{G})$ combinatorially in terms of \mathbb{G} . Indeed, we have:

Proposition 3.8. Let \mathbb{G} be a plabic fence and $\mathcal{C} = \mathcal{C}(\mathbb{G})$ its associated curve configuration. Then the curve $QP(Q(\mathcal{C}), W(\mathcal{C}))$ equals the $QP(Q(\mathbb{G}), W(\mathbb{G}))$.

Proof. Let us scan the plabic fence \mathbb{G} left to right and compare $Q(\mathbb{G})$ and $Q(\mathcal{C})$ as we do so. Let $e \subset \mathbb{G}$ be a vertical edge at level k and $F = F_e$ its associated face.¹⁶ Since $Q(\mathbb{G})$ and the curves in \mathcal{C} associated to faces at level k are local in the union of levels (k-1), k and (k+1)st, it suffices to consider the piece of plabic fence in the neighborhood of F consisting of all faces that share a vertical edge (there is at most one such face) or a piece of a horizontal edge with F. An example of a neighborhood of F is drawn in Figure 24, with the relevant set of curves in \mathcal{C} on its left and the quiver on its right. Note that we are scanning left to right and assuming that the vertical edge depicted in green in Figure 18.

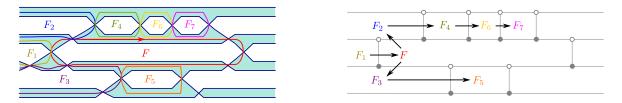


FIGURE 24. (Left) A neighborhood of a face F with the conjugate surface depicted and all the curves γ_{F_i} for the faces F_i of \mathbb{G} adjacent to F. (Right).

The curve γ_F associated to the new vertex of $Q(\mathbb{G}_{\leq e})$ not in $Q(\mathbb{G}_{< e})$ intersects the other curves γ_{F_i} , F_i faces in $\mathbb{G}_{< e}$, when there is a ribbon twist. (Recall Figure 21.) The curve γ_F only traverses twists that respectively connect to:

- The face F_d , where d is the left vertical edge of F_e , if it exists.
- The face $F_{d^\uparrow},$ as in Definition 3.5, if it exists.
- The face $F_{d\downarrow}$, as in Definition 3.5, if it exists.
- The region to the right of *e* that, by hypothesis at this stage (*e* being the rightmost edge we have scanned) is unbounded and thus not a face.

The three intersections $\gamma_d \cap \gamma_e$, $\gamma_{d^{\uparrow}} \cap \gamma_e$ and $\gamma_{d^{\downarrow}} \cap \gamma_e$ are precisely recorded by the arrows [de], $[ed^{\uparrow}]$ and [de], $[ed^{\downarrow}]$, if they respectively exist. The direction of the arrow is given by the intersection sign, which is positive for $\gamma_d \cap \gamma_e$ and negative for $\gamma_{d^{\uparrow}} \cap \gamma_e$ and $\gamma_{d^{\downarrow}} \cap \gamma_e$. Therefore $Q(\mathbb{G})$ and $Q(\mathcal{C})$ coincide. In order to compare $W(\mathbb{G})$ and $W(\mathcal{C})$ it suffices to note that a polygon bounded by \mathcal{C} in the conjugate surface $\Sigma(\mathbb{G})$ must have vertices be as in Figure 25. That is, a polygon can use only one of the two regions at a given ribbon twist and, once a side is chosen, it must be the interior region bounded by the two curves.¹⁷ Therefore, polygons bounded by \mathcal{C} must correspond to pente-rows. Indeed, a pente-row gives a unique polygon bounded by \mathcal{C} by drawing $\Sigma(\mathbb{G})$ near the pente-row and cutting at the ribbon twists around the pente-row; each ribbon twist corresponds to a vertex of the polygon. Such cuts give an embedded planar region and there is a unique polygon embedded in it with vertices given by the (locations where we cut the) ribbon twists. Note that we cut as many vertical ribbon twists as the length of the pente-row and we always cut two horizontal ribbon twists, i.e. the polygon has as many sides as the length of the pente-row plus two. The polygon is oriented clockwise, resp. counterclockwise, if the row is black, resp. white.

 $^{^{16}\}mathrm{If}\;F_e$ does not exist, there is no curve added nor the quiver gains vertices, thus both coincide.

¹⁷The other regions at one side of a twist have boundary components of $\Sigma(\mathbb{G})$ as part of their boundary.

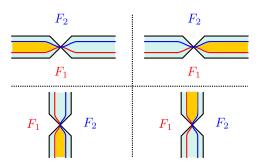


FIGURE 25. In yellow, pieces of regions in the conjugate surface that have the potential to give a polygon bounded by C.

Conversely, the conjugate surface $\Sigma(\mathbb{G})$ has a ribbon twist in any segment (horizontal or vertical) between a black and a white vertex, and no twist if a segment is between two vertices of the same color. Embeddedness of the polygon in $\Sigma(\mathbb{G})$ implies that it must lie within a region bounded by twists (and no twists on the interior of that region). Since the ends of a polygon must be as in Figure 25, the only possible polygons bounded by \mathcal{C} must have the form of those around a pente-row. In conclusion, polygons bounded by \mathcal{C} in $\Sigma(\mathbb{G})$ must correspond to pente-rows and the potentials $W(\mathbb{G})$ and $W(\mathcal{C})$ coincide as we scan \mathbb{G} left to right. \Box

We conclude this subsection with a combinatorial property satisfied by the quivers $Q(\mathbb{G})$. This property will be used in the proof of Proposition 3.12. The following proof was explained to us by D. Weng, to whom we are grateful:

Lemma 3.9. Let \mathbb{G} be a plabic fence and $Q(\mathbb{G})$ its associated quiver. Consider the rightmost vertical edge $e \in \mathbb{G}$ and the vertex $F_e \in Q(\mathbb{G})_0$ associated to the face F_e immediately to the left of e, if it exists. Then there exists a sequence of vertices (v_1, \ldots, v_k) in $v_i \in Q(\mathbb{G}_{\leq e})_0$, $i \in [k]$ and $k \in \mathbb{N}$ depending on e, such that $\mu_k \cdots \mu_1(Q(\mathbb{G}))$ has F_e be a source vertex.

Proof. Let us consider the set of faces $F_1, \ldots, F_k, F_{k+1}$ at the same level as the edge e. We order them left to right as we scan \mathbb{G} , thus F_1 is the leftmost face of \mathbb{G} at that level, F_2 is the face adjacent to F_1 exactly to its right, and so on until $F_{k+1} = F_e$. The claim is:

<u>Assertion</u>. $(v_1, \ldots, v_k) = (F_1, \ldots, F_k)$ is a sequence that turns $F_{k+1} = F_e$ into a source.

Before we prove the assertion, three comments. First, we recall that [SW21], or [GSW20a, Section 5], explain how to associate a quiver to a more general type of plabic fence than that in Definition 3.1.¹⁸ Namely, to a plabic fence that also allows vertical edges to have a black vertex at the top and a white vertex at the bottom. See also [CW22, Section 2] for such objects, their quivers and their properties. These are essentially all rephrasings of the theory of double wiring diagrams, cf. [FWZ20, Section 2.4], now in the plabic graph terminology and generalized to the non-reduced case. Just for this proof, we refer to these more general plabic fences also as plabic fences.

Now, the reflection move in [SW21, Section 2.3], see also [CW22, Section 5.2] or [GSW20a, Section 4], is as follows. A reflection move r_k at level k of a plabic fence \mathbb{G} is the operation that input \mathbb{G} and outputs a plabic fence $r_k(\mathbb{G})$ which coincides with \mathbb{G} everywhere except that the leftmost vertical edge at level k has been flipped.¹⁹ A reflection move does *not* change the quiver $Q(\mathbb{G})$, see [SW21].

Second, for each face F, let us denote by $\partial_{-}F$, resp. $\partial_{+}F$ its left vertical edge, resp. right vertical edge. Suppose that we have a square face in \mathbb{G} which has a $\partial_{-}F$ with a black vertex at the top and $\partial_{+}F$ with a black vertex at the bottom. Then the square move, cf. [FWZ20, Section 2.5], is the operation that exchanges $\partial_{-}F$ and $\partial_{+}F$, i.e. the new plabic fence $\mu_{F}(\mathbb{G})$ coincides with \mathbb{G} everywhere except that $\partial_{-}F$ now has a black vertex at the bottom and $\partial_{+}F$ now has a black vertex at the top. A square move induces a mutation of $Q(\mathbb{G})$ at the vertex F, i.e. $Q(\mu_{F}(\mathbb{G})) = \mu_{F}(Q(\mathbb{G}))$.

 $^{^{18}}$ These are instances of the general theory of quivers for plabic graphs, see [Pos06].

 $^{^{19}}$ Here flipping means: if it had a black vertex at the top, now it has a black vertex at the bottom, and vice versa.

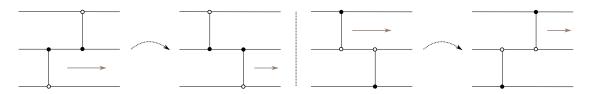


FIGURE 26. Two moves on plabic fences that do not change the quiver. They allows us to move a certain type of vertical edge to the right in the presence of certain vertical edges above and below it.

Third, the two moves in Figure 26 allow us to slide right a vertical edge with black at the top through vertical edges with black at the bottom to its upper right or lower right. Let us now prove the assertion above, which will conclude the proof for the lemma.

Proof of Assertion: Let us consider the initial plabic fence \mathbb{G} and apply a reflection $r_k(\mathbb{G})$, where k is the level of $e \in \mathbb{G}$. We still have $Q(r_k(\mathbb{G})) = Q(\mathbb{G})$. This reflection creates a vertical edge δ with black on top at the leftmost part of level k of $r_k(\mathbb{G})$; all the remaining vertical edges in $r_k(\mathbb{G})$ have black at the bottom. Then we slide δ to the right through level k by either applying the sliding moves in Figure 26, or using square moves. The former has no effect on the quiver, the latter induce quiver mutations.

Let us slide δ to the right until δ is exactly to the left of e, so that (the new) F_e has $\partial_-F_e = \delta$ and $\partial_+F_e = e$. Denote by $\mathbb{G}_{\delta,e}$ this plabic fence. Then δ will have slid through faces F_1, \ldots, F_k when going from \mathbb{G} to $\mathbb{G}_{\delta,e}$. Thus at this stage we have performed a sequence of mutations at those faces, in this same order, and $Q(\mathbb{G}_{\delta,e}) = \mu_{F_k} \cdots \mu_{F_1}(Q(\mathbb{G}))$. To conclude, it suffices to note that the quiver $Q(\mathbb{G}_{\delta,e})$ associated to the plabic fence $Q(\mathbb{G}_{\delta,e})$ has a unique arrow out of the vertex associated to F_e , and therefore F_e is a source, as required.

Lemma 3.9 states that we can find a sequence of mutations for $Q(\mathbb{G})$ so that the vertex corresponding to the face immediately left of rightmost vertical edge of \mathbb{G} becomes a source vertex, and such that this sequence of mutations never includes a mutation at that particular vertex that we want to turn into a source vertex.

Remark 3.10. This is not needed for our applications, but note that the proof of Lemma 3.9 explicitly presents a mutation sequence that turns F_e into a source.

3.3. Non-degeneracy of $(Q(\mathcal{C}(\mathbb{G})), W(\mathcal{C}(\mathbb{G})))$. The notion of non-degeneracy of a QP was introduced in [DWZ10, Section 7]. It reads as follows:

Definition 3.11. Let (Q, W) be a QP and $k_1, \ldots, k_l \in Q_0$ be a finite sequence of vertices, no two consecutive ones being equal. By definition, (Q, W) is (k_1, \ldots, k_l) -non-degenerate if all the QPs $(Q, W), \mu_{k_1}(Q, W), \mu_{k_2}\mu_{k_1}(Q, W), \ldots, \mu_{k_l}\cdots\mu_{k_2}\mu_{k_1}(Q, W)$ are 2-acyclic. By definition (Q, P) is non-degenerate if it is (k_1, \ldots, k_l) -non-degenerate for every such sequence of vertices.

Thus, in a non-degenerate (Q, W) we can choose an arbitrary sequence of vertices in Q and mutate the QP (Q, W) along that sequence of vertices. That is, it is possible to perform QP-mutations to (Q, W) just by naming the quiver mutations of Q. There are some QPs that are non-degenerate and some that are degenerate, see [DWZ10], especially Sections 7 and 8 therein, and, for instance, [CZ22b, Section 2.2], where quivers associated to the top positroid variety of a Grassmannians are shown to be non-degenerate.

Before establishing non-degeneracy of $(Q(\mathcal{C}), W(\mathcal{C}))$, we recall that [DWZ10, Definition 6.10] defines a QP (Q, W) to be rigid if the trace space of its Jacobian algebra is equal to the ground ring \mathbb{C} . Rather than the definition itself, the three following properties about rigid QPs are most relevant to us:

- Rigidity is preserved under QP mutation. That is, if (Q, W) is rigid, then $\mu_v(Q, W)$ is rigid for any vertex $v \in Q_0$. This is established in [DWZ10, Corollary 6.11].

- If (Q, W) is rigid and Q' is obtained by adding one vertex v to Q, so that $Q'_0 = Q_0 \cup \{v\}$, such that v is a source (or a sink) in Q', then (Q', W') with W' = W is also rigid.²⁰ This is proven in [Lad13, Remark 4.4] or cf. [DWZ10, Section 8].
- A rigid QP (Q, W) is non-degenerate. This is proven in [DWZ10, Corollary 8.2].

Let us now show that QP $(Q(\mathcal{C}), W(\mathcal{C}))$ associated to curve configurations \mathcal{C} such that $\mathcal{C} = \mathcal{C}(\mathbb{G})$ for a plabic fence are indeed non-degenerate.

Proposition 3.12. Let \mathbb{G} be a plabic fence and $\mathcal{C} = \mathcal{C}(\mathbb{G})$ its associated curve configuration. Then the $QP(Q(\mathcal{C}), W(\mathcal{C}))$ is rigid, and thus non-degenerate.

Proof. By Lemma 3.8, it suffices to argue that $(Q(\mathbb{G}), W(\mathbb{G}))$ as in Definition 3.5 is rigid. As usual, we prove this by scanning the plabic fence \mathbb{G} left to right. First, the empty quiver $(Q(\mathbb{G}), W(\mathbb{G}))$ is rigid and non-degenerate. Second, we assume that we have scanned until the vertical edge e and we have rigidity for $W(\mathbb{G}_{\leq e})$. Let us consider two cases:

- If [de] does not exist, then F_e is a source vertex and $Q(\mathbb{G}_{\leq e})$ is obtained from $Q(\mathbb{G}_{< e})$ by adding a source, thus no new cycles appear and the potential is still rigid by the second property above. Similarly, if neither $[ed^{\uparrow}]$ and $[ed^{\downarrow}]$ exist, then F_e is a sink vertex and the same argument applies.
- If either $[ed^{\uparrow}]$ or $[ed^{\downarrow}]$ exist and so does [de], then F_e is neither a sink nor a source. Nevertheless, we can apply Lemma 3.9 to turn F_e into a source by mutating at vertices in $Q(\mathbb{G}_{\langle e})$. Indeed, the sequence of mutations μ_v from Lemma 3.9 is at an ordered collection of vertices v := (v_1, \ldots, v_k) which are already vertices in $Q(\mathbb{G}_{\langle e})$, i.e. it does not mutate at F_e . By hypothesis, $W(\mathbb{G}_{\langle e})$ is rigid and, as stated above, rigidity is preserved by QP mutation. Therefore $\mu_v(W(\mathbb{G}_{\langle e}))$ is also rigid. Since restriction commutes with mutation by [FIL21, Lemma 2.5] and the mutations occur at vertices of $Q(\mathbb{G}_{\langle e})$, the mutated potential $\mu_v(W(\mathbb{G}_{\leq e}))$ restricted to the subquiver $Q(\mathbb{G}_{\langle e})$ is also rigid, as it equals $\mu_v(W(\mathbb{G}_{\langle e}))$. Since the quiver $\mu_v(Q(\mathbb{G}_{\leq e}))$ is given by adding a source to $\mu_v(Q(\mathbb{G}_{\langle e}))$, the resulting potential $\mu_v(W(\mathbb{G}_{\leq e}))$, now without restricting, is still rigid. The original potential $W(\mathbb{G}_{\leq e})$ is QP mutation-equivalent to this resulting potential, and thus also rigid.

In summary, in either case, the QP $(Q(\mathbb{G}), W(\mathbb{G}))$ stays rigid as we scan \mathbb{G} left to right. Therefore $(Q(\mathcal{C}(\mathbb{G})), W(\mathcal{C}(\mathbb{G})))$ is non-degenerate. \Box

Note that there are many QP (Q, W) that might not be rigid (or non-degenerate). The class of quivers with potentials $(Q(\mathbb{G}), W(\mathbb{G}))$ that we introduced and analyzed above is particular enough that rigidity can be argued directly as in Proposition 3.12. This is similar to the fact that the quivers in the Kontsevich-Soibelman class \mathcal{P}^{21} are rigid and admit a unique non-degenerate potential up to right-equivalence. In fact, though it will not be needed for our application, it can also be proven that $W(\mathbb{G})$ is the unique non-degenerate potential for $Q(\mathbb{G})$ up to right-equivalence.

Remark 3.13. It is likely that the more general class of curve configurations $C(\mathfrak{w})$ that we associated to the weaves \mathfrak{w} in [CGG⁺22] also have $W(\mathcal{C}(\mathfrak{w}))$ be non-degenerate; see [CGG⁺22, Section 7.3]. In that case, the arguments in Section 4 would also prove Theorem 1.1 for (-1)-closures.

This is concludes our construction and study of the QPs $(Q(\mathcal{C}), W(\mathcal{C}))$. We have established in Section 2 the invariance of their right-equivalence classes under triple point moves and local bigon moves, proven that they undergo a QP-mutation when a γ -exchange is applied to \mathcal{C} , and now shown rigidity for those configurations associated to plabic fences. There are two technical pieces that still need justification: arguing that Assumption 1 holds and proving Lemma 2.21. We conclude this section by presenting such proofs.

²⁰In the quiver literature, this operation is part of what is known as a triangular extension of $Q(\mathbb{G}_{\leq e})$ and a point, cf. [Ami09, Definition 3.8].

²¹This is the class generated by the one vertex quiver by triangular extensions and mutations.

3.4. The assumption on bigons is satisfied. By definition, a cycle $v_1 \ldots v_n$ in a QP (Q, W) is said to be empty if $v_1 \ldots v_n$ does not appear as a monomial in W. The following lemma shows that we have no empty cycles for QP associated to curve configurations:

Lemma 3.14. Let (Q, W) be a QP and assume that it contains an empty cycle, i.e. a cycle of arrows in Q whose corresponding monomial does not appear in the potential W. Then (Q, W) is degenerate.

Proof. Let us show this by induction on $n \in \mathbb{N}$, where n is the number of arrows of an empty n-cycle $v_1 \ldots v_n$. The base case is n = 2: suppose there is a 2-cycle $v_1 v_2$ in Q such that $v_1 v_2$ is not a monomial in W. By Definition 3.11, without mutating at all, the quiver in the reduced part of (Q, W) still has the 2-cycle $v_1 v_2$ and thus (Q, W) is degenerate.

The induction step is as follows. Consider an empty *n*-cycle $v_1 \ldots v_n$ for (Q, W) and assume that the existence of an empty *n*-cycle in a QP implies its degeneracy. Mutation of (Q, W) at the vertex $v = h(v_1) = t(v_2)$, creates the (n-1)-cycle $[v_1v_2]v_3 \ldots v_n$. By Definition 2.19, the potential $\mu_v(W)$ for the mutated QP $\mu_v(Q, W)$ is obtained by substituting v_1v_2 by $[v_1v_2]$ in W and adding the cubic term $[v_1v_2]v_1^*v_2^*$. Therefore, $\mu_v(W)$ contains the monomial $[v_1v_2]v_3 \ldots v_n$ if and only if W contains the monomial $v_1 \ldots v_n$. By assumption, W does not contain $v_1 \ldots v_n$ and thus $[v_1v_2]v_3 \ldots v_n$ is an empty (n-1)-cycle in $\mu_v(Q, W)$. By induction, $\mu_v(Q, W)$ is degenerate and thus so is (Q, W). \Box

Let us now use Lemma 3.14 to prove that Assumption 1 is satisfied for our non-degenerate configurations. The precise statement reads as follows:

Proposition 3.15. Let C be a curve configuration and $B \subset \Sigma$ a local bigon bounded by C. Suppose that (Q(C), W(C)) is a non-degenerate potential. Then $\rho(B)$ and $\lambda(B)$ are different regions.

Proof. By contradiction, suppose that there exists a local bigon B such that $\rho(B) = \lambda(B)$. We will now argue that either:

- (1) The potential (Q, W) is degenerate, or
- (2) The homology classes in $H_1(\Sigma; \mathbb{Z})$ of the curves $\gamma_1, \ldots, \gamma_b \in \mathcal{C}$ do not span, because there is a sub-collection of them that give linearly dependent homology classes.

Let us consider a neighborhood of such local bigon B with $\rho(B) = \lambda(B)$. It is as depicted in Figure 27. Namely, the region $\rho(B) = \lambda(B)$ is bounded by:

- (1) A collection of curves $\gamma_2, \ldots, \gamma_s \in \mathcal{C}$, $s \in \mathbb{N}$, with intersection pattern exactly given by γ_i intersects γ_{i+1} negatively, at a point $g_{i+1,i}$ and γ_g intersects γ_1 negatively at $g_{1,s}$.
- (2) A collection of curves $\tau_2, \ldots, \tau_l \in \mathcal{C}, l \in \mathbb{N}$, with intersection pattern exactly given by τ_i intersects τ_{i+1} positively, at a point $t_{i,i+1}$ and τ_l intersects γ_1 negatively at $t_{l,1}$.

Figure 27 depicts a case with s = 4 and t = 3. Note that some curve γ_i , resp. some curve τ_i , might equal some of the other curves γ_j , resp. the other curves τ_j . The argument that now follows works in that case as well.

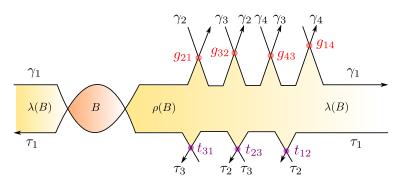


FIGURE 27. A curve configuration C near a local bigon B, bounded by γ_1 and τ_1 , such that $\lambda(B) = \rho(B)$.

Now consider the resolution of the bigon B with a local bigon move. This yields the local curve configuration as in Figure 28. The arrows $g_{2,1} \ldots g_{i+1,i} \ldots g_{1,s}$ in the quiver form a cycle G. Similarly, the arrows $t_{1,2} \ldots t_{i,i+1} \ldots t_{s,1}$ in the quiver form a cycle T.

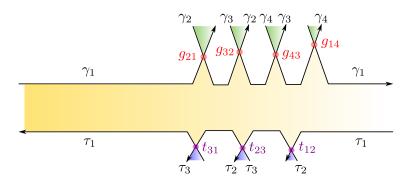


FIGURE 28. A curve configuration C after performing a local bigon move to Figure 27. The resulting region $\lambda(B) = \rho(B)$ is not simply-connected.

Consider the cycles G and T in the quiver. If either G or T are empty, then Lemma 3.14 implies that $(Q(\mathcal{C}), W(\mathcal{C}))$ is degenerate. This contradicts the assumption. Therefore, both G and T must bound a polygon. From the specific configuration we are studying, as in Figure 28, the polygon for G must be above G and the polygon for T must be below T. Pieces of such a polygon bounded by G, above G, are depicted in Figure 28 in green, and pieces of such a polygon bounded by T, below T, are depicted in Figure 28 in blue.

Consider now the smooth oriented representative $\overline{\gamma}$ of $[\gamma_1 + \gamma_2 + \ldots + \gamma_t]$ in $H_1(\Sigma; \mathbb{Z})$ given by the oriented ∞ -resolutions of the crossings $g_{21}, g_{32}, \ldots, g_{t,t-1}$. Here the ∞ resolution is such that the strand coming from the north-west continues to the north-east strand.²² Similarly, let $\overline{\tau}$ be the smooth oriented representative of $[\tau_1 + \tau_2 + \ldots + \tau_l]$ in $H_1(\Sigma; \mathbb{Z})$ given by the oriented ∞ -resolutions of the crossings $t_{12}, t_{12}, \ldots, t_{l-1,l}$. Let $c^+ \subset \Sigma$, resp. $c^- \subset \Sigma$, be a smooth embedded core curve horizontally traversing the yellow region in Figure 28 from left to right, resp. from right to left. Now, the curve $\overline{\gamma}$ is homologous to c^+ . Indeed, the existence of a polygon above G shows that the connected components of $\overline{\gamma}$ not containing γ_1 are null-homologous. The component containing γ_1 has an immersed point at g_{1t} . By construction, this immersed point bounds a region above it, and thus it is homologous to c^+ . Similarly, the curve $\overline{\tau}$ is homologous to c^- . This shows that $[\overline{\gamma}] = [c^+] = -[c^-] = -[\overline{\tau}]$. Therefore $[\overline{\gamma}] + [\overline{\tau}] = 0$ and thus the set of curves in C does not span $H_1(\Sigma; \mathbb{Z})$, as there are exactly $b_1(\Sigma)$ of them and there is a non-empty subset of linearly dependent classes.

Proposition 3.12 and Proposition 3.15 show that Assumption 1 is always satisfied for the curve configurations $\mathcal{C}(\mathbb{G})$ associated to plabic fences \mathbb{G} .

3.5. **Proof of Lemma 2.21.** For Part (i), if C bounds bigons, we obtain C_{red} by iteratively applying Theorem 2.9 to remove them. Lemmas 2.5 and 2.7 imply that (Q(C), W(C)) undergoes a sequence of right-equivalences and local reductions. Note that Lemma 2.7 implies that these reductions exist. By Definition 2.6, each local reduction can be understood as splitting off a trivial direct summand from (Q(C), W(C)). Indeed, an *ab*-reduction of (Q, W) yields a decomposition $(Q_{ab}, W_{ab}) \oplus (Q', W')$, where Q_{ab} has just two arrows a, b and $W_{ab} = ab$, and (Q', W') is the *ab*-reduction of (Q, W). Thus (Q_{ab}, W_{ab}) is trivial. Therefore, after Theorem 2.9 is iteratively applied until we obtain $C_{red}, (Q, W)$ undergoes a sequence of local reductions until it becomes right-equivalent to $(Q(C_{red}), W(C_{red}))$: in each such local reduction a trivial summand splits off and we are left with $(Q(C_{red}), W(C_{red}))$. Since C_{red} has no bigons, the quadratic part of $W(C_{red})$ vanishes and thus $(Q(C_{red}), W(C_{red}))$ is reduced. Therefore, it is the reduced part of (Q(C), W(C)), up to right-equivalence and Lemma 2.21.(i) follows.

 $^{^{22}}$ Similarly, the strand coming from the south-west continues south-east. It is the only possible oriented resolution.

For Part (ii), Lemma 3.14, or directly Definition 3.11, implies that $Q(\mathcal{C})$ has no empty 2-cycles, since $(Q(\mathcal{C}), W(\mathcal{C}))$ is non-degenerate. Therefore, if \mathcal{C} bounds no bigons, then $Q(\mathcal{C})$ has no 2-cycles and thus neither does its reduced part.

4. A LAGRANGIAN FILLING FOR EVERY CLUSTER SEED

The goal of this section is to prove Theorem 1.1. We use the results developed in Sections 2 and 3.

4.1. **Preliminaries.** Let us consider a positive braid word β on *n*-strands and its associated Legendrian link $\Lambda_{\beta} \subset (\mathbb{R}^3, \xi_{st})$. By definition, $\Lambda_{\beta} \subset (\mathbb{R}^3, \xi_{st})$ is the Legendrian link given by the front rainbow closure of β . Figure 29 depicts such a rainbow closure, i.e. a front for Λ_{β} in the (x, z)-plane \mathbb{R}^2 . The box with the label β contains exactly the crossings of β . The ideal contact boundary $(T^{\infty}\mathbb{R}^2, \lambda_{st})$ of the cotangent bundle $(T^*\mathbb{R}^2, \lambda_{st})$ is contactomorphic to the 1-jet space (J^1S^1, ξ_{st}) , where the Legendrian zero section $S^1 \subset J^1S^1$ is the fiber of the projection $T^{\infty}\mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ onto the base \mathbb{R}^2 . Let us consider a Legendrian embedding $\iota_0 : S^1 \longrightarrow (\mathbb{R}^3, \xi_{st})$ of the (unique) max-tb Legendrian unknot $\Lambda_0 \subset (\mathbb{R}^3, \xi_{st})$.

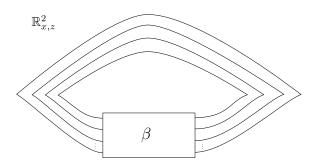


FIGURE 29. The rainbow closure front projection of the positive braid word β .

By the Weinstein neighborhood theorem [Gei08, Section 2.5], any Legendrian link $\Lambda \subset (J^1S^1, \xi_{st})$ can be satellited along the Legendrian embedding ι_0 , as there is a neighborhood of the max-tb Legendrian unknot $\Lambda_0 \subset (\mathbb{R}^3, \xi_{st})$ contactomorphic to (J^1S^1, ξ_{st}) , where the contactomorphism extends ι_0 . We denote the resulting Legendrian link in (\mathbb{R}^3, ξ_{st}) by $\iota_0(\Lambda)$. If we consider the Legendrian $\Lambda(\alpha) \subset (J^1S^1, \xi_{st})$ given by the braid diagram of a positive braid word α in *n*-strands, then $\iota_0(\Lambda(\beta\Delta^2)) \cong \Lambda_\beta$ are Legendrian isotopic in (\mathbb{R}^3, ξ_{st}) , where Δ is the half-twist on *n* strands. See [CN22, Section 2.2] for further details. Note that the class of Legendrian links Λ_β is comprehensive, as it includes the max-tb representatives of all algebraic links and also Legendrian representatives of infinitely many satellite and hyperbolic links, cf. [CG22, Section 6].

Let $L \subset (\mathbb{D}^4, \lambda_{st})$ be an exact oriented Lagrangian filling.²³ Consider an arbitrary but fixed convex neighborhood $\mathcal{O}p(L)$ which is symplectomorphic to a convex neighborhood of the zero section in (T^*L, λ_{st}) and the hypersurface $\partial \mathcal{O}p(L) \subset (\mathbb{D}^4, \lambda_{st})$ is a contact hypersurface contactomorphic to the ideal contact boundary $(T^{\infty}L, \lambda_{st})$ of (T^*L, λ_{st}) . An embedded (co)oriented connected curve $\gamma \subset L$ lifts to a Legendrian knot $\Lambda_{\gamma} \subset \partial \mathcal{O}p(L)$, as it defines a front under the Legendrian projection $(T^{\infty}L, \lambda_{st}) \longrightarrow L$. Since there is a canonical correspondence between oriented and co-oriented curves in an oriented surface, we always discuss oriented curves rather than co-oriented curves. Following [CW22], we introduce the following:

Definition 4.1 (L-compressing systems). Let $L \subset (\mathbb{D}^4, \lambda_{st})$ be an exact oriented Lagrangian filling and $\gamma \subset L$ an embedded oriented curve. By definition, γ is said to be L-compressible if there exists a properly embedded Lagrangian 2-disk $D \subset (T^*\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \mathcal{O}p(L))$ such that $\partial \overline{D} \cap \partial \mathcal{O}p(L) = \Lambda_{\gamma} \subset \mathbb{R}^4$ and the union of $\overline{D} \cup \nu_{\gamma}$ is a smooth Lagrangian disk, where $\nu_{\gamma} \subset \mathcal{O}p(L)$ is the Lagrangian conormal cone of γ . This Lagrangian disk is said to be an L-compressing disk for γ .

²³Of some Legendrian link ∂L in the contact boundary of $(\mathbb{D}^4, \lambda_{st})$.

A collection $\Gamma = \{\gamma_1, \ldots, \gamma_b\}$ of such curves in L, with a choice of \mathbb{L} -compressing disks $\mathscr{D} = \{D_1, \ldots, D_b\}$ for each curve, is said to be an \mathbb{L} -compressing system for L if $D_i \cap D_j = \emptyset$ for all $i, j \in [b]$ and the (homology classes of the) curves in Γ form a basis of $H_1(L; \mathbb{Z})$. \Box

We often abuse notation and refer to the collection \mathscr{D} as the L-compressing system for L.

4.2. Curve configurations and \mathbb{L} -compressing systems. Let $L \subset (\mathbb{D}^4, \lambda_{st})$ be a Lagrangian filling and Γ be a complete \mathbb{L} -compressing system. By definition, the curve configuration $\mathcal{C}(\Gamma)$ associated to Γ is the configuration of oriented closed embedded curves Γ in L. If \mathscr{D} is the collection of \mathbb{L} -compressing disks associated to Γ , we also write $\mathcal{C}(\mathscr{D})$ for $\mathcal{C}(\Gamma)$. Note that $\mathcal{C}(\Gamma)$ is considered as a collection of smooth oriented curves in a smooth surface, with no need to record the Lagrangian condition on L and the disks in \mathscr{D} . The notation $\mathcal{C}(\Gamma)$, instead of just Γ , is in order to emphasize the smooth embedded curves, rather than the symplectic topological aspects of Γ .

Remark 4.2. Suppose that a sequence of triple point moves and local bigons moves is applied to an \mathbb{L} -compressing system $\mathcal{C}(\Gamma)$. This yields a configuration \mathcal{C}' in L. Front homotopies, which include triple point moves and local bigon moves, lift to Legendrian isotopies in the ideal contact boundary. The trace of a Legendrian isotopy yields an invertible Lagrangian concordance in the symplectization. By concatenating the disks associated to Γ with this Lagrangian concordance, we obtain an \mathbb{L} -compressing system Γ' for L such that $\mathcal{C}' = \mathcal{C}(\Gamma')$. We will consider two such configurations $\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{C}'$ equivalent and two such \mathbb{L} -compressing systems Γ, Γ' equivalent.

4.3. L-compressing systems for Λ_{β} . Consider the plabic fence $\mathbb{G}(\beta)$ associated to β , as introduced in Section 3. Then we have the following facts:

- (1) The alternating strand diagram of $\mathbb{G}(\beta)$ is a front for $\Lambda(\beta\Delta^2) \subset (J^1S^2, \xi_{st})$. This is proven in [CW22, Section 2] and see also [STWZ19, Section 5.1]. Thus, after including (J^1S^1, ξ_{st}) into (\mathbb{R}^3, ξ_{st}) as a neighborhood of the max-tb Legendrian unknot, it is Legendrian isotopic to the Legendrian link $\Lambda_{\beta} \subset (\mathbb{R}^3, \xi_{st})$.
- (2) The conjugate surface $\Sigma(\mathbb{G}(\beta))$ gives rise to a unique²⁴ embedded exact Lagrangian filling L_{β} of Λ_{β} . By construction, L_{β} is smoothly isotopic to the (smooth) surface $\Sigma(\mathbb{G}(\beta))$. Uniqueness is proven in [CL22, Prop. 2.4], existence in [STWZ19, Section 4.2]. In particular, it gives an oriented embedded exact Lagrangian filling $L_{\beta} \subset (\mathbb{R}^4, \lambda_{st})$ in the symplectization of (\mathbb{R}^3, ξ_{st}) , after we have identified the standard cotangent bundle $(T^*\mathbb{R}^2, \omega_{st})$ with the symplectic Darboux $(\mathbb{R}^4, \omega_{st})$.
- (3) The conjugate surface $\Sigma(\mathbb{G}(\beta))$ also gives an L-compressing system $\Gamma(\beta)$ for L. The existence of such L-compressing system is proven in [CW22, Section 3], see also [Cas22, Section 2] and [CL22, Section 4.2]. By construction, the configuration of curves in $\mathcal{C}(\Gamma(\beta))$ coincides with the configuration of curves in $\mathcal{C}(\mathbb{G}(\beta))$. The Lagrangian L-compressing disks, showing that this is indeed an L-compressing system, are constructed in [CW22, Section 3].²⁵ Let \mathscr{D}_{β} denote its associated collection of L-compressing Lagrangian disks.

The relevant fact about the L-compressing system $\Gamma(\beta)$ is that it can be used to produce new Lagrangian fillings from L_{β} .

Remark 4.3. For context, let β be a positive braid word and $\Lambda_{\beta} \subset (\mathbb{R}^3, \xi_{st})$ its associated Legendrian link. The union $\mathbb{L}_{\beta} \subset (\mathbb{R}^4, \lambda_{st})$ of the embedded exact Lagrangian filling L_{β} and all the closures of the Lagrangian disks of the collection \mathscr{D}_{β} (extended by the Lagrangian conormal cones of curves in $\Gamma(\beta)$) is an arboreal Lagrangian skeleton for the Weinstein pair given by $(\mathbb{D}^4, \lambda_{st})$ and a Weinstein ribbon of Λ_{β} , see [Eli18, Section 2].

4.4. Lagrangian disk surgery. Lagrangian disk surgery was introduced in [Yau17], following closely the Lagrange surgery defined in [Pol91]. In our context, it is used as follows. Consider a Legendrian link $\Lambda \subset (\mathbb{R}^3, \xi_{st})$, seen as (S^3, ξ_{st}) minus a point, and an embedded exact Lagrangian filling $L \subset$

²⁴Up to compactly supported Hamiltonian isotopy in $(T^*\mathbb{R}^2, \lambda_{st})$.

²⁵Intuitively, the corresponding L-compressing Lagrangian disks are the faces of G, which are disjoint Lagrangian pieces (disks) of the Lagrangian zero section \mathbb{R}^2 in $T^*\mathbb{R}^2$. See Figure 24 (left).

 $(\mathbb{D}^4, \lambda_{st})$ in the standard Darboux 4-ball symplectic filling (S^3, ξ_{st}) . Suppose that there exists a properly embedded Lagrangian disk $D \subset \mathbb{D}^4 \setminus L$ such that $\partial \overline{D} \subset \operatorname{int}(L)$ is a smooth embedded connected curve, where $\operatorname{int}(L)$ in the interior of L.²⁶ Then Lagrangian disk surgery is an operation that inputs the pair (L, D) and outputs another pair (L', D'), with the same properties: L' is an embedded exact Lagrangian filling of Λ and D' is an embedded Lagrangian disk in the complement of L' with embedded boundary on L'. In this process, it is crucial that D is an embedded Lagrangian disk, and not just immersed. Two facts about Lagrangian disk surgery are:

- The Lagrangians L and L' are not necessarily exact Lagrangian isotopic. That is, there might not be a compactly supported Hamiltonian isotopy from L to L'.
- The Lagrangians L and L' are smoothly isotopic, relative to their boundaries. The Lagrangian disk surgery of L' along D' yields (L, D) back, up to compactly supported Hamiltonian isotopy.

The first item above precisely indicates that we can potentially produce a new Lagrangian filling by using a given Lagrangian filling and a Lagrangian disk as above. See [CW22, Pol91, Yau17] and references therein for these facts and more details.

Remark 4.4. Lagrangian disk surgery is *not* known to exist if the boundary $\partial \overline{D} \subset L$ is an immersed curve, rather than embedded. Similarly, the disk D must be embedded.²⁷

4.5. Effect of Lagrangian surgery on curve configurations. Let $L \subset (\mathbb{D}^4, \lambda_{st})$ be an exact Lagrangian filling and Γ an \mathbb{L} -compressible system for L. Consider a disk $D \in \mathscr{D}$. Lagrangian disk surgery on D leads to another exact Lagrangian filling $\mu_D(L) \subset (\mathbb{D}^4, \lambda_{st})$ endowed with a curve configuration $\mu_D(\Gamma)$ and a collection of Lagrangian disks $\mu_D(\mathscr{D})$ bounding the curves in $\mu_D(\Gamma)$. There is a natural bijection between the disks in \mathscr{D} and those in $\mu_D(\mathscr{D})$ and a diffeomorphism between Land $\mu_D(L)$, as stated above. Now, the configuration $\mu_D(\Gamma)$ might not be an \mathbb{L} -compressible system because it might contain immersed curves.

In general, these new curve configurations $\mu_D(\Gamma)$ obtained by Lagrangian disk surgery on a disk associated to Γ can be understood via the following:

Lemma 4.5. Let $L \subset (\mathbb{D}^4, \lambda_{st})$ be an exact Lagrangian filling, Γ an \mathbb{L} -compressible system for Lwith \mathbb{L} -compressing disks \mathscr{D} , and $\mathcal{C}(\Gamma)$ its associated configuration in L. Consider a disk $D \in \mathscr{D}$ with boundary the lift of $\gamma \in \mathcal{C}(\Gamma)$. Then there is a natural identification between the configuration $\mu_D(\Gamma)$ and the γ -exchange of Γ .

Proof. Lagrangian disk surgery occurs in a neighborhood of D in $(\mathbb{D}^4, \lambda_{st})$. It is shown in [CZ22a, Section 4.8] that it can be local modeled by the weave mutation in Figure 30. For this proof, we assume familiarity with [CZ22a, Section 2], or [CW22, Section 3]. It suffices to understand how Lagrangian disk surgery along the disk D bounding γ affects the boundary of the other disks in \mathscr{D} . There are two cases: positive and negative intersections, represented by the segments τ_+ and τ_- in Figure 11 (left).

²⁶In the discussion of Subsection 4.3, these Lagrangian disks are obtained by considering the union of the disks $D_{\gamma} \in \mathscr{D}$ in an L-compressing system \mathscr{D} and concatenating them with (a piece of) the Lagrangian conormal cone in T^*L of the corresponding (co)oriented curve γ .

 $^{^{27}}$ It is not just a lack of available constructions, [CW22, Section 4.10] presents examples of immersed disks that one cannot perform Lagrangian disk surgery to, due to the existence of frozen vertices coming from absolute 1-cycles in L.

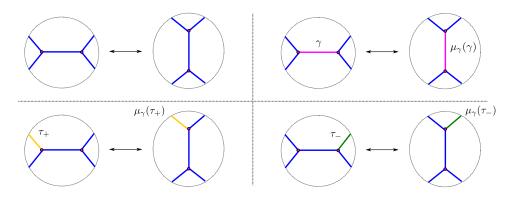


FIGURE 30. (Upper left) Lagrangian disk surgery in the 2-weave model along a short I-cycle γ . (Upper right) The short I-cycle γ depicted in pink; it is drawn before and after mutation at γ . (Lower left) A weave line in yellow smoothly representing a relative homology class τ_+ with unique geometric intersection plus one with γ . It is drawn before and after mutation at γ . (Lower right) A weave line in green smoothly representing a relative homology class τ_- with a unique geometric intersection minus one with γ , also drawn before and after mutation at γ .

In the weave diagram, the segments τ_+ and τ_- in Figure 11 (left) can be represented by the weave lines τ_+ and τ_- in the second row of Figure 30.²⁸ In this situation, before the mutation, $\tau_+ \cap \gamma = +1$, $\tau_- \cap \gamma = -1$ and $\tau_+ \cap \tau_- = 0$. Note that smooth curves are encoded by their relative homology class in the context of curves in surfaces, homology classes are entirely determined by their intersections and thus we record those. The 2-weave in the left of Figure 30 (upper left) represents a Lagrangian cylinder, and the left parts of the other three figures indicate how to draw τ_{\pm} and γ in that cylinder.

It suffices to understand how τ_+, τ_- and γ in the weave change under weave mutation. This is drawn in the right parts of the upper right and the second row of Figure 30. The resulting curves $\mu_{\gamma}(\tau_+)$ and $\mu_{\gamma}(\tau_-)$ are shown, also in yellow and green respectively; the curve $\mu_{\gamma}(\gamma)$ is drawn in pink. By using the intersection numbers on weaves, cf. [CZ22a, Section 2] or [CGG⁺22, Section 4.4], we obtain that $\mu_{\gamma}(\tau_+) \cap \mu_{\gamma}(\gamma) = -1, \ \mu_{\gamma}(\gamma) \cap \mu_{\gamma}(\tau_-) = -1$ and $\mu_{\gamma}(\tau_+) \cap \mu_{\gamma}(\tau_-) = 1$. Therefore the curves change exactly according to a γ -exchange.

Remark 4.6. Lemma 4.5 could be proven using other models, such as plabic fences and Lagrangian conjugate surfaces, cf. [CL22, Section 3] or [STWZ19, Section 5.2]. We also refer the reader to [STW16, Section 2] for an explanation using a conical model and the discussion in [PT20, Section 4]. \Box

Lemma 4.5 clarifies the combinatorics of Γ that might lead to immersed curves for $\mu_D(\Gamma)$. Indeed, the existence of a 2-cycle in $Q(\Gamma)$ is equivalent to the fact that $\mu_D(\Gamma)$, obtained by a γ -exchange, has (at least) one immersed curve. Indeed, Proposition 2.22 implies that γ -exchange leads to a quiver mutation, thus $\mu_{\gamma}Q(\Gamma) = Q(\mu_{D_{\gamma}}(\Gamma))$, and $\mu_D(\Gamma)$ has an immersed curve if and only if $Q(\mu_D(\Gamma))$ contains a loop.²⁹

4.6. Iteration of Lagrangian disk surgeries and QP non-degeneracy. Let $L \subset (\mathbb{D}^4, \lambda_{st})$ be an embedded exact Lagrangian filling and Γ an \mathbb{L} -compressing system for L. Suppose that the configuration $\mathcal{C}(\Gamma)$ is reduced and $(Q(\mathcal{C}(\Gamma)), W(\mathcal{C}(\Gamma)))$ is non-degenerate. In particular, there are no 2-cycles in $Q(\mathcal{C}(\Gamma))$.

Consider an L-compressing disk $D \in \mathscr{D}(\Gamma)$ with boundary $\gamma \in \mathcal{C}(\Gamma)$ and perform Lagrangian disk surgery on (L, D). This produces a new Lagrangian filling (L', D') with an L-compressing disk D'. The L-compressing system Γ for L yields an L-compressing system Γ' for L', whose configuration of

²⁸The green segment τ_{-} has the same color, the blue segment τ_{-} is now drawn in yellow because the weave is typically drawn in blue.

²⁹Technically, here $\mu_v Q$ refers to mutation of a quiver with 2-cycles. This is defined exactly the same as mutation of quivers, in the sense that the two arrows $a, b \in Q_1$, h(a) = t(b) = v, in a 2-cycle lead to the composed arrow $[ab] \in (\mu_v Q)_1$, which is a loop.

curves $\mathcal{C}(\Gamma')$ is as described by Lemma 4.5. We wish to be able to iterate this procedure arbitrarily: given any curve $\gamma_1 \in \mathcal{C}(\Gamma')$ with associated \mathbb{L} -compressing disk D_1 , we want to be able to perform Lagrangian disk surgery to L' along D_1 . The two problems at this stage, which are well-known, are:

- (i) It might be that $\mathcal{C}(\Gamma')$ does not bound any bigons but there are curves $\gamma_i, \gamma_j \in \mathcal{C}(\mathscr{D}_1)$ with two points of geometric intersection, one positive and one negative, and these two intersection points do not bound a bigon.
- (ii) It might be that $\mathcal{C}(\Gamma')$ is a non-reduced configuration, bounding bigons. That is, there are curves $\gamma_i, \gamma_j \in \mathcal{C}(\mathscr{D}_1)$ with two points of geometric intersection, one positive and one negative, and these two intersection points bound a bigon.

In either of these two cases, if the curve $\gamma_1 \subset L'$ at which we must mutate was precisely one such γ_i , then Lagrangian disk surgery along D_1 would make γ_j immersed. It would produce a Lagrangian filling $\mu_{D_1}(L')$ but the resulting collection of curves would have at least an immersed curve. In that case, we can no longer iterate our sequence of Lagrangian disk surgeries. This is an obstruction that we cannot bypass merely with the information of $Q(\mathcal{C}(\Gamma))$. In fact, $Q(\mathcal{C}(\Gamma))$ is not able to distinguish the two cases (i) and (ii) above, as both are 2-cycles in $Q(\mathcal{C}(\Gamma))$.

The core contribution of this manuscript is that we can solve this problem by using the curve potential $W(\mathcal{C}(\Gamma))$. This potential $W(\mathcal{C}(\Gamma))$ must be precisely the one we constructed and studied in Sections 2 and 3. Another choice of potential W for $Q(\mathcal{C}(\Gamma))$, unrelated to the specific geometry of polygons for curve configurations $\mathcal{C}(\Gamma)$ would be of no use. Indeed, by construction, $W(\mathcal{C}(\beta))$ keeps track of polygons and, in particular, bigons. This is used when solving problem (*ii*) above. By Proposition 3.12, $(Q(\mathcal{C}(\Gamma)), W(\mathcal{C}(\Gamma)))$ is non-degenerate if Γ is an \mathbb{L} -compressing system of the form $\Gamma = \Gamma(\beta)$. This is used for solving problem (*i*) above.

Consider the curve quiver with potential $(Q(\mathcal{C}(\beta)), W(\mathcal{C}(\beta)))$ constructed in Section 3. We have the following two properties:

- (P1) The QP $(Q(\mathcal{C}(\beta)), W(\mathcal{C}(\beta)))$ is reduced, as defined in Section 2.3.2. Indeed, the construction of the QP $(Q(\mathbb{G}), W(\mathbb{G}))$ in Section 3.2 implies that is reduced for any plabic fence \mathbb{G} . By Proposition 3.8, $(Q(\mathcal{C}(\beta)), W(\mathcal{C}(\beta)))$ coincides with $(Q(\mathbb{G}(\beta)), W(\mathbb{G}(\beta)))$, where $\mathbb{G}(\beta)$ is the plabic fence associated to β . Thus $(Q(\mathcal{C}(\beta)), W(\mathcal{C}(\beta)))$ is reduced as well.
- (P2) The QP $(Q(\mathcal{C}(\beta)), W(\mathcal{C}(\beta)))$ is a curve QP, as in Definition 2.4. By Proposition 3.12, it is a non-degenerate QP. In particular, there are never 2-cycles in any QP (Q, W) which is related to $(Q(\mathcal{C}(\beta)), W(\mathcal{C}(\beta)))$ by a sequence of QP mutations.

Let us use these properties, along with the results in Sections 2 and 3, and prove the following result.

Proposition 4.7. Let $L \subset (\mathbb{D}^4, \lambda_{st})$ be an embedded exact Lagrangian filling and Γ an \mathbb{L} -compressing system for L. Suppose that the configuration $\mathcal{C}(\Gamma)$ is reduced and $(Q(\mathcal{C}(\Gamma)), W(\mathcal{C}(\Gamma)))$ is non-degenerate. If $D \in \mathscr{D}(\Gamma)$ is an \mathbb{L} -compressing disk with boundary $\gamma \in \mathcal{C}(\Gamma)$ then:

- (i) The Lagrangian filling $\mu_D(L)$ obtained from L by Lagrangian disk surgery on D admits an L-compressing system $\mu_D(\Gamma)$ such that its associated QP $(Q(\mu_D(\Gamma)), W(\mu_D(\Gamma)))$ is reduced.
- (ii) The quiver with potential associated to $\mu_D(\Gamma)$ satisfies

 $(Q(\mathcal{C}(\mu_D(\Gamma))), W(\mathcal{C}(\mu_D(\Gamma))) = (\mu_{\gamma}Q(\mathcal{C}(\Gamma)), \mu_{\gamma}W(\mathcal{C}(\Gamma)))$

and the quiver $Q(\mathcal{C}(\mu_D(\Gamma)))$ contains no 2-cycles.

In addition, the curve configuration associated to $\mu_D(\Gamma)$ is a reduction of the γ -exchange of $\mathcal{C}(\Gamma)$.

Proof. Let us prove (i). First, the quiver $Q(\mathcal{C}(\Gamma))$ has no 2-cycles. Indeed, $\mathcal{C}(\Gamma)$ is reduced by hypothesis, and thus there are no 2-cycles coming from the trivial part of $(Q(\mathcal{C}(\Gamma)), W(\mathcal{C}(\Gamma)))$. By hypothesis as well, $(Q(\mathcal{C}(\Gamma)), W(\mathcal{C}(\Gamma)))$ is non-degenerate, and thus Definition 3.11 implies that there are no empty 2-cycles either. By Lemma 4.5, the configuration of curves $\mathcal{C}(\Gamma)$ undergoes a γ -exchange under Lagrangian disk surgery. Since $Q(\mathcal{C}(\Gamma))$ has no 2-cycles, all curves in the resulting configuration

are embedded. None of them is immersed. Therefore, Lagrangian disk surgery along D produces a new \mathbb{L} -compressing system Γ' , such that $\mathcal{C}(\Gamma')$ is the γ -exchange of $\mathcal{C}(\Gamma)$.

Second, at this stage, $\mathcal{C}(\Gamma')$ might not be a priori reduced. By Theorem 2.9, there exists a reduction $\mu_D(\Gamma)$ of $\mathcal{C}(\Gamma')$. Since $(Q(\mathcal{C}(\Gamma)), W(\mathcal{C}(\Gamma)))$ is non-degenerate, Lemma 2.21 applies and shows that

$$(Q(\mu_D(\Gamma)), W(\mu_D(\Gamma))) = (Q(\Gamma)_{red}, W(\Gamma)_{red}).$$

This implies that $(Q(\mu_D(\Gamma)), W(\mu_D(\Gamma)))$ is reduced. This implies (i). By construction, $\mu_D(\Gamma)$ is a reduction of $\mathcal{C}(\Gamma')$, which itself is the γ -exchange of $\mathcal{C}(\Gamma)$. The last sentence of the statement is thus proven as well.

For item (*ii*), Proposition 2.22 implies the equality between the QPs. By item (*i*), the quiver with potential $(Q(\mathcal{C}(\mu_D(\Gamma))), W(\mathcal{C}(\mu_D(\Gamma))))$ is reduced and thus the non-degeneracy of $(Q(\mathcal{C}(\Gamma)), W(\mathcal{C}(\Gamma)))$ implies that $Q(\mathcal{C}(\mu_D(\Gamma)))$ has no 2-cycles.

4.7. The ring of regular functions $\mathbb{C}[X(\Lambda_{\beta}, T)]$. Let β be a positive braid word on *n*-strands. Consider the Legendrian link $\Lambda_{\beta} \subset (\mathbb{R}^3, \xi_{st})$ and a set of marked points $T \subset \Lambda_{\beta}$, one per component. Let $A_{\Lambda_{\beta}}$ be Legendrian contact dg-algebra of (Λ_{β}, T) with \mathbb{Z} -coefficients. We refer to [CN22, Section 5.1] or the survey [EN18] for details on $A_{\Lambda_{\beta}}$. Consider its augmentation variety $X(\Lambda_{\beta}, T)$, which is the space of all dg-algebra maps from $A_{\Lambda_{\beta}}$ to \mathbb{C} , the latter considered as a dg-algebra in grading 0 and zero differential. Following [CN22, Section 5], the space $X(\Lambda_{\beta}, T)$, which is naturally an affine variety, can be explicitly described as follows. For k = [n - 1], define the $n \times n$ matrix $P_k(a)$, as a function of an input a, as:

$$(P_k(a))_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & i = j \text{ and } i \neq k, k+1 \\ 1 & (i,j) = (k,k+1) \text{ or } (k+1,k) \\ a & i = j = k+1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Namely, $P_k(a)$ is the identity matrix except for the 2×2 submatrix given by rows and columns k and k + 1, which is $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & a \end{pmatrix}$. Consider the full twist Δ^2 in *n*-strands and set $\ell = \ell(\beta \Delta^2)$ for the length of $\beta \Delta^2$. Given a braid word $\beta \Delta^2 = \sigma_{k_1} \cdots \sigma_{k_\ell}$, where $\sigma_i \in \text{Br}_n$ are Artin generators in *n*-strands, let $c = |\pi_0(\Lambda_{\beta\Delta^2})|$ and choose $i_1, \ldots, i_c \in \mathbb{N}$ such that the i_j -th strand in $\beta \Delta^2$ is in its *j*-th connected component, $j \in [c]$. Define $D(\mathbf{t}_{\beta\Delta^2})$ to be the diagonal $n \times n$ matrix with (k, k)-entry equal to t_j if $k = i_j$ and 1 otherwise, let **1** be the $n \times n$ identity matrix and set

$$P_{\beta\Delta^2}(z_1,\ldots,z_{\ell};t_1,\ldots,t_c) := P_{k_1}(z_1)P_{k_2}(z_2)\cdots P_{k_{\ell}}(z_{\ell})D(\mathbf{t}_{\beta\Delta^2}).$$

Then, by [CN22, Proposition 5.2], $X(\Lambda_{\beta}, T)$ is isomorphic to the affine variety:

 $X(\Lambda_{\beta},T) \cong \{(z_1,\ldots,z_{\ell};t_1,\ldots,t_c): \mathbf{1} + P_{\beta\Delta^2}(z_1,\ldots,z_{\ell};t_1,\ldots,t_c) = 0\} \subset \mathbb{C}^{\ell} \times (\mathbb{C}^{\times})^c.$

The next result is proven in [GSW20a, Theorem 1.1]. It also follows from [CW22, Theorem 1.1], after noticing that $X(\Lambda_{\beta}, T)$ is isomorphic to a decorated moduli space of sheaves in \mathbb{R}^2 singularly supported in a front for Λ_{β} .

Theorem 4.8 ([CW22]). Let β be a positive braid word on n-strands, $\Lambda_{\beta} \subset (\mathbb{R}^3, \xi_{st})$ its associated Legendrian link and a set of marked points $T \subset \Lambda_{\beta}$, one per component. Then the coordinate ring of regular functions $\mathbb{C}[X(\Lambda_{\beta}, T)]$ is a cluster algebra. In addition, it has the following properties:

- (a) Let L_{β} be the embedded exact Lagrangian filling of Λ_{β} associated to the plabic fence $\mathbb{G}(\beta)$. Then there exists a canonical cluster seed $\mathfrak{c}(L_{\beta})$ associated to L_{β} and it has quiver $Q(\mathbb{G}(\beta))$.
- (b) Let (L, Γ) be an exact Lagrangian filling with an \mathbb{L} -compressing system obtained from the Lagrangian filling $(L_{\beta}, \Gamma(\mathbb{G}(\beta)))$ by a sequence of Lagrangian disk surgeries along an ordered collection of curves $\gamma_1, \ldots, \gamma_k \in \Gamma(\mathbb{G}(\beta))$. Then
 - (i) There is a canonical cluster seed c(L) associated to (L, Γ) and the cluster variables in the cluster seed c(L) are computed by microlocal merodromies along the Poincaré dual relative cycles of the curves in the L-compressing system Γ. In particular, cluster variables are indexed by the curves in Γ.

(ii) The cluster seed $\mathfrak{c}(L)$ is $\mu_{v_k} \cdots \mu_{v_1}(\mathfrak{c}(L_\beta))$, the cluster seed obtained by the sequence of cluster mutations along the vertices $v_i \in Q(\mathbb{G}(\beta))_0$ associated to $\gamma_i \in \Gamma(\mathbb{G}(\beta))$, $i \in [k]$.

Technically, [CW22] shows that $\mathbb{C}[X(\Lambda_{\beta}, T)]$ is an upper cluster algebra with the above properties. That said, it is locally acyclic, see e.g. [CGG⁺22, Theorem 7.13], and thus the cluster algebra coincides with the upper cluster algebra, as proven in [Mul14].

For Theorem 1.1, it suffices to focus on the mutable part of the cluster algebra $\mathbb{C}[X(\Lambda_{\beta}, T)]$: it is wellestablished that there are $b_1(L)$ mutable vertices in each seed of $\mathbb{C}[X(\Lambda_{\beta}, T)]$, where $b_1(L)$ coincides for all embedded exact orientable Lagragian fillings L, as the frozen variables have only to do with the set of marked points T, cf. [CW22, GSW20a].

Remark 4.9. Note that the class of Legendrian links Λ_{β} is such that $\mathbb{C}[X(\Lambda_{\beta}, T)]$ has been proven to be a cluster algebra. This is unknown for a general Legendrian link $\Lambda \subset (\mathbb{R}^3, \xi_{st})$. Among other reasons, this is due to the lack of definition of a cluster structure on a general derived stack, which is a matter of homotopical algebraic geometry. That said, the technique developed to prove Theorem 1.1 and Corollary 1.3 should likely apply to general Legendrian links $\Lambda \subset (\mathbb{R}^3, \xi_{st})$ once it is understood how to make sense of cluster structures on $X(\Lambda, T)$ and they are proven to exist. \Box

4.8. **Proof of Theorem 1.1.** First, we choose the Lagrangian filling L and the \mathbb{L} -compressing system Γ in the statement to be $L := L_{\beta}$ and $\Gamma := \Gamma(\beta)$. This filling and \mathbb{L} -compressing system were both introduced in Subsection 4.3. As stated there, the curve configurations $\mathcal{C}(\Gamma(\beta)) = \mathcal{C}(\mathbb{G}(\beta))$ coincide. Here $\mathbb{G}(\beta)$ is the plabic fence associated to β , as described in Section 3, and $\mathcal{C}(\mathbb{G}(\beta))$ is the associated configuration, as constructed in Section 3.1. We shorten notation to $\mathcal{C}(\beta) := \mathcal{C}(\mathbb{G}(\beta))$.

Consider the cluster seed $\mathfrak{c}(L_{\beta})$ in $\mathbb{C}[X(\Lambda_{\beta}, T)]$ associated to L_{β} . By construction, the vertices of the quiver in $\mathfrak{c}(L_{\beta})$ are given by curves in $\mathcal{C}(\beta)$ and the arrows record signed intersections, cf. [GSW20a] or [CW22, Section 4]. Thus the quiver in the seed $\mathfrak{c}(L_{\beta})$ coincides with the quiver $Q(\mathcal{C}(\beta))$ associated to the curve configuration $\mathcal{C}(\beta)$ in $L_{\beta} = \Sigma(\mathbb{G}(\beta))$. Note that the curves in $\mathcal{C}(\beta)$ are smooth, oriented, embedded and form a basis of $H_1(L_{\beta}, \mathbb{Z})$. Therefore, $\mathcal{C}(\beta)$ is indeed a curve configuration.

It follows from Properties (P1) and (P2) in Subsection 4.6, or direct inspection, that $C(\beta)$ is reduced and $Q(C(\beta))$ contains no 2-cycles. Equally important, Proposition 3.12 implies that the QP $(Q(C(\beta)), W(C(\beta)))$ is non-degenerate.

Let (v_1, \ldots, v_ℓ) be the sequence of mutable vertices in $Q(\mathcal{C}(\beta))$ given to us in item (i) of the statement. Let us construct an embedded exact Lagrangian filling L_k for the seed $\mu_{v_k} \ldots \mu_{v_1}(\mathfrak{c}(L))$ along with an \mathbb{L} -compressing system for L_k . Let us denote by $\mathscr{D}_0 = \mathscr{D}_\beta$ the collection of \mathbb{L} -compressing disks associated to $\Gamma(\beta)$. Now, the vertex v_1 corresponds to an \mathbb{L} -compressible curve $\gamma_1 \in \mathcal{C}(\Gamma(\beta))$. In order to obtain a Lagrangian filling in the seed $\mu_1 := \mu_{v_1}(\mathfrak{m}(\beta))$ we apply Proposition 4.7 with $L = L_\beta$ and $D = D_{v_1} \in \mathscr{D}_0$ the \mathbb{L} -compressing disk associated to γ_1 . The hypothesis of reducedness and non-degeneracy of the initial QP are indeed satisfied by the previous paragraph.

Proposition 4.7 now produces an L-compressing system \mathscr{D}_1 for the Lagrangian filling $L_1 := \mu_{D_{v_1}}(L_\beta)$ whose associated QP is reduced and non-degenerate. In addition, the Lagrangian disks in \mathscr{D}_1 are in a specified bijection with the disks in \mathscr{D}_0 . This bijection is established as follows. The L-compressing disks are indexed by the curves in the respective configurations. Lemma 4.5 implies that the curves undergo a γ -exchange under Lagrangian disk surgery. By construction, curves in a configuration before and after a γ -exchange are in a specified bijection, as the vertices of the corresponding quiver are identified (via the identity), cf. Section 2.3.1. A reduction of a configuration also determines a unique bijection, as Lemmas 2.5 and 2.7 show that the vertices of the quiver remain (identically) the same under triple point moves and local bigon moves. Therefore, the Lagrangian disks in \mathscr{D}_1 are indeed in a specified bijection with the disks in \mathscr{D}_0 .

Consider the next vertex v_2 of $Q(\mathcal{C}(\beta))$ at which we must mutate. By the bijection above, this specifies a unique L-compressing disk D_{v_2} in \mathscr{D}_1 in the L-compressing system of $\mu_{D_{v_1}}(L_\beta)$. Since the QP associated to \mathscr{D}_1 is reduced and non-degenerate, we can apply Proposition 4.7 to $\mu_{D_{v_1}}(L_\beta)$ and \mathscr{D}_1 . This produces a Lagrangian filling $L_2 = \mu_{D_{v_2}} \mu_{D_{v_1}}(L_\beta)$ in the cluster seed $\mu_{v_2} \mu_{v_1}(\mathfrak{c}(L))$ with an L-compressing system \mathscr{D}_2 . Since the QP associated to \mathscr{D}_2 is again reduced and non-degenerate, we can iteratively apply Proposition 4.7 without any constraints. By Theorem 4.8, this procedure indeed constructs the required Lagrangian fillings $L_k = \mu_{D_{v_k}} \dots \mu_{D_{v_2}} \mu_{D_{v_1}}(L_\beta)$ with L-compressing systems $\Gamma_k = \mathscr{D}_k = \mu_{D_{v_k}} \dots \mu_{D_{v_2}} \mu_{D_{v_1}}(\mathscr{D}_\beta)$ in the required cluster seeds. This proves item (i) of the statement. The construction we used, applying Proposition 4.7, implies items (ii) and (iii).

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