When do quasisymmetric functions know that trees are different?

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Joint work with:
Jean-Christophe Aval
LaBRI, CNRS, Université de Bordeaux, France
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UBC Discrete Mathematics Seminar 31 January 2023



Slides and paper available from

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Outline

- Chromatic (quasi)symmetric functions and the motivating conjectures
- Converting to a poset question; more conjectures
- Some old and new results

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- More conjectures

George Birkhoff, 1912

Graph
$$G = (V, E)$$

Colouring/Coloring: a map $\kappa: V \rightarrow \{1, 2, 3, \ldots\}$

Proper coloring: adjacent vertices get different colors.





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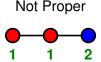
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Not Proper

Chromatic polynomial: $\chi_G(k)$ is the number of proper colorings of G when k colors are available.

Example.
$$\chi_{G}(k) = k(k-1)(k-1)$$

Richard Stanley, 1995

Graph
$$G = (V, E)$$

$$V = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$$



To a proper coloring κ , we associate the monomial in commuting variables $x_1, x_2, ...$

$$X_{\kappa(v_1)}X_{\kappa(v_2)}\cdots X_{\kappa(v_n)}.$$

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Chromatic symmetric function:

$$X_G(x_1, x_2, \ldots) = X_G(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{\text{proper } \kappa} X_{\kappa(v_1)} X_{\kappa(v_2)} \cdots X_{\kappa(v_n)}.$$

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Example.

$$\begin{array}{cccc}
\mathbf{a} & \mathbf{b} & \mathbf{a} \\
\mathbf{O} & \mathbf{O} & \mathbf{O} \\
& X_a^2 X_b
\end{array}$$

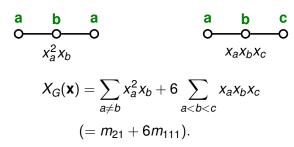
$$X_G(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{a \neq b} x_a^2 x_b + 6 \sum_{a < b < c} x_a x_b x_c$$

$$(= m_{21} + 6m_{111}).$$

Chromatic symmetric function:

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Example.



 \succ $X_G(\mathbf{x})$ is a symmetric function (invariant when you permute the colors/variables)

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- \succ $X_G(\mathbf{x})$ is a symmetric function (invariant when you permute the colors/variables)
- Setting $x_i = 1$ for $1 \le i \le k$ and $x_i = 0$ otherwise yields $\chi_G(k)$. e.g. $k(k-1) + 6\binom{k}{3} = k(k-1)^2$.

$$X_G(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{\mathsf{proper }\kappa} X_{\kappa(v_1)} X_{\kappa(v_2)} \cdots X_{\kappa(v_n)}.$$

Statement 1.

 $X_G(\mathbf{x})$ distinguishes graphs.

In other words, if G and H are not isomorphic, then $X_G(\mathbf{x}) \neq X_H(\mathbf{x})$.



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Stanley: these have the same $X_G(\mathbf{x})$





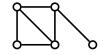
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Statement 2.

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if T and U are non-isomorphic trees, then $X_T(\mathbf{x}) \neq X_U(\mathbf{x})$.



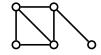
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[Aliniaeifard, Aliste-Prieto, Crew, de Mier, Fougere, Heil, Ji, Loebl, Martin, Morin, Orellana, Scott, Smith, Sereni, Spirkl, Tian, Wagner, Wang, van Willigenburg, Zamora, ...]

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Remark. Stanley–Stembridge: another famous $X_G(\mathbf{x})$ conjecture.

A little bit of (quasi)symmetric functions

 $x^2y + y^2x + x^2z + z^2x + y^2z + z^2y$ is a symmetric polynomial in $\{x,y,z\}$ because it doesn't change when you permute the variables.

$$\sum_{a\neq b} x_a^2 x_b = x_1^2 x_2 + x_2^2 x_1 + x_1^2 x_3 + \cdots \text{ is a symmetric function in } \mathbf{x}.$$

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$$\sum_{a < b} x_a x_b^2 = x_1 x_2^2 + x_1 x_3^2 + x_2 x_3^2 + x_1 x_4^2 + x_2 x_4^2 + \cdots$$
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Definition. A quasisymmetric function is a formal power series (over \mathbb{Z} , say) in x_1, x_2, \ldots of bounded degree whose coefficients are *shift invariant* meaning

coefficient of
$$x_1^{\alpha_1} x_2^{\alpha_2} \cdots x_k^{\alpha_k} = \text{coefficient of } x_{a_1}^{\alpha_1} x_{a_2}^{\alpha_2} \cdots x_{a_k}^{\alpha_k}$$
 whenever $a_1 < a_2 < \cdots < a_k$.

$$M_{12} = \sum_{a < b} x_a x_b^2 = x_1 x_2^2 + x_1 x_3^2 + x_2 x_3^2 + x_1 x_4^2 + \cdots$$

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For a composition $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_k)$ the monomial quasisymmetric function is:

$$M_{\alpha} = \sum_{a_1 < a_2 < \dots < a_k} x_{a_1}^{\alpha_1} x_{a_2}^{\alpha_2} \cdots x_{a_k}^{\alpha_k}.$$

The M_{α} form a basis for the algebra QSym of quasisymmetric functions.

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A great basis: Gessel's fundamental quasisymmetric functions

$$F_{lpha} = \sum_{eta ext{ refines } lpha} extbf{\textit{M}}_{eta}.$$

Example.

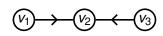
 $F_{32} = M_{32} + M_{212} + M_{122} + M_{1112} + M_{311} + M_{2111} + M_{1211} + M_{11111}$. (M_{221} , for example, does not appear).

John Shareshian & Michelle Wachs, 2014; Brittney Ellzey, 2017.

Directed graph $\overrightarrow{G} = (V, E)$.

Ascent of proper coloring κ : directed edge $u \to v$ with $\kappa(u) < \kappa(v)$ asc (κ) : the number of ascents of κ .

Example. Colors a < b < c



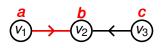
$\kappa(v_1)$	$\kappa(v_2)$	$\kappa(v_3)$	$asc(\kappa)$
Λ(V)	n(v2)	$\kappa(v_3)$	a30(n)
а	b	С	1
а	С	b	2
b	а	С	0
b	С	а	2
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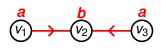
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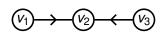
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Chromatic quasisymmetric function:

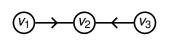
$$X_{\overrightarrow{G}}(\mathbf{x},t) = \sum_{\text{proper }\kappa} t^{\operatorname{asc}(\kappa)} X_{\kappa(v_1)} X_{\kappa(v_2)} \cdots X_{\kappa(v_n)}.$$

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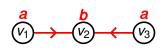
Example.
$$X_{\overrightarrow{c}}(\mathbf{x},t) = (2+2t+2t^2)M_{111} + t^2M_{21} + M_{12}$$
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John Shareshian & Michelle Wachs, 2014; Brittney Ellzey, 2017.

Directed graph $\overrightarrow{G} = (V, E)$.

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Chromatic quasisymmetric function:

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Can $X_{\overrightarrow{c}}(\mathbf{x},t)$ distinguish graphs?

By setting t=1, we see that $X_{\overrightarrow{G}}(\mathbf{x},t)$ contains more information than $X_G(\mathbf{x})$.

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Statement 3.

 $X_{\overrightarrow{G}}(\mathbf{x},t)$ distinguishes directed graphs.

i.e. if \overrightarrow{G} and \overrightarrow{H} are not isomorphic, then $X_{\overrightarrow{G}}(\mathbf{x},t) \neq X_{\overrightarrow{H}}(\mathbf{x},t)$.



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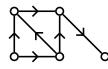
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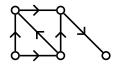
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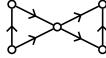
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Statement 4.

 $X_{\overrightarrow{G}}(\mathbf{x},t)$ distinguishes directed trees. In other words, if \overrightarrow{T} and \overrightarrow{U} are non-isomorphic directed trees, then $X_{\overrightarrow{T}}(\mathbf{x},t) \neq X_{\overrightarrow{D}}(\mathbf{x},t)$.



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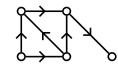
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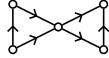
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Motiviating Conjecture 2 (stated as a question by Per Alexandersson and Robin Sulzgruber, 2021).

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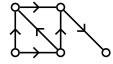
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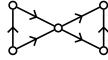
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This conjecture was our original goal.

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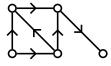
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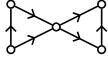
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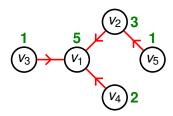
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This conjecture was our original goal. Strategy: translate to posets.

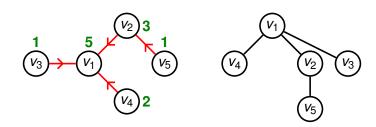
$$X_{\overrightarrow{G}}(\mathbf{x},t) = \sum_{\mathsf{proper}\ \kappa} t^{\mathsf{asc}(\kappa)} X_{\kappa(v_1)} X_{\kappa(v_2)} \cdots X_{\kappa(v_n)}.$$

- Look at the coefficient of the highest power of t.
- ▶ It's enough to show these coefficients are different for *T* and *U*.
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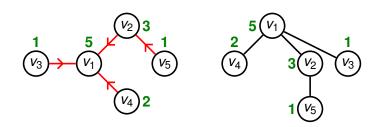
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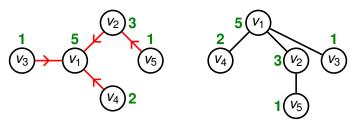
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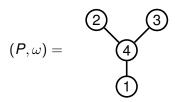


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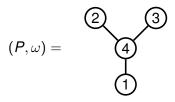
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- Construct a poset P: $v_i \leq_P v_i$ if there is a directed path from v_i to v_i .
- ► The corresponding coloring is a strict *P*-partition.



Labeled poset (P, ω) : poset P with n elements and a bijection $\omega : P \to \{1, 2, ..., n\}$.

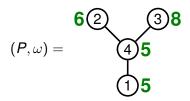


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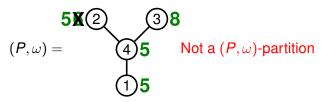
- ▶ f is ordering preserving, i.e. if $a <_P b$ then $f(a) \le f(b)$;
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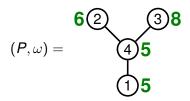
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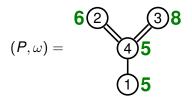
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Key definition (Stanley, 1971). A (P, ω) -partition is a map f from P to the positive integers satisfying:

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$$(P,\omega) =$$

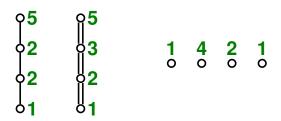
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We use double edges to denote the strictness conditions and then we can (usually) ignore the underlying labeling.

Motivating examples for (P, ω) -partitions

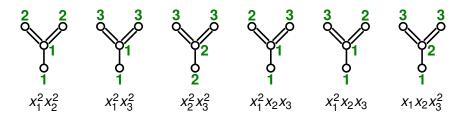


- \triangleright (P,ω) chain with all weak edges: get a partition
- $ightharpoonup (P,\omega)$ chain with all strict edges: get a partition with distinct parts
- $ightharpoonup (P,\omega)$ is an antichain: get a composition

General (P, ω) -partitions interpolate between these classical objects.

The (P, ω) -partition enumerator

Example. Resrict to $f(p) \in \{1, 2, 3\}$.



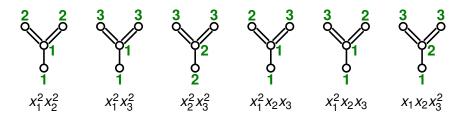
$$K_{(P,\omega)}(x_1,x_2,x_3) = x_1^2 x_2^2 + x_1^2 x_3^2 + x_2^2 x_3^2 + 2x_1^2 x_2 x_3 + x_1 x_2 x_3^2.$$

In general, the (P, ω) -partition enumerator is by given by:

$$K_{(P,\omega)}(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{(P,\omega)\text{-partition } f} x_1^{\#f^{-1}(1)} x_2^{\#f^{-1}(2)} \cdots$$

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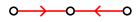


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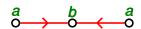
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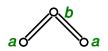
Seem familiar?



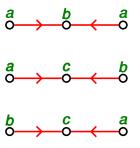


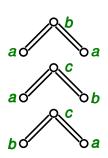
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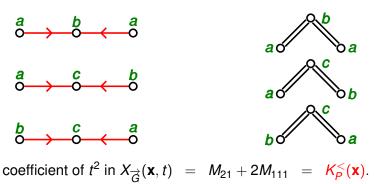


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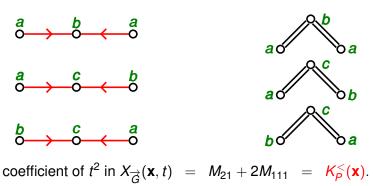
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Statement 5.

 $K_P^{<}(\mathbf{x})$ distinguishes posets that are trees.

i.e. if tree posets P and Q are not isomorphic, then $K_P^{<}(\mathbf{x}) \neq K_Q^{<}(\mathbf{x})$.







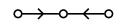
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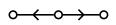
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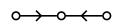
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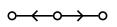
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False Statement 3 (mix strict and weak edges).

 $\mathcal{K}_{(P,\omega)}(\mathbf{x})$ distinguishes labeled posets that are trees.

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 $K_P^{<}(\mathbf{x})$ distinguishes posets that are rooted trees. i.e. if rooted tree posets P and Q are not isomorphic, then $K_P^{<}(\mathbf{x}) \neq K_Q^{<}(\mathbf{x})$.





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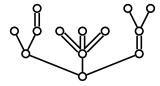
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Our main contribution sits between Theorem 1 and Conjecture 4.

Fair trees and a generalization

Definition. A labeled poset that is a tree is said to be a fair tree if for each vertex, its outgoing edges up to its children are either all strict or all weak.

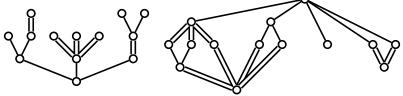
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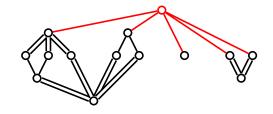
Definition. More generally, we define the set \mathcal{C} of labeled posets recursively by:

- 1. the one-element labeled poset [1] is in C;
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- 3. C is closed under the ordinal sums $(P, \omega) \uparrow [1]$ and $(P, \omega) \uparrow [1]$;
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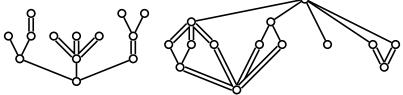
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Theorem 2 [Aval, Djenabou, M., 2022].

 $K_{(P,\omega)}(\mathbf{x})$ distinguishes elements of \mathcal{C} , so in particular fair trees; i.e. if (P,ω) and (Q,τ) are in \mathcal{C} and not isomorphic, then $K_{(P,\omega)}(\mathbf{x}) \neq K_{(Q,\tau)}(\mathbf{x})$.

Just one previous statement about $K_{(P,\omega)}(\mathbf{x})$ distinguishing a class of posets with a mixture of strict and weak edges: caterpillar posets where just the spine can have a mixture [M., Lesnevich, 2020]

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Irreducibility is also the crux for

- Hasebe & Tsujie;
- ▶ Ricki Ini Liu & Michael Weselcouch ($K_P^{<}(\mathbf{x})$ distinguishes series-parallel posets; needs irreducibility for general connected P with all strict edges, 2020).

Stanley, 1971 and Ira Gessel, 1984:

 $K_{(P,\omega)}(\mathbf{x})$ expands beautifully in *F*-basis.

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Linear extensions: $\mathcal{L}(P,\omega) = \{3412, 1324, 1342, 3124, 3142\}.$

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Theorem [Gessel & Stanley]. For a labeled poset (P, ω) ,

$$\mathcal{K}_{(P,\omega)} = \sum_{\pi \in \mathcal{L}(P,\omega)} \mathcal{F}_{\mathsf{comp}(\pi)}.$$

Recall Stanley's **Famous Conjecture 1.** $X_G(\mathbf{x})$ distinguishes trees. In other words, if T and U are non-isomorphic trees, then $X_T(\mathbf{x}) \neq X_U(\mathbf{x})$.

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Surprising Conjecture 5 [Nick Loehr & Greg Warrington, 2022]. $X_G(1, q, q^2, \ldots, q^{n-1})$ distinguishes trees with n vertices, i.e. if T and U are non-isomorphic trees with n vertices, then

$$X_T(1, q, q^2, \dots, q^{n-1}) \neq X_U(1, q, q^2, \dots, q^{n-1}).$$

Recall **Conjecture 3.** $K_P^{<}(\mathbf{x})$ distinguishes posets that are trees, i.e. if tree posets P and Q are not isomorphic, then $K_P^{<}(\mathbf{x}) \neq K_Q^{<}(\mathbf{x})$.

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Conjecture 6 [Aval, Djenabou, M., 2022].

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Remark. This specialization has a nice interpretation for $K_{(P,\omega)}$: if

$$K_{(P,\omega)}(1,q,q^2,\ldots,q^{k-1}) = \sum_{N>0} a(N)q^N,$$

then we see that a(N) counts the number of (P, ω) -partitions $f: P \to \{0, \dots, k-1\}$ of N.

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Remark. This specialization has a nice interpretation for $K_{(P,\omega)}$: if

$$K_{(P,\omega)}(1,q,q^2,\ldots,q^{k-1}) = \sum_{N>0} a(N)q^N,$$

then we see that a(N) counts the number of (P, ω) -partitions $f: P \to \{0, \dots, k-1\}$ of N.

Thanks for your attention!