# When do quasisymmetric functions know that trees are different?

Peter McNamara Bucknell University, USA

Joint work with:

Jean-Christophe Aval

LaBRI, CNRS, Université de Bordeaux, France

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Discrete Mathematics Seminar, Xiamen University 30 November 2022



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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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- Some old and new results
- More conjectures

George Birkhoff, 1912

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

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

Proper coloring: adjacent vertices get different colors.





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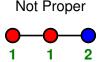
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Not Proper

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  $\kappa$ , 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.

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

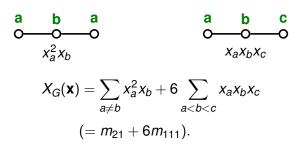
$$X_G(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{a \neq b} x_a^2 x_b + 6 \sum_{a < b < c} x_a x_b x_c$$

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

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

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

- $\succ$   $X_G(\mathbf{x})$  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.  $k(k-1) + 6\binom{k}{3} = k(k-1)^2$ .

$$X_G(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{\text{proper }\kappa} X_{\kappa(\nu_1)} X_{\kappa(\nu_2)} \cdots X_{\kappa(\nu_n)}.$$

#### 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  $X_G(\mathbf{x})$ 





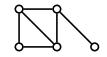
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if T and U are non-isomorphic trees, then  $X_T(\mathbf{x}) \neq X_U(\mathbf{x})$ .



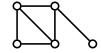
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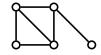
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[Aliste-Prieto, Crew, de Mier, Fougere, Heil, Ji, Loebl, Martin, Morin, Orellana, Scott, Smith, Sereni, Spirkl, Tian, Wagner, Zamora, ...] **Remark.** Steph van Willigenburg: another famous  $X_G(\mathbf{x})$  conjecture.

### 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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Now consider 
$$\sum_{a < b} x_a x_b^2 = x_1 x_2^2 + x_1 x_3^2 + x_2 x_3^2 + x_1 x_4^2 + \cdots$$
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For a composition  $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_k)$  the monomial quasisymmetric function is:

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

The span of the  $M_{\alpha}$  is the vector space QSym of quasisymmetric functions.

#### In fact,

- ▶ the  $M_{\alpha}$  form a basis for QSym;
- QSym is an algebra.

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A more important basis for us is Gessel's fundamental quasisymmetric functions:

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

#### Example.

$$F_{32} = M_{32} + M_{212} + M_{122} + M_{1112} + M_{311} + M_{2111} + M_{1211} + M_{11111}.$$

 $(M_{221}, \text{ for example, does not appear}).$ 

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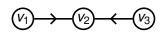
QSym is a star of 21st century algebraic combinatorics.

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

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

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

**Example.** Colors a < b < c



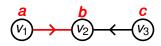
$\kappa(v_1)$	$\kappa(v_2)$	$\kappa(v_3)$	$asc(\kappa)$
а	b	С	1
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b	С	а	2
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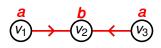
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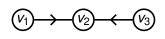
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#### Chromatic quasisymmetric function:

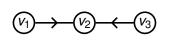
$$X_{\overrightarrow{G}}(\mathbf{x},t) = \sum_{\text{proper }\kappa} t^{\operatorname{asc}(\kappa)} X_{\kappa(v_1)} X_{\kappa(v_2)} \cdots X_{\kappa(v_n)}.$$

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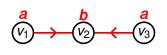
**Example.** 
$$X_{\overrightarrow{c}}(\mathbf{x},t) = (2+2t+2t^2)M_{111} + t^2M_{21} + M_{12}$$
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John Shareshian & Michelle Wachs, 2014; Brittney Ellzey, 2017.

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Chromatic quasisymmetric function:

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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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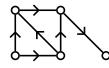
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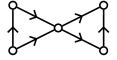
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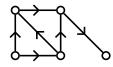
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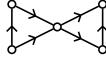
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#### Statement 4.

 $X_{\overrightarrow{G}}(\mathbf{x},t)$  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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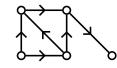
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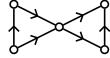
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**Motiviating Conjecture 2.** (stated as a question by Per Alexandersson and Robin Sulzgruber, 2021)

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

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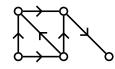
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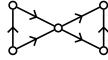
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This conjecture was our original goal.

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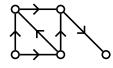
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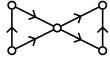
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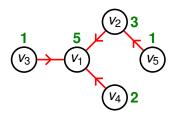
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This conjecture was our original goal. Strategy: translate to posets.

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

Want to show:  $X_{\overrightarrow{I}}(\mathbf{x},t) \neq X_{\overrightarrow{II}}(\mathbf{x},t)$ .

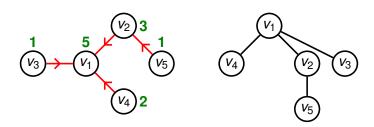
- Look at the coefficient of the highest power of t.
- ▶ It's enough to show these coefficients are different for *T* and *U*.
- So just look at colorings where all edges are ascents



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

Want to show:  $X_{\overrightarrow{T}}(\mathbf{x},t) \neq X_{\overrightarrow{H}}(\mathbf{x},t)$ .

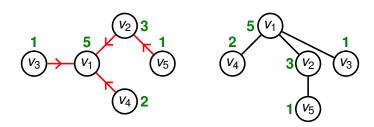
- ▶ Look at the coefficient of the highest power of *t*.
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Want to show:  $X_{\overrightarrow{I}}(\mathbf{x},t) \neq X_{\overrightarrow{II}}(\mathbf{x},t)$ .

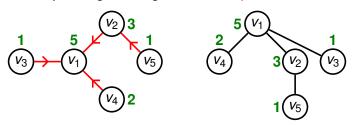
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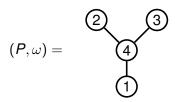
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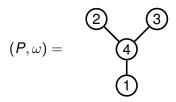
- ▶ Look at the coefficient of the highest power of *t*.
- ▶ It's enough to show these coefficients are different for *T* and *U*.
- So just look at colorings where all edges are ascents
- ► Construct a partially ordered set (poset) P where  $v_i \leq_P v_i$  if there a directed path from  $v_i$  to  $v_i$ .
- ► The corresponding coloring is a strict *P*-partition.



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

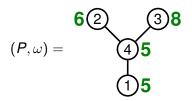


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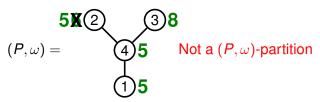
- ▶ f is ordering preserving, i.e. if  $a <_P b$  then  $f(a) \le f(b)$ ;
- if  $a <_P b$  and  $\omega(a) > \omega(b)$ , then f(a) < f(b).

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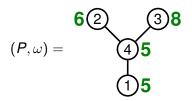
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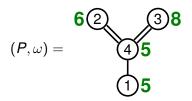
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**Key definition.** A  $(P, \omega)$ -partition is a map f from P to the positive integers satisfying:

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We use double edges to denote the strictness conditions

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$$(P,\omega) =$$

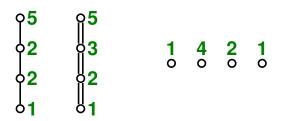
$$\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{6} \bigcirc \mathbf{8} \\ \mathbf{5} \\ \mathbf{5} \end{array}$$

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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 $(P, \omega)$ -partitions

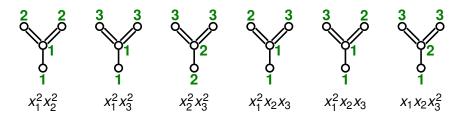


- $\triangleright$   $(P,\omega)$  chain with all weak edges: get a partition
- $ightharpoonup (P,\omega)$  chain with all strict edges: get a partition with distinct parts
- $ightharpoonup (P,\omega)$  is an antichain: get a composition

General  $(P, \omega)$ -partitions interpolate between these classical objects.

## The $(P, \omega)$ -partition enumerator

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



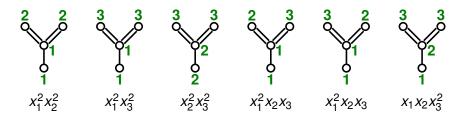
$$K_{(P,\omega)}(x_1,x_2,x_3) = x_1^2 x_2^2 + x_1^2 x_3^2 + x_2^2 x_3^2 + 2x_1^2 x_2 x_3 + x_1 x_2 x_3^2.$$

In general, the  $(P, \omega)$ -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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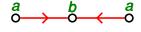
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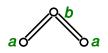
#### Seem familiar?



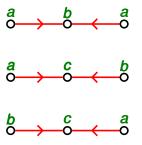


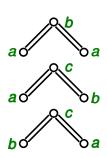
colorings of  $\overrightarrow{G}$  will all ascents  $\longleftrightarrow$  strict P-partitions



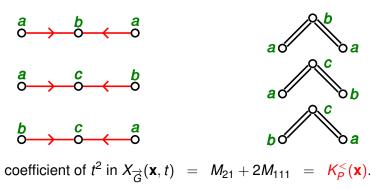


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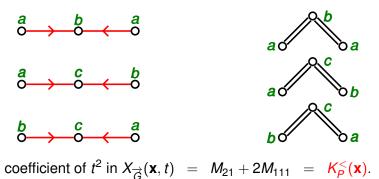




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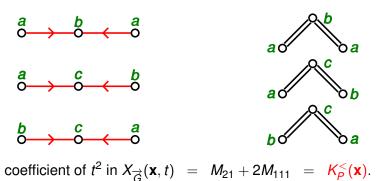


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In general, coefficient of  $t^{\#E}$  in  $X_{\overrightarrow{G}}(\mathbf{x},t) = K_P^{<}(\mathbf{x})$ .

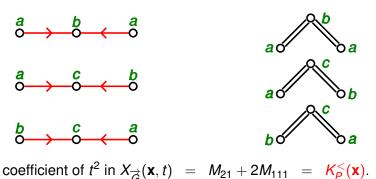
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Translation complete. Now study equality among  $K_{(P,\omega)}(\mathbf{x})$ .

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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  $K_P^{<}(\mathbf{x}) \neq K_Q^{<}(\mathbf{x})$ .







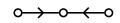
**Conjecture 3** (Stated as a question by Takahiro Hasebe & Shuhei Tsujie, 2017).

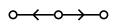
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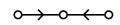
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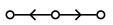
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Key: this conjecture being true would imply Conjecture 2 (that  $X_{\overrightarrow{G}}(\mathbf{x},t)$  distinguishes directed trees).









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Statement 6. (mix strict and weak edges)

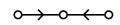
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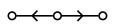
i.e. if labeled tree posets  $(P, \omega)$  and  $(Q, \tau)$  are not isomorphic, then  $K_{(P,\omega)}(\mathbf{x}) \neq K_{(Q,\tau)}(\mathbf{x}).$ 











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#### False Statement 3.

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#### Statement 7.

 $K_P^<(\mathbf{x})$  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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We'd like to allow a mixture of strict and weak edges

Statement 8. (rooted, mix strict and weak edges)

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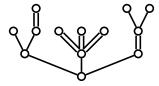
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Our main contribution sits between Theorem 1 and Conjecture 4.

### 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.

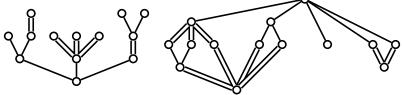
#### Example.



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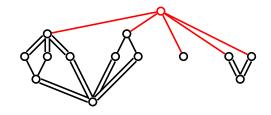
**Definition.** More generally, we define the set  $\mathcal{C}$  of labeled posets recursively by:

- 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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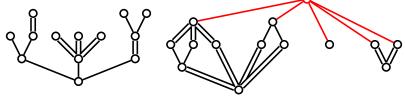
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#### Statement 9.

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



**Theorem 2** [Aval, Djenabou, M., 2022].  $K_{(P,\omega)}(\mathbf{x})$  distinguishes elements of  $\mathcal{C}$ , so in particular fair trees; i.e. if  $(P,\omega)$  and  $(Q,\tau)$  are in  $\mathcal{C}$  and not isomorphic, then  $K_{(P,\omega)}(\mathbf{x}) \neq K_{(Q,\tau)}(\mathbf{x})$ .

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Crux of the proof:

Proposition 1 [Aval, Djenabou, M., 2022]

If  $(P, \omega)$  is a connected element of  $\mathcal{C}$  then  $K_{(P,\omega)}(\mathbf{x})$  is irreducible as a quasisymmetric function.

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Irreducibility is also the crux for

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

Stanley, 1971 and Ira Gessel, 1984:

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

Example.



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

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$$K_{(P,\omega)} = 2F_{22} + F_{31} + F_{13} + F_{121}.$$

**Theorem** [Gessel & Stanley]. For a labeled poset  $(P, \omega)$ ,

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

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

Recall Stanley's

**Famous Conjecture 1.**  $X_G(\mathbf{x})$  distinguishes trees. In other words, if T and U are non-isomorphic trees, then  $X_T(\mathbf{x}) \neq X_U(\mathbf{x})$ .

**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].

 $K_P^{<}(1, q, q^2, \dots, q^{n-1})$  distinguishes tree posets with n elements, i.e. if T and U are non-isomorphic trees with n vertices, then

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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  $(P, \omega)$ -partitions  $f: P \to \{0, \dots, k-1\}$  of N.

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# Thanks for your attention!

