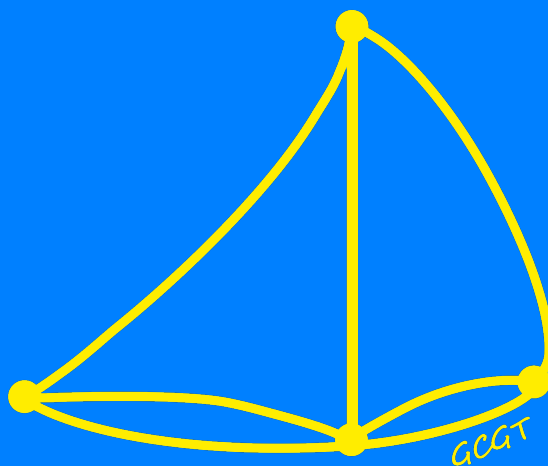


The 9th Gdańsk Conference on Graph Theory

with panel lessons of summer school



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ORGANIZED BY



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INVITED TALKS

DEFECTIVE RAMSEY NUMBERS: CLASSICAL PROOFS AND COMPUTER ENUMERATIONS

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We investigate a variant of Ramsey numbers called defective Ramsey numbers, introduced by Ekim and Gimbel in 2013, where cliques and independent sets are generalized to k -dense and k -sparse sets, both commonly called k -defective sets. Following some defective parameters in general graphs, we focus on the computation of defective Ramsey numbers in some restricted graph classes: cographs, chordal graphs, bipartite graphs, perfect graphs, split graphs, cacti, and triangle-free graphs. We adopt a two-fold approach to tackle defective Ramsey numbers. We provide direct proofs using structural graph theory. When this technique falls short in obtaining new values of defective Ramsey numbers, we use efficient graph enumeration techniques for structured graphs.

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DISJOINT COPIES OF GRAPHS IN EXTREMAL GRAPH THEORY

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Most of graph theory problems were studied firstly for connected graphs. In the talk I will present selected results which involves disconnected ones with the special focus on graphs consisting of disjoint copies of a certain connected graph. These results are connected with widely understood extremal graph theory that explores the extremal (maximum or minimum) properties of graphs subject to certain constraints. The issues I've selected will be Ramsey, Induced Ramsey and Turán numbers.

DOMINATION IN GRAPHS AND FORBIDDEN CYCLES

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We discuss results showing that if certain cycles are forbidden, then the known upper bounds on core domination parameters can be improved. Let G be a connected graph of order n with minimum degree $\delta(G)$. Let $g(G)$ denote the girth of G , and so $g(G)$ is the length of a shortest cycle in G .

It is known that if $\delta(G) \geq 2$ and $n \geq 8$, then $\gamma(G) \leq \frac{2}{5}n$, where $\gamma(G)$ is the domination number of G . We show that if $\delta(G) \geq 2$ and $n \geq 14$, and if G has no induced 4-cycle and no induced 5-cycle, then $\gamma(G) \leq \frac{3}{8}n$. It is known that if G is a cubic graph, then $\gamma(G) \leq \frac{3}{8}n$. We show that if G is a cubic graph with girth $g(G) \geq 6$ that does not contain a 7-cycle or a 8-cycle, then $\gamma(G) \leq \frac{1}{3}n$.

It is known that if $\delta(G) \geq 2$ and $n \geq 11$, then $\gamma_t(G) \leq \frac{4}{7}n$, where $\gamma_t(G)$ is the total domination number of G . We show that if $n \geq 19$ and G has no induced 6-cycle, then $\gamma_t(G) \leq \frac{6}{11}n$. It is known that if $\delta(G) \geq 3$, then $\gamma_t(G) \leq \frac{1}{2}n$. We show that if $\delta(G) \geq 3$ and G has no induced 6-cycle, then $\gamma_t(G) \leq \frac{4}{9}n$. It is known that if $\delta(G) \geq 4$, then $\gamma_t(G) \leq \frac{3}{7}n$. We show that if $\delta(G) \geq 4$ and G has no 4-cycle, then $\gamma_t(G) \leq \frac{2}{5}n$.

It is known that if $G \neq K_{3,3}$ is a cubic graph, then $i(G) \leq \frac{2}{5}n$, where $i(G)$ is the independent domination number of G . We show that if G is a cubic graph that contain no induced 4-cycle, then $i(G) \leq \frac{3}{8}n$. Furthermore, if G is a bipartite cubic graph that contain no induced 4-cycle, then $i(G) \leq \frac{4}{11}n$.

ETERNAL EVICTION AND INDEPENDENCE¹

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Graph protection involves the deployment of mobile guards on the vertices of a graph. The various protection models can be described as two-player games, alternating between a defender and an attacker: the defender chooses the original positions of the guards, as well as the responses to the attacker, and the attacker chooses the locations of the attacks; we say the attacker attacks the vertices. In the (eternal) eviction game, at most one guard is located at each vertex, and each configuration of guards is a dominating set of the graph. The attacker attacks a vertex occupied by a guard, provided this vertex has at least one unoccupied neighbour. The defender moves the guard to an unoccupied neighbour; only one guard is allowed to move in response to an attack. The defender wins the game if they can successfully defend any sequence of attacks, including sequences that are infinitely long; the attacker wins otherwise. In other words, the attacker's goal is to force the defender into a configuration of guards that is not dominating. The smallest number of guards that can defend a graph G against any sequence of attacks is called the eviction number of G , denoted by $e^\infty(G)$. The eviction game was introduced by Klostermeyer, Lawrence, and MacGillivray in 2016.

In this presentation I will demonstrate that the eviction number behaves different from other domination parameters. This anomaly causes problems when we try to prove results for $e^\infty(G)$. I will illustrate this by discussing a proof of an upper bound for $e^\infty(G)$ in terms of $\alpha(G)$, the independence number of G .

¹Joint work with Gary MacGillivray and Virg lot Virgile

RECENT PROGRESS ON SMALL AND LARGE RAMSEY NUMBERS

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The new revision #17 of the dynamic survey *Small Ramsey Numbers* at the *Electronic Journal of Combinatorics* has been just completed. In this talk we will overview new developments since 2021 reported therein: there were breakthrough in asymptotics, some amazing improvements of the bounds on the classical Ramsey numbers, several less known but also very impressive results on general graph Ramsey numbers, and a large number of contributions across the area. We will also reveal some interesting details of the logistics of evolving survey and its special features.

TUTORIALS

VISIBILITY CONCEPTS IN GRAPH THEORY

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Given a connected graph G and a set of vertices $X \subseteq V(G)$, two vertices $x, y \in V(G)$ are called to be X -visible if there is a shortest x, y -path (also called geodesic) whose interior vertices do not belong to X . Then X is

- a *mutual-visibility set*: if any two vertices of X are X -visible;
- an *outer mutual-visibility set*: if any two vertices $x, y \in X$ and any two vertices $x \in X$ and $y \in \overline{X}$ are X -visible;
- a *dual mutual-visibility set*: if any two vertices $x, y \in X$ and any two vertices $x, y \in \overline{X}$ are X -visible; and
- a *total mutual-visibility set*: if any two vertices $x, y \in V(G)$ are X -visible.

In this tutoring, we will present fundamental results on these concepts. A special attention will be given to graphs of diameter two as there unexpected connections with some classical mathematical problems and concepts arise.

ALGEBRAIC TECHNIQUES IN PARAMETERIZED GRAPH ALGORITHMS

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For a number of algorithmic graph problems that are NP-hard, it is possible to get considerable speed-ups by phrasing the task as a kind of counting problem and then using algebraic techniques. We will see a number of such examples, including:

- Hamiltonian cycle in $2^n \text{poly}(n)$ time using inclusion-exclusion principle,
- Vertex coloring in time $2^n \text{poly}(n)$ time using cover product or fast subset convolution,
- Finding a k -vertex path in $2^k \text{poly}(n)$ time using polynomials over a finite field.

The material will be mostly based on Chapter 11 of the textbook *Parameterized Algorithms* by Cygan, Fomin, Kowalik, Lokshtanov, Marx, Pilipczuk, Pilipczuk, Saurabh.

H-FREE GRAPHS: FROM STRUCTURE TO ALGORITHMS

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One of the active areas of algorithmic graph theory is to investigate how the restrictions imposed on the set of input instances influence the complexity of computational problems. Quite often we can witness an interesting interplay between graph-theoretic and algorithmic results: a good understanding on the structure of instances may help in the design of efficient algorithms.

During the tutorial we will show some tools and techniques that can be used to develop algorithms for graphs that exclude a fixed graph F as an induced subgraph. We will mostly focus on the case that F is a path.

POSTERS

MAJORITY COLORING OF GRAPHS: THEORETICAL INSIGHTS AND PRACTICAL APPLICATION

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Let $G = (V, E)$ be a simple, undirected graph and map $c : V \rightarrow C$ a coloring, where C is a set of colors. **Majority coloring** is such coloring that every $v \in V$ has at most $\frac{1}{2}deg(v)$ neighbours coloured $c(v)$. In this poster I show significant definitions and theorems regarding vertex majority coloring. Additionally, putting this theoretical concept into practice is discussed.

CERTIFIED DOMINATION IN GRAPHS USING BINARY LINEAR PROGRAMMING

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A set D of vertices of a graph $G = (V_G, E_G)$ is a *dominating set* of G if every vertex in $V_G - D$ is adjacent to at least one vertex in D . The *domination number* of a graph G , denoted by $\gamma(G)$, is the cardinality of a smallest dominating set of G . A subset $D \subseteq V_G$ is called a *certified dominating set* of G if D is a dominating set of G , and every vertex in D has either zero or at least two neighbours in $V_G - D$. The cardinality of a smallest certified dominating set of G is called the *certified domination number* of G , and it is denoted by $\gamma_{\text{cer}}(G)$.

A BLP (binary linear program) is constructed to derive the system of linear constraints corresponding to the certified domination conditions. The objective is to drive the minimum cardinality of the certified dominating set problem through a linear optimisation problem. This approach is used to identify the optimal domination set in different categories of graphs.

The clarity of the results demonstrates that the BLP algorithm is effective in recognising the minimum certified dominating set associated with the certified domination set. This will result in significant advances in theory, practice, research, and applications.

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CERTIFIED DOMINATION IN WATER SUPPLY NETWORKS FOR FIRE SAFETY

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Providing water to the fire protection water supply network is a crucial aspect of the overall fire protection and life safety strategy of an entire community. Currently, as new buildings are emerging, necessary calculations are being performed so that the buildings are complied with fire safety regulations.

Before everything it is important to make sure that the proper amount of water is available to the responding fire department for both suppression of the fire in the building, and protection of any exposed buildings. All water-based fire protection systems need water. Without access to an adequate water supply these systems will not function properly.

We introduce a theoretical model of a water supply network given in the language of graph theory. The model uses the certified dominating sets to focus on placing the water supply issues and hence other, less important parameters are omitted.

A set D of vertices of a graph $G = (V, E)$ is a *dominating set* of G if every vertex in $V - D$ is adjacent to at least one vertex in D . The *domination number* of a graph G , denoted by $\gamma(G)$, is the cardinality of a smallest dominating set of G . A subset $D \subseteq V$ is called a *certified dominating set* of G if D is a dominating set of G , and every vertex in D has either zero or at least two neighbours in $V - D$. The cardinality of a smallest certified dominating set of G is called the *certified domination number* of G , and it is denoted by $\gamma_{\text{cer}}(G)$.

Thanks to the minimum certified dominating sets it is possible to determine where in the environment to place pumping stations and wells to meet, fire safety requirements, while minimising the cost. We assume the cost of installing a pumping station to be approximately 2.5 times that of a well. The objective is to ensure that every location without a water source is connected by a pipe to a pumping station, thereby ensuring that the water pressure requirements of user locations are met. Also, a place with a well should be connected only to places with a well or a pumping station on order to avoid any pressure decreases.

The aforementioned approach would be further reinforced by the presentation of case studies in which cost savings are demonstrated and, simultaneously, compliance with relevant fire safety standards is supported in a different context. Consequently, the new approach must act once more as a practical

tool for urban planners and engineers in promoting a systemic approach to improvements in fire safety infrastructure.

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INTERACTIVE SEARCH IN GRAPHS

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Searching plays a fundamental role in computer science and computer engineering due to its ubiquitous real-world applications and its numerous connections to other important computational problems. In searching we want to locate a known element, whose location in the search space is unknown, by querying different locations of the search space in a sequence of steps. In interactive search an emphasis is made on the type and amount of information revealed through the queries, and how to exploit this information in search algorithms. In this poster, we describe applications of an interactive search model (i.e., binary search in node-weighted trees) in data retrieval systems. In this search model, in each step, the algorithm queries a vertex q and receives an answer, that either q is the desired element, or receives the neighbor of q closer to the target than q . While each query has a cost given by the weight function, the goal is to find an adaptive search strategy requiring the minimum cost in the worst case.

CONTRIBUTED TALKS

SOME HARMONIC NUMBER IDENTITIES FOR PHYLOGENETIC TREE ANALYSIS

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Values associated with phylogenetic trees like the total tree area [4] or the cophenetic index [5] can be represented through the height of the tree, and the time to coalescent of a random pair of tips. In this way the given index, for a random tree, can be studied by considering a pair of (dependent) one-dimensional random variables. Control over their moments will immediately provide information on the behaviour of these indices [1, 3, 6]. In order to obtain these moments, for the pure birth tree, one has to consider rather involved harmonic and quadratic harmonic sums. In the finite term case, these sums often turn out to have closed form formulæ in terms of harmonic numbers. However, surprisingly, symbolic algebra systems do not seem to be able (at least out of the box) to find these final forms. In our talk we will show how these sums arrive in the analysis of tree heights, in what situations computer algebra systems fail, and how one can approach these sums [2].

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ON VARIOUS TYPES OF PROPER SECONDARY DOMINATING SETS

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Let $k \geq 1$ be an integer. A subset $D \subset V(G)$ is $(1,k)$ -dominating if for every vertex $v \in V(G) \setminus D$ there are $u, w \in D$ such that $uv \in E(G)$ and $d_G(v, w) \leq k$. If $k = 1$ then we obtain the definition of $(1,1)$ -dominating sets, which are also known as 2-dominating sets. If $k = 2$ then we have the concept of $(1,2)$ -dominating sets, see [1].

In [2] Michalski et. al introduced the concept of proper $(1,2)$ -dominating sets to distinguish $(1,2)$ -dominating sets from $(1,1)$ -dominating sets. A *proper $(1,2)$ -dominating set* is a $(1,2)$ -dominating set that is not $(1,1)$ -dominating. Basing on this idea, Bednarz and Pirga in [3] defined proper 2-dominating sets i.e. 2-dominating sets which are not 3-dominating.

In this talk we present some results concerning proper $(1,2)$ -dominating sets and proper 2-dominating sets, in particular we focus on the problem of their existence. Moreover, we show relations between parameters of these types of domination.

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PLANE TRIANGULATIONS WITHOUT SPANNING 2-TREES

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A 2-tree is a graph that can be formed by starting with a triangle and iterating the operation of making a new vertex adjacent to two adjacent vertices of the existing graph. Leizhen Cai asked in 1995 whether every maximal planar graph contains a spanning 2-tree. We answer this question in the negative by constructing an infinite class of maximal planar graphs that have no spanning 2-tree. We also show that the largest spanning tree may have an arbitrarily small fraction of all vertices and find some criteria that guarantee a spanning 2-tree.

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ISOLATION OF GRAPHS

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Given a set \mathcal{F} of graphs, we call a copy of a graph in \mathcal{F} an \mathcal{F} -graph. The \mathcal{F} -isolation number of a graph G , denoted by $\iota(G, \mathcal{F})$, is the size of a smallest subset D of the vertex set $V(G)$ such that the closed neighbourhood $N[D]$ of D intersects the vertex sets of the \mathcal{F} -graphs contained by G (equivalently, $G - N[D]$ contains no \mathcal{F} -graph). When \mathcal{F} consists of a 1-clique, $\iota(G, \mathcal{F})$ is the domination number of G . When \mathcal{F} consists of a 2-clique, $\iota(G, \mathcal{F})$ is the vertex-edge domination number of G . The general \mathcal{F} -isolation problem was introduced by Caro and Hansberg [10] in 2017. They established many results on \mathcal{F} -isolation numbers and posed several problems. Solutions will be presented together with most of the isolation results to date.

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COMPUTATIONAL COMPLEXITY OF GREEDY PARTITIONING OF GRAPHS²

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In this talk we consider a variant of graph partitioning problem consisting in partitioning the vertex set into the minimum number of sets such that each of them induces a graph in a fixed hereditary class of graphs (property). For various properties we will discuss the computational complexity of several problems arising when partitions are generated by the greedy algorithm. In this context, we will point out the cases that are computationally hard, and those that can be solved in polynomial time. We will also present a lower bound based on the Exponential-Time Hypothesis as well as some basic result on generalized independence and domination allowing the dynamic programming approach in the construction of an exact algorithm. We will also mention an application of the above concepts to the construction of new χ -bounded classes of graphs.

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²Results partially obtained in cooperation with Ela Sidorowicz, Darek Dereniowski and Ewa Drgas-Burchardt

ON A -CORDIAL CATERPILLARS³

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Hovey introduced A -cordial labelings as a generalization of cordial and harmonious labelings [3]. If A is an Abelian group, then a labeling $f: V(G) \rightarrow A$ of the vertices of some graph G induces an edge labeling on G ; the edge uv receives the label $f(u) + f(v)$. A graph G is A -cordial if there is a vertex-labeling such that (1) the vertex label classes differ in size by at most one and (2) the induced edge label classes differ in size by at most one.

In the literature, mostly cordial labeling in cyclic groups is studied. There is a famous (still open) conjecture which states that all trees are \mathbb{Z}_k -cordial for all k [3]. The situation changes a lot if A is not cyclic. It was proved that all trees, except P_4 and P_5 , are \mathbb{Z}_2^2 -cordial [1].

Patrias and Pechenik posed a conjecture that for every group A there is an A -cordial labeling for almost every path [4]. Erickson et al. extended the conjecture for all trees [1].

In the talk, we show that the conjecture holds for paths [2] but it is not true for general trees - even if we consider an A -rainbow coloring instead of A -cordial (i.e. an A -cordial labeling in which $|A| = |V(G)|$) of caterpillars. Moreover, we will show some correspondence of A -cordial caterpillars and Cayley digraphs on A .

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³joint work with Barbara Krupińska and Mariusz Woźniak

TREE PACKING CONJECTURE

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The Tree Packing Conjecture (TPC) by Gyárfás states that any set of trees T_2, \dots, T_{n-1}, T_n such that T_i has i vertices pack into K_n . The conjecture is true for bounded degree trees, but in general, it is widely open. Bollobás proposed a weakening of TPC which states that k largest trees pack. We prove, among others, that seven largest trees pack.

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INTERVAL COLOURING THICKNESS VIA THE ERDŐS FAMILY OF GRAPHS

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Let $\theta_{int}(G)$ denote the minimum number of parts in a partition of the edge set of the graph G such that graphs induced by all the parts are interval colourable. Giving a finite projective plane $\pi(n)$ of order n with the sets W, L of points and lines, respectively, $Erd(n)$ is known to be a graph with vertex set $W \cup L \cup \{u\}$ and edge set $\{wl : w \in W, l \in L \text{ and } w \text{ is incident to } l\} \cup \{ul : l \in L\}$. Next, if $L = \{l_1, \dots, l_{n^2+n+1}\}$ and a sequence r_1, \dots, r_{n^2+n+1} of positive integers is given, by $Erd(r_1, \dots, r_{n^2+n+1})$ we mean a graph resulting from $Erd(n)$ by a multiplication of the vertex l_i with r_i vertices made for all $i \in [n^2+n+1]$. Graphs $Erd(r_1, \dots, r_{n^2+n+1})$ constructed for all possible finite projective planes and all possible parameters r_1, \dots, r_{n^2+n+1} form the Erdős family of graphs.

Let l be a fixed line of a finite projective plane $\pi(n)$ and w_1, \dots, w_{n+1} be all points incident to l . Next let for $i \in [n+1]$, a set L_i consist of all lines incident to w_i that are different from l . We prove that if an ordering l_1, \dots, l_{n^2+n+1} of the set L is given and positive integers r_1, \dots, r_{n^2+n+1} are such that at least t different indices i from $[n+1]$ satisfy $r_k = r_j$ if $l_k, l_j \in L_i$, then

$$\theta_{int}(Erd(r_1, \dots, r_{n^2+n+1})) \leq \max\left\{2, \left\lceil \frac{n+2-t}{2} \right\rceil\right\}.$$

Consequently, a tight upper bound of $\left\lceil \frac{n+2}{2} \right\rceil$ on $\theta_{int}(Erd(r_1, \dots, r_{n^2+n+1}))$ is valid in the whole Erdős family of graphs.

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ON OPERATIONS PRESERVING WORD-REPRESENTABILITY OF GRAPHS

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A simple graph is called a word-representable graph if there is a word over its vertex set such that any two vertices are adjacent in the graph if and only if they alternate in the word. The class of word-representable graphs was first studied by Sergey Kitaev and Steven Seif in the context of Perkin semigroup [4]. Over the years an extensive literature has developed on this topic, impacting various fields of mathematics and computer science. A word-representable graph is a k -word-representable graph, if it is represented by a word in which every letter appears exactly k times. The smallest k such that a graph is k -word-representable is said to be the representation number of the graph. A word-representable graph is said to be a permutationally representable graph, if it can be represented by a word that is a concatenation of permutations on their vertices. The class of comparability graphs, graphs which admit transitive orientations, is precisely the class of permutationally representable graphs [4]. The smallest k such that a permutationally representable graph is represented by a concatenation of k permutations on its vertices is called the permutation-representation number (in short, prn) of the graph. Further, it is known that the general problems of determining the prn of a permutationally representable graph, and the representation number of a word-representable graph are computationally hard. For a detailed introduction to this topic, one may refer to the monograph [3].

The graph operations were proved to be useful for determining the representation number of graphs. For example, it was proved in [5] that 3-subdivision of every graph is 3-word-representable and utilizing this, the representation number of prism is determined. It was proved in [3] that the class of word-representable graphs is closed under certain graph operations such as connecting two graphs by an edge, and gluing two graphs at a vertex. Moreover, the representation numbers of the resulting graphs were obtained. Some fundamental graph operations viz., edge-deletion, edge addition do not necessarily preserve the word-representability; however, certain sufficient conditions on graphs to preserve word-representability with respect to these operations were established [1].

In this work, we obtain necessary and sufficient conditions for permutation representability of graphs with respect to the following operations: gluing

two graphs at a vertex, replacing a vertex by a module, and lexicographical product of graphs. Further, we obtain the *prns* of the resultant graphs. A modular decomposition of a graph is a partition of the vertex set of the graph into modules. While it was introduced to study the structure of comparability graphs, it has applications in the theory of posets, and scheduling problems. In this work, we extend the characterization of comparability graphs with respect to the modular decomposition (given in [6]) to word-representable graphs. Accordingly, we determine the representation number of a word-representable graph in terms of the *prns* of its modules and the representation number of the quotient graph. In this connection, we also obtain a complete answer to the open problem posed by Kitaev and Lozin [3, Chapter 7] on the word-representability of the lexicographical product of graphs.

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DISTINGUISHING VERTICES OF GRAPHS USING SEQUENCES

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In the paper [1] the authors distinguish vertices of a graph by sequences. This talk is about distinguishing vertices of a hypercube by sequences. Let f be the edge coloring of an n -dimensional hypercube. In a hypercube, we can define the order of edges, which results from the structure of this graph. Next, we can assign a sequence of colors to each vertex in such a way that the i -th element of this sequence is the color of the i -th edge coming from this vertex. We want to find a minimum number of colors to distinguish each pair of vertices in an n -dimensional hypercube.

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THE BIPLANAR TREE GRAPH

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The complete twisted graph of order n , denoted by T_n , is a complete simple topological graph with vertices u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n , where two edges $u_i u_j$ and $u_{i'} u_{j'}$ intersect if and only if $i < i' < j' < j$ or $i' < i < j < j'$. The convex geometric complete graph of order n , denoted by G_n , is a convex geometric graph with vertices v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n arranged counterclockwise, with each pair of vertices being adjacent. A biplanar tree of order n is a labeled tree with vertex set $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$ that can be embedded in both T_n and G_n as a planar graph. Given a connected graph G , the (combinatorial) tree graph $\mathcal{T}(G)$ is a graph whose vertices are the spanning trees of G , and two trees P and Q are adjacent in $\mathcal{T}(G)$ if there exist edges $e \in P$ and $f \in Q$ such that $Q = P - e + f$. For all positive integers n , $\mathcal{T}(n)$ denotes the graph $\mathcal{T}(K_n)$. The biplanar tree graph, $\mathcal{B}(n)$, is the subgraph of $\mathcal{T}(n)$ induced by the biplanar trees of order n . In this conference, we characterize biplanar trees and talk about some properties and structure of the biplanar tree graph.

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THE MOBILE MUTUAL-VISIBILITY PROBLEM IN GRAPHS

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A mutual-visibility set of a connected graph G is a set of vertices $S \subset V(G)$ such that for every pair of vertices $x, y \in S$ there is a shortest x, y -path whose interior vertices are not in S . We shall consider a robot navigation model that uses such sets. Assume that in each vertex of a mutual-visibility set S a robot is placed. At each stage one robot moves to a neighbouring vertex. Then, the set S is a mobile mutual-visibility set of G if there exists a sequence of moves of the robots such that all the vertices of G are visited by at least one robot, while keeping all the time the mutual-visibility property for the set of vertices of G occupied by the set of robots. The mobile mutual-visibility number of G is the cardinality of a largest mobile mutual-visibility set of G . These mobile mutual-visibility concepts are introduced in this work, and the study of its combinatorial and computational properties is initiated.

The results of the work are from the article [1]. The speaker is supported by the Spanish Ministry of Science and Innovation, ref. PID2019-105824GB-I00.

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ZONAL LABELS GENERALIZED TO ABELIAN GROUPS

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We consider planar maps with a given abelian group where the vertices are labelled with nonzero elements from the group in such a way that the labels on each region sum to zero. Much interesting work is being done with this concept where the group in question is Z_3 (It is related to the Four Color Theorem). We expand on current ideas and show that some are true, more broadly, in abelian groups in general.

FAIR AND PRIVATE DATA PREPROCESSING THROUGH MICROAGGREGATION

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Privacy protection for personal data and fairness in automated decisions are fundamental requirements for Responsible Machine Learning [3]. Both may be enforced through data preprocessing and share a common target: data should remain useful for a task, while becoming uninformative of the sensitive information. The intrinsic connection between privacy and fairness implies that modifications performed to guarantee one of these goals, may have an effect on the other, e.g., hiding a sensitive attribute from a classification algorithm might prevent a biased decision rule having such attribute as a criterion. In this talk, we present FAIR-MDAV [1], a fairness-and-privacy correcting mechanism based on the MDAV clustering algorithm [2]. This work resides at the intersection of algorithmic fairness and privacy: we show how the two goals are compatible and may be simultaneously achieved, with a small loss in predictive performance. Our results are competitive with both state-of-the-art fairness correcting algorithms and hybrid privacy-fairness methods. Experiments were performed on three widely used benchmark datasets: *Adult Income*, *COMPAS* and *German Credit*.

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ARC-DISTINGUISHING OF ORIENTATIONS OF GRAPHS

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A distinguishing index of a graph is the minimum number of colours in an edge colouring such that the identity is the only automorphism that preserves the colouring. The study of the distinguishing index was started by Kalinowski and Pilśniak [2] and since then, there have been a number of results on the subject. In particular, the optimal bounds for the distinguishing index have been found for the classes of traceable or claw-free graphs. Recently, the variant of the problem for digraphs has attracted some interest. A distinguishing index of a digraph is the minimum number of colours in an arc colouring that is preserved only by the identity. In particular, results for symmetric digraphs have been obtained [3].

Meslem and Sopena [4] started a study of determining the minimum and maximum value of distinguishing index among all possible orientations of a given graph G . We continue this direction of investigation. However, we take a different approach to the problem and consider the relation between the distinguishing index of the orientations of G and the distinguishing index of G . In the talk, we present sharp results for trees, unbalanced bipartite graphs, traceable graphs and claw-free graphs. With this, we extend the results of Meslem and Sopena to some wider classes of graphs and answer a question posed by them about the class of complete bipartite graphs.

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ON UNIQUENESS OF PACKING OF TWO AND THREE COPIES OF 2-FACTORS

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An *embedding* of a graph G , of order n , (in its complement \overline{G}) is a permutation σ on $V(G)$ such that if an edge xy belongs to $E(G)$, then $\sigma(x)\sigma(y)$ does not belong to $E(G)$. In others words, an embedding is an (edge-disjoint) *packing* of two copies of G into a complete graph K_n . At first we will consider the problem of the uniqueness of such packings of two copies. Two such embeddings σ_1, σ_2 of a graph G are said to be *distinct* if the graphs $G \oplus \sigma_1(G)$ and $G \oplus \sigma_2(G)$ are not isomorphic (for graphs G_1 and G_2 with $V(G_1) = V(G_2)$ and $E(G_1) \cap E(G_2) = \emptyset$ the *edge sum* $G_1 \oplus G_2$ has $V(G) = V(G_1) = V(G_2)$ and $E(G) = E(G_1) \cup E(G_2)$). A graph G is called *uniquely embeddable* if for all embeddings σ of G , all graphs $G \oplus \sigma(G)$ are isomorphic.

Let $C_{n_1} \cup C_{n_2} \cup \dots \cup C_{n_k}$ be a 2-factor *i.e.* a vertex-disjoint union of cycles. We completely characterize 2-factors *i.e.* we prove which 2-factors do not have packing of two copies, which have unique packing of two copies and which have at least two distinct of two copies. During this talk some prove ideas will be presented. Moreover we present the generalization of this problem into the problem of the uniqueness of packing of three copies of 2-factors and give the solution of it.

WHAT COPS N' ROBBERS CAN TELL US ABOUT MARKET HEGEMONIZATION?

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Cops N' Robbers is a popular game, which also plays a vital role in graph theory, where a policeman pursues the criminal. The game is cop-win if cop is able to catch the robber within allowed set of moves, and robber-win, if the robber is able to escape the law indefinitely. Recent advances in graph and game theory provide a toolbox to established whether given game, represented in a graph form, is cop-win or robber-win by scaling down the graph to a solvable form. In this novel approach, the researcher reinterprets the classic game setting, transforming the pursuit-evasion scenario into a strategic competition between a dominant entity, portrayed as the cop, aspiring to establish monopoly in a given market, and a smaller competitor (or rather an aggregation of number of smaller entities), represented as the robber, seeking to persevere, therefore maintaining market diversity. An allowable set of moves is then understood as possible competitive strategies that both players are able to choose. By utilizing the before mentioned tools, one can then determine whether a researched market is likely to be hegemonized by an aspiring monopolist and, if so, approximate the timeframe and counter-strategies. A cop number of such graph can be reinterpreted as minimal number of large players that need to cooperate in order to take over the market.

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ON 3-COLOURABILITY OF $(BULL, H)$ -FREE GRAPHS

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We call G an H -free graph, if G does not contain H as an induced subgraph. In a class of *bull*-free graphs, where *bull* is a triangle with two additional edges attached to its two vertices, the 3-colourability problem remains NP-complete. However, in the class of graphs defined by two forbidden subgraphs, *bull* and one of stars $S(1, 1, 2)$ or $S(1, 2, 2)$, it is possible to find a polynomial algorithm that resolves 3-colourability. Such an algorithm returns a colouring if the given graph is 3-colourable, or a certain subgraph which is obviously non-3-colourable, otherwise.

In this talk we present such algorithms for $(bull, S(1, 1, 2))$ -free and $(bull, S(1, 2, 2))$ -free graphs. The main tool used is the characterisation of perfect graphs given by the Strong Perfect Graph Theorem.

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SIMPLE SUBGRAPH TESTING

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To determine the values of Turan numbers or Ramsey numbers, algorithms are needed to check whether the graph contains a subgraph. A simple automaton will be presented that checks whether there are subgraphs or induced subgraphs in a graph. The results related to Turan numbers and Ramsey numbers will also be presented.

(2, 1)-GRUNDY COLORING

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An $L(2, 1)$ -coloring is a vertex coloring where vertices are colored with non-negative integers such that if two vertices are adjacent, then their colors must differ by at least 2, and if two vertices are at distance 2 their colors must be different. The span of an $L(2, 1)$ -coloring φ is the biggest color used by the coloring φ . The $L(2, 1)$ -Grundy number is the maximum span among all possible $L(2, 1)$ -greedy colorings of a graph.

In this talk we present results about the $L(2, 1)$ -Grundy number for some graph families.

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LIST MAJORITY EDGE-COLOURINGS OF GRAPHS

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A colouring of edges of a graph G is a majority colouring, if for every vertex v of G , at most half the edges incident with v have the same colour. This concept was recently introduced in [1] where, among others, we proved that every finite graph without pendant vertices admits a majority 4-edge colouring. Moreover, if the minimum degree of G is at least 4, then G admits a majority 3-edge colouring.

In the talk, the list version of the problem will be investigated, also for infinite graphs. As a consequence of our results, the Unfriendly Partition Conjecture is confirmed for line graphs.

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INTEGRITY OF GRIDS

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The integrity of a graph $G = (V, E)$ is defined as the smallest sum $|S| + m(G - S)$, where S is a subset of the set V , and $m(H)$ denotes the order of the largest component of the graph H .

Benko, Ernst, and Lanphier provided and proved an asymptotic bounds for planar graphs in terms of the order of the graph. We prove asymptotic results concerning two-dimensional grid-graphs.

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GROUP IRREGULARITY STRENGTH OF DISCONNECTED GRAPHS

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We investigate the *group irregular strength* ($s_g(G)$) of graphs, i.e the smallest value of s such that for any Abelian group Γ of order s exists a function $g : E(G) \rightarrow \Gamma$ such that sums of edge labels at every vertex is distinct. We give results for bound and exact values of ($s_g(G)$) for some chosen families of graphs.

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HETEROGENEOUS MOBILE AGENTS IN GRAPHS

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Computational tasks using teams of mobile agents deployed in a network arise in the context of many applications and theoretically studied problems ranging from two-agent problems like rendezvous to multi-agent scenarios like searching, exploration, patrolling or evacuation.

Agents are often assumed to be identical but scenarios with agents having different capabilities have also been studied in various contexts.

Agents with different speeds were considered in [5], where multiple robots are traveling along a ring to determine their initial positions and in [4, 8] with the goal of patrolling.

In [3] agents capable of traveling in two modes that differ with maximal speeds when searching a line segment were studied.

The problem of evacuating agents with an additional constraint that each type of agent can only use a specific subset of edges in the graph was studied in [1] and the similar approach was applied to the rendezvous problem in [2, 6, 7].

We present an overview of the concept of heterogeneous mobile agents in graphs, the recent results, and open problems.

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ON THE K -METRIC ANTIDIMENSION OF GRAPHS AND ITS APPLICATION TO PRIVACY IN SOCIAL NETWORKS

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Given a connected graph G , a set $S \subset V(G)$ is a k -antiresolving set for G , if k is the largest integer such that for all $u \notin S$ there exists a set $S_u \subseteq V(G) \setminus (S \cup \{u\})$ with $|S_u| \geq k - 1$ such that $d_G(u, v) = d_G(x, v)$ for every $v \in S$ and every $x \in S_u$, where $d_G(a, b)$ is the distance between a, b . The k -metric antidimension of G is the cardinality of a smallest k -ARS for G .

This work focuses on the use of the k -metric antidimension of graphs as a theoretical framework for the privacy measure of social networks called (k, ℓ) -anonymity. A graph G meets (k, ℓ) -anonymity with respect to active attacks to its privacy, if k is the smallest positive integer such that the k -metric antidimension of G is not larger than ℓ .

Graphs with a predetermined structure like cylinders, toruses, and 2-dimensional Hamming graphs, as well as, randomly generated graphs are considered, in order to evaluate the (k, ℓ) -anonymity they achieve. We have taken a combinatorial approach for the graphs with a predetermined structure, whereas for randomly generated graphs we have developed an integer programming formulation and computationally tested its implementation. The results indicated that, according to the (k, ℓ) -anonymity measure, only the 2-dimensional Hamming graphs and some general random dense graphs are achieving some higher privacy properties.

The results of this talk were published in the article [1]. The speaker is supported by the Spanish Ministry of Science and Innovation, ref. PID2019-105824GB-I00.

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MAXIMAL TRANSITIVE SUBTOURNAMENTS OF A DIGRAPH: THE τ OPERATOR

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We introduce the *maximal transitive subtournament* (or the *tt-clique*) operator τ of a digraph D . The τ operator of a digraph D is the intersecting digraph of its tt-cliques preserving the orientation.

This operator is a corresponding notion to the widely studied *clique operator* of graphs (the intersection graph of the maximal complete subgraphs of a given graph). On the other hand, the τ operator is the generalization of the well-known line digraph of a digraph D .

We also define convergent, periodic and divergent digraphs over the τ operator. For the basics on (di)graph operators see [2].

Some basic properties of the operator are studied and we exhibit infinite families of convergent and divergent digraphs under τ . It is proved that for every $p \in \mathbb{N}$ there exists an infinite family of finite τ -periodic digraphs of period p .

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FIBONACCI CORDIAL LABELING OF CORONA GRAPHS

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An injective function f from vertex set, of a graph G , $V(G)$ to the set $\{F_0, F_1, F_2, \dots, F_n\}$, where F_i is the i^{th} Fibonacci number ($i = 0, 1, \dots, n$), is said to be Fibonacci cordial labeling if the induced function f^* from the edge set $E(G)$ the set $\{0, 1\}$ defined by $f^*(uv) = (f(u) + f(v)) \pmod{2}$ satisfies the condition $|e_f(0) - e_f(1)| \leq 1$, where $e_f(0)$ is the number of edges with label 0 and $e_f(1)$ is the number of edges with label 1. A graph that admits Fibonacci cordial labeling is called a Fibonacci cordial graph. In 2020, Mitra and Bhoumik discussed whether the corona graphs $C_n \odot K_m$ for $m \leq 3$ are Fibonacci cordial. We extend their work for $C_n \odot K_m$ for $m \geq 4$ and investigate the conditions under which $K_{n,n} \odot K_p$ is Fibonacci Cordial.

STUDY OF THE TOTAL TRIPLE ROMAN DOMINATION IN GRAPHS⁴

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The Total Triple Roman domination in Graphs arises as a new variant of the Roman domination. A Roman domination in graphs is a modeling of a military defensive problem of the Roman empire defined by Cockayne [3] in 2004. Triple Roman domination was introduced by Ahangar et al. [1] in 2021 with the objective of having each territory defended by three legions, minimizing its cost. Let us consider f as a function $f : V(G) \rightarrow \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\}$ in the graph $G = (V, E)$, such that, $f(AN[v]) \geq |AN(v)| + 3$ for any $v \in V$ with $f(v) < 3$, with $AN(v) \subseteq V$ being the set of adjacent vertices to v with positive label. Total Triple Roman domination was born as a new variant of Triple Roman domination with the aim of making it more efficient in the face of an individual attack on the nodes. This variant defined by a function f on the graph G must satisfy the previous conditions of the Triple Roman domination, in addition to any subgraph induced in G by the set $u \in V$, such that $f(u) \neq 0$ does not have isolated vertices. The Total Triple Roman domination number $\gamma_{[t3R]}(G)$ is defined as the minimum of the weight of the sum of the labels $w(f) = \sum f(v)$ and the function f defined in G is a $\gamma_{[t3R]}(G)$ -function. In this work some bounds are established. Exact values are also studied for some families of graphs such as paths, cycles, bistars, bipartite and spider graphs.

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NEIGHBOR LOCATING COLORING ON THE PRODUCT OF GRAPHS

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Let G be a graph. A k -coloring of G is a partition $\pi = \{S_1, \dots, S_k\}$ of $V(G)$ so that each S_i are independent set and take same color. A k -coloring $\pi = \{S_1, \dots, S_k\}$ of $V(G)$ is a neighbor-locating coloring if any two vertices $u, v \in S_i$, there is a color class S_j for which, one of them has a neighbor in S_j and the other not. The minimum k with this property, is said to be neighbor-locating chromatic number of G , denote by $\chi_{NL}(G)$ of G .

In this talk we discuss on the neighbor-locating chromatic number of Cartesian and lexicographic product of two graphs.

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UPPER BOUNDS ON ISOLATION PARAMETERS FOR TREES

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The concept of isolation in graphs arises by relaxing the condition of domination [1]. Let D be a set of vertices of a graph $G = (V, E)$ and denote by $N[D]$ the set of vertices in D or with a neighbour in D . We say that D is *isolating* if the subgraph induced by $V - N[D]$ has no edges. In general, if \mathcal{F} is a set of graphs, we say that D is \mathcal{F} -*isolating* if no subgraph of $G - N[D]$ is a copy of a member of \mathcal{F} [2]. Hence, usual domination and isolation correspond to \mathcal{F} -isolation for the sets $\mathcal{F} = \{K_1\}$ and $\mathcal{F} = \{K_2\}$, respectively. In this work, we study \mathcal{F} -isolation when \mathcal{F} consists of the k -star $K_{1,k}$ for some $k \geq 1$. Concretely, we establish some upper bounds on the minimum cardinality of a $\{K_{1,k}\}$ -isolating set for trees and characterize all trees attaining the given bounds.

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STACKED BOOK GRAPHS ARE PERMUTATIONALLY 3-REPRESENTABLE

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A simple graph $G = (V, E)$ is called a word-representable graph if there exists a word w over its vertex set V such that, for all $a, b \in V$, $ab \in E$ if and only if a and b alternate in w . The word-representable graphs covers many important classes of graphs including comparability graphs, circle graphs, and 3-colorable graphs. The monograph by Kitaev and Lozin [3] provides a comprehensive account of word-representable graphs, their connections to other contexts, and contributions to the topic.

A word-representable graph is said to be k -word-representable if it is represented by a word in which every letter occurs exactly k times. The smallest k such that a graph is k -word-representable is called the representation number of the graph. If a word representing a word-representable graph is of the form $p_1 p_2 \cdots p_k$, where each p_i 's is a permutation of its vertices, then the graph is said to be permutationally k -representable. In fact, the class of permutationally representable graphs is precisely the class of comparability graphs [4]. The permutation-representation number (in short prn) of a comparability graph is the the minimum value of k such that the graph is permutationally k -representable. It is to be noted that the representation number of a comparability graph is at most its prn . The class of complete graphs is precisely the graphs with the prn one.

The class of graphs with prn at most two is characterized as the class of permutation graphs [1], and the class of circle graphs is characterized as the class of graphs with representation number at most two [2]. In general, it was shown that determining the prn and representation number of a permutationally representable graph are computationally hard [5, 2]. In the literature, the prn and the representation number for some specific classes of graphs were obtained, in addition to some isolated examples. The classification for the class of graphs with the prn at most three is an open problem. In this work, first we reconcile the graphs of with the prn at most three. Further, we show that the stacked book graphs have the prn as well as the representation number at most three.

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WHICH N -VERTEX E -EDGE GRAPH HAS THE MOST H SUBGRAPHS?

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We are interested in finding the graph of given size and order that contains the most copies of a certain small graph as a subgraph. Precisely speaking, for a simple graph H , let $ex(n, e, H)$ denote the maximal number of copies of (not necessarily induced) H subgraphs in a graph with n vertices and e edges. There is no theorem telling us the exact value of $ex(n, e, H)$ or even an asymptotic bound for a general H , but the problem is settled for certain specific graphs.

We will overview the theorem of Ahlswede and Katona about $H = K_{1,2}$, its generalization by Reiher and Wagner about any $H = K_{1,s}$ and the speaker's result concerning the case when H is a 4-edge path. For these graphs, $ex(n, e, H)$ is asymptotically achieved by either a clique (if the edge density is high) or the complement of a clique (if the edge density is low). We also discuss a theorem of Alon that describes infinitely many graphs H for which the clique is always the optimal construction.

Blekherman and Patel proved that for any graph H , $ex(n, e, H)$ is asymptotically achieved by a threshold graph. Gerbner, Patkós, Vizer and the speaker showed that for any H this extremal construction is the clique, provided that the edge density is above a threshold c_H . We also investigate a variant of these problems, when the host graph is bipartite.

THE STAR B-CHROMATIC NUMBER OF A GRAPH

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The b-chromatic number $\chi_b(G)$ of a graph G was introduced by Irving and Manlove [2] in 1999 and is well investigated graph invariant by now. Recently Anholcer et al. [1] in 2022 generalized it to the acyclic b-chromatic number $A_b(G)$ for acyclic colorings of G . We continue with generalization of b-chromatic number to some special colorings, this time in particular to star colorings and we introduce the star b-chromatic number $S_b(G)$ of a graph G .

A star coloring of a graph G is a proper coloring where vertices of every two color classes induce a forest of stars. A strict partial order is defined on the set of all star colorings of G . We introduce, analogue to the b-chromatic number, the star b-chromatic number $S_b(G)$ as the maximum number of colors in a minimum element of the mention order. We present several combinatorial properties of $S_b(G)$, compute the exact value for $S_b(G)$ for several known families and compare $S_b(G)$ with several invariants naturally connected to $S_b(G)$.

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AN ALMOST EQUITABLE COLORING OF A WEIGHTED FOREST

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The talk addresses the problem of equitable coloring of weighted forests. In general, an instance of Equitable Coloring consists of:

- a simple graph (V, E) ,
- a weight function $w : V \rightarrow N$,
- a number of colors m ,
- and a question if there exists a coloring of the vertices f , such that for any color c , $\sum_{v \in f^{-1}(c)} w(v) = \sum_{v \in V} w(v)/m$.

One can consider 3 particular cases of the input data.

- When $w \equiv 1$ and the graph is a forest.
- When a graph has no edges and w is an arbitrary function.
- The case when w is an arbitrary function and the graph is a forest.

In the first case the problem is polynomial time. In the second case the problem is NP-complete. However, there exists a polynomial time algorithm (a PTAS, imprecisely speaking) computing an answer that either: there is no such coloring; or that there is coloring f where for any color c , $\sum_{v \in f^{-1}(c)} w(v) \leq (1 + \epsilon) \sum_{v \in V} w(v)/m$, where ϵ is any fixed number greater than 0.

The third case is addressed during the talk. Insights are provided, in particular a classification of the vertices, which can be used to provide a PTAS for Equitable Coloring with respect to weighted forests.

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RAINBOW TURÁN PROBLEMS⁵

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One of the central topics in extremal graph theory, known as the Turán problem, is to determine the maximum number of edges of a graph on n vertices that does not contain a copy of a given graph F as a subgraph. Equivalently, the minimum number of edges that forces the existence of F as a subgraph.

In a rainbow version of this problem, for an integer $c \geq 1$ we consider a collection of c graphs $\mathcal{G} = (G_1, \dots, G_c)$ on a common vertex set, thinking of each graph as edges in a distinct color. We want to force the existence of a rainbow copy of F in \mathcal{G} by having a large number of edges in each graph.

In this talk we present a solution to the problem for directed graphs without rainbow triangles and stars for any number of colors.

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⁵based on joint work with Sebastian Babiński, Dániel Gerbner, Andrzej Grzesik, Cory Palmer

GRAPHS IN QUANTUM INFORMATION

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Graphs have many applications in quantum information theory. These range from theoretical frameworks for the study of the underlying physical systems and properties to the logistics of building a functional quantum communication network. In this talk we discuss several of these applications.

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ZERO FORCING IN GRAPHS

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Zero forcing is a propagation process on a graph. The propagation process may be describe by the repeated application of the following *colour change rule*: starting with an initial set of blue vertices, a blue vertex v can change the colour of a neighbouring white vertex w to blue if w is the only white neighbour of v . A *zero forcing set* of G is a subset S of vertices such that if S is the initial set of blue vertices the whole graph will eventually be coloured blue. The *zero forcing number* of a graph G , $Z(G)$, is the minimum cardinality of a zero forcing set.

We introduce the idea of *Z-irredundance*, which determines when a zero forcing set is minimal. In this talk we will discuss the relationships between zero forcing and *Z-irredundance* showcasing similarities and significant differences.

EDGE OPEN PACKING: COMPLEXITY AND COMPUTATIONAL ASPECTS

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Given a graph G , two edges $e_1, e_2 \in E(G)$ are said to have a common edge e if e joins an endvertex of e_1 to an endvertex of e_2 . A subset $B \subseteq E(G)$ is an edge open packing (EOP) in G if no two edges of B have a common edge in G , and the maximum cardinality of such a set in G is called the edge open packing number, $\rho_e^o(G)$, of G . In this paper, we prove that the decision version of the EOP number is NP-complete even when restricted to graphs with universal vertices and Eulerian bipartite graphs, respectively. In contrast, we present a linear-time algorithm that computes the parameter for trees. We also solve a problem posed in an earlier paper on this topic. Notably, we characterize the graphs G that attain the upper bound $\rho_e^o(G) \leq |E(G)|/\delta(G)$.

This problem was introduced in [3]. Note that the EOP sets are color classes of the injective edge coloring of graphs ([2]) as well as a generalization of induced matchings ([1, 4]).

1 Main results

We first discuss the following decision problem associated with the EOP number.

EDGE OPEN PACKING PROBLEM INSTANCE: A graph G and an integer $k \leq E(G) $. QUESTION: Is $\rho_e^o(G) \geq k$?	(1)
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We show that the problem (1) is NP-complete for some special families of graphs.

Theorem 1 *EDGE OPEN PACKING PROBLEM is NP-complete even for graphs with universal vertices.*

Moreover, we prove that (1) is in some sense harder than INDEPENDENT SET PROBLEM as it is known that the independence number of bipartite graphs can be computed in polynomial time.

Theorem 2 EDGE OPEN PACKING PROBLEM is NP-complete even for Eulerian bipartite graphs.

We prove that the EOP number and an optimal EOP set for any tree T can be computed/constructed in linear time by exhibiting an efficient algorithm for EOP in trees, in which the parameter can be computed in terms of four auxiliary versions of the EOP number which are recursively defined based on rooted trees.

Theorem 3 There exists a linear-time algorithm for computing the edge open packing number of a tree.

We define the family \mathcal{F} as follows. Let G be a bipartite graph of minimum degree $k \geq 2$ with partite sets $A \cup C$ and B such that every vertex in B has 1 and $k - 1$ neighbors in A and C , respectively.

Theorem 4 For any graph G of size m , $\rho_e^o(G) = m/\delta(G)$ if and only if either G is a disjoint union of stars or $G \in \mathcal{F}$.

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PATH ISOLATION IN GRAPHS

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Given a graph G and a set \mathcal{F} of graphs, the \mathcal{F} -isolation number is the size of a smallest subset D of the vertex set of G such that $G - N[D]$ (the graph obtained from G by removing the closed neighbourhood of D) does not contain a copy of a graph in \mathcal{F} . The path isolation number $\iota(G, P_i)$ for $i > 0$ has attracted particular interest among graph theorists. For $i = 1$, since $P_1 = K_1$, we have Ore's (1962) result [4] that $\gamma(G) = \iota(G, P_1) \leq \frac{n}{2}$ where $\gamma(G)$ is the domination number of an n -vertex connected graph G . For $i = 2$, since $P_2 = K_2$, we have Caro and Hansberg's (2017) result [2] that $\iota(G, P_2) \leq \frac{n}{3}$ provided G is connected but not a 5-cycle or a 2-clique. For $i = 3$, it was shown by Zhang and Wu [5], and independently and in a stronger form by Borg [1], that $\iota(G, P_3) \leq \frac{2n}{7}$ unless $G \in \{P_3, C_3, C_6\}$. This can be improved to $\frac{n}{4}$ if G is not a $\{P_3, C_7, C_{11}\}$ -graph and the girth is at least 7. Recently Huang, Zhang and Jin [3] showed that for a connected graph G that has no 6-cycles or has no induced 5- and 6-cycles, then $\iota(G, P_3) \leq \frac{n}{4}$ provided G is not a $\{P_3, C_3, C_7, C_{11}\}$ -graph. Joint work with Bartolo and Borg improved this result for subcubic graphs. If G is subcubic and has no induced 6-cycles, then $\iota(G, P_3) \leq \frac{n}{4}$ provided G is not one of twelve specific graphs. The bound is sharp.

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STRONG PROPER VERTEX CONNECTION IN DIGRAPHS

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An vertex-colored path is vertex proper if it does not contain two adjacent vertices with the same color. An vertex-colored digraph D is properly vertex connected if, between every ordered pair of vertices, there is a directed proper path. A vertex-colored digraph D is strong properly vertex connected if there exists a vertex proper geodesic between any ordered pair of vertices. The smallest number of colors needed to make D (strong) properly vertex connected is called the (strong) proper vertex connection number of D . The proper vertex connection number and strong proper vertex connection number of D is denoted by $\overrightarrow{pvc}(D)$ and $\overrightarrow{spvc}(D)$, respectively.

It is known that the proper vertex connection number of any strong digraph is at most 3 ([1]). However, the strong proper vertex connection number can be arbitrarily large ([2]). In this talk, we will provide some properties of the strong properly connected vertex-coloring. Additionally, we will present upper bounds on the strong proper vertex connection number for some classes of digraphs.

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VARIETY OF GENERAL POSITION PROBLEMS IN GRAPHS

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Let X be a vertex subset of a graph G . Two vertices $u, v \in V(G)$ are X -positionable if $V(P) \cap X \subseteq \{u, v\}$ holds for any shortest u, v -path P . If every pair of vertices from X are X -positionable, then X is called a general position set. The general position number of G is the cardinality of a largest general position set of G , and this concept has been already well investigated. In this talk, I will introduce varieties of general position problems based on which natural pairs of vertices are required to be X -positionable. This yields the definition of the total (resp. dual, outer) general position number. I will demonstrate that the total general position sets coincide with sets of simplicial vertices, and that the outer general position sets coincide with sets of mutually maximally distant vertices. Additionally, I will show that a general position set is a dual general position set if and only if its complement is convex. Furthermore, I will present results on the total general position number, the outer general position number, and the dual general position number for arbitrary Cartesian products of graphs.

DOMINATION NUMBER OF THE CARTESIAN PRODUCT OF A PATH WITH ANY PAIR OF GRAPHS

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For a simple finite graph G , let $V(G)$ denote the set of vertices of G . We say that a vertex $u \in V(G)$ dominates a vertex v if $u = v$ or v is adjacent to u . A dominating set of G , is a subset of vertices of G which dominates all the vertices of G . The domination number of G , denoted $\gamma(G)$, is the size of a smallest dominating set of G . The Cartesian product $X \square Y$ of two graphs X and Y is the graph whose vertex set is $V(X) \times V(Y)$ and edge set defined as follows. Two vertices (x_1, y_1) and (x_2, y_2) are adjacent in $X \square Y$ if either $x_1 = x_2$ and y_1 and y_2 are adjacent in Y , or $y_1 = y_2$ and x_1 and x_2 are adjacent in X . The still open conjecture of Vizing, see [1], states that $\gamma(X \square Y) \geq \gamma(X)\gamma(Y)$ for any pair of graphs X and Y .

In 2000, Clark and Suen showed in [2] that $\gamma(X \square Y) \geq \frac{1}{2}\gamma(X)\gamma(Y)$ for any pair of graphs X and Y . To this date, $\frac{1}{2}$ remains the best obtained coefficient towards proving Vizing's conjecture. Clark and Suen's result implies that $\gamma(X \square Y \square Z) \geq \frac{1}{4}\gamma(X)\gamma(Y)\gamma(Z)$ for any triple of graphs X , Y and Z . We show that this lower bound can be improved for special graphs. In particular, for any $n \geq 1$, we show that $\gamma(X \square Y \square P_n) \geq c_n\gamma(X)\gamma(Y)\gamma(P_n)$ where c_n is almost $\frac{3}{4}$ when n is big enough. Our proof can be found in [3]. It uses space projections and follows the new framework to approach Vizing's conjecture which appeared in [4].

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THE ALMOST MAJORITY NEIGHBOR SUM DISTINGUISHING EDGE COLORING

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A k -edge coloring of a graph with colors in $[k]$ is neighbor sum distinguishing if, for any two adjacent vertices, the sums of the colors of the edges incident with each of them are distinct. The smallest value of k such that a neighbor sum distinguishing k -coloring of G exists is denoted by $\chi_{\Sigma}^e(G)$. When we add the additional restriction that the edge k -coloring must be proper, then the smallest value of k such that such a coloring exists is denoted by $\chi'_{\Sigma}(G)$. The first type of coloring is related with the 1-2-3 Conjecture, which was already proven by Keusch ([2]). The second type of coloring is related with another conjecture proposed by Flandrin et al. ([1]), which states that $\chi'_{\Sigma}(G) \leq \Delta(G) + 2$ for any graph G with no components isomorphic to K_2 and $G \neq C_5$. This conjecture remains open.

We consider an edge coloring that is on one hand stronger than the edge coloring in the 1-2-3 Conjecture, and on the other hand weaker than the coloring in conjecture proposed by Flandrin et al.. An edge k -coloring of a graph G is called almost majority if for every vertex $v \in V(G)$ and every color $\alpha \in [k]$ at most $\lceil d(v)/2 \rceil$ edges incident to v have the color α . An edge k -coloring of a graph G is called almost majority neighbor sum distinguishing if it is almost majority and neighbor sum distinguishing. The minimum value of k for which there exists such an edge k -coloring of a graph G is called the almost majority neighbor sum distinguishing index of a graph G and is denoted by $\chi_{\Sigma}^{AM}(G)$. We study $\chi_{\Sigma}^{AM}(G)$ for some classes of graphs.

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BACKBONE COLORING: CURRENT PROGRESS AND OPEN PROBLEMS

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The concept of backbone coloring, a variant of the classic graph coloring problem, has garnered significant attention due to its theoretical appeal and practical applications in areas such as frequency assignment, scheduling, and network design. This talk will provide an overview of recent progress in backbone coloring, highlighting key advancements and methodologies. Additionally, the talk will address the most promising and stubborn remaining open problems and challenges. In particular, we will focus on the coloring of complete graphs with tree backbones and bounded-degree graphs with tree, path, and matching backbones.

ROMAN DOMINATION ON FUZZY GRAPHS

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We make a contribution to the well-known problem of Roman domination in graph theory as it relates to fuzzy graphs. Domination in fuzzy graphs has been studied using a variety of approaches. By taking into account just effective edges, Somasundaram and Somasundaram [1] examined domination and total domination in fuzzy graphs. Domination in fuzzy graphs was introduced by Nagoor Gani and Chandrasekaran [2] as the number of vertices in a dominating set that makes use of strong edges. Based on the weight of strong edges, Manjusha and Sunitha [4] determined the domination number of fuzzy graphs. Moreover, they used this idea to examine a fuzzy graph's strong node covering number [5].

We will use the weights of strong edges to define the Roman domination number for a fuzzy graph, based on the domination concept put forth by Manjusha and Sunitha. Cockayne et al. [3], who took their cue from a historical defensive tactic ascribed to the reign of Emperor Constantine I The Great (see [6]), are credited for establishing Roman dominance in graphs. This tactic required that every weak point in the Roman Empire have a neighboring fortress (having two legions) that could send a legion to defend it in case of an unexpected attack. This guaranteed that the more powerful city would not have to jeopardize its own security in order to send reinforcements to defend the beleaguered area.

This paper presents the notions of strong-neighbors Roman domination function/number of a fuzzy graph and shows how it relates to other well-known domination parameters. For particular fuzzy graphs, we derive bounds, find the strong-neighbors Roman domination number, and describe the fuzzy graphs for which extreme values are obtained.

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ABOUT UNIVERSAL γ_2 -FIXERS TREES

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A set of vertices D of a graph G is a *distance 2-dominating* set of G if the distance between each vertex $u \in (V(G) - D)$ and D is at most two. Let $\gamma_2(G)$ denote the size of a smallest distance 2-dominating set of G .

For any permutation π of the vertex set of G , the *prism of G with respect to π* is the graph πG obtained from two copies G_1 and G_2 of G by joining $u \in V(G_1)$ and $v \in V(G_2)$ if and only if $v = \pi(u)$. If $\gamma_2(\pi G) = \gamma_2(G)$ for any permutation π of $V(G)$, then G is called a universal γ_2 -fixer. In this work we study the property to be universal γ_2 -fixers for trees.

