

KAMAK 2025

Hotel ČESKÁ FARMA, Dolní dvůr

September 14 – 19

Charles University, Prague

Organizers:

David Mikšaník

Robert Šámal

Brochure of open problems,
Prague, 2025.

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Program^{*}

07:30 – 09:00	Breakfast
09:00 – 10:30	Morning Problem-Solving Session I
10:30 – 11:00	Coffee Break
11:00 – 12:00	Morning Problem-Solving Session II
12:30 – 13:30	Lunch
15:00 – 16:30	Afternoon Problem-Solving Session I
16:30 – 17:00	Coffee Break
17:00 – 18:00	Afternoon Problem-Solving Session II
18:00 – 18:30	Problem Progress Reports
19:00 – 20:00	Dinner

^{*}From Tuesday lunch until Friday lunch.

OPEN PROBLEMS

Problem 1. *Untangling geometric graphs (suggested by Todor Antić)*

Source: Proposed by Jan Kynčl in the year of our lord 2023.

Definitions.

- A geometric graph is a graph drawn in the plane with vertices as points and edges as straight line segments between the points.
- A geometric graph G is k -plane if every edge has at most k crossings with other edges of G .
- A geometric graph G is h -quasiplane if it contains no h pairwise crossing edges.

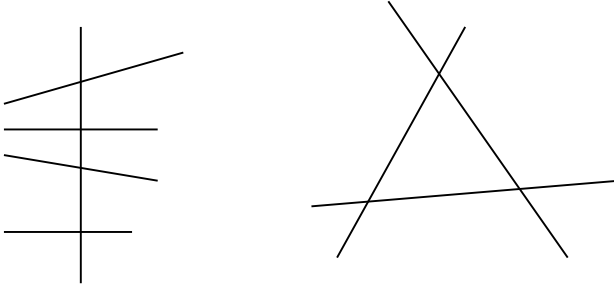


Figure 1: Forbidden configurations in 3-plane and 3-quasiplane geometric graphs.

Question: Can every k -plane geometric graph be redrawn so that it is $(k + 1)$ -quasiplane?

Related results:

- Every geometric k -plane graph can be redrawn to be geometric $(k + 2)$ -quasiplane (exercise).

- Every convex-geometric k -plane graph can be redrawn to be convex-geometric k -quasiplane [1].
- Every simple topological k -plane graph can be redrawn to be simple $(k + 1)$ -quasiplane [2].

References:

[1] Todor Antic. “Convex-Geometric k -Planar Graphs Are Convex-Geometric $(k+1)$ -Quasiplanar”. In: Combinatorial Algorithms. Ed. by Adele Anna Rescigno and Ugo Vaccaro. Cham: Springer Nature Switzerland, 2024, pp. 138–150.

[2] Patrizio Angelini et al. “Simple k -planar graphs are simple $(k+1)$ -quasiplanar”. In: Journal of Combinatorial Theory, Series B 142 (2020), pp. 1–35. ISSN: 0095-8956. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jctb.2019.08.006>. URL: <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0095895619300838>.

Problem 2. *Fast computation of Bézout polynomials
(suggested by Juraj Belohorec)*

Source: Proposed by Alex Ozdemir.

Question: Let $\mathbb{F}$ be a field (in practice, a finite field of prime order). Let $a_1, \dots, a_m$ be m distinct elements of $\mathbb{F}$. Let $Z(X) = \prod_{i=1}^m (X - a_i)$. Then (since the roots a_i are distinct) Z and its derivative Z' have no common factor, so there exist polynomials $s(X)$ and $t(X)$ such that $sZ + tZ' = 1$. Is there an algorithm to compute the coefficients of s and t , from $a_1, \dots, a_m$, using at most $O(m \log m)$ field operations?

References:

<https://notes.0xparc.org/problems/compute-bezout/>

Problem 3. *Complexity of 3-coloring circle graphs
(suggested by Petr Chmel)*

Source: Reopened by Bachmann, Rutter, and Stumpf in 2023.

Definitions.

- A graph is called a circle graph if it can be represented as an intersection graph of chords in a circle. (That is, each vertex gets assigned a chord in a circle, and two vertices are adjacent iff their chords intersect.)

Question: What is the complexity of 3-coloring circle graphs?

Related results:

- For k -coloring of circle graphs with $k \geq 4$, we know the problem is NP-complete.
- For most superclasses of circle graphs, 3-coloring is known to be NP-complete, usually because the superclasses also contain the class planar graphs.
- Unger gave an algorithm for 3-coloring circle graphs in time $\mathcal{O}(n \log n)$ using a backtracking algorithm for a 3-SAT instance with a specific structure based on the circle graph, however Bachmann, Rutter, and Stumpf have shown counterexamples to both the reduction to 3-SAT and the backtracking algorithm.

References:

Bachmann, P., Rutter, I., & Stumpf, P. (2023, September). On 3-coloring circle graphs. In *International Symposium on Graph Drawing and Network Visualization* (pp. 152-160). Cham: Springer Nature Switzerland.

Unger, W. (1988, February). On the k -colouring of circle-graphs. In *Annual Symposium on Theoretical Aspects of Computer Science* (pp. 61-72). Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer Berlin Heidelberg.

Unger, W. (1992, February). The complexity of colouring circle graphs. In *Annual Symposium on Theoretical Aspects of Computer Science* (pp. 389-400). Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer Berlin Heidelberg.

Problem 4. *A bicolored pseudoline arrangement has a bicolored triangle (suggested by Niloufar Fuladi)*

Source: Proposed in the book Oriented Matroids [1].

Definitions.

- A pseudoline is a simple curved line in the plane. We consider this as a generalization of a straight line in the plane.
- A set of pseudolines in the plane that pairwise cross exactly once is called a pseudoline arrangement. This is a generalization of a line arrangement in the plane. A pseudoline arrangement is simple if no three pseudolines cross in a point.
- A pseudoline arrangement decomposes the plane into polygonal cells of degree $d \geq 3$ which we call d -cells.

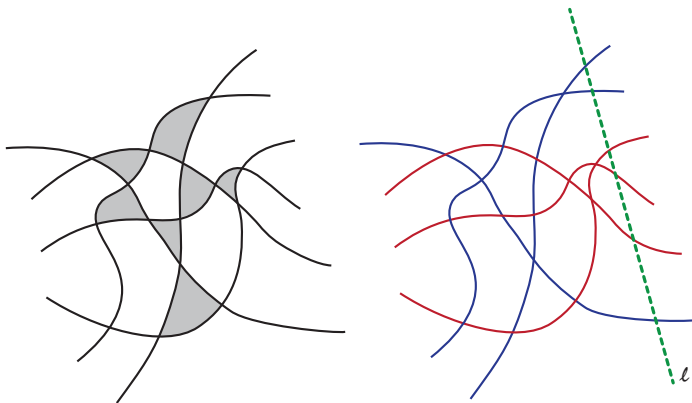


Figure 2: Left: a simple pseudoline arrangement with highlighted 3-cells; Right: A separated bicolored of the pseudolines and a straight line l at infinity.

Question ([1]): A *bicoloring* of a pseudoline arrangement is to color the pseudolines with two colors. In a bicolored simple pseudoline arrangement, there exists a bicolored 3-cell (triangle).

Related results:

- A bicolored line arrangement contains a bicolored 3-cell [2].
- A bicolored arrangement with at most 5 red pseudolines has a bicolored 3-cell [3].
- Consider a bicoloring of a pseudoline arrangement with red and blue. Consider a straight pseudoline at infinity l that crosses all the pseudolines exactly once and that all the crossings of the arrangement appear on one side of it. If there exists a line l such that all the crossings between red (or blue) pseudolines appear consecutively on the line, we call the coloring a *separated coloring*. An arrangement with a separated coloring has a bicolored 3-cell [3]. See the right picture in Figure 2.
- Every bicolored arrangement contains a bicolored 3-cell or a bicolored 4-cell [3].

References:

- [1] Oriented Matroids. Anders Björner, Michel Las Vergnas, Bernd Sturmfels, Neil White, and Günter Ziegler. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 1993.
- [2] Arrangements of Approaching Pseudo-Lines. Stefan Felsner, Alexander Pilz, and Patrick Schnider
- [3] On Triangles in Colored Pseudoline Arrangements. Yan Alves Radtke, Balázs Keszegh, and Robert Lauff.

Problem 5. *Bounded-stability chromatic threshold*
(suggested by Tomáš Hons)

Source: Inspired by the Hong Liu's talk at Eurocomb'25.

Definitions.

- All graphs are finite. The minimum degree of G is denoted by $\delta(G)$.
- Graph G is F -free if F is not an induced subgraph of G .
- The half graph of size n is denoted by H_n and defined as

$$V(H_n) = A \sqcup B = \{a_i : i \in [n]\} \sqcup \{b_j : j \in [n]\},$$

$$E(H_n) = \{a_i b_j : i, j \in [n], i \leq j\}.$$

- A bipartite graph H with a fixed bipartition is a semi-induced subgraph of G if there is an injective mapping $f : V(H) \rightarrow V(G)$ which respects the edges and non-edges between the parts.
- A graph G is called k -stable if it does not contain a copy of H_k as a semi-induced subgraph. The minimum value of k such that G is k -stable is denoted by $\sigma(G)$ and referred to as the stability of G .
- We define the bounded-stability chromatic threshold of a graph F , denoted by $\delta_\chi^\sigma(F)$, as

$$\delta_\chi^\sigma(F) = \inf\{\alpha \geq 0 : \forall s \in \mathbb{N}, \exists C = C(\alpha, F, s) \text{ s.t.}$$

$$\forall n\text{-vertex } F\text{-free graph } G, \sigma(G) \leq s, \delta(G) \geq \alpha n \implies \chi(G) \leq C\}.$$

Examples:

- We have $\delta_\chi^\sigma(K_3) \leq 1/2$ as there are no K_3 -free graphs with $\delta(G) > 1/2$ is $K_{n,n}$. Similarly, we have $\delta_\chi^\sigma(K_t) \leq \frac{t-2}{t-1}$ by the Turán theorem.
- Moreover, by work on a related graph parameter $\delta_\chi(F)$, we know from [1] that $\delta_\chi^\sigma(K_t) \leq \delta_\chi(K_t) = \frac{t-3}{t-2}$. The value of $\delta_\chi(F)$ is defined analogously, but VC-dimension of G is used instead of stability, see below.

Question: Determine $\delta_{\text{hom}}^\sigma(F)$. Start with $F = K_3$.

Motivation and related results:

- A well studied notion is the *chromatic threshold* of F defined as

$$\delta_\chi(F) = \inf\{\alpha \geq 0 : \exists C = C(\alpha, F) \text{ s.t.} \\ \forall n\text{-vertex } F\text{-free graph } G, \delta(G) \geq \alpha n \implies \chi(G) \leq C\}.$$

The values of $\delta_\chi(F)$ were classified in [2].

- In subsequent works [1, 3], the effect of bounded VC -dimension was studied, which was formalized as the notion of *bounded-VC chromatic threshold*:

$$\delta_\chi(F) = \inf\{\alpha \geq 0 : \forall d \in \mathbb{N}, \exists C = C(\alpha, F, d) \text{ s.t.} \\ \forall n\text{-vertex } F\text{-free graph } G, (G) \leq d, \delta(G) \geq \alpha n \implies \chi(G) \leq C\}.$$

We clearly have $\delta_\chi(F) \leq \delta_\chi(F)$.

- The parameter $\delta_\chi^\sigma(F)$ is a natural variant of $\delta_\chi(F)$ in the view that both bounded VC -dimension and bounded stability are related and increasingly important tameness notions coming from model theory. See e.g. [4, 5].
- Since $(G) \leq \sigma(G)$, we have $\delta_\chi(F) \geq \delta_\chi^\sigma(F)$ for every F . Thus, we obtain upper bounds on $\delta_\chi^\sigma(F)$ from known results, while the lower bounds would require constructing of F -graphs with bounded stability, large minimum degree, and unbounded chromatic number.

References:

- [1] Kim, J., Liu, H., Shangguan, C., Wang, G., Wu, Z., & Xue, Y. (2025). Stability with minuscule structure for chromatic thresholds.
- [2] Allen, P., Böttcher, J., Griffiths, S., Kohayakawa, Y., & Morris, R. (2013). The chromatic thresholds of graphs. *Advances in Mathematics*, 235, 261-295.
- [3] Xinqi Huang, Hong Liu, Mingyuan Rong, & Zixiang Xu. (2025). Interpolating chromatic and homomorphism thresholds.
- [4] Malliaris, M., & Shelah, S. (2013). Regularity lemmas for stable graphs. *Transactions of the American Mathematical Society*, 366(3), 1551–1585.

[5] Nguyen, T., Scott, A., & Seymour, P. (2023). Induced subgraph density. VI. Bounded VC-dimension.

Problem 6. *Oriented trees in oriented graphs of large girth (suggested by Tereza Klimošová)*

Source: Proposed by Maya Stein in [1].

Definitions.

- The girth of a graph G is the length of the shortest cycle in G ,
- $\Delta(T)$ denotes the maximum degree of T , and
- $\delta^0(D)$ denotes the minimum semidegree of a digraph D , which is defined as the minimum over all the indegrees and all the outdegrees of the vertices of D .

Question: Does every oriented graph D of girth at least $2\ell + 1$ with $\delta^0(D) \geq \max(k/\ell, \Delta(T))$ contain every orientation of each k -edge tree?

Related results:

- The undirected version of the question is known to be true;

Theorem 1 (Jiang [2]). *Every graph G of girth at least $2\ell + 1$ with $\delta(G) \geq \max(k/\ell, \Delta(T))$ contains any k -edge tree.*

- There is a version forbidding oriented 4-cycles, see [3].

References:

[1] M. Stein. Degree conditions for trees in undirected and directed graphs. In *Women in Mathematics in Latin America*, Trends in Mathematics. Springer-Birkhäuser. To appear.

[2] T. Jiang, On a conjecture about trees in graphs with large girth, *Journal of Combinatorial Theory. Series B* 83 (2001), no. 2, 221–232

[3] M. Stein and A. Trujillo-Negrete, Oriented trees in digraphs without oriented 4-cycles, arXiv preprint arXiv:2411.13483 (2024).

Problem 7. *Clique Dynamics of Whitney triangulations
(suggested by Anna Margarethe Limbach)*

Source: Proposed by F. Larrión, V. Neumann-Lara, and M. A. Pizaña in 2002 [4].

Definitions.

- *Given a graph G , its clique graph kG is the intersection graph of its maximal complete subgraphs, called cliques. This means the set of cliques of G is the vertex set of kG , and two vertices of kG are adjacent if and only if they intersect non-trivially as cliques. The operator k that maps each graph to its clique graph is called the clique graph operator, and one can apply it iteratively to generate the sequence of iterated clique graphs $k^0G = G$, $k^1G = kG$, $k^2G = k(kG)$, k^3G , $\dots$.*
- *If the sequence of iterated clique graphs of a graph G consists of pairwise non-isomorphic graphs, G is called k -divergent, otherwise, k -convergent, and if it contains the graph that consists of a singleton (and then becomes stationary there) G is called k -null.*
- *A graph is called locally cyclic, if each open neighbourhood of a vertex induces a cycle.*
- *A Whitney-triangulation of a compact surface is a triangulation such that each triangle of its underlying graph is a face of the surface. Whitney triangulations of closed surfaces are locally cyclic with minimum degree ≥ 3 and the only one with minimum degree 3 is the K_4 that triangulates the sphere.*

From another perspective one can start with such a locally cyclic graph and obtain a closed surface by “filling in the triangles”.

Questions:

1. Is the underlying graph of a finite Whitney triangulation of the disk always k -null?
2. Is K_4 the only underlying graph of a finite Whitney triangulation of the sphere that is k -convergent?

Related results:

- The K_4 is k -null.
- The octahedron graph is k -divergent.
- The icosahedron graph is k -divergent.
- All locally cyclic graphs with minimum degree ≥ 7 are k -convergent.
- Every closed surface admits a k -divergent Whitney triangulation.
- Every closed surface with negative Euler characteristic admits a k -convergent Whitney triangulation.
- Every Whitney triangulation of the disk such that every interior vertex has degree ≥ 6 is k -null.

References:

- [1] Larrión, F., Pizaña, M.A. and Villarroel-Flores R.: Iterated clique graphs and bordered compact surfaces. *Discrete Mathematics* 313 (2013) 508–516 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.disc.2012.11.017>
- [2] Larrión, F., Neumann-Lara, V. and Pizaña, M.A.: Clique Convergent Surface Triangulations. *Matemática Contemporânea*, Vol. 25, 135–143 (2003) <http://doi.org/10.21711/231766362003/rmc2511>
- [3] Larrión, F., Neumann-Lara, V. and Pizaña, M.A.: Graph relations, clique divergence and surface triangulations. *J. Graph Theory*, 51: 110–122 (2006) <https://doi.org/10.1002/jgt.20126>
- [4] Larrión, F., Neumann-Lara, V., Pizaña, M.A.: Whitney triangulations, local girth and iterated clique graphs. *Discrete Mathematics* 258(1), 123–135 (2002) [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0012-365X\(02\)00266-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0012-365X(02)00266-2)
- [5] Limbach, A.M., Winter, M.: Characterising clique convergence for locally cyclic graphs of minimum degree $\delta \geq 6$. *Discrete Mathematics* 347(11), 114144 (2024) <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.disc.2024.114144>
- [6] Limbach, A. M., Winter, M.: When do graph covers preserve the clique dynamics of infinite graphs? *arXiv preprint* (2025) <https://doi.org/10.48550/arXiv.2503.22893>

Problem 8. *Large chromatic number implies long colorful path (suggested by David Mikšaník)*

Source: Proposed by Raphael Steiner at Eurocomb’25.

Motivation. Since in any proper vertex coloring of G , vertices in each clique receive distinct colors, a large clique number $\omega(G)$ implies a large chromatic number $\chi(G)$. It is well-known, however, that the reverse is not true in general—there exist triangle-free graphs (i.e., graphs with $\omega(G) = 2$) with arbitrarily large chromatic number (see e.g. [1] for a recent survey on this and related topics). Thus, the size of the largest clique is not always the main reason for a graph’s large chromatic number, but perhaps other “large structures” are inherently present in such graphs. For example, Erdős and Hajnal asked: does a graph with large chromatic number always contain a Hamiltonian (induced) subgraph with large chromatic number [2]? Here, we consider a simplified version of this problem.

Question: Is there a function $f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ such that every graph G of chromatic number at least $f(k)$ contains a path P that induces a subgraph of chromatic number at least k ?

Raphael Steiner at Eurocomb’25 explicitly mentioned the case $k = 3$ (stated contrapositively).

Question: Does there exists $c \in \mathbb{N}$ such that the following holds? Every graph G such that every path induces a 3-colorable subgraph has $\chi(G) \leq c$.

Remark: Proving that $\chi(G) \leq O(\log |G|)$ should be easy. Any asymptotic improvement would be new and interesting.

References:

- [1] A. Scott: *Graphs of large chromatic number*. Proceedings of the International Congress of Mathematicians, Vol. 6, pp. 4660—4681, (2022)
- [2] P. Erdős: *Some recent problems and results in graph theory*. Discrete Mathematics, Vol. 164 (1–3), pp. 81–85 (1997)

Problem 9. *Signed Network Coordination Games*
(suggested by Lluís Sabater)

Source: Proposed by Vanelli et al. (2025).

Definitions.

- A signed network is a graph $G = (V, E)$ where each edge has a weight $w_{uv} \in \mathbb{R}$ (can be negative). Each vertex $i \in V$ is a player who chooses an action $x_i \in \{-1, +1\}$.
- The utility of $i \in V$ is given by a function that depends on the weights and actions. Typical examples:

- pure anti-coordination (all weights = -1):

$$u_i(x_i) = |j \in N(i) : x_j \neq x_i|$$

- signed payoff (binary actions $x_i \in \{\pm 1\}$):

$$u_i(x_i) = \sum_{j \in N(i)} w_{ij} \cdot x_i \cdot x_j$$

- An strategy X is a pure Nash equilibrium (or stable coloring) if no vertex can change its action and strictly increase its utility.

Example:

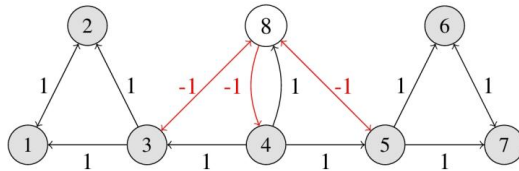


Figure 3: Example from Vanelli et al. paper

Question: Identify graphs that guarantee the existence of a pure Nash equilibrium in signed coordination games.

Related results:

- Vanelli et al. (2025) give sufficient conditions for existence: if there is a cohesive subset or a structurally balanced region that can be “frozen”, and the remainder admits an equilibrium under those boundary conditions.

References:

Vanelli, Arditti, Como, Fagnani, “On Signed Network Coordination Games”, arXiv preprint (May 2025).

Jeremy Kun, Brian Powers, Lev Reyzin, “Anti-Coordination Games and Stable Graph Colorings”, SAGT 2013.

Problem 10. *Reachable Pareto-efficient allocation on a tree (suggested by Lluís Sabater)*

Source: Model introduced¹ by Gourvès, Lesca & Wilczynski (IJCAI 2017).

Definitions.

- **Model.** Tree $T = (V, E)$. Each agent $v \in V$ initially holds object h_v and has a strict preference $\succ_v$ over all objects.
- **Allowed move.** A pairwise swap on edge $\{u, w\}$ is allowed only if both agents strictly prefer the object they would receive.
- **Reachable / Pareto-efficient.** Allocation π is reachable if obtained by a finite sequence of allowed swaps from the initial allocation. π is Pareto-efficient (PE) if no allocation (global) Pareto-dominates it.

Example:

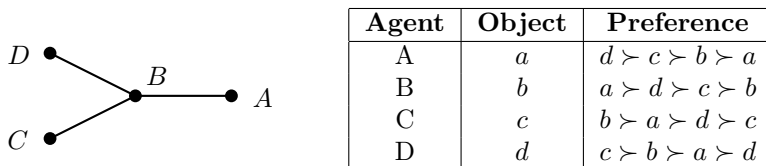


Figure 4: Social graph and Initial Setting.

Example solution: sequence of swaps $(B, C), (B, D), (B, A)$.

Question: Given T , initial allocation and preferences. Either produce a reachable Pareto-efficient allocation or report that none exists (TREE-REACHABLE-PE). Is this decidable in *polynomial time on trees*?

¹The tree case is explicitly listed as open in Plaxton et al., 2021; MFCS 2021.

Related results:

- For general graphs, the reachable/PE problems are NP-hard.
- Paths and stars accept polynomial algorithms.
- Object variant (moving people instead of objects) has similar results.

References:

Gourvès, Lesca & Wilczynski, “Object Allocation via Swaps along a Social Network”, IJCAI 2017.

Plaxton, Li & Sinha, “Object Allocation Over a Network of Objects”, AAMAS 2021.

Problem 11. *Matching-Pseudoforest Planar Decomposition Problem (suggested by Vibha Sahlot)*

Question: Does every finite planar graph G with girth $g(G) \geq 7$ admit an edge-2-colouring $E(G) = M \cup P$ such that

- M is a matching (every vertex incident with at most one edge of M), and
- P is a pseudoforest (every connected component of P contains at most one cycle)?

Related results:

- Already proven true for girth greater than seven and girth six is impossible.

Problem 12. *The Forest-Diameter-3 Decomposition Conjecture (suggested by Vibha Sahlot)*

Question: Does every finite planar graph G with girth $g(G) \geq 5$ admit an edge-2-colouring $E(G) = F \cup D$ such that

- F is a forest, and
- P has every connected component of diameter at most 3?

Related results:

- True for diameter 4.

Problem 13. *Hunters and rabbit (suggested by Sasha Sami)*

Source: Taken verbatim from <https://a3nm.net/work/research/questions/#HuntersRabbit>. But is originally credited to <https://csttheory.stackexchange.com/q/30592>.

Definitions.

- *The hunters and rabbit problem is a pursuit-evasion game played on an undirected graph. A strategy for k hunters is a sequence $s_1, s_2, \dots, s_n$ of subsets of k vertices. A strategy is winning if, for every walk $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n$ in the graph (not necessarily simple), there is i such that $v_i \in s_i$. Intuitively, the evader is walking on the graph (it has to move at each turn by following exactly one edge) and must avoid the k vertices that the pursuers examine at each time step.*
- *The evasion number of a graph G is the smallest k for which there is a winning strategy with k hunters.*

Question: Is it the case that, for any constant k , we can recognize the graphs of the evasion number k in polynomial time? It is, in fact, not even known whether the problem is in NP.

Related results:

- Paper [1] characterizes the graphs with evasion number $k = 1$ (they are the unions of lobster graphs, and can be recognized in linear time), and determines explicit strategies for them. In this paper, the pursuer is called a prince and the evader is called a princess. See also this Reddit discussion [2], where the pursuer is a vampire hunter and the evader is a vampire.
- Paper [3] (2025), which shows that it is NP-hard to determine the evasion number of a graph given as input. However, the paper does not determine the complexity of identifying graphs of evasion number k for a fixed k .
- More papers:
 - How to Hunt an Invisible Rabbit on a Graph [4].

- Catching a Mouse on a Tree [5], where the pursuers are called cats and the evader mouse.
- Hunting Rabbits on the Hypercube [6], which follows the hunter/rabbit terminology.
- Recontamination Helps a Lot to Hunt a Rabbit [7].

References:

- [1] <https://arxiv.org/abs/1204.5490>
- [2] https://www.reddit.com/r/mathriddles/comments/30tmoh/vampire_hunter/
- [3] <https://arxiv.org/abs/2502.15982>
- [4] <https://arxiv.org/abs/1502.05614>
- [5] <https://arxiv.org/abs/1502.06591>
- [6] <https://arxiv.org/abs/1701.08726>
- [7] <https://drops.dagstuhl.de/entities/document/10.4230/LIPIcs.MFCS.2023.42>

Problem 14. *Are the induced chordal graphs edge-Ramsey? (suggested by Maximilian Strohmeier)*

Source: Proposed by Nešetřil in 2025.

Let K be any category. (Imagine a class of finite graphs with some notion of homomorphisms.)

Definitions (Ramsey degree).

- K is Ramsey (or has the Ramsey property) if

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \forall A, B \in K, r \in \omega : \\ \exists C \in K : \\ \forall \chi \in r^{K(A, C)} : \\ \exists b \in K(B, C), k \in r : \\ \forall a \in K(A, B) : \\ \chi(b \circ a) = k. \end{array} \right\} \left. \begin{array}{l} \exists b \in K(B, C) : \\ \left| \chi(b \circ -) [K(A, B)] \right| = 1 \end{array} \right\} C \rightarrow (B)_{r,1}^A$$

- $A \in K$ has small Ramsey degree d if d is minimal such that

$$\forall B \in K, r \in \omega : \exists C \in K : C \rightarrow (B)_{r,d}^A.$$

Definitions (Induced chordal graphs).

- For a class of graphs K , the category of induced K has as morphisms the inclusions of subgraphs in K induced by a vertex set.
- A chord of a cycle in a graph is a edge in the graph between vertices which are not adjacent in the cycle.
- A graph is chordal (sometimes called triangulated) if every cycle of size ≥ 4 has a chord. So a graph is chordal if it has no induced C_n for $n \geq 4$.

Question: What is the small Ramsey degree of the edge in the class of induced linearly-ordered chordal graphs?

Related results:

- (The chordal graphs are vertex-Ramsey; [1, Prop. 4.13]) The vertex has small Ramsey degree 1 in the class of induced chordal graphs.
- (Classification of chordal graphs; Folklore / [2, Thm. 5.3.17]) A finite graph is chordal if and only if there exists a linear ordering of its vertices such that, for every vertex, its neighborhood restricted to smaller vertices induces a complete graph.

General facts from structural Ramsey theory:

- (Partite construction) Let L be a language of finite structures (without any other restrictions or axioms). Then the class of linearly ordered L -structures has the Ramsey property.
- (Ramsey degree arithmetic) The Ramsey degree of an object is a multiple of its number of automorphisms.
- (Ramsey's Theorem) $\forall a, b, r \in \omega : \exists c \in \omega : c \rightarrow (b)_r^a$ in $(\omega, <)$. Equivalently we can consider order-preserving embeddings between linearly-ordered finite sets.
- (Generalized Hales-Jewett) For every finite set S , $\forall a, b, r \in \omega : \exists c \in \omega : c \rightarrow (b)_r^a$ in $\text{HJ}(S)$.

References:

[1] Vince Guingona, Felix Nusbaum, Zain Padamsee, Miriam Parnes, Christian Pippin and Ava Zinman (2025), Indivisibility for Classes of Graphs, <https://arxiv.org/abs/2312.01466>

[2] Douglas B. West (2000) Introduction to Graph Theory, 2nd ed., Prentice Hall

Serving as reference aside from that is almost any paper in structural Ramsey theory. A recent survey is:

[3] Jan Hubička and Matěj Konečný (2025), Twenty years of Nešetřil's classification programme of Ramsey classes, doi: 10.48550/arXiv.2501.17293

Problem 15. *Flow-related conjecture (suggested by Robert Šámal)*

Source: DeVos (with Ghanbari, Šámal).

A bisection of a graph is a decomposition of the vertex set in two sets of the same size. We will call subsets of one of these sets *monochromatic*.

Conjecture: Every 4-edge-connected 5-regular graph G has a bisection so that every monochromatic component has at most one cycle.

- For integer $k \geq 3$, a *nowhere-zero k -flow* (k -nzf) in a digraph is a mapping $\varphi : E(G) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ that is a *flow* – so that at every vertex, flow in equals flow out, formally, for every v

$$\sum_{u \in N^+(v)} \varphi(vu) = \sum_{u \in N^-(v)} \varphi(uv).$$

Moreover, for every edge $e \in E(G)$ we have $1 \leq |\varphi(e)| \leq k - 1$.

- For a real $r \geq 2$, a *circular nowhere-zero r -flow* (r -cnzf for short) in a digraph is an assignment $f : E \rightarrow [-(r - 1), -1] \cup [1, r - 1]$ such that f is a flow in G .
- A *k -weak bisection* of a cubic graph G is a partition of the vertex-set of G into two parts V_1 and V_2 of equal size, such that each connected component of the subgraph of G induced by V_i ($i = 1, 2$) is a tree of at most $k - 2$ vertices.
- A bisection (V_1, V_2) of a graph G is an *r -strong bisection* if for every set of vertices $X \subseteq V$ the number of edges leaving X is $\geq \frac{r}{r-2} ||V_1 \cap X| - |V_2 \cap X||$
- Note that an r -strong bisection is also a $\lfloor r \rfloor$ -weak bisection.
- [EMT, J] Let $r \geq 3$ be a real number. A cubic graph $G = (V, E)$ admits an circular r -nowhere-zero flow if and only if there exists a r -strong bisection.
- So if a cubic bridgeless graph G has a 5-nowhere-zero flow (as Tutte conjectures is true for all such graphs), it also has a 5-strong bisection, and thus also a 5-weak partition.

- [EMT] prove this conclusion directly.
- The above mentioned conjecture is related in similar way to Tutte's 3-flow conjecture (every 4-edge-connected graph G has a 3-nzf).

References:

[EMT] Louis Esperet, Giuseppe Mazzuoccolo, Michael Tarsi: Flows and bisections in cubic graphs, Journal of Graph Theory 86(2) (2017), 149-158 <https://arxiv.org/abs/1504.03500>

[J] F. Jaeger: Balanced valuations and flows in multigraphs, Proceedings of the American mathematical society Volume 55, Number 1, February 1976 <https://www.ams.org/journals/proc/1976-055-01/S0002-9939-1976-0427156-5/S0002-9939-1976-0427156-5.pdf>

Problem 16. *Slice-wise complexity of scramble number (suggested by Josse van Dobben de Bruyn)*

Source: Posed by Echavarria et. al. [2, Question 3.6]; see also [3, Question 5.5], [4, Question 6.4].

Throughout this problem, we assume that all graphs are finite, undirected, simple, and connected, with n vertices and m edges.

We say that a vertex set $E \subseteq V(G)$ is *connected* if the induced subgraph $G[E]$ is connected. We follow the common convention that the empty set is not connected.

Recall that a *cut* (T, T^c) in G is a partition of $V(G)$ into two disjoint non-empty vertex sets $T, T^c \subseteq V(G)$. The *size* of a cut (T, T^c) , denoted $|E(T, T^c)|$, is the number of edges between T and T^c .

Definitions ([1]).

- A *scramble* in a graph G is a non-empty collection $\mathcal{S} = \{E_1, \dots, E_s\}$ of connected vertex sets $E_1, \dots, E_s \subseteq V(G)$. The sets $E_1, \dots, E_s$ are called the *eggs* of the scramble.²
- Let $\mathcal{S} = \{E_1, \dots, E_s\}$ be a scramble. A *hitting set* for $\mathcal{S}$ is a vertex set $C \subseteq V(G)$ that contains at least one vertex from each egg E_i of $\mathcal{S}$. The *hitting set number* $h(\mathcal{S})$ of $\mathcal{S}$ is the minimum size of a hitting set for $\mathcal{S}$.
- Let $\mathcal{S} = \{E_1, \dots, E_s\}$ be a scramble. An *egg cut* for $\mathcal{S}$ is a cut (T, T^c) such that there exists eggs $E_i \subseteq T$ and $E_j \subseteq T^c$. The *egg cut number* $e(\mathcal{S})$ of $\mathcal{S}$ is the minimum size of an egg cut (∞ if no egg cut exists).
- The *order* of a scramble is defined as $\|\mathcal{S}\| := \min(h(\mathcal{S}), e(\mathcal{S}))$. Note that $\|\mathcal{S}\| \leq h(\mathcal{S}) \leq n$.
- The *scramble number* $\text{sn}(G)$ of a graph G is the maximum order of a scramble in G .

²The terminology, introduced in [1], is a bad pun on the notion of *brambles* and *bags*.

Examples:

- For every (connected) graph G , the set $\mathcal{S} = \{V(G)\}$ is a scramble with $h(\mathcal{S}) = 1$ and $e(\mathcal{S}) = \infty$. Thus, $\text{sn}(G) \geq 1$ for all G .
- For every graph G , the set $\mathcal{E}(G) = \{\{u, v\} \mid uv \in E(G)\}$ is a scramble in G , called the *edge scramble* of G [2, §3]. The hitting sets for this scramble are precisely the vertex covers of G , so we have $h(\mathcal{E}(G)) = n - \alpha(G)$. The egg cut number of $\mathcal{E}(G)$ is the minimum size of a cut (T, T^c) such that both T and T^c contain at least one edge, which is typically smaller than $n - \alpha(G)$. If $\delta(G) \geq \lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor + 1$, then this scramble has order $n - \alpha(G)$ and is optimal [2, Corollary 3.2].
- If G is a tree, then we claim that every scramble has order 1. If $h(\mathcal{S}) = 1$, then we are done, so assume $h(\mathcal{S}) > 1$. Let D be the directed graph obtained from G by replacing every edge $uv \in E(G)$ by two arcs $(u, v), (v, u) \in A(D)$. Consider the directed subgraph $D' \subseteq D$ consisting of all arcs (u, v) such that the connected component of $G - uv$ containing v contains an egg E_i . Since $h(\mathcal{S}) > 1$, every vertex $u \in V(G)$ misses at least one egg, so the outdegree of every vertex of D' is at least 1. Therefore, D' has at least n arcs. Since G has $n - 1$ edges, it follows that there is an edge $uv \in E(G)$ such that both (u, v) and (v, u) belong to D' . Now the edge uv forms an egg cut of size 1, so we have $e(\mathcal{S}) = 1$. Hence, $\|\mathcal{S}\| = 1$.
- If G contains a cycle C , then $\text{sn}(G) \geq 2$. Indeed, choose three distinct vertices u, v, w on the cycle C , and edge-partition the cycle as $C = P_{[u, v]} \cup P_{[v, w]} \cup P_{[w, u]}$, where $P_{[x, y]}$ denotes the path along the cycle from x to y . Then the scramble

$$\mathcal{S} = \{V(P_{[u, v]}), V(P_{[v, w]}), V(P_{[w, u]})\}$$

satisfies $h(\mathcal{S}) = 2$ and $e(\mathcal{S}) = \infty$, so $\|\mathcal{S}\| = 2$. This is illustrated in Figure 5 below.

- Combining the preceding two examples, we see that $\text{sn}(G) = 1$ if and only if G is a tree. Using more advanced properties of the scramble number, a one-line proof of this fact can be given; see [1, Corollary 4.2].
- For a more advanced example, let $G_{m, n}$ denote the $m \times n$ grid graph with rows $R_1, \dots, R_m \subseteq V(G_{m, n})$ and columns $C_1, \dots, C_n \subseteq$

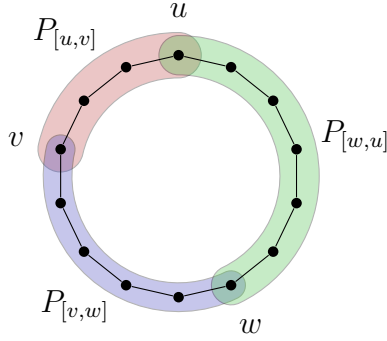


Figure 5: Every cycle gives rise to a scramble of order 2.

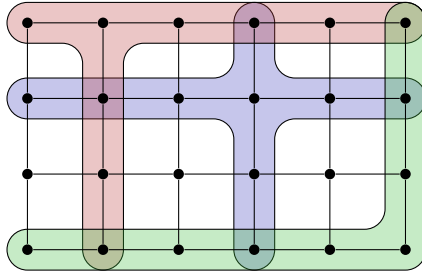


Figure 6: Three eggs of the scramble $\mathcal{S}$ in the grid graph $G_{4,6}$. (The scramble contains all possible unions of a row and a column.)

$V(G_{m,n})$. Consider the scramble $\mathcal{S} = \{R_i \cup C_j \mid (i, j) \in [m] \times [n]\}$, illustrated in Figure 6 below. Then $h(\mathcal{S}) = \min(m, n)$ and $e(\mathcal{S}) = \infty$, so $\|\mathcal{S}\| = \min(m, n)$. This can be shown to be optimal [1, Proposition 5.2].

- A *bramble* is a scramble $\mathcal{B}$ with the additional property that $E_i \cup E_j$ is connected for all $E_i, E_j \in \mathcal{B}$. The (*bramble*) *order* of a bramble $\mathcal{B}$ is defined to be the hitting set number $h(\mathcal{B})$. If $\mathcal{B}$ is a

bramble of order k , then the scramble order of $\mathcal{B}$ is either $k - 1$ or k [1, Lemma 3.6]. If $\mathcal{B}$ is a bramble such that $E_i \cap E_j \neq \emptyset$ for all $E_i, E_j \in \mathcal{B}$, then the bramble order of $\mathcal{B}$ equals the scramble order of $\mathcal{B}$ [1, Lemma 3.5]. (Brambles play an important role in the theory of treewidth.)

For this problem, we focus on the (slice-wise) computational complexity of the scramble number.

Definitions.

- *The decision problem SCRAMBLE NUMBER takes as input a graph G and an integer k and asks whether or not G admits a scramble of order at least k ; that is, whether or not $\text{sn}(G) \geq k$.*
- *For a fixed integer $k \geq 1$, the decision problem k -SCRAMBLE takes as input a graph G and asks whether or not G admits a scramble of order at least k ; that is, whether or not $\text{sn}(G) \geq k$.*

Note the subtle but important difference between SCRAMBLE NUMBER and k -SCRAMBLE: the first considers k to be part of the input, whereas the second considers k to be a constant. By comparison, the problems VERTEX COVER, INDEPENDENT SET, DOMINATING SET, and CHROMATIC NUMBER are all NP-hard when k is part of the input, but the first three become polynomial time solvable when k is fixed, whereas k -COLOURING is still NP-hard when $k \geq 3$ is fixed.

In [2], the authors prove that SCRAMBLE NUMBER is coNP-hard, using a polynomial-time reduction from INDEPENDENT SET. The more interesting problem of determining the complexity of k -SCRAMBLE is left open.

Main Question ([2, Question 3.6]; see also [3, Question 5.5], [4, Question 6.4]): For fixed k , can the problem k -SCRAMBLE be solved in polynomial time, or is it still NP-hard (or in between)?

The problems 1-SCRAMBLE and 2-SCRAMBLE are trivially in P, since we have $\text{sn}(G) \geq 1$ for all graphs G , and $\text{sn}(G) \geq 2$ if and

only if G has a cycle. It was proved in [3] that a graph G satisfies $\text{sn}(G) \geq 3$ if and only if G contains one (or several) of the four graphs depicted in Figure 7 as a topological minor. Therefore, 3-SCRAMBLE is also in P. For $k > 3$, it was proved that no such finite list of forbidden topological minors exists [3, Theorem 1.2]. The Main Question is currently still open for all $k > 3$.

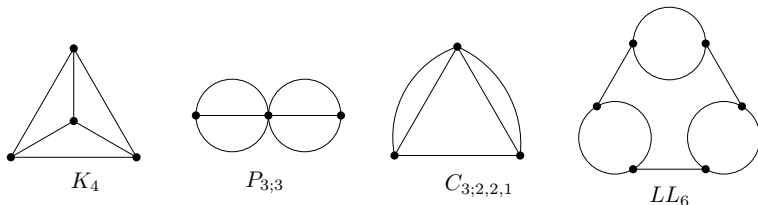


Figure 7: The four forbidden topological minors for $\text{sn}(G) < 3$.

If k -SCRAMBLE is in P for all k , then a natural follow-up question would be whether or not SCRAMBLE NUMBER is fixed parameter tractable when parameterized by k [4, Question 6.4].

Related results:

- If H is a subgraph of G , then $\text{sn}(H) \leq \text{sn}(G)$ [1, Proposition 4.5].
- If G' is a subdivision of G , then $\text{sn}(G') = \text{sn}(G)$ [1, Proposition 4.6].
- The scramble number is not minor-monotone [1, Example 4.4].
- If $\text{sn}(G) \leq 3$, then an optimal scramble exists whose eggs are pairwise disjoint [3, Proposition 5.2], but this is not true for larger scramble number.
- The scramble number is lower bounded by the *treewidth* and upper bounded by the *divisorial gonality* of the graph: $\text{tw}(G) \leq \text{sn}(G) \leq \text{dgon}(G)$ [1]. This is the main motivation for studying the scramble number: it is currently the best known lower bound on the divisorial gonality, a graph parameter that has its origins in algebraic geometry [5,6] and has connections with structural graph theory [7] and parameterized complexity [8].

- For all $k \geq 2$, there exist graphs G_k such that $\text{tw}(G_k) = 2$ and $\text{sn}(G_k) = k$ [1, Example 4.8], as well as graphs H_k such that $\text{sn}(H_k) = 2$ and $\text{dgon}(H_k) = k$ [1, Example 4.9]. In other words, treewidth, scramble number, and divisorial gonality can be arbitrarily far apart.
- For fixed k , it can be decided in linear time whether or not $\text{tw}(G) \leq k$ [9], and in polynomial time whether or not $\text{dgon}(G) \leq k$ [10]. But scramble number seems to be somehow harder.
- I have a proof that k -SCRAMBLE is in NP for all k , using a polynomial time reduction to an instance of SAT (unpublished). Note: I am reducing to SAT, not from SAT, so this does not prove hardness.
- Treewidth is both the largest order of a bramble (minus one) and the smallest width of a tree decomposition. A similar width parameter has been defined for the scramble number, called *screeewidth* [11]. However, one only has $\text{sn}(G) \leq \text{sw}(G)$; equality does not always hold. It is an open problem whether or not $\text{sw}(G) \leq \text{dgon}(G)$ for all graphs G [11, Question 5.1].

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