# The Biorder Polytope 

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#### Abstract

Biorders, also called Ferrers relations, formalize Guttman scales. Irreflexive biorders on a set are exactly the interval orders on that set. The biorder polytope is the convex hull of the characteristic matrices of biorders. Its definition is thus similar to the definition of other order polytopes, the linear ordering polytope being the proeminent example. We investigate the combinatorial structure of the biorder polytope, thus obtaining a complete linear description in a specific case, and the automorphism group in all cases. Moreover, a class of facet-defining inequalities defined from weighted graphs is thoroughly analyzed. A weighted generalization of stability-critical graphs is presented, which leads to new facets even for the well-studied linear ordering polytope.


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## 1. Introduction

Biorders appeared first as 'Guttman scales' [12] in psychology. In mathematics, they are also called 'Ferrers relations' after Riguet [19]; see Monjardet [16] for a historical survey. Let $X$ and $Y$ be two nonempty, finite sets of respective cardinalities $m$ and $n$. A biorder $B$ from $X$ to $Y$ is a relation from $X$ to $Y$ which satisfies
for all $i, k \in X, j, \ell \in Y: \quad i B j$ and $k B \ell$ implies $i B \ell$ or $k B j$.
Except for finiteness, no restriction is made here on the sets $X$ and $Y$, which can be disjoint or equal. In the latter case, we call $B$ also a biorder on $X$. The irreflexive biorders on $X$ coincide with the interval orders on $X$.

This paper focuses on the biorder polytope $P_{\text {Bio }}^{X \times Y}$, which is a convex polytope whose vertices correspond to biorders from $X$ to $Y$. To give some motivation, let us consider the problem of finding a biorder from $X$ to $Y$ which is closest to a certain relation $R$ from $X$ to $Y$. Here, 'closest' refers to maximizing the number of pairs on which $R$ and $B$ agree, in other words to minimizing $|R \Delta B|$. Define the linear

[^0]form $x \mapsto c \bullet x$ on $\mathbb{R}^{X \times Y}$ by $c_{(i, j)}=+1$ if $(i, j) \in R$, and -1 if $(i, j) \notin R$, where - refers to the sum of products of corresponding matrix elements. Denoting by $x^{B}$ the point of $\mathbb{R}^{X \times Y}$ which is the characteristic vector or, better, matrix of $B$, that is
\[

x_{(i, j)}^{B}= $$
\begin{cases}1 & \text { if }(i, j) \in B  \tag{1}\\ 0 & \text { if }(i, j) \notin B,\end{cases}
$$
\]

we have $c \bullet x^{B}=|R|-|R \triangle B|$. So the problem of finding a biorder closest to $R$ can be formulated as a linear program on the polytope which is the convex hull of all vectors $x^{B}$, for $B$ any biorder from $X$ to $Y$. This polytope, which lies in $\mathbb{R}^{X \times Y}$, is the biorder polytope $P_{\mathrm{Bio}}^{X \times Y}$. To solve the approximation problem efficiently, one needs to know a linear description (by linear inequalities) of the polytope $P_{\mathrm{Bio}}^{X \times Y}$, or at least to be able to generate many linear inequalities on $\mathbb{R}^{X \times Y}$ valid for $P_{\text {Bio }}^{X \times Y}$. As points belonging to $P_{\text {Bio }}^{X \times Y}$ can be seen as 'fuzzy' or 'probabilistic biorders' (being convex combinations of the vertices), the same problem is also motivated by the search for a characterization of these 'probabilistic biorders' by a system of linear inequalities.

As is explained later, the biorder polytope $P_{\mathrm{Bio}}^{X \times Y}$ has dimension $m \cdot n$, that is: $P_{\mathrm{Bio}}^{X \times Y}$ is a full-dimensional polytope in $\mathbb{R}^{X \times Y}$. (In this paper, 'dimension' is to be understood as 'affine dimension'.) Hence, there exists a unique linear description of $P_{\text {Bio }}^{X \times Y}$ involving a minimum number of inequalities, where one such inequality corresponds to one facet of $P_{\mathrm{Bio}}^{X \times Y}$ (a facet being a proper, maximal face, see, e.g., Ziegler [22]). The problem of determining all facets of $P_{\text {Bio }}^{X \times Y}$, in other words all linear inequalities which appear in all linear descriptions of $P_{\text {Bio }}^{X \times Y}$, should be considered as an extremely difficult task. Indeed, there exist linear functionals whose maximization on $P_{\text {Bio }}^{m \times n}$ is NP-hard. (We do not know whether the approximation problem mentioned above is NP-hard, but we can prove, by reduction from MAXCLIQUE, that it is NP-hard to find a biorder minimizing the sum of its distances to two given relations.) However, several families of facets are described in our paper. They give a complete minimal description of $P_{\text {Bio }}^{X \times Y}$ for 'small' values of $m, n$, as checked with the porta software [3] or proved formally here for $m \leqslant 2$ or $n \leqslant 2$.

For any finite set $Z$, the biorder polytope $P_{\text {Bio }}^{Z \times Z}$ contains as faces many other known polytopes. For instance, the interval order polytope [17] is formed by the points in $P_{\text {Bio }}^{Z \times Z}$ that satisfy $x_{(i, i)}=0$ for all $i \in Z$; its vertices correspond to interval orders on $Z$. The well-studied linear ordering polytope $P_{\text {LO }}^{Z}$ (see, e.g., [18, $11,1,2]$ ) is obtained by imposing further $x_{(i, j)}+x_{(j, i)}=1$ for all $i, j \in Z$. Some of our techniques for establishing facets for biorder polytopes are inspired from papers on the linear ordering polytope, especially Koppen [13]. In turn, our study led us to infer new facets of the latter polytope (these findings are left as an illustration for a paper on polytope projection, see Doignon and Fiorini [8]). A weighted generalization of stability-critical graphs is our main tool.

Another of the results presented here is the determination of the automorphism group of the biorder polytope (for the linear ordering polytope, this is done in Fiorini [10]).

## 2. Background and Elementary Results

The definition of biorders stated at the beginning of the Introduction can be reformulated as follows, with $\bar{B}$ denoting the complement $\bar{B}=(X \times Y) \backslash B$ of a relation $B$ from $X$ to $Y$, and juxtaposition of two relation symbols indicating product. A relation $B$ from $X$ to $Y$ is a biorder when $B \bar{B}^{-1} B \subseteq B$. The complement $\bar{B}$ and the converse $B^{-1}$ of the biorder $B$ are again biorders, the second from $Y$ to $X$. It is not difficult to check that a relation $B$ from $X$ to $Y$ is a biorder exactly when there exist linear orderings $L$ and $M$ of respectively $X$ and $Y$, such that $L B M \subseteq B$. When the latter holds, the $0 / 1$-array built from $L$ and $M$ to encode $B$ is step-like in the sense that all cells above or to the right of a cell containing 1 also contain 1. More results of this type can be found in the literature, see, e.g., Doignon, Ducamp and Falmagne [7], which introduced the name 'biorder'. We investigate the number of biorders from $X$ to $Y$ in another paper [5]; a recursive formula, plus two explicit formulas both involving Stirling numbers of the second kind, are provided there for this number.

Each point of $\mathbb{R}^{X \times Y}$ has one coordinate $x_{(i, j)}$ for each ordered pair $(i, j)$ with $i \in X, j \in Y$; this coordinate will be abbreviated as $x_{i j}$. A biorder $B$ from $X$ to $Y$ is represented by its characteristic matrix $x^{B}$, as in Equation (1). The convex hull of all the resulting points $x^{B}$ in $\mathbb{R}^{X \times Y}$, for $B$ any biorder from $X$ to $Y$, is a 0/1-polytope that we call the biorder polytope $P_{\text {Bio }}^{X \times Y}$. Clearly, the structure of $P_{\text {Bio }}^{X \times Y}$ only depends on the respective cardinalities $m$ and $n$ of $X$ and $Y$. For this reason, the biorder polytope $P_{\text {Bio }}^{X \times Y}$ is often denoted as $P_{\text {Bio }}^{m \times n}$. Similarly, the linear ordering polytope $P_{\mathrm{LO}}^{Z}$, or $P_{\mathrm{LO}}^{q}$ if $q=|Z|$, is the convex hull of all characteristic vectors of linear orderings of $Z$ (see, e.g., $[18,11,13,1,2]$ ). This polytope is not full dimensional in $\mathbb{R}^{Z \times Z}$, because its dimension equals $q(q-1) / 2$.

The reader is referred to Ziegler [22] for the terminology and notation about polytopes. An affine mapping $\mathbb{R}^{d} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{e}:\left(x_{k}\right) \mapsto\left(x_{k}^{\prime}\right)$ specifies each coordinate $x_{k}^{\prime}$ as a polynomial of degree at most 1 in the $x_{\ell}$ 's. We will always describe such a mapping by providing the polynomial expression for $x_{k}^{\prime}$. An affine automorphism of a polytope $P$ in $\mathbb{R}^{d}$ is an affine permutation of $\mathbb{R}^{d}$ that induces a permutation of $P$. A combinatorial automorphism of $P$ is a permutation of the set vert $P$ of vertices of $P$ which, for any face $F$ of $P$, transforms vert $F$ into vert $F^{\prime}$ for some face $F^{\prime}$ of $P$ (the two faces $F$ and $F^{\prime}$ necessarily have the same dimension). Notice that each affine automorphism induces a combinatorial automorphism.

Some obvious linear inequalities valid for the biorder polytope are the trivial inequalities and axiomatic inequalities

$$
\begin{equation*}
-x_{i j} \leqslant 0, \quad x_{i j} \leqslant 1 \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\begin{equation*}
x_{i j}+x_{k \ell}-x_{i \ell}-x_{k j} \leqslant 1, \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $i, k \in X, j, \ell \in Y$, and $i \neq k, j \neq \ell$. Indeed, any vertex $x^{B}$ of $P_{\text {Bio }}^{X \times Y}$ satisfies all of these inequalities: the definition of a biorder $B$ exactly means that the array $x^{B}$ does not contain any subarray

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 0  \tag{4}\\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right) \quad \text { or } \quad\left(\begin{array}{ll}
0 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

Because the origin $O$ and all unit vectors $E_{i j}$ of $\mathbb{R}^{X \times Y}$ are characteristic matrices of biorders, it follows that $P_{\text {Bio }}^{X \times Y}$ has dimension $m \cdot n$. A similar argument shows that the trivial inequalities (2) of the form $-x_{i j} \leqslant 0$ define facets of $P_{\text {Bio }}^{X \times Y}$. Complementation of a relation from $X$ to $Y$ induces the affine permutation of $\mathbb{R}^{X \times Y}$ defined by $x_{i j}^{\prime}=1-x_{i j}$. This permutation is an affine automorphism of $P_{\mathrm{Bio}}^{X \times Y}$, that we call the complementation automorphism. As a consequence, trivial inequalities (2) of the form $x_{i j} \leqslant 1$ are facet defining. Not much more work is required to show that also axiomatic inequalities define facets. In the last three sections, many more facets of $P_{\text {Bio }}^{X \times Y}$ will be established.

## 3. Automorphisms

Automorphisms of a polytope are also called symmetries. As illustrated in [9, 1] and also at the end of our paper, they can be instrumental in producing new facets of a polytope from known facets. Keeping our notation $|X|=m$ and $|Y|=n$, we determine the symmetry group of the biorder polytope. As $P_{\text {Bio }}^{m \times n}$ and $P_{\text {Bio }}^{n \times m}$ are affinely isomorphic, the following theorem settles all cases.

THEOREM 1. The group $\operatorname{Aut}\left(P_{\mathrm{Bio}}^{m \times n}\right)$ of combinatorial automorphisms of the biorder polytope is isomorphic to

$$
\begin{cases}\mathbb{Z}_{2}^{n} \rtimes \operatorname{Sym}(n) & \text { if } m=1, \\ \mathbb{Z}_{2} \times \operatorname{Sym}(4) & \text { if } m=n=2, \\ \mathbb{Z}_{2}^{n+1} \rtimes \operatorname{Sym}(n) & \text { if } 2=m<n, \\ \mathbb{Z}_{2}^{2} \times \operatorname{Sym}(m) \times \operatorname{Sym}(n) & \text { if } 2<m=n, \\ \mathbb{Z}_{2} \times \operatorname{Sym}(m) \times \operatorname{Sym}(n) & \text { if } 2<m<n .\end{cases}
$$

In all cases, every combinatorial automorphism of $P_{\mathrm{Bio}}^{m \times n}$ is induced by some affine automorphism.

The semidirect product $\rtimes$ in the first case comes from the obvious equality $P_{\text {Bio }}^{1 \times n}=C_{n}$ between the biorder polytope with $m=1$ and the $n$-hypercube $C_{n}$ (both $P_{\mathrm{Bio}}^{1 \times n}$ and $C_{n}$ have as vertices all $0 / 1$-vectors of length $n$, hence we have $\left.\operatorname{Aut}\left(P_{\text {Bio }}^{1 \times n}\right)=\operatorname{Aut}\left(C_{n}\right)\right)$. Moreover, in the third case, we will in fact prove $\operatorname{Aut}\left(P_{\text {Bio }}^{2 \times n}\right) \simeq \mathbb{Z}_{2} \times \operatorname{Aut}\left(C_{n}\right)$.

We delay the proof of Theorem 1 until after the introduction of specific automorphisms plus the proofs of two lemmas. The complementation automorphism of $P_{\mathrm{Bio}}^{X \times Y}$ was used in Section 2. Other easy automorphisms derive from permutations or relabellings of the elements in $X$, resp. $Y$. For any permutations $\alpha$ of $X$ and $\beta$ of $Y$, the linear permutation specified by $x_{\alpha(k) \beta(\ell)}^{\prime}=x_{k l}$ is an affine automorphism of $P_{\text {Bio }}^{X \times Y}$. It is called the relabelling automorphism defined from $\alpha$ and $\beta$.

When $m=n$, we may (in $m$ ! ways) identify $Y$ with $X$. Because the converse of a biorder on $X$ is again a biorder on $X$, the mapping from $\mathbb{R}^{X \times X}$ to itself with $x_{k \ell}^{\prime}=$ $x_{\ell k}$ is an affine automorphism of $P_{\text {Bio }}^{X \times X}$, called a transposition automorphism.

When $m=2 \leqslant n$, the biorder polytope $P_{\text {Bio }}^{2 \times n}$ has still another type of 'obvious' automorphisms. Indeed, for any fixed $j$ in $Y$, consider the mapping with $x_{k \ell}^{\prime}=x_{k \ell}$ when $\ell \neq j$, and $x_{1 j}^{\prime}=1-x_{2 j}, x_{2 j}^{\prime}=1-x_{1 j}$. This mapping, which is an affine automorphism of $P_{\mathrm{Bio}}^{2 \times n}$, is denoted as $\sigma_{j}$.

For $m, n \geqslant 2$ and $(m, n) \neq(2,2)$, the automorphisms we just mentioned generate the group displayed in Theorem 1; thus it remains only to prove that the total number of automorphisms of $P_{\text {Bio }}^{m \times n}$ does not exceed the order of this group. We denote by $J$ the point of $\mathbb{R}^{X \times Y}$ having all coordinates equal to 1 , and call trivial any facet defined by a trivial inequality (2).

LEMMA 2. Any facet of the biorder polytope $P_{\mathrm{Bio}}^{m \times n}$ contains at most half the total number of vertices. Moreover, any facet which contains exactly half the number of vertices is a trivial facet.

Proof. The complementation automorphism of $P_{\text {Bio }}^{m \times n}$ is the central symmetry with respect to the point $\frac{1}{2} J$. If a facet contained more than half the vertices, then the point $\frac{1}{2} J$ would be the midpoint of some two vertices of this facet, which is impossible. The first assertion follows. For the second one, suppose the inequality $c \bullet x \leqslant \delta$ defines a facet containing exactly half of the vertices. The linear form $x \mapsto c \bullet x$ can take only two values on the set of vertices of $P_{\text {Bio }}^{m \times n}$ (one at any vertex of the considered facet, the other at any vertex of the image of this facet by the complementation automorphism). But evaluating this form at the origin $O$, the basis vectors $E_{i j}$ (for $i \in X, j \in Y$ ), and the point $J$, which all are vertices of $P_{\text {Bio }}^{m \times n}$, gives the values $0, c_{i j}$ and $\sum_{i j \in X \times Y} c_{i j}$. Consequently, the form is nothing else than a multiple of $x \mapsto x_{i j}$ for some $(i, j) \in X \times Y$, and the inequality $c \bullet x \leqslant \delta$ is equivalent to a trivial inequality.

LEMMA 3. The trivial facets of the biorder polytope $P_{\text {Bio }}^{m \times n}$ form an orbit for the action of $\operatorname{Aut}\left(P_{\mathrm{Bio}}^{m \times n}\right)$ on the collection of all facets of $P_{\mathrm{Bio}}^{m \times n}$.

Proof. In view of Lemma 2, the orbit of a trivial facet contains only trivial facets. On the other hand, the relabelling automorphisms together with the complementation automorphism show that all trivial facets fall in the same orbit.

Proof of Theorem 1. We set $G=\operatorname{Aut}\left(P_{\text {Bio }}^{m \times n}\right)$. The case with $m=1$ being easy, let us assume from now on $2 \leqslant m \leqslant n$. From Lemmas 2 and 3, we know that all facets of $P_{\text {Bio }}^{m \times n}$ with a maximum number of vertices, that is all trivial facets, form an orbit. Now let us look for vertices contained each in the minimum number of facets. Any vertex belongs to exactly $m \cdot n$ trivial facets. The origin $O$ is a vertex contained in no other facet (because all unit vectors $E_{i j}$ are vertices of $P_{\text {Bio }}^{m \times n}$ ). So, the vertices $O$ and $J$ each minimize the number of facets containing them. Every other minimizing vertex $v$ cannot belong to any axiomatic facet; it must then encode a biorder having all columns equal one to the other, or all rows equal one to the other. In both cases, we get a vertex $v$ such that any vertex of the 0/1hypercube which differs from $v$ in exactly one coordinate is again a vertex of $P_{\text {Bio }}^{m \times n}$. It follows that any facet of $P_{\text {Bio }}^{m \times n}$ containing $v$ is a trivial facet. Denote by $\mathcal{C}$ the set of vertices which encode biorders having all columns equal one to the other, and by $\mathcal{R}$ the set of vertices which encode biorders having all rows equal one to the other. Thus $\mathcal{C} \cup \mathscr{R}$ is a union of orbits for the action of $G=\operatorname{Aut}\left(P_{\text {Bio }}^{m \times n}\right)$ on the set of vertices.

For any vertex $v$ of $P_{\text {Bio }}^{m \times n}$, let $\mathcal{T}(v)$ be the collection of trivial facets containing $v$. If $w$ is also a vertex, set

$$
d(v, w)=\frac{1}{2}|\mathcal{T}(v) \Delta \mathcal{T}(w)|
$$

As trivial facets form an orbit (Lemma 3), both mapping $\mathcal{T}$ and $d$ are invariant under the action of $G$, that is, we have $\mathcal{T}(\alpha(v))=\alpha(\mathcal{T}(v))$ and hence $d(\alpha(v), \alpha(w))$ $=d(v, w)$ for all elements $\alpha$ of $G$. Notice that $d(v, w)$ is nothing else than the number of cells at which the biorders encoded by $v$ and $w$ differ, that is the Hamming distance between the two biorders. The minimum distance $d(v, w)$ of a vertex $v$ in $\mathcal{C} \cup \mathscr{R}$ to another vertex $w$ in $\mathcal{C} \cup \mathscr{R}$ equals (remember $m \leqslant n$ )

$$
\begin{cases}m & \text { if } v \in \mathcal{R},  \tag{5}\\ n & \text { if } v \in \mathcal{C} \backslash\{O, J\} .\end{cases}
$$

When $m<n$, we conclude that both $\mathcal{R}$ and $\mathcal{C} \backslash\{O, J\}$ are unions of orbits. Notice that, in all cases, $\mathscr{R}$ with the distance $d$ has the structure of a hypercube of dimension $n$, and similarly for $\mathcal{C}$ but with dimension $m$. Moreover, each automorphism fixing all vertices in $\mathcal{C} \cup \mathcal{R}$ must fix all vertices, because the following mapping defined on the set of vertices of $P_{\text {Bio }}^{m \times n}$ is injective:
$v \mapsto\{F \cap(\mathcal{C} \cup \mathscr{R}): F$ a trivial facet, with $v \in F\}$.
If $m=2<n$, the relabelling automorphisms of $P_{\text {Bio }}^{X \times Y}$ obtained from the identical permutation on $X$ and all permutations of $Y$, together with the automorphisms $\sigma_{j}$, $j \in Y$, induce on $\mathcal{R}$ the group of the hypercube $C_{n}$. An automorphism fixing all vertices of $\mathcal{R}$ either fixes or exchanges the two vertices of $\mathcal{C} \backslash \mathscr{R}$. Hence, $|G| \leqslant$ $n!\cdot 2^{n} \cdot 2$. In view of the known automorphisms, we have equality here, and the group in the statement results for $2=m<n$. When $2=m=n$, the 14 vertices of
$P_{\text {Bio }}^{2 \times 2}$ are the vertices of a 4-dimensional hypercube minus two opposite vertices, hence the statement is also correct in this case.

Now, if $2<m<n$, we remark that the minimum distance $d(v, w)$ for $v \in$ $\{O, J\}$ and $w \in \mathcal{C} \backslash\{O, J\}$ with $v \neq w$ equals $n$, while if we take $v \in$ $\mathscr{R} \backslash\{O, J\}$ it is more than $n$. Thus $\{O, J\}$ forms an orbit, as well as $\mathscr{R} \backslash\{O, J\}$. As $\mathcal{C}$ with distance $d$ has the structure of a hypercube of dimension $m$ with $O$ and $J$ diametrically opposite vertices, and moreover $\mathcal{C} \cap \mathcal{R}=\{O, J\}$, we derive $|G| \leqslant 2 \cdot m!\cdot n!$. With the known automorphisms, this establishes the statement in case $2<m<n$.

There remains to treat the case $2<m=n$. By counting the other elements of $\mathcal{C} \cup \mathcal{R}$ at distance $m$ from a certain element in $\mathcal{C} \cup \mathscr{R}$, one deduces that $\{O, J\}$ is an orbit, and thus $(\mathcal{C} \cup \mathscr{R}) \backslash\{O, J\}$ is a union of orbits. Notice that, after identification of $X$ and $Y$, the transposition automorphism exchanges $\mathcal{C}$ and $\mathscr{R}$ and fixes both $O$ and $J$. The values of $d$ on $(\mathcal{C} \cup \mathscr{R}) \backslash\{O, J\}$ lead to the conclusion in case $2<m=n$.

## 4. The Minimum Linear Description in Case $m \leqslant 2$

A complete description of the biorder polytope $P_{\mathrm{Bio}}^{m \times n}$ in cases $m \leqslant 2$ or $n \leqslant 2$ will be provided. When $m=1$ or $n=1, P_{\text {Bio }}^{m \times n}$ is a hypercube. The following theorem covers the remaining cases.

THEOREM 4. The biorder polytope $P_{\mathrm{Bio}}^{2 \times n}$, with $2 \leqslant n$, is completely described by the trivial and axiomatic inequalities.

Proof. Let $P^{n}$ be the polytope defined in $\mathbb{R}^{X \times Y}$ by all trivial and axiomatic inequalities. Clearly, we have $P_{\text {Bio }}^{2 \times n} \subseteq P^{n}$. Let us prove that any vertex $v$ of $P^{n}$ belongs to $P_{\text {Bio }}^{2 \times n}$; the equality $P_{\text {Bio }}^{2 \times n}=P^{n}$ follows, and so the thesis also.

A first step is to show that all coordinates of $v$ are $0 / 1$. For the sake of simplicity, we let $X=\{1,2\}$. Fix $j$ in $Y$. Because $v$ is in $P^{n}$, we have $0 \leqslant v_{1 j} \leqslant 1$ and $0 \leqslant v_{2 j} \leqslant 1$. If $0<v_{1 j}<1$ and $0<v_{2 j}<1$, there exists a positive real number $\varepsilon$ with $0<v_{1 j}-\varepsilon<v_{1 j}+\varepsilon<1$ and $0<v_{2 j}-\varepsilon<v_{2 j}+\varepsilon<1$. Then we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
v=\frac{1}{2}\left(v+\varepsilon\left(E_{1 j}+E_{2 j}\right)\right)+\frac{1}{2}\left(v-\varepsilon\left(E_{1 j}+E_{2 j}\right)\right) \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Moreover $v \pm \varepsilon\left(E_{1 j}+E_{2 j}\right)$ belongs to $P^{n}$, because trivial inequalities are satisfied by the choice of $\varepsilon$, and axiomatic inequalities are unchanged. But then Equation (6) is impossible for a vertex, so $v_{1 j} \in\{0,1\}$ or $v_{2 j} \in\{0,1\}$. Using the automorphisms $\sigma_{j}$ from previous section, we may thus assume $v_{1 j} \in\{0,1\}$, for all $j$ in $Y$.

Suppose now that some other coordinate of $v$ is not in $\{0,1\}$. Notice that the axiomatic inequality $x_{1 j}+x_{2 l}-x_{1 \ell}-x_{2 j} \leqslant 1$ can be satisfied with equality only if $v_{2 j}, v_{2 \ell} \in\{0,1\}$ or

$$
v_{1 j}=1, \quad v_{1 \ell}=0, \quad \text { and } \quad 0<v_{2 j}=v_{2 \ell}<1
$$

For some positive $\varepsilon$, define the two points $p$ and $q$ by

$$
\left.\begin{array}{rl}
p_{1 j}=q_{1 j}=v_{1 j} & \text { for all } j \in Y, \\
p_{2 j}=q_{2 j}=v_{2 j} & \text { for all } j \in Y \text { such that } v_{2 j} \in\{0,1\}, \\
p_{2 j}=v_{2 j}+\varepsilon \\
q_{2 j}=v_{2 j}-\varepsilon \\
p_{2 j}=v_{2 j}-\varepsilon \\
q_{2 j}=v_{2 j}+\varepsilon
\end{array}\right\} \quad \text { for all } j \in Y \text { such } v_{1 j}=1 \text { and } 0<v_{2 j}<1, ~ \begin{aligned}
& \text { for all } j \in Y \text { such that } v_{1 j}=0 \text { and } 0<v_{2 j}<1 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Then $\varepsilon$ can be chosen in such a way that $p, q \in P^{n}$. As $v$ is the midpoint of $p$ and $q$, this contradicts the fact that $v$ is a vertex of $P^{n}$. We conclude that all coordinates of $v$ are $0 / 1$. It is then easily checked that $v$ is the characteristic matrix of a biorder, hence belongs to $P_{\text {Bio }}^{2 \times n}$. This completes the proof.

## 5. A General Scheme of Facets

For all pairs $(m, n)$ with $m \geqslant 3$ and $n \geqslant 3$, the biorder polytope $P_{\text {Bio }}^{m \times n}$ has other facets than the trivial and axiomatic ones. As an example, the following inequality defines a facet of $P_{\text {Bio }}^{X \times Y}$ when $\{1,2, \ldots, h\} \subseteq X \cap Y$ and $h \geqslant 1$ (for $h=1$, it is a trivial inequality, and for $h=2$, an axiomatic inequality):

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i=1}^{h} x_{i i}-\sum_{\substack{i, j=1 \\ i \neq j}}^{h}\left(x_{i j}+x_{j i}\right) \leqslant 1 \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

This inequality is called the fence inequality because it is similar to a facet-defining inequality known for the linear ordering polytope $P_{\mathrm{LO}}^{q}$ under the same name [18]. (The fence inequality is not linked to the poset known as a 'fence', but rather to the poset known as the 'standard example' [21]. The link will plainly appear with the general notion of 'graphical inequality' introduced later, in Equation (11).) Similarly as it was shown for $P_{\mathrm{LO}}^{q}$, the fence inequality can be generalized to a very large family of facet-defining inequalities which interestingly relates to 'stabilitycritical graphs'. When investigating the case of $P_{\text {Bio }}^{m \times n}$, we uncover an extension of the classical theory which delivers new facets even for $P_{\mathrm{LO}}^{q}$. The results for $P_{\text {Bio }}^{m \times n}$ are exposed here, while their consequences for $P_{\mathrm{LO}}^{q}$ are collected in Doignon and Fiorini [8].

Before emphasizing a particular scheme of facet-defining inequalities, we record five other isolated examples obtained from the software porta [3]. To display them in inequalities (8)-(10), we make the matrix $c$ explicit in the inequality $c \bullet x \leqslant \delta$ (see the Introduction for the meaning of $\bullet$ ). Notice that the first inequality in (8) is a fence inequality, and that we write + for $+1,-$ for -1 :

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
+ & - & -  \tag{8}\\
- & + & - \\
- & - & +
\end{array}\right) \bullet x \leqslant 1 ; \quad\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
- & + & + \\
+ & - & + \\
+ & + & -
\end{array}\right) \bullet x \leqslant 4
$$

$$
\begin{align*}
& \left(\begin{array}{cccc}
- & - & - & 2 \\
- & + & + & - \\
+ & - & + & -
\end{array}\right) \bullet x \leqslant 3 ; \quad\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
+ & + & + \\
+2 \\
+ & - & - \\
+ \\
- & + & - \\
+
\end{array}\right) \bullet x \leqslant 4  \tag{9}\\
& \left(\begin{array}{ccccc}
+ & + & - & - & - \\
- & 0 & + & - & + \\
0 & - & + & + & -
\end{array}\right) \bullet x \leqslant 3 ; \quad\left(\begin{array}{ccccc}
- & - & + & + & + \\
+ & 0 & - & + & - \\
0 & + & - & - & +
\end{array}\right) \bullet x \leqslant 4 \tag{10}
\end{align*}
$$

Table I. Numbers of facets of $P_{\text {Bio }}^{3 \times n}$ for $3 \leqslant n \leqslant 5$.

| $(m, n)$ | $(2)$ <br> trivial | $(3)$ <br> axiom. | $(8)$ <br> $(c o) f e n c e$ | $(9)$ | $(10)$ | Total <br> $n b$. |
| :--- | :---: | :--- | :--- | :---: | :--- | ---: |
| $(3,3)$ | $9+9$ | 18 | $6+6$ | - | - | 48 |
| $(3,4)$ | $12+12$ | 36 | $24+24$ | $72+72$ | - | 252 |
| $(3,5)$ | $15+15$ | 60 | $60+60$ | $360+360$ | $360+360$ | 1650 |

The above two-by-two grouping reflects the action of the complementation automorphism. For $m=3$ and $n \in\{3,4,5\}$, we know, according to porta, all facet-defining inequalities of $P_{\mathrm{Bio}}^{m \times n}$. Their numbers for all types, as well as the total counts, are provided in Table I (Christophe [4]).

The next proposition (which will be used intensively later) implies that inequalities (7)-(10) remain facet defining for all larger values of $m$ and $n$. In polyhedral combinatorics, it is called a "trivial lifting lemma" (see, e.g., Reinelt [18]).

PROPOSITION 5. Let $c \bullet x \leqslant \delta$ be an inequality on $\mathbb{R}^{X \times Y}$, and let $X \subseteq \bar{X}$, $Y \subseteq \bar{Y}$, with $|\bar{X}|=\bar{m},|\bar{Y}|=\bar{n}$. The following assertions then hold true.
(1) The inequality $c \bullet x \leqslant \delta$ is valid for $P_{\mathrm{Bio}}^{X \times Y}$ iff it is valid for $P_{\mathrm{Bio}}^{\bar{X} \times \bar{Y}}$.
(2) If inequality $c \bullet x \leqslant \delta$ defines a face $F$ of $P_{\text {Bio }}^{X \times Y}$ and a face $\bar{F}$ of $P_{\text {Bio }}^{\bar{X} \times \bar{Y}}$, then $\operatorname{dim} \bar{F}=\bar{m} \cdot \bar{n}-m \cdot n+\operatorname{dim} F$.
(3) The inequality $c \bullet x \leqslant \delta$ is facet defining for $P_{\text {Bio }}^{X \times Y}$ iff it is facet defining for $P_{\text {Bio }}^{\bar{X} \times \bar{Y}}$.
Proof. Assertion (1) derives from the following two easy facts: the restriction to $X \times Y$ of any biorder from $\bar{X}$ to $\bar{Y}$ is again a biorder, and any biorder from $X$ to $Y$ is also a biorder from $\bar{X}$ to $\bar{Y}$.

As assertion (2) follows easily from the case $m=\bar{m}$ and $n=\bar{n}-1$, we may assume $X=\bar{X}$ and $\bar{Y} \backslash Y=\{\bar{y}\}$. With $t=\operatorname{dim} F$, select in $\mathbb{R}^{X \times Y}$ vertices $v_{0}, v_{1}, \ldots, v_{t}$ of $F$ which form an affine basis of $F$. By adding coordinates $x_{i \bar{y}}$ for $i \in X$ having zero values, we obtain vertices $\bar{v}_{0}, \bar{v}_{1}, \ldots, \bar{v}_{t}$ of $\bar{F}$ which are affinely independent. Denoting by $B$ the biorder corresponding to $v_{0}$, select linear orderings $L$ of $X$ and $M$ of $Y$ in such a way that the resulting $0 / 1$-array encoding $B$ is step-like. For any $h \in X$, the relation $B \cup\{(i, \bar{y}): i \in X$ and $i L h\}$ is a biorder from $X$ to $\bar{Y}$. Write $w_{h}$ for the corresponding vertex of $P_{\text {Bio }}^{X \times \bar{Y}}$ and notice $w_{h} \in \bar{F}$.

Furthermore, $\bar{v}_{0}, \bar{v}_{1}, \ldots, \bar{v}_{t}$ together with all these vertices $w_{h}$, for $h \in X$, are affinely independent points. Hence $\operatorname{dim} \bar{F} \geqslant \bar{m} \cdot \bar{n}-m \cdot n+\operatorname{dim} F$. The opposite inequality comes from considering the natural projection $\mathbb{R}^{X \times \bar{Y}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{X \times Y}$.

Assertion (3) is the subcase of assertion (2) with $\operatorname{dim} F=m \cdot n-1$.
In the rest of this paper, we work in the 'square' case, that is $m=n$. Note that, in general, any facet-defining inequality $c \bullet x \leqslant \delta$ can be written with $c_{i j}, \delta \in \mathbb{Z}$ for all $(i, j) \in X \times Y$ (multiplication by a well-chosen factor always makes this true). We will investigate inequalities $c \bullet x \leqslant \delta$ satisfying the following assumption:

WORKING ASSUMPTION. There exists some bijection $f$ from $X$ to $Y$ such that
(1) $c_{i j}, \delta \in \mathbb{Z}$, for $(i, j) \in X \times Y$;
(2) $c_{i j} \in\{-1,0\}$ for all pairs $(i, j)$ in $(X \times Y) \backslash f$;
(3) for $i, j \in X$, we have $c_{i f(j)}=c_{j f(i)}$.

Requirement (2) is a simplifying assumption, motivated by the form of the fence inequality. Requirement (3) means that, after identification of $Y$ to $X$ according to $f$, the transposition automorphism preserves the inequality $c \bullet x \leqslant \delta$. This Working Assumption allows us to strongly generalize techniques which Koppen [13] designed for the linear ordering polytope. In fact, we use the bijection $f$ in order to identify $Y$ with $X$, and then the coefficients $c_{i j}$ to define a weighted graph on $X$ (Koppen considered only non-weighted graphs, see Proposition 13 below).

Our terminology for graphs generally follows Diestel [6]. A weighted graph is a pair $(G, \mu)$ where $G$ is a graph and $\mu$ is a function from the node set $V(G)$ of $G$ to $\mathbb{Z}$; thus a weight is specified for each node of $G$. The worth (or net weight) of a set $S$ contained in $V(G)$ is the difference between the weight $\mu(S)$ of $S$ and the number $\|G[S]\|$ of edges in the subgraph $G[S]$ of $G$ induced on $S$. In particular, the worth of the empty set is zero. If $S$ is of maximum worth, it is tight.

Let $(G, \mu)$ be a weighted graph whose node set $V(G)$ is contained in $X$ (and whose edge set is denoted as $E(G)$ ). The graphical inequality of $(G, \mu)$ is the inequality on $\mathbb{R}^{X \times X}$ which reads

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{v \in V(G)} \mu(v) x_{v v}-\sum_{\{v, w\} \in E(G)}\left(x_{v w}+x_{w v}\right) \leqslant \alpha(G, \mu) \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\alpha(G, \mu)$ is defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha(G, \mu)=\max _{S \subseteq V(G)}(\mu(S)-\|G[S]\|) \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

When $G$ is a complete graph and $\mu=\mathbb{1}$ (the constant mapping with value 1 ), the graphical inequality (11) becomes the fence inequality (7). Note that, below and throughout this article, linear orderings are assumed to be reflexive. Note also that all relations are considered as sets of ordered pairs (so the meaning of statements like "relation $R$ contains relation $R^{\prime \prime}$ should be clear).

PROPOSITION 6. Let $(G, \mu)$ be a weighted graph with $V(G) \subseteq X$. The graphical inequality of $(G, \mu)$ is valid for $P_{\mathrm{Bio}}^{X \times X}$. A vertex $x^{B}$ of $P_{\mathrm{Bio}}^{X \times X}$ belongs to the face $F$ defined by this inequality if and only if the biorder $B$ on $X$ contains some linear ordering $L$ of some tight set of $(G, \mu)$ in such a way that $(i, j) \in B \backslash L$ implies $i \neq j$ and $\{i, j\} \notin E(G)$.

Proof. Let $B$ be a biorder on $X$, and let $U=\{v \in V(G):(v, v) \in B\}$. If $v$ and $w$ are in $U$, then $(v, w)$ or $(w, v)$ belongs to $B$ because $B$ is a biorder. Therefore, the left-hand side of inequality (11) evaluated at the characteristic matrix $x^{B}$ is at most $\alpha(G, \mu)$. This proves the first assertion. Now if $T$ is any tight set of $(G, \mu)$ and $L$ is any linear ordering of $T$, then $x^{L}$ satisfies inequality (11) with equality. The same conclusion remains true if $L$ is replaced with any biorder $B$ as in the statement.

To prove the converse, let $B$ be a biorder such that $x^{B} \in F$, and set again $U=\{v \in V(G):(v, v) \in B\}$. The restriction of $B$ to $U \times U$ is a reflexive biorder $B^{\prime}$. There exists some linear ordering $L$ of $U$ with $L \subseteq B^{\prime}$ (this is better proved by working with the complement relations: any interval order on $U$ can be extended to an irreflexive linear ordering of $U$ ). If some $(i, j) \in B \backslash L$ is such that $\{i, j\} \in E(G)$, then $x^{L}$ gives to the left-hand side of (11) a strictly larger value than $x^{B}$ does, which is impossible because $x^{B}$ satisfies (11) with equality. Consequently, $x^{B}$ and $x^{L}$ give the same value $\alpha(G, \mu)$, and $U$ needs to be a tight set.

We will call a biorder $B$ as in Proposition 6 an elite biorder of (the graphical inequality of) the weighted graph $(G, \mu)$. Note that any linear ordering of any tight set of $(G, \mu)$ is necessarily an elite biorder.

To determine the dimension of the face of $P_{\text {Bio }}^{X \times X}$ defined by the graphical inequality (11), the following tool will prove useful. Given a weighted graph $(G, \mu)$ with $V(G) \subseteq X$, consider one real variable $y_{v}$ for each node $v$ in $V(G)$, and similarly one real variable $y_{\{v, w\}}$ for each edge $\{v, w\}$ in $E(G)$.

The system of $(G, \mu)$ has one equation per tight set $T$ of $(G, \mu)$, namely

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{v \in T} y_{v}+\sum_{\substack{\{v, w\} \in E(G), v, w \in T}} y_{\{v, w\}}=\alpha(G, \mu) \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

In view of the definition of a tight set, the system of $(G, \mu)$ always admits the obvious solution given by $y_{v}=\mu(v)$ and $y_{\{v, w\}}=-1$.

A node of $(G, \mu)$ is called degenerate if its degree and weight both equal zero. An edge is included in a set of vertices if its ends belong to that set.

PROPOSITION 7. Let $(G, \mu)$ be a weighted graph with $V(G) \subseteq X$, such that $G$ has no degenerate node, and moreover any node (resp. edge) is included in some tight set. Denoting by $F$ the face defined by the graphical inequality of $(G, \mu)$ and by $\mathcal{W}$ the affine space of solutions to the system of $(G, \mu)$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{dim} F=m^{2}-1-\operatorname{dim} \mathcal{y} \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. In view of Proposition 5(2), we may assume $V(G)=X$. Notice $\alpha(G, \mu)$ $\neq 0$ follows from our assumption on $(G, \mu)$. Then by geometric considerations, the dimension of $F$ equals $\left(m^{2}-1\right)$ minus the dimension of the solution space $\mathbb{Z}$ of the system in the unknowns $z_{i j}$ for $i, j \in X$ having one equation per elite biorder $B$ of $(G, \mu)$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{(i, j) \in B} z_{i j}=\alpha(G, \mu) \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

This is because the $m^{2}$ variables of the latter system represent the coefficients of a linear equation $z \bullet x=\alpha(G, \mu)$ on $\mathbb{R}^{X \times X}$ satisfied by all vertices on the face defined by the graphical inequality of $(G, \mu)$. It suffices now to show that the affine spaces $y$ and $Z$ have the same dimension. The following two claims about any $z$ from $Z$ will be used for this goal.

CLAIM 1. $z_{i j}=0$ when $i \neq j$ and $\{i, j\} \notin E(G)$.
By assumption, there exists some tight set $T$ containing $i$, thus we have $\{i, j\} \subseteq T$ or $\{i, j\} \cap T=\{i\}$. In the first case, let $B_{1}$ be any linear ordering of $T$ containing pair $(i, j)$ with $j$ immediately after $i$ in $B_{1}$, and let $B_{2}=B_{1} \cup\{(j, i)\}$. Then $B_{1}$ and $B_{2}$ are elite biorders. Write the equations as in Equation (15) for $B_{1}$ and $B_{2}$, and take their difference; this shows $z_{i j}=0$. In the second case, that is $\{i, j\} \cap T=\{i\}$, take any linear ordering $B_{3}$ of $T$ with $i$ as its minimum element, and let $B_{4}=B_{3} \cup\{(i, j)\}$. Again taking the difference of the equations corresponding to two elite biorders, namely $B_{3}$ and $B_{4}$ this time, we infer $z_{i j}=0$.

CLAIM 2. $z_{j i}=z_{i j}$ when $\{i, j\} \in E(G)$.
Take some tight set $T$ containing $\{i, j\}$ and then any linear ordering of $T$ in which $j$ comes immediately after $i$. This linear ordering is an elite biorder $B_{5}$, as well as $B_{6}=\left(B_{5} \backslash\{(i, j)\}\right) \cup\{(j, i)\}$. The difference of the two equations for respectively $B_{5}$ and $B_{6}$ give the claim.

Now define on Z a mapping $g:\left(z_{i j}\right) \mapsto\left(y_{v}, y_{\{v, w\}}\right)$ by

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
y_{v}=z_{v v} & \text { for } v \in V(G)  \tag{16}\\
y_{\{v, w\}}=\left(z_{v w}+z_{w v}\right) / 2 & \text { for }\{v, w\} \in E(G) .
\end{array}
$$

Then $g(\mathbb{Z}) \subseteq \mathcal{y}$. Indeed, for any tight set $T$, consider some linear ordering $B$ of $T$; in view of the two claims above, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{(i, j) \in B} z_{i j}=\sum_{v \in T} y_{v}+\sum_{\substack{\{v, w\} \in E(G), v, w \in T}} y_{\{v, w\}} \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

so both quantities take value $\alpha(G, \mu)$.

Define on $\mathcal{y}$ a mapping $h:\left(y_{v}, y_{\{v, w\}}\right) \mapsto\left(z_{i j}\right)$ by

$$
\begin{align*}
& z_{i i}=y_{i} \quad \text { for } i \in X  \tag{18}\\
& z_{i j}= \begin{cases}y_{\{i, j\}} & \text { if }\{i, j\} \in E(G) \\
0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases} \tag{19}
\end{align*}
$$

Then $h(\mathcal{y}) \subseteq \mathcal{Z}$, as we now show. Let $\left(y_{v}, y_{\{v, w\}}\right) \in \mathcal{Y}$, and set $\left(z_{i j}\right)=h\left(y_{v}, y_{\{v, w\}}\right)$. Given any elite biorder $B$, apply Proposition 6 to it, with $T$ the resulting tight set. Then for these $B$ and $T$, the left-hand members of Equations (13) and (15) take the same value (because of Proposition 6). This shows $h(\mathcal{y}) \subseteq \mathcal{Z}$.

Finally, notice that obviously $g \circ h$ is the identity on $\mathcal{y}$. As both $\mathcal{y}$ and $\mathcal{Z}$ are affine spaces with finite dimensions and both $g$ and $h$ are affine maps, the equality of these dimensions follows.

In Proposition 7 above, the assumption that any edge is contained in some tight set cannot be dispensed with, as testified by ( $K_{3,3}, \mathbb{1}$ ), the bipartite graph on $3+3$ vertices with all weights 1 (we leave to the reader the easy verification that Equation (14) fails).

COROLLARY 8. For any weighted graph $(G, \mu)$ with $V(G) \subseteq X$ and $\alpha(G, \mu) \neq$ 0 , the graphical inequality of $(G, \mu)$ defines a facet of $P_{\mathrm{Bio}}^{X \times \bar{X}}$ if and only if the system of $(G, \mu)$ has no other solution than the obvious one.

Quite naturally in this paper, a weighted graph as in Corollary 8 defines a facet, or is facet defining.

Proof. Assume first that $(G, \mu)$ defines some facet $F$. Any node $v$ must belong to some tight set of $(G, \mu)$, otherwise Proposition 6 implies that $(v, v)$ does not belong to any elite biorder $B$, and so all vertices of $F$ would also satisfy $x_{v v}=0$, which is clearly impossible (because a facet cannot satisfy two linear equations, one with constant term $\alpha(G, \mu) \neq 0$, and one with constant term 0 ). A similar argument shows that any edge is included in some tight set. Now Proposition 7 directly implies that the system of $(G, \mu)$ has only one solution.

To prove the converse, assume the system of $(G, \mu)$ has only one solution. Then clearly any unknown must appear in some equation, so any node or edge is in some tight set. Again, Proposition 7 leads to the desired conclusion, namely that ( $G, \mu$ ) is facet defining.

Although Corollary 8 may first look rather technical, it is quite convenient to establish facets of $P_{\mathrm{Bio}}^{X \times X}$ as illustrated in the following example. Simpler conditions, either necessary or sufficient, for a graph to be facet defining will be established in the next section.

EXAMPLE 9. Take a weighting $\mu: V \rightarrow\{1,2\}$, with at least four elements in $V$ receiving weight 2 and at least one receiving weight 1 . Select in $V$ some element $v_{0}$
of weight 2 , and consider the graph on $V$ in which all vertices are pairwise adjacent, except that $v_{0}$ is nonadjacent to all vertices with weight 1 . Then ( $G, \mu$ ) defines a facet, as we now check by applying Corollary 8 . Straightforward checking shows that $\alpha(G, \mu)=3$. Moreover, any sets $\{u, v\}$ and $\{u, v, w\}$ of vertices satisfying $\mu(u)=\mu(v)=\mu(w)=2$ are tight. This gives in the system of $(G, \mu)$ the equations

$$
\begin{align*}
& y_{u}+y_{v}+y_{\{u, v\}}=3,  \tag{20}\\
& y_{u}+y_{v}+y_{w}+y_{\{u, v\}}+y_{\{v, w\}}+y_{\{w, u\}}=3 . \tag{21}
\end{align*}
$$

By subtracting, we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
y_{w}+y_{\{w, v\}}+y_{\{w, u\}}=0 . \tag{22}
\end{equation*}
$$

Keeping $v$ and $w$ fixed but letting $u$ vary, we conclude that $y_{\{w, u\}}$ is constant. As $v$ and $w$ are arbitrary, we derive that for all distinct vertices $w, u$ of weight 2, the variable $y_{\{w, u\}}$ has some constant value, say $-\lambda$. Going back to Equations (22) and (20), we get $y_{w}=2 \cdot \lambda$ and then $\lambda=1$.

Now for any vertices $u, t$ with $\mu(u)=2, \mu(t)=1$, we see that $\left\{v_{0}, t\right\}\left\{v_{0}, t, u\right\}$ are tight, hence

$$
\begin{align*}
& y_{v_{0}}+y_{t}=3,  \tag{23}\\
& y_{v_{0}}+y_{t}+y_{u}+y_{\left\{v_{0}, u\right\}}+y_{\{t, u\}}=3 . \tag{24}
\end{align*}
$$

As we already know $y_{v_{0}}=y_{u}=2$ and $y_{\left\{v_{0}, u\right\}}=-1$, we derive $y_{t}=1$ and $y_{\{t, u\}}=-1$. Finally, using in a similar way the tight sets $\left\{v_{0}, t\right\}\left\{v_{0}, t, t^{\prime}\right\}$ where $\mu\left(t^{\prime}\right)=1$, we get $y_{\left\{t, t^{\prime}\right\}}=-1$. Thus the only solution is the obvious solution, and therefore by Corollary $8,(G, \mu)$ defines a facet.

## 6. Necessary Conditions \& Sufficient Conditions

We now turn to more tractable conditions for the graphical inequality (11) to define a facet, starting with necessary conditions. Removing any degenerate node from a weighted graph leaves the graphical inequality unchanged. Consequently, it is often convenient to assume that $G$ has no degenerate node. If $G$ has only one node, then inequality (11) is either vacuous or a trivial inequality. If $G$ consists of two nondegenerate nodes, then it follows from Theorem 4 and Proposition 5 that (11) is facet defining if and only if $G$ is complete and $\mu=\mathbb{1}$, in which case (11) is an axiomatic inequality.

If there exist weighted graphs $\left(H_{1}, \lambda_{1}\right)$ and $\left(H_{2}, \lambda_{2}\right)$ both having at least one nondegenerate node and satisfying the three following conditions (in which $\bar{\lambda}_{i}(v)=$ $\lambda_{i}(v)$ if $v \in V\left(H_{i}\right)$ and $\bar{\lambda}_{i}(v)=0$ if $v \in V(G) \backslash V\left(H_{i}\right)$, for $\left.i \in\{1,2\}\right)$ :
(i) $G=H_{1} \cup H_{2}$ and $E\left(H_{1}\right) \cap E\left(H_{2}\right)=\varnothing$,
(ii) $\mu=\bar{\lambda}_{1}+\bar{\lambda}_{2}$,
(iii) $\alpha(G, \mu)=\alpha\left(H_{1}, \lambda_{1}\right)+\alpha\left(H_{2}, \lambda_{2}\right)$,
then we say that $(G, \mu)$ is decomposed into $\left(H_{1}, \lambda_{1}\right)$ and $\left(H_{2}, \lambda_{2}\right)$, and that $(G, \mu)$ is decomposable. In this case, inequality (11) is the sum of two nonvacuous valid inequalities, namely, the graphical inequality of $\left(H_{1}, \lambda_{1}\right)$ and the graphical inequality of $\left(H_{2}, \lambda_{2}\right)$, hence it is not facet defining. This proves the following lemma.

LEMMA 10. Let $(G, \mu)$ be a weighted graph with $V(G) \subseteq X$. If $(G, \mu)$ is decomposable, then $(G, \mu)$ is not facet defining.

Without going into details, we mention that the converse of Lemma 10 does not hold. A counterexample is obtained by putting the constant weight 2 on a graph which has at least 14 vertices and which is the complement of a perfect matching. We now apply Lemma 10 to obtain more concrete conditions which must necessarily be satisfied by facet-defining weighted graphs. In the next proposition, $\mu-e$ denotes the weight function defined by $(\mu-e)(v)=\mu(v)-1$ if $v$ is an end of edge $e$ and $(\mu-e)(v)=\mu(v)$ otherwise. Graph $G$ is said to be $k$-connected if $|G|>k$ and $G-X$ is connected for every vertex set $X$ with less than $k$ vertices.

PROPOSITION 11. Let $(G, \mu)$ be a weighted graph with $V(G) \subseteq X$, having at least three nodes and no degenerate node. If $(G, \mu)$ defines a facet of $P_{\text {Bio }}^{X \times X}$, then the following conditions necessarily hold:
(C1) G is 2-connected;
(C2) for all $e \in E(G)$, we have $\alpha(G-e, \mu)=\alpha(G, \mu)+1$;
(C3) for all $e \in E(G)$, we have $\alpha(G-e, \mu-e)=\alpha(G, \mu)$;
(C4) for all $v \in V(G)$, we have $1 \leqslant \mu(v) \leqslant \operatorname{deg}(v)-1$.
Proof. By contradiction, suppose that $G$ has some vertex $v_{0}$ such that $G-v_{0}$ is not connected. Then $G=H_{1} \cup H_{2}$ for some graphs $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$ with $V\left(H_{1}\right) \cap$ $V\left(H_{2}\right)=\left\{v_{0}\right\}$. Let weightings $\lambda_{1}$ and $\lambda_{2}$ be defined on respectively $V\left(H_{1}\right)$ and $V\left(H_{2}\right)$ as follows, for some integer $\gamma$ with $0 \leqslant \gamma \leqslant \mu\left(v_{0}\right)$ :

$$
\lambda_{1}(v)=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
\mu(v) & \text { if } v \neq v_{0}, \\
\gamma & \text { otherwise }
\end{array} \quad \text { and } \quad \lambda_{2}(v)= \begin{cases}\mu(v) & \text { if } v \neq v_{0} \\
\mu\left(v_{0}\right)-\gamma & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}\right.
$$

For every such $\gamma$, we have $\alpha(G, \mu) \leqslant \alpha\left(H_{1}, \lambda_{1}\right)+\alpha\left(H_{2}, \lambda_{2}\right)$ because the worth of any vertex set $S$ in $(G, \mu)$ equals the sum of the worth of $S \cap V\left(H_{1}\right)$ in $\left(H_{1}, \lambda_{1}\right)$ and the worth of $S \cap V\left(H_{2}\right)$ in $\left(H_{2}, \lambda_{2}\right)$. We claim that we also have $\alpha\left(H_{1}, \lambda_{1}\right)+$ $\alpha\left(H_{2}, \lambda_{2}\right) \leqslant \alpha(G, \mu)$ for some $\gamma$. It suffices to show that for some $\gamma$, there exist tight sets $T_{1}$ and $T_{2}$ of $\left(H_{1}, \lambda_{1}\right)$ and $\left(H_{2}, \lambda_{2}\right)$ respectively such that either $v_{0} \in$ $T_{1} \cap T_{2}$ or $v_{0} \notin T_{1} \cup T_{2}$. Suppose otherwise. Then for each $\gamma$, one of the following cases holds.

Case 1. No tight set of $\left(H_{1}, \lambda_{1}\right)$ contains $v_{0}$ and all tight sets of $\left(H_{2}, \lambda_{2}\right)$ contain $v_{0}$.

Case 2. All tight sets of $\left(H_{1}, \lambda_{1}\right)$ contain $v_{0}$ and no tight set of $\left(H_{2}, \lambda_{2}\right)$ contains $v_{0}$.

Moreover, Case 1 holds for $\gamma=0$ (indeed, if some tight set $T_{1}$ of $\left(H_{1}, \lambda_{1}\right)$ contained $v_{0}$, then $T_{1} \backslash\left\{v_{0}\right\}$ would also be tight). Similarly, Case 2 holds for $\gamma=$ $\mu\left(v_{0}\right)$. So there is some $\gamma_{0}$ such that Case 1 holds for $\gamma=\gamma_{0}$ and Case 2 holds for $\gamma=\gamma_{0}+1$. Note that when $\gamma$ changes from $\gamma_{0}$ to $\gamma_{0}+1$, the value $\alpha\left(H_{2}, \lambda_{2}\right)$ decreases by 1 (otherwise any tight set in $\left(H_{2}, \lambda_{2}\right)$ for $\gamma=\gamma_{0}+1$ is also tight for $\gamma=\gamma_{0}$, a contradiction with the choice of $\gamma_{0}$ ). Now consider any tight set $T$ in $\left(H_{2}, \lambda_{2}\right)$ for $\gamma=\gamma_{0}$. Then $T$ is tight also for $\gamma=\gamma_{0}+1$ because its worth has decreased by 1 , (again) a contradiction with the choice of $\gamma_{0}$. Therefore, the claim holds. It follows that $(G, \mu)$ is decomposable. By Lemma 10, inequality (11) is not facet defining, a contradiction. Consequently, condition (C1) holds.

Let $e=\{a, b\}$ be an edge of $G$. Because the worth of every set of nodes in $(G-e, \mu)$ is at least its worth in $(G, \mu)$ and at most 1 plus its worth in $(G, \mu)$, we have $\alpha(G, \mu) \leqslant \alpha(G-e, \mu) \leqslant \alpha(G, \mu)+1$. If equality holds in the first inequality, then $(G, \mu)$ can be decomposed into the weighted graph formed by edge $e$ with zero weights on the nodes and $(G-e, \mu)$. By Lemma 10, condition (C2) holds. Because the worth of every set of nodes in $(G-e, \mu-e)$ is at least its worth in $(G, \mu)$ minus 1 and at most its worth in $(G, \mu)$, we have $\alpha(G, \mu)-1 \leqslant$ $\alpha(G-e, \mu-e) \leqslant \alpha(G, \mu)$. If equality holds in the first inequality, then $(G, \mu)$ can be decomposed into the weighted graph formed by edge $e$ with unit weights on the nodes and $(G-e, \mu-e)$. By Lemma 10, condition (C3) holds.

Let $v$ be a node of $G$ with $\mu(v) \leqslant 0$. By ( C 1$), G$ is connected, so there is a node $w$ of $G$ adjacent to $v$. By (C2), there exists a tight set $S$ containing both $v$ and $w$. But $S$ cannot be tight because the worth of $S \backslash\{v\}$ is strictly greater than the worth of $S$, a contradiction. Finally, let $v$ be a node of $G$ with $\mu(v) \geqslant \operatorname{deg}(v)$, and let $w$ be any neighbor of $v$. By (C3), there is a tight set $S$ such that neither $v$ nor $w$ belongs to $S$. The worth of $S \cup\{v\}$ is strictly greater than the worth of $S$, a contradiction.

Observe that conditions (C2) and (C3) of Proposition 11 are respectively equivalent to:
( $\mathrm{C}^{\prime}$ ) for all $e \in E(G)$, there is a tight set containing both ends of $e$;
$\left(\mathrm{C} 3^{\prime}\right)$ for all $e \in E(G)$, there is a tight set containing neither end of $e$.
The necessary conditions given in Proposition 11 are not sufficient (as shown by the counterexample described just after Lemma 10). We now provide a manageable sufficient condition for the weighted graph $(G, \mu)$ to be facet defining.

PROPOSITION 12. Let $(G, \mu)$ be a connected weighted graph satisfying $V(G) \subseteq$ $X, 1 \leqslant \mu(v) \leqslant \operatorname{deg}(v)-1$ for every node $v$, and also the following condition: For any nodes $v, w_{1}, w_{2}, \ldots, w_{k}$ with $k=\mu(v)$ and $\left\{v, w_{1}\right\},\left\{v, w_{2}\right\}, \ldots,\left\{v, w_{k}\right\} \in$ $E(G)$, there exists a tight set $T$ containing $v, w_{1}, w_{2}, \ldots, w_{k}$. Then the graphical inequality of $(G, \mu)$ is facet defining for $P_{\text {Bio }}^{X \times X}$.

Proof. Our goal is to apply Corollary 8. Since removing $v$ from $T$ reduces the total weight by $k$ and the number of edges contained in $T$ by $k$, we have that $T \backslash\{v\}$ is also a tight set. The difference of the two equations (13) for $T$ and $T \backslash\{v\}$ gives

$$
\begin{equation*}
y_{v}+y_{\left\{v, w_{1}\right\}}+y_{\left\{v, w_{2}\right\}}+\cdots+y_{\left\{v, w_{k}\right\}}=0 . \tag{25}
\end{equation*}
$$

As $k \leqslant \operatorname{deg}(v)-1$, we can write a similar equation for any other choice of $k$ vertices adjacent to $v$. Taking the difference of two such equations, we derive $y_{\{v, w\}}=$ $y_{\left\{v, w^{\prime}\right\}}$ for any vertices $w, w^{\prime}$ adjacent to $v$. Because the graph $G$ is connected, all variables $y_{\{v, w\}}$ for $\{v, w\} \in E(G)$ must take the same value, say $-\lambda$. Using Equation (25), we now derive $y_{v}=\mu(v) \cdot \lambda$. Finally, Equation (13) gives $\lambda=1$. The conclusion follows from Corollary 8.

The sufficient condition provided in Proposition 12 is not necessary for facetdefiniteness: a counter-example is given by Example 9.

## 7. Applications

Now putting to use the various conditions established so far, we provide two variants of results known for the linear ordering polytope, plus additional findings.

The following proposition is the translation to biorder polytopes of a result on linear ordering polytopes obtained by Koppen [13]. We need some further notions about an unweighted graph $G$. The stability number $\alpha(G)$ of $G$ is the size of the largest stable set in $V(G)$; notice $\alpha(G)=\alpha(G, \mathbb{1})$. The graph $G$ is stability critical if $\alpha(G)>\alpha(G-e)$ for every edge $e$ of $G$ (this is exactly (C2) in the case $\mu=\mathbb{1}$ ). For information and additional references about stability-critical graphs, the reader is refered to Section 7 of Koppen [13]. Notice that our facet-defining graphs generalize stability-critical graphs because of the following proposition. (We mention in passing that another generalization, also linked to facets of a polytope, appears in Lipták and Lovász [15].)

PROPOSITION 13. Let $G$ be a graph with $V(G) \subseteq X$. Then $(G, \mathbb{1})$ is facet defining if and only if $G$ is connected and stability critical.

Proof. If $|G| \leqslant 2$, then the conclusion of the proposition holds (the corresponding facets are either trivial or axiomatic). Now assume $|G| \geqslant 3$. The forward direction follows from Proposition 11 (condition ( C 2 ) is equivalent to $G$ being stability critical). The backward direction follows from Proposition 12, because any edge of $(G, \mathbb{1})$ is contained in some tight set when $G$ is stability critical.

Here are further propositions which can be used to produce additional facetdefining graphs.

PROPOSITION 14. Let $(G, \mu)$ be a weighted graph with $V(G) \subseteq X$ and $\mu \geqslant 1$. Assume some particular node $v_{0}$ satisfies $\mu\left(v_{0}\right)=\alpha(G, \mu)$. Then $(G, \mu)$ is facet defining if and only if the graph $G-v_{0}$ is stability critical and connected.

Proof. The assumption $\mu\left(v_{0}\right)=\alpha(G, \mu)$ has several consequences. First, for $v \in V(G) \backslash\left\{v_{0}\right\}$, we have $\mu(v)=1$ and $\left\{v, v_{0}\right\} \in E(G)$ (otherwise $\left\{v_{0}, v\right\}$ would have a worth greater than $\alpha(G, \mu)$ ). Second, the tight sets of $(G, \mu)$ containing $v_{0}$ are exactly the sets of the form $\left\{v_{0}\right\} \cup S$ with $S=\varnothing$ or $S$ stable in $G-v_{0}$. Those not containing $v_{0}$ (assuming there is at least one such) are exactly the tight sets in $\left(G-v_{0}, \mathbb{1}\right)$. Thus, in the system of $(G, \mu)$, the equations corresponding to tight sets containing $v_{0}$ carry exactly the following information: $y_{v_{0}}=\alpha(G, \mu)=\mu(v)$, and $y_{\left\{v_{0}, v\right\}}=-y_{v}$ for $\left\{v_{0}, v\right\} \in E(G)$. The other equations form exactly the system of the weighted graph $\left(G-v_{0}, \mathbb{1}\right)$. The statement then follows from the application of Corollary 8 to both weighted graphs $(G, \mu)$ and $\left(G-v_{0}, \mathbb{1}\right)$.

The backward direction of the next proposition has an analog for linear ordering polytopes, proved by Leung and Lee [14] and independently by Suck [20]. They proved that the inequality obtained from the fence inequality (7) by multiplying the first term of the left-hand side by $\lambda$ and modifying the right-hand side accordingly defines a facet of the linear ordering polytope provided that we have $1 \leqslant \lambda \leqslant h-2$.

PROPOSITION 15. Let $(G, \mu)$ be a complete weighted graph with at least three nodes and such that $V(G) \subseteq X$. Then $(G, \mu)$ is facet defining if and only if there exists some natural number $m$ such that $1 \leqslant m \leqslant|G|-2$ and $\mu(v)=m$ for all $v$ in $V(G)$.

Proof. To prove the forward implication, let $v_{\max }\left(\right.$ resp. $v_{\min }$ ) be a node at which $\mu$ takes its maximum (resp. minimum) value. By Proposition 11(C3), there exists a tight set $S$ with $v_{\max } \notin S$. Then for any $w$ in $S$, we must have $\mu(w)=\mu\left(v_{\max }\right)$ : otherwise, exchanging $w$ with $v_{\max }$ would increase the worth of the set (because two sets of vertices having the same cardinality contain the same number of edges). Similarly, from Proposition $11(\mathrm{C} 2)$, there exists a tight set $T$ containing $v_{\min }$, and $T$ must contain any node $w$ such that $\mu(w)=\mu\left(v_{\max }\right)$. Thus $S \varsubsetneqq T$.

Now $\mu\left(v_{\max }\right) \leqslant|S|$ (otherwise adding $v_{\max }$ to $S$ would result in a set with strictly higher worth than the tight set $S$ ). Also, $\mu\left(v_{\min }\right) \geqslant|T|-1$ (otherwise deleting $v_{\min }$ from $T$ would give a set with strictly larger worth than $T$ ). Hence $\mu\left(v_{\max }\right) \leqslant \mu\left(v_{\min }\right)$, and $\mu$ is constant. The rest of the conclusion follows from Proposition 11.

To prove the backward direction, assume $\mu$ has constant value $M$. The worth of any $k$-set in $V(G)$ is $k \cdot M-\binom{k}{2}$. Hence, a set of nodes is tight iff it is of cardinality $M$ or $M+1$. So Proposition 12 directly applies and the graphical inequality of $(G, \mu)$ is facet defining.

Propositions 13 and 15 show the usefulness of Proposition 12 for producing facets of the biorder polytope. We now turn to another construction, which is illustrated in Figure 1.

PROPOSITION 16. Let $(G, \mu)$ be a facet-defining weighted graph of which $\{v, w\}$ is an edge, with $|G| \geqslant 3$ and $G$ having no degenerate node. Define a new weighted


Figure 1. Illustration of Proposition 16: the weighted graph $\tilde{G}$, after $K_{4}$ was added to $G$.
$\operatorname{graph}(\tilde{G}, \tilde{\mu})$ by keeping all nodes of $G$ with their weights, making $v$ and $w$ nonadjacent, and inserting a complete graph $K_{p}$ on $p$ vertices with constant weight 1 , where $p \geqslant 2$, and additional edges from the nodes of $K_{p}$ to either $v$ or $w$, in such a way that any node of $K_{p}$ is connected to exactly one of $v$ and $w$, and at least one such node is connected to $v$ and another one to $w$. Then the resulting weighted $\operatorname{graph}(\tilde{G}, \tilde{\mu})$ is facet defining if and only if $(G, \mu)$ is facet defining. In any case, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha(\tilde{G}, \tilde{\mu})=1+\alpha(G, \mu) \tag{26}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. Any subset $S$ of $V(\tilde{G})$ has worth in $(\tilde{G}, \tilde{\mu})$ at most one plus the worth of $S \cap V(G)$ in $(G, \mu)$; moreover, equality can be attained here (for instance by taking any tight set of $(G, \mu)$ containing both $v$ and $w$, which exists by Proposition 11). This establishes Equation (26).

The following three assertions hold true for all vertices $a$ and $b$ of $V\left(K_{p}\right)$ and tight set $T$ of $(G, \mu)$.

1. If $T$ avoids $v$ and $w$, then both sets $T \cup\{a\}$ and $T \cup\{a, b\}$ are tight in $(\tilde{G}, \tilde{\mu})$.
2. If $T$ contains exactly one element in $\{v, w\}$, and if neither $a$ nor $b$ is adjacent to the unique element of $T \cap\{v, w\}$, then both sets $T \cup\{a\}$ and $T \cup\{a, b\}$ are tight in $(\tilde{G}, \tilde{\mu})$.
3. If $T$ contains $v$ and $w$, then both sets $T$ and $T \cup\{a\}$ are tight in $(\tilde{G}, \tilde{\mu})$.

Assume now that the original graph $(G, \mu)$ is facet defining. By Corollary 8 , its system has only the obvious solution. Using the same corollary, we proceed by contradiction to prove that $(\tilde{G}, \tilde{\mu})$ is facet defining. So let $\tilde{y}$ be a solution to the system of $(\tilde{G}, \tilde{\mu})$ which is distinct from the obvious solution. By considering tight sets listed above, it is easy to derive $\tilde{y}_{a}=\tilde{y}_{b}=-\tilde{y}_{\{a, b\}}$ for $a, b \in V\left(K_{p}\right)$, and when $\{v, b\},\{w, a\} \in E(\tilde{G})$ moreover $\tilde{y}_{a}=-\tilde{y}_{\{v, b\}}=-\tilde{y}_{\{w, a\}}$. We next consider two cases.

$$
\begin{align*}
& \text { If } \tilde{y}_{a}=1 \text { for } a \in V\left(K_{p}\right) \text {, we set for } u \in V(G) \\
& \qquad y_{u}=\tilde{y}_{u} \tag{27}
\end{align*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
y_{\{v, w\}}=-1, \quad y_{\{t, u\}}=\tilde{y}_{\{t, u\}} \tag{28}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $\{t, u\} \in E(G) \backslash\{\{v, w\}\}$. Then $y$ is a solution to the system of $(G, \mu)$ which differs from the obvious one, in contradiction to the fact that $(G, \mu)$ is facet defining.

If $\tilde{y}_{a} \neq 1$, we may assume $\tilde{y}_{a}=0$ (because the obvious solution has 1 for its $a$-coordinate). We then set for $u \in V(G)$

$$
\begin{equation*}
y_{u}=\tilde{y}_{u} \frac{\alpha(G, \mu)}{\alpha(G, \mu)+1} \tag{29}
\end{equation*}
$$

and for $\{t, u\} \in E(G)$

$$
y_{\{t, u\}}= \begin{cases}\tilde{y}_{\{t, u\}} \frac{\alpha(G, \mu)}{\alpha(G, \mu)+1}, & \text { if }\{t, u\} \neq\{v, w\},  \tag{30}\\ 0, & \text { if }\{t, u\}=\{v, w\} .\end{cases}
$$

Then $y$ is again a solution to the system of $(G, \mu)$ distinct from the obvious one, a contradiction again.

This completes the proof of sufficiency. The necessary part is done using similar arguments.

More facet-defining graphs will now be derived. Below, the weighting deg $-\mu$ is defined by $(\operatorname{deg}-\mu)(v)=\operatorname{deg}(v)-\mu(v)$. We first show that the worth of a set $S$ of nodes in $(G, \operatorname{deg}-\mu)$ equals the worth of its complement in $(G, \mu)$ minus the worth of $V=V(G)$ in $(G, \mu)$. This is due to the following calculations, where $E(S, V \backslash S)$ denotes the set of edges of $G$ connecting $S$ to $V \backslash S$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
(\operatorname{deg}-\mu)(S)-\|G[S]\| & =\sum_{v \in S} \operatorname{deg}(v)-\mu(S)-\|G[S]\| \\
& =2\|G[S]\|+|E(S, V \backslash S)|-\mu(S)-\|G[S]\| \\
& =\|G\|-\|G[V \backslash S]\|-\mu(S) \\
& =(\mu(V \backslash S)-\|G[V \backslash S]\|)-(\mu(V)-\|G\|) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Consequently, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha(G, \operatorname{deg}-\mu)=\alpha(G, \mu)-(\mu(V)-\|G\|) \tag{31}
\end{equation*}
$$

Moreover, $S \mapsto V \backslash S$ defines a bijection between the tight sets of $(G, \mu)$ and the tight sets of $(G, \operatorname{deg}-\mu)$. This simple observation opens the way to the next proposition. We mention that the similar statement for the linear ordering polytope is apparently new, and reported in Doignon and Fiorini [8].

PROPOSITION 17. For any weighted graph $(G, \mu)$ with at least three nodes and no degenerate node, the two following assertions are equivalent:
(i) $(G, \mu)$ is facet defining;
(ii) $(G, \operatorname{deg}-\mu)$ is facet defining.

Proof. Without loss of generality, we consider $P_{\text {Bio }}^{X \times X}$ with $X=V(G)$ (cf. Proposition 5). It is sufficient to show that (i) implies (ii), so suppose ( $G, \mu$ ) is facet defining. By Corollary 8 , the system of $(G, \mu)$ has only the obvious solution. We now derive the same assertion for the system of ( $G, \operatorname{deg}-\mu$ ).

Because the system of $(G, \mu)$ has a unique solution and $\alpha(G, \mu) \neq 0$, the homogenized system of ( $G, \mu$ ) (with an additional unknown $y_{0}$ ), which reads

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{v \in T} y_{v}+\sum_{\substack{\{v, w \in \in \in(G), v, w \in T}} y_{\{v, w\}}=y_{0} \quad \text { for all tight sets } T \text { of }(G, \mu) \tag{32}
\end{equation*}
$$

has a solution space of dimension 1 . Now consider the linear transformation $f$ of $\mathbb{R}^{V(G) \cup E(G)} \times \mathbb{R}$ defined by

$$
\begin{align*}
& y_{v}^{\prime}=-y_{v}-\sum_{w:\{v, w\} \in E(G)} y_{\{v, w\}},  \tag{33}\\
& y_{\{v, w\}}^{\prime}=y_{\{v, w\}},  \tag{34}\\
& y_{0}^{\prime}=y_{0}-\sum_{v \in V(G)} y_{v}-\sum_{\{v, w\} \in E(G)} y_{\{v, w\}} . \tag{35}
\end{align*}
$$

This transformation $f$ is involutive (that is, $f^{2}=\mathrm{id}$ ), so it is invertible and moreover the expressions of $y_{v}, y_{\{v, w\}}$ and $y_{0}$ as functions of $y_{v}^{\prime}, y_{\{v, w\}}^{\prime}$ and $y_{0}^{\prime}$ are completely similar to Equations (33)-(34) (here $v \in V(G)$ and $\{v, w\} \in E(G)$ ). Now use these expressions to replace $y_{v}, y_{\{v, w\}}$ and $y_{0}$ in the homogenized system of $(G, \mu)$. The solution space of the resulting system must also be of dimension 1 . Because the resulting system is exactly the homogenized system of ( $G$, $\operatorname{deg}-\mu$ ) (and $\alpha(G, \operatorname{deg}-\mu) \neq 0$ ), the system of $(G, \operatorname{deg}-\mu)$ has a unique solution. This concludes the proof.

Proposition 17 generates a fairly large collection of facet-defining inequalities: for instance, it may be applied to any stability-critical graph $G$ with $\mu=\mathbb{1}$. Finally, we mention that applying the complementation automorphism to any facet-defining graphical inequality delivers a facet-defining inequality for $P_{\text {Bio }}^{X \times X}$ (which generally does not satisfy our Working Assumption). Nevertheless, we suspect that the biorder polytope has still many more facets, in a sense which needs to be explained by further investigation. An obvious generalization of the investigation we have reported stems from the replacement, in our Working Assumption, of condition (2) with
(2*) $c_{i j} \in\{\ldots,-2,-1,0\}$ for all pairs $(i, j)$ in $(X \times Y) \backslash f$.

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