# Using graphs for some discrete tomography problems

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#### Abstract

Given a rectangular array where entries represent the pixels of a digitalized image, we consider the problem of reconstructing an image from the number of occurrences of each color in every column and in every row. The complexity of this problem is still open when there are just three colors in the image. We study some special cases where the number of occurrences of each color is limited to small values. Formulations in terms of edge coloring in graphs and as timetabling problems are used; complexity results are derived from the model.

**Keywords** : discrete tomography, complete bipartite graphs, perfect matchings, edge coloring, timetabling

# 1 Introduction

In discrete tomography (see [7] for an overview of theory and applications of this field), the image reconstruction problem is important since its solution is required for developing efficient procedures in image processing, data bases, crystallography, statistics, data compressing, ... It can be formulated as follows : an image of  $(m \times n)$  pixels of p different colors has to be reconstructed. For convenience we consider that there is in addition a color p + 1 which is the ground color. We are given the number a(i, s) of pixels of each color s in each row i and also the number  $\alpha(j, s)$  of pixels of each color s in each column j. Can one reconstruct an image from the a(i, s) and  $\alpha(j, s)$ ? First of all, we are concerned with the consistency problem : given the a(i, s) and  $\alpha(j, s)$ , does there exists an image corresponding to the values a(i, s) and  $\alpha(j, s)$ ? In the case of positive answer, one has to reconstruct

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efficiently such an image. The uniqueness of the solution is essential with respect to tomography, however we shall not deal on this specific issue.

The consistency and reconstruction problems have been extensively studied (see for instance [2],[5],[7],[8]). The main fact resulting from these studies is that the complexity of this reconstruction problem is still open for p = 2. Actually, determining the complexity of this problem is a challenge in discrete tomography.

The purpose of this note is to explore the boundary between easy and difficult problems. Since difficult problems already arise in very simple situations, the solvable cases which we shall describe here are very special.

Here we shall concentrate on the special case where each color s occurs at most once in each row and in each column (except of course the ground color). In section 2, we show that this problem is strongly *NP*-complete even with n = 3 columns by exploiting the analogy with some class-teacher timetabling problems. In the following sections we are deliberately using the language of graphs because many basic results of graph theory provide simple solutions to some of the problems. We will essentially be dealing with complete bipartite graphs. In section 3, we will in particular determine the maximum number of matchings which can be removed in such a way that the remaining graph still has a perfect matching. This will be exploited in the construction process of a solution of our problems. In sections 4 and 5, we will derive some special cases solvable in polynomial time from elementary graph theoretical properties.

For basic definitions about complexity, the reader is referred to [6] and for graph theoretical terms to [1].

# 2 Image reconstruction and timetabling

Let us first formulate the image reconstruction problem RP(m, n, p) as follows : we are given an  $(m \times n)$  array A together with a set of p+1 colors. In addition for each row i (resp. each column j of A) and each color s, a(i, s)(resp.  $\alpha(j, s)$ ) will be the number of occurrences of color s in row i (resp. column j). In RP(m, n, p) we want to know whether there exists or not an assignment of one color to each entry of A which satisfies the requirements for each row i, for each column j and each color s.

For a solution to exist we must necessarily have

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$$\begin{array}{rcl} \sum_{s=1}^{p+1} a(i,s) &=& n & (i=1,\ldots,m) \\ \sum_{s=1}^{p+1} \alpha(j,s) &=& m & (j=1,\ldots,n) \\ \sum_{i=1}^{m} a(i,s) &=& \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha(j,s) & (s=1,\ldots,p+1) \end{array}$$

These conditions are necessary but not sufficient for the existence of a solution to RP(m, n, p).

RP(m, n, p) is polynomially solvable for p + 1 = 2 (see [8]) and the associated consistency problem is strongly NP-complete for p + 1 = 4 (see [2]). The complexity is unknown for p + 1 = 3.

In this paper we shall derive some complexity results for special cases of RP(m, n, p) and we will exhibit some polynomially solvable cases. For this purpose we will exploit the analogy of RP(m, n, p) with some special types of class-teacher timetabling problems.

The problem TIMETABLE(m, p, n) is defined as follows ([4]): we are given a collection of m classes  $c_1, \ldots, c_m$  and a collection of p teachers  $t_1, \ldots, t_p$  together with the  $m \times p$  requirement matrix R whose entry  $r_{is}$ is the number of one-hour lectures which teacher  $t_s$  has to give to class  $c_i$ . In addition we have a set  $H = \{1, \ldots, n\}$  of periods (hours) and for each teacher  $t_s$  a set  $T_s \subseteq H$  which represents the periods where  $t_s$  is available.

Without loss of generality we also assume that the number  $|T_s|$  of periods where teacher  $t_s$  is available is equal to the number  $\sum_{i=1}^{m} r_{is}$  of lectures which  $t_s$  has to give.

In addition, for all classes  $c_i$  we assume that they are available at all periods in H.

TIMETABLE(m, p, n) can be reformulated in the following way : we associate an  $(m \times n)$  array A and define for each teacher  $t_s$  and each class  $c_i$ ,  $a(i, s) = r_{is}$ . Similarly for each teacher  $t_s$  and each period j we define  $\alpha(j, s) = 1$  if  $j \in T_s$  or 0 else. A feasible timetable is an assignment of each lecture  $(c_i, t_s)$  to some period  $j \in T_s$  in such a way that no teacher (and no class) is involved in two lectures simultaneously; assigning a lecture  $(c_i, t_s)$ to some period  $j \in T_s$  consists in setting  $A_{ij} = s$ ; this amounts to giving color s to entry (i, j) of array A. This will be possible only if  $\alpha(j, s) = 1$  $(t_s$  available at period j) and if  $a(i, s) = r_{is} \ge 1$ . Color s will occur exactly once in column j  $(t_s$  is involved in one lecture in period  $j \in T_s$ ).

Furthermore since each class  $c_i$  is involved in at most one lecture at a time (with some teacher, say  $t_s$ ) we will assign at most one color s to each entry of A. In addition the number of occurrences of  $t_s$  in row i will be  $a(i, s) = r_{is}$ .

The ground color of RP(m, n, p) corresponds to idle periods for classes; more precisely,  $a(i, p+1) = n - \sum_{s=1}^{p} a(i, s), i = (1, ..., m)$ , is the number of periods where class *i* has no lecture and  $\alpha(j, p+1) = m - \sum_{s=1}^{p} \alpha(j, s), j = (1, ..., n)$ , is the number of classes having no lecture at period *j*.

Then we have a one-to-one correspondence between timetables and solutions of RP(m, n, p) where the values  $\alpha(j, s)$  are restricted to 0 or 1 ( $s \leq p$ ). Since timetabling problems have been rather extensively studied, we may exploit the analogy with RP(m, n, p) to derive some complexity results.

A color s will be called *unary* if in RP(m, n, p) we have  $a(i, s) \in \{0, 1\}$  and  $\alpha(j, s) \in \{0, 1\}$  for each row i and for each column j.

RPU(m, n, p) will be the problem RP(m, n, p) where colors  $1, \ldots, p$  are unary (while color p + 1 may not be unary).

### **Proposition 1** RPU(m, n, p) is strongly NP-complete even if n = 3

**Proof :** It is known that TIMETABLE(m, p, n) is NP-complete even if n = |H| = 3 and  $r_{is} \in \{0, 1\}$  for each class  $c_i$  and each teacher  $t_s$  (see [4]). From the correspondence between timetables and solutions of RP(m, n, p)we deduce that RP(m, n = 3, p) is strongly NP-complete. Since a(i, s) = $r_{is} \in \{0, 1\}$  the result follows for RPU(m, n = 3, p).

So RPU(m, n = 3, p) is difficult even if array A has three columns. Observe also that each color s occurs at most three times in A. Now, we may examine the case where each one of the p unary colors occurs at most twice: the number n(s) of occurrences of each color s satisfies  $n(s) \leq 2$ . In fact, we can consider a slightly more general case than the one where n = 3.

#### **Proposition 2** RP(m, n, p) with

- 1.  $\sum_{i=1}^{m} a(i,s) \le 2$  s = 1, ..., p
- 2.  $0 \le \alpha(j, s) \le 1$  j = 1, ..., m, s = 1, ..., p

can be solved in polynomial time.

**Proof :** This situation corresponds to a timetable problem where each teacher has to give at most two lectures. As before we assume that each teacher  $t_s$  is available during  $|T_s| = \sum_i r_{is} = \sum_i a(i, s)$  periods. Here we allow  $a(i, s) = r_{is}$  to be 2, which means that teacher  $t_s$  gives two lectures at the same class  $c_i$ . Such a teacher has thus a unique timetable. It is also the case for teachers  $t_s$  with  $\sum_{i=1}^m a(i, s) = 1$ . We start by constructing the timetable of all such teachers  $t_s$  with a(i, s) = 2 or with  $\sum_{i=1}^m a(i, s) = 1$ . Then, if no conflict has occurred, we are facing a special timetable problem with "binary teachers" which can be solved in polynomial time (see [4]) by reduction to a 2 - SAT problem.

#### Remark

One may observe that in *TIMETABLE* when the requirement matrix  $R = (r_{is})$  satisfies  $r_{is} \in \{0, 1\}$ , we may interchange the role of the set H of periods and the set C of classes.

It is easy to see that there is a feasible timetable for the first problem if and only if there is one for the second one.

Hence we could observe (see [4]) :

TIMETABLE(m, p, n) is NP-complete even if m = 3 and  $r_{is} \in \{0, 1\}$  for each class  $c_i$  and each teacher  $t_s$ .

It is interesting to observe that this exchange is generally not possible when  $r_{is} \notin \{0, 1\}$ .

We shall next discuss some solvable cases of RPU by exploiting the analogy with timetabling and by using an edge coloring formulation.

## **3** Graph theoretical formulation

From now on, we will use graph theoretical formulations in order to derive other properties. We will have a complete bipartite graph  $G = K_{m,n}$  based on two sets of nodes R, S with sizes m and n. Each edge [i, j] of  $K_{m,n}$ corresponds to entry (i, j) in row i and column j of the  $(m \times n)$  array A. We will assume  $m \leq n$  unless otherwise stated.

We can interpret the image reconstruction problem in array A as follows: the entries of color s in A correspond to a subset  $B_s$  of edges (a partial subgraph of  $K_{m,n}$ ) such that  $B_s$  has a(i,s) edges adjacent to node i of Rand  $\alpha(j,s)$  edges adjacent to node j of S. We have to find a partition  $B_1, B_2, ..., B_{p+1}$  of the edge set of  $K_{m,n}$  where each  $B_s$  satisfies the above degree requirements.

Clearly, having obtained such a partition of the edge set of  $K_{m,n}$  we can trivially derive the solution of the image reconstruction problem.

It is known that there exists an edge coloring of  $K_{m,n}$  (no two adjacent edges may have the same color) using n colors;  $n = \Delta(G)$  is the maximum degree of G. This is a consequence of the König theorem (see [1]).

Each color class is a matching (a set of nonadjacent edges) saturating all m nodes in the first set of nodes. If m = n each color class is a *perfect* matching (i.e. a matching saturating all nodes). So  $K_{n,n}$  contains n disjoint perfect matchings; this property will be used later. One notices also that in such a case these matchings can be constructed in polynomial time (see [1]).

We also recall the König-Hall theorem which states that in a bipartite graph G = (R, S, E) built on two subsets R, S of nodes, there exists a

matching saturating all nodes of R if and only if, for any q, every subset of q nodes of R is linked to at least q nodes of S.

This result will be used for instance in designing a sequential edgecoloring procedure.

In the case where all colors (except possibly the last one) are unary, the entries of array A corresponding to a fixed color are represented by a matching M in  $G = K_{m,n}$ .

If we try to apply a sequential algorithm which constructs the color classes one after other, we have at each step the following situation :

we are given a complete bipartite graph  $K^s$  built on the sets  $R^s, S^s$  of nodes where color s must occur on exactly one edge at each node. In the graph  $|R^s| = |S^s|$  (otherwise no solution exists) and there are s - 1 partial matchings  $M_1, M_2, \ldots, M_{s-1}$  corresponding to the edges already colored with colors  $1, 2, \ldots, s - 1$  respectively.

The following question arises naturally : when is it possible to find in  $K^s$  a perfect matching  $M_s$  such that  $M_s \cap M_w = \emptyset$  for  $w = 1, \ldots, s - 1$ ?

In case such an  $M_s$  can be found, the matchings  $M_1, \ldots, M_{s-1}$  can be kept as such.

Before answering this question, we shall give a more general statement which will suggest a sequential coloring procedure.

The number n(s) of occurrences of any color s in RPU(m, n, p) is  $n(s) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} a(i, s) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha(j, s)$ . Clearly in  $K^s$  we must have  $|R^s| = |S^s| = n(s)$ .

**Proposition 3** Consider a problem RPU(m, n, p) and assume that a solution has been found for colors 1, 2, ..., s - 1 with s - 1 < p. Then a solution can be found for colors 1, 2, ..., s (without modifying colors 1, 2, ..., s - 1) if  $n(s) \ge 2s - 2$ .

**Proof**: Let  $G^s$  be the bipartite graph built on node sets  $R^s, S^s$  associated with rows i (resp. columns j) for which a(i, s) = 1 (resp.  $\alpha(j, s) = 1$ ).

 $G^s$  is obtained by removing the edges of matchings  $M_1, M_2, \ldots, M_{s-1}$  corresponding to the first s-1 colors. We have the following facts :

In  $G^s$  every node has at most s - 1 non neighbours in the other set; so it has at least  $n(s) - (s - 1) \ge s - 1$  neighbours. Consider a subset B of nodes in  $R^s$ . If  $|B| \le s - 1$ , then the set N(B) of neighbours of B satisfies  $|N(B)| \ge s - 1 \ge |B|$ . If  $|B| \ge s$ , then every node in  $S^s$  has a neighbour in B so  $N(B) = |S^s| = n(s) \ge |B|$ .

Since for any subset B of  $\mathbb{R}^s$ , we have  $|N(B)| \ge |B|$ , it follows from the theorem of König-Hall that  $G^s$  has a perfect matching  $M_s$ . It defines the assignment of color s.

**Proposition 4** The largest number of arbitrary disjoint matchings  $M_i$  whose edges can be consecutively removed from a complete bipartite graph  $K_{n,n}$  in such a way that the remaining graph G' still has a perfect matching is  $q = \lceil \frac{n-1}{2} \rceil$ .

**Proof**: One verifies immediately that for  $t = \lceil \frac{n-1}{2} \rceil + 1 = \lceil \frac{n+1}{2} \rceil$  there exists disjoint matchings  $M_1, \ldots, M_t$  such that G' has no perfect matching. Take for  $M_1 \cup \ldots \cup M_t$  the complete subgraph  $K_{t,t}$  of  $K_{n,n}$  constructed on the first t nodes of the left set and on the first t nodes of the right set.

Then in G' the first  $t = \lceil \frac{n+1}{2} \rceil$  nodes of the left set are linked only to the last  $\lfloor \frac{n-1}{2} \rfloor$  nodes of the right set. Since  $t > \lfloor \frac{n-1}{2} \rfloor$  it follows from the theorem of König-Hall that there is no perfect matching in G'.

On the other hand, it follows from Proposition 3 that we may remove  $s - 1 \leq \lfloor \frac{n-1}{2} \rfloor$  matchings : this is possible since in G' we have  $n = n(s) \geq 2s - 1$  (n odd) or  $n = n(s) \geq 2s - 2$  (n even).

#### Remark

An 'inverse' problem consisting of finding in a bicolored complete bipartite graph a perfect matching M containing a given number of edges of each color has been handled in [9]; it can be solved in polynomial time.

We can also mention the following consequence:

**Corollary 1** Assume that in RPU(m, n, p) we have  $n(1) \ge 1, n(2) \ge 2, ..., n(s) \ge 2s - 2, ..., n(p) \ge 2p - 2$ . Then RPU(m, n, p) has a solution. It can be obtained by constructing consecutively p perfect matchings of sizes n(1), ..., n(p) in the corresponding graphs.

We do not know whether for a fixed number of unary colors the problem RPU(m, n, p = k) is solvable in polynomial time; as mentioned earlier for p = 3 arbitrary colors (non unary), RP(m, n, p = 3) is however NP-complete.

We shall examine the case of  $p \leq 3$  unary colors in section 4.

One should finally observe that Corollary 1 has an interpretation in terms of timetabling which is apparently original.

Assume we have a class-teacher timetabling problem where each teacher  $t_s$  is available during a set  $T_s \subseteq H$  of periods and  $|T_s| = \sum_i r_{is} = n(s)$  with  $r_{is} \in \{0, 1\}$ . If the number n(s) of lectures that teacher  $t_s$  has to give satisfies  $n(s) \geq 2s - 2$  for each teacher  $t_s$ , then there always exists a feasible timetable.

## 4 Case of 2 or 3 unary colors

In this section, we deal with the case where there are at most 3 unary colors  $(a(i,s) \leq 1, \alpha(i,s) \leq 1)$  in addition to the ground color. Notice that a unary color may occur up to min $\{m, n\} = m$  times in the array.

**Proposition 5** RPU(m, n, p = 2) is solvable if and only if we do not have n(1) = n(2) = 1 and a pair (i, j) with  $a(i, 1) = a(i, 2) = \alpha(j, 1) = \alpha(j, 2) = 1$ .

**Proof**: Clearly if we are in the bad case there is no solution since entry [i, j] should receive at the same time color 1 and color 2.

Let us see that in all other cases a solution can be found : if n(1) = n(2) = 1 and  $a(i,1) \neq a(i,2)$  or  $\alpha(j,1) \neq \alpha(j,2)$  for some pair i,j, then obviously colors 1, 2 will have to be assigned to different entries and this is possible.

Assume now that  $1 \le n(1) \le n(2)$  (with  $n(2) \ge 2$ ). Then there is a solution from Corollary 1.

We consider now the problem RPU(m, n, p = 3) and assume  $n(1) \le n(2) \le n(3)$ .

If  $n(2) \ge 2$  and  $n(3) \ge 4$ , there is a solution from Corollary 1.

If  $n(2) \leq 1$ , then  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  are uniquely determined and it is immediate to verify whether a solution exists.

The only remaining case is  $2 \le n(2) \le n(3) \le 3$ . When n(3) = 3, we consider the graph  $K^3$  built on node sets  $R^3, S^3$  (they are the nodes which must be adjacent to one edge of color 3). Consider  $E^* = (M_1 \cup M_2) \cap E(K^3)$ ; if  $E^*$  contains a square, then in the remaining graph  $K^3 - (M_1 \cup M_2)$  it will not be possible to construct a perfect matching  $M_3$ . But unless n(1) = n(2) = 2 a square in  $E^*$  can be removed by choosing a different matching  $M'_2$ . If there is no square in  $E^*$ , a perfect matching can always be constructed.

Finally when n(3) = 2, we also have n(2) = 2 and it is immediate to determine whether a solution exists.

Hence we have shown :

**Proposition 6** RPU(m, n, p = 3) can be solved in polynomial time.

## 5 Some non unary cases

We shall first examine here the case where each color  $s \leq p$  satisfies  $a(i, s), \alpha(j, s) \in \{0, 2\}$  for each row *i* and each column *j*. Such a color will be called binary.

As before the number of occurrences of color s is  $n(s) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} a(i, s) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha(j, s)$ . We shall assume in addition that  $n(1) \leq n(2) \leq \cdots \leq n(p)$ . The corresponding problem will be denoted by RPB(m, n, p).

Let us examine the case when there are p = 2 such colors.

Before stating the results on this case, we need the following lemma. We recall the reader that a k-factor in a graph G is a subset F of edges such that each node of G is adjacent to k edges of F. So a 1-factor is a perfect matching and a 2-factor is a union of node disjoint cycles which meets all nodes.

**Lemma 1** Let C be a cycle in  $K_{n,n}$  (with  $n \ge 3$ ), then the smallest k for which there is a k-factor containing C is k = 2 if  $|C| \ne 2(n-1)$  or k = 3 else.

**Proof :** Here |C| is the number of edges (or equivalently of nodes) in C; if |C| = 2(n-1) it means that C visits all but two nodes of  $K_{n,n}$ . In such a case clearly one cannot find a 2-factor containing C. Let us show how to find a 3-factor F which contains all edges of C; let R = 1, 2, ..., n and  $S = \overline{1}, \overline{2}, ..., \overline{n}$  be the left set and the right set of nodes of  $K_{n,n}$ ; if n = 3, we take all edges of  $K_{3,3}$  to get F. If  $n \ge 4$ , we assume that C uses edges  $[1, \overline{1}], [2, \overline{2}], ..., [n-1, \overline{n-1}], [1, \overline{n-1}], [2, \overline{3}], ..., [n-1, \overline{n-2}]$ . There exists a perfect matching  $M = \{[1, \overline{2}], [2, \overline{3}], ..., [n-1, \overline{n}], [n, \overline{1}]\}$  disjoint from C. We replace in M edge  $[1, \overline{2}]$  by edges  $[n, \overline{2}], [1, \overline{n}]$  and  $[n, \overline{n}]$ . These edges form a 3-factor with the edges of C.

Assume now that  $|C| \neq 2(n-1)$ ; clearly, if |C| = 2n, it is a 2-factor, so F = C. If |C| = 2(n-q) with  $q \ge 2$ , there are q nodes in R and q nodes in S which are not visited by C; we construct a cycle C' on these 2q nodes. Then,  $F = C \cup C'$  is the required 2-factor.

We notice that, in order to have solutions of RPB(m, n, p = 2) we must have  $n(1) \ge 4$ . We will consider the complete bipartite graph  $K^s$  built on the sets  $R^s$  (resp.  $S^s$ ) of nodes corresponding to rows i with a(i, s) = 2(resp. to columns j with  $\alpha(j, s) = 2$ ) for s = 1, 2. Clearly  $|R^s| = |S^s|$ . We shall assume w.l.o.g.  $|R^1 \cap R^2| \ge |S^1 \cap S^2|$ .

**Proposition 7** If we are in one of the following cases:

- $$\begin{split} & 1. \ n(1) = n(2) = 4 \ : \ R^1 \cap R^2 \neq \emptyset, \ S^1 \cap S^2 \neq \emptyset \\ & 2. \ 4 \leq n(1) \leq n(2) = 6 \ : \ R^1 \subseteq R^2, \ S^1 \cap S^2 \neq \emptyset \end{split}$$
- 3. n(1) = 6, n(2) = 8 :  $R^1 \subseteq R^2, S^1 \subseteq S^2$

then RPB(m, n, p = 2) has no solution.

**Proof**: For cases 1 and 2 one takes in  $K^1$  a 2-factor  $M_1$  and one verifies immediately that there are not enough edges in  $K^2$  for constructing a 2-factor corresponding to color 2.

In case 3, consider any 2-factor built in  $K^1$ ; it consists of a cycle C of length 6. From the assumption, C is a cycle of  $K^2$  which meets all but two nodes of the graph. From lemma 1, there is no 2-factor of  $K^2$  containing C. Since the assignment of color 2 will correspond to a 2-factor in  $K^2$ , a necessary and sufficient condition of existence of a solution for RPB(m, n, p = 2) in this case is that the edge set of  $K^2$  be decomposable into two disjoint 2-factors F, F' with  $F \supseteq C$ . Since no such pair F, F' can be found, the problem has no solution.

**Proposition 8** RPB(m, n, p = 2) has a solution if and only if we are not in the cases of proposition 7. It can be found in polynomial time.

**Proof**: It is obvious that if  $R^1 \cap R^2 = \emptyset$  or  $S^1 \cap S^2 = \emptyset$  a solution exists since the edge sets of  $K^1$  and  $K^2$  are disjoint. From now we assume that  $R^1 \cap R^2 \neq \emptyset$  and  $S^1 \cap S^2 \neq \emptyset$ ; we also suppose that  $n(2) \ge 6$  (if not we are in the case 1 of Proposition 7).

We show that if it exists a solution for an instance I of RPB(m, n, p = 2)for which  $|R^1 \cap R^2| = k$ , then there is a solution for every instance  $\bar{I}$  of RPB(m, n, p = 2) defined as follows :  $R^2 = \bar{R}^2, S^2 = \bar{S}^2, S^1 = \bar{S}^1$  and  $|R^1| = |\bar{R}^1|, |\bar{R}^1 \cap R^2| = k - 1$  and  $|\bar{R}^1 \triangle R^1| = 2$ . Let r be the node such that  $r \in \bar{R}^1, r \notin R^1$  and let x be the node such that  $x \notin \bar{R}^1, x \in R^1$ . Let [x, a] and [x, b] the two edges colored with the first color in the solution of I: replacing [x, a] and [x, b] with [r, a] and [r, b] we obtain a 2-factor which gives a solution for  $\bar{I}$ .

So it remains only to consider the cases where  $R^1 \subseteq R^2$  and  $S^1 \subseteq S^2$ . From Lemma 1 we have a solution when  $n(1) + 4 \leq n(2)$ . When  $n(1) + 2 = n(2), n(1) \geq 8$ , the 2-factor of  $K^1$  consists in a collection of  $C_4$  (cycle of length four) and at most one  $C_6$  (cycle of length six). We have to distinguish 2 cases :

a)  $n(1) \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ , then the 2-factor of  $K^1$  is a collection of  $C_4$ ; the construction of the 2-factor of  $K^2$  is given in Figure 1.

b)  $n(1) \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$ , then the 2-factor of  $K^1$  is a collection of  $C_4$  with an additional  $C_6$ ; the construction of the 2-factor of  $K^2$  is given in Figure 2.



Figure 1 : the 2-factor of  $K^1$  is a collection of  $C_4$ 

**Corollary 2** RPB(m, n, p = 2) has a solution if  $n(2) \ge 10$ .

For RPB(m, n, p) we can derive sufficient condition for solutions to exist from proposition 4.

**Proposition 9** RPB(m, n, p) has a solution if the number of occurrences of each color s satisfies  $n(s) \ge 8s - 4$ , s = 1, ..., p. Moreover, such a solution can be constructed by sequentially assigning colors 1, ..., p.

**Proof :** This follows from Proposition 3 by observing that RPB(m, n, p) corresponds to a problem RPU(m, n, 2p) defined as follows; for every color s we do the following : for every row i of RPB with a(i, s) = 2 we set a'(i, s) = 1 = a'(i, p + s) in RPU and for every column j of RPB with  $\alpha(j, s) = 2$  we set  $\alpha'(j, s) = 1 = \alpha'(j, p + s)$ . Clearly every solution of RPU will produce a solution of RPB by identifying colors s and s + p. Since the condition of RPB implies that the RPB satisfies the condition of Proposition 3, the result follows.

#### Remark

The above result is in some sense best possible. It is indeed worth observing that such a construction would not work for 3p colors, i.e., when  $a(i,s), \alpha(i,s) \in \{0,3\}$  for all i, j, s. The reason is that in  $K_{2,2}$  if  $M_1$  is an arbitrary perfect matching, any edge  $e \notin M_1$  can be extended to a perfect matching  $M_2$  with  $M_1 \cap M_2 = \emptyset$ , while in  $K_{3,3}$  if we have a perfect matching



Figure 2 : the 2-factor of  $K^1$  is a collection of  $C_4$  and one  $C_6$ 

 $M_1$ , a pair  $e_1, e_2$  of edges not in  $M_1$  may not always be extended to a perfect  $M_2$  (with  $M_1 \cap M_2 = \emptyset$ ).

Finally we shall deal with a case related to timetabling problems : a(i, s) being the number of lectures that teacher  $t_s$  has to give to class  $c_i$ , it is generally a nonnegative integer  $r_{is}$ ;  $\alpha(j, s)$  represents however the availability of teacher  $t_s$  at period j. It is therefore either 1 or 0 for each teacher.

We shall say that a color s is semi-unary if  $\alpha(j,s)$  is 0 or 1 for any column j or a(i,s) is 0 or 1 for any row i.

RPSU(m, n, p) will be the problem RP(m, n, p) where all p colors (except the ground color p + 1) are semi-unary. Then we can state :

## **Proposition 10** RPSU(m, n, p = 2) is solvable in polynomial time.

**Proof**: Consider the complete bipartite graph  $\hat{K}$  constructed on nodes sets  $\hat{R} = \{\text{rows } r_i \text{ with } a(i,1) + a(i,2) > 0\}$  and  $\hat{S} = \{\text{columns } c_j \text{ with } \alpha(j,1) + \alpha(j,2) > 0\}$ ; first we construct a subgraph  $\hat{G}$  with degrees  $d(r_i) = a(i,1) + a(i,2) \forall r_i \in \hat{R}$  and  $d(c_i) = \alpha(j,1) + \alpha(j,2) \forall c_i \in \hat{S}$ .

If no such  $\hat{G}$  can be found, then clearly RPSU(m, n, p = 2) has no solution; such a construction is a maximum flow problem.

If such a  $\hat{G}$  can be found, then we show that in all cases a solution can be derived. We have to assign a color 1 or 2 to each one of its edges. We first construct an assignment of colors which satisfies the requirements in  $\hat{S}$ , i.e., we have  $\alpha(j, s)$  edges of color s at node  $c_j$  (s = 1, 2). This can be done by coloring sequentially the edges of  $\hat{G}$ .

If this assignment satisfies also the requirements in  $\hat{R}$ , i.e., we have a(i, s) edges of color s at node  $r_i$  (s = 1, 2), then we are done.

Otherwise there is a node  $r_i \in \hat{R}$  with  $d^1(r_i) > a(i,1)$  edges of color 1 and a node  $r_h \in \hat{R}$  with  $d^2(r_h) > a(h,2)$  edges of color 2. Notice that necessarily  $h \neq i$ .

If there exists, in K, an alternating chain C starting at  $r_i$  with an edge of color 1 and ending at  $r_h$  with an edge of color 2, we can exchange the colors in C and we have improved the coloring.

Assume there is no such chain. Then there exists an edge  $[r_i, c_j]$  of color 1 and an edge  $[r_h, c_k]$  of color 2;  $c_j \neq c_k$  (otherwise  $[r_i, c_j], [r_h, c_k]$  would be an alternating chain from  $r_i$  to  $r_h$ ).

Edge  $[r_h, c_j]$  of K cannot have color 2 (it would form an alternating chain from  $r_i$  to  $r_h$ ); it cannot have color 1 : since  $c_j$  already has an edge of color 1 we would have  $\alpha(j, 1) \geq 2$ . Since color 1 is semi-unary, we should have  $a(h, 1) \leq 1$ , but we have  $d^2(r_h) > a(h, 2)$ ; since  $d^1(r_h) + d^2(r_h) = a(h, 1) + a(h, 2)$ , we have  $d^1(r_h) < a(h, 1) \leq 1$ , i.e.  $d^1(r_h) = 0$ , which is a contradiction with the assumption that  $[r_h, c_j]$  has color 1. Hence  $[r_h, c_j]$  has no color.

For similar reasons  $[r_i, c_k]$  can have neither color 1 nor color 2; so it is uncolored.

Now removing the colors of  $[r_i, c_j]$ ,  $[r_h, c_k]$  and giving colors 2 and 1 to  $[r_i, c_k]$  and  $[r_h, c_j]$  respectively, we get an improved coloring at  $r_i$  and at  $r_h$  without deteriorating it at the other nodes.

Repeating this procedure as long as the requirements are not satisfied in  $\hat{R}$  will give us the required coloring.

## 6 Final remarks

Our purpose was to explore the neighborhood of some open problems in discrete tomography. After having observed that the problem with unary colors and n=3 is NP-complete, we have exhibited several special cases which are solvable in polynomial time.

To obtain these results, we have exploited analogies with some timetabling and graph theoretical problems. As a byproduct we have derived some propoerties of complete bipartite graphs.

We have examined some solvable cases of the problems RPU(m, n, p), RPB(m, n, p) and RPSU(m, n, p). With similar tools one could examine also RPU(m, n, p = 4) and RPB(m, n, p = 3), but it would lead to tedious case analyses. The question arises to know whether these problems can be solved in polynomial time for a fixed number p = k of colors. Further research is needed in this area; its results will be useful at the same time for timetabling purposes.

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