## ORIGINAL PAPER

# A note on the eternal dominating set problem 

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Accepted: 30 April 2018 / Published online: 8 May 2018
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#### Abstract

We consider the "all guards move" model for the eternal dominating set problem. A set of guards form a dominating set on a graph and at the beginning of each round, a vertex not in the dominating set is attacked. To defend against the attack, the guards move (each guard either passes or moves to a neighboring vertex) to form a dominating set that includes the attacked vertex. The minimum number of guards required to defend against any sequence of attacks is the "eternal domination number" of the graph. In 2005, it was conjectured [Goddard et al. (J. Combin. Math. Combin. Comput. 52:169-180, 2005)] there would be no advantage to allow multiple guards to occupy the same vertex during a round. We show this is, in fact, false. We also describe algorithms to determine the eternal domination number for both models for eternal domination and examine the related combinatorial game, which makes use of the reduced canonical form of games.


[^0]Keywords Graph protection • Graph domination • Eternal domination - Combinatorial game theory

Mathematics Subject Classification 05C69 - 05C57 • 68R15 • 91A46

## 1 Introduction

Surveillance cameras that monitor rooms in a building may form a dominating set, but the cameras are in fixed locations. Soldiers that guard intersections may form a dominating set, but they also may be required to move in order to respond to an attack at a neighbouring intersection. The former is an example of the dominating set problem, however, the latter is an example of a graph protection model. Since the concept of graph protection was first formalized by Arquilla and Fredricksen (1995) and further communicated by ReVelle (1997), Stewart (1999), and ReVelle and Rosing (2000), there have been many advances on the topic. We refer to a recent survey by Klostermeyer and Mynhardt (2016) for more background and the state of the art of graph protection. One model of graph protection is the eternal dominating set problem.

In the "all guards move" model for the eternal dominating set problem, a set of guards form a dominating set on a graph and then a vertex is attacked. In response, each guard may remain where he is or move to a neighbouring vertex with the collective goal of forming a dominating set containing the attacked vertex. In accomplishing this goal, the guards have defended against the attack. Thus, during each "round", a vertex is attacked and then the guards move to defend against the attack. The eternal domination number of a graph $G$, denoted $\gamma_{\text {all }}^{\infty}(G)$, is the minimum number of guards required to defend against any sequence of attacks. This parameter has also been denoted by $\sigma_{m}(G)$ (Goddard et al. 2005), $\gamma_{m}(G)$ (Klostermeyer and MacGillivray 2009), and $\gamma_{m}^{\infty}(G)$ (Klostermeyer and Mynhardt 2016). The $\gamma_{\text {all }}^{\infty}(G)$ notation, of which we make use in this note, has been used more recently by Beaton et al. (2013) and Finbow et al. (2015).

In 2005, Goddard et al. stated a series of open questions and conjectured that there would be no advantage to allow multiple guards to be located at the same vertex in any round in the "all-guards move" model. As a result, subsequent publications on the eternal dominating set problem have defined the problem in such a way that at most one guard can be located on a vertex in any round. A 2009 article by Klostermeyer and MacGillivray stated the above conjecture as an open problem. In Sect. 2 we show the conjecture to be false.

In the " 1 guard moves" model of the eternal dominating set problem, only one guard may move in response to an attack during each round. In this model, the minimum number of guards required to defend against any sequence of attacks on a graph $G$ is denoted $\gamma_{1}^{\infty}(G)$. This notation was used by Klostermeyer and Mynhardt and we use it to be consistent with the "all guards move" notation. [The notations $\sigma_{1}(G)$ (Goddard et al. 2005) and $\gamma_{\infty}(G)$ (Klostermeyer and MacGillivray 2009) have also been used.] Burger et al. (2004) showed that there is no advantage to allow multiple guards to be located at the same vertex in a given round in the " 1 guard moves" model. However, Goddard et al. (2005) asked about the complexity of the associated
recognition and decision problems for the " 1 guard moves" model and the "all guards move" model. In Sect. 3, we describe algorithms to determine $\gamma_{1}^{\infty}(G)$ and $\gamma_{\text {all }}^{\infty}(G)$ in time $O^{*}\left(8^{n}\right)$. ${ }^{1}$ We also describe an algorithm to determine the (all-guards move) eternal domination number for the variant when multiple guards are permitted to occupy the same vertex during a given round. In this case, the algorithm runs in time $O^{*}\left(\left(\frac{81}{8} \sqrt{3}\right)^{n}\right)$ (note $\left.\frac{81}{8} \sqrt{3} \approx 17.54\right)$. In Sect. 4 , we describe a combinatorial game based on eternal domination, given a graph, a set of attackers, and a set of defenders. For many situations a player would like to ignore the infinitesimal values since they only determine the parity of the number of moves once the associated non-infinitesimal value has reached zero. Grossman and Siegel (2009) showed that the idea of a simplest game infinitely close to a given game, called the reduced canonical game, was welldefined. The reduced canonical form can be useful in determining optimal play in sums with other games. For the combinatorial game based on eternal domination, we determine the reduced canonical form for the game, given a graph, a set of attackers, and a set of defenders.

We conclude this section with formal definitions. Let $G=(V, E)$ be a graph. A dominating set of $G$ is a subset of $V$ whose closed neighbourhood is $V$. The smallest cardinality of a dominating set is denoted $\gamma(G)$ and is called the domination number of $G$. Let $\mathbb{D}_{q}(G)$ be the set of all dominating sets of $G$ which have cardinality $q$. Let $D, D^{\prime} \in \mathbb{D}_{q}(G)$. We will say $D$ can be transformed to $D^{\prime}$ (or $D$ transforms to $D^{\prime}$ ) if $D=\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{q}\right\}, D^{\prime}=\left\{u_{1}, u_{2}, \ldots, u_{q}\right\}$ and $u_{i} \in N\left[v_{i}\right]$ for $i=1,2, \ldots, q$.

In the "eternal dominating set problem", a defender is given $q$ guards to protect the graph from a series of attacks on vertices made by an attacker. An eternal dominating family of $G$ is a subset $\mathcal{E} \subseteq \mathbb{D}_{q}(G)$ for some $q$ so that for every $D \in \mathcal{E}$ and every possible attack $v \in V(G)$, there is a dominating set $D^{\prime} \in \mathcal{E}$ so that $v \in D^{\prime}$ and $D$ transforms to $D^{\prime}$. When the value of $q$ in the above definition is known we will refer to this family as an eternal dominating family with $q$ guards and the minimum such $q$ is denoted $\gamma_{\text {all }}^{\infty}(G)$. A set $D \in \mathbb{D}_{q}(G)$ is an eternal dominating set if it is a member of some eternal dominating family. Note that the set of all eternal dominating sets of a particular cardinality is an eternal dominating family, provided the family is non-empty.

## 2 Allowing multiple guards on a vertex during a given round

In this section, we disprove the conjecture of Goddard et al. (2005) that there is never any advantage in allowing two or more guards to occupy the same vertex in the allguards move model. To avoid confusion, let $\gamma_{\text {all }}^{\infty *}(G)$ denote the eternal domination number for the variant in which multiple guards are permitted to occupy the same vertices during each round. Clearly, the variant $\gamma_{\text {all }}^{\infty *}$ forms a lower bound for $\gamma_{\text {all }}^{\infty}$ :
Observation 1 For any graph $G, \gamma_{\text {all }}^{\infty *}(G) \leq \gamma_{\text {all }}^{\infty}(G)$.

[^1]Fig. 1 Graph $H$


Fig. 2 Graph $G_{k}$

Theorem 2 For every integer $\ell \geq 0$, there is a graph $G_{\ell}$ such that $\gamma_{\text {all }}^{\infty}\left(G_{\ell}\right)-$ $\gamma_{\text {all }}^{\infty *}\left(G_{\ell}\right) \geq \ell$.

Proof Let $H$ be the graph given in Fig. 1 and let $k:=\ell+3$. Form the graph $G_{k}$ as follows: the vertex set of $G_{k}$ consists of the vertices of $k$ copies of $H$ (labeled $H_{1}, H_{2}, \ldots, H_{k}$ ) along with an additional vertex $c$. The edge set of $G_{k}$ contains the edges from each of the $k$ copies of $H$, along with an edge between vertex $c$ and the degree 3 vertices in each copy of $H$. Graph $G_{k}$ is illustrated in Fig. 2.

We first consider the traditional eternal dominating set problem on $G_{k}$, where each vertex is occupied by at most one guard in a given round. Our first claim is that at the end of each round (i.e. after the guards have moved), each copy of $H$ must contain at least two guards. For a contradiction, suppose that at the end of round $t, H_{i}$ contains only one guard $g$. In round $t+1$, if a degree 2 vertex of $H_{i}$ is attacked, then guard $g$ must move to that attacked vertex during round $t+1$. However, this leaves at least three vertices of degree 2 in $H_{i}$ that are not dominated by $g$. Since all vertices must be dominated after the guards have moved during round $t+1$, a guard must move from $c$ to a vertex in $H_{i}$. However, regardless of which of the two vertices in $H_{i}$ the guard from $c$ moves to, there will remain at least one vertex of degree 2 in $H_{i}$ that is not dominated. Therefore, at the end of every round, each copy of $H$ must contain at least two guards. Furthermore, $2 k$ guards are not sufficient: consider an attack at vertex $c$ in $G_{k}$. Then a guard from $H_{j}$ must move to $c$, leaving only one guard in $H_{j}$, which cannot occur. Therefore, $\gamma_{\text {all }}^{\infty}\left(G_{k}\right) \geq 2 k+1$.

Certainly $2 k+1$ guards suffice: initially, one guard occupies vertex $c$ and for each $1 \leq i \leq k$, one guard occupies the degree 6 vertex of $H_{i}$ and one guard occupies a different vertex of $H_{i}$. Certainly $G_{k}$ is dominated by the vertices occupied by these $2 k+1$ guards. Since vertex $c$ is occupied by a guard, at each round, a vertex in a copy of $H$ is attacked. If a vertex in $H_{j}$ is attacked, one guard moves from the degree 6
vertex to the attacked vertex, and the other guard moves to the degree 6 vertex. Thus, $2 k+1$ guards suffice to defend any sequence of attacks and $\gamma_{\text {all }}^{\infty}\left(G_{k}\right)=2 k+1$.

Suppose now that multiple guards are permitted to occupy the same vertices at the end of a round. We first show $\gamma_{\text {all }}^{\infty *}\left(G_{k}\right) \leq k+4$ : initially place two guards at $c$, one guard at each of the two vertices of degree four in $H_{1}$, one guard on any other vertex of $H_{1}$ and one guard at the vertex of degree 6 in each $H_{i}(2 \leq i \leq k)$; such a degree 6 vertex is called the central vertex of $H_{i}$. Clearly, each vertex of $G_{k}$ is dominated. Suppose a vertex in $H_{i}$ is attacked, $i \neq 1$. The guard $g$ at the central vertex of $H_{i}$ moves to the attacked vertex and two guards move from $c$ to each of the two vertices (of degree four) of $H_{i}$ that are adjacent to $c$. The two guards in $H_{1}$ adjacent to $c$ move to $c$ (leaving two guards at $c$ ) and the remaining guard on $H_{1}$ moves to the central vertex of $H_{1}$. No other guards move. We note the guards have responded to the attack and, up to symmetry, have remained in the same position as the beginning of the round.

Instead of an attack in $H_{i}$, we consider an attack in $H_{1}$. Let $g$ be the guard in $H_{1}$ that does not occupy a vertex adjacent to $c$. Let $u$ and $v$ be the two vertices in $H_{1}$ adjacent to $c$. If the attacked vertex is the central vertex, $g$ moves to the central vertex and no other guard moves. Otherwise, the attacked vertex is adjacent to exactly one of $u, v$, suppose $v$. The guard at $v$ moves to the attacked vertex. If the vertex occupied by $g$ is adjacent to $v$, then $g$ moves to $v$ and no other guard moves. Otherwise, the vertex occupied by $g$ is adjacent to $u$, but not $v$. In this case, $g$ moves to $u$, the guard at $u$ moves to $c$, and a guard at $c$ moves to $v$; no other guard moves. In $H_{1}$, the new configuration of guards has again 2 guards on the neighbors of $c$ and one guard on another vertex of $H_{1}$. The guards have responded to the attack and, up to symmetry, have remained in the same position. We conclude that $k+4$ guards can respond to any attack and, up to symmetry, have remained in the same position.

Finally, we show $\gamma_{\text {all }}^{\infty *}(G) \geq k+4$. Suppose that $H_{i}$ contains exactly one guard $g$ at the end of round $t$. To dominate the vertices of degree 2 in $H_{i}, g$ must be located at the central vertex of $H_{i}$. If a vertex of degree 2 in $H_{i}$ is attacked at the beginning of round $t+1, g$ must move to the attacked vertex, then there are three vertices of degree 2 that are not dominated by $g$. So for $H_{i}$ to be dominated at the end of round $t+1$, two guards $g_{1}, g_{2}$ must move from $c$ to the two vertices of degree 4 in $H_{i}$ (since each of $g_{1}, g_{2}$ dominates at most 2 vertices of degree 2 in $H_{i}$ ). Let $H_{j}$ be a copy of $H$ that contains only one guard $g^{\prime}$ at the end of round $t+1$. To dominate the vertices of degree 2 in $H_{j}, g^{\prime}$ must be located at the central vertex of $H_{j}$. If a vertex of degree 2 in $H_{j}$ is attacked at the beginning of round $t+2, g^{\prime}$ must move to the attacked vertex. However, for $H_{j}$ to be dominated at the end of round $t+2$, two guards $g_{3}, g_{4}$ must move from $c$ to the two vertices of degree 4 in $H_{j}$. Observe that $g_{1}, g_{2}, g_{3}, g_{4}$ are all distinct guards (since at the beginning of round $t+2, g_{1}, g_{2}$ are located in $H_{i}$ ). Further, each copy of $H$ apart from $H_{i}, H_{j}$ ) must contain at least one guard, to dominate the degree 2 vertices of that copy of $H$. Coupled with the upper bound, $\gamma_{\text {all }}^{\infty *}(G)=k+4$.

The graph described by Fig. 2 illustrates that the difference between $\gamma_{\text {all }}^{\infty}$ and $\gamma_{\text {all }}^{\infty *}$ can be arbitrarily large. Observe that the described graph has a cut-vertex. As a result, we leave the following as an open problem: does there exist a 2 -connected graph for which the difference between $\gamma_{\text {all }}^{\infty}$ and $\gamma_{\text {all }}^{\infty *}$ is arbitrarily large?

## 3 Algorithms

We describe algorithms to determine $\gamma_{1}^{\infty}(G)$ and $\gamma_{\text {all }}^{\infty}(G)$ in time $O^{*}\left(8^{n}\right)$ and $\gamma_{\text {all }}^{\infty *}(G)$ in time $O^{*}\left(\left(\frac{81}{8} \sqrt{3}\right)^{n}\right)$. The general framework for these algorithms is as follows. We would like to determine if the graph parameter we consider is at most $k$ for each $k \in\{0, \ldots, n\}$. We may restrict our attention to connected graphs as these parameters can easily be derived from those of all connected components of $G$. Let $V(G)=\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{n}\right\}$ and consider the graph parameter $p \in\left\{\gamma_{1}^{\infty}, \gamma_{\text {all }}^{\infty}, \gamma_{\text {all }}^{\infty *}\right\}$.

The configuration graph is a useful and powerful tool in such configuration-space type problem. It has been used in the context of a variety of problems, including vertex colouring, minimum spanning trees, independent sets, and domination. Fricke et al. (2011) used a configuration graph (called the $\gamma$-graph) to study minimum dominating sets: sets forming the nodes of the configuration graph with two nodes adjacent if the dominating sets differ in exactly one place.

For the graph parameter $p$, we now construct the configuration graph $\mathcal{C}_{p}=$ $\left(C_{p}, T_{p}\right)$. A node or configuration $c \in C_{p}$ is a vector $c=\left(c\left(v_{1}\right), c\left(v_{2}\right), \ldots, c\left(v_{n}\right)\right)$ where $c\left(v_{i}\right)$ is the number of guards placed at vertex $v_{i},(1 \leq i \leq n)$ such that $\sum_{1 \leq i \leq n} c\left(v_{i}\right)=k$. For the parameters $\gamma_{1}^{\infty}$ and $\gamma_{\text {all }}^{\infty}$, we require additionally that for $1 \leq i \leq n, c\left(v_{i}\right) \leq 1$. A transition $t \in T_{p}$ is a set $\left\{c_{1}, c_{2}\right\}$ of two configurations in $C_{p}$ such that one can be obtained from the other by moving at most 1 (for $\gamma_{1}^{\infty}(G)$ ) or a subset of the guards (for $\left.\gamma_{\text {all }}^{\infty}(G)\right)$ along an edge of $G$ to a neighbouring vertex.
Lemma 1 The configuration graph can be constructed in time $\left|C_{p}\right|^{2} \cdot n^{O(1)}$.
Proof To construct the configuration graph $\mathcal{C}_{p}=\left(C_{p}, T_{p}\right)$ of $G$, start with $C_{p}=T_{p}=$ $\emptyset$. First, enumerate all possible configurations and add them to $C_{p}$. This can easily be done with polynomial delay by a simple branching algorithm. Now, determine for every two configurations $c_{1}, c_{2} \in C_{p}$ whether $\left\{c_{1}, c_{2}\right\} \in T_{p}$ in polynomial time as follows.

If at most one guard is allowed to move, then $\left\{c_{1}, c_{2}\right\} \in T_{p}$ if and only if $c_{1}$ differs from $c_{2}$ in exactly two positions and the corresponding vertices are adjacent. This test can obviously be done in polynomial time.

If all guards are allowed to move, construct a bipartite graph $H$ with bipartition $(A, B)$ such that for each vertex $v_{i} \in V(G), A$ contains $c_{1}\left(v_{i}\right)$ copies of $v_{i}$ and $B$ contains $c_{2}\left(v_{i}\right)$ copies of $v_{i}$. Two vertices $a \in A$ and $b \in B$ are adjacent in $H$ if they are copies of one and the same vertex in $G$ or if they are copies of two adjacent vertices in $G$. Now, $\left\{c_{1}, c_{2}\right\} \in T_{p}$ if and only if $H$ has a perfect matching. Each edge in a perfect matching corresponds to the movement of a guard. Clearly, the size of $H$ is polynomial in $n$ and a maximum matching of $H$ can be found in polynomial time.

We say that a configuration is 0 -step p-dominating if the vertices occupied by guards form a dominating set in $G$; that is, if $\left\{v_{i} \in V(G): c\left(v_{i}\right) \geq 1\right\}$ dominates $G$. A configuration $c$ is $k$-step $p$-dominating if for each vertex $v_{i} \in V(G)$, there exists a configuration $c^{\prime} \in N_{\mathcal{C}_{p}}[c]$ such that $c^{\prime}\left(v_{i}\right) \geq 1$ and $c^{\prime}$ is $(k-1)$-step $p$-dominating.

Lemma 2 A configuration $c$ is $\left|C_{p}\right|$-step $p$-dominating if and only if $c$ is $\infty$-step p-dominating.

Proof For the sake of contradiction, assume a configuration $c_{0}$ is $k$-step $p$-dominating but not $(k+1)$-step $p$-dominating for some $k \geq\left|C_{p}\right|$. Then $c_{0}$ has a neighboring configuration $c^{\prime}$ in $\mathcal{C}_{p}$ that is $(k-1)$-step $p$-dominating but not $k$-step $p$-dominating. Repeating this argument eventually finds a directed path in $\mathcal{C}_{p}$ starting at $c_{0}$ and ending at a configuration that is 0 -step $p$-dominating but not 1 -step $p$-dominating. But this path has $k+1>\left|C_{p}\right|$ vertices, a contradiction.

We next show that for any graph $G$ on $n$ vertices and an integer $k$, it can be decided in time $n^{3 k} \cdot n^{O(1)}$ whether there exists a configuration that is $\infty$-step $p$ dominating. To do this, the algorithms proceeds in rounds numbered from 1 to $\left|C_{p}\right|$. In round $\ell$, $1 \leq \ell \leq\left|C_{p}\right|$, it determines which configurations are $\ell$-step $p$-dominating by checking each configuration according to the definition that precedes Lemma 2. The computation for one round can be done in time $\left(\left|C_{p}\right|+\left|T_{p}\right|\right) \cdot n^{O(1)}$ as each configuration is checked once and each edge traversed twice.

As we may stop the computation after $\left|C_{p}\right|$ rounds, the total running time of the algorithm is $\left|C_{p}\right| \cdot\left(\left|C_{p}\right|+\left|T_{p}\right|\right) \cdot n^{O(1)} \leq\left|C_{p}\right|^{3} \cdot n^{O(1)}$.

As for any fixed number of guards $k,\left|C_{p}\right| \leq n^{k}$, the running time of the algorithm is polynomial if the number of guards is a constant.

Theorem 3 For any graph $G$ on $n$ vertices and an integer $k$, it can be decided in time $n^{3 k} \cdot n^{O(1)}$ whether $\gamma_{1}^{\infty}(G) \leq k$, whether $\gamma_{\text {all }}^{\infty}(G) \leq k$ or whether $\gamma_{\text {all }}^{\infty *}(G) \leq k$.

More generally, as $\left|C_{p}\right| \leq 2^{n}$ if at most one guard is allowed to be placed on each vertex, Theorem 4 follows.

Theorem 4 For any graph $G$ on $n$ vertices, $\gamma_{1}^{\infty}(G)$ and $\gamma_{\text {all }}^{\infty}(G)$ can be determined in time $O^{*}\left(8^{n}\right)$.

If multiple guards are allowed to be placed on the vertices, the number of configurations equals the number of weak compositions of $k$ into $n$ parts, which is $\binom{k+n-1}{k}$. Since $k \leq n,\left|C_{\gamma_{\text {all }}^{\infty *}}\right| \leq 4^{n}$, which leads to an algorithm with running time $O^{*}\left(64^{n}\right)$. Using Klostermeyer and Mynhardt's result that $\gamma_{\text {all }}^{\infty}(G) \leq\lceil n / 2\rceil$ when $G$ is connected, we can significantly improve this running time. Namely, since $\gamma_{\text {all }}^{\infty *}(G) \leq \gamma_{\text {all }}^{\infty}(G) \leq\lceil n / 2\rceil$, the number of configurations can be bounded above by $\binom{3 n / 2}{[n / 2\rceil}$.

Theorem 5 For any graph $G$ on $n$ vertices, $\gamma_{\text {all }}^{\infty *}(G)$ can be determined in time $O^{*}\left(\left(\frac{81}{8} \sqrt{3}\right)^{n}\right)$.

Proof We assume $G$ is connected. Otherwise, process each connected component independently. We have that $\left|C_{\text {all }}^{\infty *}\right|$ is at most $\binom{3 n / 2}{[n / 2\rceil}$ and the running time of the algorithm is upper bounded by $\left|C_{p}\right|^{3} \cdot n^{O(1)}$. Using Stirling's formula, the result follows.

## 4 The combinatorial game

This section will draw upon material from combinatorial game theory and for terminology and background, we refer the reader to Albert et al. (2007), Berlekamp et al. (2001), and Siegel (2013). In particular, we consider the eternal dominating set problem as a combinatorial game; that is, a two-player game with perfect information and no chance devices, where players alternate moves until the player whose turn it is has no legal moves available. The players are the attackers and the defenders and we label the attackers as the Left player and the defenders as the Right player.

Let $H=(V, E)$ be a graph, $D$ be an ordered multi-set of guards (the elements of $D$ being vertices in the set $V$ ), and $A \subset V$ be a set of attackers. To avoid a game that is a trivial win for the guards, we require $|D|<|V|$. Fix $n$ to be the number of time steps allowed before we declare the defenders the winner (then the game does not continue indefinitely). Let $t$ be the number of time steps remaining until the defenders have been declared the winner (i.e. the number of time steps remaining until a total of $n$ time steps have passed). We define the game $G$ by ( $H, D, A, t, n$ ). To compute values for $G$, we assign values for the ending positions and describe the legal moves allowed to each player.

We first define the position $G=(H, D, A, 0, n)=0$ which describes the situation when the defenders have protected all the vertices from the attackers for $n$ time steps. In particular, this means that the underlying graph H can be defended successfully for $n$ steps given the initial configuration of attackers and defenders. If this holds as we let $n$ go to infinity, we would say the initial position is defender-win. Otherwise, it is attacker-win.

A legal move for Right is given by $(H, D, A, t, n) \rightarrow\left(H, D^{\prime}, A, t-1, n\right)$ where $\left|D^{\prime}\right|=|D|, A \subset D^{\prime}$ and for each $d_{i} \in D$, we require that $d_{i}^{\prime} \in N\left[d_{i}\right]$ for $d_{i}^{\prime} \in D^{\prime}$. This represents the defenders moving each guard at most one step along an edge of the graph. Note that a move is legal only if the defenders can defend all of the vertices that are currently under attack.

If $A \subset D$ then Left has the legal move given by $(H, D, A, t, n) \rightarrow\left(H, D, A^{\prime}, t, n\right)$ where $\left|A^{\prime}\right|=|A|$ and $A^{\prime} \not \subset D$. This represents the fact that if all of the attackers are currently covered by defenders, she must move them to new vertices so that at least one unguarded vertex is being threatened. By definition, if it is Left's turn and $A \not \subset D$ then her only legal move is to 0 . This represents the attackers starting a turn on a vertex which isn't being defended and therefore they win.

We denote by $G^{L}$, a Left option of $G$ (i.e. a position Left can move to from $G$ ). This symbol is used even when a player has more than one option or none at all, so that the symbol $G^{L}$ need not have a unique value. Then $G^{L L}$ denotes a Left option of $G^{L}$ (i.e. a position Left can move to from $\left.G^{L}\right) .\left(G^{R}\right.$ and $G^{R R}$ are defined similarly.)

For an arbitrary game of eternal domination the canonical form would be infeasible to compute. However, we will show that the reduced canonical form of a game $G$, denoted $\operatorname{rcf}(G)$ only takes on particular values and is therefore helpful in determining optimal play in sums with other games. The reduced canonical form of a game can found based on a game's left and right stops denoted $L S(G)$ and $R S(G)$, respectively.

Table 1 The graph $C_{3}$ with one attacker and one defender

| Position | Canonical <br> form for <br> $t=1$ | Canonical <br> form for <br> $t=2$ | Canonical <br> form for <br> $t=3$ | Reduced canonical <br> form for <br> large $t$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| @ |  |  |  |  |

They are defined in a mutually recursive fashion:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& L S(G)= \begin{cases}G & \text { if } G \text { is a number } \\
\max \left(R S\left(G^{L}\right)\right) & \text { if } G \text { is not a number; }\end{cases} \\
& R S(G)= \begin{cases}G & \text { if } G \text { is a number } \\
\min \left(L S\left(G^{R}\right)\right) & \text { if } G \text { is not a number. }\end{cases}
\end{aligned}
$$

The reduced canonical form of a game $G$ is then:

$$
r c f(G)= \begin{cases}G & \text { if } G \text { is a number } \\ R S(G) & \text { if } G \text { is not a number and } R S(G)=L S(G) \\ \{L S(G) \mid R S(G)\} & \text { otherwise. }\end{cases}
$$

The reduced canonical form of a game can equivalently be defined as the simplest game infinitely close to a given game and was shown by Grossman and Siegel (2009) to be well-defined.

We make use of left stops, right stops and reduced canonical forms in the following result (see the recent book by Siegel (2013) for a formal introduction to the concept of reduced canonical form). Tables 1 and 2 illustrate some particular small eternal domination games with their canonical forms and reduced canonical forms shown. In Tables 1 and 2, for each graph $H$, the arrows indicate the vertex is in the set $A$; the circled vertices indicate the vertex is in the set $D$.

Lemma 3 For any game $G$ where $t>0$, either $G^{L}=0$ or $G^{L L}=0$.

Table 2 The graph $P_{3}$ with one attacker and one defender

| Position | Canonical <br> form for <br> $t=1$ | Canonical <br> form for <br> $t=2$ | Canonical <br> form for <br> $t=3$ | Reduced canonical <br> form for <br> large $t$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 1 | 1 | 1 |  |

Proof There are two cases to consider. First, we assume that $A \not \subset D$. In this case, $G^{L}$ $=0$ since this is the only option the attackers have from a position where the defenders have not defended all vertices under attack. The second case is when $A \subset D$. We know that Left has made a legal move from this position and it must be to a position where $A \not \subset D$. This is the first case we considered, so we conclude that $G^{L L}=0$.

Lemma 4 The game $G$ will terminate after a finite number of moves.
Proof Given the parameters $t$ and $n$, we know that the defenders can make at most $n$ moves in the game before we reach a value of 0 . Also, if the attackers make two consecutive moves in a row at any point, the game is over with value 0 due to the previous lemma. Therefore, we achieve the maximum number of moves with alternate play and can have at most $2 n$ moves taken in total.

Lemma 5 For a game $G$ where there exists $v \in A$ but $v \notin N[D]$, then $G=1$.
Proof If Left plays first from this game, it must be to 0 since $A \not \subset D$. If Right plays first from this game, we find that he has no legal move. Since $v \notin N[D]$, there is no $d_{i} \in D$ which can move to $v$ so that $A \subset D^{\prime}$. Therefore, $G=\{0 \mid\}=1$.

Corollary 1 For a game $G$ where $D$ is not a dominating set, there exists $G^{L}=1$.

Proof Left's move from such a game would be to choose a $A^{\prime}$ such that it contained a vertex $v \notin N[D]$. The previous lemma gives this left option the value 1 .

Theorem 6 For any game $G$ in the starting position, if the attackers can win the game by playing first, $L S(G)=1$. Otherwise, $L S(G)=0$. Likewise, if the defenders can win the game playing first, $R S(G)=0$ otherwise $R S(G)=1$.

Proof We proceed by induction on $t$ and denote a game by $G_{t}$ for clarity. First note that if $t=1$ we can have two cases.

The first case is when $A \subset D$. After Left makes a move, if Right cannot respond, we know the game has value 1 . If Right has a legal move after Left's move, it must be to 0 since we will have $t=0$. We can also note that if Left were to make two moves in a row, it would be to 0 as well. Finally, we note that if Right were to play first he has the legal move defined by $D^{\prime}=D$ and it would have value 0 since $t$ would become 0 . So, if Left can win playing first we get $G_{1}=\{1 \mid 0\}$ in which case $\operatorname{LS}\left(G_{1}\right)=1$. If Left cannot win playing first we get $G_{1}=\{\{0 \mid 0\} \mid 0\}=\{* \mid 0\}$ and we note that $\operatorname{LS}\left(G_{1}\right)$ $=0$. Either way, we note that Right could win playing first and that $\operatorname{RS}\left(G_{1}\right)=0$.

For the second case, we assume $A \not \subset D$ and note that such a position can only be reached after a Left move. If Left plays first, her only option is to 0 . If Right plays first, we must consider whether or not he has a legal move. If he does, it must be to 0 since $t$ would become 0 . In that case, $G_{1}=*$ and we have that $\operatorname{RS}\left(G_{1}\right)=0$. Otherwise, if Right does not have a legal move from $G_{1}$ then $G_{1}=\{0 \mid\}=1$ and $\operatorname{LS}\left(G_{1}\right)=$ $\operatorname{RS}\left(G_{1}\right)=1$.

In all but one case, the Left and Right stops were 0 if the defenders could win and 1 if the attackers could win. The case where the Left stop was 0 after the attackers had won was due to the fact that Left required two consecutive moves to end the game. Therefore, it is a position which cannot be reached with alternate play.

Now we will consider the game $G_{t}$. We again have two cases and begin by assuming $A \subset D$.

We start by letting Left play first. If Right cannot respond, we know the game has value 1 and we would find that $\operatorname{LS}\left(G_{t}\right)=1$. If Right has a legal move after Left's move, it must be to some game $G_{t-1}$ where we again have $A \subset D . \operatorname{So}, \operatorname{LS}\left(G_{t}\right)=\operatorname{LS}\left(G_{t-1}\right)$ which must be 1 or 0 by induction. Now we consider Right's options from $G_{t}$. We know Right has a legal move to some game $G_{t-1}$ by letting $D^{\prime}=D$ so by induction $\operatorname{RS}\left(G_{t}\right)=\operatorname{LS}\left(G_{t-1}\right)$ which must be 0 or 1 .

Now we examine the case where $A \not \subset D$. If Left plays first, it must be to 0 . If Right must play first, we must decide if he has a legal move. If he has no legal move, then $G_{t}=1$ and $\operatorname{LS}\left(G_{t}\right)=\operatorname{RS}\left(G_{t}\right)=1$. If Right does have a legal move, it must be to some game $G_{t-1}$ where $A \subset D$. Therefore, $\operatorname{RS}\left(G_{t}\right)=\operatorname{LS}\left(G_{t-1}\right)=0$ or 1 by induction.

Again we find that except in one case, the left and right stops of $G$ are 1 if the attackers can win and 0 if the defenders can win. The exceptional case occurs only when Left can make two consecutive moves and therefore is not reachable in alternate play from a position with $A \subset D$.

Since the left stops and rights stops are 0 or 1 , considering the four possible combinations of left and right stops yields the following corollary.
Corollary 2 For any game $G=(H, D, A, t, n), \operatorname{Rcf}(G)$ is 1,0 , or $\{1 \mid 0\}$.

Considering the original definition of eternal domination (in previous sections), there is no time limit for which the defenders need to protect vertices of the graph. To connect the results of this section to the rest of the paper, we consider the more natural analogous definition, $G=(H, D, A)$.

Theorem 7 Given the game $G=(H, D, A)$, the reduced canonical form of $G$ is 1 , 0 , or $\{1 \mid 0\}$.

Proof For any fixed $H, D$, and $A$, there are only finitely many positions for the game. Therefore we can choose an $n$ sufficiently large so that if the attackers can win, they can do so in at most $n$ steps. Therefore, it is equivalent to the game ( $H, D, A, n, n$ ).

Tables 1 and 2 show the reduced canonical forms for some small games, in particular (with one attacker and one guard), $P_{3}$ is attacker-win and its reduced canonical form is 1 whereas $C_{3}$ is defender-win and its reduced canonical form is 0 .

Acknowledgements S. Finbow acknowledges research support from the Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada (Grant Application 2014-06571). Serge Gaspers is the recipient of an Australian Research Council (ARC) Future Fellowship (Project Number FT140100048) and he also acknowledges support under the ARC's Discovery Projects Funding Scheme (DP150101134). M.E. Messinger acknowledges research support from the Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada (Grant Application 356119-2011). The authors acknowledge support from the Games and Graphs Collaborative Research Group of the Atlantic Association for Research in Mathematical Sciences.

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[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ The $O^{*}$-notation used here is similar to the $O$-notation but hides polynomial factors in the size of an input instance. See Woeginger (2001) and Fomin and Kratsch (2010) for more on the $O^{*}$-notation and exponential-time algorithms in general.

