Pursuit-Evasion in Graphs: Zombies, Lazy Zombies and a Survivor

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Abstract

We study zombies and survivor, a variant of the game of cops and robber on graphs. In this variant, the single survivor plays the role of the robber and attempts to escape from the zombies that play the role of the cops. The zombies are restricted, on their turn, to always follow an edge of a shortest path towards the survivor. Let \( z(G) \) be the smallest number of zombies required to catch the survivor on a graph \( G \) with \( n \) vertices. We show that there exist outerplanar graphs and visibility graphs of simple polygons such that \( z(G) = \Theta(n) \). We also show that there exist maximum-degree-3 outerplanar graphs such that \( z(G) = \Omega(n/\log(n)) \).

Let \( z_L(G) \) be the smallest number of lazy zombies (zombies that can stay still on their turn) required to catch the survivor on a graph \( G \). We show that lazy zombies are more powerful than normal zombies but less powerful than cops. We prove that \( z_L(G) \leq 2 \) for connected outerplanar graphs and this bound is tight in the worst case. We show that \( z_L(G) \leq k \) for connected graphs with treedepth \( k \). This result implies that \( z_L(G) \) is at most \( (k + 1)\log n \) for connected graphs with treewidth \( k \), \( O(\sqrt{n}) \) for connected planar graphs, \( O(\sqrt{gn}) \) for connected graphs with genus \( g \) and \( O(h\sqrt{hn}) \) for connected graphs with any excluded \( h \)-vertex minor. Our results on lazy zombies still hold when an adversary chooses the initial positions of the zombies.

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1 Introduction

The game of cops and robber was first introduced by Quillot in his doctoral thesis [21] and then independently by Nowakowski and Winkler [20]. In this pursuit-evasion game, a set of cops move along the edges of a connected and undirected graph \( G \) to catch a robber that is also moving along the edges of \( G \). At the beginning, each cop chooses a starting vertex (multiple cops can occupy the same vertex). Then the robber chooses a starting vertex. From there, when it is the cops’ turn to play, each cop decides either to stay still or to move to an adjacent vertex. When it is the robber’s turn to play, the robber decides either to stay still or to move to an adjacent vertex. (In the classical version of the game, the cops and the robber are aware of each others’ locations at all times.) If at least one cop shares a vertex with the robber, then the cops win. However, if the robber indefinitely avoids capture, then the robber wins. The cop number of a graph \( G \), denoted as \( c(G) \), is the minimum
number of cops required to catch the robber on $G$. Cops and robber has been studied on several classes of graphs and many variants have been studied where cops are given different restrictions or abilities (see [6] for an overview of the area). Meyniel conjectured that in general, $c(G) = O(\sqrt{n})$.

Zombies and Survivor is a variant of the game of Cops and Robber. The deterministic version of Zombies and Survivor was first introduced by Fitzpatrick et al. [13]. In this game, each cop (thought of as a zombie) is restricted to move along an edge incident to its current position and belonging to a shortest path to the robber (thought of as the survivor). Moreover, the zombie is active, in the sense that it must move on its turn. If there is more than one shortest path between a given zombie and the survivor, the zombie can choose which path to follow. Since the zombies are active, the starting configuration of the zombies actually plays a role in determining whether a survivor is caught. For example, if several zombies are placed on the same vertex in a cycle with more than 4 vertices, then they will never catch a survivor. However, 2 zombies can be strategically placed in order to always catch a survivor on such a cycle. As such, we define two types of zombie number, one where the zombies are strategically placed and the other where an adversary determines the initial position of the zombies. The zombie number $z(G)$ of a graph $G$ is then defined as the minimum number of zombies required to catch the survivor on $G$, and the universal zombie number $u(G)$ is defined as the minimum number of zombies required to catch the survivor when the starting configuration of the zombies is determined by an adversary. The above example shows that $z(G) = 2$ and $u(G) = \infty$ when $G$ is a cycle on more than 4 vertices. Since a cop has more power than a zombie, we have $c(G) \leq z(G) \leq u(G)$. From this observation, we get that zombie-win graphs are also cop-win graphs.

In their paper, Fitzpatrick et al. [13] provide an example showing that if a graph is cop-win, then it is not necessarily zombie-win. They provide a sufficient condition for a graph to be zombie-win. They also establish several results about the zombie number of the Cartesian product of graphs.

The main aspect that makes different variants of these pursuit-evasion problems quite challenging is the fact that the cop number and zombie number is not a monotonic property with respect to subgraphs. For example, both the cop number and zombie number of a clique is 1 but the cop number and zombie number of a cycle on more than 3 vertices is 2.

### 1.1 Contributions

In this paper, we first consider the deterministic version of Zombies and Survivor. We then turn our attention to a deterministic variant which we call Lazy Zombies and Survivor. In this variant, a zombie does not need to move on its turn. The lazy zombie number $z_L(G)$ of a graph $G$ is therefore defined as the minimum number of lazy zombies required to catch the survivor on $G$. The universal lazy zombie number of a graph $G$, denoted $u_L(G)$, denotes the minimum number of lazy zombies required to catch the survivor on $G$, when the starting positions of the lazy zombies are chosen by an adversary. Observe that $c(G) \leq z_L(G) \leq u_L(G)$.

We show that there exist outerplanar graphs and 2-connected outerplanar graphs $G$ with $n$ vertices such that $z(G)/c(G) = \Omega(n)$. This improves upon a result of Bartier et al. [4] who showed that this ratio is $z(G)/c(G) = \Omega(\log n)$ for outerplanar graphs. We also show that there exist maximum-degree-3 outerplanar graphs $G$ such that $z(G)/c(G) = \Omega(n/\log(n))$ and there exist simple polygons whose visibility graph $G$ is such that $z(G)/c(G) = \Omega(n)$.

Then, we show that lazy zombies are more powerful than plain zombies and less powerful than cops. Indeed, we prove that 2 lazy zombies always win (in less than $2n$ rounds) on outerplanar graphs. However, we show that there exist graphs of treewidth 2 that require 3 lazy zombies, whereas 2 cops are sufficient. We then show that $k$ lazy zombies win after
Table 1 Summary of zombie, (universal) lazy zombie, and cop numbers. The column “zombies” shows lower bounds on the zombie number. The other two columns show upper bounds. The upper bound on the cop number for $h$-vertex excluded minors is for connected excluded minors.

|                | zombies | (universal) lazy zombies | cops |
|----------------|---------|--------------------------|------|
| outerplanar    | $\Theta(n)$ (Thm. 1) | 2 (Thm. 6) | 2 (9) |
| planar         | $\Theta(n)$ (Thm. 1) | $O(\sqrt{n})$ (Cor. 14) | 3 (1) |
| genus $g$      | $\Theta(n)$ (Thm. 1) | $O(\sqrt{gn})$ (Cor. 14) | $3 + \frac{2g}{2^k}$ (23) |
| treedepth $k$  | $\Theta(n)$ (Thm. 1) | $k$ (Cor. 10, Thm. 11) | $(k/2) + 1$ (16) |
| treewidth $k$  | $\Theta(n)$ (Thm. 1) | $(k + 1) \log n$ (Cor. 10, Lem. 12) | $(k/2) + 1$ (16) |
| $h$-vertex excl. minor | $\Theta(n)$ (Thm. 1) | $O(h\sqrt{hn})$ (Cor. 14) | $\frac{1}{2}(h - 1)(h - 2)$ (3) |

$O(n^{2k})$ bounds on graphs with treedepth $k$. Finally, we highlight a few implications stemming from this upper bound such as $(k + 1) \log n$ lazy zombies win on graphs with treewidth $k$, $O(\sqrt{n})$ lazy zombies are always sufficient to win on planar graphs, $O(\sqrt{gn})$ lazy zombies win on graphs with genus $g$ and $O(h\sqrt{hn})$ lazy zombies win on all connected graphs $G$ with any excluded $h$-vertex minor $H$. Our upper bounds on lazy zombie numbers still hold for universal lazy zombies. These results are summarized in Table 1. Further details together with missing proofs can be found in the full version of the paper [7].

2 Preliminaries and Notation

Let $G$ be a simple and undirected graph with vertex set $V(G)$ and edge set $E(G)$. Throughout this paper $n$ will be used for $|V(G)|$. Given a subset $S \subseteq V(G)$, we denote the graph induced by $S$ as $G[S]$. Given two vertices $u$ and $v$ in $V(G)$, we denote the shortest path from $u$ to $v$ as $\pi_G(u, v)$ and its length as $d_G(u, v)$. If there is no path from $u$ to $v$, then the length of the path is infinite. The diameter of a connected graph $G$, denoted as $\text{diam}(G)$, is $\max\{d_G(u, v) : u, v \in V(G)\}$.

Recall that $c(G)$ is the cop number of $G$, $z(G)$ (resp. $u(G)$) is the zombie number of $G$ (resp. universal zombie number) and $z_L(G)$ (resp. $u_L(G)$) is the lazy zombie number of $G$ (resp. universal lazy zombie number). If $G$ is disconnected, then the cop (resp. zombie, lazy zombie) number of $G$ is simply equal to the sum of the cop (resp. zombie, lazy zombie) numbers of its connected components. Therefore, in this paper, we assume that $G$ is connected.

In their paper, Fitzpatrick et al. [13, Figure 5] provide an example of a graph with zombie number 1, where the zombie has to start on a specific vertex to win, which is an example where $z(G) = 1$ and $u(G) = \infty$. As alluded to in the introduction, lazy zombies are more powerful than normal zombies and less so than cops. Thus, we observe that $c(G) \leq z_L(G) \leq z(G)$.

All the pursuit-evasion games we describe in this paper consist of a sequence of rounds, each of which consists of two turns. For each round $i \geq 0$, the zombies play first (zombies’ turn) and then the survivor plays (survivor’s turn). In round 0, during the zombies’ turn, the zombies choose their starting position (or an adversary assigns one to them), and then, during the survivor’s turn, the survivor chooses its starting position. Then the zombies move (or wait if the version of the game allows them to) and the survivor moves (or waits if they decide to) in the subsequent rounds.

1 The length of the shortest path is the number of edges on the path.
When stating results about (universal) (lazy) zombie numbers, we sometimes use asymptotic notation. In this notation, lower-bound asymptotics (Ω or Θ) will be a lower bound on the maximum-valued graph of the given class. For instance, “for outerplanar graphs \( G, z(G) \in \Theta(n) \)” means not only is the zombie number at most some constant times \( n \) for every outerplanar graph, but also the zombie number is at least some constant times \( n \) for some family of outerplanar graphs. Throughout the paper, unless specified, the base of the logarithmic function \( \log(\cdot) \) is 2.

3 Linear bound on zombie number

In their paper, Fitzpatrick et al. ask how large the ratio \( z(G)/c(G) \) can be [13, Question 19]; they note that they have not observed any graph with a ratio that exceeds \( 2 \). Here we show that this ratio can be infinite and of size \( \Omega(n) \), and we show this even for outerplanar graphs of fixed radius. In independent work, Bartier et al. showed that this ratio can be infinite and of size \( \Omega(\log n) \) for outerplanar graphs [4].

**Theorem 1.** Let \( k \geq 2 \) be an integer. Then there is a connected outerplanar graph \( G_k \) with \( 23k + 1 \) vertices that requires at least \( k \) zombies.

**Proof.** Let \( H \) be the 23-vertex graph shown in Figure 1a. \( H \) has two distinguished vertices \( s \) and \( t \). To form the graph \( G_k \), first take \( k \) disjoint copies \( H_1, H_2, \ldots, H_k \) of \( H \), with \( H_i \) having distinguished vertices \( s_i \) and \( t_i \); to this add a vertex \( c \) that is connected to each \( s_i \) and each \( t_i \) (see Figure 1b).

![Figure 1](image-url)  
**Figure 1** Construction of an outerplanar graph requiring a linear number of zombies. (a) The component graph \( H \). (b) Connecting components into the graph \( G_k \). (c) Each vertex of some \( H_i \) labelled with its distance to \( c \).

By construction, \( G_k \) has \( 23k + 1 \) vertices. Suppose that \( k - 1 \) or fewer zombies play on \( G_k \). This means that in round 0 there is some copy \( H_i \) of \( H \) that contains no zombie; the survivor chooses the vertex adjacent to \( s_i \) in \( H_i \) as its starting position, and will stay in \( H_i \) forever.
Each zombie will therefore first take a shortest path to \( c \) from wherever it starts, as this is the only way to get to \( H_i \). Consider the time unit on which a zombie reaches \( c \); this can be anywhere from 0 to 9, as the zombie could start on \( c \), and 9 is the radius of \( G_k \) (and \( c \) is the center). See Figure 1c. At one time unit later, the zombie will move to \( s_i \) or \( t_i \), whichever is closer to the survivor. We call this time the \textit{arrival time} of the zombie; arrival times are all between 1 and 10, inclusive.

The survivor’s strategy is to walk in \( H_i \) away from \( s_i \) until it reaches a vertex of degree three. At this point they walk along the 13-cycle in \( H_i \), starting in the direction of the vertex of degree two. They continue walking this cycle forever.

The zombies will arrive on \( s_i \) if their arrival time is at most five, as this is the closest vertex to the survivor at this time. These zombies will follow the survivor’s path. If a zombie has arrival time six or more, it arrives on \( t_i \). These zombies will pursue the survivor by first walking to the 13-cycle and then following the survivor around it.

Therefore, since \( k - 1 \) zombies are insufficient to capture the survivor on \( G_k \), at least \( k \) are required and the lemma is proved.

Note that a linear number of zombies always suffices for a graph, as we could use \( n \) zombies and initially place one on each vertex (or perhaps leave one free for the survivor). Thus we have shown that for general or for outerplanar graphs, \( z(G) \in \Theta(n) \). Since the cop number for outerplanar graphs is at most two, the ratio \( z(G_k)/c(G_k) \) is \( k/2 = (n - 1)/46 \in \Theta(n) \).

Modifications of the construction in the proof of Theorem 1 work for other graph classes, as illustrated by the following theorems.

\textbf{Theorem 2.} Let \( k \geq 2 \) be an integer. There is a 2-connected outerplanar graph \( G_k \) with \( 30k + 1 \) vertices that requires at least \( k \) zombies.

\textbf{Theorem 3.} Let \( k \geq 2 \) be an integer. There is a connected graph \( G_k \) with \( 15k \) vertices that requires at least \( k \) zombies.

\textbf{Theorem 4.} Let \( k \geq 2 \) be an integer. There is a maximum-degree-3 connected outerplanar graph \( G_k \) with at most \( 25k + 16[k/\log k] - 1 \) vertices that requires at least \( k \) zombies.

Theorem 4 gives us \( n \in O(k \log k) \), or \( n \leq ck \log k \) for some constant \( c \). Hence, we have \( \frac{n}{\log n} \leq \frac{\log k}{\log \log k} \leq ck \), or \( k \geq \frac{n}{c \log \log n} \). Since \( k \) zombies are required, this gives us a lower bound of \( \Omega(\frac{n}{c \log \log n}) \) on the zombie number of bounded-degree graphs.

### 3.1 Polygon visibility graphs

A \textit{polygonal chain} is a finite sequence \( V \) of points \( v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n \) in \( \mathbb{R}^2 \) (called \textit{vertices}) along with the line segments \( v_1v_2, v_2v_3, \ldots, v_{n-1}v_n \) (called \textit{edges}). A polygonal chain is called \textit{closed} if \( v_1 = v_n \) and \textit{simple} if no two edges intersect except consecutive edges intersecting at their common vertex. A closed simple polygonal chain divides the plane into a finite \textit{interior} and infinite \textit{exterior}. A \textit{simple polygon}, or simply \textit{polygon}, is a closed simple polygonal chain along with its interior.

The \textit{visibility graph} of a simple polygon \( P \) \cite{10, 18} is a graph \( G \) where \( V(G) \) is the set of vertices of the polygon, and

\[ E(G) = \{ (v_i, v_j) \mid \text{the segment } v_iv_j \text{ does not intersect the exterior of } P \}. \]

In particular, this means that every edge of the polygon is an edge of the visibility graph, but the visibility graph has other edges corresponding to segments that traverse the interior and possibly boundary of \( P \). Visibility graphs are of interest in discrete geometry and have applications, for instance, in motion planning and shape analysis \cite{8, 10}. 

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Here we show that there is a linear bound on the zombie number of visibility graphs. The proof is messy in that it involves a large polygonal chain with relatively precise vertex locations in order to get a visibility graph with the desired properties. However, it is inspired by the proof of Theorem 1. Consider the graph fragment in Figure 2a. One way to embed this graph inside a polygon visibility graph is sketched in Figure 2b. Complicating matters is that we cannot get the required non-edges without placing vertices inbetween those shown in Figure 2b. Once those non-visibilities are worked out, we get the polygon fragment \( Q \) shown in Figure 3. For reproducibility, the exact vertex locations of \( Q \) are given in the full version of the paper [7].

To form a polygon whose visibility graph requires at least \( k \) zombies, we will connect \( k \) copies of \( Q \), denoted \( Q_1, Q_2, \ldots, Q_k \), placed in a geometric configuration where the only vertices of \( Q_i \) visible to \( Q_j \) are \( s_i \) (the copy of \( s \) in \( Q_i \)) and \( t_i \) (similar). Thus \( S \), the collection of all \( s_i \)'s and \( t_i \)'s, will form a clique in the visibility graph. This is done by taking a small sliver of a circular arc and placing the \( 2k \) vertices of \( S \) evenly along it. If the sliver is small enough, any vertices inside \( Q_i \backslash S \) will see only the relative interior of the polygon edge \( t_k,s_1 \). (Another method of ensuring this is to scale each \( Q_i \) up in its \( x \)-coordinate, effectively pushing interior vertices away from \( s_t, t_i \). Such a scaling operation does not affect the visibility graph of \( Q_i \).)

The proof that this polygon has zombie number \( k \) now roughly follows that of Theorem 1. Suppose that less than \( k \) suffices. Then, in the zombies' initial placement, there will be one copy of \( Q \), say \( Q_i \), that has no zombies in it. Start with the survivor on vertex \( a \) of \( Q_i \) (refer to Figure 2a for the labelling of the vertices).
\( Q \) is constructed so that it takes at most 6 turns for a zombie to leave the fragment (or 5 turns at most to get to \( s \) or \( t \)). This means that if the survivor stays in \( Q_i \) for 6 turns (it will), all zombies will have arrived in \( Q_i \). The survivor’s strategy will be to walk from \( a \) to \( b \), to \( c \), to \( d \), to \( e \), to \( f \). Unlike in Theorem 1, the survivor cannot now loop back to \( e \) (they might be caught by a zombie) but must instead move to \( t = t_i \). Once at \( t_i \), the survivor chooses some \( s_j \) where \( i \neq j \), and moves there. Next they can move to \( a_j \) and start the same walk in \( Q_j \) as it did in \( Q_i \). It may continue in this way \textit{ad infinitum}.

Since \( Q \) has 69 vertices, we have shown the following.

\begin{enumerate}
\item \textbf{Theorem 5.} Let \( k \geq 2 \) be an integer. Then there is a polygon \( P_k \) with 69\( k \) vertices whose visibility graph requires at least \( k \) zombies.
\end{enumerate}

A linear number of zombies will always work (e.g. \( n/3 \) of them starting on every third vertex), so the maximum zombie number of the visibility graph of a polygon with \( n \) vertices is \( \Theta(n) \).

There is a related problem that asks for the zombie number of a \textit{point-visibility graph} of a polygon, which is the infinite graph \( G \) where \( V(G) \) is taken to be the \textit{points} of the polygon, not simply the vertices. Edges are then defined as in the visibility graph. This problem involves more geometry than the other problems we have studied. Here it is not clear that there are polygons with a point-visibility graph zombie number higher than one.

### 4 The Lazy Zombie Number of Outerplanar Graphs is 2

In the previous section, we showed that \( \Omega(n) \) zombies are sometimes necessary to catch a survivor on an outerplanar graph. In this section, we show that 2 lazy zombies are always sufficient to catch the survivor on outerplanar graphs. Observe that two lazy zombies are sometimes necessary to catch a survivor on an outerplanar graph since a single lazy zombie cannot win on a 4-cycle.

\begin{enumerate}
\item \textbf{Theorem 6.} Let \( G \) be a connected outerplanar graph. Then \( z_L(G) \leq 2 \) and 2 lazy zombies can catch the survivor in less than \( 2n \) rounds. This bound is tight in the worst case.
\end{enumerate}

\textbf{Proof.} We only present a proof sketch.

We first modify \( G \) by replicating cut vertices and cut edges, and adding chords, so as to make it 2-connected. We start one lazy zombie, the \textit{stationary} lazy zombie, on the end \( b_j \) of a chord \( b_i b_j \). This lazy zombie will capture the survivor if the survivor moves to \( b_i \) or \( b_j \) but otherwise will not move. We refer to the vertices of \( G \) where the survivor is known to be restricted as the \textit{survivor territory}. The other lazy zombie (denoted \( z_2 \), the \textit{advancing} lazy zombie, also starts at \( b_j \).

Basically, on each turn, the advancing lazy zombie moves along the outerface towards the survivor. Suppose that at some turn, this lazy zombie is at the boundary of survivor territory at a vertex \( b_j \) which is on a chord \( b_ib_k \). Assume by symmetry that \( b_i \) is counterclockwise of \( b_j \) and clockwise of \( b_k \) (See Figure 4a). Then, if the survivor is counterclockwise from \( b_i \) to \( b_k \) (in \( S \setminus S' \) in the figure), we switch the roles of the lazy zombies, with a lazy zombie stationary on \( b_ib_k \), and we have reduced the survivor territory. On the other hand, if the survivor is counterclockwise from \( b_k \) to \( b_i \) (in \( S' \) in the figure), the advancing lazy zombie moves to \( b_k \), reducing the survivor territory (to \( S' \)). At no point will there be a chord from the survivor territory to the chain from \( b_j \) counterclockwise to \( b_i \).

Since each step of the advancing lazy zombie into the survivor territory reduces the survivor territory, and no lazy zombie repeats a move to a vertex, the survivor will be captured in at most \( 2n \) rounds.
Corollary 7. Let $G$ be a connected outerplanar graph. Then $u_L(G) \leq 2$. This bound is tight in the worst case.

Outerplanar graphs are a subset of the treewidth-2 graphs, but Theorem 6 cannot be generalized to treewidth-2. Figure 4b shows a graph with treewidth two that requires three lazy zombies. This example shows a distinction between the lazy zombie number and the cop number of a graph since 2 cops are sufficient for a graph of treewidth 2 [16]. We will study general treewidth-$k$ graphs in Section 5.

5 Cut-decomposable Graphs and Lazy Zombies

In this section, we explore the relationship between lazy zombie numbers and various graph parameters. We first define some of these graph parameters and some notation most of which appears in Diestel [17]. We then present the general approach, and finally, we outline some of the consequences of our approach.

Let $T$ be a tree rooted at a vertex $r$. For a vertex $v \in V(T)$, we denote the unique path from $v$ to $r$ as $\pi_T(v)$. The depth of $v$, $d_T(v) := d_T(v, r)$, is the length of the path from $v$ to $r$. If a vertex $u \in V(T)$ is in $\pi_T(v)$ then $u$ is an ancestor of $v$ and $v$ is a descendant of $u$. Note that $v$ is an ancestor and descendant of itself. The height of $T$ is defined as $H_T := \max\{d_T(v) : v \in V(T)\}$. The subtree of $T$ rooted at $v$ is denoted as $\Lambda_T(v)$. The height of $\Lambda_T(v)$ is defined as $H_T(v) := \max\{d_T(x) - d_T(v) : x \in \Lambda_T(v)\}$. The closure of $T$, denoted as $\text{clos}(T)$, is $T \cup \{uv : u \text{ is an ancestor of } v \text{ in } T\}$. The treedepth of a connected graph $G$, which we denote as $\text{td}(G)$, is 1 plus the minimum height $H_T$ over all trees $T$ defined on $V(G)$ such that $G \subseteq \text{clos}(T)$.

A tree decomposition of a graph $G$ is a pair $(T, B)$ where $T$ is a tree and $B = \{B_x \subseteq V(G) : x \in V(T)\}$, where each $B_x$ is a subset of $V(G)$ indexed by the nodes of $T$. The set $B_r$ is sometimes referred to as a bag. The following properties must be satisfied:

- For every $v \in V(G)$, $\{x \in V(T) : v \in B_x\}$ induces a non-empty subtree of $T$.
- For every $uv \in E(G)$, $\exists x \in V(T)$ such that $u$ and $v$ are both in $B_x$.

The width of a tree decomposition is 1 less than the cardinality of the largest bag. The treewidth of a graph $G$, which we denote as $tw(G)$, is the minimum width over all tree decompositions of $G$.

A cut decomposition of a graph $G$ is a pair $(X, \mathcal{C})$ where $X$ is a rooted tree and $\mathcal{C} = \{C_x \subseteq V(G) : x \in V(X)\}$, where each $C_x$ is a subset of $V(G)$ indexed by the nodes of $X$. The following properties must be satisfied:
For every \( v \in V(G) \), there is a unique \( x \in V(X) \) such that \( v \in C_x \).

For every \( uv \in E(G) \), \( \exists x, y \in V(X) \) such that \( u \in C_x \), \( v \in C_y \) and \( x \) is an ancestor of \( y \) in \( X \).

For each non-leaf node \( y \in X \), \( C_y \) is a cut-set of \( G[Y] \) where \( Y = \bigcup_{x \in \Lambda_X(y)} C_x \).

We will refer to the set \( C_x \) as the container of \( x \) to avoid confusion with a bag of a tree decomposition. We will refer to the size of the largest container as the width of the cut decomposition tree, denoted as \( cdw(X) \).

Throughout this section, we will assume that \( (X, C) \) is a cut decomposition of a graph \( G \) where \( |V(G)| = n \). We will refer to \( X \) as a cut decomposition tree. We will refer to the vertices of \( G \) as vertices and the vertices of \( X \) as nodes, in an attempt to make the distinction clear. We will use \( u, v \) to refer to vertices of \( G \) and \( x, y \) to refer to nodes in \( X \) (or nodes in a tree decomposition). For a node \( y \in X \), we define the component of \( y \) to be \( G[Y] \) where \( Y = \bigcup_{x \in \Lambda_X(y)} C_x \). We slightly abuse notation and refer to the component of \( y \) as \( G[X \Lambda_X(y)] \).

Intuitively, a cut decomposition tree is a decomposition of a graph by cuts where an internal node \( x \) of the tree \( X \) represents a cut set of the graph \( G[X \Lambda_X(x)] \). The container of the root of the tree contains either the entire vertex set of \( G \), or the vertices of a cut set of \( G \). If it contains a cut, then the children of the root recursively correspond to the different connected components of the graph that result when the cut is removed. Cut decompositions are related to both tree decompositions and treedepth (see Lemma 12).

We define the load of a node \( x \) in \( X \) as:

\[
load(x) = \begin{cases} 
|C_x| & \text{if } x \text{ is a leaf}, \\
|C_x| + \max_y \text{load}(y) & \text{otherwise, where } y \text{ is a child of } x.
\end{cases}
\]

The load of a cut decomposition is defined as the load of the root of the cut decomposition tree. We define the load of a graph \( G \), denoted as \( load(G) \), to be the minimum load among all cut decompositions of \( G \). We will show that \( load(G) \) is a sufficient number of lazy zombies to catch a survivor in \( G \). We define \( time(x) \), where \( x \in X \), to help us bound the number of rounds it takes for the lazy zombies to capture the survivor.

\[
time(x) = \begin{cases} 
|C_x|(diam(G) - 1) + 1 & \text{if } x \text{ is a leaf}, \\
\max_y \time(y)(|C_x|(diam(G) - 1) + 1) & \text{otherwise, where } y \text{ is a child of } x.
\end{cases}
\]

The time of the root is an upper bound on the number of rounds it takes the lazy zombies to capture the survivor.

In the following, each lazy zombie \( z_i \) may be assigned to a vertex \( v \) of \( G \). The strategy of the lazy zombie will be the following. If the lazy zombie is not assigned to any vertex, then on its turn to move, it remains at its current location. A lazy zombie assigned to a vertex \( v \) has the following behavior: on its turn, it moves off its current vertex \( u \) to an adjacent vertex \( w \) only if there exists a \( w \) that is closer to both \( v \) and the survivor. This is precisely where we use the power of a lazy zombie to stand still where regular zombies cannot. Because a shortest path from \( z_i \)'s location to \( v \) has at most \( \text{diam}(G) \) edges, the survivor can encounter vertex \( v \) at most \( \text{diam}(G) - 1 \) times (at or after the time \( z_i \) was assigned to \( v \)) without being immediately caught. Lazy zombies can and will be reassigned to different vertices during the game.

We proceed by induction. The following lemma establishes the basis.

\begin{lemma}
Let \( G \) be a connected graph with cut decomposition \( (X, C) \). Suppose that the survivor is restricted to the vertices of \( G[C_x] \) for some leaf \( x \) in \( X \). Then, \( load(x) \) lazy zombies, starting from anywhere in \( G \), can capture the survivor in at most \( time(x) \) rounds.
\end{lemma}
Theorem 9. Let $G$ be a connected graph with cut decomposition $(X, C)$. Suppose that $x$ is a node of $X$ and the survivor is restricted to the vertices in $G[\Lambda_X(x)]$. Then, load$(x)$ lazy zombies, starting from anywhere in $G$, can capture the survivor in at most time$(x)$ rounds.

Proof. We prove the theorem by induction on $H_X(x)$, the height of $\Lambda_X(x)$. The basis for the induction, $H_X(x) = 0$, i.e. when $x$ is a leaf, follows from Lemma 8.

We assume that load$(x)$ lazy zombies are sufficient to catch the survivor in time$(x)$ rounds when the survivor is restricted to $G[\Lambda_X(x)]$, where $H_X(x) = k$ for $k \geq 0$. We now proceed with the case when $H_X(x) = k + 1$. Let $c$ be the maximum load of a child of $x$, and $d$ be the maximum time for a child of $x$. We allocate lazy zombies $z_1, z_2, \ldots, z_c$ to the children of $x$. These lazy zombies are initially unassigned to any specific vertex but will be assigned to specific vertices depending on the survivor’s moves. Note that it is not necessarily the case that we need to use this many lazy zombies, but this number is always sufficient. We assign lazy zombies $z_{c+1}, z_{c+2}, \ldots, z_{c+|C_x|}$, each to a different vertex of $C_x$, respectively. Since load$(x) = |C_x| + c$, we have a sufficient number of lazy zombies.

The survivor may now encounter each vertex of $C_x$ at most ($diam(G) - 1$) times without immediately being caught in the next round, which again follows from the upper bound of $diam(G)$ edges on any shortest path between two vertices in $G$. Before the survivor’s first encounter with a vertex of $C_x$, or between successive visits of vertices in $C_x$, or after the last visit, the survivor is restricted to the vertices of the component of the subtree rooted at exactly one child $y$ of $x$. This follows from the fact that $C_x$ is a cut set for $G[\Lambda_X(x)]$. We apply the inductive hypothesis on $G[\Lambda_X(y)]$, since $H_X(y) \leq k$. By the inductive hypothesis, we know that the survivor is caught after time$(y)$ rounds if the survivor remains in $G[\Lambda_X(y)]$. Therefore, the survivor must leave $G[\Lambda_X(y)]$ after time$(y) - 1 \leq d - 1$ steps, otherwise it is caught.

Each time it enters one of these subtrees, we assign the lazy zombies $z_1, z_2, \ldots, z_c$ to (specific) vertices in that subtree’s component. Since $c$ is the maximum load of any child of $x$, we have a sufficient number of lazy zombies. By the inductive hypothesis, this number of lazy zombies suffices to either catch the survivor if the survivor remains in the component for $d$ steps or force the survivor out of the component of a child of $x$ and back into $C_x$ in at most $d - 1$ steps.

The survivor’s walk length is therefore at most $|C_x|(diam(G) - 1) + 1) + (d - 1)\times \leq d((|C_x|(diam(G) - 1) + 1) + 1)$. The first term is the number of rounds the survivor can spend in $C_x$ until it is caught. For the second term, we note that the survivor can enter $G[\Lambda_X(y)]$ where $y$ is a child of $x$ at most $|C_x|(diam(G) - 1) + 1$ times. Each time it enters $G[\Lambda_X(y)]$ it must return to a vertex in $C_x$ in $d - 1$ rounds, otherwise the survivor is caught on the $d$th round. Therefore, we have that the survivor is caught after $|C_x|(diam(G) - 1) + 1) + (d - 1)\times \leq d((|C_x|(diam(G) - 1) + 1) + 1) = time(x).

Among all cut decomposition trees realizing the load of $G$, we denote the value of the minimum height of such a tree by cdh$(G)$. Among all cut decomposition trees whose load is load$(G)$ and whose height is cdh$(G)$, we denote the value of the minimum width among all such trees by cdw$(G)$.

Corollary 10. Given a connected graph $G$, $u_L(G) \leq load(G)$ and load$(G)$ lazy zombies can catch the survivor in at most $(cdw(G)(diam(G) - 1) + 1)^{cdh(G) + 1}$ rounds.

Proof. We only present a proof sketch.

Let $X$ be a cut decomposition tree with root $r$, with load load$(G)$, with height cdh$(G)$ and with width cdw$(G)$. Theorem 9 implies that $u_L(G) \leq load(G)$. Using Theorem 9 and the recursive definition of time, we show by induction that time$(r)$ is at most $(cdw(G)(diam(G) - 1) + 1)^{cdh(G) + 1}$. 

▶
Recall that $td(G)$ denotes the treedepth of $G$.

\begin{theorem}
For any connected graph $G$, $\text{load}(G) = td(G)$
\end{theorem}

For $0 < \alpha < 1$, a cut set $S \subseteq V(G)$ of $G$ is an $\alpha$-separator if every connected component of $G[V(G) - S]$ contains at most $\alpha n$ vertices. The size of the $\alpha$-separator is the cardinality of $S$. We highlight the relationship between the sizes of separators, treedepth, and treewidth.

\begin{lemma}
Let $G$ be a graph. Let $s_G : \{1, \ldots, n\} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ be a function defined as
\[
s_G(i) = \max_{A \subseteq V(G), |A| \leq i} \min\{|S| : S \text{ is a } \frac{1}{2}\text{-separator of } G[A]\}.
\]
Then $s_G(n) \leq \text{load}(G) \leq td(G) \leq \sum_{i=0}^{\log n} s_G(n/2^i) \leq (tw(G) + 1) \log n$.
\end{lemma}

\begin{proof}
The inequality $s_G(n) \leq \text{load}(G) \leq td(G) \leq \sum_{i=0}^{\log n} s_G(n/2^i)$ is proven in Lemma 6.6 in [19]. Since it was shown by Robertson and Seymour [22] that $s_G(i) \leq tw(G) + 1$ for all $i \in [1, n]$, we have that $\sum_{i=0}^{\log n} s_G(n/2^i) \leq (tw(G) + 1) \log n$. The equality $\text{load}(G) = td(G)$ is proven in Theorem 11.
\end{proof}

$s_G(n)$ is sometimes called the separation number of $G$. The bound in Lemma 12 is tight in certain cases. For example, the treedepth of a path on $n$ vertices is 1 whereas the treewidth is $\Theta(\log n)$. However, for certain classes of graphs, we can remove the $\log n$ term on the upper bound in Lemma 12. Essentially, if $s_G(n/2^i) \leq cs_G(n)/2^i$ for some constant $c$, then $\sum_{i=0}^{\log n} s_G(n/2^i) \leq c s_G(n) \sum_{i=0}^{\log n} 1/2^i \leq 2 c s_G(n) \leq 2 c (tw(G) + 1)$. Thus, we have that $td(G)$ is $O(tw(G))$ in this case. Informally, this happens when the size of a separator for any subgraph of size $i$ is at most $i^c$, for $0 < c < 1$. This is summarized by the following:

\begin{corollary}[Corollary 6.2 in [19]]
Let $0 < \alpha < 1$, let $c > 0$ be a constant and let $\mathcal{G}$ be a hereditary class of graphs such that every $G \in \mathcal{G}$ with $n$ vertices has $tw(G) \leq cn^\alpha$, then every $G \in \mathcal{G}$ has $td(G) \leq \frac{1}{1+2c} n^\alpha$.
\end{corollary}

Treewidth, treedepth and separators are well-studied graph parameters. We highlight a few of the implications of our bound that $u_L(G) \leq td(G)$. The interested reader should consult the following comprehensive surveys on this topic [5, 19, 15, 12]. Using Corollary 13 with separator theorems on various classes of graphs [17, 14, 2], we get the following results.

\begin{corollary}
For connected planar graphs $G$, $u_L(G)$ is $O(\sqrt{n})$. For connected genus-$g$ graphs $G$, $u_L(G)$ is $O(\sqrt{g})$. For connected graphs $G$ with any excluded $h$-vertex minor $H$, $u_L(G)$ is $O(h/\sqrt{m})$. In all these cases, the lazy zombies can catch the survivor in at most $n^{O(\log n)}$ rounds.
\end{corollary}

Although $\text{load}(G)$ is an upper bound on $u_L(G)$, it is by no means tight. If $G$ is a clique, then $\text{load}(G) = n$, but only 1 lazy zombie suffices to catch a survivor. We try to leverage this idea to get a slightly tighter bound.

By assigning one lazy zombie to each clique in a container of the cut decomposition rather than one lazy zombie to each vertex in the container, we can improve the upper bound. This idea leads to an alternative definition of load for a cut decomposition which we call $\text{load}^*$.

In this definition, for $S \subseteq V(G)$, $\theta(S)$ is the clique cover number of the induced graph of $G$ on the vertices of $S$.

\[
\text{load}^*(v) = \begin{cases} 
\theta(C_v) & \text{if } v \text{ is a leaf,} \\
\theta(C_v) + \max_w \text{load}^*(w) & \text{otherwise, where } w \text{ is a child of } v.
\end{cases}
\]
If $C_v$ is an independent set then $\theta(C_v) = |C_v|$. Thus, without knowing more about the cuts, load$^*$ is no more useful than load. However, load$^*$ is a substantial improvement for some graphs. For example, if $G$ is a clique then load$^*(G) = 1$ which is optimal. The corresponding notion of time is

$$\text{time}^*(v) = \begin{cases} \theta(C_v) \text{diam}(G) + 1 & \text{if } v \text{ is a leaf,} \\ (\theta(C_v) \text{diam}(G) + 1) \max_w \text{time}^*(w) & \text{otherwise, where } w \text{ is a child of } v. \end{cases}$$

**Theorem 15.** Let $G$ be a connected graph with cut decomposition $(X, C)$. Suppose that $v$ is a vertex of $X$ and the survivor is restricted to the component of $v$. Then, load$^*(v)$ lazy zombies can capture the survivor in at most $\text{time}^*(v)$ rounds.

**Corollary 16.** Given a connected graph $G$, $u_L(G) \leq \text{load}^*(G) \leq \text{load}(G)$ and load$^*(G)$ lazy zombies can catch the survivor in at most $(\theta(G) \text{diam}(G) + 1)\text{cdh}(G)+1$ rounds.

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